

**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE OF UKRAINE  
O. M. BEKETOV NATIONAL UNIVERSITY  
of URBAN ECONOMY in KHARKIV**

Methodological guidelines  
for independent work  
on the subject

**“COURSE NOTES ON THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE”**

*(for 2d-year full-time and part-time students educational level “Bachelor” specialty  
035 – Philology)*

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## INTRODUCTION

*A **History of the English language** is a discipline, retracing the origins, the phonetic system, grammatical structure and vocabulary of the English language at different stages of its development. A History of the English Language **aims** to equip students with the skills, insights and appropriate theoretical approaches necessary to analyse and describe changes in the structure of the English language from the earliest written records to the present day.*

*A History of the English language is **based on** the History of England, investigating the development of the language in connection with the actual conditions in which the English people lived in the several periods of their history. The course has strong ties with theoretical phonetics, theoretical grammar, and lexicology. It shows phonetic, grammatical, and lexical phenomena as they developed, and states the origins of the present day system. The subject covers the history of the English language and the variation between English dialects in the United Kingdom and further afield.*

*The alterations within the language system are traced within the influence of **extralinguistic** factors (such as historic events, social fluctuations, wars, conquests, migrations, cultural contacts), and internal causes or **intralinguistic** reasons, responsible for the changes within the language itself, its phonetics, grammar, etc. The course covers all major historical events, which had an impact on English, starting with ancient Celtic language, Roman, French and until the creation of new forms of English, and includes a part dedicated to the English accents. The discipline will help to widen the students' outlook on history, geography and language. It teaches cultural awareness and helps to understand sophisticated layers of English grammar, vocabulary and spelling.*

*The historical development of the language is viewed both **synchronically** (the study of a language at a given point in time) and **diachronically** (the study of a language over a period of time).*

*The basic method is comparative-historical, which enables the researcher to study various phenomena of the language development from the point of view of evolution and in comparison with the phenomena of other languages.*

***By the end of the course** students should be able to:*

- *demonstrate a thorough understanding of diachronic changes in English from Old English to Present Day English, and the ability to situate those in their socio-political contexts;*
- *develop the linguistic skills required in close analysis of individual words and other texts;*
- *demonstrate a critical understanding of different and sometimes conflicting approaches to the study of the history of the English language;*
- *display the ability to use the primary and secondary sources provided and collected through independent reading as supportive documents in exploring evidence of language change and / or the ideology that has influenced the development of the English language.*

**Assessment Criteria.** *By the end of the course students should demonstrate:*

- *The ability to identify examples of linguistic change in semantics, lexis, phonology, syntax and orthographics.*
- *An understanding of how these linguistic changes might be related to historical context, particularly in terms of relevant socio-political factors.*
- *The ability to work independently, and critically evaluate the linguistic concepts and methodology covered on the course.*

## Lecture 1

### ‘WHERE DOES ENGLISH COME FROM?’ or THE DAWN OF BRITISH HISTORY

1. *What counts as English?*
2. *Who were the earliest men on the territory of the British Isles? What languages were spoken in the Ancient period of British History before the introduction of Old English? Where did English come from?*
3. *What are the main periods in the development of the English language?*
4. *What were the key historical events that shaped the history of English?*

Only a few centuries ago, the English language consisted of a collection of dialects spoken mainly by monolinguals and only within the shores of a small island. They differ from modern English in terms of its vocabulary, word meaning and spelling, pronunciation and grammar, as well as in the ways they were used. The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. The political and social events that have in the course of English history so profoundly affected the English people in their national life have generally had a recognizable effect on their language.

The history of the English language has traditionally been divided into **three main periods**:

*Table 1. The periods in the development of the English Language*

	<b>Historical Classification</b>	<b>Dates and Events</b>	<b>Linguistic Classification</b> (suggested by Henry Sweet)
0	<i>Ancient (pre-English) period</i>	<i>before the 5<sup>th</sup> century A.D.</i>  <i>Iberians (the prehistoric inhabitants of the British islands (pre-Celtic people)) (about 3000 years B.C.) ➡ Celts (700 B.C. - 43 A.D.) ➡ Romans (43A.D. - 409 A.D.) ➡ Romanized Celts (410 A.D.)</i>	_____
1	<b>Old English</b> (Anglo-Saxon) <b>period</b>	5 <sup>th</sup> -11 <sup>th</sup> centuries  1) In <b>449 AD</b> , Germanic tribes (The Angles, the Saxons and, the Jutes) raided the country and settled into the British Isles. 2) <b>The period of Heptarchy</b> , when 7 Germanic kingdoms were formed: Sussex, Wessex, Essex, East Anglia, Northumbria, Mercia and Kent. 3) <b>The end of the 6<sup>th</sup> century – 7<sup>th</sup> century</b> – the introduction of Christianity in Britain and foundation of monasteries in Northumbria, in northern England. The period	The period of full inflections

		<p>of Northumbrian religious and cultural efflorescence.</p> <p>4) <b>700 AD</b> – the oldest surviving text of Old English literature is Cædmon's Hymn, composed between 658 and 680.</p> <p>5) <b>8<sup>th</sup> -9<sup>th</sup> century</b> – Viking raids. Scandinavian invasion.</p> <p>6) <b>878</b> – Battle of Edington, in which Alfred triumphs over Vikings and agrees on areas of Scandinavian settlement, later known as ‘Danelaw’.</p> <p>7) From <b>890</b> – production of Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.</p> <p>8) <b>927</b> – Aethelstan unites the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy into the Kingdom of England.</p> <p>9) <b>10 August, 991</b> – Battle of Maldon: Danes defeat the English army. Payment of Danegeld.</p> <p>10) <b>1000</b> – the date of the Beowulf manuscript, the earliest major long poem in English</p> <p>11) <b>1016</b> – Cnut the Great of Denmark becomes the king of all England.</p> <p>12) <b>1043</b> – Edward the Confessor becomes the king of all England.</p>	
2	<p><b>Middle English period</b></p>	<p>11<sup>th</sup> -15<sup>th</sup> (1066-1475)</p> <p>1) <b>5 January, 1066</b> – the death of Edward the Confessor, the last Anglo-Saxon king of England.</p> <p>2) <b>14 October, 1066</b> – the Battle of Hastings between the coalition of northern French forces and the joint English forces. The Norman Conquest. English emigration to Scotland, Ireland, or Scandinavia.</p> <p>3) <b>The introduction of Anglo-Norman</b>, as the language of the ruling classes in England, displacing Old English.</p> <p>4) <b>1362-</b> The Parliament is addressed for the first time in English, but the records are still kept in French.</p> <p>5) <b>1384</b> – John Wycliffe’s translation of the Bible completed. It was copied in manuscript and read by many people all over the country. Written in the London dialect, it played an important role in spreading this form of English.</p>	<p>The period of leveled inflections</p>

		<p>6) <b>1387-1400</b> – The Canterbury Tales by Geoffrey Chaucer, a collection of 24 stories that runs to over 17,000 lines written in Middle English. Chaucer’s literary language, based on the mixed (largely East Midland) London dialect, and known as classical ME, in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 16<sup>th</sup> c. becomes the basis of the national literary English language.</p> <p>7) <b>1475</b> – Printing of <i>The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye</i> by William Caxton (his own translation of the account of the Trojan legends) in Bruges – the first book to be printed in English.</p>	
3	<b>New English period</b>	<p>is traditionally divided into:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Early New English period (1476-1660), known as Shakespeare’s English;</li> <li>- Normalization period – 1660-1800 (Age of Correctness, Neo-classical period);</li> <li>- Late New English, or Modern English period (1800 – Present-day English since 1945).</li> </ul> <p>1) <b>1476</b> – Caxton returns to England and sets up the first printing shop in the country near Westminster Cathedral. From here he issued over a hundred books between 1476 and 1492, the year of his death.</p> <p>2) <b>1558-1603</b> – Elizabethan era, the golden age in English history. Colonizing the New World.</p> <p>3) <b>1564</b> – The birth of William Shakespeare.</p> <p>4) <b>1616</b> – The death of Shakespeare.</p> <p>5) <b>15 April, 1755</b> – Samuel Johnson published his <i>A Dictionary of the English Language</i>.</p> <p>6) <b>1880</b> – The Elementary Education Act was passed, making primary schooling compulsory and extending it to girls.</p> <p>7) <b>1896</b> – The <i>Daily Mail</i>, the British national daily newspaper, was first published.</p>	The period of lost inflections

Before any older forms of English have been uttered on the territory of the British Isles, they became a home to settlers, who had little to do with what we now call ‘English’. *The Ancient or Pre-English period* was shared by three main non-English-speaking forces: the Iberians, the Celts and the Romans.



The Iberians were the people, whose descendants are still found in the north of Spain (the Iberian Peninsula). They lived during the Bronze Age and the Iron Age. Among the remnants of their presence on the British Isles is the Stonehenge in the south of England, on Salisbury plain.

Soon after 700 B.C. the first wave of Celtic invaders took place. They came from the Upper Rhineland. In Britain the first Celtic invaders were the Gaels. Two centuries later came the Brythons (500 B.C.) These people were Celts with extensive knowledge of the use of iron, and they drove their kinsmen out of the South and East into Wales, Scotland, Ireland and the hilly Pennine and Devon areas. A third wave of invaders consisted of the Belgae from Northern Gaul. They arrived about 100 B.C. and occupied the South-East of Britain. The Belgae kept up a close relation with Gaul and regular trade developed; the earliest native coined money appeared.

The Celtic invasion had a broad linguistic influence that can be traced nowadays. The names of some English towns were taken over from the Celts, for example name 'Dublin' derives from Celtic 'black (dark) pool'. Rivers often have Celtic names: Avon and Ouse (Yorkshire) are Celtic words for 'water' and 'stream'; Derwent, Darent, and Dart are all forms of the British name for 'oak river'; the Thames is the 'dark river'; while Trent apparently means 'trespasser', that is a river liable to flooding. Among country names, Kent and Devon are Celtic, and so are the first elements in Cornwall and Cumberland: the latter means 'the land of the Cymry (that is the Welsh)', and testifies to the long continuance of Celtic power in the North-West. In Britain the Celtic language survived to the present in Wales, Scotland and Ireland.

Due to the trade relationship of Britain and Gaul, Caesar learned about the British Isles. When he conquered Gaul, he heard stories of an island rich in pearls and corn. The first of Caesar's invasions was made in the summer of 55 B.C. with two legions and a body of cavalry, making about 10,000 men in total. The opposition was too strong, and in the following year an army of about 25,000 landed on the island. They crossed the Thames and stormed the capital Cassivellaunus. Following this, Caesar departed. The real conquest of Britain began about 90 years later in 43 A.D. under Emperor Claudius. Britain in Roman period was divided into two parts: the civil or lowland district and the upland or military district. The latter included Wales, territories to the north of York and west of Chester of the Peak, all the way up to the Roman Wall, known also as Hadrian's Wall. This wall was heavily garrisoned and it separated Roman Britain from unconquered areas. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted nearly 400 years and resulted in adoption of Latin vocabulary, which modified over the years (*strata* – *street*; *caster*, *chester* – *castle*: *Lancaster*, *Machester*, *Cloucestor*; *portus* – *port*; *Londinium* – *London*). The other words, borrowed before the Anglo-Saxon invasion, were: *wine*, *pepper*, *cheese*, *pea*, *plant*, *beet*, *dish*, *silk*, *copper*. They were the Romans who brought the first elements of Christianity to the Isles. Roman control of Britain came to an end as the Empire began to collapse and in 409 the Emperor Honorius was obliged to withdraw his soldiers to defend Rome against Barbarian raiders. The Romano-British, the Romanised Celts, (who were

Celtic Christians) were left alone to fight the Scots, the Irish and Saxon raiders coming from Germany. **And the history the English language began.**

*Old English* (Ænglisc, Anglisc, Englisc, pronounced [ˈæŋlɪʃ]), or Anglo-Saxon, is the earliest historical form of the English language, spoken in England and southern and eastern Scotland between the 5<sup>th</sup> and the 12<sup>th</sup> centuries. Old English developed from a set of Anglo-Frisian or Ingvaenic dialects originally spoken by Germanic tribes traditionally known as the Angles, Saxons and Jutes.

During the three or four centuries after Tacitus wrote “Germania”, the Germanic people were in a state of a flux and movement. In 449 AD, Germanic tribes crossed the English Channel and raided the country destroying the Roman British towns.

*Table 2. The invasion of Germanic tribes to the territory of the British Isles*



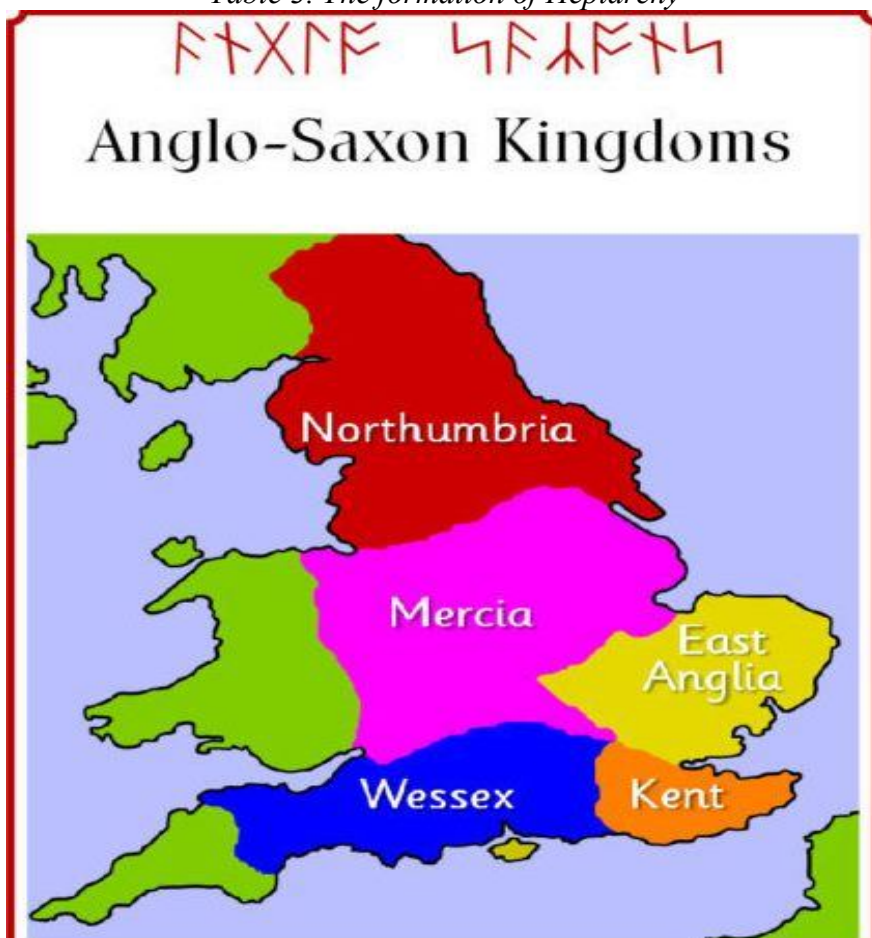
The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain must not be thought of as the arrival and penetration of a unified invading army, but rather as the arrival and penetration of various unco-ordinated bands of adventurers in different parts of the country, beginning in the middle of the fifth century and going all through the sixth. The struggle with the Romano-Celtic population was a long one, and Anglo-Saxon domination in England was not assured until late in the sixth century. We know little about this struggle: it was the age of King Arthur, and there are more legends than hard facts. But by about 700, the Anglo-Saxons had occupied most of England (the exceptions being Cornwall and an area in the North-West) and also a considerable part of southern Scotland. Wales remained a British stronghold.

Due to the fact that Celts (especially the Picts) painted themselves blue using a dye from the plant *isatis tinctoria* (woad), the coming Germanic tribes called them *prytain*, which means ‘pained’, from which the names ‘Britain’ and ‘British’ may derive.

The Anglo-Saxon invasion was not just the arrival of a ruling minority, but the settlement of a whole people. Their language remained the dominant one. In comparison with the dominant Germanic vocabulary the Celtic words in Old English were merely a drop in the ocean. Even in English place-names, where Celtic left its biggest mark, Celtic forms are far outnumbered by English ones, and only in areas where the Anglo-Saxons penetrated late are Celtic names at all common for villages.

The piecemeal way in which the Anglo-Saxons conquered England led to a profusion of small kingdoms and dialect differentiation. In any case there were probably dialect differences from the start, for the invaders came from more than one Germanic tribe. By the 7<sup>th</sup> century seven Germanic kingdoms were formed: *Saxons*: Wessex, Essex, Sussex; *Angles*: East Anglia, Northumbria, Mercia; *Jutes*: Kent.

Table 3. The formation of Heptarchy



Traditionally we isolate five major dialects of that time: Northern, Midland, East Anglian, South-Eastern, South-Western. The Northern dialect area of Middle English extends from the middle of Yorkshire to Scotland. The Midlands area, which extends from London to Gloucestershire, is traditionally split into East Midlands and West Midlands. East Anglian is posited as a separate dialect area, as a number of texts display markedly different forms from those found in East Midlands dialects. The South-Eastern dialects cover an area that is closely related to the extent of Kentish in the Old English period, while the South-Western dialect area correlates with the OE West Saxon region, and dialectologists occasionally also separate out a Middle South dialect area.

Table 4. Approximate dialect areas



It was West Saxon that formed the basis for the literary standard of the later Old English period, although the dominant forms of Middle and Modern English would develop mainly from Mercian. Thus, West-Saxon literature is the ancestor of nearly all English literature, but West-Saxon language is not the forefather of Modern English, which descended from Mercian rather than West Saxon.

The Heptarchy lasted from the end of Roman rule in Britain in the 5<sup>th</sup> century, until most of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms came under the overlordship of Egbert of Wessex in 829. There were long years of pre-written functioning of language. There was struggle for supremacy. As the result, Wessex became the strongest kingdom, and its capital Winchester became the first capital of England. That's why all the documents of the 9th – 11th centuries were written in the Wessex dialect. However, the oldest known English manuscript was created in the Northumbrian dialect and dates back to the year 700 AD.

Although the people of the Germanic tribes were mostly illiterate, some of the Germanic nations had their own mode of writing, with a distinctive alphabet called runic, each letter of which was called a rune. We know that runes were used to record early stages of Gothic, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, English etc. On archeological grounds the earliest runes are dated to the second century. The early runes were not written, runic script was designed for inscribing, at first on wood, which explained in many of its characteristics. Letters were made up of vertical strokes, cut at right angles to the grain. The earliest known runic alphabet had twenty-four letters arranged in a peculiar order. Even the earliest examples of the script show there were variations in some letter forms, so it is not possible to give a standard pattern for the Germanic runic alphabet. We don't know where and when runes were invented.

The word rune comes from the Old Norse word *rún* (secret, runic letter), from the Proto-Norse  $\mathbb{R}\mathbb{N}\mathbb{t}\mathbb{X}$  *runo* (secret, mystery, rune). Runes were used for many centuries and in many lands, gradually changing in their passage through time and space. In England the script died out, superseded by Roman, somewhere in the 11<sup>th</sup> century; in Germany and Low Countries – rather sooner. In Scandinavia and its colonies runes continued well into the Middle Ages.

Elder Futhark (the runic alphabet) is thought to be the oldest version of the runic alphabet, and was used in the parts of Europe which were home to Germanic peoples, including Scandinavia. Other versions probably developed from it. The names of the letters are shown in Common Germanic, the reconstructed ancestor of all Germanic languages.

							
f	u	þ	a	r	k	g	w
fehu	ūruz	purisaz	ansuz	raipō	kaunaz	gebō	wunjō
wealth	aurochs	giant	god	riding	ulcer	gift	joy
							
h	n	i	j	ĩ	p	z	s
hagalaz	naupiz	isa	jera	eihwaz	perþ	algiz	sōwulō
hail	need/hardship	ice	year/harvest	yew tree	luck	sedge (?)	sun
							
t	b	e	m	l	ng	d	o
teiwaz	berkana	ehwaz	mannaz	laguz	inguz	ḏagaz	ōpila
the god Tyr	birch twig	horse	man	water	the god Ing	day	inherited land

At the end of the 6<sup>th</sup> century, a monk, Augustine, was sent by Pope Gregory I (590-604) to bring Christianity to England. The arrival of St. Augustine in 597 and the introduction of Christianity into Saxon England brought more Latin words into the English language. They were mostly concerned with the naming of Church dignitaries, ceremonies, etc. Some, such as *church*, *bishop*, *baptism*, *monk*, *eucharist* and *presbyter* came indirectly through Latin from the Greek. St. Augustine became the first Archbishop of Canterbury, the capital of Kent. But it was the Celtic Church that brought Christianity to the common people of Britain. Monasteries became important centers of learning. The Latin alphabet spread among Germanic tribes alongside their conversion into Christianity. The first, and greatest, Anglo-Saxon historian was Bede (673-735), a monk in the new monastery at Jarrow in Northumberland, in his most famous work, written in Latin, “*Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation*”, tells that the island of Britain ‘contains five nations, the English, the Britons, Scots, Picts and Latin, each in its own peculiar dialect cultivating the sublime study of Divine truth’.

The very first Germanic words written in the Latin script were place names and proper names. Later appeared glosses in manuscripts and with the spread of Christianity the Latin alphabet came to be used for writing in Germanic languages. The first written records in the Latin script appear from VII – IX centuries in the West Germanic languages, while the North Germanic language start using Latin for

their writings from XII – XIII centuries as a result of later Christianization of Scandinavian countries.

Later Latin alphabet was adjusted to the needs of sound systems of different Germanic languages and new letters appeared to render specifically Germanic sounds foreign for the Latin language. Some letters were introduced from the runic script. These include the following:

Table 5. The adopted runic letters, which travelled into new alphabet

Letter (upper case, lower case)	Name	Sound represented
<Æ>, <æ>	ash	[æ]: this is the sound in pronunciation of <i>daddy</i> ; the letter <a> was reserved for the sound [a] or [ɑ:].
<Ð>, <ð>	eth (or edh)	[θ] and [ð] ([θ] is the sound in <i>Arthur</i> ; and [ð] is the sound in <i>other</i> .)
<Þ>, <þ>	thorn	[θ] and [ð] – since the sounds represented by <i>eth</i> and <i>thorn</i> are the same, the symbols are theoretically interchangeable
<ƿ>, <ƿ>	wyn or wynn	[w] as in <i>wet</i>
<ȝ>	yogh	[g] or [j] or [x] or [ɣ] depending on where the letter is found. ([g] is the first sound in <i>get</i> , [j] is the first sound in <i>yet</i> ; [x] and [ɣ] are not used in English today, but can be heard in the Scottish pronunciation of <i>loch</i> .)

Certain letters were, on the other hand, hardly ever used because there were already other letters available.

Table 6. Latin letteres that didn't enter English alphabet in OE period

Letter	Reason for lack of use in earlier OE
<k>	<c> was already available for the [k] sound; <i>king</i> was, for example, <i>cyning</i> in OE.
<q>	the [kw] sound was represented by <cw>; <i>queen</i> was, for example, <i>cwene</i> in OE.
<v>	<f> was used instead. The [f] and [v] sounds were <b>allophonic</b> ; in other words, the [f] and [v] distinction was never used to distinguish words. Which sound you used depended on where the letter <f> occurred in the word. For example, <i>knave</i> was <i>cnafa</i> or <i>cnafe</i> in OE. Think also of the word <i>of</i> , which is often pronounced [əv] or [ɒv].
<z>	<s> was used instead. The [s] and [z] sounds were <b>allophonic</b> ; in other words, the [s] and [z] distinction was never used to distinguish words. Which sound you used depended on where the letter <s> occurred in the word. For example, <i>size</i> was <i>syse</i> or <i>sise</i> in OE. Today we still have some words where <s> (not in the beginning of a word) where the pronunciation is [z] like <i>rise</i> , <i>houses</i> , <i>has</i> , <i>is</i> .
<g>	<ȝ> was used instead.
<j>	this letter developed from the letter <i> much later.

Depending on the size and shape of the letters modern philologists distinguish between several scripts which superseded one another throughout the development of the Latin alphabet. One of the ancient varieties of the alphabet is *scriptura capitalis* – capital letters. Some capital letters of the Latin alphabet developed from this variety. From *scriptura capitalis* in the III – IV centuries appeared the so-called *scriptura*



*uncialis*, the origin of several small letters of the alphabet. The variety of the Latin alphabet, used by the Germanic tribes, was the variety of the Latin alphabet *scriptura minusculis* – the Minuscule script, from which originated small letters of the Latin alphabet.

Near the end of the Old English period English underwent a third foreign influence. In the 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> century new enemies arrived from overseas: the Vikings, who came from Norway and Denmark. The Scandinavian colonization of the British Isles, which started around 750 AD, had a considerable effect on the English language and vocabulary, as well as culture.

The early Viking raids were carried out by Norwegians. In the course of the 9<sup>th</sup> century the Danes joined in, beginning with a series of attacks on the east coast of England in 835. With the Danes the first historical Viking figures of the invasion come to the fore with the sons of Ragnar Lothbrok who were responsible for the razing of Sheppey in Kent to the ground. By the mid 9<sup>th</sup> they gained a firm foothold on Kent and East Anglia. The resistance to the Danes in the beginning was disorganized and, given the ease of the conquest, they decided to settle permanently in England. This was the first step in the establishment of the so-called Danelaw which was the area in eastern and north-eastern England of the time which was under Danish rule. The Danes were never to leave England entirely. Military incursions into England which were started from Denmark were stopped but those Danes remained in England were finally assimilated into the English population.

Military resistance to the Danes is personified by King Alfred the Great. He was born in Wantage in 849 and by 871 had begun to engage himself in the war against the Danes. For fifteen years (871-886) Alfred waged war against the intruders and succeeded in maintaining Wessex free from Viking influence. The ups and downs of the military struggle with the Danes are described in detail in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, particularly in the section known as the Parker Manuscript, named after a bishop in whose possession the manuscript was for some time. In the years 886 to 892 Alfred was able to devote his energies to non-military matters, chiefly to educational reform and cultural matters in general, such as the translation of religious works. In 892 the Danes took on Alfred once more (after several decades of plundering in northern France). The later, however, succeeded in defending Wessex and English Mercia and in 896 the Danes (consisting of both the Norman and the East Anglia Danes) reconciled themselves to being confined to the Danelaw. Some of them returned to France and others settled down eventually. Three years later, in 899, Alfred, the greatest of Anglo-Saxon kings, died.

Scandinavian invasion activated changes in vocabulary. From 600 to 900 words were borrowed. Hundreds of Scandinavian place-names can still be found in the British Isles with typical Scandinavian elements such as *-by, -ness, -thorp*: Whitby, Grimsby, Formby.

The words of Scandinavian origin are:

1) the nouns: *bank, birth, booth, egg, husband, law, leg, root, score, sister, skin, trust, wing, window* + all the words that start with *sk*;

2) the adjectives: *awkward, flat, happy, ill, loose, low, odd, sly, ugly, weak, wrong*;

3) the verbs: *to cast, clip, crawl, cut, die, drown, gasp, give, lift, nag, scare, sprint, take, want*;

4) the pronouns: *both, same, they, them, their*.

A few examples of later borrowings from the Scandinavian languages are *ffjord, saga, ski, slalom, smorgasbord* and *Viking*.

Although, being both Germanic languages, Scandinavian and English were linguistically similar; 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.

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### **The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) The nature and usage of runes.
- 2) The Roman alphabet and the Insular Script.
- 3) Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*.
- 4) Old English (OE) period. Heptarchy. OE dialects. OE manuscripts.
- 5) Caedmon and Cynewulf.
- 6) Kennings in OE.
- 7) The epic of *Beowulf* and the eighth-century values.
- 8) The roles of women in Anglo-Saxon society.
- 9) *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles* and Bede's narration: style, degree of detail, use of dialogue; use of poetry, formulaic phrasing, metaphors, rhetorical devices.
- 10) *The Battle of Brunanburh* and *The Battle of Maldon*.

## **Lecture 2**

### **THE PHILOLOGICAL CONTEXT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

1. *What is 'family-tree theory'?*
2. *What are the main discrepancies between Indo-European and Proto-Germanic languages? What linguistic processes are responsible for them?*
3. *The nature of Grimm's and Verner's Laws.*
4. *The peculiarities of Old English system of sounds and spelling.*

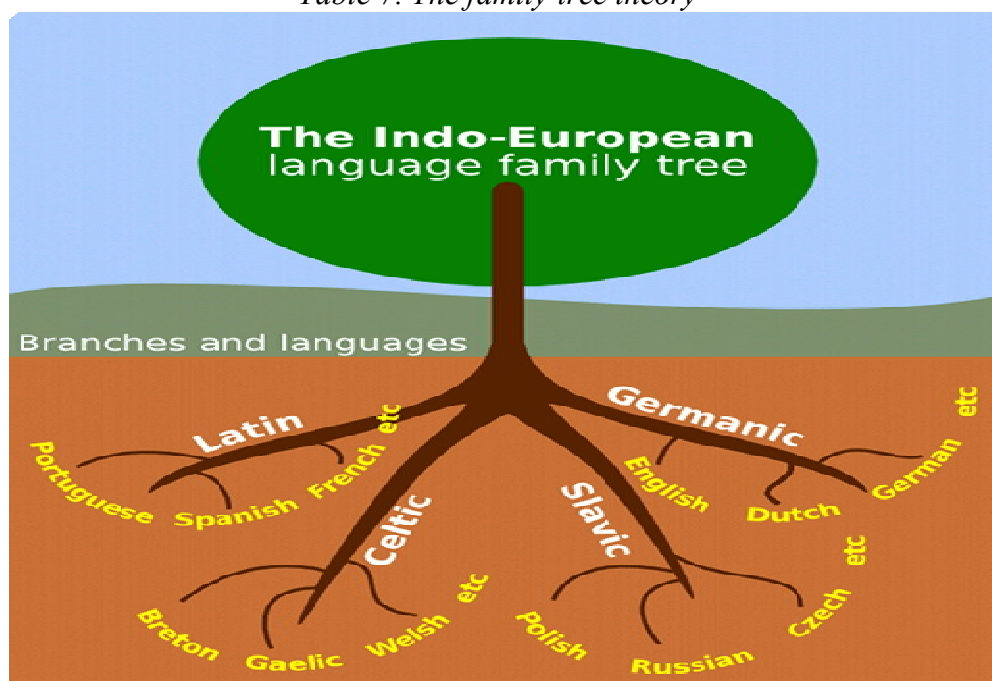
The 'English' language, which, strictly, began with the fifth-century arrival in Britain of the Angles and other Germanic tribes, necessarily, had behind it traditions coeval with those of the human race.

The often-posed question whether all the languages ever spoken have stemmed from a single common source remains unanswerable, because by comparison with the age of the human race the oldest surviving records are absurdly young (Hittite inscriptions offer specimens of a language used c. 1500 BC). In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, the Golden Age of Comparative Linguistics, the linguistic relationships got their embodiment in Schleicher's genealogical tree theory: the supposed original language, symbolized by a tree-trunk, was imagined as splitting into two main branches, one of



which in its turn split into Germanic and Balto-Slavonic and the other into Indo-Iranian and Greco-Italic, and so on.

Table 7. The family-tree theory



English belongs to Indo-European language-group. The term ‘Indo-European’ has two aspects. First, it denotes more or less undifferentiated language, ‘Primitive Indo-European’ (PIE), postulated as a common ‘ancestor’ of a great many present-day languages as Russian, Norwegian, Greek, French, English, Welsh and so on. Secondly, the term ‘Indo-European’ can be used to describe any of all the languages concerned at any stage throughout the history. The following list classifies the main languages of this ‘family’:

- 1) Hettite: recorded c. 1500 BC; no corresponding present-day languages have been identified;
- 2) Indo-Iranian: its oldest surviving records (Vedic Sanskrit) represent forms current c. 1000 BC; corresponding modern languages include some used in the Indian sub-continent and, for the Iranian branch, Persian, Kurdish and Ossetic.
- 3) Greek: recorded from c. 1400 onwards; represented by Modern Greek;
- 4) Italic: except for the inscriptions, Latin is hardly attested until c. 240 BC; its present-day representatives are Romance languages (Rumanian, the Rhaeto-Romanic dialects, Italian, French, Calatan, Spanish and Portuguese);
- 5) Slavonic: recorded from the 9<sup>th</sup> century AD; among its modern representatives three sub-groups are to be distinguished, Eastern (Russia), Southern (Macedonian, Bulgarian, Serbo-Croat and Slovenian) and Western (Polish and Czech);
- 6) Baltic: consisting of Old Prussian, not recorded until the 15<sup>th</sup> century AD and now lost, and of Lithuanian and Lettish, neither of which possesses records from before the 16<sup>th</sup> century.
- 7) Celtic: Gaelic or ‘*q*-Celtic’ (Irish and Scottish Gaelic, and probably Manx) must be distinguished from ‘*p*-Celtic’ or Brittonic (also known as Brittonic, and comprising Gaulish and Cornish, both extinct, as well as Welsh and Breton, the

latter being derived not from Gaulish, which had died out by about the 5<sup>th</sup> century AD and Irish in 7<sup>th</sup>-century glosses;

8) Germanic: three sub-groups must be distinguished:

*East*: represented only by the Gothic of Bishop Ulfilas's 4<sup>th</sup>-century translation of the Gospels;

*North*: first recorded in runic inscriptions dating from the 3d century AD and found copiously in literary texts from the 12<sup>th</sup> century onwards; represented by the modern Scandinavian languages (Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Icelandic);

*West*: consisting of: Old High German (OHG), first recorded in the 8<sup>th</sup> century and related to Modern German; Old Low German, first recorded in the 9<sup>th</sup> century and related to Modern Dutch, Frisian and Flemish; and English, of which records begin in the early 8<sup>th</sup> century.

According to the long-established classification, Germanic belongs to the *centrum*-languages, spoken chiefly in western parts of the main IE area and including Italic, Greek and Celtic groups; these contrast with the *satem*-languages spoken in some eastern areas and including the Balto-Slavonic and Indo-Iranian groups.

Thus, English is the descendant of Proto-Indo European. Or more accurately, Proto-Indo European *became* English. However, it was not a direct shift, and English has hundreds of related languages. Proto Indo European split into distinct dialects. One of which became the Proto-Germanic language in Northern Europe, specifically the area between Southern Scandinavia and what is today Northern Germany. Proto-Germanic then split into East Germanic, West Germanic, and a North Germanic.

West Germanic then split into more branches. One of these branches was the Anglo-Frisian branch, which includes the Frisian and Anglic languages. This branch came to Britain by way of the Anglo-Saxon settlers during the Migration period in the early middle ages, just as the Roman Empire was beginning to fall.

Table 8. The earliest recorded Germanic languages:

	Approximate dates CE
early runic	200–600
Gothic	350
Old English (Anglo-Saxon)	700–1050
Old High German	750–1050
Old Saxon (Old Low German)	850–1050
Old Norwegian	1150–1450
Old Icelandic	1150–1500
Middle Netherlandic	1170-1500
Old Danish	1250–1500
Old Swedish	1250-1500
Old Frisian	1300–1500

The earliest runic inscriptions found in England date back from the early 5<sup>th</sup> century. They were discovered in the cremation urn in a cemetery at the former Roman town of Castor-by-Norwich, Norfolk. The runes were written on a roe deer's ankle bone (astragalus). The object now is in the Castle Museum in Norwich.

The earliest clear example of several words in Old English were found on a gold medallion (or bracteate), discovered at Undley in Suffolk in 1982. It bears a

longer runic inscription, and has been dated AD 450-80. The bracteate is 2.3 cm (0.9 in) in diameter and weighs 2.24 grams (0.08 oz). The image above of the helmeted heads shows a she-wolf sucking two children, presumably Romulus and Remus. These runes are Anglo-Frisian, suggesting that bracteate was brought to East Anglia by a settler from the region to the south of Scandinavia.

The next manuscript of paramount importance was *Vespasian Psalter* (c. 750). This illuminated book of the psalms from the Latin Vulgate version of the Old Testament of the Bible was produced around 750-75, probably in Canterbury, Kent. The text is significant in the history of English as it contains an interlinear gloss in Old English, in a tiny pointed minuscule style. The gloss, added sometime in the 9<sup>th</sup> century, forms the oldest extant English translation of any part of the Bible.

In 1867 Augustus Franks, Keeper of British and Medieval Antiquities at the British Museum, presented the museum with a whalebone casket that he had purchased in Paris a decade before. It was complete apart from its right side, which was discovered in Italy some years later, and from which a cast (now in the British Museum) was made. The casket is 22.9 cm long, 19 cm wide and 10.9 cm high, and of Northumbrian origin. It has been dated to the first half of the 8<sup>th</sup> century, and displays scenes from Roman Jewish, Christian and Germanic traditions. However, its linguistic interest lies in the accompanying text in Old English and Latin (in runic and Roman alphabet respectively). The two lines on the front panel are the oldest known piece of Anglo-Saxon poetry.

The Will of King Alfred (849-99) was written in the West Saxon dialect, which provided the standard for Old English literature in the 10<sup>th</sup> and 11<sup>th</sup> centuries. After a preamble in which the king describes the political background to his possessions, Alfred begins to name his beneficiaries, beginning with his children – sons first, then daughters (the respected position of women in Anglo-Saxon society allowed them to have property rights and to inherit). He then moves on to other relatives, followers, clergy and the poor, including a bequest to the cathedral at Winchester, the West Saxon capital. The locations mentioned range across the south of England, from Cornwall to Sussex. Many place names in England receive their first mention in his document.

The greatest literary achievement to have survived from Anglo-Saxon times is *Beowulf*, the longest epic poem in Old English (3,182 lines). The manuscript dates from around AD 1000, copied from the original by two scribes. Its authorship is unknown; it may have been a composite work. Nor is its date of composition certain, with some proposals finding its origin as early as the 8<sup>th</sup> century and others arguing for a later, eleven-century date. The manuscript was damaged by fire in 1731, hence the unusual appearance of its opening page which is darkened.

The *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* was originally compiled on the orders of Alfred the Great around 890. The first attempt to give a systematic year-by-year account of English history, it was later maintained, and added to, by generations of anonymous scribes until the middle of the 12<sup>th</sup> century. There are 9 surviving manuscripts, containing a variety of material that in total comes close 100,000 words. *The Chronicle* includes: 73-line poem about the battle of Brunanburh (10<sup>th</sup> century), in

which the Saxon king Athelstan defeated a combined army of Scots and Vikings; “Worcester Chronicle” and many others.

A *Liber Vitae* (‘Book of Life’), 1031, was a book in which a monastery or convent listed the names of its members, friends and associates, believing that the names inscribed in its earthly book would also appear in the heavenly book opened on the day of Judgment. The pages yield a great deal of information other than the names. A cross beside a name, for example, indicates a priest, while *coniunx* identifies a husband or wife. There is a big social difference between the position of classically Anglo-Saxon names and all names associated with a new post-Conquest Norman social elite, reflecting the cultural shift that was beginning to distance England from its Germanic past.

The other manuscripts displaying both historical and linguistic changes after the Norman invasion were: *Kentish Homilies* (1150); *Orrmulum* (c.1200); lyrics ‘*Sumer is icumen in*’ (1225-50); *Polychronicon* (1387), translated into English by John of Trevisa, the vicar of Berkeley, Gloucestershire; *Sir Gawayne and the Grene Knight* (14<sup>th</sup> century); *The Regiment of Princes* (1412) by Thomas Hoccleve; Letters of Henry V (15<sup>th</sup> century) to the regent of England, Duke of Bedford, dealing with political appointments and other domestic business issues. Written in English, they were also of linguistic significance. Latin and French were the long established languages of English officialdom, but Henry, the staunchest supporter of all things English, chose to depart from tradition.

### ***Chief characteristics of the Germanic Language***

The barbarian tribes – Goths, Vandals, Lombards, Franks, Frisians, Teutons, Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Scandinavians – lived on the fringes of the Roman Empire. All these spoke Germanic languages, which had distinctive characteristics of structure and pronunciation reflected in its descendants.

*Table 9. The major changes from Indo-European to Proto-Germanic*

INDO-EUROPEAN (IE)	PROTO-GERMANIC (PG)
<b>Accentuation</b>	
<u>free</u> stress (movable, i.e. can appear in any part of a word (root, prefix, suffix)); <u>pitch</u> stress (musical)	<u>fixed</u> stress (can’t move either in form- or word-building and is usually placed on root or prefix); <u>dynamic</u> stress (force, breath stress)
<b>Morphology</b>	
More complex verbal system: <i>three</i> tense forms existed (Present, Past / Preterite and Future)	Somewhat simplified verbal system: <i>two three</i> tense forms existed (Present and Past / Preterite)
The <i>verbs</i> conjugated as <i>one</i> group and formed their Past / Preterite and Past Participle with the help of <i>vowel gradation</i> (the change of the root vowel)	The <i>verbs</i> conjugated according to <i>two</i> different patterns: to form their Past and Past Participle some of them used <i>vowel gradation</i> pattern (so-called <i>strong verbs</i> ), other verbs (the weak ones) added a <i>dental suffix</i> to their stem.
<i>Adjectives</i> declined the same, as <i>one</i> group	<i>Adjectives</i> declined in two different ways, thus forming <i>two</i> different groups: <i>weak (definite)</i> and <i>strong (indefinite)</i>

## Vocabulary

Indo-European vocabulary	Proto-Germanic was represented by two layers: - IE words; - PG words (newly-formed or borrowed)
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*Table 10. Some Words of Common Origin from the IE Languages*

Sanskrit	Hittite	Greek	Latin	English	Old Irish	Lithuanian
Mam	ammuk	eme	Me	me	-	Mane
Pitar	-	pater	Pater	father	athair	-
Matar	-	mater	Mater	mother	mathair	Motina
bhratar	-	-	Frater	brother	brathair	Brolis
Svasar	-	-	Soror	sister	siur	Seser
duhitar	-	thugater-	-	daughter	-	Dukter
Sunus	-	huios	-	son	-	Sunus
Daru	taru	doru	-	tree	daur (oak)	drevo
Pad	pat(a)	pod-	ped-	foot	-	-
Navas	newas	ne(w)os	Novus	new	nue	Naujas
Na	-	-	Ne	not	ni	Ne
Asti	estsi	esti	Est	is	is	Esti

Thus, the basic IE vocabulary was presented by: *kinship* terms (father, mother); terms for *natural phenomena* (sun, moon); *body parts* (head); *numerals* (two, three); grammatical categories as interrogative and negative forms.

At the same time PG has a large number of words, which have no place in IE: *animals* (bear, bull, boar, carp, chicken, dog / hound, dove, horse, lamb, lark, sheep, ram, stork, toad / paddock); *plants* (berry, leek, oak, oat, reed, weed); *body parts* (back, body, bone, brain, cheek, finger, leg, liver, neck, shoulder, skull, toe, womb); *adjectives and adverbs* (broad, dear, dim, gray / grey, idle, narrow, shy); *title, status, occupation* (bride, child, king, knight, wife); *constructions, transport, material, weapon* (bow, gate, house, lane, path, roof, sail, sea, ship, shoe, silver, steel, tin, weapon); *miscellaneous* (bacon, buy, begin, dream, drink, drive, dwarf, flee, ground,

ice, leap, luck, mood, race, shake, soul, start, steal, steam, swell, swallow, thing, top, trend, wonder).

The Germanic languages modified the Proto-Indo-European accentual system in two ways. First, musical pitch was replaced by stress, that is, increased flow of breath and force of articulation, still accompanied by some rise of tone. This change greatly affected both length and quality of vowels, because stress tends to preserve long vowels and lengthen short ones, whereas its absence tends to shorten long vowels and blur the timbre of short ones. Secondly, the Germanic accent became fixed on root-syllables, normally the initial one of each word. A dissyllabic word usually therefore consisted of a stressed root plus an unstressed element; but in a polysyllabic one the gradually-fading articulatory force might give a medial syllable enough stress to prevent total loss of distinctive timbre. This shift of stress is believed to be under lying course of major change in English from *synthetic* to an *analytical* language. Thus, the main phonetic tendency in Germanic languages is the change of character and place of IE accentuation. There appeared phonological homonyms.

The shift from a mobile pitch-accent to a fixed stress is hard to date precisely as well as the First Consonant Shift, otherwise known as **Grimm's Law**. The First Consonant Shift can be broken down into three parts that all show changes that occurred when the Germanic languages broke away from Proto-Indo-European. The phases are usually constructed as follows:

1. Proto-Indo-European voiceless stops change into voiceless fricatives.
2. Proto-Indo-European voiced stops become voiceless stops.
3. Proto-Indo-European voiced aspirated stops become voiced stops or fricatives (as allophones).

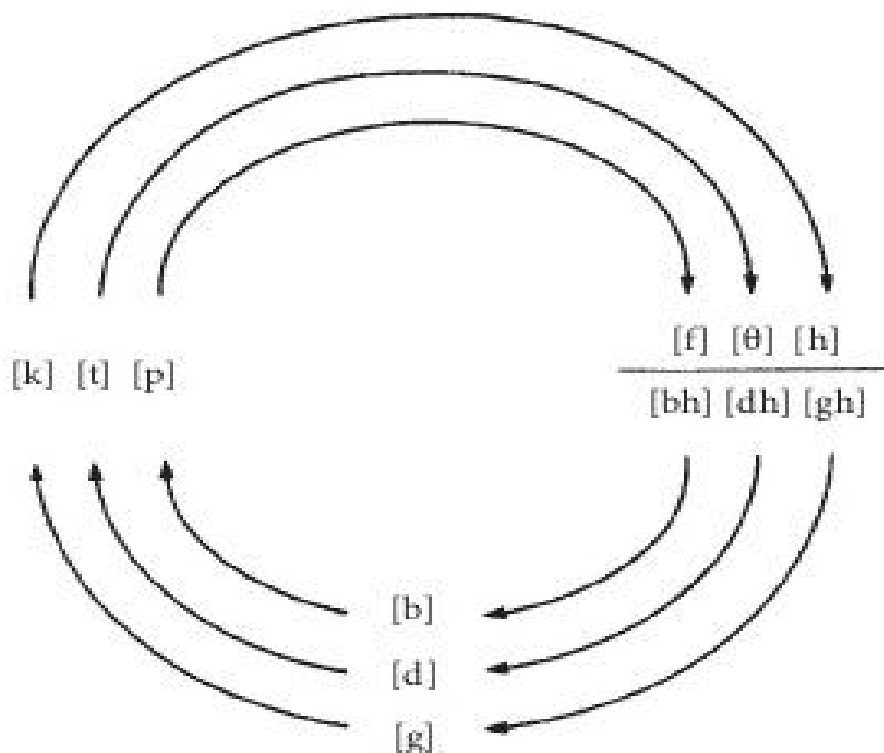


Table 11. Three acts of Grimm's Law

Act	IE consonants	PG consonants	Examples
I	[p, t, k]	[f, θ, h]	Lat. <b>p</b> iscis, Goth. <b>f</b> isks, OE <b>f</b> isc (Mod.E fish) Lat. <b>t</b> res, Ukr. <b>т</b> ри, OE <b>þ</b> rīe (Mod.E three) Lat. <b>c</b> or (cord), OE <b>h</b> eorte (Mod.E heart)
II	[b, d, g]	[p, t, k]	Rus. <b>б</b> олото, OE <b>p</b> ōl (Mod.E pool) Rus. <b>д</b> ерево, OE <b>t</b> rēo (Mod.E tree) Rus. <b>г</b> оре, OE <b>c</b> aru (Mod. E care)
III	[bh, dh, gh]	[b, d, g]	Sans. <b>b</b> hrata, OE <b>br</b> ōðor (Mod.E brother) Sans. <b>vid</b> hava, OE <b>wid</b> ve (Mod.E widow) IE <b>lagh</b> , OE <b>lic</b> zean (Mod.E lie)

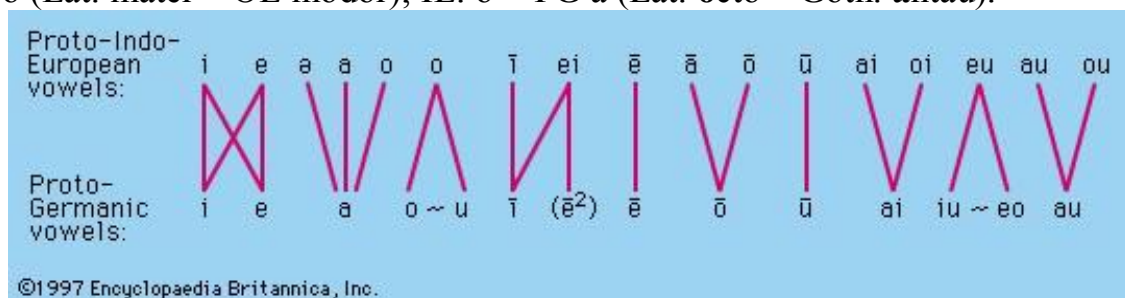
The Consonant Shift was described in 1822 by a German philologist Jacob Grimm; hence its name comes from.

When Grimm's Law was discovered, a strange irregularity was spotted in its operation. In a group of two consonants only the first one was changed according to the first act of Grimm's Law. The second remained unchanged: Lat. **octo**, OE **eahta** (Mod.E eight). In some Germanic words the IE voiceless stops developed into voiced stops: **t** > **θ** (Lat. **māter**, OE **mōðor**). This problem was solved by Danish linguist Karl Verner in 1875, and that's why this phenomenon was called **Verner's Law**. Verner paid attention to the stress position. He said: "*When a voiceless stop stood after the vowel originally stressed in the IE language, it changed into a fricative according to the first act of Grimm's Law. But after the unstressed vowel this fricative became voiced and then according to the third act of Grimm's Law a voiced fricative changed into a voiced stop*".

Thus, [t > θ > ð > d]: Sans. **pitar** > PG **faðar** > OE **fæder** (Mod.E father).

**Verner's Law:** At the time of free stress voiceless fricatives were voiced after unstressed vowel.

Germanic vowel system was characterized by the modification of vowels: IE **ā** > PG **ō** (Lat. **māter** – OE **mōdor**); IE. **o** > PG **a** (Lat. **octō** – Goth. **ahtau**).



The sound peculiarities of West-Germanic languages included:

1) *Doubling of consonants (germination)* – every consonant but *r* was doubled between a short vowel and the sound [j], sometimes [l]. Later this sound might be lost: Goth. **saljan**, **teljan** > OE **sellan**, **tellan** > Mod.E **sell**, **tell**. Compare: Rus. **веселье**, **знание**; Ukr. **весілля**, **знання**. But: Goth. **arjan**, OE **erian** (to plough). Compare: Rus. **перья**, Ukr. **пір'я**.

2) *Rhotacism* – is a common kind of phonetic change whereby a voiced sibilant [z] develops further into [r]: [s] > [z] > [r]: OE *wæs* – *wæron* (< *wæson*); Goth. *maize* – OE *mara*.

The sound peculiarities of Anglo-Saxon dialects were as follows:

3) *Breaking* – this is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster (r+cons; l+cons; h+cons):

**a > ea** before “r+cons.”, “l+cons.”, “h+cons”, and before final **h**: *ærm* > *earm*, *æld* > *eald*, *æhta* > *eahta*, *sæh* > *seah*; **e > eo** before “r+cons.”, “lc, lh, h+cons.”, and before final **h**: *herte* > *heorte*, *melcan* > *meolcan*, *selh*, *feh* > *feoh*.

4) *Loss of nasal consonants* before fricatives [f, θ, s]: nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was probably nasalized and lengthened, e.g. OHG *fimf* – OE *fīf* (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 sound system and spelling was characterized by a number of changes. The dominant *vowel* modifications were represented by:

1) *Front mutation*, also known as *i-mutation* or *palatal mutation*. **I-mutation** (also known as **umlaut**, **front mutation**, **i-umlaut**, **i/j-mutation** or **i/j-umlaut**) is a type of sound change in which a back vowel is fronted or a front vowel is raised if the following syllable contains /i/, /ī/ or /j/ (a voiced palatal approximant, sometimes called *yod*, the sound of English <y> in *yes*). It is a category of regressive metaphony, or vowel harmony:

Table 12. The examples of front mutation

[o], [a] > [e]	G. <i>Anzisc</i> ['angliʃ]	OE <i>Enzisc</i> ['engliʃ] > Mod.E English
[u] > [y]	OHG. <i>kuninz</i> ['kuning] Goth. <i>Muzis</i> ['muziz]	OE <i>cyninz</i> ['kyning] > Mod.E king OE <i>myse</i> ['mys] > Mod.E mouse
ea, eo > ie ēa, īe > īe		

*Traces in modern English*: vowel interchange now serves to distinguish a) different parts of speech (to **fill**-**full**, to **feed** – **food**, **long** – **length**; to **tell** – **tale**, **blood** – **bleed**, **Canterbury** – **Kent**); b) different forms of a word (**mouse**-**mice**, **man** – **men**, **goose** – **geese**).

2) *Changes of PG diphthongs*:

PG [ai] > OE [a:] PG *stains* [stainz] > OE *stān* [sta:n], Mod.E *stone*;

PG [au] > OE [e:a] Goth. *ausō* ['auzo] > OE *ēare* ['e:are], Mod.E *ear*.

The dominant *consonant* changes were as follows:

1) *Palatalization* of velar consonants. Because it characterized root-syllables rather than initial ones as such, the Germanic accent did not normally fall on prefixes: thus, the Old English (OE) prefix *ge-*, pronounced [je], corresponding to Gothic *ga-*, had had its original vowel-timbre modified early enough to cause



palatalization of the originally velar consonant preceding it, and in Middle English (ME) this process went further, with palatal spirant and front vowel coalescing into a simple [i] (hence ME *yriden* past participle < OE *geriden*). Certain prefixed could, however, take a full stress.

It might be useful to outline the three environments in which palatalization occurred: a) initially – here *k* and *g* were palatalized by all front vowels (except front vowels derived from *i*-umlaut, a condition which holds for velar palatalization in all positions); b) medially – when the sound mentioned above were palatalized before *i* and *j*, while *-g-* was palatalized between all front vowels; c) *-k* was palatalized by preceding front vowels in Old English only, while *-g* was palatalized by preceding front vowels in both Old English and Old Frisian. Thus, the velar consonants [k, g, x, γ] were palatalized before a front vowel, and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. Hereby, in OE *cild* (NE *child*) the velar consonant [k] was softened to [k'] as it stood before the front vowel [i] – [kild] > [k'ild]; similarly [k] became [k'] in OE *spræc* (NE *speech*) after a front vowel but not in OE *sprecan* (NE *speak*).

2) *Voicing of fricatives*. Old English automatic voicing of anterior fricatives took place in fully voiced environments if the last preceding syllable nucleus was stressed; [v, ð, z] were always allophones of /f, θ, s/. The alternation survived unchanged in early Middle English. There are hundreds of examples; typical are the following (given in Middle English form): *wulf*, *wulfes* [wʊlf, wʊlvəs] ‘wolf, wolves’; *paþ*, *paþes* [paθ, paðəs] ‘path, paths’; *hūs*, *hūses* [hu:s, hu:zəs] ‘house, houses’; *half*, *halfe* [half, halvə] ‘half’; (adj.) *wrāþ*, *wrāþe* [wra:θ, wra:ðə] ‘angry’; *wīs*, *wīse* [wi:s, wi:zə] ‘wise’; *drīfen*, *drāf* [dri:vən, dra:f] ‘to drive, ((s)he) drove’; *queþen*, *quaþ* [kwεðən, kwaθ]; ‘to say, ((s)he) said’; *chēsen*, *chēs* [če:zən, če:s] ‘to choose, ((s)he) chose’; *lēf*, *lēven* [le:f, le:vən] ‘permission, to permit’; *baþ*, *baþən* [baθ, baðən] ‘bath, to bathe’. The voiceless – voiced alternation in derivation (as in the last three examples above) was reinforced by borrowings from Old French, which had the same alternation in, e.g. *us* ‘use’: *user* ‘to use’; *sauf* ‘safe’: *sauver* ‘to save’. Some such pairs were borrowed in the 13th c., or even earlier. For instance, *grief*: *grieve* and *strife*: *strive* appear in the *Ancrene Riwe*, written around 1200, and *advice*: *advise* in Robert of Gloucester’s chronicle of 1297; other 13th-century pairs include *safe*: *save*, *use*: (to) *use*, and *device*: *devise*; *relief*: *relieve* follows in the 14th century.

Thus, OE system of sound and letters included:

- a) **Monophthongs** (7 long, 7 short): a, ā, æ (‘ash’), e, ē, i, ī, o, ō, u, ū, y, ŷ, ā;
- b) **Diphthongs** (4 long, 4 short): ea, ēa, eo, ēo, (ie, īe, io, īo);
- c) **Consonants**: b, c [k, tʃ], d, f [f, v], ȝ (‘yogh’) [g, j, γ], h [h, x], l, m, n, p, r, s [s, z], t, ð (‘eth’) / þ (‘thorn’) [θ, ð], ƿ (‘wynn’) [w]; sometimes found x [ks / cs / hs].

There were no ‘silent’ letters in Old English: all vowels and consonants were pronounced.

**Glossary:**

1) When closure of the air-passage is air-tight, consonants are called **stops** (or ‘plosives’, or ‘occlusives’): thus [b] and [p], [d] and [t], [g] and [k].

2) When closure is only partial, they are called **spirants** (or ‘fricatives’): [v] and [f], [s] and [z].

3) With [l] and [r] partial closure occurs without audible friction, and these sounds are, therefore, often classified separately, usually under the name **liquids**.

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) “Family-tree” theory. Indo-European and Proto-Germanic legacy.
- 2) Evolving English: the shifts in sound and spelling systems before the Norman conquest.
- 3) Anglo-Saxon dialects: who identified the borders?
- 4) Language and the impact of the adoption of Christianity.

**Lecture 3**

**THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD: THE STRUGGLE FOR SURVIVAL**

1. *When does Old English stop and Middle English start?*
2. *What was the status of English in the French state?*
3. *The shape of English in the later Middle Ages.*
4. *Adopted variety of English spelling and pronunciation.*

As far as the English are concerned, all of life’s greatest problems can be summed up in one word – foreigners. Nine hundred years ago the last invasion of England was perpetrated by the Normans. They settled, tried to integrate themselves with the indigenous population and failed.

The 11<sup>th</sup> century was a key period in the history of the English language, marking the transition between Old English and Middle English. One of the historical events traditionally regarded as triggering major changes in the English Language is the so-called Norman Conquest. Anglo-Saxon king Edward the Confessor died childless. William, the duke of Normandy, was among those several people who decided to take the throne.

The name “Norman” takes the origin from Vikings who settled on the peninsula in the 9<sup>th</sup> and 10<sup>th</sup> centuries, who called themselves “North-men”, pronounced “Norman” by the French. The Vikings were a menace to the French, swarming up the Seine to lay siege to Parris and harrying at will. To alleviate this distress, the king of France, Charles the Simple, acknowledged in 912 a Danish chief, Hrolfr Gangr (“Rollo the Rover”), as Duke of Normandy, the province being so named after the foreign settlers, and the new duke swearing fealty to the king. Thereafter the Scandinavians were soon assimilated by the French majority. Danish

continued to be spoken for a time at Bayeux, but by 1066 the Normans were Frenchmen and spoke only French.

William the Conqueror was the sixth duke in descent from Rollo. He began his spectacular career inauspiciously as the illegitimate son of the fifth duke, Robert, and Arletta, the daughter of a humble tanner of the town of Falaise. Robert made the boy his heir and died while William was still a child. The boy-duke grew up in a violent society to which he adapted himself perfectly. He survived being taunted by his enemies as “the bastard” and “the tanner” and made himself into a formidable military leader, dominating the turbulent barons of his duchy and defending his territory against rival dukes and the king of France. Unable to expand his power on the Continent, William looked across the channel to England.

The internal weakness of England was an important factor in making the Norman plan feasible. When the Danes withdrew in 1042, the English regained control of their own country, but political affairs were chaotic. The king from 1042 to 1066 was Edward the Confessor, the son of Ethelred, but Edward’s power was sometimes questioned by the Earl of Wessex, Godwine, and Godwine’s son Harold. The earldoms of Mercia and Northumbria were semi-independent, reluctant to submit to the rule from London, and internecine warfare went intermittently during Edward’s reign. William was well-aware of the disorganization of the English, since the information was easy to come by the narrow channel.

After Edward’s death Harold was declared king. On September 28 the Normans landed their forces in the south. On October 14 the decisive battle occurred, stubbornly contested until late in the day, when Harold and his brothers were killed, whereupon the English force dissolved. No further effective resistance was made, and William was able in the time that followed to consolidate his hold on the country.

The Norman Conquest of 1066 introduced new settlers who spoke a variety of Old French and thus changed the nature of English. The Norman Conquest put an end to the supremacy of Wessex and its dialect. With the Norman Conquest French became the official language of the country, and those dialects spoken during the Germanic invasion were of local importance. Much of the vocabulary of Old English has been lost, and the development of new words to meet new conditions is one of the most familiar phenomena of our language. Change of meaning can be illustrated later from any page of Shakespeare. Nice in Shakespeare’s day meant foolish; rheumatism signified a cold in the head. Less familiar but no less real is the change of pronunciation. A slow but steady alteration, especially in the vowel sounds, has characterized English throughout its history. Old English *stān* has become our stone; *cū* has become cow. Most of these changes are so regular as to be capable of classification under what are called “sound laws.” Changes likewise occur in the grammatical forms of a language. These may be the result of gradual phonetic modification, or they may result from the desire for uniformity commonly felt where similarity of function or use is involved. It was a slow gradual process taking place between 1100 and 1300. Different parts of language changed at different rates, reflected in the *Kentish Homilies* (1150).

Thus, during the period in question **three languages** existed: richest people spoke French, poor – English, the Church service was performed in Latin. Most of the records of the period were written in French and Latin. French words entered the English language, and a further sign of the shift was the usage of names common in France instead of Anglo-Saxon names. Male names such as William, Robert and Richard soon became common; female names changed more slowly. All the long words in English were borrowed from French or Latin. The borrowings from French could be divided into some semantic groups:

- 1) The titles of nobility: *prince – princess, count – countess, duke – duchess*;
- 2) Military life: *army, battle, peace, victory, colonel, lieutenant, major, etc.*;
- 3) Government and legislature: *noble, baron, justice, judge, crime, prison, sentence*;
- 4) Religion: *religion, prey, saint, charity*;
- 5) City crafts: *painter, tailor, carpenter* (but the country occupations remained English: *shepherd, smith*);
- 6) Pleasure and entertainment: *music, art, feast, pleasure, leisure, supper, dinner, pork, beef, mutton* (but the corresponding names of domestic animals remained English: *pig, cow, sheep*);
- 7) Relationship: *aunt, uncle, nephew, cousin*;
- 8) Words of everyday life: *air, river, large, age, boil, branch, brush, catch, chain, chair, table, choice, cry*.

In Middle English certain texts show the fall (leveling) of most inflections. As we move into the Middle English period, from around the twelfth century, we see the gradual replacement of the old letters, creating a language much more recognizable to modern eyes. Four Old English letters went out of use, because they were all runes and were not used in the Latin alphabet and, consequently, in the French one: *æ* ('ash'), *ȝ* ('yogh'), *ð* ('eth'), *þ* ('thorn') and *ƿ* ('wynn'). Some new letters were borrowed from French to denote these sounds: *g, j, k, q, v, z*. Eight new digraphs (two letters denoting one sound) came into the mode of writing to denote the needed sounds: **ch** [tʃ], **sh** [ʃ], **th** [θ / ð], **gh** [h], **ph** [f], **ck** [k], **dg** [dʒ], **qu** [kw]. Respectively six new digraphs were introduced to denote the length of some vowel sounds: **oo** [ɔ]; **ee, ie, ei** [e:], **ou, ow** [u:].

As a result of French influence, letter *c* got a specific pronunciation depending on the vowel following it: **c** [s] before *e, i, y*; **c** [k] before *a, o, u* (according to the French norm).

In the words with many **vertical strokes** letter *u* was substituted by letter *o*: OE *cuman* > ME *comen* [ˈkʊmən]. Compare: *come, son, some*.

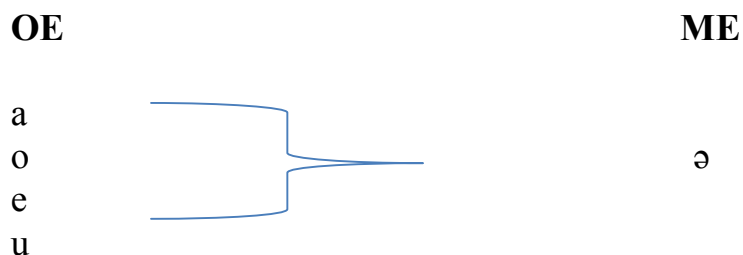
Though the changes in spelling were numerous, the alterations of the consonant sounds were slight (they almost didn't change). The major consonant changes include:

1) The *simplification* of consonant groups with initial **h**, where it was lost before **r, l, n**: hr, hn, hl [hr, hn, hl] > r, l, n [r, l, n]: OE **hring**, **hlāford**, **hnutu** > ME ring, loverd, nute > E ring, lord, nut.

2) *Development* of sound [ɰ]: ʒ [ɰ] > w [w]: OE boza, morzen > ME bowe, morwen > E bow, morrow. Compare: Russian *ezo* ([r > b]).

3) *Vocalization* of [j] and [w] after vowels: [j] > [i]; [w] > [v]: *snāw* [sna:w] > *snow* [snow] > ME snow [snəʊ].

Vowel values also are largely unchanged from OE, and, as with the consonants, differences tend to be more orthographic than phonological. Most *unstressed* vowels were leveled and reduced to a sound of [ə] type, which was written *e* (e.g. *tape*).



*Stressed* vowels underwent two types of changes – *qualitative* and *quantitative*. Quantitative changes affected the length of the vowels, they became longer or shorter. In Old English a short or a long vowel might be found in any position; they were absolutely independent phonemic units. The Middle English vowel system was basically different. The quantity of vowels becomes dependent on the environment, on what follows the vowel. With a few exceptions the situation in Middle English is briefly this: in some phonemic environment only short vowels are possible; in the other the vowels are invariably long.

First, a long vowel before two consonants is shortened; *fe:dan* – *fe:den* – *fe:dde* – *fedde*. The exception here are the clusters *mb, ld, nd* (i.e. two voiced sonorants) or when the two consonants belonged to the second syllable of the word (*maeste, laest* > *most, least*).

But short vowels were lengthened in open syllables of disyllabic words ([*a, e, o*]: *ca:ru* – *care*; *talū* – *tale*, *macian* – *make*). [*u, i*] didn't lengthen.

Qualitative changes affected the nature of sound. Six Old English vowels ([*ā, æ, ē, ō, y, ŷ*]) changed radically:

[æ] > [ʌ]: OE *cæt* > ME *cat* [kʌt];

[æ] > [ɛ:]: OE *sæt* > ME *se* [sɛ:];

[a:] > [ɔ:]: OE *bāt* > ME *boot* [bɔ:t] > ENE *boat* [bɔ:t];

[a:] > [o:]: OE *stān* > ME *stone* ['sto:nə];

[ā] > [o]: only in West Midland: OE *lānd, mǎn* > *lond, mon*;

[ā] > [a]: in all other dialects: OE *lānd, mǎn* > *land, man*;

[y] > [i] in the North-Eastern dialects: *ME hill* [hil] (*E hill*);  
 [y] > [v] in the Western dialects: *ME hull* [hvl];  
 [y] > [e] in the Southern dialects: *ME hell* [hel];

[ȳ] > [i:]: in the North-Eastern dialects: *ME fir* [fi:r] (*E fire*);  
 [ȳ] > [vi]: in the Western dialects: *ME fuir*;  
 [ȳ] > [ε:]: in the Southern dialects: *ME fer*.

All Old English diphthongs became monophthongs as early as XIth century. In most cases they lost their second element:

*Table 13. The development of OE diphthongs*

OE [ēa] > ME [ε:]	OE ēare > ME ere ( <i>E ear</i> )
OE [ea] > ME [a]	OE earm > ME arm
OE [ēo] > ME [e:]	OE dēop > ME deep
OE [eo] > ME [e]	OE steorfan > ME sterven ( <i>E starve</i> )
OE [iə] > ME [i], [e]	OE niht, hierde > ME niht, herde ( <i>E shepherd</i> )

As a result of vocalization of [j] and [u] new diphthongs were formed with their second element *i* or *u*:

*Table 14. The development of OE diphthongs under the influence of [j] and [u]*

[e+i] > [ei]	OE weʒ > ME wey
[a+i] > [ai]	OE dæʒ > ME day
[a+u] > [au]	OE saʒu > ME saw(e)
[e+u] > [eu]	OE boʒa > ME bowe
[e+u] > [ev]	OE deaw > ME dew

Thus, the Norman invasion led to the collapse of the Old English standard, and to increasing regionalism in spelling. Such regionalism had at least two causes. The first was that English developed striking dialect differences: northern parts of the country continued to be influenced by Scandinavian languages while parts of the south were affected by intimate contact with French. For example, the variant spelling of “such” – *swilk*, *swich*, *soch* – indicated differences in pronunciation, even though it is not possible to tell with any precision exactly *what* each pronunciation might have been.

There were, however, some differences in spelling that did not imply differences in pronunciation; they simply reflected different habits of spelling. This kind of variation was common in Middle English times because English scribal practices were influenced by practices of French, leading to a confusion of the principles for representing sounds.

Although extremely familiar to us, the idea of a pure language was probably not something that most people in the Middle Ages would have taken for granted. Indeed, the English language itself seems never to have been an object of attention before the fourteenth century. This partly because English was not a taught language like Latin. However, the Medieval text is still exploiting a rich vein of anti-French feeling. The fourteenth-century poet Geoffrey Chaucer, author of the widely

acclaimed *Canterbury Tales*, has often been celebrated as embodying the spirit of Englishness. It might be safer to speak here of patriotism, based on hostility towards the French, rather than nationalism in its fuller, nineteenth-century sense, in which language is seen as the decisive component of a unified national identity.

Towards the end of the fourteenth century, we can see the expansion of composition in English and in the use of English in official meetings. However, when Parliament was addressed for the first time in English in 1362, the records of that meeting were still written in French. Most oral communication would take place in English. Although the use of English as spoken medium was widespread, it was not the official medium of writing. Most ordinary people used the local variety of speech. At the end of the fourteenth century more and more people used English in public and official gatherings; all that was needed was a push from someone to make English the official written language as well. That push came from the Lancastrian monarchy.

Henry IV removed Richard II from the throne in 1399 and although Richard was murdered shortly afterwards, Henry suffered a number of rebellions from his magnets during his reign. While Henry was forced to rely on the support of the Commons against his barons, he did not do anything specific to promote the use of English. The important change comes with Henry V who came to the throne in 1413. In 1415 he renewed the war against France and enjoyed great success. His victory at Agincourt in 1415 was followed by a second invasion of France in 1417, which culminated in his marriage to Princess Katherine of France and the agreement that he and his heirs should succeed the throne of France after the death of King Charles. Naturally the war against France promoted English nationalism and brought a huge wave of support and sympathy for Henry V. Perhaps the most important decision for English language made by Henry V was his use of English in the letters which he sent from France after he arrived there for the second time in 1417. The most interesting feature of that period is, however, the series of signet letters describing the process of the war, which were addressed to the mayor and aldermen of London, and which seem to have been intended propaganda. From 1417 until his death in 1422 Henry V used English in almost all his private correspondence, which was produced for him by the Signet Office. The wave of anti-French feelings generated by the war and its successes were exploited by the king to confirm the position of the Lancastrian monarchy.

Thus, Henry V gave necessary impetus to establish English as the official written language in much the same way as Alfred in the ninth century had made the English of Wessex the standard language of the kingdom.

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***Consider the following list of events:***

*1362 – Statute of Pleading decrees law-suits should be in English;*

*1380 – Grammar school masters advised to translate Latin into French as well as English;*

*1380s – New Testament translated into English;*

*Chaucer writes “Canterbury Tales” in English;*

*1399 – Henry IV was the first king of England since 1066 to speak English as a first language.*

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) Middle English written records. *Peterborough Chronicle*.
- 2) The London dialect and its role.
- 3) Geoffrey Chaucer and *The Canterbury Tales*. Chaucer's contemporaries.
- 4) The Hundred Year's War (1337-1453) and its consequences.

**Lecture 4**

**MODERNITY AND THE RISE OF A NATIONAL LANGUAGE**

1. *Caxton and the consequences of printing.*
2. *The key linguistic changes and their codification.*
3. *The first dictionaries, and what were the problems Samuel Johnson saw in writing a dictionary of English?*
4. *Standardization and linguistic limitations.*
5. *What can be called typically English: consolidation and regulation of the national culture.*

The period from 1400 to 1660 is central to the development of Modern English and the formation of the standard. In the course of the sixteenth century English became the object of serious academic study by people with practical interests who were responding to the political, religious, cultural and religious controversies of their time.

One of the first grammars in English was William Lily's *A Shorte Introduction of Grammar*. Although known as 'Lily's Grammar', the book was actually put together from various sources after his death in 1523. This was one of the first books in English 'authorized' by king Henry VIII – it remained the 'national grammar' for several centuries and versions of it were used in English schools down to the nineteenth century. Despite the fact that it was written in English it was essentially a grammar of Latin, which provided the basic introduction to grammar that all the English writers of the early modern period, including Shakespeare, Spenser and Ben Jonson, were brought up on. As one editor has commented: "This was the introduction to the classics of Rome for those who were to create the classics of England" (Flynn, in Lily [1542], 1945, p. xi).

Although English could now develop as both the national written and spoken language of the country, the existence of Latin as the dead language and of French as a fashionable literary language cultivated outside England had important implications. A living language like English could never appear as perfect as a dead language like Latin, which was also the language which provided the model for all grammatical systems. Equally a language that had only recently formed standardized varieties and in which approved literary works of merit, such as those by Chaucer,



had only just started to be composed could hardly be compared with a language like French, which not only had its origins in Latin, but which could also trace its literary history back several centuries.

In the Early New English period different writing systems available to individual scribes, based originally on spoken dialects, gradually became mixed through the amalgamation of different dialect forms. This produced writing systems, which didn't reflect the sound system of a single dialect with accuracy, and such systems soon developed an existence of their own so that speech and writing drew further apart. The writing systems of the fourteenth century were constructs, which reflected nobody's spoken language. The systems were taught to scribes and copyists no matter what their own dialect was. The same applies to the new standardized variety which was constructed in the fifteenth century and which is now called *Chancery Standard* or *Samuel's Type IV*. Earlier scholars tried to relate the changes in the written system to the changes in the make-up of the population of London.

Not surprisingly, the English suffered an inferiority complex about their language and attempts were made to do something about its perceived shortcoming. The changes that English as a living language was subject to had already started to receive unfavorable mention in the fourteenth century and this criticism soon increased enormously. However, linguistic change is often viewed with suspicion and trepidation: "The language is going to the dogs!" This problem was exacerbated with the invention of printing for the early printers needed to provide texts in an English that was acceptable to everyone in the country and also up to date. The problems that critics complained of in English centered around its barbarous nature because it lacked the refinement of Latin and French. This meant that it was not expressive enough because it lacked necessary vocabulary and what vocabulary it did have was unsophisticated. One couldn't express oneself elegantly in English. A favorite word used to describe English was "uneloquent"; other terms used were "barbarous", "rude", "base", "vile", and "indigent". The concept that English is a rude language is a constant refrain in the prologues and epilogues with Caxton, the first English printer, included in his printed editions at the end of the fifteenth century.

The growth of science and technology, the exploration of the New World, and the change in religion and philosophy – often as the result of the discovery of hitherto unknown classical texts – highlighted the inefficiency of the language. As an anonymous translator put it in 1530 "...*there were many words in Latyn that we have no proper englyssh accordynge therto*". To many at this time English seemed like a new and upstart language, which lacked antiquity and recourses that come with age. It was only towards the end of the sixteenth century that recognition of its merits and its literature began to be accepted so that the litany of complaints changed into a celebration of greatness.

Attempts to freeze the language and to prescribe standards for its correctness have been recorded for English since at least the twelfth century with Orm's *Ormulum*, one monk's ingenious attempt to stabilize pronunciation and spelling. However, it wasn't until the Modern English period with its interconnected and fundamental changes in the structure of society when the standardization of language

became possible. English was transformed from a vernacular language into one with a standardized variety that could be identified with England as a nation state. There is no doubt that the arrival of *printing in 1476, initiated by William Caxton*, helped to consolidate and establish fixed patterns in English spelling, despite the fact that the process got off to an uncertain start. Printing did have a major standardizing effect in so far as every reader now possessed identical copies of a work. Caxton had recognized the stature of Chaucer and praised the way he had improved English. Chaucer, Lydgate and Gower were often held up as the triumvirate who had raised English to new heights.

Perhaps preoccupation with the Hundred Years' War, which came to a dismal end in 1453 and was followed by the dynastic competition called the war of Roses, contributed to England's stagnancy. And through the fifteenth century Italy, the cradle and home of Renaissance ideas and artistic achievements, was a distant place. To Boccaccio England was "*the most remote little corner of the world*". Eventually the Renaissance penetrated northern Europe and England, but until near the end of the sixteenth century translators repeatedly uncouneted situations in which English words were lacking to express ideas that were eloquently expressed in the original. One solution to the difficulty was obviously to transfer the Latin or Greek terms into the English text, to "borrow" necessary words. This tactic was heavily employed and was called "enriching" the English language.

English in the Renaissance shared with the continental vernaculars the problem of being recognized as equivalent to Latin as a vehicle for the communication of serious ideas. Latin was the international language and had the prestige of long and eminent use, against which the living tongues had to struggle to make headway.

Praise of English is most marked at the end of the sixteenth century and is motivated by the output of outstanding literary work and also by sheer volume of what was then available in English. The work of Sidney and Spenser confirms the approval of English, which was then commonplace. A language that produced such elegant authors must be acceptable. Further confirmation of the elegance and acceptability of English was found in the translations of the Bible, which were made in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Although a Wycliffite Bible had been available from the end of the fourteenth century, the Church had prescribed translations. The need for translations so that all could be familiar with it became imperative. The culmination of was the 1611 Bible which became one of the greatest totems of the power and elegance of the English language. Since the word of God could find such complete expression in English, it was no longer possible to believe that English was not a fit language for literary composition.

During the sixteenth century an increasing number of regional dialects in literature emerged, both in drama and in prose.

It was William Shakespeare (1564-1616), who benefited greatly to the development of English language, giving it a contemporary shape. Literally, there are thousands of words that Shakespeare invented that we still use today, like *manager, fashionable, eyeball, laughable, gloomy or lonely*, etc. William Shakespeare had knowledge of seven languages and usually made direct quotes in other languages

directly in the plays that he wrote. The writings of Shakespeare actually influenced the English language, as his works contributed to standardize English language rules and grammar in the 17th and 18th centuries. The words and phrases that he wrote fixed in “A Dictionary of the English Language” by Samuel Johnson. The introduction of new words as well as phrases had greatly enriched the English language, which made it more expressive and colorful. Some believe that Shakespeare was the first to use about 1,700 words – words that be created by borrowing from other languages, changing verbs into adjectives or nouns and vice versa, adding suffixes and prefixes and connecting other words as well as creating new ones. He had several phrases that are still very much a part of today's language and conversation such as *full circle*, *a sorry sight*, *strange bedfellow* and *seen better days*.

New English period is characterized by a number of both phonetic and spelling changes. The loss of endings marked the complete transformation of once suppletive language into fully analytical form. After short vowels the endings were utterly lost. After the syllable with the long vowel the ending – *e* remained to show the pronunciation of the previous vowel:

*OE hnutu > ME nute > ENE nut*

*OE tacan > ME taken [ˈta:kən] > take*

The vowel in the endings was sometimes preserved – mainly for phonetic reasons: *wanted*, *dressed*. Without the intermediate vowel it would be very difficult to pronounce the endings of such words.

The whole syllables might be lost in the Early English pronunciation of long words. In some words this loss was fixed in spelling, like: *ME chapter > ENE chapter*. The sound [e]

Other spelling transformations included:

1) *Changes connected with doubling of consonants:*

ME <i>dogge, lette, stoppe, sunne</i>	ENE <i>dog, let, stop, sun</i>
ME <i>kisse, locke, pulle, stufte</i>	ENE <i>kiss, lock, pull, stuff</i>
ME <i>glas, sik, smal, staf</i>	ENE <i>glass, sick, small, staff</i>
ME <i>super, sumer, felow, bery</i>	ENE <i>supper, summer, fellow, berry</i>

2) *Changes connected with Latin origin of some words.* They were made by scholars to show that they would lose Latin or Greek influence: *ME dette, doute* (from Latin *debitum, debitare*) > *debt, doubt*; *scool* (from Latin *scholar*) > *ENE school*.

3) *Changes connected with introduction of digraph ea and oa:*

ME [ɔ:] <i>rood, boot</i>	ENE <i>road, boat</i> [rɔ:d, bɔ:t]	E <i>road, boat</i> [rəʊd, bəʊt]
ME [ɛ:] <i>se(e), deel</i>	ENE <i>sea, deal</i> [se:, dɛ:l]	E <i>sea, deal</i> [si:, di:l]

Beginning in the XVth century, all long vowels that existed in Middle English change their quality. As a result, the entire vocalic system has been changed. All long vowels narrowed and the narrowest of them turned into diphthongs. These changes in pronunciation have been called **the Great Vowel Shift**:

[i: - ai]	bite [ˈbi:tə - bait]	[e: - i:]	beet [be:t - bi:t]
[a: - ei]	mate [ˈma:tə - meit]	[u: - au]	out [u:t - au:t]
[o: - u:]	boot [bo:t - bu:t]	[ɔ: - əv]	boat [bo:t - bəv]
[ɛ: - i:]	beat [be:t - bi:t]		

Changes in *short vowels* were not that systematic. The vowels changed depending on their environment:

1) *Development of vowel [a]*. Short [a] found in closed syllables generally changed into [æ]: ME [a] > [æ] *map, cat, that, man*. If it was preceded by the sound [w], it remained unchanged and eventually developed into [ɔ]: *after [w]: [wa] > [wɔ] want, was, quantity. But: wag [wæg], wax [wæks]*.

Sound [a] was lengthened before some consonant clusters and turned into [a:] when followed by:

a+th	father, rather
a+ss	pass, grass
a+st	fast, disaster
a+sk	ask, mask
a+sp	raspberry, grasp
a+lm	calm, palm
a+lf	calf, half
a+nt, nd, nch	plant, branch, command
a+ft	after, draft

2) *Delabialization*: [u] > [o] > [ʌ]: some [ˈsʊmə] - [sʌm]; son [sʊn] - [sʌn]; [u:] (< [ɔ:] > [ɔ] before [d, t, k]) > [ʌ]: blood, flood.

3) *Development of Middle English diphthongs in Early New English*:

ME [ai, ei] day, wey, seil > ENE [ei]	<b>day, way, sail</b>
ME [au] > ENE [ɔ:]	<b>paw, law, cause, pause</b>
ME [ev] > ([iv]) > ENE [ju:]	<b>new, dew, view</b>
ME [ɔi, əv] remained unchanged	<b>point, boy, snow, flow</b>

4) *Combinative changes of vowels*:

a) Influence of [r]

- [r] > [ə] after vowels in medial and final positions;

- Development of - *er* in the middle of words: - *er* [er] > - *ar* [ar] (ME *derk, ferm, sterre* > ENE *dark, farm, star*). *Compare: clerk, sergeant.*

- Short vowels + [r]:

[ar] > ([aə]) > [a:]	<b>park, dark, part, heart</b>
[ɔr] > ([ɔə]) > [ɔ:]	<b>port, form</b>
[er, ir, vr] > [eə, iə, və] > [ɜ:]	<b>term, person, girl, bird, fur, burden</b>

- Long vowels + [r]:

[e:r] > [iə]	<b>beer, here</b>	[a:r] > [eə]	<b>hare, dare</b>
[ɛ:r] > [eə]	<b>bear, wear;</b>	[i:r] > [aiə]	<b>fire, hire</b>
[ɛ;r] > [iə]	<b>beard, dear</b>		
[u:r] > [və]	<b>poor, moor</b>	[u:r] > [avə]	<b>hour, our, flower</b>
[ɔ:r] > [ɔə] > [ɔ:]	<b>board, oar</b>		

b) Influence of [l]: [a+l] > [av] + [l] > [av] > [ɔ:l] all, tall;  
 [l] is not pronounced before [k, m, f]: **talk, walk, calm, half, palm.**

c) Modification of vowel [a] under the influence of fricatives and some consonant clusters:

[a > (æ > æ) > a:]: **after, craft, draft, pass, bath; chance, dance, answer; cast, last, fast; ask, mask, task; clasp, gasp, grasp.**

Early New English *consonants* underwent a number of changes:

1) *Development of sound [χ] denoted by gh.* At the end of words: ME **laugh** [lavχ] > laugh [lavf] > ENE **laugh** [la:f]; Medially before **t**: ME **daughter** [ˈdavχter], **eight** [eiχt] > ENE **daughter** [ˈdɔ:tə], **eight** [eit]; Lengthening: [i > i:] ME **night** [niχt] > [ni:t] > ENE **night** [nait].

2) *Voicing of fricatives in weakly-stressed syllables and words:*

ME [f] > NE [v] **of, active** (<ME *actif*)

ME [s] > NE [z] **is, his, comes, possess**

ME [θ] > NE [ð] **with, the, they**

ME [ks] > NE [gz] **knowledge** (< ME *knowleche*), **Greenwich** [ˈgrinnidʒ]

3) *Simplification of some consonant groups:*

wr [r]	kn [n]	gn [n]	mb [m]	ng [ŋ]
<b>wrong</b>	<b>know</b>	<b>Gnat</b>	<b>climb</b>	<b>sing</b>

4) *Development of new sibilants*

[t+j] > [tʃ] **'culture, 'century; But: 'tune, 'student;**

[s+j] > [ʃ] **'Asia, 'nation; But: 'suit, a 'ssume;**

[z+j] > [ʒ] **de'cision, 'usual, 'measure; But: re'sume;**

[d+j] > [dʒ] **'soldier; But: 'duty, in'duce.**

A number of quite sophisticated descriptions of English vowels were made during the sixteenth century but in some key aspects these various descriptions do not agree with each other.

About 1700, the main changes in pronunciation that made by the Great Vowel Shift were all completed, at least in the South of England. All in all, the language differed only slightly from present-day English. However, the standard spelling system, which became established by the end of the seventeenth century, was already an archaic one, and, broadly speaking, represented the pronunciation before the Great Vowel Shift. This explains many of the oddities of present-day English spelling. The language still preserves letters in spelling which represent sounds that long ago ceased to be pronounced, like **k** in *knight*, the **t** in *castle*, the **w** in *wrong*.

The standardization of spelling was just one of numerous attempts to regulate the language. From the seventeenth century onwards, there was a growing feeling that English needed to be 'ruled', as Classical Greek and Classical Latin were believed to have been. For between about 1650 and 1760 there was quite a strong movement in favour of the establishment of an English academy. A number of attempts to 'refine' or 'correct' the English language and to freeze it in desirable state were attained and came to nothing. The seventeenth century saw the publication of the first grammars and dictionaries of English. The eighteenth century brought the first really competitive dictionaries of English, and an enormous number of

grammars, especially in the second half of the century, all of which were equally ‘prescriptive’ in intent. Despite the varied approaches and motivations, these works slavishly followed Latin models.

English dictionaries didn’t exist until the seventeenth century. Before then, there were two-language dictionaries (English – French and Latin – English), but no dictionaries describing English alone. The earliest surviving English dictionary, published in 1604, was a dictionary of ‘hard words’. The history of the dictionary of the seventeenth century is mainly one of expansion: Robert Cawdrey’s dictionary of 1604 contained about 2,500 words, while that of Elisha Coles, schoolmaster and teacher of the tongue to foreigners, in 1676 contained about 25,000 words. It was an “*English Dictionary: explaining The Difficult Terms used in Divinity, Husbandry, Physick, Philosophy, Law, Navigation, Mathematics, and other Arts and Sciences*”.

At the same time, the dictionaries included progressive linguistic information, such as etymology, and differences of style or semantic ability (elegant words distinguished from vulgar ones, dialect words from general educated usage, archaisms from current words).

In the eighteenth century language, political and literature issues were among the topics of discussion in London coffee-houses, and the essays on these subjects were published in several newly established periodicals. In 1712 Jonathan Swift applied the word ‘standard’, denoting *literary* correctness or excellence, to English. Commentators like Swift were very concerned to protect English against the charge of ‘barbarism’, bearing an idea to ‘fix’ or refine the language to ‘a certain standard’ so that it no longer varied and changed. One mechanism to emulate states like France and Italy was to set up an academy to regulate usage. As Dr. Samuel Johnson wrote some 40 years later: ‘tongues, like governments, have a natural tendency to degenerate: we have long persevered our constitution, let us make some struggles for our languages’. In 1755 Samuel Johnson wrote a definitive dictionary of English – one of the most influential books in the history of the language. The problem was that English had no ‘settled test of purity’. Johnson’s *Dictionary* was followed by several ‘grammars’ of English which recommended certain grammatical usages as ‘correct’.

The doctrine of correctness was also applied to pronunciation in the form of pronouncing dictionaries, such as John Walker’s *A Critical Pronouncing Dictionary* of 1791. Walker acknowledged the range of dialectal pronunciations throughout England but confined his attention to Londoners, ‘who, as they are the models of pronunciation to the distant provinces, ought to be the more scrupulously correct’. Modern linguists would characterize Walker’s tone as **prescriptive**: he is telling people what he feels they should say.

However, by the eighteenth century English spelling had reached more or less the state in which we find it today. English spelling thus provides a witness to history: to changes in pronunciation; to the changing economics of manuscript production; and to the standardizing effects of printing. It also reflects a number of minor reforms to spelling that have taken place over the last three centuries or so.

The nineteenth century in Britain was a period of extraordinary technological and social change. The industrial revolution gave rise to a growing middle class who

were unsure of their social position and behavior and who looked to grammars and pronouncing dictionaries for help. During the century, schooling also became more widespread, and linguistic correctness became a most important mark of education. It was at this time that the term Standard English first came to be used, and increasingly so in connection with spoken as well as written English. In the second half of the century, in particular, there were many British people who felt a sense of national identity and confidence as never before: the British colonies in India and elsewhere became incorporated into the British Empire under Queen Victoria; British technological inventions led the world; private enterprises and corporations were creating wealth, which might benefit all sectors of society.

During this period a large number of national institutions and societies – public bodies outside the control of central government – were established which helped to consolidate and regulate national culture and science in a manner that was, by now, typically English. *The Oxford English Dictionary* was compiled.

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*A **standard** language is one that provides agreed norms of usage, usually codified in dictionaries and grammars, for a wide range of institutional purposes such as education, government and science.*

***In standardization, there are four main processes** (which may happen simultaneously):*

1) ***Selection:** of an existing language variety as the basis. The variety selected is usually that of the most powerful or socially influential social or ethnic group.*

2) ***Codification:** reduction of internal variability in the selected variety, and the establishment of norms of grammatical usage and vocabulary. Since standard languages are rooted in written forms, standardization often also involves the establishment of a standard spelling for words.*

3) ***Elaboration:** ensuring that the new language can be used for a wide range of functions. This may involve the extension of linguistic resources; for example, new specialized vocabulary or even new grammatical structure.*

4) ***Implementation:** the standard language must be given currency by making texts available in it, by discouraging the use of alternative language varieties within official domains, and by encouraging users to develop a loyalty and pride in it.*

*Standardization has two main dimensions: minimal variation in form, maximal variation in function.*

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) Printing and the attempts of standardization of English.
- 2) The English Reformation and Henry VIII's 'refurbishment of ancient truth'.
- 3) Elizabethan era as fruitful soil for literature and arts.
- 4) Shakespearean idioms. The Language of English Renaissance.
- 5) *King James Bible* (1611).
- 6) Robert Cawdrey, *A Table Alphabeticall* (1604).
- 7) Jonathan Swift, *A Proposal* (1712).

- 8) *Pronouncing Dictionary* (1774-91) by John Walker.
- 9) Samuel Johnson, *A Dictionary of the English Language* (1775).
- 10) Henry Alford, *A Plea for the Queen's English* (1860).
- 11) *Oxford English Dictionary* (XIXth-XXth centuries).

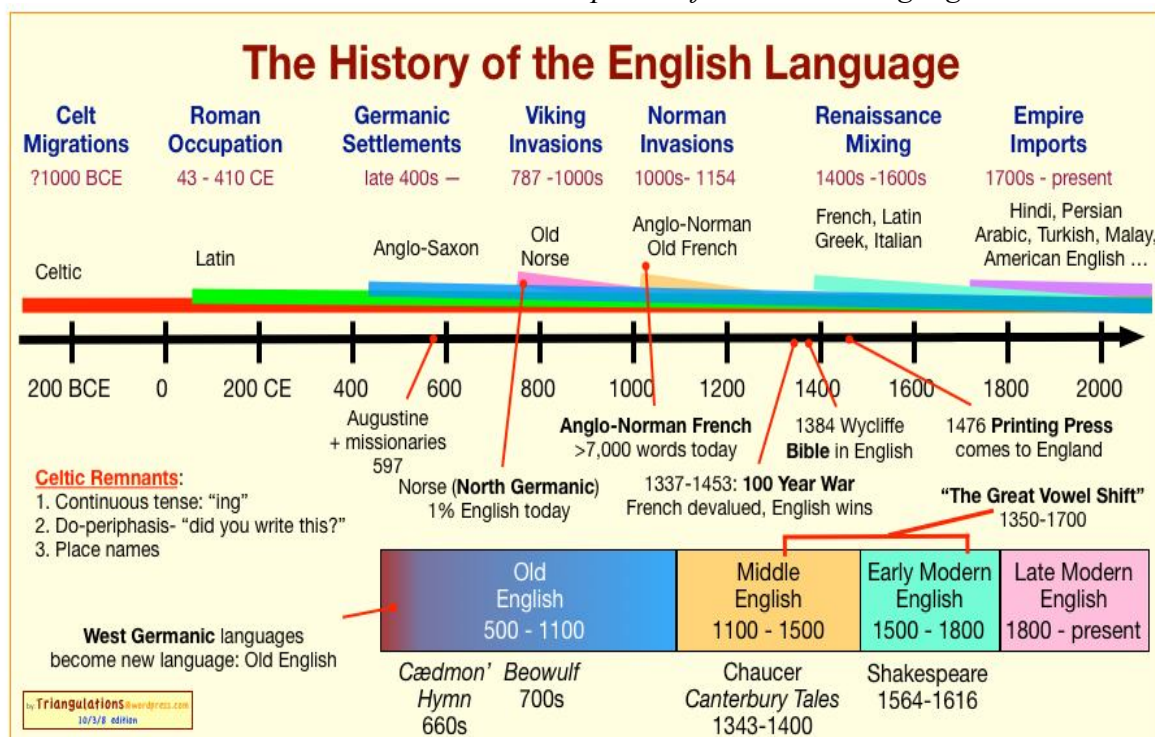
## Lecture 5

### THE ORIGINS AND HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

1. *Grammatical structure of Old English.*
2. *The grammatical consequences of the ambiguous word endings.*
3. *The evolution of the nominal parts of speech in Old, Middle and New English Periods. The tendency of simplification.*

Through its bumpy history the English language has experienced a variety of changes with the major ones taking place between 1100 and 1300 and between 1700 and 1900. The grammatical changes, as well as phonological ones, were predicated by a number of historical events and mirrored social, religious and political shifts on the territory of the British Isles, which came into being as a result of interaction with other nations or were boosted by some of the internal factors.

*Table 15. The historical development of the English Language*



The grammar of OLD ENGLISH was much more inflected in comparison with the Modern variant of the language. As an old Germanic language, Old English had a morphological system that was similar to that of the hypothetical Proto-Germanic reconstruction. Among the living languages, Old English morphology most closely resembles that of modern Icelandic, which is among the most conservative of the



Germanic languages; to a lesser extent, the Old English inflectional system is similar to that of modern German.

The parts of speech distinguished in Old English included: the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral and the verb all of which formed their paradigmatic forms by *inflections, suffixes, and sound interchange*. There were no analytical formations. The classical structure of the word traditionally included '*root + stem-building suffix + ending*'. Stem-building suffix was the most important part, because the system of endings depended on it.

Nouns in Old English retained only four of the Indo-European 8 cases; adjectives, partly pronouns and numerals agreed with the nouns they modified in number, gender and case. The Old English had two adjective declensions, strong and weak. The weak forms were used generally after demonstrative pronouns, and possessive adjectives; the strong were used independently. The comparison of adjectives and adverbs in Germanic languages differs from that in the Romance languages. Generally, *-r* and *-st* endings were added: *long – longer – longest*.

Free stress became recessive, and precise accent rules became dominant, with the first root syllable carrying the stress. Umlauting, a process of modifying vowel sounds, took place extensively in formation of paradigmatic forms (such as *man – men*) and word building. A system of strong verbs developed as the result of vowel alternation (ablaut), and a unique way of forming the past tense using the dental suffix for weak verbs (*ealdian – ealdode- to grow old*) was created.

Within the course of history, the OE, a synthetic or inflected language, has been transformed into a language of the “analytical type”. ME grammar was characterized by simplification in the grammatical categories of the nominal parts of speech and development of the grammatical categories of the verb. The proportion of synthetic forms in the language has become very small. Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech. The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech – morphological simplification. Some nominal categories were lost, the number of forms in the surviving categories was reduced.

**NOUNS** in OLD ENGLISH had the categories of **number, gender and case**. Nouns used to denote males were normally considered masculine - *mann, fæder, abbod* (*man, father, abbot*). Those denoting females were feminine, - *modor, sweostor, abbudissa* (*mother, sister, abbess*). Yet there were some curious exceptions, such words as *mæzden* (*maid*), *wīf* (*wife*) were neuter (compare in Ukrainian хлоп'я, дівча). And *wīfman* (*woman*) was masculine, because the second element of the compound was masculine. The gender of the other nouns was unmotivated. The same form could have two different meanings distinguished by gender, for example *lēod* masc. “man”, but *lēod* (fem.), «people».

There were **two numbers** - singular and plural, and **four cases** - nominative, genitive, dative and accusative.

In traditional historical studies the nouns were divided into classes according to the former stem-forming suffixes, which were hardly visible even in Gothic, the language separated in time from the Old English by centuries. The remnants of these suffixes were even more vague in Old English. Still, these stem-forming suffixes

determined what inflections were taken by the nouns. Though lost in Old English they still worked in the way the case and number forms were made.

Old English complex classification of nouns was based on differences in declension and in endings that were added to them in various forms. The nouns in Old English were commonly classified as belonging to strong and weak declension, within each of these groups there were several subgroups.

The **Strong** declension included nouns that had had a vocalic stem-forming suffix. Former suffixes (a, o, i, u) were no longer found in Old English, moreover, even very paradigms of these groups of nouns were already splitting.

1) **-a-stems** - could be either masculine or neuter. The difference between the two genders could be seen only in the nominative. Old English nouns a-stems neuter with long vowel could give an unchanged plural, and the noun *sheep* being an exception from the general rule of formation the plural form goes back to the Old English period. Examples of Old English a-stems are: masculine: *earrn* (*arm*), *eorl* (*earl*), *biscop* (*bishop*), *heofon* (*heaven*) etc.; neuter: *word* (*word*), *bearn* (*child*), *feoh* (*cattle*), *hūs* (*house*).

There were some peculiarities of declension of the nouns that had originally **-j-** or **-w-** in the stem (they were called *-ja-stems* and *-wa-stems*); they might have preserved this sound in declension; but otherwise the differences were minor. The examples of **-ja- stems** are: *hyse* (*young warrior*), *fiscere* (*fisherman*), *net* (*net*), *bedd* (*bed*).

2) The nouns belonging to **ō-stems** were all feminine. In the form of the nominative case monosyllabic nouns with a short root vowel of this class had ending **-u**; if there were two and more syllables or the root vowel was long, there was no ending at all. The nouns of this group: *caru* (*care*), *scamu* (*shame*).

In this group of nouns, the suffix **-ō-** could also be accompanied by additional **i** and **w**, that is **-jō-** and **-wō-** stems would give variants of declension. In Ukrainian, similar additional sound **i** gives such formations as *стаття*, *копія*.

3) The nouns formerly having **-i-suffix**, now called **-i-stems** might have belonged to all the three genders, and the case endings were different for different genders – masculine and neuter had the same endings as masculine and neuter nouns of the **-a-** stems, and feminine noun endings repeated the endings of the **-o-** stems. The nouns of this group were: masculine: *mere* (*sea*), *mete* (*food*); neuter: *sife* (*sieve*), *hilt* (*hilt*); feminine: *wiht* (*thing*), *hyde* (*hide*), *woruld* (*world, age*).

4) Nouns belonging to **-u-stems** could be of masculine or feminine gender. The nouns of this group were either masculine: *wudu* (*wood*), *medu* (*honey*) or feminine: *nosu* (*nose*), *hand* (*hand*).

**-o- and -u- stems** in Old English had only three distinctive endings both for the singular and the plural and that was sufficient for proper communication. **-i- stems**, on the other hand, illustrate the tendency to dissolution of the former classes of nouns and a certain tendency for regrouping the declensions according to the gender of the noun.

The class of nouns belonging to the **Weak** declension consisted of a rather numerous group of nouns originally having **-n-stems**; the suffix was well-preserved

in declension of nouns in Old English, but disappeared in the nominative case. **-n-stem** nouns could be of all three genders. Examples: masculine: *wita* (*wise man*), *steorra* (*star*), *flota* (*ship, fleet*), neuter: *cofa* (*chamber, repository*). feminine: *heorte* (*heart*), *sunne* (*sun*), *hearpe* (*harp*).

**Root Stems'** group comprised the nouns that never had a stem suffix. The group was not numerous, but the words belonging to it were characterized by high frequency of use. The nouns of this class were: all compound nouns containing the morpheme *man*: *wimman* (*woman*), *ealdorman* (*nobleman, leader*), and also *f ōt* (*foot*), *mūs* (*mouse*). The nouns belonging to **-r-stems** were of masculine and feminine gender, the group is a closed system. Ex. are *dohtor* (*daughter*), *sweostor* (*sister*).

Less numerous and less significant for the development of the present-day nominal system were the nouns that had other consonants as a stem-forming suffix, **-s-stems** had had this suffix in older times, in Old English due to rhotacism they changed it into occasional appearance of *-r-* *sound* in indirect cases. They were all neuter.

Comparatively new for Old English were several substantivated participles forming a separate group of **-nd-stems**. They were all masculine and their declension combined the peculiarities of the declension of *-a-stems* and, to some extent, *-r-stems* as they all denoted persons (they could form their plural form without any ending). Here belonged such words as: *wealdend* (*ruler*), *scyppend* (*creator*) etc.

Table 16. OE declensions of a noun

### DECLINATION OF NOUNS IN OLD ENGLISH

Decl.	Stem	Gender	Singular				Plural				Nouns
			Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	Nom.	Gen.	Dat.	Acc.	
S	-a	m	-	-es	-e	-	-as	-a	-um	-as	stan scip deor
		n-short syl. long syl.	-	-es	-e	-	-u	-a	-um	-u	
T	-o	f-short syl. long syl.	-u	-e	-e	-ē	-a/e	-a/ena	-um	-a/e	caru heard
			-	-e	-e	-e	-a/e	-a	-um	-a/e	
O	-u	short syl.	-u/o	-a	-a	-u/o	-a/u/o	-a	-um	-a/u/o	sunu feld
		m long syl.	-	-a	-a	-	-a/u/o	-a	-um	-a/u/o	
N	-i	f short syl. long svl.	-u/o	-a	-a	-u/o	-a/u/o	-a	-um	-a/u/o	duru hānd
			-	-a	-a	-	-a/u/o	-a	-um	-a/u	
G	-i	m short syl. long syl.	-e	-es	-e	-e	-e/as	-a	-um	-e/as	bite flyht cwen
		f	-	-es	-e	-	-as	-a	-um	-as	
Weak	-n	m	-a	-an	-an	-an	-an	-ena	-um	-an	hopa midde care
		f	-e	-an	-an	-an	-an	-ena	-um	-an	
Root	Root	n	-e	-an	-an	-e	-an	-ena	-um	-an	man hnute
		f short syl.	-u	-e	-e(y)	-u	-e(y)	-a	-um	-e(y)	

As OE complex classification of nouns was based on differences in declension and in endings that were added to them in various forms, with the levelling of inflexions in the MIDDLE ENGLISH period the grounds for distinguishing the very

classes become insignificant.

The category of **gender** was lost; and the loss was total, with no remnants in any of the nominal parts of speech (personal pronouns are not counted, because he and she replace living beings, and to some extent have the very meaning of gender). The category of **number** was preserved.

In EARLY NEW ENGLISH the noun paradigm looked very much the same as in present-day English. Having lost the category of gender and much of its case forms, it has the Genitive case as opposed to Nominative; the number of nouns taking it is reduced mainly to those denoting living beings. In fact, it can be called possessive, because it is used now mainly in the function of attribute denoting possession. Whereas the apostrophe as a sign denoting the possessive case of a noun appeared only about 1680, and its use to mark the possessive case in plural in 1789, the nouns in the genitive case and in the plural have homonymic endings, and only the context resolves ambiguity.

At the same time the unification of plural endings takes place, the former relics of *-en* disappear, giving way to *-es*. So, the general of formation of the plural of the noun is enriched by archaic forms (like *geese, feet, children, etc.*) – they could be called grammatical archaisms. Some words borrowed from Latin and used mainly in scientific texts could be called grammatical barbarisms (*datum- data* (1640-50); *formula – formulae* (1575 – 85); *axis – axes* 91540-50)).

To sum it up, Early Middle English changes and features of noun system include:

1. Unification in the number expression: nearly all nouns have the same plural ending; compare Chaucer's and Shakespeare's usage: Chaucer – *eyen, fōr*; Shakespeare – *eyes, foes*.

2. There remained some mutated plurals (*man-men*), a few *-n* plurals (*shoes/shoon, housen, eyen*), some unmarked plurals (*month, year, horse, fish*).

3. There remained only two cases: nominative and genitive. There appeared a noun + noun combination (unmarked genitives): *mother tongue, lady slipper*.

4. Grammatical gender disappeared altogether

The **ADJECTIVE**. Most historians agree that the number or adjectives in OLD ENGLISH was not of great significance. There were primary adjectives, dating back from the very old times and derivative adjectives made by adjective-forming suffixes from nouns. The adjectives of those times were similar to Slavic adjectives, which meant that this part of speech agreed with the noun it modified in number, gender and case. Consequently, the adjectives had the same categories as the nouns did. Besides, they had categories which were purely adjectival.

The adjective in Old English distinguished: two numbers (singular and plural), three genders (masculine, feminine, and neuter), four-five cases (feminine - 4, masculine+neutar – 5); the category of degrees of comparison; and the category of definiteness – indefiniteness.

Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The formal differences between the 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-*, *o-*, *u-* 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 masculine and neuter, and of *o-stems* – in the feminine. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives had no parallels in the noun paradigms; they were similar to the endings of pronouns: *-um* for Dat. sg, *-ne* for Acc. sg masculine, *[r]* in some feminine and pl endings. Therefore, the strong declension of adjectives is sometimes called the ‘pronominal’ declension. As for the weak declension, it uses the same markers as *n-stems* of nouns except that in the Gen. pl the pronominal ending *-ra*, is often used instead of the weak *-ena*.

The difference between the strong and the weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike the noun, the 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, e. g.: *Zōd mann* (strong) – a good man. The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns, e. g.: *sē Zōda mann* (weak) – the good man. The strong forms were associated with the meaning of indefiniteness, the weak forms with the meaning of definiteness. The formal and semantic opposition between the two declensions of adjectives is regarded as a grammatical category of definiteness – indefiniteness. It follows that potentially OE adjectives could distinguish up to sixty forms. In reality they distinguished only eleven. Homonymy of forms in the adjective paradigms was three times as high as in the noun. It affected the grammatical categories of the adjective to a varying degree. Neutralisation of formal oppositions reached the highest level in the category of gender: gender distinctions were practically non-existent in the pl, they were lost in most cases of the weak declension in the sg; in the strong declension neuter and masculine forms of adjectives were almost alike.

Formal distinction of number, case and the strong and weak forms was more consistent. Number and case were well distinguished in the strong declension, with only a few instances of neutralisation; the distinction of number was lost only in the Dat. case, masculine and neuter. The forms in the weak declension were less distinctive, as thirteen forms out of twenty ended in *-an*.

In later OE the distinction of forms in the adjective paradigm became even more blurred. The Instr. case fell together with the Dat. Numerous variant forms with phonetically reduced endings or with markers borrowed from other forms through analogy impaired the distinction of categorial forms.

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 (see the

table below). Some adjectives were suppletive and completely changed the root in the comparative and superlative degrees.

Table 17. Comparison of Adjectives in OE

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative -ra	Superlative -est/ost	New English
Suffixation	Soft	Softra	Softost	soft
Suffixation + vowel interchange	lan3 eald	len3ra ieldra	len3est ieldest	long old
Suppletion	3od lytel	bettra láessa	bet(e)st læst	good little

A few adjectives formed their comparative and superlative degrees by supletivity (from different root): *3od* (good) – *betera* – *best*; *mycel* (many) – *mara* – *mæst*; *little* – *lessa* – *lest*.

The paradigm of the adjective in MIDDLE ENGLISH was simplified drastically. The endings became scarce. The category of gender was lost, for the nouns no longer had it. The adjective no longer agrees with the noun in case, the only remaining endings being the plural form having the ending *-e* and the remains of the weak declension, the weak form (the one preceded by an article) *-e*: *young kniht /the younge kniht*; *younge knihtes/the younge knihtes*.

In NEW ENGLISH period only the categories of degrees of comparison remained. Adjectives had lost all inflections except comparative (*-er*) and superlative (*-est*) by the end of ME. The current distribution of syntactic and analytical forms of degrees of comparison has been established.

The **PRONOUN**. Pronouns were the only part of speech in OLD ENGLISH, which preserved the dual number in declension, thus making them more archaic than the rest parts of speech. Most of pronouns are declined in number, case and gender, in plural the majority have only one form for all genders.

Table 18. Personal pronouns

1 <sup>st</sup> person			
	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	ic, íc	Wé	wit
G	Mín	Úre	uncer
D	Mé	Ús	unc
A	mec, mé	úsic, ús	uncit, unc
2 <sup>nd</sup> person			
N	Þú	Gé	git
G	Þín	éower	incer
D	Þé	Éow	inc
A	þéc, þé	éowic, éow	incit, inc
3 <sup>d</sup> person			
N	hé (masc.), héo (fem.), hit (neut.)	híe (masc., neut.), héo (fem.)	

G	his, hire, his	hiera, heora	
D	him, hire, him	Him	
A	hine, hie, hit	hie, heo	

Through the last 1500 years *min* became *mine*, *ge* turned into *you* (*ye* as a colloquial variant). Other changes are significant: the 2nd person singular pronouns disappeared from the language, remaining only in poetic speech and in some dialects in the north of England. This is really a strange feature - one can hardly recall any other Indo-European language which lacks the special pronoun for the 2nd person singular (French *tu*, German *du*, Ukrainian *mu* etc.). The polite form replaced the colloquial one, maybe due to the English traditional “ladies and gentlemen” customs. Another extreme exists in Irish Gaelic, which has no polite form of personal pronoun, and you turn to your close friend the same way as you spoke with a prime minister - the familiar word, translated into French as *tu*. It can sound normal for English, but really funny for Slavic, Baltic, German people who make a thorough distinction between speaking to a friend and to a stranger.

The word for “*she*” was *heo* in Old English. The word *she* probably comes from the feminine demonstrative pronoun *seo* (see below), which derives from the Common Germanic *sjō*. But the exact origin of this simple word is unknown, and there is even a version that it came from Celtic languages (Irish *sí* [shee]) or from Scandinavian.

Only 5 OE forms have developed into ME: he, his, him, it and her. The rest have been lost or replaced. Except for the loss of dual number and the old second person we can say that today’s system of pronouns is more complex than it used to be, but there are no cases nowadays.

Thus, the development of personal pronouns presupposed the following stages:

Old English	Early Middle English	Late Middle English	Early Modern English
Ic	Ich	I	I
þu	þou	Thou	thou
He	He	He	he
Heo	he, heo, ha	She	she
Hit	Hit	Hit	it
We	We	We	we
Ge	ye, you	ye, you	you, ye
Hi	hi, heo, ha	They	they

Table 19. Demonstrative pronouns

<i>se</i> (that)				
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
N	Sé	Séo	þæt	þá
G	þæs	þæ're	þæs	þára
D	þæ'm	þæ're	þæ'm	þám
A	þone	þá	þæt	þá
I	þý, þon	-	þý, þon	-

<i>þes</i> (this)				
N	Þes	þéos, þíos	Þis	Þás
G	Þisses	Þisse	þisses	Þissa
D	þissum, þeossum	Þisse	þissum	Þissum
A	þisne, þysne	Þás	Þis	Þás
I	þis, þys	-	þýs, þis	-

Both demonstrative pronouns come from the same two Proto-Indo-European stems: *so-* / *sa-* and *to-*. Originally, in Indo-European languages there was a three-grade system of demonstrative pronouns, namely “this, next to me”, “this, next to you”, and “that, far from both of us”. But, as well as many branches of the family, Germanic languages preserved only two of them, simplifying the structure to just “this” and “that”.

All indirect case forms of the pronouns above begin with *þ-* [th]. It traces back to the Indo-European *t-* which became *þ* in Germanic.

Table 20. Interrogative pronouns. The table of grammatical changes during the history

	CASE	OLD ENGLISH	MIDDLE ENGLISH	MODERN ENGLISH
	Nominative	hwā	who	who
	Accusative	hwone / hwæne	whom	who / whom
Masculine/Feminine (Person)	Dative	Hwām	whom	who / whom
	Instrumental			
	Genitive	Hwæs	whos	whose
	Nominative	Hwæt	what	
	Accusative	Hwæt	what	What
Neuter (Thing)	Dative	Hwām	whom	
	Instrumental	hwȳ / hwon	why	why
	Genitive	hwæs	whos	whose

*Hwá* meant 'who?', *hwæt* was 'what?'. These pronouns, which actually mean the masculine and the neuter varieties of the same pronoun, derive from Proto-Indo-European *kwis*, with *kw* becoming *hw* in Germanic languages. In Gothic the combination *hw* was considered as one sound which is another proof that the Indo-European the labiovelar sound *kw* was a single sound with some specific articulation.

Later Germanic languages changed the sound in a different way: in Norwegian it remained as *hv*, in German turned into *w* (as in *wer* 'who', *was* 'what'), in English finally changed into *wh* pronounced in most cases [w], but somewhere also like [h] or [hw].

Interesting that the instrumental of the word *hwæt*, once being a pronoun form, later became the word *why* in English. So 'why?' is originally an instrumental case of the interrogative pronoun.

Other interrogative pronouns, or adverbs, as they are sometimes called, include the following, all beginning with *hw*:



*hwilc* 'which?' - is declined as the strong adjective  
*hwonne* 'when?' - this and following are not declined, naturally  
*hwæ'r* 'where?'  
*hwider* 'whither?'  
*hwonan* 'whence?'

#### 4. Other kinds of pronouns.

They include definite, indefinite, negative and relative, all typical for Indo-European languages. All of them still exist in Modern English, and all of them are given here:

##### a) definite

*gehwá* (every) - declined the same way as *hwá*  
*gehwilc* (each),  
*ægþer* (either),  
*æ'lc* (each),  
*swilc* (such) - all declined like strong adjectives  
*sé ylca* (the same) - declined like a weak adjective

##### b) indefinite

*sum* (some),  
*æ'nig* (any) - both behave the same way as strong adjectives

##### c) negative

*nán, næ'nig* (no, none) - declined like strong adjectives

##### d) relative

*þe* (which, that)  
*séþe* (which, that) - they are not declined

In Proto-Indo-European and in many ancient Indo-European languages there was a special kind of declension called pronominal, using only by pronouns and opposed to the one used by nouns, adjectives and numerals. Old English lost it, and its pronouns use all the same endings as the nouns and adjectives. Maybe the only inflection which remembers the Proto-language times, is the neuter nominative -*t* in *hwæt* and *þæt*, the ancient ending for inanimate (inactive) nouns and pronouns.

In MIDDLE ENGLISH the pronouns have retained their forms better than other parts of speech. Dual number went out of use. The category of case rearranged. Dative and Accusative fell together. In masculine and feminine gender Dative was preserved: *him, her*. In neuter gender Accusative *hit* retained. There appeared objective case (I – me) instead of Dative and Accusative. Nominative case was preserved. Genitive developed into possessive case and then possessive pronoun. For the neuter forms 3d person Scandinavian pronouns *they, them, their* were borrowed. About 1300 *she* appeared.

In NEW ENGLISH personal pronouns of the second person were replaced with a plural form: *ye, you, your*. The forms of the second person singular can be found in poetry.

The form of the second person plural nominative *ye* also went out of use, and the form *you* is now in use in both Nominative and objective case.

The pronoun *hit* lost its initial letter and became *it*. The form *its* as the possessive case of neuter gender was introduced in the XVIIth century.

The difference between *my* and *mine* was originally phonetic: *mine* was used before vowels, *my* – before consonants. Later this difference became significant and now these forms have different functions and the different combinability. Then suffix *-s-* was added to denote possession: *her- hers, it – its, our – ours, their – theirs* (by analogy).

Thus, the major changes in Modern English period are as follows:

1. Development of separate conjoint and absolute forms of possessive pronouns (*my/mine, etc*);
2. 2nd person singular forms *thou* and *thee* disappeared in 17th c, the plural forms (*ye/you*) prevailed for both singular and plural;
3. Nominative *ye* became *you*.

The **ARTICLE**. In PROTO-INDO-EUROPEAN no traces of definite or indefinite articles can be found, and the majority of ancient Indo-European languages lack them either. Still the article is considered to be a typical “late Indo-European” feature – as it started appearing when languages of the family existed separately. In Homer's Greek language there were no articles, as well as in Mycenaean Greek, however, all classical Greek dialects already have the definite article in wide use. Later the definite article appeared in Romance languages (though Latin did not have it), Celtic languages (again – Gaulish had no, but all Insular Celtic tongues generated it), in late Germanic (but neither in Gothic, nor in Old English), and even in several Slavic languages, those which belong to the so-called “Balkan language alliance” (Macedonian and Bulgarian).

OLD ENGLISH did not use the article. It appeared later, coming for the demonstrative pronoun. But even in this period the texts show us the frequent use of the demonstrative pronoun before nouns in the sentence: “...*he heold þæt rice*” (he held the kingdom).

Only in MIDDLE ENGLISH the articles were isolated into a separate group of words. The **definite** article developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun masculine singular *sē*, when the meaning of the demonstrative pronoun was weakened. The stages of the development of article *the*:

$sē > \cdot e > the ([\Theta\grave{e}] > [\delta\grave{e}])$

The **indefinite** article was a product of the Old English numerals as it has developed from Old English numeral *ān*. It became shorter: *ān > an*. The stages of the development of the indefinite article:

$\bar{a}n > \bar{a} > a$

Both articles formed a new grammatical category – the category of article determination.

The **NUMERAL**. There were and still exist 2 classes of numerals: cardinal and ordinal. In Proto-Indo-European all numerals were declined, but the OLD ENGLISH preserved the system of declension only for three numbers. All the rest didn't decline.

The list of cardinal numerals was:

1. <i>an</i>	20. <i>twentig</i>
2. <i>twa</i>	21. <i>twentig ond an</i>
3. <i>þrie</i>	30. <i>þritig</i>
4. <i>feower</i>	40. <i>feowertig</i>
5. <i>fif</i>	50. <i>fiftig</i>
6. <i>six, syx, siex</i>	60. <i>siextig</i>
7. <i>seofon</i>	70. <i>siofontig</i>
8. <i>eahta</i>	80. <i>eahtatig</i>
9. <i>nigon</i>	90. <i>nigontig</i>
10. <i>tien, tyn</i>	100. <i>hundteontig, hund, hundred</i>
11. <i>endlefan</i>	110. <i>hundcælleftig</i>
12. <i>twelf</i>	120. <i>hundtwelftig</i>
13. <i>þriotiene</i>	200. <i>tu-hund</i>
14. <i>feowertiene</i>	1000. <i>þusend</i>
15. <i>fiftiene</i>	2000. <i>tu-busendu</i>

As it can be seen from the list above, numerals from 13 added ending suffix *-iene* (teens). Numerals 20, 30, 40 added ending *-tig*.

Their declension was as follows:

1. *án* was declined just like a strong adjective, could be only singular, but had masculine, neuter and feminine genders. It was the source of the future indefinite article 'a, an' in Modern English. So 'a house' in fact means 'one house', here *-n* disappeared before a consonant.

2. *twá*:

	<b>Masculine</b>	<b>Neuter</b>	<b>Feminine</b>
<b>N</b>	<i>Twegen</i>	<i>tú, twá</i>	<i>Twá</i>
<b>G</b>		<i>twégea,</i> <i>twégra</i>	
<b>D</b>		<i>twæ'm, twám</i>	
<b>A</b>	<i>Twegen</i>	<i>tú, twá</i>	<i>Twá</i>

Thus, the genders had differences only in Nominative and Accusative cases, and indirect cases (Genitive and Dative) had common forms for all three genders.

3. *þrie*:

	<b>Masculine</b>	<b>Neuter</b>	<b>Feminine</b>
<b>N</b>	<i>þrie, þrí, þrý</i>	<i>þrío, þréo</i>	<i>þrío, þréo</i>
<b>G</b>		<i>þríora, þréora</i>	
<b>D</b>		<i>Þrím</i>	
<b>A</b>	<i>þrie, þrí, þrý</i>	<i>þrío, þréo</i>	<i>þrío, þréo</i>

While in the case of “two” the MODERN ENGLISH lost masculine and neuter forms and picked up the feminine one for use (‘two’ < *twá*), today's *three* comes directly from the masculine *þrie*.

And the last was the numeral *begen, bú, bá* (both) which was declined in the same way as *twá* and is also dual.

Ordinal numerals used the suffix *-ta* or *-þa*, etymologically a common Indo-European one:

1. <i>forma, fyresta</i>	13. <i>þreoteoþa</i>
2. <i>oþer, æfterra</i>	14. <i>feowerteoþa</i>
3. <i>þrida, þirða</i>	15. <i>fifteoþa</i>
4. <i>feorþa</i>	16. <i>sixteoþa</i>
5. <i>fifta</i>	17. <i>siofonteioþa</i>
6. <i>siexta, syxta</i>	18. <i>eahtateoþa</i>
7. <i>siofoþa</i>	19. <i>nigonteioþa</i>
8. <i>eahtoþa</i>	20. <i>twentigoþa</i>
9. <i>nigoþa</i>	21. <i>þittigoþa</i>
10. <i>teoþa</i>	22. <i>feowertigoþa</i>
11. <i>endlefta</i>	23. <i>fiftigoþa</i>
12. <i>twefta</i>	24. <i>hundteontigoþa</i>

The two variants for the word “first” had the meaning of different attributes: *forma* was translated as “forward”, and *fyresta* was “the farthest”, “the first”. Double variants for the second nominal meant respectively “the other” and “the following”.

Mainly according to Old English texts ordinal numerals were used with the demonstrative pronoun *þá* before them. This is where the definite article in ‘*the first*’, ‘*the third*’ comes from. To say “the 22<sup>nd</sup>”, for example, one had to combine the following: either *twá and twenigþa* (two and twentieth), or *óþer éac twentigum* (second with twenty). As a result, the order was different from Modern English, but instead closer to the Modern German where “the 22<sup>nd</sup>” sounds like *zwei und zwanzig* (two and twenty).

Thus, the words in English became much shorter, and therefore simpler in pronunciation and learning. Compare: “hundredth” and *hundtéontigþa*, “fourth” and *féowertéþa*. MODERN ENGLISH acquired words mainly having one or two syllables.

The **ADVERB**. They can be either primary (original adverbs) or derive from the adjectives. In fact, adverbs appeared in the language rather late, and early PROTO-INDO-EUROPEAN did not use them, but later some auxiliary nouns and pronouns losing their declension started to play the role of adverbial modifiers.

In OLD ENGLISH the basic primary adverbs were the following ones: *þa* (then), *þonne* (then), *þæ'r* (there), *þider* (thither), *nú* (now), *hér* (here), *hider* (hither), *heonan* (hence), *sóna* (soon), *oft* (often), *eft* (again), *swá* (so), *hwílum* (sometimes).

Secondary adverbs originated from the instrumental singular of the neuter adjectives of strong declension. They all added the suffix *-e*: *wíde* (widely), *déope* (deeply), *fæste* (fast), *hearde* (hard). Another major subgroup of them used the suffixes *-lic*, *-lice* from more complexed adjectives: *bealdlice* (boldly), *freondlice* (in a friendly way).

Adverbs, as well as adjectives, had their degrees of comparison:

*wíde* – *wídor* – *wídot* (widely - more widely - most widely)

*long* – *leng* (long - longer)

*feorr* (far) – *fierr*

*sófte* (softly) – *séft*

*éape* (easily) – *iep*

*wel* (well) – *betre* – *best*

*yfele* (badly) – *wiers*, *wyrs* – *wierst*

*micelle* (much) – *máre* – *mæ'st*

The **VERB**. Modern English makes a distinction between regular and irregular verbs. This distinction goes back to the OLD ENGLISH system of strong and weak verbs: the ones which used the ancient Germanic type of conjugation (the Ablaut), and the ones which just added endings to their past and participle forms. Strong verbs made the clear majority. According to the traditional division, which was taken from Gothic and is accepted by modern linguistics, all strong verbs were distinguished between seven classes, each having its peculiarities in conjugation and in the stem structure:

Class	I	II	IIIa	IIIb	IIIc	IV	V	VI	VIII
Infinitive	í	èo	I	Eo	e	e	e	a	different
Past singular	á	èa	A	Ea	ea	æ	æ	ó	è, eo, èo
Past plural	i	U	U	U	u	æ'	æ'	ó	è, eo, èo
Participle II	i	O	U	O	o	o	e	a	a, á, ea

The samples of strong verb classes, given with their four forms (Infinitive, Past singular, Past plural, Participle II (or Past Participle)), can be viewed below:

#### CLASS I

*wrítan* (to write), *wrát*, *writon*, *written*

*snípan* (to cut), *snáp*, *snidon*, *sniden*

Other examples: *belífan* (stay), *clífan* (cling), *ygrípan* (clutch), *bítan* (bite), *slítan* (slit), *besmítan* (dirty), *gewítan* (go), *blícan* (glitter), *sícan* (sigh), *stígan* (mount), *scínan* (shine), *árisan* (arise), *lípan*(go).

#### CLASS II

*béodan* (to offer), *béad*, *budon*, *boden*

*céosan* (to choose), *céas*, *curon*, *coren*

Other examples: *créopan* (creep), *cléofan* (cleave), *fléotan* (fleet), *géotan* (pour), *gréotan* (weep), *néotan* (enjoy), *scéotan* (shoot), *léogan* (lie), *bréowan* (brew), *dréosan* (fall), *fréosan* (freeze), *forléosan* (lose).

#### CLASS III

IIIa) a nasal consonant

*drincan* (to drink), *dranc*, *druncon*, *drunken*

Other: *swindan* (vanish), *onginnan* (begin), *sinnan* (reflect), *winnan* (work), *geli mpan* (happen), *swimman* (swim).

IIIb) l + a consonant

*helpan* (to help), *healp*, *hulpon*, *holpen*

Other: *delfan* (delve), *swelgan* (swallow), *sweltan* (die), *bellan* (bark), *melcan* (milk).

IIIc) r, h + a consonant

*Steorfan* (to die), *stearf*, *sturfon*, *storfen*  
*weorþan* (to become), *wearþ*, *wurdon*, *worden*  
*feohtan* (to fight), *feaht*, *fuhton*, *fohten*

More: *ceorfan* (carve), *hweorfan* (turn), *weorpan* (throw), *beorgan* (conceal), *beorcan* (bark).

**CLASS IV**

*stelan* (to steal), *stæ'l*, *stæ'lon*, *stolen*  
*beran* (to bear), *bæ'r*, *bæ'ron*, *boren*

More: *cwelan* (die), *helan* (conceal), *teran* (tear), *brecan* (break).

**CLASS V**

*tredan* (to tread), *træ'd*, *træ'don*, *treden*  
*cweþan* (to say), *cwæ'þ*, *cwæ'don*, *cweden*

More: *metan* (measure), *swefan* (sleep), *wefan* (weave), *sprecan* (to speak), *wrecan* (persecute), *lesan* (gather), *etan* (eat), *wesan* (be).

**CLASS VI**

*faran* (to go), *fór*, *fóron*, *faren*

More: *galan* (sing), *grafan* (dig), *hladan* (lade), *wadan* (walk), *dragan* (drag), *gnagan* (gnaw), *bacan* (bake), *scacan* (shake), *wascan* (wash).

**CLASS VII**

*hátan* (to call), *hét*, *héton*, *hátan*  
*feallan* (to fall), *feoll*, *feollon*, *feallen*  
*cnéawan* (to know), *cnéow*, *cnéowon*, *cnáwen*

More: *blondan* (blend), *ondræ'dan* (fear), *lácán* (jump), *scadan* (divide), *fealdan* (fold), *healdan* (hold), *sponnan* (span), *béatan* (beat), *blówan* (flourish), *hlówan* (low), *spówan* (flourish), *máwan* (mow), *sáwan* (sow), *ráwan* (turn).

The comparison of Old English and Modern English verbs allows to catch the point of their transformation, such as the drop of the ending *-an* in the infinitive and the numerous changes in the stems. For example, the long *í* in the stem gives *i* with an open syllable in the modern language (*writan* > *write*, *scínan* > *shine*). The same can be said about *a*, which nowadays is *a* in open syllables pronounced [æ] (*hladan* > *lade*). The initial combination *sc* turns to *sh*; the open *e* was transformed into *ea* practically everywhere (*sprecan* > *speak*, *tredan* > *tread*, etc.).

One of the unique features of Germanic languages was the formation of the weak verbs, which did not exist in the Proto-Indo-European language. Some linguists consider these weak verbs the derivatives from nouns or adjectives (like Gothic *fulljan* 'to fill' from *full* 'full'), which made such verbs secondary in relation to strong ones. While the strong verbs form their past participle (as well as the infinitive) with the suffix *-n-* added to the present tense stem, the weak type verbs have the suffix *-t-* instead, which later became *-d-* or *-ed* or *-de* and spread to all the past forms. Both these suffices derive from the markers of Proto-Indo-European participles. Weak verbs in Old English (today's English regular verbs) were conjugated in a simpler way than

the strong ones, and did not use the ablaut interchanges of the vowel stems. Weak verbs were divided into three classes, which had only slight differences. They did have the three forms – the infinitive, the past tense, the participle II:

### CLASS I

#### *Regular verbs*

Inf.	Past	Past Participle
<i>déman</i> (to judge),	<i>démde</i> ,	<i>démed</i>
<i>hieran</i> (to hear),	<i>híerde</i> ,	<i>híered</i>
<i>nerian</i> (to save),	<i>nerede</i> ,	<i>nered</i>
<i>styrian</i> (to stir),	<i>styrede</i> ,	<i>styred</i>
<i>fremman</i> (to commit),	<i>fremede</i> ,	<i>fremed</i>
<i>cnyssan</i> (to push),	<i>cnysede</i> ,	<i>cnysed</i>

When the suffix was preceded by a voiceless consonant the ending underwent a slight change: *cépan* (to keep), *cépte*, *cépt* / *céped*; *grétan* (to greet), *grétte*, *grét* / *gréted*. If the verb stem ended in consonant plus *d* or *t*: *sendan* (to send), *sende*, *send* / *sended*; *restan* (to rest), *reste*, *rest* / *rested*.

The irregular verbs of the same class were as follows: *sellan* (to give), *sealde*, *seald*; *tellan* (to tell), *tealde*, *teald*; *cwellan* (to kill), *cwealde*, *cweald*; *tæ'can* (to teach), *táhte*, *táht*; *ræ'can* (to reach), *ráhte*, *ráht*; *bycgan* (to buy), *bohte*, *boht*; *sécan* (to seek), *sóhte*, *sóht*; *wyrcan* (to work), *worhte*, *worth*; *þencan* (to think), *þóhte*, *þóht*; *bringan* (to bring), *bróhte*, *broth*.

Other examples of the I class weak verbs included: *berian* (beat), *derian* (harm), *erian* (plough), *ferian* (go), *herian* (praise), *gremman* (be angry), *wennan* (accustom), *clynnan* (sound), *dynnan* (resound), *hlynnan* (roar), *hrissan* (tremble), *sceppan* (harm), *wecgean* (move), *féran* (go), *læ'ran* (teach), *dræfan* (drive), *fýsan* (hurry), *drygean* (dry), *hiepan* (heap), *métan* (to meet), *wýscean* (wish), *byldan* (build), *wendan* (turn), *efstan* (hurry). All of them were regular.

### CLASS II

<i>macian</i> (to make),	<i>macode</i> ,	<i>macod</i>
<i>lufian</i> (to love),	<i>lufode</i> ,	<i>lufod</i>
<i>hopian</i> (to hope),	<i>hopode</i> ,	<i>hopod</i>

This class makes quite a small group of verbs, all of them having *-o-* before the past endings. Other samples: *lofian* (praise), *stician* (pierce), *eardian* (dwell), *scéawian* (look), *weorþian* (honour), *wundrian* (wonder), *fæstnian* (fasten), *mærsian* (glorify).

### CLASS III

<i>habban</i> (to have),	<i>hæfde</i> ,	<i>hæfd</i>
<i>libban</i> (to live),	<i>lifde</i> ,	<i>lifd</i>
<i>secgan</i> (to say),	<i>sægde</i> ,	<i>sægd</i>
<i>hycgan</i> (to think),	<i>hogde</i> ,	<i>hogod</i>
<i>þréagan</i> (to threaten),	<i>þréade</i> ,	<i>þréad</i>
<i>sméagan</i> (to think),	<i>sméade</i> ,	<i>sméad</i>
<i>fréogan</i> (to free),	<i>fréode</i> ,	<i>fréod</i>
<i>féogan</i> (to hate),	<i>féode</i> ,	<i>féod</i>

Old English verbs were conjugated having **two tenses** – the Present tense and the Past tense, and **three moods** – Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative. Of these, only the Subjunctive mood has disappeared in the English language, acquiring an analytic construction instead of inflections; and the Imperative mood has coincided with the Infinitive form (*to write* - *write!*). In the Old English period they all looked different.

It should be noted that the Present tense has the conjugation for all three moods, while the Past tense – for only two moods (no Imperative in the Past tense, naturally).

As all verbal forms in Old English were generated from three verb stems, each verb had its own three ones: the Infinitive stem, the Past Singular stem, the Past Plural stem. For the verb *writan*, for example, those three stems are: *writ-* (Infinitive without the ending *-an*), *wrát-* (the Past singular), *writ-* (the Past plural without the ending *-on*).

Additionally, the participles (Participle I and Participle II) were formed by the suffix *-ende* to the Infinitive stem (participle I), or the prefix *ge-* + the Past Plural stem + the ending *-en* (Participle II); I *fónde* II *gefangen*, *gefangen*.

A special group is made by the so-called Present-Preterite verbs, which are conjugated combining two varieties of the usual verb conjugation: strong and weak. These verbs, at all not more than seven, are nowadays called **modal** verbs in English.

Present-Preterite verbs had their Present tense forms generated from the Strong Past, and the Past tense, instead, looked like the Present Tense of the Weak verbs. The verbs in question were: *witan* (to know), *cunnan* (can), *þurfan* (to need), *dearan* (to dare), *munan* (to remember), *sculan* (shall), *magan* (may).

The main difference of verbs of this type in Modern English is their expressing modality, i.e. possibility, obligation, necessity. They do not require the particle *to* before the Infinitive which follows them. In Old English in general no verb required this particle before the infinitive. In fact, this *to* before the Infinitive form meant the preposition of direction.

A few irregular verbs used several different stems for their tense-forms. These verbs were very important in Old English and are met very often in the texts: *wesan* (to be), *béon* (to be), *gán* (to go), *dón* (to do), *willan* (will). As there was no Future tense in the Old English language, the future action was expressed by the Present forms, sometimes using verbs of modality, *willan* (lit. “to wish to do”) or *sculan* (lit. “to have to do”).

Syntactically, Old English language had only two main tenses – the Present and the Past. No progressive (or Continuous) forms were used, they were invented only in the Early Middle English period. Such complex forms as modern Future in the Past, Future Perfect Continuous did not exist either. However, some analytic constructions were in use, and first of all the perfective constructions. The example “*Hie geweorc geworhten hæfdon*” = ‘they have build a fortress’ has the exact Perfect meaning, but at that time it was not the verb category really, just a Participle construction showing that the action has been done. Seldom one can also find such Past constructions, which later became the Past Perfect Tense.

Word-building included a number of suffixes and prefixes which can be found in Old English texts and especially in poetry:



a) Suffixes:

1. **-s-** (from substantive or adjective stems) - *mæ'rsian* (to announce; from *mæ're* - famous)
2. **-læc-** - *néálæcan* (to approach):
3. **-ett-** - *bliccettan* (to sparkle).

b) Prefixes:

1. **á-** = out of, from - *árisan* (arise), *áwakan* (awake), *áberan* (sustain);
2. **be-** = over, around, by - *begán* (go around), *bepencan* (think over), *behéafdian* (behead);
3. **for-** = destruction or loss - *fordón* (destroy), *forweorþan* (perish);
4. **mis-** = negation or bad quality - *mislician* (displease);
5. **of-** = reinforces - *ofsléan* (kill), *oftéon* (take away);
6. **on-** = change or separation - *onbindan* (unbind), *onlúcan* (unlock);
7. **tó-** = destruction - *tóbrecan* (break).

In MIDDLE ENGLISH all types of verbs existing in Old English - strong, weak, preterite-present and irregular were preserved. However, each type was marked by changes due to phonetic developments of this period. The proportional value of the weak verbs was greater and continued to grow, and some of the former strong verbs were drifting in the direction of the weak ones. The drift was not a comprehensive one; there was even a reverse process, some of the former weak verbs became strong.

The Old English prefix *ge-* was reduced to *y-*. In most dialects it disappeared by the 14c., yet in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* we may find a considerable number of such uses.

Non-finite forms which in Old English comprised the Infinitive and the two Participles, have changed in the direction from the nominal to verbal parts of speech. They were no longer declined, nor were they agreed with the nouns; gradually new verbal categories penetrated into their system, and nowadays we speak about the analytical forms of the non-finite forms (Passive Infinitive, Perfect Infinitive etc.).

A new non-finite form of the verb arose - the Gerund.

The infinitive lost the category of case and acquired a pre-infinitival particle *to*. It could still be used with what remained of the infinitival suffix (*-an, -ian* → *-en, -n*) - *to writen, to spenden, to maken* - but the tendency to lose the final consonant was strong, and we find in Chaucer's works *to seke* alongside with *to seken, to do* with *to doon, to make* with *to maken*. This particle was not used when the infinitive stood after other (preterite-present in particular) verbs.

Participle I, having an active meaning and expressing a process of doing something, in Middle English changed its shape. Its suffix *-ende* turned into *-inde* and finally *-ynge/-inge* due to the processes of weakening of the final sounds and through intermixture with other dialectal forms. In the Old English there existed the form of the verbal noun with the suffix *-ung* (*liornunge* - learning) which also was shifting toward less distinct form *-ynge/-inge*. So these two forms became homonymic, which led to much confusion: "The silver dropes *hangynge* on the leves" (the silver drops hanging on the leaves); "A rose gerland, fressh and wel *smellynge*" (a rose garland (wreath) fresh and well-smelling).

Originally, the verbal noun was derived from transitive verbs, took an object in the Genitive case (which in our times is replaced by *of*-phrase). But when phonetically it

coincided with the Participle, it began to behave more freely, now and again taking the direct object. So from the verbal noun without an article but with a direct object we got a grammatical innovation - the Gerund. The number of Gerunds in Chaucer's works is not very significant-yet its versatility, the fact that it could be used with various prepositions makes it still more vague. It is said that true Gerunds (unambiguous) were found only 6 times in Chaucer's works - or were those just grammatical mistakes?

Participles II in Middle English - those of strong verbs and those of the weak ones continued to be used with the prefix *y-* (reduced *ge-*); but this was not universal, and they were sure to lose it in Early Modern English. Yet in Chaucer's works we may find an interesting phenomenon when depending on the use or non-use of the prefix with the participles of the strong verbs final *-n* disappears: *hoplen* but *y-holpe*, while the Participle II form of the weak verbs does not change, prefixed or non-prefixed *broyded - y-broyded*.

#### The changes in various classes of the Middle English Verb

The changes in strong verbs were as follows:

The number of the basic forms of the verb remained the same (four), but due to the reduction of endings and the fact that the length of the vowel became positional the form of the Present Participle of some verbs coincided with the form of the past plural, that is that here too we may find homonymy of forms:

class I      *writen - wrot - writen - writen*;

class II     *chesen - ches - chosen - chosen*;

class III    *drinken - drank - dronken - dronken; helpen - halp - holpen - holpen*;

*fighten - faught - foughten - foughten*;

class IV    *beren - bar - beren/bar - boren*;

class V     *geten - gat - geten/gat - geten*;

class VI    *shaken - shok - shaken - shaken*;

class VII   *knownen - knew - knewen - knownen*

Some of the strong verbs could take the dental suffix for formation of their past form, thus becoming weak (*gripen, crepen, eleven, wepen, spelen, walken, dreden, rederi*): "He *slepte* namoore than dooth a nyghtyngale" (he slept no more than does a nightingale).

#### The weak verbs

The number of weak verbs was growing significantly in Middle English, because practically all borrowed verbs and new verbs derived from other parts of speech become weak.

The changes in the weak verbs were mainly phonetical. Some of them lost the sound in the suffix in the infinitive (*lufian - louen*); class II lost its specific *-ode* ending due to the levelling of endings and turned into *-ed*; class III retained only the verbs *sejjen, libben, hebben - seien, liven and haven*.

In the 14c. in some weak verbs with a stem ending in *l, n, and v* the past suffix *-d* changed into *-t* (*leornian - leornode - lernte; felan - felde (feelen - felte)*).

Most Scandinavian borrowings were conjugated according to the weak type: *callen, wanten, guessen* (except *take, thriven* and *flingen* which had vowel interchange in the past tense and in the participle - probably due to their own origin and similarity in formation of the forms joined correspondingly class VI, I, and III of the strong verbs). All the verbs

of the French origin (with the exception of *striven* that joined class I of the strong verbs), became weak (we call them now regular).

In the group of preterite-present verbs *geneah* lost its status of a verb and turned into an adverb *ynough* (enough): “he drank *ynough* biforn”; the other just simplified their paradigms.

*Shall/sholde* alongside with its modal meaning was widely used as an auxiliary of the future tense, future-in-the-past and as auxiliaries of the new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood.

*Motan* gradually lost the meaning of ability and possibility which was occasionally expressed by its present tense form *moot*, and was more and more used to express obligation; the past tense form *moste* was used only in this latter meaning: “Who sorweth now but woful Palamoun, // That *moot* namoore goon agayn to fighte?” (Who grieves now but woeful Palamon that cannot go again to fight?)

The form *moste* might occasionally retain its past tense meaning, but in most cases approaches its present-day status.

*Ben* and *goon* remained suppletive, *goon* having acquired another stem (*went*) for the past tense, which finally supplanted the other one (*eode*).

#### The Categories of the Middle English Verb

During this period there appeared analytical forms of the verb. In Old English the only ways to make the forms of the verb were: *suffixes/vowel interchange/using another stem + inflections*. In Middle English the forms of the verb now very common in Present-day English but absent in Old English emerged.

Future time relevance was rendered by various supporting elements in the text; so in the adverbial clauses of time and condition it was self-evident, that with the insertion of a marker in the principal clause the action of the subordinate would invariably refer to the future as well (*When he comes I want him to help me*). In sentences containing explicit indication of time by means of adverbs, etc. it was not a compulsory element; hence we have the following uses of the present instead of the future *tomorrow we are writing a test*. The use of such verbs as *shall/ will* referred the action to the future as such which was desirable but not yet realized, or obligatory. In Middle English these become the true auxiliaries for the Future tense. Chaucer used them freely: “*I shal telle* vow bitwix us two (I shall tell you between the two of us); // of which I tolde yow *and tellen shal* (Of which I told you and shall tell further) // *I shal make* us sauf for everemore (I shall make us safe forever).

The Present and the Past Perfect equally came into the Middle English, both using as auxiliary the verb *to haven* in the Present or the past tense + Participle II (with or without a prefix): “*Aprille hathpercedto* the rote...” (April has pierced to the root...); “hem *hath holpen*...” (has helped them); “who *hath thee doon* offence” (who has offended you); “so *hadde I spoken* with hem everichon...” (so I had spoken with each of them).

Perfect infinitives were common in Chaucer's times, mainly as part of new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood: “And on hir bare knees adoun they falle, // And wolde *have kist* his feet” (And they fell down on their bare knees and would have kissed his feet).

The passive voice expressed by the combination *ben* + *Participle II* expressing a state as well as an action was widely used in Middle English. Unlike Old English where the form

of the Participle agreed in number with the subject of the sentence (*daet arcebiscop was jemartyrod /waeron jemartyrode*), in Middle English, where still the ending of the plural adjectives and participles was preserved in Participle II, the lexical part of the analytical form was utterly unchangeable: “hir yellow heer *was broyded* in a tresse” (her yellow hair was braided in a tress).

The category of voice was expressed also in the non-finite forms of the verb - Passive Infinitives were rather common in this period: “This tresor moste *ycaried be* by nyghte, as wisely and as slyly as it myghte” (This treasure must be carried by night, as wisely and as slyly as possible...).

The Future, the Perfect and the Passive form reflected different aspects of the action.

The verb in Early New English experienced the loss of endings, that greatly simplified the verbal paradigm. The traditional classification of strong and weak verbs gave way to division into regular and irregular, with a pronounced tendency within the classes of the strong verbs to turn into weak ones, regular or irregular, but nevertheless forming their Past tense and Participle II by a dental suffix *-d or -t*.

As to the Modal verbs, the changes in preterite-present were significant. Some verbs were lost altogether (*downen, unnen, thurven, munneri*). The rest lost the greater part of their paradigms and turned into a group of modal (defective) verbs. Unlike the former preterite-present verbs, these were no longer autonomous and couldn't be used without a complement. Now they are always used as modal auxiliaries with the infinitive without the particle *to*. In Shakespeare's time, however, there were some exceptions - at least some of them still retained the former semantics, such is the verb *witen* (to know)

The number of basic four forms of the former strong was reduced to three: that of the Infinitive, Past tense and Participle II.

The non-finite forms of the verb - the Infinitive, the Participle and the Gerund developed the set of forms and can hardly be called now the nominal parts of speech. Passive and Perfect infinitives, Passive and Perfect Gerund, Present Participle in the Passive voice and Perfect Participle in the Active and the Passive voice fully represent new verbal grammatical categories: “I am to blame *to be thus waited for*” (Julius Caesar) (passive).

The Gerund that originated and was occasionally used in Middle English became quite common, the use of this form did not differ from the present-day practice: “You know the cause, air, of *my standing* here” (Coriolanus).

Moods of the Early New English period were the same as they were in the Middle English - the Indicative, the Imperative and Subjunctive. The newly arisen analytical forms of the Subjunctive (now in some grammars they are called the Conditional, the Suppositional and Subjunctive II Past) have not yet the present-day differentiation as to the rules of the structural limitation of their use - we may find any combination of the moods in the sentence of unreal condition: “If thou *wert* honourable, // Thbu *wouldst have told* this tale for virtue” (Cymbeline).

Simple sentences with Subjunctive mood expressing wish were frequent, and practically all forms are found there: “O heavens! that this treason *were* not, or not I the detector” (King Lear).

Subjunctive I was also widespread in other types of clauses, where in present-day English we have Suppositional Mood (*should* + Infinitive) and in American variant the

older archaic form is preserved: “...parting is such sweet sorrow, // That I shall say good night (Romeo and Juliet).

The continuous aspect, the first instances of which were used in Middle English was occasionally used in the texts of this period, though not as a system.

As a result, in MODERN ENGLISH period the verbal system was marked by the following changes:

- Transformation of strong verbs into weak.
- Further reduction of verbal inflections: the ending *-e* of the 1<sup>st</sup> person singular, of the plural present and infinitive were lost.
- Decline in use of Subjunctive.
- Strong verbs were becoming weak, e.g. *help*.
- Infinitive *-n* ending disappeared.
- Present indicative plural endings *-n* or *-th* disappeared.
- *-ing* became universal Present Participle ending.
- In the 3rd person singular present indicative the ending *-th* was eventually replaced by *-s*.
- In Early ModE the auxiliary verb *do* was widely used as an auxiliary.
- Two-part phrasal verbs became common (shorten up, wear out, cut off).
- The system of perfect forms, which had arisen in OE and developed in MidE, went on unfolding.
- The category of Continuous Aspect was developed only in ModE period. The Perfect Continuous forms became widely used only in the 19<sup>th</sup> century.

**The Old English NON-NOTIONAL WORDS.** These traditionally include prepositions, conjunctions, different particles and interjections. All Indo-European languages had a system of Auxiliary parts of speech, though there are languages, which lack some of them now. Japanese, for example, has no prepositions, and the service function in the sentence belongs to postpositive words, which have cases, the same as nouns. Korean does not use any conjunctions, replacing them by about 50 different kinds of verbal adverbs. As for Chinese, it simply does not make any distinction in the sentence between Basic and Auxiliary NOTIONAL AND NON-NOTIONAL words.

Most of Old English prepositions are easily recognizable: a) primary: *of* (of, out of), *æt* (to), *fram* (from), *tó* (to), *wip* (against), *in, of, mid* (with), *on* (on, at), *be* (by, near, to, because of, about), *purh* (through), *under, ofer* (over), *æfter* (after), *bufan* (above), *ú t*(out); b) secondary: *beforan* (before), *bútan* (without), *benorþan* (north of), etc.

In the Germanic languages all prepositions were divided into those which used nouns in dative, accusative or genitive. But in the Old English period this distinction vanished, and only some of the prepositions used dative (*mid, bútan*, sometimes *on, in*) or Genitive (*fram, út, æfter*).

Conjunctions included the following: a) primary: *and / ond* (and), *ac* (but), *gif* (if), *or*; b) secondary: *ægþer ge... ge* (both... and..., either ... or...), *hwonne* (when), *þa* (when), *þonne* (when), *þéáh* (though), *þætte* (that), *ær* (before), *swá... swá...* (so... as...).

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) Ben Johnson, *English Grammar* (1640).
- 2) Prisciptive grammarians. Robert Lowth (1710-87).
- 3) Thomas Sheridan, *Lectures on Elocution* (1762).
- 4) Lindley Murray, *English Grammar* (1795).
- 5) The Flower brothers, *A Dictionary of English Usage* (1926).

## Lecture 6

### THE SYNTACTICAL STRUCTURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE, ITS DYNAMICS AND THE PROCESS OF GRAMMATICALIZATION

1. *What was the nature of syntactic structure in the “embryonic forms” of Old English?*
2. *Middle English and the changes of the grammatical type of the language.*
3. *The birth of the Modern English syntactic features.*

The syntactic structure of OLD ENGLISH 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.

#### I. 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 present a variety of word phrases. OE noun patterns, adjective and verb patterns had certain specific features, which were 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 þæm 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 a man.

Verb patterns included a great variety of dependent components: nouns and pronouns in oblique cases with or without prepositions, adverbs, infinitives and participles, e.g. *”brinz þā þīnz”* = bring those things.

#### II. 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 should also be noted that objects were often placed before the predicate or between two parts of the predicate.

English syntax and morphology changed drastically during the MIDDLE ENGLISH period (1066-1500). The changes in syntax were hastened by the aftermath of the Norman Conquest, but they were NOT a result of contact with the French language, and they did not happen overnight.

***The major changes included:***

1. Decay of Inflectional Endings
  - a) m > n in inflectional endings (e.g., *muðum* > *muðun*, *godum* > *godun*)
  - b) The new (and old) *-n* ending dropped (e.g., *muðu*, *godu*)
  - c) Inflectional *-a*, *-u*, *-e*, changed to the sound, which was usually spelled *-e* (e.g., *muðe*, *gode*).
2. The Noun
  - a) By the end of the ME period, the only remaining inflections for nouns were the plural and possessive markers;
  - b) Possessives: generally *-s* or *-es* becomes the genitive ending except in cases when the [s] is already phonologically present
3. Pronouns
  - a) Of the many forms of *se*, *seo*, *þæt*, etc., only *the* and *that* remained in use. Of the group *þes*, *þeos*, *þis*, only *those* and *this* survived;
  - b) Decline of the dual personal pronouns.
4. Verbs
  - a) The strong conjugation dwindled. As new verbs entered the language, they were conjugated like weak verbs;
  - b) Survival of Strong Participles (e.g., *hew*, *hewed*, *hewn*; *melt*, *melteð*, *molten*; *mow*, *moweð*, *mown*).

In OE there were free combinations of verbs which expressed the tendency of turning into analytical constructions. Thus, the combination of the verb **habban** + **Participle II** showed the tendency of developing into Perfect tense forms. In ME Perfect tenses continued their development and had already the Present, Past and Future Perfect tense forms. The verb **habban** was used with transitive verbs, the verb **beon** was used with intransitive verbs: “*Lordings, right thus, as ye have understonde, bar I stifly mine olde housbondes on honde ‘gentlemen, just thus, as you have understood, I staunchly made my old husbands believe’; ‘I hadde unnethe that word y-said ring thus as I have told hit yow, that sodeynly... hardly had I pronounced this word, just as I have told it you, when suddenly...’; but al thing, which that shyneth as the gold, it nis nat hold, as that I have herd it told ‘but not everything that shines like gold is gold, As I have heard it told’.*”

The usage of the Present Perfect in ME differed from that in Modern English. Thus, Present Perfect was used in ME to express a completed action even in case the period of time of the action was cut off from the present.

The combination consisting of the auxiliary verb **be** + **Participle II** was not only the Present tense form, it could also be a passive construction.

The combinations consisted of the verb **be** + **Participle I** historically being the Gerund developed into Continuous tenses. In ME new analytical tense forms continued their development.

The use of the Subjunctive Mood. In ME the Subjunctive mood was used in all kinds of sentences: in simple, complex and subordinate clauses. The characteristic feature of the Subjunctive mood form was the absence of flections for any person. The Subjunctive Mood was used to express not real actions but wished, desired: ‘*and stepen wollen till the sonne shyne*’, ‘*and will sleep till the sun shines*’.

In subordinate clauses the Subjunctive Mood was usually used after the conjunctions **till, if, erk (before)**. In ME alongside with the OE synthetic forms of the Subjunctive mood new analytical constructions were used.

An unreal condition referring to the present was expressed by the following formula: “wolde + infinitive”. If the action referred to the past, the phrase “wolde + perfect infinitive” was used. Here are some examples: “*So that I wiste I sholde you nat greve, I wolde demen that ye tellen sholde a tale*” = ‘If I knew I should not grieve you would think that you should tell a tale’; “*nerre thou our brother, sholdestou nat thryve*” = ‘if you were not our brother, you would not thrive’.

The verbals. In ME there were 3 verbals: the Infinitive, the Gerund and the Participle. The Infinitive was historically a noun derived from a verb-stem. It was conjugated and in the Dative case was used with the preposition **to**. It expressed purpose or direction. In ME the Infinitive lost its characteristic ending **-en** and retained the only characteristic feature, that is the preposition **to** which now turned into a particle: “... *than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages*” = ‘then people long to go on pilgrimages’; “*she gan so sore longe to seen her suster*” = ‘she began so strongly to long to see her sister’.

In ME the Infinitive was used in the function of an adverbial modifier of purpose. It was accompanied by the preposition «**to**»: “*the cradil at hire beddes feet is set to rokken*” = ‘the cradle at the foot of her bed is set to be rocked’.

**The Gerund** developed from the combination **beon + on + verbal-noun**. In these combinations the verbal-noun developed its verbal features and thus, took the position intermediate between the noun and the verb. In MnE we speak about the double nature of the Gerund: “*I slough Samson in schakyng the piler*” = ‘I slew Samson by shaking the pillar’.

**The Participle.** In ME there were two participles: Present Participle ending in **-ende** and Past Participle. In ME **-ende** gave **-ing**: drinkende > drinking.

##### 5. Loss of Grammatical Gender.

In ME most of the flections were gradually being discarded and superseded by prepositions and prepositional phrases. Thus, the preposition «**of**» appeared to render the relations expressed by the Genitive case: “*the droughte of March*”. But alongside with the preposition «**of**» there still existed the Genitive case with the flexion «**-es**». The preposition «**to**» appeared to render the relations expressed the dative case: “*I telle it to child*”.



The order of words. The order of words in ME became more fixed. It was connected with the development of the analytical features in English. In most cases the order of words was direct. The indirect order was characteristic of interrogative sentences, in affirmative sentences the inverted order of words was rather rare, it could be found in separate sentences especially in those beginning with an adverb. Sometimes the auxiliary verb was placed before the subject: “*So hadde I spoken with him*”.

As many inflections were lost, the position of a word in the sentence became more important. Here is an illustration from Chaucer’s “*The Canterbury Tales*”:

*“Whan that Aprille with his schoures sote  
The droughte of Marche hath perced to the rote  
And bathed every veyne in swieh licour,  
Of which vertu engendred is the flour...”*

*“When April with its sweet showers has pierced the drought of March to the root, and bathed every vein in such liquid, from whose power the flower is engendred....”*

In this passage the subject *Aprille* and the direct objects *the droughte* and *every veyne* are characterized as such, not by any inflections but solely by their position in the sentence. However, this position is not so fixed as it is in Modern English: the first direct object, *the droughte*, comes before the predicate. Since the predicate in this subordinate clause is expressed by a verb in the Passive voice, no misunderstanding can arise; however, in Modern English such order would hardly be possible.

Thus, for the most part, Middle English syntax is rather similar to Modern English. The basic word order is Subject-Verb-Object. Still, that word order is somewhat less rigid than in the current tongue, specifically:

a) the object and even the “rest of sentence” (adjuncts, prepositional phrases) may precede the verb: **Whan he his papir soghte** = “*when he sought his paper*”;

b) in helping verb constructions (comparable to *will buy* or *can go*), the helping verb and the main verb may be split by the object and even the rest of the sentence: **His maister shal it in his shoppe abyen** = “*his master will buy it in his shop*”;

c) one of the commonest examples of reversed word order is found alongside quotations: **quod he** = “*he said*”; **quod I** = “*I said*”.

MODERN ENGLISH period provides an essential link between the syntactic innovations of Early Modern English and the established system of Present-Day English. The structure of the sentence in Early New English is conditioned by the previous development of its morphology. With the practical loss of endings by the nouns and adjectives, their position in the sentence becomes quite relevant to the meaning they render – so, the direct word order prevails, the subject precedes the predicate in non-emotional sentences, and the object is shifted to the position after the predicate.

Agreement as a means of grammatical connection of the words in the sentences is limited to the demonstrative pronouns that preserve their plural form. The predicate agrees with the subject when it is expressed by the verb ‘to be’ or the Passive form of the verb with the same auxiliary, and in the third person singular of the Present tense.

Government is also restricted to some structures with personal pronouns and interrogative or relative *who/whom*, the role of prepositions grows. Some say that even the term prepositional government might be introduced to emphasize their growing role in connecting words.

As far as the general organization of the sentence is concerned, a new phenomenon arises – the structure of the sentence becomes nominative, that is a subject in the Nominative case becomes a necessary part of it. The majority of sentences had it in Old and in Middle English. But at the same time impersonal sentences, where the doer of the action was indefinite, had a special structure without the subject, having the predicate and the object in the Dative case, sometimes the object merged with the very verb. Such structures are still found in Shakespeare's plays: “*But, soft! methinks I scent the morning air*” (“Hamlet”); “*And yet me thinks I see it in thy face, // What thou shouldst be*” (“The Tempest”).

The tendency to the nominative structure finds its expression in the fact that such meanings either are expressed in sentences with personal pronouns (*I think, I like* etc.) or the formal subject *it* is introduced and becomes quite common in NEW ENGLISH.

A true innovation is observed in the structure of the sentence as auxiliary *do* is introduced. It appears in all types of sentences: declarative, negative and interrogative containing the Present or Past tenses of the Indicative Mood and the Imperative Mood. These forms are known as “doperiphrasi”, and practically all of them are devoid of any emphatic meaning, of any stylistic connotation. Occasionally we may find that the structure containing *do* may be really emphatic, but that is conditioned rather by the lexical meaning of the words. Originally, the forms ‘*do know*’ – ‘*I know*’, ‘*Dost thou know?*’ – ‘*Knowest thou?*’, ‘*I don't know*’ – ‘*I know not*’ are equal in stylistic value, and only much later, when the auxiliary in the affirmative sentences was discarded, such sentences became stylistically marked as the use of *do* violates the rule.

Direct word order was finally established by the XVIIth century. “Yes – No” and “Wh-questions” could be formed either by subject – verb inversion, or by subject – auxiliary verb inversion: “*Came he or not home tonight*” (“Romeo and Juliet”); “*Do you not love me?*” (“Much Ado About Nothing”).

Structural substitutes developed: *There's a man there; It is pleasant to dance; The work is a remarkable one; They married just as your father did.*

Multiple negations, yet used by Shakespeare (“*I am not valiant neither*” (“Othello”)) started to vanish.

Predicative constructions developed: *She had no desire for me to stay; I saw her dancing.*

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**Embryonic form** = the form is already present in the language, but it usually has a different function.

**Grammaticalization** = process when lexical words become grammatical markers. Example: pre-modals; articles → lexical “*anum*” (one) used sometimes in situations when it may function as indefinite article “*an*” (but often both interpretations are possible).

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) Old English phrases and sayings.
- 2) Fredericus T. Visser, *An Historical Syntax of the English Language*".

**Lecture 7**

**LANGUAGE CONTACTS. THE COLONIAL AND POSTCOLONIAL EXPERIENCE**

1. *Spread of English to the different parts of the world. From dialects to language varieties.*
2. *How quickly English assimilated local words?*
3. *English as a 'second' language.*
4. *'Globish': who speaks English?*

English within English was shaped by repeated contacts with other languages – particularly Latin, Scandinavian languages and French. During the process of expansion, English again came into contact with other languages (such as Celtic within Britain, or Native American languages in America).

The vocabulary of Old English was rather extensive. It is said to have contained about 50,000 words. These words were mainly native and could be divided into a number of strata. The oldest stratum was composed of words coming from the Common Indo-European parent tongue.

Many of these words were inherited by English together with some other Indo-European languages from the same common source:

<b>Old English</b>	<b>New English</b>	<b>Latin</b>	<b>Ukrainian</b>
Mōdor	mother	Mater	мати
Niht	night	Nox	ніч
Nēowe	new	Novus	новий
Beran	bear	Ferre	брати

Another layer, relatively more recent, was words inherited by English and other Germanic languages from some common Germanic source:

<b>Old English</b>	<b>New English</b>	<b>Modern German</b>
Eorð e	Eorth	Erde
Land	Land	Land
Sæ	Sea	See

The third stratum, and that not very extensive, was made up of words that existed only in English, for instance, the word *'clypian'* (to call), the root preserved in now somewhat obsolete word *'yclept'* (named).

The vocabulary was changing all the time, old words becoming extinct and new words entering the language, enriching it.

While creating new words the English language, principally resorted to its own, internal means: word derivation, primarily affixation (*frēond+scip = friendship*), vowel

interchange (*sonz - singan*), and word composition (*Engla +land = land of the Angles, England*).

External means of enriching vocabulary were connected with borrowings as a result of contact with other nations. The Germanic tribes had but few contacts with other nations at the beginning of A.D., consequently the number of borrowed words in Old English was not great. The main borrowings that can be singled out in Old English were Latin and Celtic borrowings.

The first **LATIN** borrowings entered the language before the Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians invaded the British Isles, i.e. at the time they still lived on the continent. Due to trade relations with their southern powerful neighbour – the Roman Empire – Germanic tribes learned a number of products and consequently, their names. So the first stratum of borrowings formed mainly the words connected with trade, denoting household items or products. Many of them are preserved in Modern English, such as: *pound, inch, pepper, cheese, wine, apple, pear, plum, dish, kettle, etc.*

The second stratum of words was composed of loan Latin words that the Germanic tribes borrowed already on the British soil from the Romanized Celts, whom they had conquered in the 5<sup>th</sup> century. Those were the words connected with building and architecture, as the preserved nowadays: *tile, street, wall, port, caster* (= camp: Lancaster, Winchester), *mill, etc.* They denoted objects, which the Germanic invaders encountered on the British Isles.

The third stratum of Latin loan words was composed of words borrowed after the introduction of the Christian religion. They are generally of a religious nature, such as the present-day words: *altar, bishop, candle, church, devil, apostle, monk, nun, pope, psalm.*

As Latin was the language of learning at the time, some words that were not directly connected with religion also entered the language, such as: *master, school, lion, tiger, plant, astronomy, etc.*

Another major group of Latin borrowings entered English with the revival of learning (15<sup>th</sup> – 16<sup>th</sup> centuries). Latin was drawn upon for scientific nomenclature, as at the time the language was understood by scientists all over the world, it was considered the common name-language for science. These words were mainly borrowed through books, by people who knew Latin well and tried to preserve the Latin form of the word as much as possible. Hence such words as: *antenna – antennae, index – indices, datum – data, stratum – strata, phenomenon – phenomena, axis – axes, formula – formulae, etc.* Very many of them have suffixes which clearly mark them as Latin borrowings of the time: verbs, ending in *-ate, -ute*: *aggravate, abbreviate, exaggerate, frustrate, separate, irritate, contribute, constitute, persecute, prosecute, execute, etc.*; or adjectives, ending in *-ant, -ent, -ior, al*: *arrogant, reluctant, evident, obedient, superior, inferior, senior, junior, dental, cordial, filial, etc.*

The **CELTIC** languages left very few traces in the English language, because the Germanic conquerors partly exterminated the local population, partly drove them away to the less fertile mountaineous parts of the country, where they were not within reach of the invaders. The Celtic-speaking people who remained on the territory occupied by the Germanic tribes were slaves, and even those were not very numerous. It is small

wonder therefore that the number of Celtic loan words was limited. Among the few borrowed words are: *down* (*the downs of Dover*), *bin* (*bin - basket*). Some Celtic roots are preserved in *geographical names*, such as: *kil* (*church — Kilbrook*), *ball* (*house — Ballantrae*), *esk* (*water — river Esk*).

The analysis of the Vocabulary in the Middle English period shows great instability and constant and rapid change. Many words became obsolete, and if preserved, then only in some dialects; many more appeared in the rapidly developing language to reflect the ever-changing life of the speakers and under the influence of contacts with other nations.

Though the majority of Old English suffixes were still preserved in Middle English, they were becoming less productive, and words formed by means of word-derivation in Old English could be treated as such only etymologically. Words formed by means of word-composition in Old English, in Middle English are often understood as derived words. The principal means of enriching vocabulary in Middle English are not internal, but external – borrowings. Two languages in succession enriched the vocabulary of the English language of the time – the Scandinavian language and the French language, the nature of the borrowings and their amount reflecting the conditions of the contacts between English and these languages.

The **SCANDINAVIAN** invasion and the subsequent settlement of the Scandinavians on the territory of England, the constant contacts and intermixture of the English and the Scandinavians brought about many changes in different spheres of the English language: wordstock, grammar and phonetics. The relative ease of the mutual penetration of the languages was conditioned by the circumstances of the Anglo-Scandinavian contacts.

Due to contacts between the Scandinavians and the English-speaking people many words were borrowed from the Scandinavian language, for example: nouns: *law, fellow, sky, skirt, skill, skin, egg, anger, knife, root, bull, cake, husband, leg, wing, guest, loan, race, big, week, wrong, ugly, twin, call, cast, take, happen, scare, want*; pronouns: *they, them, their*.

The conditions and the consequences of various borrowings were different:

1. Sometimes the English language borrowed a word for which it had no synonym. These words were simply added to the vocabulary, like *law, fellow*.

2. The English synonym was ousted by the borrowing. Scandinavian *taken* (*to take*) and *callen* (*to call*) ousted the English synonyms *niman* and *clypian*, respectively.

3. Both the words, the English and the corresponding Scandinavian, were preserved, but they became different in meaning. Compare Modern English native words and Scandinavian borrowings:

<b>Native</b>	<b>Scandinavian borrowing</b>
heaven	Sky
starve	Die

4. Sometimes a borrowed word and an English word are etymological doublets, as words originating from the same source in Common Germanic.

<b>Native</b>	<b>Scandinavian borrowing</b>
Shirt	Skirt

Shatter	Scatter
Raise	Rear

5. Sometimes an English word and its Scandinavian doublet were the same in meaning but slightly different phonetically, and the phonetic form of the Scandinavian borrowing was preserved in the English language, having ousted the English counterpart. For example, Modern English *to give, to get* come from the Scandinavian *gefa, geta*, which ousted the English *ziefan and zietan*, respectively. Similar Modern English words: *gift, forget, guild, gate, again*.

6. There may be a shift of meaning. Thus, the word *dream* originally meant “joy, pleasure”; under the influence of the related Scandinavian word it developed its modern meaning.

Unlike the adoption of Latin vocabulary, which was initiated and promoted primarily by a small subsection of the population, the learned priests, monks, and scribes, the adoption of Scandinavian words did not involve special education or writing skills. It occurred naturally in the mixed households, in the fields, and in the marketplaces, among people at comparable levels of cultural development. In addition to the propitious social conditions, the borrowing of words was facilitated by the linguistic closeness of Scandinavian and Old English. It is not surprising that loanwords that came into English during this period are not easily recognizable as foreign, nor are they marked as belonging to a special more literate or more elevated level of usage.

Scandinavian borrowings in English from the period between the 9<sup>th</sup> and the 12<sup>th</sup> centuries are common words such as *bag, call, cast, die, fellow, knife, hit, root, skin, sky, ill, unit, wrong*, the prepositions *till* and *fro* (as in “*to* and *fro*”). There is probably Scandinavian influence on the pronoun *she*, the verb form *are*, and the quantifiers *both* and *same*. In some regional varieties of English today Scandinavian words exist side by side with the more familiar word from the Standard language: *garth* vs. *yard*, *kirk* vs. *church*, *nay* vs. *no*, *trigg* vs. *true*. Since the Vikings spoke a Germanic language, sharing words with Old English, but pronouncing them differently, we find that one and the same word had two pronunciations, Scandinavian and Old English, and that has evolved into a pair of historically related words which are now two separate lexical items. Such pairs in present and English are *dike* vs. *ditch*, *scrub* vs. *shrub*, *skirt* vs. *shirt*.

It stands to reason that the Norman conquest and the subsequent history of the country left deep traces in the English language, mainly in the form of borrowings in words connected with such spheres of social and political activity where **FRENCH**-speaking Normans had occupied for a long time all places of importance. For example: 1) government and legislature: *government, noble, baron, prince, duke, court, justice, judge, crime, prison, condemn, sentence, parliament, etc.*; 2) military life: *army, battle, peace, banner, victory, general, colonel, lieutenant, major, etc.*; 3) religion: *religion, sermon, prey, saint, charity*; 4) city crafts: *painter, tailor, carpenter (but country occupations remained English: shepherd, smith)*; 5) pleasure and entertainment: *music, art, feast, pleasure, leisure, supper, dinner, pork, beef, mutton* (but the corresponding names of domestic animals remained English: *pig, cow, sheep*); 6) words of everyday

life: *air, place, river, large, age, boil, branch, brush, catch, chain, chair, table, choice, cry, cost*; 7) relationship: *aunt, uncle, nephew, cousin*.

The place of the French borrowings within the English language was different:

1. A word may be borrowed from the French language to denote notions unknown to the English up to the time: *government, parliament, general, colonel, etc.*

2. The English synonym is ousted by the French borrowing:

English	French
Micel	Large
Here	Army
Èa	River

4. Both the words are preserved, but they are stylistically different:

English	French
to begin	to commence
to work	to labour
to leave	to abandon
Lofe	Existence
Look	Regard
Ship	Vessel

As it could be seen, the French borrowing were generally more literary or even bookish, the English words – were common ones. However, in some cases the English word was more literary: foe (native, English) – enemy (French borrowing).

4. Sometimes the English language borrowed many words with the same word-building affix. The meaning of the affix in this case became clear to the English-speaking people. It entered the system of word-building means of the English language, and they began to add it to English words, thus forming word-hybrids. For instance, the suffix *-ment* entered the language within such words as “government”, “parliament”, “agreement”, but later there appeared such English-French hybrids as: *fulfilment, amazement*.

The suffix *-ance/-ence*, which was an element of such borrowed words as “innocence”, “ignorance” now also forms word-hybrids, such as “*hindrance*” (barrier). A similar thing: French borrowings “admirable”, “tolerable”, “reasonable”, but also: *readable, eatable, unbearable*.

5. One of the consequences of the borrowings from French was the appearance of etymological doublets: a) from the Common Indoeuropean: *fatherly* (native) - *paternal* (borrowed); b) from the Common Germanic: *yard* (native) – *garden* (borrowed), *ward* (native) – *guard* (borrowed), *choose* (native) – *choice* (borrowed); c) from Latin: *inch* (earlier Old English borrowing) – *ounce* (later Middle English borrowing).

6. Due to the great number of French borrowings there appeared such families of words, which though similar in their root meaning, are different in origin: *mouth* (native) – *oral* (borrowed), *sun* (native) – *solar* (borrowed), *see* (native) – *vision* (borrowed).

7. There are calques on the French phrase:

It's no doubt – *Se n'est doute*

Without doubt – Sans doute

Out of doubt – Hors de doute

The language in New English is growing very rapidly, the amount of actually existing words being impossible to estimate. Though some of the words existing in Old English and Middle English are no longer used in New English, the amount of new words exceeds the number of obsolete ones manifold.

Both internal means and external means are used for the purpose of enriching vocabulary, and the importance of either of them is hard to evaluate.

The principal inner means in New English is the appearance of new words formed by means of conversion. Usually new words are formed by acquiring a new paradigm and function within the sentence. Thus, *book* (a noun) has the paradigm *book – books*. *Book* (a verb) has the paradigm *book – books – booked – booking*, etc.: (*the book is on the table – He booked a room*).

Similarly: *man* (n) – *man* (v); *stone* (n) – *stone* (v) – *stone* (adj.) (as in “a stone bench”), etc.

Chronically speaking, New English borrowing may be subdivided into borrowings of the Early New English period – XV-XVII centuries, the period preceding the establishment of the literary norm, and the XVIII-XX centuries, the period which is generally alluded to as Late New English.

#### 1. Early New English borrowings (XV – XVII centuries):

Borrowings into the English language in the XV – XVII centuries are primarily due to the political events and also to the cultural and trade relations between the English people and peoples in other countries. Thus, in the XV century – the epoch of Renaissance, there appeared in the English language many words borrowed from the **ITALIAN** tongue: *cameo, archipelago, dilettante, fresco, violin, balcony, gondola, grotto, volcano*.

In the XVI century – **SPANISH** and **PORTUGUESE** words such as: *armada, Negro, tornado, mosquito, renegade, matador*

And also **LATIN** (*in the language of culture of that period*).

In the XVII century due to relations with the peoples of America such words were borrowed as: *canoe, maize, potato, tomato, tobacco, mahogany, cannibal, hammock, squaw, moccasin, wigwam, etc.*

**FRENCH** borrowings – after the Restoration: *ball, ballet, billet, caprice, coquette, intrigue, fatigue, naïve*.

#### 2. Late New English borrowings (XVIII – XX centuries):

- **GERMAN**: *kindergarten, waltz, wagon*;
- **FRENCH**: *magazine, machine, garage, police, engine, nacelle, aileron*;
- **INDIAN**: *bungalow, jungle, indigo*;
- **CHINESE**: *coolie, tea*;
- **ARABIC**: *caravan, divan, alcohol, algebra, coffee, bazaar, orange, cotton, candy, chess*;
- **AUSTRALIAN**: *kangaroo, boomerang, lubra*;
- **RUSSIAN**: *borzoi, samovar, tsar, verst, taiga, sputnik, lunnik, glasnost, perestroika, etc.*



- **UKRAINIAN:** *borsh, salo, gopak, maidan, etc.*

In New English there also appeared words formed on the basis of **GREEK** and **LATIN** vocabulary. They are mainly scientific or technical terms, such as: *telephone, telegraph, teletype, telefax, microphone, sociology, politology, electricity, etc.*

Thus, the period of exploration brought not only new lands for the British crown, but also new language contacts. English had hardly established itself as a language when it began to travel out of England. During the Middle Ages it moved north into Scotland, west into Wales and across the sea into Ireland. Each area developed its own national dialect and a home-grown literature with a distinctive voice. And in the last 400 years the same thing that happened across the British Isles has been repeated on a global scale. In other words, just as it became a national language it became an international one as well.

Although English-speaking explorers made contacts in various parts of the world, during the fifteenth century, settlements in America produced the first distinctive community variety of English outside the British Isles. It is possible to argue that the process of colonialization began within the British Isles themselves, when English first became established as the main language of the Celtic-speaking territories of Ireland, Scotland and Wales. In this way, it can be argued that the spread of English has been closely associated with a colonial process from the 12th to the 20th centuries.

There was no single, universal colonial experience. Each colony provided a unique context politically, socially and linguistically. Today, English is used by at least 750 million people, and barely half of those speak it as a mother tongue. Some estimates have put that figure closer to 1 billion. Whatever the total, English in the twenty-first century is more widely scattered, more widely spoken and written, than any other language has ever been. It has become the language of the planet, the first truly global language.

Linguists concerned with different regional and social varieties of English often distinguish between **accents** (varieties that differ only in terms of pronunciation) and **dialects** (varieties that differ both regionally and socially from the standard language in terms of grammar and vocabulary). **Language varieties** are not only linguistic phenomena. They carry important social meaning.

The British Isles of the XXIst century are made up by 37 dialects at least counts. The *Standard English*, also known as *Queen's English* or *Received Pronunciation (RP)*, is spoken by Her Majesty and can be also heard on the BBC or World Service.

The British Library provides a resource of uniquely diverse range of accents and dialects spoken by people all over the country. The leading **types of British accents** are:

1) **Cockney.** This is one of the UK's most famous dialects, and it goes hand in hand with London. It came about as the dialect of the London working classes, especially in the poorer East End of the city. The Cockney dialect also gave us Rhyming Slang, which can be still heard among a plenty of market traders round the East End, who tend to shout out in Cockney from their stalls. With the Cockney accent there are lots of 'glottal stops', and the 'th' sound frequently changes to an 'f' sound. There have

also been some famously terrible attempts at the Cockney dialect – *here's Dick Van Dyke to show you how not to do it!*

2) **Estuary English.** It is also London-based. The 'Estuary' is the Thames Estuary, and is spoken by people who live along its stretch. It is now becoming one of the most widely spoken accents down south. It is not as posh as RP, but it is not as 'common' as Cockney.

3) **Yorkshire.** Yorkshire is a big county in England, and lots of people speak with a variation of the Yorkshire dialect as a result. Known as 'God's Own County', Yorkshire has a delicious dialect. One of the biggest difference between this dialect and RP is that words ending in an 'ee' sound, like 'nasty', are pronounced with an 'eh' sound, like 'nasteh'.

4) **The Northern Irish** accent is quite a beautiful one, and a strong one too. The first thing an alien probably notices about Northern Irish is how many letters seem to be missing from words when people speak it. For example, 'Northern Irish' would be pronounced more like 'Nor'n Ir'sh'!

5) **The Scottish dialect** varies hugely from city to city, town to town, and becomes increasingly like the Irish accent in the Western Isles, and increasingly like Nordic languages in the islands to the far north. The more remote the area, the stronger the accent seems to become, so people from the Shetland Islands can be hard to understand at first. And Glaswegian can be tricky too – even for Scots themselves!

6) People, who come from Birmingham, speak the **Brummie dialect**. It's quite soft, and elastic, and lumpy sounding.

7) The natives of Liverpool tend to speak **Scouse**. The Liverpudlian accent is one of the most famous British regional accents thanks to the Beatles, and it's a very nasal dialect that can be hard to copy at first.

8) People from Newcastle speak the **Geordie dialect**, and they're called Geordies too. One of the biggest differences between Geordie and RP is that the 'r's at the end of words aren't pronounced, and tend to be pronounced as 'ah' instead. So a word like 'sugar' becomes 'sug-ah'. And a word like, say, 'Space Centre' becomes 'Space Cent-ah'!

English is a **WORLDWIDE LANGUAGE**. Between 1.5 billion and 2 billion people across the planet speak English. Between 375,000 and 400,000 people are native English speakers. In view of these statistics, many consider the English language to be a world language. Since the English language has become so widespread, it is no surprise that different varieties of English have arisen.

In present-day linguistics the term *variety* is used to refer to any variant of a language which can be sufficiently delimited from another one. The grounds for such differentiation may be social, historical, spatial or a combination of these. The necessity for a neutral term such as *variety* arose from the loaded use of the term *dialect*: this was not only used in the neutral sense of a regionally bound form of a language, but also with the implication that the linguistically most interesting varieties of a language are those spoken by the older rural (male) population. This view is understandable given the origin of dialectology in the nineteenth century, that is in the heyday of historical linguistics. Nowadays, sociolinguistic attitudes are prevalent and the need for a term,

which can include the linguistic investigation of urban populations, both male and female, from a social point of view, became evident. The neutrality of the term *variety* must be stressed. It simply refers to a distinguishable variant of a language. This means that there are a large number of varieties of any given language. The sole criterion to be fulfilled by a particular variety is delimitation vis à vis other varieties. Dialects within a variety framework are frequently referred to as regional varieties and sociolects as social varieties, though the label *dialect* can be retained if used objectively.

**BRITISH ENGLISH** is the English language as spoken and written in the United Kingdom or, more broadly, throughout the British Isles. Slight regional variations exist in formal, written English in the United Kingdom.

English is a West Germanic language that originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic settlers from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the northern Netherlands. The resident population at this time was generally speaking Common Brittonic—the insular variety of continental Celtic, which was influenced by the Roman occupation. This group of languages (Welsh, Cornish, Cumbric) cohabited alongside English into the modern period, but due to their remoteness from the Germanic languages, influence on English was notably limited.

**AMERICAN ENGLISH** sometimes called United States English or U.S. English, is the set of varieties of the English language native to the United States and widely adopted in Canada. English is the most widely spoken language in the United States and is the common language used by the federal government, considered the de facto language of the country because of its widespread use. English has been given official status by 32 of the 50 state governments.

The difference between the British and the American lexicon today is lessened by the fact that many American words have made their way into British use, and their number appears to be increasing rather than diminishing. They are the words adopted by the colonists from the Native Americans for Native American things, like *moose*, *raccoon*, *skunk*, *opossum*, *chipmunk*, *porgy*, *terrapin*; others they formed by a descriptive process long familiar in the language: *mud hen*, *garter snake*, *bullfrog*, *potato bug*, *groundhog*, *reed bird*. Tree names such as *the hickory* and *live oak*, and *the locust* are new to colonial English, as are *sweet potato*, *eggplant*, *squash*, *persimmon*, *pecan*. Contact with Native Americans brought into English a number of words having particular reference to their way of life: *wigwam*, *tomahawk*, *canoe*, *toboggan*, *mackinaw*, *moccasin*, *wampum*, *squaw*, *papoose*. These are Native American words, but we have also English words formed at the same time and out of the same experience: *war path*, *paleface*, *medicine man*, *pipe of peace*, *big chief*, *war paint*, and the verb *to scalp*. Native American words for Native American foods were taken over in the case of *hominy*, *tapioca*, *succotash*, and *pone*. The latter is still heard in the South for *corn bread*, the kind of bread the Native Americans made. The individual character of American political and administrative system required the introduction of words such as *congressional*, *presidential*, *gubernatorial*, *congressman*, *caucus*, *mass meeting*, *selectman*, *statehouse*, *land office*. Many other words illustrate things associated with the new mode of life — *back country*, *backwoodsman*, *squatter*, *prairie*, *log cabin*, *clapboard*, *cornerrib*, *popcorn*, *hoe cake*, *cold snap*, *snow plow*, *bobsled*, *sleigh*. It is

easy to recognize the American origin of such words as *to lynch*, *blizzard*, *jazz*, *joyride*, *bucket shop*, but in many other cases the American origin of a word has been forgotten or the word has been so completely accepted in Britain that the source is no more reflected in the dictionaries.

Still there is a number of synonymic words and phrases that would be applied differently to the same objects by British and American English speakers.

*Table 21. British vs American English*

<b>American English</b>	<b>British English</b>
a bag of sugar, flour	a pack of sugar, flower
across the street from	opposite
apartment	flat
blonde (hair)	fair (hair)
booked up	fully booked
café	coffee shop
cell phone	mobile phone
check (✓)	tick (✓)
check (at restaurant)	bill
closet	wardrobe
clothing store	clothes shop
do the dishes	do the washing up
dormitory	halls of residence
downtown	city center
elevator	lift
expressway	motorway
fall	autumn
first floor (also ground floor)	ground floor
french fries (also fries)	chips
gas station	petrol station
go to the movies	go to the cinema

**AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH** began to diverge from British English after the founding of the Colony of New South Wales in 1788 and was recognized as being different from British English by 1820. It arose from the intermingling of early settlers from a great variety of mutually intelligible dialectal regions of the British Isles and quickly developed into a distinct variety of English.

*Table 22. British vs Australian English*

<b>British English</b>	<b>Australian English</b>
afternoon	arvo
Australian	Aussie
be all right	be apples
bread	damper
cans	tinnies
chicken	chook
chips	crisps
countryside	bush

Englishman	Pommie
eucalyptus	gum tree
film	movie
food	tucker
freshwater crocodiles	freshies
hello	g'day
milkman	milko
motorway	freeway
postman	postie
public toilet	rest-room
saltwater crocodile	salties
sandwich	cut lunch
sunglasses	sunnies
sweets	lollies
trousers	daks
true	dinkum

**CANADIAN ENGLISH** is the set of varieties of the English language native to Canada. According to the 2011 census, English was the first language of approximately 19 million Canadians (57% of the population) the remainder of the population were native speakers of Canadian French (22%) or other languages (allophones, 21%). Canadian English is the product of five waves of immigration and settlement over a period of more than two centuries. The first large wave of permanent English-speaking settlement in Canada, and linguistically the most important, was the influx of loyalists fleeing the American Revolution, chiefly from the Mid-Atlantic States – as such, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Washington, D.C., Virginia, and West Virginia. Canadian English is believed by some scholars to have derived from northern American English.

*Table 23. British vs American and Canadian English*

### Vocabulary

<b>Canada</b>	<b>American</b>	<b>British</b>
bus depot	bus station	coach station
Elevator	Elevator	Lift
Gas	Gas	Petrol
main floor	first floor	ground floor
phone, call (v)	call	Phone
Vacation	Vacation	holiday
Washroom	Ladies' room	Gents/Ladies
University	College	University
Railways	Railroads	Railways
Fire hall	Fire house	Fire station

English language public instruction began in **INDIA** in the 1830s during the rule of the East India Company (India was then, and is today, one of the most linguistically

diverse regions of the world). In 1835, English replaced Persian as the official language of the Company. Lord Macaulay played a major role in introducing English and western concepts to education in India. He supported the replacement of Persian by English as the official language, the use of English as the medium of instruction in all schools, and the training of English-speaking Indians as teachers. Indian English words are:

1. *Avatar*. In Hinduism, an avatar is the manifestation in human or animal form of a god, especially Vishnu. The word first appeared in English in the 18th century and derives ultimately from the Sanskrit word *avatara* meaning *descent*. More recently the word has gained additional senses, for example to refer to a computer user's visual representation within a game, on a forum etc.;

2. *Bangle*. A rigid ornamental bracelet worn around the wrist (or ankle). Its appearance in English dates back to the 18th century. It derives from the Hindi word *bangri* meaning a glass ring or bracelet.

3. *Bungalow*. A one-storied house. Derives from the Hindi word *bangla* meaning, literally, in the style of or belonging to Bengal. The word bungalow in English dates back to the 17th century when it was used to refer to a type of cottage built in Bengal for early European settlers.

4. *Cheetah*. A long-legged big cat from Africa, the fastest land animal on Earth. Its black spots provide the clue to the origins of its name, which derives from the Hindi word *cita*, meaning speckled or variegated.

5. *Chutney*. A thick, pickled condiment made from fruit, vinegar, spices and sugar. This word entered the English language in the 19th century and derives from the Hindi word *chatni*, whose meaning is more or less the same as the English word.

6. *Cot*. This word has several meanings, but in the sense of a portable bed or a high-sided child's bed, it derives from the Hindi word *khat*, meaning a bedstead or hammock. It arrived in the English language during the 17th century.

7. *Guru*. Originally a Hindu or Sikh spiritual guide, guru entered English in the 17th century, where it now also means any important and respected intellectual guide or mentor. The original word in the Hindi and Sanskrit, also *guru*, means venerable.

8. *Juggernaut*. In English, a juggernaut is an unstoppable force or movement that sweeps aside or destroys anything in its path. In the UK it is also used to refer to very large lorries (trucks). The word arrived in English in the 19th century and derives from the word *Jagannath*, a form of the Hindu deity Vishnu.

9. *Jungle*. An area of dense vegetation or, by extension, any challenging or hostile environment. It derives from the Hindi word *jangal* meaning a forest and began to be used in English during the 18th century.

10. *Loot*. Loot is both a noun and a verb. As a verb it means to ransack, to steal from someone or something, often in a violent way. The noun means whatever is stolen by the act of looting or, simply, any money. The word derives from the Hindi verb *lut*, meaning to plunder or steal.

11. *Pyjamas/Pajamas*. A set of loose-fitting sleeping clothes, consisting of a jacket and trousers. The pajama spelling is used in North America. The word entered English in the 19th century. It derives from the Hindi word *payjama*, meaning leg (*pay*) and clothing (*jama*).

12. *Shampoo*. A soapy liquid for washing the hair (or other things such as carpets). It arrived in English in the 18th century and derives from the Hindi word *champo*, meaning to squeeze, knead or massage.

13. *Thug*. A brutal or violent person, it derives ultimately from the Hindi word *thag* meaning a thief or a cheat. It entered the English language early in the 19th century.

14. *Veranda/Verandah*. A sheltered gallery or terrace attached to a house or some other building. The word began to appear in the English language early in the 18th century. In Hindi, the word *varanda* has a similar meaning. This is not the source of the word, however, as it is thought to derive from the Portuguese word *varanda* meaning a balcony.

15. *Yoga*. This was originally a Sanskrit word meaning yoking or union. It refers to a system of Hindu philosophy concerned with achieving reunion with the divine. A part of this discipline involves meditation, breath control and the adoption of certain postures, which is how the word came to have the sense of a system of physical exercise. It entered English in the 19th century.

**UGANDAN ENGLISH**, or Uglish (pronounced you-glish), is the dialect of English spoken in Uganda. As with similar dialects spoken elsewhere, Ugandan English has developed a strong local flavor. The speech patterns of Ugandan languages strongly influence spoken English. Uganda has a large variety of indigenous languages, and someone familiar with Uganda can readily identify the native language of a person speaking English. Ugandan speakers will alter foreign words to make them sound more euphonic. Among Uglish words are:

- *Avail* – to make something available;
- *Beep* – to call someone once and hang up before they pick up;
- *Benching* – dropping in on someone you might have a romantic interest in;
- *Bounce* – to arrive somewhere and find someone there or to be turned away from an event;
- *Buffalo* – someone who uses incorrect or inarticulate English words;
- *Bullet* – a leaked exam paper;
- *Cowardise* – to behave timidly or like a coward;
- *Dirten* – to make something dirty;
- *Detoothe* – dentist;
- *Live sex* – to have unprotected sex
- *Mazongoto* – a big bed;
- *Side dish* – somebody's mistress;
- *Special* – an individual taxi (special because a 14 seater taxi is the most common form of transport);
- *Vacist* – a student on holiday;
- *Waragi* - popular Ugandan crude gin with high concentrations of alcohol. Also used derisively about a drunk person;
- *Wolokosso* – loose talk.

Today we can also speak of **NIGERIAN**, **PHILIPPINIAN**, and **CREOLE** Englishes, as well as the other ones. However, the geographical labels that are often

used to identify different Englishes conceal a great deal of variation. Even in relatively limited geographical areas there will be differences in types of English spoken.

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**The topics for self-study and reports:**

- 1) Varieties of English in Britain.
- 2) BBC, Broadcast English (1928).
- 3) English as a Global Language.
- 4) Regional dialects of the United States (General American, North Central, South Central, Eastern New England, the dialect of New York City, Middle Atlantic, etc.).

### **EXAMINATION QUESTIONS**

1. The subject matter of the History of the English language. Its ties within the framework of linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines.
2. Intra- and extralinguistic factors in the development of languages. Diachronic and synchronic approaches to the study of language history.
3. Chronological division in the history of English. Brief survey of the periods.
4. The comparative-historical method. Indo-European family of languages. Their distinctive features.
5. The Prehistory of English: The major peculiarities of Proto-Germanic as the ancestor of Old English in comparison with Indo-European.
6. Word accentuation in the Proto-Germanic period. Phonetic peculiarities of West-Germanic languages.
7. The Old English period. General characteristics. Heptarchy. Anglo-Saxon dialects and their phonetic peculiarities.
8. The Old English phonology. Vowels. The assimilative processes in the vocalic system (breaking, palatal mutation, back mutation, contraction, diphthongization after palatal consonants).
9. Changes in OE consonants. Grimm's Law. Verner's Law.
10. Scandinavian invasion and language mixing.
11. The Norman Conquest and its impact on the language development.
12. Middle English spelling changes.
13. Middle English consonant changes. Qualitative and quantitative changes of vowels.
14. Development of OE diphthongs and new diphthongs in Middle English period.
15. Early New English spelling changes and their causes.
16. Early New English changes of short and long vowels.
17. Early New English combinative changes.
18. Development of diphthongs in Early New English.
19. Standardization and the formation of the English national language.



20. Historical development of the English Noun.
21. The main categories of the Verb in Old English.
22. Verb conjugation in Old English. Irregular verbs in Old English.
23. Mixed (Preterite-Present) verbs in Old English.
24. Development of the Verb in Middle English.
25. Early New English changes in the system of the Verb.
26. The Pronoun and its historical development.
27. The Article and its historical development.
28. Historical development of the English Adjective.
29. Old English Syntax.
30. English Syntax in the Middle and Early New English periods.
31. Development of the English vocabulary in the Old English period.
32. Development of the English vocabulary in the Middle English period.
33. Development of the English vocabulary in the Early New English period.
34. World Englishes and the consequences of Globalization.

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