L. Verba

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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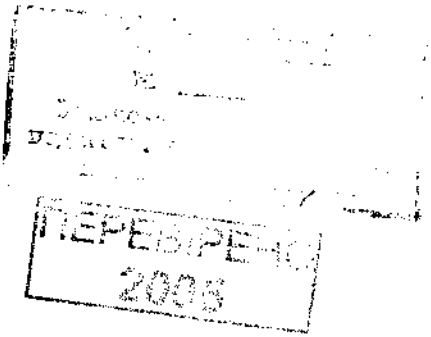

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У посібнику з історії англійської мови розглядаються основні етапи розвитку англійської мови від 5 століття – періоду відокремлення англо-саксонських діалектів від континентального германського ареалу до кінця 17 століття, періоду утвердження англійської мови як національної мови англійської держави та її експансії на інші континенти. У додатку для практичних занять подається збірка текстів, що репрезентують мову різних періодів, з давньоанглійським та середньоанглійським словничком (глосарієм), та (для довідок) подаються переклади давніх текстів сучасною англійською мовою. Посібник призначений для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів для спеціальностей англійська мова та література та переклад з англійської мови.

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The Subject Matter of the Course

Its place within the framework of linguistic disciplines. Its ties with other linguistic and non-linguistic research data.

Musings on the English Language
Let's face it – English is a crazy language. There is no egg in eggplant nor ham in hamburger; neither apple nor pine in pineapple. English muffins weren't invented in England or French fries in France.
Sweetmeats are candies while sweetbreads, which aren't sweet, are meat.
We take English for granted. But if we explore its paradoxes, we find that quicksand can work slowly, boxing rings are square and a guinea pig is neither from Guinea nor is it a pig.And why is it that writers write but fingers don't fing, grocers don't groce and hammers don't ham? If the plural of tooth is teeth, why isn't the plural of booth beeth? One goose, 2 geese. So one moose, 2 meese? One index, 2 indices?
Doesn't it seem crazy that you can make amends but not one amend, that you comb through annals of history but not a single annal? If you have a bunch of odds and ends and get rid of all but one of them, what do you call it?
If teachers taught, why didn't preacher praught? If a vegetarian eats vegetables, what does a humanitarian eat? If you wrote a letter, perhaps you bote your tongue?
Sometimes I think all the English speakers should be committed to an asylum for the verbally insane. In what language do people recite at a play and play at a recital? Ship by truck and send cargo by ship? Have noses that run and feet that smell? Park on driveways and drive on parkways?
How can a slim chance and a fat chance be the same, while a wise man and wise guy are opposites? How can overlook and oversee be opposites, while quite a lot and quite a few are alike? How can the weather be hot as hell one day and cold as hell another.
Have you noticed that we talk about certain things only when they are absent? Have you ever seen a horseful carriage or a strapful gown? Met a sung hero or experienced requited love? Have you ever run into someone who was combobuLat.ed, gruntled, ruly or peccable? And where are all those people who ARE spring chickens or who would ACTUALLY hurt a fly?
You have to marvel at the unique lunacy of a language in which your house can burn up as it burns down, in which you fill in a form by filling it out and in which an alarm clock goes off by going on.
English was invented by people, not computers, and it reflects the creativity of the human race (which, of course, isn't a race at all). That is why, when the stars are out, they are visible, but when the lights are out, they are invisible. And why, when I wind up my watch, I start it, but when I wind up this essay, I end it.
(Richard Lederer, from Crazy English)

History of the English language is one of the fundamental courses forming the linguistic background of a specialist in philology. It studies the rise and development of English, its structure and peculiarities in the old days, its similarity to other languages of the same family and its unique, specific features. It is a diachronistic view of the language, that is aimed at understanding the very essence of the language that seems to be so unique in many respects today. In contrast to synchronistic approach with its study of a language as a system of interrelateed phenomena, separate aspects of the language are going to be investigated, and with due respect to synchronic studies, paying due attention to some periods (that is, each of the periods will be studied in detail separate phenomena will be analysed). Actually, the usual criticism to diachronistic studies is that they lack a system. In historical studies only separate facts are investigated, for in reality, we are never sure that

some written records lost in the course of time might (or might not) contain some other data for analysis. With diachronic studies one really must not be too categorical as far as the non-existence of a certain word or a form of the word – that really might be due to the specific nature of the limited material that can be analysed. But practically, all-embracing material is rarely treated even in the most advanced studies of the present-day language, and we agree that it is just *sufficient* material that is needed. With adequate tools of investigation we still can trace all the changes within the language as a system. So the aim of the course is the investigation of the development of the system of the English language. We are going to have a close look at the major stages of development of the language, the influence of various linguistic and non-linguistic factors on the language and, in the long run, try and formulate what makes this language, once a language of one of the many not very significant European communities, now almost a Lingua Franca, a means of communication on the global scale however willing or unwilling should the peoples and politicians be to admit it.

The subject matter of the course is the changing nature of the language through more than 15 hundred years of its existence. It starts with a close view at the beginnings of the language, originally the dialects of a comparatively small number of related tribes that migrated from the continent onto the British isles, the dialects of the Indo-European family – synthetic, inflected language with a well-developed system of noun forms, a rather poorly represented system of verbal categories, with free word order and a vocabulary that consisted almost entirely of words of native origin. The phonological system of the language was also much simpler, with a strict subdivision of vowels into long and short, comparatively few diphthongs and an underdeveloped system of consonants.

Mighty factors influenced this language, converting it into the prevalently analytical language of today, with scarcity of nominal forms and a verbal system that much outweighs the systems of many other European languages in its segmentation of the verbal component. Its vowel system is rich, its vocabulary is enormous, incomparable with that of any other Germanic (and not only Germanic) language. It has many more borrowings than the majority of tongues and is magnificently flexible in adjusting to any need to express a new notion. Its spelling system, true, is somewhat confusing (that may be

helpful for the language learners – they can guess the meanings of the so-called international words – words taken into the language from various sources and later taken from it into other languages), and the liberal attitude to foreign elements in the language and the easiness with which the language assimilates them is simply wondrous.

What is the English language nowadays? Speaking in more general terms, it is the native (and state) language of the population of several countries – Great Britain, where, as we can see, it arose and formed into a developed national language, and several former colonies of this empire – The United States of America, Australia, New Zealand and partly Canada (though for a layman it is the language of Canada). With a certain part of the population of the South African republic the total number of the citizens of these countries will hardly reach half a billion native speakers. Can we compare it with such megacommunities as China, for instance? We do not in the least depreciate the significance of the Chinese language, or any other language of the world, but what then makes the English language a socio-linguistic factor now? Is it the might and influence of the USA or Great Britain? To a certain extent we may admit that might be the cause, but – only to a certain extent. There are some purely linguistic factors that facilitated this process.

This language has become a unique tool for mutual understanding between peoples on all continents and in every part of the world. We well know that a lion's share of the information on the Internet is in English, the majority of international E-mail messages is in English; and that this is the international language of air traffic controllers and international conferences, congresses, forums, sports competitions, beauty contests. Pop singers from all countries try to perform in English aspiring to gain greater popularity, not necessarily in Great Britain and the USA, but also to become globally recognised.

Some 380m people speak it as their first language and perhaps two thirds as many again as their second. A billion are learning it, about a third of the world's population are in some sense exposed to it and by 2050, it is predicted, half the world will be more or

less proficient in it. It is the language of globalisation – of international business, politics and diplomacy. It is the language of computers and the Internet. You'll see it on posters in Cote d'Ivoire, you'll hear it in pop songs in Tokyo, you'll read it in official documents in Phnom Penh. Deutsche Welle broadcasts in it. Bjork, an Icelander, sings in it. French business schools teach in it. It is the medium of expression in cabinet meetings in Bolivia. Truly, the tongue spoken back in the 1300s only by the "low people" of England, as Robert of Gloucester put it at the time, has come a long way. It is now the global language. (The Triumph of English A World Empire by Other Means Dec 20th 2001/ From The Economist print edition)

The study of the history of the English language will require the knowledge of related subjects; the data of some of the subjects already studied. Linguistic terminology and notions of general linguistics are not explained in the course – they are supposed to have been studied in the introductory university linguistics courses. Language system is viewed in the divisions generally recognised among the researchers of English, but with a special attention to its history. So, the course includes *historical phonology* dealing with the sound system of the oldest written records (phonology, not phonetics is dealt here with, because we can investigate the differences between the sounds of the dead languages whereas we can never hear it and investigate the physical nature of their sounds), *historical morphology*, *historical syntax* and *historical lexicology*. The problem of style is much more complicated, because not all the periods of the language are represented equally well in written documents, so only some aspects can be treated here. It is not possible to have a full historical study of the development of pragmatic types of sentences, though some of communicative peculiarities of the commonly used structures deserve to be mentioned. So such terms (notions) as phoneme, phonemic quality, vowel and consonant phonemes front and back vowels, monophthongs and diphthongs, stressed and unstressed vowels, assimilation (progressive and regressive), the notions of paradigms, inflections, synthetic and analytical forms, suppletivity, and other terms are supposed to be already known or will be ascertained in the course of the subject.

Being a historical discipline this subject is going to use the material of historical science – the development of the language is in close relation to the development of the country – so the milestones in English history are to be reviewed. In our reference to history we are going to distinguish *linguistically relevant* historic events, or, to be more precise, some more linguistically relevant events as against some others which might have been very significant for the country but left much a paler imprint on the development of the language. So, the very settlement of the Anglo-Saxon tribes on the isles is of paramount linguistic importance – the language became isolated from the continental Germanic dialects and began its separate existence. Numerous feuds and wars that the English carried on with other countries had some impact on the language, but none can be compared with the Norman Conquest of Britain, which was probably one of the mightiest factors of its drastic change from a language relatively immune to foreign elements to one of the most receptive languages in the present-day world. Technical inventions might have had enormous significance for the development of the language. For instance, the invention of the loom for the weavers changed England into an industrial state, gave an incomparable impulse to its economic development, but as far as the language is concerned it can't be compared with the invention of the printing press, that served as a mighty conserving factor to medieval spelling. No matter how the sound system changed, the spelling preserved the older shape of the words. If previously, spelling had changed to reflect changes in pronunciation, printing froze the spelling: we spell essentially the way Caxton did. Its importance in spreading literacy and the standard norm, thus transforming a language of many dialects into a national language is indisputable. The same can be said about such inventions of the early XXth century as radio and television. Bernard Shaw's Professor Higgins would have much less work in training the correct pronunciation – RP would be brought into every house by the electronic media. Some facts in English history had less impact on the language, and we are going to state what really was the influence of this or that fact on the language.

The study of the history of the language in the present-day university course may seem to be something outdated and conservative, having little practical importance. Many specialists of working with language seem to do well without knowing it. A pragmatically-minded student may wonder in what

way it may help him in his future work, what practical gains may be achieved by knowing it. One may really master the language without knowing anything about its history, that's true – look how many bilinguals there are in the world. Suffice it to take an English-speaking nurse or send a child to a good boarding-school somewhere in one of the above-mentioned countries, and we'll have a person with an excellent command of the language. But hardly anyone who has a good command of the language can be called a linguist. He/she will be able to communicate with people, he may even translate or interpret from one language into another but that won't make him a professional in languages. For the students of this department language is the object of study, not merely a means of communication. Amateur translation may be very good indeed, the famous Moliere's bourgeois didn't even know he used prose in his speech, yet it will still require much work and linguistic guesses that make translation adequate and professional.

Everything comes natural to a bilingual; he may not understand some structural peculiarities of either language. A linguist is a person who *does understand* them. For a layman language is full of rules and exceptions just to be remembered; for a linguist they are the result of systematic changes within it on various stages of its development.

Let's take some examples. Without knowing the language we just feel that some words in English are borrowed, some have very close meanings, some form their paradigmatic forms regularly and some have irregular forms. To know what is the nature of this or that exception will make it easier to master the very language itself. So, for, instance, if we get an insight into the borrowed part of the English vocabulary, we'll be able with absolute certainty say that a borrowed verb 99 % of the time will have a regular paradigm; that if a word has two variants of pronunciation, some of them – non- or partially assimilated – will prove to be borrowed not so long ago, and older loans will sound more English, that is more compatible with the English phonetic system (*fancy – phantasy* etc).

The history of the English language will give an answer to many exceptions and irregularities of English grammar and spelling. It will make it clear which elements of the language structures are primary and which secondary categories and phenomena arose on various stages of its functioning. It will explain the existence of similar phenomena, almost identical in meaning but differing in stylistic value; it will just explain why the English alphabet is read so illogically, when /i:/ is **e**, and **i** is /ai/, and a consonant letter **r** is read as a broad long vowel /a:/.

Rules and exceptions will fit into a certain system when you know the history. How else can you explain why one and the same word may be a noun and a verb (*love, smoke, finger* for instance); or why there are different ways of forming the plural of the nouns, or why we should just remember the three forms of the irregular verbs, and why some of the irregular verbs are similar in forming past tense and the participles, and why some of the irregular verbs are unchangeable, and what made modal verbs defective, and why the word order in the English language is direct, and what happened to the common Indo-European way of expressing negation. We will see some words existing in several phonetic variants (as *vase*), some similar in meaning but different in form words (*chorus* and *choir*, *fancy* and *phantasy*, *sir* and *senior* – and such pairs as *three* and *trio*, *eat* and *edible*, *acre* and *agronomist*). Different ways of forming new words and the correlation of these ways have historical explanations. Some strange semantic transformations, *host* – versus *hostile* are explicable from the point of view of the history of the language.

Synthetic and analytical features of the language are taken for study in this course; the process of gradual change of an Indo-European synthetic language with cases and declensions into a language with numerous analytical formations, some of which may still be treated as word combinations is obvious when the language is viewed in its development.

Periods in the History of the English Language

The English language is to a certain extent rare in the sense that we actually can find a starting point of its development. Usually, the rise of languages comes naturally through the splitting and merging of dialects in some hidden latent way. With English we may easily see when the first Anglo-Saxon settlers in those distant times brought the language into the conditions whereby any other influence from related languages became obstructed.

The beginnings of the English language are traced back to the year 449, when coming to help their Celtic ally, two Germanic chieftains, Hengist and Horsa, brought their belligerent tribesmen to the Isles. History prior to that event is marked by the turbulence of the Roman Empire. The Romans had finally withdrawn to the Apennines to check the onslaught of the Barbarian tribes. Having been kept in submission for several hundred years, the Celtic

inhabitants of the isles, could not make good use of their independence; and spent years fighting for supremacy, for none of the chieftains wanted to recognise someone else's power. Having relatively equal forces neither could win easily, and one of them (Vortigern) invited Hengist, chief of the Jutes and his brother Horsa from the continent. W. Churchill writes about this "Imitating a common Roman practice, the dominant British chief about AD sought to strengthen himself by bringing in a band of mercenaries from over the seas. They proved a trap. Once the road was open fresh fleet loads made their way across and up the rivers, from the Humber perhaps as far round as Portsmouth. The name of the deceived chief who invited those deadly foes was Vortigern. Hengist, a name frequently mentioned in Northern story, like a medieval mercenary was ready to sell his sword and his ships to anyone who would give him land on which to support his men; and what he took was the future kingdom of Kent.

But the British resistance stiffened as the invaders got away from coast, and their advance was brought to a standstill for nearly fifty years by a great battle won at Mount Badon The wretched remnants sent a letter to Aetius, a powerful Roman – "To Aetius, three times Consul, the groans of the Britons": "The barbarians drive us to the sea, the sea drives us to the barbarians, between these two methods of death we are either massacred or drowned" But they got no help. Meantime dire famine compelled many to surrender to their spoilers... But others would in no wise surrender, but kept on sallying from the mountains, caves, passes, and thick coppices And then, for the first time, trusting not in man but in God, they slaughtered the foes who for so many years had been plundering their country." (W. Churchill, "The History of the English People")

Historians attribute this resistance and this glittering but in the long run rather fruitless victory to King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. Twelve battles, all located in scenes untraceable, with foes unknown, except that they were heathen are mentioned in the writing of the Latin Nemnius. Arthur's names and deeds are covered by all the glitter that romance and poetry can bestow – Mallory, Spencer and Tennyson embellished this name; it became part and parcel of the romantic past of the English people, and one hardly remembers that Arthur was one of the most unyielding enemies to their ancestors. Or perhaps there was no Arthur? Modern research has not accepted the fictitiousness of Arthur. Timidly but resolutely the latest and best-informed writers unite to proclaim his reality. They are ready to believe

that there was a great British warrior who kept the light of civilisation burning against all the storms that beat.

So starting as a language separated from the rest of the Germanic linguistic area, it has been functioning for more than a millennium and a half; and there can be traced several periods within its history. Various approaches to delimiting the periods have been put forward. The basis of subdivision of the may be purely historical, based on some outstanding linguistically relevant events. There is a tradition of recognizing the *Old English period* (449–1066), the *Middle English* (1066–1475), and *New English* 15th century onwards , the framing events being Anglo-Saxon Conquest – the Norman Conquest; The Norman Conquest – the invention of the printingpress, and the end of the War of the Roses. Usually in this subdivision of periods they distinguish a subperiod – Early New English, the period between the 15th and mid-17th century – the period of Renaissance in the English culture, the one which is represented by numerous works of the classics of English literature and philosophy.

Each of the periods is marked by a set of specific features of phonology, grammar and vocabulary, and may be also defined in these terms. Henry Sweet classified them as *The Period of Full Endings, the Period of Levelled Endings* and the *Period of Lost Endings*. His classification is arbitrary to some extent – true, in the Old English period any vowel could be found in the ending, and the majority of the parts of speech are connected with the other words in the sentences by means of endings. Still, not all Indo-European endings of the changeable parts of speech are found in the language of the period, the paradigms are significantly simplified as compared with , say, Latin or even with the Gothic grammar; the period of levelled endings in reality contains the levelled vowel in the ending, but at the same time lots of endings were already lost; the period of lost endings – present-day language, as we know, is not totally devoid of endings, for some of the paradigmatic forms are still made by means of endings, scarce as they are.

Scholars have also tried to view the language in terms of the most significant works of writing; the more detailed classification here will be: *Early Old English* may be taken separately, as the period of pre-written functioning of the language. We can only guess what the language was like until the 8th century, the century beginning from which writing becomes widespread, and so all considerations on the subject are purely hypothetical. The data of the study of tribal languages of present-day Africa, or Polynesia

may give only a more generalised understanding of what a tribal tongue is. The formation of kingdoms on the British territory transformed the tribal dialects into regional (local) dialects that took place during the later, *Written Old English* (or Anglo-Saxon period).

The second major division in the generally accepted classification may also be treated with greater copiousness – the language of the first centuries after the Norman Conquest differs from that of the very end of the period. The beginning was marked by intense decline in the importance and sphere of functioning of the language. Unable to compete with the language of the mighty conquerors, is was reduced to serve the lower layers of the population, its functioning being prevalently in oral communication, the rules for the use of the forms were not only observed – they were not even set at the time, and it might be described as the period of free mutilation of the language by the uneducated and uncaring for the future of the language people. That was in what we call the *Early Middle English.* The writings of the period, represented mainly by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, *Peterborough Chronicle*, such poems as *Ormulum* and a number of religious works (*Poema Morale*, *Ancrene Riwle*, *Cursor Mundi* etc) show the great turbulence within the language system, and drastic unregulated changes at work.

Late (classical) *Middle English* which came to our times in writings of G. Chaucer already presents a paragon of speech. London dialect becomes more and more prestigious, and what is written in "*The Canterbury Tales*" is already almost understood by a reader without a special linguistic training. Chaucer's English is recognisable, is quite readable – the spelling of the period did not change so much as its pronunciation. Usually these literary works are usually supplemented with commentaries, but the original texts go without translation for the learners of the English literature.

Early New English – known as Shakespeare's English – lasted for a century and a half – a time span far exceeding the life of the great Englishman – is represented by numerous writings of a whole bunch of prominent thinkers, writers, scientists (suffice it to mention such names as Christopher Marlowe, Edmund Spencer, Francis Bacon, Richard Hakluyt, James Shirley, Philip Sidney, John Webster, Ben Jonson, Michael Drayton, William Warner who were W.Shakespeare's contemporaries). This period is characterised by co-existence of numerous almost equal in meaning forms –

that was one more turbulent period of the making of the language, when not the strict rules but the authority of the user of the form was decisive in the choice of forms. The coryphaei could be guided by their own judgement – and so they represent a wonderful variety of forms of expression.

Classical classifications give the New English period as beginning with mid-17 century. Really, almost all the grammatical forms that are found in the language had been formed by that period; the major phonetic changes had already taken place; the ability to pick whatever lexeme wherever possible was already developed. The language in later years did not change as far as its structure and categories are concerned. Though the form of expression changed from century to century, it seems to be just a pure object of stylistic analysis and the study of territorial variants of the language and idiosycrasies of style of the authors.

Yet more copious view of the language will single out the sub-period of 17–18th c, when the most educated minds of the nation worked on establishing what words and forms of the word were appropriate in civilized society. The establishment of norms, the received standard in pronunciation as well as in grammar, debates as to grammaticality of various structures and forms was very active through numerous publications of prescriptive grammars, dictionaries of correct English etc. It might be called he period of "cutting bulldogs' tails" – some of the current and widely used forms were banished to make the language well-organised and logical.

Specifically, a fourth, "post-Modern" period of English (we may call it Late New English) may have originated in 1876 or 1877 with Alexander Graham Bell's invention of the telephone and Thomas Alva Edison's invention of the phonograph. These machines, along with a few others that have followed – radio, talking pictures, television – were able to do for the spoken word what the printing press did for the written word. Before 1876, speakers could be heard only by those within earshot; now, however, a speaker may have a virtually unlimited audience, situated anywhere on the Earth or even in outer space.

Just as printing standardized spelling, one result of the latest communications breakthrough has been a leveling of differences in the pronunciation of English. People no longer hear the speech only of those from their own neighborhood or village. Instead, a whole nation listens to the same newscasters every evening.

British English (the brand of English spoken in Great Britain) and American English (that spoken in the United States) diverged as soon as the

American colonies were founded at the start of the 17th century. Nonetheless, because of the constant interchange of people and books across the ocean, American English never developed beyond being a dialect of English. With the advent of records, cinema, radio, and television, the two brands of English have even begun to draw back together again. Britons and Americans probably speak more alike today than they did 50 or 60 years ago.

Canadian English, Australian English, South African English, and many other dialects of English scattered around the world are coming increasingly to resemble one another. Within each dialect area, subdialects are also losing their distinctive characteristics. Within the United States, for example, the speech of Northerners and Southerners is becoming less obviously distinctive.

Although the English language is becoming more uniform, this does not mean that it will come to a rest once all dialectal differences are gone. Languages never stop changing, and English is no exception.

Late New English is studied extensively in terms of is structure, styles communicative peculiarities and geographical (territorial) variants, standards are established and reviewed, and that is what you are studying in the courses of practical English.

The Old English. General Characteristics

The Old English Period, in our study is the period from the fifth up to mid-eleventh century. It is characterised by the existence of the language in the form of several dialects, according to the seven kingdoms that existed on the island; the vocabulary of each of them is comparatively homogeneous and contains mostly words of native origin (Indo-European, Germanic and specifically English). The connection of words in the utterance is performed through a ramified system of endings, hence word order is relatively free. Common Indo-European traits, such as double negation or formation of impersonal sentences without any subject in the nominative case are quite common; phonetic structure is marked by a noticeable drift of the sound system away from other Germanic languages. New short diphthongs appear as a result of assimilative changes, the system of consonants develops more marked pairs of voiced and voiceless fricative sounds.

The background against which the English language was forming included long years of pre-written functioning of the language. Angles, Saxons and Jutes (or rather, Jutes and the rest) did well in peacemaking on the island. Very soon the remnants of the Celtic population were subjugated, or ousted into the outskirts of the Isles – to the North (Scotland), or to the West (Cornwall and Wales). The invaders felt comfortable on the new territory. The seven kingdoms formed by the newcomers were the following – Jutes, the earliest to come, formed the kingdom of Kent, Saxons – Essex, Wessex and Sussex, and Angles had the kingdoms of East Anglia, Northhumbria and Mercia. These seven principal concurrent Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the 7th and 8th centuries are known under the general name – Heptarchy. Though they were supposed to be allies, still the struggle for supremacy was not uncommon, and some four of them managed to gain supremacy at various times – first Kent, then Mercia and Northumbria. These latter reached the height of their importance in the pre-written period; some later documents of literature as well as the remains of material culture were ruthlessly destroyed during the raids of the Scandinavians. So, for instance, Northumbria's rich cultural life (exemplified by the writings of Saint Bede and the illuminated Lindisfarne *Gospels*) was destroyed by these raids in the 9th century. The Midlands offered better conditions for economic prosperity, but the frontier position as to the Scandinavians did its bit, and what we have more or less well represented in writings is the Wessex dialect.

Extant documents written in the language date from about 700 to about 1100, but the great bulk of written material represents the speech from about 900 to 1050. The language was represented in writing in four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, and West-Saxon. The majority of the manuscripts, containing anything worth reading as literature, are in West-Saxon.

The dominance of the West-Saxon literature during the period demonstrates the political and artistic vitality of the kingdom of West Saxons (Wessex).This dominance of Old English literature by West-Saxon documents adds a twist to the study of the development of English. It was the Mercian dialect, not the West Saxon, that eventually dominated and evolved into Chaucer's Middle English and our Modern English. West-Saxon literature is the ancestor of nearly all English literature, but the West-Saxon language is not.

The dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians at the time of their initial settlement in Britain were, of course, no different from the dialects spoken in their Germanic homelands. As the generations passed, and

as the Anglo-Saxons became relatively isolated from their European cousins, spoken language evolved into the dialects mentioned above.

An event of paramount importance in the life of the Old English was the introduction of Christianity. Pope Gregory the Great sent a mission to the Isles, and since 597 Christianity comes into the life of the islanders. It is not the first time that the Christian religion landed here – Romans were Christians by the times they left Great Britain, and so were the Celts. Actually, Ireland had been Christian since the 2nd century AD, but that was far from the territory of the Heptarchy, and the barbarians that replaced the Romans were heathen. They had their heathen Gods, and even the days of the week are loan-translated from the Latin, following the Roman tradition to name the days of the week by the names of the Pagan gods we have in Old English – Latin *Luna dies – Monan dæʒ; Martis dies – Tiwes dæʒ; Mercuris dies – Wodnes dæʒ, Iovis dies – Thunres dæʒ, Veneris Dies – Friʒes dæʒ.* Saturn, evidently, did not have a pagan counterpart in Germanic mythology, and so *Saturnes dies* is *Saetern dæʒ.*

Christianity came to England from Kent; and so Canterbury remains the religious centre of the country. Historians will expostulate lots of advantages England gained by this act – but as regards language development, its the influence can't be overestimated: England received the Latin alphabet and educated people. It brought monasteries with their schools and chronicles. Now the English history was written by the Englishmen themselves, in their own language; now translation as a kind of intellectual activity came into the life of Englishmen. The period of the reign of King Alfred of Wessex politically might have been criticised for letting the country be torn into two halves – the Wedmore peace treaty of 878 let the Danes control and levy taxes of a considerable part of the state (called *Dena laʒu – Danelaw*). This treaty was not too glorious to the state as by it some of its territory was yielded to the enemy, and in the history books is referred to as such that simply restricted the Scandinavians' settlement. But this treaty allowed a relatively stable period in the development of the rest of the country; more than that, the very personality of Alfred seems to be one of the most prominent educators of the nation. His rule was marked by the implementation of literacy among the free well-to-do people; his laws promoted learning languages and the first libraries in England were founded under his rule. Much of what is now is available in Old English was created or preserved thanks to Alfred the Great.

Alfred the Great b. 849, d. Oct. 26, 899, succeeded his brother AEthelred as king of Wessex in April 871. Both he and his brother were sons of King AEthelwulf. The only English king called "the Great." Alfred is renowned both for his ability as a war leader and for his love of learning. He can be counted, with Charlemagne, as one of the two most outstanding rulers of the 9th century.

Alfred was the first English monarch to plan systematically for the defense of his realm against the Danes, with whom he was almost constantly at war from 876 until the end of his life. He was also the first monarch of an English kingdom to become a symbol and focus of national unity. Although effective ruler only of Wessex and English Mercia, he was regarded as the protector of all the English living under Danish rule. His capture of London in 886, which marked the farthest extent of his essentially defensive territorial expansion, led to general English recognition of his leadership. After his death, however, Wessex and Mercia were still unable to expel the Danes from England.

A learned layman, Alfred tried to ensure that his countrymen had the opportunity to become literate. To that end, he relied upon the bishops of the Anglo-Saxon church both to teach and to seek out students. Alfred himself translated into Anglo-Saxon the Pastoral Care of Pope Gregory I, Orosius's Seven Books of History against the Pagans, Boethius's Consolation of Philosophy, (possibly) the Ecclesiastical History of the Venerable Bede, and part of Saint Augustine of Hippo's Soliloquies. To each of these except the fourth he added his own commentary. Alfred's military victories saved English culture and national identity from destruction, and his intellectual activities began the education of his people in the Latin heritage.

The information of the dim and distant years, aesthetic and ethical standards of the Anglo-Saxon race come to our times in chronicles, translations of "the most necessary" texts into Old English, in thoroughly copied (and probably altered and enriched) epic poetry texts.

What texts are available now, and what dialects do they represent?

The Kentish dialect is relatively poorly represented by the 8th century glosses of Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History of the English people"* (*"Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum"*) This history was originally written in Latin and translated later into a West Saxon dialect. Translations of *Psalms* and some old charters (chronicles) are also available.

The Northumbrian dialect is reflected in runic inscriptions of the Ruthwell Cross, the Franks Casket; poetry usually attributed to Caedmon's *"Hymn"* and Bede's *"Dying Song"*, Cynewulf (*"Elene"*, *"Andreas"*, *"Juliana"* and others that paraphrase in poetic form biblical motives); the best known epic poem *"Beowulf"*, though came down to us with a significant tinge of Wessex dialect insertions and is still thought to have been originally composed in Anglian – Northumbrian.

The Wessex dialect is represented best of all – in the number of writings, their volume and in divergence of styles. King Alfred and his associates contributed by their personal writings as well as in translations – *"Pastoral Care"* (*"Cura Patoralis"*); Orosius' *"World History"* (*"Historiarium adversus paganos"*) which also contains an original text composed by King Alfred himself, Boethius' *"Consolation of Philosophy"*; Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"*; the earlier part of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles.

Later period in the history is represented by Aelfric's works (they were also writen in the West-Saxon dialect) – *Gospels, Homilies, Lives of Saints, Latin grammar, Old Testament; Old Saxon Chronicles* and Wulfstan's *"Homilies"*, one of which *"Sermo Lupi ad Anglos"* (*"The Wulf's Sermon to the English"*), written directly after the Scandinavian conquest and permeated by genuine concern about the fate of the ravaged country, is especially famous.

The difference between the dialects was found in phonology, choice of words and in the use of some grammatical forms.

Old English Alphabet and Pronunciation

The system of writing in Old English was changed with the introduction of Christianity. Before that, the English used the runes – symbols that were very vague, that might at the same time denote a sound, a syllable or a whole word.

> *Runes are the 24 letters (later 16 in Scandinavia and 30 or more in Anglo-Saxon England) of an ancient Germanic alphabet used from the 2d or 3d to the 16th century. Perhaps derived ultimately from the Etruscan alphabet, the runic alphabet was used mainly for charms and inscriptions, on stone, wood, metal, or bone. Each letter had a name, which was itself a meaningful word. The rune ᚠ, for instance, could stand for either the sound "f" or the fehu, "cattle," which was the name given to the rune.*

They were of specific shape, designed to be cut on the wooden sticks, and only few people knew how to make them and how to interpret them. Runic inscriptions that came down from the oldest settlers on the isles are few, and the language (as it is interpreted) is not what might be called Old English – it was rather an ancient language which might be very close to the languages of other Germanic tribes. The story of runes might be very interesting in itself, yet we are not concerned with the story of the development of the English language, and what we are going to study here was written in an alphabet dating back to the 7th century; it was Latin alphabet with few specifically English additions. Some English sounds had no counterpart in Latin, so three signs developed from runes were added, plus ligature æ, now well known as a transcription symbol.

The Latin alphabet was carried throughout medieval Europe by the Roman Catholic church – to the Irish and Merovingians in the 6th century and the Anglo-Saxons and Germans in the 7th. The oldest surviving texts in the English language written with Latin letters date back to c.700

So the letters of the Old English alphabet were as follows, and they denoted the following sounds

1. a [a] *ʒān* (go) *and* (and) ð
2. æ [æ] *ðæt* (that)
3. b [b] *bān* (bone)
4. c [k] *caru* (care) and [ʧ] before front vowels *cild* (child)
5. d [d] *dēor* (deer: in old times animal)
6. e [e] *mete* (meat; in old times food)
7. f [f] *findan* (find) and [v] in intervocal position *lufu* (love)
8. ʒ was one of the remnants of the runic alphabet called *joh* (yoke), and it had several readings
   [g] *ʒān* (go)
   [j] *ʒēar* (year)
   [ɣ] at the beginning of the word before back vowels and after n and between two back vowels: *sorʒian* (sorrow), *folʒian* (follow), *ʒuma* (man, human), *daʒas* (days)
9. h [h] *hām* (home), *him* (him), *huntoð* (hunting)
10. i [ɪ] *hit* (it), *him* (him), *lim* (limb)
11. l [l] *lytel* (little), *līf* (life), *lufu* (love)
12. m [m] *man* (man), *macian* (make)
13. n [n] *nama* (name), *nēah* (near)
14. o [o] *fōn* (catch), *mōna* (moon)
15. p [p] *pera* (pear), *up* (up)
16. r [r] *riht* (right), *riŋʒan* (ring), *wyrcan* (work)
17. s [s] *sittan* (sit), *siŋʒan* (sing)
18. t [t] *trēo* (tree), *tellan* (tell)
19. ð was developed from the rune *thorn* [θ] *ðæt* (that), *ðirda* (third), *ðiŋʒ* (thing); [ð] in the intervocal position *ōðer* (other), *brōðor* (brother)
20. u [u] *wudu* (wood)
21. w [w] in original Old English texts it was p *wynn* from the rune meaning *joy: winnan* (win), *weorðan* (become)
22. x [ks] *oxa* (ox)
23. y [u] *fyllan* (fill), *lytel* (little)

The stress in the Old English was dynamic, and shifted to the first syllable. Originally in common Indo-European the stress was free; the stress in the Old English words was always on the first syllable (verbs with prefixes, however, had the stress on the root vowel). The nouns having the same prefix had the stress on the first syllable too: *and´swarian – ´andswaru.*

English sounds as compared with the sounds in other Indo-European Languages. Grimm's Law

There exists a sufficient number of Old English texts to form an opinion about what really the English language was in the times of Alfred and his successors. The language of the period bears a lot of traces in common with other inflected Indo-European languages, Ukrainian and Russian including. The nominal parts of speech were declined, the infinitive of the verb likewise had a distinct infinitival suffix, the structure of the sentence had a subject, a predicate and secondary parts. Just like in our Slavic languages word order was free, and the nominal parts of speech had cases, there was agreement between the subject and the predicate, double negation was not prohibited. Impersonal sentences had no subject (*mē ðyncð. him ðōhte* etc.) And a considerable number of words of the language had parallels in other known Indo-European languages (*brōðor* брат; *duru* двері; *dæʒ* день). Some of these sounds are found in all languages that we know, some are now known as phonetic symbols, and they are specifically English sounds. But some sounds which are found elsewhere, may not stand in the English words of Indo-European origin in the same places. *Sunu – sunus* – син; but *duo* – два – *twā*. Some other sounds may be found in other words; anyway, phonemics of the Old English is not something inconceivable or far too complicated, and in fact can be easily compared to other Indo-European languages, even to Ukrainian and Russian. Compare the following Old English words with Ukrainian and Russian words, and the words from other Indo-European languages just to see that, having the same origin, the words have not drifted too far apart, and their common origin is easily seen:

sunu (son) – Ukr., Rus. *син, сын;* Lat. *sunus*; Lith *sunùs;* Sanksrit *sunus*
brōðor (brother) – Ukr., Rus. *брат;* Lat. *frater*; Greek *phrater*; Sanskrit *bhratar;* French *frere*
twā two) – Ukr., Rus. *два;* Lat. *duo*; Greek *duo*; Spanish *duo*; French *deux*
ðrēo (three) Ukr., Rus. *три* Lat. *tres;* Greek *treis;* Spanish *tres;* French *trois*
fisc (fish) Ukr. *пічкур*; Rus. *нескарь*; Spanish *pesca;* French *poisson*
ētan (eat) Ukr. *їдкий;* Lat. *edere;* Rus. *еда*
wītan (wit, wits, witch) (to know) Ukr. *відомий, відьма*; Rus. *ведьма*; Sanksrit *vidati*
ðæt (that) Gk *tó,* Sanksrit *tad;* Lat. *istud;* Rus. *тот;* Ukr. *та, той*
eahta (eight) Lat., Gk *octo*; Ukr., Rus. *октава*

feallan (fall) Ukr. у-*пав;* Rus. у-*пал*
niman (take) – Ukr. зн*і*мати, під*н*імати; Rus. при*н*имать, по*н*имать
full (full) Lat. *plenus;* Rus. *по*лный; Ukr. *по*вний; French *plain*
stān (stone) Greek *stion*; Ukr. *сті*на; Rus. *сте*на
standan, stod (stand) Lat. *stare, sto;* Ukr. *стоя*ти; Rus. *стоя*ть
ðorn (thorn) Ukr. *тере*н; Rus. *тер*н
pōl (pool) Ukr., Rus. *боло*то
weorcan (work) Greek *ergon;* Ukr. *верг*ати
fæstan (fast) Ukr. *пі*ст; Rus. *по*ст
wæter (water) Ukr., Rus. *во*да; Lat. *onda*

By carefully studying present-day English words and comparing them with the words of our language we can supply other examples of related words in the languages

flame Rus. *пла*мя; Ukr. *полум'я*
frog Rus. *прыга*ть
thin Ukr., Rus. *то*нкий
throw Ukr. *те*рти; Rus. *те*реть
hawk Rus. *ко*бец; Ukr. *кі*бець
heap Ukr. *ку*па; Rus. *ку*ча
heave Ukr. *кива*ти; *Rus. кива*ть
hoof Ukr., Rus. *копи*то, *копы*то

In the process of its development a great number of words were taken into English from other languages. Some of them had counterparts in English, but with the sounds that were already only vaguely reminding of the original Indo-European source. So, now we can find many pair of words in present-day English in which we find similar stems are evident only to a person with some linguistic knowledge, one of them native, and the other taken from some other language (mainly Latin or Greek)

first – primary
two – double
three – triangle
five – pentagon
eight – octopus
ten – decimal
far – perimeter
father – paternal
brother – fraternity
night – nocturnal
eye – binoculars
tooth – dentist
know – gnostic
feather – pterosaur, pterodactyl
fee – pecuniary
fetch – pedestrian
few – poor
flat – plateau
field – plane (поле)
fire – pyrotechnic, pyromania

full – plenum, pleniponetiary
eight – octagon
acre – agriculture
horn – corny
foot – pedal
heart – cardiologist
queen – gynaecologist
foam – sponge
fowl – poultry
thirst – torrid
threat – intrude
thunder – tone
head – capital

In some others the changes are so significant, that the etymology is blurred. Without knowing the major shifts in sound system and semantics one will rather with difficulty trace that *quick* and *vivus (vivacity)*, *queen* and *gynaecology*, *tooth* and *dentist*, *foot* and *pedal*, *heart* and *cardiology*, *five* and *pentagon* originate from the same Indo-European roots. But knowing how the sound system was developing we in the long run will find that their common origin is fairly transparent.

The first fundamental change in the consonant system of Germanic languages dates back to times far removed from today. Jakob Ludwig Grimm (1785–1863), a German philologist and a folklorist (generally known together with his brother Wilhelm for their Grimm's Fairy Tales (1812–22) studied and systematized these correlations and in his *Deutsche Grammatik* (1819–37). His conclusions are formulated (called Grimm's law or the First Consonant shift)

The essence of Grimm's law is that the quality of some sounds (namely plosives) changed in all Germanic languages while the place of their formation remained unchanged. Thus, voiced aspirated plosives (stops) lost their aspiration and changed into pure voiced plosives, voiced plosives became voiceless plosives and voiceless plosives turned into voiceless fricatives

bh dh gh → *b d g* Sanksrit *bhrata* → Goth *brōðar,* Old English *brōðor* (brother)
Sanksrit *madhu* → Old English *mādu* (mead)
Lat. *(g)hostis* → Goth *gast*

b d g → *p t k* Lith *bala,* Ukr. болото → Old English *pōl*
Lat. *edere* → Goth *itan*, Old English *ētan*
Lat. *granum* → *Goth kaurn*, Old English *corn*

p t k → *f θ h* Lat. *pater* → Goth *fadar,* Old English *fæder*
Lat. *tu* → Goth *ðū*, Old English *ðū*
Lat. *octo* → Goth *ahtau,* Old English *eahta*

Aspirated plosives are now lost almost in all European languages, and we take for comparison words from Sanskrit. Present-day Hindi has it, and we may find them in well-known place-names in India (*Bhilai, Bhopal, Bhaunagar Dhaulagiri*) and some well-known notions from Indian life – like the names of books – *Bhagavad-Gita, Mahabharata*, etc.).

Sanksrit *madhjas* – Goth *midjis* –Old English *middel*
Sanksrit *(g)hostis* Lat. *hostis* – Goth *gast* – Old English *ȝiest*
Ukr. болото – Old English *pōl*
Ukr. яблуко – Lith *obelis* – Old English *æppel*
Lat. *duo* – Ukr. два – Goth *twai*– Old English *twā*
Lat. *granum* – Goth *kaurn* –Old English *corn*
Sanksrit *gwene*– Lat. *gynae* – Goth *qens*– Old English *cwene*
Lat. *genu*, Gk *góny* – Goth *kniu* – Old English *cnēo*
Gk *gnostis* – Lat. *cognoscere* – Old English *cnāwan*; – Goth *kunnan*
Sanksrit *pit(a)r* – Lat., Gk *pater* – Old English *fæder*
Lat. *plenum* – Goth *fulls* –Old English *full*
Lat. *tres*,– Gk *treis* – Goth *ðreis* –Old English *ðrēo*
Sanksrit *tad* – Rus. тот – Goth *ðata* – Old English *ðæt*
Lat. *cors, cordis* – Gk *kardia* – Goth *hairto* –Old English *heorte*

There are some exceptions to Grimm's law: *p t k* did not change into *f θ h*, if they were preceded by s (*tres – ðreo*, but *sto – standan*). Another exception was formulated by a Danish linguist Karl Adolph Verner (1846–96) in 1877: if an Indo-European voiceless stop was preceded by an unstressed vowel, the voiceless fricative which developed from it in accordance with Grimm's law became voiced, and later this voiced fricative became a voiced plosive (stop). That is *p t k → b d g*. Greek *pater* has a Germanic correspondence *fadar, fæder* because the stress in the word was on the second syllable, and so voiceless plosive was preceded by an unstressed vowel.

Verner's law explains why some verbs in Old English changed their root consonant in the past tense and in the Participle II – originally, these grammatical forms had the stress on the second syllable. Hence the basic forms of such verbs as *snīðan* (cut) and *weorðan* (to become) were *snīðan – snāð – snidon – sniden*; *weorðan – wearð – wurdon – worden*

So, in Present-day English we may find the words and morphemes of common Indo-European origin that differ in sound form their counterparts in

other languages, but Grimm's law will show their similarity to the words of other Indo-European languages. For example:

fish, but *piscine* (related to fish)
foam but *spume* foam or surf, esp. on the sea; froth;
far but *periphery, perimeter, periscope*
five but *pentagon, pentagram, penthathlon*
fist but *pistol*
ten but *decimal, decade, decagon*
sit but *sedative, sediment*
eat but *edible*
three but *triangle, tripod, trident* and so on.

We may find words having the same morphemes with the sounds modified in English but preserved in the borrowings in English (they are called etymological doublets). Comparing the words given below, a non-linguist will not find the relations between the words, yet for a linguist it is quite transparent:

democracy - hard
night – nocturnal
mother – maternal
tooth – dental
foot – pedal
heart – cordial

Some words, however, seem not to comply with this law. Such words as *day, beard, door* have counterparts in other Indo-European languages with similar sounds. But it is due to the fact that the sounds in the common Indo-European were voiced aspirated plosives, that gave voiced plosives in Germanic languages. Later this aspiration was lost in other languages (in Latin they changed into voiceless fricatives) and so the sounds are the same in Germanic and non-Germanic languages now.

Those who might be interested could see that the shifts did not end here. There were other shifts in German and Danish. Suffice it to give several German examples to exemplify that the process of shift continued and the words in these two Germanic languages acquire different sound form:

English *eat* – German *essen*
English *day* – German *Tag*
English *two* – German *zwei*
English *tongue* – German *Zunge*
English *to* – German *zu*
English *other* – German *ander*
English *apple* – German *Apfel*
English *pepper* – German *Pfeffer*
English *pool* – German *Pfuhl*
English *make* – German *machen*

English *ten* – German *zen*
English *three* – German *drei*

English *sleep* – German *slafen*
English *dream* – German *Traum*

Old English Phonology

Apart from the differences in consonants we may see that vowels in similar words are different too. Especially prominent are the instances of numerous diphthongs in Old English replacing simple vowels as in *eahta, ȝēoc, meolc, heard* (eight, yoke, milk, hard), or when vowels change their quality in certain positions as in *wæter, stān, fyllan* (water, stone, fill). Some sounds merge, some get doubled – all these are to be studied among Old English sound changes.

The system of vowels in Old English included six long and seven short vowels (monophthongs)

a æ e i o u y å – ā ǣ ē ī ō ū ȳ

and four short and four long diphthongs:

ea eo ie io – ēa ēo īe īo

The length of the vowel was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning: *ȝod* (god) – *ȝōd* (good), *west* (west) – *wēst* (waste), *for* (preposition for) – *fōr* (past tense of the verb *fāran – go*). Comparing Old English sounds with the system of sound of other Germanic languages, one can see that in English it is more complicated and the origin of some sounds blurred. Some of the sounds had counterparts in other Indo-European languages So, for instance, such sounds as *i, u* can be found in similar words in other Germanic and non–Germanic Indo-European languages: Old English *niman* (Ukr. зніматн); Old English *sunu* (Lat. *sunus*). But the majority of sounds deviated from the way they were pronounced in other languages. So, for instance, Indo-European short *o* and *a* merged into one sound *a* in Germanic; but this *a* had several ways of development: *a – a haban – habban* (have); but *harda – heard* (hard), *arm – earm* (arm), *manna – mån* (man); long Gothic *ā* changed and gave several other variants, but there appeared a new long *ā* from Gothic *ai.* Various changes occurred in the Old English phonology. These can be called spontaneous, independent, and assimilative, influenced by the surrounding sounds.

What had changed spontaneously, or independently is the following: Gothic *ai* corresponds to long *ā*; *āu* to long *ēa*; *īu* to long *ēo* in Old English *dāuð – dēað* (dead); *āust – ēast* (east); *dīups – dēop* (deep). These changes occurred irrespective of whatever sounds surrounded the sounds in question.

Assimilative changes are the changes that occurred in the language in specific surroundings – the sound might change when it was preceded or followed by some other sound or sound cluster. Many of the sounds that appeared in the language as a result of these changes returned to their previous quality in the next period, some did not, but we are concerned with these because the changes transformed the words formerly common in Germanic languages to their Anglo-Saxon variety.

There are two types of assimilation – regressive and progressive assimilation. If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive, if it influences the following it sound – it is called progressive assimilation. Both types of assimilation are found in Old English. Most common, mutilating the general Germanic picture of the sounds are:

1. Breaking (fracture). This is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster. Thus,

a	+	r+cons, l+cons.	=>	ea
æ	+	h+ cons.	=>	ea
e	+	h final	=>	eo

a > ea

hard > heard (hard)
arm > earm (arm)
half > healf (half)
ahta > eahta (eight)
nah > neah (near)
talde > tealde (told)
kald > ceald (cold)
warm > wearm (warm)

e > eo

hairto, herte > heorte (heart)
erl > eorl (earl)
hairda > heord (herd)
fehtan > feohtan (fight)
melcan > meolcan (to milk)
feh > feoh (cattle, originally *fee*)

In the Northumbrian and Kentish dialects *l +cons* does not lead to fracture of the sound *æ*, which turns into *a* (*ald, all*)

2. Palatal mutation (i-umlaut) The essence of this change is that a back sound, *a* or *o*, changes its quality if there is a front sound in the next syllable. Especially frequent are the changes in the roots of the verbs influenced by the *i*-sound of the suffix of the infinitive *-ian* (the suffix lost its front sound in the same process, and in the Old English we have already the result of this change, not seeing the cause of it)

a > æ; a > e *wakjan – wæccan* (to observe, to be awake)
sandian – sendan (to send)
namnian – nemnan (to name)
talian – tælan – tellan (to tell)
salian – sælan – sellan (to sell, originally to give)
satian – sætan – settan (to set)

ā > ǣ *lārian – lǣran* (to learn, to teach)
hālian – hǣlan (to heal)
ān – ǣnig (any)

o > oe > e *ofstian – efstan* (to hurry)
dohter – dehter (dative case of daughter)

ō > oe > ē *wōpian – wēpan* (to weep)
dōmian – dēman (to deem, to judge)

u > y *fullian – fyllan* (to fill)
kuning – cyning (king)

ū > ȳ *mūs – mȳs* (mice)
cūðian – cȳ ðan (to announce)

Palatal mutation was found not only in monophthongs but in diphthongs, too. The modified system of diphthongs looks like the following

ea > ie
eald – ieldra (elder)
hleahian – hliehhan (to laugh)

eo > ie
feor – fierra (further)
geong – giengra (younger)

ēa > īe *hēarian – hīeran* (hear)
gelēafa – gelīefan (believe)

ēo > īe *getrēowi – getrīewe* (true)

In the Northumbian and Merican dialects long and short *ea* mutate into long and short *e* (*eldra, gelefan*)

Very often palatal mutation thus distanced a noun or an adjective and a verb derived from it, for the most frequent case of palatal mutation was under the influence of the verbal (infinitival) suffix *-ian*. We find the reflexes of Old English palatal mutation in such pairs in present-day English as *sale – sell; tell – tale; doom – deem; full – fill* – in Old English the verb had mutated vowel *tællan* (from *talian*) whereas the noun had no such mutation – *talu*. As we will see later, plurals of some nouns had a mutated vowel in the stem, which was very much in accordance with the rule *mūs – mȳs* (mouse-mice), *fōt – fēt* (foot – feet). Later developments of sounds in these words blurred the initial identity of the roots.

3. Diphthongization after palatal consonants

Diphthongs may have resulted from another process in Old English – diphthongization after palatal consonants *sk', k'* and *j* (in spelling *c, sc, g*):

a > ea, *skal – sceal* shall
scacan – sceacan (shake)
scamu – sceamu (shame)

ā > ēa *skaggwon – scēawian* (to show)

e > ie *gefan – giefan* (give)
getan – gietan (get)

æ > ea (the *æ* sound was actually derived from *a*)
gæf – geaf (gave)
gæt – geat (gate)

ǣ > ēa (the ǣ sound was actually derived from ā)
jār – gēar (year)

o > eo *scort – sceort* (short)
yong – geong (young)

However, there are linguists who still doubt whether the *i* sound (that is the resulting sound, it was actually a diphthong) was pronounced. Some stick to the opinion that the letter *i* simply signified the palatal nature of the preceding sound.

The words beginning with *g, sc* and *c* (such may be found in the texts) with non-palatalized vowel represent dialects other that West-Saxon (*gung, gefan*) etc.

4. Back, or Velar Mutation

The formula of mutation here reminds very much that of palatal mutation, but the difference is that the syllable that influenced the preceding vowel contained a back vowel – *o* or *u* (sometimes even *a* might serve as background for back mutation). Not all the dialects had this mutation, and the process was not universal (in West Saxon literary language it occurred only before the sounds *r,l, p, b, f, m*)

i > io *hira – hiora* (their);
silufr – siolufr (silver)
sifon – siofon (seven)
limu – liomu (limbs)
e > eo *heorot – heorot* (hart)
hefon – heofon (heaven)
efor – eofor (boar)
a > ea *saru – searu* (armour)

5. Mutation before *h*. Sounds *a* and *e* that preceded *h* underwent several changes, mutating to diphthongs *ea, ie* and finally were reduced to *i/y: – naht – neaht – niht – nieht – nyht* (night). The second may be quite easily traced to breaking, but the origin of the other three is rather vague. Probably, the very nature of the *h* sound was the reason for further development of the sound.

The words with such mutation are not very numerous, still we cannot ignore them altogether. It is observed in the past tense of the verb *maȝan* (may) *meahte – miehte – mihte – myhte* and several other words.

6. Contraction

Somehow or other the consonant *h* proved to have interfered with the development of many sounds. When *h* was placed between two vowels the following changes occurred:

a + h +vowel > ēa *slahan – slēan* (slay)
e + h + vowel > ēo *sehen – sēon* (see)
i + h + vowel > ēo *tihan – tēon* (accuse)
o + h + vowel > ō *fohan – fōn* (catch)
hohan – hōn (hang)

The Old German had no contraction, and this consonant is present in the corresponding words – in corresponding present-day German words this consonant is still found in spelling, though later it was lost in pronunciation, too (in the words like *sehen*).

These were qualitative changes of vowels; the significant quantitative change that is still felt in present-day English is the lengthening of vowels before the clusters *nd,ld, mb – bindan, cild, climban* (bind, child, climb). Further development of the sound system led to diphthongization of long vowels, and that explains the exception in the rules of reading the sounds in the closed syllables in the present-day English (the words like *climb, find, hold, told, comb, bomb).*

Still, if there was a consonant after this cluster the vowel was not lengthened: *cildru* (now children)

As far as other vowel changes, we can also mention gradation, or ablaut – grammatical interchange of vowels in different forms of the verb and in word-formation (чергування голосних у корені слова)

This was frequently found in making past tenses and participles of some verbs (they will be mentioned in studying Old English verbs).

Changes in Consonants

Voiceless fricatives appeared in Germanic languages as a result of the First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law). Proceeding from a changeable part of the consonant system (it is to be remembered that the stablest are the sonorants and the sibilant *s*) their development continues in Old English.

1. Voicing of fricatives in intervocal position

f > v *ofer* (over)
hlāf – hlāfas (loaf – loaves)
wīf – wīfe, wīfa (wife – wives)
θ > ð *ōðer* (other)
raðe (quickly)
s > z > r

Voiced sibilant *z* was very unstable in Old English (and other west-Germanic languages), and very soon changed into *r*. This process is called rhotacism.

wesun – weren (now *were*, but *was*)
maiza – māra (now *more*, but *most*)

It is due to rhotacism that common Indo-European suffix *-iza* (Ukr.-*iш)* used to form the degrees of comparison is so different now in Ukrainian and English, but comparing such words as

Goth. *softiza* Ukr. тихіший Old English *softra* ME *softer* we may easily find that the suffix is essentially the same.

2.Palatalization of the sounds *k"*, *sk'* and *kg'* (marked as *c*, *sc* and *cʒ*) developed in assibilation, that is formation of a sibilant in places before front vowels.

k' > tʃ	*cild* (child)
	ceosan (choose)
	hwilc (which)
sk' > ʃ	*sceal* (shall)
	sceotan (shoot)
	sceort (short)
kg' > dʒ	*brycʒ* (bridge)
	hrycʒ (ridge)
	wecʒ (wedge)

Back *γ* sound before palatal consonants turned into *j – ʒear* (year)

This process seems to have occurred in Late Old English.

So, the words that started with *sc* or *ʒ* acquired a sibilant or *j*; if we find that a word still has *g* or *sc/sk* at the beginning there is a strong probability that it was borrowed from Scandinavian and replaced the Old English form (e.g. *give, skin*) or together with the old word formed a pair of etymological doublets (*shatter/ scatter, shirt/skirt*). Some words of Greek origin (*school, scheme* etc) will also have *sk*.

3. Assimilation before *t*. The sound *t* when it was preceded by a number of consonants changed the quality of a preceding sound.

velar + t > ht	*sēcan – (sōcte) → sōhte* (seek – sought)
	brinʒan → brōhte (bring – brought)
	wyrcan → worhte (work – wrought) (the sounds *k* and *g* changed in the past tense and in the participle II before the dental suffix)
labial + t > ft	*ʒesceapan → ʒeaseaft* (creature)
dental + t > ss	*witan → wisse* (instead of *witte – knew*)

fn > mn	*stefn → stemn* (voice)
fm > mm	*wifman → wimman* (woman)
dð > t	*bindð → bint* (binds)

4. Loss of consonants in certain positions. Besides *h* that was lost in intervocal position, the sounds *n* and *m* were lost before *h*, entailing the lengthening of the preceding vowel:

bronhte – brōhte (brought)
fimf – fīf (five)
onðer – ōðer (other)
munð – mūð (mouth)

The nasals were not lost in German, so the corresponding German words are *fünf, ander* and *Mund.*

Other examples of similar loss was the loss of *ʒ* before *d* and *n;* the vowel was lengthened, too:

mæʒden – mǣden (maiden)
sæʒde – sǣde (said)

5. Metathesis of *r*. In several Old English words the following change of the position of consonants takes place:

cons+ *r* + vowel > cons + vowel + *r*

ðridda – ðirda (third)
brunnan – burnan (burn)
brenna – beorn (a warrior)
brunjo – byrne (a corslet)
hros – hors (horse)

Metathesis of sounds is observed also with other sounds:

ascian – axian (ask)
wascan – waxan (wash)

6. West Germanic gemination of consonants

In the process of palatal mutation, when *j* was lost and the preceding vowel was short, the consonant after it was doubled (geminated):

fullian – fyllan (fill)
sætjan – settan (set)
salian – sellan (sell, originally give)
talian – tellan (tell)

As we can see, the changes in Old English sounds were for the most part reflected in spelling, and we must only rely on the corresponding words from other languages to see what the origin of this or that sound was. The exceptions are only in such instances as various developments of *ʒ*, voicing of fricatives and palatalization of *c, sc, cʒ*.

Old English Morphology

Old English morphology was that of a typical inflected if somewhat simplified Indo-European language. Parts of speech included noun, pronoun, adjective, numeral and verb; all of which formed their paradigmatic forms by inflections, suffixes, and sound interchange. There were no analytical formations. 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, a strong and a 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 differs from that in the Romance languages. Generally, *-r* and *-st* endings are added: *long, longer, longest.*

Free stress (accent) 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 (*man – men; fot – fēt*) 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 dental suffix for weak verbs (*ealdian – ealdode* to grow old) was created. The number of strong verbs in Germanic is steadily being reduced, and the system does not seem to permit the creation of new strong verbs. Conversely, the number of weak verbs is increasing.

Old English Noun

Nouns in Old English had the categories of number, gender and case. Gender is actually not a grammatical category in a strict sense of the word,

for every noun with all its forms belongs to only one gender (the other nominal parts of speech have gender forms); but case and number had a set of endings. Nouns used to denote males are normally masculine – *mann. fæder, brōðor, abbod (man, father, brother, abbot).* Naturally, those denoting females should be all feminine, – *modor, sweostor, cwēne, abbudissa (mother,sister, queen, abbess).* Yet there are curious exceptions, such words as *mæʒden (maid), wīf (wife)* are neuter (compare in Ukrainian *хлоп'я, дівча).* And *wīfman (woman)* is masculine, because the second element of the compound is masculine. The gender of the other nouns is unmotivated, the same as in Ukrainian. Still in Ukrainian nouns have endings that can indicate the gender of the noun – *стел (чол.), вікно* (сер.) *вода (жін.).* In Old English there are no such endings, and words very similar in form may be of different genders. The same form may have two different meanings distinguished by gender, for example *lēod* masc. *"man"*, but *lēod* (fem.), *"people"*, *secʒ* (masc) – man, but *secʒ* (fem) – "sword".

There are two numbers – singular and plural, and four cases – nominative, genitive, dative and accusative. Comparing with what we have now we can see that number proved to be a stable category, relevant for rendering the meanings and expressing the true state of things in reality. Case is supplanted by other means to express the relations between the words in an utterance, whereas gender disappeared altogether.

All the nouns can be classified according to the different principles. In traditional historical studies the nouns are 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 are 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 (we may compare it with some Russian nouns – without knowing the history of declensions, for instance, it is difficult to explain why in Russian the plural of *стол – столы*, but that of *стул* is not *стулы** but *стулья*; very similar nouns *ночь* and *дочь* are not so similar in the plural: *ночи* but *дочери* and not *дочи**. In Ukrainian the nouns *ім'я* and *хлоп'я* look alike but the plural of the first is *імена* and of the second not *хлопена** but *хлоп'ята.*

Without mentioning the effect of the common Indo-European stem-forming suffixes in Russian and Ukrainian – o and i, į and er, en we can hardly find reasons for that. Without knowing the original structure of the nouns in the language we can hardly explain the exceptions in the formations

of plural of the present-day English nouns, too. Why *goose* -pl. *geese*, but *moose* -pl. *moose*, *foot – feet* but *boot – boots*, *sheep* – pl. *sheep*, but *sheet – sheets*? In treating the Old English nouns special attention is to be paid to the original groups of nouns in the language with due respect to their dwindling stem-forming elements. The classification based on historical principles seems to be at least a logical continuation of what the language had had earlier. We are fully aware that the stem-forming elements are just something slightly tangible; one can agree that some classes of nouns lose specific features of the class and tend to be merging with stronger groups of nouns; that the inflections in many cases are almost the same, that the gender of nouns may become more relevant than the original stem-forming suffix.

The nouns in Old English are commonly classified as belonging to strong and weak declension, within each of these groups there are several subgroups.

The Strong Declension

includes nouns that had had a vocalic stem-forming suffix. Former suffixes (*a,o,i,u*) are no longer found in Old English, moreover, even very paradigms of these groups of nouns were already splitting (we can see considerable difference in declension of nouns of different genders within the class of nouns originally having the same stem-forming suffix.) Yet the traditional classification will look like this.

-*a*-stems

They may be either masculine or neuter. The difference between the two genders may be seen only in the nominative:

	m	n (short root vowel)	n (long root vowel)
		Singular	
Nom.	stān	scip	scēap
Gen.	stānes	scipes	scēapes
Dat.	stāne	scipe	scēape
Acc.	stān	scip	scēap
		Plural	
Nom.	stānas	scipu	scēap
Gen.	stāna	scipa	scēapa
Dat.	stānum	scipum	scēapum
Acc.	stānas	scipu	scēap
	stone	*ship*	*sheep*

So, we can see that Old English nouns a-stems neuter with long vowel might 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.

If there was a mutated vowel in the stem, this sound might be preserved only in the singular:

	m	n
	Singular	
Nom.	dæʒ	fæt
Gen.	dæʒes	fætes
Dat.	dæʒe	fæte
Acc.	dæʒ	fæt
	Plural	
Nom.	daʒas	fatu
Gen.	daʒa	fata
Dat.	daʒum	fatum
Acc.	daʒas	fatu
	day	*vessel*

This group of nouns is of the same origin as that of Ukrainian nouns *стіл, день, дно, вікно.*

The Ukrainian (and Russian) 2nd declensions of nouns (masculine and neuter) originates from the same Indo-European group of nouns (Germanic short *o* proceeds from Indo-European *a*).

Examples of Old English a-stems are: masculine: *earm* (arm), *eorl* (earl), *helm* (helmet; protection), *hringʒ* (ring), *mūð* (mouth), *ʒēar* (year), *biscop* (bishop), *cyninʒ* (king), *hām* (home), *heofon* (heaven), *hrōf* (roof) etc.

neuter: *dōr* (door), *hōf* (hoof), *ʒēoc* (yoke), *word* (word), *dēor* (wild animal), *bearn* (child), *feoh* (cattle), *ʒēar* (year), *hūs* (house), *lēoð* (song), *lim* (limb), *ōr* (beginning).

There are some peculiarities of declension of the nouns that had originally *-j-* or *-w-* in the stem (they are called *-ja*-stems and *-wa*-stems); they may preserve this sound in declension; but otherwise the differences are minor. Also, some nouns rather clumsy in the nominative might have become still clumsier when an inflection was added; so we may see the omission of such sound (the second root vowel in such words as *heafod – heafdes* (head); *seolh* (seal, the animal) – *seole*).

	-ja-	-wa-
	Singular	
Nom.	hrycʒ	bearu
Gen	hrycʒes	bearwes
Dat.	hrycʒe	bearwe
Acc.	hrycʒ	bearu
	Plural	
Nom.	hrycʒ(e)as	bearwas
Gen	hrycʒ (e)a	bearwa
Dat.	hrycʒ (i)um	bearwum
Acc.	hrycʒ (e)as	bearwas
	back	*wood.*

Examples of *-ja-* stems are: *hyse* (young warrior), *bōcere* (a learned man), *fiscere* (fisherman), *net* (net), *bedd* (bed), *wite* (punishment, fine); *-wa-* stems: *trēo* (tree), *ðēaw* (custom), *ðēow* (servant), *searo* (device), *cnēo* (knee).

We can find similar modification of the former Indo-European *-o-* (which is *–e-* in Germanic languages) suffix in Ukrainian (the nouns of the second declension *листя, життя*, where -i-sound merges with *-o-*, giving the sounds *-m'a (-мя)* and a divergency in the paradigm).

The nouns of this class were very numerous and were characterized by high frequency of use in Old English, so this paradigm is highly relevant to the further development of this part of speech.

Nouns belonging to **ō –stems** are all feminine. In the form of the nominative case monosyllabic nouns with a short root vowel of this class have ending *-u*; if there are two and more syllables or the root vowel is long, there is no ending at all:

	Singular	
Nom.	talu	fōr
Gen	tale	fōre
Dat.	tale	fōre
Acc.	tale	fōre
	Plural	
Nom.	tala	fōra
Gen	tala	fōra
Dat.	talum	fōrum
Acc.	tala	fōra
	tale	*journey*

Other nouns of this group: *caru* (care), *scamu* (shame), *sāwol* (soul), *lufu* (love), *lār* (learning), *sorʒ* (sorrow), *scir* (district), *strǣt* (road, street), *swefn* (dream), *tīd* (time, period).

Ukrainian nouns of the 1st declension of feminine gender are related to these (*вода, голова* etc.)

In this group of nouns the suffix *-ō-* may also be accompanied by additional *i* and *w*, that is *-jō-* and *-wō-* stems will give variants of declension:

	-jō- stems	-wō -stems
	Singular	
Nom.	bryʒ	sceadu
Gen	bryʒe	sceadwe
Dat.	bryʒe	sceadwe
Acc.	bryʒe	sceadwe
	Plural	
Nom.	bryʒa	sceadwa
Gen	bryʒa	sceadwa
Dat.	bryʒum	sceadwum
Acc.	bryʒa	sceadwa
	bridge	*shade*

In Ukrainian similar additional sound *i* gives such formations as *стаття, коня.*

Other examples of the *-jō-* stems are: *endebyrdnes* (order, succession), *herenes* (praise), *hild* (battle), *rest* (rest).

The nouns formerly having **-*i*-sufix**, now called **-*i*-stems** might belong to all the three genders, and the case endings are different for different genders – masculine and neuter have the same endings as masculine and neuter nouns of the *-a-* stems, and feminine noun endings repeated the endings of the *-o-*stems.

	m	n	f
		Singular	
Nom.	hyll	spere	cwēn
Gen	hylles	speres	cwēne
Dat.	hylle	spere	cwēne
Acc.	hyll	spere	cwēn

		Plural	
Nom.	hyllas	speru	cwēne/cwēna
Gen	hylla	spera	cwēna
Dat.	hyllum	sperum	cwēnum
Acc.	hyllas	speru	cwēne/cwēna
	hill	*spear*	*woman*

Other nouns of this group are:

masculine: *siʒe* (victory), *mere* (sea), *mete* (food), *dǣl* (part), *ʒiest* (guest), *drync* (drink), *ʒebēorscipe* (feast), *ðēodscype* (people)

neuter: *sife* (sieve), *hilt* (hilt), *flǣsc* (flesh), *yfel* (evil), *mynster* (monastery)

feminine: *wiht* (thing), *hyde* (hide), *woruld* (world, age), *frumsceaft* (first creation), *fyrd* (army)

In Ukrainian the sound *i* caused the palatalization of the precious consonant and was lost: *месть, гість.*

Nouns belonging to **-*u*-stems** may be of masculine or feminine gender:

	m	f
	Singular	
Nom.	sunu	duru
Gen	suna	dura
Dat.	suna	dura
Acc.	sunu	duru
	Plural	
Nom.	suna	dura
Gen	suna	dura
Dat.	sunum	durum
Acc.	suna	dura
	son	door

Other nouns of this group are:

masculine: *wudu* (wood), *medu* (honey), *weald* (forest), *sumor* (summer), *feld* (field), *heoro* (sword), *hefe* (weight).

feminine: *nosu* (nose), *flōr* (floor), *hand* (hand), *hīenðu* (dishonour), *sāl* (rope), *swaðu* (way, path).

In the course of language development the nouns belonging to *-i-*, *-ō-* and *-u-* stems presreved nothing of their former appurtenance; yet it is significant that *-ō-* 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; no ambiguity arose when they were accompanied by demonstrative pronouns. -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.

Weak Declension

This class of nouns consists of a rather numerous group of nouns originally having - *n*-stems; the suffix is well-preserved in declension of nouns in Old English, but disappeared in the nominative case (compare Ukrainian nouns like *ім'я, плем'я*). **-*n*- stem** nouns may be of all three genders. But actually no difference in declension of nouns of different genders can be found.

	m	n	f
		Singular	
Nom.	nama	ēare	tunʒe
Gen	naman	ēaran	tunʒan
Dat.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan
Acc.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan
		Plural	
Nom.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan
Gen	namena	ēarena	tunʒena
Dat.	namum	ēarum	tunʒum
Acc.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan
	name	*ear*	*tongue*

Other examples of this group are:

masculine: *ʒuma* (man), *wita* (wise man), *steorra* (star), *mōna* (moon), *dēma* (judge), *flota* (ship, fleet), *intinʒa* (case), *pleʒa* (play, game), *draca* (dragon), *hara* (hare), *oxa* (ox).

neuter: *ēaʒe* (eye), *cofa* (chamber, repositary).

feminine: *eorðe* (earth), *heorte* (heart), *sunne* (sun), *hearpe* (harp), *midde* (middle), *cirice* (church), *cwēne* (woman), *flān* (arrow).

Nouns belong to the group of *-n-* stems were numerous, and later there was a not very strong, but nevertheless pronounced, tendency to adopt the ending of the plural form by other nouns. Due to this tendency such hybrids as *brethren* and *children* appeared in Middle English and are preserved up to now.

Root Stems. This group comprises the nouns that never had a stem suffix; hence had a mutated root vowel, for formerly case endings might have had a front vowel, which no longer was present in Old English. The group was not numerous, but the words belonging to it were characterised by high frequency of use – they were the nouns used in everyday speech and therefore remained the most conservative – a group of exceptions with mutated root vowel preserved the majority of nouns belonging to this class.

	m	f	n
		Singular	
Nom.	mann	ʒōs	scrud
Gen.	mannes	ʒōse	scrudes
Dat.	menn	ʒēs	scryd
Acc.	mann	ʒōs	scrud
Nom.	menn	ʒēs	scrudu
Gen.	manna	ʒōsa	scruda
Dat.	mannum	ʒōsum	scrudum
Acc.	menn	ʒēs	scrudu
	man	*goose*	*clothing*

Other nouns of this class are:

all compound nouns containing the morpheme man: *wimman* (woman), *sǣmann* (seaman, wiking), *ealdorman* (nobleman, leader),

and also *tōð* (tooth), *fōt* (foot), *mūs* (mouse), *lūs* (louse), *bōc* (book), *āc* (oak), *burh/burʒ* (fortress, town).

The nouns belonging to **-r-stems** were of masculine and feminine gender, the group is a closed system. It included only of the terms of kinship. The endings here are scarce, a distinctive feature is that the dative case singular had a mutated vowel.

	m	m	f
		Singular	
Nom.	fæder	brōðor	mōdor
Gen	fæder(es)	brōðor	mōdor
Dat.	fæder	brēðer	mēder
Acc.	fæder	brōðor	mōdor
		Plural	
Nom.	fæderas	brōðor	mōdru(-a)
Gen	fædera	brōðra	mōdra
Dat.	fæderum	brōðrum	mōdrum
Acc.	fæderas	brōðor	mōdru (-a)
	father	*brother*	*mother*

Other nouns are *dohtor* (daughter), *sweostor* (sister)

Such nouns existed in other languages, too. Ukrainian noun *мати* might be mentioned as a relic of former -r- stems (*матери*), and in Russian *мать* and *дочь* preserved the -r- suffix in plural and in indirect cases.

Less numerous and less significant for the development of the present-day nominal system are 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 are all neuter

	n	n	n
		Singular	
Nom.	lamb	cealf	cild
Gen	lambes	cealfes	cildes
Dat.	lambe	cealfe	cilde
Acc.	lamb	cealf	cild

		Plural	
Nom.	lambru	cealfru	cild, cildru
Gen	lambra	cealfra	cilda, cildra
Dat.	lambrum	cealfrum	cildum
Acc.	lambru	cealfru	cild, cildru
	lamb	*calf*	*child*

So, in the present-day plural form *children* we find the remains of the Old Endlish stem-forming suffix *-s-* turned through rhotacism into *-r-*. The *-en*-suffix was added later, in Middle English, by analogy with the inflection of another influential group of nouns.

Although not very numerous, it has left traces of the former stem-forming suffix in present-day Ukrainian and Russian, too (*небо – небеса, небесний, чудо – чудеса, чудесний*).

Comparatively new for Old English are several substantivated participles forming a separate group of **-*nd*- stems**. They are all masculine and their declension combines the peculiarities of the declension of *-a*-stems and, to some extent, *-r-* stems as they all denote persons (they may form their plural form without any ending). Here the paradigm of the noun looks like following:

	Singular
Nom.	frēond
Gen.	frēondes
Dat.	frēonde, frīend
Acc.	frēond
	Plural
Nom.	frēondas, frīend, frēond
Gen.	frēonda
Dat.	frēondum
Acc.	frēondas, frīend, freond
	friend

Here belong also such words as *fēond* (accuser), *wealdend* (ruler), *wīʒend* (warrior), *scyppend* (creator), *brimlīðend* (seafarer) etc.

The system of endings of the Old English nouns can be represented as follows:

stems	-a- stems	-ō- stems	-i- stems	-u- stems	-n- stems	root stems	-r- stems	-s- stems	-nd- stems
gender	m n	fem	m n f	m f	m f n	m f	m f	n	m
				Singular					
Nom	–	-u	-e/–	-u	-a/-e/-e	–/u	–/–	–	–
Gen	-es	-e	-es/-es/-e	-a	-an	-es/-e	–/-es	-es	-es
Dat	-e	-e	-e/-e/-e	-a	-an	mutated vowel	–/mutated vowel	-e	-/-e/ mutated vowel
Acc	–	-e	-e/–/–	-a	-an/-e	–/–	–/–	–	–
					Plural				
Nom	-as/u	-a	-e/-eas/-u/-a	-a	-an	mutated vowel	–/-as/-u/-a	-ru/–	-as/-/ mutated vowel
Gen	-a	-a	-ea/-a/-a	-a	-ena	-a	-a	-ra	-a
Dat	-um	-um	-um	-um	-um	-um	-um	–um/-rum	-um
Acc	-as/u	-a	-e/-eas/-u/-a	-a	-an	mutated vowel	–/-as/-u/-a	-ru	-as/-/ mutated vowel

The morphological system can be represented differently, if we take into account only the existing Old English noun forms. Nevertheless, though it might seem more logical, the system does not become simpler, and what is more then the chain of systematic changes seems to be broken. Randolph Quirk and C.L. Wrenn (*Old English Grammar* London 1955), for instance, suggest the following classification:

A – General Masculine Declension – *cyninʒ* (king), *stān* (stone), *fæder* (father)

B – General Neuter Declension – *scip* (ship), *land* (land), *wite* (punishment)

C – General Feminine Declension – *talu* (tale), *ʒlōf* (glove)

D – the *-an* Declension – *ʒuma* (man), *byrne* (coat of mail), *ēaʒe* (eye)

E – Irregular Declensions: (a) – *a*-plurals *sunu* (son), *hand* (hand)
(b) – -ru -plurals *æʒ* (egg), *lamb* (lamb)
(c) – uninflected plurals *scēap* (sheep), *brōðor* (brother), *rīdend* (rider)
(d) – mutated plurals: *fōt* (foot), *mūs* (mouse), *lūs* (louse)

Old English Pronouns

Pronoun as a part of speech is a very specific class of words; it does not have meaning, it simply points to something mentioned earlier or situated within the range of visibility of the speakers. Hence we can see that pronouns have frequency even greater than they have nowadays when the rules of indication have been worked out and certain correlations established.

There are several types of pronouns in Old English: personal, demonstrative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative. Not all of them are equally developed; they are different in the type of deixis; the very existence of some classes is sometimes disputed. But no one ever denied the existence of:

Personal pronouns, that constitute a system of words replacing nouns; they are also called noun-pronouns.

In Old English they had 3 persons: the first, the second and the third
3 numbers: singular, plural and the remains of the dual number in the second person
3 genders: masculine, feminine, neuter

The table of declension of the personal pronouns is as follows:

	1st person	2nd person	3rd person		
			Singular		
			masculine	neuter	feminine
Nom.	Ic	ðū	hē	hit	hēo, hīo
Gen.	*mīn*	*ðīn*	*his*	*his*	*hire, hiere*
Dat.	mē	ðē	him	him	hire, hiere
Acc.	mē, mec	ðēc, ðe	hine	hit	hīe, hī, hy
			Dual		
Nom.	wit	ȝit			
Gen.	*uncer*	*incer*			
Dat.	unc	inc			
Acc.	uncit	incit, inc			
			Plural		
Nom.	wē	ȝē	hīe, hī, hy, hēo		
Gen.	*ūre, user*	ēower	*hira, heora, hiera, hyra*		
Dat.	ūs	ēow/īow	him, heom		
Acc.	ūsic ūs	ēowic, eow	hīe, hī, hy, heo		

The genitive case of personal pronouns might be used as possessive; the pronouns of the 1st and second persons were declined, and might be considered a separate class of pronouns; the third person pronouns were not declined (compare them with the Ukrainian – *мій син, моя донька, моє село, мої сини, мого сина* but *його син, його донька, його село, його сини, його сина*).

The personal pronouns seem to preserve in the course of time more forms than the other classes. It is to be noted that the plural form of the personal pronouns is of a specific nature, *we* is not *ic + ic;* it is *ic + ðū* or *ȝē; ȝ ē* is not more than one *ðū,* it is *ðū* + someone else, number indefinite. However it is believed that polite *ȝē* denoting only one person is found very early in the Old English (*for ðy mē ðynð betre, ȝif Īow swe ðyncð – beacause of this, I think it would be better, if you think so*, writes Alfred politely addressing Warfert bischop in the *Preface* to his translation of *Cura Pastoralis*)

In combination with *self* personal pronouns could also serve as reflexive: *him seolfum; swā ðū self talast (as thou sayest thyself,* or to be more modern, *as you yourself say);* wē maȝon *ūs sylfe (we may ourselves).*

Demonstrative pronouns are *sē* (that) and *ðes* (this), the first indicating something far and the second something near; occasionally in colloquial speech the third pronoun *ȝeon* – yonder, something still more distant and farther. They had three genders, two numbers and five cases in the singular and four in the plural and agree in number, gender and case with the nouns they modify.

	m	n	f
	Singular		
Nom.	sē	ðæt	sēo
Gen.	ðǣs	ðǣs	ðǣre
Dat.	ðǣm	ðǣm	ðǣre
Acc.	ðone	ðæt	ðā
Instr.	ðȳ, ðon	ðȳ, ðon	
	Plural (for all persons)		
Nom.	ðā		
Gen.	ðāra, ðǣra		
Dat.	ðǣm, ðām		
Acc.	ðā		

be ðǣre sæ (by that sea)

was sē man (was that man)

These pronouns are especially important for the development of the language because they are the most frequently used as noun determiners, and through agreement it indicated the noun's number, gender and case. That was especially important because in Old English some classes of nouns already had few endings. Besides, in a number of cases they already had a weakened meaning which approached the function of an article. So, for instance, the form of the noun *sunu – suna* might render the meanings of the genitive, dative and accusative in the singular and nominative, genitive and accusative in the plural. If it was modified by a demonstrative pronoun, almost no ambiguity arose

ðǣs suna – gen.; ðǣm suna dat.; ðone suna accus. sg.;

ðā suna nom., accus., ðāra suna – gen. pl.

ðes (this) had the following forms in declension

	m	n	f
	Singular		
Nom.	ðes	ðis	ðēos, ðios
Gen.	ðisses	ðisses	ðisse
Dat.	ðissum,ðeossumm	ðissum,ðeossum	ðisse
Acc.	ðisne, ðysne	ðis	ðas
Instr.	ðys, ðis	ðys, ðis	
	Plural (all persons)		
Nom.	ðās		
Gen.	ðissa		
Dat.	ðissum,ðeossum		
Acc.	ðās		

and on ðyssum ylcan ȝēare... (and in this same year...)

ðy ȝēare ðe was āgān (in this year when he went ...)

Interrogative pronouns are nouns-pronouns *hwā* and *hwæt* and adjective-pronoun *hwilc* had the category of case, but did not change in number. The forms of these pronouns are such:

Nom.	hwā	hwæt
Gen.	hwæs	hwæs
Dat.	hwǣm (hwam)	hwǣm
Acc.Instr.	hwone	hwæt
		hwȳ, hwi

Pronoun *hwilc* is declined like a strong adjective.

hwilc ēower hæfð hundtēontiȝ scēapa (which of you has one hundred sheep?)

and hwilcera manna fæder is hē? (and of which of the men is he the father?)

Definite pronouns include the following: *ǣlc* (each), *ȝehwā/æȝhwā* (everyone), *ȝehwæt/æȝhwæt* (everything), *ȝehwilc/æȝhwilc* (each, every), *ǣȝðer/æȝhweðer* (each of two, every), *swilc* (such), *sē ilca* (the same). All but the last decline like strong adjectives, and *sē ilca* is always declined weak.

on ǣlcum lacum (on each lake)

ȝehwā cristenra manna (every Christian man)

ān tīme cymð ūre æȝhwylcum (once (one time) to each of comes..)

æȝhweðer ende līð on sæ (each of the ends lies on the sea)

sē ilca Dauid (this same David)

Indefinite pronouns include such as *sum, ǣniȝ*. They are used in preposition to nouns and are declined like strong adjectives. Another indefinite pronoun is *man,* used as in this function in the meaning *any individual, anyone,* or *people in general* (compare the use of pronoun *they* in present-day English, in combinations like *they say* or *man sagt* in German).

hēat *sumum cirre* wolde fandian (at some time he wanted to explore...)

ǣniȝ here dōn mihte (that any army could do)

man sceolde his here mettian and horsian (that his army should be fed and supplied with horses)

Negative pronouns are formed by fusion of a negative particle *ne-* with indefinite pronoun *æniȝ* and numeral *ān* in its pronominal function. They are *nān* and *næniȝ,* and are declined like the corresponding words without the particle *ne-*

him *nǣniȝ* wiðstōd (no one opposed him)

nān man nē būde benorðan him (no one lived to the north of him)

Relative pronoun *ðe* is found fairly often in Old English texts, it introduced relative clauses and was later replaced by a group of pronouns and adverbs (*that, which, where, when, how*)

on ðam æftran ȝēare ðe sē arcebiscop wæs ȝemartyrod (on the next year *in which or when* the archbishop was tortured to death...)

sīo scīr hatte Halgoland ðe hē on būde (his shire (land) on *which* he lived was called Helgoland

oð ðone dæȝ ðe hī hine forbærnað (until the day *when* they burn him)

The Adjective

Most historians agree that the number or adjectives in Old English is not very significant. There are primary adjectives, dating back from the very old times and derivative adjectives made by adjective-forming suffixes from nouns. The adjectives of those times are similar to our Slavic adjectives, that is, this part of speech agrees with the noun it modifies in number, gender and case. Consequently, the adjectives have the same categories as the nouns do. Besides, they have categories which are purely adjectival.

The adjective in Old English had the following categories:
number – the singular and the plural;
gender – masculine, neuter and feminine;
case – 4/5 (nominative, genitive, dative accusative and partly instrumental)

Besides, the adjectives had two declensions, strong and weak (we may compare them to 2 forms in Ukrainian *зелений гай /зелен клен,* though in Ukrainian the second is found only in the nominative case, or Russian *красная лента/красна девица*, where the indirect cases of the latter combination will be *красны девицы, красну девицу*, etc.). The weak form of the adjective is used after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun or a noun in the genitive case, no matter whether the adjective is before the noun or after it and may be a stable epithet to the noun. When the adjective is not so accompanied, or is preceded by an adjective of quantity or number, it is declined strong.

Specifically adjectival categories are the degrees of comparison – the positive, the comparative and the superlative. These are characteristic only for the qualitative adjectives.

All in all each adjective might theoretically have up to sixty forms. In reality there are much fewer forms, because not all the adjectives had degrees of comparison, and case and gender endings in many cases might coincide (compare in Ukrainian: *великий будинок, велика кімната, велике вікно – великі будинки/ кімнати/вікна; великого будинку/вікна*)

	m	n	f	m	n	f
	Strong declension			Weak declension		
			Singular			
Nom.	blind	blind	blind	blinda	blinde	blinde
Gen.	blindes	blindes	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Dat.	blindum	blindum	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Acc	blindne	blind	blinde	blindan	blinde	blindan
Instr.	blinde	blinde	blindre			
			Plural			
Nom.	blinde	blind	blinda/e	(all genders) blindan		
Gen.	blindra	blindra	blindra	blindra/ena		
Dat.	blindum	blindum	blindum	blindum		
Acc.	blinde	blind	blinda/e	blindan		
Instr.	blindum	blindum	blindum			
			blind			

The paradigm of adjectives was rich in forms. The same endings were found in declension of participles that were declined in Old English and agreed with the nouns they modified (for comparison we may take Ukrainian case endings that are almost the same for the adjectives and for the participles).

Qualitative adjectives had degrees of comparison (positive, comparative and superlative). The forms of the comparative and the superlative degree are made synthetically, by adding suffixes *-ra* and *-ost/-est*.

soft – softra – softost (soft)
blæc – blæcra – blacost (black)

The number of syllables in the adjective did not affect the rule – even polysyllabic adjectives may take these suffixes

mē ðyncð bettre ðæt wē ēac suma bēc, ðā ðe *niedbeðearfosta* sīen eallum monnum tō wiotonne (I think it would be better that we should increase the number of books that should be *the most necessary* for all the people to know)

Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by *i*-mutation of a root vowel:

eald – ieldra – ieldest (old)
stronȝ – strenȝra – strenȝest (strong)
lonȝ – lenȝra – lenȝest (long)
ȝeonȝ- ȝinȝra – ȝinȝest (young)
feor – fierra – fierrest (far)

The remains of the mutated vowel now may be found only in two adjectives: *old (older/elder)* and *far (further/farther).*

Four adjectives in Old English had suppletive degrees of comparison, that is their comparative and superlative degrees are formed by adding the suffixes to the stems of other adjectives . These adjectives have counterparts in other languages, too – in Ukrainian and Russian languages corresponding adjectives have suppletive degrees of comparison.

ʒōd – betera – betst, sēlre, sēlest (good)
yfel – wiesra – wierest (bad)
mycel – māra – mǣst (much)
lȳtel – lǣssa – lǣst (little)

Compare: *поганий – гіршій, великий – більшій* etc.

The Adverb

The adverb is the part of speech that functions as an adverbial modifier. There are simple and derived adverbs in Old English. Simple adverbs are unchangeable. Here belong:

adverbs of place: *hwǣr* (where), *ðǣr* (there), *hwonan* (from where) and *ðanon* (from there, thence);

adverbs of time: *hwanne, hwan, hwon* (when), *ðanne, ðonne, ðeonne* (then), *ðā* (then);

adverbs of manner: *hwæðre* (though, however), *hwōn* (a little), *ðǣr-bi* (thereby, by that means), *ðǣr-æfter* (thereafter, from that time).

These adverbs may also be used in the sentence as sentence connectives, in the function of conjunctive adverbs.

Derivative adverbs are formed from the adjectives by means of the suffix *-e:*

wīd – wīde (wide – widely)
heard – hearde (hard)
luflīc – luflīce (lovingly, fondly)
frēondlīc – freondlīce (friendly)
sōðlīc – soðlīce (truly)

Adverbs may also be formed by lexicalization of the genitive or the dative case of the noun

hwīl – hwīlum (from time to time, at times);
willa – willes (willingly)

(compare Ukrainian *часом, раиком* etc.)

Adverbs that have degrees of comparison form them in the same way as adjectives, that is by adding the suffix *-or/ra* and *-ost/est:*

nēah – nēarra – niehst (near)
ǣr – ǣrra – ǣrest (early)
feor – furðra – fyrest (far)

The Numeral

Old English had a system of numerals of common Indo-European origin. Derived numerals have suffixes that, in phonetically modified form, are found in present-day English, the numerals *twā* and *ðrīē* had three genders, cardinal numerals from 1 to 4 might be declined (much simpler than Ukrainian declension of all numerals without exception) and numerals from 20 to 100 were formed by placing units first, and then tens.

1 – ān
2 – M – tweʒen N – tū/twā F –twā
3 – ðrīe,ðrī ðrīo/ðrēo ðrīo/ðrēo
4 – fēower
5 – fīf
6 – siex, six
7 – seofon, siofon
8 – eahta
9 – niʒon
10 – tīen, tyn, tēn
11 – endlefan
12 – twelf
13 – ðrīotīene/tyne
14 – fēowertīene
15 – fīftīene
20 – twentiʒ
21 – ān and twentiʒ
29 – niʒon and twentiʒ
30 – ðrītiʒ
40 – fēowertiʒ

70 – hundseofontiȝ
80 – hundeahtatiȝ
90 – hundniȝontiȝ
100 – hundtēntiȝ, hundtēontiȝ, hund, hundred
110 – hundendleftiȝ
200 – tū hund
300 – ðrēo hund
1000 – ðūsend
2000 – tū ðūsendu

Ordinal numerals were declined like strong adjectives, their system is as follows

1 – forma, fyresta
2 – ōðer, æfter
3 – ðridda, ðirda
4 – fēorða
5 – fīfta
6 – sīexta, sixta, syxta
7 – siofoða
8 – eahtoða
9 – niȝoða
10 – tēoða
11 – endlefta
12 – twelfta
13 – ðrēotēoða
15 – fīftēoða
20 – twentiȝoða
30 – ðrittiȝoða
70 – hundsiofontiȝoða
100 – hundtēontiȝoða

Meaning and use of cases of the Nominal Parts of Speech in Old English

Every case of the nominal parts of speech in Old English has a certain sphere of meanings which can be found in various situations where it is used.

They may present some difficulties for English learners, but the Ukrainians and the Russians will find only few discrepancies in the case meanings as compared with those in their native language. But in some cases they do not coincide, in one language the case form may have a greater range of meanings than in the other.

The Nominative Case

For a student whose native language is Ukrainian or Russian the meaning of the Old English cases will be fairly clear if we compare them with the existing use of cases in the Slavic languages.

The noun/pronoun/adjective in a nominative case can be a subject or a predicative (a nominal part of the compound nominal predicate) in the sentence

On ðǣm æftran ȝēare ðe sē arcebiscop wæs ȝemartyrod, sē cyninȝ ȝesette Lyfine biscop tō ðǣm arcestōle (on the following year after that archbishop was tortured to death, the king appointed bishop Lyfin to the archbishopal seat)

Wæs sē man in weoruld-hāde ȝeseted oð ðā tīde ðe hē wæs ȝelefedre ylde (The man was placed in worldly life until the time that he was of mature age)

Having incorporated the former vocative, it is also used in the function of direct address (compare the Russian Nominative case in the similar function – in Ukrainian the Vocative case is preserved).

Hwæt eart ðū, sunu mīn?
(What are you, my son?)

The Genitive case is mainly used in the function of an attribute and expresses belonging or quality; it may also express partitive meaning – the meanings quite common in any other inflected Indo-European languages

Possession and other attributive meanings characteristic for the Ukrainian genitive case (*дім брата; допомога брата; відповідь брата, дівчата шаленої краси, хустина шовку зеленого*) – in present-day English are rendered by the genitive (possesive) case of the animate nouns and of-phrases with the majority of other.

wēswī ðe ēaðe maȝon mid ȝodes fultume (very easily we might with god's help)

The former partitive meaning of the genitive case is now usually associated only with a noun with preposition often preceded by a pronoun :

eal sīo ȝioȝuð ðe nū is on Anȝelcynne frīora monna (all the young people that now are in England /of the English people/ of the free men)

mycel his folces adranʒ on Temese (many of his men were drowned in the Thames)

fætels full ealaðoðde wæteres (sacks full of ale and of water)

The partitive meaning of the genitive might be easily illustrated by Ukrainian use of this case in the following two phrases (*дай горщі* (accusative) – (all that you have or all needed for something) and *дай горщей* (partitive genitive, part of what you have); *дасай воду* (accusative – the whole bottle or other container) – *дай води* (partitive genitive – some water, to have a drink etc.)

hē ðær bād westanwindes (he there waited for (some) west wind)

Some other adverbial uses of the genitive case of nouns are also possible:

dæʒes and nihtes (day and night) (compare Ukr. *одного ранку*)

The Dative case in Old English is the most versatile in functioning. It incorporates the former Dative, Locative and Instrumental cases and may render the meanings of all these three cases.

In the function of the indirect object it is used without prepositions

Ohthere sæde his hlāforde (Ohthere said to his lord...)

hē betæhte ðā scipu and ðā ʒislas Cnute his suna (he entrusted those ships and those hostages to his son Canute)

In the function of the adverbial modifier of time and place the genitive case of the noun is usually used with prepositions *on, tō, oð, on, æfter, fram* etc.

On ðæm æftran ʒēare ðe sē arcebiscop wæs ʒemartyrod, sē cyninʒ ʒesette Lyfine biscop tō ðæm arcestōle (on the next year when the archbishop was tortured to death the king appointed bishop Lievin the archbishopal seat)

com Sweʒen cyninʒ mid his flotan (king Sweyn came with his ships/fleet)

ðæt is monezum cūð (that is known to/by many)

Wæs sē man in weoruld-hāde ʒeseted oð ðā ilde ðe hē wæs ʒelæfedre ylde (The man was placed in worldly life until the time that he was of mature age)

sēo hlæfdiʒe ʒewende ðā ofer sæ tō hire brēðer Ricarde (his wife went then over sea to her brother Richard)

When used in the function of the former instrumental case (as prepositional object) it is associated with the prepositions *wið* and *mid*.

and sæt ðær mid his fyrde (and sat/came to a halt) there with his army)

hine forbærneð mid his wæpnum and hræʒle (/they/ bury him with his weapons and garment)

The Accusative case of nouns in Old English shares the range of meanings of the case with other inflected languages and can be compared with present-day Ukrainian

Its main function is that of the direct object:

hē nē mihte nān ðinʒ ʒesēon (he could not sing anything)

clypode hē Esau, his yldran sunu (he called Esau, his elder son)

hī nānre bricʒe nē cēpton (they did not keep any bridge)

It is also common in the function of the adverbial modifiers of place, denoting the direction of the action (not the location of something) and time:

sēo hlæfdiʒe ʒewende ðā ofer sæ tō hire brēðer Ricarde (his wife went over the sea to her brother Richard)

wæs ðær mid him oð ðone byre ðæt Sweʒen wearð dēad (was there with him until the news that Sweyen died)

Thte structures of complex object known as Accusative with the Infinitive became widespread only in the Early New English, and are believed to have been borrowed from Latin. However such structures may be found not only in translations, but in the original English texts such as *Beowulf*, where their use can be hardly attributed to any (other than Scandinavian) foreign influence:

hē færinga fyrʒen bēamas ofer hārne stān hlēonian funde (suddenly he found mountain-trees lean over a hoary stone)

ðonne hē ʒesēah ðā hearpan him nēaleacan (when he saw those harps approach him)

The Verb in Old English

The system of the Old English verb was less developed than it is now, it had fewer forms, and its categories were somewhat different from the similar categories in present-day English. Some of them were ambiguous, the grammatical nature of the others is not recognised by scholars. Still, its paradigm was fairly complicated, as all the verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form building means. The

form-building devices were gradation (vowel interchange), the use of suffixes, inflections, and suppletion. Inflections, however, were also present when other ways were employed, so we can say that the ways of forming paradigmatic forms were – inflections combined with vowel interchange or suppletion, or pure inflection.

All the paradigmatic forms of the verb were synthetic. There were also lexical structures with non-finite forms of the verb rendering some grammatical meanings (later developed into analytical forms).

Non-finite forms of the verb.

The non-finite forms of the verb in Old English were the infinitive and two Participles. They had no categories of the finite verb but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

The infinitive had the suffix *-an/ian*. Being a verbal noun by origin it had the grammatical category of case: the nominative and the dative, the latter form was made by the suffix *-enne/anne: wrītan – to wrītenne*. Like the dative case of nouns the infinitive in this form was associated with the preposition *tō* and could be used to indicate the direction or purpose of an action, and in the impersonal sentences:

ic wilnode weorðfullīce tō libanne ðā hwīle ðe ic lifde (when I lived I wanted to live a worthy life (virtuously)

hrædest is tō cwżðenne (to say it short, to cut it short)

The nominative (uninflected) form of the infinitive is often used with such verbs as *willan, sculan, weorðan* to render various grammatical meanings; these combinations served as the basis for analytical verb forms.

Participle I is formed by means of the suffix *-ende* added to the stem of the infinitive: *wrītan – wrītende* (to write – writing), *yrnan – yrnende* (to run – running), *sprecan – sprecende* (to speak – speaking):

ðæt scip wæs ealne weȝ yrnende under seȝle (the ship was running (going) under sail)

This participle was active in meaning and expressed present time relevance or simultaneous with the tense of the finite verb processes and qualities. Like all nominal parts of speech, it had the categories of number, gender and case and was declined like a strong adjective:

sprecende (speaking)

	m	n	f
		Singular	
Nom.	sprecende	sprecende	sprecendu
Gen.	sprecendes	sprecendes	sprecendre
Dat.	sprecendum	sprecendum	sprecendre
Acc.	sprecendne	sprecende	sprecende
Instr.	sprecende	sprecende	–
		Plural	
Nom.	sprecende	sprecendu	sprecenda
Gen.	sprecendra	sprecendra	sprecendra
Dat.	sprecendum	sprecendum	sprecendum
Acc.	sprecende	sprecendu	sprecenda

Participle II expressed actions and states resulting from past action and was passive in meaning with transitive verbs, and rendered only temporal meaning of the past with the intransitive. Depending on the class of the verb, it was formed by vowel interchange (gradation) and the suffix *-en* (strong verbs) or the dental suffix *-d/t* (weak verbs). Participle II was commonly marked by the prefix *ȝe-*, though may be found without it, too, especially when the verb had other word-building prefix – *wrītan – writen, ȝewriten* (to write – written), *findan – founden* (to find – found), *onȝīnnan – onȝunnen* (to begin – began); *endian – endod, ȝeendod* (end – ended), *tellan – teald* (to tell – told), *secȝan – sæȝd* (to say – said).

Participle II might be declined according to the strong and the weak declension, and the forms of the nominative case of all genders are as follows

(ȝe)numen (take); *(ȝe)teald* (told):

strong declension:

M *(ȝe)numen, (ȝe)teald* (sg) – *(ȝe)numene, (ȝe)tealde* (pl)
N *(ȝe)numen, (ȝe)teald* (sg) – *(ȝe)numen(u), (ȝe)teald* (pl)
F *(ȝe)numen(u), (ȝe)teald* (sg) – *(ȝe)numena, (ȝe)teald* (pl)

and weak declension:

M *(ȝe)numena, (ȝe)tealda* (sg) – *(ȝe)numenan, (ȝe)tealdan* (pl)
N *(ȝe)numene, (ȝe)tealde* (sg) – *(ȝe)numenan, (ȝe)tealdan* (pl)
F *(ȝe)numene, (ȝe)tealde* (sg) – *(ȝe)numenan, (ȝe)tealdan* (pl)

	m	n	f	m	n	f
	Strong declension				Weak declension	
			Singular			
Nom.	(ʒe)numen,	(ʒe)numen,	(ʒe)numen(u),	(ʒe)numena,	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numene,
	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)tealda	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealde
Gen.	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numenes,	(ʒe)numenre,	(ʒe)numenan,	(ʒe)numenan,	(ʒe)numenan,
	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealdes	(ʒe)tealdre	(ʒe)tealdan	(ʒe)tealdan	(ʒe)tealdan
Dat.	(ʒe)numenum	(ʒe)numenum	(ʒe)numenre,	(ʒe)numenan,	(ʒe)numenan,	(ʒe)numenan,
	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdre	(ʒe)tealdan	(ʒe)tealdan	(ʒe)tealdan
Acc.	(ʒe)numenne,	(ʒe)numen,	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numenan,	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numenan,
	(ʒe)tealdne	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealdan	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealdan
Instr.	(ʒe)numene	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numenre,			
	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)tealdre			
			Plural			
Nom.	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numen,	(ʒe)numena/e,	(all genders) (ʒe)numenan,		
	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)tealda/e	(ʒe)tealdan		
Gen.	(ʒe)numenra,	(ʒe)numenra,	(ʒe)numenra,	(ʒe)numenra/ena,		
	(ʒe)tealdra	(ʒe)tealdra	(ʒe)tealdra	(ʒe)tealdra/ena		
Dat.	(ʒe)numenum	(ʒe)numenum,	(ʒe)numenum,	(ʒe)numenum,		
	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum		
Acc.	(ʒe)numene,	(ʒe)numen,	(ʒe)numena/e,	(ʒe)numenan,		
	(ʒe)tealde	(ʒe)teald	(ʒe)tealda/e	(ʒe)tealdan		
Instr.	(ʒe)numenum	(ʒe)numenum,	(ʒe)numenum,			
	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum	(ʒe)tealdum			

ʒenumen (taken), **ʒeteald** (told)

Categories of the Old English Verb.

The verb in Old English has the following categories: person, number, tense and mood.

Number is not a specifically verbal category but rather a way of agreement of the predicate with the subject represented by the opposition of the singular and the plural. As dual number by that time was very seldom used, no corresponding form of the verb is found in Old English.The choice of singular or plural form depends on the number of the noun/pronoun subject of the sentence. This opposition is valid for all the verbs in all the other categorial forms.

The category of person is represented by all the three persons, though this opposition is neutralised in many positions. Present Tense Singular has all the forms, whereas in plural the category is not shown. Past tense singular had only one form for the 1st and the 3rd person, and in the Imperative and Subjunctive mood the category of person is absent.

The category of mood was represented by the opposition of three moods – Indicative – Subjunctive – Imperative.

The Indicative mood represents the action as a real fact

On ðǣm æftran ʒēare com Swe ʒen cyninʒ...(on the next year came king Sweyn.)

ðæt Eastland is swī ðe mycel (that east land/Estonia/ is very big)

The Imperative expresses order, or request to a second person. It may be used in the singular or in the plural:

sinʒ mē hwæt-hwuʒu (sing me something)

ʒebiddað ēow mid ðissum wordum (ask you with these words)

Previously in early Germanic (well represented in Gothic) the Imperative mood had three persons, and in the third person it had a tinge of optative meaning – how can you call the order or the instruction directed to the third person? This optative meaning is still preserved in some cases of Old English Imperative, even though it is directed towards the second person. But in this case its optative meaning depends on the semantics of the verb-predicate

ðū on sǣlum wes, ʒod-wine ʒumena – Be thou happy, friend of men

There is practically no controversy as to the terms the *Indicative* and the *Imperative* mood, but as far as the *Subjunctive* is concerned, opinions differ. Some call it *Conjunctive* Mood, as it always is a relative not the absolute mood. Some call it *Optative* because in Old English optative meaning was much more frequent than it is in the present-day Subjunctive mood forms.

It may be called *Conditional* or even *Oblique* but we must always bear in mind that this is a mood that renders the general meaning of unreality or supposition. Some oppose the Indicative and the Imperative to the Subjunctive as the moods of fact and the mood of fancy. The action expressed by this mood form is somewhat shifted from reality, even though it might not contradict it altogether. Some mental attitude to what is being said in Subjunctive mood is usually implied – condition, desire, obligation, supposition, perplexity, doubt, uncertainty or unreality. So it is used in conditional sentences of unreal condition – the unreality of condition made it clear that a verb in the indicative would be superfluous:

ȝif ðū wǣre her, nǣre mīn brōðor dēad; (if he were here, my brother wouldn't be dead)

It may be also found in the subclauses of purpose and concession and is common for temporal clauses:

hē ytt and bletsað ðe ǣr hē swelte (he will eat and bless you before he/supposedly will/ die)

et of mīnum huntoðe ðæt ðū mē blētsiȝe (eat of my game /of what I have hunted/ so that you /should/ bless me)

It might be used in simple sentences expressing wishes – these were much more frequent than they are now; these uses are somehow neutralised, levelled and may be found in some set phrases the origin of which may be traced only by professional linguists (*please*), or the very verb may have been lost and we regard *many happy returns of the day* as a self-sufficient phrase.

sunu mīn, hlyste mīnre lāre (my son, that you would listen to my words)

sunu mīn, siȝ sēo wiriȝnys ofer mē (oh, my son let that condemnation be for me)

Another very frequent use of the subjunctive is the employment of this form in the structures of indirect speech. A certain grain of incredulity to someone else's speech shifts the connection of the actions of the verb from the reality

hē sǣde hē wǣre of Truso (he said that he was from Truso)

hē sǣde hē wǣre nemned Ælfred (he said that his name was Alfred)

The category of Tense was represented by the opposition past –nonpast (or as they say more correctly preterit – nonpreterit). The current form for the non-preterite is the Present. But present time reference is only one of the

meanings rendered by this form. In general it seems to be a most universal form of the verb. It was used (and is used now) when seemingly universal truths are uttered, it is used in reference to moment of speech and a lengthy period including both previous and following this moment; they may be fairly lengthy. In Old English it was commonly used to denote future, as well.

So, the major cases of the use of the present tense in various meanings will be:

the actual present, the "now"

Aelfred cyninȝ hāteð ȝrētan Wærferð biscop (king Alfred orders/asks to greet Warferth bishop...)

ic ðe sende ðæt spell (I, who send this story)

in reference to a regular or habitual action

sē cyninȝ and ðā rīcostan men drincað meolc (the king and the richest men drink milk)

ðonne ærnað hy ealle toweard ðǣm fēo (then they all run towards that property)

with future time reference:

syx daȝas ðū wyrcst; on ðām seofoðan ðū rest (you will work six days, on the seventh you will rest)

ðonne ðū ðā in *brinȝst*, hē *ytt* and *blētsað* ðe ǣr hē swelte (when you bring it he will eat and bless you before he dies)

We cannot say that this use is quite obsolete now. It is not. A future action which is planned and about to be performed in the nearest future is rendered by the present tense form of the verb (*Next week our team plays with Maribor*); a future action in adverbial clauses of time and condition (*When my mother comes, she will look after my children*; *If he comes we'll know what happened there*). These may be called grammatical archaisms; these structures were common in Old English, and as there was no ambiguity as to the time reference of the action they were not replaced by newer forms in Middle English. There are other uses of the Present (*Just imagine, I come home yesterday and what do I see – a pool of water right in the middle of my room* – emphatic present, to make the narration more vivid; or historical present: *In 1066 William Duke of Normandy claims his rights to the English crown*) – these seem to belong to the sphere of stylistics, as they are deliberately employed to make special emphasis on the verb, to make the listener or the reader think of the action as if going on before his eyes. Such instances may be found in Old English, too:

ūs secȝaðbēc hū... (the books have said to us how...),
but they are rather treated as timeless present (*the books said, say and will say*)

As far as the future time reference is concerned, it may be specified by using adverbs of future time, by the use of special verbs with future time relevance. The verbs of wishes and commands are among such markers, because an order can never be directed into the past; wishes and obligations are usually associated with the future. So other markers of future time relevance were the verbs *willan, sculan*, etc.

forðǣm ȝē sculon wēpan...(you will weep because of this)
ȝif ȝē willaðminum hūs ȝesēon... (if you want to see my house)

Sometimes the structures with the verb *bēōn* were used, the future time relevance of these structures is semantically conditioned

ic nāt hwænne mīne daȝas āȝāne bēoð (I dont know when my days are ended = will be ended)

The four grammatical categories listed above were supplemented by some other ways of expressing grammatical meanings.

One of the less happy grammatical categories is that of aspect. Here the distinction between imperfective aspect, expressing an action in its duration without indicating its beginning or its end, and the perfective aspect which expressed an action in its completion, where its beginning and its end can be traced. To express it, the verbs with prefixes such as *ā-, be-, for-, ȝe-, of-* and *tō-* are used. The most "grammatical" of all is the prefix *ȝe-*. The instances of the use of verbs with the prefix *ȝe-* are very common in Old English, *wrītan – ȝewrītan, bindan – ȝebindan, feohtan – ȝefeohtan*. The verbs with the prefix *ȝe-* denoted a completed action whereas the verbs without this prefix denoted an action with no indication as to the completion of the action.

ðā Rebecca ðæt ȝehirde and Esau ūtā ȝān wæs (when Rebecca heard it and Esau departed...)

So a question arises as to distinguishing another grammatical category of the Old English verb – that of perfectivity , or the existence of perfective and non-perfective aspect.

Some recent explorations have shown that the very same prefix is not necessarily associated only with purely grammatical overtones. Whereas perfective meaning of the verbs with this prefix can hardly be disputed, there exist a great number of words where the very lexical meaning of the word is changed by adding it .This is observed in such pairs as *sittan – ȝesittan* (to sit – to occupy); *beran – ȝeberan* (to carry – to bear a child). At the same time verbs without any prefix might have perfective meanings in themselves, such verbs as *cuman* have such meaning, and in the phrase *maniȝ oft ȝecwǣð* (many people often said) a prefixed verb has the meaning rather of repeated but not completed action. So common efforts in ousting the perfective aspect were crowned by general non-recognition of this category. We may speak rather of lexical ways of expressing the idea of perfectivity. This may be compared with the existence in present-day English of a set of non-recognised half-systemic ways of expressing some grammatical meaning, such as

ingressive (inchoative) aspect
come to believe
fall to thinking
begin wondering
get tired, married, interested

or single occurrence actions
to give a nod, a smile, a shrug etc.

Apart from these there existed a whole set of analytical formations that gave in future all the present-day analytical verb forms. The forms of the perfect, future tense, passive voice, analytical forms of the subjunctive mood and even continuous, though came into the language together with the Norman invasion, had their roots within the English language. The structures that gave rise to these forms were:

habban + P II

Originally it meant that the subject owned a thing having a certain feature as a result of an action performed upon it. Then they acquired the meaning of result of an action

hæfde sē cyniȝ his here on tū tōnumen – (this king had his army divided into two parts)

It looks very much like the present-day perfect, but the participle in this construction agreed with the noun (in case the noun was in the plural it would sound like his *heri ȝeas tōnumene* (his armies divided..).

The participle agreed in number and case (accusative sg – acc. pl). Thus, it can be compared with the present-day structure *I have my car repaired* which everyone would agree is not a perfect tense but an instance of the use of the complex object.

The combination of the verb *bēon/wesan* with Participle II rendered the grammatical meaning of voice, yet had no status of an analytical verb form (on the same grounds, because the participle was changeable and agreed with the subject of the sentence):

On ðǣm æftran ȝēare ðe sē arcebiscop *wæs ȝematryrod* (on the next year after the archbishop was tortured to death...)

In the plural it would be – ðā menn *wǣron ȝemartyrode*

The verbs *willan/sculan* in combination with the infinitive rendered future time relevance, yet they were not devoid of their primary modal meaning:

wille ic asecȝan – I will say = I want to say
hīe sceolon bēon ȝesamnode – they shall (must) be gathered (or, when used in the past tense, their modal meanings approached the structures to the periphrastic forms of the subjunctive)
*nolde ic sweord beran, ȝif ic wiste hū ic meahte wið hem wiðgrīpan (*I would not carry my sword if I knew how else I could challenge them)

The combination of *bēon/wesan* with Participle I gave structures corresponding in meaning to the continuous form:

sē bāt wæs yrnende under seȝle – the boat was running under sail.

But true analytical forms, where only the auxiliary verb changes and renders only grammatical meanings and the notional part remains unchangeable did not exist in Old English.

In view of all the above the verbal paradigm in Old English can be represented as follows:

The infinitive	**ȝrīpan** (grip)	**beran** (bear)	**dēman** (deem)	**macian** (make)
		Present tense		
		Indicative		
		Singular		
ic	ȝrīpe	bere	dēme	macie
ðū	ȝrīpest	bierest	dēmst	macast
hē, hēo, hit	ȝrīpeð	bireð	dēmð	macað
Plural				
all persons	ȝrīpað	berað	dēmað	maciað
Present tense				
Subjunctive				
singular all persons	ȝrīpe	bere	dēme	macie
Plural all persons	ȝrīpen	beren	dēmen	macien
		Imperative		
singular	ȝrīp	ber	dēm	mac
plural	ȝrīpað	berað	dēmað	macað
Participle I	ȝrīpende	berende	dēmende	maciende
		Past tense		
		Indicative		
ic	ȝrāp	bær	dēmde	macode
ðū	ȝripe	bære	dēmdest	macodest
hē, hēo, hit	ȝrap	bær	dēmde	macode
Plural all persons	ȝripon	bǣron	dēmdon	macodon
Subjunctive				
singular all persons	ȝripe	bǣre	dēmde	macode
plural all persons	ȝripen	bǣren	dēmden	macoden
Participle II	(ȝe)ȝripen	(ȝe)boren	(ȝe)dēmed	(ȝe)macod

Morphological classification of Old English Verbs

The above table of conjugation of verbs shows the that the means of building grammatical forms differed in Old English for different groups of verbs. Most forms were made by means of vowel interchange or grammatical suffixes accompanied (or not) by inflections; one form – Participle II was

formed either by vowel interchange or by a suffix and was sometimes marked by a prefix. In addition, there are verbs that had suppletive forms.

The majority of Old English verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. In addition to these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as "minor" groups. The main difference between these groups lays in the way they form the principal forms; besides there were a few other differences in conjugation. Accordingly, the verbs may be divided into the following groups:

strong
weak
preterite-present
suppletive.

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation and by adding certain inflections and suffixes; in some verbs gradation was accompanied by changes of consonants, but these were mainly due to the activity of assimilative phonetic processes of the period (assimilation before *t*, loss of consonants, rhotacism or Verner's Law). There were four basic forms (stems) of the strong verbs, and the use of the stems was as follows:

I – the stems with this vowel are used in the infinitive, the present tense indicative and subjunctive, the imperative mood and participle I;
II – in the past tense singular, the 1st and the 3rd person
III – in the past tense plural, 2nd person singular and Past Subjunctive
IV – in the form of the Participle II.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and that of Participle II by adding dental suffix *-d-* and *-t-*; normally they did not change their root vowels apart from the cases when assimilative changes split these sounds into diphthongs.

In the preterite-present forms both ways were used; these verbs will be mentioned separately.

Suppletive verbs are what their name implies – they formed their forms from different stems or had peculiarities in formation of their paradigm. Two anomalous verbs *bēōn/wesan* and *dōn* have other peculiarities of the paradigm.

Strong Verbs

There were about three hundred strong verbs in Old English. They were native verbs of Protogermanic origin and usually have parallels in other Germanic languages. They are divided into seven classes. Gradation in Old English develops from common Indo-European gradation but the vowels differ due to numerous phonetic changes in Germanic languages and then in English, so the vowels may be quite different, but the principle is the same.

In Germanic languages the classes of the strong verbs had the following vowels in four basic forms

Classes of verbs	1st form a) the infinitive b) present indicative c) present subjunctive d) imperative e) Participle I	3nd form past tense singular 1st and 3rd persons	3rd form a) past plural b)past singular 3nd person c) past subjunctive	4th form Participle II
I class	ei	ai	i	i
II class	iu	au	u	u
III class	I (ai)	a	u (au)	u
IV class	i	a	e:	u
V class	i	a	e:	i
VI class	a	o	o	a
VII class		reduplication of the root syllable		

Old English gradation seems somewhat different. It is a natural development of the former Germanic system, but spontaneous and assimilative vowel changes transformed it into the following:

Classes of verbs	1st form a) the infinitive b) present indicative c) present subjunctive d) imperative e) Participle I	3nd form past tense singular 1st and 3rd persons	3rd form a) past plural b)past singular 3nd person c) past subjunctive	4th form Participle II
I class	ī	ā	i	i
II class	ēo/u	ēa	u	o
III class	i	a (o)	u	u
	i/e	ea	u	o
	eo	ea	u	o
	ei	ea	u	o
IV class	e	æ	ǣ	o
	i	a/o	a/o	u
V class	e	æ	ǣ	e
VI class	ā/a	ō	ō	a
VII class	a	ē/e	ē/e	ā/a
	ēā/ea	eo/ēō	eo/ēō	ēā /ea

Class I

Gradation formula: **ī – ā – i – i**

(Gothic long and short *i* are preserved, Gothic *ai* spontaneously, in all positions changed into *ā*)

wrītan – wrāt – writon – writen (to write)

rīsan – rās – rison – risen (rise)

Other verbs of this class are : *ȝelīefan* (to believe), *drīfan* (to drive), *ȝrīpan* (to clutch), *bītan* (to bite), *ȝewītan* (go), *bīdan* (bide), *ȝlīdan* (glide), *strīdan* (stride), *stīȝan* (mount), *scīnan* (shine), *fīðan* (go) etc.

As the third and the fourth forms originally had stress on the final syllable, if the verbs had voiceless fricatives in the second syllable, these turned into voiced stops (Verner's law):

līðan – lāð – lidon – liden (to go)

snīðan – snāð – snidon – sniden (to cut))

If the verb had the sound *h* between two vowels in the root, the process of contraction was at work, the set of form looks different, too. So *tīhan* (to convict) had changed into *tēon*, and the four basic forms here are

tēon – tāh – tiȝon – tiȝen (to blame)

Class II

Gradation formula: **ēo – ēa – u – o**

The four basic forms of the verbs of this class are:

bēodan – bēad – budon – boden (to offer)

clēofan – clēaf – clufon – clofen (to cleave)

Other verbs of this class are: *crēopan* (creep), *cēosan* (to choose), *cēowan* (chew), *flēotan* (fleet), *ȝrēotan* (weep), *scēotan* (shoot), *lēoȝan* (lie), *brēowan* (brew), *drēosan* (fall), *frēosan* (freeze).

The verbs that had *s* after the root vowel had the change of the consonant (according to Verner's law this consonant through rhotacism changed into *r*):

cēosan – cēas – curon – coren (to choose)

frēosan – frēas – fruron – froren (to freeze)

Contraction changed the sounds that in Gothic were *iuha* into *ēo* – *tiuhan* into *tēon* (to draw), and *fliuhan* into *flēon* (to flee). Their basic forms are:

tēon – tāh – tuȝon – toȝen (to draw)

flēon – flāh – fluȝon – floȝen (to flee) (voiceless *h* changed into *ȝ* under Verner's law)

Some class II verbs have the vowel *ū* instead of the usual *ēo*

lūcan – lēac – lucon – locen (to lock)

They are: *brūcan* (need), *būȝan* (bend), *dūfan* (dive), *lūtan* (bend), *scūfan* (shove), *slūpan* (slip), *sūpan* (try).

Class III

The first and the second classes of strong verbs had a long root vowel (or a diphthong) followed by one consonant. In the third class of Germanic strong verbs a short vowel was followed by two consonants. In Old English that was a position where short vowels were subjected to assimilative processes, hence there are several variations of root vowels in this class of verbs.

a) if nasal sound + another consonant followed the root vowel the gradation formula was:

i – a(o) – u – u

drincan – dranc – druncon – druncen (to drink)

findan – fand – fundon – funden (to find)

Here belong also such verbs as *bindan* (bind), *ȝrindan* (grind), *swindan* (vanish), *windan* (wind), *onȝinnan* (begin), *sinnan* (reflect), *spinnan* (spin), *winnan* (work), *clinȝan* (cling), *scrincan* (shrink), *sinȝan*

(sing), *sprinʒan* (spring), *stinʒan* (sting), *sincan* (sink), *climban* (climb), *swimman* (swim) etc.

b) if *l* + another consonant followed the root vowel, then this formula was

i/e – ea – u – o

(l + consonant caused breaking of the vowel of the second forms of the verb)

helpan – healp – hulpon – holpen (to help)

Other verbs having such sounds are: *delfan* (delve), *swelʒan* (swallow), *meltan* (melt), *sweltan* (die), *bellan* (bark), *swellan* (swell), *melcan* (milk).

c) if *r* + consonant or *h* + consonant followed the root vowels then breaking in the first two forms changed the formula into

eo – ea – u – o

steorfan – stearf – sturfon – storfen (to die)
feohtan – feaht – fuhton – fohten (to fight)
weorðan – wearð – wurdon – worden (to become)

Here also belong *ceorfan* (carve), *weorpan* (throw), *beorʒan* (conceal), *beorcan* (bark), *hweorpan* (turn).

Other variations are found when other phonetic changes had taken place:

The verbs beginning with palatal *ʒ* had *ie* in the first form as a result of diphthongization of *eo* after palatal consonants:

ie – ea – u –o

ʒieldan – ʒeald – ʒuldon – ʒolden (to pay)
ʒielpan – ʒealp – ʒulpon – ʒolpen (to boast)

There are also some phonetic anomalies belonging to this class:

berstan – bærst – burston – borsten (to burst)
friʒnan – fræʒn – fruʒnon (frunon) – frunʒen (frunen) (to ask)
iernan – orn – urnon – urnen (to run)
biernan – born – burnon – burnen (to burn)
murnan – mearn – murnon – ? (to mourn)

Class IV

The verbs of this class have only one consonant after the short root vowel, and it is a sonorant – *r* or *l*, in rare cases – *m* or *n* .The scheme of gradation is

e – æ – ǣ – o

stelan – stæl – stǣlon – stolen (to steal)
teran – tær – tǣron – toren (to tear)

Here also belong *beran* (bear), *cwelan* (to die), *helan* (conceal), *brecan* (conceal).

Though different from the others in phonetic form but still belonging to this class are two very frequently used verbs with a nasal sound after the root vowel:

niman – nam(nom) –namon(nomon) – numen (to take)
cuman – cwom/com – comon/cwomon – cumen (to come)

Class V

These verbs also have a short root vowel followed by only one consonant other than *l, r or n* and here the basic vowels are:

e – æ – ǣ – e

sprecan – spræc – sprǣcon – sprecen (to speak)
tredan – træd – trǣdon – treden (to tread)

Other verbs that formed their past tense and the participle II without deviation from the original scheme are *metan* (measure), *wrecan* (persecute), *cnedan* (knead), *etan* (eat), *wesan* (be).

When the first sound was *ʒ* then diphthongization of *e* is observed and the forms of such verbs are:

ʒiefan – ʒeaf – ʒēāfon –ʒiefen (to give)
ʒietan – ʒeat – ʒēāton – ʒieten, ʒiten (to get)

In the verbs where the first short sound had palatal mutation, the consonant after it in the infinitive (originally one, as is common for this class of verbs) was doubled (geminated):

sittan – sæt – sǣton – seten (to sit)
biddan – bæd – bǣdon – beden (beg)

The verbs with contraction in the form of the root preserved the sound *h* in other forms of the verb (it may be voiced in the second and the third forms according to Verner's law), and participate in further sound development as in

sēon – sēah – sāwon/sǣʒon – sewen/sawen (to see)

Classes VI and VII of the strong verbs are specifically Germanic (they have no counterparts in other Indo-European languages), and are characterized by the fact that the vowel of the infinitive was repeated in the form of the Participle II, and the vowel in the past tense forms was the same for both the singular and the plural:

Class VI

The formula of gradation here is

a – ō – ō – a

faran – fōr – fōron – faren (to go)

Here belong such verbs as *ʒalan* (sing), *wadan* (walk), *draʒan* (draw), *ʒnaʒan* (gnaw), *bacan* (bake), *sceacan* (shake), *wascan* (wash).There are verbs of this class that have other vowels, which are conditioned by the same factors as the variations in other classes:

if there was *h* sound in the middle of the word, it was dropped in the infinitive in the process of contraction and voiced in the other forms, and the basic forms are:

slēān – slōʒ – slōʒon – slæʒen (beat)

flēān – flōʒ – flōʒon – flæʒen (flay)

Some verbs had fractures or mutations of the first vowel in the infinitive

swerian– swōr – swōron – sworen (to swear)

hliehhan– hlōʒ – hlōʒon – hlæʒen (to laugh)

stæppan– stōp – stōpon – stapen (to step)

The verb *standan* (stand) loses the sound *-n-* in the past tense forms

standan – stōd – stōdon – standen

Class VII

This class in Gothic was a group of verbs that built their past tense by reduplicating the root syllable. In Old English these forms contracted, and the long vowels that appeared in place of two repeating stems may be different, for they resulted from the fusion of various root morphemes. The most common are the following patterns:

ā – ē – ē – ā

ǣ – ē – ē – ǣ

ā – ēo – ēo - ā

ea – eo – eo – ea

ēa – ēo – ēo – ēa

hātan – hēt – hēton – hāten (to call)

lætan – lēt – lēton – læten (to let)

cnāwan – cnēow – cnēowon – cnāwen (to know)

healdan – heold – heoldon – healden (to hold)

bēatan – bēat – bēaton – bēaten (to beat)

Other verbs of this class, rather frequent in Old English, are: *ondrǣdan* (fear), *rǣdan* (advise), *slǣpan* (sleep), *fealdan* (fold), *hleapan* (leap), *wēpan* (weep), *flōwan* (flow), *ʒrōwan* (grow), *rōwan* (row), *blāwan* (blow), *sāwan* (sow), *lācan* (play) etc.

The examples of the use of various forms of the strong verbs are:

ðū *ʒesihst* ðæt ic ealdiʒe (present singular 2nd person) (you see that I am getting old)

ðā hwælhunta firrest *farað* (Present plural) (where whalehunters go farthest)

ðā *ārās* hē from ðǣm slǣpe (past singular) then arose he from the sleep

and *buʒon* ealle tō Sweʒene (past plural) (and all surrendered to Sweyn)

ðe is *ʒehāten* Grammatica (Participle II) (which is called Grammatica)

As a result of later developments, only a few remnants of the original seven classes of strong verbs can be found in Modern English; verbs formerly belonging to classes I, IIIa, b, IV, VI survive to some extent; others have changed beyond recognition. A significant number of the verbs belonging to the seven classes of the strong conjugation have changed into the weak conjugation; many others disappeared altogether and semantically have been replaced by other verbs, borrowed from other languages (Latin or French).

Weak verbs

There are three classes of Old English weak verbs as contrasted to the four in Gothic. Their number was ever growing in the Old English as it was a productive pattern. They had three basic forms, their past tense and Participle II were made by adding the dental suffix *-t-* or *-d-* to the root morpheme. They are divided into three classes depending on the ending of the infinitive, the sonority of the suffix and the sounds preceding the suffix. New verbs derived from nouns, adjectives and partly adverbs (that was a very productive way of word-building in Old English) were conjugated weak:

hors n (horse) → *horsian w v 2* (supply with horses)

lȳtel adj (little) → *lȳtlian w v 2* (to diminish)

nēah adv (near) → *nēalǣcan w v 1* (to approach)

Another group of weak verbs were causative (transitive) verbs derived from strong intransitive verbs

licʒan s v V (lie) → *lecʒean w v I* (lay)
sittan s v V (sit) → *settan w v I* (set)

This is further reflected in the existence in the language pairs of verbs, one of which is irregular, and another is regular, that presents difficulty for the learners of the language on the early stages of study (*rise/raise, lie/lay* etc.) In Old English the number of such pairs exceeds those that remain in the language until now. Examples of such verbs are:

drincan sv 3 → drencean w v I (to drink – to make someone drink, to give drink) In present-day English the verb *to drench* is not directly associated with drinking;

sincan sv 3 → sencean w v I (to sink – to make someone/ something sink, to plunge); there are no traces of the weak causative verb in present-day English;

līðan svI → lǣdan wv I (to go – to make someone go, to lead) – only the second word in the pair (causative) remains now;

rīsan svI → rǣran w v I (to rise - to raise);

feallan s v 7→ fellan w v I (to fall – to fell);

faran s v 7 → ferian w v I (to go – to carry) – the present-day noun *ferry, or ferryboat* is related to the noun *fare;* both verbs have not survived;

ʒanʒan suppletive, former *s v 7 → ʒenʒan w v I* (to go – to ride, that is make the horse go) – the second word was lost;

bītan s v I → bǣtan w v I (to bite – to bridle, that is to make horse take the bridle into the mouth)

Borrowed verbs (though not very numerous in Old English) were also weak: Lat. *signare → seʒnian w v 2* (to mark with a sign, esp. the sign of the cross)

Class I

The verbs of this class ended in *-an* (or *-ian* after *r*). Originally they had had a stem-forming suffix *-i-* that caused the mutation of the root vowel. That is why they all have a front (mutated) vowel in the root. When the root vowel was short, the consonant after it was geminated. This class of verbs is subdivided into regular and irregular.

Regular class I verbs have mutation of their root vowel (due to an original *-i-*element in the suffix in all their forms), and the three basic forms of the verb end in

–an/–ian – –de/ede/te – ed/-t-d

(dōmian →) dēman – dēmde – dēmed (to judge)
(arjan →) ērian – ērede – ēred (to plough)
(nasjan →) nerian – nerede – nered (to save)
(tamian →) temman – temede – temed (to tame)

When the suffix was preceded by a voiceless consonant, the suffix *-d-* changed into *-t-*; in the second participle both *-t-* and *-ed* are found:

cēpan – cēpte – cēpt, cēped (to keep)
ʒrētan – ʒrētte – ʒrēt, ʒrēted (to greet)

If the stem ended in two consonants, the second being *d* or *t*, participle II of such verbs, can have variant endings - in *-d, -t*, or *-ded, -ted.*

sendan – sende – send, sended (to send)
restan – reste – rest, rested (to rest)

Irregular verbs of the 1st class of the weak verbs had mutated vowel only in the infinitive, while in the past tense and in participle II it remained unchanged. Thus they had different vowels in the root first form as against the second and the third, but that is not gradation! Examples of such verbs are:

(salian →) *sellan – sealde – seald* (to give)
(talian →) *tellan—tealde – teald* (to tell)

(the sound *a* in the root of the second and the third forms is changed through breaking into *ea*, but it is not mutated)

tǣcan – tāhte – tāht (to teach)
rǣcan – rāhte—rāht (to reach)
bycʒean – bōhte – bōht (to buy)
sēcan – sōhte – sōht (to seek)
brinʒan – brōhte – brōht (to bring)
ðenc(e)an – ðōhte – ðōht (to think)
wyrcean – worhte – worht (to work)

Other verbs of class I of the weak verbs are: *leornian* (to learn), *hǣlan* (to heal), *hȳran* (to hear), *fyllan* (to fill), *fēlan* (to feel), *lyhtan* (to light), *nemnan* (to name), *menʒan* (to mingle, to mix), *bestri(e)pan* (to strip, plunder), *hȳnan* (to humiliate), *lǣstan* (to follow), *nyrwan* (to restrict), *onstellan* (to institute) *(ʒe)seʒlian* (to sail), *ȳcan* (to increase), *styrian* (to stir).

Class II

These verbs originally had the suffix *-oia-* in the infinitive; the root vowel is the same in all three forms. The absence of mutation in the infinitive

is due to the fact that the *-i-* (from *-oja-*) appeared at the time when the process of mutation was over. The suffix gave the vowel *-o-* in the past tense and in the infinitive. Their paradigm is the most regular, and so the majority of latter lexical innovations joined this class.

The pattern of the three basic forms has the following endings:

-ian – ode – od

macian – macode – macod (to make)
lufian – lufode – lufod (to love)
hopian – hopode – hopod (to hope)
ȝemartyrian – ȝamartyrode – ȝemartyrod (to martyr)

Other verbs of this class are: *andswarian* (to answer), *ealdiȝan* (to grow old), *earnian* (to earn), *ȝeðēowian* (to enslave), *ȝeðolian* (to endure), *ȝōdian* (to improve), *lōcian* (to look), *rīcsian* (to govern), *wyrsian* (to worsen), *yfelian* (to get worse), *sēowian* (to sew), *mettian* (to supply with food), *horsian* (to provide horses), *wundrian* (wonder).

Class III

The suffix *-ai-*, that determined the peculiarities of conjugation of the weak verbs of the third class in Old English is no longer found. The class is not numerous (there are about eight verbs) and a closed system. Moreover, there is a tendency to disintegration of this class, some of the verbs changing into the first and the second classes.

Some verbs of this class have doubled consonants in the Infinitive and the mutated vowels, which are accounted for by the presence of the element *-i-/-j-* in some forms in Old English. The pattern of the most frequent class III verbs forms is

-an – de – d

habban – hæfde – hæfd (to have)
libban – lifde – lifd (to live)
secȝ(e)an – sæȝde – sæȝd (to say)

Other, less frequent verbs of this class are *fēoȝean* (hate), *hycȝean* (think); *ðrēaȝean* (threaten), *smēaȝean* (think), *frēoȝean* (free).

Note: negative particle *ne-*, when it merges with the verb *habban*, does not influence its paradigm (*nabban (= ne habban) – næfde – næfd*)

Preterite-Present Verbs

Preterite-present verbs occupy a specific place within the verbal system of Old English verbs. They combine the qualities of the strong verbs as well as the weak verbs. Their present tense is formed according to the rules of formation of the past tense of the strong verbs, that is by gradation (vowel interchange) whereas their past tense has all the peculiarities of the weak verbs, e.g. *wītan – wāt*, but *wisse, wiste*; participle II meanwhile retains the suffix *-en* of the strong verbs. It is just this peculiarity that makes them preterite (in form) – present (in the meaning).

The origin of these verbs will be clearer if we consider the peculiarity of their semantics. In general, past tense has a strong tinge of result in its meaning; especially the verbs containing the *ȝe-* prefix, though as already mentioned, some of the forms with resultative meaning had no such prefix.

A certain group of verbs preserves this strong meaning of result, and it turns into their dominant feature; they begin to render the present result of the past action. E.g. *wītan – wāt; cunnan – cann; munan – man* – what I have got to know, I know; what I have learned to do I know how to do it; if I have memorized your name, I remember it. So the past tense in structures like *Ic wāt sē weȝ; Ic cann swimman; Ic man ðone brōðor* meant and was perceived as the present state of mind of the speaker, and in linguistic competence of the speakers turned to be considered the present tense. However, there were situations in which the past tense was still required; one might want to know that once there was a man who knew the way, who could swim or who remembered that brother but he is dead, or gone, and the form of the past tense no longer could refer that action to the present. By that time the only productive pattern of making verb forms was that of weak verbs, the one with the dental suffix. And it was naturally used in this case, so there appeared the forms *Hē wisse sē weȝ; hē cūðe swimman; hē munde his brōðor*. Participle II, however, had the necessary meaning of result, and some verbs preserved it , formed by gradation and the suffix *-en*, while with some other the pattern of the weak verbs was used. The verbs of this group, with overburdened system of forms, started losing certain parts of their paradigm (or, probably, some forms were not necessary and therefore not used – at least in the texts that came down to our times).

Analogous development may be found in other languages; there are several Latin verbs whose past tense acquired present meaning – *memini*

(I have remembered → I remember); *novi* (I have come to know → I know); *odi* (I have come to hate you → I hate). The same is found in Greek, too: *oida* (I came to know → I know), *pepoitha* (I have come to trust you → I trust you).

Most preterite-present verbs are classified according to the classes of gradation to which their present tense belongs. However, some of these do not fit into this system, as their vowels do not correspond to the gradation system of strong verbs.

The table of the main forms of Preterite-Present verbs found in Old English texts is as follows:

Class	Infinitive	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past	Participle II	
I	wītan	wāt	witon	wisse /wiste	witen	know
	āʒan	āʒ	āʒon	āhte	āʒen	have
II	duʒan	dēaʒ	duʒon	–	–	be useful
III	unnan	ann	unnon	ūðe	unnen	pre'sent
	cunnan	cann	cunnon	cūðe	cūð, cunnen	know
	ðurfan	ðearf	ðurfon	ðorfte	–	need
	durran	dearr	durron	dorste	–	dare
IV	sculan	sceal	sculon	sceolde	–	shall
	munan	man	munon	munde	munen	remember
V	maʒan	mæʒ	maʒon	meahte	–	may
	–	ʒeneah	ʒenuʒon	ʒenohte	–	be enough
VI	–	mōt	mōton	mōste	–	may

Their declension was as follows (not all forms are found in the texts, so what is not registered there is not included in the table:

The infinitive	wītan	cunnan	maʒan	sculan
		Present tense Indicative Singular		
ic	wāt	cann	mæʒ	sceal(l)
ðū	wāst, wātt	canst	meaht	scealt
hē, hēo, hit	wāt	cann	mæʒ	sceall
Plural all persons	witon	cunnon	maʒon	sculon
Present tense Subjunctive singular all persons	wite	cunne	mæʒe	scule
Plural all persons	witen	cunnen	mæʒen	sculen
Participle I	witende	–	mæʒende	–
		Past tense Indicative		
ic	wiste, wisse	cūðe	meahte, mihte	sceolde
ðū	wistest,wissest	cūðest	meahtest, mihtest	sceoldest
hē, hēo, hit	wiste, wisse	cūðe	meahte, mihte	sceolde
Plural all persons	wiston,wisson	cūðon	meahton, mihton	sceoldon
Subjunctive singular all persons	wiste, wisse	cūðe	mihte	sceolde
plural all persons	wisten, wissen	cūðen	mihten	sceolden
Participle II	witen	cunnen, cuð	–	–

Note: The verb *wītan* may merge with the negative particle *ne-;* the paradigmatic forms of the verb *nȳtan (ne wītan*) are similar to those of *wītan: nāt, nāst, nyton, nysse* etc.

Irregular verbs

There are four verbs in Old English listed as irregular *bēon/wesan* (be), *ʒan* (go), *dōn* (do) and *willan* (will). The first two differ from all other verbs in that their forms are derived from different roots, that is their system is based on supplletivity.

bēon/wesan

This verb forms its paradigmatic forms from the three roots – *wes-*, *es-* and *be-*. The verb belongs to the most ancient in Indo-Euaropean languages, and is suppletive in other languages as well. Suppletivity here is explained by the fact that in old times they had slightly different meanings, the level of abstraction was low, and what, for instance *was* (in the past) was not associated with present tense *is* (now). In addition, this verb had two infinitive forms and in the present tense two sets of forms for each person. The forms of this verb are:

The infinitive	**bēon/wesan (to be)**
Present tense Indicative	
Singular	
ic	eom, bēo
ðū	eart, bist
hē, hēo, hit	is, bið
Plural	
all persons	sindon, sint, bēoð
Present tense Subjunctive	
singular all persons	sīe, sī, sy, bēo
Plural all persons	sīen, sȳn, sīn, bēon
Imperative	
singular	wes, bēo
plural	wesað, bēoð
Participle I	wesende, bēonde
Past tense	
Indicative	
ic	wæs
ðū	wǣre
hē, hēo, hit	wæs
Plural all persons	wǣron
Subjunctive	
singular all persons	wǣre
plural all persons	wǣren
Participle II	

The forms in which the negative particle ne coalesces with this verb are: *ne is → nis; ne wǣs → nǣs; ne wǣreon → nǣron*; also *nes, nǣre, nǣren.*

There is no strict rule in the use of variant forms in the present tense; still there might be some subtle differences in their functioning. Some observations suggest that *bēon* is limited to future and sentences with abstract meaning, while *wesan* is used only in concrete, but instances of random use of the forms are not rare.

ʒān (to go)

This verb of motion had reduplication in Gothic, which is lost in Old English. Besides suppletivity for the past tense , the peculiarity of its conjugation is that it has mutation in the 2nd and 3rd person singular present indicative:

The infinitive	**ʒān**
Present tense Indicative	
Singular	
Ic	ʒā
ðū	ʒǣst
hē, hēo, hit	ʒǣð
Plural	
all persons	ʒāð
Present tense Subjunctive	
Singular all persons	ʒā
Plural all persons	ʒān
Imperative	
Singular	ʒā
Plural	ʒāð
Participle I	ʒānʒende
Past tense	
Indicative	
Ic	ēode
ðū	ēodest
hē, hēo, hit	ēode
Plural all persons	ēodon

Subjunctive	
singular all persons	ēode
plural all persons	ēoden
Participle II	(ʒe)ʒān

dōn (to do)

The verb *dōn* and is irregular, has mutation in the 2nd and the 3rd person present indicative. Its past is conjugated weak, with the change of root vowel from *-o-* to *-y-*.

The infinitive	**dōn**
Present tense Indicative	
Singular	
ic	dō
ðū	dēst
hē, hēo, hit	dēð
Plural	
all persons	dōð
Present tense Subjunctive	
singular all persons	dō
Plural all persons	dōn
Imperative	
singular	dō
plural	dōð
Participle I	dōnde
Past tense	
Indicative	
ic	dyde
ðū	dydest
hē, hēo, hit	dyde
Plural all persons	dydon
Subjunctive	
singular all persons	dyde
plural all persons	dyden
Participle II	(ʒe)dōn

willan

The verb does not take the ending *-ð* in the present indicative, thus the forms of the present indicative and the sujunctive coincide (which might be explained by the lexical meaning of the verb).

The infinitive	**willan**
Present tense Indicative	
Singular	
ic	wille
ðū	wilt
hē, hēo, hit	wille
Plural	
all persons	willað
Present tense Subjunctive	
singular all persons	wille
plural all persons	willen
Imperative	
singular	–
plural	–
Participle I	willende
Past tense	
Indicative	
ic	wolde
ðū	woldest
hē, hēo, hit	wolde
Plural all persons	woldon
Subjunctive	
singular all persons	wolde
plural all persons	wolden
Participle II	–

The forms of this verb may also be found in the negative variant (with the partciple *ne* coalesced with the root): *ne wille → nylle, nelle, ne wolde → nolde*, also *nyllað, nyllen, noldest, nolden.*

Old English Vocabulary. Etymological composition

The full extent of the Old English vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. There is no doubt that there existed more words in it. Surely, some Old English words were lost altogether with the texts that perished; some might not have been used in written texts as they belonged to some spheres of human life which were not of great interest (some colloquial words, for instance).

Modern estimates of the total vocabulary (recorded and preserved in written monuments) range from 30 000 words (some even say 100 000 – Smirnitsky, Pei).

It is mainly homogeneous. Loan words are fairly insignificant, and are grouped around some specific spheres of life.

Native words, in their turn can be subdivided into: Common Indo-European words, which were inherited from the common Indo-European language. They belong to the oldest layer and denote the names of natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship; verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of Old English man, adjectives indicate the basic qualities; personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals are of this origin too.

These have already been mentioned in this book to illustrate the shift of sounds according to Grimm's law – *fæder* (father), *modor* (mother), *brōðor* (brother), *sweostor* (sister); *etan* (to eat), *sitan* (to sit), *slepan* (to sleep), *beran* (to bear), *cnāwan* (to know), *wītan* (to know); *ceald* (cold), *cwēne* (woman), *dōr* (door), *stān* (stone), *wæter* (water), *fōt* (foot), *heorte* (heart).

Some contained more stable sounds and in common Germanic were closer to their Indo-European counterparts. They changed only in the course of the Old English assimilative changes: *sunu* (son), *sunne* (sun), *earm* (arm; comp. Ukr. *рамена*), *neowe* (new), *ʒeonʒ* (young), *meolc* (milk), *mūs* (mouse), *nosu* (nose), *ryʒe* (rye; comp. Rus. *рожь*), *snāw* (snow).

These words belong to the sphere of everyday life, and denote vital objects, qualities, and actions. Other words of common Indo-European origin are *dǣl* (part), *dæʒ* (day), *ēaʒe* (Got. *augo* – Lat. *oculus*), *fisc* (fish), *fōda* (food; Lat. *panis* – bread), *ford* (ford; Greek *poros* – a ferry), *frēond* (friend; comp. Ukr. *приятель*), *fȳr* (fire; Greek *pyr;* in Ukr. *пipомехніка*), *ʒiest* (host-guest), *ʒēoc* (yoke), *ʒuma* (man, human, Lat. homo), *heorte* (heart), *hōcyht* (*коготь*) (hook), *meolc* (milk), *medu* (mead), *nama* (name), *swehur* (father-in-law), *swīn* (swine, pig), *ðorn* (thorn; Ukr. *терен*), *bēatan* (beat),

beran (bear), *brecan* (fragment), *fæstan* (fast), *flēotan* (float), *hælan* (to heal), *licʒan* (lie), *sittan* (sit), *standan* (stand), *weorcan* (work), *wītan* (know), *willan* (will); *feor* (far; Lat. *porro*, Greek *peri,* perimeter), *ful* (full), *heard* (hard), *maniʒ* (many), *mere* (sea), *mōna* (moon), *beard* (beard), *lippa* (lip; Lat. labium, Rus. *улыбка*), *trēow* (tree).

The majority of pronouns and numerals also spring mainly from the same source: *twā* (two), *ðrēo* (three), *fif* (five), *eahta* (eight), *tīen* (ten); *ic* (I), *ðū* (thou), *mē* (me), *ðæt* (that), *hwā* (who; Lat. *quis*), *hwæt* (what; Lat. *quod*).

Common Germanic words are the words than can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western and northern. Here belong such words, for instance, as

eorðe (earth – Goth. *airða*, OHG *erda*, OSax *ertha*, OIcel *jorð*, Mn Germ. *Erde*);

ʒrēne (green – OHG *gruoni*, OSax *groni*, OFr *grene*, OScand *groene*, Mn Germ *grün)*

heall (hall – OHG, OSax *halla*, Oicel *holl*, Mn Germ. *Halle*);

hors (horse – OHG *hros*, OSax *hros*, OFr *hars, hros*, OScand *hros*, Mn Germ *Ross*);

hand (hand – Goth *handus*, OHG *hant*, OSax *hand*, OFr *hand, hond*, Mn Germ *Hand*);

hlēapan (leap – Goth *hlaupan*, OHG *hloufan*, OSax *hlopan*, OScand *hlaupa*, OFr *hlapa*, Mn Germ *laufen*)

land (land – Goth. *land*, OHG *lant*, OSax, OFr, OScand *land*; Mn Germ *Land*);

lang (long – Goth *laggs*, OHG *lang*, OSax, OFr *lang*, OScand *langr*, Mn Germ *lang*)

sand (sand – OHG *sant*, OSax, OFr *sand*, OIcel *sandr* Mn Germ *Sand*);

smæl (small – Goth *smals*,OHG *smal*, OFr *smel*, OScand *smalr*, Mn Germ *schmal* – narrow)

wicu (week – Goth *wiko*, OHG *wehha, wohha*, OIcel *vika*, OSax *wica*, OFr *wike*, Mn Germ *Woche*);

Some linguists tend to treat common West-Germanic words separately, but mainly they are not so numerous. For instance, *sprecan* (to speak) is found also in OHG and Dutch (*sprechen*); *wermod* (wormwood) – OHG *werimuota* (wermouth).

Finally, hypothetically there are specifically Old English words, that is the words not found in any of the known old texts. These are to be taken for granted – no one knows what other texts might have been lost and the words

might have existed in some other language. But we can still say that *bridda* (bird), *wōʒian* (to woo, to court), *ōwef* (woof), *terorian* (to tire, to be tired) so far are treated as specifically English. Still, it is to be marked that some words still bear this British colouring: *hlāford* and *hlæfdiʒe* (the owner of bread and that one who was making the dough, kneading it). Lord, Lady may be used in other meanings in other variants of the language, and have different metaphorically extended meanings: *warlords, first lady*) but everyone feels that it belongs to English culture. The parts of these compounds are not specifically English, but such combinations of morphemes are.

Lexical borrowings in Old English

Loan-words, or borrowings were not so frequent in Old English. They are: Celtic (taken from the substratum languages) and Latin.

Celtic element is not very significant, and is mainly reduced to the the following:

dīn (down), *dun* (dun), *binn* (bin). These may occur as separate words, but a great many are found only as elements of place-names (*amhuin* – river: *Avon, Evan, uisge* water in names beginning with *Exe-, Usk-, Esk-*, (later – whiskey); *dun, dum* (hill): *Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary*; *inbher* (mountain) – *Inverness, Inverurfe, coil* (forest) *Killbrook, Killiemore* etc. Some common names of people are of Celtic origin, too – *Arthur* (noble), *Donald* (proud chief), *Kennedy* (ugly head).

Besides, one can find some words that were taken from Celtic languages by other Germanic languages, not necessarily on the Isles – *wealas* (alien) OHG *wal(a)ha*, Icel *valir, eisarn – isarn, isern* – iron.

Latin words in Old English are usually classified into two layers. Some were taken into Germanic languages in pre-British period, during contacts of the Germanic tribes through wars and trade; these words are found in many Germanic languages (we take Present-day German for comparison), and are so assimilated now that only a specialist can trace their origin. They are:

castel (castle – Lat. castellum)
cealc (chalk – Lat.calcium)
cīese (cheese – Lat. caseus, Mn Germ Käse),
cīres (cherry – Lat. cerasus, Mn Germ Kirsche),
copor (copper, Lat. cuprum, Mn Germ Kupfer),
cycene (Lat. coquina, Mn Germ Kuchen),
cytel (kettle – Lat. catillus, Mn Germ Kessel),

disc (dish Lat. discus, Mn Germ Tisch),
mīle (mile – Lat. milla passum, Mn Germ Meile).
myln (mill – Lat. molinum, Mn Germ Muhle),
pipor (pepper – Lat. piper Mn Germ Pfeffer),
pund (pound– Lat. pondo, Mn Germ Pfund),
strǣt (street, road Lat. via strata, Mn Germ Strasse),
torr (tower, Lat. Turris, Mn Germ Turm).
weall (Lat. vallum, Germ Wall),
wīn (wine – Lat. vinum Mn Germ Wein),
ynce (ounce Lat. uncia, Mn Germ Unze)

Traditionally, to this first layer we refer the place names containing Latin stems *cester* – Lat. castra (camp) – *Chester, Manchester, Winchester, Worcester, Leicester, Lancaster, coln* – Lat.colonia (from *colere* to cultivate, inhabit) – *Lincoln, Colchester*, port – Lat. port (gate) – *Portsmouth, Bridport, Devonport*. There are lots of hybrid formations which are now familiar place-names in Britain:

(with the elements *vic* – village, *strat*—road, Llan – church)

Man-chester	York-shire	Ports-mouth
Win-chester	Corn-wall	Wool-wich
Lan-caster	Devon-shire	Green-wich
Glou-cester	Canter-bury	Strat-ford

The second layer of the Latin borrowings is connected with the introduction of Christianity, and denotes religious notions plus some notions connected with the cultural and social phenomena which appeared in society after this event. A significant portion of religious terms are not specifically Latin, for they were borrowed into it from Greek, so we may find similar words in other languages:

Old English	New English	Latin	Greek
apostol	apostle	apostolus	apostolos
biscop	bishop	episcopus	episcopos
deofol	devil	diabolus	diabolos
antefn	anthem	antiphona	antiphona

Other words now existing in English but borrowed in old times are: *abbod* (abbot),*abbudissa* (abbess), *ælmesse* (alms), *alter, altar* (altar), *antecrīste* (Antichrist), *candel* (candle), *enȝel* (angel), *crǣda* (creed), *ymn* (hymn), *martyr* (martyr), *pāpa* (pope), *mæsse* (mess), *mynster* (monastery), *prēost* (priest), *ps(e)alm, sealm* (psalm), *saltere* (psalter),*scrīn* (shrine); *scōl* (school), *maȝister* (teacher), *dihtan* (to compose), *meter* (meter), *epistol, pistol* (epistle, letter).

Some borrowed stems came easily into the word-building system of the language, forming the following hybrids in Old English – *prēost-hād* (priesthood), *biscop-hād* (bishophood), *crīsten-dōm* (Christendom), *biscop-rīce* (bishopric), *martyr-hād* (martyrhood) etc. There are also compounds, one part of which is Latin and the other English *cirice-ȝeard* (churchyard), *mynster-hām* (monastery as home), *mynsterhata* (destroyer of monasteries), *mynsterman* (a monk).

However, the English language still had a strong immunity to foreign influence; some religious terms are of native origin, though their original meaning was different. *ȝod* (god) in pagan polytheistic religion was one of several deities, esp. a male deity, presiding over some portion of worldly affairs, *halȝa* (saint) is related to *whole. Wēofod* (altar) was also native. There were translation loans for the others: *hēahfæder* (patriarch, high father), *ȝōdspel* (gospel, good story), *ðrēnes* (trinity), *fulwian* (to baptize) – *fulluht* – *fæder* (godfather), *æfæsteness* (religion; Lat. *religare* – to fasten).

It was already mentioned that translation-loans are also found in the names of days of the week, and also some other terms (*Mōnan – dæȝ, Tiwes-dæȝ, Wodnes – dæȝ,ðu(n)res – dæȝ, Friȝe – dæȝ – Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday* and *Friday*)

ȝoldsmið ← aurifex

tunȝolcræft ← astronomos

dǣl nimend ← participium; from *dǣl* (part) + *niman* (take) – participle)

nemniȝendlīc ← nominativus (nominative); from *nemnian* to give a name

wrenȝelīc ← accusativus (accusative) from *wrenȝ* wrong, guilty etc.

Nowadays all the grammatical terms in English are replaced by words of Latin origin, but in Aelfric's *Grammar* an attempt was made to find an English way of rendering the new notions (compare it with similar terms in Ukrainian *sub* (під) + *ject* (метати) = *підмет*, *pre* (при) + *dicere* (судити, говорити) = *присудок*; Instrumentalis – *орудний*; Rus. Accusativus – *винительный*)

Word-building in Old English

Apart from taking words from other languages, there were internal ways of enriching the vocabulary – word-building techniques.

These were:

morphological – creating new words by adding new morphemes;

syntactic – building new words from syntactic groups

semantic – developing new meanings of the existing words

Morphological word-building is the way of adding morphemes to make new words, know as affixation. Here we distinguish two major group of affixes – prefixes and suffixes, infixes being non-characteristic for the English language.

Affixation

Suffix is a morpheme that is added to the root-morpheme and which modifies its lexical meaning. Additionally, they may (and in the majority of cases do) refer the word to another part of speech. In this treatment they will be classified according to the principle of what part of speech is formed by means of this or that suffix. Hence, In Old English there were:

Noun-suffixes

-ere was used to form masculine nouns from stems of nouns and verbs, denoted the profession or the doer of the action (it is related to Gothic *-areis*, Lat.*-arius*):

fiscere (fisherman), *wrītere* (writer), *bōcere* (bookman), *fuȝelere* (fowler, bird-catcher), *ðrōwere* (sufferer), *ȝeðeahtere* (councellor), *rypere* (robber).

The corresponding feminine suffix was

-estre:

bæcestre (woman baker), *spinnestre* (spinner), *witeȝestre* (prophetess), *myltestre* (prostitute).

-end was used to form masculine nouns from verb stems (originally the suffix of Participle II):

frēond (friend), *dēmend* (judge), *fēond* (hater), *hælend* (savior),

lī ðend (traveller), *waldend* (ruler), *frēotend* (sailor), *ceasterbūend* (citizen of a fortified town)

-inʒ – masculine; was used to derive patronimics; may also form emotionally coloured diminutives:
cyninʒ (king), *æðelinʒ* (son of a nobleman), *ðincðferðinʒ* (son of ðincðferð), *Eanuwulfinʒ* (son of Eanwulf), *Wærmundinʒ* (son of Wærmund), *earminʒ* (poor fellow);

-linʒ – variant of *-inʒ;* forms prevalently emotionally marked nouns from adjectives:
dēorlinʒ (darling), *lȳtlinʒ* (baby). The emotional connotation may be negative: *hȳrlinʒ* (hireling)

-en formed feminine nouns from noun stems:
ʒyden (goddess), *fyxen* (female fox, vixen), *mæʒden* (mayden)

-nis, -nes formed feminine abstract nouns from adjectives:
ʒōdnis (goodness), *beorhtnes* (brightness), *hālinʒnes* (holiness), *hereness* (praise), *swētnis* (sweetness), *unstilness* (disturbance), *nyttnes* (usefulness)

-ð, -uð, -oð – formed abstract nouns masculine and feminine gender from nouns and adjectives:
huntoð (hunting), *ʒeoʒuð* (youth), *fiscoð* (fishing), *ðȳfðð* (theft)

-ðu, -u formed feminine nouns from adjectives:
lenʒðu (length), *strengðu* (strength), *eormðu* (misery), *yrhðu* (cowardice)

A group of derivational morphemes used in Old English may be called semi- or half-suffixes: they originated from nouns and still preserve to some extent their original meaning (compare the status of *-man* in *policeman, spokesman, sportsman* etc.)

-dōm (the noun *dōm* meant 'doom') *frēodōm* (freedom), *wīsdōm* wisdom) *wōhdōm* (unjust judgment), *swīcdōm* (betrayal)

-lāc (the noun *lāc* meant 'gift, game') formed abstract nouns:
rēoflāc (robbery), *wedlāc* (wedlock) *scīnlāc* (fantasy, ghost – from *scīnan* – shine, appear), *wrohtlāc* (calumny)

-rǣden (the noun *rǣden* meant 'arrangement, agreement'):
frēondrǣden (friendship), *mannrǣden* (faithfulness); now we find it in such nouns as *hatered, kindred*

-scipe/scype (the verb *scieppan* meant 'to shape, create') formed abstract and collective nouns from noun stems:

hlāfordscipe (lordship), *frēondscipe* (friendship), *folcscipe* (people), *ðēodscype* (people, population), *ʒebēorscipe* (conviviality, festivity)

-hād (the original noun *hād* meant 'title, rank') formed abstract nouns from noun stems:
cildhād (childhood), *mæʒðhād* (maidenhood, virginity), *weoruldhād* (secular life)

While noun-forming suffixes might retain the stem within its former category simply adding some meaning to it, adjective-forming suffixes invariably change the part of speech appurtenance of the stem. They are very rarely if ever added to adjective-stems but form adjectives that represent some quality in relation to some notion which is expressed in a noun or a verb:

-ede (is related to Participle II suffix -d):
hōcede (hooked), *ðrīhēafdede* (three-headed)

-en: *ʒylden* (golden), *wyllen* (woolen), *hǣðen* (heathen)

-feald: *maniʒfeald* (manyfold), *ðrīefeald* (threefold)

-full: *sorhfull* (sorrowful), *carfull* (careful), *sinnfull* (sinful)

-iʒ: *hāliʒ* (holy), *mistiʒ* (misty), *busiʒ* (busy), *dysiʒ* (foolish, now dizzy), *syndriʒ* (sundry, separate)

-ihte: *ðyrnihte* (thorny), *stǣnihte* (stony)

-isc: *enʒlisc* (English), *Bryttisc* (British), *folcisc* (popular), *mennisc* (human)

-lās: *ʒelēaflās* (unbelieving), *slǣplās* (sleepless), *griðlās* (defenceless)

-līc: *frēondlīc* (friendly), *luflīc* (full of love), *ʒēarlīc* (yearly), *dēadlīc* (deadly), *ǣnlīc* (unique), *eʒeslīc* (terrible), *ʒerisenlīc* (cheerful), *ʒodcundlīc* (divine), *ʒrimlīc* (grim), *heofonlīc* (heavenly), *hrēowlīc* (grievous), *cūðlīc* (certain)

-sum: *sibbsum* (peaceful), *hīersum* (obedient)

Adverb-forming suffix ***-e*** was usually added to adjective stems; this was a productive way of word-building: *wīd – wīde* (wide – widely), *lanʒ – lanʒe* (long – for a long time), *fæst – fæste* (firm, fast – firmly), *lustfullīc – lustfullīce* (willing – willingly), *fæstlīc – fæstlīce* (steadfast – steadfastly), *sōðlīc – sōðlīce* (true – truly), *lahlīc* (lawful) – *lahlīce* (lawfully)

Verbs were formed by adding the suffix ***-an/ian, -ettan*** to noun, adjective and adverb stems, sometimes this process was accompanied by adding prefixes: *hālȝa* (saint) – *hālȝian* (consecrate); *ȝehīersum* (obedient) – *ȝehīersumian* (obey), *clǣne* (clean) – *clǣnsian* (to cleanse), *lāð* (hate, injury) – *lāðettan* (to hate), *hāl* (whole, healthy) – *hālettan* (to greet, to wish health), *wyrse* (worse) – *wyrsian* (worsen), *yfel* (bad) – *yfelian* (worsen).

Prefixes

The use of prefixes in Old English was a productive way of forming new words, and their number exceeds that of prefixes in modern times. They were especially frequent with the verbs

ȝān – go
ā-ȝān – go away
be-ȝān – go round
fore-ȝān – precede
ofer-ȝān – traverse
ȝe-ȝān – go, go away

settan – to place
ā-settan – to place
be- settan – to appoint
for- settan – to obstruct
fore- settan – to place before
ȝe- settan – to populate
of- settan – to afflict
on- settan – to oppress
tō- settan – to dispose
un- settan – to put down
wið- settan – to resist

Comparing the two sets of derivatives, one can see that the same prefix may add different shades of meaning to the stem. If such prefixes as *fore-* or *over-* are more or less transparent (their original prepositional meanings are preserved), one can hardly explain why are so different additional shades of meaning in the pairs *ȝān – be-ȝān* and *settan – besettan.* So the meaning of the prefix can be specified only in some cases, and as the same prefix may be added to several parts of speech, there is no point in classifying them along any line. Suffice it to say that the most frequent and important prefixes are:

ā- *ā-drincan* (to drown), *ātēon* (draw up), *ārīsan* (arise), *ābuȝan* (bow to), *āfandian* (examine), *āfōn* (receive), *āhelpan* (help), *āslacian* (become slack), *ādrǣfan* (drive out, exile)

æt- *ætflēon* (escape), *æthrihan* (touch), *ætsacan* (deny), *ætlutian* (hide from), *ætwītan* (reproach), *ætwindan* (escape from)

be- *becuman* (happen to), *bestri(e)pan* (bestrip, plunder), *betǣcan* (to show), *beswīcan* (to deceive), *beascian* (ask for advice), *bemetan* (measure), *bestelan* (steal away), *behatan* (promise)

ȝe- (perfective) *ȝewrītan* (write), *ȝesettan* (populate), *ȝewinnan* (winn), *ȝewendan* (proceed), *ȝewīfian* (marry), *ȝetwǣfan* (separate)

ȝe- (with nouns collective, abstract meaning) *ȝetrywð* (loyalty, troth), *ȝeðanc* (thought, mind), *ȝeweald* (power, control), *ȝebrōðor* (brothers; comp. Ukr. *брамма*), *ȝebǣro* (begaviour, bearing), *ȝelāc* (tumult, commotion), *ȝefeoht* (battle, fight), *ȝesyntu* (prosperity)

for- (adds the idea of destruction or loss) *fordōn* (destroy), *forniman* (take away), *forlǣtan* (leave), *forsēon* (overlook, neglect), *forierman* (reduce to poverty), *forbærnan* (burn up), *forbēodan* (forbid), *forbuȝan* (avoid), *forcuman* (overcome), *forhabban* (abstain from)

in- *inbrinȝan* (bring in), *inbryrdnis* (inspiration), *indūfan* (dive in), *inȝanȝ* (entrance, beginning), *inȝeðanc* (hidden thought),

mis- (negative) *mislīcian* (to dislike), *misbēodan* (to ill-use), *mislimpan* (to go wrong), *miscweðan* (curse), *mishieran* (disobey), *misðyncan* (give a wrong idea)

of- *ofslēan* (kill), *ofsceamian* (put to shame), *oftēon* (deprive), *ofðyncan* (displease), *ofunnan* (refuse to grant), *ofsprinȝ* (offspring)

ofer- (over) *ofersēon* (oversee), *ofercuman* (overcome), *oferstīȝan* (rise over), *oferfēran* (traverse)

on- *ondrǣdan* (to dread), *oncnāwan* (perceive), *onfindan* (discover), *onslǣpan* (fall asleep), *onstellan* (establish),

onlǣnan (lend), *onlihtan* (give light), *onsēon* (look on)

oð- *oðfeallan* (fall away), *oðflēon* (flee), *oðsacan* (deny), *oðwītan* (charge)

un- (negative) *uncūð* (unknown), *unforworht* (innocent), *unfrið* (enmity), *unlaȝu* (violations of law), *unlȳtel* (not little), *unscrȳdan* (undress), *uncrǣft* (evil practice), *undǣd* (evil deed), *unȝylde* (excessive tax), *unrīm* (countless), *unriht* (injustice), *unweder* (storm, bad weather)

under- *underȝietan* (understand), *underfōn* (receive), *underðēodan* (subject to), *undersceotan* (intercept)

ūt- (out) *utrīdan* (ride out), *ūtræsan* (rush out)

wið- *wiðcweðan* (reply), *wiðȝrīpan* (grapple), *wiðmetan* (compare), *wiðascan* (refuse), *wiðhabban* (resist), *wiðscorian* (refuse)

Composition

The essence of composition as syntactic word-building is in making a new word from two or more stems. The number of compound words in Old English is significant, some of them were periphrastic nominations for some common notions and form special stylistic devices in epic poems (kennings)

The most common patterns are:

N +N *āc-trēo* (oak tree), *stān-brycȝ* (stone-bridge), *bōc-crǣft* (literature), *ælmesȝifu* (alms, charity), *ælmesriht* (right of receiving alms), *folclaȝu* (public law), *hwælhunta* (whalehunter), *cradocild* (a child in cradle, infant), *sǣman* (seaman), *wintertīd* (winter time), *horshwæl* (walrus)

Adj+N *cwicseolfor* (quicksilver), *ȝōd-dǣd* (good deed), *Westsǣ* (Western sea), *wīd- weȝ* (wide road), *ealdorbisceop* (high priest), *ealdorman* (noble man) *eald-ȝesīð* (old companion), *hræd-wyrde* (hasty of speech), *swȳð-ferhð* (bold, rash)

N + V *lustfullian* (rejoice)

V+N *bæc-hūs* (bakery)

N+Adj/PII *wīn-sǣd* (drunk, satiated with wine), *bealo-hydiȝ* (evil-minded), *feorh- sēoc* (mortally wounded), *ȝilp-hlæden* (full of praise) *hrim-ceald* (frost-cold), *ealdor-lanȝ* (age-long), *sumor-lanȝ* (summer-long)

Adj + Adj *heard-sǣliȝ* (unfortunate)

PII + N *bolȝen-mōd* (having an angry mind)

Adv + V *æfterfulȝan* (follow, come after), *underbæc* (behind)

There are compounds made from three and ever more stems; they may have derivative morphemes too:

ryhtfæderencyn (ryht+fæderen-cyn) direct paternal ancestry, *ryhtnorðanwind* (*ryht+norðan+wind*) good wind from the north.

Among the compound words there are a lot of poetic metaphoric circumlocutions called **kennings**. Some notions, such as battle, warrior, had a great number of such periphrastic nomination (synonymic group of *warrior*, for instance had 37 such nomination only in "Beowulf"). Some examples of such words are: *ȝār-berend* (spear-carrier), *ȝār-wiȝa* (spear warrior), *sweord-freca* (sword-hero), *ȝūð-beorn* (battle warrior), *ȝūð-freca* (battle hero), *ȝūð-rinc* (man of war, warroir), *maȝo-rinc* (relative warrior), *ȝūð-wine* (war friend), *lind-hæbbend* (shield owner), *hilde-dēor* (battle beast), *rondhæbbend* (shield-owner), *ȝūð-hafoc* (battle hawk), *hildemecȝ* (battle man), *here-rinc* (army hero), *dōm-ȝeorn* (eager for fame), *byrn-wiȝa* (armour-clad warrior) and many others.

Other notions that had synonymous kennings are:

human body: *bān-cofa* (bone chamber), *bān-hūs* (house of bones) *bān-loca* (bone-enclosure), *līc-hāma* (body-home), *flǣsc-hām* (home for flesh), *ferhð-loca* (spirit-enclosure);
battle: *wǣpen-ȝewrixl* (weapon-exchange), *ȝār-mittunȝ* (encounter of spears), *cumbol-ȝehnast* (collision of banners);
sea: *seȝl-rād* (sail road), *laȝu-flōd* (water flood), *laȝu-lād* (water way)

Semantic word-building is actually a metaphoric extension of meaning of a word to name something other, similar to original word in some respects. Here belong:

mūð (mouth, part of human face) → (Humbra) *mūð* (mouth, part of the river, here Humber)
wendan (to turn) → *wendan* (to translate)
weorc (work) → *weorc* (fortress) etc.

Middle English

Traditionally it is considered that the Middle English period begins from the year 1066, the most significant event in English history, the event that changed the official, prevalently Germanic language of the population into a colloquial tongue, an adulterated with numerous borrowings and utterly spoiled and pigionized vernacular, which had to lead continuously and strenuously struggle to survive, and when it at last re-emerged as an official state language it was changed beyond recognition. Much can be said about the reasons and the processes that took place in this period, and historical background, of course, is of paramount importance to understand why it happened. A brief survey of historic events of the period is needed, to get a better understanding of the linguistic consequences of these events.

The event that preceded the Norman conquest and paved the way to it was the Scandinavian invasion. This event is probably less memorable, yet it prepared the ground for further changes in the society as well as in the language.

Scandinavians (then simply Danes, for Swedish, Norse, Danish in those times simply were not yet discerned within the language commonly known as Old Norse) were old rivals of the English, and were troubling Anglo-Saxons ever since their settlement on the Isles. They occasionally raided into their territory, looted the monasteries, and in many respects interfered with the life of the local population. Through the so-called Wedmore peace treaty King Alfred of Wessex in 878 yielded a considerable part of the country to economic control of the Danes so that the latter could come and levy taxes from the population; the territory was called Danelaw and in the long run this rather shameful treaty contributed to the peaceful and happy life of the Southern part of the country, and the majority of written monuments of Anglo-Saxon culture are dated back to those happy years. Chronicles, translations of Latin works on geography, the beginnings of grammar, numerous religious texts and finally the very text of the most significant epic poem, *Beowulf*, are dated back to the years of King Alfred and the Danelaw. The Scandinavians, for their part, not only came to collect money but comprehended that the very territory of the islands was much more suitable for living and economic activity and moved and settled there. They mixed with the local population, and without much effort penetrated into that community which was to become the basis for the English nation. Their languages were similar, so mutual understanding was not specifically difficult, only some simplification was

needed as is usual when languages differ in particulars – these particulars, i.e. endings and other unnecessary details might be omitted without significant effort. Yet as time passed, the English kings were less and less apt to recognise the Wedmore accords, and the Scandinavians, that had already tasted the advantages of these territories grew more intent on getting still more, and the onslaughts were resumed. They resulted in the 1013 Scandinavian invasion of King Sweyn, and the additional almost 30 years of Scandinavian rule. King Sweyn started the process, and in 1016 his son Canute (or Knut) became the ruler of England. The invasion was not utterly ferocious; of course there were victims and many people were killed, but seeing that there was no prospect for further resistance, king Aetherled fled to Normandy, and the whole country was controlled by the Scandinavians.

The invaders came with their families, intermarried and intermixed with the local population, and finally were absorbed ethnically and linguistically by it; the relations between the languages was considerably equal, and the influence of the Scandinavian on the English language was moderate.

Morphologically it resulted in reduction or levelling of endings which were different in the two languages (compare *fiskr – fisc; dæʒ – dagr; ʒrīpan – gripa; sittan – sitia*), and the loss of the category of gender whatsoever for the same words might have different genders in the two languages (compare *собака, стень, боль, живопись, рукопись, корь, посуда* which are feminine in Russian while their Ukrainian counterparts are masculine: *собака, стен, біль, живопис, рукопис, кір, посуд*). Both languages had agreement of adjectives and pronouns with the nouns they modified, and so not to think about the endings (*стен широкий чи широка, біль сильний чи сильна*) unsophisticated speakers simply dropped the endings, thus extinguishing a whole category from the language. The same is true about the use of prepositions – the parallel may be given from Ukrainian life, where so many high-ranking officials are still using *дякую вас* – so we can easily understand the Old English or Old Norse who got puzzled as to what preposition to use – *much to do* or *much at do*; hence some came to be used as a variant, some fell into disuse or changed their meaning (*to fight with* is quite O.K, but *to be in love with* – that is quite an innovation in the English language of Middle English period). The lexical borrowings of this period came equally in many spheres of life and sometimes they denoted some things really absent in the Old English. Perhaps *windāʒe* – window was a specific oval kind of an opening in the dwelling that only the Scandinavians knew, or *feologa – fellow* – that was a kind of specific

relations between people when they shared common property and conducted some economic activity jointly. These were not originally found in the English society, but borrowing of the others cannot be accounted for reasonably: *lagu – law; wrang – wrong; husbonda – husband, casten – to cast, taken – to take, skye – sky.*

So, during the invasion such words were borrowed from the Old Norse as *they, them, their; ill, ugly, ransake; skate, sky, skirt, skill, skin, scatter, egg, give, guess, guest.* Old English words *ʒiefan, ʒietan, æʒ, ʒiest* thus were dropped and replaced by Scandinavian borrowings; such words as *shirt* coexists with *skirt, shatter* with *scatter, shin* with *skin*; but the words now are different in meaning.

Sometimes it was only new meaning from the Scandinavian that replaced the original meaning of an Old English word: *dream* that meant *joy* acuired the meaning *dream* in a *sleep*; *holm*, formerly *ocean* acuired the meaning *island, plōh* changed from *cultivated land* to *plough*; *deyen (to die)* was borrowed and Old English verb that had that meaning *steorfan* acquired a new meaning of *to starve.*

So, the English language of the period that preceded the Norman conquest was significantly changed and simplified, and the drastic changes that followed fell onto the prepared linguistic soil.

The very Conquest was also to some extent the result of 30 years exile of the English kings following the conquest.

As is known from history, after the Scandinavian conquest the English king joined his sister who was married to a Norman Duke in Normandy, and his son Edward the Confessor was brought up in the French environment. The English court enjoyed Norman hospitality, and Edward, who was childless constantly reminded William Duke of Normandy, that after his death the only legitimate heir to the English crown was just he, William as the next in line. When in 1042 the Anglo-Saxon Barons who remained in England managed to oust the Scandinavians, according to the custom of period it was Edward who regained the rule in England, though he himself did little to do it. On his return, he brought many councillors of French origin, and the language Edward knew much better than English was French; it was spoken in the English court even before the Normans. The Anglo-Saxon barons among whom was the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex, however, controlled a significant part of the territory and hoped that after the Edward's death power would pass to one of them, and when Edward died in 1066, they elected Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William the Duke was simply

enraged, and mustered a big army by promising lands and positions to his mercenaries – only one third of his soldiers were Normans, the others were from other parts of France and Europe in general; William had the support of the Pope as well. His army crossed the English Channel and on October 14 at the battle of Hastings, 1066, routed the English army, that was smaller and had to guard the northern areas from the recently driven out Scandinavians. King Harold was killed, and William proceeded to London where the Witenagamot officially proclaimed him the King. On Christmas Day, 1066 his coronation took place in the Westminster Abbey. It took him several years to subjugate the whole country; and this process was marked by almost complete extinction of the old Anglo-Saxon nobility (he had promised lands, posts and estates, so the previous owners of these had to die or disappear). Practically all Archbishops and Barons were either killed in action, executed or emigrated leaving to the Normans whatever they had. William himself became the owner of one-third of the lands in the country, and Norman castles of the period are scattered all over England. He had some difficulties in managing the country; it was much easier for the native barons to collect taxes from the peasants they knew and whose language they spoke. So in 1086 William organised the great census – the Doomsday book was written registering the English population (in turned out to be about 2 mln?). He was the ruler of Normandy as well, and his domain was situated on the continent as well as on the island.

Following the Conquest many other Normans crossed the channel, and enlarged the population of England. The approximate number of French settlers was about 200 000. After the Civil war in the reign of king Stephen 1135–1154 new settlers made use of the anarchy in the country and seized the remaining lands. They spoke French, which, though had some peculiarities – it was, in fact, the language learned by the ethnic Germanic tribe of *norðmonna* that settled in that part of Europe yet in the 9th century. For almost three centuries the French language was the official language of the English kingdom; it was the language of the royal court, the church, courts of law, army and the castle. Education, as it was mainly controlled by the church was also in French, though the Latin language was traditionally also taught.

Towns and cities spoke French, and English was debased to the speech of common churls from the country; it was mainly spoken and mutilated beyond recognition by the efforts of mutual understanding of the uneducated peasants and uneducated French soldiers, and the French population in general. A good knowledge of French was the sign of higher standing and gave a person a certain social prestige. Probably, some considerable part of the

English population was already bilingual. A curious situation occurred when a nobleman was less expert in languages than common peasants. Several stories bear evidence that in some strained circumstances when a mighty bishop had to flee away from the anger of his sovereign Richard Cœr de Lion, he to his utter surprise found out that common people, addressing him in English could speak French and understand him, while he was unable to speak or understand their language.

Peace in the country was however rather hard to maintain. In 1203 John the Lackland lost the original possessions of the Norman Dukes in Normandy, and probably that led – first only very slightly – to the feeling of hurt pride and was the first stimulus to reinstating the English language. But it took decades for the first recognition of this language. It was not until 1258 that king Henry III let the language into official use – his famous Proclamation to the councillors in the parliament was written in three instead of the earlier two languages – French, Latin and English.

The three hundred years of French domination affected the English language enormously.

The first English kings after the Conquest did not know the English language; Henry IV, who succeeded Richard II on the throne in 1399, was the first king since Harold II whose mother tongue was English.

But still in mid-14 century (1362), under Kind Edward II the Parliament acting on the petition of the City of London ruled that the courts of law should conduct their business in English. In the same year English was first used in the Parliament itself. About this time French was replaced by English in schools.

Why didn't the English language die altogether? Why was it not absorbed into the dominant Norman tongue?

Three reasons are usually given

First – it was too well established, too vigorous, and too hardy to be obliterated. The English speakers, in spite of all, demographically prevailed, and they were not going to stop speaking it just because they were conquered.

Second – to quell the natural resentment of their English subjects the Normans, willy-nilly picked up some English to survive, and in this case the co-existence of the English and the Normans was more peaceful;

Third – king John, later called the Lackland, lost most of the English possessions in France; by 1206, Philip II of France had conquered Anjou, Normandy, and Brittany. That did not re-introduce English into official use, but the country was no longer territorially bilingual. French was the language

of the higher classes within the country the majority of the population of which was English-speaking.

There were other factors contributing to the revival of English. Among them the Hundred Years' War with France 1337–1454 (the name traditionally given to the Anglo-French conflicts that occurred between 1337 and 1453, but a more accurate set of dates would be the 150-year period from 1294 to 1444); an outbreak of mysterious disease known as The Black death that is estimated to have killed off from 25 percent to 50 percent of the European population between 1347 and 1351 (mainly those that lived in cities, and in England that was the French-speaking part). The people that came later to the cities and towns from the rural territories brought with them their own, though much simplified and full of French borrowings, native English language.

Reduced population as a result of the Black Death (1349) made tenants and laborers scarce, encouraging impoverished peasants as well as prosperous artisans and urban workers to demand abolition of serfdom, an easing of the restrictions of the manorial courts, and repeal of the Statute of Labourers (1351), which aimed at imposing a maximum wage. Unrest peaked when a poll tax of a shilling a head was imposed (1380). Its collection sparked revolt simultaneously in Kent and Essex. Scared by the scale of the revolt and to pacify the rebels, King Richard II (then a boy) spoke to the peasants in English.

Linguistically speaking, William Caxton, the first English printer is one of the most remarkable personalities. He introduced the printing press around 1476; he was the first editor-publisher, printing the works of G. Chaucer. W. Caxton's decision to reproduce the English of London and the South-east was crucial. He and his successors gave a special currency to London English.

The effects of the French language on the Middle English are hard to overestimate. The changes in spelling that took place in that period laid the basis for present-day English spelling, a great number of words came into the language and the majority of them are still used, fully assimilated and no longer perceived as borrowings, The English grammar was much simplified. The language under Norman rule lost its natural immunity to foreign influence, the nationalistic spirit guarding the purity of the language was muffled, which made the language more liberal, more tolerant to variation and more flexible.

And yet despite the many French loanwords, English remained English, not a dialect of French. English grammar, as opposed to vocabulary, remained virtually unaffected by French, and grammatical developments that had begun much earlier during Anglo-Saxon times continued without interruption through

the Conquest. Even today it is still obvious that the grammatical structure of English resembles that of German far more than it resembles that of French.

It is at that time that English surnames, family names appeared. In Old English it was enough to be called Aethelred, son of Alfred. First, this was reduced to the suffix – son: Johnson, Thompson; then place names came into use, then occupation; if a person was a foreigner then his nationality might become a surname.

Writings in Middle English

The language existed in the form of several dialects.

The Southern group of dialects represented by the descendants of Kentish, west and East Saxon dialects of Old English. The following literary documents exemplify it: South-Eastern, or Kentish:

Dan Michel's "*Ayenbite of inwit*" (Remorse of Conscience) 1340;

William of Shoreham's "*Poems*" (early 14th century);

"*Poema morale*" (anonymous) early 13 th c.

South-Western: Layamon's "*Brut*" (it contains elements of the Midland dialect, too) 13 c.

"*Ancren Riwle*" (Statute for Nuns) 13

Robert of Gloucester's "*Rhymed Chronicle*" ab. 1300

John Trevisa's "*Polychronicon*", translation from Latin 1387

Midland, or central dialects are subdivided into:

West Midland, where the best known literary works are:

"*William of Palerme*" (romance, early 13 c)

"*Sir Gawaine and the Green Knight*" (14c.),

and East Midland, where such works were written as

Peterborough Chronicle (a sequel to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle)

Robert Mannyng of Brunne's "*Handlyng Synne*" – about 1300

"*King Horn*" romance 13 c.

"*Havelock the Dane*" – 13 c.

metric homilies of Orm "*Ormulum*" 13 c.

Genesis, Exodus (religious poems) 13 c.

The dialect of London belonged to the same group of Midland dialects, and is also represented by a group of works: the *Proclamation* by Henry III

1258, the earliest official document written in Middle English, the poem "*Evil Times of Edward II*", Adam Davy's "*Poems*" dated by early 14th century.

But real masterpieces of the period written in London dialect are the works of J. Gower and G.Chaucer. The poems of John Gower (1330–1408), a poet whose work, although largely neglected today, was once favorably compared with that of his friend Geoffrey Chaucer were very popular. Gower wrote in Latin and French, but his masterpiece is the long poem in English, "*Confessio Amantis*" (1390). Mixing medieval learning with classical stories often taken from the Latin poet Ovid, it discusses the Seven Deadly Sins and also develops the theme of courtly love with considerable rhetorical skill and delicacy.

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400), is recognized as one of England's greatest poets. Modern study of the setting of his art has made clear that in his work there is a range of subtlety surpassing that of all other medieval writers, with the exception of Dante Alighieri. He is best remembered for *The Canterbury Tales*. But his contribution to language development and English literature is not limited to it. He was an able translator, having a good command of three languages (Latin, French and Italian); he did much to bring the masterpieces of world literature to the English reader. His earliest models were probably French, the culture most familiar to the English court. A surviving copy of a partial translation of "*Le Roman de la Rose*" may be his; Chaucer claims to have translated that most influential poem, and echoes of it abound in much that he wrote. He also translated (1380) a number of meditative Latin works whose terms had been, and would increasingly become, important in his own artistic terminology: Boethius's "*Consolation of Philosophy*;" Pope Innocent III's "*On the Misery of the Human Condition*", the translation of which is lost but survives in part in the Canterbury Tales in the "*Man of Law's Tale*;" and "*A Life of Saint Cecilia*" from the "*Golden Legend*". He may also have translated a condensed French version of part of the "*Book of Consolation and Counsel*" by Albertanus of Brescia, which appears as the "*Tale of Melibeus*" in "*The Canterbury Tales*".

At about the same time Chaucer also wrote or began to write a satirical dream-vision, "*The Parliament of Fowls*" (1382), "*The Legend of Good Women*", an unfinished series of nine so-called lives of Cupid's saints like Cleopatra and Dido, and "*Troilus and Criseyde*". "*Troilus and Criseyde*", a penetrating and humane "tragedy" in five books and more than 8,200 lines in rhymed royal stanzas, is often called the finest of all medieval romances.

Between 1386 and his death Chaucer sought to complete *The Canterbury Tales*, an undertaking which, in its final form, would have presented 30 tellers and tales within a unified dramatic and philosophical design. Twenty-four tales, a few of them incomplete, were written. They range from the lofty to the scurrilous. Chaucer made consummate use of all the intellectual and poetic possibilities of his day and expanded them. He subtly adapted language and perspectives to his individual tellers and thus established a model for Shakespeare and the Elizabethan dramatists.

Chaucer's generous good humor, wit, and ability to tell a good story well have always been recognized. Today he is generally recognized, in addition, as a highly sophisticated intellectual writer who incorporated into his poetry the major philosophical and artistic concerns of his age. He did so with an apparent ease achieved by no other English poet before Shakespeare.

The Northern dialects developed from Old English Northumbrian. In the Middle English such works as Richard Rolle de Hampole's "*The Pricke of Conscience*" (14 c.), *Townley Plays* (14 c.) and *York Plays* (early 15 c.) appear in this dialect.

Scotland, separate though closely related with the English state at that time, developed a distinct dialect of English – Lowland Scots that has been significant as a literary language since the time of John Barbour's *Bruce* (1375) and the works of the 15th-century Scottish Chaucerians Gawin Douglas, Robert Henryson, and William Dunbar, whose poetry was notable for its satirical and epic qualities and its richness of language.

John Barbour, (1316–1395), is often considered Scotland's first identifiable poet. While archdeacon of Aberdeen (1357–95) he wrote the national epic romance "*The Bruce*" (1375). This work, based largely on fact, celebrates Scotland's victory under King Robert the Bruce over the English at the Battle of Bannockburn (1314).

There was no general standard in spelling as well in as in choice of words and grammatical forms, but the London dialect as that of the political center of the country gradually develops into the prevailing and officially recognized.

The material for analysis chosen in our study will be limited to the samples from Geoffrey Chaucer's works as the most representative of the general line of the language development.

Changes in the System of Spelling

French graphic habits were introduced, and marking the sounds became more European in form, no alien letters hampered reading because all the letters were exclusively Latin. Specifically English sounds, earlier marked by letters specific only for the English language were replaced by digraphs.

ȝ, ð and *wynn* were replaced by Latin letters.

ȝ – g
ȝod – god
ȝān – goon
ȝ – y
ȝreȝ – grey
ȝēar – year

(In some cases phonetic changes led to the use of other letters, the *folȝian – folwen* is due to sound, and not purely spelling change; the same is true of the letter *æ* – it fell into disuse because the very sound developed into some other sounds).

The sound *dȝ* marked by cȝ was also rendered by *g* or *dg – singe, bridge*. In French borrowings the same sound was marked according to the French tradition by *j – judge, June*.

The letter *v* was introduced to mark voiced fricative (it was its allograph *u* first, hence the name of the letter *w*).

the letter *q* always accompanied by *u* is introduced to denote either the consonant *k* or the cluster *kw – quay; quarter, queen*.

z is intrcoduced to denote the corresponding sound in some cases *Zephyrus, zel (zeal)*; but in traditional *chesen* it was not.

Spelling habits affected unambiguous cases.

Long *ū* was replaced by digraph *ou*, in the French tradition: *hūs – hous, mūs – mous ūt – out*; it was found in French words: *trouble, couch*; in final position, and occasionally in medial it was *ow*: *hū – how; cū – cow, dūn – down*.

In some cases the sound *u* came to be represented by *o*, especially when it stood neighbouring the letters with many vertical lines *lufu – loue; cumen – comen* etc.

Long sound *ō* is now rendered by *oo*: *fōt, toð → foot, tooth*

Long Old English *ē* was marked either by a digraph *ee* mētan – mete, meete (to meet) or turned into *ie; feld – field; ðēof – thef – thief* (like French *chief, relief*)

The consonant ð gave way to digraph *th → ðæt, ðū, ðrēo → that thou three;*

The sibilant [tʃ] formerly rendered by *c* before or after front vowels was replaced by a digraph *ch: cild, cēosan, hwilc → child, chesen, which* (the same sound was found in the words *chambre, chair,* taken from French);

The sound [dʒ] of various origin is marked by the letters *j, g, dg – courage, joy, bridge.*

The sound [ʃ] , formerly rendered by *sc* is rendered by the combinations *sh* and *sch: scip, fisc, sceal → ship, fish, schal.*

The sound [k] rendered by *c* before consonants is rendered by *k – cnāwan – knowen; cniht – knight.*

Middle English Phonology

For various reasons – who knows what was the primary and what was the secondary reason of the most fundamental changes in Middle English language structure, the first change in the phonological system to be mentioned is the levelling of sounds – vowels in the unstressed syllables. As we know, Old English had a fixed stress on the first syllable so not only the final, but also middle sounds in polysyllabic words tend to change various sounds to one neutral sound *shwa*, marked as *e*. In Old English at the end of the words we might find whatever sound: *cara, caru care* – now all the forms merged into one *care*; in this way we may say that the paradigm was simplified; at the same time in verbs various endings also merged into a single sound form – *wrītan, writen, writon – writen; wrītað, wrīteð* – to *writeth*. Final sounds *m* and *n* are pronounced indistinctly in such forms and are also on the way to being lost altogether: *carum, stānum – care, stone*. Final *n* was either pronounced or not depending on the following sound – and so we have variants in some forms (the form of the infinitive *writen – write*).

In the unstressed syllables of the verb forms most frequent is the case that it was preserved in the forms of the participle, and tended to be lost in the infinitive; but even in the participles it was lost if the root of the word already had a nasal sound (*binden – bound – bounden* – later simply *bound*; exceptions are possible, and in present day English we have cases of variant forms of the participles, say *got – gotten* (Br.-Am.); but always *forgotten).*

The same phenomenon is seen in the numeral *ān* (one) that became an indefinite article *(a)* in present-day-English, and in possessive pronouns *mine* and *thine* that have forms *my* and *thy* if they are not followed by a noun that begins with a vowel.

With the stressed vowels the situation was different. Here we may mention the general tendency as well as the behaviour of various individual vowels.

First of all, there were quantitative changes in vowels. 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 phonetic environment only short vowels are possible; in the other the vowels are invariably long. Thus quantity becomes a positional characteristic of a sound.

First, a long vowel before two consonants (including a geminated consonant marking a long consonant sound) is shortened; 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. (*mǣste, lǣst →* *most; least*)

Compare: OE *cēpan – cēpte* ME *kepen, kepe – kept;* OE *fēdan – fēdde* – ME *feed – fed*

In the 13th century short vowels were lengthened in the open syllables. This lengthening affected the short vowels *a, o, e. cāru – care* became similar to words formerly having short vowel: *talu – tale. u* and *i* mainly remained unaffected.

Individual vowels

The most significant change was monophthongization of Old English diphthongs. The sounds that appeared as a result of this process were not new to the English language – they simply coincided with the sounds that already existed in the language, in many cases returning the vowel to its previous quality, which was changed in the course of breaking, diphthongization after palatal consonants, and mutations

short *ea → æ → a*

heard – hard
earm – arm
healf – half
eall – all

short *eo → e* closed *(ę)*

heorte – herte (heart)
steorfan – sterven (starve)
heofon – heven (heaven)
feoll – fell (fell)

short *ie* almost invariably changed to *i* or *e*

nieht – niht (night)

hierde – herde (shepherd)

Long diphthongs behaved a little differently. The changes were as follows:

ǣa → æ: → ɛ: (this sound might be represented by the letters *e, ea*)

ēast – ɛ:st (east, est)

dēad – dɛ:d (dead, dede)

ēo → e:

dēop – deep (deep)

sēon – sene, see (see)

Individual sounds

æ → a

ðæt – that

æfter – after

fæst – fast

(that *æ* came in Old English from common Germanic *a*, a kind of a pendulum-like movement of sounds is observed).

ǣ → ɛ: (open)

strǣt – street

dǣl – deal

sǣ – sea

Thus we may see that merging of sounds as a result of monophthingization of long and short diphthongs and the development of *æ* occurs

ēā, ǣ – ɛ: open

ea, æ – a (short)

While long *eo* merged with long open *e* (found mainly in the open syllables) and short *eo* with short closed *e* (in the closed syllables).

Other important changes are:

long *ā* turned into long *ɔ:*

stān – stɔ:ne (stone)

hām – hɔ:me (home)

ʒān – gɔ:n (goon, go)

long and short *y* gave *i* in the north and east

u in the west

e in the south west

fyllan – fillen (to fill)

dyde – dide (did)

brycʒ – bridge

In some cases not only a north-eastern variant was accepted, but also southern, or western; sometimes it was reflected only in spelling

bysiʒ – busy, business

byriʒean – burien (bury)

myriʒe – mery (merry)

So, all in all the system of vowels contained short *i, e* closed, *ɛ* open, *a, o* and *u* which developed

i – from Old English

i – hit – it

y – fyllan – fillen (to fill)

ie – ʒiefan – yiven (to give)

e – from Old English

e – helpan – helpen (to help)

eo – heorte – herte (to heart)

a – from Old English

a – abbod – abbot

a(o) – man – man

æ – ðæt – that

ea – heard – hard

o – from Old English

a(o) – lanʒ – long

o – ofer – over

u – from Old English

u – sunu – son

The origin of Old English long vowels looks like the following:

i: – from Old English

ī – wrītan – wrīten

ȳ fȳr – fire

i before *old, nd, mb*

cild – child

e: closed – from Old English

ē – dēman – deemen (to deem)

long *ēo dēor – deer*

short *e – feld – field*

ɛ: open from Old English

long *ǣ – sǣ – sea*

long *ēa bēatan – beaten* (to beat)

short *e* in the open syllable

mete – meat

a: could not go back to the corresponding long vowel in Old English, as it changed into open long *ɔ:*, but there was one out of *a* short in the open syllables:

talu – tale

nama – name

ɔ: open resulted from Old English *ā:*

stān – stone

āc – oak

o: closed from Old English long *ō:*

dōn – doon

ȝōs – goose

short *o* followed by lengthening group of consonants

wolde

New diphthongs appeared in Middle English as a result of the changes in the consonant system of the language.

The changes in consonants were as follows:

k' – [tʃ] marked by *ch*

cild – child

cin – chyn, chin

sk' – [ʃ] marked by *sh* (the process began in Old English but was completed in Middle English)

sceal –shall

scip – ship

ȝ' – [*j*]

ȝēar – yeer, year

dæȝ – day

ȝræȝ – grey

cȝ – [ʤ]

hrycȝ – ridge

brycȝ – bridge

h at the beginning of the word was lost in clusters *hr, hl, hn, hw*

hrinȝ – ring

hrycȝ – ridge

hrōf – roof

hlāf – loaf

hlysten – listen

hnutu – nut

hwæt – what (the fate of the sound in these combinations however is much more complicated, and in stressed position *who, whose* from *hwa, hwæs* it did not disappear at all)

The sound γ (marked by *ȝ*) in the intervocal position vocalised and turned into *w*, which led to the following diphthongs:

aȝ – aw(au) draȝan – drawen

āȝan – owen thus coinciding with the already existing

ȝrāwan – ȝrowen

æȝ – [*aɪ*] marked by *ai, ay*

dæȝ – day

læȝ – lay

eȝ – [*eɪ*] marked by *ei, ey*

weȝ – wey,

seȝl – seil, sail

The combinations *ȝ* + vowel lead to long vowels:

iȝ, yȝ – i:

tiȝele – tile

iȝel – ile (hedgehog)

ryȝe – rie, rye

uȝ – u: (marked by *ou, ow*)

fuȝol – foul (bird)

buȝan – bowen

In combination with liquids (*l* and *r*) new diphthongs appeared:

lȝ, rȝ – lw,rw [ʊu] and [au]

sorȝian – sorwen, sorrow

folȝian – folwen, follow

ȝalȝe – galwe, gallows

Alongside the changed English sounds Middle English had a number of French unassimilated sounds nature, nasal *a, e, o* and *u*, the consonant *j*. Their fate was to assimilate later *joy, nature, simple, entren, abandoun*, – the words with French sounds we have in present day-English are the borrowings from later periods.

Middle English Morphology

The changes in morphology are closely related to changes in the sound system. As the inflections in all parts of speech were placed at the end of the word, they invariably were pronounced in a reduced form and disappeared altogether. So the paradigms of all parts of speech were to great extent simplified, and many forms were lost altogether.

The changes in the nominal system where the changes were the most significant.

Middle English Noun

Old English complex classification of nouns was based on differences in declension, in endings that were added to them in various forms; as the endings were levelled, 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; it had grounds. What were the possible endings of all the classes of nouns? If we have a look into the Old English nominal paradigms, we'll see that the plural ending originally were:

-as (of the a-stems masculine, r-stems masculine)
0 (*a*-stems neuter, some *r*-stems)
-u (neuter a-stems, i-stems, –s stems, some r-stems)
-a (o-stems, u-stems)
-e (masculine i-stems, some root stems)
-an (*n*-stems).

Due to the reduction of the unstressed vowels all these came to
-es
-0
-e or -0
-en

So finally we have *-es* (for the majority of nouns, which becomes the rule), *-en*, which becomes a competing ending, and a group of conservative nouns retain the vowel interchange. Ending *-es* was invariably added to form the plural

form of numerous borrowings, both from French and from Scandinavian origin) (*two felawes; the chambres and the stables; fresshe floures*)

Several nouns (former belonging to root stems) however retain their Old English plural with the mutated vowel (such as *man – menn, foot – feet, goos – geese* etc.;) – these were more frequently used than those that changed their ending to -es (*book – bookes, ook* (oak) *– ookes).* Some former -n-stems still retain their suffix as a marker of the plural form. So in Chaucer's works we find the following plurals (here and later on the examples are given from his *Canterbury Tales)*:

Thou seist, that *oxen, asses, hors, and houndes*...(you see that oxen, asses, horses and hounds...);

from hise *eyen* ran the water doun... (from his eyes the water ran down);

to looken up with *eyen* lighte (to look up with light eyes)

The nouns naming some domestic animals (former *-a-* stems neuter gender with long root vowel) such as *sheep, swyn, hors* retained their old uninflected plurals. The plural of *child* developed in a unique way – it retained its suffix of the former *-s-* stems (it was *-r-* through rhotacism) and additionally got the *-en* suffix – *children.*

As smale *children* doon in hir childhede (as small children do in their childhood)

Case

The number of cases was reduced from Old English four to two, the Nominative and the Genitive. In Old English the nouns in the Genitive case had the following endings in the singular:

-es (a-stems and masculine and neuter nouns from other groups)
-e (*o*-stems, *i*-stems, root-stems)
0 – (*r*-stems)
-a (*u*-stems)
-an (*n*-stems)

The ending *-es* of the a-stems nouns, which were the most numerous group, becomes predominant; it irradiates not only to the singular but also to the plural. So all the other groups of nouns now take this ending in the Genitive. The very nature of the Genitive case is almost unchanged, it has the same functions as that of the Old English noun, and practically all nouns can be used in this form. The plural of nouns was formed by adding the same ending, so in the long run it began to be perceived as the ending rendering both meanings. Several nouns that had other plural endings took this ending after

their own ending of the plural. So, in Middle English only some nouns have a distinct paradigm of four forms:

man – menn
mannes – mennes
nama – namen
names – (namene) names

In other cases the context resolved the ambiguity:
he hadde a fyr-reed *cherubynnes* face (he had fire-red cherub's face)
at the *kynges* court (at the king's court)
His *lordes* sheep (his lord's sheep)
a *wydwes* sone (a widow's son)
waspes nest (wasps' nest)
dayes light (day's light)
sette the *foxes* tayles alle on fire (and set the foxes' tails all on fire)
at his *beddes* heed (at the head of his bed)

The Article

A new part of speech appears – the article. Even in Old English, when the case endings were scarce, and in some groups of nouns there were no longer distinctive markers of this or that case (for instance *suna* was the form of the Genitive and the Dative in Singular, and Nominative, Genitive and Accusative in the Plural). The demonstrative pronoun *ðæt*, however still retained case distinctions. So the Genitive Singular was *ðæs suna*, Dative Singular *ðæm suna*, Nominative Plural *ða suna*, Genitive Plural *ðara suna*, and Accusative plural *ðone suna*. In fact, the pronoun was the real marker of the case of the noun. This, probably led to overuse of the demonstrative pronouns in Old English, and to weakening of their deictic function. In Middle English this weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun which signalled only the definiteness of the noun, that is such as was already known or was mentioned before, was supplemented by the weakened form of the numeral *ān* (one) and now was used to render the meaning of indefiniteness, a person or thing unknown or unmentioned. This part of speech contains only two words – *the* from reduced *ðata* and *an*, from the numeral *ān*.

Middle English Adjective

The paradigm of the adjective in Middle English is simplified drastically. The endings become scarce. The category of gender is lost, for the nouns no longer have 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

the *younge* girles of the diocise (weak, plural) (the young girls of the diocese)
...the *yonge* sonne (weak singular) /Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne (The young sun has run half of its way in the constellation of Ram)
Two *yonge* knyghtes (strong plural) (two young knights)
Noght wiste he what this Latyn was to seye,
For he so *yong* and tendre was of age (strong singular) (He did not know how to speak Latin, for he was of young and tender age)
A *long* surcote of pers upon he hade (strong singular) (He had on / was dressed in/ a long perse surcoat)
The remenant of the tale is *long* ynough (strong singular) (the rest of the tale is long enough)
full *longe* were his legges and full lene (strong plural) (his legs were long and lean)
As *smale* children doon in hir childhede (as small children do in their childhood)
smale fowles maken melodie (small birds sing /make melody)
a voice he had as *smal* as has a goot (he had as small voice like that of a goat)
Hir mouth ful *smal*, and therto softe and reed (Her mouth was very small, and therefore soft and red)

But some of the adjectives had the very ending *-e* as a result of levelling of the vowels at the and, and so such adjectives as *grene* were already unchangeable; in the plural the strong and the weak forms also coincided.

The forms of the suffixes of the degrees of comparison were reduced to *-er, -est*

glad – gladder – gladdest
greet – gretter – grettest

His voys was *murier* (his voice was merrier...)

Hise nayles *whiter* than the lylye flour (His nails were whiter than the flower of a lily)

Lucifer, *brightest* of aungels alle (Lucifer, the brightest of all angels)

Some adjectives retained a mutated vowel they had had in Old English:

old – elder – eldest
long – lenger – lengest
strong – stregner -strengest

The *eldeste* lady of hem alle spak (the lady, the oldest of them all, spoke).

Some preserve former suppletivity, and their degrees of comparison look like this:

good – bettre – best
evil (bad) – werse – werst
muchel – more – most, mest
litel – lasse – lest

She may have *bettre* fortune than yow semeth (She may have better fortune that it seems to you)

I moot reherce
Hir tales alle, be they *bettre* or *werse* (I may recount all his tales, be they better or worse)

Some adjectives, especially of foreign origin, are found in a form that came into wider usage only later, that is they may be associated with the adverb *moore/most*

Crist, whan hym list, may sende me an heir
Moore agreable than this to my likynge (Christ, if his will, may send me an heir more agreeable than this to my liking)

Moore delicaat, moore pompous of array,
Moore proud was nevere emperour than he... (There never was an emperor more delicate, more pompous in clothing and more proud...).

Middle English Adverb

Adverbs in the Middle English period are changed phonetically, like all other parts of speech, yet there were some changes worth mentioning, too.

All primary adverbs existed in their slightly modified form – *theer* (there), *then, wher, eft* (again), *ofte* (often), *hider* (here to), *hider-to* (before now), *anon* (at once) etc. Very common are compound adverbs of the type *theroute, therwith, theof, therby.*

And chargen hir she never *eft* coome *theere* (and order her to come there never again)

Wommennes conseils been ful *ofte* colde (Women's advice very often is cold)

The hostiler answerde hym *anon* (the hosteler answered him at once)

Therto he was a good archeer (in addition, he was a good archer)

And *therwithal* he knew of mo proverbes
Than in this world ther growen gras or herbes (and, together with it he knew more proverbs that there grow grass or herbs in this world).

Secondary adverbs, formerly made from the adjectives by means of adding the suffix *-e* were also in use, but what with the levelling of the final vowel, were no longer distinct in the language, and a new phenomenon appeared – it started the so-called adverbial use of adjectives

Ful *loude* he soong 'com hider, love, to me' (he sang very loudly "love, come here to me"

And *softe* unto hym-self he seyde... (and softly /under his voice/he said to himself.

A word is to be said about the use of the adverb *ful* in the function of the intensifying adjectives. In Old English there was an adverb *swiðe*, the original meaning of which in Germanic languages was *strongly.* By the time English became a separate language it lost its former meaning and turned into a pure intensifier (such phenomena are characteristic of other languages, too – just compare it with colloquial use of the adverb *сильно* in Russian – *он сильно устал).* It is less common but still possible in Ukrainian too, though similar phenomenon may be seen with the adverb *страшенно* – вона *страшенно* добра). In Middle English it falls out of use and is replaced by *ful* in the function of an adverb:

Ful weel she soong the service dyvyne (she sang very well at divine service)

He was a lord *ful* fat (he was a lord very fat)

Ful longe were his legges, and *ful* lene (his legs were very long and very lean).

French borrowing *verray* (present-day *very*) was also in use, alongside with its use in the function an adjective in its original meaning (OF *verai* /F *vrai/ – true*).

Thise are the wordes that the markys sayde
To this benigne *verray* feithful mayde... (these are the words that the Marquis said to this benign very faithful maid...)

He was a *verray* parfit gentil knyght (he was a very perfect gentle knight).

More common are instances of the use of the word in its original meaning:

Hir herte is *verray* chambre of hoolynesse (her heart is a true chamber of holiness)

Thurgh which he may hise *verray* freendes see (through which he may see his true friends).

It is to be noted, that even in present-day English this original meaning is preserved, though this use is marked in the dictionaries as archaic (*the very image of his mother; the very fool* etc.)

At the same time there appears a new and very productive way of forming adverbs – adding the suffix *-ly*. The very suffix was not quite new. It goes back to Old English suffix *-lice*, but earlier it was limited in use. Now quite distinct adverbs were made this way. Native adjectives as well as borrowed took it freely, and such formations very soon become prevalent in the language.

And *shortly*, whan the sonne was to reste (and shortly, when the sun was to rest /at the sunset/)

And *gladly* wolde he lerne, and *gladly* teche (he would gladly learn and gladly teach)

And Frenssh she spak ful faire and *fetisly*... (And she spoke French very correct and nicely)

Now *certeinly* he was a fair prelaat! (Certainly, he was a good prelat)

There were practically no changes as far as the formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives are concerned. Like adjectives, adverbs took the suffix *-er* for the comparative and *-est* for the superlative degree (those that had mutated vowels and suppletive forms retained them), thus

coinciding in form with adjectives, and only their position in the sentence signalled their adverbial status

He knokked faste, and ay the *moore* he cried,
The *faster* shette they the dores alle (He knocked fast, and the more he cried, the faster they shut all the doors).

no *lenger* dorste he calle ... (he dared lo longer call...)

Whan he *leest* weneth, *sonnest* shal he falle (when he expects least, he will soonest fall).

Pronouns in Middle English

All pronouns in Middle English with the exception of the personal ones lose the categories of gender and case, some lose their number – that is, agreeing with nouns they simplified their paradigm according to the changes in the system of the noun. Personal pronouns seem to be the most conservative of all, their system suffered only slight changes.

The nominative case of personal pronouns however, was somewhat changed. The changes were not simultaneous in all dialects, nor were the changes systematic even with one author, but somehow we find the forms *I* or *ich*, with the growing frequency of the first variant, *thou* (just new spelling of Old English *ðū*), *he* (no visible changes); the feminine pronoun is found in variants *he/she*. The origin of the second form is said to be a mixture of the demonstrative pronoun *seo* + personal *heo*; probably the reason was that the phonetic changes in vowels made the diphthong *eo* develop in the same way as *e* of the masculine gender. So that was a good way to avoid ambiguity, since unlike with the nouns, with the personal pronouns the category of gender makes sense; living beings had to be distinguished on the basis of their sex. Neuter *hit* is gradually reduced to *it*, and in Chaucer's works we practically have only this variant. *We* and *ye* in the plural did not change and neither did *us* and *you*. The most complicated was the situation with plural of the third person personal pronouns. Scandinavian *they/them* penetrate into the language; but not simultaneously. By the end of the 14th the pronoun *they* was well established in the language, while the objective case of Old English pronoun *hem* persists; *them* is practically not used by G. Chaucer, and even in present-day English, when we say *Where are your papers? Give'em to me. Take'em.*

we unconsciously use the old form (phoneticians will say that the sound that is dropped is *h*, not *ð*).

Pekke *hem* up right as *they* growe, and ete *hem* yn! (Pick them up when they grow and eat them)

The paradigm of personal pronouns now is :

Sg. N. *ich/I thou he she hit/it*
D. *me thee him hir him/hit/it*
Pl. N. *we ye hi/they*
D. *us you hem/them*

It as to be noted that in this period the tendency to use *ye* in addresing one person (a polite form) is already spreading. We may find it rather frequently:

This cok, that lay upon the foxes bak,
In al his drede unto the fox he spak,
And seyde, "Sire, if that I were as *ye*,
Yet wolde I seyn...." (This cock that lay upon the fox's back spoke fearfully to the fox, and said, Sir, if I were *you* I would say...)

The excerpt is long enough to show that the only interlocutor of the cock was one fox, and that the frightened cock used a very polite form – *ye* to coax the abuser.

Possessive pronouns

A new class of pronouns appears – possesive pronouns. The former Genitive case of the personal pronouns now retains only the possesive meaning, and forms a following group:

1st person Singular *min, myn /my* Plural *our*
2nd person *thin, thyn/thy your*
3rd person *hir/her, his* *hire/their*

The forms *min/thin* are full forms of possessive pronouns; their reduced variants *my/thy* are now used before nouns that begin with a consonant sound:

my pilgrymage (my pilgrimage)
al thy lyf (all thy (your) life)
but *min eres* (my ears)
myn aventure (my adventure)
do *thyn* observaunce (do thine observance).

The masculine and the neuter gender pronouns coincide in form; only the context shows the real gender of the pronoun – when referring to living beings, it is masculine and neuter when it points to a lifeless thing

the lylie upon *his* stalke grene... (the lily on <u>its</u> green stalk).

Scandinavian of origin pronoun *their* comes to the English language somewhat later, for even in Chaucer's works it is practically not found.

So priketh *hem* Nature in *hir* corages (So pricks them Nature in their endeavour).

Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns retain the category of number only *that – tho, thos; this – thes/thise,* case and gender forms disappeared, and so the reduction in the number of forms of this class of pronouns is really significant – from 17 to two.

This Palamon, whan he *tho* wordes herde, (This Palamon, when he heard those words...)
And in oure yeerd *tho* herbes shal I fynde (And in our yard I shall find those herbs...)
Among *thise* children was a wydwes sone (Among these children was a widow's son...)

Other Classes

Interrogative pronouns change phonetically, the aspiration is weakened and in spelling the letters *h* and *w* change place:

who what
whos whos
whom what

The instrumental case of *hwy* changed into the adverb *why*:

<u>*Whos*</u> is that faire child, that stondeth yonder? (whose is that fair child, that stands over there?)
Of <u>*whom*</u> that Bernard list so wel to write (of whom Bernard wants to write so well)
<u>*Why*</u> cridestou? (why did you cry?)

In Middle English we also find a new class of pronouns – the reflexive pronouns. Reflexive pronouns are formed from the possessive pronoun *my/ thy* or the objective case of the third person personal pronoun *him/hir/hem/*

them + self – himselfe, hirself, hemselven (later *myself, ourselves, yourself* and *themselves* replaced native *hemselven*)

And such a King whom practice long hath taught,
To please *himselfe* with mannage...
of the warres (and such a king who long practice has taught to please himself with managing wars)
I wol *my-selven* goodly with yow ryde (I will readily ride with you myself)
But to *hirself* she spak, and seyde thus (but to herself she spoke, and said this)
Biforn the folk *hirselven* strepeth she... (she strips herself before the people)
Sith that so manye han *hemselven* slayn (they themselves have slain so many)

Old English pronouns *ȝehwā, ȝehwilc,* disappeared, and *ǣȝðer, ǣlc, swilc, sum, ǣniȝ, nān* changed their phonetic form and give the present-day *either, each, such, any, none*. Definite pronoun *the same* borrowed from Scandinavian replaces *sē ilca,* though occasionally we may find *that ilke* too, more often reduced to the form *thilke*. Sometimes the older form is used together with the new one. The article before the pronoun varies with the demostrative pronouns *this* and *that.*

And certes, in *the same* book I rede
Right in the nexte chapitre after this (and certainly, I read in the same book right in the next chapter after this)
Or elles, if free choys be graunted me
To do *that same* thyng, or do it noght... (or else, if free choice should be granted me to do the same thing, or not to do...)
And spak *thise same* wordes... (and spoke the same words)
For *thilke* love thow haddest to Adoon (for the same love you had to Adonis)
That ilke clooth that he hadde wered... (the same clothes that he had worn...)
And *thilke same* nyght this kyng was slawe (and on the same night the king was slayn).

The Numeral

This part of speech develops from the Old English system, of numerals, with some changes. They are no longer declined, and lose the category of gender alongside with other nominal parts of speech. Cardinal numerals are *on, two/tweye, thre, fower, four, fif, six, seven, nyne, ten, enleven, twelve, thirtene* (all those up to twenty had the suffix *-tene* from Old English); then *twenty, thirty* (suffix *-ty* from Old English *-tiȝ*). Other numerals were pure phonetic developments of the Old English forms, even the formation of the type *nyne and twenty* were preserved – just like in present-day German. Old English prefix *hund* was dropped.

Another innovation, or addition to the Old English numerals in Middle English is the word *millioun*, of French origin.

Some variation may be observed in the use of the pronoun *two* – there were two variants of the numeral.

A yeer or *two* he was in this servyse (a year or two he was in this service)
Upon his shuldres wynges hadde he *two* (he had two wings upon his shoulders)

Occasionally, the form *tweyen* is used (the fomer masculine form of *two*) irrespective of the fact whether living beings or non-living are counted

...he myghte sleen hise felawes *tweye* (he might kiil his two fellows) "Chese now," quod she, "oon of thise thynges *tweye"* ("Choose now", he said "one of these two things")

As regards ordinal numerals, they have developed the suffix *-th* from Old English *-oða;* the borrowing from French *second* repalced the former Old English *æfter*.

Every *seconde* and thridde day she faste (every second and third day she fasted)

Stative as a new part of speech in Middle English

A type of words begins to take shape which developed into a special part of speech – the stative. Words of this type appear from the phrase *on +*

N (deverbal), later developing into a prefix *a-; aswowne (fainted), afered (afraid), aslepe (asleep), awepe (aweep), alyve (alive).* Whatever the second part should be, it expressed state, so it was associated with adjectival or verbal rather than nominal meaning, and so in present-day English the words like *adrift, aloof* are treated as predicative adjectives, never appearing in pre-position or post position in the function of an attribute.

of his visage children were *aferd* (the children were afraid of his appearance)
And with that word she fil *aswowne* anon; (And with that word she fainted)

The Verb

All types of verbs existing in Old English – strong, weak, preterite-present and irregular were preserved in Middle English. In each type we find changes due to phonetic developments of this period, but the proportional value of the weak ones is greater and continues to grow, and a tendency is already traced – that is, some of the former strong verbs are 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 ones became strong.

The Old English prefix *ȝe-* reduced to *y-*. Now it is mostly found in the second participle (in the Southern dialects). 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 are no longer declined, nor are they agreed with the nouns; gradually new verbal categories penetrate 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 arises – the gerund.

The infinitive loses the category of case and acquires a pre-infinitival particle *to*. It may still be used with what remained of the infinitival suffix (*-an, -ian* → *-en, -n*) – *to goon, to writen, to spenden, to maken* – but the tendency to lose the final consonant is 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 is not used when the infinitive stands after other (preterite-present in particular) verbs.

Wel coude he *singe* and *pleyen* on a rote…(he could sing and play the rote well)
But for *to tellen* you of his array His hors were goode but he was not gay (to tell about his array, (it is to be noted) that his horse was good, but he was not cheerful)

Participle I, having an active meaning and expressing a process of doing something, in Middle English changes its shape. Its suffix *-ende* turns 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)
Of *priking* and of *huntyng* for the hare
Was al his lust, for no coste he wolde spare (All he wanted was rapid horse-riding and hunting for the hare, and he would spare not cost..)
Therfore in stede of *wepyinge* and preyeres
men moote yeve silver to the poor freres (therefore instead of weeping and of prayers men must give silver to the poor friars)

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 have a grammatical innovation – the Gerund. A typical case of such contamination in Russian is the notorious phrase *оплачивайте за проезд* in which two correct grammatical structures *платите за проезд* and *оплатите проезд* are mixed.

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 grammar mistakes?

Participles II in Middle English – those of strong verbs and those of the weak ones continue to be used with the prefix *y-* (reduced *ȝe-);* but this is not universal, and they are 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.*

> ... nyne and twenty in a compaignye
> Of sondry folk, by aventure *y-falle*
> In felaweshipe, and pilgrimes were they alle (a company of twenty-nine different people fallen into fellowship by chance, and they all were pilgrims)
> Of smale houndes hadde she, that she fedde
> With *rosted*-flesh, or milk and wastel-breed. (She had some small dogs which she fed with roasted flesh, or milk, or waffers)
> He hadde of gold *ywroght* a curious pyn (He had a curious pin made (wrought) of gold)
> ... hadde I dwelled with Theseus
> *Yfetered* in his prisoun (I had dwelled with Theseus, fettered in his prison)

The changes in various classes of the Middle English Verb

The changes in strong verbs are 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 –shoken – shaken;*
class VII *knowen – knew – knewen –knowen*

Some of the strong verbs may take the dental suffix for formation of their past form, thus becoming weak (*gripen, crepen, cleven, wepen, spelen, walken, dreden, reden*).

> He *slepte* namoore than dooth a nyghtyngale (he slept no more than does a nightingale).
> I seye, that in the feeldes *walked* we (I say, we walked in the fields)

Weak verbs

The number of weak verbs grows 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 *-i-* 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 *seȝȝen, libben, habben – seien, liven haven*

In the 14c. in some weak verbs with a stem ending in *l, n, f* and *v* the past suffix *-d* changed into *-t*; (*leornian– leornode – lernte; felan – felde (feelen – felte); hlǣnan – hlǣnde (lenen – lente (to lean) wendan – wende (wenden – wente);*

Most Scandinavian borrowings are conjugated according to the weak type: *callen, wanten, guessen* (except *take, thriven* and *flingen* which have 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).

The simplified system of synthetic forms now is as follows:

The infinitive	**binden, (to) binde** (bind)	**beren (to) bere** (bear)	**tellen (to) telle** (make)	**maken, (to) make** (make)
Present tense Indicative Singular				
I	binde	bere	telle	make
thou	bindest	berest	tellest	makest
he, she, it	bindeth, bint	bereth	telleth	maketh
Plural all persons	binden	beren	tellen	make
Present tense Subjunctive singular all persons	binde	bere	telle	make
Plural all persons	binden	beren	tellen	make
Imperative singular	bind	ber	tel	make
plural	bind(eth)	ber(eth)	telleth	make
Participle I	bindinge	beringe	tellinge	makinge
Past tense Indicative				
I	bond	bar	tolde	maked/made
thou	bounde	bare	tolde	maked/made
he, she, it	bond	bar	tolde	maked/made
Plural all persons	bounden	baren	tolde	maked/made
Subjunctive singular all persons	bounde	bore	tolde	maked/made
plural all persons	bounden	boren	tolde	maked/made
Participle II	bounden, y-bounde	bor(en). y-born	tolde, y-tolde	maked, y-maked/ made

His eyen *twinkled* in his heed aryght (past)/As *doon* the sterres in the frosty nyght (present plural) (His eyes twinkled in his head as do the stars on the frosty night)

I *noot* how men hym calle (Merging of ne + present tense *wot)*
(I don't know how men call it)
We *losten* alle oure housbondes at that toun (past plural) (we lost all our husbands at that town)

In the group of preterite-present verbs *ȝeneah* lost its status of a verb and turned into an adverb *ynough* (enough): (he drank *ynough* biforn); the other just simplified their paradigms, some forms were lost (the form of the 2nd person of present singular with the verbs *dowen, unnen,* where the infinite was also lost), *munen,* etc. The verb *kan/koude* might be used as a modal verb, accompanied with an infinitive, and may be used in its primary original meaning *to know.*

Of woodecraft wel *koude* he al the usage (he knew all the use of woodcraft)

Shall/sholde alongside with its modal meaning is 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 loses the meaning of ability and possibility which is occasionally expressed by its present tense form *moot,* and is 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?)

I seye,
That freendes everych oother *moot obeye,*
If they wol longe holden compaignye. (I say that the friends must obey each other if they want to keep company long)

The meaning of obligation is reinforced in combination with the adverb *nede, nedes* (nowadays preserved in a cliche *must needs*):

Myn heritage *moot I nedes selle*
And been a beggere (I must needs sell my heritage and be a beggar)
"The word *moot nede accorde* with the dede." (the word must needs accord with the deed)

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

The day was come that homward *moste he tourne* (the day has come when he had to return home)
This tresor *moste ycaried be* by nyghte,
As wisely and as slyly as it myghte. (This treasure must be carried away by night, as wisely and as slyly as it might be)

In the paradigm of the preterite-present verbs second person ending *-est*, the plural ending *-en* may be retained, but the tendency is not to use personal endings:

"Help, for *thou mayst* best of alle!" (help, for you may it best of all)
I grante thee lyf, if thou *kanst tellen* me
What thyng is it that wommen moost desiren. (I grant thee life if thou can tell me what things women desire most of all)
I woot right wel *thou darst it nat withseyn* (I know well thou dare not object)
Thou *shalt seye* sooth thyne othes (Thou shall truly say thine oaths)
Whan that my fourthe housbonde was on beere,
I weep algate, and made sory cheere,
As wyves *mooten*-for it is usage-
And with my coverchief covered my visage (When my fourth husband drank beer, I at least wept, and made a mounrful face, as women may do, as a rule, and covered my face with a handkerchief)

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

For he *was* late ycome from his viage,
And *wente* for to doon his pilgrymage (for has come from his voyage late and went to his pilgrimage).

The Categories of the Middle English Verb

During this period there appear 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 there arise the forms now very common in Present-day English but absent in Old English.

One cannot say that there were no prerequisites to them in Old English – but in Old English these had the status of phrases with grammatical meaning, they did not have the qualities of a true analytical form.

An analytical form must have a stable structural pattern different from the patterns of verb phrases; it must consist of an auxiliary (which itself might stand in an analytical form) and a non-finite form of the verb, which remains unchanged. Its meaning is not reduced to the sum total of the components (that is, if we take *he will do it* it does not mean that he is willing to do it; he might resist the task all he can; the more so we can say about such sentences as *Close the window, or the child will catch cold).*

The Tense

In present day English the temporal paradigm of the verb contains two synthetic and one analytical form. This means that this form was absent in Old English, and this form is the Future tense.

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 uses them freely:

I shal telle yow 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).
That wol my bane be (that will be my ruin);
And *I shal tellen*, in a wordes fewe,
What we *shal doon* (And I shall tell in a few words what we shall do)
Now *wol I tellen* forth what happed me.(Now I will continue to tell what happened to me)

The same auxiliary was also used in the already appearing analytical forms of future in the past:

For shortly this was his opinioun,
That in that grove he *wolde hym hyde* al day,
And in the nyght thanne *wolde he take* his way (His opinion was that he should hide himself in that grove all day and then at night should take his way)
Hym thoughte that his herte *wolde breke*,
Whan he saugh hem so pitous (He thought that his heart would break when he saw them so full of pity)

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 *hath perced* to 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)
He *hath* alle the bodyes on an heep *ydrawe* (he has drawn all the bodies on a heap)

With the verbs of motion, however, and intransitive verbs in general the perfect might still be used with the *ben*-auxiliary:

At night *was come* in-to that hostelrie wel nyne and twenty in a companie (at night into that hostel a company of twenty-nine has come)
Now I *am come* unto this wodes side (now I have come to the side of this wood)
For he *was late y-come* from his viage and wente for to don his pilgrimage (for he has come late from his journey and went to do his pilgrimage).

Non-finite form of the verb, the infinitive acquired this grammatical category too. Perfect infinitives are common in Chaucer's times, mainly as part of new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood

And certes, if it nere to long to heere,

I wolde *have toold* yow fully the manere.. (and certainly, if it were not long to hear it I would have told you in full about the manner...)
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 + PII* expressing a state as well as an action is widely used in Middle English. Unlike Old English where the form of the participle agreed in number with the subject of the sentence (*ðæt arcebiscop wæs ȝe-martyrod /wæron ȝemartyrode*), in Middle English, where still the ending of the plural adjectives and participles was preserved the Participle II, the lexical part of the analytical form is utterly unchangeable

hir yellow heer *was broyded* in a tresse (her yellow hair was braided in a tress)
al that *is writen*, is writen for oure doctrine (all that is writen is writen for our doctrine)
I wol been his to whom that I *am knyt* (I will be his to whom I am knitted (tied).
I have relikes and pardoun...whiche *were me yeven* by the popes hond. (I have relics and a papal indulgence which were given to me by the pope's hand)
And alle thise *were bounden* in o volume (and all these were bound in one volume)

The category of voice was expressed also in the non-finite forms of the verb – passive infinitives are 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...)
It is ful fair *to been y-cleped* ma dame (It is very pleasant to be called madame)
the bodyes ..neither *to been yburyed nor ybrent* (bodies ...to be neither buried nor burnt)

The future, the perfect and the passive form reflected different aspects of the action, and as soon as they came into the language they all could be

used simultaneously, that is perfect forms might be used in active or passive voice, present as well as the future tense.

The problems of aspect is a disputable one. The prefix *зе-*, which rendered some aspective meanings now was falling into disuse, and was actually limited to the participle of the verb. A new form – the continuous was rising, but in Middle English it was considered an ungrammatical form of the verb, and it was not allowed into the good literary English (of the type of Russian *я поемши, не спамши* – it is well understood by native speakers but surely not to be used by educated people and in written Russian) It might contain even a French participle (*was evene joynant to gardin wal)* – the number of such structures was really insignificant and they might be considered lexical collocations rather than the beginnings of the continuous forms.

Synginge he *was* or *floytinge* all the day (he was singing and playing the flute all day long)

We may observe that even more complicated forms of the Continuous, such as Perfect continuous may be found in late Middle English:

Heere in the temple of the goddesse Clemence
We *han ben waitynge* al this fourtenyght (Here in the temple of the goddess Clementine we have been waiting all this fortnight...)

The category of mood retains the former subdivision into the indicative, the imperative and the subjunctive. While there is nothing new or nothing special about the indicative and the imperative mood – the first represented the action as real, the second expressed commands, requests etc., the forms of the subjunctive mood had some specificity which might be commented on.

The present tense of the subjunctive (we call it now Subjunctive I) renders the meanings of wishes (including curses):

as wis god *helpe* me (so help me wise God)
a verray pestilence upon yow *falle* (That you should suffer of true pestilence...)

But very frequently this form of the Subjunctive was used to render the meaning of uncertainty:

I noot wher she *be* womman or goddesse (I don't know whether she is a woman or a goddess)

O Jankyn, *be* ye there? (Oh, Jankin, are you (really) there?)
But, sooth to seyn, I noot how men hym *calle* (but, to tell the truth, I don't know how men call/should call/ him)

Such use of this form was especially frequent when the action referred to the future (that is, in the subordinate clauses of time and condition, when the condition was real). What is used in present-day English in such clauses, is the present tense instead of the future, or the Suppositional mood – such sentences are now called the sentences of problematic condition).

...my lady, whom I love and serve
And evere shal, *til* that myn herte *sterve*. (my lady whom I love and serve, and ever shal, until my heart dies)
if they *be* nought to blame (if they are not to blame...)

The category of mood was also enriched by analytical formations *wolde + inf* and *sholde + inf;* the newly arisen form of the past perfect readily supplements the range of meanings of the old synthetic subjunctive:

sire, if that I *were* ye, Yet *sholde I seyn* ...(Sir, if I were you I would say)
She *wolde wepe* if that she *saugh* a mous kaught in a trappe, if it *were* deed or blede (She would weep if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it were dead or bleeding)
If that I verraily the cause *knewe of* your disese, ...I *wolde amenden* it er that it were nyght (If I really knew the cause of your disease, I would heal it /treat it until it were nothing)
His haad was balled, that shoon as any glas
And eek his face, as if it *hadde been* anoynt (His had was bald, and shone like glass, and so did his face, as if it had been annointed...)

The perfect and passive forms of the verb in the subjunctive mood were not a rare occasion:

Two men that *wolde han passed* over see
For certeyn cause, into a fer contree,
If that the wynd *ne hadde been contrarie* (The two men who would have passed over the sea for some purpose into a far country, if the wind had not been adverse...)
I might escapen from prisoun, than *hadde I been* in joye and partfit hele (if I had been joyous and perfectly healthy I might /have/ escaped from prison)

The structure of the sentence retains the features characteristic of the Old English sentence. Word order is still rather liberal, and in some cases influenced by the French language. Post position of the adjective which is characteristic for the French penetrates into the English syntax, expecially when the adjective is borrowed from French

weel she soong the service *dyvyne* (she sang very well at divine service)
a mantel *roialliche* (a royally mantle)
with eyen *narwe* (with narrow eyes)
but: a *sclendre colerik* man (a slender choleric man);
A *povre* persoun (a poor person)

The ties between the words in the sentence remain basically the same – agreement, though it lost some positions as compared with the Old English. Now the predicate of the sentence agrees with the subject, repeating the person and the number of the noun or pronoun. As the forms of the verb by this time have acquired several homonymic endings this agreement is especially prominent with the third and the second person singular. Notably, the ending of the second person is often blended with the pronoun *thow/thou:*

thow spekest of to me thus straungely (thou/you speak to me so strangely) (2 pers. sg)
Whan that thow *usedest* the greet beautee (when thou used the great beauty) (past 2 pers. sg)
And *haddest* hir in armes at thy wille (And thou had her in thy arms at thy will) (past 2 pers. sg)
That *knowestow* wel thyself (thou (you) knew it well thyself)
what song *syngestow*? (what song do thou (you) sing?) (2 pers. sg)
so *seydestow* ful ofte (thou/you said so very often)
How greet a sorwe *suffreth* now Arcite! (3 pers. sg)
...*cryden* senatoures wyves (senators' wives cried) (past plural)
peple *loven* tales olde (people love old tales) (present plural)
O many a teere on many a pitous face
Doun ran, of hem that *stooden* hir bisyde (how many tears ran down many a pitious face of those that stood beside her) (past plural)

As the category of number is still preserved (though the ending of the plural *-e* is fairly indistinct) adjectives and pronouns - partly - agree in number with the nouns they modify.

The teeris from *hise eyen* leet he falle. (He let the tears fall from his eyes)
the Grekes stronge (the strong Greeks)

Middle English impersonal sentences still are used without formal subject:

as that me thynketh (as it seems to me)
Whan I may sowen whete, if that *me lest*? (when may I sow what it that it pleases me).

But at the same time the first instances of the use of the formal subject *it* are already registered:

It nedeth me ful sleyly for to pleye (*It needs to me* ...or *It is necessary to me* or *I need*...).

Negation in the Middle English sentence in expressed in the same way it was in Old English. Negative particle *ne* is used, like in Old English, the same particle merged with some words and such formations as *nought /nat* appeared – first they were equivalent to pronoun *nothing* but finally acquired the function of a new negative particle *not*. Other negative words were *noone* (none), *nevere* (never), *nolde* (did not want), *nadde* (had not), *nas* (was not). One predicate group could contain several negative words (multiple negation was quite common):

Allas, he *nadde* holde hym by his ladel! (Alas, he had not held him by his ladel)
he *nolde* no raunsoun (he did not want any ransom)
Ne *nevere* mo he shal his lady see (He will not see his lady ever more)
In al hir face *nas* a drope of blood (there was not a drop of blood in all her face)
They kan *nat* seen in that *noon* avantage,
Ne in *noon* oother wey, save mariage (they can not see in that any advantage, or in any other way, except marriage).
He *nevere no vileynye ne sayde*
In al his lyf unto *no manner wight* (he has never in his life said any villainy /rude words)
I wol *not do no* labour with mine handes (I will not do anything/ any work/ with my hands)

Middle English Vocabulary

The changes in the vocabulary in the Middle English period were mainly quantitative. This is the period when new words and new morphemes were actively borrowed and promptly assimilated grammatically. This made the vocabulary of the late Middle English quite different from that of the other Germanic languages.

French borrowings were especially numerous. They came quite naturally into the language in Middle English. Some spheres of life were for years if not centuries controlled by the French speaking elite. Some words came into English by way of oral communication of the conquerors with the native population. It was the language of school education, so all educated people knew and used the French words in order to make their ideas more precise, the more so because there was actulally no English counterpart for many of them at the time. In some cases the borrowings ousted native English words, but frequently they coexisted with the native words, having only stylistic colouring. The farther north, the lower the number of French borrowings were observed.

The words of French origin penetrated in the spheres of life controlled at those times by the Normans. As can be seen, they were adoped very early, only some of them are dated by 14th or 15th century:

They were numerous in the sphere of government, court, jurisdiction:

aquiten (acquit) 1200–50
attourne (attorney) 1250–1300
baillif (bailiff) 1250–1300
baroun (baron) 1200–50
condempnen (condemn) 1350–1400
counceil (council) 1125–75
counte (count) 1375–1425
court (court) 1125–75
crime (crime)1200–50
dongeoun (dungeon) 1250–1300
duc (duke) 1100–50
estat (state) 1175–1225
gaiole, jaile (gaol, jail) 1225–75
gouvernement (government) 1350–1400
juge (judge) 1175–1225

justice (justice) 1150–1200
maner (manor) 1250–1300
paissaunt (peasant) 1375–1425
parlement (parliament) 1250–1300
prisoun (prison) bef. 1150
sentence 1175–1225
verdit (verdict) 1250–1300
villein (villain) 1275–1325

Military terminology is another segment of the vocabulary where French element is dominant. The years of their coming to the language are:

armee (army) 1350–1400
bataille (battle) 1250–1300
capitain (captain) 1325–75
conqueren (conquer) 1200–50
generale (general) 1250–1300
lieutenant (lieutenant)1325–75
maille – mail (кольчуга) 1250–1300
retret (retreat) 1300–50
sege (siege) 1175–1225
sergant (sergeant) 1150–1200
victorie (victory) 1275–1325
werre (war) bef. 1150

Religious terminology, as is known, is almost fully taken in Old English from Latin. In Middle English the already existing words were supplemented by French which was quite organic. Some of the words taken in Middle English were later "corrected" and some Latin sounds that were lost in French were introduced:

baptize (baptize) 1250–1300
bull /bulla (bull) 1250–1300
clergie (clergy) 1175–1225
confessioun (confession) 1350–1400
converten (convert) 1250–1300
diocese (diocese) 1300–50
frere (friar) 1250–1300
pardoner (pardoner)1325–75
paroche (parish) 1250–1300

prechen (preach) 1175–1225
preien (pray) 1250–1300
pulpit (pulpit)1300–50
religioun (religion) 1150–1200
sacrifice (sacrifice)1225–75
solempne (solemn) 1275–1325
vertu (virtue) 1175–1225

Words belonging to the sphere of building or construction occupy a special place among the borrowings from French. The Normans built a lot after the conquest. So, some of the words that had no lofty or bookish shade in French came into the English language as elements characteristic of higher life:

barre (bar) 1175–1225
chambre (chamber) 1175–1225
chapele (chapel) 1175–1225
columne (column) 1400–50
maner (manor) 1250–1300
mansion (mansion) 1325–75
palace (palace)1200–50
pillare (pillar) 1175–1225
portale (portal) 1300–50

Town crafts were usually named by words of French origin:

apothecary (apothecary) 1325–75
barbour (barber) 1275–1325
bocher (butcher) 1250–1300
carpenter (carpenter) 1275–1325
joinour (joiner) 1350–1400
marchant (merchant) 1250–1300
peyntour (painter) 1300–50
taillour (tailor) 1250–1300
taverner (owner of a tavern) 1300–50

Vocabulary pertaning to arts (which were a privilege of the higher classes) was rich in words borrowed from French:

art (art)1175–1225
cisel (chisel) 1325–75
colour (colour)1250–1300
daunce (dance) 1250–1300
floute (flute) 1350–1400
image (image)1175–1225

melodie (melody) 1250–1300
musike (music) 1200–50
ornament (ornament) 1175–1225
statue (statue) 1300–50
symfonye (symphony) 1250–1300

School at that period was frenchified, and together with Latin words we may observe a lot of words the origin of which is French:

lessoun (lesson) 1175–1225
penne (pen) 1250–1300
pensil (pencil cf. Ukr. пензель) 1225–75
pupille (pupil) 1350–1400

Leisures and pleasures – that is another semantic sphere where the borrowed element is frequent:

carole (carol) 1250–1300
charme (charm) 1250–1300
comfort (comfort)1175–1225
dauncen (dance) 1250–1300
feste (feast) 1150–1200
joye (joy) 1175–1225
leisir (leisure) 1250–1300
plaisir (pleasure) 1325–75

Alongside these were many everyday usage words borrowed seemingly for no reason at all (in many cases they replaced Old English words with the same meaning), simply because the French was omnipresent:

aunte (aunt) 1250–1300
cosin (cousin) 1250–1300
diner (dinner) 1250–1300
dozeine (dozen) 1250–1300
market (market) 1100–1150
moneye (money) 1250–1300
nece (niece) 1250–1300
neveu (nephew) 1250–1300
passen (pass) 1175–1225
povre (poor) 1150–1200
soper (supper) 1225–75
uncle (uncle) 1250–1300

These words became the only nominations for some notions , and the native words, even if they had existed in Old English are dropped. We know that military terminology was well developed in all Germanic languages, however after the Norman conquest the French words replaced them altogether for the army under the Normans was totally formed and controlled by the French-speaking authorities. Sometimes we cannot find good reasons for borrowing the words of everyday use, such as *uncle, chance, part, point, place, mountain, river, air, face.*

The names of domestic animals remain of native origin, for they lived in the country and English shepherd took care of them (*ox, cow, calf sheep, swine (pig)* are all native English) – but such words as *beef* 1250–1300, *veel* (veal) 1350–1400, *moton* (mutton) 1250–1300, *porc* (pork) 1250–1300, *bacoun* (bacon) 1300–50 – that is the meat of those very animals were already processed and sold by a town *bocher* (butcher) 1250–1300.

Actually, words of French origin were found practically everywhere . Nouns and adjectives, verbs and particles – all parts of speech are found among the borrowings of the period: *feble* (feeble) 1125–75 is an adjective, *pouere* (power) 1250–1300 a noun, *large* 1125–75 and *esy* (easy) 1150–1200 adjectives; *cacchen* (catch) 1175–1225, *chaungen* (change) 1175–1225, *deceiven* (deceive) 1250–1300, *a(p)prochen* (approach) 1275–1325 are verbs, *second* 1250–1300 a numeral, *alas* 1225–75 an interjection, and *just* 1325–75 is a particle.

French borrowings have the status of literary words whereas native English words were common everyday vernacular. This can be seen when we compare such pairs of synonyms:

beginnen – commencen (commence) 1250–1300;
comen – arriven (arrive) 1175–1225;
do – act 1350–1400;
harm – injurie (injury) 1350–1400;
help – ayde (aid) 1375–1425
husband/wife – spous/spouse (spouse) 1150–1200
room – chambre (chamber) 1175–1225
speech – discours (discourse) 1325–75
toun – citee (city) 1175–1225
wisshen – desiren (desire) 1200–50

But no matter how drastic were the innovations, the majority of the everyday words remain native – a man and his father, mother, brothers, sisters, sons; He lives in the house; he eats and sleeps, he drinks and sings, he sees trees and grass, sheep and deer, mice and lice, pigs and oxes (Baugh).

Word-building in Middle English

Word-building in Middle English develops along the same lines as were found in Old English. The number of affixes grows, for some of the French suffixes become productive.

The list of afffixes that were productive in Old English is somewhat changed. What had the form *-ere, -estre, -end, -inʒ, -en, -nis, -nes -ð, -uð, -oð -ðu, -u* now (in spelling and pronunciation) they modified to *-er, -ster, -nd, -yng/ing, -ness, -th.*

Some of them being of Indo-European origin are almost indistinguishable from the French suffixes: *pardoner* (1325–75), *carpenteer* (carpenter) 1275–1325, *hostilier* (hosteler) 1250–1300 go hand in hand with native words such as *writere* (writer) bef. 900, *bakere* (baker) bef. 1000, *sadelere* (saddler) 1250–1300, *cobelere* (cobbler) 1250–1300. The feminine gender counterpart of this suffix will be also found in such formations as *spinnestere* (spinster) 1325–75, but in many nouns the only remaning suffix of the feminine gender replaced former *-ess* of the French origin: *shepherdesse* (shepherdess) 1350–1400, former feminine gender noun *ʒyden* (from *ʒod*) acquired new suffix and became *goddesse* 1300–50, a great number of borrowings from French with this suffix was a good pattern for further formations (*prioresse* (prioress) 1250–1300, *c(o)untesse* (countess), 1125–75, *maistresse* (mistress) 1275–1325 and so on.

Bet than a lazar or a *beggestere* (better than a leper or a beggarwoman).

The former semi-suffixes *-lāc, -rǣden, -scipe, -hād, -dōm* turned into *-lock, -red, -shype/shipe, -hed, dom.* In Middle English they remained productive: we may find new words formed with them: *kindred* 1125–75; *felaweshipe* 1150–1200, *thraldom* (thralldom, servitude) 1125–75; along with already existing *childhede, knyghthede* and *maydenhede* we find *godhede*

(godhood) 1175–1225, *wommanhede* (womanhood), 1325–75, *wyfhede* (wifehood) 1350–1400 and even *grenehede* (greenhood, greenness)

In hir is heigh beautee, withoute pride,
Yowthe, withoute *grenehede* or folye ...(There is in her high beauty without pride, youth without immaturity or folly...)

We can also see new coinages with former adjective suffixes such as *-ede, -ihte, -iȝ, -en, -isc, -sum, -feald, -full, -leas, -lic* (now *-ed -y, -en, -ish, -som, -fold, -ful, -less, -like/ly*) *fulsome* (fulsom) 1200–50 *folish* (foolish) 1250–1300, *tenfold* 1150–1200, *foryetful* (forgetful) 1350–1400, *estatlich* (stately) 1350–1400, *asshy* (ashy) 1350–1400

estatlich of manere (stately of manner)

The use of prefixes was a productive way of forming new words, and their number exceeds that of prefixes in Modern English. Especially frequent they were with the verbs and nouns. The most frequent and important native prefixes are

over-, a-, by/bi/be -, for- , fore-, on-, un-, with- mis-, under-, ut-

abaft 1225–75 (nautical *abaft* in the rear of)
ahungred 1375–1425 (ahungered, very hungry)
aloue 1350–1400 (alow, lower down)
befolen 1350–1400 (befool)
bespreden 1350–1400 (bespread)
bitocnen, bitacnen 1125–75 (betoken)
bydewen 1300–50 (bedew, to wet with dew)
forfenden 1350–1400 (forfend)
forstallen 1350–1400(forestall)
fortellen 1250–1300 (foretell)
mesaventure 1250–1300 (misadventure)
mesavisen 1325–75 (misadvise)
mesbileven 1175–1225 (misbelieve)
mescheance 1250–1300 (mischance)
onward 1350–1400 (onward)
overbiggen 1400–50 (overbuy)
overblowen 1350–1400 (overblow)

overcasten 1175–1225 (overcast)
overchargen 1275–1325 (overcharge)
overfillen 1200–50 (overfill)
unable 1350–1400 (unable)
undertaken 1150–1200 (undertake)
unknow(e) 1250–1300 (unknown)
unkynd 1200–50 (unkind)
unkyt 1400–50 (uncut)
utcasten 1250–1300 (outcast)
utcume 1175–1225 (outcome)
withdrawen 1175–1225 (withdraw)
withholden 1150–1200 (withhold)

Here are some examples of the use of the words coined in Middle English in "*Canterbury Tales*":

For blood *bitokeneth* gold, as me was taught...(for blood indicates gold, as I was taught)
And who so wole my juggement *withseye*
Shal paye al that we spenden by the weye... (and who would contradict my judgement shall pay all that we shall spend)
Hir brighte heer was kempt *untressed* al... (her bright hair was not plaited in tresses)
The dore was.. yclenched *overthwart* and endelong
With iren tough...(the door was clinched with strong iron crosswise and lengthwise)
For what man that hath freendes thurgh Fortune
Mishap wol maken hem enemys...(for when in happiness man has friends, misfortune will make them enemies).

It is in the Middle English that hybrid formations appear – native prefixes and suffixes are added to borrowed roots and vice versa. This testifies that the borrowed words are very soon assimilated by the lexical system of the English language: *unable* 1350–1400, *onavised* (unadvised) 1300–50, *unapt* 1325–75, *unarmen* (unarm) 1300–50, *unbarren* (unbar) 1300–50, *unbracen* (unbrace) 1350–1400, *uncesynge* (unceasing) 1350–1400, *uncerteyne* (uncertain) 1250–1300, *uncerteynte* (uncertainty) 1350–1400, *uncurteis* (uncourteous) 1275–1325 or *lovable* 1300–50.

Early New English. General characteristics

This period, from 1485 to mid-17th century is marked by establishing the nation state. It is marked by significant changes in political, religious and cultural life of the country, and first of all by Reformation

Although England had a religious reform movement influenced by Lutheran ideas, the English Reformation occurred as a direct result of King Henry VIII's efforts to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon. The formal break with the papacy was masterminded by Thomas Cromwell, the king's chief minister. Under Cromwell's direction Parliament passed the Act in Restraint of Appeals (to Rome; 1533), followed by the Act of Supremacy (1534) fully defining the royal headship over the church. As archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Cranmer annulled Henry's marriage to Catherine, allowing the king to marry Anne Boleyn. Although Henry himself wished to make no doctrinal changes, Cromwell and Cranmer authorized the translation of the Bible into English, and Cranmer was largely responsible for the Book of Common Prayer, adopted under Henry's successor, Edward VI. The gains that Protestantism made under Edward (r. 1547–53) were lost under his Catholic sister Mary I (r. 1553–58). The religious settlement (1559) under Elizabeth I, however, guaranteed the Anglican establishment.

Although the Reformation stemmed from Henry's desire to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, it became a controlled revolution, supervised by the able minister Thomas Cromwell. Henry broke with Rome, subordinated the church to the state, ended monasticism, and annexed vast church properties to the crown. The last were gradually sold and came into the hands of the gentry and middle classes, immensely increasing their economic strength and leading them to claim greater political power through the House of Commons.

Some of these resources were also used to strengthen the nation-state. Henry VIII built a powerful navy and fortified the whole Channel coast. The struggle over the Reformation–Edward VI's reign advanced it, Mary I's retarded it – was resolved by the long and successful reign (1558–1603) of Elizabeth I. During these years the Church of England achieved its permanent character; its intellectual position was defined by the great work of Richard Hooker in The Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity (1593).

That issue settled, the Elizabethans were able to renew voyages across the Atlantic and, with Sir Francis Drake and Thomas Cavendish, around the world. Expansive energies drove them to challenge Spain's monopoly of the

New World, leading to conflict in the Caribbean and elsewhere. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh led the campaign to establish English settlements in North America, taking possession of Newfoundland in 1583 and sending out colonies to Roanoke Island (now in North Carolina) from 1585 on. Many voyages explored the American coasts, and several penetrated the Davis Strait in search of a Northwest Passage to China and the Far East.

Voyages searching for a Northeast Passage opened up direct sea routes to Russia. The English were given privileges in Russian trade that extended to the Caspian Sea and Persia. From 1580 strong expeditions into the Mediterranean produced direct trade with Turkey and the Middle East; companies were formed in London for this purpose. In 1600 the British East India Company was founded to make trading voyages around the Cape of Good Hope; from these beginnings British interests in the East rapidly expanded.

Spain was determined to keep other Europeans out of the New World. Moreover, its efforts to suppress the revolt against Spanish rule in the Netherlands posed a direct threat to nearby England, especially since the Spanish king, Philip II, supported revolt against Elizabeth I. These factors precipitated a long war between England and Spain from 1585 to 1604. The defeat of the Spanish Armada of 1588 increased the self-confidence of the Elizabethans and gave a patriotic inspiration to the brilliant Elizabethan Age. This was expressed creatively in literature and the arts, in a general cultural renaissance, and in scientific development, particularly in cosmography and navigation. The work of William Shakespeare and others made the Elizabethan era one of the most creative periods in the history of drama.

In the conflict with Spain, Ireland lay strategically open to Spanish incursion, the more so since it remained overwhelmingly Roman Catholic. Under Queen Elizabeth, therefore, Ireland was increasingly subjugated, a process completed by the reduction of Ulster and the latter's partial population with Scottish settlers after the accession of James I.

The settlement in Ireland served as a blueprint for colonization in North America. After the war with Spain ended (1604), the London Company was founded, and Jamestown was established (1607) in Virginia. Efforts in New England were begun, but development there awaited the arrival of the Pilgrims in 1620 and the larger settlement of Puritans in the 1630s.

When Elizabeth I acceded to the English throne in 1558 following the death of her half-sister, Mary I, England was at its lowest ebb since Tudor rule began in 1485. Elizabeth's immediate and lasting aim was to reunite the

country, reestablish the Anglican church, fend off foreign threats, and bring her people as much peace and prosperity as possible. If she was largely, though not entirely, successful during her reign (1558–1603), a part of her success is reflected in the rise of literature and the arts, especially during the final decade of this period known as the Elizabethan Renaissance.

Early New English is traditionally distinguished in the history of the language because it was in this period that the rest of the grammatical categories came into use, the last systematic and cardinal change in the sound system occurred, shifting the real sound form of the words from the spelling to almost the present-day state (since that period only slight, minor spelling changes were introduced in Britain, probably in the American variant the changes were a little bit more sizeable). Early New English was the period when borrowing of foreign words came not due to invasion, but because the English language was already free from its xenophobic qualities, and even the most strict scholars did not reject them; on the contrary, scholarly language abounded in borrowings too.

The 15 century changes in the political life of the country led to establishment of a strong centralised state in England; and a strong state power means not only economic but also cultural and linguistic dictatorship. The crown of Henry II, the founder of the Tudor dynasty was based on the middle class supporting him, and the middle class began to develop quickly, shifting the old aristocracy to second place, to background, so to say. Henry VIII broke the church away from Rome and dissolved monasteries. He also assembled at his court groups of brilliant scholars and artists. The school no longer was the privilege of the clergy. Industries required more literate workers, and laymen from now on went to school.

It is astonishing how quickly learning and printing were spreading in the times that followed. Before 1500 the total number of books printed throughout Europe was about 35 000, most of them in Latin. Between 1500 and 1640 in England alone, some 20 000 items in English were printed, ranging from pamphlets and broadsheets to folios and Bibles. The result was to accelerate the education of the rising middle class. Some estimates suggest that by 1600 nearly half the population had some kind of minimal literacy, at least in cities and towns. Outside the universities people preferred to read books in English rather than in Latin and Greek, and printers naturally tried to satisfy their customers' demands.

The new aristocracy was more energetic and eager to learn. Renaissance, though a bit retarded as compared with Italy and France came to the British Isles, and with the introduction of the printing press new literature and science spread all over the isles, normalising and unifying the language in England.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558–1603) was marked by extensive trade contacts and the struggle with England's European rivals – France, Spain and Portugal (in 1588 the Spanish Fleet, the invincible Armada was routed). Colonial expansion began.

The age of Renaissance added from about 10 000 to 12 000 words to the English vocabulary, and the words came from different sources: *agile* 1570–80; *habitual* 1520–30, *tangible* 1580–90, *capsule* 1645–55, *series* 1605–15 – Latin; *catastrophe* 1570–80, *lexicon* 1595–1605, *atmosphere* 1630–40, *pneumonia* 1595–1605, *skeleton* 1570–80, *paradox* 1530–40 – Greek; *detail* 1595–1605, *sentinel* 1570–80 – French; *portico* 1595–1605, *balcony* 1610–20, *stucco* 1590–1600 – Italian; *embargo* 1595–1605 – Spanish; *smuggle*1680–90, *reef* 1350–1400 – Dutch etc.

At first the outskirts of England, Wales, Scotland and Ireland were brought under the English crown; the struggle was not an easy one, especially with Scotland; yet in the present-day England Scotland demands more autonomy than the other regions of England. Wales was the last stage of the Norman conquest. But the annexation was completed only in the 16 c. Aboriginal populations did not give up their mother tongue easily, and Wales nowadays retains a great number of native place names.

Ireland was not subjugated in 13th nor in the 14 th century. Only an area around Dublin was under direct rule from London, the rest of the country was divided between innumerable chiefs and turned into one of the poorest and backward countries. Scotland too, was not an easy task for the English kings and only later Tudors managed to overcome the resistance. Final unification was under the Stuarts (1603).

The heightened activity of the age, uneven though it was, produced a most extraordinary outpouring of great art. The idealism of the age is represented in the living examples of such men as Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Philip Sidney, who, like Hamlet, embodied the "courtier's, soldier's, scholar's, eye, tongue, sword." Admired by all who knew him, Sidney wrote his spirited *Defence of Poesie* (1579–81; publ. 1595) as well as a long, complex prose pastoral, the *Arcadia* (1590). His contemporary Edmund Spenser, after composing *The Shepheards Calendar* (1579), a book of pastoral eclogues

dedicated to Sidney, embarked on an epic romance, *The Faerie Queene* (1590–96). This great allegorical poem was intended to demonstrate the virtues of a Christian prince, Arthur, serving England and its sovereign, Elizabeth. The epic owed much to Ariosto's *Orlando Furioso* (1516), and many English writers drew heavily on continental literatures; they also infused their work with native traditions and originality, however, and were unencumbered by principles of classicism, so that their writings were far from merely imitative. Thus while William Shakespeare borrowed freely from Boccaccio and Montaigne, his plays and poems are not copies but transformations into something "rich and strange." The language itself experienced an immense expansion and increased flexibility. New words and new uses of existing ones together with borrowings from other languages combined to make English rich and versatile. Only the most pedantic of writers suffered constraints. In drama, multiple plots and frank violations of the unities of time and place were the rule, although such "classical" playwrights as Ben Jonson composed excellent comedies like *Every Man in His Humour* (1598) and *Volpone* (1606) within the unities. Translations became popular and influential. Sir Thomas Hoby's translation (1561) of Castiglione's *The Courtier* and Sir Thomas North's translation (1579) of Plutarch's *Lives* in their different ways promoted the ideals of courtly or heroic behavior. Marlowe, George Chapman, and others rendered classical poets into English. Although the novel remained in still rudimentary form, Thomas Nashe and Thomas Lodge (also University Wits) were but two of many who wrote prose fiction. John Lyly's novels and plays show an elegant if artificial style that directly influenced other writers and, it is said, even Elizabeth. The first true English-language essayist, Francis Bacon, published his *Essays, Civil and Moral* in 1597; the descriptive geographical works of Richard Hakluyt, based on actual voyages, were the most comprehensive of the time; and the *Chronicles* (1577) of Raphael Holinshed reflected the Elizabethans' interest in history.

The decade of the 1590s evinced a remarkable outburst of lyrical poetry. The *Sonnets* of Shakespeare were only one of many sonnet sequences, written by such poets as Michael Drayton, Samuel Daniel, Sidney, and Spenser–all influenced by Petrarch's sonnets. Other lyric forms were popular, too, as well as ballads and broadsides. The *Songs and Sonnets* of John Donne belong to this decade, although they were not published (1633) until after his death. Thus conventional lyric poetry and the new metaphysical verse coexisted, each in its own way showing wit, imagination, and metrical virtuosity.

A similar, perhaps greater, richness and diversity characterize Elizabethan drama. Plays were performed in any suitable location: innyards, the halls of great manor houses, university towns, the Inns of Court, as well as in public and private theaters. Many companies performed plays – including Shakespeare's company, the Lord Chamberlain's Men – and children's companies were also widely admired, competing with other professional troupes. The romantic comedies of Lyly, Greene, and Peele, surpassed only by the joyous comedies of Shakespeare, flourished simultaneously with satirical "humours" comedies by Jonson and Chapman. It was in tragedy, however, that the age realized its most powerful literary achievement. From the earlier, almost primitive plays – such as *Gorboduc* (1561), the first English drama in blank verse – to the greater accomplishments of Kyd (*The Spanish Tragedy*, 1586), Marlowe (*Doctor Faustus*, 1588; *Tamburlaine the Great*, 1590; *The Jew of Malta*, 1590; *Edward II*, 1594), and Shakespeare, Elizabethan dramatists continued to develop their art, mixing comic elements with tragic, introducing subplots, and adapting freely from classical or other original sources.

Throughout the Renaissance, whether in Ulysses' speech on "degree" in *Troilus and Cressida*, or the Sir John Davies poem *Orchestra* (1596), ideas of order, part and parcel of Elizabethan life, are mirrored in the literature of the age. These ideas are formally organized in one of the great prose tracts of the time, the *Treatise on the Laws of Ecclesiastical Polity* (1593), by Richard Hooker.

By the death of Elizabeth in 1603 and the accession to the throne of her cousin, James VI of Scotland, who became James I of England, the exuberance had begun to fade, and a more somber note colored Jacobean life and art. The triumphs of the Virgin Queen were at an end, and the new century brought to the surface problems that eventually led to civil war in 1642 and the temporary overthrow of the monarchy.

With the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, men again looked to France. John Dryden admired the Academie Francaise and greatly deplored that the English had "not so much as a tolerable dictionary, or a grammar; so that our language is in a manner barbarous" as compared with elegant French. After the passionate controversies of the Civil War, this was an age of cool scientific nationalism. In 1662 the Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge received its charter. Its first members, much concerned with language, appointed a committee of 22 "to improve

the English tongue particularly for philosophic purposes." It included Dryden, the diarist John Evelyn, Bishop Thomas Sprat, and the poet Edmund Waller. Sprat pleaded for "a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses, a native easiness; bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness" as possible. The committee, however, achieved no tangible result, and failed in its attempt to found an authoritative arbiter over the English tongue. A second attempt was made in 1712, when Jonathan Swift addressed an open letter to Robert Harley, earl of Oxford, then Lord Treasurer, making *"A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining [fixing] the English Tongue."* This letter received some popular support, but its aims were frustrated by a turn in political fortunes. Queen Anne died in 1714. The Earl of Oxford and his fellow Tories, including Swift, lost power. No organized attempt to found a language academy on French lines has ever been made since.With Dryden and Swift the English language reached its full maturity. Their failure to found an academy was partly counterbalanced by Samuel Johnson in his *Dictionary* (published in 1755) and by Robert Lowth in his *Grammar* (published in 1761). In the making of his *Dictionary*, Johnson took the best conversation of contemporary London and the normal usage of reputable writers after Sir Philip Sidney (1554–86) as his criteria. He exemplified the meanings of words by illustrative quotations. Johnson admitted that "he had flattered himself for a while" with "the prospect of fixing our language" but that thereby "he had indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience could justify." The two-folio work of 1755 was followed in 1756 by a shortened, one-volume version that was widely used far into the 20th century. Revised and enlarged editions of the unabbreviated version were made by Archdeacon Henry John Todd in 1818 and by Robert Gordon Latham in 1866. It was unfortunate that Joseph Priestley, Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, and other 18th-century grammarians (Priestley was perhaps better known as a scientist and theologian) took a narrower view than Johnson on linguistic growth and development. They spent too much time condemning such current "improprieties" as "I had rather not," "you better go," "between you and I," "it is me," "who is this for?", "between four walls," "a third alternative," "the largest of the two," "more perfect," and "quite unique." Without explanatory comment they banned "you was" outright, although it was in widespread use among educated people (on that

ground it was later defended by Noah Webster). "You was" had, in fact, taken the place of both "thou wast" and "thou wert" as a useful singular equivalent of the accepted plural "you were."As the century wore on, grammarians became more numerous and aggressive. They set themselves up as arbiters of correct usage. They compiled manuals that were not only descriptive (stating what people do say) and prescriptive (stating what they should say) but also proscriptive (stating what they should not say). They regarded Latin as a language superior to English and claimed that Latin embodied universally valid canons of logic. This view was well maintained by Lindley Murray, a native of Pennsylvania who settled in England in the very year (1784) of Johnson's death. Murray's *English Grammar* appeared in 1795, became immensely popular, and went into numerous editions. It was followed by an *English Reader* (1799) and an *English Spelling Book* (1804), long favourite textbooks in both Old and New England.

Among other scholars to be mentioned here are John Cheke and Thomas Smith from Cambridge who were greatly concerned with the inconsistencies of the English spelling. Their discussion on spelling normalisation is reflected in the book published in 1568 – *"A Dialogue concerning the correct and emended Writing of the English language"*. 34 letters were suggested to make the spelling more logical. John Hart, one of the greatest phoneticians of the 16th century wrote much on the subject, his best-known work " *An Orthographie*" (1569) suggests the ways to reform the spelling. The efforts of the scholars were also directed to making people pronounce words as they were written. As can be seen, in practice these works not so much influenced the spelling but they give us the clue how it all was pronounced at those times.

In their endeavour to make speech correct and language standardized, numerous manuals of correct use of grammatical forms were published. The grammars were not descriptive, that is not reflecting the actual use of these forms by the majority of the population, but prescriptive, setting the rules to be observed. The authors took Latin grammars as a model, and tried to squeeze living English speech, with all the losses it suffered through the ages into a set of clearly defined and unambiguous Latin rules. Notably, these grammars were mailny written in Latin and supplied English translation of the latin contructions.

The names of the scholars in the field of grammar are: William Lily "*Eton Latin Grammar*" (supplied with English translations) and Alexander Gill whose most known work "*Logonomia Anglica*" (The English Word-law) appeared in 1619. Though written in Latin it is illustrated by examples from the English authors and and supplied with his proposals as to the pronunciation of words denoncing the incorrect practice.

A new approach was postulated in the English grammar composed by the dramatist Ben Jonson "*For the benefit of all strangers out of this observation of the English language now spoken and in use*" in 1640. He was the first to attract attention to the word order as a specific feature of the English language; he pointed out to the article as a part of speech found in English and not in Latin, he was puzzled by the absence of uniformity in the paradigm of the English verb and suggested two conjugations here and two declensions in the nouns. He was not a grammarian, a layman in the field of this high science but as it happens outsiders may be helpful too.

Other authors and most famous grammar manuals are John Wallis's "*Grammatica Linguae Anglicane*" that appeared in 1653, had many editions in translations where the attempt is made to ignore the established view at grammatical categories; he stresses that the categories lost by the English language (such as case, gender etc) should not be included in the study of really functioning language; Christopher Cooper "*Grammatica Anglicana*" of 1685.

The 18th century gives other names and other manuals, that determined the standards of the language.The best-known prescriptive grammars of the period are:

Robert Lowth's "*A Short Introduction to English Grammar*" first published in 1761 had 22 editions later. A staunch adherent of grammatical accuracy, he condemned double negation and double comparisons, was strict as to the use of *who/whom, whose/which*; and lay the rules to be observed for centuries; It was followed by J. Priestley's "*Rudiments of English Grammar*" of 1761. This grammarian strived to deviate from this strict dominance of Latin rules but could not but agree with the former Lowth's approach; he himself laid down rules for correcting what seemed less regular and systematic.

An American scholar of the late 18th century Lindley Murrey published his "*English Grammar Adapted to the different classes of learners*" in1795;

this manual had fifty editions and served as the basis for many other manuals that stuck to the dogmas laid by him.

There were also numerous books on correct spelling and correct pronunciation (Jones' "*Practical Phonographer*" 1701, William Baker "*Rules for True Spelling and Writing English*" 1724 etc.)

The attention of the scholarly authorities is directed also to the correct use of words. By that time the language had incorporated numerous borrowings, used in writing but not altogether understandable by the general public. So the country witnesses a lexicographic boom of the 18th century.

Actually, it started in the 17th century with Robert Cawdrey's "*Table Alphabetical conveying and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words, borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin or French*" that appeared in 1604 followed by John Bullokar's "*English Expositor teaching the interpretation of the hardest words used in our language*" (1616) and "*English-English Dictionary*" by Henry Cockeram (1623) It contained explanations of common hard words and of "vulgar" words supplied with the help of their bookish equivalents and J. Cole's "*Dictionary of hard words*" (1676).

But systematic lexicography is associated with the name of Samuel Johnson, and his "*Dictionary of the English Language*" that appeared in 1755. He gave precise definitions of words, supplied the dictionary with pronunciation guide to the words given in it, considering that "the best general rule is, to consider those of the most elegant speakers who deviate least from the written words". The dictionary also contains some instructions as to grammatical forms of the given words. This dictionary had numerous editions, and later used by his successor as the basis (it is not to say that Samuel Johnson was altogether original in composing his dictionary – his predecessor's "*Dictionarium Britannicum. A More Compleat Universal English Dictionary That Any Extant*" contained 48,000 entries, even more that Johnson's, was used as the basis for the famous dictionary).

The attempts to make the English language more English, to strip it of foreign elements were made too.

In the 18th century three writers – Joseph Addison (who founded the Spectator), Daniel Defoe (who wrote "Robinson Crusoe") and Jonathan Swift ("Gulliver's Travels") – wanted to see a committee set up to regulate the language. Like a good protectionist, Addison wrote: I have often wished that... certain Men might be set apart, as Superintendents of our Language, to hinder any Words of Foreign Coin from passing among us; and in particular to prohibit any French Phrases from becoming current in this Kingdom, when those of our own stamp are altogether as valuable. Fortunately, the principles of free trade triumphed, as Samuel Johnson, the compiler of the first great English dictionary, rather reluctantly came to admit. "May the lexicographer be derided," he declared, "who shall imagine that his dictionary can embalm his language... With this hope, however, academies have been instituted to guard the avenues of their languages... but their vigilance and activity have hitherto been vain... to enchain syllables, and to lash the wind, are equally the undertakings of pride."A WORLD EMPIRE BY OTHER MEANS Dec 20th 2001/ From The Economist print edition)

Due to the incessant and fruitful work of the grammarians and lexicographers the Written Standard was established as contrasted to dialectal variety and penetration of vulgar words from all strata of the society in the middle of the 17th century.

The devolopment of the language is inseparable from the literary process of the period, and the flourishing of science. Though scientific works in the 16th and 17th century were mainly written in Latin, they were readily translated into English and added to the development of the English language. The names of Thomas More (1478–1535) famous for , among his other writings, "*Utopia*" (written in 1516 in Latin, and first translated into English in 1551) and Francis Bacon with his most famous work "*Novum Organum*" (1620) presenting an inductive method for scientific and philosophical inquiry (writtem in Latin)

are inseparable from the English culture. By the way, both wrote much in English – the pamphlets and other works of Th. More and essays of F. Bacon prove that they were masters of the English.

William Tyndale translated the *Bible* in 1526. The first authorized version of the Bible – *King James' Bible* produced by a body of translators and officially approved in 1611 was based on his translation.

But the most prominent name in the literary life of the period is that of William Shakespeare (1564–1616). He outclassed his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies, sonnets). His vocabulary alone amounts to 20 000 words; his freedom in creating new words and versatility in using grammatical constructions is remarkable. The peculiarities of the Early New English are illustrated here on the citations from his works, as they seem to be the most representative of the period, and in addition the most well-known by the present-day readers. His grammar is yet untouched by the prescriptivists, his vocabulary is extensive; his artistic genius is incomparable in the use of the possibilities the English language offers.

Citations from his plays have acquired the status of set phrases, sometimes used by people without knowing that they have an author: *it's Greek to me; salad days; play fast and loose; make a virtue out of necessity; too much of a good thing; to have seen better days; live in a fool's paradise; it is high time; that is the long and the short of it; a laughing stock* etc. Quotable quotes taken from his plays are more recognizable as far as their source is concerned, and come into the English language ready-made:

Something is rotten in the state of Denmark; Brevity is the soul of wit; To be or not to be – that is the question; Alas, poor Yorick and many more.

The language of the period is recorded in private correspondence. *Paston letters* (1430–1470) and *Cely papers* (sometime later, both in east Midland dialect) give a fair picture of colloquial speech, so far as it is possible for a written document. *The Diary* of Henry Machyn, a London merchant with no particular education proves the existence of Cockney at that time.

Phonetic Changes in the Early New English Period

The changes in the sound system of the period were significant. The process of the levelling of endings continued, there were positional and assimilative changes of short vowels, and a significant change in the whole system of long vowels, called the Great Vowel Shift. During the period the process of simplification of consonant clusters and loss of consonants in certain positions continued. The changes were as follows:

Loss of unstressed e The process of levelling of endings led to total disappearance of the neutral sound *ə* marked by letter *e* in the endings (it was preserved and even pronounced more distinctly like [ɪ] only when two identical consonants were found in the root and in the endings), though in spelling the letter might be preserved: no vowel is found in *kept, slept, crossed, played; walls, pens, bones, stones* – but it is preserved in *stresses, dresses; wanted, parted; watches, judges; wicked* and *crooked.*

The whole syllables might be lost in the Early New English pronunciation of long words. In some words this loss was fixed in spelling, like in *chapter* (ME *chapiter*), *palsy* (ME *parlesie*), *fancy* (ME *fantasie)*; some other words preserved the lost syllables in spelling, e .g. *colonel, business, medicine*;

The sound *e* before *r* changed into *a:*. This change in many cases (but not always) was reflected in spelling:

sterre – star
herte – heart
bern – barn
sterven – starve
kerven – carve
merveil – marvel
ME *clerc – clerk*
ME *sergant – sergeant*

Some place-names changed the pronunciation: *Derby, Berkley Berkshire, Hertford* though this changed is not reflected in their spelling.

It is due to this change that the alphabetic reading of the letter *r* [er] began to be pronounced as [ar].

Long Vowels

Beginning in the 15 century, all long vowels that existed in Middle English change their quality. This change was a fundamental one, changing the entire vocalic system, and the essence of it is as follows. All long vowels narrowed, and the narrowest of them turned into diphthongs. The shift resulted in the followings changes:

i: → ai *time, like, rise, side*
e: → i: *meet, see, keen, deep*; in borrowed words *chief, receive, seize*
ɛ: (e: open) → into e: closed, then → i: *east, clean, speak, sea*
a: → ei (through the stage æ, æi) *take, make, name, grave, pave, sane*
ɔ: (o: open, from Old English ā) → ou *stone, bone, home, oak, go, moan*
o: closed (from Old and Middle English ō in native words as well in the borrowings) → u: *tool, moon, stool, do, root, room*
u: → au *house, mouse, out, noun, down, how*

The changes were gradual, of course, and in Shakespearean times the vowels were somewhere halfway to its present-day stage. The change from [ɛ:] to [i:] had the intermediate stage [e:]. This explains why the rhyme in some sonnets is not exact in present-day system of reading:

And truly not the morning sun of *heaven*
Better becomes the grey cheeks of the *east*,
Nor that full star that ushers in the *even*
Doth half that glory to the sober *west.*

The intermediate stages of the development of u: were [əu] → [æu] and finally → [au]. Consequently, a → æ: → æi → ei; and i: → ii → ei → æi → ai.

The Great Vowel Shift affected all long vowels in native as well as borrowed before it words; *table* and *chamber*, *doubt* and *fine, appeal* and *tone* developed in full accordance with the development of the English sound system. Some borrowed words preserve [i:] or [u:] in the open syllable (*routine* 1670–80) if they were borrowed from French in the later period; some other, though taken during this process still resisted the change and remain phonetically only partially assimilated: *police* 1520–30, *machine* 1540–50 etc. Latin borrowings that were taken from written sources, however, usually have a vowel that was changed in the course of the shift.

The causes of the shift have not yet been clarified, as well as its direction. A push-chain hypothesis is (Luick), or drag-chain (O. Jespersen Martinet)

Wilhelm Horn and Martin Lenhert in *Sound and life* suggest that it resulted from intonation conditions – a high tone which is characteristic of English emotional speech naturally makes sound narrower.

Andre Martinet connects the shift with the fact that traditional phonemic quality of English sounds was no longer preserved, and so short and long vowels became mere allophones of the same phoneme. A need arose to reinforce them, so the articulation was emphasized and resulted in diphthongization (starting with i: and u:) (Andres Martinet, *Economie des changements phonetiques. Traite de phonologie diachronique* Berne 1955).

A Russian linguist V. Plotkin from Novosibirsk (1968) states that with the loss of unstressed words a great number of monsyllabic words arose, where only ther length of the wovels was the distinctive feature (*god* and *good* etc.) Under such conditions the phonology of length-shortness acquired simply other manifestation.

The diphthongs that arose as a result of the Great Vowel Shift did not enrich the phonological system of the language; such diphthongs had already existed in Middle English. They arose in the process of vocalization of ȝ:

wey (from *weȝ*) had the same diphthong that appeared in *wake*
sayde (from *sæȝde*) in Middle English had the sound that appeared in *side*, but later the diphthong developed into a short monophthong;
drawen (from *draȝan*) in Middle English had [au] that later appeared in the words like *house* and *mouse;*
bowe (from *boȝa*) had and retained the diphthong [ou] resulting from vocalization of *ȝ*, now words like *bone* and *wrote* were pronounced with the same diphthong.

Nor were the long vowels [*i:*] and [*u:*] new: what sounded [*i:*] in *time* and was diphthongized into [ai], was replaced by the change [*e:*] and [ɛ:] → [*i:*] in *see, sea field; hous* yielded [*u:*] to [au], but as a result of the Great Vowel Shift [u:] appeared in words like *moon* and *soon*.

Depending on the following consonant, *r* in particular, there were somewhat different variants of vowels that appeared int the Great Vowel Shift. If the long vowel was followed by *r* the following variants appeared:

are → [eir] *fare;* compare with fate
ear → [ier] *fear* (but *feat*)
→ [eir] *bear* (but *beat*)

eer → [ier] *steer* (but *steep*)
ir → [aier] *tire* (but *time*)
or → [o:r] *boar* (but *boat*)
o open → [uer] *moor* (but *moon*)
u: → [auer] *power* (but *house*)

Short vowels were changed, too, but the changes here are not that systematic. The vowels changed depending on their environment.

Short *a* found in closed syllables generallt changed into *æ:*

that; man; hat; cat; rat; pan; can; stand; back etc.

If it was preceded by the sound *w*, it remained unchanged and eventually developed into *o:*

war; want; was; warm, watch; wasp; water etc.

It was lengthened before some consonant clusters and turned into *a:* when followed by:

a + th *father; rather; bath; path*
a + ss *pass; class; grass*
a + st *cast; last; fast; disaster*
a + sk *ask; mask; task; basket*
a + sp *clasp, gasp, grasp, raspberry*
a + lm *alms; balm; calm; palm*
a + lf *calf, half, behalf*
a + nt, nd, nch etc. *plant, command, branch*
a + ft *after; craft; daft*

This change is not found in the American variant, where the sound *a* changed into *æ*.

When the same sound was followed by l + consonant (other that *m* and *n*) it turned into long *o: all; call; talk; walk; stalk*

The exceptions from the general rule are: *cant; scant; pant; grand* where it turned into *æ*; *gaunt, haunt* where the sound *ɔ:* appeared; in the words like *change strange* it turned into *ei*, and the syllable became open by adding mute *e*.

The sound *r* changed its quality, turning from backlingual into uvular and was vocalized after vowels; that resulted in lengthening of the preceding vowels in combinations *ir, ur, or, er* turning them into ə:

fir; sir; dirt; firm; skirt; first; thirst
fur; curt; curtain; burn; hurt; burst; turn

worm; word; world; worse; worth
heard; learn; herd; certain; person

Alongside qualitative changes of vowels, some changes in the length of the vowel were observed:

u: was shortened and turned into [ʊ] before *k: book; cook; hook; took; brook*
before *d* and *t: food; good; stood; hood; foot; soot*
There are exceptions to this: *mood, rood, loot, root.*

Short *u* turned into [ʌ]; here we may find the words that had this sound in Old English as well as the words that acquired long *u:* from long *o:* in the course of the Great Vowel shift, but then were shortened before *t/d:*
come; sum; son; up; love; cut; rubber; utter; blood; flood.
In many cases this change did not take place when *u* was preceded by a labial consonant: *push; put; bull; bullet; butcher; pudding.*
The cases when in such position the sound also turned into [ʌ], however, are numerous: *bulb, buckle, buckwheat, buddy; budge; pulp, pulse, but, pub, puddle, puff, pumpkin.*

The changes in the Early New English consonants

In many cases the change is resulted in the loss of consonants in certain positions.
The sound *l* is lost in combinations before *k, m, f, v*
talk; walk; stalk; folk; chalk
palm, calm, qualm, psalm (but not in *helm, elm*)
half, calf (but *wolf, elf*)
halves (but *silver*).
Some of these words, however, preserve the sound in the American variant of the English language.
The sound *l* was preserved in the words of Latin origin such as *resolve, dissolve* etc.
It was also lost after a vowel before *d* in *should, could, would*

The sound *b* was dropped in combinnation *mb* when at the end of the word and not followed by another consonant: *lamb; climb; tomb; comb; numb; bomb*
n – in combination *mn autumn; solemn; column*
t – in combinations *stl, stn, ftn, stm* and *ktl – castle; whistle; thistle; fasten;listen;glisten; often; soften; Christmas; postman; exactly; directly*
k – in combination *skl* – *muscle*

The consonants were lost in such initial clusters:
g and *k* in *gn, kn:*
knight; knee; know; knave; knack, knock; knead, knife
gnat; gnaw; gnarl; gnome
w before a consonant (mainly *r*) was lost at the beginning of the words:
wreath; write; wrong; wreck; wrestle; wretched; wring; wrinkle; wrist
and in unstressed syllables after a consonant in such words as
answer; conquer; chequer; laquer; Southwark; Berwick; Chiswick; Greenwich; Norwich; Warwick,
and also in such words as *sword; two; towards.*
The sound *h* disppeared in many unstressed syllables (save for American variant of the language where in some cases it is preserved) – *forehead; shepherd; perhaps; Chatham; Nottingham, Birmingham, Brougham* [bru:m].

Qualitative change of consonants is illustrated by voicing of fricatives (when the preceding vowels was unstressed):
s → *z: dessert; resemble; possess; dissolve; example; exhibit; anxiety; luxurious* (in the words *luxury, anxious and exhibition*, where the preceding vowel is stressed, at least has a secondary stress they are not voiced)
f → *v: of* (but adverb *off* is usually stressed, and the sound is not voiced)
tʃ → *dʒ: knowledge; Greenwich; Norwich.*

Some sounds, mainly in the borrowed words merged with the preceding consonant forming a sibilant:

sj, tj – ʃ Asia; Russia; pension; session; musician; issue; mission; motion; notion; mention; ambition
zj – ʒ: division; collision; provision; measure; pleasure; treasure
tj – ʧ: question; nature; fortune; creature; feature; culture; mixture
dj – ʤ: soldier; procedure; verdure

Early New English Grammar

Noun in Early New English

The noun paradigm looks very much the same as we have it today. 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, we may call it possessive, because it is used now mainly in the function of attribute denoting possession. However, some nouns other than those denoting persons may still take it in the 17th century

I do not set my life in *a pin's fee* (Hamlet)
Truly, and I hold ambition of so airy and light a
quality that it is but a *shadow's shadow* (ibid).

At the same time the unification of plural endings takes place, and former relics of *-en* disappear, giving way to *-es*. So, the general rule of formation of the plural of the noun is enriched by archaic forms (like *geese, feet, children* etc.) – we call them grammatical archaisms; some words borrowed from Latin and used mainly in scientific texts retain their Latin plurals and may be called grammatical barbarisms *datum – data* (1640–50), *radius – radii* (1590–1600), *formula – formulae* (1575–85), *axis – axes* (1540–50). Some of these, however tend to comply with the general rule, and forms like *radiuses, formulas* very soon become quite common.

Various scholars note, that an interesting variation appears in the treatment of abstract nouns, which in Modern English have no plural, except by way of personifiication. In Shakespeare's time such nouns were regularly used in a distributive sense:

and 'tis our fast intent
To shake all cares and business from our age;
Conferring them on younger *strengths* (King Lear).

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. We may note numerous instances of the use of apostrophe in Shakespeare's plays, but there they show only the omission of *e* or some other sounds – that is purely a phonetic sign. So, for instance in the case of sentences like – The *trumpets* sounds (Hamlet) which may be perceived differently. The form *trumpets* may be simple plural, possesive singular and possessive plural. The context shows that this is a nominative sentence, *trumpets* is the attribute, and the trumpet is the only musical instrument in the situation. Hence, we may say that it is the genitive singular form of the noun.

Of-phrase (the noun with the preposition of) replaces the former genitive case, but in Shakespeare's plays thay may go together, as in the following

The pangs *of despised love*, the *law's* delay (Hamlet)

Early New English pronouns

Changes in the system of pronouns are not very numerous, yet worth special attention. They are as follows:

Personal Pronouns

The system of forms that arose in Middle English is somewhat reduced by shifting the second person singular pronoun *thou/thee* from the sphere of everyday use into special conditions. As the tendency to use the pronoun *ye* in addresing one person arose earlier, in the Middle English, now this tendency grows, but the very form of the nominative case falls out of use and finally the second person is expressed, in the nominative as well as in the objective case by the only suriving form – *you.*

It is interesting to note that the form *ye* (nominative case) and *you* (objective) sometimes are misplaced in Shakespeare's plays – (probably the cause for this is the fact that *ye* was not frequently used by the beginning of

the 17th century and the in form *ye* was closer to the objective case of *thou – thee* that was still current at that time.

Though *you* did love
this youth, I blame *ye* not:
You had a motive for't. (Cymbeline)

Thou/thee is still used in Shakespeare's works, but the rules, or regularities as to the use of this pronoun are rather indistinct. So, for instance in "*Romeo and Juliet*" the servants address each other using *thou*, Juliet and her mother use *you*, addressing each other; first meeting of Romeo and Juliet is entirely marked by addressing each other in *thou*, but finally while Juliet sticks to it, Romeo occasionally switches to *you:*

JULIET O God, I have an ill-divining soul!
Methinks I see *thee*, now *thou* art below,
As one dead in the bottom of a tomb:
Either my eyesight fails, or *thou* look'st pale.

ROMEO And trust me, love, in my eye so do *you*:
Dry sorrow drinks our blood. Adieu, adieu! (Romeo and Juliet).

Possessive pronouns

The system of possesive pronouns underwent some changes too. First of all, they lost agreement with the nouns they modify that was still slightly expressed in Middle English. The second person singular is still used, though is gradually on the decline, together with the personal pronouns. As in Middle Enlgish, the forms of the first and the second person possesive pronouns have variant forms *my/mine, thy/thine*, The full forms (*mine* and *thine*) were used with the nouns beginning with a vowel, and *my* and *thy* – those that began with a consonant sound. The forms *mine* and *thine* may also be used absolutely.

Thou know'st the mask of night is on *my* face (Romeo and Juliet).
What further woe conspires against *mine* age? (Romeo and Juliet).
First pay me for the nursing of *thy* sons (Cymbeline).
Alack, there lies more peril in *thine* eye
Than twenty of their swords (Romeo and Juliet).

The use of the absolute forms is much the same as it is now:
And am right glad he is not standing here
To tell this tale *of mine*. (Cymbeline).
Hamlet, this pearl is *thine* (Hamlet).

The third person neuter possessive pronoun has variant forms, too. The old form *his* is still in use, a new form *its* comes into usage. As a variant, uninflected form (bare *it*) may be used.

Sweet nature must pay *his* due (Hamlet)
The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long,
That it's had *it* head bit off by *it* young (King Lear)
It lifted up *its* head and did address
Itself to motion (Hamlet)

Early New English Adjective

The adjective in Early New English lost the form of plural and weak forms and acquired its present-day qualities. The degrees of comparison are formed by means of the suffixes *-er* and *-est*, vowel mutation which was characteristic of some of them was almost lost. The forms *elder/older, eldest/oldest* and *further/farther, furthest/farthest* are distinguished in use. So older forms *elder, eldest* are used to denote relations within a family and *further/furthest* are used in relation to time whereas *farther/farthest* to distance. In Shakespeare's times this not yet is firmly established, and we may encounter such uses as

He shall in strangeness stand no *further* off
Than in a polite distance. (Othello)
Go thou *farther* off;
Bid me farewell, and let me hear thee going. (King Lear)
You wrong me every way; you wrong me, Brutus;
I said, an *elder* soldier, not a better:
Did I say 'better'? (Julius Caesar)
I am a soldier, I,
Older in practise, abler than yourself
To make conditions. (ibid).

The tendency to unification of the general norm sometimes brings to the general rule even those the comparatives and superlatives of which were traditionally in suppletive way:

Where love is great, the *littlest* doubts are fear (Hamlet)
Some word there was, *worser* than Tybalt's death,
That murder'd me (Romeo and Juliet).

The new way of forming the degrees of comparison that appeared in Middle English – that is, analytically, by placing the adverb *more* and *most* before the adjective comes into practice. The rule that this new form is to be used only with polysyllabic and a limited number of bisyllabic adjectives was not yet established. Shakespeare's works illustrate what might be called synchronic variation of forms.

And with the *deepest* malice of the war
Destroy what lies before 'em. (Coriolanus)
I'll look to like, if looking liking move:
But no *more deep* will I endart mine eye
Than your consent gives strength to make it fly.(Romeo and Juliet)
And *more inconstant* than the wind (Romeo and Juliet)
Thy wit is a very bitter sweeting; it is a *most*
sharp sauce.(Romeo and Juliet)
This is unlikely:
He and Aufidius can no more atone
Than *violentest* contrariety. (ibid)
And Benedick is not the *unhopefullest* husband that
I know. (Much Ado About Nothing)

Double comparatives and superlatives – the instances when the adjective with a suffix is preceded by *more/most* are also found

To vouch this, is no proof,
Without *more wider* and more overt test (Othello)
This was *the most unkindest* cut of all (Julius Caesar)
Timon will to the woods; where he shall find
The unkindest beast *more kinder* than mankind.(Timon of Athens)

At the same time *more* and *most* may also be used as comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective *much* – that is, they are not auxiliaries but adjectives of full semantics (equivalent to present-day *greater, greatest*).

If I do so, it will be of *more price*,
Being spoke behind your back, than to your face. (Romeo and Juliet)

I will debate this matter at *more leisure*
And teach your ears to list me with more heed. (A Comedy of Errors)
... where he would show *most* love.(Coriolanus)
You take my part from me, sir; I have the *most* cause
to be glad of yours.(Coriolanus)

The way of forming the degrees of comparison of **adverbs** is mainly the same – here we also find suffixes, analytical forms and even double comparatives and double superlatives:

Why, I have often wished myself poorer, that I might come *nearer* to you. (Timon of Athens)
Trust me, he beat him *most pitifully*. (Merry Wives of Windsor)
She comes *more nearer* earth than she was wont,
And makes men mad. (Othello)

The Verb in Early New English

As the majority of new grammatical categories were already formed in Middle English, in Early New English they become more specialized in meaning, though it was not until the period when prescriptive grammars set the rules of their use there is much variation as far as their forms and peculiarities of use are concerned.

Formally, the state of things in the grammar of Early New English was as follows.

The loss of endings greatly simplified the verbal paradigm. There were no longer endings marking the 1st person singular, plural present indicative, and the infinitival suffix *-an → en → e* was also lost. Personal ending of the third person singular in the present tense *-th* is replaced by *-s*; *hath → has; thinketh → thinks*. However, the old ending may still be found in Shakespeare's works, and there is practically no difference between two forms (probably, to some extent the old form makes the speech more elevated and official):

What early tongue so sweet *saluteth* me? (Romeo and Juliet)
Some say the lark *makes* sweet division;

This *doth* not so, for she *divideth* us (ibid)
He *goeth* down/Love *goes* toward love, as schoolboys from
their books (ibid)

It is to be noted that the verbs *do* and *have* are the most persistent in keeping this old ending, at least they are used with it more frequently than the others, especially in the function of an auxiliary.

Our Romeo *hath not been* in bed to-night. (Romeo and Juliet)
For exile *hath* more terror in his look,
Much more than death (ibid)
This is the place; there, where the torch *doth* burn (ibid)

The use of the second person singular ending is limited insomuch as the pronoun falls out of use. Still, if the pronoun is used, the predicate verb agrees with it. Notably, in Old and Middle English this ending in the past tense was found only with the weak verbs, now strong verbs also take it:

Where *dwellest* thou? (Coriolanus)
Has he dined, *canst* thou tell? for I would not
speak with him till after dinner. (Coriolanus)
Spakest thou of Juliet? how is it with her?
Doth she not think me an old murderer (Romeo and Juliet)
I heard thee say even now, thou *likedst* not that,
When Cassio left my wife: what *didst* not like? (Othello)

How *camest* thou hither, tell me, and wherefore? (Romeo and Juliet)

The traditional classification of strong and weak verbs gives 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*. Somewhat apart are treated modal verbs, formerly preterite-present, that are stripped of their paradigmatic forms and are later referred to as defective.

Regular verbs.

As class II of the former weak verbs was the most productive and served as the basis for the rules of formation of the past tense and Participle II, the majority of former verbs belonging to this class remain regular: *love, look, ask, mark, prick, prove* etc. Some, however, somewhat changed and are now irregular *make – made* (formerly *maked*)

The verbs that are derived from other parts of speech are all regular and form their past tense and Participle II by adding *-ed* suffix now perceived as the ending.

He hath *out-villained* villany so far, that the
rarity redeems him. (All's well that ends well)

All borrowed verbs form their past tense in the same way, and so they are regular.

These bloody accidents must excuse my manners,
That so *neglected* you. (Othello)

Many traditionally strong verbs show the tendency to change their former past tense forms to a more productive and more widespread way of formation of past with the same ending, though they retain their Participle II form in *-en.*

Such verbs as *chew, climb, help, yield, starve, mourn, gnaw, ache, laugh, fold, walk* etc. barely show their former belonging to the strong conjugation, and their past tense and participles are fully regular:

chew – chewed, climb – climbed, help – helped, yield – yielded, starve – starved, mourn – mourned etc.

In early XVII century, however, we still see variation in use of such verbs:

Turn giddy, and *be holp* by backward turning (Romeo and Juliet)
Would I had been by, to *have helped* the old man! (The Winter's Tale)

The tendency was so strong that some verbs became regular , though further deveopment of the language brought them back into the group of irregular

My fear hath *catch'd* your fondness (All's well)

Some of these verbs form their past tense forms and participles differently – the past tense by adding *-ed,* Participle II by means of adding the suffix *-en* to the stem of the infinitive.

melt – melted – melted (molten)
shave – shaved – shaved (shaven)
show – showed – shown (showed)
sow – sowed – sown (sowed)
wake – waked – waked (woke – woken)
wax – waxed – waxed (waxen)

Irregular verbs include those former strong verbs that preserved the vowel interchange in the root. Here belong both those that form their participle with the help of the suffix *-n,* and those that lost the sufix altogether

write – wrote – written
rise – rose – risen
choose – chose – chosen
steal – stole – stolen
bite – bit – bit (bitten)
bind – bound – bound
find – found – found
sit – sat – sat
swim – swam – swum

Many regular weak verbs of the I class where phonetic processes of assimilation of consonants led to the change of the suffix to *-t*, shortening of the vowels in front of two consonants caused the difference in sounds of the infinitive and the two other forms (the first long vowel was changed in the course of the Great Vowel Shift, the others remain unchanged):

feel – felt – felt
meet – met – met
bend – bent – bent
send – sent – sent
lose – lost – lost

Those verbs of the I class of the weak verbs which were irregular in Old and Middle English remain irregular:

tell – told – told
sell – sold – sold
seek – sought – sought
bring – brought – brought

The verbs that were always irregular and stood apart from all the classification *to do* and *to go* did not change and also belong to the irregular:

do – did – done
go – went – gone,

to say nothing of the verb *to be* that being irregular in its basic forms *be – was – been* retained the forms of the 1st person in present singular and number in the past tense.

The group of irregular verbs includes also some verbs that became invariable as a result of phonetic changes. Such weak verbs the root of which ended in *-t* as *cut, shut, set, hurt, rid, put, split,* formerly had the dental suffix in the past tense and in the participle II In the course of phonetic developoment it merged with the root, hence they are invariable now. Additionally, the difference between the long and the short vowels became irrelevant and both long and short vowels in the formerly strong *spread* became both short – so *spread – spread – spread*; class VII verb *let* became invariabl already in Middle English, and such words as *cast, thurst* and *cost*, having the same sound at the end, have probably formed their forms on the analogy with the above verbs.

Modal Verbs

The changes in preterite-present are significant. Some verbs are lost altogether (*dowen, unnen, thurven, munnen*). 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 are no longer autonomous and cannot 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 retain the former semantics.

Such is the verb *witen* (to know) which is still found in Shakespeare's times in the form *wot/ wotst/wots,* unlike other modals it takes the personal endings and has the form of the participle:

I'll find Romeo
To comfort you: I *wot* well where he is (Romeo and Juliet)
...more water glideth by the mill
Than *wots* the miller of (Titus Andronicus)
Is that Camillo was an honest man;
And why he left your court, the gods themselves,
Wotting no more than I, are ignorant. (The winter's Tale)

It may be said that in these rare case of the use of the verb *witen* approaches the verbs of full semantics, and practically never became a true modal.

The rest are used only as modal auxiliaries. The verb *can/could* still takes the personal ending of the second person, but no ending is observed in the third person singular. *Could* may be used to mean past indicative or the present Subjunctive:

Canst thou remember
A time before we came unto this cell? (Titus Andronicus)
Young man, thou *couldst* not die more honourable. (Julius Caesar)
I *could* be well moved, if I were as you (Julius Caesar)

Its participle is preserved only in the adjectivised form with the prefix *un-*
I am surprised with an *uncouth* fear;
A chilling sweat o'er-runs my trembling joints (Titus Andronicus)

May/might, like *can* takes the personal ending only in the 2nd person singular; both forms are frequently used with the meaning of subjunctive (or present conditional);

..you *may* buy
land now as cheap as stinking mackerel. (King Henry IV)
Reach me thy hand, that I *may* help thee out (Titus Andronicus)
O, that a man *might* know
The end of this day's business ere it come! (Julius Caesar)
O Imogen,
Safe *mayst* thou wander, safe return again! (Cymbeline)

The preterite – present verb *owen* split into two – a regular verb *owe* (past tense *owed*) with the meaning "to possess" or "to be in debt to"; its past tense *ought* acuired its present-day meaning of duty or moral obligation or probability or natural consequence:

Speak less than thou knowest,
Lend less than thou *owest* (King Lear)
...thou dost here usurp
The name thou *owest* not (The Tempest)
...this proud king, who studies day and night
To answer all the debt he *owes* to you (King Henry IV)
The weight of this sad time we must obey;
Speak what we feel, not what we *ought* to say. (King Lear)
You have some sick offence within your mind,
Which, by the right and virtue of my place,
I *ought* to know of (Julius Caesar)

Shall/should are used as modals; shall also as auxiliaries of the future and future-in-the-past tense.

VIRGILIA Beseech you, give me leave to retire myself.
VOLUMNIA Indeed, you *shall* not. (Coriolan)
...whatsoever I did bid thee do,
Thou *shouldst* attempt it. (Julius Caesar)

Nurse! What *should* she do here? (Romeo and Juliet)

The most significant change underwent the verb *mot, moste* – it retained only the form of the past tense that now has no relevance to the past, and its original meaning of ability shifted to present-day meaning of obligation.

How malicious is my fortune, that I *must* repent to
be just! (King Lear)
...all that lives *must* die,
Passing through nature to eternity. (Hamlet)

In Early New English the uses of *must* are often associated with the use of the adverb *needs*, rendering the meaning of necessity – necessarily, etc.

My dismal scene I *needs must* act alone.
Come, vial. (Romeo and Juliet)
...how sound is she asleep!
I *must needs* wake her. Madam, madam, madam!(Romeo and Juliet)

The verb *daren, durren* has partly preserved its nature as a preterite-present verb – it may take (or not) the 3rd person ending in the present indicative, it may be followed by bare infinitive (or with the particle *to*); it had variant forms of the past tense and subjunctive (*dared/durst*):

And what love can do that *dares* love attempt (Romeo and Juliet)
Go in and cheer the king: he rages; none
Dare come about him. (Cymbeline)

It also developed a new meaning "to challenge or provoke (a person) into a demonstration of courage":

So hath my lord *dared* him to single fight.(Antony and Cleopatra)
Decline your head: this kiss, if it *durst* speak,
Would stretch thy spirits up into the air (King Lear)

The verb *will/would*, formally anomalous, now approaches the modals. As in older times it does not take the 3rd person singular personal ending, the infinitive usually associated with it is bare, and in its uses it has very much in

common with the other modals. However in the early XVII century very often it is used as a notional verb. This is especially evident in such uses of the form *would* in the subjunctive where *would like* in present-day English is more common:

EROS What *would* my lord?(Antony and Cleopatra)
RODERIGO What *will* I *do*, thinkest thou?
IAGO Why, go to bed, and sleep.(Othello)
I cannot think it,
That he *would steal* away so guilty-like,
Seeing you coming. (Othello)
I *would* not for the world they saw thee here. (Romeo and Juliet)
My lord, I *would* that Thursday were to-morrow. (Romeo and Juliet)

The number of basic forms of the former strong is reduced to three: that of the infinitive, past tense and Participle II. Class VI and VII in older times had this pattern already from the times of Old English – in other classes past singular and past plural had different root vowels. This change lacked regularity – some of the verbs preserved the first, the second and the fourth forms with the participle suffix *-en* (*write – wrote – written*), some lost the suffix (*ride – rode – rid*), the past form and the participle of still other were identical and the second or the third form was used as the basis (*bind – bound – bound*). We may find instances when Participle II has no suffix, whereas adjectivized participle has it (*drink – drank – drunk*, but *drunken*), or when a verb and its derivative differ in the formation of Participle II (*get – got – got*, but *forget – forgot – forgotten*, the American variant preserves the suffix with both). In early New English there is still much uncertainty in many verbs. Compare:

...meantime I *writ* to Romeo, (past)
That he should hither come (Romeo and Juliet)
...wilt thou know
The effect of what I *wrote*? (Hamlet) (past)
...find those persons out
Whose names *are written* there (Romeo and Juliet)
I am sent to find those persons whose names *are here writ* (Romeo and Juliet)
...the all-seeing sun
Ne'er saw her match since first the world *begun*. (Romeo and Juliet) (past)
They *had begun* the play – I sat me down (Hamlet) (Participle II)

Some other verbs too have variations in forming the past tense and participle II:

And what I *spake*, I *spake* it to my face. (Romeo and Juliet)
I hope you will consider what *is spoke*
Comes from my love. (Othello)

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)
My purpose was not *to have seen* you here (Merchant of Venice) (perfect)
O, sir, you had then left unseen a wonderful piece
of work; which not *to have been blest* withal would
have discredited your travel. (Antony and Cleopatra) (perfect passive)
But *to be paddling palms and pinching fingers*,
As now they are, and *making* practised smiles,
As in a looking-glass, and then to sigh, as 'twere
The mort o' the deer (Winter's Tale) (continuous)

Perfect Participle, in active and passive forms becomes quite common:

Nay, then indeed she cannot choose but hate thee,
Having bought love with such a bloody spoil.(Richard III)
This is some fellow,
Who, *having been praised* for bluntness, doth affect
A saucy roughness (King Lear)

The Gerund that originated and was occasionally used in Middle English becomes quite common, the use of this form does not differ from the present-day practice:

You know the cause, air, of *my standing* here.
(Coriolanus)
...or else
triumphantly tread on thy country's ruin,
And bear the palm for *having bravely shed*
Thy wife and children's blood. (Coriolanus)

Thy grace *being gain'd* cures all disgrace in me. (Love's Labours Lost)
If he suspect I may dishonour him:
And what may make him blush in *being known*,
He'll stop the course by which it might be known (Pericles)

The Categories of the Early New English Verb

The categories of the Early New English remain basically the same: tense, voice, time correlation (perfect), mood.The categories of number and person are less distinct and expressed in the personal ending of the 3rd person singular in the present tense active voice and in the passive voice, as the verb *to be* retains its 1st person singular and two number forms in the past.

All forms of the perfect tenses are abundantly used in Early New English. Occasionally the perfect tenses of the intransitive verbs are formed with the auxiliary *to be* but the forms with the auxiliary *have* are also found:

O, are *you come*, Iago? you have done well (Othello)
I *am gone*, though I am here (Much Ado About Nothing)
You *are come* to see my daughter Anne? (The Merry Wives of Windsor)
She had a prophesying fear
Of what *hath come* to pass (Anthony and Cleopatra)
I would they *had not come* between us (Cymbeline)

The moods of the Early New English period are 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 sentences of unreal condition:

If thou *wert* honourable,
Thou *wouldst have told* this tale for virtue (Cymbeline)
...if you
Should have ta'en vengeance on my faults, I never
Had lived to put on this (Cymbeline)

Had he not resembled
My father as he slept, I *had done*'t. (Macbeth)
If he *were dead*, you'*ld weep* for
him: if you *would not*, it *were* a good sign
that I *should quickly have* a new father (Macbeth)

Simple sentences with Subjunctive mood expressing wish are frequent, and practically all forms are found there:

O heavens! that this treason *were* not,
or not I the detector! (King Lear)

There is another difference in the use of the former Present tense of the Subjunctive Mood (which now is commonly called Subjunctive I). Its is widely used in the texts, in sentences expressing wishes (curses including). Such sentences were much more common in those times, so the frequency of use of this form is very high.

Once more, on pain of death, *all men depart.* (Romeo and Juliet)
Nor *earth to me give food*, nor heaven light!
Sport and repose lock from me day and night!
To desperation *turn my trust* and hope!
An anchor's cheer in prison *be my scope*! (Hamlet)

Subjunctive I is 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 *till it be morrow*.(Romeo and Juliet) (clause of time)
Give order to my servants that *they take*
No note at all of our being absent hence (Merchant of Venice) (attributive clause)
...yet he looks sadly,
And prays the Moor *be safe* (Othello) (object clause)
Let him walk from whence he came, lest *he*
catch cold on's feet. (The Comedy of Errors) (adverbial clause of purpose)
O, swear not by the moon, the inconstant moon,

That monthly changes in her circled orb,
Lest that thy *love prove* likewise variable. (Romeo and Juliet)

Conjunction *lest*, however, may be also followed by a new analytical form of the Subjunctive – *should* + infinitive (the form of Suppostional Mood)

I dare not confess that, lest *I should compare* with
him in excellence; but, to know a man well, were to
know himself. (Hamlet)
...my dagger muzzled,
Lest *it should bite* its master (The Winter's Tale)

Notably, the sentences of what we call now those of real condition prevalently have Subjunctive I in the subordinate clause:

If then that *friend demand*
why Brutus rose against Caesar, this is my answer (Julius Caesar)
But woo her, gentle Paris, get her heart,
My will to her consent is but a part;
An (= if) *she agree*, within her scope of choice
Lies my consent and fair according voice. (Romeo and Juliet)
If the great gods *be* just, they shall assist
The deeds of justest men. (Anthony and Cleopatra).

The continuous aspect, the first instances of which were used in Middle English is occasionally used in the texts of this period, though not as a system (in a typical situation in which this form is used now, to denote the action that takes place at the moment of speech it is not used by Shakespeare):

[Enter HAMLET, reading]
POLONIUS ...What do you read, my lord?
HAMLET Words, words, words.(Hamlet).

In other cases, however, we may see it, yet it becomes recognized as correct and included into the norm much later, in the XVI–XVII century. Still, what is the grammatical status of such structures (italicised here) as:

What's he that now *is going* out of door? (Romeo and Juliet)
They *are coming* to the play; I must be idle:
Get you a place. (Hamlet)
He*'s walking* in the garden – thus; and spurns
The rush that lies before him (Antony and Cleopatra).

Old Siward, with ten thousand warlike men,
Already at a point, *was setting* forth (Macbeth)
I *have been feasting* with mine enemy (Romeo and Juliet).

One can easily agree that these are Present, Past and Present Perfect Continuous.

Instances of the use of the continuous form with the adverb *always* are marked by emotional colouring; they express irritation on the part of the speaker

Thou *art always figuring* diseases in me; but thou
art full of error; I am sound. (Measure for Measure)

One may also observe some regularities in the use of the forms of the verb *to use* as semi-auxiliary or auxiliary – for it is grammaticalized here – of past (iterative – to express the repeated action in the past or past action that is no longer performed). Such structure in present-day English is mentioned as a grammatical pattern (*He used to live there; He used to visit us* – meaning that he doesn't live and hasn't lived there ever since, and that he repeatedly visited but does no longer visit us). In present day English this structure is structurally limited, it is prevalently used in the past tense and mostly in the affirmative sentences, while there are practically no structural limitations to this form in Early New English:

His eyes are humbler than they *used to be*. (King Henry V)
...these gentlemen,
who are of such sensible and nimble lungs that
they always *use to laugh* at nothing. (The Tempest)
There they always *use to*
discharge their birding-pieces. (Merry wives)
...this brain of mine
Hunts not the trail of policy so sure
As it *hath used to do*, that I have found
The very cause of Hamlet's lunacy. (Hamlet)
I do commit into your hand
The unstained sword that you *have used to bear* (King Henry IV)

This structure in Early New English was almost paradigmatically full, so it is possible to say that there were some prerequisites for formation of yet another grammatical category specifying the aspective characteristics of the

action which in the long run proved almost irrelevant and remained only as a cast-iron grammatical phrase.

Occasionally, the same meaning is also rendered by combination *would* + *inf*, but the verb *would* preserves more of its lexical meaning, modal meaning is still felt:

Broad-fronted Caesar,
When thou wast here above the ground, I was
A morsel for a monarch: and great Pompey
Would stand and make his eyes grow in my brow (Antony and Cleopatra)

Early New English Syntax

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 sentence 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 this 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.

Joining becomes the main way of connecting the words in the sentence – headword does not change anything in the subordinate in such combinations as *young knight/young knights; I say, you say, we say, they say* etc.

A noun in pre-position to other noun generally plays the part of an attribute:

He raised the house with loud and *coward cries*; Gloucester's *bastard son;* Get thee *glass eyes;* use his eyes for *garden water-pots;* Talk of *court news,* Despite thy *victor sword* (King Lear)

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 "*do-periphrasis*", 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

I 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.

And for that offence
Immediately we *do exile* him hence (Romeo and Juliet)
Will you be ready? *do you like* this haste? (ibid)
Dost thou come here to whine? (Hamlet)
I *do not know* from what part of the world
I should be greeted (Hamlet)
Nay, *I know not*. (Hamlet)
Not that I think you *did not love* your father (Hamlet)
Or never after look me in the face:
Speak not, reply not, do not answer me (Romeo and Juliet)
The clock struck nine when *I did send* the nurse;
In half an hour she promised to return. (Romeo and Juliet)

In present-day English negative structures without *do* are also more emphatic. Emphasis and expressivity result from violation of any rule. Metaphor, hyperbole, oxymoron are expressive, because the rules of semantic combinability are broken – when Shakespeare, for instance says

I loved Ophelia: forty thousand brothers
Could not, with all their quantity of love,
Make up my sum. (Hamlet)

it is the hyperbola (*forty thousand brothers*) that makes the utterance expressive; *I did love* could not make it so expressive, as there was no limitation on the use of the form; in the following lines

Feather of lead, bright smoke, cold fire,
sick health! (Romeo and Juliet)

it is the incongruous, seemingly self-contradictory effect produced by combinations of usually uncombinable words that makes the utterance eloquent. So if the structure with the auxiliary *do* in the affirmativ sentences are really strong and emotional, that may be the effect of the other elements of the sentence – lexical as well as structural

O woe! O *woful, woful, woful* day!
Most lamentable day, most woful day,
That *ever, ever*, I *did* yet behold! (Romeo and Juliet) (numerous repetitions and the superlative degree of the adjectives produce the desired effect).

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 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)

JULIET Art thou not Romeo and a Montague?
ROMEO Neither, fair saint, if either *thee dislike*. (Romeo and Juliet)
Me seemeth good, that, with some little train,
Forthwith from Ludlow the young prince be fetch'd
Hither to London, to be crown'd our king. (King Richard III)
IAGO Here at the door; I pray you, call them in.
CASSIO I'll do't; but it *dislikes me*. (Othello)

The tendency to the nominative structure finds its expression that such meaning 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.

PRINCE EDWARD Where shall we sojourn till our coronation?
GLOUCESTER Where *it seems* best unto your royal self. (King Richard III)
I do not much dislike the matter, but
The manner of his speech (Anthony and Cleopatra)
I think it is our way,
If we will keep in favour with the king (King Richard III)

Though double negation is considered ungrammatical and is gradually driven out of the language, Shakespeare's works still show that it did not happen in early 17th century:

Most mighty sovereign,
You have no cause to hold my friendship doubtful:
I *never was nor never* will be false. (King Richard III)
If idle talk will once be necessary,
I'll *not sleep neither* (Anthone and Cleopatra)
STEPHANO We'll not run, Monsieur Monster.
TRINCULO *Nor go neither*; but you'll lie like dogs and yet say *nothing neither*. (The Tempest)

Early New English Vocabulary

Whereas we mentioned various sources of enriching the English vocabulary – they were Latin and Celtic in Old English, Scandinavian and French in Middle English, the Modern English state of things is characterised more by English influence on the other languages than by the reverse.

Whereas words of foreign origin enriched the English vocabulary to a great extent, the inner factors – that is, various ways of word building were also very actively used. New words appeared in the language built by all traditional word building processes – derivation, compounding, semantic word building and a new, specifically English way of making new words arose – zero-derivation, or conversion.

Derivation can be observed in all parts of speech. The most productive suffixes of the period were:

noun-suffixes:

-er trader 1575–85, *banker* 1525–35, *manager* 1580–90, *explorer* 1675–85, *provider* 1575–85, *subscriber* 1590–1600, *printer* 1495–1505, *stopper* 1470–80, *spoiler* 1525–35, *hooker* 1560–70, *chopper* 1545–55, *ripper* 1605–15, *intruder* 1525–35, *hairdresser* 1760–70.

The range of meanings of this suffix was extended,, and it came to be used to denote not only the doer of the action but also things:

boiler 1530–40, *cooler* 1565–75, *duster* 1570–80, *steamer* 1805–15, *coaster* 1565–75, *scooter* 1800–10.

During this period the former suffix *–our* (French in origin) acquired the same form *-er* or turned into *-or.*

interpretour – interpreter
robbour – robber
auditour – auditor
traytour – traitor
emperour – emperor
senatour – senator

The suffix *-ster (*from feminine *-estre webbestre, spinnestre, beggestre)* acquired negative connotations and no longer is indicating the gender

gamester 1545–55, *trickster* 1705–15, *gangster.*

In noun-formation we find old suffixes that may be added to native as well as borrowed stems:

-ing *farming* 1545–55
belonging 1595–1605
stocking 1575–85
misgiving 1595–1605
marketing 1555–65
acting 1595–1605
modelling 1575–85
screening 1715–25
engineering 1710–20

Here are some more words from Shakespeare's "Macbeth"

This supernatural *soliciting;*

Present fears are less than horrible *imaginings*;
...that no compunctious *visitings* of nature shake my fell purpose

The list can be easily extended manifold.

Very active is the native suffix *-ness:*

consciousness 1625–35
happiness 1520–30
fitness 1570–80.

In Shakespeare's time the productivity of this suffix is great; the words with it include such as *equalness, loathness, tameness, freeness, solemness, valiantness, rawness* etc. which, though still registered in dictionaries are no longer in active use and are prevalently used either with other derivational morphemes, or without suffix at all.

The morpheme *-man*, formerly a part of numerous compounds turns into a semi-suffix, which until recently was not marked with a pronounced gender meaning, probably because all the marked professions were men's, and the question of women in profession did not arise.

boatman 1505–15
spokesman 1510–20
coachman 1570–80
postman 1520–30
meatman 1560–70
clergyman 1570–80
milkman 1580–90
tallyman 1645–55
oarsman 1695–1705
cowman 1670–80
groomsman 1690–1700
fireman 1620–30
chairman 1645–55
artilleryman 1625–35

and later *sportsman* 1700–10, *policeman* 1795–1805, *showman* 1725–35, *raftsman* 1770–80, *yachtsman* 1860–65, *ombudsman* 1910–15, *anchorman* 1955–60.

The latest change of the formations of this type in compounds proper can be illustrated by coinages like *spokesperson* 1970–75, *chaiperson* 1970–75, *anchorperson* 1970–75 etc.

Adjective suffixes of that were used at the times were of native origin as well as borrowed. The native suffixes are:

-*y* *stumpy* 1590–1600
wavy 1555–65
haughty 1520–30
healthy 1545–55
saucy 1500–10
racy 1645–55
brassy 1570–80
lumpy 1700–10

-*ful* *bashful* 1540–50
beautiful 1520–30
delightful 1520–30
grateful 1545–55
hopeful 1560–70
truthful 1590–1600
trustful 1570–80
disdainful 1535–45
eventful 1590–1600
disgustful 1605–15
fanciful 1620–30
regretful 1640–50

Prefixation is also active in the Early New English period. Among native prefixes that remain productive and are very active in making new words one should mention negative prefixes *un-* and *mis-* – the first equivalent to "not", and the second applied to various parts of speech, meaning "ill,' "mistaken,' "wrong,' "wrongly,' "incorrectly,' or simply negating, and the prefix *dis-* having negative or reversing force:

unbecoming 1590–1600
unfortunate 1520–30
unabated 1605–15
unabridged 1590–1600
unaccented 1590–1600
unalterable 1610–15
unanswerable 1605–15
unapproachable 1575–85

...it provokes, and *unprovokes* (Macbeth)
Come, you spirits
That tend on mortal thoughts, *unsex* me here,
And fill me from the crown to the toe top-full
Of direst cruelty! (ibid.)

misreckon 1515–25
misremember 1525–35
misplace 1545–55
mismatch 1590–1600
mispronounce 1585–95
misquote 1590–1600
misstate 1640–50
misspell 1645–55
misrepresent 1640–50

distrust 1505–15
dislike 1545–55
distaste 1580–90
discase 1590–1600
displace 1545–55
disbelieve 1635–45
disown 1610–20

What follows if we *disallow* of this? (King John)

These prefixes may combine with the roots of any origin which is not to be said about the other productive negative prefix *in-*, which either came together with or is limited in its functioning to the roots of Latin and French origin.

The prefixes *out-*, *over-* and *under-* known in the language from the oldest times give a great number of new coinages

out- is used to form many transitive verbs denoting a going beyond, surpassing, or outdoing in the particular action indicated:

outrow 1520–30
outbid 1580–90
outbrave 1580–90
outbreak 1595–1605
outdare 1585–95

outlast 1565–75
outmatch 1595–1605
outplay 1640–50

We find numerous examples of the use of this prefix in the plays of Shakespeare, proving that it was especially productive in the 17th century.

He hath *out-villained* villany so far, that the
rarity redeems him. (All's well that ends well)
Let him do his spite:
My services which I have done the signiory
Shall *out-tongue* his complaints. (Othello)
...it *out-herods* Herod: pray you, avoid it.(Hamlet)
For thee, oppressed king, am I cast down;
Myself could else *out-frown* false fortune's frown. (King Lear)

over – with the sense of "over the limit,' "to excess,' "too much,' "too,' is used to form verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns:

overbear 1525–35
overawe 1570–80
overburdern 1570–80
overcareful 1585–95
overact 1605–15
overconfident 1610–20

Would it not grieve a woman to be
overmastered with a pierce of valiant dust? (Much Ado About Nothing)
in that we are not *over-happy* (Hamlet)
When you are *over-earnest* with your Brutus... (Julius Caesar)
You bred him as my playfellow, and he is
A man worth any woman, *overbuys* me
Almost the sum he pays.(Cymbeline)
...feed it with such *over-roasted* flesh...(The Taming of the Shrew)

under – is used to indicate place or situation below or beneath; lower in grade or dignity; of lesser degree, extent, or amount; or insufficiency:

underage 1585–95
underbid 1585–95
underdo 1605–15
underrate 1615–25
underpraise 1690–1700.

If you do say we think him *over-proud*
And *under-honest*... (Troilus and Cressida)
...the flame o' the taper
Bows toward her, and would *under-peep* her lids (Cymbeline)
...the *under-hangman* of his kingdom (Cymbeline)
And leave those woes alone which I alone
Am bound to *under-bear* (King John)

The above affixes continue to form new words. New affixes of the Early English period are:

-ment. It came into the language in Middle English together with a great number of French words (*testament, argument, juggement, ornement, instrument* etc.), but in Early New English it became productive and used with stems of various origin:

atonement 1505–15
merriment 1570–80
treatment 1550–60
astonishment 1570–80
acknowledgement 1585–95
inducement 1585–95
amazement 1590–1600
betterment 1590–1600

Here have we war for war and blood for blood,
Controlment for *controlment*: so answer France. (King John)

The suffix *-al*, forming nouns from verbs, usually verbs of French or Latin origin gives the following in Early New English:

recital 1505–15
trial 1520–30
approval 1680–90
denial 1520–30
perusal 1590–1600
disposal 1620–30
proposal 1645–55

-ity, a suffix of French origin is used to form abstract nouns expressing state or condition is joined to the borrowed stems:

probity 1505–15
modesty 1525–35
senility 1770–80
virility 1580–90
validity 1540–50.

while *-age* of the same origin may be used in either combination:
luggage 1590–1600
shortage 1865–70
leakage 1480–90
rampage 1705–15
mileage 1745–55
storage 1605–15
wreckage 1830–40

Suffix *-able/- ible* came into the English language in Middle English as a part of a great number of French adjectives (*amyable, agreable, charitable, mesurable, honurable* etc.) , but was hardly used with the stems of native English origin). In Early New English it is equally productive with stems of either origin:
answerable 1540–50
approachable 1565–75
arguable 1605–15
bearable 1540–50
capable 1555–65
collectible, collectable 1640–50
commonable 1610–20
deniable 1540–50
dirigible 1575–85
disputable 1540–50
drinkable 1605–15
eatable 1475–85
enjoyable 1635–45
marketable 1590–1600
namable 1770–80
readable 1560–70
removable 1525–35
tameable 1545–55
teachable 1475–85

The process continues up to the present time, and now it is among the most productive word-forming suffixes.

Latin and Greek prefixes *re- trans- post- pre- super- sub- counter- anti-* are productive and combine both with the borrowed and native roots. The examples of innovations containing them are:
re- *re-examine* 1585–95
rewrite 1560–70
re-export 1680–90
redo 1590–1600
refill 1680–90
remind 1635–45
restate 1705–15
recollect 1605–15
refurbish 1605–15

trans- used with the meanings "across,' "beyond,' "through,' "changing thoroughly,' "transverse,' in combination with elements of any origin:
transact 1575–85
transfix 1580–90
transgress 1520–30
transmarine 1575–85
translucent 1590–1600
translocation 1615–25

post- a prefix, meaning "behind,' "after,' "later,' "subsequent to,' "posterior to,' now used freely in the formation of new words:
postposition 1540–50
postdiluvian 1670–80
postgraduate 1855–60
post-meridian 1620–30

pre- a prefix meaning "before' "prior to,' "in advance of,' "early,' "beforehand,' "before,' "in front of,' and with other figurative meanings:
prejudge 1555–65
preconceive 1570–80
predecease 1585–95
precaution 1595–1605
preappoint 1625–35

super- a prefix with the basic meaning "above, beyond,' "situated over' and, more figuratively, "an individual, thing, or property that exceeds customary norms or levels':

supereminent 1545–55
supersubtle 1590–1600
supercritical 1600–10
superlunary 1605–15
superman 1625–35
supercharge 1760–70
superstructure 1635–45

sub- a prefix freely attached to elements of any origin and used with the meaning "under,' "below,' "beneath', "slightly,' "imperfectly,' "nearly', "secondary,' "subordinate':

subhead 1580–90
subalpine 1650–60
submarine 1640–50
subselestial 1555–65
subcommittee 1600–10

counter- used with the meanings "against,' "contrary,' "opposite,' "in opposition or response to'; "complementary,' "in reciprocation,' "corresponding,' "parallel':

counterbalance 1570–80
counterscarp 1565–75
counterplot 1590–1600
countercharge 1605–15
counterforce 1600–10
counterblow 1625–35
counteract 1670–80

Compounding was always a productive way of making new words in Germanic languages in general and English in particular. So In the Early New English the language was enriched by the words of various patterns:

handkerchief 1520–30
schoolboy 1580–90
lighthouse 1655–65
daybook 1570–80
staircase 1615–25

heartbroken 1580–90
good-natured 1570–80
longfaced 1585–95
short-lived 1580–90
greatcoat 1655–65
shorthand 1630–40
looking-glass 1520–30
bystander 1610–20
passer-by 1560–70

Some words were formed from more than two stems, they are called syntactic compounds:

forget-me-not 1525–35
happy-go-lucky 1665–75
jack-in-the-box 1545–55
jack-of-all-trades 1610–20
matter-of-fact 1575–85
merry-go-round 1720–30
out-of-date 1620–30

Among these are common occasional formations when a word-group stands in preposition to a noun:

the *to-and-fro-conflicting* wind and rain. (King Lear)
The *let-alone* lies not in your good will. (King Lear)

Making new words by **clipping** gains pace. While in the 16th century such words were not so common, later periods proved that this is a productive way of word building. Long borrowed words were shortened to better assimilate in the English vocabulary more and more tending to short monosyllabic words:

gent 1555–65 (gentleman)
quack 1620–30 (quacksalver)
cab 1640–50 (cabriolet)
wig 1665–75; (periwig)
mob 1680–90; [L *mobile vulgus* the movable (i.e., changeable, inconstant) common people],

Later, in the XIX c. here we will find *exam* (examination), *consoles* (consolidated rent), *bus* (omnibus), *van* (caravan), *flu* (influenza), *doc* (doctor) and many others.

As international communication becomes more active new words derived from proper names, often of foreign origin appear in the language:

calico (Calcutta) 1495–1505; short for *Calico cloth*

ghetto a section of a city in which all Jews (and later the representatives of other ethnic minority group, were required to live) 1605–15; < It, orig. the name of an island near Venice where Jews were forced to reside in the 16th century

morocco a fine soft leather made from goatskins, used for bookbinding, shoes, etc. (17: after Morocco, where it was originally made]

astrakhan a fur of young lambs, with lustrous, closely curled wool, from [1760–70]

jersey 1575–85 a knitted garment covering the upper part of the body; a machine-knitted slightly elastic cloth of wool, silk, nylon, etc., used for clothing [from Jersey, the woollen sweaters traditionally worn by the fishermen of the island]

sandwich 1755–65 two or more slices of bread or the like with a layer of meat, fish, cheese, etc., between each pair [named after the fourth Earl of *Sandwich* (1718–92)]

derrick a jib crane (orig. a hangman, the gallows, after the surname of a well-known Tyburn hangman, about 1600)

Conversion as a New Phenomenon In Early New English Word-formation

Zero-derivation, or **conversion** is a specifically English way of word building which arose in the language due to the loss of endings. Like any other inflected language Old English had a distinctive suffix of the infinitive *-an/-ian*, and denominal and deajectival verbs were made by suffixation:

lufu – lufian
rest – restan
ende – endian.

In Middle English, with the levelling of endings, these pairs were *love – loven, rest – resten, end – enden.* Finally the endings were lost, and the noun and the verb coincided in form *love* n. – *love* v.; *rest* n. – *rest* v.; *end* n. – *end* v. This set a new pattern of making new words (verbs from nouns and adjectives with a certain number of verbs derived from other parts of

speech and nouns from verbs). In Early New English it was very productive, even more productive than it is now, and the plays of Shakespeare will show enormous number of such coinages:

…such boil'd stuff a s well might *poison* poison! (Cymbeline) (N – V)
Out on thee, rude man! thou dost *shame* thy mother (King John) (N – V)
Think you I am no stronger than my sex,
Being so *father'd* and so *husbanded*? (Julius Caesar)
I wrote to you
When rioting in Alexandria; you
Did pocket up my letters (Antony and Cleopatra)
…to get myself into more *work* (Julius Caesar) (V – N)
Have you not made an universal *shout*,
That Tiber trembled underneath her banks (Julius Caesar) (V – N)
I have received *a hurt*: follow me, lady. (King Lear) (V – N)

Among the nouns turned into verbs in the Early New English such verbs are to be mentioned: *alarm (*16 c.) *camp* (16 c.), *place* (16 c.) *pity* (16 c.) *pump* (16 c.), *capture* (18 c.), *stake* (17c.), *hand* (17 c), *lunch* (19 c.), etc.

The following verbs gave rise to new nouns by conversion:

advance (15 c.), *praise* (15 c.), *talk* (15 c.), *crowd* (16 c.), *defeat* (16 c.) *drive* (17 c.), *laugh* (17 c.), *paint* (17 c).

The same process is observed in formation the following verbs from the adjectives:

clean (15 c.), *empty* (16 c.), *secure* (16 c.) etc.

Though the process of substantivation of adjectives is sometimes treated separately, its essence is about the same – a new part of speech is made without any derivational morpheme. During the period such adjectives through conversion gave the following nouns:

native (15 c.) , *public* (15 c.), *Russian* (16 c.), *American* (16 c.).

Borrowings in the Early New English

Latin borrowings were especially numerous. Taken mainly from written sources they easily assimilated in the language, and all the long vowels comply with the changes in the vowels in similar position during the Great Vowel

Shift. Words belonging to various parts of speech are found here. Some preserved Latin grammatical morphemes which are no longer felt as such, the word belongs to any part of speech irrespective of the part of speech suffix. Here are some examples of the borrowings of the period:

Nouns:

amplitude 1540–50
applause 1590–1600
class 1590–1600
consultation 1540–50
demolition 1540–50
formula 1575–85
gymnasium 1590–1600
horizon 1540–50
initiation 1575–85
medium 1575–85
radius 1590–1600
scene 1530–40
triumvirate 1575–85

As far as **verbs** are concerned, some distinctive morphemes are to be mentioned here. A considerable number of verbs had the suffix *-ate* (that was the suffix of Participle II of the verbs of the Ist conjugation) – in English it has nothing to do with the non-finite forms of the verbs marker, and is generally perceived as the verbal suffix:

accommodate 1515–25
accumulate 1520–30
agitate 1580–90
appreciate 1645–55
calculate 1560–70
congratulate 1540–50
co-ordinate 1635–45
devastate 1625–35
discriminate 1620–30
dominate 1605–15
estimate 1525–35
exaggerate 1525–35
expiate 1585–95
hesitate 1615–25

illustrate 1520–30
imitate 1525–35
indicate 1645–55
infuriate 1660–70
nominate 1475–85
operate 1600–10
participate 1525–35
remunerate 1515–25
stimulate 1540–50
vacillate 1590–1600

Many verbs borrowed from Latin have the suffix *-ct* (that of the Participle II of the III conjugation of Latin verbs):

inject 1590–1600
inspect 1615–25
neglect 1520–30
predict 1540–50
protect 1520–30
protract 1540–50
reject 1485–95
select 1555–65

Not so numerous are those that have the suffix *-ute* (from Participle II a group of Latin verbs of the third conjugation):

compute 1580–90
constitute 1400–50
contribute 1520–30
dilute 1545–55
distribute 1400–50
refute 1505–15

Some verbs were taken from the stem of the present tense of the verbs of the 3rd conjugation –

append 1640–50
applaud 1530–40
collide 1615–25
deduce 1520–30
explode 1530–40

exude 1565–75
intrude 1525–35
protrude 1610–20
seclude 1425–75
seduce 1470–80

Adjectives that go back to Latin words may be derived from adjectives and participles. Those that have the suffixes *-ant/ent* retain the suffix of the Latin present participle, but they are fully adjectivized in English:

deficient 1575–85
exponent 1575–85
important 1580–90
indignant 1580–90
latent 1610–20
malignant 1535–45
redundant 1595–1605
resilient 1635–45
salient 1555–65

The Latin suffix *-atus*, that of the past participle is preserved in the form *-ate* in many adjectives:

accurate 1605–15
degenerate 1485–95
elaborate 1575–85
immediate 1525–35
importunate 1520–30
surrogate 1525–35

So is the suffix of the comparative degree *-ior:*

anterior 1535–45
excelsior 1770–80
exterior 1525–35
*interior*1480–90
junior 1520–30
posterior 1525–35
prior 1705–15
ulterior 1640–50

Simple borrowing of adjectives as they were without much changing is marked by Latin suffixes:

-al

aerial 1595–1605
controversial 1575–85
global 1670–80
legal 1490–1500
conventional 1575–85
dental 1585–95
lethal 1575–85
verbal 1485–95

-ivus → -ive

abusive 1575–85
adversative 1525–35
cooperative 1595–1605
corrective 1525–35
declarative 1530–40
distinctive 1575–85
quantitative 1575–85

-aris → -ar

auricular 1535–45
lunar 1585–95
similar 1605–15
stellar 1650–60
triangular 1535–45

-icus→ ic

analytic 1580–90
critic 1575–85
domestic 1515–25
ironic 1620–30
magnetic 1625–35
meteoric 1625–35
pacific 1540–50

-idus → id

lucid 1575–85
gelid 1600–10
frigid 1590–1600
livid 1615–25
morbid 1650–60
pallid 1580–90
arid 1645–55
torrid 1580–90
languid 1590–1600
florid 1635–45
insipid 1610–20
vapid 1650–60
intrepid 1690–1700

-tus → ust

robust 1540–50

-usus → -ous

assiduous 1530–40
atrocious 1660–70
continuous 1635–45
decorous 1655–65
dubious 1540–50
numerous 1580–90
obnoxious 1575–85
obvious 1580–90
pernicious 1515–25
raucous 1760–70

impetuous 1525–35
magnanimous 1575–85
notorious 1540–50
sensuous 1630–40
tremendous 1625–35
vociferous 1605–15

French borrowings in Early New English are somewhat different from those taken in Middle English. They are no longer superimposed by a winning nation but are taken freely, and semantic grouping is more fuzzy – here we may find words from the military sphere, words connected with leisure, pastime and games, culinary terms and so on.

apricot 1545–55
attack 1590–1600
avenue 1590–1600
ballet 1660–70
ballot 1540–50
bandage 1590–1600
battalion 1580–90
bayonet 1605–15
billiard 1630–40
bourgeois 1555–65
cabinet 1540–50
cadet 1600–10
campaign 1620–30
citadel 1580–90
colleague 1515–25
contrast 1480–90
corsage 1475–85
cortege 1670–80
coup d'etat 1640–50
cricket 1590–1600
disgust 1590–1600
engage 1515–25
equip 1515–25
fatigue 1685–95
favourite 1575–85
grotesque 1555–65
group 1665–75
lampoon 1635–45
machine 1540–50
massacre 1575–85
memoir 1560–70
moustache 1575–85
omelette 1605–15
parrot 1515–25
picturesque 1695–1705
pioneer 1515–25
piquant 1515–25
platform 1540–50
platoon 1630–40
police 1520–30
portmanteau 1575–85
routine 1670–80
sentinel 1570–80
soup 1645–55
valise 1605–15

The words from the French language will continue to enrich English – in the 18th century such words as *amateur* 1775–85, *velour* 1700–10 , *debris* 1700–10, *bouquet* 1710–20, *genre* 1760–70 , *mirage* 1795–1805 and in the 19th – *atelier* 1830–40, *millionaire* 1820–30, *technique* 1810–20, *restaurant* 1820–30, *barrage* 1855–60 etc.

The peculiarity of the French borrowings of the period is that they in many cases preserve French phonetic shape (borrowings of the 16th and 19th century alike) – they have the stress on the final syllable, often have mute consonants at the end and have French sounds (ʒ in *bourgeois, genre* etc.)

Borrowing Italian words at this period is explained by great influence of Italy in certain spheres of life. Italian architecture, music, banking and military affairs exelled in those times. The borrowings of this period are:

arsenal 1500–10
artichoke 1525–35
bankrupt 1525–35
baritone 1600–10
canto 1580–90
capriccio 1595–1605
carnival 1540–50
casino 1780–90
colonel 1540–50
contrabass 1590–1600
contralto 1720–30
corridor 1585–95
duet 1730–40
fresco 1590–1600
gondola 1540–50
grotto 1610–20
infantry 1570–80
libretto 1735–45
macaroni 1590–1600
madrigal 1580–90
manage 1555–65
miniature 1580–90
mohair 1560–70
opera 1635–45
parapet 1575–85
piano 1795–1805
sonata 1685–95
soprano 1720–30
spaghetti 1885–90
studio 1800–10
sultana 1575–85
umbrella 1600–10
violin 1570–80

Spanish borrowings of this period are rather numerous and can be subdivided into two groups – borrowings of the native Spanish words such as

renegade 1575–85
mosquito 1575–85
sombrero 1590–1600
guitar 1615–25
cigar 1625–35

and those that were taken into Spanish from various American Indian languages (occasionally from other languages). Sometimes people think that they might be called the borrowings from Indian languages, but there was no direct contact of the English with those tribes at the period so the words came into English from Spanish.

tobacco 1525–35 ← Arawak
potato 1545–55 ← Taino
canoe 1545–55 ←Arawak
cannibal 1545–55 ← Arawak
hammock 1545–55 ← Taino
hurricane 1545–55← Taino
maize 1545–55 ←Taino
moose 1595–1605 ←Abenaki
savannah 1545–55← Taino
chocolate 1595–1605← Nahuatl
condor 1595–1605 ← Quechua
banana 1590–1600 ← Mande language of Liberia
tomato 1595–1605 ← Nahuatl
lilac 1615–25 ← Arabic
barbeque 1655–65 ← Arawak
pampas 1695–1705← Quechua
quinine 1820–30 ← Quechua

Another group of Spanish borrowings is connected with the military sphere and seafaring

galleon 1520–30
contraband 1520–30
armada 1525–35
bravado 1575–85
bomb 1580–90
filibuster 1580–90
embargo 1595–1605
cargo 1640–50
guerrilla 1800–10

Some words borrowed from Spanish seem very much connected with American life, yet they are Spanish words coined in the New world

canyon 1835–45
cockroach 1615–25
tornado 1550–60
junta 1615–25
mulatto 1585–95
ranch 1800–10
alligator 1560–70

Portuguese borrowings of the period are not so numerous and reduced to a number of words denoting some material things like animals and some fruit (often these names were borrowed into Portuguese from the languages of its colonies):

marmalade 1515–25
zebra 1590–1600
flamingo 1555–65
jaguar 1595–1605
copra 1575–85
fetish 1605–15
mango 1575–85
molasses 1575–85
cashew 1695–1705
auto-da-fe 1715–25
veranda 1705–15

The Dutch element comes into the English language in a considerable number of words, reflecting the specificity of their commercial ties. The Netherlands of the period was well-known for its school of painting, its crafts and a well-developed fleet. Hence the Dutch borrowings of the Early New English period are:

wagon 1505–15
frolic 1530–40
dabble 1550–60
yacht 1550–60
freebooter 1560–70
reef 1575–85
monsoon 1575–85
dock 1580–90
drawl 1590–1600
landscape 1590–1600
harpoon 1590–1600
skeg 1590–1600
sledge 1595–1605
drill 1605–15
decoy 1610–20
easel 1625–35
etch 1625–35
cruise 1645–55
walrus 1645–55
gherkin 1655–65
holster 1655–65
stoke 1675–85
iceberg 1765–75

German, Hungarian, Polish, Russian and Ukrainian words are not so numerous and in many cases only name the things absent in the English everyday life – names of musical instruments, some institutions and social titles, wines etc. So Hungarian in origin are: *hussar* 1525–35 and *coach* 1550–60. Words like *cossack* 1590–1600 and *horde* 1545–55 are listed among Polish borrowings of Ukrainian origin; *borshch* 1880–85 came into the English language through Yiddish marked as Russian or Ukrainian soup, *hospodar* 1620–30 came through Romanian.

Russian borrowings of the Early New English period are not so numerous – *muzhik* 1560–70, *telega* 1550–60, *boyar* 1585–95, *beluga* 1585–95, *kumiss* 1590–1600 (from Turkic) and , like the above mentioned borrowings from Polish or Ukrainian are restricted to naming specifically Russian phenomena.

Borrowings from Arabic were of mixed nature – some became part and parcel of the English vocabulary and bear no local colouring:

algebra 1535–45, *alcohol* 1535–45, *carat* 1545–55, *henna* 1590–1600, *sofa* 1615–25; the others are not so assimilated semantically and bear the local colouring, that is are used in relation to the realia of the Middle East: *sheik* 1570–80, *hashish* 1590–1600, *fakir* 1600–10, *islam* 1605–15 etc.

The majority of the borrowing from Hebrew came in the earlier periods through Latin (*Satan* bef. 900, *amen* bef. 1000 *cherub* bef. 900, *manna* bef. 900 *rabbi* 1250–1300) , one of the Early New English is *hallelujah* 1525–35.

The English colonial expansion brought into the language words of the languages of the English colonies in Asia , Africa and Australia. Here are some examples of the words taken from Indian languages (Hindi, Bengali, Urdu etc):

sari 1570–80, *calico* 1495–1505, *rajah* 1545–55, *dungaree* 1605–15, *nabob* 1605–15, *pundit* 1665–75, *cashmere* 1815–25, *bungalow* 1670–80, *shampoo* 1755–65 (from Hindi), *jute* 1740–50 (Bengali), *khaki* 1855–60 (Urdu), *coolie* 1545–55 (from Urdu), *pariah* 1605–15 (Tamil), *curry* 1590–1600 (Tamil), *catamaran* 1690–1700 (Tamil),

from the languages from other parts of Asia and Oceania, Australia, New Zealand and Africa:

bamboo 1590–1600 (Malay), *puddy* 1590–1600 (Malay), *sago* 1545–55 (Malay), *taboo* 1770–80 (Tongan or Fijian), *orang-outang* 1690–1700, (Malay) *ketchup* 1705–15 (Malay), *chimpanzee* 1730–40 (Bantu), *safari* 1885–90 (Swahili), *kangaroo* 1760–70; < Guugu Yimidhirr (Australian Aboriginal language spoken around Cooktown, N Queensland), *kiwi* 1825–35 (Maori), *tattoo* 1760–70 (Marquesan).

American variant of the language is enriched by the words from the aboriginal languages of Americas:

moccassin 1605–15 (Algonquian), *pampas* 1695–1705 (Quechua), *puma* 1770–80 (Quechua), *opossum* 1600–10 (Algonquian), *tomahawk* 1605–15 (Algonquian), *wigwam* 1620–30 (Eastern Abenaki), *squaw* 1625–35 (Massachusett), *skunk* 1625–35 (Massachusett).

Some words were coined from the morphemes borrowed from classical languages, though in such combinations they never existed either in Latin or in Greek. Later they were borrowed into many languages and are usually referred to as international words.

biography 1675–85, *geodesy* 1560–70, *geology* 1680–90, *zoography* 1585–95, *zoology* 1660–70, *orthoepy* 1660–70, *psychology* 1675–85, *stereometry* 1560–70, *telescope* 1610–20, *atmosphere* 1630–40.

This pattern proved productive, and we can see with the development of science and technology later coinages:

bacteriology 1880–85, *dactylogram* 1910–15, *photography* 1839, *telegraph* 1792, *television* 1905–10, *telephone* 1825–35, *phonograph* 1825–35, *ecology* 1870–75, *ecosphere* 1950–55, *ecosystem* 1930–35, *perinatology* 1975–80 etc.

A great number of foreign borrowings brought into the language lexical suppletivity – such state of things, when adjectives corresponding some native nouns are formed from Latin roots. Sometimes there exist their counterparts made by suffixation from native roots as well, or qualitative meanings are rendered by nouns in premodification to other nouns, adjectives of Latin origin being more bookish and official:

son – filial 1350–1400
town – urban 1610–20
tree – arboreal 1660–70
tooth – dental 1585–95
eye – ocular 1565–75
lungs – pulmonary 1650–60
day – diurnal 1400–50, but also *daily*
year – annual 1350–1400, but also *yearly*
father – paternal 1400–50, but also *fatherly*
brother – fraternal 1375–1425, but also *brotherly*
mother – maternal 1475–85, but also *motherly*
heart – cordial 1350–1400, but also *hearty*
sun – solar 1400–50, but also *sunny*
moon – lunar 1585–95, but also *moony*

Derivatives from Latin stems in the other parts of speech are also common:

three – tripod 1595–1605, *triangle* 1350–1400, *triceps* 1570–80
eight – octagon 1650–60, *octopus* 1750–60, *octuple* 1595–1605
five – pentagon 1560–70, *pentameter* 1540–50, *pentangular* 1655–65
two – dual 1535–45, also *double* 1175–1225 (from French)

Etymological Doublets

As a result of borrowings of the same words (or morphemes) from different languages, or from the same language but in different period of language development a great number of etymological doublets (that is two or more words in a language that are derived from the same source, especially when one is learned while the other is popular) appear in the language, and the meanings of the words of the same origin may differ to a considerable extent

Here are some examples of etymological doublets that illustrate the state of things:

fancy *noun* [1350–1400; ME *fan(t)sy*, syncopated var. of *fantasie* FANTASY]

fantasy *noun* [1275–1325; ME *fantasie* imaginative faculty, mental image (< AF, OF) < L *phantasia* < Gk *phantas a* an idea, notion, image, lit., a making visible;]

feat *noun* [1300–50 Via Old French *fait* "deed" from Latin *factum*]

fact *noun* [1530–40 From Latin *factum* "deed," from the past participle of *facere* "to do."]

frail *adjective* [1300–50 Via Old French *fraile* from Latin *fragilis*]

fragile *adjective* [1505–15 Directly or via French from Latin *fragilis* from, ultimately, the same base as *frangere* "to break"]

palsy adjective [1250–1300; ME, var. of *parlesie* < MF *paralisie* < L *paralysis* PARALYSIS]

paralytic *adjective* [1300–50; ME *paralitik* < L *paralyticus* < Gk *paralytikys*, equiv. to *paraly-* (see PARALYSIS) + *-tikos* -TIC]

sure *adjective* [1300–50 Via Old French from Latin *securus*]

secure *adjective* [L 1525–35 *securus* < *se-*, free from, apart (see SECEDE) + *cura*, care]

treason *noun* [1175–1225 Via Anglo-Norman *treisoun*, "treacherous handing over, betrayal," from the Latin stem *tradition-*, from *tradere*, "to hand over"]

tradition *noun* [1350–1400 Via Old French from, ultimately, Latin *tradere* "to hand over, betray" from *trans-* "across, over" + *dare* "to give."]

poor *adjective* [1150–1200 Via Old French *povre* from Latin *pauper*]

pauper *noun* [1485–95 From Latin, literally "getting little," from *paucus* "little" + *parare* "to get."]

strait *noun* [1150–1200 Via Old French *estreit* from Latin *strictus* "narrow," the past participle of *stringere* "to draw tight"]

stringent *adjective*[1595–1605 L *stringens*, prp. of *stringere*, to draw tight]

strict *adjective* [1595–1605 L *strictus*, pp. of *stringere*, to draw tight, compress]

vowel *noun* [1275–1325 Via Old French *vouel* from, ultimately, Latin *vocalis*]

vocal *adjective* [1350–1400. From Latin *vocalis*, from the stem of *vox* "voice"]

voice *noun* [1250–1300 Via Old French *vois* from Latin *vox* (see vocal).]

ray *noun* [14th century. Via French *rai* from Latin *radius* (see radius).]

radius *noun* [Late 16th century. From Latin, "staff, spoke, ray, beam of light"]

strange *adjective* [1250–1300 ME < OF *estrange* < L *extraneus*]

extraneous adjective [1630–40 from Latin *extraneus* external, foreign]

chorus *noun* [1555–65 Via Latin from Greek *khoros* .]

choir *noun* [1250–1300 Via Old French *quer*, from Latin *chorus* "chora ance", on which the English spelling as modeled, from Greek *khoros*

sire *noun* a respectful form of address for a king or lord (*archaic*) [12th century. Via Old French from, ultimately, Latin *senior* "older"

sir *noun* [13th century. Variant of sire.]

senior *adjective* [14th century. From Latin, "elder, older," the comparative from of *senex*]

senile *adjective* [1655–65 Directly or via French *sünile* from Latin *senilis* "advanced in age

channel [1250–1300: from Old French *chanel*, from Latin *canalis* pipe, groove, conduit]

canal [1400–50 from Latin *canalis* channel, water pipe, from *canna* reed CANE]

separate [1400–50 From Latin *separare*, literally "to arrange apart," from *parare* "to make ready"]

sever [1300–50 Via Anglo-Norman *severer* from Old French *sevrer* from, ultimately, Latin *separare* "to separate"]

several 1375–1425. Vi Anglo-Norman from, ultimately, Latin *separ* "separate," from *separare* "to separate"

sign [1175–1225 Via French *signe* from Latin *signum* "mark"]

signal [1350–1400 Via Old French *seignal* from, ultimately, Latin *signum*]

Words that in the 17th Century Had Meaning different from What They Have Now

We cannot overlook mighty semantic changes that go on permanently in the language. Some words change their meanings and lose the old ones; some may have the old one among many others, and it being rather rare (this may be generalization or narrowing of meaning, perjoration or melioration, various shifts in different directions) are first perceived in their newer sense. Even within these final four hundred years a number of words preserved in the language are so changed semantically that a part of Shakespeare's vocabulary needs explanation. We may call these diachronic homonyms – they may mislead the reader as far as the real meaning of the utterance is concerned. Let us take, for instance several citations from some Shakespeare's plays.

I pray thee, good Mercutio, let's retire:
The day is hot, the Capulets *abroad*,
And, if we meet, we shall not scape a brawl (Romeo and Juliet)

...my father and the gentlemen are in *sad* talk, and we'll
not trouble them. (The Winter's Tale)

Thy *topless* deputation he puts on (Troilus and Cressida)

Yet doth he give us bold *advertisement*,
That with our small conjunction we should on (Henry IV)

(she delivered) A daughter, and a goodly babe,
Lusty and like to live: the queen receives
Much comfort in't; says 'My poor prisoner,
I am innocent as you.' (The Winter's Tale))

Here's the scroll, the *continent* and summary of my fortune. (Merchant of Venice)

The italicised words are well known in their present-day meanings: *abroad* – in or to a foreign country; *sad* – sorrowful or mournful; *lusty* – having strong sexual desires; *topless* – laking a top or nude above the waist or hips; *advertisement* – a paid announcement; *continent* – one of the main landmasses of the globe, usually reckoned as seven in number, but the context shows that their earlier meanings were different. Here is a short glossary of the words that are in current use today, but their meaning was either replaced by another, as in the case with *sad* (from serious to sorrowful), or the former meaning is now rarely used and usually is not noted by the learners of the English language (as is the case with *continent* – something that serves as a container or boundary):

ABROAD	away, apart
ADDRESS	to prepare oneself
ADVERTISEMENT	admonition
ALLOW	to approve
ANTICK	the fool in the old plays
APPOINTMENT	preparation
APPREHENSION	opinion
ARGUMENT	subject
ATTEND	to listen to
AUTHENTIC	clothed with authority
AWFUL	worshipful
AWKWARD	contrary
BATTLE	army
BILL	a bill-hook, a weapon
BUXOM	obedient
CALCULATE	prophesy
CAN	to know, be skillful in
CEASE	decease
CENSURE	judgment
CENSURE	to judge, criticise
CENTURY	a hundred of anything, whether men, prayers, or anything else
CHARACTER	a letter, handwriting
CHEER	fortune, countenance
CIRCUMSTANCE	an argument
CITE	to incite
CLING	to starve
CLIP	to embrace, enclose
COAST	to advance
COCKNEY	a cook
COLLECTION	drawing a conclusion
COLOUR	pretence

COMBINE	to bind
COMPLEXION	passion
COMPOSE	to agree
CONCEIT	conception, opinion. fancy
CONDITION	temper. quality
CONSTANT	settled, determined
CONTINENT	that which contains anything
CONTRACTION	the marriage contract
CONVERT	to change
COUNTY	count, earl
CRACK	to boast CRACKER boaster
CREDIT	report
CUNNING	skill
CUSTOMER	a common woman
DANGER	reach, control, power
DEFEND	to forbid
DEPEND	to be in service
DESPERATE	determined, bold
DISAPPOINTED	unprepared
DRY	thirsty
DULL	soothing
EAGER	sour
	harsh
	biting
EMULATION	jealousy, mutiny
ENGINE	a machine of war
ENTERTAIN	encounter
EXERCISE	a religious service
EXHIBITION	allowance, pension
EXPRESS	to reveal
FACT	guilt
FACULTY	essential virtue or power
FAIN	glad
FAST	assuredly, unalterably
FAT	dull
FEATURE	beauty
FLAT	certain
FOND	foolish, foolishly affectionate

GEAR	matter of business of any kind
GENEROSITY	noble birth
GENEROUS	noble
GOVERNMENT	discretion
GULF	the throat
HAIR	course, order, grain
HALL	an open space to dance in
HAPPILY	accidentally
HIT	to agree
INCAPABLE	unconscious
INDIFFERENT	ordinary
INVENTION	imagination
JUMP	to agree
LEVEL	to aim
LOTTERY	that which falls to a man by lot
LUSTY	cheerful
MESS	a company of four
MODERN	commonplace
MOOD	anger
NATURAL	an idiot
NEPHEW	a grandson
NICE	foolish
OFFICE	benefit, kindness
OPPOSITION	combat
OR	before
PARTIZAN	a pike
PATHETICAL	affected, hypocritical
PERFECT	certain
PORTABLE	bearable
POSSESS	to inform
PRECIOUSLY	in business of great importance
PRIDE	heat
PRIMER	more-important
PROFANE	outspoken
PROPOSE	to suppose, for the sake of argument
	To converse
PROPOSE	conversation
PURCHASE	to acquire, win

QUAINT	curiously beautiful
QUICKEN	to come to life
RECORD	to sing
REDUCE	to bring back
RESOLVE	to satisfy
ROUND	to whisper
SAD	serious
SADLY	seriously
SADNESS	seriousness
SCAN	to examine subtly
SILLY	simple, rustic
SINGLE	feeble
SPEED	fortune
SPILL	to destroy
STOMACH	courage, stubbornness
STRANGE	foreign
SUBSCRIBE	to yield
	to succumb
SUGGEST	to tempt, entice
SUGGESTION	temptation, enticement
SWEAR	to adjure
TALL	strong, valiant
TEEN	grief
TIGHT	nimble, active
TIRE	attire, head-dress
TOPLESS	supreme, without superior
TOWARD	nearly ready
TRADE	beaten path
UNFAIR	to deprive of beauty
UNHAPPY	mischievous
USE	interest
UTTERANCE	extremity
VERY	true, real
VILLAIN	a lowborn man
VULGAR	the common people
WAX	to grow
WEAR	fashion
WEED	garment

WISH	to commend
WIT	knowledge, wisdom
WITHOUT	beyond
WOOD	mad

Expansion of English

The English language of the early 17th century was the language spoken only on the British Isles. By this time due to the efforts of Queen Elizabeth and her predecessors the territory ruled by the English Crown was extended and included also Wales, Scotland and part of Ireland. The Normans managed to subjugate Wales only in part; it was not until the 16th century that the annexation was completed and the English language penetrated it replacing the native Celtic dialect. Ireland that was subjugated in the early 17th century struggle against English power lasted therough the 17th and 18th centuries, but linguistically it was anglicized. Scotland, always having a fair share of independence in spite of all became English-speaking, though this English was somewhat different. The Scottish dialect, or Scots is one of the oldest, richest and most interesting varieties of English that had a chance of developing into an independent language, however, in 1603, after the unification with England it was reduced to dialectal status.

Ireland's English dates back to the early 17th century after it was conquered by the English. The number of speakers grew up to eight million, but they all were concentrated on the North-Western island state.

So the British Isles were English speaking, but the language itself was unknown elsewhere. William Shakespeare in his play "The Merchant of Venice" metions this:

> NERISSA What say you, then, to Falconbridge, the young baron of England?

PORTIA You know I say nothing to him, for he understands not me, nor I him: he hath neither Latin, French, nor Italian, and you will come into the court and swear that I have a poor pennyworth in the English. He is a proper man's picture, but, alas, who can converse with a dumb-show?

The languages of intercultural communication were Latin, French, and, probably, Italian.

But the true expansion began with England's colonial expansion, and first and foremost with the penetration of English into the New World. The first expedition of the two ships sailed in 1584, the next year another expedition of 168 adventurers joined them. This however, did not mean colonization, for the settlement failed to hold – by the summer of 1586 after an uneven war with the Indians the colonists had to beg a rescue from Sir Francis Drake, returning from the Carribean.

The first permanent settlement was established in Jamestown in 1607, and in 1620 the famous ship "Mayflower" brought a group of English settlers to what became known as New England. The Pilgrim Fathers, Puritan fugitives from various parts of England were representatives of higher classes. and brought on the American Continent the language of the educated English society of the early 17th century. Many traits of the langauge are preserved in the American variant of the language, whereas they were lost or changed in England itself.

The essential difference between current American and British English is probably in intonation–an elusive quality consisting of voice timbre, pitch, sentence rhythm and stress. Almost no syntactical differences are evident between American and British English, and comparatively few differences exist in vocabulary, pronunciation, or spelling.

Among the peculiarities of the American variant scholars often mention the use of Subjunctive I where the analytical forms with *should* becomes more common in England (see the plays of Shakespeare to see that he uses what now is called American); the predicative use of *sick* and *I guess* instead of *I think/believe* (how could Chaucer know the American – plenty of such cases are found in his works). The process of variation in transition from 4 basic forms of the verb to three was not yet over, and the American form *gotten* reflects but a stage in the language development. The phonetic processes also were going on and unfinished by that time vocalisation of *r*, is now the phonetic peculiarity of the American variant; it is well known that *clerk* and *pass, class, ask etc.* have American variants of pronunciation – that was how they were pronounced at the time of emigration, and puritans brought that variant to America.

The peculiarities of the American variant however, are not reduced to what can be called archaisms; new conditions of life, new phenomena of nature and the very fact that they were for centuries separated from England

are reflected in numerous words *lift* and *elevator, underground* and *subway* were the different nominations for new notions in material culture of the communities. The British say *rubber* where the Americans prefer *eraser*, and *vest* where the Americans use *undershirt*. The terms such as *presidential, congress*, and *gubernatorial* were applied to the newly established American political institutions.The sources of borrowings were also different – the American variant is richer in Spanish and French words taken from the neighbouring colonists from these countries, American Indian words were taken to name natural phenomena, animals, plants and so on.

Within American variant of the English language there exist regional (dialectal) differences, mainly in the sphere of pronunciation. Eastern, Southern and Western (or General) varieties, and they are in the degree of preservation of the sound *r* after vowels before the consonants, diphthong *ju:* and the sounds *o* and *a* in closed syllables. The Western type acquired the status of the generalized national standard.

The American themselves, however, are very sensitive as to the status of their language: Noah Webster, a well-known lexicographer and a great adherent of the idea that American is a separate language, consistenly showed the difference in pronunciation in his famous dictionary. He believed that words and usages should be evaluated on their own merits, not on the basis of their place of origin. His *American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828) included thousands of new words, old words with new meanings, new pronunciations, and new spellings–solely on the grounds that they were all used by educated American speakers. Later in the 1920 linguists like Henry Louis Mencken also propagated the idea. But besides the difference in the pronunciation, a few grammatical forms and a considerable but not essential number of lexical Americanisms it is rather difficult to prove . However spelling reforms that were initiated (not altogether too radical) in America added to these. It was Webster who insisted on *-or* instead of *-our* in words like *honour*; who took the *k* off the end of words like *musick* and *traffick*; and who substituted the suffix *-er* for *-re* in words like *centre*.

With the growth of the American state, and what is more important, with the development of radio and television, the growth of the cinematographic industry the American variant starts the reverse process – many Americanisms penetrate the language of the non-native speakers of English, and British English and is especially popular with the younger people in Britain. The American formula of greeting "*Hi*" is almost universal among students and teenagers:

And in many countries the all-engulfing advance of English threatens to damage or destroy much local culture. This is sometimes lamented even in England itself, for though the language that now sweeps the world is called English, the culture carried with it is American. On the whole the Brits do not complain. Some may regret the passing of the "bullet-proof waistcoat" (in favour of the "bullet-proof vest"), the arrival of "hopefully" at the start of every sentence, the wholesale disappearance of the perfect tense, and the mutation of the meaning of "presently" from "soon" to "now". But few mind or even notice that their old "railway station" has become a "train station", the "car park" is turning into a "parking lot" and people now live "on", not "in", a street.
A WORLD EMPIRE BY OTHER MEANS
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The peculiarities of the American variant were the same in the North American world; its first permanent settlements made by the French from 1605; the country ceded to Britain in 1763 after a series of colonial wars; but during the American War of Independence Canadian colonists stayed loyal to Britain. The state was established as the Dominion of Canada in 1867. The peculiarities of this variant only slightly differ from the American variant; probably, the proportional value of the words taken from the French is higher, and some borrowings from Indian languages are different from American. *Khaki* [karki] and *vase* [vez] are but a few words that are really pronounced in a unique Canadian way. There is no question of declaring it a separate language, and the influence of American English is stronger than elsewhere.

Australia and New Zealand are English-speaking since the 18th century, when the English convicts were deported there. However, a flow of voluntary immigants followed in search of land, gold and fortune in the 19th and now they are listed among the English-speaking states. Some peculiarities – not so much archaisms, as it is with the American variant, but mostly dialectal can be mentioned; while the standard in America was set mainly by the wealthy educated people, more democratic Australians keep some cockney and other dialectal pecualirities of pronunciation; flora, fauna and other natural phenomena of this part of the world are also reflected in the vocabulary.

In Asia the English, and their language first appeared to India – East India Trade Company was chartered by the English government in 1600 to carry on trade in the East Indies; later the supremacy of the English Crown was established in some provinces; in the first half of 19 c. India became a colony; then other Asian countries – naturally, with the English speaking authorities and spread of the language among the indigenous population.

British penetration into Africa is dated from the XIX century. Such countries as Sudan and Egypt fell under financial dependence of Britain; tropical and South Africa were conquered. This conquest is connected with the names of Cecil Rhodes (1853–1902) and Horatio Kitchener (1850–1916) who undertook to extend British territories from Cairo to the Cape colony with a stretch of British land. In the course of the Anglo-Boer war (1899–1902) the supremacy of the English was established in South Africa.

Regional, or territorial divergencies may be also traced in the English spoken in all former British colonies in Africa and Asia, but all these are not the subject-matter of the history of the English language nor are the peculiarities of the American, Canadian and Australian variants.

Afterword

To answer the author of the Internet joke about the English language, let us view it from the point of view of the history of the English language. In the long run, the language is not that crazy, and history of the language gives keys to many seeming inconsistencies of the language. English developed like any other language, taking innovations and retaining archaic elements. They coexist, making it now rich and unique.

The sound system development brought diphthongs from the long vowels and narrowed some other sounds, and reading of the letters of the English alphabet reflects these changes – hence *a* is [eɪ], o – [oʊ], u – [ju:]. The change of the sound [e] before *r* and the further vocalization of *r* gave the reading [ɑ:] for this consonant.

Common Indo-European traits that the English language shared with other languages gradually gave way to other, leaving some older forms as grammatical archaisms. The role of gradation in formation the forms of strong

verbs was significantly reduced, and such verbs retained only three instead of the former four forms. With some verbs only one of the forms of the of the past tense was discarded (and hence we have *write – wrote – written),* others lost the form of the participle, or rather the suffix of the participle, and the forms are *bite – bit – bit; bind – bound – bound.*

Archaic features are preserved only in the words of native origin. So *man, mouse, louse, goose, foot, tooth* originally belonging to the group of nouns that were root stems keep the mutation of the root vowel in formation of plural; *booth* did not exist in Old English and was borrowed from Scandinavian in the 11th century and so formed its paradigm in a regular, prevalent in those times way. The word *moose* that came from Eastern Abenaki, a language of an American tribe, having a long root vowel and naming an animal that resembled *deer* by analogy joined the group of unchangeable plurals. All other nouns (apart from several Latin borrowings, used mainly in scientific and official styles) take regular plural ending *-es.*

Borrowed verbs complied with the general tendency to use the dental suffix in the formation of the past tense and in the Participle II, and are all (with very insignificant exceptions) regular; hence *preach – preached* (*teach* is native irregular verb and the pattern of formation of its forms was not productive).

Some other seeming grammatical inconsistencies of the English language can also find historical explanation. Modal verbs do not take the 3rd person singular ending – and if it is known that originally *can, may, dare* and *shall* were the past tense forms of the verb (like *wrote, bound* and *chose*) the answer is quite clear. *Must*, originally being the past tense of the verb *motan* resists any other shift into the tense changes, and, like the other verbs of this class, self-sufficient without the personal endings.

In the course of its development due to the levelling and the loss of endings the language acquired a very flexible and productive way of zero-derivation, or conversion, making verbs from nouns and vice versa without any derivational morpheme. Hence *to ship* coexists with many other similar verbs – *to skin, to dust, to monitor, to phone, to e-mail.* Semantic changes resulted in new meanings of already existing verbs, enhanced it (*to ship*, originally *to send by ship* started to be used in the more general meaning *to send away*). Generalization of meaning may be found in other words as well; one of the most vivid examples is the past tense of the verbs to be – *was, were.* The older Germanic (Gothic) texts give evidence that the original meaning of the verb *wisan* was *to live well, to rejoice* – now its meaning is so wide that it can replace almost any verb.

The reverse semantic process, narrowing of meaning reduced the meaning of the noun *meat* from the nomination of any kind of food to only one – the flesh of animals as used for food; older meanings are found in word-building and in phraseology. So, in *sweetmeat* it preserves its old archaic meaning it has it also in phrases *to say grace before meat, one man's meat another man's poison.* Compounds and set phrases with the adjective *quick* also keep its older meaning (through Grimm's law its relation with proto Indo-European *gvivus*, Latin *vivus* is clearly seen). Hence, *quicksand* is the sand that is alive (also *quicksilver*), and the same meaning is found in the set phrases *to rub on the quick, to cut one's nails to the quick.* In Chaucer's times a phrase *neither quick nor dead* was used.

Metaphoric and metonymic changes explain some other uses of words. *Bread*, for instance, originally meant fragment, morsel, and was a measure of *hlāf* (now *loaf*, and the corresponding word in Ukrainian is *хліб* – a borrowing from Gothic; the noun *буханець* however is sufficient in reference to *хліб*, for nothing else is measured that way). The word *sweet* in English has a connotation "something pleasing or agreeable; delightful" – and in the compound *sweetbread* (the pancreas and the thymus gland of an animal, esp. a calf or a lamb, used for food) just reflect the tastes of the national cuisine.

Eggplants, pineapples and *guinea pigs* are just new nominations for the exotic plants and an animal, made by a very productive pattern of word building – composition, the nomination in the first two cases is based on similarity; and the word *guinea* after the first acquaintance with new lands abroad acquired a connotation "something exotic" (see also *guinea hen, guinea grass* etc.).

All through its history the language developed the so called set phrases that are perceived as phraseolgical unities non-analysable grammatically. We don't feel the singular of the nouns in the expression *blue of eye* and don't imply that the girl has only one eye; some words (pluralia tantum) don't have singular, and that is found in any other language; *amends* as a noun is never used in the singuar; (they are found in numbers in other languages – in Ukrainian *двері* denotes a door consisting of one or two parts indiscriminately).

To explain other changes of meaning the course of the English lexicology is available on the University scheldules.

A Short Reader in Early English

The reader includes texts representing Old English (mainly Wessex dialect), excerpts from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* (for study and analysis the Middle English period) and three excerpts from the plays of William Shakespeare (*Romeo and Juliet*, *Julius Caesar* and *King Lear*). The glossary of Old English words found in the texts and Middle English vocabulary will help to interpret the texts. No glossary is suggested for reading the texts from Shakespeare, as all the words can be found in the dictionaries of the present-day English (the list of words that might be misinterpreted is given the first part of the books, in the chapter "Early New English vocabulary").

At the end of the reader, present-day English translations of the Old English texts are given for reference. As the aim of the reader is to illustrate the language of the different periods of the development of the language, and not to make the students decipher the texts (the work with the glossary will be required to interpret the status and the meanings of grammatical forms, the structure and etymology of the words etc.) such translations will not replace or eliminate thorough work with theoretical material or the dictionaries and glossaries.

Old English Period

The Voyage of Ohthere

"*The Voyage of Ohthere*" is included into the Old English translation from Latin of the book by Paulus Orosius, 5th century A.D., Spanish theologian and historian "*Historiae adversum Paganos*" ("The history of the world") made by king Alfred the Great in the IX-th century. The description of the North-East of Europe is an original part composed by Alfred, it describes the travels of Ohthere, a traveller whose account Alfred recorded himself. The dialect is West Saxon.

Ōhthere sǣde his hlāforde Ælfrēde cyninȝe ðæt hē ealra Norðmonna norðmest būde. Hē cwżð ðæt hē būde on ðǣm lande norðweardum wið ðā Westsǣ. Hē sǣde ðēah ðæt ðæt land sīe swīðe lanȝ norð ðonan; ac hit is eal wēste, būton on fēawum stowum styccemǣlum wīciað Finnas, on huntoðe on wintra, and on sumera on fiscaðe be ðǣre sǣ.

Hē sǣde ðæt hē żt sumum cirre wolde fandian hū lonȝe ðæt land norðryhte lǣȝe, oððe hwæðer ǣniȝ mon benorðan ðǣm wēstenne būde. Ðā fōr hē norðryhte be ðǣm lande; lēt him ealne weȝ ðæt wēste land on ðæt stēor-bord, and ðā wīd-sǣ and ðæt bæc-bord, ðrīe daȝas. Ðā wæs hē swā fēor norð swā ðā hwælhuntan firrest farað. Ðā fōr hē ðā ȝiet norðryhte swā fēor swā hē meahte on ðǣm ōðrum þrīm daȝum ȝesiȝlan. Ðā bēaȝ ðæt land ðær ēastryhte oððe sēo sż in on ðæt lond, hē nysse hwżðer, būton hē wisse ðǣt hē ðær bād westanwindes and hwōn norðan ond siȝlde ðā ēast be lande swā swā hē meahte on fēower daȝum ȝesiȝlan. Ðā sceolde hē ðǣr bīdan ryhtnorðanwindes, for ðǣm ðæt land bēaȝ ðǣr suðryhte, oððe sēo sǣ in on ðæt land, hē nysse hwæðer. Ðā siȝlde hē ðonan sūðryhte be lande, swā -swā hē meahte on fīf daȝum ȝesiȝlan. Ðā læȝ ðǣr ān micel ēa up in on ðæt land. Ðā cirdon hīe up in on ðā ēa for ðǣm hīe nē dorston forð bi ðǣre ēa siȝlan for unfriðe; for ðǣm ðæt land wæs eall ȝebūn on ōðre healfe ðǣre ēas. Ne mette hē ǣr nan ȝebūn land, siððan hē from his aȝnum hām fōr; ac him wżs ealne weȝ wēste land on ðæt stēorbord, butan fiscerum and fuȝelerum ond huntum, ond ðǣt wæron eall Finnas; ond him wæs ā wīdsǣ on ðæt bæcbord. Ðā Beormas hżfdon swīðe wel ȝebūn hira land: ac hīe nē dorston ðǣron cuman. Ac ðara Terfinna land wżs eal wēste, būton ðǣr huntan ȝewīcodon, oððe fisceras, oððe fuȝeleras.

The story of Caedmon

(from Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People)

Beda Venerabilis (*"the Venerable Bede"*), A.D. 673–735, English monk, historian, and theologian: he wrote earliest history of England "*Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum*". The book is written in 731 in Latin; here the excerpt from the IX th (A.D. 890?) century translation is suggested. The dialect if West Saxon.

Here is the part from his book, the story of Caedmon, 7th century A.D., Anglo-Saxon poet and monk, the earliest English poet whose name survives

In ðēosse abbudissan mynstre wżs sum brōðor syndriȝlīce mid ȝodcundre ȝife ȝemǣred ond ȝeweorðad.

Forðon hē ȝewunade ȝerisenlīce lēoð wyrcan, ðā ðe tō ǣfżstnisse ond tō arfżstnisse belumpen, swā ðætte, swā hwżt swā hē of ȝodcundum

stafum ðurh bōceras ȝelēornode, ðæt hē æfter medmiclum fæce in scōpȝereorde mid ðā mǣstan swētnisse ond inbryrdnisse ȝeȝlænȝde ond in Enȝliscȝereorde wēl ȝeworht forðbrōhte.

Ond for his lēoðsonȝum moniȝra monna mōd oft tō worulde forhoȝdnisse ond tō ȝeðēodnisse ðæs heofonlīcan līfes onbȧrnde wǣron.

Ond ēac swelce moniȝe ōðre æfter him in Onȝelðēode onȝunnon ǣfȧste lēoð wyrcan: ac nǣniȝ hwæðre him ðæt ȝelīce dōn meahte.

Forðon hē nales from monnum nē ðurh mon ȝelǣred wæs, ðæt hē ðone lēoðcræft leornade, ac hē wæs ȝodcundlīce ȝefultumed ond ðurh Godes ȝife ðone sonȝcræft onfenȝ.

Ond hē forðon nǣfre nōht leasunȝe, nē idles lēoðes wyrcan meahte, ac efne ðā ān ðā ðe tō ȧfȧstnesse belumpon, ond his ðā æfestan tunȝan ȝedafenode sinȝan.

Wæs hē sē mon in weoruldhāde ȝeseted oð ðā tīde ðe hē wæs ȝelyfdre ylde, ond nǣfre nǣniȝ lēoð ȝelēornade.

Ond hē forðon oft in ȝebēorscipe, ðonne ðǣr wæs blisse intinȝa ȝedēmed, ðæt hēo ealle sceolden ðurh endebyrdnesse be hearpan sinȝan, ðonne hē ȝesēah ðā hearpan him nēalēcan, ðonne ārās hē for scome from ðǣm symble ond hām ēode tō his hūse.

Ðā hē ðæt ðā sumre tīde dyde, ðæt hē forlēt ðæt hūs ðæs ȝebēorscipes, ond ūt wȧs ȝonȝende tō nēata scipene, ðāra heord him wæs ðǣre neahte beboden ðā hē ðā ðǣr in ȝelimplīcre tīde his leomu on reste ȝesette ond onslēpte, ðā stōd him sum mon æt ðurh swefn ond hine hālette ond ȝrētte ond hine be his noman nemnde: "Cedmon, sinȝ mē hwȧthwuȝu."

Ðā ondswarede hē ond cwæð: "Nē con ic nōht sinȝan; ond ic forðon of ðēossum ȝebēorscipe ūt ēode, ond hider ȝewāt, forðon ic nāht sinȝan ne cūðe."

Eft hē cwæð, sē ðe mid hine sprecende wæs: "Hwæðre ðū meaht sinȝan."

Ðā cwæð hē "Hwæt sceal ic sinȝan?"

Cwæð hē "Sinȝ mē frumsceaft."

Ðā hē ðā ðās ondsware onfēnȝ, ðā onȝon hē sōna sinȝan in herenesse Godes Scyppendes ðā fers ond ðā word ðe hē nǣfre ȝehyrde, ðāra endebyrdnes ðis is:

"Nū sculon heriȝean heofonrīces Weard,
Meotodes meahte ond his mōd-ȝeðanc,

weorc Wuldorfȧder, swā hē wundra ȝehwæs,
ēce Drihten, ōr onstealde.
Hē ǣrest scēōp eorðan bearnum
heofon tō hrōfe, hāliȝ Scyppend;
ðā middanȝeard monncynnes Weard,
ēce Drihten, ȧfter tēode
fīrum foldan, Frēa ȧlmihtiȝ."

Ðā ārās hē from ðǣm slǣpe, ond eal ðā ðe hē slǣpende sonȝ fæste in ȝemynde hæfde ond ðǣm wordum sōna moniȝ word in ðæt ilce ȝemet Gode wyrðes sonȝes tō ȝeðēodde.

Note: In ðeosse abbudissan mynstre (In this Abbess's Minster): the Abess Hild, or Hilda, of the royal family of Northumbria (d. 680), and one of the most important women in the history of early English Christianity. In 656–658 she built an Abbey at Streaneshald, now Whitby (Yorkshire), which is the "minster" where Caedmon's career began)

Beowulf

Beowulf is an English alliterative epic poem, probably written in the early 8th century A.D. The extant text dates from the Xth century, though it had existed in written form by the middle of the VIII century. The original dialect in which the poem was written was Anglian; it was copied by West Saxon scribes who introduced West Saxon forms; the result is a mixture of Anglian and West-Saxon forms.

Com on wanre niht
scrīðan sceaduȝenȝa. Scēotend swǣfon,
ðā ðæt hornreced healdan scoldon,
ealle būton ānum. ðæt wæs yldum cūð
ðæt hīe ne mōste, ðā metod nolde,
sē scynscaða under sceadu breȝdan;
ac hē wȧccende wrāðum on andan
bād bolȝenmōd beadwa ȝeðinȝes.
ðā com of mōre under misthlēoðum
Grendel ȝonȝan, ȝodes yrre bær;
mynte sē manscaða manna cynnes
sumne besyrwan in sēle ðam hēan.
Wōd under wolcnum tō ðæs ðe hē winreced,

ȝoldsele ȝumena, ȝearwost wisse,
fættum fāhne. Ne wæs ðæt forma sīð
ðæt hē Hroðȝares hām ȝesōhte;
nǣfre hē on aldordaȝum ǣr ne siððan
heardran hæle, healðeȝnas fand.
Com ðā tō recede rinc sīðian,
drēamum bedǣled. Duru sōna onarn,
fȳrbendum fæst, syððan hē hire folmum ȧthrān;
onbrǣd ðā bealohydiȝ, ðā hē ȝebolȝen wæs,
recedes mūðan. Raðe æfter ðon
on faȝne flōr fēond treddode,
ēode yrremōd; him of ēaȝum stōd
liȝȝe ȝelīcost leoht unfæȝer.
Gesēah hē in recede rinca maniȝe,
swefan sibbeȝedriht samod ætȝædere,
maȝorinca hēap. ðā his mōd āhloȝ;
mynte ðæt hē ȝedǣlde, ǣrðon dæȝ cwome,
atol āȝlǣca, ānra ȝehwylces
līf wið līce, ðā him ālumpen wȧs
wistfylle wēn. Nē wȧs ðæt wyrd ðā ȝēn
ðæt hē mā moste manna cynnes
ðicȝean ofer ðā ńiht. ðryðswȳð beheold
mæȝ Hiȝelaces, hū sē manscaða
under færȝrīpum ȝefaran wolde.
Nē ðæt sē ǣȝlǣca yldan ðōhte.

The Battle of Maldon (991)

The epic was obviously written by an eye-witness soon after the events in the year 991. The Battle was fought when Aethelred the Redeless ruled the disorganized land. The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" says of it: "Anno 991 – in this year came Anlaf with three and ninety ships to Staine and ravaged round about it and went thence to Sandwich and thence to Ipswich and overcame all that, and so to Maldon. Anthere came there against him Byrhnoth the ealdorman with his forces and fought against him. And they there slew the Ealdorman, and held power on the place of slaughter"

Hēt ðā hyssa hwæne hors forlǣtan
feor afysan forð ȝānȝan
hicȝan tō handum tō hiȝe ȝodum.
Ðā ðæt Offan mæȝ ǣrest onfunde
ðæt sē eorl nolde yrhðo ȝeðolian,
hē lēt him ðā of handon lēofne flēoȝan
hafoc wið ðæs holtes tō ðǣre hilde stōp.
Be ðām man mihte oncnāwan ðæt sē cniht nolde
wācian æt ðam wiȝȝe, ðā his ealdre ȝelǣstan
frēan tō ȝefeohte; onȝān ðā forð beran
ȝār tō ȝūðe. Hē hæfde ȝod ȝeðanc
ðā hwīle ðe hē mid handum healdan mihte
bord brād swurd: beot hē ȝelǣste
ða hē ætforan his frēan feohtan sceolde.
Ðā ðær Byrhtnoð ongān beornas trymian
rād rædde, rincum tæhte
hy hī scoldon standan ðone stede healdan
bæd ðæt hyra randas rihte heoldon
fæste mid folman nē forhtedon nā.
Ðā hē hæfde ðæt folc fæȝere ȝetrymed,
hē lihte ðā mid lēodon ðær him lēofost wæs,
ðær hē his heorðwerod holdost wiste.
Ðā stōd on stæðe, stīðlīce clypode
wicinȝa ār, wordum mælde,
sē on beot abēad brimlīðendra
ǣrænde tō ðam eorle ðær hē on ōfre stōd:
"Mē sendon tō ðē sǣmen snelle
hēton ðē secȝan ðæt ðū mōst sendan rāðe
bēaȝas wið ȝebeorȝe, ēow betere is
ðæt ȝē ðisne ȝārræs mid ȝafole forȝyldon
ðonne wē swā hearde hilde dǣlon.
Nē ðurfe wē us spillan, ȝif ȝē spēdað tō ðam;
wē willað wið ðam ȝolde ȝrið fæstnian.
ȝyf ðū ðæt ȝerǣdest ðe her rīcost eart,
ðæt ðū ðine lēoda lysan wille,
syllan sǣmannum on hyra sylfra dōm
feoh wið frēode niman frið ȧt ūs,
wē willað mid ðam sceattum ūs tō scype ȝānȝan,
on flot fēran ēow friðes healdan".

From the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle**

This part of the Chronicle was written in the eventful year of 1013 – the time of the Scandinavian conquest of England and the fall of the Saxon dynasty.

A. 1013 On ðam æftran ȝēare ðe sē arcebiscop wæs ȝemartyrod, sē cyninȝ ȝesette Lyfine biscop tō Cantwarabyriȝ tō ðam arcestōle, and on ðissum ylcan ȝēare, tōforan ðam mōnðe Augustus, com Sweȝen cyninȝ mid his flotan tō Sandwīc, and wende ðā swīðe raðe abūtan Eastenȝlum into Humbra mūðan, and swā ūpweard andlanȝ Trentan, oð hē com tō ȝenesburuh; and ðā sōna beah Uhtred eorl and ealle Norðhymbre tō him; and eal ðæt folc on Lindesiȝe, and siððan ðæt folc into Fīfburhinȝum, and raðe ðæs eal here be norðan Wætlinȝa strǣte, and him man sealde ȝislas of ǣlcere scīre. Syððan hē underȝēat ðæt eall folc him tō ȝeboȝen wæs, ðā bēad hē ðæt man sceolde his here mettian and horsian, and hē ðā wende syððan sūðweard mid fulre fyrde, and betǣhte ðā scipu and ðā ȝislas Cnute his suna; and syððan hē com ofer Wætlinȝa strǣte, worhton ðæt mǣste yfel ðæt ǣniȝ here dōn mihte. Wende ðā tō Oxenforda, and sēo buruhwaru sōna beah and ȝislude, and ðanon tō Winceastre, and hī ðæt ylce dydon. Wende ðā ðanon eastwerd tō Lundene, and mycel his folces adranȝ on Temese, forðam ðe hī nānre bricȝe ne cēpton. ða hē tō ðǣre byriȝ com, ðā nolde sēo buruhwaru būȝan ac heoldan mid fullan wīȝe onȝēan, forðan ðǣr was inne sē cynȝ Æðelred and ðurkyl mid him. ðā wende Sweȝen cynȝ ðanon tō Wealinȝforda, and swā ofer Temese westweard tō Baðan, and sæt ðǣr mid his fyrde. And com Æðelmær ealdorman ðyder, and ðā westernan ðeȝenas mid him, and buȝon ealle tō Sweȝene, and hī ȝisludon. ðā hē ðus ȝefaren hæfde, wende ðā norðweard tō his scipum, and eal ðēodscype hine hæfde ðā for fulne cynȝ; and sēo buruhwaru æfter ðam on Lundene bēāh and ȝislude, forðon hī ondrēdon ðæt hē hī fordōn wolde. ðā wæs sē cyninȝ Æðelred sume hwīle mid ðam flotan ðe on Temese læȝ, and sēo hlæfdiȝe ȝewende ðā ofer sǣ tō hire brēðer Ricarde, and sē cyninȝ ȝewende ðā fram ðam flotan tō ðam middanwintra tō Wihtlande and wæs ðǣr ðā tīd; and æfter ðære tīde wende ofer ðā sǣ tō Ricarde and wæs ðær mid him oð ðone byre ðæt Sweȝen wearð dēad

The sermon of Wulfstan (died 1023) , the Bishop of York dates back to the early XI-th century; it was written after the king Aethelred flew to Normandy, and the Scandinavians under Sweyn plundered the country.

Sermo Lupi ad Anglos

Lēofan men, ȝecnāwað ðæt sōð is: ðēos worolde is on ofste and hit nēalǣcð ðām ende. And ðȳ hit is on worolde ā swā lenȝ swā wyrse, and swā hit sceal nȳde for folces synnan fram dæȝe tō dżȝe, ǣr antecrīstes tōcyme, yfelian swȳðe. And hūru hit wyrð ðænne eȝeslīc and ȝrimlīc wīde on worolde.

Understandað ēac ȝeorne ðæt dēofol ðās ðēode nū fela ȝēara dwelode tō swȳðe, and ðæt lȳtle ȝetrēowða wǣron mid mannum, ðēah hȳ wel sprǣcan. And unrihta tō fela rīcsode on lande, and nżs ā fela manna ðe smēade ymbe ðā bōte swā ȝeorne swā man scolde, ac dżȝhwāmlīce man ihte yfel żfter ōðrum, and unriht rǣrde and unlaȝa maneȝe ealles tō wīde ȝynd ealle ðās ðēode. And wē ēac forðām habbað fela byrsta and bysmara ȝebiden, and ȝif wē ǣniȝe bōte ȝebīdan scylan ðonne mōte wē ðæs tō Gode ernian bet ðonne wē ǣr ðysan dydon. Forðām mid miclan earnunȝan wē ȝeearnedon ðā yrmða ðe ūs on sittað and mid swȳðe miclan earnunȝan wē ðā bōte mōtan żt Gode ȝerǣcan, ȝif hit sceal heonanforð ȝōdiende weorðan. Lā hwżt wē wītan ful ȝeorne ðæt tō miclan bryce sceal micel bōt nȳde, and tō miclan bryne wæter unlȳtel, ȝif man ðæt fȳr sceal tō āhte ācwżncan. And micel is nȳdðearf ēac manna ȝehwilcum ðæt hē Godes laȝe ȝȳme heonanforð ȝeorne bet ðonne hē ǣr dyde, and Godes ȝerihta mid rihte ȝelǣste.

On hǣðenum ðēodum ne dear man forhealdan lȳtel, ne micel, ðæs ðe ȝelaȝod is tō ȝedwolȝoda weorðunȝe, and wē forhealdað ǣȝhwǣr Godes ȝerihta ealles tō ȝelōme. And ne dear man ȝewanian on hǣðenum ðēodum, inne ne ūte, ǣniȝ ðǣra ðinȝa ðe ȝedwolȝodan brōht bið and tō lācum betǣht bið. And wē habbað Godes hūs, inne and ūte, clǣne berȳpte ǣlcra ȝerisena, and Godes ðēowas syndan mǣðe and munde ȝewelhwǣr bedǣlde. And sume men secȝað ðæt ȝedwolȝoda ðēnan ne dear man misbēodan on ǣniȝe wīsan mid hǣðenum lēodum, swā swā man Godes ðēowum nū dēð tō wīde, ðǣr Crīstene scoldan Godes laȝe healdan and Godes ðēowas ȝriðian.

Ac sōð is ðæt ic secȝe: ðearf is ðǣre bōte forðām Godes ȝerihta wanedan tō lanȝe innan ðysse ðēode on ǣȝhwylcan ende, and folclaȝa wyrsedan ealles tō swȳðe, syððan Ēadȝār ȝeendode. And hāliȝnessa syndon tō ȝriðlēase wīde and Godes hūs syndan tō clǣne berypte ealdra ȝerihta and innan bestrȳpte ǣlcra ȝerisena. And wydewan syndan wīde fornȳdde on

unriht tō ceorle and tō mżneȝe foryrmde and ȝehȳnede swȳðe, and earme men syndon sāre beswicene and hrēowlīce besyrwde, and ūt of ðysan earde wīde ȝesealde swȳðe unforworhte fremdum tō ȝewealde, and cradolcild ȝeðēowede ðurh wælhrēowe unlaȝa, for lȳtelre ðȳfðe wīde ȝynd ðās ðēode. And frēoriht fornumene and ðrǣlriht ȝenyrwde and ælmæsriht ȝewanode. Friȝe men ne mōton wealdan hēora sylfna ne faran ðar hī willað ne atēon hēora āȝen swā swā hī willað. Ne ðrǣlas ne mōton habban ðæt hī āȝon on āȝenan hwīlan mid earfeðan ȝewunnen. Ne ðæt ðæt hēom on Godes est ȝode men ȝeuðon. And tō ælmesȝife for Godes lufan sealdon. Ac ǣȝhwilc ælmesriht ðe man on Godes est scolde mid rihte ȝeorne ȝelǣstan. Alc man ȝelīmlað oððe forhealdeð, forðam unriht is tō wīde mannum ȝemæne and unlaȝa lēofe. And hrżdest is tō cweðenne Godes laȝa lāðe and lāra forsawenne, and ðæs wē habbað ealle ðurh Godes yrre bysmor ȝelōme, ȝecnāwe sē ðe cunne. And sē byrst wyrð ȝemǣne ðēh man swā ne wēne eallre ðysse ðēode būtan God beorȝe.

Middle English Period

Geoffrey Chaucer. 1340–1400, English poet, noted for his narrative skill, humour, and insight, particularly in his most famous work, *The Canterbury Tales*. He was influenced by the continental tradition of rhyming verse. His other works include *Troilus and Criseyde*, *The Legend of Good Women*, and *The Parlement of Foules*

The Canterbury Tales

Prologue

Here bygynneth the Book of the tales of Caunterbury.

Whan that Aprille, with hise shoures soote,
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth

Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open eye-

So priketh hem Nature in hir corages-
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
And specially, from every shires ende

Of Engelond, to Caunturbury they wende,
The hooly blisful martir for the seke
That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke.
Bifil that in that seson, on a day,
In Southwerk at the Tabard as I lay,

Redy to wenden on my pilgrymage
To Caunterbury, with ful devout corage,
At nyght were come into that hostelrye
Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignye
Of sondry folk, by aventure yfalle

In felaweshipe, and pilgrimes were they alle,
That toward Caunterbury wolden ryde.
The chambres and the stables weren wyde,
And wel we weren esed atte beste;
And shortly, whan the sonne was to reste,

So hadde I spoken with hem everychon
That I was of hir felaweshipe anon,
And made forward erly for to ryse
To take our wey, ther as I yow devyse.

But nathelees, whil I have tyme and space,
Er that I ferther in this tale pace,
Me thynketh it acordaunt to resoun

To telle yow al the condicioun
Of ech of hem, so as it semed me,
And whiche they weren, and of what degree,

And eek in what array that they were inne;
And at a knyght than wol I first bigynne.
A knyght ther was, and that a worthy man,
That fro the tyme that he first bigan
To riden out, he loved chivalrie,

Trouthe and honour, fredom and curteisie.
Ful worthy was he in his lordes werre,

And therto hadde he riden, no man ferre,
As wel in Cristendom as in Hethenesse,
And evere honoured for his worthynesse.

.....
And though that he were worthy, he was wys,
And of his port as meeke as is a mayde;
He nevere yet no vileynye ne sayde

In al his lyf unto no maner wight;
He was a verray parfit gentil knyght.
But for to tellen yow of his array,
His hors weren goode, but he was nat gay.
Of fustian he wered a gypoun,

Al bismotered with his habergeoun;
For he was late ycome from his viage,
And wente for to doon his pilgrymage.
With hym ther was his sone, a **yong Squier**,
A lovyere and a lusty bacheler,

With lokkes crulle, as they were leyd in presse.
Of twenty yeer of age he was, I gesse.
Of his stature he was of evene lengthe,
And wonderly delyvere, and of greet strengthe.
And he hadde been somtyme in chyvachie

In Flaundres, in Artoys, and Pycardie,
And born hym weel, as of so litel space,
In hope to stonden in his lady grace.
Embrouded was he, as it were a meede,
Al ful of fresshe floures whyte and reede;

Syngynge he was, or floytynge, al the day,
He was as fressh as is the monthe of May.
Short was his gowne, with sleves longe and wyde.
Wel koude he sitte on hors, and faire ryde,
He koude songes make, and wel endite,

Juste, and eek daunce, and weel purtreye and write.
So hoote he lovede, that by nyghtertale
He slepte namoore than dooth a nyghtyngale.
Curteis he was, lowely, and servysable,
And carf biforn his fader at the table.
.....

A **Marchant** was ther, with a forked berd,

In mottelee, and hye on horse he sat,
Upon his heed a Flaundryssh bevere hat,
His bootes clasped faire and fetisly.
Hise resons he spak ful solempnely,
Sownynge alway thencrees of his wynnyng.

He wolde the see were kept for any thyng
Bitwixe Middelburgh and Orewelle.
Wel koude he in eschaunge sheeldes selle.
This worthy man ful wel his wit bisette;
Ther wiste no wight that he was in dette

So estatly was he of his governaunce,
With his bargaynes and with his chevyssaunce.
Forsothe, he was a worthy man with-alle,
But, sooth to seyn, I noot how men hym calle.
A Clerk ther was of Oxenford also,

That unto logyk hadde longe ygo.
As leene was his hors as is a rake,
And he nas nat right fat, I undertake,
But looked holwe and therto sobrely.
Ful thredbare was his overeste courtepy,

For he hadde geten hym yet no benefice,
Ne was so worldly for to have office,
For hym was levere have at his beddes heed
Twenty bookes, clad in blak or reed,
Of Aristotle and his plilosophie,

Than robes riche, or fithele, or gay sautrie.
But al be that he was a philosophre,
Yet hadde he but litel gold in cofre;
But al that he myghte of his freendes hente,
On bookes and his lernynge he it spente,

And bisily gan for the soules preye
Of hem that yaf hym wherwith to scoleye.
Of studie took he moost cure and moost heede,
Noght o word spak he moore than was neede,
And that was seyd in forme and reverence,

And short and quyk, and ful of hy sentence.
Sownynge in moral vertu was his speche,
And gladly wolde he lerne, and gladly teche.
With us ther was a **Doctour of Phisik**;
In al this world ne was ther noon hym lik,
To speke of phisik and of surgerye;
For he was grounded in astronomye.
He kepte his pacient a ful greet deel

In houres, by his magyk natureel.
Wel koude he fortunen the ascendent
Of hise ymages for his pacient.
He knew the cause of everich maladye,
Were it of hoot or coold, or moyste, or drye,

And where they engendred, and of what humour.
He was a verray parfit praktisour;
The cause yknowe, and of his harm the roote,
Anon he yaf the sike man his boote.
Ful redy hadde he hise apothecaries

To sende him drogges and his letuaries,
For ech of hem made oother for to wynne,
Hir frendshipe nas nat newe to bigynne.
Wel knew he the olde Esculapius,
And Deyscorides and eek Rufus,

Olde Ypocras, Haly, and Galyen,
Serapioun, Razis, and Avycen,
Averrois, Damascien, and Constantyn,
Bernard, and Gatesden, and Gilbertyn.
Of his diete mesurable was he,

For it was of no superfluitee,
But of greet norissyng, and digestible.
His studie was but litel on the Bible.
In sangwyn and in pers he clad was al,
Lyned with taffata and with sendal –

And yet he was but esy of dispence;
He kepte that he wan in pestilence.
For gold in phisik is a cordial,
Therfore he lovede gold in special.

.....

"Lordynges," quod he, "now herkneth for the beste,
But taak it nought, I prey yow, in desdeyn.
This is the poynt, to speken short and pleyn,

That ech of yow, to shorte with oure weye,
In this viage shal telle tales tweye,
To Caunterburyward I mene it so,
And homward he shal tellen othere two,
Of aventures that whilom han bifalle.

And which of yow that bereth hym best of alle –
That is to seyn, that telleth in this caas
Tales of best sentence and moost solaas –
Shal have a soper at oure aller cost,
Heere in this place, sittynge by this post,

Whan that we come agayn fro Caunterbury.
And make yow the moore mury
I wol my-selven goodly with yow ryde
Right at myn owene cost, and be youre gyde.
And who so wole my juggement withseye

Shal paye al that we spenden by the weye.
And if ye vouchesauf that it be so,
Tel me anon, withouten wordes mo,
And I wol erly shape me therfore."
This thyng was graunted, and oure othes swore

With ful glad herte, and preyden hym also
That he wolde vouchesauf for to do so,
And that he wolde been oure governour,
And of our tales juge and reportour,
And sette a soper at a certeyn pris.

And we wol reuled been at his devys
In heigh and lough; and thus by oon assent
We been acorded to his juggement;
And therupon the wyn was fet anon,
We dronken, and to reste wente echon

Withouten any lenger taryynge.
Amorwe, whan that day bigan to sprynge,
Up roos oure Hoost, and was oure aller cok,
And gadrede us togidre, alle in a flok,
And forth we riden, a litel moore than paas,

Unto the wateryng of Seint Thomas.
And there oure Hoost bigan his hors areste,

And seyde, "Lordynges, herkneth if yow leste,
Ye woot youre foreward, and I it yow recorde;
If even-song and morwe-song accorde,

Lat se now who shal telle the firste tale.
As evere mote I drynke wyn or ale,
Whoso be rebel to my juggement
Shal paye for al that by the wey is spent.
Now draweth cut, er that we ferrer twynne,

He which that hath the shorteste shal bigynne.
Sire knyght," quod he, "my mayster and my lord,
Now draweth cut, for that is myn accord,
Cometh neer," quod he, "my lady Prioresse,
And ye, Sir Clerk, lat be your shamefastnesse,

Ne studieth noght; ley hond to, every man."
Anon to drawen every wight bigan,
And shortly for to tellen as it was,
Were it by aventure, or sort, or cas,
The sothe is this, the cut fil to the knyght,

Of which ful blithe and glad was every wyght.
And telle he moste his tale, as was resoun,
By foreward and by composicioun,–
As ye han herd, what nedeth wordes mo?
And whan this goode man saugh that it was so,

As he that wys was and obedient
To kepe his foreward by his free assent,
He seyde, "Syn I shal bigynne the game,
What, welcome be the cut, a Goddes name!
Now lat us ryde, and herkneth what I seye."

Early New English

Note: pay special attention to the italicized words and phrases.

William Shakespeare
ROMEO AND JULIET

ACT II
SCENE II Capulet's orchard.
[Enter ROMEO]

ROMEO He jests at scars that never felt a wound.

[JULIET appears above at a window]

But, soft! *what light through yonder window breaks?*
It is the east, and Juliet is the sun.
Arise, fair sun, and kill the envious moon,
Who *is already sick* and pale with grief,
That *thou* her maid *art* far *more fair* than she:
Be not her maid, since she is envious;
Her vestal livery is but sick and green
And none but fools *do wear* it; cast it off.
It is my lady, O, it is my love!
O, that she knew she were!
She speak*s* yet she say*s* nothing: what of that?
Her eye *discourses*; I will answer it.
I am too bold, 'tis not to me she speaks:
Two of the *fairest* stars in all the heaven,
Having some business, *do entreat* her eyes
To twinkle in their spheres till they return.
What if her eyes were there, they in her head?
The brightness of her cheek would *shame* those stars,
As daylight *doth* a lamp; her eyes in heaven
Would through the airy region *stream* so bright
That birds would sing and think it *were* not night.
See, how she leans her cheek upon her hand!
O, that I were a glove upon that hand,
That I might touch that cheek!

JULIET Ay me!

ROMEO She speaks:
O, speak again, bright angel! for *thou art*
As glorious to this night, being o'er my head
As is a winged messenger of heaven
Unto the white-upturned wondering eyes
Of mortals that fall back to gaze on him
When he bestrides the lazy-pacing clouds
And sails upon the bosom of the air.

JULIET O Romeo, Romeo! *wherefore art thou* Romeo?
Deny *thy* father and refuse *thy* name;
Or, if thou *wilt* not, be but sworn my love,
And I'll no longer be a Capulet.

ROMEO [Aside] Shall I hear more, or shall I speak at this?

JULIET 'Tis but thy name that is my enemy;
Thou art thyself, though not a Montague.
What's Montague? it is nor hand, nor foot,
Nor arm, nor face, nor any other part
Belonging to a man. O, be some other name!
What's in a name? that which we call a rose
By any other name would smell as sweet;
So Romeo would, were he not Romeo call'd,
Retain that dear perfection which he owes
Without that title. Romeo, doff thy name,
And for that name which is no part of thee
Take all myself.

ROMEO I take *thee at thy* word:
Call me but love, and I'll be new baptized;
Henceforth I never will be Romeo.

JULIET What man *art thou* that thus bescreen'd in night
So *stumblest* on my *counsel*?

ROMEO By a name
I *know not* how to tell *thee* who I am:
My name, dear saint, is hateful to myself,
Because it is an enemy to *thee*;
Had I it written, I would tear the word.

JULIET My ears have not yet drunk a hundred words
Of that *tongue's* utterance, yet I know the sound:
Art thou not Romeo and a Montague?

ROMEO Neither, fair saint, if either *thee dislike.*

JULIET How *camest thou hither*, tell me, and wherefore?
The orchard walls are high and hard to climb,
And the place death, considering who *thou art*,
If any of my kinsmen *find thee* here.

ROMEO With love's light wings *did I o'er-perch* these walls;
For stony limits cannot hold love out,
And what love can do that dares love attempt;
Therefore thy kinsmen are no *let* to me.

JULIET If they *do see thee*, they will murder thee.

ROMEO Alack, there lies more peril in *thine* eye
Than twenty of their swords: look thou but sweet,
And I am proof against their enmity.

JULIET I *would not* for the world they saw thee here.

ROMEO I have night's cloak to hide me from their sight;
And *but thou love* me, let them find me here:
My life *were better ended* by their hate,
Than death prorogued, wanting of thy love.

JULIET *By whose direction found'st thou out this place?*

ROMEO By love, who first *did prompt* me to inquire;
He lent me counsel and I lent him eyes.
I am no pilot; yet, *wert thou as far*
As that vast shore wash'd with the *farthest* sea,
I would *adventure* for such merchandise.

JULIET *Thou know'st* the mask of night is on my face,
Else would a maiden blush bepaint my cheek
For that which thou *hast heard* me speak to-night
Fain would I dwell on form, fain, fain deny
What I have *spoke*: but farewell compliment!
Dost thou love me? I know thou *wilt say 'Ay,'*
And I will take thy word: yet if *thou swear'st,*
Thou *mayst* prove false; at lovers' perjuries
Then say, Jove laughs. O gentle Romeo,
If thou *dost love*, pronounce it faithfully:
Or if *thou think'st* I am too quickly won,
I'll frown and be perverse an say *thee nay*,
So thou *wilt* woo; but else, not for the world.
In truth, fair Montague, I am too fond,
And therefore *thou mayst* think my 'havior light:
But trust me, gentleman, I'll prove *more true*
Than those that have more cunning to be *strange.*
I should have been more *strange,* I must confess,
But that thou *overheard'st, ere* I was *ware*,
My true love's passion: therefore pardon me,
And *not impute* this yielding to light love,
Which the dark night *hath* so discovered.

ROMEO Lady, by *yonder* blessed moon I swear
That tips with silver all these fruit-tree tops –

JULIET O, *swear not* by the moon, the inconstant moon,
That monthly changes in her circled orb,
Lest that thy love *prove* likewise variable.

ROMEO What shall I swear by?

JULIET *Do not swear at all*;
Or, if *thou wilt*, swear by thy gracious self,
Which is the god of my idolatry,
And I'll believe thee.

ROMEO If my heart's dear love –

JULIET Well, do not swear: although I *joy* in *thee*,
I have no joy of this contract to-night:
It is too rash, too unadvised, too sudden;
Too like the lightning, which *doth cease* to be
Ere one can say 'It lightens.' Sweet, good night!
This bud of love, by summer's ripening breath,
May prove a beauteous flower when next we meet.
Good night, good night! as sweet repose and rest
Come to thy heart as that within my breast!

ROMEO O, *wilt thou* leave me so unsatisfied?

JULIET What *satisfaction canst* thou have to-night?

ROMEO The exchange of thy love's faithful vow for mine.

JULIET I gave *thee mine* before thou *didst request* it:
And yet *I would it were* to give again.

ROMEO *Wouldst thou* withdraw it? for what purpose, love?

JULIET But to be frank, and give it thee again.
And yet I wish but for the thing I have:
My bounty is as boundless as the sea,
My love as deep; the more I give to thee,
The more I have, for both are infinite.

[Nurse calls within]

I hear some noise *within*; dear love, adieu!
Anon, good nurse! Sweet Montague, be true.
Stay but a little, I will come again.

[Exit, above]

ROMEO O blessed, blessed night! I am *afeard*.
Being in night, all this is but a dream,
Too flattering-sweet to be substantial.

[Re-enter JULIET, above]

JULIET Three words, dear Romeo, and good night indeed.
If that *thy bent of love be* honourable,
Thy purpose marriage, send me word to-morrow,
By one that I'll procure to come to thee,
Where and what time thou *wilt perform* the rite;
And all my fortunes at thy foot I'll lay
And follow thee my lord throughout the world.

Nurse [Within] Madam!

JULIET I come, anon. – But *if thou mean'st not well,*
I do beseech thee –

Nurse [Within] Madam!

JULIET By and by, I come: –
To cease thy suit, and leave me to my grief:
To-morrow will I send.

ROMEO So thrive my soul –

JULIET A thousand times good night!

William Shakespeare
JULIUS CAESAR
ACT III
SCENE II The Forum.
The noble Brutus is ascended: silence!

BRUTUS Be patient till the last.
Romans, countrymen, and lovers! hear me for my cause, and be silent, that you may hear: believe me for *mine* honour, and have respect to *mine* honour, that you may believe: censure me in your wisdom, and awake your senses, that you may the better judge. If *there be any* in this assembly, any dear friend of Caesar's, to him I say, that Brutus' love to Caesar was no *less* than his. *If then that friend demand* why Brutus rose against Caesar, this is my answer: – Not that I loved Caesar less, but that I loved Rome more. *Had you rather Caesar were living and die all slaves, than that Caesar were dead, to live all free men?* As Caesar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was valiant, I *honour* him: but, as he was ambitious, I slew him. There is tears for his love; joy for his fortune; honour for his valour; and death for his ambition. Who is here so base that *would* be a bondman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman? If any, speak; for him have I offended. Who is here so vile that will not love his country? If any, speak; for him have I offended. I pause for a reply.

All None, Brutus, none.

BRUTUS Then none have I offended. I have done no more to Caesar than you shall do to Brutus. The question of his death is enrolled in the Capitol; his glory not extenuated, wherein he was worthy, nor his offences enforced, for which he suffered death.

[Enter ANTONY and others, with CAESAR's body]

Here comes his body, mourned by Mark Antony: who, though he had no hand in his death, shall receive the benefit of his dying, a place in the commonwealth; as which of you shall not? With this I depart, – that, as I slew my best lover for the good of Rome, I have the same dagger for myself, when it shall please my country to need my death.

All Live, Brutus! live, live!

First Citizen Bring him with triumph home unto his house.

Second Citizen Give him a statue with his ancestors.

Third Citizen Let him be Caesar.

Fourth Citizen Caesar's better parts
Shall be crown'd in Brutus.

First Citizen We'll bring him to his house
With shouts and clamours.

BRUTUS My countrymen, –

Second Citizen Peace, silence! Brutus speaks.

First Citizen Peace, ho!

BRUTUS Good countrymen, let me depart alone,
And, for my sake, stay here with Antony:
Do grace to Caesar's corpse, and grace his speech
Tending to Caesar's glories; which Mark Antony,
By our permission, is allow'd to make.
I *do entreat you, not a man depart,*
Save I alone, till Antony *have spoke.*

[Exit]

First Citizen Stay, ho! and let us hear Mark Antony.

Third Citizen Let him go up into the public chair;
We'll hear him. Noble Antony, go up.

ANTONY For Brutus' sake, I am beholding to you.

[Goes into the pulpit]

Fourth Citizen What *does he say* of Brutus?

Third Citizen He says, for Brutus' sake,
He finds himself beholding to us all.

Fourth Citizen *'Twere best he speak* no harm of Brutus here.

First Citizen This Caesar was a tyrant.

Third Citizen Nay, that's certain:
We are blest that Rome *is rid* of him.

Second Citizen Peace! let us hear what Antony can say.

ANTONY You gentle Romans, –

Citizens Peace, ho! let us hear him.

ANTONY Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears;
I come to bury Caesar, not to praise him.
The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is *oft* interred with their bones;
So let it be with Caesar. The noble Brutus
Hath told you Caesar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Caesar answer'd it.
Here, under leave of Brutus and the rest –
For Brutus is an honourable man;
So are they all, all honourable men –

Come I to speak in Caesar's funeral.
He was my friend, faithful and just to me:
But Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honourable man.
He *hath* brought many captives home to Rome
Whose ransoms *did the general coffers fill*:
Did this in Caesar seem ambitious?
When that the poor have cried, Caesar *hath wept*:
Ambition should be made of sterner stuff:
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honourable man.
You all *did see* that on the Lupercal
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he *did thrice refuse*: was this ambition?
Yet Brutus says he was ambitious;
And, sure, he is an honourable man.
I *speak not* to disprove what Brutus spoke,
But here I am to speak what I *do know*.
You all *did love* him once, not without cause:
What cause withholds you then, to mourn for him?
O judgment! *thou art fled* to brutish beasts,
And men have lost their reason. Bear with me;
My heart is in the coffin there with Caesar,
And I must pause till it *come back* to me.

First Citizen *Methinks* there is much reason in his sayings.

Second Citizen If *thou* consider rightly of the matter,
Caesar has had great wrong.

Third Citizen Has he, masters?
I fear there will *a worse* come in his place.

Fourth Citizen *Mark'd ye* his words? He *would not* take the crown;
Therefore 'tis certain he was not ambitious.

First Citizen *If it be found so*, some will dear abide it.

Second Citizen Poor soul! his eyes are red as fire with weeping.

Third Citizen There's not a nobler man in Rome than Antony.

Fourth Citizen Now mark him, he begins again to speak.

ANTONY But yesterday the word of Caesar might
Have stood against the world; now lies he there.
And none so poor to do him reverence.
O masters, if I were disposed to stir
Your hearts and minds to mutiny and rage,
I should do Brutus wrong, and Cassius wrong,
Who, you all know, are honourable men:
I will not do them wrong; I rather choose
To wrong the dead, *to wrong* myself and you,
Than I *will wrong* such honourable men.
But here's a parchment with the seal of Caesar;
I found it in his closet, 'tis his will:
Let but the commons hear this testament –
Which, pardon me, I *do not mean* to read –
And they would go and kiss dead Caesar's wounds
And dip their napkins in his sacred blood,
Yea, beg a hair of him for memory,
And, dying, mention it within their wills,
Bequeathing it as a rich legacy
Unto their issue.

William Shakespeare
KING LEAR

ACT I
SCENE I

GLOUCESTER Here's France and Burgundy, my noble lord.

KING LEAR My lord of Burgundy.
We first address towards you, who with this king
Hath rivall'd for our daughter: what, in the least,
Will you require in present dower with her,
Or cease your quest of love?

BURGUNDY Most royal majesty,
I crave no more than what your highness offer'd,
Nor will you tender less.

KING LEAR Right noble Burgundy,
When she was dear to us, we *did hold* her so;
But now her price *is fall'n*. Sir, there she stands:
If *aught* within that little seeming substance,
Or all of it, with our displeasure *pieced*,
And nothing more, may fitly like your grace,
She's there, and she is yours.

BURGUNDY I know no answer.

KING LEAR Will you, with those infirmities she owes,
Unfriended, new-adopted to our hate,
Dower'd with our curse, and *stranger'd* with our oath,
Take her, or leave her?

BURGUNDY Pardon me, royal sir;
Election *makes not up* on such conditions.

KING LEAR Then leave her, sir; for, by the power that made me,
I tell you all her wealth.

[To KING OF FRANCE]

For you, great king,
I *would not from your love make such a stray*,
To match you where I hate; therefore beseech you
To avert your liking *a more worthier* way
Than on a wretch whom nature is ashamed
Almost to acknowledge hers.

KING OF FRANCE This is *most strange*,
That she, that even but now was your best object,
The argument of your praise, balm of your age,
Most best, most dearest, should in this trice of time
Commit a thing so monstrous, to dismantle
So many folds of favour. Sure, her offence
Must be of such unnatural degree,
That *monsters* it, or your fore-vouch'd affection
Fall'n into taint: which to believe of her,
Must be a faith that reason without miracle
Could never plant in me.

CORDELIA I yet beseech your majesty, –
If for I want that glib and oily art,
To speak and purpose not; since what I well intend,
I'll do't before I speak, – that you make known
It is no vicious blot, murder, or foulness,
No unchaste action, or dishonour'd step,
That hath deprived me of your grace and favour;
But even for want of that for which I am richer,
A still-soliciting eye, and such a tongue
As I am glad I have not, *though not to have it*
Hath lost me in your liking.

KING LEAR *Better thou*
Hadst not been born than not to have pleased me better.

KING OF FRANCE Is it but this, – a tardiness in nature
Which often leaves the history *unspoke*
That it intends to do? My lord of Burgundy,

What say you to the lady? Love's not love
When it is mingled with regards that stand
Aloof from the entire point. Will you have her?
She is herself a dowry.

BURGUNDY Royal Lear,
Give but that portion which yourself proposed,
And here I take Cordelia by the hand,
Duchess of Burgundy.

KING LEAR Nothing: I have sworn; I am firm.

BURGUNDY I am sorry, then, you have so lost a father
That you must lose a husband.

CORDELIA *Peace be with Burgundy*!
Since *that respects of fortune* are his love,
I shall not be his wife.

KING OF FRANCE Fairest Cordelia, *that art most rich*, being poor;
Most choice, forsaken; and most loved, despised!
Thee and thy virtues here I seize upon:
Be it lawful I take up what's cast away.
Gods, gods! 'tis strange that from their cold'st neglect
My love should kindle to inflamed respect.
Thy dowerless daughter, king, thrown to my chance,
Is queen of us, of ours, and our fair France:
Not all the dukes of waterish Burgundy
Can buy this *unprized* precious maid of me.
Bid them farewell, Cordelia, though unkind:
Thou losest here, a better where to find.

KING LEAR Thou hast her, France: let her be thine; for we
Have no such daughter, nor shall ever see
That face of hers again. Therefore be gone
Without our grace, our love, our benison.
Come, noble Burgundy.
[Flourish. Exeunt all but KING OF FRANCE, GONERIL, REGAN, and CORDELIA]

KING OF FRANCE Bid farewell to your sisters.

CORDELIA The jewels of our father, with wash'd eyes
Cordelia leaves you: I know you what you are;
And like a sister am most loath to call
Your faults as they are named. *Use well our* father:
To your professed bosoms I commit him
But yet, alas, stood I within his grace,
I would prefer him to a better place.
So, farewell to you both.

REGAN *Prescribe not us our duties.*

GONERIL Let your study
Be to content your lord, who hath received you
At *fortune's alms*. You have obedience scanted,
And well are worth the want that you have wanted.

CORDELIA Time shall unfold what plaited cunning hides:
Who *cover* faults, at last shame them derides.
Well may you prosper!

KING OF FRANCE Come, my fair Cordelia.
[Exeunt KING OF FRANCE and CORDELIA]

SUPPLEMENT.

Translations of the Old English texts into present-day English

The voyage of Ohthere.

The text translated by Grant Chevallier

Othere said to his lord, King Alfred, that he lived northernmost of all the Northern People. He said that he lived in the northern land near the Western Sea. He said, however, that the land is very long to the north from there; but it is all waste, except that Finns live in a few places here and there – by hunting in winter and fishing in summer along the sea.

He said that he at some time wanted to find out how long the land extends to the north, or whether any man lived north of the waste. Then he travelled northwards along the land: all the way he left the waste land on the starboard, and the open sea on the larboard for three days. Then he was as far north as the whalehunters ever travel. Then he travelled north still as far as he could sail in the next three days. Then the land turned eastward, or the sea into the land, he knew not which, except he knew that he waited there for a wind from the west and a little from the north, and then sailed east near the land as far as he could sail in four days. Then he had to wait for winds from due north, because there the land turned southward, or the sea into the land, he know not which. Then he sailed from there southwards along the land as far as he could in five days of sailing. Then there lay a great river up into the land. There they turned up into the river, because they dared not sail beyond the river because of hostilities; because the land was all occupied on the other half of the river. He had not previously encountered any occupied land, since he left his own home; but there was all the way waste land on the starboard, except some fishermen and fowlers and hunters, and they were all Finns; and there was always open sea on the larboard. The Biarmians had well settled their lands: but they dared not approach there. But the Finns' land was all waste, except some hunters lived there, or fishermen, or fowlers.

The Story of Caedmon (from Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People)
Translation (from *Stanislaw Helsztynski. Specimen of English Poetry abd Prose*. Panstwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1976, p. 67–68)

In this Abbess's Minster was a certain brother extraordinarily magnified and honoured with a divine gift ; for he was wont to make fitting songs which conduced to religion and piety; so whatever he learned through clercs of the holy writings, that he after a little space, would usually adorn with the great sweetness and feeling, and bring forth in the English tongue; and by his songs the minds of many men were often inflamed with contempt for the world, and with desire of heavenly life. And moreover, many other after him, in the English nation, sought to make pious songs, but yet none could do like him, for he had not been taught from men, not through men, to learn poetic art, but he was divinely aided, and through God's grace received the art of song. And he therefore never might make aught of leasing or of the idle poems, but which only conduced to religion, and which it became his pious tongue to sing. The man was placed in worldly life until the time that he was of mature age, and has never learned any poem; and he therefore often in convival

society, when for the sake of mirth, it was resolved that they all in turn should sing to the harp, when he saw the harp approaching him, then for shame he would rise from the assembly and go home to his house.

When he did so on a certain time, that he left the house of convival meeting, and was out to the stall of the cattle, the care of which that night had been committed to him, – when he there, at proper time placed his limbs on the bed and slept, then stood a certain man by him, in a dream, and hailed and greeted him, and named him by his name, saying "Caedmon, sing me something". The answered he and said, "I cannot sing anything, and therefore I went out from this convival meeting, and retired hither, because I could not". Again he who was speaking with him said, "Yet thou must sing to me". Said he, "what shall I sing?" Said he "Sing me the origin of things". When he received this answer, then he began forthwith to sing, in praise of God the Creator, the verses, and the words which he had never heard, the order of which is this:

Now must we praise
The Creator's might
glorious Father of men
Lord eternal,
He first framed
the heaven as a roof,
the mid-earth
the eternal Lord,
the earth for men;
the guardian of heaven's kingdom,
and his mind's thought;
as of every wonder he,
formed the beginning.
for the children of earth
holy Creator
the guardian of mankind,
afterwards produced;
Lord almighty!

Then he arose from his sleep, and had fast in mind all that the sleeping had sung, and to those words forthwith joined many words of song worthy of God in the same measure.

Beowulf. Trans. by Francis B. Gummere. Harvard Classics. Vol. 49. Collier, 1910 Compiler: Ian Lancashire, Rep. Criticism On-line (1996). (Internet Wiretap edition).

Thro' wan night striding,
came the walker-in-shadow. Warriors slept
whose hest was to guard the gabled hall, –

all save one. 'Twas widely known
that against God's will the ghostly ravager
him could not hurl to haunts of darkness;
wakeful, ready, with warrior's wrath,
bold he bided the battle's issue.
THEN from the moorland, by misty crags,
with God's wrath laden, Grendel came.
The monster was minded of mankind now
sundry to seize in the stately house.
Under welkin he walked, till the wine-palace there,
gold-hall of men, he gladly discerned,
flashing with fretwork. Not first time, this,
that he the home of Hrothgar sought, –
yet ne'er in his life-day, late or early,
such hardy heroes, such hall-thanes, found!
To the house the warrior walked apace,
parted from peace; the portal opened,
though with forged bolts fast, when his fists had struck it,
and baleful he burst in his blatant rage,
the house's mouth. All hastily, then,
o'er fair-paved floor the fiend trod on,
ireful he strode; there streamed from his eyes
fearful flashes, like flame to see.
He spied in hall the hero-band,
kin and clansmen clustered asleep,
hardy liegemen. Then laughed his heart;
for the monster was minded, ere morn should dawn,
savage, to sever the soul of each,
life from body, since lusty banquet
waited his will! But Wyrd forbade him
to seize any more of men on earth
after that evening. Eagerly watched
Hygelac's kinsman his cursed foe,
how he would fare in fell attack.

Translation from the excerpt from **The Battle of Maldon** (from *Stanislaw Helsztynski. Specimen of English Poetry abd Prose.* Panstwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warszawa 1976 pp. 97–98)

He bade each of the men leave his horse
strive it afar, and go forth,
think of his hands and of high purpose
Then the kinsmen of Offa first found out
That the Earl would not bear with cowardice.
Then from his hands he let the loved hawk
fly back to the wood, and he stepped to the battle.
By that might a man know that never would the youth
weaken in warfare when he seized his weapons
Then began Byrtnoth to embolden his men
give them courage and counsel, showed them their places
bade them hold their shields in the right fashion,
fast with their fingers, and fear nothing.
When he had fairly strengthened his folk
he alighted among those whom he most loved,
there where he felt his hearth-guard most faithful.
Then there stood on the bank and called out stoutly
the Viking herald, voiced his errand.
He announced boasting a message to the earl
that the Sea-goers sent from their places on the shore
"Seamen proud have sent me to thee,
bade me say that thou send quickly
bracelets for your safety; the better it is for those
to buy off with tribute this rush of spears
than that we should deal our battle to you.

Translation of the excerpt from the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle** (by Rev. James Ingram (London, 1823), with additional readings from the translation of Dr. J.A. Giles (London, 1847).

A.D. 1013. The year after that the Archbishop was martyred, the king appointed Lifing to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury. And in the same year, before the month August, came King Sweyne with his fleet to Sandwich;

and very soon went about East-Anglia into the Humber-mouth, and so upward along the Trent, until he came to Gainsborough. Then soon submitted to him Earl Utred, and all the Northumbrians, and all the people of Lindsey, and afterwards the people of the Five Boroughs, and soon after all the army to the north of Watling-street; and hostages were given him from each shire. When he understood that all the people were subject to him, then ordered he that his army should have provision and horses; and he then went southward with his main army, committing his ships and the hostages to his son Knute. And after he came over Watling-street, they wrought the greatest mischief that any army could do. Then he went to Oxford; and the population soon submitted, and gave hostages; thence to Winchester, where they did the same. Thence went they eastward to London; and many of the party sunk in the Thames, because they kept not to any bridge. When he came to the city, the population would not submit; but held their ground in full fight against him, because therein was King Ethelred, and Thurkill with him. Then went King Sweyne thence to Wallingford; and so over Thames westward to Bath, where he abode with his army. Thither came Alderman Ethelmar, and all the western thanes with him, and all submitted to Sweyne, and gave hostages. When he had thus settled all, then went he northward to his ships; and all the population fully received him, and considered him full king. The population of London also after this submitted to him, and gave hostages; because they dreaded that he would undo them. King Ethelred abode some while with the fleet that lay in the Thames; and the lady went afterwards over sea to her brother Richard, Then went the king from the fleet, about midwinter, to the Isle of Wight; and there abode for the season; after which he went over sea to Richard, with whom he abode till the time when Sweyne died.

Translation of the Critical Text (by Melissa Bernstein) **Sermo Lupi ad Anglos**

The sermon of the Wolf to the English, when the Danes were greatly persecuting them, which was in the year 1014 after the Incarnation of our Lord Jesus Christ:

Beloved men, know that which is true: this world is in haste and it nears the end. And therefore things in this world go ever the longer the

worse, and so it must needs be that things quickly worsen, on account of people's sinning from day to day, before the coming of Antichrist. And indeed it will then be awful and grim widely throughout the world. Understand also well that the Devil has now led this nation astray for very many years, and that little loyalty has remained among men, though they spoke well. And too many crimes reigned in the land, and there were never many of men who deliberated about the remedy as eagerly as one should, but daily they piled one evil upon another, and committed injustices and many violations of law all too widely throughout this entire land.

And we have also therefore endured many injuries and insults, and if we shall experience any remedy then we must deserve better of God than we have previously done. For with great deserts we have earned the misery that is upon us, and with truly great deserts we must obtain the remedy from God, if henceforth things are to improve. Lo, we know full well that a great breach of law shall necessitate a great remedy, and a great fire shall necessitate much water, if that fire is to be quenched. And it is also a great necessity for each of men that he henceforth eagerly heed the law of God better than he has done, and justly pay God's dues. In heathen lands one does not dare withhold little nor much of that which is appointed to the worship of false gods; and we withhold everywhere God's dues all too often. And in heathen lands one dares not curtail, within or without the temple, anything brought to the false gods and entrusted as an offering. And we have entirely stripped God's houses of everything fitting, within and without, and God's servants are everywhere deprived of honor and protection. And some men say that no man dare abuse the servants of false gods in any way among heathen people, just as is now done widely to the servants of God, where Christians ought to observe the law of God and protect the servants of God.

But what I say is true: there is need for that remedy because God's dues have diminished too long in this land in every district, and laws of the people have deteriorated entirely too greatly, since Edgar died. And sanctuaries are too widely violated, and God's houses are entirely stripped of all dues and are stripped within of everything fitting. And widows are widely forced to marry in unjust ways and too many are impoverished and fully humiliated; and poor men are sorely betrayed and cruelly defrauded, and sold widely out of this land into the power of foreigners, though innocent; and infants are enslaved by means of cruel injustices, on account of petty theft everywhere in this nation. And the rights of freemen are taken away and the rights of

slaves are restricted and charitable obligations are curtailed. Free men may not keep their independence, nor go where they wish, nor deal with their property just as they desire; nor may slaves have that property which, on their own time, they have obtained by means of difficult labor, or that which good men, in Gods favor, have granted them, and given to them in charity for the love of God. But every man decreases or withholds every charitable obligation that should by rights be paid eagerly in Gods favor, for injustice is too widely common among men and lawlessness is too widely dear to them. And in short, the laws of God are hated and his teaching despised; therefore we all are frequently disgraced through God's anger, let him know it who is able. And that loss will become universal, although one may not think so, to all these people, unless God protects us.

Taken from http://www.cif.rochester.edu/~mjbernst/wulfstan/

A

abbudisse *n f* abbess
ābēad see **ābēodan**
ābēodan *s v 2* announce, deliver (a message)
ābūtan *adv, prep* (**on + be + ūtan**) on the outside, about (around)
ac *conj* but, however, but on the contrary, and
ācwencan *wv 1* to quench, to extinguish
adranȝ see **adrincan**
adrincan *s v 3* to drown
afysan *wv 1* drive away
āȝen *adj* own
āȝnum *see* **āȝen**
āȝan *w prt pr* (past **āhte**) to own, possess
āhliehhan *s v 6* to laugh, deride
āhlōȝ *see* **āhliehhan**
āht *n f i* possessions
āhte *see* **āȝan**
ālc *see* **ǣlc**
aldordaȝas, ealderdaȝas *m pl* (all) the days of (someone's) life
ālimpan *s v 3* to happen, occur
ālumpen see **ālimpan**
ān *adj* a, an, one, only
and, ond *conj* and
anda *n m n* enmity, anger, vexation, zeal, injury, fear, horror
andlanȝ *prp* along
andswarian, ondswarian *wv 2 to answer*
antecrīste *n m a* Antichrist
ār *n m a* messenger
ārās *see* **ārīsan**
arcebiscop *n m a* archbishop
arcestōl *n m a* archiepiscopal see, or seat
ārīsan *s v1* to arise
ātēon *s v 2* to draw up, pull out, lead out, draw
atol *adj* terrible, ugle, deformed, repulsive, unchaste
Augustus *n* August

æ

æfter *num* second
æfter *prp* after, along
æȝlǣca *n m n* awsome opponent, ferocious fighter
ǣlc *pron* each
ǣniȝ, ǣneȝ *pron* any
ǣr *adv or conj* earlier, before that, sooner, formerly, previously, already; before
ærænde *n n ja* message
ǣrest *adv* first
ǣrðon *conj* before
ætforan *prep w dat* before, in front of
ætȝædere *adv* together
æȝhwǣr *conj, adv* everywhere, in every direction
æȝhwilc, ȝehwilc *pron* each, every, all
ǣfest *n m a* evening
æfter *prep, adv* after, afterwards
ælmesȝifu *n f o* alms, charity
ælmesriht *n n a* right of receiving alms
ænde, ende *n n ja* end, conclusion
ælmihtiȝ *adj* almighty
ǣniȝ *pron* any, any one
ǣr *adv* before, earlier
æt *prep* at, from

B

bād *see* **bīdan**
Bað *n m n* Bath
bæcbord *n n a* left side of a ship, larboard
bæd see **biddan**
bær *see* **beran**
be *prep* by, near
bēaȝ, bēah *see* **būgan**
bēaȝas *plur of* **bēah**
bēad see **bēodan**
beado, beadu *n f wo* war, battle, fighting
bēah *n m a* ring; thing of value
bealohydiȝ *adj* intent on harm, considering destruction, evil-minded
bearn *n m a* child; warrior, fighting man soldier
bebēodan *s v2* to enjoin, direct, order, drive
beboden *see* **bebēodan**
bedǣlan *w v 1* deprive, strip, release
behealdan *s v 7* to hold, possess; observe, look on
beheold *see* **behealdan**
belȝan *s v 3* to be angry, enraged
belimpan *s v 3* pertain, belong
belumpen *see* **belimpan**
bēon *v anom. (ēom, eart, is, sind, sy, wæs, wæron)* be
beorȝan *w v 3* to guard, to keep
bēot *n* boastful speech, promise, vow, command
beran *s v 4* to bear, to carry, to bring forth
berīepan, berȳpan *wv 1* strip, rob
berȳpte *see* **berī(e)pan**
bestrī (e)pan *w v 1* strip, plunder
bestrȳpte *see* **bestrī(e)pan**
beswican *s v 1* deceive, betray
besyrwan *w v 1* to ensnare, deprive, deceive
bet *adv* better
betǣhte *see* **betǣcan**
betǣcan *w v 1* to show; to commit, put in trust
betere *adj comp degree of* ȝōd better
bīdan *s v 1* stay, continue, live, remain, delay
biddan *s v 5* ask, bid , order, exhort
biscop *n m a* bishop
blisse, bliþe *adj* cheerful, friendly, agreeable, gentle
bōcere *n m ja a learned man*
bolȝenmōd *adj* having an angry mind
bord *n n a* shield
bōt *n f o* remedy, relief, atonement
brād *adj* broad; **brǽdre, brādre** *adj. comp.* broader; **brād dost** *adj superl.* broadest
breȝdan *s v 4* move quickly, pull, swing, throw, drag, draw
bricȝ, brycȝ *n f o* a bridge
brimlīðend *n m nd* seafarer, wiking
brinȝan (brōht, brōhte) *wv1* to bring
brōðor *n m r* brother
brōht *see* **brinȝan**
bryce *n m ja* advantage, profit ; breach, infringement, *adj* fragile
bryne *n m i* burning, fire, burn
būȝan *s v 2* bow down, turn, bend, stoop
būan *w v anom* stay, dwell, live
būde *see* **būan**
burh, burȝ *n f root dat* **byriȝ** a fortress, castle, town
buruhwaru *n f o* citizens of a town, a country
būtan , būton *prep, conj, adv* outside of, except; but; without , only
byne *pp. from* **būan** *as adj* inhabited
Byrhtnoð Byrhtnoth — earl or ealdorman of Essex 956-91
byre *n* news
byriȝ *see* **burh**
byrst *n m i* loss, calamity, injury

bysmor (bismer, bismor) *n f n* insult, offence, outrage

C

Cantwarabyriȝ Canterbury
ceorl *n m a* a peasant, churl, layman, man
cēpan *w v 1* to keep, guard, observe, hold
cirdon *see* **cirran**
cirran *w v 1* turn, cause to move
cirre *n m i* turn, change, time, occasion
clǣne *adj* clean, pure *adv* purely, entirely
clypian *w v 2* to speak, cry out, call
cnâwan *s v 7* to know
cniht *n m a* youth
Cnut Canute (died 1035), Danish king of England (1016-35)
com *see* **cuman**
con, can *see* **cunnan**
cradolcild *n n s* child in the cradle, infant
Crīsten *n, adj* Christian
cuman *s v 4* approach, get to, attain
cunnan *v prt prs* **(can, cūðe, cunnen)** to be able, to know
cweðan *sv 5 (dat case of the infinitive to* **cweðenne)** to say, to speak
cwome *see* **cuman**
cyniȝ *n m a* = **cyninȝ, cyninȝc**
cyninȝ, cyninȝc *n m a* king
cynn *n n ja* kind, sort, race, people, family, gender

D

daȝas see **dæȝ**
dæȝ *n m a* day
dæȝhwāmlīc *adj* daily ; **dæȝhwāmlīce** *adv* daily, by day
dǣlan *w v 1* share **hilde dǣlon** should join battle
dēad *adj* dead
dēar(r) *see* **durran**
dēman *w v 1* judge, deem , give opinion
dēofol *n m a* devil
dōm *n m a* judgement, stipulation, choice; fate
dōn *irr verb* **(dyde, ȝedōn)** to do, perform, make, cause
dorston *see* **durran**
drēam *n m a* joy, gladness, delight, mirth, rejoicing; melody, music, song
durran *v pret- pres* dare
duru *n f u* door
drihten *n m a* lord, creator, judge
dwelian *w v 2* to go astray, lead astray, mislead, deceive
dyde see **dōn**
dydon see **dōn**

E

ēa *n f o* water, stream, river
ēac *adv* also, moreover, and, likewise
ēaȝe *n n n* eye
ealdor *n m a* chief, lord
ealdorman *n m root* chief, nobleman, leader
eall *adj* all
eard *n m a* native place, land, country, earth
earfeðe, earfoðe *n n ja* hardship, torment; *adj* troublesome, hard, difficult
earm *adj* poor, wretched
earnian *w v 2* to earn
earnunȝ *n f o* merit, reward, consideration, pay, labor
eart see **bēon**
ēast *adv* eastwards, from/in the east
Ēastenȝle *n m i* East Angles; East Anglia
ēastryhte *adv* due east
ēastwerd, ēastweard *adv* to the East; eastern

ēce *adj* eternal, everlasting
efne *adv* even, only
eȝesliċ *adj* terrible
ende *n m ja* end
endebyrdnes *n f jo* order, succession, sequence; þurh endebyrdnesse **endebyrdnesse** in order; one after another
endian *w v 2* to end
Enȝliscȝereorde *n n a* the English language
ēode *see* **ȝān, ȝanȝan**
eorðe *n f o* earth
eorl *n m a* man, noble, warrior, hero
e(o)rmð(u), iermð(o), yrmðu *n fjo* misery, distress, wretchedness
ēow *2nd pers. pro, dat, pl* you
ēst *n f i* favor, grace, harmony

F

fah, faȝ *adj* stained, spotted; decorated; shining, gleaming
fand *see* **findan**
fandian *w v 2* try, examine, explore, experience, visit
faran *s v 6* to set forth, go, travel, wander, proceed
fæc *nna.* time, period of time
fæȝe *adj* doomed, fated, dying, dead
fæȝere *adv* suitably, well
færȝrīpe *n m* sudden grasping, terrible grappling attack
fæst *adj* fast, fixed, secure, firm, strong
fæste *adv* firmly, steadily
fæstnian *w v 2* confirm
fætt *n m a* gold-plate, metal plates
fēa *adj* few
fēawum *see* **fēa**
fela *adj* many, much, very much
feoh *n n a* property, money; cattle
feohtan *s v 3* to fight
fēond *n m nd* enemy, fiend, devil
fēor *adj* far
fēran *w v 1* go, move, depart, travel
fers *n n* turn, verse
fīf *num* 5 five
Fīfburhinȝas – the five shires of Danelaw, the north-eastern part of the country granted to the Danes by the Conditions of Wedmore Treaty 879
findan *s v 3* to find, get, meet with, discover
Finn *n m a* Finn
fīras *n m ja pl* men, mankind
firrest *superlative degree from* **fēor**
fiscað *n m a* fishing
fiscere *n m ja* fisherman
flēoȝan *s v 2* to fly
flōr *n m a* floor, pavement
flot *n n a* deep water, sea
flota *n m n* ship, fleet
folc *n n a* people; army; host
folcla̧u *n f o* law of the people, public law
folde *n f n* ground, land, earth
folm(an) *n f o* hand
fōr *see* **faran**
forȝyldan *s v 3* buy off
fordōn *v irreg* fordo, destroy, annihilate,
forhealdan *s v 7* forsake, misuse, refuse
forhoȝdniss *n f o* contempt
forhtedon see **forhtian**
forhtian *w v 2* fear, be afraid of
forlǣtan *s v 7* leave, abandon
forlēt *see* **forlætan**
forma *adj* first, earliest
forniman *s v 4* to take away, plunder, deprive of
fornumen *part II of* **forniman**
fornȳdan *w v 1* to coerce, compel
forsāwen(ne) *see* **forsēon**
forsēon *s v 6* overlook, neglect, renounce
forð *adv* forth, onward

forðam, forðan *conj* for that, for that reason, because
forðbrinȝan *w v 1* bring forth, produce
forðbrōhte *see* **forðbrinȝan**
forðon (ðe) *prep* therefore, because, and so, wherefore

foryrman, forierman *w v 1* v to reduce to poverty, bring low
fram *prep* from, away
frēa *n m n* lord, ruler, master
fremde *adj* foreign, strange
frēoriht *n n a* rights of freemen
frēo, frīȝe *adj* free
frīȝe, frēo *adj* free
frið *n n a* peace, peace treaty
from *adv* away
frumsceaft *n f i* first creation, genesis
fuȝelere *n m a* fowler, bird-catcher
ful *adj* full
fultuman *w v1* help, support
fȳr *n n a* fire
fȳrbend *n m* fire (forged) bond; metal reinforcement for door
fyrd, fierd *n f i* an army, a military expedition

ȝ (G)

ȝafol *n n a* tribute
ȝān, ȝanȝan (ēode, ȝeȝān) *suppl v 7* go, move together, advance
ȝār *n m a* spear
ȝārræs *n m a* conflict of spears, battle
ȝē *2 pers pron pl* you
ȝēar *n n a* year
ȝearwe *adv* well, thoroughly, effectually, entirely
ȝebeorȝ *n m a* defence
ȝebēorscipe *n m i* festivity, feast, convivality

ȝebīdan *s v 1* expect; remain, experience, endure
ȝeboȝen *PII* see **būȝan**
ȝebolȝen *see* **belȝan**
ȝebūn *PII* from **būan**
ȝecnāwan *s v 7* to know
ȝedafenian *wv 2* to be becoming, to fit
ȝedælan *w v 1* to divide, separate
ȝedēmed *see* **dēman**
ȝedwolȝod *n m a* false god, idol, image ; heresy
ȝeearnian *w v 2* to earn
ȝeendian *w v 2* to end
ȝefaren *PII see* **faran**
ȝefeohtan *s v 3* fight
ȝehwā *pron* each, every
ȝehwæs see **ȝehwā**
ȝehwilc, æȝhwilc *pron* each, every
ȝehȳnan *w v 1* to humiliate
ȝehȳran, hȳran *wv1 to hear*
ȝehyrde see **ȝehyran, hyran**
ȝelaȝian *w v 2* to appoint, ordain
ȝelaȝod *see* **ȝelaȝian**
ȝelæred *n/adj* learned, religious *(man)*
ȝelæstan *w v 1* to follow, attend; to carry out, furnish, pay, grant, perform ; serve, help
ȝelīc *adj, adv alike*
ȝelīcost *superl adj* from **ȝelīc:** most like, most resembling
ȝelimplīc *adj* proper, appropriate, good
ȝelīttlian *w v 2* to lessen, diminish, decrease
ȝelome *adj, adv* frequent; frequently
ȝelyfd, ȝelēfed *adj* weak, elderly, sickly
ȝemæne *adj* common, public
ȝemæran *wv 1* make famous
ȝemæred *see* **ȝemæran**
ȝemartyrian *wv 2* to martyr; to torment or torture to death
ȝemet *n n a* manner, way

ȝemynd, mynd *n n/f i* mind, memory, remembrance
ȝēn *adv* yet, now, still, again; further, besides, moreover
ȝenesburuh *n* Gainsborough
ȝenyrwan *w v 1* to restrict
ȝēond, ȝynd *prep* throughout, through, beyond, across
ȝeorn *adj,* **ȝeorne** *adv* eager(ly), diligent(ly),
ȝerædan *w v 1* to reach, attain
ȝerædan *w v1* decide, determine
ȝeriht *n n a* right, due
ȝerisenlīce *adv* cheerfully
ȝerisenu *n n a* what is fitting, dignity, honor
ȝesēah *see* **sēon**
ȝesealde *see* **ȝesellan**
ȝesellan *w v 1* to give, to pay tribute to; to present; to exchange
ȝesettan *w v1* to be placed, to occupy
ȝesiȝlan, ȝeseȝlian *w v 1* sail
ȝesōhte see **sēcan**
ȝetrēowð, ȝetrȳwð *n f o/i* loyalty, good faith, honour
ȝetrymed see **trymian**
ȝetrȳwð *n f o/i* loyalty, good faith, honour
ȝeðanc *n m a* thought; **god ȝeðanc** dauntless mind
ȝeðēodnis *n f o* joining juncture, conjunction, conjugation, translation
ȝeðēowian *w v 2* to enslave
ȝeðinȝe *n n a* meeting, council; arrangement, agreement; fate, result
ȝeðolian *w v 2* to endure, hold on
ȝeūðon *see* **unnan**
ȝewanian *w v 1* to wane, diminish, decrease
ȝewāt *see* **ȝewītan**
ȝewelhwær *adv* almost everywhere
ȝewendan, wendan *wv 1* to turn, move, go, change
ȝeweorðad *see* **weorðian**
ȝewīcodon *see* **wīcian**
ȝewinnan *s v 3* to conquer, win, gain; to toil hard, to labour
ȝewītan *sv 1* go, depart, leave
ȝeworht *see* **wyrcan**
ȝewunnen *see* **ȝewinnan**
ȝīet *adv* yet, still
ȝif, ȝyf *conj if*
ȝifu *n f o* gift
ȝim, ȝym *n m a* a gem; treasure
ȝīsel, ȝīsl, ȝysel *n m a* a hostage
ȝīslian, past **ȝīslude** *wv 2* to give hostages
ȝlenȝan *wv1* adorn
ȝod *n m a* god
ȝodcund *adj* religious, divine
ȝodcundlīce *adv* divinely
ȝōdian *w v 2* to improve, get better
ȝold *n n a* gold
ȝoldsele *n m i* gold-hall
ȝrētan *wv1* greet, touch, approach
ȝrið *n n a* truce, peace
ȝriðian *w v 2* to make truce or peace; to defend; to give asylum
ȝriðlēas *adj* defenceless, unprotected
ȝrimlīc *adj* fierce, grim
ȝuma *n m n* man, warrior
ȝūð *n f o* battle
ȝyf see **ȝif**
ȝym, ȝim *n m a* a gem; treasure
ȝynd, ȝeond *prep* throughout, through, beyond, across

H

habban *w v 3* have, hold
hafoc *n m* hawk, falcon

hālettan *w v1* to hail, to greet
hāliȝ *adj holy*
hāliȝnes *n f jo* holiness, sanctuary
hām *n m a* home
hand/hond *n f n* hand
hatan *s v 6* command order
hæfde *see* **habban**
hæle(ð) *n m* man, warrior, hero
hǣðen *n m n* heathen, pagan
hē *3rd pers pron, masc, nom, sg* he
healdan *s v 7* hold, hold fast, grasp, retain, keep, guard, defend, lock up
healfe *n f o* half
healðeȝn *n m a* hall-thegn, warrior inhabiting a hall as a retainer
hēap *n m a* host, troop, crowd, assembly, company, band
heard *adj* hard, bitter, dire
hearpe *n f n* harp
heofon *n m a* heaven
heofonlīc *adj* heavenly
heofonrīce *n n a* kingdom of heaven
hēom see **hīe**
heonanforð *adv* henceforth
heorðwerod *n n a* the body of household retainers
heord *n f o* herd
hēr *adv* here
here *n m ja* army (usually enemy's; here Danish)
herenes *n f jo* praise
heriȝean *wv 1* to praise
hiȝe *n m i* thought, courage, temper
hi, hīe, hy *3rd pers. pron, masc, nom, pl* they
hiċȝan *w v 3* give thought to, be intent on
hider *adv* hither, here
hild *n f jo* battle
him *pron; see* **sē, ðæt**
hine *pron acc sg* see **hē**
hira, hiera, hiora, heora, hyra *genitive plural of hē*
his *pron masc and neut gen sg* see **hē, ðæt**
hlāford *n m a* lord, master
hlæfdiȝe *n f* lady, mistress
hold *adj* devoted, attached
holt *n m a* wood copse
hornreced *n m/n a* gabled building
hors *n n a* horse
horsian *w v 2* to provide, supply with horses
hraðe, hræðe *adv* quickly, fast
hrædest *adv superl from* **hraðe, hræðe; hrædest is tō cwīðenne** to say it short
hrēowlīce *adv* grievously, wretchedly
hrōf *n m a* roof, upper cover
hū *adv* how
Humbra *n* Humber, an estuary of the Ouse and Trent rivers in E England. 37 mi. (60 km) long.
hunta *n m a* hunter
huntoð *n m a* hunting
hūra, hūru *adv* at least, indeed
hūs *n n a* house
hwæne *conj* until the time, when
hwæðer *conj* whether
hwæðre *adv* though, however
hwælhunta *n m.n* whalehunter
hwæt *pron* what
hwæthwugu *pron* and *adv* something, a little
hwīl *n f i* time, while (**hwīle** *dat sg*; ðā **hwīle ðe** as long as)
hwōn *adj* little, few
hȳ see **hī**
hȳnan *w v 1* to humiliate
hyra *3rd pers. pron, all genders, gen, pl* their
hȳran *wv1 to hear*
hyse *n m ja* young man, young warrior

I

ic *1st pers pron* I
īdel *adj* idle, worthless, vain
īecan, ȳcan *w v 1* to increase; add; grow
iermð(o), yrmðu, e(o)rmð(u) *n f jo* misery, distress, wretchedness
īhte *past tense of* **īecan, ȳcan**
īlca, ylca *pron the same*
in *prep* in, into
inbryrdnis *n f o* inspiration
innan *adv* inside
inne *adv* inside
intinȝa *n m n* a cause, case, occasion, matter
into *prep* into
is *v irreg pres.tense 3 pers from* **bēon**

L

lā *interjection* lo! behold! ah! (**hwȳt lā**: what!)
lāc *n n a* offering, sacrifice, gift
laȝian *w v 2* to appoint, ordain
laȝu *n f o* law
land *n n a* land, country
lanȝ , lonȝ *adj* long
lār *n f o* learning; preaching
lāð *n n a* injury, misfortune
læȝ, læȝe *see* **liċȝan**
lǣstan *w v 1* to follow, attend; to carry out, furnish, pay, grant, perform
lǣtan *s v 7* let, allow
leasunȝ *n f o* false witness, deceit, hypocrisy
lenȝ, lenȝra *adj, adv comp degree* of **lonȝ**
lēod *n m i* man, chief
lēoda *f pl* people
lēof *adj* dear, favourite
lēofost *see* **lēof**
lēoht *n n a* light
leomu *see* **lim**
leornian *w v 1* to learn, study, read
lēoð *n n a* a song
lēoðcræft *n m a* poetic art
lēoðsonȝ *n a n* song, poem, poetry, poetic art
lēt *see* **lǣtan**
līċ *n n a* body, corpse
liċȝan *s v 5* lie, lie dead
līf *n n a* life
līȝ, līeȝ *n m i* fire, flame
lihtan *w v 1* alight, dismount
lim (*plur* **leomu**) *n n a* limb
Lindesiȝe - Lindsay
lufu *n f u/n* love
Lunden - London
lysan *w v 1* redeem, ransom
lȳtel *adj* little

M

mā *adv* more, longer, hereafter, further
maȝan (mæȝ, maȝon, mihte, meahte) *vb prt. pr.* **may, can, is (am) able to, has (have) power; to** be able, be competent
maȝan *v prt-pres* be able, can, be competent
maȝorinc *n m a* young warrior, young male relative
maniȝ, mænegȝ, monigȝ *adj* many
man *pron* one
man, mon, *n m root* man
manscaða *n m n* criminal enemy, sinful and harmful being
mæȝ *see* **maȝan**
mǣlan *w v 1* speak
mǣlde *see* **mælan**
mǣran, ȝemǣran *wv 1* make famous

mæneȝ, maniȝ, moniȝ *adj* many
mǣst *adj superl degree* see **mycel** most, mostly, most
mǣð, með *n f o* measure; ability; equity
mē *1st pers. pron, dat, sg* to me
meaht, miht *n f i* might, power, strength
metan *w v 1* meet, encounter
metod, meotod *n f o* fate, Creator, God
mette *see* **metan**
mettian *w v 2* to supply with food
micel, mychel *adj* great, large, much
micle *adv* much
mid *prep* with
middanȝeard *n m a* the earth, the middle world – dwelling of men
middanwintra *adv from n dat* (midd + winter) in the middle of winter
mihte *see* **maȝan**
misbēodan *s v 2* to ill-use, injure, do wrong to
misthlið *n n a* misty slope, foggy cliff
mōd *n n a* the inner spiritual part of man spirit, mind, disposition
mōdȝeðanc *n m a* thought of the mind, intention, purpose
mōnað, monð *n m cons* month
moniȝ, maniȝ, mæneȝ *adj* many
monncynn *n n ja* mankind
mōr *n m a* moor, swamp, hill, high waste ground
mōst *v pret-pres* must
mōtan *v pret-pres* to be allowed to, **mǣt**: may, must
mund *n f o* security, protection
mūð *n m a* a mouth (part of the face); mouth of the river
mycel, micel *adj* great, large, much
mynster *n n i* church, monastery
myntan *w v 1* to mean, intend, resolve
mynte *see* **myntan**

N

nā *neg adv intensifying* ne, not
nales, nalæs *adv* **not at all**
nān = ne ān not one, nobody, none
næfre *adv* **never**
nǣniȝ *pron.* none, no one
næs = ne wæs
nē *adv* not
nē *conj* nor
neaht, niht *n f cons* night; **neahte** at night
nēalēcan, nēalǣcan *w v 1* approach, draw near
nēat *n n a* ox, cow pl cattle
nemnan *w v 1* call, name
niman *s v 4* take, carry off, despatch; receive
nōht *pron. adv* nothing
nolde *v irreg* did not wish, would not (willan + ne)
noma, nama *n m n* name
norð *n, adv* north
Norðhymbre *n m i* Northumbria; Northumbrians
norðweard *adv* northward, to the north
Norðmen *n pl* from **Norðman** Norwegians
norðmest *adv superl* northmost
norðryhte *conj* northwards
nū *adv* now
nȳde *adv* necessarily
nȳdðearf *n f o* necessity
nysse, nyste = **ne wisse**, did not know

O

of *prep* from, out of, away from
ōfer *n m a* bank, shore
ofer *prp* over
Offan – Offa, one of Byrhtnoð's chief officers, probably leader of the English after Byrhtnoð's death

ōfre see **ōfer**
ofst, ofost *n f o* haste, impetuosity
oft *adv* often
on *adv, prep* in, on; in; in, against
onarn *see* **oniernan**
onbærnan *w v 1* to kindle, inspire
onbrǣd *see* **onbreȝdan**
onbreȝdan *s v 5* bring open, swing open
oncnāwan *s v 7* to understand, perceive
ondrǣdan *s v 7* to fear, to dread
ondredon *see* **ondrǣdan**
ondswarian, andswarian *w v 2* to answer
onfenȝ *see* **onfōn**
onfindan *s v 3* to discover, realize
onfōn (onfenȝ) *s v 7* to take, to accept, to receive a person, to undertake a duty
onȝean *prp, adv* again, against, opposite
Onȝelðēod *n f o* the English people, England
onȝinnan *v 3* to begin, to attempt
onȝunnon *see* **onȝinnan**
oniernan *s v 3* to open, give way
onslǣpan *w v 1* fall asleep
onslēpte *see* **onslǣpan**
onstellan *w v 1* institute, establish, initiate
ōr *n n a* beginning, onset, start
oð *prep* up to, as far as, until
ōðer *adj* other, one of two, the second
oððe *conj* or
Oxenford *n* Oxford

R

rād *see* **rīdan**
rand *n m a* metal centre of shield by which it is held; shield
raðe, hraðe, hrade *adv* quickly, immediately, soon
rǣcan *w v 1* to reach, attain
rǣdan *s v 7; also w v 1* instruct
rǣdde *see* **rædan**
rǣran *w v 1* to rear, raise, set up, establish
reced *n m/n a* building, hall, house
rest *n f jo* rest
Ricard Richard, Duke of Normandy
rīce *adj* rich; noble high
rīcost *adj superl see* **rīce**
rīcsian *w v 2* to bear rule, to govern, to tyrranize
rīdan *s v 1* to ride
rihte *adv* rightly, correctly
rinc *n m a* man, warrior
ryhtnorðanwind *n m a* good winds from the north

S

samod *adv* together
Sandwīc Sandwich, a town in E Kent, in SE England: one of the Cinque Ports.
sār *n n a* bodily pain, wound; *adj* sore, grievous, painful
sāre *adv* biterly, sorely, grievously
sǣ *n m/f i* sea
sǣman *n m root* sea-farer, wiking
sǣmen *see* **sǣman**
sæt *see* **sitan**
sceadu *n f o* shadow, darkness
sceaduȝenȝa *n m a* walker in shadows, shadow-goer
sceal *see* sculan
sceatt *n m* coin tax; *plur* tribute money
sceolde *v pret-pres* had to, was obliged to, should have had to, might have been obliged to (*see* sculan)
sceop *see* scyppan, scieppan
scēotend *n m nd* spearman, warrior
scip, scyp *n n a* ship, vessel

scipen, scypen *n f o* cattle-shed
scīr *n f o* district, province
scoldon *see* **sculan**
scomu, scamu *n f o* shame
scopȝereord *n n a* poetic language
scrīðan *s v 1* **go, move, glide**
sculan *v pret- pres* must, ought to, have to
scynscaþa *n m n* evil, magical, or ghostly harmful being (manuscript reads **syn scaþa,** either **great** or **sinful** harmful being – which doesn't alliterate)
scyp, scip *n n a* ship, vessel
scyppan, scieppan *s v 6* to form, create, shape
scyppend n m nd creator **Scyppend** God, the Creator
sē *dem pron masc* the, that
sealde *see* **sellan**
sēcan, sēcean *w v 1* seek, seek out, visit, go to, attack
secȝan *wv 3* say, tell
seȝlian *w v 1* sail
self, seolf, sylf *pron, adj* **self**
sellan, syllan *wv 1* to give, to pay tribute, to exchange, to present
sendan *w v 1* send, send forth, dispatch, impel, drive
sēo *dem pron nom sg fem* that
sēon (sēah, sāwon, ȝesewen) *sv 5* to see, to consider
sibbeȝedriht *n f* peaceful troop of retainers?; band of relatives? (**sibb** is relationship, peace, love, friendship; **ȝedriht is** an army, throng, troop of retainers
sīe *v, pres, subj, 3, sg* is; may be - from **bēon**
siȝlde *see* **seȝlian**
sinȝan *s v 3* to sing
sittan *s v 5* to sit
sīð *n m a* going, motion, journey; expedition, adventure; time, occasion; road, way
siððan, syððan, *adv, conj* afterwards, since, after, when
slǣp *n m a* sleep
slǣpan *sv 7* and *wv 1* to sleep
slæpende *pres participle of* **slæpan**
smēaȝan *w v 1* to think, ponder
smēade *see* **smēāȝan**
snel *adj* keen bold
sonȝcræft *n m a* poetic art
sōna *adv* soon
sōð *n n a,* also *adj* sooth, truth; true
spēdan *w v 1* be prosperous, be wealthy
spillan *w v 1* destroy
sprecan *s v 5* to speak
stafum *see* **stæf**
standan *s v 6* stand
stæf *n m a* staff, stick, written character
stæð *n n a* bank, shore
stede *n m i* place, position
stēorbord *n n a* starboard, right hand side of a ship
steppan *s v 6* stop, go forth
stīð *adj* hard, stubborn, severe
stīðlīce *adv* stoutly, sternly
stōd *see* **standan**
stōw *n f o* place
stræt *n f o* road, street
styccemælum *adv* in pieces, bit by bit, piecemeal, here and there
sum *adj* some, a certain
sumor *n m a* summer
sunu *n m u* son
sūðweard *adv* to the south, southward
sūðryhte *adv* due south
swā *adv, conj, or pron*: so, as, so as, just as, in such a way, thus; **swā swā** so as
swefan *v s 5* sleep, slumber
swefn *n f o* dream

Sweȝen Sweyn, the king of Denmark (d. in1014) who invaded England and established Danish rule over the whole of England
swelc, swilc *pron* such, such a one, which
sweord, swurd *n n a* sword
swētniss *n f o* sweetness
swīðe, swyðe *adv* very
sylf *see* **self**
syllan, sellan *w v 1* to hand over, give, pay, present , pay tribute
symbel *n n o feast*
syndriȝlīce *adv* individually, separately, especially
synn *n f jo* sin
syððan, siððan *adv, conj* afterwards, since, after, when

T

tǣcan *w v 1* show direct
tǣhte *see* **tæcan**
Temese – the Thames
tēode *see* **tēon**
tēon *w w1 to create*
Terfinna *gen pl* Finns
tīd, tīde *n f o time, period*
tō *prep* to, towards; until
tōcuman *sv 4* to come , to arrive
tōcyme *n m i* coming, advent, arrival
tōforan *prep* before
tōȝeðēodan *wv 1 to join, to connect, to bind together*
treddian *w v 2* to step, trod, walk
Trent *n* Trent, a river in central England, flowing NE from Staffordshire to the Humber. 170 mi. (275 km) long.
trēowð, trȳwð *n f o/i* loyalty, good faith, honour
trymian *wv 1 a* array in definite order
tunȝe *n f n* tongue

ð

ðā *dem pron pl* those
ðā *adv* then, theupon
ðām see *sē*
ðanon *adv* from there
ðara *dem pron gen plur that*
ðǣm *dem pron dat masc and net sg & plur* that
ðǣre *dem pron gen dat and gen sg neut that*
ðǣron *adv* therein
ðæs *dem pron gen masc and gen neut sg* that
ðæt *dem pron neut sg* that; *conj* that
ðe *relative particle* that, who, which
ðēah, ðeh *conj* though, although
ðearf *see* **ðurfan**
ðeȝn (*pl* **ðeȝenas), ðenan** *n m a* thane, folllower, servant, man warrior
ðenan, ðeȝn (*pl* **ðeȝenas)** *n m a* thane, folllower, servant, man warrior
ðēo(w) *n m wa* a servant, slave; **Godes ðēo(w)** a priest
ðēod *n f o* people, nation
ðēodscype *n m i* people, population, nation
ðēos *dem pron fem* **(ðes)** this
ðēowian *w v 2* to enslave
ðēs, ðēos, ðis *dem pron* this
ðicȝean *w v 1* take, receive, accept, partake of, consume, taste, eat
ðīefð, ðȳfð *n f i* theft, thievery; loot
ðīn *gen. sg; see* **ðū**
ðinȝ *n n a* thing object, conduct, meeting, court
ðisne *dem pron acc sg* this
ðissum *dem pron dat* this
ðonan, ðanon *adv* from that time or place, away
ðone *dem pron masc accus sg that; see* **sē, ðæt**

ðonne *conj* then, when
ðrǣl *n m a* a servant, a serf, thrall
ðrǣlriht *n n a* the rights of a serf or a servant
ðrie, ðry *num* three
ðrȳðswȳð *adj* very mighty, powerful
ðū *2nd pers. pron, nom, sg* thou; you
ðurfan *v pret-pres* need
ðurh *prep, adv* through, by means of
ðurkyl – Thurkyll, a Danish freebooter, allied with Sweyn and afterwards with Aethelred
ðus *adv* thus
ðyder, ðider *adv* to that place
ðyfð, ðiefð *n f i* theft, thievery; loot

U

underȝēat *see* **underȝietan**
underȝīetan *s v 5* to understand, perceive
understandan *s v 6* to understand
unforworht *adj* innocent
unfæȝer *adj* unbeautiful, ugly
unfrið, unfriðu *n m/f, a/u* breach of peace, enmity, war
unlaȝu *n f o* violations of law; strict and unfair law
unlȳtel *adj* much, not little
unnan *v pret-pres* to grant, to do a favour
unriht *n n a* injustice
ūp *adv* up
ūpweard *adv* upwards
ūs *pron (1st pers dat, acc pl) see* **wē**
ūt, ūte *adv* out

W

wācian *wv 2* to prove soft, to yield
wadan *s v 6* to stride, step, advance
wanedan see **wanian**
wan *adj* dark, dusky
wanian *w v 1* to wane, diminish, decrease
wæccan *w v 1* to watch, to be wakeful
wælhrēow *adj* cruel, fierce, bloodthirsty
wæs see **bēon**
wæter *n n a* water
Wætlinȝa strǣt – Watling street, the road built by the Romans, crossing England diagonally
wē *pron* we (*1st pers nom pl*)
wealdan *s v 7* to rule, to cause; to bring about Wealinȝforda
weard *n m a* guard, warder, watchman
wearð *see* **weorðan**
weȝ *n m a* way, direction; **on weȝ** away
wel *adj* well
welhwǣr *adv* almost everywhere
wēn *n f i* expectation, hope, probability
wendan *w v 1* to turn, move, go, change
weorc *n n a* work, task, deed
weorcan,wircan, wyrcan *wv1* (*past tense* **worhte, worhton**) to work, labour, to do, to perform
weorð *adj* worthy, dear, valuable *n* price
weorðan *s v 3* to become, to come to be, to arise, to happen
weorðian *w v 2* set a value upon, to value, to priase, to make honourable
weorðunȝ *n f o* honouring, praise
weoruldhād, woruldhād *n m n* secular life
westan *adv* from the west
wēste *adj* waste, barren, desolate, uninhabited, empty
wēsten *f/m n* desert, wilderness
western *adj* from the west, western
Westsǣ *n m/f i* Western Sea
westweard *adv* westwards, to the west
wīcian *s v 2* dwell, lodge, camp
wīcinȝ *n m a* pirate, wiking
wīd *adj* wide

wīde *adv* widely
wiȝ *n m a* battle, fight, war
Wihtlande *n* Isle of Wight, an island off the S coast of England, forming an administrative division of Hampshire. 147 sq. mi. (381 sq. km).
willan *v anom.* wish, desire, will
Winceaster Winchester, a city in Hampshire, in S England: cathedral; capital of the early Wessex kingdom and of medieval England.
wind *n m a* wind
winnan *s v 3* to conquer, win, gain; to toil hard, to labour
winreced *n m/n a* wine-hall
winter *n m u* winter, year
wīse *n f n* way, manner,mode
wisse *past from* **witan**
wistfyllu *n f* plentious feasting
witan *v pret- pres* to know, to understand, to be aware of , know (**wiste** *3rd pers sg pret indic*)
wið *prep* against, in return for, from, with
wōd *see* **wadan**
wolcen *n n a* cloud; (in *pl.*) sky, heavens
wolde *see* **willan**
word *n n a* word
worhton *see* **weorcan,wircan, wyrcan**
woruld, worold *n f i* world, age, epoch, life
wrāð *adj* angry, hostile, terrible, grievous, bitter
wuldorfæder *n m r* father of glory, glorious father
wundor *n m a* wonder, astonishing thing, miracle, marvel, portent, horror
wydewe, widewe *n f n* widow
wyrcan, weorcan *w v 1* work, make, do
wyrd *n f i* fate, chance, fortune, destiny, event, fact, deed
wyrse *adj* and *adv comp degree of* **yfel** worse
wyrsian *w v 2* to get worse, deteriorate, decline, degrade
wyrðe *see* **weorð**

Y

yfel *n n i* evil
yfelian *w v 2* to grow evil, to worsen
ylca, ilca *pron* the same
ylde *m pl* men, people
ymb, ymbe *adv* about, around
yrhðo *n f* slackness
yrmðu, iermð(o), e(o)rmð(u) *n f jo* misery, distress, wretchedness
yrre *n h ja* ire, anger, wrath
yrremōd *adj* angry, having an enraged mind

A

accord *n* (OF *accord*) consent, accord, agreement
accorden, accorden *v* (OF *accorder*) agree, reconcile
acordaunt *adj* (OF *accordant*) accordant
agayn *adv* (OE *onʒēan*) again
al *adj* (OE *eall*) all
ale *n* (OE (*e*)*alu*) ale, a malt beverage, darker, heavier, and more bitter than beer, containing about 6 percent alcohol by volume
also *conj, adv* (OE *al* + *swā*) also
alway, alwey, always, alweys *adv* (OE *ealne* + *weʒ*) always
amorwe *adv* (*a* + OE *morʒen*) in the morning
anon *adv* (OE *on ān*) at once
any *pron* (OE *ǣniʒ*) any
apothecarie *n* (OF *apotecaire*) apothecary, chemist
Aprille *n* (L *Aprelis*) April
aresten *v* (OF *arester*) to check the course of; stop; slow down
Aristotle *n* Aristotle 384–322 B.C., Greek philosopher: pupil of Plato; tutor of Alexander Great
array (OF *are(y)er* to prepare) attire; dress
Artoys *n.* Artois, a former province in Northern France
as *conj* (OE *eal-swā*) as
ascendent *n* (OF *ascendant*) ascendant; influence; the point of the ecliptic or the sign and degree of the zodiac rising above the eastern horizon at the time of a birth or event
assent *n* (OF *assent*) assent, agreement, acquiescence; compliance
astronomye *n* (OF *astronomie*) astronomy; astrology (which was part of ancient medicine)
atte at the
aventure *n* (OF *aventure* what must happen) a chance, occurrence, a risk, chance of danger
Averrois Averrois, 1126?–98, Arab philosopher in Spain who asserted the unity of an active intellect common to all human beings while denying personal immortality
Avycen Avicenna A.D. 980–1037, Islamic physician and philosopher, born in Persia.

B

bacheler *n* (OF *bacheler* farm hand) bachelor, and unmarried man
bargayn *n* (OF *bargai(g)ne*) bargain, transaction
bathen *v* (OE *baðian*) to bathe
be *prp* (OE *be, bi*) by, near, to, for
bedde *n* (OE *bed, bedde*) bed
been *v* (OE *bēon*) to be
benefice *n* (OF *benefice*) benefice, a position or post granted to an ecclesiastic that guarantees a fixed amount of property or income
berd *n* (OE *beard*) beard
beren *v* (OE *beran*) to bear
Bernard Bernard, contemporary of Chaucer, Professor of Medicine a Montpellier
best *adj* (OE *best, betst*) best
bevere *n* (OE *beofor, befor*) beaver (бобр)

Bible *n* (OF *bible* < ML *biblia*) the Bible
bifil (past tense of *bifallen*, OE *befeallan*) to happen, to chance
biforn, biforen *adv* (OE *beforan*) before
bigan past tense from **bigynnen**
bigynnen *v* (OE *beginnan*) to begin
biseten *v* (OE *be-settan*) beset, surround; **his wit bisette** = used his head
bisily *adv* (OE *bysiʒ* + *ly*) busily, industriously
bismoteren wv (OE *be-smita, besmittan*) to cover with dirt, smudges
bitwixe *prep* (OE *be-twēox, betwix*) between
blak *adj* (OE *blæc*) black
blisful *adj* (OE *blið* + *ful*) blissful
blithe *adj* (OE *blīðe*) blithe, joyous, merry, or gay in disposition
book *n* (OE *bōc*) book
boote 1 *n* (OE *bot*) relief; cure, remedy
boote 2 *n* (OF *botte*; of uncert. orig) boot
born *p II from* **beren** born
breeth *n* (OE *brǣð*)
but *conj* (OE *butan, be* + *utan)* but

C

caas, cas *n* (OF *cas*) event, chance, state, condition
callen *v* (O Scand *kalla*) to call
carf past tense of **kerven**
Caunterburyward *adv* in the direction of Canterbury
cause *n* (OF *cause* < L *causa*) cause, reason
certeyn *adj* (OF *certein*) certain, confident, sure; definite or particular, but not named or specified
chambre *n* (OF *chambre vaulted room*) room, chamber
chevyssaunce *n* (OF *chevissance*) achievement, profit; *here* money-lending
chivalrie *n* (OF *chevalerie*, from *chevalier* a horseman, esp. a mounted soldier; knight) chivalry
chyvachie *n* (OF *chevauchie*) riding, raid, expedition of cavalry
clad *adj* (OE *cloðod*) clothed, covered (for protection)
clapsen, claspen *v* (OE *clyppan* to embrace) clasp, fasten
clerk *n* (OF *clerc*, Lat *clericus*) clerk, clergy man, scholar (here: a student at Oxford and thus preparing for the priesthood)
cofre *n* (OF *cofre*) coffer, chest, esp. for storing valuables
cok *n* (OE *coc* < L *cocus, coquus*) cook
comen *v* (OE *cuman*) come, arrive
compaignye *n* (OF *compaignie* companionship) company, group
composicioun *n* (OF *composicioun*) composition, structure, essay
condicioun *n* (OF *condicioun* – agreement) mode of being, social position
Constantyn Constatinus Afer, a renowned physician born at Carthage in the 12th century
coold *adj* (OE *ceald*) cold
corage *n* (OF *corage*) spirit, nature; purpose, bravery, endeavour
cordial *adj* (OF *cordial*) a stimulating medicine (for the heart); powdered gold was actually used as a medicine
cost *n* (from OF *co(u)ster*) cost
cours *n* (OF *course* a running, course) course
courtepy *n* (Old Dutch *korte pie*) short cloak

Cristendom *n* the Christian world, Christendom
crop *n* (OE *crop* sprout, ear of corn, paunch) bush, sprout, twig, crown of a tree
crull *adj* (OE *curl*) curly
cure *n* (OF *cure*) cure; care
curteis *adj* (OF *co(u)rteis*) polite, courteous
curteisie, *adj* (OF *curteisie*) excellence of manners or social conduct; polite behavior, courtesy
cut *n* (OE *cut*) cut; here: a straw, slip of paper, etc., used in drawing lots; **drawen cuts** to draw straws

D

Damascien John Damascene, an Arab physician and theologian of the 9th century
daunce *n* (OF *da(u)nce*) dance
dauncen *v* (OF *dauncer*) to dance
day *n* (OE *dæʒ*) day
deel *n* (OE *dǣl*) deal **a ful greet deel** an indefinite but large quantity, amount, extent, or degree
degree *n* (OF *degre*) social rank
delyvere *adj* (OF *delivre*) agile; quick
desdeyn n (OF *desdeign*) disdain
dette *n* (OF dette) debt
devout *adj* (OF *devo(u)t* devoted) pious; religious, earnest or sincere
devys *n* (OF *devis*) plan
devysen *v* (OF *deviser* to inspect, design, compose) to devise,order,plan
Deyscorides Dioscorides, a Greek physician of the second century A.D., born in Cilicia
diete *n* (OF *diete*) diet, food or feed habitually eaten
digestible *adj* (Lat *digestibilis*) digestible, readily digested.
dispence *n* (OF *despence*) dispense, expenditure **but esy of dispence** cautious in spending
doctour *n* (OF *docto(u)r*) doctor (a person having a doctor's degree); also a person licensed to practice medicine
doon *v* (OE *don*) to do
dooth *v 3rd per sg pres* see **doon**
drawen *v* (OE *draʒan)* to draw, to pull; **drawen cuts** to draw straws (lots)
drinken *v* (OE *drincan*) to drink
drogge, drugge *n* (OF *drogue*) drug
droghte *n* (OE *druʒoð* from *adj dryʒe*) drought, dryness
dronken see **drinken**
drye *adj* (OE *dryʒe*) dry

E

ech, eche *pron* (OE *ǣlc*)
echon *pron* (OE *ǣlc* + *ān*) each one, everyone
eek *adv, conj* (OE *ēac*) also, moreover
embrouden *v* (OF *enbroider*) to embroider, to do decorative needlework
encrees *n* (OF *encres*) increase
ende *n* (OE *ende*) end
enditen *v* (OF *enditer* announce, proclaim) to compose or write, to indite
engendren *v* (OF *engendrer* – to beget) to produce, beget
er, ere *adv, prep* (OE *ǣr*) before, earlier
erly *adj* (OE *ǣr+līc*) early
eschaunge *n* (OF *eschaunge*) exchange, a place where securities or commodities are sold, bought, or traded, esp. by brokers or merchants

Esculapius Aesculapius, the Roman god of medicine or healing. Greek counterpart: Asclepius
esen *v* (OF *aise, eise* comfort, convenience) to relieve, arrange comfortably
estatly *adv* (OF *estat* + *ly*) stately, dignified, discreet
esy *adj* (OF *ese*) easy, relieved, free from pain, care or anxiety
evene *adj* (OE *efne* even, precisely, exact) medium, average
even-song *n* (OE *æfen* + *sonʒ*) evensong, a form of worship said or sung in the evening.
evere *adv* (OE *ǣfre*) every
everich *pron* (OE *ǣfre* + *ǣlc*) every
everychon *pron* (OE *ǣfre* + *ǣlc* + *on/an*) everyone
eye *n* (OE *ēaʒe*) eye

F

fader *n* (OE *fæder*) father
fair *adj* (OE *fæʒer*) fair, beautiful
fallen *v* (OE *feallan*) to fall
fat *adj* (OF *fætt, Pll* of *fætan* – cram, load) fat, corpulent, plump
felaweshipe *n* (OE *felawe* + *scipe*) fellowship
ferne *adj* (OE *fern, feorren*) distant, from afar
ferre *adv* (OE *fēōr*) far
ferrer *adv comp degree* see **ferre**
ferther *adj comp degree* see **ferre**
feten, fetten *v* (OE *fecc(e)an,* var. of *fetian*) to fetch
fetisly *adv* (OF *fetis* + *ly*) gracefully, elegantly, skilfully
fil *v* see **fallen**
first *adj* (OE *fyrrest*) first, coming before all others
fithele *n* (OE *fiðele*) fiddle
Flaundres *n* Flanders (a medieval country in W Europe, extending along the North Sea from the Strait of Dover to the Scheldt River: the corresponding modern regions include the provinces of East Flanders and West Flanders in W Belgium, and the adjacent parts of N France and SW Netherlands).
Flaundryssh *adj* Flemish; of or pertaining to Flanders
flok *n* (OE *floc*) flock, a group or company of persons
flou *r* (OE *flour, flor*) flower
floytyng *n* (OF *flahute* flute) playing the flute, or, perhaps, whistling
folk *n* (OE *folc*) folk
foreward *n* (OE *fore-weard*) agreement, conformity, hamony
forked *adj* (OE *forca*, from Latin *furca* + *ed*) having forklike parts; having sharp angles (forked beard was a fashionable shape for bourgeoisie. Chaucer himself wore one)
forme *n* (OF < L *forma)* form; **in forme** with propriety
forsooth, forsoth *adv* (OE *for-soð*) indeed, in truth, forsooth
forth *adv* (OE *forð*) forth, forward, onwards, completely, away
fortunen *v* (OF *fortuner*) to endow with a fortune, wealth, happiness etc
forward *n* (OE *forweard*) agreement, covenant
fowel, fowl (OE *fuʒol*) bird
fredom *n* (OE *frēo* + *dom*) freedom
free *adj* (OE *frēo, frio*) free
freend *n* (OE *frēond*) friend
frendshipe *n* (OE *frēondscype*) friendship

fresshe *adj* (OE *fersc*) fresh
fro (O Scand *fro*) from
ful (OE *full, ful*) *adj* full *adv* very
fustian *n* (OF *fustaigne* cotton, literlally, linen from wood) a stout fabric of cotton and **flax** *n* (OE *fleax*) flax (льон)

G

gaderen, gadren *v* (OE *ȝaderian*) to gather, collect, store up
Galyen Galen A.D. c130–c 200, Greek physician and writer on medicine.
game *n* (from OE *ȝaman*) an amusement or pastime; diversion
gan = bigan; see **bigynnen**
Gatesden John Gatesden, Oxford, court physician in the first half of the 14th century
gay *adj* (OF *gai*) merry
gentil *adj* (OF *gentil*) gentle, noble, generous
gessen v (O Scand *gissa)* to guess, estimate
geten *v* (O Scand *geta*) to get
Gilbertyn Gilbertus Anglicus, a prominent physician; fl. 1250
glad *adj* (OE *ȝlæd)* glad
gladly *adv* (OE *ȝlæd* + *ly*) gladly, willingly, eagerly
God *n* (OE *ȝod*) God
gold *n* (OE *ȝold*) gold
good *adj* (OE *ȝōd*) good
goodly *adj, adv* (OE *ȝōd-līc*) of good quality; *adv* well, willingly
goon *v* (OE *ȝān*) to go
governaunce *n* (OF *governance*) governance, control, authority; business
governour *n* (OF *governeor, gouverneur*) a governor, a person charged with authority
gowne *n* (OF *gunna, goune* fur or leather garment) garment, dress
grace *n* (OF *grace*) grace
graunten *v* (OF *granter*) to grant
greet *adj* (OE *ȝrēat*) great, large, thick, coarse
grounden *v* (from OE *ȝrund*) to ground, instruct in elements or first principles
gyde *n* (OF *gui(d)er v, gui(d)e n*) guide
gypoun *n* (OF *gipon*) tunic worn under the coat of mail

H

habergeoun *n* (OF *habergeon*) coat of mail
halfe *n* (OE *healf*) half
halwe (OE *halȝa*) saint
Haly Haly, or Hali, an Arabian commentator on Galen in the 11th century
harm *n* (OE *hearm*) harm, physical or mental injury of damage
hat *n* (OE *hætt*) hat
heed *n* (OE *heafod*) head
heede *n* (from OE *hēdan*) heed, careful attention; notice
heeth (OE *hǣð*) heath, (waste) land without trees, usually with sandy soil and scrubby vegetation, esp. heather
heigh, hy, hye *adj* (OE *hēah*) high, lofty
helpen *v* (OE *helpan*) to help
hem *pers pron 3rd pers dat pl* them
henten *ȝ* (OE *hentan*) to get; to grasp
herknen *v* (OE *heorcnian*) to hearken, to listen

herte *n* (OE *heorte*) heart
Hethenesse *n* lands governed by heathens , i.e. people who do not acknowledge the God of Christianity, Judaism, or Islam
holt *n* (OE *holt*) a grove, wood
holwe *adj* (OE *holh* – a hollow place) sunken, hollow, hungry or empty
homward *adv* (OE *hām* + *weard*) homeward, in the direction of home
hond = hand
honour *n* (OF *onor, honur* – esteem) honour, esteem
honouren *v (*OF *onorer, onurer*) to honour
hooly *adj* (OE *hāliȝ*) holy, sacred
hoost *n* (OF *hoste*) host
hoot *adj* (OE *hāt*) hot
hors *n* (OE *hors*) horse
hostelrye *n* (OF *hostellerie*) hostelry, inn
houre *n* (OF *hore, houre*) hour
how *adv* (OE *hū*) how
humour *n* (OF *humor*) (in medieval physiology) one of the four elemental fluids of the body, blood, phlegm, black bile, and yellow bile, regarded as determining, by their relative proportions, a person's physical and mental constitution.
hy, hye, heigh *adv* (OE *hēah*) high
hye *adv* see **hy**

I

I *pron* (OE *ic*) I
in *prep* (OE *in*) in
inne *adv* (OE *inne*) inside
inspiren *v* (OF *inspirer*) to breathe upon, blow into; inspire

J

juge *n* (OF *juge*) judge, authorized arbiter
juggement *n* (OF *jugement*) judgement, opinion
justen *v* (OF *jouster*[from Latin *juxta* close]) to joust, to engage in combat of two men-at-arms on horseback; to fight on horseback

K

keepen *v* (OE *cēpan*) to keep (here: to keep safe)
kept see **keepen**
kerven *v* (OE *ceorfan*) to carve, to cut
knew see **knowen**
knyght *n* (OE *cniht – a boy, youth, man of arms*) knight
koude *v past tense* (OE *cunnan*) could; knew
kowthe, couth (OE *cūð; P II* of **cunnan** to know) known

L

lady (OE *hlæfdiȝe*) lady
lat *imper of* **letan**
lay *v past of* **lyen**
leef *adj* (OE *lēof*) ready; glad
leene *adj* (OE *hlǣne*) lean, not fat, abnormally thin
lenger *adj comp degree of* **long**
lernen *v* (OE *lēornian*) to learn
lernynge *n* (OE *liornunȝ*) learning
lesten, listen *v* (OE *lystan*) to list; to be pleasing to (a person); (tr) to desire or choose
letan *v* (OE *lætan*) to let
letuarie *n* medicinal syrup

levere *adj* comp degree of **leef**
leyen *v* (OE *lecȝan*) lay
licour n (OF *licur*) liquid, fluid
lik *adv* (OE *līc*) like
litel *adj* (OE *lȳtel*) little
logyk *n* (OF *logique* <Lat *logic* <Greek *logikos*) logic
lokke, locke *n* (OE *locc* lock of hair) lock, a ringlet of hair
lond, land *n* (OE *land, lond*) land, country
long *adj* (OE *lanȝ*) long
longen *v* (OE *lanȝian*) to long, have an earnest or strong desire or craving; yearn
looken *v* (OE *lōcian*) look; seem
lord *n* (OE *hlāford*) lord, master
lordynge *n* a gentleman; lord: used in the plural as a form of address
lough *adj* (OE *lāh*) low; humble
loven *v* (OE *lufian*) to love
lovyere, lover (from OE *lufian; luf* + *ere, iere*) lover
lowely *adj* (OE *louh* + *lic*) lowly, modest, meek
lusty *adj* (OE *lustiȝ, lystiȝ*) vigorous, enthusiastic, spirited
lyen *v* (OE *licȝan*) to lie
lyf *n* (OE *līf*) life
lynen *v* to cover the inner side or surface of

M

made see **maken**
magyk *n* (OF *magique*) magic; control of supernatural agencies or the forces of nature; **magyk natureel** astrology and related sciences
maken *v* (OE *macian*) to make, to do
maladye *n* (OF *maladie*) malady, illness
man *n* (OE *man*) man
March *n* (OE *Martius*) March
marchant *n* (OF *marceant)* merchant
martir *n* (OE *martyr* < Latin < Greek) martyr
mayde, mayden *n* (OE *mæȝden*) maid
mayster *n* (OE *maȝister*) master
me *pron dat case of* I
meede *n* (OE *mǣd*) meadow
meek *adj* (O Scand *mjukr*) meek, humble, gentle
melodye *n* (OE *melodic*) melody
menen *v* (OE *mǣnan*) to mean, intend
mesurable *adj* (OF *mesurable*) measurable, capable of being measured.
Middelburgh *n* Middleborough
mo *var of* **moore**
moiste, moyste *adj* (OF *moiste*) moist
moore *adj, adv* (comparative degree of **michel, muchel**) (OE mara) more
moost *adj, adv* (superlative degree of **michel, muchel**) (OE mǣst) most
moral *adj* (OF *morale*) moral
morwe-song *n* (OE *morȝen* + *sonȝ*) matin, the service of public prayer, said in the morning, in the Anglican Church
moten *v* (OE *mōtan*) may, be allowed; must
mottelee *adj* (OE *mot* speck + liȝ) motley, multicoloured or parti-coloured
mury *adj* (OE *myr(i)ȝe, mer(i)ȝe*) merry, cheerful
myghte *v* past of **may** might
my-selve *pron* (OE *mīn* + OE *seolf*) myself

N

name *n* (OE *nama*) name
namoore = no more
nas = **ne was**
nat *pron* (OE *nāwiht*) nothing; *particle* not
nathelees adv, conj (OE *nā-ðȳ-læs*) nonetheless, despite that; however; nevertheless
nature *n* (OE *nature*) nature
natureel *adj* (OF *naturel*) natural; based on the state of things in nature; **magyk natureel** astrology and related sciences
neede *n, adj* (OE *nȳd, nȳde*) need; needed; to be essential or necessary to:
neer *adv* (OE *nēah*) near
noght *pron* (OE *nāwiht*) nothing
noot = **ne wot** don't know
norissyng *adj* (from OF *noriss-* + ing) nourishing
nought *pron* (OE *nāwiht*) nothing; *particle* not
now *adv* (OE *nū*) now
nyght *n* (OE *niht*) night
nyghtertale *n* (OE *niht* + *tale*) nighttime
nyghtyngale *n* (OE *nihteȝale*, literally: night-singer, from niht + ȝalan *to sing)* nightingale
nyne *num* (OE *niȝon*) nine

O

o = **a** (indefintie article)
obedient *adj* (OF < L *oboedient*) obedient, compliant or willing to obey
of *prep* (OE *of*) of
office *n* (OF *office*) office, employment outside church
old *adj* (OE *eald*) old
oother *adj, pron* (OE *ōðer*) the second, other
open *adj* (OE *open*) open
Orewelle n Orwell
othe *n* (OE *āð*) oath
oure *possess pron* (OE *ūr*) our
over *adj* (OE *ofer*) outer (covering)
overeste *adj superl degree* of **over**
owen(e) *adj* (OE *āȝen*) own
Oxenford *n* Oxford

P

paas *n* (from OF *pacen*) a short walk
pacen, passen *v* (OF *passer* – step, pace) to pass
pacient *n* (OF *patient* < L *patient*) a patient, a person who undergoes treatment
palmer *n* (OF *palmier*) palmer, pilgim
parfit *adj* (OF *parfit, parfet*) perfect
payen *v* (OF *paiier*) to pay
percen *v* (OF *percer*) to pierce, penetrate
pers *n, adj* (L *persus* from L *Persicus* Persian) blue-gray; blue-gray cloth
pestilence *n* (OF *pestilence*) pestilence, plague (the Black Plague hit England in 1348, 1362, 1369, and in 1376)
philosophre *n* (OF *philosophre*) philosopher; alchemist
phisik *n* (OF *fisique*) < L *physica* natural science (ML medical science) < Gk *physik£* science of nature) medical science, medicine
pilgrim *n* (OE *pelegrim*) pilgrim
pilgrymage *n* (OF *pelegrinage*) pilgrimage, a journey, esp. a long one, made to some sacred place as an act of religious devotion
place *n* (OF *place*) place
pleyn *adj* (OF *plain*) clear, manifest, ordinary, simple
plilosophie *n* (OF *philosophie*) philosophy, the investigation of natural phenomena, esp. alchemy, astrology, and astronomy
port *n* (OF *port*, from *v porter*) bearing, behaviour, manners

post *n* (OE < L *postis*) post
poynt *n* (OF *point*) point, purpose, aim
praktisour *n* (OF *practicour*) an experienced doctor, skilled or expert; proficient through practice and experience
presse *n* (OF *presse*) press
preyen *v* (OF *preiier*) to pray
priken *v* (OE *prician*) to prick, ruge, spur
Prioresse *n* (OF *prioresse*) prioress, a woman holding a position corresponding to that of a prior, sometimes ranking next below an abbess.
pris *n* (OF *pris*) price, value
purtreyen v (OF *portraire* to depict) paint, draw
Pycardie *n* Picardy, a region in N France: formerly a province

Q

quethen *v* (OE *cweðan*) to say, speak
quod *v past of* **quethen**
quyk adj (OE *cwic*) alive; living; quick; **short and quyk** concise and to the point

R

rake *n* (OE *raca*) rake
Ram *n* (OE *ramm*) a male sheep; the constellation Aries, the first sign of the zodiac
Razis or Rhazesan, Arabian physician of the 10 century
rebel *n, adj* (OF *rebelle*) rebe; rebellious, defiant
recorden *v* (Lat *recordare*) to remember
redy *adj* (OE *rædiȝ, rædе*) ready
reed *adj* (OE *ræd*) red
reportour *n* (OF *reporteur*) a reporter, one who reports; here reporter of their merits
resoun *n* (OF *reisun*) reason; view
resten *v* (OE *ræstan*) to rest, to repose
reulen, rulen *v* (OF *riule*) to rule,direct, influence, govern
reverence *n* (OF *reverence*) reverence, devoted veneration
rich *adj* (OE *rīc*) rich
riden, ryden *v* (OE *rīdan*) to ride
right adv (OE *riht*) exactly, precisely
risen *v* (OE *rīsan*) to rise
robe *n* (OF *robe*) robe, garment, gown
roos v past tense of **risen**
roote *n* (OE *rōte*) root
Rufus a physician in Ephesus about the times of Trajan
ryden, riden *v* (OE *rīdan*) to ride
rysen *v* (OE *rīsan*) to rise, get up

S

sangwyn *adj* (OF *sanguin*) blood-red; red; ruddy-faced
sat *v* past of **sitan**
saugh *v* past tense of **seen, sene, see**
sautrie *n* (OF *sautrie*) psaltery, an ancient stringed instrument similar to the lyre, but having a trapezoidal sounding board over which the strings are stretched
scoleyen *v* (OF *escoleier*) to study, to attend school
se = **see**
see, seen, sene *v* (OE *sēon*) to see
seeke, sike *adj* (OE *sēoc*) sick, ailing
Seint Thomas saint Thomas Becket
seken *v* (OE *sēcan*) to seek, try to find out, to come to, to visit
sellen *v* (OE *sellan*) to sell
semen *v* (OE *sēman* < O Scand *soma* to beseem; to reconcile) to seem

sendal *n* (OF *cendal*) sendal a fine silk fabric used, esp. in the Middle Ages, for ceremonial clothing, etc; a garment of such fabric
senden *v* (OE *sendan*) to send
sentence *n* (OF *sentence*) an opinion given on a particular question judgement etc.; **heigh sentence** deep significance
Serapioun John Serapion, a physician, contermporary of Avicenna and Hali (11th century)
servysable *adj* (OF *servicable*) serviceable, diligent in service
seson *n* (OE *seson*) season
seyde see **seyen**
seyen *v* (OE *secȝan*) say, utter, pronounce
shamefastnesse *n* (OE *scamu* + *fast* + *nis*) shamefacedness
shape *n* (OE ȝ*esceap*) shape
sheelde *n* (OE *scyld* – shield) shield, a gold coin
shire *n* (OE *scīr*) district, province
short *adj* (OE *sceort*) short
shortly *adv* (OE *sceort* + *ly*) shortly, in a short time, soon
shour (OE *scūr*) *n* shower
sike, seke *adj* (OE *sēoc*) sick, ailing
sire *n* (OF *sire*) sire; sir
sitten *v* (OE *sitan*) to sit
slepen *v* (OE slǣpan) sleep
sleve *n* (OE *slīf, slēf* an apron) sleeve
smal *n* (OE smæl) small
sobrely *adv* (OF *sobre* + *ly*) soberly, quiet or sedate, grave
solaas *n* (OF *solas*) solace, comfort in sorrow, misfortune or trouble
solempnely *adv* (OF *solempne* + *ly*) solemnly, pompously, earnestly
somtyme adv (OE *sume tīman*) sometime, occasionally
sondry adj (OE *syndriȝ* private, separate) sundry, various or diverse
sone *n* (OE *sunu*) son
sonne *n* (OE *sunne*) sun
soote, swete (OE *swēte*) *adj* sweet
sooth *n, adj* (OE *sōð*) true, sooth
soper *n* (OF *souper*) supper; an evening meal
sort *n* (OF *sorte*) manner
sothe *n , adj* (OE *sōð*) sooth, truth; true
soule *n* (OE *sāwol*) soul
sownen, sounen *v* (OF *suner*) to pronounce, to utter, to produce sounds,
space *n* (OF *espace*) space; extent of time
spak see **speken**
speche *n* (OE *spec*) speech
special *adj* (OF *special*) special
speken *v* (OE *sprecan*) to speak
spenden *v* (OE *spendan*) to spend
spent *v past tense* see **spenden**
spente see **spenden**
spryngen *v* (OE *springan*) come into being, rise, arise
squier *n* (OF *esquier, escuier* shield bearer) bachelor, a young noble aspiring to knighthood; squire
stable *n* (OF *estable*) stable
stature *n* (OF *stature*) staure; height of a person
stonden *v* (OE *standan*) to stand
straunge *adj* (OF *estrange*) foreign, unfamiliar
strond *n* (OE *strond, strand*) shore
studie *n* (OF *estudie*) study
studien *v* (OF *estudier*) to study
superfluitee *n* (OF *superfluite*) superfluity, a superabundant or excessive amount
surgerye *n* (OF *cirurgie*) surgery, the branch of medicine concerned with treating diseases, injuries, or deformities by manual or operative procedures
sweren *v* (OE *swarian, swerian*) swear; declare; answer

swich *pron* (OE *swilc*) such
swore *v past tense* see **sweren**
swete, soote *adj* (OE *swēte*) sweet
syn, since *conj* (OE *siððan*) since
syngen, singen *v* (OE *sinʒan*) to sing

T

taak *v past tense* see **take**
taffata *n* (OF *taffetas*) taffeta, a medium-weight or light-weight fabric of rayon, or silk, usually smooth, crisp, and lustrous, plain-woven, and with a fine crosswise rib effect.
take *v* (O Scand *taka*) take
tale *n* (OE *talu*) tale
tary *v* to delay or be tardy in acting, starting, coming, etc.; linger or loiter.
techen *v* (OE *tǣcan*) to teach, instruct, show
tel *v imper of* **tellen**
tellen *v* (OE *tellen*) to tell
tendre *adj* (OE *tendre*) tender
than *conj* (OE *ðanne, ðænne*) than
ther *adv* (OE *ðǣr*) there
therfore *adv, conj* (OE *ðǣr + for*) therefore, consequently
therto *adv* (OE *ðǣr-tō*) thereto; in addition to that
therupon *adv* (OE *ðǣ r + up + on*) thereupon, immediately following that.
thr (OE
twenty *num* (OE *twen-tiʒ*) twenty
tweye *num masc* (OE *twēʒen*) two
twynnen *v* depart
tyme *n* (OE *fīma*) time

U

undertake *v* to make oneself responsible, give a guarantee
unto *conj* (O Scand *to*) to, till, until
upon *prep* (OE *uppon*) on, upon

V

verray *adj, adv* (OF *verai* - true) true, real ; very
vertu *n* (OF *vertu*) power
veyn *n* (OF *veine*) vein
viage *n* (OF *viage*) voyage, a journey or expedition from one place to another by water or by land
vileynye *n* (OF *vileinie*) villainy, an evil, abhorrent word
vouchesauf *v* (OF *vouchen, sauf*) to vouchsafe, to agree, promise, or permit, often graciously or condescendingly

W

wan *v past tense of* **winnen**
was see **been**
wende past sg of **goon**
wenden v (OE *wendan*) to wend, to direct (one's course or way); travel
wente see **goon**
weren *v* (OE *werian*) to wear
werre *n* (OF *werre*) war
wey *n* (OE *weʒ*) way
what *adv* (OE *hwanne, hwænne*) when
what *pron* (OE *hwæt*) what
wherwith *conj* (OE *hwǣr; wið*) that by which; that with which
which *pron* (OE *hwilc*) which
whil *adv* (OE *hwīl*) while
whilom adv (OE *hwīlum*) at one time, at times, from time to time
whoso *pron* (OE *hwā swā*) whosoever; whoever.
whyte *adj* (OE *hwīt*) white
wight *n* (OE *wīht*) something, a thing, a being
willen *v* (OE *willan*) to wish, to will
winnen *v* (OE *winnan*) to win , to gain
wiste see **witen**
wit n (OE *wit*) understanding, mental capacity , memory
witen, wat (woot), wiste *v* (OE *wītan*) to know, to understand, to observe
with-alle *adv* (OE *wið + eal*) withal, therewith, nevertheless
withouten *adv* (OE *wið-ūtan*) without; outside
withseyen v (OE *wið + secʒan*) deny
wol see **willen**; *used as auxiliary pres.*
worldly *adj* (OE *woruld + līc*) mundane, secular; experienced; knowing; sophisticated
worthy *adj* (OE *wyrðiʒ*) worthy
worthynesse *n* (OE *wyrðiʒ + nis*) worthiness
wyd *adj* (OE *wīd*) wide, spacious, great
wyght, wight, wiht *n* (OE *wiht*) something, a thing, a being
wyn *n* (OE *wīn*) wine
wynnen *v* (OE *winnan*) to win, to gain
wynnyng *n* (from OE *winnan*) winning, profit, gain
wys *adj* (OE *wīs*) wise, judicious

Y

yaf see **yeven**
ycome P II of the verb **comen** to come, to arrive
yeer *n* (OE *ʒēar*) year
yet *adv* (OE *ʒē, ʒīt, ʒyt*) yet, nevertheless
yeven *v* (OE *ʒiefan*) to give
yfalle *P II* of the verb **fallen** (OE *feallan*) to fall, to get into
ygo P II of **goon; onto logyk ... ygo** had long since proceeded to the study of logic
yknowe *P II* see **knowen**
ymage *n* (OF *image*) image
yong *adj* (OE *ʒēonʒ*) young
youre *pron 2nd pers possess* (OE *ēower*) your

List of abbreviations

A.D. – Anno Domini; since Christ was born
Acc – accusative
Adj – adjective
Adv – adverb
B.C. – before Christ (used in indicating dates)
C – (with a year) about: *c*
Conj – conjunction
dat – dative case
Dem – demonstrative
F – feminine
Fl – floruit; he (or she) flourished: used to indicate the period during which a person flourished, esp. when the exact birth and death dates are unknown
Gk – Greek
Indic – indicative
Irreg – irregular
L. Lat. – Latin
M – masculine
ME – Middle English
ML – Medieval Latin
N – noun
N – neuter
Nom – nominative
Num – numeral
OE – Old English
OF – Old French
O Scand – Old Scandinavian
PII – Participle II
Pers – personal; person
Pl – plural
Possess – possessive
Prep – preposition
Pret – preterit
Pret-pres – preterite-present
Pron – pronoun
S – strong
Sg – singular
Subj – subjunctive
Suppl – suppletive
V – verb
W – weak

The classes of verbs are marked in the following way: *w v 1* (weak verb class 1) or *s v 1* (strong verb class 1); The nouns are marked in the following way *N m a* – noun masculine gender a-stems; *n n n* noun neuter gender n-stems

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