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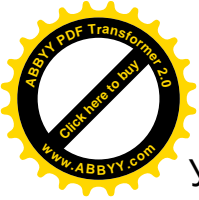
Л. А. Спаська

A HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

(Історія англійської мови)

Навчальний посібник для студентів
факультетів іноземних мов

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Посібник містить стислий виклад особливостей розвитку системи англійської мови, починаючи з відокремлення англосаксонських діалектів від інших германських мов до ранньоновоанглійського періоду. Посібник ознайомлює студентів з історичним розвитком фонетики, морфології, словотворення; літературними пам'ятками давньоанглійського та середньоанглійського періодів, а також з історичними подіями, які вплинули на розвиток англійської мови.

Призначений для студентів факультетів іноземних мов та всіх, хто самостійно працює над удосконаленням англійської мови.

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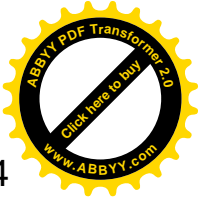
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ПЕРЕДМОВА

Історія англійської мови входить до складу базових лінгвістичних дисциплін студентів-філологів. Оволодіння іноземною мовою можливе лише за умови свідомого розуміння та засвоєння всього історичного процесу розвитку мови, явищ, які відбувалися в мові за всі періоди її історії.

Навчальний посібник «Історія англійської мови» знайомить студентів з розвитком англійської мови починаючи з давньогерманських діалектів до сучасної англійської мови.

Посібник охоплює такі теми:

1. Джерела походження та хронологічна періодизація англійської мови;
2. Давньоанглійська мова:
 - давньоанглійський алфавіт та основні писемні пам'ятки;
 - походження голосних та приголосних;
 - давньоанглійські частини мови та їх граматичні категорії;
 - давньоанглійський словник та способи його поповнення;
3. Середньоанглійський період:
 - історичні передумови;
 - зміни в написанні та правилах читання;
 - фонетичні зміни;
 - морфологія середньоанглійського періоду;
 - розширення словника за рахунок словотворення та запозичень;
4. Новоанглійський період:
 - формування національної літературної мови;
 - поширення лондонського діалекту;
 - способи поповнення словникового запасу.

Кожна тема супроводжується таблицями та достатньою кількістю прикладів, які сприятимуть кращому засвоєнню навчального матеріалу.

Посібник призначений для студентів факультетів іноземних мов, а також усіх, хто самостійно працює над удосконаленням англійської мови.



INTRODUCTION

A living language can never be absolutely static. It develops together with the speech community, with the people who speak it. The English language of today reflects many centuries of its development.

The purpose of our subject is a systematic study of the language`s development from the earliest times to the present days. Such study enables the student to acquire a more profound understanding of the language of today. The History of the English Language shows the place of English in the linguistic world.

The History of the English Language covers the main events in the historical development of the English language:

- the history of the phonetic structure and spelling;
- the evolution of its grammatical system;
- the growth of its vocabulary.

Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historic classification groups languages in accordance with their origin from a common linguistic ancestor.



GENEALOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF LANGUAGES

Families:

1. *The Indo-European languages*
2. *The Semitian*
3. *The Hamitian*
4. *The Caucasian*
5. *The Ugro-Finnish*
6. *The Samodian*
7. *The Turkic*
8. *The Mongolian*
9. *The Tungus and Manchurian*
10. *The Chinese and Tibetan*
11. *The Dravidian*
12. *The Andamanian*
13. *The Australian-Asiatic*
14. *The Malayan-Polinesian*
15. *The Australian*
16. *The Papuan*
17. *The Sudanese*
18. *The Bantu*
19. *The Paleoafrican*
20. *The Paleoasian*
21. *Languages of the Far East*
22. *The Americanoid*
23. *The American (Indian)*

(after A.A. Reformatsky)



CHAPTER I. THE INDO-EUROPEAN FAMILY OF LANGUAGES

The Indo-European family is divided into twelve branches.

1. The Slavonic branch.

- a. *East Slavonic languages (Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian)*
- b. *West Slavonic languages (Polish, Czech, Slovak)*
- c. *South Slavonic languages (Bulgarian, Serbian, Croatian)*

2. The Baltic branch (*Lithuanian, Latvian*).

3. The Germanic (Teutonic) branch.

4. The Romanic branch (*French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian, Moldavian*).

5. The Celtic branch (*Irish, Welsh, Gaelic, Manx, Breton*).

6. The Greek branch.

7. The Albanian branch.

8. The Armenian branch.

9. The Iranian branch (*Persian, Afghan, Tadjik*).

10. The Indian branch (*including a dead language Sanskrit and modern Indian languages such as Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Mahrati, Hindustani and Gipsy*).

11. The Tokharian branch (*now dead*).

12. The Hittite branch (*now dead*).



CHAPTER II. GERMANIC LANGUAGES

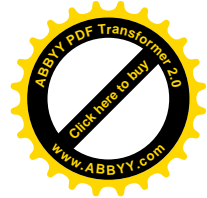
Germanic languages are spoken in many countries and continents. They are classified into three groups: *East-Germanic*, *North-Germanic* and *West-Germanic*. East-Germanic languages have been dead for many centuries. All North-Germanic and West-Germanic languages have survived until our own times.

Germanic Languages

	East Germanic	North Germanic	West Germanic
Old Germanic dialects (with the dates of the earliest records in each group)	Gothic (4 th c.) Vandalic, Burgundian	Old Norse (2 nd -3 rd c.) Old Icelandic (12 th c.) Old Swedish (13 th c.) Old Danish (13 th c.) Old Norwegian (12 th c.)	Anglian, Frisian, Saxon, Franconian, High German Old English (7 th c.) Old High German (9 th c.) Old Saxon (8 th c.) Old Dutch (12 th c.)
Modern languages, dialects	None	Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Faroese	English, High German, Yiddish, Low German, Dutch, Frisian, Afrikaans, Flemish

Ancient Germanic Tribes and Their Classification

<i>Tribes</i>	<i>Languages</i>
Vandal	East Germanic
Ingvaeones	
Istaevones	West Germanic
Hermiones	
Hilleviones	North Germanic



Phonetic Peculiarities of Germanic Languages

Word-stress

It is known that in ancient Indo-European period there existed two ways of word accentuation: musical pitch and force stress. The stress was moveable, it could fall on any syllable of the word – a root morpheme, an affix or an ending. The stress could be shifted both in form-building and word-building:

cf. R. зимá – зѝмы – зимова́ть.

cf. Укр. пта́х – птахѝ – пташеня́та.

In late Proto-Germanic the position of the stress was stabilized. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable. Usually it was the root of the word and sometimes the prefix. Suffixes and endings were unstressed. The stress could no longer move either in form-building or word-building.

These features of word accent were inherited by the Germanic languages and are observed today.

	Modern English	Modern German
Form – building	'love, 'loves, 'loving, 'loved	'lieben, 'liebt, ge'liebt
Word – building	'lovely, be'loved, 'loveliness	be'liebt, 'Lieberhaft, 'Liebling

Vowels

Beginning with the Proto-Germanic period, vowels displayed a strong tendency to change. The changes were of different kinds: *qualitative and quantitative, dependent and independent.*

Qualitative changes affect the quality of a sound, e.g. [o>a] or [p>f].

Quantitative changes make long sounds short or short sounds long, e.g. [i>i:] or [l>l].

Dependent (positional) changes happen under the influence of the neighbouring sounds or in a certain type of a syllable.

Independent (regular) changes take place irrespective of phonetic conditions. They may affect a certain sound in all positions.



Independent Vowel Changes in Proto-Germanic

Strict differentiation of long and short vowels is an important characteristic of the Germanic group. Long vowels generally tended to become closer, short vowels, on the contrary, often changed into more open sounds. These tendencies can be seen in the earliest vowel changes, which distinguished the Proto-Germanic vowel system from its Proto-Indo-European source.

Indo-European short **o** appeared as short **a** in Germanic languages

Changes	Examples	
	IE, Non-Germanic	Germanic
o > a	R ночь L octō, R восемь R мочь	G Nacht G acht NE may

Indo-European long **a:** appeared as long **o:** in Germanic languages

Changes	Examples	
	IE, Non-Germanic	Germanic
a: > o:	L mater, Ukr мати L brater, Ukr брат	NE mother NE brother

Thus, as a result of these changes, there was neither a short **o** nor a long **a:** in Germanic Languages. Later on these sounds appeared from different sources.

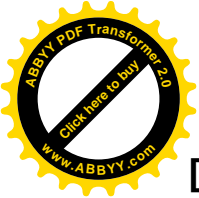
Dependent Vowel Changes

Mutation of Vowels in Late Proto-Germanic

In Later Proto-Germanic and in separate Germanic languages the vowels changed under the influence of the following or preceding consonant. The earliest examples of progressive assimilation were common Germanic mutations.

Before the **nasal consonant** and before **[i]** or **[j]** in the next syllable the short **[e]**, **[i]** and **[u]** became close (i.e. [e] > [i]), [u] – remained unchanged.

In the absence of these conditions **[e]** remained unchanged, but



[u] > [o].

Changes		Examples	
PIE – G		Non-Germanic	Germanic
e	i	L ventus	NE wind
	e	L medius	NE middle
u	u	L edere	G essen
	o	Lith sunus	NE son
		Celt hurnan	NE horn

Gradation or Ablaut

In Indo-European languages there is a special kind of vowel alteration, usually called gradation or ablaut. This is found in such Russian pairs as *нести – ноша; беру – сбор – брал; эремут – эром; везу – воз*.

The main type of gradation in Indo-European languages is represented by the alteration **e – o – zero**.

These variants are due to stress conditions: full stress brings about the high degree (o), weakened stress – the medium degree (e) and unstressed position – zero.

The system of gradation in Germanic languages is best seen in the first five classes of the so-called strong verbs of the Gothic language.

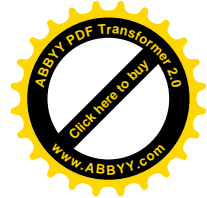
Class	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Second Participle
I	reisan (to rise)	rais	risum	risans
II	kiusan (choose)	kaus	kusum	kusans
III	bindan (bind)	band	bundum	bundans
IV	stilan (steal)	stal	stelum	stulans
V	giban (give)	gaf	gebum	gibens

As it is seen from these forms, gradation is as follows:

Class	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Second Participle
I	i:	ai	i	i
II	iu	au	u	u
III	i	a	u	u
IV	i	a	ē	u
V	i	a	ē	i

After all the changes in late PG, the vowel system contained the following sounds:

Short	i	e	a	o	u
Long	i:	e:	a:	o:	u:



Consonants

Proto-Germanic Consonant Shift

An essential feature of Germanic languages is their consonant system, namely the result of the so-called **first consonant shift**. The earliest statement of the shift was given in the second edition of Jacob Ludwig Grimm’s work “German Grammar” in 1822. That is why the first consonant shift is also called **Grimm’s Law**.

The consonants in Germanic languages look “shifted” as compared with the consonants in non-Germanic languages.

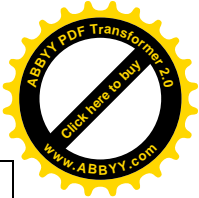
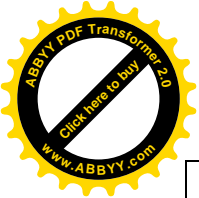
According to Grimm’s Law:

Indo-European non-Germanic voiceless plosives developed into Germanic voiceless fricatives (act I).

Indo-European non-Germanic voiced plosives were shifted to voiceless plosives (act II).

Indo-European non-Germanic voiced aspirated plosives correspond to voiced plosives in Germanic Languages (act III).

Correspondence		Examples			
Indo-European	Proto-Germanic	Indo-European, non-Germanic		Germanic	
act I					
voiceless plosives p	voiceless fricatives f	L	pater	NE	father
		L	pedis	NE	foot
		Ukr	піст	NE	fast
		Ukr	піна	NE	foam
		Ukr	полум’я	NE	flame
		Ukr	повний	NE	full
t	p (θ)	L	tres	NE	three
		Ukr	ти	NE	thou
		Ukr	той	NE	that
		Ukr	терен	NE	thorn
		Ukr	тонкий	NE	thin
k	x (h)	Ukr	копито	NE	hoof
		Ukr	купа	NE	heap
		Ukr	кібець	NE	hawk
		L	cor, cordis	G	Herz
		L	octo	OE	eahta



act II					
voiced plosives b	voiceless plosives p	Ukr	болото	NE	pool
		Ukr	яблуко	NE	apple
		Ukr	слабкий	OE	slepan (to sleep)
d	t	R	еда	NE	to eat
		L	desem	NE	ten
		Ukr	два	NE	two
		Ukr	відьма	NE	witty
		Ukr	вода	NE	water
g	k	L	granum	NE	corn
		R	иго	NE	yoke
		R	варганить	OE	weorcan (to work)
act III					
voiced aspirated plosives bh	voiced plosives b	Sanscr	bhrātar	NE	brother
		Sanscr	bharāmi	NE	bear
dh	d	Sanscr	madhjas	NE	middle
		Sanscr	madhu	OE	medu
		Sanscr	vidhara	NE	widow
gh	g	L	hostis	G	Gast
		Ukr	гість	NE	guest

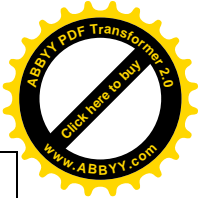
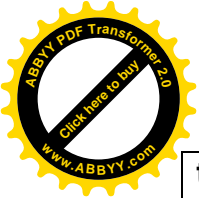
Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)

Another important series of consonant changes in Proto-Germanic was discovered in the late 19th century by a Danish scholar, Karl Verner. They are known as **Verner's Law**. He found some consonants, which do not fit into Grimm's Law, as formulated above. They were for a long time regarded as exceptions.

According to Verner's Law, voiceless fricatives [**f**, **θ**, **x**], which appeared according to Grimm's Law, became voiced [**b**, **d**, **g**] between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless.

The voicing occurred in early Proto-Germanic when the stress was not yet fixed on the root morpheme.

Changes		Examples			
PIE	PG	Non-Germanic		Germanic	
p >	f > v, b	L	caput	OE	heafod [v], (NE head)
		L	septem	OE	seofon [v], (NE seven)
				G	sieben



t >	θ > ð, d	Ukr сто L pater Ukr гетьман	OE hund (NE hundred) OE faeder (NE father) NE headman
k >	x > γ, g	Ukr свекруха	G Schwager

Rhotacism

If the preceding vowel is unstressed, in Germanic languages **s** changes into **z**. In Western and Northern Germanic **z** becomes **r**. e.g. Lith ausis > OE ēare > NE ear.

Changes	Examples	
s > z (r)	OE wesun – weren maiza – māra	NE was – were most – more

Grammatical Interchanges of Consonants caused by Verner's Law

Interchange		Principal forms of the verbs				
PG	OG languages	Infinitive	Past Tense		Participle II	NE
			sg	pl		
f ~ v	OHG f ~ b	heffen	huob	huobun	gi-haban	<i>heave</i>
θ ~ ð	OE θ/ð ~ d	séoðan	séað	sudon	soden	<i>seethe</i>
x ~ γ	O Icel, OE x ~ γ	sla sléan	sló slóʒ	slógum slóʒon	sleginn slæʒen	<i>slay</i>
s ~ z	OE s/z ~ r	céosan	céas	curon	coren	<i>choose</i>

West-Germanic Consonant Lengthening

West-Germanic languages show a peculiar phenomenon in the sphere of consonants, which has been called “*West-Germanic lengthening of consonants*”. Every consonant (but r) is lengthened if it is preceded by a short vowel and followed by the consonant **j**. In writing the long consonant is represented by doubling the consonant letter, thus the process is also called “*West-Germanic doubling of consonants*”. The phonetic essence of this appears to be assimilation: the consonant **j** is assimilated to the preceding consonant.

- sætian → settan (to set)
- stæpian → steppan (to step)
- sæʒian → secʒan (to say)
- ræcian → reccan (to direct)
- framian → fremman (to fulfil)
- tælian → tellan (to tell)
- hleahian → hliehhan (to laugh).



CHAPTER III. CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISIONS IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The English language has a long and eventful history. It has been undergoing constant change and it is still changing. The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845–1912), author of a number of works on the English language and on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English according to the state of unstressed endings:

1. **Old English** – the period of full endings. Any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending. For example, the word *sunu* (“son”) has the vowel *u* in the unstressed ending.

2. **Middle English** – the period of levelled endings. Vowels of unstressed endings have been levelled into a neutral vowel, represented by the letter *e*. OE *sunu* was replaced by *sune* (also spelt *sone*).

3. **Modern English** – the period of lost endings. The endings were lost altogether. Middle English *sune* (*sone*) becomes Modern English *son*.

This division is based on *phonetic* (weakening and loss of unstressed vowel sounds) and *morphological* (weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes) changes.

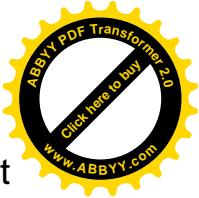
The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: **Old English (OE)**, **Middle English (ME)** and **New English (NE)** with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language.

OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) and ends with the Norman Conquest (1066);

ME begins with the Norman Conquest and ends on the introduction of printing (1475), which is the beginning of the **Modern English period**, that lasts to the present day.

Each of the periods is marked by a set of specific features of phonology, grammar and vocabulary.

Scholars also tried to view the language in terms of the most significant works of writing. They subdivided the history of the English language into seven periods differing in linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes.



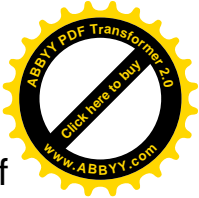
1. **Pre-written period or Early Old English.** It lasted from the West Germanic invasion of Britain till the beginning of writing (5th – 7th centuries). It was the period of tribal dialects of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians, which they used for oral communication. There was no written form of English. We can only guess what the language was like until the 8th century. The evolution of the language of this period is hypothetical. It has been reconstructed from the written evidence of other old Germanic languages, especially Gothic and from later OE written records.

2. **Written Old English or Anglo-Saxon period.** It lasted from the 8th c. till the end of the 11th c. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects. Till the end of the period the difference between the dialects grew. They were equal as a medium of oral communication, but in the sphere of writing West Saxon dialect prevailed over the other dialects (Kentish, Mercian and Northumbrian).

OE was a typical OG language, with a purely Germanic vocabulary and few foreign borrowings. OE was an inflected or “synthetic” language with a well-developed system of morphological categories.

3. **Early Middle English** period started after 1066 and lasted till the middle of the 14th c. It was greatly influenced by Scandinavian and French. Under Norman rule the official language in England was French or its Anglo-French or Anglo-Norman variety. The local dialects were mainly used for oral communication. English began to displace French towards the end of the period. English vocabulary greatly changed during this period. It was affected by numerous lexical borrowings from Scandinavian and French. Grammatical changes were so great that they transformed synthetic English into mainly analytical one.

4. **Late or Classical Middle English** lasted from the later 14th c. till the end of the 15th c. It was the time of the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language. The mixed dialect of London was the main dialect used in writing and literature. This period is also called “the age of Chaucer”. Chaucer’s English is recognizable and quite readable as the spelling of the period did not change so much as its pronunciation. The written records of the late 14th and 15th c. testify to the growth of the English vocabulary and a great number of French loan-words.



5. **Early New English period** lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare (1475 – 1660). The first printed book in English was published by William Caxton in 1475. Caxton’s English was a sort of a bridge between the London Literary English of ME period and the language of the Literary Renaissance. The London dialect formed the basis of the growing national language.

In the Early NE period changes in the English vocabulary and phonetics were great. The growth of the vocabulary was a reflection of the progress of culture and the development of man’s activity. New words from external and internal sources enriched the vocabulary. Phonetic changes made a growing gap between pronunciation and spelling.

6. **“The Age of Normalization and Correctness”** or **“Neoclassical” age** lasted from the mid 17th c. to the close of the 18th c. The norms of the language were fixed as rules in the numerous dictionaries and grammar books published at that time. The 18th c. was also called the period of “fixing the pronunciation”. The great sound shifts were over and pronunciation was being stabilized. Word usage and grammatical constructions were subjected to restriction and normalization.

7. **Late New English or Modern English period** represents the English language of the 19th, 20th c. up to our own days. By the 19th c. English had acquired all the properties of a national language, though, like any other living language, English continues to grow and change. The classical language of literature was strictly distinguished from dialects, which were used only in oral communication and had no literary tradition. The “best” form of English, the Received standard was being spread through new channels: the press, radio, cinema and television.

In the 19th and 20th c. the English vocabulary reflects the rapid progress of technology, science and culture and other multiple changes in all spheres of man’s activities. Some pronunciations and forms became old-fashioned, others were accepted as common usage.

The following tables give a summary of the periods described above.

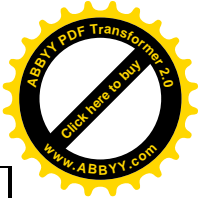
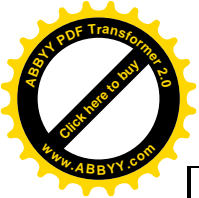


Periodisation of the History of English

I	Early OE (also: Pre-written OE)	c. 450 – c.700	}	OLD ENGLISH
II	OE (also: Written OE)	c. 700 – 1066		
III	Early ME	1066 – c. 1350	}	MIDDLE ENGLISH
IV	ME (also: Classical ME)	c. 1350 – 1475		
V	Early NE	1476 – c. 1660	}	EARLY NEW ENGLISH
VI	Normalization Period (also: Age of Correctness, Neo-Classical period)	c. 1660 – c. 1800		
VII	Late NE, or Mod E (including Present-day English)	c. 1800 since 1945		

A Brief Chronology of English

BC 55	Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar.	Local inhabitants speak Celtic
BC 43	Roman invasion and occupation. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain.	
436	Roman withdrawal from Britain completes.	
449	Settlement of Britain by Germanic invaders begins.	
450-480	Earliest known Old English inscriptions.	Old English
1066	William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England.	
1150	Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English.	Middle English
1348	English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools.	
1362	English replaces French as the language of law. English is used in Parliament for the first time.	
1388	Chaucer starts writing The Canterbury Tales.	
1400	The Great Vowel Shift begins.	
1476	William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.	
1564	Shakespeare is born.	




1604	Table Alphabetical, the first English dictionary, is published.	Early Modern English
1607	The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established.	
1616	Shakespeare dies.	
1623	Shakespeare's First Folio is published.	
1702	The first daily English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant, is published in London.	
1755	Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.	
1776	Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of Independence.	
1782	Britain abandons its American colonies.	
1828	Webster publishes his American English dictionary.	Late Modern English
1922	The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded.	
1928	The Oxford English Dictionary is published.	



CHAPTER IV. OLD ENGLISH

Old English Alphabets

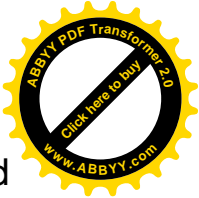
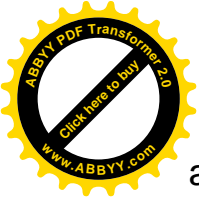
The earliest Old English written records are dated in different centuries, represent various local dialects, belong to different genres and are written in different scripts—*runes* and *Latin letters*. The earliest written records of English are inscriptions on hard material made with the help of runes. The word “rune” originally meant “secret”, “mystery”. So, the inscriptions made with their help believed to be magic. The runes were used as letters, each symbol to indicate a separate sound. A rune could also represent a syllable or a whole word beginning with that sound and was called by that word. For example, the rune  denoting sounds [θ] and [ð] was called “thorn” and could stand for OE þorn (NE thorn).

In some inscriptions the runes were found arranged in a fixed order making a kind of alphabet. After the first six letters this alphabet is called *futhork*. It is a specifically Germanic alphabet, not to be found in any other group of languages. The letters are angular; straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided. Runic inscriptions were cut on hard material (stone, bone, wood). In England there were from 28 to 33 runes. They were not used for everyday writing or for putting down poetry or prose. Their main function was to make short inscriptions on objects to give them some power, magic. Only few people knew how to make them and how to interpret them.

Many runic inscriptions have been preserved on weapons, coins, tombstones, rings, cross fragments. The best known runic inscriptions are the “Franks Casket” and the “Ruthwell Cross”. The inscription on a box called “Franks Casket” was discovered in early 19th c. in France and presented to the British Museum. The runic text is a short poem about the whalebone of which the Casket is made.

The Ruthwell Cross is a tall stone cross inscribed and ornamented on all sides. The principal inscription is a religious poem “The Dream of the Rood”. Both records are in the Northumbrian dialect and belong, probably, to the 9th century.

Old English manuscripts are written in the Latin script. Latin in England was the language of the church and the language of writing



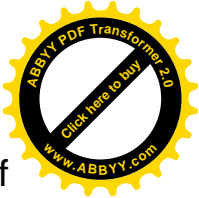
and education. The monks were the only literate people. They read and wrote Latin and began to use Latin letters to write down English words. The first English words written with the help of Latin letters were place names and names of people. British scribes changed the shape of some letters and added new symbols to indicate the sounds, for which Latin had no equivalents.

Old English Runic Alphabet

feoh - f "wealth"	ur - u "cattle"	þorn - þ "thorn"	os - o "mouth"	rad - r "ride"	cen - c "torch"	giefu - ȝ "gift"	pynn - p "joy"	hæþl - h "hail"
nyd - n "need"	is - i "ice"	jeor - j "year"	eeoh - eo "yew"	peorð - p "game"	eolxeca - x "elk-sedge"	sigel - s "sun"	tyr - t "Tyr"	beorc - b "birch"
eoh - e "horse"	man - m "man"	lagu - l "lake"	ing - ŋ "Ing"	æðel - æ "estate"	dæȝ - d "day"	ac - a "oak"	æsc - æ "ash"	
yr - y "bow"	ear - ea "earth"	iar - ia "serpent"	kalc - k "chalice"	kalc - kk "chalice"	gar - g "spear"	cpeorð - cp "fire"	stan - st "stone"	

Old English alphabet and rules of reading

a		n	[n], [ŋ]
æ			
b		o	
c	[k] or [k']	p	
d		r	
e		s	[s] or [z]
f	[f] or [v]	t	
ȝ	[g], [g'] [ȝ] or [j]	þ, ð	[ð] or [θ]
h	[x], [x'] or [h]	u	
i		w	
1		x	
m		y	[y]



The letters could indicate short and long sounds. The length of vowels is shown by a macron: *bát* [ba:t], NE *boat* or by a line above the letter. Long consonants are indicated by double letters.

	OE	NE	OE	NE
f	ofer [over] selfa ['selva]	over self	feohtan ['feoxtan] oft [oft]	fight ofen
s	risan ['ri:zan]	rise	ras [ra:s] ʒast [ga:st]	rose ghost
þ, ð	oðer ['o:ðer] wyrþe ['wyrðe]	other worthy	ðæt [θæt] leop [leo:θ]	that 'song'

Ohthere

ōhthere sǣde his hlāforde Ælfrēde
 ['o:txtere 'sæ:de his 'xla:vorde 'ælfre:de]
"Ohthere said (to) his lord Alfred

cyninʒe þæt hē ealra Nonðmanna norþmest
 ['kyninge θæt he: 'ealra 'norθmǣnna 'norθ,mest]
king that he (of) all Northmen to the North

būde ... þā for he ʒiet norþryhte
 ['bu:de θa: fo:r he: jiet 'norθ,ryx'te]
lived (had lived). Then sailed he yet (farther) northwards

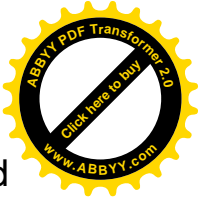
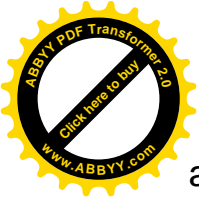
swā feor swā hē mehte on þǣm
 [swa: feor swa: he: 'meaxte on θæ:m]
as far as he might (could) in the

ōþrum þrīm daʒum ʒesiʒlan.
 ['o:ðrum θri:m 'daʒum je'siʒlan]
other three days sail".

This Text is a version of the well-known **New Testament** parable (see Matthew 7.24–27).

Se wisa wer timbrode his hus ofer stan. Þa com þær micel flod, and þær bleowon windas, and ahruron on þæt hus, and hit ne feoll: soþlice, hit wæs ofer stan ʒetimbrod.

Þa timbrode se dysiʒa wer his hus ofer sandceosol. Þa rinde hit,



and þær com flod, and bleowon windas, and ahruron on þæt hus, and þæt hus feoll; and his hryre wæs micel.

The wise man built his house on stone.

Then a great flood came there, and winds blew there, and fell down upon the house, and it did not fall: truly, it was built on stone.

Then the foolish man built his house on sand [lit. *sand-gravel*]. Then it rained, and a flood came there, and winds blew, and fell down upon the house, and the house fell; and its fall was great.

Old English Manuscripts

Writings in OE are very numerous and belong to different kinds of literature. There is a great variety of prose texts, part of them translation from Latin. There are also many poems of different genres and sizes.

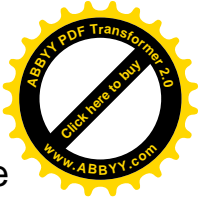
Among the prose works, the most famous, probably, is the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. It is a year-for-year account of the events in English history, starting in 787. The Chronicle is characterized by a very simple syntax, mainly consisting of brief statements of events, which occurred in this or that particular year.

Such documents as wills, grants, agreements, laws are commonly known under the general heading of "Anglo-Saxon Charters". The earliest are written in Kentish and Mercian dialects, the later are in West Saxon.

The most famous writer was the monk named Bede (673-735). He wrote "Ecclesiastical History of the English People", which was studied by educated people in Europe as it was the only book on Anglo-Saxon history. A copy of Bede's book can be found at the British Museum in London.

Old English poetry is mainly devoted to three subjects: heroic, religious and lyrical. It is believed that many OE poems were composed long time before they were written down. They were passed from generation to generation in oral form. Later on they were written down.

The greatest poem was "Beowulf". It is the oldest poem in Germanic literature. It is based on the old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons. The unknown author describes adventures and fights of legendary heroes during the historic events.



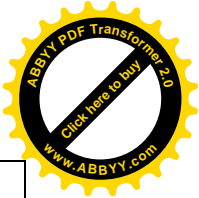
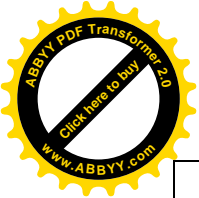
The lyrical poetry is represented by such lyrical poems: “The Wanderer”, “The Seafarer”.

Religious poems paraphrase the books of the Bible: Genesis, Exodus, Gospels. Fate of the Apostles, Elene, Andreas tell the life stories of the apostles and saints.

Practically all OE poetry is written in blank verse: the lines are not rhymed and the number of the syllables in the lines is free. Only the number of stressed syllables is fixed.

Principal Old English Written Records

Dialects			
Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian	Northumbrian
8 th century			
Names in Latin, Charters, Glosses to Bede's ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH PEOPLE	Charters	Names in Latin, Charters, Glosses	Runic inscriptions; the Ruthwell Cross; the Franks Casket; Poetry attributed to Cædmon (HYMN, GENESIS, EXODUS); Poetry attributed to Cynewulf (CHRIST, FATE OF THE APOSTLES, ELENE) BEOWULF; Elegiac poems (TRAVELLER'S SONG, SEAFARER, WANDERER)
9 th century			
Charters	Charters, Alfred's literary activity (translations of Gregory's PASTORAL CARE; Orosius' WORLD HISTORY; Boethius CONSOLATION OF PHILOSOPHY; Bede's ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY); the earliest part of the ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE, Charters; Royal Writs	Charters of Mercian kings, Interlinear glosses to psalters and gospels, Hymns	Riddles



10–11 th century				
Kentish Hymn; Kentish Psalm; Glosses to Proverbs		Ælfric's works: GOSPELS, HOMILIES, LIVES OF SAINTS, LATIN GRAMMAR, COLLOQUIUM, OLD TESTAMENT; Copies of OE poetry ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE continued; Wulfstan's HOMILIES		Glosses in the Lindisfarne Gospels, The Rushworth Gospels, The Durham Ritual



CHAPTER V. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS

Word Stress

Peculiarities of Old English word stress:

1. It fell on the first syllable, rarely on the second. Prefixes, roots were stressed. Suffixes, endings were unstressed.
2. It was fixed. Never moved in inflection, seldom in derivation.
3. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, had two stresses. The main one was on the first root morpheme.
4. Prefix was stressed in nouns and adjectives. Verb prefix was unstressed.

Old English Vowels

Old English sound system developed from Proto-Germanic system. Development of vowels was due to modification of separate vowels or modification of sets of vowels. In OE there were short and long monophthongs and diphthongs. OE vowel system was symmetrical. Every long vowel had a corresponding short counterpart.

	MONOPHTHONGS	DIPHTHONGS
Short	i, e, æ, a, o, u, y	ea, eo, io, ie
Long	i:, e:, æ:, a:, o:, u:, y:	ea:, eo:, io:, ie:

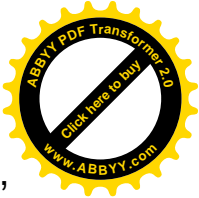
All these vowels could occur in stressed position. Only five vowels could be used in unstressed position: **i, e, a, o, u**.

The Main Changes in OE Vowel System

OLD ENGLISH FRACTURE (Breaking)

OE fracture is diphthongization of short vowels before certain consonant clusters. It is the vowels **a, æ, e** that undergo fracture.

a → **ea**, **æ** → **ea**, before **r + consonant, l + consonant, h + consonant, h – final**.



e.g. **æ**rm → **e**arm (arm), **æ**ld → **e**ald (old), **æ**hta → **ea**hta (eight),
sæh → **se**ah (saw), **hard** → **he**ard (hard), **half** → **he**alf (half), **nah** →
neah (near), **cald** → **ce**ald (cold).

e → **eo** before **r + consonant, l + c, l + h, h + consonant,**
h – final.

e.g. **herte** → **he**orte (heart), **melcan** → **me**olcan (milk), **selh** →
seolh (seal), **feh** → **fe**oh (fee, cattle).

PALATAL MUTATION (i – umlaut)

Back sounds **a, o** change their quality if there is a front sound in the next syllable. Especially frequent are the changes in the roots of verbs under the influence of the suffix of the infinitive – **ian**.

Monophthongs:

- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| a → e | sandian – sendan (to send)
namnian – nemnan (to name)
salian – sellan (to sell)
talian – tellan (to tell)
satian – settan (to set) |
| o → e | ofstian – efstan (to hurry)
dohter – dehter (D.c. of daughter) |
| ā → æ | lārian – læran (to learn, to teach)
ān – æniȝ (any) |
| ō → ē | dōmian – dēman (to judge)
wōpian – wēpan (to weep) |
| u → y | fullian – fyllan (to fill)
cuninȝ – cyninȝ (king) |
| ū → ȳ | mūs – mȳs (mice) |

Diphthongs:

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| ea → ie | eald – ieldra (elder)
hleahian – hliehhan (to laugh) |
| ēa → īe | hēarian – hīeran (to hear) |
| eo → ie | feor – fierra (further)
ȝeonȝ – ȝienȝra (younger) |
| ēo → īe | ȝetrēowi – ȝetrīewe (true) |



BACK OR VELAR MUTATION

It was caused by a back vowel (**u, o, a**) of the following syllable. The articulation of the back vowel is anticipated in the preceding front vowel, which accordingly develops into a diphthong. Back mutation did not spread equally to all OE dialects.

i → io	hira – h io ra (their) silufr – s io lufr (silver) sifon – s io fon (seven)
e → eo	hefon – h eo fon (heaven) swestar – sw eo star (sister) herot – h eo rot (heart)
a → ea	saru – s ea ru (armour) caru – c ea ru (care)

PALATALIZATION

(Diphthongization after Palatal Consonants)

OE vowels changed under the influence of the initial consonants **ʒ** [j], **c** [k'] and the cluster **sc** [sk']. **ʒ** and **c** influenced only front vowels, while **sc** influenced all vowels. As a result of palatalization, the vowel is diphthongized:

a → ea	scal – s ea l (shall) scacan – s ea can (to shake) scamu – s ea mu (shame)
ā → ēa	ʒār – ʒ ē ar (year)
e → ie	ʒefan – ʒ ie fan (to give) ʒetan – ʒ ie tan (to get)
æ → ea	ʒæf – ʒ ea f (gave) ʒæt – ʒ ea t (gate)
o → eo	scort – s eo rt (short) ʒong – ʒ eo ng (young)



VOWEL LENGTHENING

In the 9th century vowels were lengthened before the clusters **nd**, **ld**, **mb**. i.e. **vowel + nd, ld, mb = long vowel**.

bindan – **bīndan** (to bind)
wild – **wīld** (wild)
cild – **cīld** (child)
climban – **clīmban** (to climb).

If, however, the cluster was followed by another consonant, lengthening did not take place, as in *cildru* (children). The characteristic feature of the clusters in question is that both consonants are articulated by the same speech organ and that they are both voiced.

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, bold, told, comb, bomb*).

CONTRACTION

When **h** was placed between two vowels, the following changes occurred: **h** was dropped; two vowels met and made a long sound.

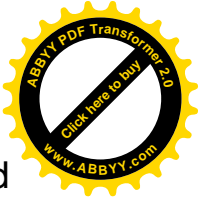
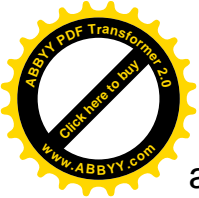
a + h + vowel = ēa	slahan – slēan (to slay)
e + h + vowel = ēo	sehen – sēon (to see)
i + h + vowel = ēo	tihan – tēon (to accuse)
o + h + vowel = ō	fohan – fōn (to catch)
	hohan – hōn (to hang)

Old English Consonants

The system of OE consonant phonemes was formed after the changes, which were called **Grimm's Law** (the first Consonant shift) and **Karl Verner's Law**. After these changes there were two sets of fricative consonants (voiced and voiceless): **f, θ, x, s** and **v, ð, γ, z**.

In EOE voiced fricatives became plosives; this process is called **hardening**: **v → b, ð → d, γ → g, z → r**.

As for the voiceless fricatives they developed new voiced



allophones: **f** → **v, f**; **θ** → **θ, ð**; **s** → **s, z**; **x** → **x, γ**. This process is called **voicing** and **devoicing**.

Common Germanic Fricatives in Old English

	Change illustrated		Examples		NE
	PG	OE	Gt	OE	
Hardening	ð → d		wasida[ð].	werede	wore (past of wear)
	γ → g		guma[γ]	ʒuma[g]	man
Voicing or devoicing	f → v		wulfōs[f]	wulfas[v]	wolves
	f → f		wulfs	wulf	wolf
	s → z		reisan[s]	rīsan[z]	rise, v
	s → s		rais	rās[s]	rose (past of rise)
Rhotacism	z → r		huzd	hord	hord

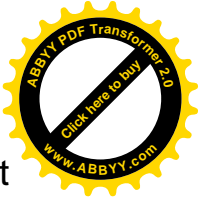
Splitting of Velar Consonants

In Early Old English the consonants [k], [g], [x], [γ] were palatalized before a stressed front vowel and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. The combination [sk] also became palatal: [skʰ] without any positional restrictions. In other positions the consonants remained velar and thus two contrasted sets arose. To the end of OE period [kʰ] → [tʃ]; [gʰ] → [dʒ]; [skʰ] → [ʃ].

	OE	NE	OE	NE	OE	NE	OE	NE
Before and after front vowels	[kʰ] cīld spræce	child speech	[j] dæʒ ʒeard	day yard	[xʰ] niht miht	night might	[skʰ] scip sceap	ship sheep
In other positions	[k] cuppa bōc	cup book	[γ] daʒas boʒa	days bow	[x] hlāf pūhte	loaf thought		

Gemination (Lengthening) of Consonants

In Early Old English, as well as in other dialects of the West Germanic subgroup, most consonants could be lengthened before **j**. The process is known as **gemination of consonants** in West Germanic or **doubling of consonants** as it is shown in spelling by means of double letters. **Gemination** led to the appearance of many new long consonants in the place of short ones.



Gemination of consonants before **j/i** occurred only after a short syllable. In the process, or later, **j** disappeared. All consonants except **r** underwent **gemination**.

- sætian → settan
- fulian → fyllan
- salian → sellan
- talian → tellan

Loss of Consonants

Another process, or rather, group of processes affected considerably not only the consonants, but also the neighbouring vowels. It was the loss of consonants and semivowels in some conditions:

1. Nasal consonants **m, n** were dropped before the fricative consonants (the vowels became long).

- Gothic **fimf** → OE **fīf** (NE five)
- Gothic **uns** → OE **ūs** (NE us)
- Gothic **bronhte** → **brōhte** (NE brought)
- Gothic **onðer** → **ōðer** (NE other)
- Gothic **munð** → **mūð** (NE mouth)

2. **ʒ** was lost before **d** and **n**. The vowel was lengthened too.

- mæʒden** – **mæden** (maiden)
- sæʒde** – **sæde** (said)
- friʒnan** – **frīnan** (ask)

3. Semivowels **j/w** and consonants were lost in unstressed final syllables.

- Nom. – **trēo**, Dat. – **trēowe** (NE - tree)
- Nom. – **sǣ**, Dat. – **sǣwe** (NE sea).

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** **sōcte** – **sōhte** (sought)
- brinʒan** – **brōhte** (bring - brought)
- wyrca**n – **worhte** (work - wrought)
- labial + t = ft** **ʒesceapan** – **ʒeaseaft** (creature)



dental + t = ss	witan – wisse (past tense of <i>witan</i> (knew))
fn → mn	stefn – stemn (voice) efn – emn (even)
fm → mm	wifman – wimman (woman)
dð → t	bindð – bint (binds) stendð – stent (stands)

Metathesis

Metathesis is a phonetic change, which consists in two sounds exchanging their places. It most frequently affects the consonant **r** and the vowel in the following way **cons. + r + vowel = cons. + vowel + r**.

θrida – θirda (third)
brunnan – burnan (burn)
brenna – beorn (a warrior)
hros – hors (horse)

Occasionally metathesis affects other sounds as well:

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



CHAPTER VI. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Old English was a *synthetic* (inflected) type of language. It showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings with the help of simple (synthetic) forms. In building grammatical forms OE used grammatical endings, sound interchange in the root, grammatical prefixes and suppletive formation.

Grammatical endings were the main form-building means. They could be found in all parts of speech that could change their forms.

Sound interchanges were more limited. They were often combined with other form-building means, especially endings.

The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare. It was confined to verbs.

Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives and a couple of verbs.

The OE parts of speech were: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral (nominal parts of speech), the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, the interjection.

Grammatical categories were subdivided into nominal and verbal. There were five nominal categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, definiteness/indefiniteness. The verbal categories were not numerous: tense and mood (proper verbal categories), number and person.

The noun

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

The OE noun had two grammatical categories: number and case. Besides, OE nouns had three genders.

The category of number consisted of singular and plural which were distinguished in all declensions. The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. In most declensions two or three forms were homonymous.



The Meaning of Cases

The Nominative case was the case of a subject, a predicative or an address.

The Genitive case was the case of nouns serving as attributes to other nouns.

The Dative case was the main case to be used with prepositions performing functions of indirect object (cf. NE *with my brother*), adverbial modifier (cf. NE *in the morning*) and means of action (cf. NE *with a pen*).

The Accusative case indicated relations to a verb. It performed a function of a direct object, denoting a recipient of the action or the result of the action.

MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS

I. The morphological classification of Old English nouns rested upon the most ancient Indo-European grouping of nouns according to the stem suffixes. They could consist of:

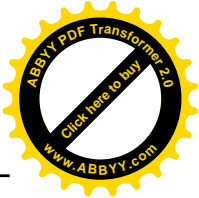
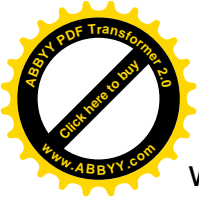
- vowels (vocalic stems) e.g. a-stems, i-stems, u-stems, \bar{o} -stems;
- consonants (consonantal stems) e.g. n-stems, s-stems, r-stems;
- sound sequence (ja-stems, nd-stems, wa-, jo-, wo-stems).
- nouns without stem-forming suffix, with “zero-suffix”. They are usually called “root stems”.

THE CATEGORY OF GENDER

II. Another reason for the division of nouns into numerous declensions was their grouping according to gender. OE nouns had three genders: Masculine, Feminine and Neuter.

Nouns denoting males are normally Masculine – OE *mann, fæder, broðor* (NE *man, father, brother*). Those denoting females – Feminine – OE *mōdor, sweostar, cwēne* (NE *mother, sister, queen*).

But grammatical gender didn't always correspond to sex. OE *widūwa* – Masc. (NE *widower*), OE *widowe* – Fem. (NE *widow*), OE *spinnere* – Masc. (NE *spinner*), OE *spinnestre* – Fem. (NE *spinster*), OE



wīf – Neut. (NE *wife*), OE maȝden – Neut. (NE *maiden*), OE wīfman – Masc. (NE *woman*).

Gender in OE was not always associated with the meaning of nouns. Abstract nouns with the suffix – *þu* were Feminine e.g. OE lenȝþu, hȝhþu (NE *length, height*), nouns with suffix – *ere* were Masc. e.g. OE fiscere, bōcere. (NE – *fisher, learned man*).

III. The next reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic. Monosyllabic nouns with a long root-syllable differed from nouns with a short syllable.

Morphological Classification of Nouns in Old English

Division according to stem

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

Division according to gender

M N	F	M N F	MF	M N F	MF	MNF
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Division according to length of the root-syllable

short long	short long	short long	short long			
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a-stems included Masc. and Neut. nouns. About one third of OE nouns were Masc. **a**-stems. **o**-stems were all Fem., so there was no further subdivision according to gender. The other vocalic stems, **i**-stems, **u**-stems include nouns of different genders. The most numerous group of the consonantal stems were **n**-stems or the weak declension. The other consonantal declensions are called minor consonantal stems as they included small groups of nouns. The most important type is the root-stems. They never had any stem-forming suffix. A small group of nouns denoting family relationship had the stem-suffix – *r*. E.g. broðor, fæder, mōdor (NE *brother, father, mother*).



DECLENSION OF NOUNS

Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems)

a-stems					
Singular					
	M	short-stemmed N	long-stemmed N	ja-stems M	wa-stems N
Nom.	fisc	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
Gen.	fisces	scipes	dēores	endes	cnēowes
Dat.	fisce	scipe	dēore	ende	cnēowe
Acc.	fisce	scip	dēor	ende	cnēo(w)
Plural					
Nom.	fiscas	scipu	dēor	endas	cnēo(w)
Gen.	fisca	scipa	dēora	enda	cnēowa
Dat.	fiscum	scipum	dēorum	endum	cnēowum
Acc.	fiscas (NE fish)	scipu (NE ship)	dēor (NE deer)	endas (NE end)	cnēo(w) (NE knee)

Strong Declensions (Vocalic Stems) (continued)

Singular					
	ō-stems		i- stems	u- stems	
	short-stemmed	long-stemmed	short-stemmed	short-stemmed	long-stemmed
	F	F	M	M	M
Nom.	talū	wund	mete	sunu	feld
Gen.	tale	wunde	metes	sunā	felda
Dat.	tale	wunde	mete	sunā	felda
Acc.	tale	wunde	mete	sunu	felda
Plural					
Nom.	tala, -e	wunda, -e	mete, -as	sunā	felda
Gen.	tala (-ena)	wunda (-ena)	meta	sunā	felda
Dat.	talum	wundum	metum	sunum	feldum
Acc.	tala, -e (NE tale)	wunda, -e (NE wound)	mete, -as («food» NE meat)	sunā (NE son)	felda (NE field)



Consonantal Stems

Singular					
	n-stems(weak declension)			root-stems	
	M	N	F	M	F
Nom.	nama	ēare	tunʒe	fōt	mūs
Gen.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan	fōtes	mȳs
Dat.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan	fēt	mȳs
Acc.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan	fōt	mūs
Plural					
Nom.	naman	ēaran	tunʒan	fēt	mȳs
Gen.	namena	ēarena	tunʒena	fōta	mūsa
Dat.	namum	ēarum	tunʒum	fōtum	mūsum
Acc.	naman (NE <i>name</i>)	ēaran (NE <i>ear</i>)	tunʒan (NE <i>tongue</i>)	fēt (NE <i>foot</i>)	mȳs (NE <i>mouse</i>)

The Pronoun

In Old English there were several types of pronouns: *personal*, *demonstrative*, *interrogative* and *indefinite*. *Relative*, *possessive* and *reflexive* pronouns in OE were not fully developed. As for the grammatical categories they were similar to those of nouns in “noun-pronouns” (pronouns used instead of nouns) and those of adjectives in “adjective-pronouns”.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

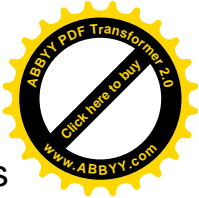
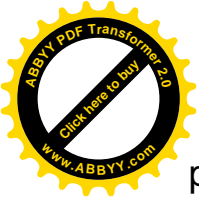
The OE personal pronouns had three persons (the first, the second and the third); three numbers (singular, plural and dual – in the first and second person); three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter).

Personal pronouns as well as nouns had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. The peculiarity of the usage of cases in the pronouns is that Dative case in the first and second persons was used instead of Accusative case. In plural we observe the fusion of two cases. Genitive case had two applications:

- 1) object;
- 2) attribute (a noun determiner);

e.g. sunu mīn – *my son*, his fæder – *his father*.

But though the Genitive case was used in the same function as the



possessive pronouns, they were not the same. Their grammatical forms were not homogeneous. The forms of the first and second persons – *mīn*, *ūre* and others were declined like adjectives to show their agreement with nouns they modified. The forms of the third person – *his*, *hire* – were declined like nouns. They remained uninflected and did not agree with nouns.

In OE personal pronouns in combination with the adjective *self* could serve as reflexive pronouns.

e.g. *him selfum*, *þu self*, *ūs sylfe*.

Declension of Personal Pronouns

First person			
	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nom.	ic	wit	wē
Gen.	mīn	uncer	ūre, ūser
Dat.	mē	unc	ūs
Acc.	mec, mē	uncit	ūsic, ūs
Second person			
Nom.	þū	ʒit	ʒē
Gen.	þīn	incer	ēower
Dat.	þē	inc	ēow
Acc.	þēc, þē	incit, inc	ēowic, ēow

Third person				
	Singular			Plural
	M	F	N	All genders
Nom.	hē	hēo, hīo	hit	hīe, hī, hȳ, hēo
Gen.	his	hire, hierē	his	hira, heora, hiera, hyra
Dat.	him	hire, hierē	him	him, heom
Acc.	hine	hīe, hī, hȳ	hit	hīe, hī, hȳ, hēo

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

In Old English there were only two demonstrative pronouns: *sē* and *þes*. The first *sē* indicated something far, and was the prototype of the NE *that*. It had three genders in singular and one form for all genders in plural. The second pronoun *þes* indicated something near and was the prototype of the NE *this*. It also had three forms in singular and one form in plural. Both of them agreed in number, gender and case with the nouns they modified. In a number of cases they had a weakened meaning, approaching the function of an article, e.g. *sē mann* “the man”, *sēo sǣ* “the sea”, *þæt land* “the land”.



Declension of *sē*, *sēo*, *þæt*

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

Declension of *þes*, *þis*, *þeos*

Case	Singular			Plural
	M	N	F	
Nom.	<i>þes</i>	<i>þis</i>	<i>þeos</i> , <i>þios</i>	All genders <i>þās</i>
Gen.	<i>þisses</i>	<i>þisses</i>	<i>þisse</i>	<i>þissa</i>
Dat.	<i>þissum</i> , <i>þeossum</i>	<i>þissum</i> , <i>þeossum</i>	<i>þisse</i>	<i>þissum</i> , <i>þeossum</i>
Acc.	<i>þisne</i> , <i>þysne</i>	<i>þis</i>	<i>þas</i>	<i>þās</i>
Inst.	<i>þys</i> , <i>þis</i>	<i>þys</i> , <i>þis</i>	–	–

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

In OE the interrogative pronouns *hwā* “who” and *hwæt* “what” had the category of case, but did not change in number. They had only singular forms.

Nom.	<i>hwā</i>	<i>hwæt</i>
Gen.	<i>hwæs</i>	<i>hwæs</i>
Dat.	<i>hwæm</i>	<i>hwæm</i>
Acc.	<i>hwone</i>	<i>hwæt</i>
Inst.	–	<i>hwȳ</i> , <i>hwi</i>

The interrogative pronoun *hwilc* “which” is declined as a strong adjective.

Nom.	<i>hwilc</i>
Gen.	<i>hwilces</i>
Dat.	<i>hwilcum</i>
Acc.	<i>hwilcne</i>
Inst.	<i>hwilce</i>



INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

OE *indefinite pronouns* included such pronouns as *sum*, *ǣniȝ*. They were used in preposition to nouns and were declined like strong adjectives. Another indefinite pronoun is *man*, used in the meaning *any individual, anyone or people in general*.

OTHER CLASSES OF PRONOUNS

OE *definite pronouns* included the following: *ȝehwā* “everyone”, *ȝehwæt* “everything”, *ȝehwilc* “each, every”, *ǣȝper* “each of the two, every”, *swilc* “such”, *ǣlc* “each”, *sē ilca* “the same”. All of them but the last declined like strong adjectives. *Sē ilca* “the same” always declined weak.

OE *negative pronouns* were formed from a negative particle *ne-* and indefinite pronoun *ǣniȝ* (*nǣniȝ*) or negative particle *ne-* and numeral *ān* in its pronominal function (*nān*). Both *nān* and *nǣniȝ* were declined like the corresponding words without the particle *ne-* – as strong adjectives.

OE *relative pronoun* *pe* is used very often in OE texts. It introduced relative clauses and was later replaced by a group of pronouns and adverbs (*that, which, where, when, how*).

The Adjective

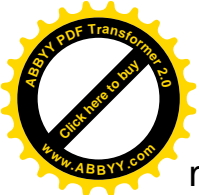
The OE adjective had the following categories:

- number (singular and plural);
- gender (Masculine, Feminine and Neuter);
- case (Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative and Instrumental)

Instrumental case was used when the adjective was used as an attribute to a noun in Dative expressing an instrumental meaning.

e.g. *lȳtle werede* = with (the help of) a small troop.

The adjectives had two declensions: strong and weak. The formal difference was similar to noun declensions. Strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in Proto-Germanic: vocalic *a*, *ō*, *u*, *i* and consonantal *n*. The endings of strong declension



mainly coincided with the endings of *a*-stems of the noun for the adjective in masculine and neuter and of *o*-stems in feminine with some differences between long and short stemmed adjectives, variants with *j*, *w*, monosyllabic and polysyllabic adjectives and some remnants of other stems. Some endings in strong declension had no parallels in noun paradigms. They were similar to endings of pronouns: *-um* for Dat.sg, *-ne* for Acc.sg.masc, *[r]* in some fem. and pl. endings. That is why strong declension is also called “pronominal” declension.

Weak declension used the same markers as *-n*-stem of nouns except that in the Gen.pl the pronominal ending *-ra* was often used instead of the weak *-ena*.

Most adjectives could be declined according to strong and weak declensions. The choice of declension depended on semantic factors:

- syntactical function of the adjective;
- degree of comparison;
- presence of noun determiners.

The weak form of the adjective was used after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun or a noun in the Genitive case, no matter if the adjective was before the noun or after it.

e.g. *þæt wēste land* = that uninhabited land.

Adjectives had strong declension when used predicatively and attributively without noun determiners: *þā menn sindon ȝōde* = the men are good.

Exceptions:

- a few adjectives were always declined as strong: *eall* (all), *maniȝ* (many), *oper* (other);
- several adjectives were always weak. They were adjectives in superlative and comparative degrees, ordinal numerals and *ilka* (same).

There was semantic contrast between strong and weak forms. Strong forms were associated with the meaning of indefiniteness (semantically they were close to indefinite article), weak forms – with definiteness (close to definite article).



DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES

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

DEGREES OF COMPARISON

OE adjectives had three degrees of comparison: *positive, comparative and superlative*.

Means of their forming:

- suffixes *-ra* (comparative) and *-est/-ost* (superlative);
- suffixes with interchange of the root vowel (in *long, eald, Ʒlæd*).

Some adjectives had parallel sets of forms: with and without interchange of the root vowel.

The adjective *Ʒod* had suppletive forms. Suppletion was a very old way of building the degrees of comparison in other Indo-European languages: Ukr гарний – кращий; R хороший – лучше; G gut – besser.

Comparison of Adjectives in Old English

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Suffixation	soft wēriƷ	softra wēriƷra	softost wēriƷost	soft weary
Suffixation plus vowel interchange	Ʒlæd lonƷ eald (also	Ʒlædra lenƷra ieldra ealdra	Ʒladost lenƷest ieldest ealdost, ealdest)	glad long old
Suppletion	Ʒōd lȳtel micel	bettra læssa māra	bet(e)st læst mæst	good little much



The Numeral

Old English had a decimal system of numerals of common Indo-European origin, based on “ten”. Numerals from 1 to 12 were simple in structure.

E.g. 5- *fīf*, 6- *siex*, 10- *tīen*.

Numerals from 13 to 19 were derivatives, formed with the help of suffix *-tēne* (*-tīen*, *-tȳne*), corresponding to numeral “ten”.

E.g. 15- *fīftēne* (*fīftīene*, *fīftȳne*), 16- *siextēne* (*siextȳne*).

Numerals from 20 to 60 were formed with the help of suffix *-tiȝ*,

E.g. 30- *þrītiȝ*, 50- *fīftiȝ*, 60- *siextiȝ*.

Numerals from 70 to 120 preserved the traces of very old Babylonian-Assyrian duodecimal system, based on 12,

E.g. 80- *hundehtatiȝ*, 120- *hundtwelftiȝ*.

CARDINAL NUMERALS

1	<i>ān</i>	20	<i>twentiȝ</i>
2	<i>twā</i>	21	<i>twentiȝ</i> and <i>ān</i>
3	<i>þrīe</i>	30	<i>þrītiȝ</i>
4	<i>fēower</i>	40	<i>fēowertiȝ</i>
5	<i>fīf</i>	50	<i>fīftiȝ</i>
6	<i>six, syx, siex</i>	60	<i>siextiȝ</i>
7	<i>seofon, syofon</i>	70	<i>siofontiȝ</i>
8	<i>eahta</i>	80	<i>eahtatiȝ</i>
9	<i>niȝon</i>	90	<i>niȝontiȝ</i>
10	<i>tīen, tȳn</i>	100	<i>hundtēontiȝ</i> , <i>hund</i> , <i>hundred</i>
11	<i>endlefan</i>	110	<i>hundælleftiȝ</i>
12	<i>twelf</i>	120	<i>hundtwelftiȝ</i>
13	<i>þrīotīene</i>	200	<i>tū hund</i>
14	<i>fēowertīene</i>	1000	<i>þūsend</i>
15	<i>fīftīene</i>	2000	<i>tū þūsendu</i>

Numerals from 1 to 3 were declined. 1- *ān* was declined like a strong adjective, could be only singular, but had masculine, neuter and feminine genders. 2- *tweȝen*, *tū*, *twā* and 3- *þrīe*, *þrīo*, *þrēo*, were declined like this:



2-twā:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	twēȝen	tū, twa	twā
G		twēȝea, twēȝra	
D		twæm, twām	
A	twēȝen	tū, twā	twā

So, the genders have difference only in Nominative and Accusative cases, and indirect cases (Genitive and Dative) have common forms for all three genders. No number can be changed for it, and originally this numeral was dual, which seems natural.

3- þrīe:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	þrīe, þrī, þrȳ	þrīo, þrēo	þrīo, þrēo
G		þrīora, þrēora	
D		þrīm	
A	þrīe, þrī, þrȳ	þrīo, þrēo	þrīo, þrēo

It looks like a typical i-stem noun. Strange is the following: while in the case of “two” the Modern English lost masculine and neuter forms and picked up the feminine one for use (“two” < twā), here we have another case, when the feminine and neuter were forgotten, and today’s *three* comes directly from the masculine *þrīe*.

Numbers consisting of tens and units were denoted in the following way: 22- *twā and twentiȝ*, 48- *eahta and fēowertiȝ*.

Cardinal Numerals in OE, ME and NE

Forming suffixes:

OE **ME** **NE**

tīene → tene → teen (13-19)

(hund)...tiȝ → ty → ty (20-90)

Compound numerals:

22

48

OE *twā and twentig*

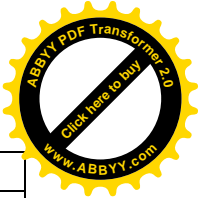
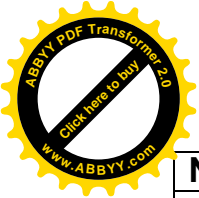
eahta and fēowertig

ME *twō and twenty*

eighte and forty

NE *twenty-two*

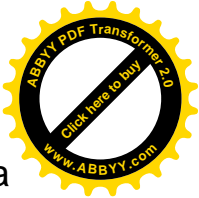
forty-eight



Numeral	OE	ME	NE
1	ān	ōn	one
2	twoþen, tū, twā	twō, tweie(n)	two
3	þrīe, þrīo, þrēo	thrē	three
4	fēower	fower, four	four
5	fīf	fīve	five
6	siex, six, syx	six	six
7	seofon, siofon, syofon	seven	seven
8	eahta	eighte	eight
9	niþon	niþen, nīn, nīne	nine
10	tīen, tȳn, tēn	ten	ten
11	endlefan	enleven, elleven	eleven
12	twelf	twelf, twelve	twelve
13	þrīotīene, -tȳne	thirtene	thirteen
14	fēowertīene	fourtene	fourteen
15	fīftīene	fiftene	fifteen
16	sīextīene	sixtene	sixteen
17	siofontīene	seventene	seventeen
18	eahtatīene	eighte(te)ne	eighteen
19	niþontīene	niþentene, nīntene	nineteen
20	twentiþ	twenty	twenty
30	þrītiþ	thritty, thirty	thirty
40	fēowertiþ	fourty	forty
50	fīftiþ	fifty	fifty
60	sīextiþ, sixtiþ	sixty	sixty
70	hundsiofontiþ	seventy	seventy
80	hundeahatiþ	eighty	eighty
90	hundniþontiþ	nīnty	ninety
100	hundtēontiþ, hundredhund	hundred	hundred
110	hundælleftiþ	ōn hundred ten	one hundred ten
120	hundtwelftiþ	ōn hundred twenty	one hundred twenty
200	tū hund	twō hundred	two hundred
300	þrēo hund	thrē hundred	three hundred
1000	þusend	thousand	thousand
2000	tū þusend	twō thousand	two thousand

ORDINAL NUMERALS

1	forma, fyresta	12	twelfta
2	ōþer, æfterra	13	þrēotēoþa
3	þrida, þirda	14	fēowertēoþa
4	fēorþa	15	fīftēoþa
5	fīfta	16	sixtēoþa
6	siexta, syxta	17	siofontēoþa
7	siofoþa	18	eahtatēoþa
8	eahtoþa	20	twentiþoþa
9	niþoþa	30	þrittithoþa
10	tēoþa	40	fēowertiþoþa
11	endlefta	50	fīftithoþa
100	hundtēontioþa		



Ordinal numerals from cardinal numerals 1, 2, 3 were formed in a suppletive way *ān - fyrst, tweþen - oþer, þreō - þridda, þirda*. The rest ordinal numerals used the suffix *-þ* after numerals ending in a vowel or a sonorant, or *-t* after a voiceless consonant.

The two variants for the word “first” actually mean different attributes: *forma* is translated as “forward”, and *fyresta* is “the farthest”, “the first”. Again double variants for the second nominal *oþer, æfterra* mean respectively “the other” and “the following”.

Compound ordinal numerals containing both tens and units had such variants: the 22nd - *twā and twentiþopa* (two and twentieth), or *oþer ēac twentiþum* (second with twenty), 48th- *eahta and feortiþopa* (eight and fortieth) or *eahtopa ēac feowertiþum* (eighth with forty).

OE ordinal numerals are declined as weak adjectives, except *oþer* (second), that is declined as a strong adjective.

Ordinal Numerals in OE, ME and NE

Forming suffixes:	OE	ME	NE
	-ta, -opa	→ -te, -the	→ -th
	-tēopa	→ -tenthe	→ -teenth(13-19)
	-tiþopa	→ -tithe	→ -tieth (20-90)

Numeral	OE	ME	NE
1	forma, fyresta	fīrst	first
2	oþer, æfterra	second	second
3	þridda, þirda	thirde	third
4	fēorþa, fēorþ	fourthe	fourth
5	fīfta	fifte	fifth
6	siexta, sixta, syxta	sixte	sixth
7	siofoþa	seventhe, sevethe	seventh
8	eahtopa	eighte	eighth
9	niþopa	nīnthe	ninth
10	tēopa	tenthe	tenth
11	endlefta	eleventhe	eleventh
12	twelfta	twelfth	twelfth
13	þreotēopa	thirtenthe	thirteenth
14	fēowertēopa	fourtenthe	fourteenth
20	twentiþopa	twentithe	twentieth
30	þrittiþopa	thirtithe	thirtieth
40	fēowertiþoða	fourtithe	fortieth



70	hundsiofontiʒopa	seventithe	seventieth
80	hundeahitatiʒopa	eightithe	eightieth
90	hundniʒontiʒopa	nīntithe	ninetieth
100	hundtēontioʒopa	hundredthe	hundredth
110	hundtwelftiʒopa	ōn hundred tenth	one hundred tenth
120	hundtwelftiʒopa	ōn hundred twentieth	one hundred twentieth
1000	pusendtiʒopa	thousandthe	thousandth

ME milliounthe → NE millionth

Writing Numerals



9TH CENTURY.



12TH CENTURY.



13TH CENTURY.



14TH CENTURY.





The Verb

STRONG VERBS

Modern English makes a distinction between regular and irregular verbs. This distinction goes back to the Old English system of strong and weak verbs: the ones which used the ancient Germanic type of conjugation (the Ablaut), and the ones which just added endings to their past and participle forms. Strong verbs make the clear majority. According to the traditional division, which is taken from Gothic and is accepted by modern linguistics, all strong verbs are distinguished between seven classes, each having its peculiarities in conjugation and in the stem structure. It is easy to define which verb is which class, so you will not swear trying to identify the type of conjugation of this or that verb (unlike the situation with the substantives).

Here is the table which is composed for you to see the root vowels of all strong verb classes. Except the VII class, they all have exact stem vowels for all four main forms:

Class	I	II	IIIa	IIIb	IIIc	IV	V	VI	VII
Inf.	ī	ēo	i	eo	e	e	e	a	diff.
Past sg.	ā	ēa	a	ea	ea	æ	æ	ō	ē, eo, ēo
Past pl.	i	u	u	u	u	ǣ	ǣ	ō	ē, eo, ēo
Part. II	i	o	u	u	o	o	e	a	a, ā, ea

Below it all is explained in detail. And by now you can easily see that while Modern English has three basic verb forms (a nightmare for school pupils all over the world), Old English was terrible enough to have even four of them, because past singular and plural forms were quite different from each other sometimes.

Now let us see what Old English strong verbs of all those seven classes looked like and what were their main four forms. It should be mentioned that besides the vowel changes in the stem, verbal forms also changed stem consonants very often. See for yourselves this little chart where the samples of strong verb classes are given with their four forms:

Infinitive, Past singular, Past plural, Participle II (or Past Participle).



Class I ī – ā – i – i

wrītan (to write), wrāt, writon, written;
rīsan (to rise), rās, rison, risen;
snīpan (to cut), snāþ, snidon, sniden.

Other examples: belīfan (stay), clīfan (cling), ygrīpan (clutch), bītan (bite), slītan (slit), besmītan (dirty), gewītan (go), blīcan (glitter), sīcan (sigh), stīgan (mount), scīnan (shine), ārīsan (arise), līpan (go).

Class II ēo-ēa-u-o

bēodan (to offer), bēad, budon, boden;
frēosan (to freeze), frēas, fruron, froren;
cēosan (to choose), cēas, curon, coren.

Other examples: crēopan (creep), clēofan (cleave), flēotan (fleet), gēotan (pour), grēotan (weep), nēotan (enjoy), scēotan (shoot), lēogan (lie), brēowan (brew), drēosan (fall), forlēosan (lose).

Class III

a) *a nasal consonant + another consonant* i- a(o)- u- u

drincan (to drink), dranc, druncon, drunken;
findan (to find), fand, fundon, funden.

Others: swindan (vanish), onginnan (begin), sinnan (reflect), winnan (work), gelimpan (happen), swimman (swim).

b) *l + a consonant* i/e-ēa-u-o

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

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

c) *r, h + a consonant* eo-ēa-u-o

steorfan (to die), stearf, sturfon, storfen;
weorpan (to become), wearþ, wurdon, worden;
feohtan (to fight), feaht, fuhton, fohten

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

Class IV e – æ – æ – o

stelan (to steal), stæl, stælon, stolen;
teran (to tear), tær, tæron, toren;
beran (to bear), bær, bæron, boren.

Others: cwelan (die), helan (conceal), breacan (break).



Class V e – æ - ǣ -e

tredan (to tread), træd, trædon, treden;
sprecan (to speak), spræc, spræcon, sprecen;
cweþan (to say), cwæþ, cwædon, cweden.

Others: metan (measure), swefan (sleep), wefan (weave),
wrecan (persecute), lesan (gather), etan (eat), wesan (be).

Class VI a -ō-ō- a

faran (to go), fōr, fōron, faren;
stæppan (to step), stōp, stōpon, stapen.

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

Class VII

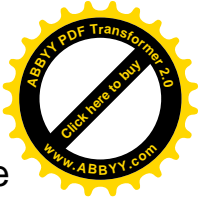
hatan (to call), hēt, hēton, haten a –ē–ē –a
feallan (to fall), feoll, feollon, feallen ea- eo -eo -ea
cnēawan (to know), cnēow, cnēowon, cnāwen ēa –ēo –ēo- ā

Others: blondan (blend), ondrædan (fear), lācan (jump), scadan
(divide), fealdan (fold), healdan (hold), sponnan (span), bēatan (beat),
blōwan (flourish), hlōwan (low), spōwan (flourish), māwan (mow), sāwan
(sow), rāwan (turn).

So, the rule from the table above is observed carefully. The VII class was made especially for those verbs which did not fit into any of the six classes. In fact the verbs of the VII class are irregular and cannot be explained by a certain exact rule, though they are quite numerous in the language.

WEAK VERBS IN OLD ENGLISH

The weak verbs did not exist in the Proto-Indo-European language. Many linguists consider weak verbs the derivatives from nouns or adjectives (like Gothic *fulljan* 'to fill' from *full* 'full'), which made such verbs secondary in relation to strong ones. There are still other versions, but morphologically the difference is quite clear.



The weak verbs in Old English (today's English regular verbs) were conjugated in a simpler way than the strong ones, and did not use the ablaut interchanges of the vowel stems. Weak verbs are divided into three classes which had only slight differences though. They did have the three forms - the infinitive, the past tense, the participle II. Here is the table.

Class I *Regular Verbs*

Inf.	Past	PP
-an / -ian	-de/ -ede/ -te	-ed /-t/ -d
dēman (to judge)	dēmde	dēmed
hīeran (to hear)	hīerde	hīered
nerian (to save)	nerede	nered
styrian (to stir)	styrede	styred
fremman (to commit)	fremede	fremed
cnyssan (to push)	cnysede	cnysed

When the suffix is preceded by a voiceless consonant the ending changes a little bit:

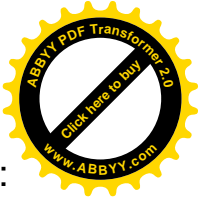
cēpan (to keep)	cēpte	cēpt / cēped
grētan (to greet)	grētte	grēt / grēted

If the verb stem ends in a consonant plus **d** or **t**:

sendan (to send)	sende	send / sended
restan (to rest)	reste	rest / rested

IRREGULAR VERBS

sellan (to give)	sealde	seald
tellan (to tell)	tealde	teald
cwellan (to kill)	cwealde	cweald
tācan (to teach)	tāhte	tāht
rācan (to reach)	rāhte	rāht
bycgan (to buy)	bohte	boht
sēcan (to seek)	sōhte	sōht
wyrcan (to work)	worhte	worth
pencan (to think)	þohte	þoht
bringan (to bring)	brohte	broht



Other examples of the I class weak verbs just for your interest: berian (beat), derian (harm), erian (plough), ferian (go), herian (praise), gremman (be angry), wennan (accustom), clynnan (sound), dynnan (resound), hlynnan (roar), hrissan (tremble), sceppan (harm), wecgean (move), fēran (go), lāeran (teach), dræfan (drive), fȳsan (hurry), drȳgean (dry), hīeþan (heap), mētan (to meet), wȳscean (wish), byldan (build), wendan (turn), efstan (hurry). All these are regular.

Class II

- ian	- ode	- od
macian (to make)	macode	macod
lufian (to love)	lufode	lufod
hopian (to hope)	hopode	hopod

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

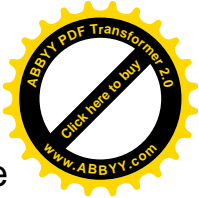
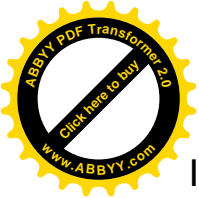
Class III

- an	- de	- d
habban (to have)	hæfde	hæfd
libban (to live)	lifde	lifd
secgan (to say)	sægde	sægd
hycgan (to think)	hogde	hogod
þreagan (to threaten)	þrēade	þrēad
smēagan (to think)	smeade	smead
frēogan (to free)	frēode	frēod
fēogan (to hate)	fēode	fēod

These are just seven, so they are worth learning by heart.

We offer you the examples of the basic forms of both strong and weak, regular and irregular verbs of the Old English. But how to say, for example, in Old English *I have, you thought, we were brought?* The answer to this question is the conjugation which follows.

Old English verbs are conjugated having two tenses - the Present tense and the Past tense, and three moods - Indicative, Subjunctive, and



Imperative. Of these, only the Subjunctive mood has disappeared in the English language, acquiring an analytic construction instead of inflections; and the Imperative mood has coincided with the infinitive form (to write - write!). In the Old English period they all looked different.

The common table of the verb conjugation is given below. Here you should notice that the Present tense has the conjugation for all three moods, while the Past tense - for only two moods (no Imperative in the Past tense, naturally). Some more explanation should be given about the stem types.

In fact all verbal forms were generated in Old English from three verb stems, and each verb had its own three ones: the Infinitive stem, the Past Singular stem, the Past Plural stem. For the verb *writan*, for example, those three stems are: *writ-* (infinitive without the ending -an), *wrāt-* (the Past singular), *writ-* (the Past plural without the ending -on). The table below explains where to use this or that stem.

	Present		Past	
	Singular (inf. stem +)	Plural (inf. stem +)	Singular	Plural (past plural stem +)
1st person (I, we)	-e	-ap	Past singular stem	-on
2nd person (thou, you)	-est	-ap	Past plural stem+ -e	-on
3rd person (he, she, they)	-ep	-ap	Past singular stem	-on
Subjunctive	-e	-en	Past plural stem + -e	-en
Imperative	infinitive stem	-ap		

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

Tired of the theory? Here is the practice. We give several examples of the typical verbs - first strong, then weak, then irregular.



Class I strong - writan (to write)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 write		-	wrat	
	2 writest	} write	writ	write	} write
	3 writēþ		-	wrat	
Pl.	writap	writen	writap	writon	writen
Infinitive			Participle		
writan			I writende II gewriten		

Class III strong - bindan (to bind)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 binde		-	band, bond	
	2 bindest	} binde	bind	bunde	} bunde
	3 bindeþ		-	band, bond	
Pl.	bindap	binden	bindap	bundon	bunden
Infinitive			Participle		
bindan			I bindende II gebunden		

Class V strong - seon (to see)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 seo		-	seah	
	2 siehst	} seo	seoh	sawe	} sawe
	3 siehþ		-	seah	sæge
Pl.	seop	seon	seop	sawon	sawen
Infinitive			Participle		
seon			I seonde II gesewen, gesegen		

Class VII strong - fon (to catch)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 fo		-	feng	
	2 fehs	} fo	foh	fenge	} fenge
	3 fehþ		-	feng	
Pl.	fop	fon	fop	fengon	fengen
Infinitive			Participle		
fon			I fonde II gefangen, gefongen		



Class I weak - styrian (to stir)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 styrie		-	styrede	
	2 styrest	} styrie	styre	styredest	} styrede
	3 styrep		-	styrede	
Pl.	styriap	styrien	styriap	styredon	styreden
Infinitive			Participle		
styrian			I styriende II gestyred		

Class I weak - tellan (to tell)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 telle		-	tealde	
	2 tellest	} telle	tele, tell	tealdest	} tealde
	3 tellep		-	tealde	
Pl.	tellap	tellen	tellap	tealdon	tealden
Infinitive			Participle		
tellan			I tellende II geteald		

Class II weak - lufian (to love)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 lufie		-	lufode	
	2 lufast	} lufie	lufa	lufodest	} lufode
	3 lufap		-	lufode	
Pl.	lufiap	lufien	lufiap	lufodon	lufoden
Infinitive			Participle		
lufian			I lufiende II gelufod		

Class III weak - secgan (to say)

	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1 secge		-	sægde	
	2 sægst	} secge	sæge	sægdest	} sægde
	3 sægp		-	sægde	
Pl.	secgap	secgen	secgap	sægdon	sægden
Infinitive			Participle		
secgan			I secgende II gesægd		



Class III weak - libban (to live)

Sg.	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
	1 libbe		-	lifde	
	2 liofast	} libbe	liofa	lifdest	} lifde
	3 liofap		-	lifde	
Pl.	libbap	libben	libbap	lifdon	lifden
Infinitive			Participle		
libban			I libbende II gelifd		

Class III weak - habban (to have)

Sg.	Pres.			Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imper.	Ind.	Subj.
	1 hæbbe		-	hæfde	
	2 hafast	} hæbbe	hafa	hæfdest	} hæfden
	3 hafap		-	hæfde	
Pl.	habbap		habbap	hæfdon	hæfden
Infinitive			Participle		
habban			I hæbbende II gehæfd		

PRESENT-PRETERITE VERBS IN OLD ENGLISH

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

Present-Preterite verbs have their Present tense forms generated from the Strong Past, and the Past tense, instead, looks like the Present Tense of the Weak verbs. The verbs we present here are the following: *witan* (to know), *cunnan* (can), *þurfan* (to need), *dearan* (to dare), *munan* (to remember), *sculan* (shall), *magan* (may).

Present of **witan** (=strong Past)

	Ind.	Subj.	Imp.
Sg.	1. wat	wite	-
	2. wast	wite	wite
	3. wat	wite	-
Pl.	witon	witen	witap



Past (=Weak)

	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. wisse, wiste	wisse, wiste
	2. wissest, wistest	wisse, wiste
	3. wisse, wiste	wisse, wiste
Pl.	wisson, wiston	wissen, wisten
Participles: I witende, II witen, gewiten		

Cunnan (can)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. cann	cunne	cūþe	cūþe
	2. canst	cunne	cūþest	cūþe
	3. cann	cunne	cūþe	cūþe
Pl.	cunnon	cunnen	cūþon	cūþen

þurfan (need)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. þearf	þurfe	þorfte	þorfte
	2. þearft	þurfe	þorftest	þorfte
	3. þearf	þurfe	þorfte	þorfte
Pl.	þurfon	þurfen	þorfton	þorfthen

Dearan (dare)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. dear	durre	dorste	dorste
	2. dearest	durre	dorstest	dorste
	3. dear	durre	dorste	dorste
Pl.	durron	durren	dorston	dorsten

Sculan (shall)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. sceal	scule	sceolde	sceolde
	2. scealt	scule	sceoldost	sceolde
	3. sceall	scule	sceolde	sceolde
Pl.	sculon		sceoldon	sceolden



Munan (remember)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. man	mune	munde	munde
	2. manst	mune	mundest	munde
	3. man	mune	munde	munde
Pl.	munon	munen	mundon	

Magan (may)

	Pres.		Past.	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. mæg	mæge	meahte	mihte, mihten
	2. meaht	mæge	meahtest	mihte, mihten
	3. mæg	mæge	meahte	mihte, mihten
Pl.	magon	mægen	meahton	

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

IRREGULAR VERBS IN OLD ENGLISH

And now, finally, a few irregular verbs, which used several different stems for their tenses. These verbs are very important in Old English and are met very often in the texts: *wesan* (to be), *beon* (to be), *gan* (to go), *don* (to do), *willan* (will). Mind that there was no Future tense in the Old English language, and the future action was expressed by the Present forms, just sometimes using verbs of modality, *willan* (lit. "to wish to do") or *sculan* (lit. "to have to do").

Wesan (to be) - has got only the Present tense forms, uses the verb **bēon** in the Past.

Present

	Ind.	Subj.	Imp.
Sg.	1. eom	-	-
	2. eart	sie, sȳ	wes
	3. is	-	-
Pl.	sind	sīen, sȳn	wesap



Bēon (to be)

Present			
	Ind.	Subj.	Imp.
Sg.	1. bēo	bēo	-
	2. bist	bēo	beo
	3. biþ	bēo	-
Pl.	bēoþ	bēon	bēoþ

Past		
	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. wæs	wære
	2. wære	wære
	3. wæs	wære
Pl.	wæron	wæren

Participle I is bēonde (being).

Gān (to go)

Pres.				Past	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imp.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. gā	gā	-	ēode	ēode
	2. gāest	gā	gā	ēodest	ēode
	3. gāþ	gā	-	ēode	ēode
Pl.	gāþ	gān	gāþ	ēodon	ēoden

Participles: I gānde, gangende II gegān

Dōn (to do)

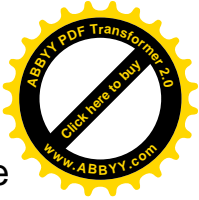
Pres.				Past	
	Ind.	Subj.	Imp.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. dō	dō	-	dyde	dyde
	2. dēst	dō	dō	dydest	dyde
	3. dēþ	dō	-	dyde	dyde
Pl.	dōþ	dōn	dōþ	dydon	dyden

Participles: I dōnde II gedōn

Willan (will)

Pres.			Past	
	Ind.	Subj.	Ind.	Subj.
Sg.	1. wille	wille	wolde	wolde
	2. wilt	wille	woldest	wolde
	3. wile	wille	wolde	wolde
Pl.	willap	willen	woldon	wolden

Participle I willende



So, there were in fact two verbs meaning 'to be', and both were colloquial. In Middle English, however, the verb *wesan* replaced fully the forms of *beon*, and the words *beo* (I am), *bist* (thou art) fell out of use. The Past tense forms *was* and *were* were also derivatives from *wesan*.

A little bit more about Old English tenses. Syntactically, the language had only two main tenses – the Present and the Past. No Progressive (or Continuous) tenses were used; they were invented only in the Early Middle English period. Such complex tenses as modern Future-in-the-Past, Future Perfect Continuous did not exist either. However, some analytic constructions were in use, and first of all the perfective constructions. The example *Hie geweorc geworhten hæfdon* 'they have built a fortress' shows the exact Perfect tense, but at that time it was not the tense really, just a participle construction showing that the action has been done. Seldom you can also find such Past constructions, which later became the Past Perfect Tense.

Now some practical examples for you to check your Old English:

Spræce Englisc tung – I speak English.

Siehst þu þa duru? – Do you see the door?

Her comm se here into Escanceastre from Werham – Here came that army to Escancaster from Werham (mind that *her* is 'here' and *here* is 'an army').

And Asser biscop gefor æfter þæm – And Asser the bishop gone after those (i.e. has gone after them).

On þysum geare com micel sciphere hider ofer suþan of Lidwiccum, and twegen eorlas mid, Ohtor and Hroald – This year a large army came with ships south to Lidwich, and two earls together with them, Ohtor and Roald.

Verbs syntax includes a number of suffixes and prefixes which can be met in Old English texts and especially in poetry:

Suffixes:

1. -s-(from substantive or adjective stems) – *mærsian* (to announce; from *mære*-famous)
2. -læc- *nēalæcan* (to approach)
3. -ett- *bliccettan* (to sparkle)



Prefixes:

1. a- =out of, from – arīsan (arise), awakan (awake), aberan (sustain)
2. be- =over, around, by – begān (go round), beþēncan (think over), behēafdian (behead)
3. for- =destruction or loss – fordōn (destroy), forweorþan (perish)
4. mis- =negation or bad quality – mislīcian (displease)
5. on- =change or separation – onbindan (unbind), onlūcan (unlock)
6. to- =destruction – tobrecan (break)



CHAPTER VII. OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Studying the history of English can't be full without studying the vocabulary of every period. The full extent of the OE vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. Some OE words were lost together with the texts that were not preserved till our days; some colloquial words were not used in written texts.

The Old English vocabulary was mainly homogenous. Loan words were mainly insignificant.

Native words were subdivided into:

I. **Common Indo-European words.** They were inherited from the common Indo-European language and belonged to the oldest layer. They denoted:

a) *terms of kinship*

- OE fæder (NE *father*) cf. Lat pater
- OE brōþor (NE *brother*) cf. Ukr брат
- OE modor (NE *mother*) cf. Ukr мати
- OE sweostor (NE *sister*) cf. Ukr сестра
- OE sunu (NE *son*) cf. Ukr син
- OE swehur (NE *father-in-law*) cf. Ukr свекор

b) *natural phenomena*

- OE snāw (NE *snow*) cf. Ukr сніг
- OE wæter (NE *water*) cf. Ukr вода
- OE wind (NE *wind*) cf. Ukr вітер
- OE dæȝ (NE *day*) cf. Ukr день
- OE mōna (NE *moon*) cf. Ukr місяць
- OE nieht (NE *night*) cf. Ukr ніч

c) *plants and animals*

- OE trēow (NE *tree*) cf. Ukr дерево
- OE þorn (NE *thorn*) cf. Ukr терен
- OE ryȝe (NE *rye*) cf. Rus рожь
- OE mūs (NE *mouse*) cf. Ukr миша
- OE fisc (NE *fish*) cf. Ukr пічкур
- OE swīn (NE *swine*) cf. Ukr свиня



d) *parts of the body*

- OE heorte (NE *heart*) cf. Ukr серце
- OE earm (NE *arm*) cf. Ukr рамена
- OE nosu (NE *nose*) cf. Ukr ніс
- OE beard (NE *beard*) cf. Ukr борода
- OE lippa (NE *lip*) cf. Rus улыбка

e) *verbs denoting basic activities of man*

- OE etan (NE *to eat*) cf. Ukr їсти
- OE bēatan (NE *to beat*) cf. Ukr бити
- OE sittan (NE *to sit*) cf. Ukr сидіти
- OE slepan (NE *to sleep*) cf. Ukr спати
- OE wītan (NE *to know*) cf. Ukr відати
- OE willan (NE *will*) cf. Ukr воліти

f) *numerals and pronouns*

- OE twā (NE *two*) cf. Ukr два
- OE þrēo (NE *three*) cf. Ukr три
- OE ic (NE *I*) cf. Ukr я
- OE mīn (NE *my*) cf. Ukr мій

g) *basic adjectives*

- OE ceald (NE *cold*) cf. Ukr холодний
- OE neowe (NE *new*) cf. Ukr новий
- OE ȝeonȝ (NE *young*) cf. Ukr юний

II. **Common Germanic words** occurred only in Germanic languages. They denoted:

a) *nature*

- OE sǣ (NE *sea*) cf. G See
- OE land (NE *land*) cf. G Land
- OE eorþe (NE *earth*) cf. G Erde
- OE sand (NE *sand*) cf. G Sand

b) *basic adjectives*

- OE ȝrêne (NE *green*) cf. G grün
- OE lang (NE *long*) cf. G lang
- OE smæl (NE *small*) cf. G schmall (narrow)



c) *and others*

- OE hros (NE *horse*) cf. G Ross
- OE hūs (NE *house*) cf. G Haus
- OE hand (NE *hand*) cf. G Hand
- OE hlēapan (NE *leap*) cf G laufen
- OE wicu (NE *week*) cf. G Voche
- OE sprecan (NE *speak*) cf. G sprechen
- OE drincan (NE *drink*) cf. G trinken

III. **Specifically Old English words** were not found in any other language. They were very few:

- OE clippan (NE *to call*)
- OE bridda (NE *bird*)
- OE wōȝian (NE *to woo, to court*)
- OE ōwef (NE *woof*)
- OE terorian (NE *to tire*)

In addition to native words OE vocabulary had some borrowings from other languages, namely from Latin and Celtic languages.

BORROWINGS FROM CELTIC

There were very few Celtic loan-words in the OE vocabulary. There must have been very little that OE tribes could learn from Celts. Among Celtic loan-words we may mention:

- OE dūn (NE *down*) пагорб
- OE assa (NE *ass*) осел
- OE binn (NE *bin*) ясла
- OE dun (NE *dun*) сірувато-коричневий відтінок
- OE cross (NE *cross*) хрест

Some Celtic elements have been preserved in geographical names. The OE kingdoms Kent, Deira and Bernicia derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. There are many Celtic elements in place-names:

- amhuin (*river*) – Avon, Evan
- uisge (*water*) – in names beginning with Exe-, Usk-, Esk-
- dum, dūn (*hill*) – Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary and probably London.
- inbher (*mountain*) – Inverness, Inverurie
- coil (*forest*) – Killbrook, Killiemoore



comb (*deep valley*) – Batcombe, Duncombe, Winchcombe
 tor (*high rock*) – Torr, Torcross
 llan (*church*) – Llandaff, Llanelly
 pill (*creek*) – Pylle, Huntspill
 ceann (*cape*) – Keadre, Kingussie
 inis (*island*) – Innisfail
 bail (*house*) – Ballantrae, Ballyshannon

Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids:

Celtic plus Latin:

Celtic plus Germanic:

Man-chester
 Win-chester
 Glou-ces-ter
 Wor-ces-ter
 Lan-caster
 Lei-ces-ter
 Devon-port

Corn-wall
 Lich-field
 Salis-bury
 Caster-bury
 York-shire
 Devon-shire

Some names of people are of Celtic origin, too – Arthur (*noble*), Donald (*proud chief*), Kennedy (*ugly head*).

LATIN BORROWINGS

Latin words in Old English are usually classified into two layers. The **oldest layer** words were taken directly from the Romans before the Anglo-Saxons settled in Britain or from the Celtic inhabitants of Britain through wars and trade.

Words connected with **trade** indicated:

a) *units of measurements*

OE pund (NE *pound*) from Lat pondo
 OE ynche (NE *inch*) from Lat uncia
 OE mīle (NE *mile*) from Lat milla passum

b) *articles of trade and agricultural products*

OE wīn (NE *wine*) from Lat vinum
 OE butere (NE *butter*) from Lat būtyrum
 OE plume (NE *plum*) from Lat prunum
 OE pēse (NE *pea*) from Lat pisum
 OE bēte (NE *beet*) from Lat beta
 OE pipor (NE *pepper*) from Lat pīper



- OE pere (NE *pear*) from Lat *pirum*
- OE cīese (NE *cheese*) from Lat *caseus*

c) *housekeeping*

- OE disc (NE *dish*) from Lat *discus*
- OE cycene (NE *kitchen*) from Lat *coquina*
- OE myln (NE *mill*) from Lat *molina*
- OE cytel (NE *kettle*) from Lat *catillus*

d) *building*

- OE cealc (NE *chalk*) from Lat *calcium*
- OE copor (NE *copper*) from Lat *cuprum*
- OE castel (NE *castle*) from Lat *castellum*
- OE stræt (NE *street*) from Lat *via strata*
- OE torr (NE *tower*) from Lat *turris*
- OE weall (NE *wall*) from Lat *vallum*
- OE port (NE *port*) from Lat *portus*

The **second layer** of Latin borrowings is connected with the introduction of Christianity. This period began in the late 6th century and lasted to the end of OE period. Numerous Latin words borrowed during this period (five hundred years) are clearly divided into two main groups:

a) *those denoting religious notions*

- OE apostol (NE *apostle*) from Lat *apostolus*
- OE antefn (NE *anthem*) from Lat *antiphōna*
- OE biscop (NE *bishop*) from Lat *epīscopus*
- OE candel (NE *candle*) from Lat *candēla*
- OE clerec (NE *clerk*) from Lat *clēricus*
- OE munuc (NE *monk*) from Lat *monachus*
- OE mæsse (NE *mass*) from Lat *missa*
- OE mynster (NE *monastery, minster*) from Lat *monastērium*
- OE prēos (NE *priest*) from Lat *presbyter*
- OE creda (NE *creed*) from Lat *credo*

b) *words connected with learning*

- OE māʒister (NE *master*) from Lat *magister*
- OE scōl (NE *school*) from Lat *schola*
- OE scōlere (NE *scholar*) from Lat *scholāris*
- OE fers (NE *verse*) from Lat *versus*



- OE dihtan (NE *to compose*) from Lat dictare
- OE scrifan (NE *to prescribe*) from Lat scrībere

Some scholarly words became part of everyday vocabulary. They belong to different semantic spheres: plants: *elm, lily, pine*; illnesses: *cancer, fever, paralysis*; animals: *camel, elephant, tiger*; clothes and household articles: *cap, mat, sack, sock*.

Most Latin loan words were treated in OE texts like native words which means that they were already completely assimilated.

Word-Building in Old English

There were three main types of word-building in Old English:

1. *Morphological word-building* – creating new words by means of morphological elements.
2. *Syntactic word-building* – building new words from syntactical groups.
3. *Semantic word-building* – building new words by using existing words in new meanings.

Morphological word-building

Morphological word-building is subdivided into two types: *affixation* and *composition*.

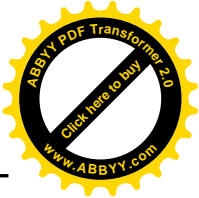
AFFIXATION

Suffixes

Suffix is a morpheme which is added to the root-morpheme and which modifies its lexical meaning. They may be classified according to the principle of what part of speech is formed by means of this or that suffix.

Noun suffixes

- **ere** – was used to form masculine nouns from stems of nouns and verbs denoting the profession or the doer of the action: *bōcere* (bookman), *fiscere* (fisherman), *wītere* (writer), *bæcere* (baker), *fuþelere* (fowler, bird-catcher). It corresponds to Ukrainian suffix *-ap* in *плугатар, пекар, кобзар*.



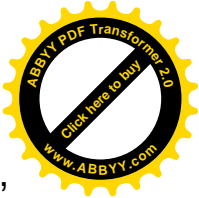
- **estre** – was the corresponding feminine suffix: *bæcestre* (woman-baker), *spinnestre* (spinner), *hearpestre* (harpist), *webbestre* (weaver).
 - **end** – was used to form masculine nouns from verb stems: *frēond* (friend), *fēond* (hater), *dēmend* (judge), *lipend* (traveller), *waldend* (ruler), *frēotend* (sailor), *hælend* (savior).
 - **inȝ** – was used to derive patronimics, may also form emotionally colored diminutives: *cyninȝ* (king), *æpelinȝ* (son of a nobleman).
- It was also used to derive nouns from adjectives: *lytlinȝ* (baby), *dēorlinȝ* (darling), *earminȝ* (poor fellow).
- **en** – formed feminine nouns from noun stems: *ȝyden* (goddess), *maȝden* (maiden), *fyxen* (female fox).
 - **nis, nes** – formed feminine abstract nouns from adjectives: *ȝōdnis* (goodness), *beorhtness* (brightness), *hereness* (praise), *swētnis* (sweetness), *þrenes* (trinity), *deorcnis* (darkness), *sēocnis* (sickness).
 - **þ, -uþ, -oþ** – was used to derive abstract substantives: *trēowþ* (truth), *ȝeoȝuþ* (youth), *fiscop* (fishing), *huntop* (hunting).
 - **þu, u** – formed feminine nouns from adjectives: *lenȝþu* (length), *strenȝþu* (strength), *brædu* (breadth).

Semi-or half-suffixes originated from nouns and still preserved the original meaning:

- **dōm**– (noun *dōm* meant *doom* – “judgement”, “choice”, “honour”): *frēodōm* (freedom) – free choice, *wīsdōm* (wisdom) – wise judgement, *swīcdōm* (betrayal), *cristendōm* (christianity), *lēcædōm* (medicine).
- **lāc**– (gift, game) – formed abstract nouns: *rēoflāc* (robbery), *wedlāc* (wedlock), *scīnlāc* (fantasy).
- **hād**– (title, rank) – formed abstract nouns from nouns: *cildhād* (childhood), *mæȝphād* (virginity), *weoruldhād* (public life).

Adjective suffixes

- **ede**– *hōcede* (hooked), *healedede* (broken), *micelheafdede* (largeheaded).
- **en**– *ȝylden* (golden), *wyllen* (woolen), *stæhen* (made of a stone), *līnen* (linenflax).
- **full**– *carfull* (careful), *sinnfull* (sinful), *þancfull* (thankful).



- **ið** – *mihtið* (mighty), *mōdið* (proud of n. mood), *bysið* (busy), *mistið* (misty), *hālið* (holy).
- **lēas**– *slæplēas* (sleepless), *helplēas* (helpless), *ðriplēas* (defenceless).
- **līc**– *frēondlīc* (friendly), *luflic* (lovely), *sceandlīc* (displaced from OE *sceand* “disgrace”), *dēadlīc* (deadly).
- **isc**– *Englisc* (English), *mennisc* (human), *Denisc* (Danish), *folcisc* (popular).

Prefixes

The use of prefixes in Old English was a productive way of forming new words. Their number exceeded the number of prefixes in NE. They were especially frequent with the verbs: *ðān-go*, *ā-ðān* – go away, *be-ðān* – go round, *fore-ðān* – precede, *ðe-ðān* – go away.

The most popular prefixes in OE were:

mis- (negative): *misdæd* (misdeed), *misbēodan* (to ill-use), *mislimpan* (to go wrong), *miscwepan* (to curse), *mishieran* (to disobey), *mislīcian* (to displease).

un- (negative): *uncūþ* (unknown), *unlýtēl* (not little), *uncsrýdan* (undress), *unrīm* (countless), *unriht* (unjustice), *unweder* (storm, bad weather).

ðe- (perfection of an action): *ðesēon* (to see), *ðemētan* (to meet), *ðewritan* (to write), *ðewinnan* (to win).

COMPOSITION

Composition is making a new word from two or more stems. It was widely used in Old English. There were compound nouns, adjectives, verbs.

The most common patterns are:

- **N+N** *ðoldsmip* (goldsmith), *stān-brycð* (stone bridge), *bōc-cræft* (literature), *lāce-cræft* (medicine), *sonð-cræft* (poetry), *eorþ-cræft* (geography), *dæðes-ēaðe* (daisy).

- **Adj+N** *nēah* + *ðebūr* = *nēahbūr* (neighbour), *hālið* + *dæð* = *hæliðdæð* (holiday), *West-sæ* (Western sea), *wīd-weð* (wide road),



wīd-sǣ ('wide sea', ocean).

- **N+Adj**, or **N+P II** *wīn-sǣd* (drunk or satiated with wine), *bealohydiȝ* (evil-minded), *feorh-sēoc* (mortally wounded), *īs-ceald* (ice-cold), *sumor-lanȝ* (summer-long).

- **Adj+Adj** *wīd-cūþ* (widely-known), *heard-sǣliȝ* (unfortunate), *fela-mōdiȝ* (very brave).

Semantic word-building is a change (extension) of meaning of a word to name something other, similar to original word.

Mūþ (mouth, a part of a human face) → *mup* (mouth, part of a river).

Wendan (to turn) → *wendan* (to translate)

Weorc (work) → *weorc* (fortress).



CHAPTER VIII. MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

Historical Background

THE SCANDINAVIAN CONQUEST

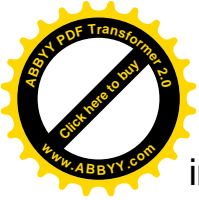
The Scandinavian conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. It began in the 8th century. In the late 9th century the Scandinavians occupied the whole of English territory north of the Thames. In 878 King Alfred made peace with the invaders. The territory occupied by the Scandinavians was to remain in their power. The Scandinavians, in their turn, recognized supremacy of the king of England. The northern and eastern parts of England were most thickly settled by Scandinavians.

In the late 10th century war in England was resumed, and the whole country fell to the invaders. Scandinavian power in England lasted until 1042, when it was overthrown, and the power of the OE nobility was restored under King Edward the Confessor.

The Scandinavian conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English language. The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structure was similar to that of OE. This close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible. On the other hand, mass settlement of Scandinavians in Northern and Eastern England gave their language a great influence in these regions. The result was a blending of Scandinavian and English dialects. Influence of Scandinavian dialects made itself felt in two spheres: vocabulary and morphology.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST

The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be a turning-point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine estuary. During the century and a half between the Norman settlement in France and their invasion of England they had undergone a powerful



influence of French culture.

In 1066 king Edward the Confessor died. William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, assembled an army, landed in England, and routed the English troops under King Harold near Hastings on October 14, 1066. In the course of a few years, putting down revolts, the Normans became masters of England. The ruling class of Anglo-Saxon nobility vanished almost completely. This nobility was replaced by Norman barons, who spoke French. All posts in the church were given to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. This influx lasted for about two centuries. During these centuries the ruling language was French. It was the language of the court, the government, the courts of law, the army and the church. French was the language of writing; teaching was largely conducted in French and boys at school had to translate from Latin into French instead of English. But the lower classes continued to speak English, which was used only for spoken communication.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the dominating position of the West Saxon literary language. In the 12th and 13th centuries all English dialects were on an equal footing and independent of each other.

Under such circumstances, with two languages spoken in the country, they were bound to struggle with each other, and also to influence each other. The Norman barons had to pick up English words to make themselves understood and the English began to use French in everyday speech. Many people became bilingual and had a good command of both languages. This process lasted for three centuries - the 12th, 13th, and 14th. Its results were twofold: 1) the struggle for supremacy between French and English ended in favour of English, as English was the living language of the entire people, while French was restricted only to some social spheres and writing. 2) The English language emerged from this struggle in a considerably changed condition: its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words, while its grammatical structure underwent material changes. Only in the 15th century did French finally disappear from English social life. The victory of English was recognized in three languages: French, Latin and English and signed by the Norman kings.



Middle English Dialects. Rise of the London Dialect

The regional ME dialects had developed from OE ones. There were the following groups:

Kentish dialect was a direct descendant of the OE Kentish dialect.

Southern group included the South-Western dialects. It was a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects.

Midland dialects corresponding to the OE Mercian dialects were divided into West Midland, East Midland, South-East Midland.

Northern dialects had developed from OE Northumbrian. In Early ME the Northern dialects included several provincial dialects: the Yorkshire, the Lancashire and also what later became known as Scottish.

A special position among the dialects belonged to the dialect of London, which after the Norman Conquest became the capital of England. Towards the end of the 14th century London dialect became influential in other parts of the country. This was due to the growth of its importance as an economic and political centre. The London dialect, which became the base of the national English language, was a complex formation, reflecting various influences connected with the social and political life of the period. It contained, alongside East Midland, also South-Eastern and partly South-Western elements.

Some scholars ascribe a very great role in the formation of the national language to Chaucer. They suppose that Chaucer had for the first time united various elements and laid the foundations of the national language.

The London dialect of those centuries is represented by several important documents: Henry III's Proclamation of 1258, poems by Adam Davy and the works of Geoffrey Chaucer, John Gower and John Wycliffe.



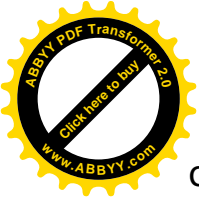
Middle English Written Records

Approximate dating	Group of Dialects				
	<i>Kentish</i>	<i>South, Western</i>	<i>London</i>	<i>Midland</i>	<i>Northern</i>
12th century				The Peterborough Chronicle	
13th century	Kentish Sermons; Poema Morale	Layamon's: Brut; King Horn; The Owl and the Nightingale	Proclamation of Henry III	Ormulum; Havelok the Dane; Trinity Homilies	The Prose Rule of St Benedict
14th century	Dan Michael's Ag Enbite of Inwit ("Prick of Conscience")	Robert of Gloucester, a versified Chronicle; Higden: translation of Trevisa's Polychronicon	Romances of Chivalry (Richard Coeur de Lion and others); Wyclif's works; Langland: Piers the Plowman; Chaucer's works; Gower's works	Adam Davy's poems; Romances of Chivalry (Arthur and Merlin, Sir Gawaine and the Green Knight, and others)	J. Barbour, Bruce (Scottish); Richard Rolle of Hampole: The Prick of Conscience
15th century			Hoccleve's poems Lydgate poems Th. Malory: Morte D'Arthur	York Plays	James I: King's Quhair (Scottish)

For a long time after the Norman Conquest there were two written languages in England. Both of them were foreign: Latin and French. English was used only by common illiterate people and not fit for writing.

The earliest examples of Early ME prose are the new entries made in the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles* (1122 – 1154) known as *Peterborough Chronicle*.

A great number of works are sermons in prose and verse, paraphrases from the Bible, psalms and prayers. The earliest of these religious works is *Poema Morale*, written in the Kentish dialect at the end



of the 12th or beginning of the 13th century.

Of the particular interest for the history of the language is a religious poem *Ormulum*. The poem was composed by the monk Orm in about 1200. The author retells in a popular style events of Bible and Gospel history, addressing his narration to his brother, also a monk. There are many Scandinavian and a few French borrowings in the text.

Among other works of religious nature we may mention *Ancrene Riwe* (“*The Rule of Anchorites*”), *Cursor Mundi* and *Pricke of Conscience*.

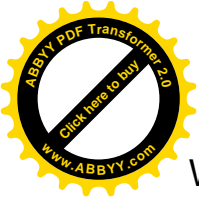
Alongside the religious works there appeared a new kind of literature inspired by French romances. Romances were long compositions in prose or verse, describing the life and adventures of knights. The great majority of romances fell into groups concerned with a limited number of matters. The most popular and original were romances about Britain.

One of the earliest poems of this type was *Brut*, composed by Layamon in the early 13th century. This was partly a translation or paraphrase of Wace’s Anglo-Norman poem *Brut*. Layamon also used some other sources. The last third of the poem is devoted to Brut’s most famous descendant, the mythical British king Arthur and his “Knights of the Round Table”. He became the favourite subject of English knightly romances.

Some romances deal with more recent events and distinctly English themes: episodes of the Crusades or Scandinavian invasions. The anonymous poems of *King Horn* and *Havelok the Dane* tell the stories of young Scandinavian princes, who are deprived of their rights by their enemies. They eventually regain their throne and reign happily.

Among the Early ME texts in the South-Western dialects we should mention *The London Proclamation* (1258) and the political poems of the early 14th century. In the poem *Evil Times of Edward II* the unknown author described the vices of the clergy and the nobility as the causes of wretched condition of the people. Those were the earliest ME texts in the London dialect.

The flourishing of literature in the second half of the 14th century testifies to the complete reestablishment of English as the language of writing. One of the prominent authors of the time was John de Trevisa of Cornwall. In the 1387 he completed the translation of seven books on world history – *Polychronicon* by R. Hidgen – from Latin into the South –



Western dialect of England.

The chief poets of the time, besides Chaucer, were John Gower, William Langland and the unknown author of *Sir Gawaine and the Green Knight*, *Pearl*, *Patience* and *Cleanness*.

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) was the most outstanding figure of the time. In many books on the history of English literature and the history of English Chaucer is described as the founder of literary language. But he did not create it, he just used it. He never wrote in any other language than English. The climax of Chaucer's work as a poet is his great unfinished collection of stories *The Canterbury Tales*. The work was copied so many times that over sixty manuscripts of *The Canterbury Tales* have survived to our days. Chaucer's literary language is known as classical ME. In the 15th and 16th c. it became the basis of the national literary English language.

Spelling Changes in ME. Rules of Reading

The most noticeable feature of late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in late ME texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different. Several letters typical of OE gradually came out of use, some new were introduced. The alphabet of the 14th century is basically the same that is in use in our days.

In ME the runic letters passed out of use. Letters - *þ* - and *ð* were replaced by the diagraph *th* to indicate the same sounds: [θ] and [ð].

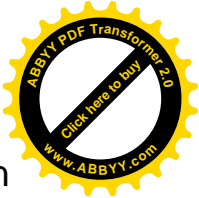
Wynn was replaced by *w*.

Ligatures *æ* and *œ* fell out of use.

Letter *ȝ* which in OE denoted several sounds was replaced by the letters *g* and *y*. Thus, OE *ȝōd* became *gōd* and the OE *ȝear* became *yē*. The letter *g* denoted sound [g] before back vowels and also sound [dʒ] before front vowels.

The sound [dʒ] in the words of French origin was also denoted by *j*. E.g. *joy*, *judge*, *June*.

The letter *q*, always accompanied by *u*, was introduced to denote either the consonant [k] (e.g. *quay*) or the cluster [kw] (e.g. *queen*).



The letter *z* was introduced to denote the consonant [z] which in ME became a separate phoneme in such words as *zēl* “zeal”, *Zephyrus*, “Zephyr”, but in many others [z] was spelt *s*. E.g. *chesen* “chosen”, *losen* “lose” and many others.

In the sphere of vowels French influence was distinct in the following points.

1. The sound [u:] which in OE was represented by the letter *u* now became spelt *ou* both in French borrowings and in native English words. E.g. *double* [du:ble], *trouble* [tru:ble], and *hous* [hu:s], *out* [u:t], *loud* [lu:d].

Instead of *ou* in the final position *ow* was introduced. It was pronounced like [u:] e.g. *cow* [ku:], *how* [hu:], *down* [du:n] if the corresponding NE words have [au].

If the modern word has [ou], the corresponding ME word was pronounced with the same diphthong [ou]. E.g. ME *snow* [snou].

2. The letter *o* indicated short [u] in the neighborhood to such letters as *v*, *m*, *n*. All of them were consisting of vertical strokes and were hard to distinguish in hand-written texts.

- OE *cuman* → ME *come* [ˈkumə] – NE *come*
- OE *sunu* → ME *son* [ˈsunə] – NE *son*
- OE *lufu* → ME *love* [ˈlʊvə] – NE *love*
- OE *munuc* → ME *monk* [muŋk] – NE *monk*

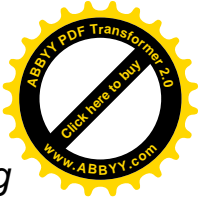
3. The diagraph *ie* which occurred in many French borrowings was regularly used in native ME words to indicate sound [e:], e.g. *chief* [tʃie:f], *relief* [reˈle:f] and *field* [fe:ld], *thief* [θe:f].

4. The letter *y* was used as an equivalent of *i* and was preferred next to letters *m*, *n* and others. *Y* was as well put at the end of a word for ornamental reasons, e.g. ME *very* [ˈveri], *my* [mi:]

In the sphere of consonants French spelling also had some influence:

1. For the consonant [v], which became a separate phoneme, the letter *v* was introduced.

2. The affricate [tʃ] was denoted by the diagraph *ch* in French borrowings, e.g. ME *chasen*, *chair*, *chaumbre* and in native English words as well. E.g. ME *child* [tʃi:ld], *much* [mutʃ], *techen* [ˈtetʃen].



3. The voiced affricate [dʒ] was spelt in the French way either *j*, *g* (before front vowels) and *dg*. E.g. ME *edge* ['edʒə], *joye* ['dʒoie], *engendren* [en'dʒendrən].

4. The sibilant [ʃ] was spelt *sh* (also sometimes *ssh* and *sch*). E.g. ME *ship* (from OE *scip*), *shal* (from OE *scal*).

5. The consonant [x] first spelt *ȝ*, in ME was spelt by *gh*. E.g. ME *light* [lix't], *night* [nix't], *right* [rix't], *knyght* [knix't].

6. The letter *c* when denoting the consonant [k] was replaced by the letter *k* before *e*, *i* and *n*. E.g. ME *drinken* (OE *drincan*), *king* (OE *cyninȝ*), *knowen* (OE *cnāwan*).

7. The digraph *wh* replaced the OE sequence of letters *hw* as in OE *hwæt* – ME *what* [hwat]. OE *hwā* – ME *who* [hwo], OE *hwelc* – ME *which* [hwitʃ], OE *hwæper* – ME *whether* [hweðer], OE *hwænne* – ME *whan* [hwan].

The letters *th* and *s* in ME indicated voiced sounds between vowels and voiceless sounds – initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants. E.g. ME *worthy* ['wurði], *esy* ['e:zi], *thyng* [θiŋ], *sorwe* ['sorwə] (NE *worthy*, *easy*, *thing*, *sorrow*).

Long sounds in ME texts are often shown by double letters or digraphs. Open syllables often contain long vowels, while closed syllables may contain both short and long vowels. Vowels are long before a sonorant plus a plosive consonant and short before other consonant sequences.

The Prologue to the Canterbury Tales by G. Chaucer

Whan that Aprille with his 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;

*When April with his sweet showers
The draught of March has pierced to the root,
And bathed every vein in such liquor,
Of which (whose) virtue (power) engendered is the flower;*



Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the younge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halve cours yronne,

*When Zephyr also with his sweet breath
Inspired has into every holt and heath
The tender crops, and the young sun
Has in the Ram half his course run (has passed half
of its way in the constellation of Ram).*

And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open ye -
So priketh hem Nature in here corages -
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,

*And small birds sing (lit. fowls make melody)
That sleep all the night with open eyes (i.e. do not sleep) –
So raises nature their spirit (lit. pricks their courage) –
Then folks long to go on pilgrimages,*

And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
To ferne halwes, couthe in sondry londes...

*And palmers – to seek strange strands,
To ancient saints known in different lands ...*



CHAPTER IX. MIDDLE AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH PHONETICS

Word Stress in Middle English and Early New English

In Old English word stress usually fell on the first syllable, rarely on the second. So, the prefixes or the roots of the word were stressed while the suffixes and endings were unaccented. Word stress in OE was fixed, it never moved in inflection and seldom in derivation.

This way of word accentuation was greatly changed in Middle English. The word stress acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during the ME period from French. Probably, when they first entered the English language they preserved their original stress on the final syllable. Gradually, the word stress moved closer to the beginning of the word. This shift is accounted by the “*recessive*” tendency.

In words of three or more syllables the shift of the stress could be also caused by “*rhythmic*” tendency, which required a regular alteration of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under the rhythmic tendency, a second stress arose at a distance of one syllable from the original stress. This new stress was either preserved as a secondary stress or became the only or the principal stress of the word.

e.g. ME *recommenden* [rekə'mendən] → NE *recommend* [rəkə'mend]

ME *comfortable* [kəmfər'tablə] → NE *comfortable* ['kʌmfətəbl]

In many polysyllabic words both tendencies, the recessive and the rhythmic worked together and caused several changes.

The stress was not shifted to the prefixes of many verbs borrowed or built in late ME or in early NE to keep verb prefixes unstressed.

e.g. ME *ac'cepten*, *en'gendren*, *pre'senten* (NE *accept*, *engender*, *present*).

The corresponding nouns mainly received the stress on the first syllable. So, word stress distinguished a verb from a noun.

Thus, in ME the position of word stress became relatively free; it could be shifted in word derivation, but never moved in building grammatical forms.



Vowel Changes in Middle English and Early New English

UNSTRESSED VOWELS

In Old English at the end of the words in the unstressed position we could distinguish five short vowels [e, i, a, o, u]. In late ME there were only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [i], so the phonemic contrasts in unstressed vowels were practically lost.

e.g.	OE	cara, caru, care	– ME	care.
	OE	fiscas	– ME	fishes ['fiʃəs] or ['fiʃis]
	OE	rison	– ME	risen ['rizən]
	OE	talū	– ME	tale ['ta:lə]

The final [ə] disappeared in late ME though it continued to be spelt as – e. The ending – e survived only in spelling, it was a means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to words which did not have this ending before.

e.g.	OE	stān	– ME	stone	– NE	stone
	OE	rād	– ME	rode	– NE	road

Though the OE unstressed vowels were reduced and lost, new unstressed vowels appeared in borrowed words or developed from stressed ones.

Main Changes of Stressed Vowels

The vowels in stressed syllables underwent great changes. They changed both in quality and quantity (*qualitative and quantitative changes*); under the influence of the environment and independently (*dependent and independent changes*). Though the total number of phonemes practically remained the same, their distinctive features changed.

Long vowels were the most changeable and historically unstable group of English sounds. They displayed a strong tendency to become narrower and to diphthongize. Short vowels displayed greater openness.



QUANTITATIVE VOWEL CHANGES IN EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH

Lengthening

1. Short vowels became long in open syllables. This mainly affected short vowels [e, a, ɔ].

e → e:	OE	mete	→	ME	mete	['me:tə]	–	NE	meat
	OE	stelan	→	ME	stelen	['ste:lən]	–	NE	steal
a → a:	OE	macian	→	ME	maken	['ma:kən]	–	NE	make
	OE	talū	→	ME	tale	['ta:lə]	–	NE	tale
ɔ → ɔ:	OE	open	→	ME	open	['ɔ:pən]	–	NE	open
	OE	nosu	→	ME	nose	['nɔ:ze]	–	NE	nose

2. Before consonants sequences: sonorant plus plosive (*ld, nd, mb, ŋg, rd*) all short vowels became long.

e.g.	OE	cild	→	ME	child	['tʃi:ld]	–	NE	child
	OE	findan	→	ME	finden	['fi:ndən]	–	NE	find
	OE	climban	→	ME	climben	['kli:mbən]	–	NE	climb
	OE	cald	→	ME	cold	['k:ɔld]	–	NE	cold
	OE	feld	→	ME	field	['fe:ld]	–	NE	field
	OE	wild	→	ME	wild	['wi:ld]	–	NE	wild

Shortening

A long vowel occurring before two consonants is shortened.

e.g.	OE	cēpte	→	ME	keptē	['keptə]	–	NE	kept
	OE	blæst	→	ME	blast	['blast]	–	NE	blast
	OE	wīsdōm	→	ME	wisdom	['wizdəm]	–	NE	wisdom

QUALITATIVE VOWEL CHANGES IN EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH

Qualitative vowel changes were less important.

1. OE close labialized vowels [y], [y:] disappeared. They were replaced by various sounds in different dialectic areas:

e.g.	OE	[y, y:]	→	ME	[e, e:]	in Kentish dialect
	OE	fyllan	→	ME	fellen	
	OE	[y, y:]	→	ME	[i, i:]	in East Midland and Northern dialects



e.g. OE *fyllan* → ME *fillen*
 OE [y, y:] → ME [u, u:] in West Midland and South Western dialects

North-Eastern dialect was main, so variant *fillen* won. Sometimes we can find traces of several dialects in one word:

OE *bysiȝ* → NE *busy* ['bizi] – Western form in spelling and East Midland in pronunciation.
 OE *byrian* → NE *bury* ['beri] – Western in spelling, South-Eastern (Kentish) in pronunciation.

2. OE [a:] was narrowed to [ɔ:].

e.g. OE *stān* → ME *stone* ['stɔ:nə]
 OE *āld* → ME *old* [ɔ:ld]
 OE *hām* → ME *home* ['hɔ:mə]

3. OE [æ] was replaced by [a].

e.g. OE *þæt* → ME *that* [θat]
 OE *ærm* → ME *arm* [arm]
 OE *æfter* → ME *after* ['aftər]
 OE *fæst* → ME *fast* [fast]

4. The most important of the Early Middle English qualitative changes was the loss of OE diphthongs, which affected the entire system of vowels. As a result of this process the vowel system lost the two sets of OE diphthongs. In the meantime, however, a new set of diphthongs developed from combinations of vowels with consonants, due to the vocalization of the latter.

MONOPHTHONGISATION OF OE DIPHTHONGS

Short vowels

ea → a	e.g.	OE <i>heard</i> → ME <i>hard</i>
		OE <i>healf</i> → ME <i>half</i>
		OE <i>eall</i> → ME <i>all</i>
		OE <i>earn</i> → ME <i>arm</i>
eo → e	e.g.	OE <i>heorte</i> → ME <i>herte</i>
		OE <i>heofon</i> → ME <i>heven</i>
		OE <i>feoll</i> → ME <i>fell</i>
ie → e	e.g.	OE <i>hierde</i> → ME <i>herde</i> (NE shepherd)
ie → i	e.g.	OE <i>nieht</i> → ME <i>night</i> [nix't] (NE night)



Long vowels

ēa → ē (in spelling e, ea)

OE ēast → ME east [e:st] – NE east

OE rēad → ME reed [re:d] – NE red

ēo → ē OE dēop → ME deep [de:p] – NE deep

OE sēon → ME see [se:] – NE see

īe → ē OE cīese → ME cheese ['tʃe:zə] – NE cheese

OE hīeran → ME heren ['herən] – NE hear

īe → ī OE līehtan → ME lighten ['li:x'tən] – NE lighten

GROWTH OF NEW DIPHTHONGS

In Early Middle English [j], [y] in the position between two vowels or after a vowel changed into [i], [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowel.

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
e+j →	ei	weʒ	wey [wei]	way
e:+j →	ei	ʒrēʒ	grey [grei]	grey
æ+j →	ai	mæʒ	may [mai]	may
a+γ →	au	laʒu	lawe ['lauə]	law
o+γ →	ou	boʒa	bowe ['bouə]	bow
a:+w →	ou	cnāwan	knownen ['knouən]	know
a:+x →	au + x	brāhte	braughte ['brauxtə]	brought

ME VOWEL SYSTEM COMPARED WITH OE VOWEL SYSTEM

OE Vowel System

	Monophthongs	Diphthongs
Short	i, e, (oe), æ, a, o, u, y	(ie/io), ea, eo
Long	i:, e:, (oe:), æ:, a:, o:, u:, y:	(ie:/io:), ea:, eo:

ME Vowel System

Short	i, e, a, o, u	ei, ai, oi, au
Long	i:, e:, ε:, a:, o:, o:, u:	au:, ou:



Evolution of Consonants in Middle English

English consonants are more stable than vowels. Sonorants [m, n, l], plosives [p, b, t, d] and also [k, g] remained unchanged through all historic periods.

The most important developments in the history of English consonants were the growth of new sets of sounds – affricates and sibilants and new phonological treatment of fricatives.

The OE system of consonants contained neither sibilants except [s/z] nor affricates. The earliest distinct set of these sounds appeared towards the close of OE period and was regularly shown in the spelling in ME manuscripts. They began to be indicated by special letters and digraphs, which came into use mainly under the influence of the French scribal tradition — *ch, tch, g, dg, sh, ssh, sch*.

DEVELOPMENT OF SIBILANTS AND AFFRICATES IN EARLY MIDDLE ENGLISH

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
k'	tʃ	cild	child [tʃi:ld]	<i>child</i>
		tæcan	techen ['tɛtʃən]	<i>teach</i>
g'	dʒ	ecʒe	edge ['edʒə]	<i>edge</i>
		brycʒe	bridge ['bridʒə]	<i>bridge</i>
sk'	ʃ	fisc	fish [fiʃ]	<i>fish</i>
		scēap	sheep [ʃɛ:p]	<i>sheep</i>

Another development accounting for the appearance of new sibilants and affricates in the English language dates from ENE period and is connected primarily with the phonetic assimilation of borrowings. The clusters [sj], [zj], [tj], [dj] regularly fused into [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]. Three of these sounds merged with the phonemes already existing in the language, while the fourth, [ʒ], made a new phoneme.



DEVELOPMENT OF SIBILANTS AND AFFRICATES IN EARLY NEW ENGLISH

Change illustrated	Examples		
	Late ME	NE	Late ME
sj	ʃ	<i>condicioun</i> [kondi'sju:n] <i>commissioun</i> [komi'sju :n]	<i>condition</i> <i>commission</i>
zj	ʒ	<i>plesure</i> [ple'zju:r(ə)] <i>visioun</i> [vi'zju:n]	<i>pleasure</i> <i>vision</i>
tj	tʃ	<i>nature</i> [na'tju:r(ə)] <i>culture</i> [kul'tju:r(ə)]	<i>nature</i> <i>culture</i>
dj	dʒ	<i>souldier</i> [soul'djer] <i>procedure</i> [prose'dju: rə]	<i>soldier</i> <i>procedure</i>

In the 16th century there took place another decisive alteration: if a fricative consonant was placed between unstressed and stressed vowels, it became voiced. This process is called *voicing of consonants*.

VOICING OF CONSONANTS IN EARLY NEW ENGLISH

Change illustrated	Examples		
	ME	NE	ME
s	z	<i>resemblen</i> [rə'semblən] <i>foxes</i> ['foksəs] <i>was</i> [was] <i>is</i> [is] <i>his</i> [his]	<i>resemble</i> <i>foxes</i> <i>was</i> <i>is</i> <i>his</i>
f	v	<i>pensif</i> [pen'sif] <i>of</i> [of]	<i>pensive</i> <i>of</i>
θ	ð	<i>there</i> ['θɛ:rə] <i>they</i> [θei] <i>with</i> [wiθ]	<i>there</i> <i>they</i> <i>with</i>
ks	gz	<i>anxietie</i> [aŋksie'tiə] <i>luxurious</i> [luksju:r'iu:s]	<i>anxiety</i> <i>luxurious</i>
tʃ	dʒ	<i>knowleche</i> ['knoulətʃ] <i>Greenwich</i> ['gre:nwitʃ]	<i>knowledge</i> <i>Greenwich</i> ['gri:nidʒ]



LOSS OF CONSONANTS

1) Some consonants were vocalized and gave rise to diphthong glides or made the preceding short vowel long. So, the sound [ɣ] marked by ȝ in the intervocal position vocalized and turned into w, which led to the following diphthongs:

- aȝ → aw (au) e.g. draȝan → drawn
- æȝ → [ai], marked by ai, ay e.g. dæȝ → day, læȝ → lay
- eȝ → [ei], marked by ei, ey e.g. waȝ → wey, seȝl → seil, sail.

The combination ȝ + vowel led to long vowels:

- iȝ, yȝ → [i:], e.g. tiȝele → tile, ryȝe → rye
- uȝ → [u:], marked by ou, ow e.g. fuȝol → foul

2) During the ME period the consonants lost their quantitative distinctions, as the long or double consonants disappeared.

3) Some consonants were lost in consonant clusters, which became simpler and easier to pronounce:

a) [h] at the beginning of the words was lost in clusters [hr], [hl], [hn], [hw].

- e.g. hrinȝ → ring,
- hrycȝ → ridge,
- hrōf → roof,
- hlāf → loaf,
- hlysten → listen,
- hwæt → what,
- hnutu → nut.

b) The sound [l] was lost in combinations before [k], [m], [f], [v]. e.g. *talk, walk, stalk, chalk, palm, calm (but elm), half, calf (but elf)*. It was also lost before *d* in words *should, would, could*.

c) The sound [b] was dropped in combination *mb* at the end of the word and not followed by another consonant e.g. *lamb, climb, tomb, comb, bomb*.

d) [n] was lost in combination *mn*, e.g. *autumn, column*.

e) [t] was lost in combination [stl, stn, ftn, stm, ktl] e.g. *castle, whistle, thistle, fasten, listen, often, soften, Christmas, exactly, directly*.



f) The consonants were also lost in such initial clusters:

- [g] and [k] in [gn], [kn]., e.g.: *knight, knee, know, knack, knock, knife, gnat, gnaw*;

- [w] before [r], e.g. *wreath, write, wrong, wreck, wrestle, wrinkle, wrist*; and in unstressed syllables after a consonant in such words as *answer, conquer, Southwark, Berwick, Chiswick, Greenwich, Norwich*.

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, these were positional and assimilative changes of short vowels and a significant change in the whole system of long vowels, called the **Great Vowel Shift**. 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.

The sound [e] before *r* changed into [a:]. This change in many cases (but not always) was reflected in spelling.

ME	sterre	→	NE	star	
ME	bern	→	NE	barn	
ME	sterven	→	NE	starve	
ME	kerven	→	NE	carve	
ME	herte	→	NE	heart	
but	ME	clerk	→	NE	clerk

Some place-names changed the pronunciation: Derby, Berkley, Berkshire, Hertford, though this change was not reflected in spelling.

The alphabetic reading of the letter *r* [er] began to be pronounced as [ar].

Short vowels were changed, but their changes concerned only two vowels: [a], [u].

Short [a] in closed syllables changed into [æ].

ME	that	[θat]	→	NE	that	[ðæt]
ME	man	[man]	→	NE	man	[mæn]



ME hat [hat] → NE hat [hæt]
 ME cat [kat] → NE cat [kæt]
 ME pan [pan] → NE pan [pæn].

If it was preceded by the sound [w], it remained unchanged and later developed into [ɔ].

ME water ['water] → NE water ['wɔtə]
 ME was [was] → NE was [wɔz].

Short [u] lost its labial character and developed into [ʌ].

ME hut [hut] → NE hut [hʌt]
 ME comen ['kumen] → NE come [kʌm]
 ME sone ['sunə] → NE son [sʌn]
 ME love ['luve] → NE love [lʌv]

In many cases this change did not take place when [u] was preceded by a labial consonant: NE *push, put, pudding, bull, bullet, butcher*.

But: *bulb, buckwheat, pulp, pulse, pub, pumpkin*.

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

a + th	NE father, rather, bath, path.
a + ss	NE pass, class, grass, brass
a + st	NE cast, last, past, fast
a + sk	NE ask, task, basket
a + lm	NE calm, palm
a + lf	NE half, calf
a + nt, nd	NE plant, command.
a + ft	NE craft, after.

The reverse quantitative change – *shortening of vowels* [e:], [u:] occurred before single dental and velar consonants [θ, d, t, k].

e.g ME breeth [bre:θ] → NE breath [breθ],
 ME deed [de: d] → NE dead [ded]
 ME book [bu: k] → NE book [buk]
 ME foot [fu: t] → NE foot [fut]



The Great Vowel Shift

The Great Vowel Shift is the name given to a series of changes of the English long vowels between the 14th and the 18th centuries. During this period all the long vowels became closer and were diphthongized. The changes can be defined as “independent”, as they were not caused by any apparent phonetic conditions in the syllable or in the word and regularly affected every long vowel in any position.

THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT

Change illustrated		Examples	
ME	NE	ME	NE
i:	ai	time [ˈti:mə] finden [ˈfi:ndən]	time find
e:	i:	keepen [ˈke:pən] field [ˈfe:ld]	keep field
ɛ:	e:	street [strɛ:t] east [ɛ:st] stelen [ˈstɛ:lən]	street east steal
a:	ei	maken [ˈma:kən] table [ˈtɑ:blə]	make table
ɔ:	o:	stone [ˈstɔ:n] open [ˈɔ:pən] soo [sɔ:]	stone open so
o:	u:	moon [mo:n] goos [go:s]	moon goose
u:	au	mous [mu:s] founden [ˈfu:ndən] now [nu:]	mouse found now
au	ɔ:	cause [ˈkauz(ə)] drawen [ˈdrauən]	cause draw

As it is obvious from the table, the Great Vowel Shift didn't add any new sounds to the vowel system. But the Great Vowel Shift was the most profound and comprehensive change in the history of English vowels: every long vowel was “shifted” and the pronunciation of all the words with these sounds was altered.

It is important to note that the Great Vowel Shift was not followed by any regular spelling changes. During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed, as they contained long vowels.



Growth of Long Monophthongs and Diphthongs in Early New English due to Vocalisation of Consonants

The most important example of vocalisation is the development of [r], which resulted in the appearance of many long monophthongs and diphthongs.

In Early NE [r] was vocalised when it stood after vowels, either finally or followed by another consonant. When [r] followed a short vowel, the vowel became long:

1) short vowel + r

o + r → ɔ	ME for [fɔr] → NE for [fɔ:]
	ME thorn [θɔrn] → NE thorn [θɔ:n]
a + r → a	ME bar [bar] → NE bar [ba:]
	ME dark [dark] → NE dark [da:k]
i + r → e	ME first [first] → NE first [fɛ:st]
e + r → e	ME serven [servən] → NE serve [sɛ:v]
u + r → u	ME fur [fur] → NE fur [fɜ:]
ə + r → ə	ME brother ['brɔðər] → NE brother ['brʌðə]

Following a long vowel, [r] changed into the neutral sound [ə], which was added to the preceding vowel as a glide, forming a diphthong.

2) long vowel + r

i: + r → aiə	ME shire ['ʃi:rə] → NE shire [ʃaiə]
	ME tire ['tɪrə] → NE tire [taiə]
e: + r → iə	ME beer [be:r] → NE beer [biə]
ɛ: + r → iə	ME ere ['ɛ:rə] → NE ear [iə]
ɛ: + r → ɛə	ME there ['θɛ:r(ə)] → NE there [ðɛə]
	ME beren ['berən] → NE bear [bɛə]
a: + r → ɛə	ME hare ['hɑ:rə] → NE hare [hɛə]
	ME fare ['fɑ:rə] → NE fare [fɛə]
ɔ: + r → ɔ:/ɔə	ME floor [flɔ:r] → NE floor [flɔ:]
o: + r → uə	ME moor [mɔ:r] → NE moor [muə]
u: + r → auə	ME flour [flu:r] → NE flower [flauə]
	ME shour [ʃu:r] → NE shower [ʃauə]

The vocalisation of [r] had a great affect on the vowel system: there developed a new set of diphthongs and triphthongs with ə-glides. There arose a new monophthong [ə:].



CHAPTER X. MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

In the course of ME and Early NE the grammatical system of the language greatly changed. English was transformed from a «synthetic» into «analytical» type. But the grammatical changes were neither quick nor sudden.

The division of words into parts of speech is one of the most stable characteristics of the language. Through all the periods of history of English there existed the following parts of speech: *the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection*. In ME period there appeared a new part of speech – *an article* which developed from the pronouns in EME.

The means of form-building were the same as before: *inflections, sound interchanges, suppletion*. *Prefixation* (namely prefix *ge-*, used to mark Participle II) went out of use.

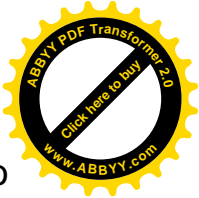
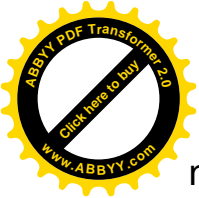
Inflections continued to be used in changeable parts of speech, but compared with OE period, they became less varied.

Sound interchanges were not very productive. They occurred in many verbs, some adjective and nouns.

Suppletion was confined to a few words, surviving from OE.

The analytical way of form-building was a new but very important device, which developed in Late OE and ME. Analytical forms developed from free word groups. The first component gradually lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker. The second component preserved its lexical meaning and received a new grammatical value. Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech. It greatly changed the morphology of the verb, but did not affect the noun.

The main direction of development of the nominal parts of speech in all the periods was morphological simplification. The period between 10-14 centuries was called «the age of great changes» (A. Baugh). It witnessed the great event in the history of English grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Such grammatical categories as Gender and Case in adjectives, Gender in nouns were lost. The number of cases in nouns and noun-pronouns,



numbers in personal pronouns was reduced. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms.

The Noun

Decay of Noun Declensions in Early Middle English

In OE already the reduction of declensions had begun. Many *i-stem* and *u-stem* nouns were influenced by *a-* and *o-stem* nouns. In addition some changes were observable within the *a-* and *o-stem* declensions. All this showed the reduction in the morphological system of nouns.

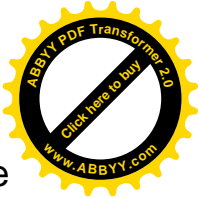
In the 11-13th centuries these tendencies, aided by Scandinavian influence, developed more intensively. Weakening of inflections is connected with levelling of unstressed endings. The decline of declension system started in the North of England (11th century) and spread Southwards (13th century).

GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE NOUN

The OE *category of Gender* disappeared together with other distinctive features of noun declensions. In the 11th and 12th century the gender of nouns lost its main formal support – the levelled endings of adjectives stopped to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with differentiation of sex. Grouping into genders was replaced by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns. The latter group was subdivided into *males and females*. So, in ME nouns were referred to as «*he*» or «*she*» if they denoted human beings.

The grammatical *category of Case* in ME was preserved, but underwent profound changes. The number of cases was reduced from four in OE to two in Late ME.

Periods	OE	Early ME	Late ME
Cases	Nominative Accusative	Common	Common
	Dative	Dative	
	Genitive	Genitive	Genitive



The reduction in the number of cases was connected with a change in the meanings and functions of the surviving forms. The Common case assumed all the functions of the former Nominative, Accusative and Dative cases. It had a very general meaning. It was made more specific by prepositions, meaning of the verb-predicate and the word order. With the help of these means it could express various meanings formerly belonging to different cases. The main function of the Accusative case – to present the direct object – was fulfilled in ME by the Common case. The use of the Genitive case became more limited. It could no longer be used in the function of an object to a verb. In ME the Genitive case was used only attributively, to modify a noun. It also had a rival – phrase with the preposition *of*. The use of the *of-phrase* grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th centuries. In some texts there appeared a certain differentiation between the synonyms. The Genitive Case was preferred with animate nouns and the *of-phrase* was mostly used with inanimate ones.

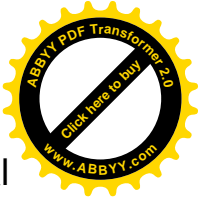
In OE the nouns in the Genitive case had the following endings in the singular:

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

The ending -es of the *a-stems* nouns which were the most numerous, became predominant in ME. So, all the other groups of nouns now take this ending in the Genitive.

The grammatical *category of Number* is the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. In OE the plural endings of nouns were:

- as (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)



As a result of the reduction of unstressed vowels in ME the plural endings were *-es*, *-e*, *-en*. In Late ME the ending *-es* was the main marker of nouns in the plural. The plural ending *-en* lost its former productivity (but *oxen*, *children*).

Several nouns (belonging to root stems in OE) preserved their OE plural changing the root vowels (e.g. *man* – *menn*, *foot* – *feet*, *goose* – *geese*).

The small group of ME nouns naming some domestic animals (former *a-stems* neuter gender with long root vowel) such as *sheep*, *swyn*, *hors*, *deer* retained their old uninflected plurals.

The Adjective

DECAY OF DECLENSIONS AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

During the ME period the adjective underwent great simplifying changes. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison.

In the OE period adjective was declined and agreed in gender, case and number with the noun it modified. It had a five-case paradigm and two types of declension: *weak* and *strong*.

The agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser by the end of the OE period. It was practically lost in the course of Early ME. The changes began in the north and north-east Midlands and spread south.

The first category to disappear was *Gender*. It happened in the 11th c.

The number of *cases* was reduced. The Instrumental case fell together with Dative at the end of OE period in the 13th c. Case could be shown only by some adjective endings in the strong declension. Towards the end of the century all case distinctions were lost. The category of *number* was the most stable nominal category in all the periods. In the 14th c. plural forms were sometimes contrasted to the singular forms with the help of the ending *-e* in the strong declension. Probably this marker was regarded as insufficient. In the 13 – 14th c. there appeared a new plural ending *-s*. The use of *-s* is attributed either to the influence of French adjectives, which take *-s* in the plural or to the influence of the ending *-s* of nouns.



DEGREES OF COMPARISON

The degrees of comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all the historical periods. But the means used to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison greatly changed.

In the OE period the forms of the comparative degree were built with the help of the suffix *-ra* and of the superlative degree with the help of the suffix *-est/-ost* added to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root vowel. A few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In ME the suffixes were weakened to *-er*, *-est*.

e.g.: glad – gladder – gladdest
greet – gretter – grettest

The interchange of vowels was less common than before.

e.g.: old – elder – eldest
long – lenger – lengest
strong – strenger – strengest

The alteration of root-vowels in Early New English survived in the adjective *old – elder – eldest* which was different in meaning from *older, oldest*. Other traces of the old alteration are found in the pair *farther* and *further*.

Some ME adjectives preserved their former suppletivity. Their degrees of comparison looked like this:

good – bettre – best;
evil – werse – werst;
muchel – more – most, mest;
litel – lasse – lest.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison. It concerned mainly the adjectives of foreign origin, regardless of number of syllables and was used with mono- and disyllabic words. So, in Chaucer's works we can find *more swete*, *better worthy*, *more hard* for "sweeter", "worthier" and "harder". The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used in free variation until the 18th c.



The Categories of the Adjective

Period	Gender	Number	Case	Declension
OE	masculine	singular	Nominative	strong
	feminine	plural	Genitive	
ME	neuter	singular	Dative	weak
		plural	Accusative	
			Instrumental	
			Nominative	strong
			Genitive	
			Dative	weak
			Accusative	

Strong Declension

Period	Case	Singular			Plural		
		m	n	f	m	n	f
OE	Nom.	ʒōd	ʒōdes	ʒōd	ʒōde	ʒōd	ʒōda
	Gen.	ʒōdes	ʒōdum	ʒōdre	ʒōdra	ʒōdra	ʒōdra
	Dat.	ʒōdum	ʒōd	ʒōdre	ʒōdum	ʒōdum	ʒōdum
	Acc.	ʒōdne	ʒōde	ʒōde	ʒōde	ʒōd	ʒōda
	Instr.	ʒōdan		-----	-----	-----	-----
ME	Nom.	good (for all cases)			gode (for all cases)		
	Gen.						
	Dat.						
	Acc.						

Weak Declension

Period	Case	Singular			Plural
		m	n	f	
OE	Nom.	ʒōda	ʒōde	ʒōde	ʒōdan
	Gen.	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	ʒōdra (odena)
	Dat.	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	ʒōdum
	Acc.	ʒōdan	ʒōde	ʒōdan	ʒōdan
	Instr.	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	ʒōdan	-----
ME	Nom.	gode (for all cases)			gode (for all cases)
	Gen.				
	Dat.				
	Acc.				



The Pronoun

PERSONAL AND POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

The ME personal pronouns didn't repeat the evolution of ME nouns. The development of the same grammatical categories in nouns and pronouns was different. Personal pronouns seem to be the most conservative of all. Their system suffered only slight changes.

The Nominative case of personal pronouns was somewhat changed. The changes were not systematic and not simultaneous in all dialects.

In the first person singular among two variants *I* or *Ich* the first variant becomes more frequent.

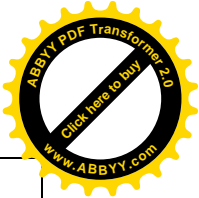
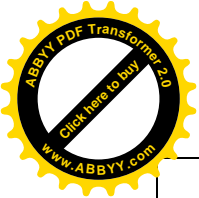
OE personal pronoun of the 3-d person singular feminine gender *hēo* was replaced by a group of variants – *he*, *ho*, *sho*, *she*. The last of them *she* finally prevailed over the others.

OE personal pronoun of the 3-d person plural *hie* was replaced by the Scandinavian loan word *they*, while the Objective case of OE pronoun *hem* persists. Even in present – day English we say: “*Where are your papers? Give'em to me.*” So, we unconsciously use the old form, as the dropped sound is *h*.

In the 17th – 18th centuries the second person plural *ye*, *you*, *your* were more and more applied to individuals, used as the equivalents of *thou*, *thee*, *thine*. Nowadays *thou* is found only in poetry or religious works.

Personal and Possessive Pronouns in ME and Early NE

Person	Singular		Plural	
	ME	Early NE	ME	Early NE
1 st p. Nom. Obj. (from OE Acc. and Dat.) Poss. (from OE Gen.)	Ich/I me	I me	we us	we us
2 nd p. Nom. Obj. (from OE Acc. and Dat.) Poss. (from OE Gen.)	thou/thow thee	thou/ye thee/you	ye you	you/ye you
	myn(e)/my	my/mine	our(e)/ours	our, ours
	thyn(e)/thy	thy/your/thine/yours	your/yours	your, yours



3 rd p. <i>Nom.</i> <i>Obj.</i> (from OE Acc. and Dat.) <i>Poss.</i> (from OE Gen.)	M. F. N. he he/she hit/it him hir(e)/ him/her it his her(e)/ his hir	he, she, it him, her, it his, her, his/its his, hers, his/its	hie/they hem/them her(e)/theire	they them their, theirs
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In ME and in Early NE extensive grammatical changes took place.

- forms of the dual number of the 1st and 2nd persons went into disuse;

- Dative and Accusative cases began to merge in OE. In early OE they merged in the 1st and 2nd persons plural. In late OE they were extended to the 1st and 2nd singular, in Early ME – to the 3^d person, in late ME – the formation of the category of case was complete. In Early NE Nominative began to merge with Objective case. But only two personal pronouns *you* and *it* lost all case distinctions in NE. So, modern *you* emerged from ME Objective case. Its Nominative case *ye* went into disuse. Modern *it* – ME Nominative case *it*, OE – *hit*. The ME Objective case of *it* – *him* was identical with masculine pronoun *he*, *him*. In ME it was used in the function of an object and eventually *it* displaced *him*. All other personal pronouns had two cases.

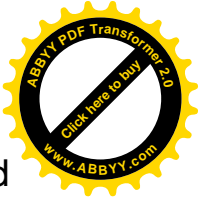
- The OE Genitive case developed into a new class of pronouns – *possessive pronouns*.

In OE the Genitive case of personal pronouns – like the Genitive case of nouns – was commonly used in the attributive function. Its use as an object was rare. The personal pronouns in the Genitive case agreed with the noun in case and number. In ME these pronouns lost their forms of agreement and were uninflected.

Person	Singular	Plural
1-st	min, myn/my	our
2-nd	thin, thyn/thy	your
3-d	his/her, his	hire/their

The forms *min/thin* are full forms of possessive pronouns. They were used before nouns which began with vowels. Variants *my/thy* were used before nouns that began with a consonant sound.

- e. g. *my pilgrimage* (NE my pilgrimage)
- but *myn aventure* (NE my adventure)



Special attention is paid to *his* which corresponded to *he* and *it* and was used in reference to animate and inanimate things. Early NE *its* was derived from *it*. It was built on the analogy of Genitive case of nouns or of the form *his*.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Demonstrative pronouns were adjective-pronouns. In OE, like other adjectives, they agreed with the noun in case, number and gender and had a well-developed morphological paradigm.

In Early ME the OE demonstrative pronouns *sē*, *sēo*, *þæt* and *þes*, *þēos*, *þis* – lost most of their inflected forms. They retained the category of number only. Case and gender forms disappeared. The reduction of number of forms is significant – from seventeen to two.

Sg. this	Pl. thise/thes(e)	(NE this – these)
that	tho/thos(e)	(NE that – those)

DEVELOPMENT OF ARTICLES

The OE demonstrative pronouns *sē*, *sēo*, *þæt* and *þes*, *þēos*, *þis* in ME period developed into *this* and *that*. Each pronoun had a respective plural form. The other direction of the development of the demonstrative pronouns led to the formation of the *definite article*.

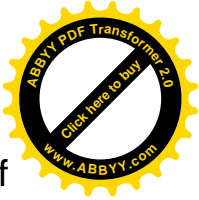
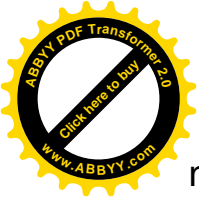
In OE texts the pronouns *sē*, *sēo*, *þæt* were often used as noun-determiners. In fact, the pronoun was the real marker of the case of the noun. This, probably, led to overuse of the demonstrative pronouns in Old English and to weakening of their function.

In the manuscripts of the 11th and 12th centuries this use of the demonstrative pronouns becomes more and more common.

In the course of ME there appeared an important formal difference between the demonstrative pronoun and the definite article. Demonstrative pronoun *that* preserved number distinctions. Definite article *the* was uninflected.

The meaning and functions of the definite article became more specific when it became opposed to the indefinite article.

In ME there appeared an *indefinite article*. It developed from the



numeral *ān* (one) and now was used to render the meaning of indefiniteness, a person or a thing unknown or unmentioned. When *an* was followed by a word beginning with a consonant, the *-n* was dropped and there arose the variant *a*. This alteration of *an* and *a* depending on the initial sound of the following word has been preserved until today.

Now that the word *the* has its counterpart in the word *a* (*an*) there is ground enough to say that English has an article system represented by two items: the definite and the indefinite.

So, a new grammatical category within the system of substantives came into being: the category of determination, represented by the first opposition: *article/absence of article*; second opposition: *definite article the/indefinite article a (an)*.

OTHER CLASSES OF PRONOUNS (INTERROGATIVE, REFLEXIVE, INDEFINITE, RELATIVE)

ME forms of *interrogative* pronouns developed from OE forms. As all nominal parts of speech they were subjected to simplifying changes. Interrogative pronouns changed phonetically. The aspiration was weakened and in spelling the letters *h* and *w* changed place. The paradigm of the OE interrogative pronoun *hwā* was reduced to two forms – Nominative case – *who* and Objective case *whom*.

The Genitive case of OE *hwā*, *hwæt* - *hwæs* – developed into a separate interrogative pronoun *whose*.

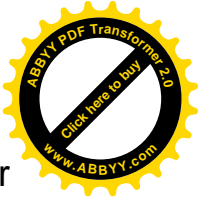
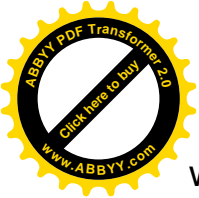
The Instrumental case of the same pronoun – *hwī* was used as a separate pronoun *why*.

OE *hwelc*, ME *which*, formerly used only with relation to person began to be used with relation to things.

OE *hwæper*, ME *whether* was used as an interrogative pronoun in the meaning “which of the two”. Later it was used only as a conjunction.

In the ME period we find a new class of pronouns – *the reflexive* pronouns. They were formed from the Objective case of the third person of personal pronoun *him/hir/hem/them* + *self* = *himselpe*, *hirsself*, *hemselven*. Later appeared *myself*, *ourselves*, *yourself* and *themselves*.

From the OE form *þæt*, which was the Nominative and Accusative neuter of the demonstrative and relative pronoun the ME *that* developed,



which was used as a *relative* pronoun without distinction of gender or number.

In the 14th century new relative pronouns appeared, developed from interrogative ones: *which* (plural *whiche*) and *who* (Objective case *whom*).

Most *indefinite* pronouns of the OE period simplified their morphological structure and some pronouns fell out of use. e.g. *man* died out as an indefinite pronoun.

The OE defining pronouns *Ʒehwā* “every” and *Ʒehwilc* “each” disappeared in ME.

The pronouns *æƷper* “either” *ælc* “each”, *swilc* “such”, the indefinite *sum* “some”, *æniƷ* “any”, the negative *nān* “none” changed their phonetic form. Definite pronoun *the same* borrowed from Scandinavian replaced *sē ilca*.

Eventually new types of compound *indefinite* pronouns came into use – with the component - *thing*, - *body*, - *one* etc. In NE period they developed a two-case paradigm like nouns: the Common and the Possessive or Genitive case: *anybody* – *anybody’s*.

The ME *relative* pronoun *that* was used without distinction of gender and number. It developed from the OE form *þæt*, which was the Nominative and Accusative neuter of the demonstrative and relative pronoun.

The Numeral

CARDINAL NUMERALS

ME cardinal numerals developed from OE numerals with some changes. They are no longer declined, lost the category of gender alongside with other parts of speech.

	OE	ME
1	ān	on
2	twā	two
3	þrēo	thre
4	feower	fower, four
5	fīfe	five
6	siex	six
7	seofon	seven
8	eahta	eighte



9	niȝon	nine, nyne
10	tīen, ten	ten
11	endleofan	enleven, elleven
12	twelf	twelve

Numerals from *thirteen* to *nineteen* had the suffix *-tene* from OE *-tīene*.

	OE	ME
13	þrittīene	thirtene
14	feowertīene	fourtene
15	fīftīene	fiftene
16	sixtīene	sixtene
17	seofontīene	seventene
18	eahtatīene	eightene
19	niȝontīene	nintene

Tens from *twenty* to *ninety* had suffix *-ty* from OE *-tiȝ*.

	OE	ME
20	twentiȝ	twenty
30	þrittiȝ	thritti, thirty (<i>metathesis of r</i>)
40	feowertiȝ	fourty
50	fīftiȝ	fifty
60	sixtiȝ	sixty

In numeral from *seventy* to *ninety* OE prefix *hund* was dropped.

	OE	ME
70	hundseofontiȝ	seventy
80	hundehtatiȝ	eighty
90	hundniȝontiȝ	nīnty
100	hundred, hund	hundred
1000	þūsend	thousand

Compound numerals like 29 or 73 were expressed just like in present-day German: *nīn and twenty*, *thrē and seventy* – units before tens.

Besides, in addition to the Old English numerals in Middle English appeared the word *millioun*, of French origin.



ORDINAL NUMERALS

ME ordinal numerals, with the exception of *second* developed from OE ordinal numerals. They had suffix *-th* from OE *-opa*.

	OE	ME
1	fyrest	first
2	ōper	second (<i>borrowed from French</i>)
3	þridða	thirde (<i>metathesis of r</i>)
4	feowerþa	fourthe
5	fīfta	fifte
6	sixta	sixte
7	seofopa	seventhe
8	eahtopa	eighte
9	niþopa	nīnthe (<i>the form with - <u>n</u> formed anew</i>)
10	tēopa	tenthe (<i>the form with - <u>n</u> formed anew</i>)
11	endleofta	eleventhe
12	twelfta	twelfth

Ordinal numerals from 13 to 19 ended in ME in *-tenth*. They were derived from the corresponding cardinals (OE - *teopa*). Ordinal numerals from 20 to 90 ended in ME in *-tith* (OE - *tiþopa*).

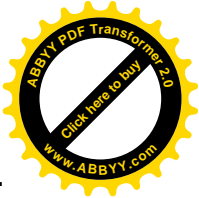
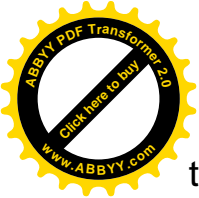
The Verb

The morphology of the verb displayed two distinct tendencies of development: it underwent considerable simplifying changes, which affected the synthetic forms and became far more complicated owing to the growth of new (analytical) forms and new grammatical categories.

Finite Forms

Many markers of the grammatical forms of the verb were reduced, levelled and lost in ME and early NE; the reduction, levelling and loss of endings resulted in the increased neutralization of formal oppositions and the growth of homonymy.

ME forms of the verb are represented by numerous variants, which reflected dialectal differences and tendencies of potential changes. The mixture of dialectal features in the speech of London and in the literary language of the Renaissance played an important role in the formation of



the verb paradigm. Some of dialects were eventually accepted as standard.

The simplifying changes in the verb morphology affected the distinction of the grammatical categories to a varying degree.

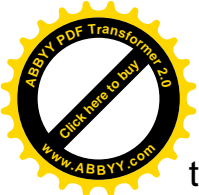
CONJUGATION OF VERBS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH

	Strong		Weak	
	ME	Early NE	ME	Early NE
Infinitive	finde(n)	find	looke(n)	look
Present tense				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1 st	finde	find	looke	look
2 nd	findest/finde	findest	lookest/lookes	lookest
3 rd	findeth/finde	finds/findeth	looketh/lookes	looks/looketh
PI	finde(n)/findeth/finde	find	looke(n)/looketh/lookes	looketh/look
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	finde	find	looke	look
PI	finde(n)	find	looke(n)	look
<i>Imperative</i>	find(e) findeth/finde	find find	look(e) looketh/looke	look look
<i>Participle I</i>	finding(e)/-ende /findind(e)/findand(e)	finding	looking(e)/-ende /-ind(e)/-ande	looking
Past tense				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1 st	fand	found	looked(e)	looked
2 nd	founde/fand/fandes	found	lookedest	looked
3 rd	fand	found	looked(e)	looked
PI	founde(n)	found	looked(en)	looked
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	founde	found	looked(e)	looked
PI	founde(n)	found	looked(en)	looked
<i>Participle II</i>	founden	found	looked	looked

NUMBER

Number distinctions were not only preserved in ME but even became more consistent and regular; towards the end of the period, however, in the 15th c. they were neutralized in most positions.

In the 13th and 14th c. the ending *-en* turned into the main, almost universal, marker of the PI forms of the verb: it was used in both tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods (the variants in *-eth* and *-es* of



the Present Indicative were used only in the Southern and Northern dialects). In most classes of strong verbs there was an additional distinctive feature between the Sg and Pl forms in the Past tense of the Indicative mood: the two Past tense stems had different root-vowels (see *fand*, *fandest*, *fand* and *founden* in the table). But both ways of indicating Pl turned out to be very unstable. The ending *-en* was missed out in the late 14th c. and was dropped in the 15th; the Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged into one form (*found*, *write*). All number distinctions were lost with the exception of the 2nd and 3rd p., Pres. tense Indic. Mood: the Sg forms were marked by the endings *-est* and *-eth/es* and were formally opposed to the forms of the Pl.

PERSON

The differences in the forms of *Person* were maintained in ME. The variant ending of the 3rd p. *-es* was a new marker first recorded in the Northern dialects. It is believed that *-s* was borrowed from the Pl forms which commonly ended in *-es* in the North; it spread to the Sg and began to be used as a variant in the 2nd and 3rd p., but later was restricted to the 3rd.

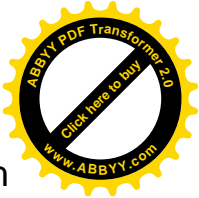
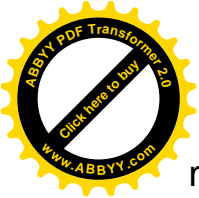
In the early 18th c. *-(e)s* was more common in private letters than official and literary texts, but by the end of the century it was the dominant inflection of the 3rd p. Sg in all forms of speech. The use of *-eth* was stylistically restricted to high poetry and religious texts.

MOOD

Owing to the reduction of endings and levelling of forms the formal differences between the moods were also greatly obscured. In ME the homonymy of the mood forms grew.

The Indicative and Subjunctive moods could no longer be distinguished in the Pl, when *-en* became the dominant flexion of the Indicative Pl in the Present and Past.

In the Past tense of strong verbs the difference between the moods in the Sg could be shown by means of a root-vowel interchange, for the Subjunctive mood was derived from the third principal form of the verb. When, in the 15th c. the two Past tense stems of the strong verbs



merged, all the forms of the moods in the Past tense fell together with the exception of the verb *to be*, which retained a distinct form of the Subjunctive in the Past Sg - *were* as the opposed to *was*.

TENSE

The Past tense was shown with the help of the dental suffix in the weak verbs, and with the help of the root-vowel interchange - in the strong verbs (after the loss of the endings the functional load of the vowel interchange grew). The only exception was a small group of verbs which came from verbs of Class I: in these verbs the dental suffix fused with the last consonant of the root - [t] - and after the loss of endings the three principal forms coincided: OE *settan* - *sette* -*ge-set(ed)*, ME *seten* - *sette* - *set* - *set*, NE *set* - *set* - *set*.



CHAPTER XI. THE 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. Among the changes in the vocabulary we can distinguish losses of words or their meanings, replacements and additions.

Like many other lexical changes losses were connected with events in external history: with changing conditions of life and the obsolescence of many medieval concepts and customs.

The borrowings came to ME vocabulary in two quite different directions; they were Scandinavian and French influences on the ME vocabulary.

French Influence on the Vocabulary

The total number of French borrowings by far exceeds the number of borrowings from any other language.

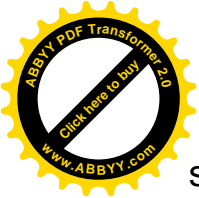
At the initial stages of penetration French words were restricted to the speech of aristocracy at the king's court, the speech of the middle class and the speech of educated people. Eventually French loan – words spread throughout the language space and became an integral part of the English vocabulary.

French was the language of school education, so all the educated people knew and used French words for their ideas to be more precise. The borrowings coexisted with native words, having only stylistic colouring. And these new-coming words penetrated in almost all spheres of everyday life:

Government. Court: acquit, attorney, bailiff, baron, condemn, council, count, court, crime, dungeon, duke, jail, government, judge, justice, manor, peasant, parliament, prison, sentence, state, verdict, villain.

Military terminology: army, battle, captain, conquer, general, lieutenant, mail, retreat, sergeant, siege, victory, war.

Religious terminology: baptize, bull, clergy, confession, convert, friar, pardoner, parish, preach, pray, pulpit, religion, sacrifice,



solemn, virtue.

Building. Construction: bar, chamber, chapel, column, manor, mansion, palace, pillar, portal.

Town crafts: apothecary, barber, butcher, carpenter, joiner, merchant, painter, tailor.

Arts: art, chisel, colour, dance, flute, image, melody, music, ornament, statue, symphony.

School: lesson, pen, pencil, pupil.

Leisure. Pleasure: carol, charm, comfort, dance, feast, joy, leisure, pleasure.

The names of **domestic animals** (*ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine and pig*) remained of native origin, for they lived in the country, but the **meats** of those very animals were borrowed: *beef, pork, veal, mutton, bacon*.

Alongside these there were many everyday usage words borrowed from French which replaced Old English words.

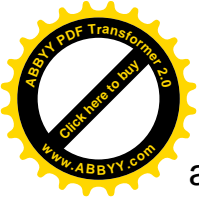
e.g.: *aunt, uncle, cousin, nephew, niece, dinner, supper, money, market, dozen*.

French borrowings have the status of literary words while native English words were common in everyday life. This can be seen in comparison of such pairs of synonyms:

Native English	French Borrowings
Begin	Commence
Come	Arrive
Do	Act
Harm	Injury
Help	Aid
Wife	Spouse
Room	Chamber
Speech	Discourse
Town	City

Scandinavian Influence on the Vocabulary

The Scandinavian invasions had far-reaching linguistic consequences which became apparent in ME. The presence of the Scandinavians in the English population is indicated by a large number of place-names in the northern and eastern areas. In many districts people became bilingual, but gradually the Scandinavian dialects were



absorbed by English.

It is difficult to define the semantic spheres of Scandinavian borrowings: they mostly pertain to everyday life and do not differ from native words. The simple character of the borrowings is well illustrated by such nouns, adjectives and verbs:

Nouns: *bag, band, birth, brink, bulk, cake, crook, dirt, egg, freckle, gap, gate, kid, leg, loan, raft, root, score, skim, skull, sky, thrift, window, wing.*

Adjectives: *flap, happy, ill, loose, low, meek, odd, rotten, scarce, sly, tight, ugly, weak.*

Verbs: *bait, bask, call, cost, clamp, crawl, cut, die, drawn, gape, gasp, hit, happen, lift, nag, raise, rake, rid, scare, scatter, scowl, snub, take, thrive, thrust, want.*

It must be mentioned that form-words are seldom borrowed from a foreign language. The rare examples are: *they, both, though.*

Due to Scandinavian influence the vocabulary changed in different ways:

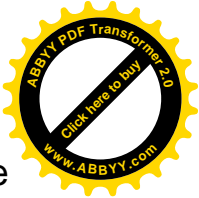
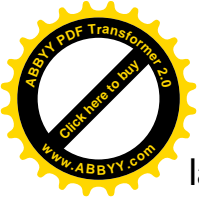
- a Scandinavian word could enter the language as an innovation, without replacing any other word (e.g.: *fellow, law*);
- a loan-word was restricted to dialect use (e.g.: *kirk* “church”);
- a Scandinavian word could take the place of the native word (e.g.: *they, take, call*);
- both borrowed and native words survived as synonyms with a slight difference in meaning (e.g.: *bloom - blossom, ill - evil, sky - heaven, die - starve, want - wish*).

Nowadays it is difficult to distinguish Scandinavian loans from native words. But the consonant cluster [sk] is a mark of Scandinavian loan-words (e.g.: *sky, skill, skirt, scatter, scream*).

Borrowing from Contemporary Languages in New English

The borrowing of French words continued in NE and reached new peaks in the late 15th c. and in the late 17th c.

French borrowings of these periods mainly refer to diplomatic relations, social life, art and fashions. French remained the international



language of diplomacy. Paris led the fashion in dress, food, social life and to some extent in art and literature. All these conditions are reflected in French loan-words: *ball, café, hotel, picnic, restaurant* which refer to social life; *ballet, essay, genre* refer to art. Fashions in dress and food are illustrated by words *blouse, cravat, champagne, menu, soup*.

Most later French borrowings have not been completely assimilated and preserved their spelling, sounds and the position of the stress.

English speakers of the NE period borrowed words from no less than fifty foreign languages.

The main contributors to the vocabulary were Italian, Dutch, Spanish, German, Portuguese and Russian.

The vast majority of borrowings from **Italian** are related to art, music and literature: *aria, bass, duet, piano, solo, sonata, soprano, tenor, violin* (musical terms), *balcony, corridor, design, fresco, gallery, parapet, studio* (architecture).

Borrowings from **Spanish** came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial and political spheres: *armada, barricade, cargo, embargo*.

Dutch made a great contribution to English in the 16th c. when commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were at their peak. Dutch loan-words are mainly nautical terms.

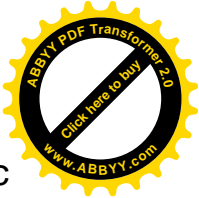
e.g. *bowline, cruise, deck, dock, keel, skipper*. And some art terms: *easel, landscape, sketch*.

Loan words from **German** reflect the scientific and cultural achievements of Germany.

e.g. *cobalt, nickel, zinc, kindergarten, stroll, waltz*.

The most peculiar feature of German influence on the English vocabulary in the 18th and 19th c. is the creation of translation-loans on German model from native English components.

German	English
<i>Schwanenlied</i>	<i>swan-song</i>
<i>Heimweh</i>	<i>home-sickness</i>
<i>Standpunkt</i>	<i>standpoint</i>
<i>Umgebung</i>	<i>environment</i>
<i>Übermensch</i>	<i>superman</i>
<i>Klassenkampf</i>	<i>class struggle</i>
<i>Meisterstück</i>	<i>masterpiece</i>



Borrowings from **Russian** indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia.

e.g. *beluga, boyar, copeck, muzhik, rouble, samovar, troika, tsar, vodka.*

Word-Building in Middle English

During the Middle English period the system of word-building changed in the following ways:

1. The structure and sound system of some affixes changed.
2. The way of word formation by means of vowel and consonant alteration became nonproductive.
3. The new way of word-building (conversion) appeared.

DERIVATION

Suffixes

In Middle English period Old English word-building suffixes of nouns **-ere**, **-ing**, **-ness** continued to exist.

Old English suffix **-ere** changed into **-er** and served to denote the noun which formed the name of profession.

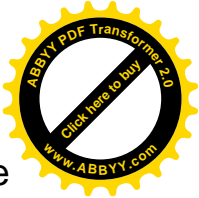
e.g. ME *carter* – возій from noun *cart* – візок
 ME *hunter* – мисливець from verb *hunen* – полювати
 ME *wever* – ткач from verb *weven* – ткати

This suffix was also present in the nouns, denoting profession, borrowed from the Norman dialect.

e.g. *carpenter* – тесля from Norman *carpentier* (NE *carpenter*)
bocher – м'ясник from Norman *bocher* (NE *butcher*)

The most spread suffix in Middle English period was **-ing** (instead of **-in**). This suffix helped to form a lot of nouns with the meaning of process or the result of action and state.

e.g. ME *begynnyng* – початок from ME verb *begynnen* – починати
 ME *huntyng* – полювання from ME verb *hunen* – полювати
 ME *smylyng* – посмішка from ME verb *smylen* – посміхатися



OE suffix **-ness** remained and with it many abstract nouns were formed.

e.g. ME *kindness* – доброта from ME adjective *kind* – добрий
ME *weikness* – слабкість from ME adjective *weik* – слабкий

Suffix **-man** in Middle English period formed new words.

e.g. *gentilman* – дворянин from *gentil* – благородний
(NE – gentleman)

Old English noun suffixes **-dōm**, **-hād**, **-scipe**, **-þu** in Middle English were rarely used, but still helped to form new words.

Suffix **-dōm** wasn't much in use, but as for suffix **-hād** which changed into **-hood** we may say that it formed many new words.

e.g. ME *brotherhood* – братерство from the noun *brother* – брат
ME *neighbourhood* – сусідство from the noun *neighbour* – сусід

The most productive suffix from this group was **-scipe**, which changed into **-ship(e)**.

e.g. *felaweship(e)* – товариство from the noun *felawe* – товариш, хлопець

Owing to need to signify the titles of different members of feudal society suffix **-ship(e)** was often in use.

e.g. ME *knyghtship(e)* – лицарство, звання лицаря
ME *ladyship(e)* – звання леді
ME *lordship(e)* – звання лорда

Old English suffix **-þu** changed into **-the**. This suffix helped to form abstract nouns not only from adjectives, as it was in Old English period, but from other parts of speech.

e.g. ME *welthe* – багатство from the noun *wele* – благо
ME *stelthe* – крадіжка from the verb *stelen* – красти

Old English adjective suffixes **-i**, **-lic**, **-ful**, **-leas**, **-isc** were also in use, but they changed their sound system. Thus, suffix **-i** changed into **-y**; suffix **-lic** changed into **-ly**; suffix **-leas** changed into **-less**; suffix **-isc** changed into **-ish**; suffix **-sum** changed into **-some**, but only in writing and was pronounced with the sound [u]; suffix **-ful** came into Middle English without changes.



Prefixes

In Middle English prefix **mis-** was used to form adjectives or nouns with negative meaning.

- e.g. *mistake* – взяти помилково
misunderstanden – неправильно зрозуміти

Prefix **un-** was widespread and formed many adjectives and verbs.

- e.g. *unhappy* – нещасливий
unjust – несправедливий

Prefix **be-** took part in formation of new verbs mostly from other ones.

- e.g. *believen* – вірити, вважати
besiegen – осаджувати

COMPOSITION

The biggest group of compound words was formed by compound nouns. They could be formed in the following way:

1. *Noun stem+noun stem*

- Foot* (нога) + *ball* (м'яч) = *football* – футбол
Pen (перо) + *knif(e)* (ніж) = *penknif (e)* – складаний ніж

2. *Preposition + noun stem*

- After* (після) + *noon* (полудень) = *afternoon* – час після полудня
Thorough (крізь) + *fare* (шлях) = *thoroughfare* – проїзд

3. *Adverb stem+ verb stem*

- In* (в) + *come* (приходити) = *income* – прибуток

4. *Verb stem + noun stem*

- Breken* (памати) + *fast* (піст) = *breakfast* – сніданок

In Middle English there were a lot of new pronouns, which were formed by composition of *pronoun and noun stems*:

- Any* (будь-який) + *body* (тіло, людина) = *anybody* – хтось

New complex adverbs were created in the following way:

1. *Adjective stem + noun stem*

- Meien* (середній) + *while* (час) = *meanwhile* – тим часом

2. *Pronoun stem +adverb*

- Any* (будь-який) + *where* (де) = *anywhere* – будь-де



3. *Adverb stem + noun*

Before (перед) + *hand* (раніше) = *beforehand* – заздалегідь

4. *Adverb stem + adjective*

All (цілий) + *ready* (готовий) = *already* – повністю готовий

So, as we see, composition as a way of word-building was very productive in Middle English.

Word-Building in Early New English

DERIVATION

We mentioned various sources of enriching the English vocabulary - they were Latin and Celtic borrowings in Old English; Scandinavian and French borrowings 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*, *composition*, *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.

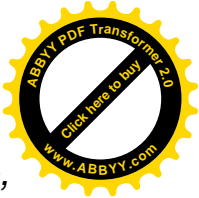
e.g. *trader*, *banker*, *manager*, *explorer*, *provider*, *subscriber*, *printer*, *stopper*, *spoiler*, *hooker*, *chopper*, *ripper*, *intruder*, *hairstylist*.

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.

e.g. *boiler*, *cooler*, *duster*, *steamer*, *coaster*, *scooter*.

During this period the former suffix **-our** (French in origin) acquired the same form **-er** or turned into **-or**.

e.g. *interpretour* – interpreter, *robbour* – robber, *auditour* – auditor, *traytour* – traitor, *emperour* – emperor, *senatour* – senator.



The suffix **-ster** (from feminine **-estre** e.g. *webbestre*, *spinnestre*, *beggestre*) acquired negative connotations and no longer is indicating the gender.

e.g. *gamester*, *trickster*, *gangster*.

In noun-formation we find old suffixes that may be added to native as well as borrowed stems:

-ing

e.g. *farming*, *belonging*, *stocking*, *misgiving*, *marketing*, *acting*, *modelling*, *screening*, *engineering*.

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.

e.g. *boatman*, *spokesman*, *coachman*, *postman*, *meatman*, *clergyman*, *milkman*, *tallyman*, *oarsman*, *cowman*, *groomsman*, *fireman*, *chairman*, *artilleryman*;

and later *sportsman*, *policeman*, *showman*, *raftsman*, *yachtsman*, *ombudsman*, *anchorman*.

The latest change of the formations of this type in compounds proper can be illustrated by words like *spokesperson*, *chairperson*, *anchorperson* etc.

Adjective suffixes used at the times were of native origin as well as borrowed. The native suffixes are:

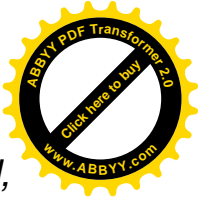
-y

e.g. *stumpy*, *wavy*, *haughty*, *healthy*, *saucy*, *racy*, *brassy*, *lumpy*.

-ful

e.g. *bashful*, *beautiful*, *delightful*, *grateful*, *hopeful*, *truthful*, *trustful*, *disdainful*, *eventful*, *disgustful*, *fanciful*, *regretful*;

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:



e.g. *unbecoming, unfortunate, unabated, unabridged, unaccented, unalterable, unanswerable, unapproachable.*

The prefixes **out-**, **over-** and **under-** known in the language from the oldest times give a great number of new derivatives.

out- is used to form many transitive verbs denoting going beyond, surpassing, or outdoing in the particular action indicated.

e.g. *outrow, outbid, outbrave, outbreak, outdare, outlast, outmatch, outplay.*

The above mentioned affixes continue to form new words. New affixes of the Early New English period are:

-ment. It came into the language in Middle English together with a great number of French words (*testament, argument, judgment, instrument etc.*), but in Early New English it became productive and used with stems of various origin:

e.g. *atonement, merriment, treatment, astonishment, acknowledgement, inducement, amazement, betterment.*

The suffix **-al**, forming nouns from verbs, usually of French or Latin origin gives the following in Early New English.

e.g. *recital, trial, approval, denial, perusal, disposal, proposal.*

-ity, a suffix of French origin used to form abstract nouns expressing state or condition is joined to the borrowed stems:

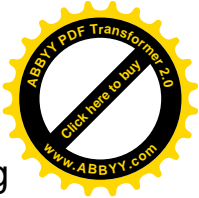
e.g. *probity, modesty, senility, virility, validity;*

while **-age** of the same origin may be used in either combination:

luggage, shortage, leakage, rampage, mileage, storage, wreckage.

Suffix **-able** came into the English language in Middle English as a part of a great number of French adjectives (*amiable, agreeable, charitable, measurable, honorable 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.

e.g. *answerable, approachable, arguable, bearable, capable, collectible (collectable), commendable, deniable, disputable, drinkable, eatable, enjoyable, marketable, namable, readable, removable, tamable, teachable.*



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 combined both with the borrowed and native roots. The examples of innovations containing them are:

re- *re-examine, rewrite, re-export, redo, refill, remind, restate, recollect, refurbish.*

trans- used with the meanings “across”, “beyond”, “through”, “changing”, “thoroughly”, “transverse” in combination with elements of any origin.

e.g. *transact, transfix, transgress, transmarine, translucent, translocation.*

post- a prefix, meaning “behind”, “after”, “later”, “subsequent to”, “posterior to” now used freely in the formation of new words.

e.g. *postposition, postdiluvian, postgraduate, post-meridian.*

pre- a prefix meaning “before”, “prior to”, “in advance of”, “early”, “beforehand”, “before”, “in front of” and with other figurative meanings: *prejudge, preconceive, predecease, precaution.*

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”.

e.g. *supereminent, supersubtle, superlunary, superman, supercharge, superstructure.*

sub- a prefix freely attached to elements of any origin and used with the meaning “under”, “below”, “beneath”, “slightly”, “imperfectly”, “nearly”, “secondary”, “subordinate”.

e.g. *subhead, subalpine, submarine, subcommittee.*

counter- used with the meanings “against”, “contrary”, “opposite”, “in opposition or response to”, “complementary”, “in reciprocation”, “corresponding”, “parallel”.

e.g. *counterbalance, counterscarp, counterplot, countercharge, counterforce, counterblow, counteract.*



COMPOSITION

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, schoolboy, lighthouse, daybook, staircase, heartbroken, good-natured, long-faced, short-lived, greatcoat, shorthand, looking-glass, bystander, passer-by.*

Some words were formed from more than two stems, they are called **syntactic compounds**:

forget-me-not, happy-go-lucky, jack-in-the-office, jack-of-all-trades, matter-of-fact, merry-go-round, out-of-date.

Among these are common occasional formations when a word-group stands in preposition to a noun.

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* (gentleman), *quack* (quacksalver), *cab* (cabriolet), *wig* (periwig).

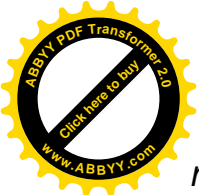
Later, in the 19th century here we will find *exam* (examination), *consoles* (consolidated rent), *bus* (omnibus), *van* (caravan), *flu* (influenza), *doc* (doctor) and many others.

Conversion as a New Way of 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 dejectival 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).

Among the nouns turned into verbs in the Early New English period such verbs are to be mentioned: *alarm*, *camp*, *place*, *pity*, *pump*, *capture*, *stake*, *hand*, *lunch* 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 substantivization 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.).

In the present day English conversion has grown into one of the most productive ways of word-building, accounting for the free transformation of nouns into verbs and verbs into nouns through a change in their syntactic position.



CHAPTER XII. MODERN ENGLISH

The Formation of the National Literary English Language

The Formation of the National Literary English language, or Standard English, is considered to date from the period between the 15th and the 17th centuries. After that time the language continued to change, yet, henceforth one can speak of the evolution of Standard English instead of tracing the similar or different trends in the history of its dialects.

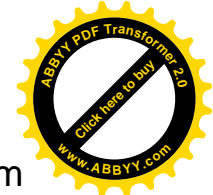
We must mention at least two of the external factors that led to this development: the unification of the country and the progress of culture.

Spread of the London Dialect in the 15th Century

In the course of the 15th century the London literary language gradually spread all over the country, superseding local dialects. Spoken English in various parts of Britain gradually approaches the literary norm, and differences between the norm and popular speech tend to become obliterated. According to this classification, written documents of the 15th century can be classified into two types: 1) those written in the London literary language, 2) those written in a more or less pure local dialect. This classification cuts right across another classification, that according to the kind of documents: 1) official documents, 2) literary texts, 3) private letters.

The formation of a national language was greatly fostered by two events of the late 15th century.

The most significant event of the period was the Wars of the Roses (1455–1485), which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. The political result was the rise of an absolute monarchy. This meant a high degree of political centralization and thus contributed to centralization in language as well, that is, to a predominance of the national language over local dialects. The 15th and 16th centuries in Western Europe are marked by a great interest in art and literature. It greatly stimulated science. Oxford and Cambridge Universities were the centers of learning. But Latin was the main subject and English was only an instrument in teaching Latin.



Another great event was the introduction of printing by William Caxton (1422–1491). He founded the first English printing office in London in 1476, and in 1477 appeared the first book to be printed in England, namely, *The Dicts and Sayings of the Philosophers*.

Cheap printed books were available to a great number of readers. The London dialect was carried to other regions. Introduction of printing greatly helped normalization of spelling. Norms adopted by the first printers have basically survived up to our own days. Phonetic changes which have occurred since then have hardly been reflected in the spelling. As a result vowel letters in English acquired meanings different from those they have in French, German, Italian, and other European languages; besides each vowel letter acquired different sound values depending on its environment. Thus the letter **a** denotes different vowel sounds in the words *make, cat, water, any*.

Existence of a language norm becomes evident in the 16th century. The literary language is apprehended as a model which must be followed, wherever this or that user of English may happen to live. On the entire territory of Southern and Midland dialects in all written documents, including private letters, only literary English is used. All other dialects, except Scottish, were reduced to the state of merely oral languages.

Social changes of the 16th century created the conditions for a great literary achievement. The most famous poets were Wyatt, Surrey, Spenser. The 80s and 90s witnessed the rise of a great number of poets and dramatists. The greatest of these was William Shakespeare (1564–1616). His writings influenced every age and every country. Shakespeare's plays were greatly admired in the theatre (but less than half of them were printed in his lifetime). He created in all genres of drama and poetry (comedy, tragedy, historical play and sonnet). His works give an ideal representation of the literary language of his day. Shakespeare's vocabulary was about 20 000 words.



Development of the Literary Language

The 17th and 18th centuries witnessed some great social and political upheavals, which influenced the language as well. The most outstanding events were the bourgeois revolution of the 17th century, the Restoration of 1660, and the industrial revolution in the 18th century. But even before these events an important development took place in the history of the language.

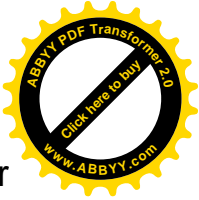
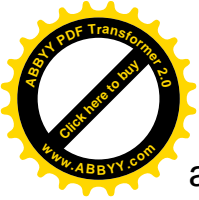
In the 17th century the colonization of America by Englishmen began. It was caused by political struggle in England. The official Anglican Church was persecuting the Puritans. They sought a way out in emigration. In 1620 a first group of puritans on the famous ship *Mayflower* reached North America. This was the beginning of the history of English in the New World.

Political struggle in Britain ended with a puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwealth in 1649. The language of the Commonwealth belongs to the Early Modern English period, which lasted till about 1660. The literary language of the time bears a strong imprint of puritan ideology.

The restoration of the Stuarts under Charles II in 1660 reinstated to some extent the influence of the nobility and along with it that of the aristocratic language culture which had been overthrown by the Revolution.

Since the mid- 17th century a trend makes itself felt against the somewhat entangled syntactic structures of the preceding period, in favour of shorter and simpler syntactic formations. This trend is represented by John Evelyn, John Dryden and Richard Bentley.

From the viewpoint of this new trend, the language of the 15th and early 17th century was bound to appear wild and clumsy. Publications of Shakespeare's works appearing in the 18th century are full of arbitrary changes designed to make Shakespeare's text conform to the 'correctness' of the 18th century. In the 17th and 18th centuries a great number of grammarians and orthoepists appeared, who set as their task the establishing of correct language forms: Alexander Gill, Charles Butler, John Wallis and others. Some scholars suggested improving spelling, but the idea was not successful. Others decided to improve (correct) pronunciation



according to spelling. English scholars also worried about English grammar and vocabulary. They wrote English grammar following the examples on Latin grammar and sometimes in Latin.

About the middle of the 18th century there appears a tendency to limit the freedom of phonetic and grammatical variants within the national language. The idea of a strict norm was expressed with great clarity by Samuel Johnson in a preface to his famous *Dictionary of the English language* (1755). The dictionary gave precise definition of meanings, illustrations of usage, stylistic comments, based on quotation of 700 authors of the 17th and 18th centuries.

As for pronunciation he recommended to listen to those elegant speakers who follow the written words.

The Geographical Expansion of English

In the early 17th century the English language penetrated into America. In the course of the following centuries it spread over the greater part of North America and reached the Pacific.

Meanwhile within the British Isles the English language gradually supplanted the Celtic languages, which had survived since the earliest times in the extreme South-West of England (Cornwall), in Wales, on the Isle of Man, in the extreme North-West of Scotland and in Ireland. By the year of 1700 there were 8 mln speakers of English.

In the course of the last few centuries English spread over various parts of the globe. In the 18th century the English penetrated into India.

In the course of the Seven Years' War (1756-1763) the English conquered Canada, which had been a French Colony. A few decades later English settlers appeared in Australia. During the 19th century the whole of Australia and also New Zealand and many islands in Oceania were colonized. In the early years of the 20th century the English penetrated into South Africa.



NE Dialects

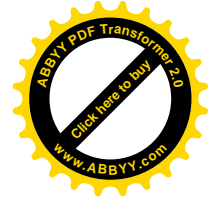
In the course of the MnE period local dialects were, as we see, gradually superseded by the literary language. However, they have not disappeared and they still are a means of communication in the respective territories.

Modern dialects are divided into six groups. The modern Scottish and Northern dialects correspond to the ME Northern, the modern Western, Central and Eastern to the ME Midland. The Southern dialects are a more unified group.



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Спаська Людмила Анатоліївна

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