

МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
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ІСТОРІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

ПОСІБНИК

для студентів 3 курсу ОС «бакалавр»
факультетів іноземних мов вищих закладів освіти

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Посібник містить короткий курс лекцій із дисципліни «Історія мови» на основі загальних історичних відомостей з мови від найдавніших часів до сучасності, спрямований на ознайомлення з найважливішими історичними процесами, котрі відбувались в мові у зв'язку з історією розвитку суспільства. Посібник укладено на засадах кредитно-трансферної системи навчання. Призначається для студентів денної та заочної форм навчання ОС «бакалавр».

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Передмова

Посібник призначений для самостійної роботи здобувачів вищої освіти та націлений на забезпечення комунікативної компетенції в актах міжкультурної комунікації через адекватне сприйняття мови, що передбачає формування у здобувачів освіти лінгвокраїнознавчої компетенції, а також здатність зберігати та примножувати моральні, культурні, наукові цінності і досягнення суспільства на основі розуміння історії та закономірностей розвитку мови, її місця у загальній системі знань про суспільство та його розвиток.

Здатність визначати динаміку різних елементів структури мови, виявляти взаємозалежність розвитку фонетичної структури і модифікації граматичних категорій, виникнення нових категорій є невід'ємною частиною комунікативної компетенції, що відповідає вимогам навчальної програми з дисципліни «Історія мови» для студентів 3 курсу ОС «бакалавр» закладів вищої освіти.

Посібник містить короткий курс лекцій із дисципліни «Історія мови» на основі загальних історичних відомостей з мови від найдавніших часів до сучасності, спрямований на ознайомлення з найважливішими історичними процесами, котрі відбувались в мові у зв'язку з історією розвитку суспільства. Посібник включає план практичних занять, завдання для самостійної роботи та індивідуальні науково-дослідні завдання.

Методика організації та проведення практичних завдань спрямована на розвиток у здобувачів вищої освіти пошукових умінь, роботи з автентичними підручниками, текстами та статтями англійською мовою, навичок самостійної роботи та роботи у малих групах для вирішення дослідницьких завдань; на здатність усвідомити процес трансформації мови від флективної, до статусу мови, що дедалі більше використовує аналітичні форми.

INTRODUCTION

Опис навчальної дисципліни

Найменування показників	Характеристика дисципліни за формами навчання
Вид дисципліни (обов'язкова чи вибіркова)	обов'язкова
Мова викладання, навчання та оцінювання	англійська
Форма навчання	денна / заочна
Загальний обсяг у кредитах ЄКТС / годинах	3
Курс	3
Семестр	6
Кількість змістових модулів із розподілом:	3 ЗМ
Форма семестрового контролю	екзамен

Мета курсу: стислий системний виклад історії англійської мови від найдавніших часів до сучасності, спрямований на ознайомлення здобувачів вищої освіти з найважливішими історичними процесами, котрі відбувались в мові у зв'язку з історією розвитку суспільства, де англійська мова використовувалась як засіб спілкування та формування у них умінь пояснити норми сучасної англійської мови з точки зору законів її історичного розвитку.

Завдання курсу: розкрити суть та проблеми основних питань історії англійської мови; формувати умінь пояснити норми сучасної англійської мови та їх особливості з точки зору її історичного розвитку; формувати у здобувачів вищої освіти системно-наукове розуміння розвитку англійської мови та особливостей цього розвитку на різних історичних етапах; розвивати навички зіставного лінгвістичного аналізу мовних явищ в історичній ретроспективі; сформувані у здобувачів вищої освіти системно-наукове розуміння розвитку англійської мови та особливості цього розвитку на різних історичних етапах.

Список лекцій

Content Unit 1. Introduction to the course. Germanic Languages.

1. The subject matter and aims of the course. Sources and theoretical aspects of Language History.
2. Periods in the history of the EL. Germanic Languages.

CU 2. Old English Language.

3. Historical background. Alphabet and pronunciation. Phonetics.
4. Old English grammar.
5. Old English vocabulary.

CU 3. Middle and Early New English.

6. Middle English. Historical background. Spelling and grammar changes.
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SOURCES AND THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE HISTORY

It was observed that an interest in the past was one of the distinguishing characteristics of humans as compared with the other animals. The medium by which speakers of a language communicate their thoughts and feelings to others, the tool with which they conduct their business or the government of millions of people.

Today it is reasonable to assume that a liberally educated person should know something of the structure of his or her language, its position in the world and its relation to other tongues, the wealth of its vocabulary together with the sources from which that vocabulary has been and is being enriched, and the complex relationships among the many different varieties of speech that are gathered under the single name of the English language.

The diversity of cultures that find expression in it is a reminder that the history of English is a story of cultures in contact during the past 1,500 years. It understates matters to say that political, economic, and social forces influence a language. These forces shape the language in every aspect, as well as in the meanings of words, in the accents of the spoken language, and even in the structures of the grammar. The history of a language is intimately bound up with the history of the peoples who speak it.

Influences at Work on Language. The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. The political and social events that have in the course of English history so profoundly affected the English people in their national life have generally had a recognizable effect on their language.

The Roman Christianizing of Britain in 597 brought England into contact with Latin civilization and made significant additions to the vocabulary. The Scandinavian invasions resulted in a considerable mixture of the two peoples and their languages. The Norman Conquest made English for two centuries the language mainly of the lower classes while the nobles and those associated with them used French on almost all occasions. And when English once more regained supremacy as the language of all elements of the population, it was an English greatly changed in both form and vocabulary from what it had been in 1066.

In a similar way the Hundred Years' War, the rise of an important middle class, the Renaissance, the development of England as a maritime power, the expansion of the British Empire, and the growth of commerce and

industry, of science and literature, have, each in their way, contributed to the development of the language.

Growth and Decay. Moreover, English, like all other languages, is subject to that constant growth and decay that characterize all forms of life. It is a convenient figure of speech to speak of languages as living and as dead. Although we rarely think of language as something that possesses life apart from the people who speak it, as we can think of plants or of animals, we can observe in speech something like the process of change that characterizes the life of living things. When a language ceases to change, we call it a dead language. Classical Latin is a dead language because it has not changed for nearly 2,000 years.

The change that is constantly going on in a living language can be most easily seen in the vocabulary. Old words die out, new words are added, and existing words change their meaning. Much of the vocabulary of Old English has been lost, and the development of new words to meet new conditions is one of the most familiar phenomena of the language. Change of meaning can be illustrated from any page of Shakespeare. Nice in Shakespeare's day meant foolish; rheumatism signified a cold in the head.

Less familiar but no less real is the change of pronunciation. A slow but steady alteration, especially in the vowel sounds, has characterized English throughout its history.

Old English stān has become the stone; cū has become cow

Changes likewise occur in the grammatical forms of a language. These may be the result of gradual phonetic modification, or they may result from the desire for uniformity commonly felt where similarity of function or use is involved.

The person who says *I knowed* is only trying to form the past tense of this verb after the pattern of the past tense of so many verbs in English. This process is known as the operation of analogy, and it may affect the sound and meaning as well as the form of words.

The Importance of English. In numbers of speakers as well as in its uses for international communication and in other less quantifiable measures, English is one of the most important languages of the world. Spoken by more than 380 million people in the United Kingdom, the United States, and the former British Empire, it is the largest of the Western languages. English, however, is not the most widely used native language in the world. Chinese, in its eight spoken varieties, is known to 1.3 billion people in China alone.

Some of the European languages are comparable to English in reflecting the forces of history, especially with regard to European expansion

since the sixteenth century. Spanish, next in size to English, is spoken by about 330 million people, Portuguese by 180 million, Russian by 175 million, German by 110 million, French by 80 million native speakers (and a large number of second-language speakers), Italian by 65 million.

French and English are both languages of wider communication, and yet the changing positions of the two languages in international affairs during the past century illustrate the extent to which the status of a language depends on extralinguistic factors. It has been said that English is associated with practical and powerful pursuits. It is considered the equal of English for reading good novels or poetry and for personal.

The Future of the English Language. Since growth in a language is primarily a matter of population, the most important question to ask is which populations of the world will increase most rapidly. Growth of population is determined by the difference between the birth rate and the death rate and by international migration. The single most important fact about current trends is that the Third World countries of Africa, Asia, and Latin America have experienced a sharp drop in mortality during the twentieth century without a corresponding drop in the birth rate. As a result, the population of these areas is younger and growing faster than the population of the industrialized countries of Europe and North America.

According to a recent United Nations analysis, by 2050 the United States will be the only developed country among the world's twenty most populous nations, whereas in 1950 at least half of the top ten were industrial nations.

India is expected to replace China as the world's most populous nation in half a century, with a concomitant growth in Hindi and Bengali, already among the top five languages in the world. The one demographic fact that can be stated with certainty is that the proportion of the world's population in the economically developed countries will shrink during the next half century in comparison with the proportion in the presently developing countries.

Since most of the native speakers of English live in the developed countries, it can be expected that this group will account for a progressively smaller proportion of the world's population. Counteracting the general trend somewhat is the exceptional situation in the United States.

If the future of a language were merely a matter of the number who speak it as a first language, English would appear to be entering a period of decline after four centuries of unprecedented expansion. What makes this prospect unlikely is the fact that English is widely used as a second language

and as a foreign language throughout the world. The number of speakers who have acquired English as a second language with near native fluency is estimated to be between 350 and 400 million. If we add to first and second language speakers, the estimates for the total number of speakers range between one and one and a half billion.

In some countries English is a neutral language among competing indigenous languages. In most developing countries communications in English are superior to those in the vernacular languages. The unavailability of textbooks in Swahili has slowed the effort to establish that language as the language of education in Tanzania. Yet textbooks and other publications are readily available in English, and they are produced by countries with the economic means to sustain their vast systems of communications.

The complex interaction of these forces defies general statements of the present situation or specific projections into the distant future. Among European languages it seems likely that English, German, and Spanish will benefit from various developments.

The breakup of the Soviet Union and the increasing political and economic unification of Western Europe are already resulting in the shifting fortunes of Russian and German. The independent states of the former Soviet Union are unlikely to continue efforts to make Russian a common language throughout that vast region, and the presence of a unified Germany will reinforce the importance of the German language.

The growth of Spanish, as of Portuguese, will come mainly from the rapidly increasing population of Latin America, while the growth in English will be most notable in its use throughout the world as a second language. It is also likely that pidgin and creole varieties of English will become increasingly widespread in those areas where English is not a first language.

English as a World Language. That the world is fully alive to the need for an international language is evident from the number of attempts that have been made to supply that need artificially. Between 1880 and 1907 fifty-three universal languages were proposed.

Today it is all but forgotten. A few years later Esperanto experienced a similar vogue, but interest in it now is kept alive largely by local groups and organizations.

The history of language policy in the twentieth century makes it unlikely that any government will turn its resources to an international linguistic solution that benefits the particular country only indirectly. Without the support of governments and the educational institutions that they

control, the establishment of an artificial language for the world will be impossible.

Two centuries ago French would have appeared to have attained an undisputed claim to such ascendancy. It was then widely cultivated throughout Europe as the language of polite society, it was the diplomatic language of the world, and it enjoyed considerable popularity in literary and scientific circles. During the nineteenth century its prestige, though still great, gradually declined.

The prominence of Germany in all fields of scientific and scholarly activity made German a serious competitor. Now more scientific research is probably published in English than in any other language, and the preeminence of English in commercial use is undoubted.

The revolution in communications during the twentieth century has contributed to the spread of several European languages, but especially of English because of major broadcasting and motion picture industries in the United States and Great Britain.

Since World War II, English as an official language has claimed progressively less territory among the former colonies of the British Empire while its actual importance and number of speakers have increased rapidly. At the time of the first edition of this history (1935), English was the official language of one-fourth of the earth's surface, even if only a small fraction of the population in parts of that area actually knew English. As the colonies gained independence, English continued to be used alongside the vernaculars.

In many of the new countries English is either the primary language or a necessary second language in the schools, the courts, and business. In Uganda, for example, where no language is spoken as a first language by more than 16 percent of the population, English is the one official language; yet less than one percent of the population speaks it as a first language. In India, English was to serve transitional purposes only until 1965, but it continues to be used officially with Hindi and fourteen other national languages. In Tanzania, Swahili is the one official language, but English is still indispensable in the schools and the high courts.

During the 1990s the explosive growth of the Internet was extending English as a world language in ways that could not have been foreseen only a few years earlier. The development of the technology and software to run the Internet took place in the United States, originally as ARPANET (the Advanced Research Project Agency Network), a communication system

begun in 1969 by the U.S. Department of Defense in conjunction with military contractors and universities.

In 2000 English was the dominant language of the Internet, with more than half of the Internet hosts located in the United States and as many as three-fourths in the United States and other English speaking countries. The protocols by which ASCII code was transmitted were developed for the English alphabet, and the writing systems for languages such as Japanese, Chinese, and Korean presented formidable problems for use on the World Wide Web.

The technology that made knowledge of English essential also facilitated online English language instruction in countries such as China, where demand for English exceeds the available teachers. However, changes in the Internet economy are so rapid that it is impossible to predict the future of English relative to other languages in this global system.

Assets and Liabilities. Because English occupies such a prominent place in international communication, it is worth pausing to consider some of the features that figure prominently in learning English as a foreign language.

Learning any second language requires some effort, perhaps the most important is the closeness of the speaker's native language to the language that is being learned. All else equal, including the linguistic skill of the individual learner, English will seem easier to a native speaker of Dutch than to a native speaker of Korean.

The ethnographic, political, economic, technological, scientific, and cultural forces have determined the international status of English, which would be the same even if the language had had a much smaller lexicon and eight inflectional cases for nouns, as Indo-European did. The inflections of Latin did nothing to slow its spread when the Roman legions made it the world language that it was for several centuries.

History of the English language is one of the fundamental courses forming the linguistic background of a specialist in philology. It studies the rise and development of English, its structure and peculiarities in the old days, its similarity to other languages of the same family and its unique, specific features. It is a diachronistic view of the language that is aimed at understanding the very essence of the language that seems to be so unique in many respects today.

The subject matter of the course is the changing nature of the language through more than 15 hundred years of its existence. It starts with a close view at the beginnings of the language, originally the dialects of a

comparatively small number of related tribes that migrated from the continent onto the British Isles, the dialects of the Indo-European family – synthetic, inflected language with a well-developed system of noun forms, a rather poorly represented system of verbal categories, with free word order and a vocabulary that consisted almost entirely of words of native origin. The phonological system of the language was also much simpler, with a strict subdivision of vowels into long and short, comparatively few diphthongs and an underdeveloped system of consonants.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 1

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Describe the English language. Give as many definitions and specific features as you can. Characterize them.
2. What is the most distinguishing characteristic of humans as compared with the other animals? How did it influence the humans?
3. The subject and the aims of the course.
4. The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. Comment on them.
5. Dead and living languages. What dimensions denote them?
6. The importance of English.
7. The future of the EL. Can we predict its flourishing?
8. What are other languages that are widely spread and spoken globally?
9. What are the difficulties one may observe while studying the language as a second or foreign?
10. The language evolution. General features.

PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. GERMANIC LANGUAGES

The English language is to a certain extent rare in the sense that we actually can find a starting point of its development. Usually, the rise of languages comes naturally through the splitting and merging of dialects in some hidden latent way.

The beginnings of the English language are traced back to the year 449, when coming to help their Celtic ally, two Germanic chieftains, Hengist and Horsa, brought their belligerent tribesmen to the Isles. History prior to that event is marked by the turbulence of the Roman Empire. The Romans had finally withdrawn to the Apennines to check the onslaught of the Barbarian Invasions. Having been kept in submission for several hundred years, the Celtic inhabitants of the isles, could not make good use of their independence: and spent years fighting for supremacy, for none of the chieftains wanted to recognise someone else's power. But the British resistance stiffened as the invaders got away from coast, and their advance was brought to a standstill for nearly fifty years by a great battle won at Mount Badon.

Historians attribute this resistance and this glittering but in the long run rather fruitless victory to King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table. Arthur's name became part and parcel of the romantic past of the English people, and one hardly remembers that Arthur was one of the most unyielding enemies to their ancestors. Various approaches to delimiting the periods have been put forward. The basis of subdivision of it may be purely historical, based on some outstanding linguistically relevant events.

There is a tradition of recognizing:

- the Old English period (449-1066);
- the Middle English (1066-1475);
- New English 15th century onwards.

Usually in this subdivision of periods they distinguish a subperiod – Early New English, the period between the 15th and mid-17th century – the period of Renaissance in the English culture, the one which is represented by numerous works of the classics of English literature and philosophy.

Each of the periods is marked by a set of specific features of phonology, grammar and vocabulary, and may be also defined in these terms. Henry Sweet classified them as The Period of Full Endings, the Period of Levelled Endings and the Period of Lost Endings. His classification is

arbitrary to some extent – true, in the Old English period any vowel could be found in the ending, and the majority of the parts of speech are connected with the other words in the sentences by means of endings.

Written Old English (or Anglo-Saxon period).

The second major division in the generally accepted classification may also be treated with greater copiousness – the language of the first centuries after the Norman Conquest differs from that of the very end of the period.

The beginning was marked by intense decline in the importance and sphere of functioning of the language. Unable to compete with the language of the mighty conquerors, it was reduced to serve the lower layers of the population, its functioning being prevalently in oral communication, the rules for the use of the forms were not only observed - they were not even set at the time, and it might be described as the period of free mutilation of the language by the uneducated and uncaring for the future of the language people.

That was in what we call **the Early Middle English**. The writings of the period, represented mainly by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, Peterborough Chronicle, show the great turbulence within the language system, and drastic unregulated changes at work.

Late (classical) Middle English already presents a paragon of speech. London dialect becomes more and more prestigious, and what is written in “The Canterbury Tales” is already almost understood by a reader without a special linguistic training.

Chaucer’s English is recognizable, is quite readable – the spelling of the period did not change so much as its pronunciation. Usually these literary works are usually supplemented with commentaries, but the original texts go without translation for the learners of the English literature.

Early New English – known as Shakespeare’s English – lasted for a century and a half – a time span far exceeding the life of the great Englishman – is represented by numerous writings of a whole bunch of prominent thinkers, writers, scientists. This period is characterized by co-existence of numerous almost equal in meaning forms – that was one more turbulent period of the making of the language, when not the strict rules but the authority of the user of the form was decisive in the choice of forms. Classical classifications give the New English period as **beginning with mid-17 century**.

Really, almost all the grammatical forms that are found in the language had been formed by that period; the major phonetic changes had already taken place; the ability to pick whatever lexeme wherever possible was

already developed. The language in later years did not change as far as its structure and categories are concerned. Though the form of expression changed from century to century, it seems to be just a pure object of stylistic analysis and the study of territorial variants of the language and idiosyncrasies of style of the authors.

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

Specifically, a fourth, “**post-Modem**” **period of English** (we may call it **Late New English**) may have originated in 1876 or 1877 with Alexander Graham Bell’s invention of the telephone and Thomas Alva Edison’s invention of the phonograph. These machines, along with a few others that have followed – radio, talking pictures, television – were able to do for the spoken word what the printing press did for the written word.

Before 1876, speakers could be heard only by those within earshot; now, however, a speaker may have a virtually unlimited audience, situated anywhere on the Earth or even in outer space.

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

British English (the brand of English: spoken in Great Britain) and *American English* (that spot in the USA) piverged as soon as the American colonies were founded at the start of the 17th century. Nonetheless, because of the constant interchange of people and books across the ocean, American English never developed beyond being a dialect of English.

With the advent of records, cinema, radio, and television, the two brands of English have even begun to draw back together again. Britons and Americans probably speak more alike today than they did 50 or 60 years ago.

Canadian English, Australian English, South African English, and many other dialects of English scattered around the world are coming increasingly to resemble one another. Within each dialect area, subdialects

are also losing their distinctive characteristics. Within the United States, for example, the speech of Northerners and Southerners is becoming less obviously distinctive.

Although the English language is becoming more uniform, this does not mean that it will come to a rest once all dialectal differences are gone.

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

GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Languages can be classified according to different principles. Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic group of languages, which is one of the twelve groups of the Indo-European family, being one of the major ones.

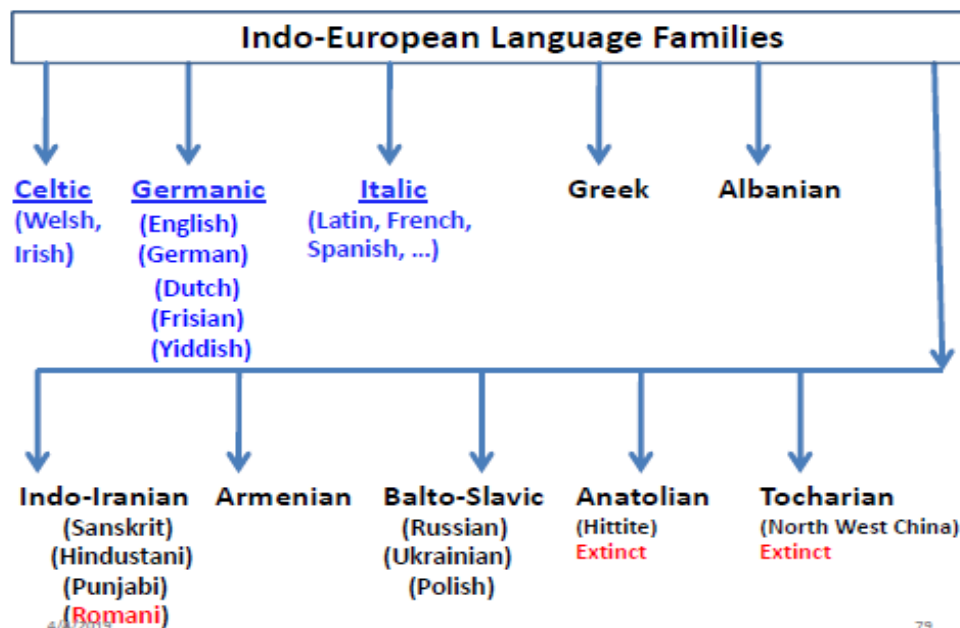
Language Families in Europe

Indo-European Family

- Most European Languages (details to follow)

Non Indo-European Languages in Europe

- Finnic Group
 - Hungarian, Finnish and Estonian
- Basque: not related to any known language
 - Called a “language isolate”
 - Very mysterious



It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many countries is one of two languages in a bilingual community (Canada, India). Thus, the total number of people using Germanic languages for communication might approach 440 million.

Proto-Germanic. All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history that begins with the appearance of so-called Proto-Germanic language. It is the linguistic ancestor of the parent-language of the Germanic group and is supposed to have split from related Indo-European tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th centuries BC.

As the Indo-Europeans (or the would-be Germanic tribes) within the times extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This region is regarded as the most probable original home place of the tribe. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group.

Proto-Germanic is an entirely pre-historical language. It was never recorded in written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages.

It is believed that at the earliest stages of history Proto-Germanic was one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appeared divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the Proto-Germanic language broke into parts, accurately splitting onto three branches: *East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic*.

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 AD they moved south-east and later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch moved on to southern Gaul to found one of the first barbarian

kingdoms of Medieval Europe, the Toulouse kingdom. Later, linguistically the Western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanised Celts. The Eastern Goths were subjugated by the Huns and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy.

The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4th-5th century. Since, they were the first of the Germans to become Christian, we may note the earliest text of this period in the languages of the Germanic group – the Solver Codex. It represents a form of language very close to Proto-Germanic.

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The tribes did not participate in the migrations and were relatively isolated. The speech showed little dialectal variation until the 9th century and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway.

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes lived in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe. The dialectal differentiation of the tribes was probably distinct even at the beginning. But on the eve of their great migration of the 4th and 5th centuries, the West Germans included several tribes: the Frankonians or Franks, the Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons, High Germans and Low Germans.

Germanic Languages

	East Germanic	North Germanic	West Germanic
Old Germanic languages (with dates of the earliest records)	Gothic (4th c.) Vandalic Burgundian	Old Norse or Old Scandinavian (2nd-3rd c.) Old Icelandic (12th c.) Old Norwegian (13th c.) Old Danish (13th c.) Old Swedish (13th c.)	Anglian, Frisian, Jutish, Saxon, Franconian, High German (Alemannic, Thuringian, Swabian, Bavarian) Old English (7th c.) Old Saxon (9th c.) Old High German (8th. c.) Old Dutch (12th c.)
Modern Germanic languages	No living languages	Icelandic Norwegian Danish Swedish Faroese	English German Netherlandish Afrikaans Yiddish Frisian

LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features – some of these specific characteristics are shared by other groups in the Indo-European family, others are specifically Germanic.

Phonetics. The Germanic system of word accentuation is one of the most important distinguishing features of the group. The Germanic languages inherited the stress fixation on the first syllable.

Vowels. Throughout history, vowels displayed a strong tendency to change. They underwent different kinds of alterations: qualitative and quantitative. Strict differentiation of long and short vowels is regarded as an important feature of the Germanic group. The contrast of short and long vowels is supported by the different directions of their changes. While long vowels generally tended to become closer and to diphthongize, short vowels often changed into more open sounds.

Independent Vowel Changes in Proto-Germanic

Change illustrated		Examples		
PIE	PG	Non-Germanic	Germanic	
			Old	Modern
o	a	<i>L</i> nox, <i>Ir</i> nochd, <i>R</i> ночь <i>R</i> могу; мочь	<i>Gt</i> nahts, <i>O Icel</i> nátt, <i>OHG</i> naht <i>Gt</i> magan, <i>OE</i> magan, mæg	<i>Sw</i> natt, <i>G</i> Nacht <i>Sw</i> mā, <i>NE</i> may
a:	o:	<i>L</i> mater, <i>R</i> мать <i>O Ind</i> bhrāta, <i>L</i> frater, <i>R</i> брат	<i>O Icel</i> móðir, <i>OE</i> mōdor <i>Gt</i> broþar, <i>O Icel</i> bróðir, <i>OE</i> brōðor	<i>Sw</i> moder, <i>NE</i> mother <i>Sw</i> broder, <i>NE</i> brother

Consonants. The specific peculiarities of consonants denote the most remarkable distinctive feature of the Germanic linguistic group. Comparison with other languages within the Indo-European family reveals regular correspondences between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. Thus, we may find [f] in Germanic where other Indo-European languages have [p]:

full (English)

plein (French)

The changes of consonants in Proto-Germanic were first formulated in terms of a phonetic law by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th century – *Grimm's Law*.

Another important series of consonant changes in Proto-Germanic was discovered in the late 19th century by Carl Verner – *Verner's law*: all the early Proto-Germanic voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x] which arose under Grimm's Law, and [s], became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 2

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The beginning of the English language.
2. The main criteria of subdivision of ELH into the periods. Traditional periodization.
3. Written Old English (or Anglo-Saxon period). Give the description of general specific features of each period.
4. How did inventions influence the development of the HEL?
5. What are the main linguistic families in Europe? Which does the EL belong to?
6. What are the Germanic languages? What influenced their development?
7. Describe East Germanic, West Germanic and North Germanic.
8. Linguistic features of Germanic languages. Phonetics.
9. Linguistic features of Germanic languages. Vowels and consonants. Grimm's and Verner's laws.
10. Linguistic features of Germanic languages. Strong and weak verbs.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS

We are so accustomed to thinking of English as an inseparable adjunct to the English people that we are likely to forget that it has been the language of England for a comparatively short period in the world's history. Since its introduction into the island about the middle of the fifth century it has had a career extending through only 1,500 years. Yet this part of the world had been inhabited by humans for thousands of years: 50,000 according to more moderate estimates, 250,000 in the opinion of some.

During this long stretch of time, most of it dimly visible through prehistoric mists, the presence of a number of cultures can be detected; and each of these cultures had a language.

What can be said about the early languages of England? Unfortunately, little enough. What we know of the earliest inhabitants of England is derived wholly from the material remains that have been uncovered by archaeological research. The classification of these inhabitants is consequently based upon the types of material culture that characterized them in their successive stages. Before the discovery of metals, human societies were dependent upon stone for the fabrication of such implements and weapons as they possessed. Generally speaking, the Stone Age is thought to have lasted in England until about 2000 B.C.

Stone, however, gradually gave way to bronze, as bronze was eventually displaced by iron about 500 or 600 B.C. Because the Stone Age was of long duration, it is customary to distinguish between an earlier and a later period, known as the Paleolithic (Old Stone) Age and the Neolithic (New Stone) Age.

Paleolithic humans, the earliest inhabitants of England, entered at a time when this part of the world formed a part of the continent of Europe, when there was no English Channel and when the North Sea was not much more than an enlarged river basin.

“Neolithic” is likewise a convenient rather than scientific term to designate the peoples who, from about 5000 B.C., possess a superior kind of stone implement, often polished, and a higher culture generally. The predominant type in this new population appears to have come from the south and, from its widespread distribution in the lands bordering on the Mediterranean, is known as the Mediterranean race. It was a dark race of slightly larger stature than the Paleolithic population. Their language has not

survived, and because our hope of learning anything about the language they spoke rests upon our finding somewhere a remnant of the race still speaking that language, that hope, so far as England is concerned, is dead.

The first people in England about whose language we have definite knowledge are the Celts. It used to be assumed that the coming of the Celts to England coincided with the introduction of bronze into the island. But the use of bronze probably preceded the Celts by several centuries. Celtic was probably the first Indo-European tongue to be spoken in England.

Economically and socially they were a tribal society made up of kins, clans and tribes. Their languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before the era. Later they were absorbed by other Indo-European languages and left very few vestiges behind. The Gaelic branch has survived as *Irish* in Ireland, has expanded to Scotland as *Scotch-Gaelic* of the Highlands and is still spoken by a few hundred people on the Isle of Man (*the Manx language*). The Brittonic branch is represented by *Kymric* or *Welsh* in modern Wales and by *Breton* or *Armorican* spoken by over a million people in modern France. Another Brittonic dialect in Great Britain, *Cornish*, was spoken in Cornwall until the end of the 18th century.

One other language, Latin, was spoken rather extensively for a period of about four centuries before the coming of English. Latin was introduced when Britain became a province of the Roman Empire.

The Roman occupation of Britain lasted nearly 400 years. Since the Romans had left the island, some time before the invasion of the West Germanic tribes, there could never be any direct contacts between the new arrivals and the Romans on British soil. It means that the elements of Roman culture and language which the new invaders learnt in Britain were mainly passed on to them at second hand by the Romanised Celts.

In general, **The Old English Period**, in our study is the period from the 5th up to mid-11th century.

It is characterized by the existence of the language in the form of several dialects, according to the seven kingdoms that existed on the island; the vocabulary of each of them is comparatively homogeneous and contains mostly words of native origin (Indo-European, Germanic and specifically English). The connection of words in the utterance is performed through a ramified system of endings, hence word order is relatively free. New short diphthongs appear as a result of assimilative changes, the system of consonants develops more marked pairs of voiced and voiceless fricative sounds.

The background against which the English language was forming included long years of pre-written functioning of the language. Angles, Saxons and Jutes (or rather, Jutes and the rest) did well in peacemaking on the island. The invaders felt comfortable on the new territory. The seven kingdoms formed by the newcomers were the following – Jutes, the earliest to come, formed the kingdom of Kent, Saxons – Essex, Wessex and Sussex, and Angles had the kingdoms of East Anglia, Northumbria and Mercia.

These seven principal concurrent Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the 7th and 8th centuries are known under the general name – Heptarchy. Though they were supposed to be allies, still the struggle for supremacy was not uncommon, and some four of them managed to gain supremacy at various times – first Kent, then Mercia and Northumbria. These latter reached the height of their importance in the pre-written period; some later documents of literature as well as the remains of material culture were ruthlessly destroyed during the raids of the Scandinavians.

The language was represented in writing in four dialects: **Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, and West-Saxon**. The majority of the manuscripts, containing anything worth reading as literature, are in West-Saxon.

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

The dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and Frisians at the time of their initial settlement in Britain were, of course, no different from the dialects spoken in their Germanic homelands. As the generations passed, and as the Anglo-Saxons became relatively isolated from their European cousins, spoken language evolved into the dialects mentioned above.

An event of paramount importance in the life of the Old English was the introduction of Christianity.

They had their heathen Gods, and even the days of the week are loan-translated from the Latin, following the Roman tradition to name the days of the week by the names of the Pagan gods we have in Old English.

Christianity came to England from Kent; and so, Canterbury remains the religious centre of the country. Now the English history was written by

the Englishmen themselves, in their own language; now translation as a kind of intellectual activity came into the life of Englishmen. The period of the reign of King Alfred of Wessex politically might have been criticized for letting the country be torn into two halves – the Wedmore peace treaty of 878 let the Danes control and levy taxes of a considerable part of the state (called Dena laju – Danelaw).

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

Runes are the 24 letters (later 16 in Scandinavia and 30 or more in Anglo-Saxon England) of an ancient Germanic alphabet used from the 2d or 3d to the 16th century. Perhaps derived ultimately from the Etruscan alphabet, the runic alphabet was used mainly for charms and inscriptions, on stone, wood, metal, or bone. Each letter had a name, which was itself a meaningful word. The rune f, for instance, could stand for either the sound [f] or the fehu, “cattle”, which was the name given to the rune. They were of specific shape, designed to be cut on the wooden sticks, and only few people knew how to make them and how to interpret them.

Runic inscriptions that came down from the oldest settlers on the isles are few, and the language (as it is interpreted) is not what might be called Old English – it was rather an ancient language which might be very close to the languages of other Germanic tribes. In the 7th century it was Latin alphabet with few English additions. Some English sounds had no counterpart in Latin, so three signs developed from runes were added, plus ligature as, now well known as a transcription symbol.

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

The stress in the Old English was dynamic, and shifted to the first syllable. Originally in common Indo-European the stress was free; the stress in the Old English words was always on the first syllable. The nouns having the same prefix had the stress on the first syllable too:

and'swarian – 'andswaru

A considerable number of words of the language had parallels in other known Indo-European languages [*brodor – бродор; duru – дурепи; deej – день*]. Some of these sounds are found in all languages that we know, some are now known as phonetic symbols, and they are specifically English

sounds. But some sounds which are found elsewhere, may not stand in the English words of Indo-European origin in the same places:

sunu – sunus – сун; but duo – два – twa

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

flame – Ukr. полум'я

thin – Ukr. тонкий

throw – Ukr. терти

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

first – primary; two – double

three – triangle; five – pentagon

eight – octopus; ten – decimal

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

democracy – hard; night – nocturnal

mother – maternal; tooth – dental

foot – pedal; heart – cordial

Phonology. Apart from the differences in consonants we may see that vowels in similar words are different too. Especially prominent are the instances of numerous diphthongs in Old English replacing simple vowels as in *eahta, meolc, heard* (*eight, milk, hard*), or when vowels change their quality in certain positions as in *wæter, stan* (*water, stone*).

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

There are two types of assimilation – *regressive and progressive assimilation*. If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is

regressive, if it influences the following it sound – it is called progressive assimilation. Both types of assimilation are found in Old English.

Changes in Consonants. Voiceless fricatives appeared in Germanic languages as a result of the First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law). Proceeding from a changeable part of the consonant system their development continues in Old English.

$f > v$
ofer (over)

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

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

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

bronhte - brōhte (brought)
fimf-fifj (five)

PRACTICAL LESSON # 3

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. What were the early languages of England? (Paleolithic and Neolithic humans)
2. Who were the first people in England about whose language we have definite knowledge?
3. Pre-Germanic Britain (Celtics, Roman invasion). Languages spoken.
4. Old English Period and its general specific features.
5. Angles, Saxons and Jutes on the British islands. What kingdoms did they organize?
6. The four dialects of OE language. General characteristic.
7. What event was of paramount importance in the life of the Old English?
8. The Old English alphabet.
9. Old English stress and sounds. Grimm's Law.
10. OE sounds. Changes in consonants.

OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Since, on the British Isles at the beginning of the language development there were thus four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish.

In the 8th century, Northumbrian led in literature and culture, but that leadership was destroyed by the Viking invaders, who sacked Lindisfarne, an island near the Northumbrian mainland, in 793. They landed in strength in 865. The first raiders were Danes, but they were later joined by Norwegians from Ireland and the Western Isles who settled in modern Cumberland, Westmorland, northwest Yorkshire, Lancashire, north Cheshire, and the Isle of Man.

In the 9th century, as a result of the Norwegian invasions, cultural leadership passed from Northumbria to Wessex. During King Alfred's reign, in the last three decades of the 9th century, Winchester became the chief centre of learning.

This resulted in West Saxon's becoming "*standard Old English*"; and later, when Aelfric (c. 955 – c. 1010) wrote his lucid and mature prose at Winchester, Cerne Abbas, and Eynsham, the hegemony of Wessex was strengthened.

Old English morphology was that of a typical inflected if somewhat simplified Indo-European language. Parts of speech included noun, pronoun, adjective, numeral and verb; all of which formed their paradigmatic forms by inflections, suffixes, and sound interchange.

The Noun. Nouns in Old English retained only four of the Indo-European 8 cases, adjectives, partly pronouns and numerals agreed with the nouns they modified in number, gender and case.

The inflection of the Old English noun indicates distinctions of number (singular and plural) and case. The case system is somewhat simpler than that of Latin and some of the other Indo-European languages. There is no ablative, and generally no locative or instrumental case, these having been merged with the dative. In the same way the vocative of direct address is generally identical with the nominative form.

The stems of nouns belonging to the vowel declension ended in one of four vowels in Germanic (although these have disappeared in Old English): *a*, *ō*, *i*, or *u*, and the inflection varies accordingly. It is impossible here to present the inflections of the Old English noun in detail. Their nature may be gathered from two examples of the strong declension and one of the weak:

stān (*stone*), a masculine a-stem;
giefu (*gift*), a feminine *ō*-stem;
hunta (*hunter*), a masculine consonant stem.

Forms are given for the four cases, nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative:

N. stān gief-u hunt-a
G. stān-es gief-e hunt-an
D. stān-e gief-e hunt-an

Singular:

A. stān gief-e hunt-an
N. stān-as gief-a hunt-an
G. stān-a gief-a hunt-ena
D. stān-um gief-um hunt-um

Plural:

A. stān-as gief-a hunt-an

It is apparent from these examples that the inflection of the noun was much more elaborate in Old English than it is today. Even these few paradigms illustrate clearly the marked synthetic character of English in its earliest stage.

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

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

Grammatical Gender. As in Indo-European languages generally, the gender of Old English nouns is not dependent upon considerations of sex. Although nouns designating males are often masculine and those indicating females feminine, those indicating neuter objects are not necessarily neuter.

Stān (*stone*) is masculine, *mōna* (*moon*) is masculine, but *sunne* (*sun*) is feminine, as in German.

In French the corresponding words have just the opposite genders:

pierre (stone) and lune (moon) are feminine while soleil (sun) is masculine.

Often the gender of Old English nouns is quite illogical. Words like *moegden (girl)*, *wīf (wife)*, *bearn (child, son)*, and *cild (child)*, which we should expect to be feminine or masculine, are in fact neuter, while *wīfmann (woman)* is masculine because the second element of the compound is masculine.

The Adjective. There are primary adjectives, dating back from the very old times and derivative adjectives made by adjective-forming suffixes from nouns. The adjectives of those times are similar to our Slavic adjectives, that is, this part of speech agrees with the noun it modifies in number, gender and case. Consequently, the adjectives have the same categories as the nouns do. Besides, they have categories which are purely adjectival.

The adjective in Old English had the following categories:

- number – the singular and the plural;
- gender – masculine, neuter and feminine;
- case – 4/5 (nominative, genitive, dative accusative and partly instrumental).

In grammar, *the instrumental case* is a grammatical case used to indicate that a noun is the instrument or means by or with which the subject achieves or accomplishes an action. When we speak of instrumental usage of language we refer, in particular, to the aim of influencing the listener, or reader, for certain purposes intended by the speaker, or writer.

I wrote the note with a pen.

I wrote the note (by) using a pen

Specifically, adjectival categories are the degrees of comparison – the positive, the comparative and the superlative. These are characteristic only for the qualitative adjectives. All in all, each adjective might theoretically have up to sixty forms. In reality there are much fewer forms, because not all the adjectives had degrees of comparison, and case and gender endings in many cases might coincide, compare in Ukrainian:

*великий будинок, велика кімната, велике вікно –
великі будинки/ кімнати/вікна; великого будинку/вікна*

An important feature of the Germanic languages is the development of a twofold declension of the adjective: one, the strong declension, used with nouns when not 12. When the stem is short the adjective ends in *-u* in the nominative singular of the feminine and the nominative and accusative plural of the neuter.

The weak declension used when the noun is preceded by such a word. Thus, we have in Old English:

gōd mann (good man) but sē gōda mann (the good man)

This elaboration of inflection in the Old English adjective contrasts in the most striking way with the complete absence of inflection from the adjective in Modern English. Such complexity is quite unnecessary, as the English language demonstrates every day by getting along without it. Its elimination has resulted in a second great advantage that English possesses over some other languages.

The Definite Article. Like German, its sister language of today, Old English possessed a fully inflected definite article. How complete the declension of this word was can be seen from the following forms:

		SINGULAR		PLURAL
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>All Genders</i>
N.	sē	sēo	ðæt	ðā
G.	ðæs	ðære	ðæs	ðāra
D.	ðæm	ðære	ðæm	ðæm
A.	ðone	ðā	ðæ	ðā
I.	ðȳ, ðon		ðȳ, ðon	

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

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

The Personal Pronoun. From the frequency of its use and the necessity for specific reference when used, the personal pronoun in all languages is likely to preserve a fairly complete system of inflections. Old English shows this tendency not only in having distinctive forms for practically all genders, persons, and cases but also in preserving in addition to the ordinary two

numbers, singular and plural, a set of forms for two people or two things – the dual number.

The Verb. The system of the Old English verb was less developed than it is now. It had fewer forms, and its categories were somewhat different from the similar categories in present-day English. Some of them were ambiguous, the grammatical nature of the others is not recognized by scholars. The form-building devices were gradation (vowel interchange), the use of suffixes, inflections, and suppletion. Inflections, however, were also present when other ways were employed, so we can say that the ways of forming paradigmatic forms were – inflections combined with vowel interchange or suppletion, or pure inflection.

A peculiar feature of the Germanic languages was the division of the verb into two great classes, the weak and the strong, often known in Modern English as regular and irregular verbs. These terms, which are so commonly employed in modern grammars, are rather unfortunate because they suggest an irregularity in the strong verbs that is more apparent than real. The strong verbs, like *sing, sang, sung*, which represent the basic Indo-European type, are so called because they have the power of indicating change of tense by a modification of their root vowel.

In the weak verbs, such as *walk, walked, walked*, this change is affected by the addition of a “dental”, sometimes of an extra syllable.

In Old English the vowel of the past tense often differs in the singular and the plural; or, to be more accurate, the first and third person singular has one vowel while the second person singular and all persons of the plural have another. In the principal parts of Old English strong verbs, therefore, we have four forms: the infinitive, the preterite singular (first and third person), the preterite plural, and the past participle.

Verbs had two tenses only (present-future and past), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), two numbers (singular and plural), and three persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd).

There were two classes of verb stems. (*A verb stem* is that part of a verb to which inflectional changes – changes indicating tense, mood, number, etc. – are added). One type of verb stem, called vocalic because an internal vowel shows variations, is exemplified by the verb for “sing”: *singan, singth, sang, sungon, gesungen*. The word for “deem” is an example of the other, called consonantal: *dēman, dēmth, dēmdē, dēmdon, gedēmed*. Such verbs are called strong and weak, respectively.

All new verbs, whether derived from existing verbs or from nouns, belonged to the consonantal type. Some verbs of great frequency

(antecedents of the modern words “be”, “shall”, “will”, “do”, “go”, “can”, “may” and so on) had their own peculiar patterns of inflections.

In Old English the strong verbs can be grouped in seven general classes. While there are variations within each class, they may be illustrated by the following seven verbs:

I. drīfan	(drive)	drāf	drifon	(ge) drifen
II. cēosan	(choose)	cēas	curon ¹³	coren
III. helpan	(help)	healp	hulpon	holpen
IV. beran	(bear)	bær	bæron	boren
V. spreca	(speak)	spræc	spræcon	sprecen
VI. faran	(fare, go)	fōr	fōron	faren
VII. feallan	(fall)	fēoll	fēollon	feallen ¹⁴

Grammatical gender persisted throughout the Old English period. Just as Germans now say *der Fuss*, *die Hand*, and *das Auge* (masculine, feminine, and neuter terms for “the foot”, “the hand”, and “the eye”), so, for these same structures, Aelfric said *sē fōt*, *sēo hond*, and *thæt ēaāe*, also masculine, feminine, and neuter.

The three words for “woman” – wīfmon, cwene, and wīf, were masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively.

Hors “horse”, sēēap “sheep” and maeāden “maiden” were all neuter.

Eorthe “earth” was feminine, but lond “land” was neuter

This simplification of grammatical gender resulted from the fact that the gender of Old English substantives was not always indicated by the ending but rather by the terminations of the adjectives and demonstrative pronouns used with the substantives. When these endings were lost, all outward marks of gender disappeared with them.

Participle I is formed by means of the suffix *-ende* added to the stem of the infinitive:

writan – writende (to write – writing)
yman – yrnende (to run – running)
spreca – sprecende (to speak – speaking):

dset scip wees ealne wej vrnende under sejle (the ship was running (going) under sail)

This participle was active in meaning and expressed present time relevance or simultaneous with the tense of the finite verb processes and qualities.

Participle II expressed actions and states resulting from past action and was passive in meaning with transitive verbs, and rendered only temporal meaning of the past with the intransitive. Depending on the class of the verb, it was formed by vowel interchange (gradation) and the suffix *-cn* (strong verbs) or the dental suffix *-d/t* (weak verbs). *Participle II* was commonly marked by the prefix *je-*, though may be found without it, too, especially when the verb had another word-building prefix:

writan – writen, jewriten (to write – written),
findan – founden (to find – found),
on finnan – onjunnen (to begin – began);
endian – endod, jeendod (end – ended),
tellan – teald (to tell – told),
secjan – seejd (to say – said).

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

strong
weak
preterite-present
suppletive

Preterite-present verbs occupy a specific place within the verbal system of Old English verbs. They combine the qualities of the strong verbs as well as the weak verbs. Their present tense is formed according to the rules of formation of the past tense of the strong verbs that is by gradation (vowel interchange) whereas their past tense has all the peculiarities of the weak verbs, e.g.

witan – wat, but wisse, wiste

By that time the only productive pattern of making verb forms was that of weak verbs, the one with the dental suffix. And it was naturally used in this case, so there appeared the forms:

He wisse se wej; he cude swimman; he munde his brodor.

There were four verbs in Old English listed as *irregular*
beon/wesan (be), jan (go), don (do), willan (will)

So, the inflection of the verb in the Germanic languages is much simpler than it was in Indo-European times. A comparison of the Old English verb with the verbal inflection of Greek or Latin will show how much has been lost. Old English distinguished only two simple tenses by inflection, a present and a past, and, except for one word, it had no inflectional forms for the passive as in Latin or Greek. It recognized the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods and had the usual two numbers and three persons. A peculiar feature of the Germanic languages was the division of the verb into two great classes, the weak and the strong, often known in Modern English as regular and irregular verbs. These terms, which are so commonly employed in modern grammars, are rather unfortunate because they suggest an irregularity in the strong verbs that is more apparent than real. The strong verbs, like *sing, sang, sung*, which represent the basic Indo-European type, are so called because they have the power of indicating change of tense by a modification of their root vowel.

There appears the process by which English lost a great part of this inflectional system and became an analytic language, so that the paradigms which we have given here will also prove useful as a point of departure for that discussion. The use of these inflections as well as the other characteristics of the language so far pointed out may be seen in the following specimens.

The first is *the Lord's Prayer*, the clauses of which can easily be followed through the modern form, which is familiar to us from the King James Version of the Bible.

Fæder ūre,
 þū þe eart on heofonum,
 sī þīn nama gehālgod.
 Tōbecume þīn rīce.
 Gewurþe ðīn willa on eorðan swā swā on heofonum.
 Ūrne gedæghwāmlican hlāf syle ūs tō dæg.
 And forgyf ūs ūre gyltas, swā swā wē forgyfað ūrum gyltendum.
 And ne gelæd þū ūs on costnunge,
 ac, ālȳs ūs of yfele. Sōþlice.

The adverb is the part of speech that functions as an adverbial modifier.

There are simple and derived adverbs in Old English. Simple adverbs are unchangeable. Here belong:

adverbs of place: hwzer (where), dssr (there), hwonan (from where) and danon (from there, thence);

adverbs of time: hwanne, hwan, hwon (when), Sonne, donne, deonne (then), da (then);

adverbs of manner: hwasdre (though, however), hwbn (a little), dasrbi (thereby, by that means), dmr-asfter (thereafter, from that time)

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

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

Wid – wide (wide – widely)

heard – hearde (hard)

luflic – luflice (lovingly, fondly)

freondlic – freondtice (friendly)

Old English had a system of numerals of common Indo-European origin.

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

PRACTICAL LESSON # 4

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Political order on the British Isles during OE period (5-11th c.). What substantial steps did King Alfred perform in the sphere of the History of English Language?
2. The four dialects of Old English.
3. OE Morphology. The main changes.
4. The development of the definite article.
5. Changes in the verb system.

OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

The Celtic Influence on the HEL. Nothing would seem more reasonable than to expect that the conquest of the Celtic population of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons and the subsequent mixture of the two peoples should have resulted in a corresponding mixture of their languages; that consequently we should find in the Old English vocabulary numerous instances of words that the Anglo-Saxons heard in the speech of the native population and adopted. For it is apparent that the Celts were by no means exterminated except in certain areas, and that in most of England large numbers of them were gradually assimilated into the new culture.

Here it is apparent that a considerable Celtic-speaking population survived until fairly late times. Some such situation is suggested by a whole cluster of Celtic place-names in the northeastern corner of *Dorsetshire*.

When we come, however, to seek the evidence for this contact in the English language, investigation yields very meager results. Such evidence as there is survives chiefly in place-names. The kingdom of *Kent*, for example, owes its name to the Celtic word *Canti* or *Cantion*, the meaning of which is unknown, while the two ancient Northumbrian kingdoms of *Deira* and *Bernicia* derive their designations from Celtic tribal names. Other districts, especially in the west and southwest, preserve in their present-day names traces of their earlier Celtic designations. *Devonshire* contains in the first element the tribal name *Dumnonii*, *Cornwall* means the 'Cornubian Welsh', and the former county *Cumberland* (now part of Cumbria) is the 'land of the *Cymry* or *Britons*'. Moreover, a number of important centers in the Roman period have names in which Celtic elements are embodied. The name London itself, although the origin of the word is somewhat uncertain, most likely goes back to a Celtic designation.

Thus, *the Thames* is a Celtic river name, and various Celtic words for river or water are preserved in the names *Avon*, *Exe*, *Esk*, *Usk*, *Dover*, and *Wye*. Celtic words meaning 'hill' are found in place names like *Barr* (cf. Welsh *bar* 'top', 'summit'), *Bredon* (cf. Welsh *bre* 'hill') ...

If the influence of Celtic upon Old English was slight, it was doubtless so because the relation of the Celt to the Anglo-Saxon was that of a submerged culture and because the Celt was not in a position to make notable contributions to Anglo-Saxon civilization.

It was quite otherwise with the second great influence exerted upon English – that of Latin – and the circumstances under which they met. Latin

was not the language of a conquered people. It was the language of a highly regarded civilization, one from which the Anglo-Saxons wanted to learn. Contact with that civilization, at first commercial and military, later religious and intellectual, extended over many centuries and was constantly renewed. It began long before the Anglo-Saxons came to England and continued throughout the Old English period. For several hundred years, while the Germanic tribes who later became the English were still occupying their continental homes, they had various relations with the Romans through which they acquired a considerable number of Latin words.

Later when they came to England, they saw the evidences of the long Roman rule in the island and learned from the Celts additional Latin words that had been acquired by them. And a century and a half later still, when Roman missionaries reintroduced Christianity into the island, this new cultural influence resulted in a quite extensive adoption of Latin elements into the language.

There were thus three distinct occasions on which borrowing from Latin occurred before the end of the Old English period. In order to form an accurate idea of the share that each of these three periods had in extending the resources of the English vocabulary it is first necessary to determine as closely as possible the date at which each of the borrowed words entered the language.

The evidence that can be employed is of various kinds and naturally of varying value. Most obvious is the appearance of the word in literature. If a given word occurs with fair frequency in texts such as *Beowulf*, or the poems of Cynewulf, such occurrence indicates that the word has had time to pass into current use and that it came into English not later than the early part of the period of Christian influence. But it does not tell us how much earlier it was known in the language, because the earliest written records in English do not go back beyond the year 700. Moreover, the late appearance of a word in literature is no proof of late adoption.

A number of words found in Old English and in Old High German, for example, can hardly have been borrowed by either language before the Anglo-Saxons migrated to England but are due to later independent adoption under conditions more or less parallel, brought about by the introduction of Christianity into the two areas. But it can hardly be doubted that a word like *copper*, which is rare in Old English, was nevertheless borrowed on the continent when we find it in no less than six Germanic languages.

Much the most conclusive evidence of the date at which a word was borrowed, however, is to be found in the phonetic form of the word. The

changes that take place in the sounds of a language can often be dated with some definiteness, and the presence or absence of these changes in a borrowed word constitutes an important test of age.

Thus, there occurred in Old English, as in most of the Germanic languages, a change known as *i-umlaut* (*Umlaut* is a German word meaning 'alteration of sound'. In English this is sometimes called mutation).

This change affected

certain accented vowels and diphthongs (æ , $\bar{\text{a}}$, $\bar{\text{o}}$, $\bar{\text{u}}$, $\bar{\text{ea}}$, $\bar{\text{eo}}$, and $\bar{\text{io}}$) when they were followed in the next syllable by an $\bar{\text{i}}$ or $\bar{\text{j}}$. Under such circumstances æ and $\bar{\text{a}}$ became $\bar{\text{e}}$, and $\bar{\text{o}}$ became $\bar{\text{ē}}$, $\bar{\text{a}}$ became $\bar{\text{ā}}$, and $\bar{\text{u}}$ became $\bar{\text{y}}$. The diphthongs $\bar{\text{ea}}$, $\bar{\text{eo}}$, $\bar{\text{io}}$ became $\bar{\text{ie}}$, later $\bar{\text{i}}$, $\bar{\text{y}}$. Thus $\text{*banktz} > \text{benc}$ (bench), $\text{*mūslz} > \text{mȳs}$, plural of mūs (mouse), etc. The change occurred in English in the course of the seventh century, and when we find it taking place in a word borrowed from Latin it indicates that the Latin word had

⁴ *Umlaut* is a German word meaning 'alteration of sound'. In English this is sometimes called *mutation*.

Continental Borrowing (Latin Influence of the Zero Period). The first Latin words to find their way into the English language owe their adoption to the early contact between the Romans and the Germanic tribes on the continent. Several hundred Latin words found in the various Germanic dialects at an early date testify to the extensive intercourse between the two peoples. The Germanic population within the empire by the fourth century is estimated at several million. They are found in all ranks and classes of society, from slaves in the fields to commanders of important divisions of the Roman army. Although they were scattered all over the empire, they were naturally most numerous along the northern frontier. This stretched along the Rhine and the Danube and bordered on Germanic territory.

Traders, Germanic as well as Roman, came and went, while Germanic youth returning from within the empire must have carried back glowing accounts of Roman cities and Roman life. Such intercourse between the two peoples was certain to carry words from one language to the other.

More numerous are the words connected with trade. They traded amber, furs, slaves, and probably certain raw materials for the products of Roman handicrafts, articles of utility, luxury, and adornment. The words *cēap* (bargain; cf. Eng., cheap, chapman) and *mangian* (to trade) with its

derivatives *mangere* (monger), *mangung* (trade, commerce), and *mangunghūs* (shop) are fundamental, while *pund* (pound), *mydd* (bushel), *sēam* (burden, loan), and *mynet* (coin) are terms likely to be employed.

Latin through Celtic Transmission (Latin Influence of the First Period). The circumstances responsible for the slight influence that Celtic exerted on Old English limited in like manner the Latin influence that sprang from the period of Roman occupation. From what has been said above about the Roman rule in Britain, the extent to which the country was Romanized, and the employment of Latin by certain elements in the population, one would expect a considerable number of Latin words from this period to have remained in use and to appear in the English language today. But this is not the case.

It is probable that the use of Latin as a spoken language did not long survive the end of Roman rule in the island and that such vestiges as remained for a time were lost in the disorders that accompanied the Germanic invasions. There was thus no opportunity for direct contact between Latin and Old English in England, and such Latin words as could have found their way into English would have had to come in through Celtic transmission. The Celts, indeed, had adopted a considerable number of Latin words – more than 600 have been identified – but the relations between the Celts and the English were such, as we have already seen, that these words were not passed on.

Latin Influence of the Second Period: The Christianizing of Britain. The greatest influence of Latin upon Old English was occasioned by the conversion of Britain to Roman Christianity beginning in 597. The religion was far from new in the island, because Irish monks had been preaching the gospel in the north since the founding of the monastery by Columba in 563. However, 597 marks the beginning of a systematic attempt on the part of Rome to convert the inhabitants and make England a Christian country.

According to the well-known story reported by Bede as a tradition current in his day, the mission of St. Augustine was inspired by an experience of the man who later became Pope Gregory the Great. Walking one morning in the marketplace at Rome, he came upon some fair-haired boys about to be sold as slaves and was told that they were from the island of Britain and were pagans. “*‘Alas! what pity’, said he, ‘that the author of darkness is possessed of men of such fair countenances, and that being remarkable for such a graceful exterior, their minds should be void of inward grace’?*” He therefore again asked, what was the name of that nation and was answered, that they were called Angles. “*‘Right’, said he, ‘for they*

*have an angelic face, and it is fitting that such should be co-heirs with the angels in heaven. What is the name', proceeded he, 'of the province from which they are brought', It was replied that the natives of that province were called Deiri. 'Truly are they de ira' said he, 'plucked from wrath, and called to the mercy of Christ. How is the king of that province called'? They told him his name was *Ælla*; and he, alluding to the name, said 'Alleluia, the praise of God the Creator, must be sung in those parts'.*

The religion that the Anglo-Saxons shared with the other Germanic tribes seems to have had but a slight hold on the people at the close of the sixth century; but their habits of mind, their ideals, and the action to which these gave rise were often in sharp contrast to the teachings of the New Testament. Germanic philosophy exalted physical courage, independence even to haughtiness, loyalty to one's family or leader that left no wrong unavenged. Christianity preached meekness, humility, and patience under suffering and said that if a man struck you on one cheek you should turn the other.

The Earlier Influence of Christianity on the Vocabulary. *From the introduction of Christianity in 597 to the close of the Old English period is a stretch of more than 500 years.* During all this time Latin words must have been making their way gradually into the English language. It is likely that the first wave of religious feeling that resulted from the missionary zeal of the seventh century and that is reflected in intense activity in church building and the establishing of monasteries during this century, was responsible also for the rapid importation of Latin words into the vocabulary. The many new conceptions that followed in the train of the new religion would naturally demand expression and would at times find the resources of the language inadequate. But it would be a mistake to think that the enrichment of the vocabulary that now took place occurred overnight.

Some words came in almost immediately, others only at the end of this period. In fact, it is fairly easy to divide the Latin borrowings of the Second Period into two groups, more or less equal in size but quite different in character.

The one group represents words whose phonetic form shows that they were borrowed early and whose early adoption is attested also by the fact that they had found their way into literature by the time of Alfred. The other contains words of a more learned character first recorded in the 10th and 11th centuries and owing their introduction clearly to them separately.

It is obvious that the most typical as well as the most numerous class of words introduced by the new religion would have to do with that religion and

the details of its external organization. Words are generally taken over by one language from another in answer to a definite need. They are adopted because they express ideas that are new or because they are so intimately associated with an object or a concept that acceptance of the thing involves acceptance also of the word.

Because most of these words have survived in only slightly altered form in Modern English, the examples may be given in their modern form. The list includes *abbot, alms, altar, angel, anthem, Arian, ark, candle, canon, chalice, cleric, cowl, deacon, disciple, epistle, hymn, litany, manna, martyr, mass, minster, noon, nun, offer, organ, pall, palm, pope, priest, provost, psalm, psalter, relic, rule, shrift, shrine, shrive, stole, sub deacon, synod, temple, and tunic.*

The English did not always adopt a foreign word to express a new concept. Often an old word was applied to a new thing and by a slight adaptation made to express a new meaning. The Anglo-Saxons, for example, did not borrow the Latin word *deus*, because their own word God was a satisfactory equivalent. Likewise, *heaven* and *hell* express conceptions not unknown to Anglo-Saxon paganism and are consequently English words. *Patriarch* was rendered literally by *hēahfoeder* (high father), *prophet* by *wītega* (wise one), *martyr* often by the native word *prōwere* (one who suffers pain), and *saint* by *hālg* (holy one).

Specific members of the church organization such as *pope, bishop, and priest, or monk and abbot* represented individuals for which the English had no equivalent and therefore borrowed the Latin terms; however, they did not borrow a general word for *clergy* but used a native expression, *ðoet gāstlice folc* (the spiritual folk).

The word *Easter* is a Germanic word taken over from a pagan festival, likewise in the spring, in honor of *Eostre*, the goddess of dawn.

Near the end of the Old English period English underwent a third foreign influence, the result of contact with another important language, the Scandinavian. Such a phenomenon is presented by the Germanic inhabitants of the Scandinavian peninsula and Denmark, onetime neighbors of the Anglo-Saxons and closely related to them in language and blood.

For some centuries the Scandinavians had remained quietly in their northern home. But in the 8th century a change, possibly economic, possibly political, occurred in this area and provoked among them a spirit of unrest and adventurous enterprise. They began a series of attacks upon all the lands adjacent to the North Sea and the Baltic. Their activities began in plunder and ended in conquest.

The pinnacle of their achievement was reached in the beginning of the 11th century when Cnut, king of Denmark, obtained the throne of England, conquered Norway, and from his English capital ruled the greater part of the Scandinavian world. The daring sea rovers to whom these unusual achievements were due are commonly known as Vikings (The term *viking* is usually thought to be derived from Old Norse *vīk*, a bay, as indicating “one who came out from, or frequented, inlets of the sea”. It may, however, come from OE *wīc*, a camp, “the formation of temporary encampments being a prominent feature of viking raids” (OED)). The period of their activity, extending from the middle of the eighth century to the beginning of the eleventh, is popularly known as *the Viking Age*.

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

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

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

Some contained more stable sounds and in common Germanic were closer to their Indo-European counterparts. They changed only in the course of the Old English assimilative changes:

sunu (son), *sunne* (sun), *earm* (arm; comp. Ukr. *рамена*), *neowe* (new), *jeonj* (young), *meolc* (milk), *mils* (mouse), *nosu* (nose), *ryje* (rye; comp. Rus. *рожь*), *snōw* (snow)

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

eorde (earth – Goth, *airda*, OHG *erda*, OSax *ertha*, Olcel *jord*, Mn Germ. *Erde*);

jrene (green – OHG *gruoni*, OSax *groni*, OFr *grene*, OScand *groene*. Mn Germ *griin*)

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

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

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

Still, it is to be marked that some words still bear this British colouring: *hldford* and *hleefdije* (the owner of bread and that one who was making the dough, kneading it). *Lord*, *Lady* may be used in other meanings in other variants of the language, and have different metaphorically extended meanings: *warlords*, first lady) but everyone feels that it belongs to English culture.

Loan-words, or borrowings were not so frequent in Old English. They are: Celtic (taken from the substratum languages) and Latin. Celtic element is not very significant, and is mainly reduced to the following:

dim (down), *dun* (dun), *binn* (bin)

These may occur as separate words, but a great many are found only as elements of place-names:

river: Avon, Evan, uisge water in names beginning with Exe-, üisk-, Esk-, (later – whiskey); dun, dum (hill): Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary; inbher (mountain) – Inverness, Inverurfe, coil (forest) Killbrook, Kiltiemore etc.

Some common names of people are of Celtic origin, too:

Arthur (noble), Donald (proud chief), Kennedy (ugly head)

Besides, one can find some words that were taken from Celtic languages by other Germanic languages, not necessarily on the Isles:

wealas (alien) OHG wat(a)ha, Icel valir, eisarn – isarn, isern – iron

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

castel (castle – Lat. *castellum*)

cealc (chalk – Lat. *calx*)

diese (cheese – Lat. *caseus*, Mn Germ *Käse*)

cires (cherry – Lat. *cerasus*, Mn Germ *Kirsche*)

copor (copper – Lat. *cuprum*, Mn Germ *Kupfer*)
cycene (Lat. – *coquina*, Mn Germ *Kuchen*)
cytel (kettle – Lat. *catillus*, Mn Germ *Kessel*)

Traditionally, to this first layer we refer the place names containing Latin stems *cester* – Lat. *castra* (*camp*) – *Chester*, *Manchester*, *Winchester*, *Worcester*, *Leicester*, *Lancaster*, *coin* – Lat. *colonia* (*from colere to cultivate, inhabit*) – *Lincoln*, *Colchester*, *port* – Lat. *port* (*gate*) – *Portsmouth*, *Bridport*.

There are lots of hybrid formations which are now familiar placenames in Britain: (with the elements *vie* - village, *strat* - road, *Llan* - church): *Manchester*; *Winchester*; *Lan-caster*; *Glou-cester*; *York-shire*; *Corn-wall*; *Devon-shire*; *Canter-bury*; *Ports-mouth*; *Wool-wich*; *Green-wich*; *Stratford*.

The second layer of the Latin borrowings is connected with the introduction of Christianity, and denotes religious notions plus some notions connected with the cultural and social phenomena which appeared in society. A significant portion of religious terms are not specifically Latin, for they were borrowed into it from Greek, so we may find similar words in other languages: *Old English* *tipostol*, *biscop*, *lcolbl*, *mile fn*; *New English* *apostle*, *bishop*, *devil*, *anthem*; *Latin* *apostolus*, *episcopus*, *diabolus*, *antiphona*; *Greek* *apostólos*, *episcopos*, *diabolos*, *antiphona*.

Some borrowed stems came easily into the word-building system of the language, forming the following hybrids in Old English – *preost-hōd* (*priesthood*), *biscop-hōd* (*bishophood*), *biscoprice* (*bishopric*), *martyr-hōd* (*martyrhood*) etc.

However, the English language still had a strong immunity to foreign influence; some religious terms are of native origin, though their original meaning was different, *jod* (*god*) in pagan polytheistic religion was one of several deities, esp. a male deity, presiding over some portion of worldly affairs, *halja* (*saint*) is related to whole. *Weofod* (*altar*) was also native.

There were translation loans for the others:

heahfseder (*patriarch*, *high father*),
jodspel (*gospel*, *good story*), *drenes* (*trinity*) *fulwian* (*to baptize*) – *fulluht* – *feeder* (*godfather*), *sefeesteness* (*religion*; Lat. *religare* – *to fasten*)

Nowadays all the grammatical terms in English are replaced by words of Latin origin, but in Aelfric's Grammar an attempt was made to find an English way of rendering the new notions.

Ukrainian sub (*nið*) + *ject* (*метаму*) = *niðмет*, *pre* (*нпу*) + *dicere*
(*судуму*, *говоруму*) = *нпусудок*; *Instrumentalis* – *орудный*;

Rus. Accusativus – винительный)

Word-building in Old English. Apart from taking words from other languages, there were internal ways of enriching the vocabulary – word-building techniques: *morphological* – creating new words by adding new morphemes; *syntactic* – building new words from syntactic groups; *semantic* – developing new meanings of the existing words.

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

Noun-suffixes:

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

*fiscere (fisherman), writere (writer), bocere (bookman),
fujelere (fowler, bird-catcher), drowere (sufferer), jedgeahtere
(councillor), rypere (robber)*

The corresponding feminine suffix was

•**estre:**

*bsecestre (woman baker), spinnestre (spinner), witejestre
(prophetess), myltestre (prostitute)*

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

freond (friend), demend (judge), hiielend (savior) ...

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

*-dōm (the noun dōm meant 'doom') fēodōm (freedom), wisdōm
wisdom)*

-lāc (the noun lac meant 'gift, game') formed abstract nouns:

*reoflāc (robbery), wedlāc (wedlock) scinlāc (fantasy, ghost – from scinan –
shine, appear), wrohtlāc (calumny)*

Verbs were formed by adding the suffix -an/ian, -ettan to noun, adjective and adverb stems, sometimes this process was accompanied by adding prefixes:

*hdlja (saint) – hdljian (consecrate); jehiersum (obedient) –
jehiersumian (obey), clsene (clean) – clsensian (to cleanse),*

wyrse (worse) - wyrnian (worsen)

zān – go
ā-zān – go away
be-zān – go round
fore-zān – precede
ofer-zān – traverse
ze-zān – go, go away

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

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

The most common patterns are:

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

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

N + V *lustfullian* (rejoice)

V+N *bæc-hūs* (bakery)

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

Among the compound words there are a lot of poetic metaphoric circumlocutions called kennings. Some notions, such as *battle*, *warrior*, had a great number of such periphrastic nomination (synonymic group of

warrior, for instance had 37 such nomination only in “Beowulf”). Some examples of such words are:

Some examples of
such words are: *ǰār-berend* (spear-carrier), *ǰar-wiǰa* (spear warrior), *sweord-freca* (sword-hero), *ǰūð-beorn* (battle warrior), *ǰūð-freca* (battle hero), *ǰūð-rinc* (man of war, warrior), *maǰo-rinc* (relative warrior), *ǰūð-wine* (war friend), *lind-hæbbend* (shield owner), *hilde-dēor* (battle beast), *ronðhæbbend* (shield-owner), *ǰūð-hafoc* (battle hawk), *hildemecǰ* (battle man), *here-rinc* (army hero), *dōm-ǰeorn* (eager for fame), *byrn-wiǰa* (armour-clad warrior) and many others.

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

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

PRACTICAL LESSON # 5

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. What did the conquest of the Celtic population of Britain by the Anglo-Saxons and the subsequent mixture of the two peoples result in? The evidences that survived in place and geographical names (give examples).
2. The influence of Latin on English. Describe certain examples.
3. Several hundred Latin words found in the various Germanic dialects at an early date testify to the extensive intercourse between the Romans and the Germanic tribes on the continent. Give examples of these continental borrowings.
4. The Influence of Christianity (adapted during the Roman invasion) on the Old English vocabulary.
5. Contact with the Scandinavian language and its impact on the development of English.
6. Set 10 examples of common Indo-European words.
7. Set 10 examples of common Germanic words.
8. Set 10 examples of common Latin words.
9. Word-building in Old English.
10. Kennings in Old English Vocabulary.

MIDDLE ENGLISH. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND. SPELLING AND GRAMMAR CHANGES

One result of the Norman Conquest of 1066 was to place all four Old English dialects more or less on a level. West Saxon lost its supremacy and the centre of culture and learning gradually shifted *from Winchester to London*. The old Northumbrian dialect became *divided into Scottish and Northern*, although little is known of either of these divisions before the end of the 13th century.

The old Mercian dialect was split into East and West Midland. West Saxon became slightly diminished in area and was more appropriately named the South Western dialect. The **Kentish** dialect was considerably extended and was called **South Eastern** accordingly. All five Middle English dialects (Northern, West Midland, East Midland, South Western, and South Eastern) went their own ways and developed their own characteristics. The so-called Katherine Group of writings (1180–1210), associated with Hereford, a town not far from the Welsh border, adhered most closely to native traditions, and there is something to be said for regarding this *West Midland dialect*, least disturbed by French and Scandinavian intrusions, as a kind of *Standard English* in the High Middle Ages.

Another outcome of the Norman Conquest was to change the writing of English from the clear and easily readable insular hand of Irish origin to the delicate Carolingian script then in use on the Continent. With the change in appearance came a change in spelling. Norman scribes wrote Old English *y* as *u*, *ȳ* as *ui*, *ū* as *ou* (ow when final). Thus, *mycel* (“much”) appeared as *muchel*, *fȳr* (“fire”) as *fuir*, *hūs* (“house”) as *hous*, and *hū* (“how”) as *how*. For the sake of clarity *u* was often written **o** before and after *m*, *n*, *u*, *v*, and *w*; and *i* was sometimes written **y** before and after *m* and *n*. So *sunu* (“son”) appeared as *sone* and *him* (“him”) as *hym*. Old English **cw** was changed to *qu*; *hw* to *wh*, *qu*, or *quh*; *ē* to *ch* or *tch*; *ġ* to *sh*; *-ġā-* to *-gg-*; and *-ht* to *ght*. So Old English *cwēn* appeared as *queen*; *hwaet* as *what*, *quat*, or *quhat*; *sġip* as *ship*; *secge* as *segge*; and *miht* as *might*.

For the first century after the Conquest, most loan words came from Normandy and Picardy, but with the extension south to the Pyrenees of the Angevin empire of Henry II, other dialects, especially *Central French, or Francien*, contributed to the speech of the aristocracy. As a result, Modern English acquired the forms *canal*, *catch*, *leal*, *real*, *reward*, *wage*, *warden*, and *warrant* from Norman French side by side with the corresponding forms

channel, chase, loyal, royal, regard, gage, guardian, and guarantee, from Francien.

With the increasing power of the Capetian kings of Paris, Francien gradually predominated. Meanwhile, Latin stood in tact as the language of learning. For three centuries, therefore, the *literature of England was trilingual.*

The sounds of the native speech changed slowly. Even in late Old English short vowels had been lengthened before *ld, rd, mb, and nd*, and long vowels had been shortened before allother consonant groups and before double consonants. In early Middle English short vowels of whatever origin were lengthened in the open stressed syllables of disyllabic words. An open syllable is one ending in a vowel. Both syllables in Old English *nama* “name,” *mete* “meat, food,” *nosu* “nose,” *wicu* “week,” and *duru* “door” were short, and the first syllables, being stressed, were lengthened to *nāme, mēte, nōse, wēke, and dōre* in the 13th and 14th centuries. A similar change occurred in 4th century Latin, in 13th century German, and at different times in other languages.

The popular notion has arisen that *final mute -e* in English makes a preceding vowel long; in fact, it is the lengthening of the vowel that has caused *e* to be lost in pronunciation. On the other hand, Old English long vowels were shortened in the first syllables of trisyllabic words, even when those syllables were open; e.g., *hāligdaeg* “holyday,” *ærende* “message, errand,” *crīstendōm* “Christianity,” and *sūtherne* “southern,” became *hōliday (Northern hāliday), ěrende, chrīstendom, and sūtherne.*

This principle still operates in current English. Compare, for example, trisyllabic derivatives such as the words *chastity, criminal, fabulous, gradual, gravity, linear, national, ominous, sanity, and tabulate* with the simple nouns and adjectives *chaste, crime, fable, grade, grave, line, nation, omen, sane, and table.*

There were significant variations in verb inflections in the Northern, Midland, and Southern dialects. The Northern infinitive was already one syllable (*sing* rather than the Old English *singan*), whereas the past participle *-en* inflection of Old English was strictly kept. These apparently contradictory features can be attributed entirely to Scandinavian, in which the final *-n* of the infinitive was lost early in *singa*, and the final *-n* of the past participle was doubled in *sunginn*. The Northern unmutated present participle in *-and* was also of Scandinavian origin. Old English mutated *-ende* (German *-end*) in the present participle had already become *-inde* in late West Saxon, and it was this Southern *-inde* that blended with the *-ing* suffix

(German -ung) of nouns of action that had already become near-gerunds in such compound nouns as *athswering* “oath swearing” and *writing fether* “writing feather, pen”.

The Northern second person singular *singis* was inherited unchanged from Common Germanic. The final **t** sound in Midland *-est* and Southern *-st* was excrescent, comparable with the final **t** in modern “*amidst*” and “*amongst*” from older *amiddes* and *amonges*. The Midland present plural inflection *-en* was taken from the subjunctive. The past participle prefix *y-* developed from the Old English perfective prefix *ge-*.

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

Scandinavians (then simply Danes, for Swedish, Norse, Danish in those times simply were not yet discerned within the language commonly known as Old Norse) were old rivals of the English, and were troubling Anglo-Saxons ever since their settlement on the Isles. They occasionally raided into their territory, looted the monasteries, and in many respects interfered with the life of the local population.

King Alfred of Wessex in 878 yielded a considerable part of the country to economic control of the Danes so that the latter could come and levy taxes from the population. Chronicles, translations of Latin works on geography, the beginnings of grammar, numerous religious texts and finally the very text of the most significant epic poem, *Beowulf*, are dated back to the years of King Alfred and the Danelaw. The Scandinavians, for their part, not only came to collect money but comprehended that the very territory of the islands was much more suitable for living and economic activity and moved and settled there. They mixed with the local population, and without much effort penetrated into that community *which was to become the basis for the English nation*. Their languages were similar, so mutual understanding was not specifically difficult, only some simplification was needed as is usual when languages differ in particulars – these particulars, i.e. endings and other unnecessary details, might be omitted without significant effort.

Morphologically it resulted in reduction or levelling of endings which were different in the two languages (compare *fiskr* – *fisc*; *dasj* – *dagr*; *jripan* – *gripa*; *sittan* – *sitia*), and the loss of the category of gender whatsoever for the same words might have different genders in the two languages (compare *собака, степь, боль, живопись, рукопись, корь, носуда* which are feminine in Russian while their Ukrainian counterparts are masculine:

собака, стен, біль, живопис, рукопис, кір, посуд). Both languages had agreement of adjectives and pronouns with the nouns they modified, and so not to think about the endings (*стен широкий чи широка, біль сильний чи сильна*).

The same is true about *the use of prepositions* – the parallel may be given from Ukrainian life, where so many high-ranking officials are still using *дякую вас* – so we can easily understand the Old English or Old Norse who got puzzled as to what preposition to use – *much to do* or *much at do*; hence some came to be used as a variant, some fell into disuse or changed their meaning (*to fightwith* is quite O.K., but *to be in love with* – that is quite an innovation in the English language of ME period).

The lexical borrowings of this period came equally in many spheres of life and sometimes they denoted some things really absent in the Old English. Perhaps *winded je – window* was a specific oval kind of an opening in the dwelling that only the Scandinavians knew, or *feologa – fellow* – that was a kind of specific relations between people when they shared common property.

Sometimes it was only new meaning from the Scandinavian that replaced the original meaning of an Old English word: *dream* that meant /'ovacuiired/ the meaning dream in a sleep; *holm*, for merly ocean acuiired the meaning island, plan changed from cultivated land to plough; *deyen* (to die) was borrowed and Old English verb that had that meaning *steorfan* acquired a new meaning of *to starve*. So, the English language of the period that preceded the Norman conquest was significantly changed and simplified, and the drastic changes that followed fell onto the prepared linguistic soil.

When in 1042 the Anglo-Saxon Barons who remained in England managed to oust the Scandinavians, according to the custom of period it was Edward who regained the rule in England, though he himself did little to do it. On his return, he brought many councillors of French origin, and the language Edward knew much better than English was French; it was spoken in the English court even before the Normans.

The approximate number of French settlers was about 200 000. They spoke French, which, though had some peculiarities – it was, in fact, the language learned by the ethnic Germanic tribes that settled in that part of Europe in the 9th century.

For almost three centuries the French language was the official language of the English kingdom; it was the language of the royal court, the church, courts of law and army. Education, as it was mainly controlled by the

church was also in French, though the Latin language was traditionally also taught.

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

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

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

Three reasons are usually given.

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

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

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

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

The effects of the French language on the Middle English are hard to overestimate. The changes in spelling that took place in that period laid the basis for present-day English spelling, a great number of words came into the language and the majority of them are still used, fully assimilated and no

longer perceived as borrowings. The English grammar was much simplified. The language under Norman rule lost its natural immunity to foreign influence, the nationalistic spirit guarding the purity of the language was muffled, which made the language more liberal, and more flexible.

And yet despite the many French loanwords, English remained English, not a dialect of French. English grammar, as opposed to vocabulary, remained virtually unaffected by French, and grammatical developments that had begun much earlier during Anglo-Saxon times continued without interruption through the Conquest. Even today it is still obvious that the grammatical structure of English resembles that of German far more than it resembles that of French. It is at that time that English surnames, family names appeared. In Old English it was enough to be called *Aethelred, son of Alfred*. First, this was reduced to the suffix – **son**: *Johnson, Thompson*; then place names came into use, then occupation; if a person was a foreigner then his nationality might become a surname.

The Middle English period (1150–1500) was marked by momentous changes in the English language, changes more extensive and fundamental than those that have taken place at any time before or since. Some of them were the result of the Norman Conquest and the conditions which followed in the wake of that event. Others were a continuation of tendencies that had begun to manifest themselves in Old English.

The changes of this period affected English in both its grammar and its vocabulary. They were so extensive in each department that it is difficult to say which group is the more significant. Those in the grammar reduced English from a highly inflected language to an extremely analytic one. Those in the vocabulary involved the loss of a large part of the Old English word-stock and the addition of thousands of words from French and Latin. At the beginning of the period English is a language that must be learned like a foreign tongue; at the end it is Modern English.

The changes in English grammar may be described as a general reduction of inflections. Endings of the noun and adjective marking distinctions of number and case and often of gender were so altered in pronunciation as to lose their distinctive form and hence their usefulness. To some extent the same thing is true of the verb.

The phonetic changes were simple but far-reaching. The earliest seems to have been the change of final *-m* to *-n* wherever it occurred, i.e., in the dative plural of nouns and adjectives and in the dative singular (masculine and neuter) of adjectives when inflected according to the strong declension: *mūðum* (to the mouths) >*mūðun*, *gōdum*>*gōdun*. This *-n*, along with the *-n*

of the other inflectional endings, was then dropped (**mūðu*, **gōðu*). At the same time, the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, *e* in inflectional endings were obscured to a sound, the so-called “indeterminate vowel”, which came to be written *e* (less often *i*, *y*, *u*, depending on place and date). As a result, a number of originally distinct endings such as *-a*, *-u*, *-e*, *-an*, *-um* were reduced generally to a uniform *-e*, and such grammatical distinctions as they formerly expressed were no longer conveyed. Traces of these changes have been found in OE as early as the 10th c.

The Noun. Thus, we see how seriously the inflectional endings were disturbed. For example, in the London English of Chaucer in the strong masculine declension the forms *mūð*, *mūðes*, *mūðe*, *mūð* in the singular, and *mūðas*, *mūða* and *mūðum*, *mūðas* in the plural were reduced to three: *mūð*, *mūðes*, and *mūðe*. In such words the *-e*, which was organic in the dative singular and the genitive and dative plural, was extended by analogy to the nominative and accusative singular, so forms like *stōne*, *mūðe* appear.

In early Middle English only two methods of indicating the plural remained fairly distinctive: the *-s* or *-es* from the strong masculine declension and the *-en* (as in *oxen*) from the weak. And for a time, at least in southern England, it would have been difficult to predict that the *-s* would become the almost universal sign of the plural that it has become. Until the 13th century the *-en* plural enjoyed great favor in the south, being often added to nouns which had not belonged to the weak declension in Old English.

By 1200-s was the standard plural ending in the north and north Midland areas; other forms were exceptional. Fifty years later it had conquered the rest of the Midlands, and in the course of the 14th century it had definitely been accepted all over England as the normal sign of the plural in English nouns.

The Adjective. In the adjective the leveling of forms had even greater consequences. Partly as a result of the sound-changes already described, partly through the extensive working of analogy, the form of the nominative singular was early extended to all cases of the singular, and that of the nominative plural to all cases of the plural, both in the strong and the weak declensions. The result was that in the weak declension there was no longer any distinction between the singular and the plural: both ended in *-e* (*blinda* > *blinde* and *blindan* > *blinde*). This was also true of those adjectives under the strong declension whose singular ended in *-e*.

The Pronoun. The decay of inflections that brought about such a simplification of the noun and the adjective as has just been described made it necessary to depend less upon formal indications of gender, case, and (in

adj.) number, and to rely more upon juxtaposition, word order, and the use of prepositions to make clear the relation of words in a sentence. This is apparent from the corresponding decay of pronominal inflections, where the simplification of forms was due in only a slight measure to the weakening of final syllables that played so large a part in the reduction of endings in the noun and the adjective.

The loss was greatest in the demonstratives. Of the numerous forms of *sē, sēo, þæt* we have only **the** and that surviving through Middle English and continuing in use today. A plural *tho (those)* survived to Elizabethan times. All the other forms indicative of different gender, number, and case disappeared in most dialects early in the Middle English period. The same may be said of the demonstrative *þēs, þēos, þis (this)*.

In the personal pronoun the losses were not so great. Most of the distinctions that existed in Old English were retained. However the forms of the dative and accusative cases were early combined, generally under that of the dative (*him, her, [t]hem*). In the neuter the form of the accusative (*h*)it became the general objective case.

The Verb. Apart from some leveling of inflections and the weakening of endings in accordance with the general tendency, the principal changes in the verb during the Middle English period were the serious losses suffered by the strong conjugation. This conjugation, although including some of the most important verbs in the language, was relatively small as compared with the large and steadily growing body of weak verbs.

Nearly a third of the strong verbs in Old English seem to have died out early in the Middle English period. In any case about ninety of them have left no traces in written records after 1150. Some of them may have been current for a time in the spoken language, but except where an occasional verb survives in a modern dialect they are not recorded. Some were rare in Old English and others were in competition with weak verbs of similar derivation and meaning which superseded them. More than a hundred of the Old English strong verbs were lost at the beginning of the Middle English period.

Such verbs as *bow, brew, burn, climb, flee, flow, help, mourn, row, step, walk, weep* were then undergoing change. By the 14th century the movement was at its height. No less than thirty-two verbs in addition to those already mentioned now show weak forms.

Strong forms continued to be used while the weak ones were growing up, and in many cases, they continued in use long after the weak inflection had become well established. Thus, *oke* as the past tense of *ache* was still

written throughout the 15th century although the weak form *ached* had been current for a hundred years. In the same way we find *stope* beside *stepped*, *rewe* beside *rowed*, *clew* beside *clawed*.

Surviving Strong Verbs. When we subtract the verbs that have been lost completely and the eighty-one that have become weak, there remain just sixty-eight of the Old English strong verbs in the language today. The surviving strong verbs have seldom come down to the present day in the form that would represent the normal development of their principal parts in Old English. For example, the verb *to slay* had in Old English the forms *slēan-slōg-slōgon-slægen*. These would normally have become *slea* (pronounced *slee*) *slough-slain*, and the present tense *slea* actually existed down to the 17th century. The modern *slay* is reformed from the past participle. The past tense *slew* is due to the analogy of preterites like *blew*, *grew*.

In Old English the past tense commonly had a different form in the singular and the plural, and in two large classes of verbs the vowel of the plural was also like that of the past participle: *bindan-band-bundon-bunden*.

Loss of Grammatical Gender. Gender of Old English nouns was not often determined by meaning. Sometimes it was indirect contradiction with the meaning. Thus *woman* (OE *wīf-mann*) was masculine, because the second element in the compound was masculine; *wife* and *child*, like German *Weib* and *Kind*, were neuter. The gender of nouns in Old English was not so generally indicated by the declension as it is in a language like Latin. Instead it was revealed chiefly by the concord of the strong adjective and the demonstratives. These by their distinctive endings generally showed, at least in the singular, whether a noun was masculine, feminine, or neuter.

When the inflections of these gender-distinguishing words were reduced to a single ending for the adjective, and the fixed forms of *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those* for the demonstratives, the support for grammatical gender was removed. The weakening of inflections and the confusion and loss of the old gender proceeded in a parallel course. In the north, where inflections weakened earliest, grammatical gender disappeared first. In the south it lingered longer because there the decay of inflections was slower.

The recognition of sex that lies at the root of natural gender is shown in Old English by the noticeable tendency to use the personal pronouns in accordance with natural gender, even when such use involves a clear conflict with the grammatical gender of the antecedent. For example, the pronoun *it* in *Etað þisne hlāf* (masculine), *hit is mīmlicama* (Ælfric's Homilies) is exactly in accordance with modern usage when we say: *Eat this bread, it is*

my body. With the disappearance of grammatical gender sex became the only factor in determining the gender of English nouns.

Middle English Syntax. Whereas in Old English the grammatical functions of two consecutive nouns were clear from their endings in the nominative and dative cases, in Middle English their functions might be uncertain. The most direct way to avoid this kind of ambiguity is through limiting the possible patterns of word order. Within the continuations of the text it is possible to trace first a significant loss of inflections and afterwards a corresponding rigidity of word order, making clear the direction of cause and effect. This process of development and the reality of Middle English as a separate stage of the language grammatically, phonologically and lexically can be seen in the patterns of subject and verb.

Vocabulary. Governmental and Administrative Words. We should expect that English would owe many of its words dealing with government and administration to the language of those who for more than 200 years made public affairs their chief concern. The words *government, govern, administer* might appropriately introduce a list of such words. It would include such fundamental terms as *crowns, state, empire, realm, reign, royal, prerogative, authority, sovereign, majesty, usurp, oppress, court, council, parliament, assembly, statute, treaty, alliance, record, repeal, tax, subsidy, revenue*.

Except for the words *king and queen, lord, lady, and earl*, most designations of rank are French: *noble, nobility, peer, prince, princess, duke, duchess, count, countess, marquis, baron, page, courtier, and titles, madam, mistress*.

The church was scarcely second to the government as an object of Norman interest and ambition. The higher clergy, occupying positions of wealth and power, were practically all Normans. In monasteries and religious houses French was for a long time the usual language. Accordingly, we find in English such French words as: *religion, theology, homily, sacrament, baptism, communion, confession, penance, prayer, orison, lesson, passion, psalmody; clergy, clerk, cardinal, legate, dean, chaplain, parson, pastor, abbess, novice, friar, and hermit*. The names of objects associated with the service or with the religious life, such as *crozier, miter, surplice, censer, incense, image, chancel, chantry, chapter, abbey, convent, priory, hermitage, cloister, sanctuary*.

Law. French was so long the language of the law courts in England that the greater part of the English legal vocabulary comes from the language of the conquerors. The fact that we speak of *justice* and *equity* instead of

gerihte, judgment rather than *dom (doom), crime* in place of *synn, gylt, undæd*, etc., shows how completely we have adopted the terminology of French law.

Army and Navy. The large part that war played in English affairs in the Middle Ages, the fact that the control of the army and navy was in the hands of those who spoke French, and the circumstance that much of English fighting was done in France all resulted in the introduction into English of a number of French military terms. We still use medieval French words when we speak of the *army and thenavy, of peace, enemy, arms, battle, combat, siege, defense, ambush, stratagem, retreat, soldier, garrison, guard, spy, lieutenant, sergeant*. A variety of new words suggests the innovations made by the French in domestic economy and social life: *arras, curtain, couch, chair, cushion, screen, lamp, lantern, sconce, chandelier, blanket, quilt, coverlet, counterpane, towel, and basin, parlor, wardrobe, closet, pantry, scullery, and garner*.

Art, Learning, Medicine. The cultural and intellectual interests of the ruling class are reflected in words pertaining to the arts, architecture, literature, learning, and science, especially medicine. Such words as *art, painting, music, beauty, color, figure, image, tone* are typical of the first class, while architecture and building have given us *cathedral, palace, chamber, ceiling, cellar, garret, chimney, lintel, latch, lattice, tower, pinnacle, turret, porch, bay, choir, baptistry, column, pillar, base*. Literature is represented by the word, *poet, rime, prose, romance, lay, story, chronicle, tragedy, prologue, preface, title, volume, chapter, vellum, paper, and pen, compilation, study, logic, geometry, grammar, noun, clause, gender, copy, expound*.

Differentiation in Meaning. Where both the English and the French words survived, they were generally differentiated in meaning. The words *doom* and *judgment, to deem* and *to judge* are examples that have already been mentioned.

In the 15th century *hearty* and *cordial* came to be used for feelings which were supposed to spring from the heart. Etymologically they are alike, coming respectively from the Old English and the Latin words for heart. But we have kept them both because we use them with a slight difference in meaning, *hearty* implying a certain physical vigor and downrightness, as in a *hearty dinner, cordial* a more quiet or conventional manifestation, as in a *cordial reception*.

In the same way we have kept a number of words for *smell*. The common word in Old English was *stench*. During the Middle English period

this was supplemented by the word *smell* (of unknown origin) and the French words *aroma*, *odor*, and *scent*. To these we have since added *stink* (from the verb) and *perfume* and *fragrance*, from French. Most of these have special connotations and *smell* has become the general word. *Stench* now always means an unpleasant smell.

An interesting group of words illustrating the principle is *ox*, *sheep*, *swine*, and *calf* beside the French equivalents *beef*, *mutton*, *pork*, and *veal*. The French words primarily denoted the animal, as they still do, but in English they were used from the beginning to distinguish the meat from the living beast.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 6.

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. How did Old English dialects change after the Norman Conquest (1066)?
2. The changes in writing and spelling during the period.
3. Describe sound modifications.
4. The influence of the Scandinavian invasion on the development of the language.
5. How did French domination affect the English language? Why didn't the English language die altogether? Why was it not absorbed into the dominant Normantongue?
6. The changes in English grammar during the period.
7. Vocabulary alterations.

THE EARLY NEW ENGLISH. EXPANSION OVER THE BRITISH ISLES. WRITTEN STANDARD

Transition from Middle English to Early Modern English (1500-1700). The death of Chaucer at the close of the century (1400) marked the beginning of the period of transition from Middle English to the Early Modern English stage. The Early Modern English period is regarded by many scholars as beginning in about 1500 and terminating with the return of the monarchy (John Dryden's *Astraea Redux*) in 1660 (1700).

The 15th century witnessed three outstanding developments:

- The rise of London English;
- The invention of printing;
- The spread of the new learning.

When Caxton started *printing at Westminster* in the late summer of 1476, he was painfully aware of the uncertain state of the English language. In his prologues and epilogues to his translations he made some revealing observations on the problems that he had encountered as translator and editor.

The revival of classical learning was one aspect of that *Renaissance*, or spiritual rebirth, that arose in Italy and spread to France and England. It evoked a new interest in Greek on the part of learned men such as William Grocyn and Thomas Linacre, Sir Thomas More and Desiderius Erasmus.

Renaissance scholars adopted a liberal attitude to language. They borrowed Latin words through French, or Latin words direct; Greek words through Latin, or Greek words direct.

Latin was no longer limited to Church Latin: it embraced all Classical Latin. For a time the whole Latin lexicon became potentially English. Some words, such as *consolation* and *infidel*, could have come from either French or Latin. Others, such as the terms *abacus*, *arbitrator*, *explicit*, *finis*, *gratis*, *imprimis*, *item*, *memento*, *memorandum*, *neuter*, *simile*, and *videlicet*, were taken straight from Latin. Words that had already entered the language through French were now borrowed again, so that *doublets* arose:

Benison and benediction
Blame and blaspheme
Chance and cadence
Count and compute
Dainty and dignity

Frail and fragile
Poor and pauper
Purvey and provide
Ray and radius
Sever and separate

*Strait and strict**Sure and secure*

The Latin adjectives for “*kingly*” and “*lawful*” have even given rise to *triplets*; in the forms *real, royal, and regal* and *leal, loyal, and legal*, they were imported first from Anglo-Norman, then from Old French, and last from Latin direct.

After the dawn of the 16th century, English prose moved swiftly toward modernity. Too many writers, to be sure, used “*inkhorn terms*”, newly-coined, ephemeral words, and too many vacillated between Latin and English.

Although the population of London in 1400 was only about 40,000, it was by far the largest city in England. York came second, followed by Bristol, Coventry, Plymouth, and Norwich. The Midlands and East Anglia, the most densely populated parts of England, supplied London with streams of young immigrants. The speech of the capital was mixed, and it was changing. The seven long vowels of Chaucer’s speech had already begun to shift.

The Great Vowel Shift was a gradual process which began in Chaucer’s time (early 15th century) and was continuing through the time of Shakespeare (early 17th century). Speakers of English gradually changed the parts of their mouth used to articulate the long vowels. Simply put, the articulation point moved upward in the mouth. The vowels, which began being pronounced at the top, could not be moved farther up (without poking into the nose); they became diphthongs.

The upshot has been that the Anglo-Saxons lived (like the Scottish still do) in a ‘*hoose*’, and the English live in a ‘*house*’; the Anglo-Saxons (like the Scottish) milked a ‘*coo*’, and the English milk a ‘*cow*’; an Anglo-Saxon had a ‘*gode*’ day and the English have a ‘*good*’ one; an Anglo-Saxon had ‘*feef*’ fingers on each hand and the English have ‘*five*’; they wore ‘*boats*’ on their ‘*fate*’ while the English wear ‘*boots*’ on the ‘*feet*’.

The Great Vowel Shift is still continuing today in regional dialects; many speakers are now trying to move the top most articulation points farther up, producing new diphthongs.

Why Was It? There are theories for why the Great Vowel Shift has occurred, but none are likely ever be testable without a time machine. Two models of the pattern of vowel change are *the ‘pulltheory’* in which the upper vowels moved first and ‘pulled’ the lower ones along, and *the ‘pushtheory’* in which the lower vowels moved forward and up, pushing the others ahead. Neither theory gives us an answer to why the shift happened, and the actual

shifting was so complicated by regional variation that it will be difficult to ever sort out more than a general pattern of shifting.

The regional variation of the shift has led to a multitude of vowel pronunciations which are neither standard English nor standard Continental such as this anecdote:

Boy in North-East England is sitting by a river, crying. Passer by asks what's up. Boy says '*Me mate fell in the water*'.

'Oh – that's terrible, how did it happen?'

'Fell right out of my sandwich, into the water!'

Or the Cockney woman who, when trying to buy a cut loaf of bread was asked by the puzzled baker 'Is it a bread especially for cats?'

This is a demonstration that the English language is still evolving in wonderful (and confusing) ways. In addition, the reconstruction of the sounds is based on texts, which are rarely a perfect means of recording sound. The printing press further complicated this problem, as it tended to fix spelling in the 15th and 16th centuries, before the sounds of speech had finished shifting (if they ever did finish). Today, we speak with 21st century pronunciation, but we write our words in a 15th century form.

The Great Vowel Shift changed the pronunciation of 18 of the 20 distinctive vowels and diphthongs of Middle English. Spelling, however, remained unchanged and was preserved from then on as a result of the advent of printing in England about 1475, during the shift.

Phonetic Changes in the Early New English Period. The changes in the sound system of the period were significant. The process of the levelling of endings continued, there were positional and assimilative changes of short vowels, and a significant change in the whole system of long vowels, called the Great Vowel Shift. During the period the process of simplification of consonant clusters and loss of consonants in certain positions continued.

The changes were as follows:

Loss of unstressed e. The process of levelling of endings led to total disappearance of the neutral sound marked by letter *e* in the endings (it was preserved and even pronounced more distinctly like [i] only when two identical consonants were found in the root and in the endings), though in spelling the letter might be preserved: no vowel is found in *kept, slept, crossed, played; walls, pens, bones, stones* – but it is preserved in *stresses, dresses; wanted, parted; watches, judges; wicked and crooked*.

The whole syllables might be lost in the Early New English pronunciation of long words. In some words, this loss was fixed in spelling, like in *chapter* (ME *chapter*), *palsy* (ME *parlesie*), *fancy* (ME *fantasie*);

some other words preserved the lost syllables in spelling, e.g. *colonel*, *business*, *medicine*.

The sound *e* before *r* changed into *a*. This change in many cases (but not always) was reflected in spelling. It is due to this change that the alphabetic reading of the letter *r* [*er*] began to be pronounced as [*ar*].

Long Vowels. Beginning in the 15th century, all long vowels that existed in Middle English change their quality. This change was a fundamental one, changing the entire vocalic system, and the essence of it is as follows. All long vowels narrowed, and the narrowest of them turned into diphthongs.

The changes were gradual, of course, and in Shakespearean times the vowels were somewhere half way to its present-day stage. The change from [*e:*] to [*i:*] had the intermediate stage [*e:*]. This explains why the rhyme in some sonnets is not exact in present-day system of reading:

*And truly not the moming sun of heaven
Better becomes the grey cheeks of the east.
Nor that full star that ushers in the even
Doth half that glory to the sober west.*

The changes in the Early New English consonants. In many cases the change is resulted in the loss of consonants in certain positions. The sound **l** is lost in combinations before **k, m, f, v**: *talk; walk; stalk; folk; chalk, palm, calm, qualm, psalm* (but not in *helm, elm*), *half, calf* (but *wolf, elf*), *halves* (but *silver*).

Some of these words, however, preserve the sound in the American variant of the English language. The sound *b* was preserved in the words of Latin origin such as *resolve, dissolve* etc. It was also lost after *a* vowel before **d** in *should, could, would*.

Since the Great Vowel Shift did not occur in other languages or in some regional dialects of English, it is the Standard English speakers and not the speakers of other languages, who have the wacky vowels.

In the development of languages particular events often have recognizable and at times far-reaching effects. The Norman Conquest and the Black Death are typical instances that we have already seen. But there are also more general conditions that come into being and are no less influential. In the Modern English period, the beginning of which is conveniently placed at 1500, certain of these new conditions come into play, conditions that previously either had not existed at all or were present in only a limited way, and they cause English to develop along somewhat different lines from those that had characterized its history in the Middle Ages.

The new factors were:

- the printing press;
- the rapid spread of popular education;
- the increased communication and means of communication;
- the growth of specialized knowledge;
- the emergence of various forms of self-consciousness about language.

In the later Middle Ages a surprising number of people of the middle class could read and write, as the Paston Letters abundantly show: 'In Shakespeare's London, though we have no accurate means of measurement, it is probable that not less than a third and probably as many as half of the people could at least read'.

In the 17th and 18th centuries there arose a prosperous trades class with the means to obtain an education and the leisure to enjoy it, attested to, for example, by the great increase in the number of schools, the tremendous journalistic output of a man like Defoe, and the rapid rise of the novel. Nowadays, when practically everyone goes to school, we witness the phenomenon of newspapers with circulations of several hundred thousand copies daily, even up to 2 million, and magazines that in an exceptional case reach a total of 80 million copies per month. As a result of popular education the printing press has been able to exert its influence upon language as upon thought.

A third factor of great importance to language in modern times is the way in which the different parts of the world have been brought together through commerce, transportation, and the rapid means of communication we have developed. The exchange of commodities and the exchange of ideas are both stimulating to language. We shall see later how the expansion of the British Empire and the extension of trade enlarged the English vocabulary by words drawn from every part of the world, besides spreading the language over vast areas whose existence was undreamed of in the Middle Ages. But while diversification has been one of the results of transportation, unification has also resulted from ease of travel and communication. The steam ship and the rail road, the automobile, and the airplane have brought people into contact with one another and joined communities hitherto isolated, while the post offices and the telegraph, the telephone, the radio, the movies, television, and electronic data transmission have been influential in the intermingling of language and the lessening of the more easily altered local idiosyncrasies.

The fourth factor, the growth of specialized knowledge, has been important not only because new knowledge often requires new vocabulary

but also because, in the early centuries of the modern period, Latin became less and less the vehicle for learned discourse. Both trends accelerated strongly during the seventeenth century. The rapid accumulation of new knowledge was matched by a rapid trend away from publishing specialized and learned works in Latin.

Finally, there is the factor which we have referred to as self-consciousness about language. This has two aspects, one individual, and one public. At the individual level we may observe a phenomenon that has become intensely important in modern times: as people lift themselves into a different economic or intellectual or social level, they are likely to make an effort to adopt the standards of grammar and pronunciation of the people with whom they have identified, just as they try to conform to fashions and tastes in dress and amusements. However superficial such conformity might be, people are as careful of their speech as of their manners. Awareness that there are standards of language is a part of their social consciousness. Most people are less aware that such standards are largely accidental rather than absolute, having developed through the historical contingencies of economics, culture, and class. At the public level a similar self-consciousness has driven issues of language policy over the past four centuries, long before "language policy" acquired its modern meaning.

The Problems of the Vernaculars. In the Middle Ages the development of English took place under conditions that, because of the Norman Conquest, were largely peculiar to England. None of the other modern languages of Europe had had to endure the consequences of a foreign conquest that temporarily imposed an outside tongue upon the dominant social class and left the native speech chiefly in the hands of the lower social classes. But by the close of the Middle English period English had passed through this experience and, though bearing deep and had made a remarkable recovery. From this time on the course of its history runs in many ways parallel with that of the other important European languages.

In the 16th century the modern languages faced three great problems:

- (1) recognition in the fields where Latin had for centuries been supreme;
- (2) the establishment of a more uniform orthography;
- (3) the enrichment of the vocabulary so that it would be adequate to meet the demands that would be made upon it in its wider use.

Each of these problems received extensive consideration in **the England of the Renaissance**, but it is interesting to note that they were likewise being discussed in much the same way in France and Italy, and to some extent in Germany and Spain. Italy had the additional task of deciding upon the basis

of its literary dialect, a matter that in France and England had been largely taken care of by the ascendancy of Paris and London.

The Struggle for Recognition. Although English, along with the other vernaculars, had attained an established position as the language of popular literature, a strong tradition still sanctioned the use of Latin in all the fields of knowledge. This tradition was strengthened by the “revival of learning”, in which the records of Greek civilization became once more available in the original.

Latin and Greek were not only the key to the world’s knowledge but also the languages in which much highly esteemed poetry, oratory, and philosophy were to be read. And Latin, at least, had the advantage of universal currency, so that the educated all over Europe could freely communicate with each other, both in speech and writing, in a common idiom. Beside the classical languages, which seemingly had attained perfection, the vulgar tongues seemed immature, unpolished, and limited in resource. They could not express the abstract ideas and the range of thought embodied in the ancient languages. Scholars alone had access to this treasure; they could cultivate the things of the spirit and enrich their lives. It would seem at times as though they felt their superiority to the less educated and were jealous of a prerogative that belonged to the Malone.

The defenders of the classical tradition were at no loss for arguments in support of their position. It was feared that the study of the classical languages, and even learning itself, would suffer if the use of the vernaculars were carried too far. And there were many who felt that it would be dangerous if matters like the disputes of theology and discussions in medicine fell into the hands of the indiscreet.

The Problem of Orthography. Spelling is for most people a pedestrian subject, but for the English, as for the French and the Italians, in the 16th century the question of orthography or “right writing,” as Mulcaster preferred to call it, was a matter of real importance and the subject of much discussion. The trouble was not merely that English spelling was bad, for it is still bad today, but that there was no generally accepted system that everyone could conform to. In short, it was neither phonetic nor fixed.

Speaking generally, the spelling of the modern languages in the Middle Ages had attempted with fair success to represent the pronunciation of words, and this is true of English in spite of the fact that Norman scribes introduced considerable confusion when they tried to write a language that they imperfectly knew and carried over habits that they had formed in writing French. The confusion was increased when certain spellings

gradually became conventional while the pronunciation slowly changed. In some cases, a further discrepancy between sound and symbol arose when letters were inserted in words where they were not pronounced (like the *b* in *debt* or *doubt*) because the corresponding word in Latin was so spelled (*debitum, dubitare*), or in other cases (for example, the **gh** in *delight, tight*) by analogy with words similarly pronounced (*light, night*) where the *gh* had formerly represented an actual sound.

The variability of English spelling was an important part of the instability that people felt characterized the English language in the 16th century, especially as compared with a language like Latin. To many it seemed that English spelling was chaotic.

In reality it was not as bad as that. There were limits to its variety and inconsistency. It varied more from writer to writer, according to education and temperament, than within the practice of the individual. Then as now, some people were more inclined than others to adopt a given way of doing a thing and to stick to it. Consistency in a matter like spelling often went with a scholarly temperament. Sir John Cheke, for example, has a system of spelling that he adheres to fairly closely. He doubles long vowels (*taak, haat, maad, mijn, thijn*, etc., for *take, hate, made, mine, thine*), discards final *-e* (*giv, belev*), always uses *i* for *y* (*mighti, dai*), and so forth.

Mulcaster would first of all get rid of superfluous letters. There is no use in writing *putt, grubb, ledd* for *put, grub, led*, “and a thousand such ignorant superfluities”. On the other hand, we must not omit necessary letters such as the **t** in *fetch* or *scratch*. He allows double consonants only where they belong to separate syllables (*wit-ting*), and almost never at the end of a word except in the case of **ll** (*tall, generall*). Words ending in **-ss** he writes **-sse** (*glasse, confesse*). Otherwise final *-e* is used regularly to indicate a preceding long vowel, distinguishing *made* from *mad*, *stripe* from *strip*.

Analogy, or as he calls it, “proportion”, plays a justly important part in his system. Since we write *hear*, we should therefore write *fear* and *dear*. This principle, he admits, is subject to exceptions that must be made in deference to “prerogative”, that is, the right of language to continue a common custom, as in employing an analogous spelling for *where, here, there*. In such a case he becomes frankly the apologist, justifying the common practice.

He is really more interested in having everyone adopt the same spelling for a given word than he is in phonetic consistency. It is not so much a question of whether one should write *where* as that one should adopt a single

spelling and use it regularly instead of writing *where, wher, whear, wheare, were, whair*, etc.

During the first half of the next century the tendency toward uniformity increased steadily. The spelling in its modern form had been practically established by about 1650. In ‘The New World of English Words’ published in 1658 by Milton’s nephew Edward Phillips, the compiler says: “*As for orthography, it will not be requisite to say any more of it then may conduce to the readers direction in the finding out of words*”, and he adds two or three remarks about Latin *praebeing* rendered in English by *pre-*, and the *like*. Otherwise he seemed to think that the subject did not call for any discussion. And in reality, it did not. The only changes we should make in the sentence just quoted are in the spelling then (for than) and the addition of an apostrophe in readers.

The development of the language is inseparable from the literary process of the period, and the flourishing of science. Though scientific works in the 16th and 17th century were mainly written in Latin, they were readily translated into English and added to the development of the English language. The names of Thomas More (1478-1535) famous for, among his other writings, “Utopia” (written in 1516 in Latin, and first translated into English in 1551) and Francis Bacon with his most famous work “Novum Organum” (1620) presenting an inductive method for scientific and philosophical inquiry (written in Latin) are inseparable from the English culture.

But the most prominent name in the literary life of the period is that of **William Shakespeare** (1564-1616). He outclassed his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies, sonnets). His vocabulary alone amounts to 20 000 words; his freedom in creating new words and versatility in using grammatical constructions is remarkable. The peculiarities of the Early New English are illustrated here on the citations from his works, as they seem to be the most representative of the period and in addition the most well-known by the present-day readers. His grammar is yet untouched by the prescriptivists, his vocabulary is extensive; his artistic genius is incomparable in the use of the possibilities the English language offers.

Citations from his plays have acquired the status of set phrases, sometimes used by people without knowing that they have an author:

It's Greek to me
salad days
play fast and loose

*make a virtue out of necessity
 too much of a good thing
 to have seen better days
 live in a fool's paradise
 it is high time
 that is the long and the short of it
 a laughing stock etc.*

Quotable quotes taken from his plays are more recognizable as far as their source is concerned, and come into the English language ready-made:

*Something is rotten in the state of Denmark;
 Brevity is the soul of wit;
 To be or not to be – that is the question;
 Alas, poor Yorick and many more.*

The language of the period is recorded in private correspondence. Paston letters (1430-1470) and Cely papers (sometime later, both in east Midland dialect) give a fair picture of colloquial speech, so far as it is possible for a written document.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 7.

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Describe transitional period from Middle English to Early Modern English (1500-1700).
2. Latin borrowings in Early New English.
3. The Great Vowel Shift. What was it? Why was it?
4. Phonetic Changes in the Early New English Period.
5. What were the great problems the modern languages faced in the England of the Renaissance (the 16th century)?
6. The influence of William Shakespeare's works on the development of Early Modern English.

EARLY NEW ENGLISH. GRAMMAR AND VOCABULARY CHANGES (11-18th c.)

GRAMMAR CHANGES

Noun. The noun paradigm looks very much the same as we have it today. Having lost the category of gender and much of its case forms it has the *genitive case* as opposed to nominative; the number of nouns taking it, is reduced mainly to those denoting living beings. In fact, we may call it *possessive*, because it is used now mainly in the function of attribute denoting possession. However, some nouns other than those denoting persons may still take it in the 17th century.

I do not set my life in *a pin's fee* (Hamlet)

At the same time the unification of plural endings takes place, and former relics of *-en* disappear, giving way to *-es*. So, the general rule of formation of the plural of the noun is enriched by archaic forms (like *geese*, *feet*, *children* etc.) – we call them *grammatical archaisms*; some words borrowed from Latin and used mainly in scientific texts retain their Latin plurals and may be called *grammatical barbarisms*: *datum* – *data*, *radius* – *radii*, *formula* – *formulae*, *axis* – *axes*.

Some of these, however tend to comply with the general rule, and forms like *radiuses*, *formulas* very soon become quite common.

Whereas *the apostrophe* as a sign denoting the possessive case of a noun appeared only about 1680, and its use to mark the possessive case in plural in 1789, the nouns in the genitive case and in the plural have homonymic endings, and only the context resolves ambiguity. We may note numerous instances of the use of apostrophe in Shakespeare's plays, but there they show only the omission of *-e* or some other sounds – that is purely a phonetic sign.

Of-phrase (the noun with the preposition *of*) replaces the former genitive case, but in Shakespeare's plays they may go together, as in the following:

The pangs of despised love, the law's delay (Hamlet)

Pronoun. Changes in the system of pronouns are not very numerous. *Personal Pronouns.* The system of forms that arose in Middle English is somewhat reduced by shifting the second person singular pronoun *thou/thee* from the sphere of everyday use into special conditions. As the tendency to use the pronoun *ye* in addressing one person arose earlier, in the Middle English, now this tendency grows, but the very form of the nominative case

falls out of use and finally the second person is expressed, in the nominative as well as in the objective case by the only surviving form – *you*.

The form *ye* (nominative case) and *you* (objective) sometimes are misplaced in Shakespeare's plays – (probably the cause for this is the fact that *ye* was not frequently used by the beginning of the 17th century and the in form *ye* was closer to the objective case of *thou* – *thee* that was still current at that time).

Though *you* did love this youth, I blame *ye* not:

You had a motive for't (Cymbeline)

Possessive pronouns. First of all, they lost agreement with the nouns they modify that was still slightly expressed in Middle English. The second person singular is still used, though is gradually on the decline, together with the personal pronouns. As in Middle English, the forms of the first and the second person possessive pronouns have variant forms *my/mine*, *thy/thine*. The full forms (*mine* and *thine*) were used with the nouns beginning with a vowel, and *my* and *thy* – those that began with a consonant sound. The forms *mine* and *thine* may also be used absolutely.

Thou know'st the mask of night is on *my* face (Romeo and Juliet)

What further woe conspires against *mine* age? (Romeo and Juliet)

First pay me for the nursing of *thy* sons (Cymbeline)

The third person neuter possessive pronoun has variant forms, too. The old form *his* is still in use, a new form *its* comes into usage. As a variant, uninflected form (bare it) may be used.

Sweet nature must pay *his* due (Hamlet)

The hedge-sparrow fed the cuckoo so long,

That it's had *it* head bit off by *it* young (King Lear)

Adjective. The adjective in Early New English lost the form of plural and weak forms and acquired its present-day qualities. The degrees of comparison are formed by means of the suffixes -er and -est, vowel mutation which was characteristic of some of them was almost lost. The forms *elder/older*, *eldest/oldest* and *further/farther*, *furthest/farthest* are distinguished in use. So *older* forms *elder*, *eldest* are used to denote relations within a family and *further/furthest* are used in relation to time whereas *farther/farthest* to distance.

The tendency to unification of the general norm sometimes brings to the general rule even those the comparatives and superlatives of which were traditionally in suppletive way:

Where love is great, *the littlest* doubts are fear (Hamlet)

Some word there was, *worsen* than Tybalt's death,

That murder'd me (Romeo and Juliet).

The new way of forming the degrees of comparison that appeared in Middle English – that is, analytically, by placing the adverb *more* and *most* before the adjective comes into practice. The rule that this new form is to be used only with polysyllabic and a limited number of bisyllabic adjectives was not yet established. Shakespeare's works illustrate what might be called synchronic variation of forms.

And with *the deepest* malice of the war
Destroy what lies before 'em (Coriolanus)

Double comparatives and superlatives – the instances when the adjective with a suffix is preceded by *more/most* are also found:

This was the *most unkindest* cut of all (Julius Caesar)

Timon will to the woods; where he shall find

The *unkindest* beast *more kinder* than mankind (Timon of Athens)

At the same time *more* and *most* may also be used as comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective *much* – that is, they are not auxiliaries but adjectives of full semantics (equivalent to present-day *greater*, *greatest*).

If I do so, it will be of *more price*,

Being spoke behind your back, than to your face (Romeo and Juliet)

The way of forming *the degrees of comparison of adverbs* is mainly the same – here we also find suffixes, analytical forms and even double comparatives and double superlatives:

Trust me, he beat him *most pitifully* (Merry Wives of Windsor)

She comes *more nearer* earth than she was wont,

And makes men mad (Othello)

Verb. As the majority of new grammatical categories were already formed in Middle English, in Early New English they become more specialized in meaning, though it was not until the period when prescriptive grammars set the rules of their use, there is much variation as far as their forms and peculiarities of use are concerned.

The loss of endings greatly simplified the verbal paradigm. There were no longer endings marking the 1st person singular, plural present indicative, and the infinitival suffix *-an* – *>en* – *>e* was also lost. Personal ending of the third person singular in the present tense *-th* is replaced by *-s*: *hath* – *> has*, *thinketh* – *> thinks*.

However, the old ending may still be found in Shakespeare's works, and there is practically no difference between two forms (probably, to some extent the old form makes the speech more elevated and official):

What early tongue so sweet *saluteth* me? (Romeo and Juliet)

It is to be noted that the verbs *do* and *have* are the most persistent in keeping this old ending, at least they are used with it more frequently than the others, especially in the function of an auxiliary.

Our Romeo *hath* not been in bed to-night (Romeo and Juliet)

This is the place; ihere, where the torch *doth* bum (ibid)

The traditional classification of strong and weak verbs gives way to division into regular and irregular, with a pronounced tendency within the classes of the strong verbs to turn into weak ones, regular or irregular, but nevertheless forming their past tense and Participle II by a dental suffix **-d** or **-t**. Somewhat apart are treated modal verbs, formerly preterite-present, that are stripped of their paradigmatic forms and are later referred to as defective.

Regular verbs. As class II of the former weak verbs was the most productive and served as the basis for the rules of formation of the past tense and Participle II, the majority of former verbs belonging to this class remain regular: *love, look, ask, mark, prick, prove* etc. Some, however, somewhat changed and are now irregular *make – made* (formerly *maked*).

The verbs that are derived from other parts of speech are all regular and form their past tense and Participle II by adding **-ed** suffix now perceived as the ending.

He hath *out-villained* villany so far, that the rarity redeems
him (All's well that ends well)

All borrowed verbs form their past tense in the same way and so they are regular.

These bloody accidents must excuse my manners,
That so *neglected* you (Othello)

Many traditionally strong verbs show the tendency to change their former past tense forms to a more productive and more widespread way of formation of past with the same ending, though they retain their Participle II form in **-en**.

Such verbs as *chew, climb, help, yield, starve, mourn, gnaw, ache, laugh, fold, walk* etc. barely show their former belonging to the strong conjugation, and their past tense and participles are fully regular: *chew – chewed, climb – climbed, help – helped, yield – yielded, starve – starved, etc.*

In early XVII c., however, we still see variation in use of such verbs:

Tum giddy, and be *holp* by backward turning (Romeo and Juliet)

Would I had been by, to have *helped* the old man! (The Winter's Tale)

Some of these verbs form their past tense forms and participles differendy – the past tense by adding **-ed**, Participle II by means of adding the suffix **-en** to the stem of the infinitive.

melt – melted – melted (molten)
shave – shaved – shaved (shaven)
show – showed – shown (showed)
sow – sowed – sown (sowed)

wake – waked – waked (woke – woken)
wax – waxed – waxed (waxen)

Irregular verbs include those former strong verbs that preserved the vowel interchange in the root. Here belong both those that form their participle with the help of the suffix **-n**, and those that lost the suffix altogether:

write – wrote – written
rise – rose – risen
choose – chose – chosen
bite – bit – bit (bitten)

bind – bound – bound
find – found – found
sit – sat – sat
swim – swam – swum

Many regular weak verbs of the I class where phonetic processes of assimilation of consonants led to the change of the suffix to **-r**, shortening of the vowels in front of two consonants caused the difference in sounds of the infinitive and the two other forms (the first long vowel was changed in the course of the Great Vowel Shift, the others remain unchanged): *feel – felt – felt*, *meet – met – met*, *bend – bent – bent*, *send – sent – sent*.

The verbs that were always irregular and stood apart from all the classification *to do* and *to go* did not change and also belong to the irregular: *do – did – done*, *go – went – gone*.

To say nothing of the verb *to be* that being irregular in its basic forms *be–was–been* retained the forms of the 1st person in present singular and number in the past tense.

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

Such is the verb *witen (to know)* which is still found in Shakespeare's times in the form *wot/wotst/wots*, unlike other modals it takes the personal endings and has the form of the participle:

I'll find Romeo

To comfort you: I *wot* well where he is (Romeo and Juliet)

...more water glideth by the mill

Than *wots* the miller of (Titus Andronicus)

It may be said that in this rare case of the use of the verb *witen* approaches the verbs of full semantics, and practically never became a true modal.

The rest are used only as modal auxiliaries. The verb *can/could* still takes the personal ending of the second person, but no ending is observed in the third person singular. *Could* may be used to mean past indicative or the present Subjunctive:

Canst thou remember

A time before we came unto this cell? (Titus Andronicus)

Young man, thou *couldst* not die more honourable (Julius Caesar)

I *could* be well moved, if I were as you (Julius Caesar)

May/might, like *can* takes the personal ending only in the 2nd person singular; both forms are frequently used with the meaning of subjunctive (or present conditional):

...you *may* buy
land now as cheap as stinking
mackerel (King Henry IV)

O, that a man *might* know

The end of this day's business ere it
come! (Julius Caesar)

Imogen, Safe *mayst* thou wander,
safe return again! (Cymbeline)

Shall/should are used as modals; *shall* also as auxiliaries of the future and future-in-the-past tense:

Nurse! What *should* she do here? (Romeo and Juliet)

The most significant change underwent the verb *mot, moste* – it retained only the form of the past tense that now has no relevance to the past, and its original meaning of ability shifted to present-day meaning of obligation:

...all that lives *must* die,

Passing through nature to eternity (Hamlet)

In Early New English the uses of *must* are often associated with the use of the adverb *needs*, rendering the meaning of necessity – necessarily, etc.

My dismal scene I *needs* must act alone.

Come, vial (Romeo and Juliet)

The verb *daren, durren* has partly preserved its nature as a preterite present verb – it may take (or not) the 3rd person ending in the present indicative, it may be followed by bare infinitive (or with the particle *to*); it had variant forms of the past tense and subjunctive (*dared/durst*):

And what love can do that *dares* love attempt (Romeo and Juliet)

Go in and cheer the king: he rages; none

Dare come about him (Cymbeline)

It also developed a new meaning “to challenge or provoke (a person) into a demonstration of courage”:

So hath my lord *dared* him to single fight (Antony and Cleopatra)

The verb *will/would*, formally anomalous, now approaches the modals. As in older times it does not take the 3rd person singular personal ending, the infinitive usually associated with it is bare, and in its uses it has very much in common with the other modals. However, in the early XVII century very often it is used as a notional verb. This is especially evident in such uses of the form *would* in the subjunctive where *would like* in present-day English is more common:

EROS What *would* my lord?
(Antony and Cleopatra)

IAGO Why, go to bed, and sleep
(Othello)

RODERIGO What will I do,
thinkest thou?

My lord, I *would* that Thursday
were tomorrow (Romeo and Juliet)

The non-finite forms of the verb – *the infinitive, the participle and the gerund* – developed the set of forms and can hardly be called now the nominal parts of speech. Passive and perfect infinitives, passive and perfect gerund, present participle in the passive voice and perfect participle in the active and the passive voice fully represent new verbal grammatical categories:

I am *to blame* to be thus waited for
(Julius Caesar) (passive)

My purpose was not *to have seen*
you here (Merchant of Venice)
(perfect)

Perfect Participle, in active and passive forms becomes quite common:

Nay, then indeed she cannot choose *but hate* thee.

Having bought love with such a bloody spoil (Richard III)

The Gerund that originated and was occasionally used in Middle English becomes quite common, the use of this form does not differ from the present-day practice:

You know the cause, air, of my *standing* here (Coriolanus)

The Categories of the Early New English Verb. They remain basically the same: tense, voice, time correlation (perfect), mood. The categories of number and person are less distinct and expressed in the personal ending of the 3rd person singular in the present tense active voice and in the passive voice, as the verb *to be* retains its 1st person singular and two number forms in the past.

All forms of the perfect tenses are abundantly used in Early New English. Occasionally the perfect tenses of the intransitive verbs are formed with the auxiliary *to be* but the forms with the auxiliary *have* are also found:

O, are you come, Iago? You *have done* well (Othello)

I *am gone*, though I am here (Much Ado About Nothing)

The moods of the Early New English period are the same as they were in the Middle English – the Indicative, the Imperative and Subjunctive. The newly arisen analytical forms of the Subjunctive (now in some grammars they are called the Conditional, the Suppositional and Subjunctive II Past) have not yet the present-day differentiation as to the rules of the structural limitation of their use – we may find any combination of the moods in the sentences of unreal condition:

If thou wert honourable,

Thou *wouldst have told* this tale for virtue (Cymbeline)

There is another difference in the use of the former Present tense of the Subjunctive Mood (which now is commonly called Subjunctive I). It is widely used in the texts, in sentences expressing wishes (curses including). Such sentences were much more common in those times, so the frequency of use of this form is very high.

Once more, on pain of death, all men *depart* (Romeo and Juliet)

Subjunctive I is also widespread in other types of clauses, where in present-day English we have Suppositional Mood (should + Infinitive) and in American variant the older archaic form is preserved:

...parting is such sweet sorrow,

That I *shall say* good night till it be morrow (Romeo and Juliet)

(clause of time)

Give order to my servants that they take

No note at all of our *being absent* hence (Merchant of Venice)

(attributive clause)

Instances of the use of the continuous form with the adverb always are marked by emotional colouring; they express irritation on the part of the speaker:

Thou art always *figuring* diseases in me; but thou

art full of error; I am sound (Measure for Measure)

Early New English Syntax. The structure of the sentence in Early New English is conditioned by the previous development of its morphology. With the practical loss of endings by the nouns and adjectives, their position in the sentence becomes quite relevant to the meaning they render – so, the direct word order prevails, the subject precedes the predicate in non-emotional sentences, and the object is shifted to the position after the predicate.

Agreement as a means of grammatical connection of the words in the sentence is limited to the demonstrative pronouns that preserve their plural

form. The predicate agrees with the subject when it is expressed by the verb *to be* or the passive form of the verb with this same auxiliary, and in the third person singular of the present tense.

A true innovation is observed in the structure of the sentence as auxiliary *do* is introduced. It appears in all types of sentences: declarative, negative and interrogative containing the Present or Past tenses of the Indicative Mood and the Imperative Mood. These forms are known as “*do-periphrasis*”, and practically all of them are devoid of any emphatic meaning, of any stylistic connotation. Occasionally we may find that the structure containing *do* may be really emphatic, but that is conditioned rather by the lexical meaning of the words: *I do know – I know, Dost thou know? – Knowest thou?, I don't know – I know not.*

As far as the general organization of the sentence is concerned, a new phenomenon arises – the structure of the sentence becomes nominative, that is a subject in the nominative case becomes a necessary part of it. The majority of sentences had it in Old and in Middle English. But at the same time impersonal sentences, where the doer of the action was indefinite had special structure without the subject, having the predicate and the object in the dative case, sometimes the object merged with the very verb. Such structures are still found in Shakespeare's plays:

But, soft! *Me thinks* I scent the morning air (Hamlet)

Though double negation is considered ungrammatical and is gradually driven out of the language, Shakespeare's works still show that it did not happen in early 17th century:

STEPHANO We'll not run, Monsieur Monster.

TRINCULO *Nor go neither*, but you'll lie like dogs and yet
say nothing neither (The Tempest)

VOCABULARY CHANGES

Whereas we mentioned various sources of enriching the English vocabulary – they were *Latin and Celtic* in Old English, *Scandinavian and French* in Middle English, the Modern English state of things is characterized more by English influence on the other languages than by the reverse.

Whereas words of foreign origin enriched the English vocabulary to a great extent, the inner factors – that is, various ways of word building – were also very actively used. New words appeared in the language built by all traditional word building processes – derivation, compounding, semantic

word building and a new, specifically English way of making new words arose – zero-derivation, or conversion.

Derivation can be observed in all parts of speech. The most productive suffixes of the period were: **-er**: *trader, banker, manager, explorer, provider, subscriber, printer, stopper, spoiler, chopper, ripper, intruder, hairdresser*. During this period the former suffix **-our** (French in origin) acquired the same form **-er** or turned into **-or**: *interpretour – interpreter, robbour – robber, traytour – traitor, emperour – emperor, senatour – senator*.

The morpheme **-man**, formerly a part of numerous compounds turns into a semi-suffix, which until recently was not marked with a pronounced gender meaning, probably because all the marked professions were men's, and the question of women in profession did not arise:

boatman, spokesman, coachman, postman, meatman, clergyman, milkman.

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

-y *stumpy*
haughty
healthy
racy

-ful *beautiful*
delightful
grateful
hopeful

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 *tin-* and *mis-* – the first equivalent to 'not', and the second applied to various parts of speech, meaning 'ill', 'mistaken', 'wrong' or simply negating, and the prefix *dis-*, *un-* having negative or reversing force:

unbecoming
unfortunate
unabated

unalterable
unanswerable
unapproachable

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

atonement
merriment
treatment

astonishment
acknowledgement
inducement

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

luggage
shortage
leakage

mileage
storage
wreckage

Suffix **-able/-ible** came into the English language in Middle English as a part of a great number of French adjectives (*amyable, 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: *answerable, approachable, arguable, bearable, capable*.

Latin and Greek prefixes *re- trans- post- pre- super- sub- counteranti-* are productive and combine both with the borrowed and native roots.

The examples of innovations containing them are:

re- re-examine
rewrite
re-export
redo
supereminent
supercritical
transfix
postposition
postgraduate
prejudge
predecease
preappoint
subhead
submarine
subcommitte

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*.

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

forget-me-not
happy-go-lucky
jack-in-the-box
matter-of-fact
merry-go-round
out-of-date

As international communication becomes more active new words derived from proper names, often of foreign origin appear in the language: *calico* (Calcutta) – short for Calico cloth ghetto a section of a city in which all Jews (and later the representatives of other ethnic minority group, were

required to live); *astrakhan* – a fur of young lambs, with lustrous, closely curled wool, from jersey, a knitted garment covering the upper part of the body; a machine-knitted slightly elastic cloth of wool, silk, nylon, etc., used for clothing; *sandwich* – two or more slices of bread or the like with a layer of meat, fish, cheese, etc., between each pair.

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/Aan**, and denominal and deajectival verbs were made by suffixation: *lufu* – *lufian*, *rest* – *restan*, *ende* – *endian*.

In Middle English, with the levelling of endings, these pairs were *love-loven*, *rest-resten*, *end-enden*. Finally the endings were lost, and the noun and the verb coincided in form *love n.* – *love v.*; *rest a.* – *rest v.*; *end n.* – *end v.* This set a new pattern of making new words (verbs from nouns and adjectives with a certain number of verbs derived from other parts of speech and nouns from verbs). In Early New English it was very productive, even more productive than it is now.

Borrowings in the Early New English. Latin borrowings were especially numerous. Taken mainly from written sources they easily assimilated in the language, and all the long vowels comply with the changes in the vowels in similar position during the Great Vowel Shift. Words belonging to various parts of speech are found here. Some preserved Latin grammatical morphemes which are no longer felt as such, the word belongs to any part of speech irrespective of the part of speech.

Suffix. Here are some examples of the borrowings of the period.

Nouns: *amplitude, class, consultation, formula, gymnasium, initiation, accommodate, accumulate, appreciate, calculate, congratulate, co-ordinate.*

The Latin suffix **-atus**, that of the past participle is preserved in the form **-ate** in many adjectives: *accurate, degenerate, elaborate, immediate.*

French borrowings in Early New English are somewhat different from those taken in Middle English. They are no longer superimposed by a winning nation but are taken freely, and semantic grouping is fuzzier – here we may find words from the military sphere, words connected with leisure, pastime and games, culinary terms and so on: *apricot, attack, avenue, ballet, ballot, bandage.*

The peculiarity of the French borrowings of the period is that they in many cases preserve French phonetic shape (borrowings of the 16th and 17th century alike) – they have the stress on the final syllable, often have mute consonants at the end and have French sounds (3 in *bourgeois, genre* etc.)

Borrowing *Italian* words at this period is explained by great influence of Italy in certain spheres of life. Italian architecture, music, banking and military affairs excelled those times. The borrowings of this period are: *arsenal, artichoke, bankrupt, baritone, canto*.

Spanish borrowings of this period are rather numerous and can be subdivided into two groups – borrowings of the native Spanish words such as: *renegade, guitar, mosquito, cigar, sombrero*; and those that were taken into Spanish from various American Indian languages (occasionally from other languages). Sometimes people think that they might be called the borrowings from Indian languages, but there was no direct contact of the English with those tribes at the period so the words came into English from Spanish: tobacco (from Arawak), potato (Taino), hammock (Taino), hurricane (Taino), maize (Taino), moose (Abenaki), chocolate (Náhuatl).

German, Hungarian, Polish and Ukrainian words are not so numerous and in many cases only name the things absent in the English everyday life – names of musical instruments, some institutions and social titles, wines etc. So Hungarian in origin are: *hussar* and *coach*. Words like *cossack* and *horde* are listed among Polish borrowings of Ukrainian origin; *borshch* came into the English language through Yiddish marked as Ukrainian soup, *hospodar* came through Romanian.

The English colonial expansion brought into the language words of the languages of the English *colonies in Asia, Africa and Australia*. Here are some examples of the words taken from *Indian languages* (Hindi, Bengali, Urdu etc): *sari, calico, rajah, dungaree, nabob, pundit, cashmere, bungalow, shampoo* (from Hindi); *khaki* (Urdu), *coolie* (from Urdu), *pariah* (Tamil), *curry* (Tamil), *catamaran* (Tamil); from the languages from *other parts of Asia and Oceania, Australia, New Zealand and Africa*: *bamboo* (Malay), *puddy* (Malay), *taboo* (Tongan or Fijian), *orang-outang* (Malay), *ketchup* (Malay), *chimpanzee* (Bantu), *kangaroo*; *kiwi* (Maori), *tattoo* (Marquesan).

PRACTICAL LESSON # 8

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Describe the changes in the noun, adjective and pronoun during the period.
2. Verb alterations.
3. Early New English syntax.
4. Vocabulary changes in the period. Recount the ways of its derivation.
5. Specify the borrowings.

MODERN ENGLISH (18th – 20th c.). THE SPREAD OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OVER THE WORLD

The Impact of the Seventeenth Century. The social, commercial, technological, and intellectual forces that were released in the Renaissance had profound effects on the English language, as the previous chapter has described. In the middle and latter part of the seventeenth century the evolution and interaction of these forces led to a culmination, a series of crises, and an even to alreaction. Both the crises and the responses to them were provoked by transmutations of forces that had energized the Renaissance. The most obvious crisis was the English Civil War of the 1640s, followed by the Restoration of Charles II in 1660.

The intellectual turbulence, which involved matters of language and language use, among many other concerns, is somewhat harder to trace than the political turbulence, and it has often been misread. While it is natural for us to take the rationality of scientific discourse as a kind of norm, the new scientists and philosophers of the seventeenth century saw their world view challenged by an outpouring of fervent expression that was often driven by religious zeal and occult science.

Learned discourse was no longer confined to elite circles; it was now being extensively published, in English. The practitioners of natural science seemed to glory not only in condemning the Enthusiasts and the old authorities but also in open disputation. They regarded science as a cooperative enterprise which required disagreements.

In the 1660s the Royal Society, which served as coordinator and clearing house for English scientific endeavors, proposed a solution in which the English language would play a crucial role. Among the membership, the leading proponents of this solution were religious moderates as well. They argued that the English prose of scientists should be tripped of ornamentation and emotive language. It should be plain, precise, and clear. The style should be non-assertive. Assent was to be gained not by force of words but by force of evidence and reasoning.

The Temper of the Eighteenth Century. In the light of this seventeenth-century background we may more readily understand the

temper of the eighteenth century. The first half of the 18th century is commonly designated in histories of literature as *the Augustan Age in England*. The principal characteristics of this age which affected the course of the English language emerged early and maintained their influence throughout the century.

In England the age was characterized by a search for stability. One of the first characteristics to be mentioned is a strong sense of order and the value of regulation. A great satisfaction was felt in things that could be logically explained and justified. Not only in literature but also in language Latin was looked upon as a model, and classical precedent was often generalized into precept.

The intellectual tendencies here noted are seen quite clearly in the efforts to standardize, refine, and fix the English language. In this period discussion of the language takes a new turn. Previously interest had been shown chiefly in such questions as whether English was worthy of being used for writings in which Latin had long been traditional, whether the large additions being made to the vocabulary were justified, and whether a more adequate system of spelling could be introduced. Now for the first-time attention was turned to the grammar, and it was discovered that English had no grammar. Its grammar was largely uncodified, unsystematized.

The ancient languages had been reduced to rule; one knew what was right and what was wrong. But in English everything was uncertain. One learned to speak and write as one learned to walk, and in many matters of grammatical usage there was much variation even among educated people. This was clearly distasteful to an age that desired above all else an orderly universe. The spontaneous creativeness of a Shakespeare, verbing it with nouns and adjectives, so to speak, sublimely indifferent to rules, had given place to hesitation and uncertainty, so that a man like Dryden confessed that at times he had to translate an idea into Latin in order to decide on the correct way to express it in English.

In its effort to set up a standard of correctness in language the rationalistic spirit of the eighteenth century showed itself in the attempt to settle disputed points logically, that is. Thus, it was desired to give the English language a polished, rational, and permanent form.

These attempts fall under three main heads:

- (1) to reduce the language to rule and set up a standard of correct usage;
- (2) to refine it – that is, to remove supposed defects and introduce certain improvements;
- (3) to fix it permanently in the desired form.

One of the chief defects of English that people became acutely conscious of in the latter part of the 17th century was the absence of a standard, the fact that the language had not been reduced to a rule so that one could express oneself at least with the assurance of doing so correctly. In the 18th century the need for standardization and regulation was summed upon the word *ascertainment*. The force of this word then was somewhat different from that which it has today. To ascertain was not so much to learn by inquiry as to settle a matter, to render it certain and free from doubt. When reduced to its simplest form the need was for a dictionary that should record the proper use of words and a grammar that should settle authoritatively the correct usages in matters of construction.

For some time, the language had been steadily going down. Various periods in the past were supposed to represent the highest perfection of English. It was Dryden's opinion that "from Chaucer the purity of the English tongue began", but he was not as completely convinced as some others that its course had been always downward. For Swift the golden age was that of the great Elizabethans. "The period", he says, "where in the English tongue received most improvement, I take to commence with the beginning of Queen Elizabeth's reign, and to conclude with the great rebellion in forty-two".

In matters of language Swift was a conservative. In his works '*Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English*', '*Essay on Criticism*' his conservatism was grounded in a set of political and religious, as well as linguistic, opinions. He decried the skeptical spirit of inquiry proposed by the Royal Society. Although Swift upheld the classics, he understood the merits of a plain English style, so long as it was not polluted by crude and careless usages.

One of these was the tendency to clip and shorten words that should have retained their full polysyllabic dignity. He would have objected to *taxi*, *phone*, *bus*, *ad*, and the like, as he did to *rep*, *mob*, *penult*, and others. Another set of barbarisms, which also comes under this class, and arises from the abbreviation of polysyllables, by

lopping off all the syllables except the first, or the first and second: **hyp** for *hypochondriac*, **rep** for *reputation*, **ult** for *ultimate*, **penult** for *penultimate*, **incog** for *incognito*, **hyper** for *hypercritic*, **extra** for *extraordinary*.

A second innovation that Swift opposed was the tendency to contract verbs like *drudg'd*, *disturb'd*, *rebuk'd*, *fledg'd* “and a thousand others everywhere to be met with in prose as well as verse, where, by leaving out a vowel to save a syllable, we form a jarring sound, and so difficult to utter, that I have often wondered how it could ever obtain”.

A third innovation that aroused Swift’s ire has to do with certain words then enjoying a considerable vogue among wits and people of fashion. They had even invaded the pulpit. Young preachers, fresh from the universities, he says, “use all the modern terms of *art*, *sham*, *banter*, *mob*, *bubble*, *bully*, *cutting*, *shuffling*, and *palming*, all which, and many more of the like stamp, as I have heard them often in the pulpit...”

The desire to “fix” the language. One of the most ambitious hopes of the 18th century was to stabilize the language, to establish it in a form that would be permanent. Swift talked about “fixing” the language, and the word was echoed for fifty years by lesser writers who shared his desire and, like him, believed in the possibility of realizing it.

It is curious that a number of people notable in various intellectual spheres in the late 17th and early 18th centuries should have been blind to the testimony of history and believed that by taking thought it would be possible to suspend the processes of growth and decay that characterize a living language.

The Accademia Della Crusca (Italy). There can be little doubt that the vital incentive to the establishment of an academy in England came from the example of France and Italy. The suggestion of *an English Academy* occurs early in the 17th century. Indeed, learned societies had been known in England from 1572, when a *Society of Antiquaries* founded by Arch bishop Parker began holding its meetings at the house of Sir Robert Cotton and occupied itself with the study of antiquity and history. It might in time have turned its attention to the improvement of the language, but it languished after the accession of James I.

A proposal that promised even more was made about the year of Shakespeare's death by Edmund Bolton, an enthusiastic antiquary. It was for a society to be composed of men famous in politics, law, science, literature, history, and the like.

The example of the French Academy began to attract attention in England. In 1650 James Howell spoke approvingly of its intentions to reform French spelling, and in 1657 its history appeared in English, translated from the French of Pellisson. With the Restoration, discussion of an English Academy became much more frequent.

In the very year that Charles II was restored to the throne, a volume of unified grammar book was published with the title '*New Atlantis... Continued by R.H. Esquire*' (1660). He proposed the compilation of a grammar and some reform of the spelling, particularly the leaving out of superfluous letters. This might be followed by a "Lexicon or collection of all the pure English words by themselves; then those which are derivative from others, with their prime, certaine, and natural signification"... He further suggested collections of technical words, "exotic" words, dialect expressions, and archaic words that might be revived. Finally, translations might be made of some of the best of Greek and Latin literature, and even out of modern languages, as models of elegance in style.

Swift's Proposal, 1712. By the beginning of the 18th century the ground had been prepared, and the time was apparently ripe for an authoritative plan for an academy. With the example of Richelieu and the French Academy doubtless in his mind, Swift addressed a letter in 1712 to the earl of Oxford, Lord Treasurer of England. It was published under the title '*A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining the English Tongue*'.

The remedy he proposes is an academy, though he does not call it by that name. The publication of Swift's Proposal marks the culmination of the movement for an English Academy. This was the nearest England ever came to having an academy for the regulation of the language. Though Swift's attempt to bring about the formation of such a body is frequently referred to with approval by the advocates of the idea throughout the century, no serious effort was made to accomplish the purpose again. Apparently, it was felt that where Swift had failed it would be useless for others to try. Meanwhile, opposition to an academy was slowly taking shape.

The importance of the Proposal lies in the fact that it directed attention authoritatively to the problems of language that then seemed in need of solution. The two greatest needs, still felt and most frequently lamented, were for a dictionary and a grammar. Without these there could be no certainty in diction and no standard of correct construction. The one was supplied in 1755 by Johnson's Dictionary, the other in the course of the next half-century by the early grammarians.

The publication in 1755 of '*A Dictionary of the English Language*', by Samuel Johnson, in two folio volumes, was hailed as a great achievement. And it was justly so regarded, when we consider that it was the work of one man laboring almost without assistance for the short space of seven years. It is the first purpose of a dictionary to record usage. But even today, when the scientific study of language makes us much less disposed to pass judgment upon, and particularly to condemn, its phenomena, many people look upon the editor of a dictionary as a superior kind of person with the right to legislate in such matters as the pronunciation and use of words.

The decade beginning in 1760 witnessed a striking outburst of interest in English grammar. In 1761 Joseph Priestley published "The Rudiments of English Grammar". In it he showed the independence, tolerance, and good sense that characterized his work in other fields. It was followed about a month later by Robert Lowth's Short Introduction to English Grammar (1762). Lowth was a clergyman who ultimately rose to be bishop of London. He was much more conservative in his stand, a typical representative of the normative and prescriptive school of grammarians.

The Beginnings of Prescriptive Grammar. To prescribe and to proscribe seem to have been coordinate aims of the grammarians. Many of the conventions now accepted and held up as preferable in our handbooks were first stated in this period. The expressions *had rather*, *had better* were condemned by Johnson, Lowth, and Campbell. Lowth says: "It has been very rightly observed, that the Verb had, in the common phrase, I had rather, is not properly used, either as an Active or as an Auxiliary Verb; that, being in the Past time, it cannot in this case be properly expressive of time Present"...

Finally, we may note that the 18th century is responsible for the condemnation of *the double negative*. Lowth stated the rule that we are now bound by: "Two Negatives in English destroy one another,

or are equivalent to an Affirmative”. Thus, a useful idiom was banished from polite speech.

One important series of prescriptions that now forms part of all our grammars – that governing the use of *shall* and *will* – had its origin in this period. Previous to 1622 no English grammar recognized any distinction between these words. In 1653 Wallis in his *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* stated for the benefit of foreigners that simple futurity is expressed by *shall* in the first person, by *will* in the second and third. It was not until the second half of the 18th century, however, that the usage in questions and subordinate clauses was explicitly defined.

Similar weaknesses characterized the attempts to reform the vocabulary at this time. Everyone felt competent to “purify” the language by proscribing words and expressions because they were too old or too new, or were slang or can’t or harsh sounding, or for noother reason than that they disliked them. Yet he himself has his own list of words to be banned, some of which “though favoured by custom, being quite unnecessary, deserve to be exploded. Such, amongst others, are the following: *the workmanship of God, for the work of God; a man of war, for a ship of war; and a merchantman, for a trading vessel.*

The absurdity in the last two instances is commonly augmented by the words connected in the sequel, in which, by the application of the pronouns *she* and *her*, we are made to understand that the man spoken of is a female. Such are the following have a pleonastic appearance: *unto, until, selfsame, foursquare, devoid, despoil, disannul, muchwhat, oftentimes, nowadays, downfall, furthermore, wherewithal; for to, till, same, square, void, spoil, annul, much, often, now, fall, further, wherewith.* The use of such terms many writers have been led into, partly from the dislike of monosyllables, partly from the love of variety... However, with regard to the words specified, it would not be right to preclude entirely the use of them in poetry.

The Oxford English Dictionary records a fair number of borrowings that did not win permanent acceptance, but among those that have been retained are such useful words as: *ballet, boulevard, brunette, canteen, cartoon, champagne, chenille, cohesion, coiffure, connoisseur, coquette, coterie, dentist, negligee, patrol, pique,*

publicity, routine, soubrette, and syndicate. Most of these are words that we could ill afford to lose.

The Expansion of the British Empire. When we take our eyes from the internal problems which the language was facing and the English were attempting to solve, we observe that in this period the foundations were being laid for that wide extension of English in the world which has resulted in its use throughout more than a quarter of the earth's surface.

England entered the race for colonial territory late. It was the end of the 15th century that witnessed the voyages which opened up the East and the West to European exploitation. And when Columbus arrived in the New World in 1492 and Vasco de Gama reached India in 1498 by way of the Cape of Good Hope, their achievements were due to Spanish and Portuguese enterprise. It was only when the wealth of America and India began pouring into Spanish and Portuguese coffers that the envy and ambition of other countries were aroused. In the sixteenth century Spain was the greatest of the European powers, but it spent its wealth on a prolonged and exhausting effort to protect its imperial lands and titles in Europe. Furthermore, its maritime communications with the New World were all too attractive to French, Dutch, and English predators.

There after England's real rival for a colonial empire was France. The English settlements at Jamestown and Plymouth were the beginning of a process of colonization in North America that soon gave to England the Atlantic seaboard. The French settlements began in Montreal, Quebec, and on the St. Lawrence, and then pressed vigorously to the west and south, toward the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico.

Wolfe's victory (1759) over Montcalm paved the way for the ultimate control of much of this continent by the English. Although the American Revolution deprived England of one of its most promising colonies, it did not prevent the language of this region from remaining English.

The beginnings of the English occupation of Australia also occurred in the 18th century. In 1768 the Royal Society persuaded the king to sponsor an expedition into those parts of the Pacific to observe the transit of Venus across the sun. The Admiralty provided a ship and placed it under the command of an extraordinarily skillful seaman, Captain James Cook. After the astronomical observations

had been completed he executed his secret Admiralty orders to explore any lands in the neighborhood. He sailed around the islands of New Zealand and then continued 1,200 miles westward until he reached Australia. In both places he planted the British flag.

The colonizing of Africa was largely the work of the 19th century, although it had its start likewise at the close of the 18th century. Early in the Napoleonic Wars Holland had come under the control of France, and in 1795 England seized the Dutch settlement at Cape Town. From this small beginning sprang the control of England over a large part of South Africa.

Some Effects of Expansion on the Language. Apart from the greatly enlarged sphere of activity that the English language thus acquired and the increased opportunity for local variation that has naturally resulted, the most obvious effects of English expansion are to be seen in the vocabulary. New territories mean new experiences, new activities, new products, all of which are in time reflected in the language. Trade routes have always been important avenues for the transmission of ideas and words. Contact with Native Americans resulted in a number of characteristic words such as: *caribou, hickory, hominy, moccasin, moose, opossum, papoose, raccoon, skunk, squaw, terrapin, toboggan, tomahawk, totem, wampum, wigwam.*

From other parts of America, especially where the Spanish and the Portuguese were settled, we have derived many more words, chiefly through Spanish. Thus, we have in English Mexican words such as *chili, chocolate, coyote, tomato*; from Cuba and the West Indies come *barbecue, cannibal, canoe, hammock, hurricane, maize, potato, tobacco*; from Peru we get through the same channel *alpaca, condor, jerky, llama, pampas, puma, quinine*; from Brazil and other South American regions *buccaneer, cayenne, jaguar, petunia, poncho, tapioca.*

British contact with the East has been equally productive of new words. From India come *bandana, bangle, bengal, Brahman, bungalow, calico, cashmere, cheroot, china, chintz, coolie, cot, curry, dinghy, juggernaut, jungle, jute, loot, mandarin, nirvana, pariah, polo, punch (drink), pundit, rajah, rupee, sepoy, thug, toddy, tom-tom, and verandah.*

From Africa, either directly from the Africans or from Dutch and Portuguese traders, we obtain *banana, Boer, boorish,*

chimpanzee, gorilla, guinea, gumbo, Hottentot, palavar, voodoo, and zebra.

Australia later contributed new terms to the general language. *Boomerang and kangaroo* are interesting examples of native words that have passed into universal use.

Thus, one of the reasons for the cosmopolitan character of the English vocabulary today is seen to be the multitude of contacts the English language has had with other tongues in widely scattered parts of the world.

Development of Progressive Verb Forms. Before concluding this survey of the factors affecting the language in the 18th century we must notice in particular one characteristic development in English grammar. Here it is impossible to follow in detail the history of each part of speech. All that can be done is to indicate the more important grammatical changes that have taken place since Old English times and to note such new developments as are of most significance in the language of today.

Of these, one of great importance concerns the verb. Where French says *je chante* or German *ich singe*, English may say *I sing, I do sing, or I am singing*. The do-forms are often called emphatic forms, and this they sometimes are; but their most important uses are in negative and interrogative sentences (*I don't sing, do you sing*). The forms with *to be* and the present participle are generally called progressive forms because their most common use is to indicate an action as being in progress at the time implied by the auxiliary. The wide extension of the use of progressive forms is one of the most important developments of the English verb in the modern period. In Old English such expressions as *he woes lærende* (*he was teaching*) are occasionally found, but usually in translations from Latin.

The Progressive Passive. In the last years of the 18th century we find the first traces of our modern expression *the house is being built*. The combination of *being* with a past participle to form a participial phrase had been in use for some time. Shakespeare says: *which, being kept close, might move more grief to hide* (*Hamlet*).

The Nineteenth century and after. The events of the 19th and 20th centuries affecting the English-speaking countries have been of great political and social importance, but in their effect on the language they have not been revolutionary. The success of the British on the sea in the course of the Napoleonic Wars, culminating in

Nelson's famous victory at Trafalgar in 1805, left England in a position of undisputed naval supremacy and gave it control overmost of the world's commerce. The contests with princes in India had the effect of again turning English attention to the East.

The great reform measures – the reorganization of parliament, the revision of the penal code and the poor laws, the restrictions placed on child labor, and the other industrial reforms – were important factors in establishing English society on a more democratic basis. They lessened the distance between the upper and the lower classes and greatly increased the opportunities for the mass of the population to share in the economic and cultural advantages that became available in the course of the century.

The establishment of the first cheap newspaper (1816) and of cheap postage (1840) and the improved means of travel and communication brought about by the railroad, the steamboat, and the telegraph had the effect of uniting more closely the different parts of Britain and of spreading the influence of the standard speech.

During the first half of the 20th century the world wars and the troubled periods following them affected the life of almost everyone and left their mark on the language. At the same time, the growth in importance of some of England's larger colonies, their eventual independence, and the rapid development of the United States have given increased significance to the forms of English spoken in these territories and have led their populations to the belief that their use of the language is as entitled to be considered a standard as that of Great Britain.

Some of these events and changes are reflected in the English vocabulary. But more influential in this respect are the great developments in science and the rapid progress that has been made in every field of intellectual activity in the last 200 years. Accordingly, the great developments in industry, the increased public interest in sports and amusements, and the many improvements in the mode of living, in which even the humblest worker has shared, have all contributed to the vocabulary.

The Growth of Science. The most striking thing about our present-day civilization is probably the part that science has played in bringing it to pass. We have only to think of the progress that has been made in medicine and the sciences auxiliary to it, such as bacteriology, biochemistry, and the like, to realize the difference that

marks off our own day from that of only a few generations ago in the diagnosis, treatment, prevention, and cure of disease.

In the field of medicine this is particularly apparent. We speak familiarly of *anemia*, *appendicitis*, *arteriosclerosis*, difficult as the word is, of *bronchitis*, *diphtheria*, and numerous other diseases and ailments. We use with some sense of their meaning words like *bacteriology*, *immunology*, *orthodontics*, and the acronym *AIDS* (acquired immune deficiency syndrome). We maintain *clinics*, *administer an antitoxin or an anesthetic*, and *vaccinate for smallpox*.

In almost every other field of science the same story could be told. In the field of electricity words like *dynamo*, *commutator*, *alternating current*, *arc light* have been in the language since about 1870. Physics has made us familiar with terms like *calorie*, *electron*, *ionization*, *ultraviolet rays*, *quantum mechanics*, and *relativity*, though we don't always have an exact idea of what they mean. The development of atomic energy and nuclear weapons has given us *radioactive*, *hydrogen bomb*, *chain reaction*, *fallout*, and *meltdown*.

In recent years *laser*, *superconducting supercollider*, *quasar*, and *pulsar* have come into common use; and *black holes*, *quarks*, *the big bang model*, and *superstrings* have captured the popular imagination. Chemistry has contributed so many common words that it is difficult to make a selection: *alkali*, *benzine*, *creosote*, *cyanide*, *formaldehyde*, *nitroglycerine*, *radium*, to say nothing of such terms as *biochemical*, *petrochemical*, etc.

Scientific discoveries and inventions do not always influence the language in proportion to their importance. It is doubtful whether the radio and motion pictures are more important than the telephone, but they have brought more new words into general use. Such additions to the vocabulary depend more upon the degree to which the discovery or invention enters into the life of the community. This can be seen especially in the many new words or new uses of old words that have resulted from the popularity of the automobile and the numerous activities associated with it. Many an old word is now used in a special sense. The word *automobile* is new, but such words as *sedan* (saloon in Britain) and *coupe* are terms adapted from earlier types of vehicles. The *American truck* is the British lorry to which we may attach a trailer.

We have learned new words or new meanings in *carburetor*, *spark plug* (British *sparking plug*), *choke*, *clutch*, *gearshift* (British

gear lever), *piston rings*, *differential*, *universal*, *steering wheel*, *shock absorber*, *radiator*, *hood* (British *bonnet*), *windshield* (in Britain *windscreen*), *bumper*, *chassis*, *hubcap*, *power steering*, *automatic transmission*, and *turbocharger*. We engage *cruise control*, have a *blowout*, use *radial tires*, carry a *spare*, drive a *convertible* or *station wagon* (British *estate car*), and put the car in a *garage*. We may *tune up the engine* or *stall it*, or we may *skid*, *cut in*, *sideswipe another car* and *be fined for speeding* or *running a traffic light*.

The same principle might be illustrated by film, radio, and television. The words *cinema* and *moving picture* date from 1899, whereas the alternative *motion picture* is somewhat later. *Screen*, *reel*, *film*, *scenario*, *projector*, *closeup*, *fade-out* are now common, and although the popularity of *three-D* (or *3-D*) as a cinematic effect was shortlived, the word is still used.

The first electronic digital computers date from World War II, and a few terms have been in general use since then. New meanings of *program*, *language*, *memory*, and *hardware* are familiar to people who have never used a computer. With the widespread manufacturing and marketing of personal computers during the 1980s, a much larger number of English speakers found the need for computer terms in their daily work: *PC* itself, *RAM* (*random-access memory*), *ROM* (*read-only memory*), *DOS* (*disk operating system*), *microprocessor*, *byte*, *cursor*, *modem*, *software*, *hacker*, *hard-wired*, *download* and new meanings of *read*, *write*, *mouse*, *terminal*, *chip*, *network*, *workstation*, *windows*, and *virus*.

As another example of how great developments or events leave their mark upon language, we may observe some of the words that came into English between 1914 and 1918 as a direct consequence of World War I. Some of these were military terms representing new methods of warfare, such as *air raid*, *anti-aircraft gun*, *tank*, and *blimp*. *Gas mask* and *liaison officer* were new combinations with a military significance. *Camouflage* was borrowed from French, where it had formerly been a term of the scene-painter's craft, but it caught the popular fancy and was soon used half facetiously for various forms of disguise or misrepresentation.

It would seem that World War II was less productive of memorable words, as it was of memorable songs. Nevertheless it made its contribution to the language in the form of certain new words, new meanings, or an increased currency for expressions that

had been used before. In connection with the air raid, so prominent a feature of the war, we have the words and *expressions* *alert* (*air-raid warning*), *blackout*, *blitz* (*German Blitzkrieg, literally 'lightning war'*), *blockbuster*, *dive-bombing*, *evacuate*, *air-raid shelter*. The words *beachhead*, *parachutist*, *paratroop*, *landing strip*, *crash landing*, *roadblock*, *jeep*, *fox hole* (as a shelter for one or two men), *bulldozer* (an American word used in a new sense), *decontamination*, *task force* (a military or naval unit assigned to the carrying out of a particular operation), *resistance movement*, and *radar*.

Words, being but symbols by which people express their ideas, are an accurate measure of the range of their thoughts at any given time. Words obviously designate the things a culture knows, and just as obviously the vocabulary of a language must keep pace with the advance of the culture's knowledge. The date when a new word enters the language is in general the date when the object, experience, observation, or whatever it is that calls it forth has entered public consciousness. When in the early part of the 19th century we find growing up a word like *horsepower* or *lithograph*, we may depend upon it that some form of mechanical power that needs to be measured in familiar terms or a new process of engraving has been devised. The appearance in the language of words like *railway*, *locomotive*, *turntable* about 1835 tells us that steam railways were then coming in. In 1839 the words *photograph* and *photography* first appear, and a beginning is made toward a considerable vocabulary of special words or senses of words such as *camera*, *film*, *enlargement*, *emulsion*, *focus*, *shutter*, *light meter*. *Concrete* in the sense of a mixture of crushed stone and cement dates from 1834, but reinforced concrete is an expression called forth only in the 20th century.

The 20th century permits us to see the process of vocabulary growth going on under our eyes, sometimes, it would seem, at an accelerated rate. At the turn of the century we get the word *questionnaire*, and in 1906 *suffragette*. *Dictaphone*, *raincoat*, and *thermos* became a part of the recorded vocabulary in 1907 and free verse in 1908. This is the period when many of the terms of aviation came in, some still current, some reflecting the aeronautics of the time: *airplane*, *aircraft*, *airman*, *monoplane*, *biplane*, *hydroplane*, *dirigible*. *Nose-dive* belongs to the period of the war.

About 1910 we began talking about the futurist and the post impressionist in art, and the Freudian in psychology. *Intelligentsia* as a designation for the class to which superior culture is attributed, and *bolshevik* for a holder of revolutionary political views were originally applied at the time of World War I. At this time *profiteer* gained a specialized meaning. Meanwhile *foot fault*, *fairway*, *fox trot*, and *contract bridge* were indicative of popular interest in certain games and pastimes. The 1933 supplement to the OED records *Cellophane* (1921) and *rayon* (1924), but not *nylon*, *deep-freeze*, *airconditioned*, or *transistor*; and it is not until the first volume of the new supplement in 1972 that the OED includes *credit card*, *ecosystem*, *existentialism* (1941, though in German a century earlier), *freeze-dried*, *convenience foods*, *bionics*, *electronic computer*, *automation*, *cybernetics*, *bikini*, *discotheque*.

Only yesterday witnessed the birth of *biofeedback*, *power lunch*, *fractal*, *chaos theory*, and *cyberspace*. Tomorrow will witness others as the exigencies of the hour call them into being.

Most of the new words coming into the language since 1800 have been derived from the same sources or created by the same methods as those that have long been familiar, but it will be convenient to examine them here as an illustration of the processes by which a language extends its vocabulary. It should be remembered that the principles are not new, that what has been going on in the last century and a half could be paralleled from almost any period of the language.

As is to be expected in the light of the English disposition **to borrow words from other languages** in the past, many of the new words have been taken over ready-made from the people from whom the idea or the thing designated has been obtained. Thus, from the French come *apéritif*, *chauffeur*, *chiffon*, *consommé*, *garage*; from Italian come *ciao*, *confetti*, and *vendetta*, and from Spanish *bonanza*, *canyon*, *patio*, *rodeo*, *barrio*, *machismo*, and *cantina*. In the South western United States and increasingly throughout the country, the dinner table is enriched and spiced by borrowings from Mexican Spanish. Although *chili* has been in the language since the 17th century, most of the culinary terms date from the modern period: *enchilada*, *fajita*, *jalapeño*, *nachos*, *taco*, *tortilla*, *tostada*; and through Spanish from the Native American language Nahuatl, *guacamole* and *tamale*. German has given us *angst*, *festschrift*,

gestalt, *schadenfreude*, *weltanschauung*, *zeitgeist*, and *zither*. *Goulash* is a *Magyar* word, and *robot* is from *Czech*. *Asia* is represented by *karma*, *loot*, and *thug* from *India*; *pajamas* (British pyjamas) from *Persia*; *yin*, *yang*, *t'ai chi*, and *chow mein* from *China*; and *geisha*, *haiku*, *Noh*, *sake*, *samurai*, *sayonara*, *shogun*, *sushi*, *soy*, and *yen* from *Japan*.

The cosmopolitan character of the English vocabulary, already pointed out, is thus being maintained, and we shall see later that America has added many other foreign words, particularly from Spanish and the languages of the Native Americans.

A second source of new words is represented in the practice of **making self-explaining compounds**, one of the oldest methods of word formation in the language. Previously such words as *fingerprint* (in its technical sense), *fire extinguisher*, *hitchhike*, *jet propulsion*, the colloquial *know-how*, *lipstick*, *steamroller*, *steam shovel*, and *streamline* were mentioned as being rather new. They have now passed into such common use that they no longer carry any sense of novelty. This will probably happen, indeed has already happened, to some of the more recent formations that can be noted, such as *skydiving*, *jet lag*, *house sitter*, *lifestyle*, *hatchback*, *greenhouse effect*, *acid rain*, *roller blades*, *junk food*, *e-mail*, and the metaphorical *glass ceiling*.

Many of these betray their newness by being written with a hyphen or as separate words, or by preserving a rather strong accent on each element. They give unmistakable testimony to the fact that the power to combine existing words into new ones expressing a single concept, a power that was so prominent a feature of Old English, still remains with us.

Another method of enlarging the vocabulary is **by appending familiar prefixes and suffixes to existing words** on the pattern of similar words in the language. Several of the Latin prefixes seem to lend themselves readily to new combinations. Thus in the period under discussion we have formed *transoceanic*, *transcontinental*, *trans-Siberian*, *transliterate*, *transformer*, and several more or less technical terms such as *transfinite*, *transmarine*, *transpontine*, etc. We speak of *postimpressionists* in art, *postprandialoratory*, *the postclassical period*, and *postgraduate study*. In the same way we use **pre-** in such words as *prenatal*, *preschool age*, *prehistoric*, *pre-Raphaelite*, *preregistration*; we may *preheat* or *precool* in certain

technical processes; and passengers who need more time may *preboard*.

Coinages. A considerable number of new words must be attributed to deliberate invention or coinage. There has probably never been a time when the creative impulse has not spent itself occasionally in inventing new words, but their chances of general adoption are nowadays often increased by a campaign of advertising as deliberate as the effort that created them. They are mostly the product of ingenuity and imitation, the two being blended in variable proportions. Thus, the trademark *Kodak*, which seems to be pure invention, was popularly used for years to refer to cameras of any brand, and *Victrola* and *Frigidaire* enjoyed something of the same currency as synonyms for phonograph and refrigerator. *Kleenex* and *Xerox* are trade terms that are often treated as common nouns, and *Zipper*, a word coined by the B.F. Goodrich Company and registered in 1925 as the name for a boot fitted with a slide fastener, has become the universal name for the fastener itself.

Common Words from Proper Names. Another source from which many English words have been derived in the past is the names of persons and places. For example, *sandwich* owes its use to the fact that the earl of Sandwich on one occasion put slices of meat between pieces of bread. Like other processes of English word derivation this can be well illustrated in the 19th century and later. Thus we get the word for *tabasco sauce* from the name of the Tabasco River in Mexico. *Camembert* comes from the village in France from which cheese of this type was originally exported. A *limousine* is so called from the name of a province in France, and during the 1920s the American city Charleston gave its name to a dance. The word *colt* for a certain kind of firearm is merely the name of the inventor. *Wistaria*, the vine whose most common variety is now known as wisteria, is named after Caspar Wistar, an American anatomist of the mid-1800s. In 1880 Captain Boycott, the agent of an Irish landowner, refused to accept rents at the figure set by the tenants. His life was threatened, his servants were forced to leave, and his figure was burnt in effigy. Hence from Ireland came the use of the verb to *boycott*, meaning to coerce a person by refusing to have, and preventing others from having, dealings with him.

Old Words with New Meanings. The resources of the vocabulary are sometimes extended from within by employment of

an old word in a new sense. We have already seen many examples of this in some previously, especially many of the words now applied to the automobile and the computer. But the process can be widely illustrated, for it is one of the commonest phenomena in language. *Skyline* formerly meant the horizon, but it is now more common in such an expression as the New York skyline. *Broadcast* originally had reference to seed, but its application to radio seems entirely appropriate. A *record* may be many other things than a phonograph disc, and *radiator* was used for anything that radiated heat or light before it was applied specifically to steam heat or the automobile. *Cabaret* is an old word meaning a booth or shed, and later a small drinking place. Today it signifies a certain type of night club. We *sign off* or stand by in broadcasting, *take off* in an airplane, *kick off* in football, *call up* on the telephone, and in each of these cases we convey a specific, often technical meaning, quite different from the sense that these expressions previously had.

The Influence of Journalism. In the introduction and popularizing of new words journalism has been a factor of steadily increasing importance. Newspapers and popular magazines not only play a large part in spreading new locutions among the people but are themselves fertile producers of new words. Reporters necessarily write under pressure and have not long to search for the right word. In the heat of the moment they are likely as not to strike off a new expression or wrench the language to fit their ideas. In their effort to be interesting and racy they adopt an informal and colloquial style, and many of the colloquialisms current in popular speech find their way into writing first in the magazine and the newspaper. In this way we have come to back a *horse or a candidate*, to *boost our community*, *comb the woods for a criminal*, *hop the Atlantic*, *oust a politician*, and *spike a rumor*, and we speak of a *probe*, a *cleanup*, a *business deal*, a *go-between*.

We owe *neck and neck* and out of the running to the *race track*, and *sidestep*, *down and out*, *straight from the shoulder*, and many other expressions to boxing. In America we owe *caught napping* and *off base* to baseball. If some of these locutions are older than the newspaper, there can be no question but that today much similar slang is given currency through this medium. Several magazines make the use of verbal novelties a feature of their style with puns, rhymes, coinages (nobility for winners of a Nobel prize, jeerworthy),

strings of hyphenated words (from one short review: *zillion-dollar*, *double-dome*, *dimbulbed*, *dog-stealing*, *summer-stocked*), and many other examples of the search for novelty.

Slang. All the types of semantic change discussed in the precedingly could be illustrated from that part of the vocabulary which at any given time is considered slang. It is necessary to say “at any given time” not only because slang is fleeting and the life of a slang expression likely to be short, but also because what is slang today may have been in good use yesterday and may be accepted in the standard speech of tomorrow. Slang has been aptly described as ‘a peculiar kind of vagabond language, always hanging on the outskirts of legitimate speech, but continually straying or forcing its way into the most respectable company’. Yet it is a part of language and cannot be ignored.

One of the developments that must certainly be credited to the 19th century is the growth of a more objective and scientific attitude toward this feature of language. The word slang does not occur in Johnson’s Dictionary. The expression what on earth seems to us an idiomatic intensive and certainly would not be objected to in the speech of anyone today.

But De Quincey condemned it as slang and expressed horror at hearing it used by a government official. The word *row* in the sense of a disturbance or commotion was slang in the 18th century and described by Todd (1818) as “a very low expression”, but today we find it in the works of reputable writers as a word that fittingly suggests the qualities of a vulgar brawl. *Boom*, *slump*, *crank*, and *fad*, in becoming respectable, have acquired an exact and sometimes technical meaning. Even the harmless word *joke* was once slang.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 9

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. The impact of the 17th century on the formation of Modern English (1700-1900).
2. The Augustan Age in England (the first half of the 18th c.). What was it characterized by? What for the first-time attention was turned to (in linguistics)?
3. Why there appeared the need for a dictionary to contain the records of the proper use of words and a grammar during the period? Describe

the first dictionaries and their content (Swift's dictionary, Johnson's dictionary).

4. Grammar changes in the Modern English period.
5. Reformation in the vocabulary.
6. Describe the effects of expansion of the British Empire on the language (18th-19th c.).
7. Did the events of the 19th and 20th centuries show a substantial influence on the development of English?
8. Recount all methods of enlarging the English vocabulary during the 20th century.

Lecture 10

PRESENT ENGLISH (21st-CENTURY ENGLISH). RECEIVED STANDARD ENGLISH. AMERICAN ENGLISH

The Standard Speech. The spoken standard or, as it is called in Britain, *Received Pronunciation*, often abbreviated *RP*, is something that varies in different parts of the English-speaking world. It denotes the speech of educated people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way.

If the qualifier educated be assumed, RP is then a regional (geographical) dialect, as contrasted with London Cockney, which is a class (social) dialect. RP is not intrinsically superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular regional dialect that has, through the accidents of history, achieved more extensive use than others. Although acquiring its unique status without the aid of any established authority, it may have been fostered (elisegít) by the public schools (Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and so on) and the ancient universities (Oxford and Cambridge).

Other varieties of English are well preserved in spite of the levelling influences of film, television, and radio. In the Northern dialect RP /a:/ (the first vowel sound in "father") is still pronounced /æ/ (a sound like the **a** in "fat") in words such as *laugh*, *fast*, and *path*; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.

In the words *run*, *rung*, and *tongue*, the received-standard pronunciation of the vowel is /ʌ/, like the **u** in "but"; in the Northern dialect it is /u/, like the **oo** in "book." In the words *bind*, *find*, and

grind, the received standard pronunciation of the vowel sound is /aɪ/, like that in “*bide*”; in Northern, it is /i/, like the sound in “*feet*.” The vowel sound in the words *go*, *home*, and *know* in the Northern dialect is /ʌ:/, approximately the sound in “*law*” in some American English dialects.

In Britain it is a type of English perhaps best exemplified in the speech of those educated in the great public schools but spoken also with a fair degree of uniformity by cultivated people in all parts of the country. It is a class rather than a regional dialect. This is not the same as the spoken standard of the United States or Canada or Australia. The spread of English to many parts of the world has changed our conception of what constitutes *Standard English*. The growth of countries like the United States and Canada and the political independence of countries that were once British colonies force us to admit that the educated speech of these vast areas is just as “standard” as that of London or Oxford.

It is perhaps inevitable that people will feel a preference for the pronunciation and forms of expression that they are accustomed to, but to criticize the British for omitting many of their r’s or the Americans for pronouncing them betrays an equally unscientific provincialism irrespective of which side of the Atlantic indulges in the criticism. The hope is sometimes expressed that we might have a world standard to which all parts of the English-speaking world would try to conform. So far as the spoken language is concerned it is too much to expect that the marked differences of pronunciation that distinguish the speech of, let us say, Britain, Australia, India, and the United States will ever be reduced to one uniform mode. We must recognize that in the last 200 years English has become a cosmopolitan tongue and must cultivate a cosmopolitan attitude toward its various standard forms.

In some *Midland dialects* the diphthongs in “*throat*” and “*stone*” have been kept apart, whereas in RP they have fallen together. In Cheshire, Derby, Stafford, and Warwick, RP “*singing*” is pronounced with a g sounded after the velar nasal sound (as in RP “*finger*”). In Norfolk one hears “*skellington*” and “*solintary*” for “*skeleton*” and “*solitary*,” showing an intrusive n just as does “*messenger*” in RP from French *messenger*, “*passenger*” from French *passager*, and “*nightingale*” from Old English *nihtegala*.

In *Wales*, people often speak a clear and measured form of English with a musical intonation inherited from ancestral Celtic. They tend to aspirate both plosives (stops) and fricative consonants very forcibly; thus, “true” is pronounced with an audible puff of breath after the initial t.

Lowland Scottish was once a part of Northern English, but two dialects began to diverge in the 14th century. Today Lowland Scots trill their r’s, shorten vowels, and simplify diphthongs. A few Scottish words, such as *bairn*, *brae*, *canny*, *dour*, and *pawky*, have made their way into RP. Lowland Scottish is not to be confused with Scottish Gaelic, a Celtic language still spoken by about 90,700 people (almost all bilingual) mostly in the Highland and the Western Isles. Thanks to Robert Burns and Sir Walter Scott, many Scottish Gaelic words have been preserved in English literature.

Northern Ireland has dialects related in part to Lowland Scottish and in part to the southern Irish dialect of English. Irish pronunciation is conservative and is clearer and more easily intelligible than many other dialects. The influence of the Irish language on the speech of Dublin is most evident in the syntax of drama and in the survival of such picturesque expressions as “*We are after finishing*”, “*It’s sorry you will be*”, and “*James do be cuttingcorn every day*”.

English Dialects. In addition to the educated standard in each major division of the English-speaking world there are local forms of the language known as regional dialects. In the newer countries where English has spread in modern times these are not so numerous or so pronounced in their individuality as they are in the British Isles. The English introduced into the colonies was a mixture of dialects in which the peculiarities of each were fused in a common speech. Except perhaps in the United States, there has scarcely been time for new regional differences to grow up, and although one region is sometimes separated from another by the breadth of a continent, the improvements in transportation and communication have tended to keep down differences that might otherwise have arisen.

But in Great Britain such differences are very great. They go back to the earliest period of the language and reflect conditions that prevailed at a time when travel was difficult and communication was limited between districts relatively close together. Even among the educated the speech of northern England differs considerably from

that of the south. In words such as *butter*, *cut*, *gull*, and some the southern vowel [ʌ] occurs in the north as [U], and in *chaff*, *grass*, and *path* the southern retracted vowel [a:] occurs as short [a] in northern dialects.

In the great *Midland district*, one distinguishes an eastern variety and a western, as well as a central type lying between. But such a classification of the English dialects is sufficient only for purposes of a broad grouping. Every county has its own peculiarities, and sometimes as many as three dialectal regions may be distinguished within the boundaries of a single shire. This wide diversity of dialects is well illustrated by the materials published since 1962 in the Survey of English Dialects.

In the six *northern counties* at least seventeen different vowels or diphthongs occur in the word *house*, including the [u:] of Old English *hūs*.

The dialect of *southern Scotland* has claims to special consideration on historical and literary grounds. In origin it is a variety of Northern English, but down to the 16th century it occupied a position both in speech and in writing on a plane with English. In the time of Shakespeare, however, it began to be strongly influenced by Southern English. This influence has been traced in part to the Reformation, which brought in the Bible and other religious works from the south, in part to the renaissance of English literature.

The most important factor, however, was probably the growing importance of England and the role of London as the center of the English-speaking world. When in 1603 James VI of Scotland became the king of England as James I, and when by the Act of Union in 1707 Scotland was formally united to England, English was plainly felt to be standard, and Scots became definitely a dialect. During the 18th century it managed to maintain itself as a literary language through the work of Ramsay, Ferguson, and Robert Burns. Since then it has gradually lost ground. English is taught in the schools, and cultivation of English has, rightly or wrongly, been taken as the first test of culture.

The ambitious have avoided the native dialect as a mark of lowly birth, and those who have a patriotic or sentimental regard for this fine old speech have long been apprehensive of its ultimate extinction. Prompted in part by this concern, three major linguistic projects have focused on Scottish speech. ‘*A Dictionary of the Older*

Scottish Tongue records the language before 1700, *The Scottish National Dictionary* after that year. In addition, *The Linguistic Survey of Scotland*, which collected information since 1949 on both Scots and Gaelic, has published the three volumes of its Atlas.

The characteristics of this dialect are known to most people through the poetry of Robert Burns: *O ye wha are saeguidyoursel,*

Sae pious and sae holy,

Ye've nought to do but mark and tell

Your Neebour'sfauts and folly!

Irish English, or Hiberno-English, has also left its mark on the literary tradition, although in different ways at different periods. In the 18th century, “stage Irish” was a familiar convention for representing and often ridiculing Irish characters in plays written by English authors whose use of stereotypical linguistic features was not always accurate. In the 19th and early 20th centuries, Irish authors, especially Douglas Hyde (1860–1940), J.M. Synge (1871–1909), and W. B. Yeats (1865–1939), used selected features to give an Irish flavor to their works. In the 20th century there has been a more realistic tradition, including the work of Sean O’Casey (1880–1964) and Brendan Behan (1923–1964) and the use by James Joyce (1882–1941) of carefully collected dialect phrases in *Ulysses* and *Finnegans Wake*.

The distinctiveness of Irish English derives from a mixture of three sources: the influence of the Irish language; the influence of Scots, especially in the Northeast; and the nature of the original English that was brought to Ireland from western England in the 17th century and that has remained quite conservative compared with both RP and American English. For example, Irish English is firmly rhotic in contrast with RP. Except in the Scots-Irish district of Ulster, the English language in Ireland has not preserved so many old words as have survived in Scotland. But the language of the southern part of the island has an exuberance of vocabulary that recalls the lexical inventiveness of Elizabethan times, the period during which English began to spread rapidly in Ireland. The vocabulary has been influenced also by Irish (*blarney, galore, smithereens*, and many other examples of the diminutive ending *-een*, from the Irish diminutive ending *-in*, which may be added to any English word: *maneen, boyeen, girleen*).

Syntactic structures in Hiberno-English often reflect the patterns of the Irish language. The present perfect and past perfect tenses of English (*have got, had got*), which have no equivalents in Irish, can be expressed using *after*, the verb *to be*, and the present participle: *He said that he knew that I was after getting lost* (“...that I had got lost”).

Irish also does not have the equivalent of indirect questions introduced by *if* and *whether*; instead of the declarative word order of Standard English, these sentences have the interrogative word order that is found in other varieties of English, including African American Vernacular English: *He wanted to see would he get something to eat*.

American English. The English language was brought to America by colonists from England who settled along the Atlantic seaboard in the 17th century. It was therefore the language spoken in England at that time, the language spoken by Shakespeare and Milton and Bunyan. In the peopling of this country three great periods of European immigration are to be distinguished.

The first extends from the settlement of Jamestown in 1607 to the end of colonial times. This may be put conveniently at 1787, when Congress finally approved the Federal Constitution, or better, 1790, when the last of the colonies ratified it and the first census was taken. At this date the population numbered approximately 4 million people, 95 percent of whom were living east of the Appalachian Mountains, and 90 percent were from various parts of the British Isles.

The second period covers the expansion of the original thirteen colonies west of the Appalachians, at first into the South and into the Old Northwest Territory, ending finally at the Pacific. This era may be said to close with the Civil War, about 1860, and was marked by the arrival of fresh immigrants from two great sources, Ireland and Germany. The failure of the potato crop in Ireland in 1845 precipitated a wholesale exodus to America, a million and a half emigrants coming in the decade or so that followed. At about the same time the failure of the revolution in Germany (1848) resulted in the migration of an equal number of Germans.

In the two preceding periods, and indeed up to about 1890, the British Isles and the countries of northern Europe furnished from 75 to 90 percent of all who came to this country. But since about 1890

great numbers from Southern Europe and the Slavic countries have poured in. Just before World War I, Italians alone were admitted to the number of more than 300,000 a year, and of our annual immigration of more than a million, representatives of the east and south European countries.

For the student of the English language the most interesting period of immigration to America is the first. It was the early colonists who brought us the English speech and established its form. Those who came later were largely assimilated in a generation or two, and though their influence may have been felt, it is difficult to define.

The colonial settlement, the settlement of the thirteen colonies along the Atlantic seaboard, covered a long narrow strip of land extending from Maine to Georgia. This area is familiarly divided into three sections – New England, the Middle Atlantic states, and the South Atlantic states. The earliest New England settlements were made around Massachusetts Bay. Between 1620 and 1640 some 200 vessels came from England to New England bringing upward of 15,000 immigrants.

In this necessarily rapid survey some emphasis has been laid on the geographical and ethnic groups represented in the settlement of different parts of the country. Except for a few districts, such as the region around Massachusetts Bay and the tide water section of Virginia, the most prominent characteristic of the occupation of the United States is the constant mingling of settlers from one part with settlers from other parts. Not only were practically all sections of the British Isles represented in the original colonists, with some admixture of the French and the Germans, but as each new section was opened up it attracted colonists from various districts which had become overcrowded or uncongenial to them.

Linguistically the circumstances under which the American population spread over the country have had one important consequence. English spoken in America shows a high degree of uniformity. Those who are familiar with the pronounced dialectal differences that mark the popular speech of different parts of England will know that there is nothing comparable to these differences in the United States.

A second quality often attributed to American English is *archaism*, the preservation of old features of the language that have

gone out of use in the standard speech of England. American pronunciation as compared with that of London is somewhat old-fashioned. It has qualities that were characteristic of English speech in the 17th and 18th centuries. The preservation of the *r* in General American and a flat *a* in *fast*, *path*, etc. are two such that were abandoned in southern England at the end of the 18th century.

In many little ways standard American English is reminiscent of an older period of the language. Most Americans pronounce *either* and *neither* with the vowel of teeth or beneath, while in Britain an alternate pronunciation has developed since the American colonies were established and the more usual pronunciation is now with an initial diphthong [aɪ]. The American use of *gotten* in place of *got* as the past participle of *get* always impresses the British of today as an old-fashioned feature not to be expected in the speech of a people that prides itself on being up-to-date. It was the usual form in Britain two centuries ago. American English has kept a number of old words or old uses of words no longer used in Britain. Americans still use *mad* in the sense of angry, as Shakespeare and his contemporaries did, and they have kept the general significance of *sick* without restricting it to nausea. They still speak of *rare meat*, whereas the British now say *underdone*. *Platter* is a common word in the United States but is seldom used anymore in Britain except in poetry.

The phenomenon is not unknown in other parts of the world. The English spoken in Ireland illustrates many pronunciations indicated by the rhymes in Pope, and modern Icelandic is notably archaic as compared with the languages of the Scandinavian countries of the mainland. Accordingly it has often been maintained that transplanting a language results in a sort of arrested development. The process has been compared to the transplanting of a tree. A certain time is required for the tree to take root, and growth is temporarily retarded. In language this slower development is often regarded as a form of conservatism, and it is assumed as a general principle that the language of a new country is more conservative than the same language when it remains in the old habitat.

Early Changes in the Vocabulary. When colonists settle in a new country, they find the resources of their language constantly taxed. They have no words for the many new objects on every hand or the constant succession of new experiences that they undergo. Accordingly, in a colonial language changes of vocabulary take place

almost from the moment the first settlers arrive. When the colonists from England became acquainted with the physical features of this continent they seem to have been impressed particularly by its mountains and forests, so much larger and more impressive than any in England, and the result was a whole series of new words like *bluff*, *foothill*, *notch*, *gap*, *divide*, *watershed*, *clearing*, and *underbrush*. Then there were the many living and growing things that were peculiar to the New World. The names for some of these the colonists learned from Native Americans, words like *moose*, *raccoon*, *skunk*, *opossum*, *chipmunk*, *porgy*, *terrapin*; others they formed by a descriptive process long familiar in the language: *mud hen*, *garter snake*, *bullfrog*, *potato bug*, *groundhog*, *reed bird*. Tree names such as the *hickory* and *live oak*, and the *locust* are new to colonial English, as are *sweet potato*, *eggplant*, *squash*, *persimmon*, *pecan*.

Contact with Native Americans brought into English a number of words having particular reference to their way of life: *wigwam*, *tomahawk*, *canoe*, *toboggan*, *mackinaw*, *moccasin*, *wampum*, *squaw*, *papoose*. These are Native American words, but we have also English words formed at the same time and out of the same experience: *war path*, *paleface*, *medicine man*, *pipe of peace*, *big chief*, *war paint*, and the verb *to scalp*. Native American words for Native American foods were taken over in the case of *hominy*, *tapioca*, *succotash*, and *pone*.

National Consciousness. There is evidence that at the time of the American Revolution and especially in the years immediately following it, Americans were beginning to be conscious of their language and to believe that it might be destined to have a future as glorious as that which they confidently expected for the country itself. It was apparent that in the 150 years since the founding of Jamestown and Plymouth the English language on this continent had developed certain differences that were often the subject of remark. Thomas Jefferson thought that Americans were more tolerant of innovations in speech than the people of England and that these innovations might eventually justify calling the language of America by a name other than English. The consciousness of an American variety of English with characteristics of its own led to the consideration of a standard that should be recognized on this side of the Atlantic.

The Declaration of Independence and the years during which the colonies were fighting to establish their freedom from England produced an important change in American psychology. Accustomed for generations to dependence upon the mother country, the people who settled in America imported most of their books and many of their ideas from Europe. It was a natural and entirely just recognition of the superior civilization of the Old World and the greatness of English literature and learning. But with political independence achieved, many of the colonists began to manifest a distaste for anything that seemed to perpetuate the former dependence.

An ardent, sometimes belligerent patriotism sprang up, and among many people it became no one expressed this attitude more vigorously than **Noah Webster** (1758–1843). Born on the outskirts of Hartford, Connecticut, he received at Yale such an education as universities in the country then offered and later undertook the practice of law. But business in the legal profession was slow, and he was forced for a livelihood to turn to teaching. The change determined his entire subsequent career. The available English school books were unsatisfactory, and the war diminished the supply of such as there were. Webster accordingly set about compiling three elementary books on English, a spelling book, a grammar, and a reader. These he published in 1783, 1784, and 1785 under the high-sounding title '*A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*'. They were the first books of their kind to be published in this country. The success of the first part was unexpectedly great.

In 1789 he published a volume of '*Dissertations on the English Language, with Notes Historical and Critical*'. In 1806 he brought out a small Dictionary, the prelude to his greatest work. This was '*An American Dictionary of the English Language*', published in 1828 in two quarto volumes. In all of these works and in numerous smaller writings he was animated by a persistent purpose: to show that the English language in this country was a distinctly American thing, developing along its own lines, and deserving to be considered from an independent, American point of view.

It is a matter of common observation that *American spelling* often differs in small ways from that customary in England. We write *honor, color*, and a score of words without the *u* of English *honour, colour*, etc. Americans sometimes employ one consonant where the English write two: *traveler-traveller, wagon-waggon*, etc. They write

er instead of *re* in a number of words like *fiber*, *center*, *theater*. Americans prefer *s* in words like *defense*, *offense*, and write *ax*, *plow*, *tire*, *story*, and *czar*, for *axe*, *plough*, *tyre*, *storey*, and *tsar*.

The differences often pass unnoticed, partly because a number of English spellings are still current in America, partly because some of the American innovations are now common in England, and in general because certain alternatives are permissible in both countries. Although some of the differences have grown up since Webster's day, the majority of the distinctively American spellings are due to his advocacy of them and the incorporation of them in his dictionary.

In this he urged the omission of all superfluous or silent letters, such as the *a* in *bread* and the *e* in *give*, the substitution of *ee* for the vowels in *mean*, *speak*, *grieve*, *key*, etc., the use of *k* for *ch* in such words as had a *k*-sound (*chamcter*, *chorus*), and a few other "inconsiderable alterations". The most important modifications he introduces are that he prints *music*, *physic*, *logic*, etc., without a final *k*; *scepter*, *theater*, *meter*, and the like with *er* instead of *re*; *honor*, *favor*, etc., without the *u*; *check*, *mask*, *risk*, etc., for *cheque*, *masque*, *risque*; *defense*, *pretense*, *recompense*, and similar words with an *s*; and *determin*, *examin*, *doctrin*, *medicin*, etc., without a final *e*. In all except the last of these innovations he has been followed generally in American usage. He was not always consistent. He spelled *traffick*, *almanack*, *frolick*, and *havock* with a final *k* where his own rule and modern practice call for its omission.

It has been thought well to trace in some detail the evolution of Webster's ideas on the subject of spelling, because the most characteristic differences between British and American practice today are owed to him. Some of his innovations have been adopted in Britain, and it may be said in general that his later views were on the whole moderate and sensible.

Pronunciation. The earliest changes in the English language in America, distinguishing it from the language of the mother country, were in the vocabulary. These have already been mentioned. From the time when the early colonists came, however, divergence in pronunciation began gradually to develop. This has been due in part to changes that have occurred here but has resulted still more from the fact that the pronunciation of England has undergone further change and that a variety of southern English has come to be recognized as the English received standard. At the present time

American pronunciation shows certain well-marked differences from English use.

Perhaps the most noticeable of these differences is in the vowel sound in such words as *fast*, *path*, *grass*, *dance*, *can't*, *half*. At the end of the 18th century southern England began to change from what is called a flat *a*, to a broad *a* in these words, that is from a sound like the **a** in *man* to one like the **a** in *father*. The change affected words in which the vowel occurred before *f*, *sk*, *sp*, *st*, *ss*, *th*, and *n* followed by certain consonants.

In parts of New England, the same change took place, but in most other parts of the country the old sound was preserved, and *fast*, *path*, etc., are pronounced with the vowel of *pan*. In some speakers there is a tendency to employ an intermediate vowel, half way between the **a** of *pan* and *father*, but the "flat a" must be regarded as the typical American pronunciation.

Next to the retention of the flat *a*, the most noticeable difference between English and American pronunciation is in the treatment of the *r*. In the received pronunciation of England this sound has disappeared except before vowels. It is not heard when it occurs before another consonant or at the end of a word unless the next word begins with a vowel. A distinction less apparent to the layman is the pronunciation of the *o* in such words as *not*, *lot*, *hot*, *top*. In England this is still an open *o* pronounced with the lips rounded, but in America except in parts of New England it has commonly lost its rounding and in most words has become a sound identical in quality with the **a** in *father*, only short.

There are other differences of less moment between English and American pronunciation, because they concern individual words or small groups of words. Thus, in England *been* has the same sound as *bean* but in America is like *bin*. Leisure often has in America what is popularly called a long vowel but in England usually rhymes with pleasure. A more important difference is the greater clearness with which Americans pronounce unaccented syllables. They do not say *secret'ry* or *necess'ry*. Bernard Shaw said he once recognized an American because he accented the third syllable of *necessary*.

The American Dialects. Certain features of pronunciation characteristic of a part of New England and others associated with many parts of the South are so easily recognized and so well known that for a long time it was customary to distinguish three main

dialects in American English – the New England dialect, the Southern dialect, and General American, meaning the dialect of all the rest of the country.

American Words in General English. The difference between the British and the American lexicon today is lessened by the fact that many American words have made their way into British use, and their number appears to be increasing rather than diminishing. Often they have had to make their way against long and bitter opposition. The verbs *to advocate*, *placate*, and *antagonize* were buried under a literature of protest during most of the 19th century. This is not true of most of the early words adopted by the colonists from the Native Americans for Native American things. Other words associated with American things have at times been accepted fairly readily: *telephone*, *phonograph*, *typewriter*, *ticker*, *prairie* are familiar examples. Some American political terms, especially those associated with less admirable practices, have also been taken in: *caucus*, *logrolling*, *graft*, *to stump*, among others. It is easy to recognize the American origin of such words as *tolynch*, *blizzard*, *jazz*, *joyride*, *bucket shop*, but in many other cases the American origin of a word has been forgotten or the word has been so completely accepted in Britain that the dictionaries do not think it important any longer to state the fact.

Generally speaking, it may be said that when an American word expresses an idea in a way that appeals to the British as fitting or effective, the word is ultimately adopted in Britain. In bringing the history of the English language to a conclusion with a chapter on American English, it is clear that the United States and the United Kingdom are countries whose national varieties of the language (each with varieties within it) serve as major points of reference and contrast. As regards the formal written language, the differences between British English and American English are so minor. A century ago American commentators often felt called upon to defend their national variety, though it is hard to find anyone much concerned about the matter now. There is nothing at present like the sustained controversy over Americanisms of the 19th and early 20th centuries. During most of the 20th century Europeans preferred British English, and European instruction in English as a foreign language followed the norms of British English in pronunciation (specifically RP), lexical choice, and spelling. This was a result of

proximity, the effective methods of language teaching developed by British institutions such as the British Council, and the perceived “prestige” of the British variety.

As American English grew more influential in the world, it became an option alongside British English in mainland Europe and elsewhere. For a while, especially during the second half of the 20th century, a prominent attitude was that either variety was acceptable for a learner of English as long as each variety was kept distinct. The idea was that one could speak British English or American English but not a random mix of the two.

The global context of English has made the traditional categories more problematic and the choices more complex than they were previously perceived to be. It is worth distinguishing again between English as a second language (especially in multilingual countries where English has an official status) and English as a foreign language. Where English is widely used as a second language, as in India, Africa, and Singapore, national varieties have developed that are neither British nor American, whatever the historical, political, and cultural interactions had been. Where English is mainly a foreign language, as in France, Japan, or China, the language often has a mix of British features and American features, Americanization being especially prominent in business and technology. As we have seen, there is linguistic variation among groups of native speakers within both Britain and American.

Canada. Canadian English, as would be expected, has much in common with that of the United States while retaining a few features of British pronunciation and spelling. Where alternative forms exist the likelihood for a particular choice to be British or American varies with region, education, and age. British items such as *chips*, *serviette*, and *copsetend* to occur more frequently in the West, while the more common American choices *French fries*, *napkin* and *grove* tend to occur in the East. British spellings such as *colour* and pronunciations such as *schedule* with an initial [ʃ] occur most frequently throughout Canada among more highly educated and older speakers. In addition there are a number of words with meanings that are neither British nor American but peculiarly Canadian.

Thus, one finds *aboiteau* (*dam*), *Blue nose* (Nova Scotian), *Creditiste* (member of the Social Credit party), *Digby chicken* (smoke-cured herring), *mukluk* (Inuit boot), *reeve* (chairman of a

municipal council), *salt-chuck* (ocean), and *skookum* (powerful, brave).

'The Dictionary of Canadianisms', published in Canada's Centennial Year, allows historical linguists to establish in detail the sources of Canadian English. Many of the earlier settlers in Canada came from the United States, and the influence of the United States has always been very strong. Needless to say, he considered the influence wholly bad, and his words are still echoed by Canadians who deplore the wide circulation of American books and magazines in Canada and in recent years the further influence of movies and television. Nevertheless, a linguistically informed opinion would have to concede that in language as in other activities "it is difficult to differentiate what belongs to Canada from what belongs to the United States, let alone either from what might be called General North American".

Pidgins and Creoles. Of the varieties of English discussed in the preceding section, those of West and East Africa, the Caribbean, and the Pacific Rim coexist and interact with well-established English-based pidgins and creoles. The linguistic and sociological issues that are raised by these varieties of language in daily contact have already been suggested with respect to Jamaican English.

The theoretical interest to linguists, however, goes even deeper, because the study of pidgin and creole languages may give clues to a better understanding of a number of interrelated problems: the analytic synthetic distinction, which we have considered in the development of Middle English; the idea of a "continuum" among varieties of a single language and between closely related languages; the acquisition of language by children; the language-processing abilities of the human brain; and the origin of language. Because English-based creoles are so numerous and so widespread, the study of present-day English in all its worldwide varieties is useful not only in itself but also in the illumination that it gives to some of these most basic issues in language and cognition.

Of the approximately 125 pidgin and creole languages throughout the world, spoken by more than 9 million people, about 35 are English-based. Historical settlement and colonization produced two major groups of English-based creoles, an Atlantic group and a Pacific group.

The lexical impoverishment of pidgin and creole language often results in periphrastic and metaphorical expressions to designate things and events which in established language are signified by unrelated morphemes. The single word *hum* in English is expressed in Tok Pisin (literally ‘talk pidgin’) by the circumlocution, *singsing long taimmausi pas* (‘to sing when the mouth is closed’). English ‘grass’ in Tok Pisin is *gras*; ‘moustache’ is *mausgras*; ‘beard’ is *grasbilongfes* (‘grass on face’); ‘hair’ is *grasbilonghed*; ‘eyebrow’ is *grasantaplongai* (‘grass on top along eye’); ‘weed’ is *grasnogut*.

Another important factor of language in general which the study of pidgins and creoles clarifies is the idea of a linguistic continuum. Whereas earlier observations noted only a binary distinction between the standard language and the “patois”, research during the past quarter century has made it clear that there are multiple, overlapping grammars between the basilect (the most extreme form of pidgin or creole) and the acrolect (the standard language). These intermediate grammars are known as mesolects. There is often an observable hierarchy of linguistic features associated with various points on the continuum (for example, different past tense formations of verbs, some closer than others to the standard).

One of the most obvious characteristics of **Present-day English** is the size and mixed character of its vocabulary. English is classified as a Germanic language. That is to say, it belongs to the group of languages to which German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian also belong. It shares with these languages similar grammatical structure and many common words. On the other hand, more than half of its vocabulary is derived from Latin. Some of these borrowings have been direct, a great many through French, some through the other Romance languages.

As a result, English also shares a great number of words with those languages of Europe that are derived from Latin, notably French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese. All of this means that English presents a somewhat familiar appearance to anyone who speaks either a Germanic or a Romance language. There are parts of the language which one feels one does not have to learn, or learns with little effort.

To a lesser extent the English vocabulary contains borrowings from many other languages. Instead of making new words chiefly by

the combination of existing elements, as German does, English has shown a marked tendency to go outside its own linguistic resources and borrow from other languages. In the course of centuries of this practice English has built up an unusual capacity for assimilating outside elements. We do not feel that there is anything “foreign” about the words *chipmunk*, *hominy*, *moose*, *raccoon*, and *skunk*, all of which we have borrowed from the Native American.

We are not conscious that the words *brandy*, *cruller*, *landscape*, *measles*, *uproar*, and *wagon* are from Dutch. And are so with many other words in daily use. From Italian come *balcony*, *canto*, *duet*, *granite*, *opera*, *piano*, *umbrella*, *volcano*; from Spanish, *alligator*, *cargo*, *contraband*, *cork*, *hammock*, *mosquito*, *sherry*, *stampede*, *tornado*, *vanilla*; from Greek, directly or indirectly, *acme*, *acrobat*, *anthology*, *barometer*, *catarrh*, *catastrophe*, *chronology*, *elastic*, *magic*, *tactics*, *tantalize*, and a host of others; from Persian, *caravan*, *dervish*, *divan*, *khaki*, *mogul*, *shawl*, *sherbet*, and ultimately from Persian *jasmine*, *paradise*, *check*, *chess*, *lemon*, *lilac*, *turban*, *borax*, and possibly *spinach*.

English has borrowed from Hebrew and Arabic, Hungarian, Hindi-Urdu, Bengali, Malay, Chinese, the languages of Java, Australia, Tahiti, Polynesia, West Africa, and from one of the aboriginal languages of Brazil. And it has assimilated these heterogeneous elements so successfully that only the professional student of language is aware of their origin.

Studies of vocabulary acquisition in second language learning support the impression that many students have had in studying a foreign language: Despite problems with *fauxamis* – those words that have different meanings in two different languages – cognates generally are learned more rapidly and retained longer than words that are unrelated to words in the native language lexicon.

The future of English. Geographically, English is the most widespread language on earth, and it is second only to Mandarin Chinese in the number of people who speak it. It is reasonable to ask if changes in English can be predicted. There will doubtless be modifications in pronunciation, especially in that of long vowels and diphthongs. In weakly stressed syllables there is already a discernible tendency, operating effectively through radio and television, to restore the full qualities of vowels in these syllables. This tendency may bring British English more into line with American English and

may bring them both a little nearer to Spanish and Italian. Further, it may help to narrow the gap between pronunciation and spelling. Other factors will also contribute toward the narrowing of this gap: advanced technological education, computer programming, machine translation, and expanding massmedia. Spelling reformers will arise from time to time to liven up proceedings, but in general, traditional orthography may well hold its own against all comers, perhaps with some regularization.

Printing houses, wielding concentrated power through their style directives, will surely find it in their best interests to agree on uniformity of spelling. Encyclopaedic dictionaries – computerized, universal, and subject to continuous revision – may not go on indefinitely recording such variant spellings as “*connection*” and “*connexion*”, “*judgment*” and “*judgement*”, “*labor*” and “*labour*”, “*medieval*” and “*mediaeval*”, “*plow*” and “*plough*”, “*realise*” and “*realize*”, “*thru*” and “*through*”.

Since Tudor days, aside from the verb endings **-est** and **-eth**, inflections have remained stable because they represent the essential minimum. The abandonment of the forms *thou* and *thee* may encourage the spread of *yous* and *youse* in many areas, but it is not necessarily certain that these forms will win general acceptance. The need for a distinctive plural can be supplied in other ways (e.g., the forms “*you all, you fellows, you people*”). The distinctions between the words “*I*” and “*me*”, “*he*” and “*him*”, “*she*” and “*her*”, “*we*” and “*us*”, “*they*” and “*them*” seem to many authors to be too important to be set aside, in spite of a growing tendency to use objective forms as emphatic subjective pronouns and to say, for instance, “*them and us*” instead of “*they and we*” in contrasting social classes. Otherwise, these distinctive forms may remain stable; they are all monosyllabic, they are in daily use, and they can bear the mainstress. Thus, they are likely to resist levelling processes.

Considerable changes will continue to be made in the forms and functions of auxiliary verbs, catenative (linking) verbs, phrasal verbs, and verb phrases. Indeed, the constituents of verbs and verb groups are being more subtly modified than those of any other word class. By means of auxiliaries and participles, a highly intricate system of aspects, tenses, and modalities is gradually evolving.

In syntax the movement toward a stricter word order seems too many to be certain to continue. The extension of multiple *attributives*

in nominal groups has probably reached its maximum. It cannot extend further without incurring the risk of ambiguity.

In vocabulary further increases are expected if the present trends continue. Unabbreviated general dictionaries already contain 500,000 entries, but even larger dictionaries, with 750,000 entries, may be required. Coiners of words probably will not confine themselves to Greek and Latin in creating new terms; instead they are likely to exercise their inventive powers in developing an international technical vocabulary that is increasingly shared by French and Spanish and that is slowly emerging as the universal scientific language.

The influence of the mass media appears likely to result in standardized pronunciation, more uniform spelling, and eventually a spelling closer to actual pronunciation. Despite the likelihood of such standardization, a unique feature of the English language remains its tendency to grow and change. Despite the warnings of linguistic purists, new words are constantly being coined and usages modified to express new concepts. Its vocabulary is constantly enriched by linguistic borrowings, particularly by cross-fertilizations from American English. Because it is capable of infinite possibilities of communication, the English language has become the chief international language.

PRACTICAL LESSON # 10

The issues the students are to be ready to discuss and present:

1. Describe the main features of the Standard Speech of the English language. What is Received Pronunciation (abbreviated RP)?
2. Describe dialects and accents spoken on the British Isles today. Speak on Welsh English, Scottish English and Irish English and their specific features. Give certain examples.
3. Identify American and Canadian English as linguistic phenomena. What were the main reasons for their development? What are their main characteristics? Is it possible for American English to develop into a separate language? Prove your arguments.
4. What are the specific features of Present-day English? Give essential examples of grammar and vocabulary alternations.
5. Reformation in the vocabulary.

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