

**НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ БІОРЕСУРСІВ
І ПРИРОДОКОРИСТУВАННЯ УКРАЇНИ**

*Кафедра
романо-германських мов і перекладу*

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія"

За редакцією автора

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Бабенко О. В. Історія англійської мови. Навчальний посібник для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія": — Видання друге, перероблене і доповнене. / О. В. Бабенко — К. : ВЦ НУБіП України, 2014. — 334 с.

Навчальний посібник спрямовано на розкриття специфіки формування та становлення англійської мови в діяхронічному аспекті. Поряд з даними історичної фонології, граматики, лексикології англійської мови навчальний посібник також містить матеріал з синтаксису та за сучасними найбільш розповсюдженим діалектам англійської мови. До його складу входить короткий зміст лекцій, завдання для практичних занять, теми самостійної роботи, додатки.

Навчальний посібник призначений для студентів та викладачів факультетів іноземних мов вищих навчальних закладів.















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PREFACE

Significance of the manual lies in the development of communicative and professional competence as one of the key types of implementation of competence approach in general. The history of English is a fascinating field of study in its own right, but it also provides a valuable perspective for the contemporary study of the language. The historical account promotes a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us to find coherence in many fluctuations and conflicts of present-day English language use. Above all, it satisfies the deep-rooted sense of curiosity we have about our linguistic heritage. People like to be aware of their linguistic roots.

This training manual is intended for the 3rd year students at the Department of Romanic and Germanic Languages and taking the course the History of the English Language. It fully meets the requirements of the programme in the subject. The purpose of this aid is to help students, as advanced learners of English, to extend their linguistic and professional competence by:

- presenting significant notions of the History of the English Language as a subject;
- helping students preparing for the seminars;
- providing them with some strategies for learning, theoretical and practical materials;
- increasing their motivation towards further education;
- developing critical thinking.

The training manual is divided into two parts focusing on theory and practice. The materials in the first part are organized to help the students systematize the crucial points of the lectures. The second part deals with the practical assignments which are aimed to brush up learners' practical skills in all historical aspects of the language. The appendices contain 300 hundred multiple choice tests for self-control, themes for students' self-study, sample module papers, sample articles All-Ukrainian and International students' scientific conferences on the historical aspects of the English language, some schemes and charts.

The training manual is compiled by O. V. Babenko, Ph.D. in Philology, Associate Professor at the Department of Romanic and Germanic Languages, The Education and Research Institute of Natural Sciences and the Humanities, National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine, Kyiv.

Lecture 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE “THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE”

Plan

1. The subject, the goal and the main objectives / problems of the HEL
2. Methods of studying the HEL
3. Sources of studying the HEL
4. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people
5. The periodization of the HEL

References:

Obligatory:

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http://www.ineu.edu.kz/data/course/25/course_326.ppt
<http://www.englishclub.com/english-language-history.htm>
<http://www.wmich.edu/medieval/resources/IOE/genintro.html>
<http://bosworth.ff.cuni.cz/finder/3/maeg%C3%BEum>

OUTLINE

1. The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the HEL

The goal of this course is to investigate the development of the system of the English language.

Objectives of the course:

- to study different linguistic processes,
- to show causes and ways of formation of specific linguistic features of the EL.

The subject matter of the course is the changing nature of the language through more than 15 hundred years of its existence.

The course includes:

- historical phonology
- historical morphology
- historical syntax
- historical lexicology

The history of the EL is closely connected with cognate languages. In the process of the development of the EL two main trends can be observed:

- 1) the appearance of new forms and words;
- 2) the disappearance of the obsolete forms.

1) Phonetics and spelling. English spelling is difficult because it is more traditional, more conventional than phonetics. The value of Latin letters differs from their value in other cognate languages, such as German or French: e.g. *bite* – 4 letters, 3 sounds; *night* – 5 letters, 3 sounds. Sound system changes rather slowly because it must constantly preserve the contrast between the phonemes that are essential to the differentiation between morphemes.

2) Grammar. During the historical development of the EL some grammatical forms appeared, others became obsolete and disappeared. Every language has an organized structure of grammar. Any changes meet all these requirements and correlate with the norms of the language. Some changes meet exceptions: *a book* – *books*, but *a woman* – *women*.

Grammar changes very slowly because grammar structure provides frames and patterns for other systems of the language.

3) Word stock. It's a part of the language that changes more rapidly. In the process of the English development a lot of words of French origin appeared in the EL. The fact that words of the French origin occur very often in the English word stock proves that the process of borrowings is a characteristic feature in a language. Changes in the vocabulary can be observed during the lifetime of

one generation: borrowing of a coined word can appear as the result of achievements in technological, economical, computer spheres of life.

It is necessary to state that changes in the word stock are also caused by changes in the linguistic groups to which a language belongs. But all alterations in the word stock do not break up the language system, they support it and show how it works.

Conclusion: A language is non-static. Changes are taking place all levels of the language. The nature of linguistic changes is mainly determined by its characteristics and its functions in the society (communicative, expressive, etc.).

2. Methods of studying the HEL

Any language can be investigated with the help of two main scientific approaches: 1) synchronic; 2) diachronic.

According to the *synchronic approach*, all linguistic factors of Modern English are analysed. According to the *diachronic approach*, any language phenomenon is treated as a part of ever-lasting process and evolution.

In order to learn as much as possible about the language, it's necessary to analyse linguistic factors not only from the point of the synchronic approach, but also with the help of the diachronic one. The division between synchronic and diachronic approaches is conventional. This division exists more in theory than in practice.

In the *diachronic approach* to studying the language *two main methods* are used: *the comparative method* and the *internal reconstruction method*. The comparative method compares variations between different languages. For example, full cognates have similar phonetic and semantic structure and share the same etymology: Lat. padre, Eng. father, G. vater, etc.; root cognates have the same origin but only in their root: Lat. deus, Sanskrit devah, Eng. divine. The internal reconstruction method compares variant forms within a single language under the assumption that they descend from a single, regular form.

3. Sources of studying the HEL

The studying of the HEL is based on different English historical documents and English texts which formed the English language: for example, “The Song of Beowulf”; King’s Alfred translation of Orosius’s “Universal History”; Chaucer’s “The Canterbury Tales”; W. Shakespeare’s “Hamlet”.

4. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people

All linguistic alterations are interconnected or closely connected with the events which take place in the political, economical, cultural life of people, i.e. with the history of the country. As a result, new words and word combinations appear in a language in order to name the things that exist in different periods of the development of the country. Example: During the reign of the Normans, many words related to the ruling classes and the business of government entered English from French. Among these words are: attorney, baron, city, conservative, countess, county, damage, duchess, duke, empire, executive, govern, judicial, jury, justice, liberal, marriage, nobility, parliament, perjury, petty, prince, prison, regal, representative, republic, royal, senator, sovereign, state, traitor, viscount.

5. The periodization of the HEL

The history of English is divided into three periods usually called Old English (or Anglo- Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English.

Henry Sweet: “OE was the period of full endings, ME was the period of leveled endings and the NE is the period of no endings!”

The periods of English:

1) 450– 1100 – Old English (OE) – the language of Beowulf. Beowulf is an anonymous Old English epic poem in alliterative verse, believed to have been composed in the 8th century A.D.

2) 1100 (1066)– 1500 – Middle English (ME) – The language of Geoffrey Chaucer (?1340- 1400), the English poet who wrote “The Canterbury Tales”.

3) 1500–till today – Modern English (ModE, or NE):

3.1. 1500– 1650 – Early Modern English (or Renaissance English) – the language of William Shakespeare.

3.2. 1650 – Present Modern English (or Present-Day English) – the language as spoken today.

This periodization is conventional and based on the historical events of the country.

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes,

the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders – mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from England and their language was called Englisc – from which the words England and English are derived. Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century.

Traditionally the history of the development of the English language is divided into three main periods:

1. The Old English Period (OE) 449 – 11 century (1066);
2. The Middle English Period (ME) 11 century – 15 century;
3. The Modern English Period (ModE) 15 century – up to now.

Each of these periods can be divided into two small periods, ex. OE – Early OE and Late OE.

1. Old English (450-1100 (1066) AD)

The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English.

From the point of view of the political and social characteristics the OE period was the period of the tribal system. That is the people lived in large clans headed by the leaders. It was the period when they only began to learn to cultivate land.

From the point of view of the linguistic characteristics of the period there was no uniform language. When we speak of the OE language we mean the community of related tongues spoken by the OE tribes. If we consider the language system of the OE period we find that the language of that time was typically synthetic: like all old languages. Each notional part of speech had a great number of grammatical markers (affixes): thus, the noun had nine declensions; the verb had several conjugations. Word order in the sentence was much more free than it is now.

2. Middle English (1100-1500)

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the

Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

As to the ME period socially and politically it began as the period of the decay of the tribal system and the formation of feudalism. On the one hand it was progressive for the country but on the other hand it resulted in isolation of different parts of the country which in its turn resulted in the formation of the local dialects.

From the point of view of the development of the language the ME period is characterized as a period of transition from the synthetic structure to the analytical structure which the Modern English language has now. There are *two* most important processes which effected the language and which are responsible for its change; they are:

- the phonetic process of reduction – unstressed vowels came to be reduced; it was one of the main reasons for dropping of endings;
- the grammatical process of leveling on analogy – the use of different forms according to the same productivity models.

3. Modern English

3.1 Early Modern English (1500-1650)

Early Modern English period of the development of the English nation as a nation from the political point of view and the period of the formation of the uniform literary language and the establishing of the literary norm. Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language.

As the process of the standardization (unification) of the English language was taking place, there were numerous discussions among scholars, writers about the ways of the further English language development. There were three main groups of opinions:

1. The language can borrow as many words from other languages as possible because it will enrich the language;

2. English should remain a monosyllabic language and not borrow words from other languages;

3. The language should develop by itself.

The process of the English language standardization was achieved not by itself but due to the activity of many people. As to the spelling, they were trying to work out certain general fixed rules of spelling, but at the beginning of the Modern English period the spelling still varied from writer to writer.

The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common (uniform) language in print. The first printer was William Caxton. He founded the first printing house. Caxton printed his first book in 1476 in the London dialect which strengthened it. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary "Table Alphabeticall" was published.

3.2 Late Modern English (1650-Present)

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors:

firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; *secondly*, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example trash for rubbish, loan as a verb instead of lend, and fall for autumn; another example, frame -up, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies).

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

A Chronology of the English Language

- 55 BCE:** Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar
- 43 CE:** Roman invasion and occupation under Emperor Claudius. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain
- 436:** Roman withdrawal from Britain complete
- 449:** Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins
- 450-480:** Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period
- 597:** St. Augustine arrives in Britain. Beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons
- 731:** The Venerable Bede publishes *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* in Latin
- 792:** Viking raids and settlements begin
- 865:** The Danes occupy Northumbria
- 871:** Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is begun
- 911:** Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Ganger. The beginning of Norman French
- c.1000:** The oldest surviving manuscript of *Beowulf* dates from this period
- 1066:** The Norman conquest
- c.1150:** The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period
- 1171:** Henry II conquers Ireland
- 1204:** King John loses the province of Normandy to France
- 1348:** English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin
- 1349-50:** The Black Death kills one third of the British population
- 1362:** The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time
- 1384:** Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible
- c.1388:** Chaucer begins *The Canterbury Tales*
- c.1400:** The Great Vowel Shift begins
- 1476:** William Caxton establishes the first English printing press
- 1485:** Caxton publishes Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*
- 1492:** Columbus discovers the New World
- 1525:** William Tyndale translates the New Testament
- 1536:** The first Act of Union unites England and Wales
- 1549:** First version of *The Book of Common Prayer*

1564: Shakespeare born
1603: Union of the English and Scottish crowns under James the I (VI of Scotland)
1604: Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, *Table Alphabeticall*
1607: Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established
1611: The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published
1616: Death of Shakespeare
1623: Shakespeare's First Folio is published
1666: The Great Fire of London. End of The Great Plague
1702: Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, in London
1755: Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary
1770: Cook discovers Australia
1776: Thomas Jefferson writes the Declaration of Independence
1782: Washington defeats Cornwallis at Yorktown. Britain abandons the American colonies
1788: British penal colony established in Australia
1803: Act of Union unites Britain and Ireland
1828: Noah Webster publishes his dictionary
1851: Herman Melville publishes *Moby Dick*
1922: British Broadcasting Corporation founded
1928: The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published

Lecture 2

ENGLISH ALPHABETS, PRONUNCIATION, SPELLING

Plan

1. Old English alphabet, pronunciation and spelling.
2. Middle English and Early Modern English spelling.

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<http://www.omniglot.com/writing/oldenglish.htm>

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<http://www.humanities.mcmaster.ca/~beowulf/>

1. Old English alphabet, pronunciation and spelling

Old English / Anglo-Saxon (Englisc)

Old English was the West Germanic language spoken in the area now known as England between the 5th and 11th centuries. Speakers of Old English called their language Englisc, themselves Angle, Angelcynn or Angelfolc and their home Angelcynn or Englalund.

Old English began to appear in writing during the early 8th century. Most texts were written in West Saxon, one of the four main dialects. The other dialects were Mercian, Northumbrian and Kentish.

The Anglo-Saxons adopted the styles of script used by Irish missionaries, such as Insular half-uncial, which was used for books in Latin. A less formal version of minuscule was used for to write both Latin and Old English. From the 10th century Anglo-Saxon scribes began to use Caroline Minuscule for Latin while continuing to write Old English in Insular minuscule. Thereafter Old English script was increasingly influenced by Caroline Minuscule even though it retained a number of distinctive Insular letter-forms.

Anglo-Saxon runes (futhorc/futhorc)

Old English / Anglo-Saxon was first written with a version of the Runic alphabet known as *Anglo-Saxon* or *Anglo-Frisian runes*, or *futhorc/futhorc*. This alphabet was an extended version of Elder Futhark with between 26 and 33 letters. Anglo-Saxon runes were used probably from the 5th century AD until about the 10th century. They started to be replaced by the Latin alphabet from the 7th century, and after the 9th century the runes were used mainly in manuscripts and were mainly of interest to antiquarians. Their use ceased not long after the Norman conquest.

Runic inscriptions are mostly found on jewellery, weapons, stones and other objects, and only about 200 such inscriptions have survived. Most have been found in eastern and southern England.

Anglo-Saxon runes

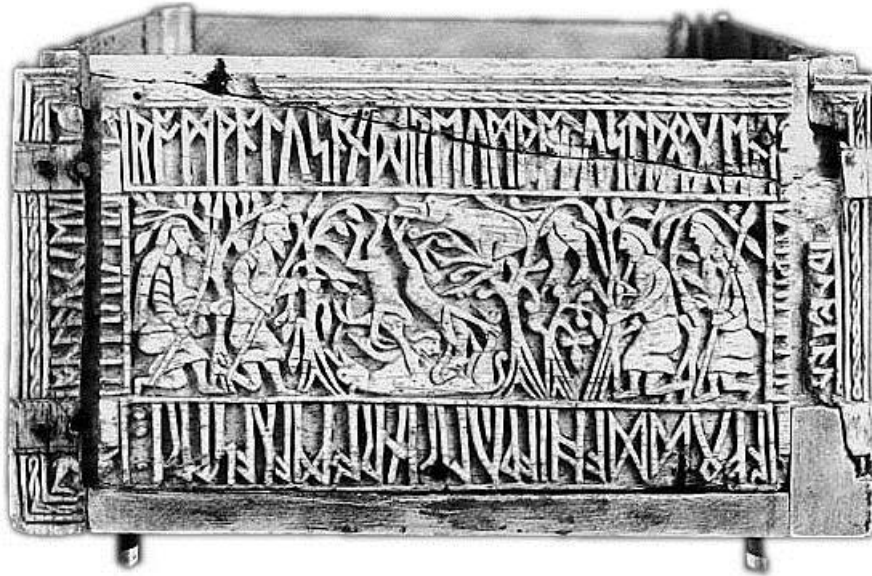
The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet, not to be found in languages of other groups. The word rune originally meant 'secret', 'mystery' and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. The runes – symbols were very vague, that might at the same time denote a sound, a syllable or a whole word. This alphabet is called futhark after the first six letters. The main use of runes was to make short inscriptions on objects, often to bestow on them some special power or magic. The two best known runic inscriptions in England

are the earliest extant OE written records. One of them is an inscription on a box called the "*Franks Casket*"

Runic letters are angular; straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided; this is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in hard material: stone, bone or wood. The shapes of some letters resemble those of Greek or Latin, others have not been traced to any known alphabet, and the order of the runes in the alphabet is certainly original. The number of runes in England was larger: new runes were added as new sounds appeared in English (from 28 to 33 runes in Britain against 16 or 24 on the continent).

								
ƒJN	UR	ÞFRÞ	ƆN	RFW	LMÞ	XNFN	PNÞÞ	NFXF
feoh	ur	þorn	ós	rad	cen	gyfu	wynn	hægl
wealth	aurochs	thorn	god	ride	torch	gift	joy	hail
f	u	þ/ð/th	o	r	c	ʒ	w/p	h
[f/v]	[u]	[θ/ð]	[o]	[r]	[k]	[g/j]	[w]	[h]
								
YNW	IN	ΦMR	JN	KJRÞ	JFN	WIXMF	TIP	BJRK
nyd	is	ger	eoh	peorð	eolh	sigel	tiw	beorc
need	ice	year	yew	?	elk-sedge	sun	Tiw (god)	birch
n	i	j	eo	p	x	s	t	b
[n]	[i]	[j]	[eo]	[p]	[x]	[s/z]	[t]	[b]
								
MN	MFÞÞ	FXN	IÐ	ÆPMT	WFX	FK	FVK	NR
eh	mann	lagu	ing	éðel	dæg	ac	æsc	yr
horse	man	lake	Ing (a hero)	estate	day	oak	ash tree	bow
e	m	l	ŋ/ng	œ	d	a	æ	y
[e]	[m]	[l]	[ŋ]	[œ]	[d]	[a]	[æ]	[y]
								
*R	YR	JJRÞ	AFTA	BFÞ	*FR			
ior	ear	cweorð	calc	stan	gar			
eel	grave		chalice	stone	spear			
ia/io	ea	kw	k	st	g			
[ia/io]	[ea]	[kw]	[k]	[st]	[g]			

The **Auzon Runic Casket**, a carving made of **whalebone**, counts among the most outstanding objects from Anglo-Saxon days. After a long and obscure history it is now exhibited in the **British Museum** in London, named after its donor “Frank’s Casket”.

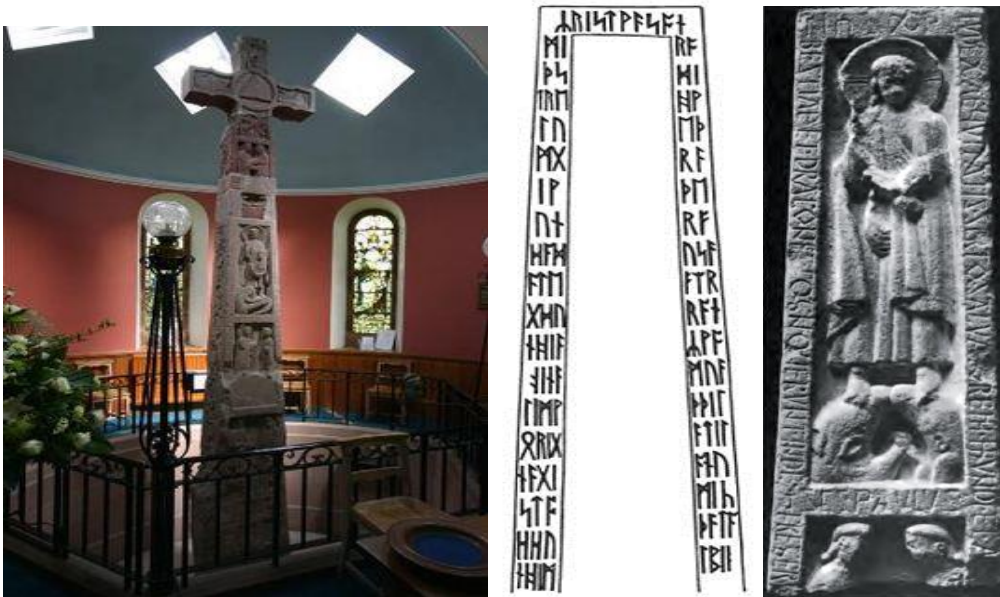


Picture1. “Frank’s Casket”

The other is a short text on a stone cross near the village of Ruthwell known as the “Ruthwell Cross”. This cross is remarkable for its runic inscription, which contains excerpts from *The Dream of the Rood*, an Old English poem. The **Ruthwell Cross** is a stone Anglo-Saxon cross probably dating to the 8th century, when Ruthwell was part of the Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria; it is now in Scotland. Anglo-Saxon crosses are closely related to the contemporary Irish high crosses, and both are part of the Insular art tradition. The Ruthwell cross features the largest figurative reliefs found on any surviving Anglo-Saxon cross - which are virtually the largest surviving Anglo-Saxon reliefs of any sort - and has inscriptions in both Latin and, more unusually for a Christian monument, the runic alphabet.

It contains lines similar to lines 39-64 of *The Dream of the Rood*, an Old English poem, which were possibly added at a later date. It is 18 feet (5.5 metres) high. The cross was smashed by Presbyterian iconoclasts in 1664, and the pieces left in the churchyard until they were restored in 1818 by Henry Duncan. In 1887 it was moved into its current location in Ruthwell church, Dumfriesshire, Scotland, when the apse which holds it was specially built

It is both the most famous and elaborate Anglo-Saxon monumental sculpture, and possibly the oldest surviving “text” of English poetry, predating any manuscripts with Old English poetry. It has been described by Nikolaus Pevsner thus; “The crosses of Bewcastle and Ruthwell....are the greatest achievement of their date in the whole of Europe.”



Pictures 3. “Ruthwell Cross”

Old English alphabet

The Anglo-Saxons adopted the styles of script employed by the Irish missionaries who had been instrumental in the conversion of the northern kingdoms. These styles included Insular half-uncial, used for fine books in Latin, and the less formal minuscule, used for both Latin and the vernacular.

Beginning in the tenth century Anglo-Saxon scribes began to use Caroline minuscule (developed in Francia during the reign of Charlemagne) for Latin while continuing to write Old English in Insular minuscule. Thereafter Old English script was increasingly influenced by Caroline minuscule even as it retained certain distinctively Insular letter-forms. Once you have learned these letter-forms you will be able to read Old English manuscripts of all periods without difficulty.

Old English alphabet

A _a	Æ _æ	B _b	C _c	D _d	Ð _ð	E _e	F _f	G _ȝ	H _h	I _i	L _l
a	ash	be	c	de	eth	e	eff	yogh	há	i	ell
a	æ	b	c	d	ð	e	f	ȝ (g)	h	i	l
M _m	N _n	O _o	P _p	R _r	S _s	T _t	U _u	ƿ _ƿ	X _x	Y _y	þ _þ
emm	enn	o	pe	err	ess	te	u	wynn	eks	yr	thorn
m	n	o	p	r	s	t	u	ƿ (w)	x	y	þ

Notes

Long vowels were marked with macrons. These were not written originally used in Old English but are a more modern invention to distinguish between long and short vowels.

The alternate forms of g and w (yogh and wynn/wen respectively) were based on the letters used at the time of writing Old English. Today they can be substituted for g and w in modern writing of Old English.

Yogh originated from an insular form of g and wynn/wen came from a runic letter and was used to represent the non-Latin sound of [w]. The letters g and w were introduced later by French scribes. Yogh came to represent [ȝ] or [x].

Old English pronunciation

Vowels and diphthongs

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

Consonants

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

Some abbreviations used in Old English manuscripts

ʒ	þ̅	—	g̅ / ȝ̅	þoñ
and/ond	þæt	-m or -n	ge-/ȝe-	þonne
eg. sūne = sumne				

Notes

- **c** = [tʃ] usually before or after a front vowel, [k] elsewhere
- **ð/þ** = [θ] initially, finally, or next to voiceless consonants, [ð] elsewhere
- **f** = [f] initially, finally, or next to voiceless consonants, [v] elsewhere
- **g** (3) = [ɣ] between vowels and voiced consonants, [j] usually before or after a front vowel, [dʒ] after n, [g] elsewhere
- **h** = [ç] after front vowels, [x] after back vowels, [h] elsewhere
- **n** = [ŋ] before g (3) and k
- **s** = [s] initially, finally, or next to voiceless consonants, [z] elsewhere
- The letters **j** and **v** were rarely used and were nothing more than variants of i and u respectively.
- The letter **k** was used only ever rarely and represented [k] (never [tʃ])

(Sample text in Old English (Prologue from Beowulf))

hƿæt! ƿe ġarðena	in ġearðagum,	Hwæt! We Gardena	in geardagum,
þeodcýninga,	þrým ġefrunon,	þeodcýninga,	þrym gefrunon,
hu ða æþelingas	ellen fremedon.	hu ða æþelingas	ellen fremedon.
Oft Scýld Scefing	ſceaþena þreatum,	Oft Scyld Scefing	sceaþena þreatum,
monegum mægþum,	meodosetla ofteah,	monegum mægþum,	meodosetla ofteah,
egfode eorlas.	Sýððan ærest ƿearð	egsode eorlas.	Syððan ærest wearð
feafceaft funden,	he þæs frofre ġebad,	feasceaft funden,	he þæs frofre gebad,
ƿeox under ƿolcnum,	ƿeorðmýndum þah,	weox under wolcnum,	weorðmyndum þah,
oðþæt him æghwýlc	þara ýmbsittendra	oðþæt him æghwylc	þara ymbsittendra
ofer hronrade	hýran ſcolde,	ofer hronrade	hyran scolde,
ġomban ġýldan.		gomban gyldan.	

Modern English version

LO, praise of the prowess of people-kings
of spear-armed Danes, in days long sped,
we have heard, and what honor the athelings won!
Oft Scyld the Scefing from squadroned foes,
from many a tribe, the mead-bench tore,
awing the earls. Since erst he lay
friendless, a foundling, fate repaid him:
for he waxed under welkin, in wealth he throve,
till before him the folk, both far and near,
who house by the whale-path, heard his mandate,
gave him gifts

Middle English and Early Modern English spelling

For several decades after the Norman conquest the use of the English language was restricted to lower classes of the population: peasantry and common people of the towns. These people for the most part were illiterate, and English was used only in spoken communication. Under such circumstances the written form of English gradually came to the state of decline. All the writing during these years was done in the French language. French was the language of literature, learning and official documents. It is quite natural, therefore, that after its revival the development of written English was greatly influenced by French writing habits.

Changes in the alphabet

It has already been mentioned that the Anglo-Saxons used a modified variant of the Latin alphabet. In the ME period this alphabet underwent another reshaping. The OE letters ƿ (wynn), þ, ð (thorn) and ȝ (gyn) were withdrawn from the alphabet. «Wynn» (ƿ) was replaced with the letter *w*. «Gyn» which was used in OE to denote several sounds was ousted by two letters: *y* (to denote the sound [j]) and [g] (to denote the sound [g]), e.g.: *OE lānȝ > ME long*; *OE ȝēar > ME year*. «Thorn» (þ, ð) was replaced with the digraph *th*: *OE þæt > ME that*; *OE þorn > ME thorn*.

The ligature *æ* was also withdrawn from the alphabet. It came out of use because the corresponding sounds [æ] and [æ:] disappeared in ME. Other alphabetic changes were connected with the introduction of new letters. The English alphabet was replenished by the letters **v, q, z, j, k**.

The letter **v** was introduced to replace **f** in the words like *lufu*, *steorfan*, e.g.: *OE lufu > ME love*; *OE steorfan > ME sterven*. The letter **f** in *lufu* and *steorfan* stood for [v] which in OE was a positional variant of [f]. In ME the positional variant [v] developed into a separate sound thanks to French borrowings where the sound [v] could be found in any position (cf. *victory*, *government*).

The OE positional variant [z] also developed into a separate sound, but the letter **z** was used in ME to denote [z] in the newly borrowed words only, e.g.: *Zephirus*. In native words and OE borrowings [z] was still denoted by **s**, e.g.: *chesen* (*choose*), *cheese* (*cheese*).

The letter **q** was introduced to form the digraph **qu** which replaced the OE cluster **cw**, (**cƿ**) e.g.: *OE cwēne > ME queen*; *OE cwicu > ME quike* (*quick*). The letter **j** entered the alphabet to denote [dʒ] in the words of French origin, e.g.: *joy*, *judge*, *justice*.

The letter **k** also returned to the alphabet and was implied instead of **c** to denote [k] before **i, e, y**, e.g.: *OE cēpan* > *ME keepen (keep)*; *OE cyning* > *ME king*. The letter **c** in such a position came to denote [s] by analogy with the French habits, e.g.: *OF certain* > *ME certayn*; *OE mys* > *ME mice*.

Ways of denoting long vowels

OE writing did not differentiate between long and short vowels. The first attempt to make such distinctions was made in the 12th century by the monk named Orm. He wrote a religious poem notable for its peculiar spelling. Short vowels in this poem are denoted by doubling the following consonant, while long vowels are followed by one consonant only.

This poem begins in the following way:

Diss boc iss nemmedd Orrmulumm

Forrþi þatt Orrm wrohhte.

(This book is called Ormulum, because Orm wrote it).

However Orm's spelling did not become popular, and in later years other ways to show a long vowel were worked out.

Long [u:] came to be denoted by the French digraph **ou** (by analogy with the French words like *trouble*), e.g.: *hous, out, mous*. When [u:] was found in the final position it was denoted by **ow**, e.g.: *now, how*.

Long [e:] came to be spelt by several digraphs:

ie (by analogy with the French words like *chief*): *field, thief*;

ei (by analogy with the French words like *receive*): ;

ee: , *feet, teeth*.

Long open [ɛ:] which developed from OE [æ:] was represented by the digraph **ea**, e.g.: *sea, sleapen*.

Similar means were implied to denote closed [o:] and open [O:]. The digraph **oo** was used to indicate [o:], the digraph **oa** represented [O:], e.g.: *foot, book, tooth, road, boat*.

Digraphs with “h”

The tendency towards a wide use of digraphs was not restricted to vowels only. Several digraphs were introduced to denote consonants. These were built with the help of the letter **h**, which appeared in the following symbols: **ch, sh, th, gh, wh**.

The digraph **ch** came from the French language and was used to denote the sound [tʃ]. By analogy with **ch** several other digraphs were built: **sh** for [ʃ];

remained inconsistent. Thus, the sound [v] could appear in writing as **v** or **u**, e.g.: *love, loue; over, ouer*. The sound [ʃ] could be spelt **sh** or **sch**, e.g.: *ship, schip; shire, schire*. There was no constituency in the use of the final **e** and the use of different digraphs, e.g.: *toun, town, book, boke, hous, house, whit, white*. In the NE period the development of spelling had *a tendency towards its unification*. However, this development was rather slow. English spelling arrived at fixed standards only in the 18th century.

Lecture 3

PHONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Old English Phonological System

Plan

1. Old English Phonological System.

1.1. Old English Vowel System;

1.2. Old English Consonant System.

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OUTLINE

1. OLD ENGLISH PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

1.1. Old English Vowel System

Phonetics and **phonology** are related, dependent fields for studying aspects of language. **Phonetics** is the study of sound in speech; **phonology** is the study (and use) of sound patterns to create meaning. Phonology relies on phonetic information for its practice, but focuses on how patterns in both speech and non-verbal communication create meaning, and how such patterns are interpreted. **Phonology** includes comparative linguistic studies of how cognates, sounds, and meaning are transmitted among and between human communities and languages.

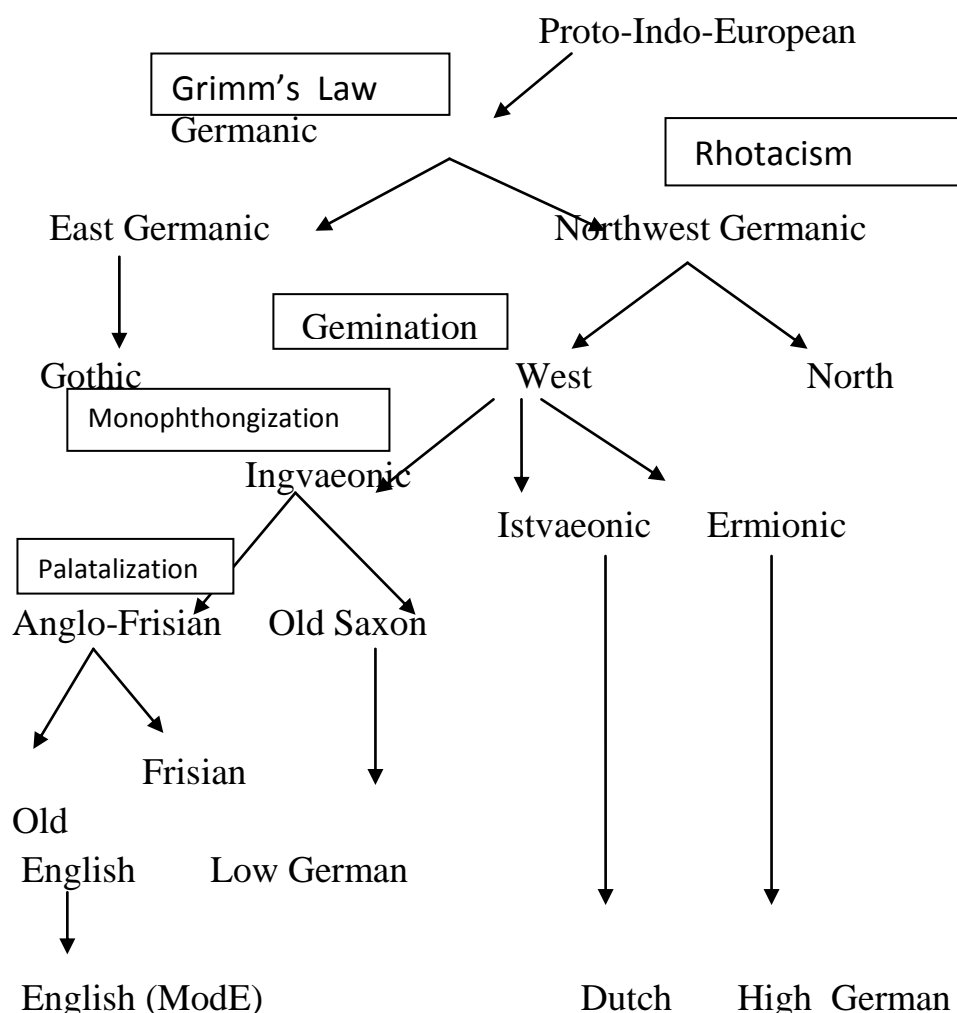
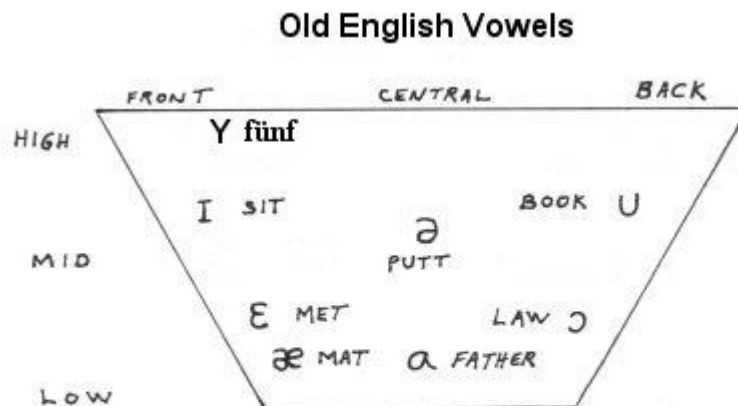


Diagramme 1. “Tree climbing from PIE to English”

Each branching of the **language family tree** is characterized by a distinct sound law. For English all of the sound laws mentioned above are applicable and they explain major differences in the pronunciation of cognate words be-

tween neighboring languages. Cognate is a word that has the same origin as another: ('Haus' and 'house' are cognates)



Picture 4. Old english vowels

The system of vowels in Old English included eight short vowels (monophthongs) (according to other sources 7) and seven long vowels

o

ɑ æ e i u o y ɑ

ɑ: æ: e: i: u: o: y:

And four short and four long diphthongs

ea eo ie io

ēa ēo īe īo

Pronunciation was characterized by a predictable stress pattern on the first syllable.

The length of the vowel was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning:

Ʒod (god) - Ʒōd (good)

west (west) – wēst (waste)

for (preposition for) – fōr (past tense of the verb fāran - go)

Assimilative changes influenced OLD English

Assimilative changes are the changes that occurred in the language in specific surroundings. There are two types of assimilation: regressive, progressive.

If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive, if it influences the following sound it is called progressive.

Both types of assimilation are found in Old English.

BREAKING OF VOWELS is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant.

Thus,

a + r +cons, l+cons. > ea

æ+ h+cons. > ea

e + final - > eo

a > ea

For instance,

hard > heard (hard)

arm > earm (arm)

U

warm > wearm (warm)

e > eo

herte > heorte (heart)

melcan > meolcan (to milk)

feh > feoh (cattle)

UMLAUT OF VOWELS

Umlaut of vowels, which occurred probably in the 6th century, is also called **(palatal) front mutation or i/j mutation**.

The essence of this change is that a back sound (a, o) changes its quality if there is a front sound (i) in the next syllable.

a > æ; a > e

sandian – sendan (to send)

namnian – nemnan (to name)

talian-tælan-tellan (to tell)

satian- sætan (to set)

DIPHTHONGIZATION AFTER PALATAL CONSONANTS (DIPHTHONGIZATION OF VOWELS)

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

a > **ea**, skal- sceal (shall)

ā > **ēa**, skāggwon - scēawian (to show)

e > **ie**, ȝefan - ȝiefan (give)

æ > **ea**, ȝæf - ȝeaf (gave), ȝæt - ȝeat (gate)

ǣ > **ēa** (the **ǣ** sound was actually derived from **ā**)

jār - ȝēar (year)

o > **eo**, scort – sceort (short), yong- ȝeong , (young)

BACK , OR VELAR MUTATION

The essence of this change is that the syllable that influenced the preceding vowel contained a back vowel – o or u, sometimes even a

i > **io** hira – hiora (their)

silufr – **siolufr** (silver)

e > **eo** hefon – heofon (heaven)

a > **ea** saru- searu (armour)

MUTATION BEFORE H

Sounds a and e that preceded h underwent several changes, mutating to diphthongs ea,ie and finally were reduced to i/y: – **naht** – **neaht-niht-nieht** – **nyht** (night).

CONTRACTION

The consonant h proved to have interfered with the development of many sounds. When h was placed between two vowels the following changes occurred.

a_{+h+} vowel > **ēa** sla**h**an – slēan (slay)

e_{+h+} vowel > **ēo** se**h**en-sēon (see)

i_{+h+} vowel > **ēo** ti**h**an- tēon (accuse)

o_{+h+} vowel > **ō** fo**h**an-fōn (catch)

1.2. Old English Consonant System.

There were 19 consonants in Old English.

Table 1. Old english consonants

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation					
		Bilabia l	Labiodenta l	Interdenta l	Alveola r	Alveopalata l	Vela r
Stops	Voices	<u>/p/</u>	.	.	<u>/t/</u>	.	<u>/k/</u>
	Voiced	<u>/b/</u>	.	.	<u>/d/</u>	.	<u>/g/</u>
Affricates	Voices	<u>/tʃ/</u>	.
	Voiced	<u>/dʒ/</u>	.
Fricatives		.	<u>/f/</u>	<u>/q/</u>	<u>/s/</u>	/s</ [ʃ] new sounds	<u>/h/</u>
Nasals		<u>/m/</u>	.	.	<u>/n/</u>	.	.
Lateral		.	.	.	<u>/l/</u>	.	.
Retroflex		.	.	.	<u>/r/</u>	.	.
Semivowels		<u>/w/</u>	.	.	.	<u>/j/</u>	.

The subgroup of Germanic languages contains many differences that set them apart from the other I-E languages. The following outstanding linguists made a great contribution into the development of comparative linguistics.



Rusk R. (1787-1832) Grimm J. (1785—1863)

The Germanic Consonant Shift (also known as the First Sound Shift or Grimm's Law) which, in effect, **gave birth to the Germanic languages. It is considered to be Grimm's Law and Verner's Law taken together. Grimm's**

Law (or the First Sound Shift) helps to explain the consonant changes from P-I-E to Germanic.

This phenomenon was first described in 1814 (according to other sources in 1818) by the Danish linguist Rasmus Rusk. In 1822 it was fully formulated and investigated by the German philologist Jacob Grimm, whose name in the end, it got. Grimm's Law (together with Verner's Law) is considered one of **the most well-known phonetic laws in comparative studies**. Grimm's Law implies a set of relationships among the consonants of the Germanic and non-Germanic Indo-European languages. Law consists of three parts, which must be thought of as three consecutive phases in the sense of a chain shift:

- a. Aspirated voiced stops became Unaspirated voiced stops (B^h, d^h, g^h became b, d, g)
- b. Voiced stops became Voiceless stops (B, d, g became p, t, k)
- c. Voiceless stops became Voiceless fricatives (P, t, k became f, θ, x (h))

Table 2. **Examples illustrating Grimm's Law**

		IE	Ger- manic		IE	Germanic		There were shortcomings. It didn't always work.	IE	Germanic
1.	bh> b	bhra- tar	broþar	b>p	abel	apple	p>f		pater	fadar
2.	dh> d	madhu	medu	d>t	decem	ten	t>þ (θ)		tres	three
3.	gh> g	hostis	gast	g>k	genu	knee	k>h		nocte m kerd	nahts heart

But Grimm's realized shortcomings of his theory and expected someone else would discover why **p** is sometimes becoming **b**, **t** is becoming **d**, **k** is becoming **g**. What causes the voicing of these consonants in several cases?

Karl Verner (1846-1896) was a Danish linguist. He was well-trained in Indo-European linguistics. In 1876 he decided to address to a problem of badly shifted consonants. He liked reading his favourite book Franz Bopp's "Comparative Grammar" which was some kind of the Bible for the 19-th century linguists. Looking at Sanskrit forms and comparing them to Germanic ones **Verner** noticed that the **placement of STRESS (ACCENT)** affected how **Indo-European consonants** were shifted. Then Karl published his findings in the ar-

ticle “An exception to the first consonant shift” in one of the prestigious linguistic research journals. **Verner’s Law (A Germanic Voicing Rule)** said when the following consonants **p, t, k** occurred in the middle of the word they would become the voiced consonants **b, d, g**, and not **f, þ, h** as predicted by Grimm. **Voiceless fricatives** became **voiced** (when they were in a voiced environment and the Indo-European **stress was not on the preceding syllable**). This process was called **hardening**. Germanic **s** could also be affected, when stress preceded it, it remained **s**. If stress was elsewhere **s** was changed to **z** and then to **r**. In linguistics, **rhotacism** is the conversion of a consonant (usually a voiced alveolar consonant — /z/, /d/, /l/, or /n/) to a rhotic consonant in a certain environment. **The most common may be of /z/ to /r/**. This linguistic phenomenon is known as **Rhotacism**. It’s a turning of a Latin **s** to a Greek **r**.

Treatment of fricatives. Hardening. Rhotacism.

Voicing and Devoicing.

After the changes under Grimm’s Law and Verner’s Law PG had the following two sets of **fricative consonants: voiceless [f, θ, x, s] and voiced [v, p, γ, z]**. In WG and in Early OE the difference between two groups was supported by new features. PG voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives while voiceless fricatives, being contrasted to them primarily as fricatives to plosives, developed new voiced allophones. The PG voiced [**p**] (due to Verner’s Law) was always **hardened to [d]** in OE and other WG languages, e.g. Icel, *gōpr* and OE *ǣōd*. The two other fricatives, [**v**] and [**γ**] were hardened to [**b**] and [**g**] initially and after nasals, otherwise they remained fricatives. PG [**z**] underwent a phonetic modification through the stage of [ʒ] into [r] and thus became a sonorant, which ultimately merged with the older IE [**r**]. This process is termed **rhotacism**. In the meantime or somewhat later the PG set of voiceless fricatives [f, θ, x, s] and also those of the voiced fricatives which had not turned into plosives, that is, [**v**] and [**γ**], were subjected to a new process of voicing and devoicing. In Early OE they became or remained voiced intervocally and between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants; they remained or became voiceless in other environments, namely, initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants. In all WG languages, at an early stage of their independent history, most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [l]. This process is known as “**gemination**” or “**doubling**” of consonants, e.g. *fuljan* > *fyllan* (NE fill). The change did not affect the sonorant [r], e.g. OE *werian* (NE

wear); nor did it operate if the consonant was preceded by a long vowel, e.g. OE *dēman*, *mētan* (NE *deem*, *meet*).

Table 3. Examples illustrating Verner's Law

Indo-European	changes		Examples							
	Verner's Law	Grimm's Law	Proto-Indo-European	Sanskrit	Old Greek	Latin	Proto-Germanic	Gothic	Old English	English
p	b ← f		septḥ	saptá n	ἑπτά	sep- tem	sefún > se- bun	sibun	seofon	seven
t	p ← þ		phitér	pitá	πατήρ	pater	fapĕr > fapēr	fadar	fæder	father
k	g ← h		hjuhnk̂ ys	yuva Ꞥáḥ		iu- vencu s	junxys > junγaz	juggs	geong	young
s	z ← s (later) z → r		snusys	snuṣ á	νύος	nurus	snuzō		snoru	

Verner's Law is often called "grammatical alternation". The accent in Proto-Indo-European fell on different syllables in certain grammatically related forms. As a result, Germanic languages have different allomorphs in grammatical paradigms which depend upon whether or not Verner's Law applied. After some time the stress in the Germanic languages has been shifted on **the first syllable of the root**, and thus the condition under which the law of Verner acted disappeared. As a result, each pair of allophones gave two separate phonemes (f / v → f, v, etc.). As a result voice became a phonological feature. Historical process by which a phonetic difference becomes a difference between phonemes is called **phonologization**. The significance of Verner's Law was in the following:

- Verner proved that the First Consonant Shift was a systematic process.
- It played an important role in the further etymological studies.
- Verner's Law was of great importance for the reconstruction of Proto-Indo-European stress.

There were the following changes in consonants in Old English.

PALATALIZATION

Germanic [k] next to a front vowel was palatalized to [č] - [tʃ], :

cirice ("church"), ceaster ("castle")

ceap ("cheap"), cild ("child")

Germanic [sk] was palatalized to [š] - [ʃ], in all situations:

fisc ("fish"), sceotan ("to shoot")

scearp ("sharp"), sciold ("shield")

wascan ("wash")

Germanic [g] in medial or final position was palatalized to [ǰ] - [dʒ]:

brycg ("bridge") [dʒ]

ASSIMILATION BEFORE T

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

Velar+t >ht sēcan- sōcte-sōhte (seek-sought)

LOSS OF CONSONANTS IN CERTAIN POSITIONS

h that was lost in intervocal position, the sounds n and m were lost before h, entailing the lengthening of the preceding vowel.

Bronhter – brōhter (brought), fimf- fif (five)

METATHESIS OF R

In several OE words the following change of the position of consonants takes place

cons+r+vowel > cons+vowel+r

pridda- pirda (third)

GEMINATION –Lengthening or doubling of consonants in certain positions mostly before [j], [l], [r]

fulian –fyllan (fill), tallian–tellan (tell), salian–sellan (sell)

CONTRACTION

The consonant h proved to have interfered with the development of many sounds. When h was placed between two vowels the following changes occurred.

a_{+h+} vowel > ēa slahan – slēan (slay), e_{+h+} vowel > ēo sehen-sēon (see)

i_{+h+} vowel > ēo tihan- tēon (accuse), o_{+h+} vowel > ō fohan-fōn (catch)

Lecture 4

PHONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

Middle English Phonological System Modern (New) English Phonological System

Plan

1. Middle English Phonological System.

1.1. Middle English Vowel System;

1.2. Middle English Consonant System.

2. Modern (New) English Phonological System.

2.1. Modern (New) English Vowel System.

2.1. Modern (New) English Consonant System.

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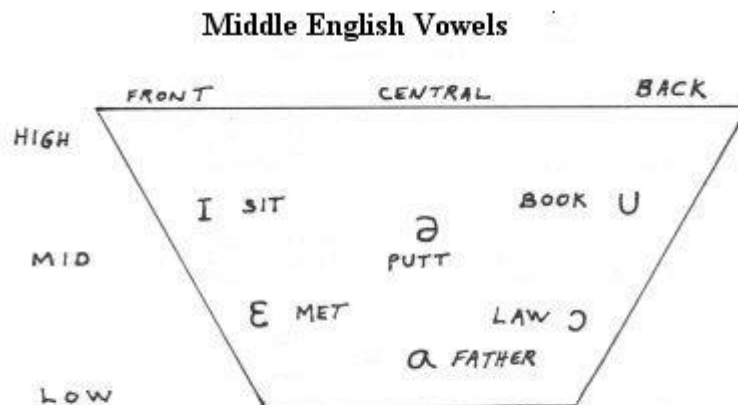
OUTLINE

1. MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

1.1. Middle English Vowel System

For various reasons nobody knows what the primary and what the secondary reason of the most fundamental changes in Middle English phonology. The following features were typical of that period:

1. Some processes which began in Old English were completed in Middle English. (formation of new sounds [ʃ] [ʒ], [ʧ]),
2. Pendulum-like movements of sounds (Germanic $\alpha \rightarrow$ Old English æ \rightarrow Middle English a).
3. Middle English had a number of French unassimilated sounds.



- **Vowels** in Middle English were, overall, **similar** to those of **Old English**.
- Except for **the loss of OE y** and **æ** so that **y** was unrounded to [I] and [æ] raised toward [ɛ] or lowered toward [a].
- Addition of new phonemic sound (mid central vowel), represented in linguistics by **the symbol called schwa: [ə]**, the schwa sound occurs in unstressed syllables and its appearance is related to the ultimate loss of most inflections.
- The Middle English vowels existed, as in Old English, in long and short varieties.

Word Stress in ME and Early NE

In OE stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word, rarely on its second syllable.

In ME the word accent began to play a more important role in word derivation.

These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during the ME period.

- The latter pairs of words show that the role of word accentuation has grown: word stress performs a phonological function as it distinguishes a verb from a noun.
- NE *'present* n - *pre'sent* v;
- *'discord* n - *dis'cord* v.

Unstressed vowels

In OE there were five short vowels in unstressed position [e/i], [a] and [o/u].

Late ME had only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [i], e.g.

OE *talū* – ME *tale* [ˈta:lə] – NE *tale*,

OE *bodiz* – ME *body* [ˈbodi] – NE *body*.

The final [ə] disappeared in Late ME though it continued to be spelt as *-e*.

When the ending *-e* survived only in spelling, it was understood as a means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to words which did not have this ending before,

e.g. OE *stān*, *rād* – ME *stone*, *rode* [ˈstone], [ˈrode] – NE *stone*, *rode*.

Quantitative vowel changes in Early ME

In Late OE and in Early ME vowel length began to depend on phonetic conditions. (before some consonant clusters):

1) Short vowels were lengthened before two consonants – a sonorant and a plosive; e.g. OE *wild* – ME *wild* [wi:ld] – NE *wild*.

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

3) Short vowels became long in open syllables, e.g. OE *nama* > ME *name* [na:mə] – NE *name*

Qualitative vowel changes in Early ME

Development of monophthongs

The OE close labialized vowels [y] and [y:] disappeared in Early ME, merging with various sounds in different dialectal areas. The vowels [y] and [y:] existed in OE dialects up to the 10th c., when they were replaced by [e], [e:] in Kentish and confused with [ie] and [ie:] or [i] and [i:] in WS. In Early ME the dialectal differences grew. In some areas OE [y], [y:] developed into [e], [e:], in others they changed to [i], [i:]; in the South-West and in the West Midlands the two vowels were for some time preserved as [y], [y:], but later were moved backward and merged with [u], [u:],

e.g. OE *fyllan* – ME (Kentish) *fellen*, (West Midland and South Western) *fullen*, (East Midland and Northern) *fillen* – NE *fill*.

In Early ME the long OE [a:] was narrowed to [o:].

This was an early instance of the growing tendency of all long monophthongs to become closer, so [a:] became [o:] in all the dialects except the Northern group,

e.g. OE *stān* – ME (Northern) *stan(e)*, (other dialects) *stoon*, *stone* – NE *stone*.

The short OE [æ] was replaced in ME by the back vowel [a], e.g. OE *þæt* > ME *that* [θat] > NE *that*.

Development of diphthongs

OE possessed a well developed system of diphthongs: long and short: [ea:], [eo:], [ie:] and [ea], [eo], [ie]. Towards the end of the OE period some of the diphthongs merged with monophthongs:

- all diphthongs were monophthongised before [xt], [x't] and after [sk'];
- the diphthongs [ie:], [ie] in Late WS fused with [y:], [y] or [i:], [i].
- In Early ME the remaining diphthongs were also contracted to monophthongs:
 - the long [ea:] was united with the reflex of OE [æ:] – ME [ɛ:];
- the short [ea] ceased to be distinguished from OE [æ] and became [a] in ME;
- the diphthongs [eo:], [eo] – as well as their dialectal variants [io:], [io] – fell together with the monophthongs [e:], [e], [i:], [i].

As a result of these changes the **vowel system** lost **two sets of diphthongs**, long and short. In the meantime a new set of diphthongs developed from some sequences of vowels and consonants due to the vocalization of OE [j] and [ɣ], that is to their change into vowels.

In Early ME the sounds [j] and [ɣ] *between and after vowels* changed into [i] and [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowels, e.g. OE *dæ3* > ME *day* [dai].

These changes gave rise to **two sets** of diphthongs: with *i*-glides and *u*-glides [ai], [ou]. The same types of diphthongs appeared also from other sources: the glide *-u* developed from OE [w] as in OE *snāw*, which became ME *snow* [snou], and before [x] and [l] as in Late ME *smaul* and *taughte*.

1.2. Middle English Consonant System

In the history of the English language the consonants were far more stable than the vowels.

Table 4. Middle English Consonants

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation					
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar
Stops	Voiceless	/p/	.	.	/t/	.	/k/
	Voiced	/b/			/d/		/g/
Affricates	Voiceless	/c</	.
	Voiced					/j</	
Fricatives	Voiceless	.	/f/	/q/	/s/	/s</	/h/
	Voiced		<u>/v/</u>	<u>/p/</u>	<u>/z/</u>		
Nasals		/m/	.	.	/n/	.	.
Lateral		.	.	.	/l/	.	.

A large number of consonants have remained unchanged since the OE period.

Such consonants as [t], [d], [n], [l],[m],[k] have not been subjected to any alteration.

1. Consonants of Middle English were very **similar** to those of Present Day English but lacking [ŋ] as in **hung** (velar nasal) and [ʒ] as in **measure** (alveo-palatal voiced fricative).

2. Addition of phonemic voiced fricatives: [v], [z], [p]; effect of French loanwords: vetch/fetch, view/few, vile/file ([v], [z])
3. loss of long consonants (OE mann > ME man).
4. **h** lost in clusters, OE hæl fdige > ME ladi ("lady"), OE hnecca > ME necke ("neck"), OE hræ fn > ME raven.
5. fricative *f/v* tended to drop out before consonant+consonant or vowel+consonant: OE *hlaford*, *hlæfdige*, *heafod*, *hæfde* > ME lord, ladi, hed, hadde ("lord," "lady," "head," "had") (sometimes retained: OE *heofon*, *hræfn*, *dreflian* > "heaven," "raven," "drivel")
6. **g** became **w** after l and r: OE *swelgan* > ME *swolwen* ("swallow"), OE *feolaga* > ME *felawe* ("fellow"), OE *morgen* > ME *morwen* ("morning"), OE *sorg* > ME *sorow* ("sorrow").
7. OE prefix **ge-** lost initial consonant and was reduced to y or i: OE *genog* > ME *inough* ("enough").
8. unstressed final consonants tended to be lost after a vowel: OE *ic* > ME *i*, OE *-lic* > ME *-ly* (e.g. OE *rihtlice* > ME *rihtly* ("rightly")).
9. final -n in many verbal forms (infinitive, plural subjunctive, plural preterite) was lost, e.g. OE *cuman* > Modern English *come* (the *n* remains in some past participles of strong verbs: seen, gone, taken);
10. final -n also lost in possessive adjectives "my" (OE *min* > ME *mi*) and "thy" (OE *þin* > ME *þi*) and indefinite article "an" before words beginning with consonant (-n remained in the possessive pronouns, e.g. mine).
11. **w** generally dropped after *s* or *t*: OE *sweostor* > *sister*, (sometimes retained in spelling: sword, two; sometimes still pronounced: swallow, twin, swim).
12. *l* was lost in the vicinity of palatal *c* in adjectival pronouns OE *ælc*, *swilc*, *hwilc*, *micel* > each, such, which, much (sometimes remained: filch).
13. final **b** lost after *m* but retained in spelling: lamb, comb, climb (remained in medial position: timber, amble); intrusive *b* after *m*: OE *bremel*, *næmel*, *æmerge* > ME *bremble*, *nimble*, *ember* (also OE *þuma* > ME *thombe*, "thumb").
14. initial stops in clusters **gn-** and **kn-** still pronounced: ME *gnat*, *gnawen*, *knowen*, *knave*, *cniht* ("gnat," "gnaw," "know," "knave," "knight")
h often lost in unstressed positions: OE *hit* > ME *it*

1. MODERN (NEW) ENGLISH PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

Modern (New) English Vowel System

A **major factor** separating Middle English from Modern English is known as **the Great Vowel Shift**, a radical change in pronunciation during the 15th, 16th and 17th Century, as a result of which long vowel sounds began to be made higher and further forward in the mouth (short vowel sounds were largely unchanged). In fact, the shift probably started very gradually some centuries before 1400, and continued long after 1700 (some subtle changes arguably continue even to this day).

The Great Vowel Shift was first studied by Otto Jespersen (1860–1943), a Danish linguist and Anglicist, who coined the term.

History

The exact causes of the shift are continuing mysteries in linguistics and cultural history. But some theories attach the cause to **the mass migration** to the south-east part of England **after the Black Death**, where the difference in accents led to certain groups modifying their speech to allow for a standard pronunciation of vowel sounds.

Another explanation highlights **the language of the ruling class**: the medieval aristocracy had spoken French, but, by the early fifteenth century, they were using English. This may have caused a change to the "prestige accent" of English, either by making pronunciation more French in style or by changing it in some other way.

English spelling was becoming standardised in the 15th and 16th centuries, the Great Vowel Shift is responsible for many of the peculiarities of English spelling. Spellings that made sense according to Middle English pronunciation were retained in Modern English because of the adoption and use of the printing press, which was introduced to England in the 1470s by William Caxton and later Richard Pynson.

Beginning in the 15th century (and largely finished by the late 16th or early 17th century) the pronunciations of **long vowels** started changing in a **“complicated but systematic”** way. **The long vowels began to shorten.**

Each long vowel moved “UP” one slot, while the two highest vowels [i] and [u] were “lowered” through the central segment of the vowel trapezoid and were changed into diphthongs. **The short vowels DID NOT shift.**

The principal changes (with the vowels shown in IPA) are roughly as follows. However, exceptions occur, the transitions were not always complete, and there were sometimes accompanying changes in orthography:

Middle English [a:] (ā) fronted to [æ:], and then raised to [ɛ:], [e:] and in many dialects diphthongised in Modern English to [eɪ] (as in make). (The [a:] in the Middle English words in question had arisen earlier from lengthening of short a in open syllables and from French loan words, rather than from original Old English ā, because the latter had in the meantime been raised to Middle English [ɔ:].)

Middle English [ɛ:] raised to [e:] (EModE) and then to modern English [i:] (as in beak).

Middle English [e:] raised to Modern English [i:] (as in feet).

Middle English [i:] diphthongised to [ɪi], which was most likely followed by [əɪ] (EModE) and finally Modern English [aɪ] (as in mice).

Middle English [ɔ:] raised to [o:] (EModE), and in the eighteenth century this became Modern English [oo] or [əʊ] (as in boat).

Middle English [o:] raised to Modern English [u:] (as in boot).

Middle English [u:] was diphthongised in most environments to [ʊu], and this was followed by [əʊ] (EModE), and then Modern English [aʊ] (as in mouse) in the eighteenth century. Before labial consonants, this shift did not occur, and [u:] remains as in soup and room (its Middle English spelling was roum). This means that the vowel in the English word same was in Middle English pronounced [a:] (similar to modern psalm); the vowel in feet was [e:] (similar to modern fate); the vowel in wipe was [i:] (similar to modern weep); the vowel in boot was [o:] (similar to modern boat); and the vowel in mouse was [u:] (similar to modern moose).

Great Vowel Shift

(1300)	1400	1500	1600	1700	1800	present
<i>driven</i>	/i:/	/i:/	/ei/	/ɛi/	/Δi/	/ai/
<i>house</i>	/u:/	/u:/	/ou/	/ɔu/	/Λu/	/au/
<i>feet</i>	/e:/		/i:/			
<i>fool</i>	/o:/		/u:/			
<i>beat</i>	/ɛ:/			/e:/	/i:/	
<i>foal</i>	/ɔ:/			/o:/		/əu/
<i>take</i>	/a:/	/æ:/	/ɛ:/	/e:/	/ei/	
<i>sail</i>	/ai/	/æi/	/ɛi/	/e:/	/ei/	
<i>law</i>	/au/	/ɔu/	/ɒ:/			/ɔ:/

Briefly we can summarise the Great Vowel Shift resulted in the following changes:

Table 5. Great Vowel Shift

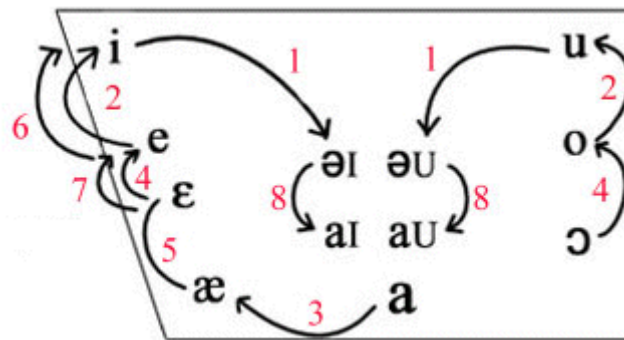
Middle English	Early Modern English	Modern English
high front i:	diphthong ɔi	diphthong aɪ
high back u:	diphthong əu	diphthong aʊ
high-mid front e:	high front i:	high front i:
high-mid back o:	high back u:	high back u:
low-mid front ɛ:	high-mid front e:	high front i:
low-mid back ɔ:	high-mid back o:	diphthong əʊ
low front ɑ:/æ	low-mid front ɜ:	high-mid front e:/diphthong eɪ

As a result of the Great Vowel Shift English **lost** the purer **vowel sounds of most European languages**, as well as the **phonetic pairing between long and short vowel sounds**.

The effect of the Great Vowel Shift may be seen very clearly in the English names of many of the letters of the alphabet. A, B, C and D are pronounced

/eɪ, biː, siː, diː/ in today's English, but in contemporary French they are /a, be, se, de/. The French names (from which the English names are derived) preserve the English vowels from before the Great Vowel Shift. By contrast, the names of F, L, M, N and S (/ɛf, ɛl, ɛm, ɛn, ɛs/) remain the same in both languages, because "short" vowels were largely unaffected by the Shift.

The following picture demonstrates The Great Vowel Shift step by step.



- Step 1: i and u drop and become əɪ and əʊ
- Step 2: e and o move up, becoming i and u
- Step 3: a moves forward to æ
- Step 4: ɛ becomes e, ɔ becomes o
- Step 5: æ moves up to ɛ
- Step 6: e moves up to i
- A new e was created in Step 4; now that e moves up to i.
- Step 7: ɛ moves up to e
- The new ɛ created in Step 5 now moves up.
- Step 8: əɪ and əʊ drop to aɪ and aʊ

Picture 5

Exceptions

Not all words underwent certain phases of the Great Vowel Shift. **ea** in particular did not take the step to [i:] in several words, such as **great**, **break**, **steak**, **swear**, and **bear**. The vowels mentioned in words like **break** or **steak** underwent the process of shortening, due to the plosives following the vowels. Obviously that happened before the Great Vowel Shift took place. **Swear** and **bear** contain the sound [r] which was pronounced as it still is in North American, Scottish, and Irish English and other rhotic varieties. This also affected and changed the vowel quality. As a consequence, it prevented the effects of the Great Vowel Shift. Other examples are **father**, which failed to become [ɛ:] / ea, and **broad**, which failed to become [o:]. The word **room** retains its older medieval pronunciation as m is a labial consonant, but its spelling makes it appear as though it was originally pronounced with [o:]. However, its Middle English spelling was **roum**, and was only altered after the vowel shift had taken place.

Shortening of long vowels at various stages produced further complications. ea is again a good example, shortening commonly before coronal consonants such as d and th, thus: dead, head, threat, wealth etc. (This is known as the bred–bread merger.) oo was shortened from [u:] to [ʊ] in many cases before k, d and less commonly t, thus book, foot, good etc. Some cases occurred before the change of [ʊ] to [ʌ]: blood, flood. Similar, yet older shortening occurred for some instances of ou: country, could.

Note that some loanwords, such as souffl  and Umlaut, have retained a spelling from their origin language that may seem similar to the previous examples; but, since they were not a part of English at the time of the Great Vowel Shift, they are not actually exceptions to the shift.

Diphthongs

Early Modern English diphthongs also underwent a series of changes which masked their earlier sound. Almost all of these changes that took place were the result of processes of monophthongisation: this means that a diphthong was reduced to a pure long vowel. There were **seven diphthong phonemes** in late Middle English, namely: **iu, eu, au, ai, ɔu, oi and ui**. All changes can be summarised in the table.

Table 6. Comparative phonological processes

	ME phoneme	• EmodE	PDE
1.	[ɪu:]	• [iu]→ [ju:]	[ju:] new, hue
2.	[eu]	• [ɜu]→ [iu]→ [ju:]	[ju:] dew, few
3.	[aʊ]	• [au] → [ɒu]	[ɔ:] cause, law
4.	[ɔʊ:]	• [ɔ:] → [o:]	[əʊ:] soul, know
5.	[ai]	• [ɜi]→ [ɜ:]→ [e:]	[eɪ] day, night
6.	[oi]	• [ɔi]	[ɔi] noise, royal
7.	[ui]	• [ai]	[ɔi] boil, destroy

Short vowels

In late Middle English there were **six phonemes for short vowels**, namely: i, e, a, ɔ, ʊ and ə. In general, short vowels in accented syllables changed little in the transition from ME to EModE. All changes can be summarised in the **table**.

Table 7. Comparative phonological processes

	Middle English	Early Modern English	PDE	Examples
1.	[i]	[i]	[i]	ship
2.	[e]	[ɜ:]	[e]	bed, set
3.	[a]	[æ]half, fast, answer	[æ:] when preceding voiceless fricatives and [n] or [s] or [t] → in BE: [ɑ:]	hat, man
4.	[ɔ]	[ɒ]	[ɒ]	dog
5.	[ʊ]	[ʊ]	[ʊ] when followed by /l/ or when preceded by labials such as /w/, /p/, /b/, or /f/	put
	[ʊ]	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	but
6.	[ə]	[ə]-id, -əd	[ə]-id	better, -ed

Modern (New) English Consonant System

The sound changes which took place during Early Modern English times were many and complex. Vowels did change immensely but consonants were affected, too. Several developments were in progress and continued until Present Day English. The major consonant changes however, changed from Old English to Early Modern English. From then on the changes were mostly completed and the consonants stayed the same, almost identically with Present Day English. 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, d

- e.g. talk, walk; folk, yolk, chalk
- calm, palm, balm, alms (but not in helm) half, calf (but wolf, elf)
- halves,
- should, could, would

The sound /b/ was dropped in combination *mb* when at the end of the word and not followed by another consonant: lamb, climb, tomb, bomb.

/n/ was dropped in combination *mn*, e. g. autumn, solemn, column

/t—stl, stn, ftn, stm, ktr — e. g. castle, whistle, thistle, fasten, listen, often, Christmas.

The consonants were lost in initial clusters:

g and k in gn, kn:

e. g. knight, knee, know, knock, knife, gnome, gnarl, gnat

/w/was lost before mainly r at the beginning of the word.

e.g. wreath, write, wrong, wreck, wring, wrist, wrestle and in unstressed syllables after a consonant in such words as: e. g. answer, conquer, Greenwich, Norwich.

and also in such words as sword, two, towards.

/h/ disappeared in many unstressed syllables e/g/ forehead, shepherd, Birmingham, Nottingham.

In this period **two new** phonemes arise that filled gaps in the existing system

/ŋ/ -in OE, [ŋ] only occurred before /k, g/: sing /siŋg/

-[ŋ] used to be the allophone of /n/ before /g/

-but word-final stops often lost in clusters

-sing /siŋg/ -> /siŋ/ with loss of word-final stop

-now sing is a minimal pair with sin, so the /ŋ/ **is officially a phoneme**

[ʒ]: -result of

a) borrowing from French (beige) and

b) a set of sound changes called palatalization

Qualitative change of consonants is illustrated by voicing of fricatives (when the preceding vowel was unstressed)

s → z: e.g. dessert, resemble, possess, dissolve, example, exhibit, anxiety.

f → v: e. g. of (not off)

ʃ → ʒ: e.g. knowledge, Greenwich, Norwich.

Some sounds, mainly in the borrowed words merged with the preceding consonant forming a sibilant:

sj, tj — ʃ : e. g. Asia, Russia, pension, musician, motion, ambition.

zj — ʒ: e. g. division, collision, measure, pleasure, treasure

tj — ʃ: e. g. question, nature, fortune, creature, feature, culture, mixture

dj — ʒ: e. g. soldier, procedure, verdure.

Lecture 5

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Plan

1. HISTORICAL MORPHOLOGY

1.1. Nouns:

1.1.1. OE Nouns;

1.1.2. ME Nouns;

1.1.3. EModE Nouns.

1.5. Numerals:

1.5.1. OE Numerals;

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1.2.2. ME Adjectives;

1.2.3. EModE Adjectives.

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1.4.3. EModE Adverb.

1.8. Interjections:

1.8.1. OE Interjections;

1.8.2. ME Interjections;

1.8.3. EModE Interjections.

References:

Obligatory:

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Internet resources

<http://acunix.wheatonma.edu/mdrout/grammarbook2007/ch9.html>

1.1.Nouns

1.1.1. OE Nouns

Had the following categories

- Grammatical gender: masculine, feminine, neuter (grammatical gender of a given noun did not correspond its natural gender.)

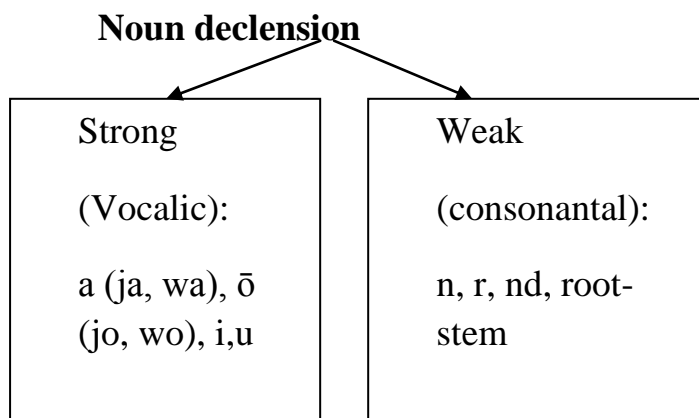
For example, *sēo sunne* (the Sun) was feminine,

se mōna (the Moon) was masculine,

and *þæt wīf* "the woman/wife" was neuter.

- singular and plural number (nouns took different endings depending on whether the noun was in the singular (for example, *hring* 'one ring') or plural (for example, *hringas* 'many rings').
- strong and weak declensions;
- specific inflectional endings in each of the cases: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative;
- adaptation of borrowings;
- inflections in form of suffixes.

OE nouns were divided into two categories of declension in Old English, the so called Strong and Weak nouns. There are other minor declensions, as well, but most nouns fall into these two classifications.



The strong noun paradigm declines for case, gender and singular/plural.

Table 8. Strong Nouns' endings

case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	--	-as	--	-u / --	-u / --	-a, -e
Genitive	-es	-a	-es	-a	-e	-a
Dative	-e	-um	-e	-um	-e	-um
Accusative	--	-as	--	-u / --	-e	-a, -e

Example declensions of **stān** 'stone', **scip** 'ship' (short neuter), **þing** 'thing' (long neuter), **giefu** 'gift' (short feminine), and **sorg** 'sorrow' (long feminine).

Table 9. Examples of strong noun declensions

case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	stān	stānas	scip / þing	scipu / þing	giefu / sorg	giefu / sorga, -e
Genitive	stānes	stāna	scipes / þinges	scipa / þinga	giefe / sorge	giefu / sorga
Dative	stāne	stānu m	scipe / þinge	scipum / þingum	giefe / sorge	giefum / orgum
Accusative	stān	stānas	scip / þing	scipu / þing	giefe / sorge	giefu / orga, -e

Weak Declension

The weak paradigm is more simplified and has less variation between the genders and cases.

Table 10. **Weak Nouns' endings**

case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-a	-an	-e	-an	-e	-an
Genitive	-an	-ena, -a	-an	-ena, -a	-an	-ena, -a
Dative	-an	-um	-an	-um	-an	-um
Accusative	-an	-an	-e	-an	-an	-an

Example declension of nama 'name', ēage 'eye', and tunge 'tongue'

Table 11. **Example of noun declensions**

case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	nama	naman	ēage	ēagan	tunge	tungan
Genitive	naman	namena, -a	ēagan	ēagena, -a	tungan	tungena, -a
Dative	naman	namum	ēagan	ēagum	tungan	tungum
Accusative	naman	naman	ēage	ēagan	tungan	tungan

Middle English Noun

Middle English retains only two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English. The early Modern English words engel (angel) and name (name) demonstrate the two patterns: strong and weak

Table 12. **Examples of noun declension**

case	strong		weak	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
nom/acc	engel	enges	name	namen
gen	enges*	enge(ne)* *	name	namen
dat	engle	enge(s)	name	namen

Some nouns of the engel type have an -e in the nominative/accusative singular, like the weak declension, but otherwise strong endings. Often these are the same nouns that had an -e in the nominative/accusative singular of Old English. (These in turn inherited from Proto-Germanic ja-stem and i-stem nouns.)

The strong -(e)s plural form has survived into Modern English.

The weak -(e)n form is now rare in the standard language, used only in oxen, children, brethren; and it is slightly less rare in some dialects, used in eyen for eyes, shoon for shoes, hosen for hose(s), kine for cows, and been for bees.

1.1.3. EModE Noun

Nouns:

- only two cases (common and possessive),
- two numbers (singular and plural),
- no grammatical gender;
- some mutated plurals, a few -n plurals (shoes/shoon, housen, eyen), some unmarked plurals (month, year, horse, fish);
- some unmarked genitives (mother tongue, lady slipper);
- -s of genitives sometimes omitted when word ended in sibilant (s-like sound) or following word started with one (peace sake);
- misinterpretation of genitive ending -s as 'his' (e.g. John Browne his meadow, Ann Harris her lot)

1.2. Adjectives

1.2.1. OE Adjectives

Most historians agree that the number of adjectives in Old English is not very significant. There are primary adjectives, dating back from the very old times and derivative adjectives made by adjective-forming suffixes from nouns. The adjectives of those times are similar to Slavic adjectives. This part of speech agrees with the noun it modifies in number, gender and case.

The adjective in OE had the following categories:

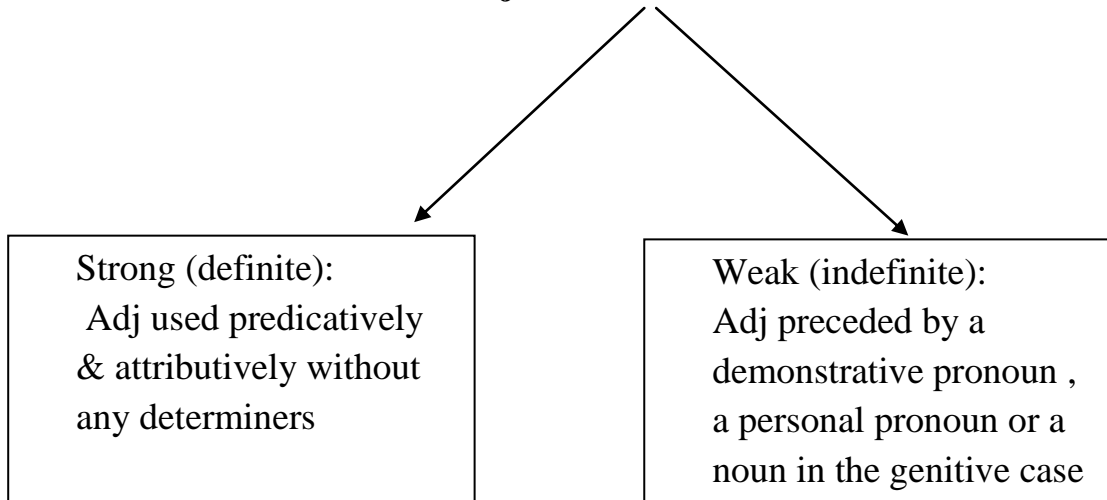
two numbers (singular, plural);

three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter);

five cases (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and partly instrumental)

Besides, the adjectives had two declensions, strong and weak (cf. in Ukrainian *зелений гай/ зелен клен*, in Russian *красная лента/красна девица*). The weak form of the adjective is used after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun or a noun in the genitive case. When the adjective is not so accompanied it is declined strong.

Adjective declension



The following table summarizes the adjective endings. **A strong adjective for a strong noun, a weak adjective for a weak noun, the rule is as simple as that.**

Table 13. OE adjective endings

		masculine	neuter	feminine
strong				
singular	nominative	—	—	-u / —
	accusative	-ne	—	-e
	genitive	-es	-es	-re
	dative	-um	-um	-re
	instrumental	-e	-e	
plural	nominative	-e	-u / — / -e	-a / -e
	accusative			
	genitive	-ra	-ra	-ra
	dative	-um	-um	-um
weak				
singular	nominative	-a	-e	-e
	accusative	-an	-e	-an
	genitive	-an	-an	-an
	dative	-an	-an	-an
plural	nominative	-an	-an	-an
	accusative			
	genitive	-ra / -ena	-ra / -ena	-ra / -ena
	dative	-um	-um	-um

For example, here are two paradigms for the adjective **gōd** "good" with the feminine noun **cwen** "queen." First the **strong**:

Table 14. **The Strong Adjective Declension**

	Singular	Plural
nominative	gōd cwen	gōde cwena
accusative	gōde cwene	gōde cwena
genitive	gōdre cwene	gōdra cwena
dative	gōdre cwene	gōdum cwenum

Table 15. **The Weak Adjective Declension**

	Singular	Plural
nominative	seo gōde cwen	þa gōdan cwena
accusative	þa gōdan cwene	þa gōdan cwena
genitive	þære gōdan cwene	þara gōdra cwena
dative	þære gōdan cwene	þam gōdum cwenum

- Like in other IE languages, most OE adjectives are distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative, superlative.
- The typical suffixes –ra and –est/ost, e. g. earm (poor)-earmra-earmost, blæc (black) - blæcra - blacost
- Many adjectives changed the root vowel – another example of the Germanic ablaut, e.g.
 - eald (old)-ieldra-ieldest,
 - strong - strengra - strengest
 - long - lengra - lengest
 - geong (young) - gingra - gingest
- The most widespread and widely used adjectives always had their degrees formed from another stem, which is called "suppletive" in linguistics. Many of them are still seen in today's English:

Table 16. **Suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective**

Degrees of Comparison		
Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Ʒōd (good)	betera sēlra	betst sēlest

yfel (bad)	wiersa	wierrest, wierst
lȳtel (small)	lǣssa	lǣst
mycel (much)	māra	mǣst

1.2.2.ME Adjectives

- The paradigm of the adjective in ME is simplified drastically.
- The endings become scarce.
- The category of gender is lost, for the nouns no longer have it.
- The adjective no longer agrees with the noun in case, the only remaining endings being – the plural form having the ending-e and the remains of the weak declension, the weak form (the one preceded by an article) –e:

For example:

Young kniht/the younge kniht

Younge knihtes/ the younge knihtes (In the plural the strong and the weak forms coincided).

- The forms of the suffixes of the degrees of comparison were reduced to –er, est.
- Some adjectives, especially of foreign origin, are found in a form moore/most which may be associated with the adverb.

1.2.3. EModE Adjectives

Of all the parts of speech the **adjective** has undergone the most profound grammatical changes. In the course of time it has lost all its grammatical categories except the degrees of comparison.

In OE the **adjective** was declined to show the gender, number and case of the noun it modified: it had a **five-case system** and **two types** of declension, weak and strong, often serving, together with the preceding pronoun or alone, to present a thing as “definite” or “indefinite”.

The most important innovation in the **adjective** system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison.

The adjective in EModE **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**. The forms elder/older, eldest/oldest and further/farther, furthest/farthest are distinguished in use.

The new way of forming the degrees of comparison: the use of the adverbs **more** and **most** before the adjective came into practice.

Double comparatives and superlatives are also found (more wider, the most unkindest).

At the same time **more** and **most** are used as comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective much (they are adjectives of full semantics).

1.3. Pronouns

1.3.1.OE Pronouns

There are several types of pronouns in Old English: *personal, demonstrative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative*. Most pronouns are declined by number, case and gender; in the **plural** form most pronouns have only one form for all genders. Additionally, Old English pronouns reserve the dual form.

Personal pronouns in OE had

3 persons: the first, the second, the third;

3 numbers: *singular, plural*, and the remains of the *dual* number in the second person;

3 genders: masculine, feminine, neuter.

The personal pronouns seem to preserve in the course of time more forms than the other classes.

The genitive case of personal pronouns might be used **as possessive**; the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons were declined, and might be considered a separate class of pronouns.

In combination with self personal pronouns could also serve as **reflexive**

Īc ondrēd mē

[I was afraid]

Īc pā sōna eft mē **selfum** andwyrde

[I then immediately afterwards answered myself]

Table 17. OE personal pronouns

Personal pronouns								
		Sg.	Dual	Pl.	Third person			
						Mascu- line	Neuter	Femi- nine
N.	1 st person	īc 'I'	wit	wē 'we'	Sg.	hē 'he, it'	hit 'it'	hēo 'she, it'
A.		mē, mec 'me'	uncit	ūs 'us'		hine	hit 'it'	hīe
G.		mīn 'my'	uncer	ūre 'our'		his		hire

D.		mē ‘me’	unc	ūs ‘us’		him	hire
N.	2 nd person	‘you’	ġit	ġē ‘you’	Pl.	hīe ‘they’	
A.		þē, þec ‘you’	incit, inc	ēow you’		hīe ‘they’	
G.		þīn ‘your’	incer	ēower ‘your’		hira	
D.		þē ‘you’	inc	ēow ‘you’		him	

OE demonstrative pronouns

There are two demonstrative pronouns, *se/þæt/sēo* and *þes/þis/þēos*. The first does the job of Modern English **the,that/those** and also that of the definite article *the*. The second does the same job as Modern English *this/these*. As with the third-person pronouns, gender is distinguished only in the singular.

Table 18. **Demonstrative pronouns**

Demonstrative pronouns						
	‘the’, ‘that’, ‘those’			‘this’, ‘these’		
	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N. sg.	se	þæt	sēo	þes	þis	þēos
A.	þone		þā	þisne		þās
G.	þæs		þæere	þisses		þisse, þisre
D.	þām		þæere	þisses		
I.	þȳ, þon			þȳs		
N./A. pl.	þā			þās		
G.	þāra, þæera			þissa		
D.	þām			þissum		

Interrogative pronouns

The forms of these pronouns are such:

N hwá hwæt

G hwæs hwæs

D hwæ'm hwæ'm

A hwone hwæt

I - hwý, hwi

Translation is simple. hwá means 'who?', hwæt is 'what?'

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

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

hwilc 'which?' - is declined as the strong adjective

hwonne 'when?' - this and following are not declined, naturally

hwær 'where?'

hwider 'whither?'

hwonan 'whence?'

Other kinds of pronouns

They include definite, indefinite, negative and relative. All of them still exist in Modern English, and all of them are given here:

a) definite

gehwá (every) - declined the same way as *hwō*

gehwilc (each),

ægþer (either),

æ'lc (each),

swilc (such) - all declined like strong adjectives

sñ ylca (the same) - declined like a weak adjective

b) indefinite

sum (some),

æ'nig (any) - both behave the same way as strong adjectives

c) negative

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

d) relative

þe (which, that)

séþe (which, that) - they are not declined

e) reciprocal pronouns

There are several ways to express in OE what Modern English usually expresses with the phrase each other. One may simply use a plural personal pronoun where we say each other, optionally adding self to the pronoun for emphasis. Or one can use a construction such as **ǣgper . . . oþer** or **ǣghwylc . . . oþer** ‘each . . . other’. An example of each style:

þæt pā āglǣcan h̄y eft ġemētton

[that the contenders met each other again]

(Beowulf, l. 2592)

1.3.2. ME Pronouns

All pronouns in Middle English with the exception of the personal ones **lose** the categories of **gender and case**, some lose their number.

Table 19. **Personal pronouns in Middle English**

		Singular			Plural		
		Nominative	Oblique (Objective)	Genitive	Nominative	Oblique (Objective)	Genitive
first		ic/ ich / I	me	my(n)	we	us	oure
second		þou / thou	þee / thee	þy(n) / thy(n)	ȝe / ye	ēow / you	ēower / your
third	Impers.	hit	hit / him	his	he þei / they	hem þem / them	her þeir / their
	Masc.	he	him	his			
	Fem.	hēo / scho / sche	hire	hire			

Possessive pronouns in Middle English

A new class of pronouns appears – possessive pronouns. The former Genitive case of the personal pronouns retains only the possessive meaning.

1 st person singular min, myn/my Plural our

2 nd person thin, thyn/thy your

3 rd person hir/ her, his hire/their

Pronoun '**their**' has Scandinavian of origin.

Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns retain the category of number only (that-tho, thos; this-thes/thise), case and gender forms disappeared. The reduction in the number of forms is significant – from 17 to two.

Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns change phonetically, the aspiration is weakened and in spelling the letters h and w change place.

who what

whos whos

whom what

hwȳ –why

In Middle English we also find a new class of pronouns – the reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are formed from the possessive pronoun my/thy or the objective case of the third person personal pronoun him/hir/hem/them+ self – himself, hirsself, hemselven (later myself, ourselves, yourself, themselves).

Old English pronouns *ȝehwā*, *ȝehwilc* disappeared and *ǣȝper*, *ǣlc*, *swilc*, *sum*, *ǣniȝ*, *nān* changed their phonetic form and give the present-day *either*, *each*, *such*, *some*, *any*, *none*.

1.3.3. EModE Pronouns

Pronouns: most heavily inflected word class;

development of **separate possessive adjectives** and pronouns (**my/mine**, **thy/thine** etc, thy = your / thine = yours thine |pīn|);

possessive of it: **his** > **it** > **its** sometimes spelled **it's**;

2nd person singular forms **thou** and **thee** disappeared in 17th c, the plural forms (**ye/you**) prevailed for both singular and plural;

subject **ye** became **you**;

demonstrative form **tho** used instead of those

Relative pronouns: that, which, who, as ("all the goods as was brought to our view"), omission of relative sometimes acceptable ("I have a brother is condemn'd to die")

Reflexive pronouns: simple object form or self + personal pronoun; decline in use of reflexives (myself, ourselves, yourself, themselves)

Indefinite pronouns: every, other, some, somewhat, something.

Table 20. **Comparative table of personal pronouns**

Old English	Early Middle English	Late Middle English	Early Modern English
ic	ich	I	I
þu	þou	thou	thou
he	he	he	he
heo	he, heo, ha	she	she
hit	hit	hit	it
we	we	we	we
ge	ye, you	ye, you	you, ye
hi	hi, heo, ha	they	they

It can be very difficult to distinguish the words for 'he', 'she', and 'they' in early Middle English, since they all look pretty much the same. You need to judge by context. The forms for 'she' and 'they' given above are not a complete list of all the possible variant spellings.

Table 21. Comparative objective pronouns

Old English	Early Middle English	Late Middle English	Early Modern English
me	me	me	me
þe	þe	thee	thee
hine,him	him	him	him
hire	hir(e)	hir(e)	her
hit, him	hit	hit	it
us	us	us	us
eow	you	you	you
hi, him	hem	them	them

In early texts ‘thee’ pronoun is spelt þe , which can look like the definite article ‘the’ or the relative pronoun meaning ‘that’, ‘which’, or ‘who’. Make sure that you judge from context which word you have. The word for ‘her’ can look like the word for ‘their’.

Table 22. Comparative possessive pronouns

Old English	Early Middle English	Late Middle English	Early Modern English
min	min(e)	my, mine	my, mine
þin	þin(e)	thy, thine	thy, thine
his	his	his	his
hire	hir(e)	hir(e)	her
his	his	his	his, its
ure	ure, oure	oure	our
eower	your(e)	your(e)	your
hira	hire	hire	their

1.4. Adverbs

1.4.1. The Old English Adverb

The OE adverbs can be either **primary** (original adverbs or simple) or **derived** from the adjectives. In fact, adverbs appeared in the language rather late, and early Proto-Indo-European did not use them, but later some auxiliary nouns and pronouns losing their declension started to play the role of adverbial modifiers. That's how the primary adverbs emerged.

In Old English the basic primary adverbs were the following ones:

þa (then)

þonne (then)

þær (there)

þider (thither)

nú (now)

hér (here)

hider (hither)

heonan (hence)

syna (soon)

oft (often)

eft (again)

swá (so)

hwilum (sometimes).

Secondary adverbs originated from the instrumental singular of the neuter adjectives of strong declension. They all add the suffix **-e**: wide (widely), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), hearde (hard).

Another major subgroup of them used the suffixes **-lic**, **-lice** from more complexed adjectives: bealdlice (boldly), freondlice (in a friendly way).

Adverbs, as well as adjectives, had their degrees of comparison by adding the suffix **-or/ra** and **-ost/est**:

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

long - leng (long - longer)

feorr (far) - fierr

syfte (softly) - séft

éape (easily) - íeþ

wel (well) - betre - best

yfele (badly) - wiers, wurs - wierst

mícele (much) - máre - mæ'st

1.4.2. ME Adverb

Adverbs in Middle English are changed phonetically, like all other parts of speech.

All primary adverbs existed in the slightly modified form – theer (there), then, wher, eft (again), ofte (often), hider (here to), hider-to (before now), anon (at once). Compound adverbs of the type ‘theroute’, ‘therwith’, ‘theof’, ‘therby’ are very common.

Secondary adverbs with the suffixe – e were in use. But the process of leveling of the final vowel started.

The word **ful** functions as an adverb.

A new and a very productive way of forming adverbs –adding the suffix –ly appears. But there are still tendencies when **adverbs in Middle English tend to end in -e or -ly/-liche.** For example, Chaucer uses brighte brightly and seurely surely.

Adverbs with suffixes –e are gradually substituting by ‘flat’ adverbs (hard).

Like adjectives, adverbs, took the suffix –er for the comparative and est for the superlative degree.

1.4.3. EModE adverbs

In EModE there were a few adverbs which have fallen out of every day use. They include.

afore ‘before’

anon ‘immediately’, ‘soon’

anything ‘in any way’

belike ‘perhaps’

haply ‘by chance, perhaps’

inly ‘inwardly’

nothing ‘not at all’

passing ‘exceedingly’

something ‘rather, somewhat’

thrice ‘three times’

whilom ‘at times, formerly’

withal ‘moreover’, ‘in addition’

1.5. Numerals

1.5.1. Old English Numeral

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

1 *án* is declined just like a strong adjective, can be only singular, but has *masculine, neuter and feminine genders*. It is the source of the future indefinite article 'a, an' in Modern English. So 'a house' in fact means "one house", here -n disappeared before a consonant. 'A' derived from 'an' and not vice versa. The numerals 2 *twō* and 3 *þrē* had 3 genders and 4 cases.

Table 23. OE Numeral: 2 *twá*

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	twegen	tú, twá	twá
G		<i>twégea, twégra</i>	
D		<i>twæ'm, twám</i>	
A	twegen	tú, twá	twá

So the genders have differences only in nominative and accusative cases, and indirect cases (genitive and dative) have common forms for all three genders. No number can be changed for it, and originally this numeral was dual, which seems natural.

Table 25. OE Numeral: 3 *þríe*

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N	þríe, þrí, þrý	þríó, þríó	þríó, þréo
G		<i>þríora, þréora</i>	
D		<i>þrím</i>	
A	þríe, þrí, þrý	þríó, þréo	þríó, þréo

A typical i-stem noun. Strange is the following: while in the case of "two" the Modern English lost masculine and neuter forms and picked up the **feminine** one for use ('two' < *twá*), here we have another case, when the feminine and neuter were forgotten, and **today's three** comes directly from the **masculine þríe**. And the last is the numeral *begen*, *bú, bá* (both) which is declined the same way as *twá* and is also dual.

Cardinals from 1 to 4 might be declined and numerals from 20 to 100 were formed by **placing units first, and then tens.**

Here is the list of the cardinal numerals:

Table 26. **OE Numerals**

1 án	20 twentig
2 twá	21 án ond twentig
3 þrie	30 þrítig
4 féower	40 féowertig
5 fif	50 fiftig
6 six, syx, siex	60 siextig
7 seofon, syofn	70 siofontig
8 eahta	80 eahtatig
9 nigon	90 nigontig
10 tien, tyn	100 hundtéontig, hund, hundred
11 endlefan	110 hundælleftig
12 twelf	120 hundtwelftig
13 þriotiene	200 té hund
14 féowertiene	1000 þúsend
15 fiftiene	2000 tú þúsendu

Ordinal numerals use the suffix **-ta** or **-oþa**, etymologically a common Indo-European one (*-to-)

Table 27. **OE Numerals**

1 forma, fyresta	15 fiftéoþa
2 óþer, æfterra	16 sixtéoþa
3 þridda, þirda	17 siofontéoþa
4 féorþa	18 eahtatéoþa
5 fifta	19 nigontéoþa
6 siexta, syxta	20 twentigoþa
7 siofoþa	30 þrittigoþa
8 eahtoþa	40 féowertigoþa
9 nigþa	50 fiftigoþa

10 téoþa	100 hundtéontiogoþa
11 endlefta	
12 twelfta	
13 þreotéoþa	
14 féowertéoþa	

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

Mainly according to Old English texts ordinal numerals were used with the demonstrative pronoun þá before them. This is where the definite article in 'the first', 'the third' comes from. To say "the 22nd", for example, you should combine the following: either twá and twenigoþa (two and twentieth), or yþer ñac twentigum (second with twenty). So the order is different from the modern English, but instead closer to Modern German where "the 22nd" sounds like zwei und zwanzig (two and twenty).

At all, it is easy to notice that the words in English became much shorter, and therefore simpler in pronunciation and learning. It is much easier to pronounce "hundredth" than hundtñontiogoþa, "fourth" than fñowertñoþa. Modern English acquired words mainly having one or two syllables, but this was not the rule in the Old English period.

1.5.3. ME Numerals

They are no longer declined. They lose the category of gender.

Cardinal numerals are

On, two/tweye, thre, fower, four, fif, six, seven, nyne, ten, enleven, ywelve, thirteen (all those up to twenty had the suffix-tene from Old English); then twenty, thirty(suffix- ty from Old English- ty from Old English –tig.

Addition of the French borrowing ‘**millioun**’ to Old English numerals was innovation.

Ordinal numerals have developed the suffix – **th** from Old English –**oþa**

French borrowing ‘second’ replaced the former Old English ‘óþer, æfterra’

Due to metathesis ‘**þrida**’ changed its form to ‘**third**’.

1.6. Prepositions

1.6.1. OE Prepositions

Prepositions? Postpositions?

The funny thing about Old English prepositions is that they often come after their "object"; that is, an Old English prepositional phrase can consist of a noun or noun phrase followed by a preposition.

God cwæp him þus to

God said thus to him

þæs cyninges þegnas þe him beæftan wærun

The king's thegns who were behind him.

þa gatu him to belocen hæfdon

had locked the gates against them

hiera mægas him mid wæron

their relatives were with them

Old English has many prepositions, and like German, they require certain cases of noun to come after them to complete their meaning.

Prepositions taking the dative case

æfter - after, according too [can take the accusative]

ǣr - (of time) before, ere [can take the accusative]

æt - at, from, (of a way) by (as in, "I went by the path")

be - by, beside, surrounding, about, around, concerning [can take accusative]

beæftan - behind, after

beforan - before, in front of [can take accusative]

betweox - between, among [can take accusative]

būtan - excluding, outside (of) [can take accusative]

ēac - besides, including, in addition to

for - for, because of [can take accusative]

for(e) - in front of, before [can take accusative]

fram - from, away from, by (instrumental usage)

mid - with

of - of, off, from [can take genitive, too]

ongean - against, towards

tō - towards, to, at, (idiomatic usage) as; (with genitive) until, to such an extent, so

wiþ - against, opposite, in exchange for [can take the accusative]

Prepositions taking the accusative

geond - through, throughout

op - until

þurh - through, (instrumental usage) with [can take dative or genitive]

ymb(e) - surrounding, about, around, concerning, after

Prepositions which change meaning depending on accusative or dative

binnan - (dative) in, within; (accusative) into

bufan - (dative) above, over, upon; (accusative) (with the sense of moving from one place to another) over, upon, overhead

in - (dative) in; (accusative) into

innan - (dative) in, within; (accusative) into

ofer - (dative) above, over; (accusative) (with the sense of moving from one place to another) over, overhead

on - (dative) on, in; (with accusative) into, onto

under - (dative) under, beneath; (accusative) (with the sense of moving from one place to another) under, underneath.

1.6.2. ME prepositions

increased use of prepositions, adoption of new prepositions; OE mid>with; new ones formed by compounding two or more existing ones (above, out of, unto), converting other parts of speech (along, among, behind, beneath), borrowing from French (according to, around, during), Latin (except), Norse (till).

1.6.3. EModE prepositions

Uninflected word classes: **loss of some prepositions** (maugre, sans, betwixt, fro), **development of new phrasal prepositions** (by means of, in spite of, because of); ac > but.

1.7. Conjunctions

1.7.1 .OE Conjunctions

Modern English - Old English

Although - þēah

Also - ēac

And - and, ge, ēac

As... as... - swā... swā...

Because - for þāem

Both... and... (and...) - æghwæper (ge)... ge... ge..., ægþer/æghwæper...and... (and...), ge...ge... (ge...)

But - ac

Either... or... (or...) - (ǣgþer) oþþe... oþþe... (oþþe...)

For (see "because")

However - hwæþere, swāþēah, þēah, þēahhwæþere, hūru

Neither... nor... (nor...) - (nāþor/nāhwæþer) (ne)... ne... (ne...)

Never - nǣfre

Not - næs/nealles/nalles, ne, nā, nō

Not at all - nealles/nalles

Or - oþþe

So... as... (see "As... as...")

Though - þēah

Yet - hwæþere/þēah

1.7.2. ME Conjunctions

Conjunctions: most coordinating conjunctions survived in ME (and, ac, or); most common subordinating conjunction pat, others: gif, peah, ere; new subordinators developed supported by pat: how pat, which pat, when pat, after pat, because pat, also soone as pat, pe while pat, til pat, per as, for why, right as; correlative conjunctions used less (ge ge, oppe oppe), only survival in PDE is the. .

1.7.3. EModE Conjunctions

Compound subordinating conjunctions with **that** as their second element were common in this period.

Examples include:

‘The propertie thereof is to mount alwaies vpwards, **untill that** it hath attained to the place destinated vnto it’ (R. Dolman, 1601).

‘**Though that** the Queene on speciall cause is here, Hir army is moued on’ (William Shakespeare, King Lear)

new compound subordinating conjunctions (**provided that, insofar as**).

1.8. Interjections

1.8.1. OE Interjections

OE Interjections are little, quick words which one says to show sudden or strong emotion (usually) (such as "Oh!" or "Haha!").

Here are a few.

Table 28. **OE Interjections:**

Afæstla - certainly!	Hpelc - what, such ("Hpelc Zold!" -
Ēa - oh/ah	

Ēalā - oh	"What gold!")
Efne - behold, lo, truly	Hī lā - hey
Efnenū - behold now	Hī lā hī - oh, hey
Ēop - woe! alas!	Hpæt - what/oh
Ha ha - haha	Lā - lo (emphasis of surprise or question)
Hāl - hello, be well	pēa - woe/misery, alas!
He he - hehe	peZ lā - oh
Heonu - lo, behold	pel - well, ah
Hū - what then? how?	pel pel - well well
	pilcume - welcome

1.8.2.ME Interjections:

a, surprise; ho, triumph; ha-ha, laughter; fie, disgust; hay, excitement; lo, now, what: attention getters; alas, wo, wei-la-wei, grief; hail, welcome, salutations; others: good morrow, good night, farewell, gramercy (FR grant merci), thank you, benedicite, goddamn, bigot (by God).

1.8.3.EModE interjections:

excuse me, please (if it please you), hollo, hay, what, God's name in euphemistic distortions (sblood, zounds, egad)

Lecture 6

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Plan

1. HISTORICAL MORPHOLOGY

1.1 OE Verbs;

1.2. ME Verbs;

1.3.EModE Verbs;

2. HISTORICAL SYNTAX

2.1. OE syntax;

2.2. ME syntax;

2.3. EModE syntax.

References:

Obligatory:

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1. Бабенко О.В. Курс лекцій з історії англійської мови. Навчальний посібник для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія (Переклад)", Частина 1/ О.В. Бабенко. – Вид-но НУБіП, 2011.– на англ. мові, С. 58-60,106-108.

Internet resources

<http://acunix.wheatonma.edu/mdrout/grammarbook2007/ch9.html>

http://oldenglish.wikia.com/wiki/Lesson_10:_Syntax

<http://www.etymonline.com/index.php?search=hemp>

Outline

1. HISTORICAL MORPHOLOGY

The grammar of Old English is quite different from that of Modern English, predominantly by being much more inflected, similar to Latin. **Grammar** is divided into morphology and syntax. Among living languages, Old English morphology most closely resembles that of modern Icelandic.

Morphology is a branch of linguistics that studies the structure of morphemes and other linguistic units, such as words, affixes, parts of speech.

Syntax is a branch of linguistics that studies the **principles** and **rules** for constructing phrases and sentences in natural languages.

OE was a **synthetic, or inflected** type of language; it showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple (synthetic) grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms OE employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root grammatical prefixes, and suppletive formation.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection.

1.1. OE Verbs

Verbs came in **nine** main conjugations (**seven strong** and **two weak**) and were divided into **strong or weak verbs**. **Strong verbs** indicate tense by a **change in the quality of a vowel**, while **weak verbs** indicate tense by **the addition of an ending**.

The OE verb paradigm was in some respects simpler: although the verb had numerous person and number endings **it had fewer grammatical categories** than in Modern English.

Strong verbs form their **preterite** (grammatical tense expressing actions that took place or were completed in the past) and **participle II** by change of the root-vowel. They use the Germanic form of conjugation known as *ablaut* (e. g. *sing, sang, sung* *swim, swam, swum* and *choose, chose, chosen*). **Weak verbs** form their preterite and participle II by addition of a dental suffix.

The OE system of finite verb-forms (verbs which have the past or the present form) includes **two tenses** –Present and Preterite; **three moods**–Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative. The category of person is represented only in the **Indicative singular and the Imperative**; there is no indication of person in the Indicative plural or any of the Subjunctive forms.

Major verb categories

Tense: Present and Past (Preterite), no Future – future action expressed by Present Tense forms.

Mood: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive.

Person: 1st, 2nd, 3rd,

Number: Sg. (Singular) and Pl. (Plural)

Conjugation: strong (the Ablaut) and weak (suffixes -d/-t).

Rudiments of aspects and voice.

Strong verbs

The strong verbs are subdivided in 7 classes, each with its own type of vowel-change. The 7-th class is the least regular one; it forms a number of small groups, and many verbs belonging to this class have weak forms besides the strong ones.

The stems given below are distributed in the following manner:

grade I : Present Indicative and Subjunctive, Infinitive, Participle I.

grade II: 1st and 3rd persons sg. Preterite Indicative.

Grade III: (or zero) comprises two stems:

- a) the stem of the Indicative Preterite-2nd person sg. and pl.; Subjunctive Preterite;
- b) the stem of Participle II.

In this way, the OE strong verb have four stems, although there are only three grades.

The classes had the following distinguishing features to their infinitive stems:

1. \bar{i} + one consonant.
2. $\bar{e}o$ or \bar{u} + one consonant.
3. Originally e + two consonants. By the time of written Old English, many had changed. If C is used to represent any consonant, verbs in this class usually had short e + lC; short eo + rC; short i + nC/mC; or (g +) short ie + lC.
4. e + 1 consonant (usually l or r, plus the verb breccan 'to break').
5. e + 1 consonant (usually a stop or a fricative).
6. a + 1 consonant.
7. Other than the above. Always a heavy root syllable (either a long vowel or short + two consonants), almost always a non-umlauted vowel – e.g. \bar{o} , \bar{a} , $\bar{e}a$, a (+ nC), ea (+ lC/rC), occ. $\bar{æ}$ (the latter with past in \bar{e} instead of normal $\bar{e}o$). Infinitive is distinguishable from class 1 weak verbs by non-umlauted root vowel;

from class 2 weak verbs by lack of suffix *-ian*. First and second preterite have identical stems, usually in *ēo* (occ. *ē*), and the infinitive and the past participle also have the same stem.

Table 29. **Personal endings**

present indicative	singular		plural
first person	-e		ap
second person	-st		
third person	þ		
past indicative	weak	strong	on
first person	-e / --	--	
second person	-st /	-e	
third person	e / --	--	
all subjunctives			
all persons	e / --		-en

Table 30. **Conjugation of strong verbs**

	infinitive	3rd pers. sg.	first past	second past	past participle
1.	wrītan	wrītt	wrāt	writon	written
2a	ċēosan	ċīesp	ċēas	curon	coren
2b	lūcan	lȳcp	lēac	lucon	locen
3a	singan	singp	sang	sungon	sungen
3b	helpan	hilpp	healp	hulpon	holpen
3c	hweorfan	hwierfp	hwearf	hwurfon	hworfen
4	stelan	stilp	stael	stælon	stolen
4b	niman	nimp	nam	nōmon	numen
5	sprecan	spricp	spræc	spræcon	sprecen
6	bacan	bæcp	bōc	bōcon	bacen
7a	hātan	hætt	hēt	hēton	hāten
7b	flōwan	flēwp	flēow	flēowon	flōwen

Weak verbs

Weak verbs in Old English (today's English regular verbs) were conjugated in a simpler way than the strong ones, and did not use the ablaut interchanges

of the vowel stems. **Weak verbs** are divided into **three classes (groups)** which had only slight differences though. They are subdivided according to the stem-vowel joining the endings to the root. They did have the **three forms - the infinitive, the past tense, the participle II**. Here is the table.

- 1) The 1st class, formerly with-ja in the present and I in the past. Its root-vowel is mutated; the dental suffix was to the root by –I which had disappeared after long syllables (*dūman- dūmde*) and was weakened to e after short syllables (*fremman- fremede*).
- 2) The 2nd class has -ian in the infinitive and o in the preterite. The vowel is not mutated.
- 3) The 3rd class includes very few verbs: the dental suffix is joined immediately to the root; in the present there was j, but the 2nd and 3rd sg. show no trace of j.

Table 31. **Class I. Regular verbs**

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

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

cépan (to keep), cépte, cépt / céped

grétan (to greet), gréte, grét / gréted

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

sendan (to send), sende, send / sended

restan (to rest), reste, rest / rested

Irregular verbs

sellan (to give), *sealde*, *seald*

tellan (to tell), *tealde*, *teald*

cwellan (to kill), *cwealde*, *cweald*

tæ'can (to teach), *tá hte*, *tá ht*

ræ'can (to reach), *ráhte*, *ráht*

bycgan (to buy), *bohte*, *boht*

sécan (to seek), *sóhte*, *sóht*

*wyrca*n (to work), *worhte*, *worht*

bencan (to think), *þóhte*, *þóht*

bringan (to bring), *bróhte*, *bróht*

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

Class II

macian (to make), *macode*, *macod*

lufian (to love), *lufode*, *lufod*

hopian (to hope), *hopode*, *hopod*

Other samples: *lofian* (praise), *stician* (pierce), *eardian* (dwell), *scéawian* (look), *weorþian* (honour), *wundrian* (wonder), *fæstnian* (fasten), *mærsian* (glorify).

Class III

habban (to have), *hæfde*, *hæfd*

libban (to live), *lifde*, *lifd*

secgan (to say), *sægde*, *sægd*

hycgan (to think), *hogde*, *hogod*

þréagan (to threaten), *þréade*, *þréad*

sméagan (to think), *sméade*, *sméad*

fréogan (to free), *fréode*, *fréod*

féogan (to hate), *féode*, *féod*

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

Table 32. Basic verb paradigms

			weak	strong
infinitives			fremman 'do'	helpan 'help'
			tō fremmanne	tō helpanne
present indicative	1	sg.	fremme	helpe
	2		fremest	hilpst
	3		fremeþ	hilpþ
		pl.	fremmaþ	helpaþ
past indicative	1	sg.	fremede	healp

	2		fremedest	hulpe
	3		fremede	healp
		pl.	fremedon	hulpon
present subjunctive		sg.	fremme	helpe
		pl.	fremmen	helpen
past subjunctive		sg.	fremede	hulpe
		pl.	fremeden	hulpen
imperative		sg.	freme	help
		pl.	fremmaþ	helpaþ
participles			fremmende	helpende
			fremed	holpen

Present-Preterite verbs

A special group is made by the so-called Present-Preterite verbs, which are conjugated **combining** two varieties of the usual verb conjugation: **strong and weak**. These **verbs**, about 12, are nowadays called **modal verbs** in English. Present-Preterite verbs have their Present tense forms generated from the Strong Past, and the Past tense, instead, looks like the Present Tense of the Weak verbs. The verbs we present here are the following: *witan* (to know), *cunnan* (can), *þurfan* (to need), *dearan* (to dare), *munan* (to remember), *sculan* (shall), *magan* (may).

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

Ind. Subj. Imp.
Sg. 1 wát -
2 wast } wite wite
3 wát -
Pl. witon 2 witen witap
Past (= Weak)
Ind. Subj.
Sg.1 wisse, wiste
2 wissest, wistest } wisse, wiste
3 wisse, wiste
Pl. wisson, wiston wissen, wisten
Participles: I witende, II witen, gewiten

cunnan (can)

Pres. Past
Ind. Subj. Ind. Subj.

Sg. 1 *cann* *cúþe*
2 *canst* } *cunne* *cúþest* } *cúþe*
3 *cann* *cúþe*
Pl. *cunnon* *cunnen* *cúþon* *cúþen*

***þurfan* (need)**

Sg. 1 *þearf* *þorfte*
2 *þearft* } *þurfe* *þorfteft* } *þorfte*
3 *þearf* *þorfte*
Pl. *þurfon* *þurfen* *þorfton* *þorfteft*

***dearan* (dare)**

Sg. 1 *dear* *dorste*
2 *dearst* } *durre* *dorstest* } *dorste*
3 *dear* *dorste*
Pl. *durron* *durren* *dorston* *dorsten*

***sculan* (shall)**

Sg. 1 *sceal* *sceolde*
2 *scealt* } *scule* *sceoldost* } *sceolde*
3 *sceall* *sceolde*
Pl. *sculon* *sceoldon* *sceolden*

***munan* (remember)**

Sg. 1 *man* *munde*
2 *manst* } *mune* *mundest* } *munde*
3 *man* *munde*
Pl. *munon* *munen* *mundon*

***magan* (may)**

Sg. 1 *mæg* *meahte* *mihte*, *mihten*
2 *meaht* } *mæge* *meahtest*
3 *mæg* *meahte*
Pl. *magon* *mægen* *meahton*

Anomalous verbs (irregular verbs)

And now finally a few irregular verbs (anomalous), which used several different stems for their tenses. These verbs are very important in Old English and are met very often in the texts: ***wesan* (to be)**, ***béon* (to be)**, ***gán* (to go)**, ***dyn* (to do)**, ***willan* (will)**. Mind that there was no Future tense in the Old English language, and the future action was expressed by the Present forms, just some-

times using verbs of modality, *willan* (lit. "to wish to do") or *sculan* (lit. "to have to do").

wesan (to be) - has got only the Present tense forms, uses the verb *béon* in the Past

Present

Ind. Subj. Imp.

Sg.1 eom -

2 eart } síe, sý wes

3 is -

Pl. sind síen, sýn 2 wesap

béon (to be)

Present

Ind. Subj. Imp.

Sg. 1 béo -

2 bist }béo béo

3 biþ -

Pl. béoþ béon 2 béoþ

Past

Ind. Subj.

Sg. 1 wæs

2 wære } wære

3 wæs

Pl. wæron wæren

Participle I is *béonde* (being).

gán (to go)

Pres. Past

Ind. Subj. Imp. Ind. Subj.

Sg.1 gá - éode

2 gæ'st } gá gá éodest } éode

3 gæ'þ - éode

Pl. gáþ 2 gán gáþ éodon éoden

Participles:

I gánde, gangende II gegán

dyn (to do)

Pres. Past

Ind. Subj. Imp. Ind. Subj.

Sg. 1 dy - dyde

2 dést } dy dy dydest } dyde
 3 déþ - dyde
 Pl. dyþ dyn 2 dyþ dydon dyden

Participles:

I dynde II gedyn

willan (will)

Pres. Past

Ind. Subj. Ind. Subj.

Sg.1 wille wolde

2 wilt } wille woldest } wolde

3 wile wolde

Pl. willað willen woldon wolden

Participle I willende

Verbals

The non-finite forms shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

In OE there were two non-finite forms: **The Infinitive and the Participle.**

The Infinitive resembled **the noun** and had the category of:

Case (Nominative and Dative);

Participles I and II resembled **the verb, the noun and the adjective** and had the following categories:

Tense: Present (Participle I) and Past (Participle II)

Number: Singular and Plural;

Gender: Masculine, Feminine, Neutral.

Case: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative,

Voice: Active (P. I, II) and Passive (P II)

1.2. ME Verbs

Unlike the morphology of the noun and adjective, which has become much simpler in the course of history, the morphology of the verb displayed two distinct tendencies of development: it underwent considerable simplifying changes, which affected the synthetic forms and became far more complicated owing to the growth of new, analytical forms and new grammatical categories. The evolution of the finite and non-finite forms of the verb is described below under these two trends.

Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation

Finite Forms: Number, Person, Mood and Tense

The intermixture of dialectal features in the speech of London and in the literary language of the Renaissance played an important role in the formation of the verb paradigm. Number distinctions were not only preserved in ME, but even became more consistent and regular. In the 13th and 14th c. turned into the main, almost universal, marker of the plural forms of the verb: it was used in most tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods. But in the late 14th c. the ending *-en* was frequently missed out and dropped in the 15th. All number distinctions were thus lost with the exception of the 2nd and 3d p., Present tense Indicative mood : the singular forms were marked by the ending *-est* and *-eth/-es* and were formally opposed to the forms of the plural.

Changes of Inflections of Verbs

The decay of OE inflections, which transformed the nominal system, is also apparent in the conjugation of the verb - though to a lesser extent. Many markers of the grammatical forms of the verb were reduced, levelled and lost in ME and Early NE; the resection, leveling and loss of endings resulted in the increased neutralization of formal oppositions and the growth of homonymy.

As a general rule (and all these rules are general), the first person singular of present tense verbs ends in *-e* (*ich here*), the second person in *-(e)st* (*þou spekest*), and the third person in *-eþ* (*he comeþ*). (*þ* is pronounced like the voiced *th* in "that"). In the past tense, weak verbs are formed by an *-ed(e)*, *-d(e)* or *-t(e)* ending. These, without their case endings, also form past participles, together with past-participle prefixes derived from the old English *ge-*: *i-*, *y-* and sometimes *bi-*. Strong verbs form their past tense by changing their stem vowel (e.g. *binden* -> *bound*), as in Modern English.

Changes in the verb paradigm

The number of verbal grammatical categories increased in Middle English, as did the number of forms within the categories. The verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time correlation (or phase) and aspect.

Within the category of Tense there developed a new form - the Future tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive.

The distinction of TENSES was preserved in the verb paradigm through all historical periods. As before, the Past tense was shown with the help of the dental suffix in the weak verbs, and with the help of the root-vowel interchange -in the strong verbs.

Development of the Gerund

The late ME period witnessed the growth of a new verbal known in modern grammars as the GERUND. The Gerund can be traced to three sources: the OE verbal noun in -un and -in, the Present Participle and the Infinitive. In OE the verbal noun derived from transitive verbs. The syntactic functions of the verbal noun, the infinitive and the participle partly overlapped. In ME the Present Participle and the verbal noun became identical: they both ended in -ing. This led to the confusion of some of their features: verbal nouns began to take direct objects, like participles and infinitives. The verbal feature - a direct object - as well as the frequent absence of article before the -ing-form functioning as a noun-transformed the verbal noun into a Gerund in the modern understanding of the term.

Summary

- As a general rule (and all these rules are general), **the first person singular of verbs in the present tense ends in -e** ("ich here" — "I hear"), **the second person in -(e)st** ("þou spekest" — "thou speakest"), and **the third person in -eþ** ("he comeþ" — "he cometh/he comes"). (þ is pronounced like the unvoiced th in "think").
- **Plural forms** vary strongly by dialect, with southern dialects preserving the Old English **-eþ**, midland dialects showing **-en** and northern forms using **-es** in the third person singular as well as the plural.
- In the past tense, weak verbs are formed by adding an **-ed(e), -d(e) or -t(e)** ending. These, without their personal endings, also form past participles, together with past-participle prefixes derived from Old English: i-, y- and sometimes bi-.
- Strong verbs, by contrast, form their past tense by changing their stem vowel (e.g. binden -> bound), as in Modern English.
- ME retained categories of tense, mood, number, person, strong, weak and other verbs.

1.3. EModE

- increased use of weak verbs, transformation of strong verbs into weak;
- **The second person singular** was marked in both **the present and past tenses** with **-st** or **-est** (for example, in the past tense, walkedst or gav'st).
- verb phrases: origin of compound verb phrases; **perfect tense** became common,
- use of auxiliaries (be & have);

- **progressive tense** came into being;
- **passive constructions** (with 'be' as auxiliary); **future tense** (with *shall* and *will* auxiliaries); modal auxiliaries instead of subjunctive (may, might, be going to, be about to);
- *do* in periphrastic constructions indicating tense (doth serve); impersonal verbs and dummy subjects (me thristed, hit me likede)
- The modal auxiliaries cemented their distinctive syntactical characteristics.
- The use of modals without an infinitive became rare (as in "I must to Coventry"; "I'll none of that").
- Some **verbs ceased** to function as modals during the Early Modern period. The present form of must, **mot**, became obsolete. Dare also lost the syntactical characteristics of a modal auxiliary, evolving a new past form (dared) distinct from the modal durst.
- **Perfect and progressive forms** had not yet been standardised to use the **auxiliary verb "to have"**. Some **took** as their auxiliary verb "**to be**", as in this example from the King James Bible, "But which of you ... will say unto him ... when he **is come** from the field, Go and sit down..." [Luke XVII:7].
- **The modern syntax** used for the progressive aspect ("**I am walking**") became **dominant by the end** of the Early Modern period, but other forms were also common. These included the prefix a- ("I am a-walking") and the infinitive paired with "do" ("I do walk").
- The to be + -ing verb form **could be used to express a passive meaning** without any additional markers: "The house is building" could mean "The house is being built."
- -ing became universal present participle ending;
- **The gerund** (which has the capability of governing an object or complement) came in this period to be used alongside the verbal noun, giving rise to various mixed uses which are difficult to classify: 'as in reciting of playes, reading of verses, &c, for the varying the tone of the voice' (John Evelyn, 1665).

2. HISTORICAL SYNTAX

2.1. Old English Syntax

Liberal word order. Old English usually has the word order SVO - subject, verb, object, as in Modern English: "I (subject) am baking (verb) a cake (object)"

However, since the object is also shown by case, this **word order is flexible** and can be changed to emphasise different parts of the sentence: "Ĉeacan (object) bacie (verb) ic (subject)" - "It's a cake that I'm baking". Also, it is common to change the word order to SOV (subject, object, verb) after many conjunctions, especially dependent ones: "Ic sæ□de him, þæt ic hine cpellan wolde" - "I told him I wanted to kill him" It's also not uncommon for an infinitive verb to go to the end of a sentence after a modal verb: "Ic wille þone sang singan" - "I want to sing the song"

Adjectives come before a noun - "se grēna mann" - "the green man" unless used after a verb - "hē is grēne" - "he is green". Adjectives always agree with the word they modify in gender, number, and case (after a connecting verb, though, the case is always nominative). Double expression of one and the same member of the sentence by different morphological means.

2.2. Middle English Syntax

1. The structure of the sentence retains the features of the Old English sentence.

Word order is still liberal:

SVO

He hæfde þa [i.e. Hamtunscire] oþ he ofslog þone aldorman. (OE)

He had it [i.e. Hampshire] until he killed the ealdorman.

VSO order:

þa geascode he þone cyning (OE)

Then he discovered the king.

OSV order:

hiene þa Cynewulf on Andred adræfde (OE)

Cynewulf then drove him into [the forest] Andred

2. Some cases of ME syntax are influenced by the French language. Post position of the adjective (after a noun) e. g. with eyen *narwe* (with narrow eyes) a mantel *roialliche* (a royally mantle)

3. The ties between the words in the sentence remain basically the same – agreement. Now the predicate agrees with the subject, repeating the person and the number of the noun or pronoun.

4. Adjectives and pronouns – partly agree in number with nouns they modify.
5. ME impersonal sentences are used without formal subject. e.g. as that me thynketh (as it seems to me).
6. Negation in ME was the same as it was in OE (double negation). e.g. he nolde no raunsoun (he didn't want any ransom).

2.3. EModE Syntax (New English)

The structure of the sentences in EModE is conditioned by the previous development of its morphology.

Possessive and demonstrative adjectives sometimes used together (that their opinion); adjectives sometimes allowed to follow noun (faith invincible, line royal); increased use of noun adjuncts (sugar almonds, merchant goods).

Adverbial Modifiers

tendency to place adverbial modifier before words modified (is again come); double negatives still acceptable.

Verb Phrases

full-fledged perfect tense, be as auxiliary for verbs of motion (he is happily arrived); have displacing be as auxiliary; reduction of have to schwa in speech (should a return'd); progressive tense use increased; periphrastic use of do (I do weep, doth heavier grow); do as auxiliary in questions and negatives (I doubt it not, why do you look on me?); phrasal quasi-modals: be going to, have to, be about to; some continued use of impersonal constructions (it likes me not, this fears me, methinks) but former impersonal verbs were more often used personally with a nominative subject

Syntax in clauses

more flexibility than today

SVO order regular in independent and dependent declarative clauses

SOV acceptable for pronoun objects and for emphasis (as the law should them direct, Richard that dead is)

VSO in questions and conditional statements (how hast thou offended?, Were he my kinsman ...); imperatives often had expressed subject (go, my servant, to the kitchen; do thou but call my resolution wise)

OSV or OVS used to emphasize object

Syntax of sentences

influence of Latin, "elegant English," long sentences featuring subordination, parallelism, balanced clauses; but also native tradition, parataxis, use of coordinators (but, and, for)

Lecture 7

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND WORD-BUILDING

Plan

1. OE Vocabulary:

1.1. Native words:

1.1.1. Common IE words;

1.1.2. Common Germanic words;

1.1.3. West Germanic words;

1.1.4. Specifically Old English words;

2. Lexical borrowings in Old English:

2. 1.Celtic element;

2.2. Latin words;

3. Word-building in Old English.

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<http://www.mun.ca/Ansaxdat/vocab/wordlist.html>

Outline

1. OE Vocabulary

The full extent of the Old English vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. Old English words were lost altogether with the texts that perished; some might not have been used in written texts as they belonged to spheres of human life which were not of great interest (some colloquial words, for instance).

Linguists estimate Old English vocabulary from 30 000 words to 100 000 words (Smirnitsky, Pei).

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

A **native word** is a word (or more precisely, lexeme) that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.

1.1. Native OE words

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

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

1.1.1. Common IE words

Words belonging to the common IE layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. Among these words we find names of

some natural phenomena – ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæg (day), nyht (night).

plants and animals – cū (cow) fīsc (fish), swīn (swine, pig), mūs – (mice), trēow (tree), gōs (goose) beorc (birch), corn (corn)

agricultural terms – ryze (rye) porn (thorn), meolc (milk)

names of parts of the human body – fōt (foot), heorte (heart), beard (beard), lippa (lip), earm (arm), nosu (nose), tōp (tooth)

terms of kinship – guma (man), fæder (father), modor (mother), brōpor (brother), sweostor (sister), sunu (son), dohter (daughter), swehur (father-in-law), monn (man), cwēnas (people).

personal and demonstrative pronouns – ic (I), pu (thou), mē (me), pæt (that), hwā (who), hwæt (what).

most numerals – ān, twā, prēo (three), fif (five), seofon, eahta (eight), tien (ten), hund.

verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of man; bēon (be), etan (to eat), sittan (to sit), slepan (to sleep), cnāwan (to know), wītan (to know), standan (stand), weorcan (work), willan (will), flēotan (float), hǣlan (to heal), liczan (lie)

adjectives indicate the most essential qualities – neowe (new), Ʒeong (young), rēād (red), mycel (great), nīwe (new, fresh), riht (right)

1.1.2. Common Germanic words

are the words that can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western, northern. These words have roots common to all or most Germanic languages (German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic)

Some of the main groups of Germanic words are the same as in the Indo-European element.

parts of the human body: hond (hand);

animals: hors (horse);

landscape features: eorpe(earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);

adjectives: Ʒrēne (green), smæl (small), lang (long),bleo (blue), ƷrǣƷ (grey), lytel (little), þicce (thick, dense), hēāh (high), eald (ald)(old);

verbs: hīēran (hear), sēōn (see), tellan (tell), andswarian (answer), Ʒifan (give), macian (make), drincan (drink), spreca (speak).

1.1.3. West Germanic words

These words have parallels only in the West Germanic 1-s, sometimes only in one of them. They are, evidently, of later origin, going back to the period of the differentiation of Common Germanic and the isolation of certain linguistic sub-groups within it. For example, *Ʒreat*, *sceap*, *macian*.

1.1.4. Specifically Old English words

Finally, hypothetically there are specifically Old English words, that is the words not found in any of the known old texts. They do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. Such words as **bridda (bird)**, **wōġian (to woo, to court)**, **scirrefa /sheriff,ōwef (woof)**, **terorian (to tire, to be tired)**, **clipian ‘call’** are treated as specifically English

Lord, Lady may be used in other meanings (metaphorically extended warlords, first lady) but everyone feels they belong to British culture.

However, they are far more numerous if we include in this layer OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England, e.g. OE **wīfman or wimman** (NE woman) consists of two roots which occurred as separate words in other OG languages, but formed a compound only in OE.

1. Lexical borrowings in Old English

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

2.1.Celtic element

Celtic element (5th- 6th. A. D.) is not very significant and is mainly reduced to the following:

Dūn (dum) (down) (hill); dun (brown); binn (bin); uisge (water) > Exe, Usk, Esk; (later whiskey); amhuin (river) > Avon, Evon; Llyn – dūn (fortress) > Londinium;

Loch (lake).

Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary,

Inbher (mountain) - Inverness, Inverurfe

Coil (forest) Killbrook, Killiemore

Some common names of people are of Celtic origin, too

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

2.2. Latin words

Latin words in OE 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.

To the first layer we refer the words for trade:

mynet (mint – Lat. moneta)

pund (pound – Lat. pondo)

ynce (ounce – Lat. uncial)

for kitchen:

cycene (kitchen – Lat. coquina)

cytel (kettle – Lat. catillus)

disc (dish – Lat. discus)

for architecture:

cealc (chalk – Lat. calcium)

castel (castle – Lat. castellum)

copor (copper – Lat. cuprum)

stræt (street – Lat. strata via)

for rulership: the Latin *Caesar*

Traditionally, to **the first layer** we also refer the places names containing Latin stems cester – Lat. Castra (camp)-Chester, Manchester, Winchester, Worcester, Leicester, Lancaster; coln – Lat. Colonia (from colere to cultivate) Lincoln, Lat. port (gate) – Portsmouth, Bridgeport, Devonport. There are lots of hybrid formations which are now familiar place-names in Britain: (with the elements vic-village, strat- road, Llan- church).

The second layer of the Latin borrowings (7 th c. A. D.) is connected with the introduction of Christianity and denotes religious, cultural, social phenomena. A significant portion of religious terms are not specifically Latin, for they were borrowed into it from Greek.

Other words:

abbod (abbot), abbudissa (abbess), ælmesse (alms), alter (altar), antecrīste (Antichrist), candel (candle), enzel (angel), cræda (creed), ymn (hymn), martyr (martyr), pāpa (pope), mæsse (mess), mynster (monastery), prēost (priest), psealm (psalm), scrīne (shrine), scōl (school), maȝister (teacher), dihtan (to compose), meter (meter).

2. Word-building in Old English

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

Morphological – creating new words by adding new morphemes;

Syntactic – building new words from syntactic groups;

Semantic – developing new meanings of the existing words.

Morphological word-building is the way of adding morphemes to make new words. (**Affixation**)

Noun-suffixes:

-ere

fiscere (fisherman), bōcere (bookman), wri^{re}tere (writer)

-estre

Bæcestre (woman baker), spinnestre (spinner), myltestre (prostitute)

-end was used to form masculine nouns from verb stems

frēond (friend), dēmend (judge), hǣlend (savior), waldend (ruler)

-ing

æpel^{ing} (son of nobleman), cyning (king)

-ling

dēorling (darling); hyrling (hireling)

Noun-suffixes:

nis, nes (formation of abstract nouns)

gōdnis (goodness), swētnes (sweetness)

-pu, -u

leng^{pu} (length), stren^{pu} (strength)

-dōm (doom)

wīsdōm (wisdom), frēodōm (freedom)

-hād (title, rank)

cildhād (childhood), weoruldhād (secular life)

-lāc (gift, game)

rēoflāc (robbery), scinlāc (fantasy)

-rāden (arrangement, agreement)

frēond^{rāden} (friendship), mann^{rāden} (faithfulness)

-scipe (to shape, to create)

frēond^{scipe} (friendship), folc^{scipe} (people), ȝebeor^{scipe} (festivity)

Adjective-forming suffixes

ig

bys^{ig} (busy), hāli^g (holy), mist^{ig} (misty), wēri^g

-lic

dēād^{lic} (deadly), frēōnd^{lic} (friendly), ȝēar^{lic} (yearly)

-full

car^{full} (careful), sinn^{full} (sinful)

-ēās

sláeplēās (sleepless), griplēās (defenceless)

-isc

Enȝlisc (English), Frensisc (French) **-en**

ȝylden (golden), wyllen (woolen)

adverb-forming suffix –e was usually added to adjective stems: wīd- wīde (wide-widely), lanȝ-lanȝe (long- for a long time), fæst- fæste (firm, fast-firmly), lustfullīc- lustfullīce (willing - willingly), fæstlīc- fæstlīce (steadfast - steadfastly), sōplīc- sōplīce (true- truly)

Verbs were formed by adding the suffix **–an/ian, -ettan** to noun, adjective and adverb stems.

E.g. hālȝa (saint)-hālȝian (consecrate), ȝehīersum (obedient)- ȝehīersumian (obey), clāene (clean) – clāensian (to cleanse), lāp (hate)- lāpettan (to hate), hāl (whole) hā lettan (to greet), wyrse (worse)- wyrnian (worsen), yfel (bad)-yfelian (worsen)

Prefixation

a-: OE a-faran 'depart'

be-: OE be-settan, NE beset

for- OE for-don 'destroy'

fore-: OE fore-sec an 'predict'

ȝe-: OE ȝe-rinnan 'run together'

mis-: OE mis-cwe an 'speak incorrectly'.

Composition

eorþcræft – geometry

hūsbonda

hāligdæg

– gōdspel – gospel (spel – tidings –news),

sunnandæg – sun's +day

Kennings– poetic metaphoric circumlocutions

sweord-freca (sword-hero)

here- rinc (army hero)

Lecture 8

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY WORD-BUILDING

Plan

1. Development of ME Vocabulary:

- 1.1. ME Vocabulary;
- 1.2. Word-building in ME.

2. Development of EModE Vocabulary:

- 2.1. EModE Vocabulary
- 2.2. Word- building in EModE.

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1. Бабенко О.В. Курс лекцій з історії англійської мови. Навчальний посібник для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія (Переклад)", Частина 1: Вид-но НУБіП, 2011.– на англ. мові, С. 64-72; 108-117

Internet resources:

- http://libra.englang.arts.gla.ac.uk/oeteach/Units/4_Vocabulary_OE.html
<http://www.mun.ca/Ansaxdat/vocab/wordlist.html>
<http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/journal/volumes/06/gardner/>

Outline

1. Development of ME Vocabulary

1.1. ME Vocabulary

The Nice Norse (Scandinavian element)

One element entering the language in the Anglo-Saxon period is so akin to Old English itself that there is often confusion as to whether the word is Anglo-Saxon or Scandinavian.¹

The most significant long-term impact on English during the Old English period was made by the invasions of Norsemen, starting in the 800s. After sporadic raids and invasions for half a century, Norsemen or Vikings made permanent settlements in England from the year 850, first in East Anglia and later in the northern counties. These Norsemen, variously also called Danes or Vikings, established long-lasting kingdoms in the northeast of England. In the next century and a half further settlements were made in parts of the West Midlands including Southern Lancashire. During the tenth century, considerable tracts in these areas were inhabited by speakers of Norse dialects: and these were in the next century or so gradually absorbed into the surrounding English types of speech, in which, naturally however, they left considerable masses of Norse words and phrases, and even grammatical forms. **It was in this way that the Scandinavian influence came to English.**² Thus, the population in the northeast continued to speak English, but it was an English heavily inflected by Norse vocabulary and pronunciation. **Words in Modern English that come from Old Norse** include *window* and *they, them, their* and also forms like *egg (ey)*, *kirk (church)*, *dike (ditch)*, *skirt (shirt)*, *sister* (OE *sweostor*, ME *suster*) and the words *leg, neck* (this explains some of the variance English shows against German *Hals* and *Bein*), *take (nim)*, *skin (hide)*, *anger (wrath)*, *die* (as verb; the OE is *steorfan, starve*), *law, loose, low, odd, wrong, dirt, and husband (man)*. Why these words entered standard English is anybody's guess.³ Unlike later imports from French (see below), they are very common words. Many of them have doublets in Middle or Modern English (or both) that are also common: the common Old English words for some of these same ideas are given above in bold after the Norse words.

¹ Pei, Mario. *The Story of English*. Fawcett Publications, 1965, p.28.

² Wrenn, C.L. *The English Language*. First published on September 22, 1949. Reprinted nine times. Cambridge University Press, 1978, p.64.

³ <http://historymedren.about.com/cs/middleenglish/> ©2006 About, Inc., A part of The New York Times Company

Most of the Norse component of the Modern English vocabulary comes with the adoption, sooner or later, into southern and western dialects of the northeastern dialect forms. A few of the words above, like *kirk*, have remained Northern (specifically Scots) forms, but most were adopted by various routes into Southern, and therefore Standard, English. More Norse words survive today in local speech in Scotland, Northumberland, and Yorkshire than have made it into Standard English.

The bulk of the Scandinavian words in English, though they must have come during the OE period, only appear in writing in ME. In very early ME besides the Scandinavian pronouns **they**, **them** and **their** we find the earliest spellings of such words as **skin**, **root**, **hit**, **crooked**. Other common Scandinavian borrowings that appear first in ME are **ill** (Old Scan. “*illa*” adv), **skill**, **wing**, **want** (in the meaning “be lacking”), **ugly** (Old Scan. *ugga* “ - to fear”), **cross**, **same**, **bathe**, **loan**, **both**, **scot** (in the phrase “scot free”=“tax free”), **sky**(*OE welkin*; Old Scandinavian “*sky*” - cloud), and **weak**.

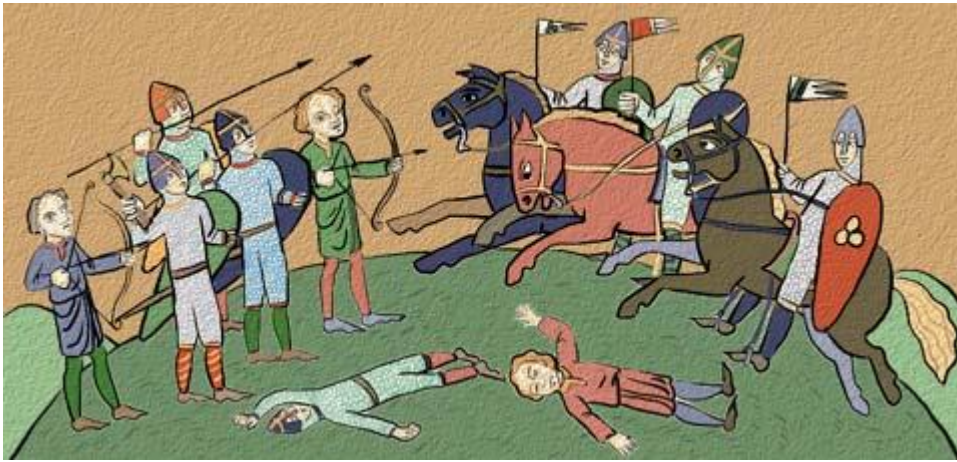
At least 1,400 localities in England have Scandinavian names. The place-name suffixes include such popular ones as *-beck*, *-by*, *-dale*, *-fell*, *-how*, *-thorpe*, *-thwaite*, and *-toft*. Anglo-Saxon *aew*. The *-son* in the family names is largely of Scandinavian origin (the Anglo-Saxon patronymic ending was *-ing*). “*Steak*”, “*knife*”, “*birth*”, “*dirt*”, “*fellow*”, “*guess*”, “*leg*”, “*seat*”, “*sister*”, “*slaughter*”, “*thrift*”, “*trust*”, “*window*”, “*flat*”, “*loose*”, “*low*”, “*odd*”, “*tight*”, “*weak*”, “*call*”, “*die*”, “*egg*”, “*get*”, “*lift*”, “*rid*”, “*scare*”, “*though*”, “*till*”, “*husband*”, “*skin*”, “*happy*”, “*rotten*”, “*wrong*” are illustrative of the words contributed by Scandinavian to English. There are said to be over nine hundred Scandinavian words in English, plus thousands in the English dialects.

... But the drive of Scandinavian is reflected in more than mere words. Grammatically significant forms such as “**are**”, “**they**”, “**them**” and “**their**” are included, along with phonetic processes like the retention of hard **g** in words like “give” and “gift”, which Anglo-Saxon normally turned into **y** (Chaucer, a southern Englishman, and therefore less subject to Scandinavian influence, used *yive* and *yift*).

Naturally enough, the Scandinavization of the language appears strongest in the North of England and the Lowlands of Scotland, where the numerical preponderance of the invaders, and the fact that the earlier inhabitants spoke Anglian, the closest of the Anglo-Saxon dialects to Scandinavian, favoured the process.⁴

⁴ Pei, Mario. *The Story of English* Fawcett Publications, 1965, p.p. 29-30.

French influences on the vocabulary



Even before the Norman Conquest social and political, as well as ecclesiastical intercourse had begun among the ruling classes between those of England and Normandy: for the Saxon king Ethelred the Unready (978 to 1016) had married a Norman princess, and eventually his son St. Edward the Confessor (1042-1066) came to the throne. The result of these reigns was to some small extent the placing in important positions in England of Norman nobles accompanied by their retainers and servants: and these caused the introduction of a few French words pertaining to the new culture and way of life. Moreover, these Normans were of Scandinavian race, having come to France more than a century earlier and rapidly adopted **Norman French** as their language. They were, that is, of Germanic stock like the English whom they were soon to conquer.⁵

As for vocabulary, the Norman Conquest acted like a bomb that smashes a dike and let's loose a flood. The stream of French words that began to enter English in 1066 is still unbroken today. Yet it is well to note that up to 1250 no more than about one thousand French words had entered the language, mostly of the kind that the lower classes would naturally acquire from the nobility, words like “**baron,**” “**noble,**” “**dame,**” “**servant,**” “**messenger,**” “**feast,**” “**story,**” “**rime**” and “**lay.**”⁶

French influence became increasingly evident in English manuscripts of the **13th century**. It has been estimated that some **10,000 French words came into English at that time** – many previously borrowed from more distant sources. These words were largely to do with the mechanisms of law and administration, but they also included words from such fields as medicine, art, and fashion. Many of the new words were quite ordinary, everyday terms. Over 70

⁵ Wrenn, C.L. *The English Language* First published on September 22, 1949. Reprinted nine times. Cambridge University Press, 1978, p.52.

⁶ Pei, Mario. *The Story of English* Fawcett Publications, 1965, p.41.

per cent were nouns. **A large number were abstract terms, constructed using such new French affixes as *con-*, *trans-*, *pre-*, *-ance*, *-tion*, and *-ment*.** About three-quarters of all these French loans are still in the language today.

As new words arrived, there were many cases where they duplicated words that had already existed in English from Anglo-Saxon times. In such cases, there were **two outcomes**. Either the word would supplant the other; or both would co-exist, but develop slightly different meanings. The first outcome was very common, in most cases the French word replacing an Old English equivalent; for example, *leod* gave way to *people*, *wlitig* to *beautiful*, and *stow* to *place*. Hundreds of OE words were lost in this way. But at the same time, OE and French words often both survived with different senses or connotations, such as *doom* (OE) and *judgment* (F), *heartly* (OE) and *cordial* (F), and *house* (OE) and *mansion* (F). Sometimes pairs of words were used, one glossing the other: *for routhe and for pitie* is a Chaucerian example and legal terminology often developed coordination of this kind. Bilingual lists were compiled as early as the mid-13th century to aid intelligibility between English and French.⁷

SOME FRENCH LOANS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

Administration

Authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council, court, crown, duke, empire, government, liberty, majesty, manor, mayor, messenger, minister, noble, palace

Law

Accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar, blame, convict, crime, decree, depose, estate, evidence, executor, felon, fine, fraud, heir, indictment, inquest

Religion

Abbey, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant, chaplain, charity, clergy, communion, confess, convent, creator, divine, faith, friar, heresy, homily, immorality, incense, mercy, miracle

Military

Ambush, archer, army, barbican, battle, captain, combat, defend, enemy, garrison, guard, hauberk, lance, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier, spy, vanquish

Food and drink

⁷ Crystal, David. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* Cambridge University Press, 1995. Reprinted in 1996, p.46

Appetite, bacon, beef, biscuit, clove, confection, cream, date, dinner, feast, fig, fruit, fry, grape, gravy, gruel, herb, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mince, mustard, mutton, olive, orange, oyster, pigeon, plate, pork, poultry, raisin, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, saucer, sausage, spice, stew, sugar

Fashion

Apparel, attire, boots, brooch, button, cape, chemise, cloak, collar, diamond, dress, embroidery, emerald, fashion, frock, fur, garment, gown, jewel, lace, ornament, pearl, mitten, petticoat, robe

Leisure and arts

Art, beauty, carol, chess, colour, conversation, courser, dance, fool, harness, image, jollity, lay, leisure, literature, melody, music, painting, paper, parchment, park, poet, pen, story, title, tragedy

Science and learning

Anatomy, calendar, clause, copy, gender, geometry, grammar, jaundice, logic, medicine, metal, noun, pain, physician, plague, poison, pulse, sphere, square, stomach, study, sulphur, surgeon

The home

Basin, blanket, bucket, ceiling, cellar, chair, chamber, chandelier, chimney, closet, couch, counterpane, curtain, cushion, lamp, lantern, pantry, parlour, pillar, porch, quilt, towel, tower

General nouns

Action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage, cruelty, debt, dozen, envy, error, face, fault, flower, forest, grief, honour, hour, joy, labour, manner, marriage, river, number, opinion, order, pair, people, person, piece, point, poverty, power, quality, rage, reason

General adjectives

Active, amorous, blue, brown, calm, certain, clear, common, cruel, curious, eager, easy, final, poor, foreign, honest, horrible, large, mean, natural, nice, original, perfect, probable, real, safe

General verbs

Advise, allow, arrange, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy, enter, form, grant, inform, join, marry, move, obey, pass, pay, please, prefer, prove, push, quit, receive, refuse, remember, reply, satisfy, save, serve, suppose, travel, trip, wait, waste

Turns of phrase

By heart, come to a head, do homage, do justice to, have mercy on, hold one's peace, make complaint, on the point of, take leave, take pity on⁸

Latin and Greek elements

OE is recognized as a lexically pure, homogeneous language, with the biggest foreign element borrowed from Latin. Such words as *street, mill, cheese, minister, monk, bishop, priest, church* are all borrowed from Latin.

In the ME period it is much harder to speak definitely of the Latin influence on the English vocabulary, since French became the dominating cultural and technical source for new words, and French is only one of the developments in mediaeval times of Latin. For one can scarcely distinguish between words taken into English from French from those adapted direct from Latin through mediaeval learning and science. Such words are *pauper, proviso, equivalent*, and *legitimate* (from the law), *index, scribe, simile*, and *memento* (from science and the Schools), and *requiem, collect* (noun), *diocese* and *mediator* (all from the church). The vogue of translations from Latin in the fifteenth century greatly added to the number of direct Latin borrowings; and the common word *tolerance* first appears direct from Latin at this time⁹.

It is scarcely possible or profitable to separate Greek from Latin influence, because almost always it was through Latin or Latinized forms that Greek words came to English, **Greek having been the culture from which so much of the content of Roman civilization was derived.** As might be expected, too, nearly all Greek terms have come through learned, technical or scientific usage. Moreover, certain Greek elements have become acclimatized in the English language for technical terms, such as *graph* (writing), *phone* (sound), etc. Thus such

⁸ Crystal, David. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language Cambridge University Press, 1995. Reprinted in 1996, p.47

⁹ Wrenn, C.L. The English Language First published on September 22, 1949. Reprinted nine times. Cambridge University Press, 1978, p.43

words for new inventions as *telephone* (*tele* ‘far’ and *phone* ‘sound’), *phonograph* (sound-writing), etc.: and as an example of words coined without actual knowledge of the Classical elements, we may take *Dictaphone* (in which the first part is Latin), or *appendicitis* (in which again the first portion is Latin and only the suffix Greek). Yet some of these Greek technical terms have become familiar to the multitude and come into common use (often with widened and loose meaning, such as *atom*, *character*, *chorus*, *cycle*, and *acrobat*).

1.2. Word-building in ME

French Derivational Affixes in English. Alongside words, English also adopted some French derivational affixes (both suffixes and prefixes). This was the way it happened. If English had adopted a certain number of words containing the same affix, the affix could now be used to derive new words from French (and occasionally Scandinavian) stems.

A few examples of French derivational affixes used in English to derive new words are already found in ME: *husbandry*, *goddess*. However, a wider spread of the procedure is a fact of the MnE period.

Suffixes. A number of French substantives were derived by means of the **suffix -ance, -ence**: *ignorance*, *arrogance*, *entrance*, *repentance*, *innocence*, *excellence*, *dependence*, etc. The meaning of the suffix became clear to English speakers, and this made possible derivation of new substantives from native English stems, such as *hindrance* from the stem of the native English verb *hinder*. In a similar way, the suffix **-ment**, which had penetrated into English as part of such substantives as *government*, *treatment*, *agreement*, was used to derive new substantives from native stems: *fulfilment*, *bereavement*, *amazement*, *bewilderment*. The suffix **-ess** (ultimately of Greek origin), used to derive names of female beings, penetrated into English as part of the substantives *princess*, *countess*, *baroness*. It was added to native stems to derive the new substantives *shepherdess*, *goddess*, *murderess*.

A number of French substantives contained the diminutive suffix **-et**, such as **coronet** ‘small crown’, *cabinet*. In some words the final consonant of the stem was **-l**, as in *islet* *circlet*. It is from words of this type that the suffix **-let** was formed, which was eventually joined on to native stems to derive the substantives **streamlet**, **ringle**, **leaflet**, **booklet**.

The suffix **age**, which became familiar from *courage*, *carriage*, *marriage*, was joined on to Scandinavian stems in English to derive the substantives *luggage* and *leakage*.

The French suffix *-n*, used to derive the past participle of French group I verbs (from Latin *-atum*), penetrated into English as a part of some substantives denoting a person taking a passive part in some action or agreement, such as lessee, employee. Eventually the suffix was joined on to a Scandinavian stem to derive the substantive trustee.

The suffix **-ard** (of German origin) penetrated into English as a part of the substantives coward, bastard. Joined on to native English stems it yielded the substantives wizard (from the stem of the adjective wis), drunkard, dullard; joined on to a Scandinavian stem, it yielded the substantive niggard. The suffix *-al* (from French *-aille*), used to derive abstract substantives from verb stems, penetrated into English as part of the substantives funeral, refusal, arrival, proposal. Eventually it was joined on to an English stem to derive the substantive burial. **The suffix -able, -ible, deriving adjectives which mean 'capable of** undergoing the action denoted by the verb stem', came into English as part of the adjectives admirable, tolerable, legible, flexible. Eventually it was joined on to native stems to derive the adjectives readable, unbearable, understandable, etc.

Prefixes. Some French prefixes also became productive in English. Thus, the prefix **dis-, des-**, with a negative meaning, came into English as part of the French verbs *disappoint, disdain, disagree* and was eventually used to derive verbs from native stems: *disown, disburden*, and from a Scandinavian stem: distrust.

The French prefix **en-** (from Latin *in-*), familiar from such words as *encage, encircle, ecompass*, was joined on to native stems to derive the verbs endear, embed (*enb-* > *emb-*).

Middle English writing

Obviously, the advent of Norman French did not determine the use of Old English dialects. Conservative forms of English were still in use until about 1150. For instance, the archbishopric of Canterbury was fairly resistant to linguistic changes. The move from Old to Middle English was not a drastic but a gradual development. Nevertheless, there is a recognizable gap in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus. This is the consequence of the political changes after the Norman Conquest. Written English was basically non-existent for about 100-150 years. Writing, being an upper-class and church issue, was dominated by the Norman French ruling class. As we have seen, this class used French or Latin and not English. As a consequence, **the**

West Saxon written standard was replaced by French and Latin texts. Literature in English only started to be written again from about 1150 onwards.

Due to the absence of a written standard for English, this literature is highly dialectal. Middle English writers used a dialectal pronunciation-based spelling. The development of the national language was greatly promoted by the work of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400), an outstanding poet, “father of English Poetry” as many historians style him. Chaucer's best-known work “The Canterbury Tales” is the variety of the written language which has been carefully crafted. It contains many variations in word order and frequent literary allusions. Chaucer has managed to capture so vividly the intriguing characters, and to reflect so naturally the colloquial features of their speech. And it is acknowledged by many scholars that no other author, except Chaucer, who would have better supported for the view that there is an underlying correspondence between the natural rhythm of English poetry and that of English everyday conversation

The famous opening 18-line sentence of the General Prologue to “The Canterbury Tales” shows us how Chaucer makes meaning out of the linguistic resources of his time and place.

Table 32. Comparative processes in the development of English Vocabulary

Middle English version	Modern English version
Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote	When it happens that April, with his sweet showers, has pierced the drought
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,	of March to the root, and bathed every vein in that fluid from whose power
And bathed every veyne in swich licour	the flower is given birth; when Zephyr al-
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;	so,
Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth	with his sweet breath, has inspired the tender crops in every wood and
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth	heather,
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne	and the young sun has run half of this course through the sign of the Ram,
Hath in the Ram his half cours yronne,	and
And smale foweles maken melodye,	little birds make melody who sleep all

<p>That slepen al the nyght with open ye (Spriketh hem nature in hir corages), Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages, And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes, To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes; And specially from every shires ende Of Engeland to Caunterbury they wende, The hooly blissful martir for to seke, That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.</p>	<p>night with their eyes open (so Nature stimulates them in their hearts), then people desire to go on pilgrimages, and professional pilgrims desire to seek strange shores; and they wend their way, especially, from the end of every country in England to Canterbury, in order to seek the holy, blissful martyr who had helped them when they were sick.</p>
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These lines juxtapose new words of French and Latin origin with roots and forms of Old English or Anglo-Saxon origin. We see French, for example, in *perced*, *veyne*, *licour*, and *flour*. The word *vertu* comes from Latin *vir*, meaning man; here, we interpret it as power. Combined with *engendred*, we get a sense of the power of regeneration in the spring. **Summing up we may conclude that French words mostly reflected culture**, whilst English ones mainly depicted **nature and landscape**. Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) the "Father of English Poetry" was the greatest narrative poet of Middle Ages. He made a distinct advance in literature, in most of his poems Chaucer used the **heroic couplet**, a verse having five accents with the lines rhyming in pairs Chaucer's greatest work is "The Canterbury Tales", becoming a herald of the Renaissance. Geoffrey Chaucer's realistic approach and humanitarian atmosphere, his wholehearted optimism and folk spirit make "The Canterbury Tales" immortal. It is a splendid picture of the 14 c. England. It is a marvelous trilingual picture of the history of the English language of his time, its trilingualism being presented **together in a profound synthesis of nature (English), culture (French), and religion (Latin)**. Middle English literature includes a variety of genres constituting an impressive corpus of Middle English literature, the most celebrated text being Geoffrey Chaucer's masterpiece, the Canterbury Tales (1387, East Midland dialect).

Middle English dialects

During the Middle English period (roughly 1066–1500) the English language is characterized by a complete lack of a standard variety. By contrast, during much of the Old English period, **the West Saxon dialect** had enjoyed a position **as a written standard**, and the **transition to Early Modern English is marked by the emergence of the middle class dialect of London as the new standard variety of the language.**

The lack of a written standard in Middle English is a natural consequence of the low status of English during this period. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the ruling classes spoke (Norman) French, while English lived on as the spoken language of the lower classes. In the absence of a high-prestige variety of English which might serve as a target for writers of English, each writer simply used his own variety of the language. The Old English dialects evolved and became **ME dialects: Kentish, Southern, Northern, East-Midland and West-Midland.**

The Middle English dialects can be divided into five major groups:

- South-Western (SW) (or simply Southern), a continuation of OE West Saxon;
- South-Eastern (SE) (or Kentish, though it extended into neighbouring counties as well), a continuation of OE Kentish;
- East Midland (EM), in the eastern part of the OE Mercian area;
- West Midland (WM), in the western part of the OE Mercian area;
- Northern (N), north of the Humber.

The traditionally recognized Middle English dialects are as follows: Kentish remains the same as in Old English, West Saxon transformed into Southern, and Northumbrian into Northern. The Mercian dialect constituted two parts: East Midland and West Midland.

The London dialect, comprising predominantly features of East Midland, became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14 century. The London dialect had extended to the first two universities of Cambridge and Oxford, thus constituting the famous literary and cultural London—Oxford—Cambridge triangle.

Thus the year 1066 is the date of the Norman Conquest in England. The conquest symbolizes the beginning of a new social, cultural, and linguistic era in Great Britain, i.e. the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11 c. to the

end of the 15 c. Undoubtedly French as the language of conquerors influenced English greatly. French or Norman French was immediately established as the dominant language of the ruling class. Strikingly but Anglo-Saxon dialects were not suppressed. During the following 300 years communication in England went on in three languages:

- 1) at the monasteries learning was conducted in Latin;
- 2) Norman-French was spoken at court and in official institutions;
- 3) the common people held firmly to their mother tongue .

During the Middle Ages in Britain educated people would have been trilingual. English would have been their mother tongue. They would have learned Latin as the required language of the Church, the Roman Classics, most scholarship and some politico-legal matters. And they would have found French – essential both for routine administrative communication within Britain and in order to be considered fashionable throughout Western European society. Norman-French or Anglo-French, the language of the ruling class in medieval history of English, was the variety of the Northern dialect of French, spoken predominantly by Norman French-speaking noblemen and their descendants in Britain.

Some scholars (David Crystal, Seth Lerer) admit that the Norman Conquest had major effects on the English language but at the same time they claim that English was changing long before the conquest and continued to change throughout the British Isles despite the influence of the French-speaking Normans (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, Part I, p.37) Traditionally linguists look for written evidence showing a level of literacy high enough to record sounds and forms that they can find many signs of ongoing changes. Both David Crystal and Seth Lerer assert that the Middle English period has a much richer documentation than Old English. (D. Crystal's *The Stories of English* p.117, S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, Part I, p.39) An illustrative example of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle proved this. The Chronicle did not stop in 1066. In one manuscript scholars find entries continuing for nearly a century after the Norman Conquest. This is “the Peterborough Chronicle”, so called because it was first copied in the Benedictine monastery at Peterborough, Cambridgeshire. It was copied in 1121, and updated to that year, and various scribes kept it going until 1131. No further additions were then made for twenty-three years. “The Peterborough Chronicle” entries up to and including 1131 were written in Old English, in the *West Saxon literary standard*; but the later entries are sufficiently different in spelling, grammar, and

vocabulary that they have to be considered an early example of Middle English. Also, the final continuation of “the Peterborough Chronicle” is of special interest because of the way its style can be directly compared with an analogous sample of Late West Saxon of only twenty-five years before. *Nowhere else is the transition between Old and Middle English so visible.* And one of the most notable features—“the Peterborough Chronicle” as a whole has very few new French loanwords (about 30) (D. Crystal's *The Stories of English* p.117-120)

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is not a single text, but a compilation from several sources which differ in date and place of origin. It takes the form of a year- by-year diary, with some years warranting extensive comment, some a bare line or two and many nothing at all. **Most ancient European chronicles were kept in Latin. There are seven surviving chronicle manuscripts, six of which are completely in Old English, the seventh partly in Latin.** The scholars have given each text a distinguishing letter name, but they are commonly known by the name of their source location or that of an early owner (David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* – p.15).

“The Peterborough Chronicle” –also called the Laud Chronicle, after Archbishop William Laud (1573-1645). This version, copied at Peterborough in a single hand until 1121, extends as far as 1154. In 1116, most of the monastery at Peterborough was destroyed by fire, along with many manuscripts. The monks immediately began to replace the writings which had been lost. The language became quite different. Despite points of similarity with the previous work, the overall impression is that the writer is starting again, using vocabulary and grammatical patterns which reflect the language of his time and locality, and inventing fresh spelling conventions to cope with new sounds (David Crysta . *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* – .33).

Doubtless it is worth mentioning S. Lerer's commentary concerning the language change in “the Peterborough Chronicle”. Each Chronicle entry is the set of events of a given year, and each one begins with a phrase meaning in **this year.**

Table 33. Comparative processes in the development of English Vocabulary

Year	Phrase	Notes
1083	on þǫsum geare	The endings “-um” and “-e” signal a dative masculine singular. This is classic Old English
1117	on þǫson geare	The “-um” ending has been replaced with “- on” .The adjectival ending seems to have been replaced

		with an indiscriminate vowel plus an indiscriminate nasal (“-m” or “-n”). This may be the scribe's attempt to preserve a grammatical ending or to preserve the sound of speech.
1135	on þǿs geare	The adjectival ending of this has been lost, but the “-e” at the end of geare still signals a dative concord in grammatical gender is obviously gone by this time.
1154	on þǿs gear	The endings have completely disappeared. We are no longer in the world of inflected Old English

in such a way blocks of text highlight the manners in which the English language was changing during the transitional period right after the Norman Conquest (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, Part I, p.39-40)

S. Lerer's idea that “Medieval England was a trilingual culture” can be supported by “The Harley Lyrics”, a collection of literature written probably in the 1330s in Hertfordshire, which gives us clear evidence of writers and readers being, in a broad sense, trilingual. One poem in the manuscript (#2253) ends with this quatrain:

Table 34. Comparative processes in the development of English Vocabulary

Middle English	Modern English
<p>Scripsi hec carmina in tabulis; Mon ostel es en mi la ville de Paris; May y sugge namore, so wel me is; Ʒef hi deƷe for loue of hire, duel hit ys.</p>	<p>I have written these verses on my tablets; My dwelling is in the middle of the city of Paris; Let me say no more, so things are fine; But if I die for love of her, it would be a pity.</p>

The first line here is in Latin, the second is in French, and the third and the fourth are both in Middle English. This poem shows us the brilliance of medieval trilingual culture, to be found in the stratifications of languages (S.

Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, Part I, p.45). So we may conclude that the English, or rather the Anglo-Norman literature of the 11-13 cc. reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: **church literature was in Latin, chivalric poetry was for the most part in French while folk-lore continued to develop in Anglo-Saxon.** Thus without losing its native basis, with the help of few writers of genius, and profiting by the situation, the English language of the 14 c. was transforming from the language of common people into a general, unifying language for all the strata of English society).

Among the authors who contributed much in the progress of literary tradition in Medieval England are worth mentioning John Wyclif (1320-1384), William Langland (1332-1400 apprx.), John Gower (1325-1408), an anonymous poet created an elegy for a daughter lost "The Pearl", and another created a chivalric romance in verse "Sir Gawain and the Green Knight of the King Arthur cycle". English literature was flourishing gradually in the 14 c., reflecting the culmination of the medieval genres and promoting the way to the Renaissance. Apart from changes in pronunciation, the most striking characteristic of this process is the influence of Scandinavian in the Danelaw, which led to the division of the *Midland dialects (the former Mercian dialects) into the East and West Midlands dialect areas.* Among many other features, the Scandinavian influence can be seen in the use of the plural 3rd person personal pronoun they, which was first used in the North and East Midlands and then spread to the other dialects from there.

2. Development of EModE Vocabulary:

2.1. EModE Vocabulary

It is not surprising that one of the causes of the difficulties that many people have in reading, or seeing, the plays of Shakespeare and his contemporaries. The world has changed since the days of Early Modern English - and new and reused words have arrived to talk about it. The New World itself (Columbus 'discovered' the Americas in 1492) stimulated new words, and introduced such names (from Native American languages) along with the things they labelled, such as potato, tomato and tobacco. According to OED the English lexicon grew, during the Early Modern English period, from 100,000 to 200,000 lexemes, which in itself indicates the growth (doubling) in English words at the time.

The technology of the time. Writers were familiar with horses, using words like 'jade', 'hackney' and 'roan Barbary' (names of horses) and items of

horse equipment, like '*crupper*' and '*caparisoned*'. Early use of gunpowder (names of guns like '*bombard*', '*demi-culverine*' and '*saker*') co-existed with the last use of personal *armour* ('*greave*', '*gauntlet*' and '*beaver*'), used to defend against hand-held weapons like '*falchion*' and '*partisan*'. At sea, the language of those who manned sailing ships ('*mizzen*', '*yare*' and '*larboard*') is lost to all but enthusiasts.

Related aspects of culture also are rarely known to us in the twenty-first century: *armour*, which hid the identity of its wearers, led to the development of *heraldry*, with its '*tinctures*' (colours) and '*ordinaries*' (standard conventional designs), like '*bendlets*' and '*martlets*'. In the theatres, '*the Heavens*' was the name of the canopy over the open-air stage. A '*cockpit*' (from 1568) was a place for fighting cocks (as a *bearpit* was for '*baiting*' bears): in Henry V, Shakespeare explicitly links it to the part of a theatre which has been called '*the Pit*' since 1649.

Can this Cock-Pit hold

The vastie fields of France? Or may we cramme

Within this Woodden O, the very Caskes

That did affright the Ayre at Agincourt? (I. Prol. 11, 1599)

Some words are immediately comprehensible, though not immediately recognisable in the forms in which they were then used: we know 'Sir', but the form 'Sirrah' may give us pause; the verb 'will', in Shakespeare, is often closer to modern 'want' (the sub-title of *Twelfth Night* is *What You Will*, ~ 'whatever you like'). One term for horsemanship was the noun 'manage' (~ management).

Other words have changed their meanings more fundamentally. '*Fond*' meant '*foolish*', for example, and '*sophisticated*' meant adulterated. In many dramatic texts, words were frequently contracted: the past tense -ed is often 'd. *Naughty* was a much stronger word then than now, meaning '*morally bad*' or '*vicious*', whereas currently now it is much more '*mischievous*'. Nowadays, children are '*naughty*'; then it was *sinful adults*. Changing structures of word formation also may help to disguise words: we still use 'abroad', and sailors still use 'aloft', but rarely 'afield' or 'abed'.

Fashions of the time were different. Who now cares for '*cross-gartering*', or would wish "*the tailor [to] make thy doublet of changeable taffeta, for thy mind is a very opal*"? (And note the archaic 'very' as a superlative for a noun.) And, in foodstuffs, who would consider a "*wither'd apple-john*"?

2.2. Word- building in EModE

New words could be formed from existing ones by various word-formation processes. This applies to both native and borrowed word-stock. The benefit of word-formation as a means of vocabulary enrichment is that the resulting words are transparent in form. If they are based on established lexical elements, this transparency makes their meaning readily accessible to all. This was one of the reasons why many writers and translators in the sixteenth century were against excessive foreign borrowing and promoted native means of word-formation as the basis for creating new terminology.

Word-formation processes produce lexemes which can be characterized in terms of free and bound elements, or bases and affixes, respectively. Bases are free in that they can occur alone, while affixes cannot.

The three basic word-formation processes both today and in Early Modern English are compounding, affixation and conversion:

(a) compounding: adding a base to another base: picture (noun) + frame (noun) → picture-frame (noun)

(b) derivation by means of affixation: adding an affix to a base:

(a) prefixation (L *prae-* «before»): attaching a prefix to a base, usually without a change of word class: *mis-* + *spell* (verb) → *misspell* (verb)

(b) suffixation (L *sub-* > *suf-* «under», «close to»): attaching a suffix to a base, usually with a change of word class: *common* (adjective) + *-ness* → *commonness* (noun)

(c) conversion (zero-derivation): assigning the base to another word class without changing its form: *bottle* (noun) → *bottle* (verb) “put in a bottle”

This classification also shows the basic typological change in English from stem-formation in Old English to word-formation as we know it today. In Modern English, lexemes are invariant when they serve as bases of word-formation. This was not the case in Old English, where the base could vary. The Old English noun *cyme* «arrival», for instance, had been derived from the verb *coman* «come», and *dom* «judgement» from the verb *deman* «judge» (cf. *deem*); the verb *fyllan* «fill» and the adjective *full* are also derivationally related. This variation reflected historical sound changes. In the course of time stem variation was lost in derivational morphology and invariant lexemes were established as bases for word-formation. In this respect Early Modern English is modern as fixed base forms are used in all word-formation processes.

It is often assumed that an established word blocks the derivation from the same base of another word with the same meaning. In Early Modern English this

strict economy principle was often relaxed. Synonymous operations were applied to one and the same base quite freely. There were four variants, for instance, of the verb «to make longer»: length, lengthen, enlengthand enlengthen. The noun throne gave rise to as many as five verbs with roughly the same meaning, «remove a ruler from his position of power»: dethrone, dethrone, dethrone, unthroned and dethrone.

Many of these multiple derivations were experimental and did not outlive the Early Modern English period.

Compounding

Compounds consisting of two nouns (N+N) are the most productive type of compounding in *Early Modern English* and today.

Besides regular compounds consisting of two nouns (earth bank, meadow ground, horse comb, horse mill, stone wall, wood beetle and latten kettle), there are nouns premodified by an adjective (elmen plank, wooden wedges).

Compound adjectives, also common in *Early Modern English*, typically consist of a noun and an adjective, as in fire proof, life long, skin-deep and world-wide ‘as wide as the world’). Another productive pattern consists of a noun followed by a past participle. In these compounds the noun often has an adverbial function: frost-bitten (‘bitten by frost’), hand-made (‘made by hand’), heart-felt, heaven-sent.

Typical compound verbs consist of a particle and a verb. Their meaning is either concrete (overloud, undersign) or, more frequently, abstract. Both out and over can have the abstract sense of “outdo in V-ing”: outlive, outsell; overbid, overshine. Under was often associated with the sense “below a fixed norm or standard”: underbid, underrate, undervalue.

Affixation

There were more than 120 affixes available in English in Shakespeare’s time – many more than Chaucer had in the fourteenth century. As new loan words were integrated into Early Modern English, prefixes and suffixes adopted from foreign sources came to be applied to older loan words and ultimately to the native word-stock as well. It took some time before the affixes derived from loan words established themselves. Many of them continued to be associated with borrowed lexis. When non-native affixes were attached to long, polysyllabic loan words, they became even longer.

It is therefore no wonder that they presented problems for those who had not had access to a classical education. As noted above, the process of *prefixation* resembles compounding in that it does not change the part of speech of a

word, while suffixation can do that. It is also noteworthy that affixes often have more than one meaning, and two or more affixes can have roughly the same meaning both today and in Early Modern English. Some common Early Modern English affixes are listed and illustrated below. Just like today, there were more suffixes than prefixes.

Prefixes:

for forming nouns:

- fore-, pre-, ante- («before N»): forecourt, preconception, antechapel
- counter-, anti- («against N»): counterplot; anti-king

for forming adjectives:

- un-, in-, dis- («not A», «the converse of A»): unfit, inhospitable, discontent

for forming verbs:

- un-, dis-, de- («to remove N»): unburden, disburden, dethrone; («to reverse the action of V») unload, disappear, deobstruct
- be- («to provide with N»; «V completely, thoroughly»): bestain, bedeck
- en-/em- («to put into N», «to provide with N»): enthrall, embody
- mis- («V wrongly, badly»): mismatch, misname
- re- («V again, back»): refill, reprint

Suffixes:

for forming nouns:

- -ing, -ment, -al, -ation, -ance/ence, -ure («the act, cause, result, state etc. of V-ing»): landing, retirement, recital, formalisation, admittance, exposure
- -ness, -ity («the condition, quality, etc. of being A»): wittiness, capability
- -er («someone who V-s»): healer, examiner

for forming adjectives:

- -ed, -ful («having N»): dropsied, rose-lipped, beautiful
- -y («full of N», «characterised by N»): dirty, healthy
- -less («without N»): matchless, stateless
- -able («fit for V-ing/to be V-ed»): answerable, unavoidable
- -(ic)al («relating to N», «having the character of N»): arithmetical, whimsical, imperial
- -ing, -ive, -y («that V-s», «capable of V-ing»): persisting, persistive, crumbly

for forming adverbs:

- -ly («in an A manner»): bawdily, domestically

for forming verbs:

- -en, -ate, -ify («make A», «become A»): brighten, facilitate, beautify

Among the broadly synonymous negative prefixes, the native *un-* was the most productive, combining freely with native (for example, *un-English*, *unfit*) and borrowed bases (*undesirable*, *unfortunate*). The only loan prefixes that Shakespeare never combines with native bases are *de-* and *pro-*; both were infrequent in Early Modern English.

In view of the number of suffixes borrowed, it is significant that the most productive ones should be native: *-ness* and *-er* produce the most nouns in the period 1500 to 1700, and *-ed* and *-y* are the most frequently attested adjective suffixes.

The suffix *-er* is in fact so frequent that it may be argued that it is fully productive and can go with any verb, and therefore ought to be discussed under inflectional morphology.

Derivation by native suffixes involves no change in the basic stress pattern or phonological shape of the base, but borrowed suffixes vary in this respect. The main stress may, for instance, be attracted to the syllable immediately before the suffix especially when the new suffix combines with a foreign base. These stress-affecting suffixes include *-(ic)al* and *-ity*.

Conversion

The word-formation process of conversion changes the word-class of a word. In this respect it resembles a typical case of suffixation. Compare the two nouns derived from the verb *remove* in Early Modern English:

removal (1597) is formed by adding the suffix *-al* to the verb, and *remove* (1553) simply by means of conversion (zero-derivation).

There are few formal constraints on conversion in Early Modern English. Just like today, the only word-classes that cannot be readily formed by this means are function words; pronouns, prepositions and conjunctions, for instance. But function words themselves are freely converted to nouns (*the ins and outs*) and to verbs (*to near*, *to up*), or both (*but me no buts*).

In Early Modern English verbs are commonly produced from nouns and adjectives by means of conversion. As with verbs derived by suffixation, causation is an important semantic element in conversion verbs.

Etymological doublets

As a result of borrowings of the same words (or morphemes) from different languages, or from the same language but in different period of language development a great number of etymological doublets (that is two or more words in a language that are derived from the same source, especially when one is

learned while the other is popular) appear in the language, and the meanings of the words of the same origin may differ to a considerable extent.

Etymological doublets are two different words with different spelling and meanings but etymologically they descend from the same word.

(They may have originally been dialectal variants).

They may enter the vocabulary by different routes.

Native word	Borrowed word
shirt	skirt (Scan.)
shrew	screw

Two borrowings from different languages which are historically descended from the same root:

senior (Lat.)	sir (Fr.)
canal (Lat.)	channel (Fr.)
captain (Lat.)	chieftan (Fr.)

Others were borrowed from the same language twice, but in different periods.

corpse (Norm. Fr.)	gaol (Norm. Fr)
corps (Par. Fr)	jail (Par. Fr)
cavalry (Norm. Fr)	travel (Norm. Fr)
chivalry (Par. Fr)	travail (Par. Fr)

Etymological doublets may consist of a shortened word and the one from which it was derived.

history – story

fantasy – fancy

fanatic – fan

shadow – shade

Etymological triplets. Grammar of three words of common origin.

hospital (Lat.) – hostel(Norm. Fr) -hotel (Par. Fr.)

Lecture 9

DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY ENGLISH

Plan

1. Evolution of English:

- 1.1. Economic and political unification. Conditions for linguistic unity;
- 1.2. The origin of the Normans and their influence on English culture and life;
- 1.3. The introduction of printing and the fixation of the language norm;
- 1.4. The formation of the national literary language.

2. Geographical expansion of English.

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Outline

1. Evolution of English

1.1. Economic and political unification. Conditions for linguistic unity

In 14th and 15th c. the village artisans and craftsmen travelled about the country looking for a greater market for their produce. They settled in the old towns and founded new ones near big monasteries, on the rivers and at the cross-roads. The crafts became separated from agriculture, and new social groups came into being: the poor townspeople, the town middle class and the rich merchants, owners of workshops, and money-lenders.

The 15th and 16th c. saw other striking changes in the life of the country. Trade had extended beyond the local boundaries and apart from farming and cattle-breeding an important wool-trade and industry was carried on in the countryside. As the demand for wool and cloth rose, Britain began to export woollen cloth produced by the first big enterprises, the "manufactures".

The landowners evicted peasants and enclosed their land with ditches and fences, turning it into vast pastures.

The new nobility, who traded in wool, fused with the rich townspeople to form a new class, the bourgeoisie, while the evicted farmers, the poor artisans and monastic servants turned into farm labourers and wage workers or remained unemployed and joined the ranks of paupers, vagrants and highway robbers.

The changes in the economic and social conditions were accompanied by the intermixture of people coming from different regions, the growth of towns with mixed population, and the strengthening of social ties between the various regions. All these processes played an important role in the unification of the English language.

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

1.2. The origin of the Normans and their influence on English culture and life

The origin of the Normans is hidden in their very name: Nor(se)man. The Normans came to France in the 9th century. They were Norwegian Vikings who raided the French territory when sailing up the Seine. In 911 their king, Rollo, forced the French king to cede French territory.

As a consequence, Rollo became the independent ruler of Normandy. By 1000 Normandy became one of the most powerful and successful regions in Western Europe. In the process, the Normans adopted the language, religion, and customs of the surrounding French population.

What consequences did the Norman invasion have for the English population? It is uncontroversial that the Normans did not civilize the Anglo-Saxon population. The Anglo-Saxons had a highly developed culture: they had an extraordinary literature and crafted beautiful jewellery; they were christianized, and profited from a well- developed and well-functioning economy. The same is true for the Vikings who mixed with them in the North and East of England. **Therefore, the Norman Conquest was not a mission of civilization.** Very simply, the Normans brought power with them: the Normans were more powerful politically and ecclesiastically.

At the time of the Conquest, the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were politically weak due to internal quarrels. Since many of the Anglo-Saxon nobility were wiped out at Hastings, the English ruling class was replaced by Norman noblemen. The Normans imported the feudal system and lordship by taking the key positions in the state and church. These positions correspond to the high ranks of power in the medieval social order, which was defined by the three-estates of nobility, clergy, and peasants. Since the grammar schools also lay in the hands of the church in the Middle Ages, the Normans also controlled education. In a nutshell, they established the new upper- class. Material tokens of Norman power are still conspicuously present in today's England.

The Normans built around 1000 castles, among them the White Tower of London. Evidence of Norman ecclesiastical power is visible in the many impressive cathedrals usually constructed in Romanesque style. In addition, the Normans also imported their national symbols. **The three golden lions in the coat of arms** of England are derived from the symbol of the kingdom of Normandy. But, the Normans also brought their language – Norman French.

The Norman Conquest influenced the linguistic landscape of England decisively. The following statement in the Chronicle of Robert of Gloucester from around 1300 illustrates this nicely:

Thus England came into Normandy's hand: and the Normans then knew how to speak only their own language, and spoke French as they did at home, and also had their children taught it, so that noblemen of this land, that come of their stock, all keep to the same speech that they received from them; for unless a man knows. French, people make little account of him. But low men keep to English and to their own language still. So the chronicle indicates that the Norman upper-classes, first and foremost, spoke French – Norman. French to be precise - and they taught this language to their children. French was the prestigious language. English, however, was the language of the lower classes – the vernacular. But, English was spoken by the majority of the population of England. Clearly, to learn French was the only way possible to climb up the social ladder.

1.3. The introduction of printing and the fixation of the language norm

Another great event was the introduction of printing. Printing was invented in Mayence (Germany) by Johann Gutenberg in 1438. From Mayence printing spread to Strasburg, then to Italy and to the Netherlands. In the town of Bruges, in Flanders, the Englishman William Caxton (1422-1491) became acquainted with this art. He published the first English printed book, *THE RECUYEIL OF THE HISTORIES OF TROY*, in Bruges in 1475. Returning to England, he founded the first English printing office in London in 1476, and in 1477 appeared the first book to be printed in England, namely, *THE DICTES AND SAYINGS OF THE PHILOSOPHERS*. The spread of printing helped to normalize spelling and grammatical forms.

Caxton was a native of Kent, but he had acquired the London dialect. In spelling he stuck to the tradition of the scribes. As far as grammatical forms go, there is a reason to believe that Caxton made a conscious choice from among competing variants.

Introduction of printing greatly helped the normalization of spelling. Norms adopted by the first printers have basically survived up to our own days. Phonetic changes which have occurred since then have hardly been reflected in the spelling. As a result vowel letters in English acquired meanings different from those they have in French, German, Italian and other European languages; besides, each vowel letter acquired different sound values depending on its environment. Thus the letter A denotes different vowel sounds in the words MAKE,

CAT, WATER, WATCH, ANY.

Existence of a language norm becomes evident in the 16th c. The literary language is apprehended as a model which must be followed, wherever this or that user of English may happen to live. On the entire territory of Southern and Midland dialects in all written documents, including private letters, only literary English is used. All other dialects, except the Scottish, were reduced to the state of merely oral languages.

However, within the limits of the recognized norm there existed a possibility of variants and there was a greater freedom than in later times. Thus, there were such pronunciation variants as BISIE-BUSIE, (the first- an East Midland, the second a Kentish variant); THEN-THAN, WHAN-WHEN (the first an East Midland, the second a Southern variant); FADER-FATHER, MODER-MOTHER (the former an earlier pronunciation, the latter reflecting the change of [d] to [p] before r).

1.4. The formation of the national literary language

The written form of the English language became standardized earlier than its spoken form. The progress of literature and especially the flourishing of the drama in the late 16th c. and early 17th c. are linked up with an unparalleled enrichment of the language.

Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, *Table Alphabetical*. Robert Cawdrey did not go to college, but became a school teacher in Oakham, Rutland, in 1563. In 1565, Cawdrey was ordained as a deacon, and 22 October 1571 he was made rector of South Luffenham. However, Cawdrey was sympathetic to Puritan teachings, and got in trouble with the Church authorities. In 1576 he was chastised for not reading the approved texts in his sermons, and in 1578 he performed a marriage even though he was not authorized to do so, and was briefly suspended. His suspension lasted only a few months but, in 1586, he was again in trouble for violating the rules and was called before his bishop, Richard Howland. He had powerful friends who tried to defend him, but he lost his rectory and had to return to teaching to support himself.

With the assistance of his son Thomas Cawdrey (1575–1640), who was a school teacher in London, Robert Cawdrey decided to create an instructional text; the *Table Alphabeticall*, which appeared in 1604 when Cawdrey was living in Coventry.

As many new words were entering the English language in the 16th century, Cawdrey became concerned that people would become confused. Cawdrey worried that the wealthy were adopting foreign words and phrases, and wrote

that "they forget altogether their mothers language, so that if some of their mothers were alive, they were not able to tell or understand what they say." He also described how "far journied gentlemen" learn new words while in foreign lands, and then "pouder their talke with over-sea language."

Thomas Cawdrey worked on improvements to the *Table Alphabeticall*.

While he was a rector, Robert Cawdrey wrote *A Short and Fruitefull Treatise of the Profit of Catechising* in 1580. He revised this work and published a second edition in 1604. Cawdrey also published *A Treasurie or Store-House of Similes* in 1600, and again in 1609.

The full name of his famous dictionary is *A table alphabeticall conteyning and teaching the true writing, and understanding of hard vsuall English wordes, borrowed from the Hebrew, Greeke, Latine, or French, &c. With the interpretation thereof by plaine English words, gathered for the benefit & helpe of ladies, gentlewomen, or any other unskilfull persons. Whereby they may the more easilie and better vnderstand many hard English wordes, vvhich they shall heare or read in scriptures, sermons, or elsewhere, and also be made able to vse the same aptly themselues.*

His dictionary contained about 2,500 words. He was careful to explain the alphabetical order to his readers, which even the most literate of his readers would not know or expect.

Samuel Johnson's 'Dictionary of the English Language' is one of the most famous dictionaries in history. First published in 1755, the dictionary took just over eight years to compile, required six helpers, and listed 40,000 words. Each word was defined in detail, the definitions illustrated with quotations covering every branch of learning. It was a huge scholarly achievement, a more extensive and complex dictionary than any of its predecessors - and the comparable French *Dictionnarre* had taken 55 years to compile and required the dedication of 40 scholars.

Literary quotations

In all, there are over 114,000 quotations in the dictionary. Johnson was the first English lexicographer to use citations in this way, a method that greatly influenced the style of future dictionaries. He had scoured books stretching back to the 1500s, often quoting from those thought to be 'great works' such as Milton or Shakespeare. Thus the quotations reflect his literary taste and his rightwing political views. However, if Johnson didn't like a quotation, or if a phrase didn't convey the exact meaning he required, he did not hesitate to chop, twist around, or rewrite a few words - Johnson famously scribbled all over his books, under-

lining, highlighting, altering and correcting the words, much to the horror of acquaintances who had lent him their books!

A tangled mess

A group of London book-sellers had commissioned Johnson's dictionary, hoping that a book of this kind would help stabilise the rules governing the English language. In the preface to the book Johnson writes of the 'energetic' unruliness of the English tongue. In his view, the language was in a mess, and was in desperate need of some discipline: 'wherever I turned my view', he wrote, 'there was perplexity to be disentangled, and confusion to be regulated.' However, in the process of compiling the dictionary, Johnson recognised that language is impossible to fix, because of its constantly changing nature, and that his role was to record the language of the day, rather than to form it.

Johnson's personal touch

Even so, many of Johnson's definitions bear the mark of a rather pompous man (but also quite a humorous one). Many of the words he included were incomprehensible to the average reader - long words such as 'deosculation', 'odontalgick'. He is even believed to have made up some words. His definition of *oats* is very rude to the Scots. He defines the word as 'A Grain, which in England is generally given to horses, but in Scotland supports the people.' Johnson was criticised for imposing his personality on to the book. However, his dictionary was enormously popular and highly respected for its epic sense of scholarship.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616) and his contemporaries (Edmund Spenser, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson and others) wrote in what is known now as the Early NE literary language. Early NE was represented by a wide variety of literary styles and was characterized by a rapid growth of vocabulary, freedom in creating new words and meanings, and veracity of grammatical construction. In all these qualities the language of Shakespeare certainly excelled that of his contemporaries.

The 17th and 18th c. witnessed some great social and political upheavals, which influenced the language as well. The most outstanding events were the bourgeois revolution of the 17th c., the Restoration of the monarchy in 1660, and the industrial revolution in the 18th c. But even before these events an important development took place in the history of the language.

Until the early 17th c. the English language was only spoken in the British Isles. In the 17th c. it crossed the borders. With the first settlers in America the language entered the New World.

In the 17th c. colonizing was caused by acute political struggle in the mother country. The official Anglican Church created by the 16th c. Reformation was persecuting the Puritans. Political and religious persecution made them seek a way out in emigration. First a group of Puritans crossed into the Netherlands, and in 1620 the famous ship “THE MAYFLOWER” reached North America, in the region which is now known as the state of Massachusetts. This was the start of English colonies in America, and the beginning of history of English in the New World.

Meanwhile political struggle in Britain became more and more acute and led to civil war, which ended with a puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwealth in 1649. The language of the Commonwealth belongs to the Early NE period, which lasted until about 1660.

The literary of the time bears a strong imprint of puritan ideology.

The restoration of the Stuarts under Charles II in 1660 reinstated to some extent the influence of the nobility and along with it that of the aristocratic language and culture which had been overthrown by the Revolution. Charles II and his court, returning from France, favoured French influence in all spheres of social life, including language. Colloquial speech of Restoration comedies is full of French words and phrases. At this very time a purist movement arose, which found its literary expression in a book by Thomas Sprat “HISTORY OF THE ROYAL SOCIETY”. Sprat protested against the wide use of artificial phrases and metaphors and demanded a return to simple, clear and natural way of speaking.

About the same time an interest arose in the study of the living dialects. The first step in this direction was made by John Ray, who published in 1674 a book entitled COLLECTION OF ENGLISH WORDS NOT GENERALLY USED.

In 1806, **Webster** published his first dictionary, *A Compendious Dictionary of the English Language*. In 1807 Webster began compiling an expanded and fully comprehensive dictionary, *An American Dictionary of the English Language*; it took twenty-six years to complete. To evaluate the etymology of words, Webster learned twenty-eight languages, including Old English (Anglo-Saxon), Gothic, German, Greek, Latin, Italian, Spanish, French, Dutch, Welsh, Russian, Hebrew, Aramaic, Persian, Arabic, and Sanskrit. Webster hoped to standardize American speech, since Americans in different parts of the country used different languages. They also spelled, pronounced, and used English words differently.

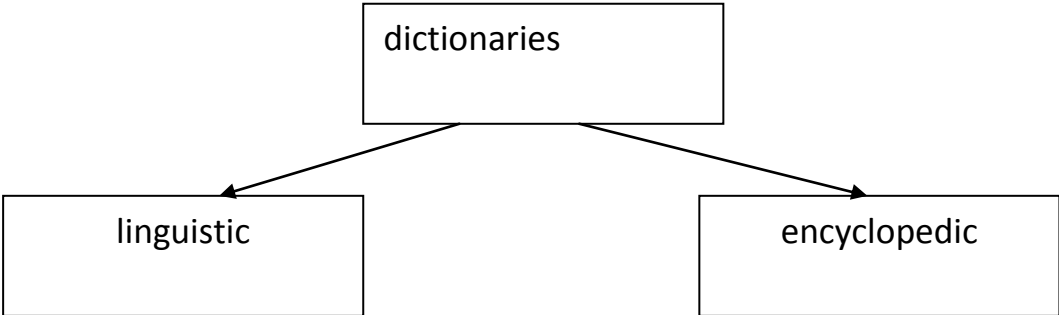
Webster completed his dictionary during his year abroad in His book contained seventy thousand words, of which twelve thousand had never appeared in a published dictionary before. As a spelling reformer, Webster preferred spellings that matched pronunciation better. In *A Companion to the American Revolution* (2008), John Algeo notes: "it is often assumed that characteristically American spellings were invented by Noah Webster. He was very influential in popularizing certain spellings in America, but he did not originate them. Rather [...] he chose already existing options such as *center*, *color* and *check* on such grounds as simplicity, analogy or etymology". He also added American words, like "skunk" and "squash", that did not appear in British dictionaries. At the age of seventy, Webster published his dictionary in 1828, registering the copyright on April 14.

Though it now has an honored place in the history of American English, Webster's first dictionary only sold 2,500 copies. He was forced to mortgage his home to develop a second edition, and his life from then on was plagued with debt.

In 1840, the second edition was published in two volumes. On May 28, 1843, a few days after he had completed revising an appendix to the second edition, and with much of his efforts with the dictionary still unrecognized, Noah Webster died.

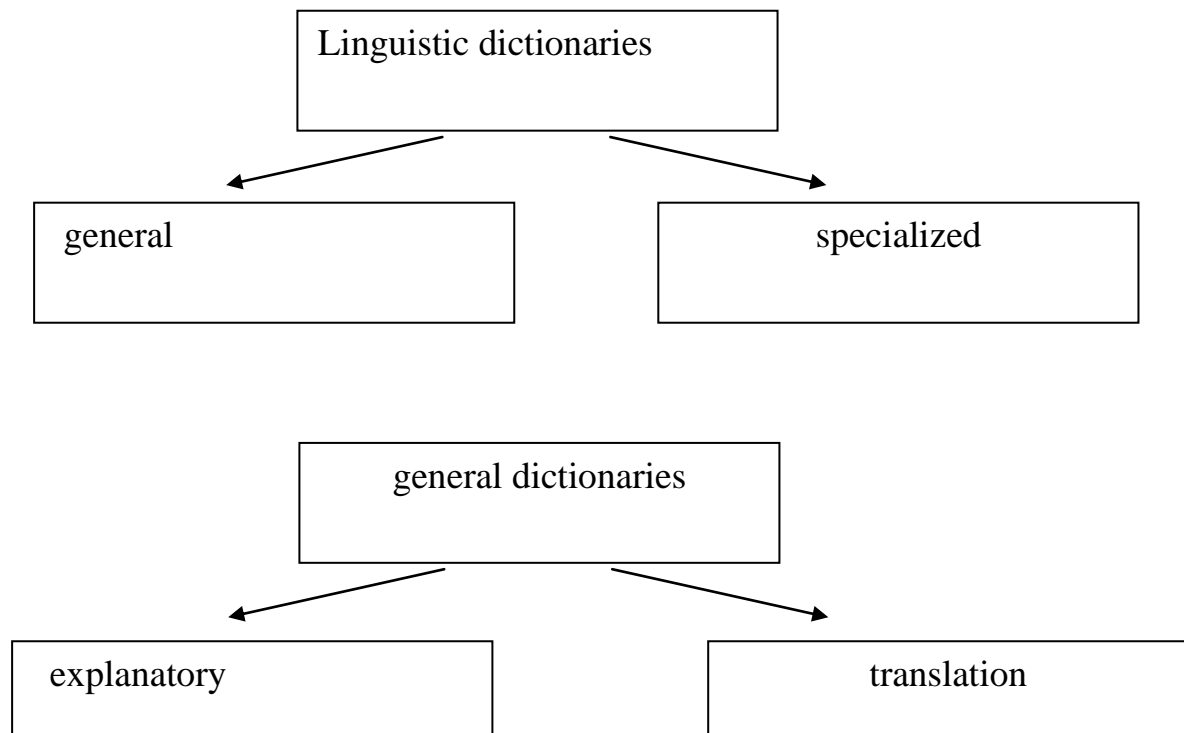
The *Oxford English Dictionary* has been the last word on words for over a century. But, as with a respected professor or admired parent, we count on its wisdom and authority without thinking much about how it was acquired. The **Oxford English Dictionary** (or **OED**) is a dictionary. It has been published by the Oxford University Press in England since 1888. It is the largest English dictionary.

All dictionaries are divided into linguistic and encyclopedic



Encyclopedic dictionaries describe different objects, phenomena, people and give some data about them.

Linguistic dictionaries describe vocabulary units, their semantic structure, their origin, their usage. Words are usually given in the alphabetical order.



Specialized dictionaries include dictionaries :
of synonyms,
antonyms,
collocations,
word-frequency,
neologisms,
slang,
pronouncing,
etymological,
phraseological and others.

All types of dictionaries can be unilingual (excepting translation ones if the explanation is given in the same language, bilingual if the explanation is given in another language and also they can be polylingual.

There are a lot of explanatory dictionaries (NED (New English Dictionary), SOD (Shorter Oxford Dictionary), COD (Concise Oxford Dictionary), NID (New international dictionary), N. G. Wyld's «Universal Dictionary» and others.

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In explanatory dictionaries the entry consists of the spelling, transcription, grammatical forms, meanings, examples, phraseology.

Pronunciation is given either by means of the International Transcription System or in British Phonetic Notation which is different in each large dictionary, e.g. /o:/ can be indicated as /aw/, /or/, /oh/, /o/. etc.

Translation dictionaries give words and their equivalents in the other language. There are English-Russian dictionaries by I.R. Galperin, by Y. Apresyan and others. Among general dictionaries we can also mention Learner's dictionaries. They began to appear in the second half of the 20-th century.

The most famous is «The Advanced Learner's Dictionary» by A. S. Hornby. It is a unilingual dictionary based on COD, for advanced foreign learners and language teachers. It gives data about grammatical and lexical valency of words.

Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R.Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries.

Specialized dictionaries of synonyms are also widely used, one of them is «A Dictionary of English Synonyms and Synonymous Expressions» by R.Soule. Another famous one is «Webster's Dictionary of Synonyms». These are unilingual dictionaries. The best known bilingual dictionary of synonyms is «English Synonyms» compiled by Y. Apresyan.

In 1981 «The Longman Lexicon of Contemporary English» was compiled, where words are given in 14 semantic groups of everyday nature. Each word is defined in detail, its usage is explained and illustrated, synonyms, antonyms are presented also. It describes 15000 items, and can be referred to dictionaries of synonyms and to explanatory dictionaries.

Phraseological dictionaries describe idioms and colloquial phrases, proverbs. Some of them have examples from literature.

Some lexicographers include not only word-groups but also anomalies among words. In «The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs» each proverb is illustrated by a lot of examples, there are stylistic references as well.

Etymological dictionaries trace present-day words to the oldest forms of these words and forms of these words in other languages. One of the best etymological dictionaries was compiled by W. Skeat.

Pronouncing dictionaries record only pronunciation. The most famous is D. Jones' s «Pronouncing Dictionary». Dictionaries of neologisms are : a four-volume «Supplement to NED» by Burchfield, «The Longman Register of New Words»/1990/, «Bloomsury Dictionary of New Words» /1996/.

2. Geographical expansion of English

In the course of the last few centuries the English language spread over various parts of the globe.

At the end of the 16th c. England founded her first colonies abroad: Newfoundland was captured in 1583. The conquest of the West Indies began about the same time extended over a hundred years. The 17th c. saw the English colonization of the New World (North America). It began with the famous voyage of "the Mayflower". The early settlers came from the counties around London, while later immigrants came from different parts of the British Isles; many colonists arrived from Ireland and Scotland. From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. The English dialects of all these areas formed the basis of American English, which has now become a second standard form of English.

Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example *trash for rubbish*, *loan* as a verb instead of *lend*, and *fall for autumn*; another example, *frame -up*, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies). Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English), with words like *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede* and *vigilante* being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West. French words (through Louisiana) and West African words (through the slave trade) also influenced American English (and so, to an extent, British English). Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South Afri-

can English, Indian English and Caribbean English. The essential differences between varieties in: intonation (voice timber, pitch, rhythm, stress) pronunciation, vocabulary, spelling.

In the 18th c. the main issues in the colonial struggle were India and America. The British conquest of India had been prepared by the East Indian Trading Company which was founded as early as the 17th c. and had monopolized the trade with India. In the late 18th c. the British censured partial control over the administration of many provinces in India.

Under the Treaty of Paris after the Seven Year's War (1763) England got many disputed territories from France: Canada became an English dominion; Senegal was transferred to England, England's position in India was further strengthened. Here is a list of frequently used Canadian words:

- “Washroom” (Can.) – (Br.) “public toilet,” “lavatory” and “loo”, (Am.) “toilet” and “bathroom;
- “Chocolate bar” (Can.) – “Candy bars” (Am.);
- “Pop” (Can.) – “soft drink” (Am.);
- “Two-four” (Can.) – “beer” (Br., Am.);
- “Double-double” (Can.) – a filtered coffee with two creams and two sugars;
- “mickey” (Can) – reserved for a small bottle of alcohol;
- “Keener”(Canadian slang, noun) – individual eager to demonstrate knowledge or participate enthusiastically in school, church, seminars, etc. Like nerd, geek,...
- hoser" (Can.)– loser;
- “loonie” (Can.) – one-dollar coin,
- “eh” (Can.) – “huh?”

Australia was the last continent to be discovered and colonized by the Europeans. Beginning with 1786 English convicts began to be sent to Australia and other settlers came as well.

In all these lands (and many others, which fell under British rule in the age of capitalism) the English language began to be employed as the official language and the language of learning. It is still used there although many countries have now become independent.

Here is a list of frequently used Australian words:

Arvo (afternoon)

Barbie (barbecue (noun))

Macca's (McDonald's)

I Reckon (I think e.g. I reckon it'll be hot 2morrow)

Servo (petrol station)
Footy (AFL or Rugby League)
Bloke (man)
Chick (woman)
mate (friend)
Thongs (footwear)
Bloody Oath (I'm telling you the truth or that's right)

Thus in the New period the boundaries of English have extended far beyond the British Isles to embrace both Hemispheres and all the inhabited continents. In every area English has developed some specific features differing from those of Standard English in Britain which are due either to the original dialect of the settlers or to the new developments in the areas concerned (sometimes under the influence of the native tongues).

Words from outside of Europe

In view of the world-wide contacts of speakers of English -through competition with the empires of Spain, Portugal, the Netherlands and France, in Africa and in the East, the Red-Indian languages by way of America, British dominion in India, Africa and in the Far East, and the British settlement of the newly discovered continent of Australia in the 18th and in the early 19th centuries -it is not surprising that that the English language has absorbed a various and heterogeneous quantity of words from almost everywhere, besides the natural growth of local technical terms in the different parts of the English-speaking world. But much of this is an indirect taking-over of Eastern or African words through other languages. Especially large group of local technical terms has grown up through the British rule in India, and a few of these have passed into the common language.

Thus, a large number of Arabic words like *algebra*, *zenith*, *admiral*, *cotton*, *arsenal*, *alcohol* and *zero* became a part of the Common European vocabulary. A much larger number of Arabic words denote things or ideas belonging properly to peoples of Arabic culture and they are only used in English in connection with such localized matters. Especially of this kind are most of the modern borrowings from Arabic, such as *fakir*, *imam*, *harem* from the 17th century, Allah, hoary ('gazelle-like woman of paradise') from the 18th.

From India comes a 19th century influence through the study of Sanskrit philosophy; and thus Sanskrit that may be thought as the classical language of Hindu India, has given English technical terms of religion, some of which have attained to a slightly wider use. NIRVANA (Buddhist ultimate state of the good,

literally 'blowing out' of the candle) and SWASTICA (symbol of good luck) are perhaps the most familiar: but YOGA and KARMA have obtained some currency through imitators of some aspects of Hinduism.

China has given English the common words TEA (Amoy Chinese T'E through Dutch which is Common European. KIMONO, HARA-KIRI, GEISHA and JUJITSU are the best known terms from Japan with a slightly wider than local use.

BOOMERANG from the Australian Bushmen; orangutan (orang utan 'forest man') from Borneo; BAMBOO, SAGO from Malaya; SQUAW from the American Redskins; CHIMPANSEE from Portuguese Africa; CANOE and POTATO (through Spanish PATATA) from Haiti; TATOO (Polynesian TATAU) from the South Sea Islands, and the Tongan word TABOO TABU). All these attest how varied and how far-flung have been the influences which have molded the Modern English vocabulary. All the above examples too are of words which have a real place in the language and are not merely technical or local.

Local varieties of English on the British Isles

On the British Isles there are some local varieties of English which developed from Old English local dialects. There are six groups of them: Lowland /Scottish/, Northern, Western, Midland, Eastern, Southern. These varieties are used in oral speech by the local population. Only the Scottish dialect has its own literature /R. Berns/.

One of the best known dialects of British English is the dialect of London - Cockney. Some peculiarities of this dialect can be seen in the first act of «Pigmalion» by B. Shaw, such as : interchange of /v/ and /w/ e.g. wery vell; interchange of /f/ and /θ/ , /v/ and /f/ , e. g/ fing /thing/ and fa:ve / father/; interchange of /h/ and /-/ , e.g. «'eart» for «heart» and «hart» for «art; substituting the diphthong /ai/ by /ei/ e.g. «day» is pronounced /dai/; substituting /au/ by /a:/ , e.g. «house» is pronounced /ha:s/, «now» /na:/ ; substituting /ou/ by /o:/ e.g. «don't» is pronounced /do:nt/ e.g. «window» is pronounced /wind /.

Another feature of Cockney is rhyming slang: «hat» is «tit for tat», «wife» is «trouble and strife», «head» is «loaf of bread» etc. There are also such words as «tanner» /sixpence/, «peckish»/hungry/.

British and American English

British and American English are two main variants of English. American English begins its history at the beginning of the 17-th century when first English-speaking settlers began to settle on the Atlantic coast of the American con-

continent. The language which they brought from England was the language spoken in England during the reign of Elizabeth the First.

In the earliest period the task of Englishmen was to find names for places, animals, plants, customs which they came across on the American continent. They took some of names from languages spoken by the local population - Indians, such as «chipmuck»/an American squirrel/, «igloo» /Escimo dome-shaped hut/, «skunk» / a black and white striped animal with a bushy tail/, «squaw» / an Indian woman/, «wigwam» /an American Indian tent made of skins and bark/ etc.

Besides Englishmen, settlers from other countries came to America, and English-speaking settlers mixed with them and borrowed some words from their languages, e.g. from *French* the words «bureau»/a writing desk/, «cache» /a hiding place for treasure, provision/, «depot» / a store-house/, «pumpkin»/a plant bearing large edible fruit/. From Spanish such words as: «adobe» / unburnt sun-dried brick/, «bananza» /prosperity/, «cockroach» /a beetle-like insect/, «lasso» / a noosed rope for catching cattle/ were borrowed.

Present-day New York stems from the Dutch colony New Amsterdam and Dutch also influenced English. Such words as: «boss», «dope», «sleigh» were borrowed.

The second period of American English history begins in the 19-th century. Immigrants continued to come from Europe to America. When large groups of immigrants from the same country came to America some of their words were borrowed into English. Italians brought with them a style of cooking which became widely spread and such words as: «pizza», «spaghetti» came into English. From the great number of German-speaking settlers the following words were borrowed into English: «delicatessen», «lager», «hamburger», «noodle», «schnitzel» and many others.

During the second period of American English history there appeared quite a number of words and word-groups which were formed in the language due to the new political system, liberation of America from the British colonialism, its independence. The following lexical units appeared due to these events: the United States of America, assembly, *caucus*, *congress*, *Senate*, *congressman*, *President*, *senator*, *precinct*, *Vice-President* and many others. Besides these political terms many other words were coined in American English in the 19-th century: to antagonize, to demoralize, influential, department store, telegram, telephone and many others.

There are some differences between British and American English in the usage of prepositions, such as prepositions with dates, days of the week BE

requires «on» / I start my holiday on Friday/, in American English there is no preposition / I start my vacation Friday/. In Be we use «by day», «by night»/»at night», in AE the corresponding forms are «days» and «nights». In BE we say «at home», in AE - «home» is used. In BE we say «a quarter to five», in AE «a quarter of five». In BE we say «in the street», in AE - «on the street». In BE we say «to chat to somebody», in AE «to chat with somebody». In BE we say «different to something», in AE - «different from something». There are also units of vocabulary which are different while denoting the same notions, e.g. BE - «trousers», AE -«pants»; in BE «pants», AE is «shorts». While in BE «shorts» are “outwear”. This can lead to misunderstanding.

There are some differences in names of places:

BE	AE
passage	hall
pillar box	mail-box
cross-roads	intersection
tube, underground	subway

Some names of useful objects:

BE	AE
biro	ballpoint
rubber	eraser
parcel	package
torch	flashlight
tap	faucet

Some words connected with food:

BE	AE
aubergine	eggplant
tin	can
sweets	candy
chips	french fries
minced meat	ground beef

Seminar 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE “THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE”

Plan

1. The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the HEL
2. Methods of studying the HEL
3. Sources of studying the HEL
4. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people
5. The periodization of the HEL

Objectives: The students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- comment on the aim, subject, objectives of the course “The History of the English language”;
- analyse and compare the methods and sources of studying the HEL;
- comment on the periods of the HEL
- discuss issues on the theme.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus your attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated problems.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- Design a diagramme for the main events of periodization of the HEL.

Points for discussion

1. The subject, the aim and the main objectives / problems of the HEL, methods and sources of studying the HEL.
2. The periodization of the HEL.
3. English as an Indo-European language. Characteristics of Germanic languages.
4. General characteristics of Old English.
5. General characteristics of ME.
6. General characteristics of Modern English.

I. Project work:

Prepare a project using Power Point Presentation on one of the following themes:

A Chronology of the English Language

55 BCE: Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar

43 CE: Roman invasion and occupation under Emperor Claudius. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain

436: Roman withdrawals from Britain complete

449: Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins

450-480: Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period

597: St. Augustine arrives in Britain. Beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons

731: The Venerable Bede publishes *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* in Latin

792: Viking raids and settlements begin

865: The Danes occupy Northumbria

871: Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose. *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is begun

911: Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Gangler. The beginning of Norman French

c.1000: The oldest surviving manuscript of *Beowulf* dates from this period

1066: The Norman conquest

c.1150: The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period

1171: Henry II conquers Ireland

1204: King John loses the province of Normandy to France

1348: English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin

1349-50: The Black Death kills one third of the British population

1362: The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time

1384: Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible

c.1388: Chaucer begins *The Canterbury Tales*

c.1400: The Great Vowel Shift begins

1476: William Caxton establishes the first English printing press

1485: Caxton publishes Malory's *Le Morte d'Arthur*

1492: Columbus discovers the New World
1525: William Tyndale translates the New Testament
1536: The first Act of Union unites England and Wales
1549: First version of *The Book of Common Prayer*
1564: Shakespeare born
1603: Union of the English and Scottish crowns under James the I (VI of Scotland)
1604: Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, *Table Alphabeticall*
1607: Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established
1611: The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published
1616: Death of Shakespeare
1623: Shakespeare's First Folio is published
1666: The Great Fire of London. End of The Great Plague
1702: Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, in London
1755: Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary
1770: Cook discovers Australia
1776: Thomas Jefferson writes the Declaration of Independence
1782: Washington defeats Cornwallis at Yorktown. Britain abandons the American colonies
1788: British penal colony established in Australia
1803: Act of Union unites Britain and Ireland
1828: Noah Webster publishes his dictionary
1851: Herman Melville publishes *Moby Dick*
1922: British Broadcasting Corporation founded
1928: The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published

Some tips for PPP

- Slides should emphasize your message, not repeat it.
- Presentations should be kept to five minutes if possible, and no longer than 10 minutes, unless in response to a specific request.
- Practice the presentation — time your practice sessions to ensure you keep within your allotted time.
- Avoid reading the slides verbatim.
- Always test the presentation projection.

Seminar 2

ENGLISH ALPHABETS, PRONUNCIATION, SPELLING

Plan

1. Old English alphabet, pronunciation and spelling.
2. Middle English and Early Modern English spelling.

Objectives: The students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- comment on the Old English alphabet, pronunciation and spelling ;
- comment on the changes in alphabet, spelling in ME and EMod E;
- read, translate and analyse OE, ME, EModE texts.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Listen to recordings of English texts, practice pronunciation.
- Use recommended resources.
- List the most complicated problems to discuss.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.

Points for discussion

- Old English / Anglo-Saxon (Englisc).
- Anglo-Saxon runes.
- Old English alphabet.
- Middle English spelling.
- Early Modern English spelling.
- Changes in the alphabet.
- Ways of denoting long vowels.
- Digraphs with “h”.
- Aestheticism of writing and spelling changes.
- The writing habits.

Texts for reading and comparative analysis

I. Cædmon's Hymn

The story of Cædmon is well-known from Book IV, Chapter 24 of the Venerable Bede's Ecclesiastical History. Visitors to Westminster Abbey in London will see the stone placed to the memory of Cædmon in "Poets' Corner".

Old English

Nu sculon herian heofonrices Weard,
Metodes mihte and his modgeþanc,
weorc Wuldorfæder, swa he wundra
gehwæs

ece Dryhten, or onstealde.

He ærest scop eorþan bearnum

heofon to hrofe halig Scieppend.

þa middangeard mancynnes Weard

ece Dryhten, æfter teode

firim foldan Frea ælmihtig.

Modern English

Now [we] must praise [the] Guardian of [the] heavenly kingdom, [the power] of God and his conception,

[the] work of [the] Father of Glory, in that He, eternal Lord, established [the] beginning of every marvellous thing.

He, holy Creator, first created

heaven as a roof for children of men.

Then [the] Guardian of mankind,

eternal Lord, almighty Master, afterwards adorned [the] earth for living beings.

II. The man who built his house on Sand

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

Old English

Se wisa wer timbrode his hus ofer stan.

þa com þær micel flod, and þær bleowon windas, and ahruron on þæt hus, and hit ne feoll: soþlice, hit wæs ofer stan getimbrod.

þa timbrode se dysiga wer his hus ofer sandceosol. þa rinde hit, and þær com flod, and bleowon windas, and ahruron on þæt hus, and þæt hus feoll; and his hryre wæs micel.

Modern English

The wise man built his house on stone.

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

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

III. Abraham and Isaac

Old English

God cwæþ to Abrahame: 'Nim þinne sunu Isaac, and far to þæm dunum, and geoffra hine þær uppan dune.'

Þa aras Abraham on þære nihte, and ferde mid twæm cnapum to þæm dunum, and Isaac samod. Hie ridon on assum. Þa on þone þriddan dæg, þa hie þa dune gesawon, þa cwæþ Abraham to þæm twæm cnapum þus: 'Andbidiþ eow her mid þæm assum!'

Isaac bær þone wudu to þære stowe, and Abraham bær his sweord and fyr. Isaac þa ascode Abraham his fæder: 'Fæder min, hwær is seo offrung? Her is wudu.' Se fæder cwæþ: 'God foresceawþ, min sunu, him self þa offrunge.'

Þa comon hie to þære stowe; and he þær weofod arærde on þa ealdan wisan. Þa band he his sunu, and his sweord ateah. þa he wolde þæt weorc beginnan, þa clipode Godes engel arodlice of heofonum: 'Abraham!' He andswarode sona. Se engel him cwæþ to: 'Ne acwele þu þæt cild!'

Þa geseah Abraham ramm betwix þæm bremlum; and he ahof þone ramm to þære offrunge.

Modern English

God said to Abraham: 'Take your son Isaac, and go to the hills, and offer [ie sacrifice] him there upon a hill.'

Then Abraham arose in the night, and went with two servants to the hills, and Isaac as well. They rode on asses. Then on the third day, when they saw the hills, then Abraham said to the two servants thus: 'Wait here with the asses!'

Isaac carried the wood to the place, and Abraham carried his sword and fire. Isaac then asked Abraham his father: 'My father, where is the offering? Here is wood.' The father said: 'God himself, my son, will provide the offering.'

Then they came to the place, and he there raised an altar in the old manner. Then he bound his son, and drew his sword. When he was about to carry out [lit wished to begin] the deed, then God's angel called quickly from heaven [lit

heavens]: 'Abraham!' He answered at once. The angel said to him: 'Do not kill the child!'

Then Abraham saw a ram amongst the brambles; and he raised up the ram as the offering.

IY. From the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle

This text is a version of a passage from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. The Chronicle, which was begun during the later part of the reign of Alfred the Great, is an annalistic record of events since ancient times, compiled from the Bible, the writings of scholars like Bede, notes made in the margins of the mathematical tables used to calculate the date of Easter, and old traditions. A convenient translation of the Chronicle is by G N Garmonsway (Everyman).

Anno 449. Her Martianus and Valentinus onfengon rice, and ricsodon seofon winter. And on hiera dagum Hengest and Horsa, fram Wyrtheorne gelapode, Bretta cyninge, gesohton Bretene on þæm stede þe is genemned Ypwines-fleot, ærest Brettum to fultume, ac hie eft on hie fuhton. Se cyning het hie feohtan ongean Peohtas; and hie swa dydon, and sige hæfdon swa hwær swa hie comon. Hie þa sendon to Angle, and heton him sendan maran fultum. Þa sendon hie him maran fultum. þa comon þa menn of þrim mægþum Germanie: of Ealdseaxum, of Englum, of Iotum.

Anno 455. Her Hengest and Horsa fuhton wiþ Wyrtheorne þæm cyninge in þære stowe þe is genemned Æglesþrep; and his broþor Horsan man ofslog. And æfter þæm Hengest feng to rice, and Æsc his sunu.

Anno 457. Her Hengest and Æsc fuhton wiþ Brettas in þære stowe þe is genemned Crecganford, and þær ofslogon feower þusend wera. þa forleton þa Brettas Centland, and mid micle ege flugon to Lundenbyrig.

Modern English

Anno 449. In this year [lit here] Martianus and Valentinus succeeded to [lit received] kingship, and ruled seven years. And in their days Hengest and Horsa, invited by Vortigern, king of [the] Britons, came to Britain at the place which is called Ebbsfleet, first as a help to [the] Britons, but they afterwards fought against them. The king commanded them to fight against [the] Picts; and they did so, and had victory wherever they came. Then they sent to Angeln, and told them to send more help. They then sent to them more help. Then the men came from three tribes in Germany: from [the] Old Saxons, from [the] Angles, from [the] Jutes.

455. In this year Hengest and Horsa fought against Vortigern the king in the place which is called Aylesford; and his brother Horsa was slain [lit one slew his brother Horsa]. And after that Hengest and Æsc his son succeeded to kingship [lit Hengest succeeded to kingship, and Æsc his son].

457. In this year Hengest and Æsc fought against [the] Britons in the place which is called Crayford, and there slew four thousand men [lit of men]. The Britons then abandoned Kent, and with great fear fled to London.

V. Daniel

This Text is a version of the well-known Biblical story (Daniel 6)

On Cyres cyninges dagum wregdon þa Babiloniscan þone witegan Daniel, for þæm þe he hiera deofolgielð towearp. Hie cwædon anmodlice to þæm cyninge: 'Gief us Daniel, þe urne god Bel towearp. Gif þu hine forstande, we fordilgiap þe and þinne hired.'

Þa geseah se cyning þæt hie anmode wæron, and þone witegan him geaf. Hie þa hine awurpon into anum seape, on þæm wæron seofon leon.

On þæm seofþan dæge ferde se cyning to þara leona seape, and inn beseah. Hwæt! Daniel wæs sittende gesundfull onmiddan þæm leom. Þa clipode se cyn- ing mid micelre stefne: 'Mære is se God þe Daniel on belieþ.' And he þa mid þæm worde hine ateah of þæm scræfe, and het inn weorpan þa þe hine ær fordon woldon. Þa wurdon þæs witegan ehteras ascofene betwix þæm leom, and hie þærrichte mid grædgum ceafum hie ealle totæron.

Modern English

In the days of King Cyrus, the Babylonians accused the prophet Daniel, because he overthrew their idol. They said unanimously to the king: 'Give us Daniel, who overthrew our god Baal. If you protect him, we [will] destroy you and your family.'

Then the king saw that they were unanimous, and gave them the prophet. They then threw him into a pit, in which [there] were seven lions.

On the seventh day, the king went to the lions' pit, and looked in. Lo! Daniel was sitting safe and sound in the midst of the lions. Then the king called with a great voice: 'Glorious is the God in whom Daniel believes.' And he then with that word took him out of the pit, and commanded to be thrown in [lit to throw in] those who had wanted [lit wanted formerly] to destroy him. Then the prophet's persecutors were thrust among the lions, and they straightway with greedy jaws tore them all to pieces.

VI. From “The dream of the Rood”

The poem is recorded in its fullest form in the Vercelli Book, a late-tenth-century West Saxon manuscript which was left in Northern Italy in Anglo-Saxon times. Vercelli is on the road to Rome; the manuscript was either abandoned or forgotten by a pious Anglo-Saxon pilgrim. An Old Northumbrian version of part of the poem also appears, carved in runic script, on the late-seventh-/early-eighth-century Ruthwell Cross in Dumfries-shire. The poem is a dream-vision in which the Cross appears to the Dreamer-Narrator and speaks to him. Section (a) is the introduction to the poem, and section (b) is part of the speech of the Cross.

Old English

Hwæt, ic swefna cyst secgan wylle,
hwæt me gemætte to midre nihte
siþþan reordberend reste wunedon.
þuhte me þæt ic gesawe syllicre treow
on lyft lædan leohte bewunden,
beama beorhtost. Eall þæt beacen wæs
begoten mid golde; gimmas stodon
fægere æt foldan sceatum,
swylce þær fife wæron
uppe on þæm eaxlegespanne.
Beheoldon þær engeldryhta fela
fægere þurh forþgesceaft;
ne wæs þær huru fracodes gealga,
ac hine þær beheoldon halige gastas,
men ofer moldan,
and eall þeos mære gesceaft.

Modern English

Behold, I wish to tell the best of dreams
which I dreamt at the middle of the night,
after speakers remained in rest.
It seemed to me that I saw a wondrous tree
rise into [the] air surrounded by light,
brightest of trees. The entire symbol was
covered with gold; beautiful gems
stood on the earth's surface,
likewise there were five

up on the crossbeam.
Many angel hosts there looked on,
beautiful throughout creation;
nor was [it] there indeed a criminal's gallows,
but holy spirits looked on it there,
men above heaven
and all this glorious creation

VII. From the General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales

The Canterbury Tales, from which texts (1) - (3) are all taken, was Chaucer's last major work, undertaken largely in the last decade of the fourteenth century. Chaucer's aim was to present a series of stories within a linking framework. Such a structure was fashionable among contemporaries; it is exemplified in English by John Gower's *Confessio Amantis*, which was completed in its first form in 1390, and in Italian by Boccaccio in his *Decameron*. The chosen framework for Chaucer's poem was that of a pilgrimage to the shrine of Thomas Becket (martyred 1170) at Canterbury, perhaps the most important cult-centre in England during the later Middle Ages.

Text (1) is the opening of the complete cycle of tales: The General Prologue. The complex syntax, beginning with two lengthy Adverbial Clauses which themselves contain subordinate elements, reflects the complexity of the underlying thought, with its reference to medieval thinking on the processes of nature in relation to the grander workings of the universe. The opening is reminiscent of the opening of the dream-visions with which Chaucer began his poetic career (*The Book of the Duchess*, *The House of Fame*, *The Parliament of Fowls*); but in contrast to these texts the vision encountered is a real medieval event, a pilgrimage. A marginal glossary has been supplied. Glossed words are noted in the text.

Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote (1)
The droghte (2) of March hath perced (3) to the roote,
And bathed euery veyne (4) in swich licour (5)
Of which vertu engendred is the flour (6);
Whan Zephirus (7) eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired (8) hath in euery holt (9) and heeth
The tendre croppes (10), and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his half cours yronne (11),

And smale fowelesmaken melodye,
 That slepen al the nyght with open eye (12)
 (So priketh (13) hem nature in hir corages (14)),
 Thanne longen (15) folk to goon on pilgrimages,
 And palmeres (16) for to seken straunge strondes (17),
 To ferne halwes(18), kowthe in sondry londes (19);
 And specially from euery shires ende
 Of Engelond to Caunterburythey wende,
 The hooly blisful martir for to seke,
 That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke (20).

1. sweet showers
2. drought;
3. pierced
4. vein; 5. such liquid
6. 'by which power the flower is engendered'
7. 'Zephyrus, the west wind of spring'
8. breathed life into; 9. grove
10. shoots
11. 'the young sun has run his half-course in the ram' (ie. the sign of Aries).
 Chaucer's interest in astrology is well-attested, not least by his composition of a textbook on the subject for his son, A Treatise on the Astrolabe. The sun is "young" because the solar year has just begun with the spring equinox.
12. with open eye(s). This seems to have been an original observation by Chaucer. In the Riverside Chaucer it is noted that "one can rarely see a bird with its eyes closed, since most birds have two sets of eyelids, and that which they use for blinking is transparent." ;
13. incites; 14. spirits
15. long, desire
16. palmeres pilgrims to the holy land. Such pilgrims wre known as "palmers" because they carried a palm-branch as a sign that they had been to Palestine;
17. foreign shores
18. distant shrines
19. 'known in various lands'
20. sick

VIII. From the Tragedie of Hamlet

Early Modern English

Hamlet was composed in the first decade of the seventeenth century, and survives in several versions; it seems clear that it was modified at various times to suit different theatrical situations. Like the other plays of the period, it deals with questions of appearance and reality, transience and fortune. The passage given here, where Hamlet, accompanied by his friend Horatio, is shown Yorick's skull by the Gravedigger (= Clo., ie. Clown), includes a meditation on these themes.

The passage allows for the interplay of conversation across social classes. Several features of the Gravedigger's language mark him off as a colloquial speaker, eg. has HAS (cf. Hamlet's contrasting hath, although see also my gorge rises at it), a HE.

Clo. Why sir, his hide is so tan'd with his Trade, that he will keepe out water a great while. And your water, is a sore Decayer of your horson dead body. Heres a Scull now: this Scul has laine in the earth three & twenty years.

Ham. Whose was it? 5

Clo. A whoreson mad Fellowes it was;

Whose doe you thinke it was?

Ham. Nay, I know not.

Clo. A pestlence on him for a mad rogue, a pou'rd a Flaggon of Renish on my head once. This same Scull Sir, this same Scull sir, was Yoricks Scull, the King's jester.

Ham. This? 12

Clo. E'ene that.

Ham. Let me see. Alas poor Yorick, I knew him Horatio, a fellow of infinite Iest; of most excellent fancy, he hath borne me on his backe a thousand times: And how abhorred my Imagination is, my gorge rises at it. Heere hung those lipps, that I haue kist I know not how oft, Where be your Iibes now? Your Gambals? Your Songs? Your flashes of Merriment that were wont to set the Table on a Rore? No one now to mock your own Ieering? Quite chopfalne? Now get you to my Ladies Chamber, and tell her, let her paint an inch thicke, to this fauour she must come. Make her laugh at that: prythee Horatio tell me one thing.

Hor. What's that my Lord? 24

Ham. Dost thou thinke Alexander lookt o'this **fashion** i'th' earth?

Hor. E'ene so.

Ham. And smelt so? Puh.

Hor. E'ene so, my Lord.

Ham. To what base vses we may returne Horatio. Why may not Imagination trace the Noble dust of Alexander, till he find it stopping a bunghole.

Hor. `Twere to consider: to curiously consider so. 33

Ham. No faith, not a iot. But to follow him thether with modestie enough, & likelihood to lead it; as thus. Alexander died: Alexander was buried: Alexander returneth into dust; the dust is earth; of earth we make Lome, and why of that Lome (whereto he was conuerted) might they not stopp a Beere-barrell? 39

Imperial Cæsar, dead and turn'd to clay,

Might stop a hole to keepe the winde away.

Oh, that that earth, which kept the world in awe,

Should patch a Wall, t'expell the winters flaw.

But soft, but soft, aside; heere comes the King. 44

10) Renish: RHENISH WINE

(15) fancy: FANTASTICALNESS

(17) gorge: ie., what has been swallowed (thus Hamlet claims that he is about to vomit)

(20) on a Rore: PROVOKE TO A ROAR OF MIRTH

(21) chopfalne: WITH CHEEKS FALLEN IN

(22) fauour: APPEARANCE

(33) curiously: PARTICULARLY

(35) modestie: MODERATION

(37) Lome: LOAM, CLAY

(43) flaw: SUDDEN BLAST OF WIND

Seminar 3

PHONOLOGICAL HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY Old English Phonological System

Plan

1. Discuss the phonetic processes in the OE vocalic system:

Independent changes:

- a) development of monophthongs;
- b) development of diphthongs

2. Assimilative changes:

- a) breaking,
- b) diphthongization;
- b) mutation;
- c) back mutation;
- d) mutation before h

3. Discuss the following phonetic processes in the old English consonantal system:

- voicing and devoicing of fricatives, hardening, rhotacism;
- palatalization, assimilation, loss of consonants etc.

Objectives: The students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- comment on the diagramme “Tree climbing from PIE to English”;
- summarize phonological processes through the history of the English language;
- discuss issues on the theme.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated problems.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.

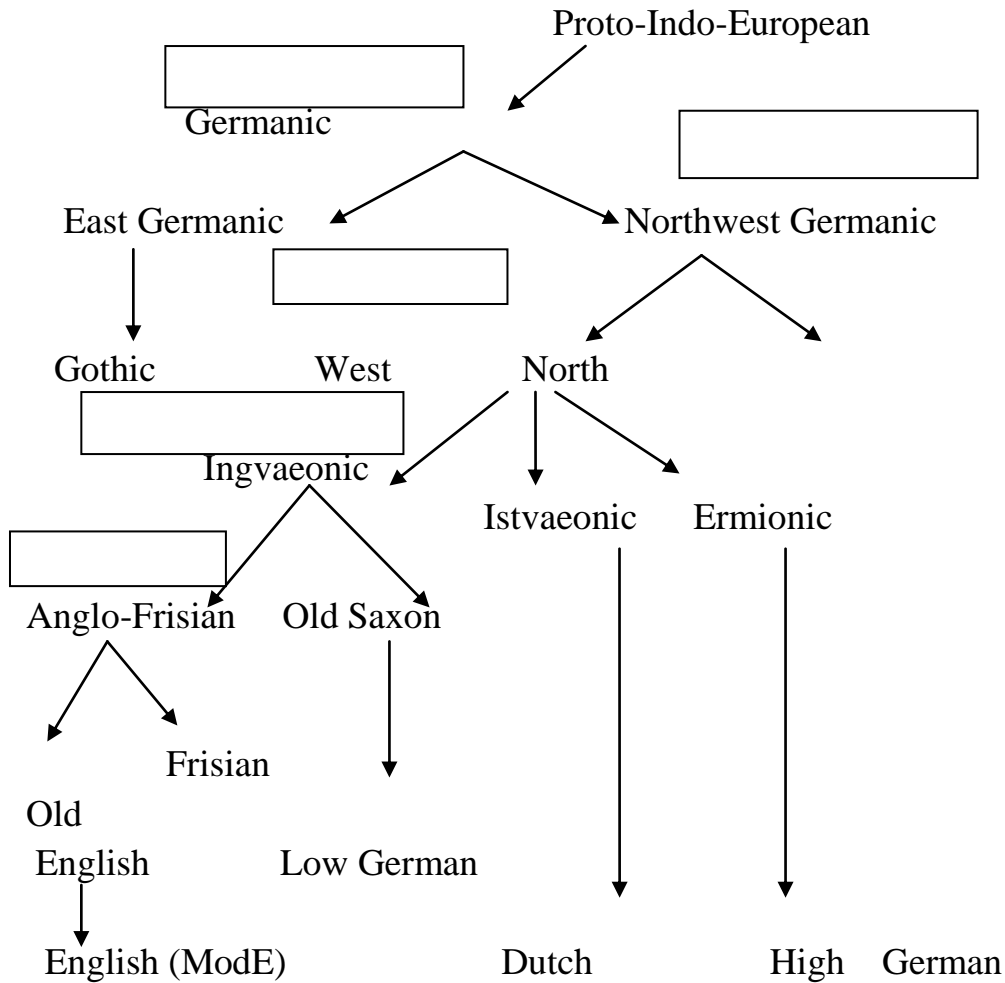
Points for discussion

1. What is the difference between phonetics and phonology?
2. What is each branching of the language family tree is characterized by?
3. How many vowels were in Old English?
4. What syllable was under the accent (stress) in OE?
5. What quality of the vowel was a distinctive feature?

6. What are the most well-known phonetic laws in comparative studies?
7. Comment on the phonetic processes in the old English consonantal system.
8. Give the examples of palatalization, assimilation, loss of consonants, hardening, rhotacism, metathesis of r, gemination, contraction.

Practical Assignments

1. Complete the missing parts of the diagramme “Tree climbing from PIE to English”.



2. Compile a table of the phonetic processes of OE vowels and consonants.
3. Define and comment on the phonetic processes which are illustrated by the following pairs of words.

fulian –fyllan (fill), bronhter – brōhter (brought), fimf- fif (five), tallian–tellan (tell), salian–sellan (sell), sēcan- sōcte-sōhte (seek-sought), tihan- tēon (accuse) fohan-fōn (catch), tallian–tellan (tell), salian–sellan (sell), scearp –sharp, sciold – shield, wascan –wash, pridda- pirda (third), hira – hiora (their),silufr – sioluf (silver), skal- sceal (shall), skāggwon - scēawian (to show), ahta > eahta (eight) talde > tealde (told), herte >heorte (heart), melcan > meolcan (to milk), feh > feoh (cattle)

4. Exercise **I-umlaut**

In the following examples, the first word in each pair has an unmutated vowel while the second word is a related form with a mutated vowel. Supply the missing letter.

lārian – l_ ran (to learn, to teach)
 hālian – h_ lan (to heal)
 ofstian – _fstan (to hurry)
 dohter – d_ hter (dative case of daughter)
 wōpian – w_ pan (to weep)
 dōmian – d_ man (to deem)

5. Exercise **Breaking (fracture)**

In the following examples, the first word in each pair has a vowel before **breaking** while the second word is a related form with some changes. Supply the missing letters.

hard > h_ rd (hard)
 arm > _rm (arm)
 ahta > _hta (eight)
 talde > t_ lde (told)
 warm > w_ rm (warm)
 herte >h_ rte (heart)
 melcan > m_ lcan (to milk)
 feh > f_ h (cattle)

6. Exercise **Diphthongization after palatal consonants**

In the following examples, the first word in each pair has a vowel before **diphthongization after palatal consonants** while the second word is a related form with some changes. Supply the missing letters in both columns .

Sk_ l – sceal (shall)
 skāggwon – sc_ wian (to show)

Ʒefan – Ʒ_fan (give)

Ʒ_f – Ʒ_eaf (gave),

Ʒ_æt – Ʒ_t (gate)

j_r – Ʒ_ēar (year)

scort – sc_rt (short),

yong– Ʒ_nƷ , (young)

7. Account for the difference between the vowels in OE *þæt, eal, monn*, all going back to PG words with [a] (Gt: *þata, manna, alls*). Account for the interchange of vowels in OE *dæge - dagas* (NE *day* – Dat. Sg and Nom. Pl.); *bæp - bapian* (NE *bath, bathe*).

8. Explain the term “mutation” and innumeratr the changes referred to the mutations in Late PG and in Early OE. What do they all have in common?

9. Define the sound values of the letters *f, p, s* and comment on the system of OE consonant phonemes: OE *heofon, faran, ge-faran, háfde, offerung, ofer* (NE *heaven, fare, had, offering, over*); *oppe, oper, Norp, panne* (‘*or*’, *other, North, then*); *sæ, wisse, cēosan, cēas* (NE *sea, ‘knew’, choose, chose*).

10. What consonant and vowel changes are illustrated by the following pairs of words:

<i>Gt maiza</i>	- OE <i>māra</i> (NE <i>more</i>)
<i>Gt kunþian</i>	- OE <i>cypan</i> (‘ <i>inform</i> ’)
<i>Gt dauþs</i>	- OE <i>dēad</i> (NE <i>dead</i>)
<i>Gt saljan</i>	- OE <i>sellan</i> (NE <i>sell</i>)
<i>OE þyncan</i>	- OE <i>þūhte</i> (NE <i>think.-thought</i>)
<i>OE mægden</i>	- <i>máden</i> (NE <i>maiden</i>)
<i>Gt kinnus</i>	- OE <i>cinn</i> (NS <i>chin</i>)
<i>OHG isarn</i>	- OE <i>īren</i> (NE <i>iron</i>)
<i>Gt hausjan</i>	- OE <i>hīeren</i> (NE <i>hear</i>)
<i>O.Scand. skaft</i>	- OE <i>scaft</i> (NE <i>shaft</i>)

11. Text for analysis: “Cura Pastoralis”

Ælfred **kyning** hāteþ **grētan** Wærfed **biscep** his **wordum luflice** ond **freondlice** ond pe cýpan hāte ðæt mē com swīpe oft on **gemynd**, **hwelce** wiotan īu wáeron giond Angelcynn ægper gē godcundra hāda gē worulgcundra; ond hū gesæliglīca **tīda** pā wáeron giond Angelcynn; ... (But now there are very few learned men in England).

(Words in bold type are for phonological analysis).

12. Read the Grendel episode (lines 740-757) from Beowulf. Compare Old English with Present Day English from phonological point of view. Suggest your own translation.

he gefeng hrape forman sipe
He (Grendel) grabbed quickly first time
slæpndne rinc, slat unwearnum,
Sleeping warrior wounded suddenly
bat banlocan, blod edrum dranc,
Bit muscle blood vein drank
synsnædum swealh; sona hæfde
Chunks swallowed; soon had
unlyfigendes eal gefeormod,
Eaten all the dead men
fet ond folma. Forp near ætstop,
foot and hand Onwards nearer stepped
nam þa mid handa higeþihtigne
seized then with hand courageous
rinc on ræste, ræhte ongean
warrior on bed reached towards
feond mid folme; he onfeng hrape
fiend with hand he took hold of quickly
inwitþancum ond wip earm gesæt.
With evil intent and with arm bent
Sona þæt onfunde fyrena hyrde
Soon that discovered evil guardian
þæt he ne mette middangeardes,
That he not met the world
eorþan sceata, on elran men
Earth's surface on other men
mundgripe maran. ***A mightier handgrasp.***

Seminar 4

Middle English & New English Phonological Systems

Plan

1. Middle English Phonological System.

1.1. Middle English Vowel System;

1.2. Middle English Consonant System.

2. Modern (New) English Phonological System.

2.1. Modern (New) English Vowel System;

2.2. Modern (New) English Consonant System.

Objectives: The students will be able to

- familiarize with the terms “Middle English” and “Modern (New) English”;
- account for major phonological processes in the period of Middle English and Modern (New) English;
- compare Grimm’s Law and Verner’s Law
- analyse pictures, tables on the theme.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- Prepare a one-page sketch of the lecture.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.

Points for discussion

1. What are the reasons of fundamental changes in Middle English phonology?
2. What phonological features are typical of that period?
3. What are the features of Word Stress in ME and Early NE?
4. Comment on quantitative vowel changes in Early ME.
5. Comment on qualitative vowel changes in Early ME.
6. What sounds (consonants or vowels) were more stable?
7. What consonants appeared in ME?
8. What phonological factor and when separated Middle English from Modern English?
9. What happened to long vowels and short vowels?
10. What are the typical features of Modern (New) English Consonant System?

Practical assignments

1. Explain the phonetic changes in the following OE words which took place in ME.

OE hlāf – ME lof ‘loaf’, ‘bread’	OE ȝōs –ME goos ‘goose’
OE hlāf – ME lof ‘loaf’, ‘bread’	OE lufian – ME loven ‘to love’
OE sēcan – ME seken, ‘to seek’	OE dæȝ– ME day ‘day’
OE cild– ME child ‘child’	OE nama – ME name ‘name’
OE hlysten – ME listen ‘to listen’	OE ecȝe– ME edge ‘edge’
OE fisc – ME fish ‘to fish’	OE fȝyr – ME fir ‘fire’

2. State which words are OE and which words are ME. Give your reasons:

Sōna – sone	nefa – neve
Mous – mūs	child –cild
ȝȳt –yet	mydnyght–mid-niht

3. Fill in the gaps:

food ME [o:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]
boat ME [ɔ:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]
tide ME [i:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]
make ME [æ:]	EModE [__]/EModE [__]	PDE [__]
green ME [e:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]
meat ME [ɜ:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]
house ME [u:]	EModE [__]	PDE [__]

4. Read the following Early Modern text. Some words are marked.

a) Compare their pronunciation to the PDE pronunciation and write down the development of their vowels (example: make EModE [æ:] - PE [eɪ]).

b) Which of these developments belong to the GVS? Which of them belong to other changes described above? (example: make EModE [æ:] - PE [eɪ] belongs to the GVS)

T3 Lily/Colet (1549)

(48) The first and chieffest poynte is, that the diligente mayster make not the scholar haste to **much**, **but** that he

(50) in contynuaunce and dilygence of **teachynge**, make hym reherse so, that whyle he haue perfectly that, that is behynde, he suffre hym not to go forwarde. For this postynge haste, ouerthroweth and hurteth a **greate** sorte of wyttes, and casteth them into an amasednesse, whan they knowe not,

(55) howe they shall eyther goe forwarde or **backward**[...]

Bifel that in that seasoun on a **day**

bi'fel pat 'in pat 'sɜ:zun 'ɔn a 'dai

(20) In Southwerk at the Tabard as **I lay**

In 'su:θwerk 'at pə 'tabard 'az i:'lai

Redy to wenden on my pilgrimage

'rɜ:di tɔ: 'wendən 'ɔn mi: 'pilgri'ma:dʒə

To Caunterbury with ful deuout corage,

tɔ: 'kauntər'bri wiθ 'ful de'vu:t ku'ra:dʒ

At nyght were come into that hostelrye

At 'niXt wɜ:r 'kum in'tɔ: pat 'hostel'rIə

Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignve

wel 'nin and 'twenti 'in a 'kumpai'nIə

(25) Of soundry folk, by autenture yfalle

Of 'sundri 'fɔlk bi: 'aventi'ur i'fallə

In felawshipe, and pilgrymes were they alle

In 'felau'ʃip and 'pilgrimz 'wɜ:r pai 'allə

That toward Canterbury wolden ryde.

pat 'tɔ:ward 'kauntər'buri 'wɔldən 'ridə

The chambers and the stables were wyde

pə 'tʃa:mbrɜz 'and pə 'sta:blɜz 'wɜ:rən 'widə

And wel we weren esed atte beste

And 'wel wɜ: 'wɜ:rən 'ɜzəd 'attə 'bestə

(30) And shortly, whan the sonne was to reste,

And 'ʃortli 'wan pə 'sunnə 'was tɔ: 'restə

So hadde I spoken with hem euerichon

sɔ: 'had i: 'spɔ:kən 'wip hem 'ɜvri'tSɔ:n

That I was of hir felawshipe anon,

pat 'I waz 'ɔv hir 'felau'ʃip a'nɔ:n

And made forward erly for to ryse,

And 'ma:də 'forward 'ɜ:rli 'for tə 'rizə

To **take** oure wey ther as I yow deuyse.

tɔ: 'ta:k u:r 'wai 'pɜ:r 'az i: 'ju: de'vizə

(35) But nathelees, whil I haue **tyme** and **space**,

But 'napəlɜ:s wi:l i: hav 'tim and spa:sə

Er that I ferther in this tale **pace**,

'ɜ:r pat i: 'fɜ:pər 'in pis 'ta:lə 'pa:sə.

8. Fill in the gap and note some changes from ME to EModE and compare them to PDE.

ME	EModE	PDE
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] day
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] I
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] lay
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] take
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] time
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] space
[_____]	→ [_____]	→ [_____] pace

Seminar 5

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Plan

HISTORICAL MORPHOLOGY

- 1.1. Nouns;
- 1.2. Adjectives;
- 1.3. Pronouns;
- 1.4. Adverbs;
- 1.5. Numerals;
- 1.6. Prepositions;
- 1.7. Conjunctions;
- 1.8. Interjections.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- define the main terms of historical morphology;
- compare the processes of development of the parts of speech in English in OE, ME, EModE;
- classify different parts of speech according to the main categories;
- use a “magic sheet” as a guide to decline parts of speech;
- analyse and compare the processes of historical morphology.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated problems.
- Perform practical assignments, check your theoretical and practical skills through recommended multiple-choice tests.

Points for discussion:

1. Typical features of OE parts of speech.
2. Innovations in ME parts of speech.
3. Innovations in EModE parts of speech.

Practical assignments:

I. Read Old English extract from “Beowulf”. Find 5 nouns and 5 adjectives. Analyse them (grammatical categories, type of declension) and compare with Modern English equivalents.

Hwæt! Wé Gárdena in géardagum
Listen! We --of the Spear-Danes in the days of yore,
þeodcyninga þrym gefrúnon·
of those clan-kings-- heard of their glory.
hú ðá æþelingas ellen fremedon.
how those nobles performed courageous deeds.
Oft Scyld Scéþing sceapena þrátum
Often Scyld, Scef's son, from enemy hosts
monegum maéþpum meodosetla oftéah·
from many peoples seized mead-benches;
egsode Eorle syððan aérest wearð
and terrorised the fearsome Heruli after first he was
féasceaft funden hé þæs frófre gebád·
found helpless and destitute, he then knew recompense for that:-
wéox under wolcnum· weorðmyndum þáh
he waxed under the clouds, throve in honours,
oð þæt him aéghwylc þára ymbsittendra
until to him each of the bordering tribes
ofer hronráde hōran scolde,
beyond the whale-road had to submit,
gomban gyldan· þæt wæs gód cyning.
and yield tribute:- that was a good king!
Ðaém eafera wæs æfter cenned
To him a heir was born then
geong in gearðum þone god sende
young in the yards, God sent him
folce tó frófre· fyrenðearfe ongeat·
to comfort the people; He had seen the dire distress
þæt hie aéer drugon aldorléase
that they suffered before, leader-less
lange hwíle· him þæs líffréa
a long while; them for that the Life-Lord,
wuldres wealdend woroldáre forgeaf:

Ruler of Glory, granted honour on earth:

Béowulf wæs bréme --blaéd wíde sprang

Beowulf (Beaw) was famed -his renown spread wide

Scyldes eafera Scedelandum in.

Scyld's heir, in Northern lands.

II. Case and number of nouns: Fill in the blanks.

It is important to be able to recognize the case and number of any noun. To get this information, you'll need to look sometimes at endings and other markings, sometimes at modifiers, especially pronouns (so *se man* is nominative, but *þone man* is accusative), and sometimes at other elements of the context. For each of the following short, simple sentences, indicate the case and number of the noun in **bold type**.

1. Mīn **brōþor** dranc þæt bēor.

case _____ number _____

2. Þis is mīnes **hlāfordes** hrægl.

case _____ number _____

3. Þis is mīnre cwēne **hrægl**.

case _____ number _____

4. Mīn sweostor dranc þæt **bēor**.

case _____ number _____

5. Þis is mīnre **cwēne** bēor.

case _____ number _____

6. Ic sǣde manig þing þām **cyninge**.

case _____ number _____

7. Ēadgār sǣde manig þing þǣre **cwēne**.

case _____ number _____

8. Healdap¹⁰ þisne **dæg** on ēowrum gemynde.

case _____ number _____

9. Ic hæbbe þone sang on mīnum **gemynde**.

case _____ number _____

10. Sceal ic singan þone **sang**?

case _____ number _____

III. Decline the noun **stān** 'stone'

IV. Decline the nouns nama 'name', ēage 'eye', and tunge 'tongue'

case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative						
Genitive						
Dative						
Accusative						

V. Decline the early Modern English words engel (angel) and name (name) which demonstrate the two patterns: strong and weak

case	strong		weak	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
nom/acc				
gen				
dat				

VI. Determining the gender of nouns

Frequently you will want to know the gender of a noun. You can always find out from a glossary, of course, but there are other ways to tell. Here are some pointers.

If a singular noun is accompanied by a demonstrative pronoun, the gender of the pronoun is often unambiguous. For each of the following singular noun phrases, identify the gender of the pronoun and noun. Consult the paradigms in tables before you look up the noun in a glossary.

¹⁰ Healdap: a plural imperative.

þǣre tīde _____ þone naman _____

sēo cearu _____ þisre nihte _____

þās tīpe _____ þā lāfe _____

þis hr̄yþer _____ þisne lām _____

þæt tōl _____ se weg _____

þeos byrgen _____ þes morgen _____

VII. The nominative or accusative plural of a noun can often reveal its gender. For each of the following nominative plurals, indicate the gender.

hēafdu _____ lǣswa _____

randas _____ dǣda _____

þing _____ tunglas _____

giefra _____ scipu _____

dagas _____ secgas _____

glēda _____ sceattas _____

VIII. Give the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives: Zōd (good), yfel (bad), lȳtel (small), mycel (much)

IX. Decline the pronouns ic, þū, hē, hēo

X. Group adverbs into two categories: simple and derived.

wīde (widely), þonne (then), þæ'r (there), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), þider (thither), nú (now), hearde (hard), hér (here), hider (hither);

XI. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents.

1. hundælleftig	1. one hundred and twenty
2. hundtwelftig	2. two hundred
3. tú hund	3. one hundred and ten
4. þúsend	4. two thousand
5. tú þúsendu	5. one thousand

XII. Match OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents.

1. þrīttigofa	1. the thirtieth
2. féowertigofa	2. the fiftieth
3. fīftigofa	3. the fortieth
4. hundtǣntigofa	4. the hundredth

XIII. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents.

1. geond	1. until
2. op	2. through, throughout
3. þurh	3. through
4. ymb(e)	4. about, around

XIV. Match modern conjunctions with their OE equivalents.

1. because	1. ac
2. but	2. hwæþere
3. however	3. (ǣgþer) oþþe
4. either... or... (or...)	4. for þǣm

XV. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents.

1. binnan	1. above, over
2. bufan	2. over
3. ofer	3. on, in
4. on	4. within

Seminar 6

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Plan

1. HISTORICAL MORPHOLOGY

1.1 OE Verbs;

1.1.1. ME Verbs;

1.1.2. EModE Verbs;

2. HISTORICAL SYNTAX

2.1. OE syntax;

2.2. ME syntax;

2.3. EModE syntax.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- compare the processes of verb formation in OE; ME; EModE;
- differentiate strong and weak verbs, preterit-present, anomalous verbs, non-finite forms of the OE verbs.
- classify OE, ME and EModE verbs, group the verbs according to the main categories;
- use a “magic sheet” as a guide to a verb conjugation;
- analyse and compare the processes of historical syntax.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- List a number of key terms by memory.
- List the most complicated problems.
- Perform practical assignments, check your theoretical and practical skills through recommended multiple-choice tests.

Points for discussion:

1. The OE system of finite verb-forms.
2. Anomalous verbs.
3. The OE verbals.
4. Innovations in a verb system in ME.

5. Innovations in a verb system in EModE.
6. Typical features of OE syntax.
7. Typical features of ME syntax.
8. Typical features of EModE syntax.

Practical assignments:

I. Define which of the verb conjugations (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th) the following rows of strong verbs belong to. Complete the columns of the following tables.

bacan– bæcp– bōc –bōcon– bacen (to bake)

flōwan– flēwp– flēow– flēowon –flōwen (to flow)

sprecan –spricp –spræc– spræcon– sprecen (to speak)

cēosan– cīesp– cēas– curon– coren (to choose)

wrītan –wrītt – wrāt –writon–written (to write)

helpan– hilpp– healp– hulpon– holpen (to help)

nīman– nīmp– nam– nōmon– numen (to take)

Strong Verbs

Class I

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 Ī Ī Ā I I

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class II

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 Ēo/ū Īe/ȳ Ēa U O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class III

1st graduation series:

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 E E Æ U O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

2nd graduation series:

Infinitive Present 1st Past 2nd Past Past participle
 Eo Eo Ea U O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

3rd graduation series:

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 E E Ea U O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

4th graduation series:

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 Ie Ie Ea U O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

5th graduation series:

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 I I A U U

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class IV Strong Verbs

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 E I Æ Ǣ O

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class V Strong Verbs

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past past participle
 E I Æ Ǣ E

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class VI Strong Verbs

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 A Ō Ō A

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

Class VII Strong Verbs

Infinitive Present 1st past 2nd past Past participle
 ? ēo/ē ēo/ē (same as infinitive)

Infinitive	Present	1st past	2nd past	Past participle

II. Define which verbs of those listed below belong to the 1st, 2nd, 3rd class of weak verbs. Complete the columns of the table.

Begnornian (to deplore), sendan (to send), forspendan (to spend), timbrian (to build), baþian (to bathe), cēāþian (to buy), dēman (to deem), fæstan (to fasten), lufian (to love), hycgan (to think), libban/lifgan (to live), secgan (to say)

Weak verbs

1 st class	2 nd class	3 rd class
fremman	lufian	hycgan

III. Explore strong verbs

For each of the following sentences, fill in the blanks to supply the requested information about the verb in bold type (but leave the blanks that do not apply); then translate the sentence. All of the verbs for this exercise are in the indicative mood.

1. Ūre cyning **ligð** on þære wælstōwe.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

2. Ūre f̄y nd **licgað** on heora beddum.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

3. Ic **ǣt** þone forbodenan¹¹ æppel.

¹¹ forbodenan: past part. of forbēodan 'forbid'.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

4. Ic ēow **gehāte** micel on golde and on seolfre.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

5. Crist **ārās** of dēaðe on þām þridan dæge.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

6. Hīe **bæron** þæs **biscopes** līc tō Lundene.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

7. Se hlāford āna **færð** in þurh þæt geat.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

IV. Explore weak verbs

For each of the following sentences, fill in the blanks to supply the requested information about the verb in bold type (but leave the blanks that do not apply); then translate the sentence. All of the verbs for this exercise are in the indicative mood.

1. Þeos bōc **seġð** þæt Hrōpgār gōd cyning wære.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

2. **Gehȳrst** þū þā wēdende¹² wulfas?

person _____ number _____ tense _____

3. Þā wigan āwēston¹³ eall þæt hīe **mētton**.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

4. Hwæt **leornodest** þū be þām steorrum?

person _____ number _____ tense _____

5. Þis hūs **þyncþ** mē swīpe lȳtel.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

6. Hīe **wilniað** lof and wuldor tō hæbbenne.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

7. Þā unġelæredan **sōhton** wīsdōm, ac hī næfdon nānne lārēow.

person _____ number _____ tense _____

V. Conjugate the verb *gán* (to go)

¹² wēdende: rampaging

¹³ āwēston: laid waste

VI. Comment on the analytical forms of the Future Tense. Compare them with ModE ones:

Thou shalt na-more do me to sing...

Ne never-mo he shal his lady see...

VII. Comment on the analytical forms of the Passive Voice in ME and ModE.

He was geven his lif.

Arcite is banished on his heed...

Ther worddis of this biscop ought to be taken hede to.

VIII. Determine the forms of the verbals:

That oon of hem, in sleeping as he lay, him mette a wonder dreem...

We haven deserved to be slayn.

He hadde schame to schrife him of many sinnis.

him spekinge thes thindis, many men believeden into him.

Seminar 7

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND WORD-BUILDING

Plan

1. OE Vocabulary:

1.1. Native words:

1.1.1. Common IE words;

1.1.2. Common Germanic words;

1.1.3. West Germanic words;

1.1.4. Specifically Old English words;

2. Lexical borrowings in Old English:

2.1. Celtic element;

2.2. Latin words;

3. Word-building in Old English.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- analyse and compare the processes of development of OE vocabulary;
- compare the processes of word-building in OE ;
- analyse and compare OE borrowings in the terms of etymology and word-building

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- Consult recommended internet-recourses, etymological dictionaries.
- List the most complicated problems and be ready to discuss them with a lecturer and fellow students.
- Perform practical assignments, check your theoretical and practical skills through recommended multiple-choice tests.

Points for discussion:

1. Development of OE Vocabulary.
2. Native words.
3. Common IE words.
4. Common Germanic words.
5. West Germanic words.
6. Specifically Old English words.
7. Lexical borrowings in Old English.
8. Celtic element.
9. Latin words;
10. Word-building in Old English.

Practical assignments

I. Define the following terms: “a native word”, “common Germanic words”, “common IE words”, “specifically OE words”, “West Germanic words”

II. Arrange the following words into the groups: “natural phenomena”, “plants and animals”, “agricultural terms”, “names of parts of the human body”, “names of parts of the human body”, “names of parts of the human body”, “terms of kinship”, “personal and demonstrative pronouns”, “numerals”, “verbs”, “adjectives”. Provide their Modern English equivalents.

ceald, wæter, stān, cū, fisc, neowe, ƷeongƷ, Ʒrēād, Ʒuma, fæder, modor, fōt, heorte, ryƷe, ðorn, meolc, seofon, eahta, tien, hund, stān, snāw, mere, swīn, mūs, trēow, beard, lippa, earm, Ʒōs, beorc, corn, nosu, tōð, sunne, mōna, dæg, nyht, brōðor, sweostor, ic, pu, mē, sunu, dohter, bēon, etan, sittan, slepan, ān, twā, ðrēo, fif, weorcan, willan, flēotan, hǣlan, mycel, nīwe, riht, pæt, hwā, hwæt, swehur, monn, cwēnas.

III. Subdivide the following words into the groups:

a) Indo-European, b) Germanic, c) English proper (Specifically OE words)d) West Germanic words

E. g. Daughter, woman, room, land, cow, moon, sea, red, spring, three, I, lady, always, goose, bear, fox, lord, tree, Ʒreat, sceap, macian, nose, birch, grey, old, glad, daisy, heart, hand, night, to eat, to see, to make.

IV. Subdivide the following words into the groups: “the second layer of the Latin borrowings”, “the first layer of the Latin borrowings”, “Celtic element.”

weall, ceaster , Exe, cræda , ymn, martyr Usk, candel, enīel, Esk, Avon, port, mīle, Evon, cīese, cīres, pipor, bēte , Llyn, Londinium, Loch, pāpa, mæsse

Y. Guess Modern English equivalents of the following OE adjectives.

bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ dēādlic, frēōndlic , ȝēarlīc, carfull , sinnfull, slæplēās , griplēās, Englisc , Frensisc,ȝylden, wyllen

VI. Determine the part of speech and the meaning of the words.

Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs

Stranȝian, wēriȝ, fiscere, ȝebeorscipe, bōcere , ealdian, mistiȝ, yfelian, lenȝpu, wīde, bæcestre, spinnestre, fæste, lanȝe, frēond, dēmend, wursian, hǣlend, strenȝpu, dēādlic, frēōndlic, ȝēarlīc, folcscipe, bysiȝ, hāliȝ, ȝylden, wyllen.

VII. Identify Modern English equivalents of OE compounds.

hāligdæg , sunnandæg, moncynnes, norpewardum, Swēoland, sūpewardum

VIII. Old English Text

HWÆT, WĒ GĀR-DĒna in gēardagum

þēodcyninga þrym gefrūnon,

hū pā æþelingas ellen fremedon!

(Beowulf (sometime between the 8th and 11th century))

Glossary:

- hwæt -- interrogative pronoun who, what
- wē -- 1st person pronoun; we
- Gār-Dena -- proper noun of Spear-Danes
- in – prep. in
- gēardagum – noun year-day -- days of yore
- þēodcyninga – noun lit. people-king -- of folk-kings'
- þrym – noun glory, renown -- prowess
- gefrūnon -- strong verb, have heard
- hū -- adverbial conjunction how
- pā -- definite article; the
- æþelingas -- strong noun, princes

- ellen – noun, deed(s) of valor
- fremedon -- weak verb, perform -- wrought

Assignments:

1. Read and translate the Old English text into Modern English.
2. Find nouns in the text and define their declensions, cases, numbers.
3. Find the verbs and analyse them in terms of the categories.

Seminar 8

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY WORD-BUILDING

Plan

1. Development of ME Vocabulary:

- 1.1. ME Vocabulary;
- 1.2. Word-building in ME.

2. Development of EModE Vocabulary:

- 2.1. EModE Vocabulary
- 2.2. Word- building in EModE.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- define the main terms;
- analyse and compare the processes of development of ME and EModE vocabularies;
- compare the processes of word-building in ME, EModE;
- analyse and compare numerous borrowings in the terms of etymology and word-building

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- Consult recommended internet-recourses, etymological dictionaries .
- List the most complicated problems and be ready to discuss them with a lecturer.
- Perform practical assignments, check your theoretical and practical skills through recommended multiple -choice tests.

Points for discussion:

1. Development of ME Vocabulary.
2. ME Vocabulary.
3. The Nice Norse (Scandinavian element).
4. French influences on the vocabulary.
5. Some French loans in Middle English.

6. Latin and Greek elements.
7. Middle English writing.
8. Middle English dialects.
9. Development of EModE Vocabulary.
10. EModE Vocabulary.
11. Word- building in EModE.
12. Etymological doublets.

Practical assignments

I. Each of the Middle English dialects (Kentish, Southern, Northern, East-Midland and West-Midland) was a continuation of some OE dialect. Fill in the missing parts of the table.

Middle English dialect	Old English dialect
	West Saxon
	Mercian
	Northumbrian
	Kentish

II. “The Harley Lyrics” is a collection of literature written probably in the 1330s in Hertfordshire. It proves that ME was a trilingual (French, Latin, English). Find lines in three languages. Analyse and compare translation into Modern English.

ME

Scripsi hec carmina in tabulis;

Mon ostel es en mi la ville de Paris;

May y sugge namore, so wel me is;

zef hi dez e for loue of hire, duel hit ys.

Modern English

I have written these verses on my tablets;
My dwelling is in the middle of the city of Paris;
Let me say no more, so things are fine;
But if I die for love of her, it would be a pity.

III. Arrange the following words into the groups: Scandinavian borrowings, French borrowings, Greek borrowings.

fruit, fry, grape, slaughter, gravy, gruel, herb, thrift, court, dictaphone, or appendicitis, crown, duke, trust, graph, phone, window, flat, liberty, majesty, manor, loose, empire, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mince, government low, odd, telephone, phonograph, tight.

IV. Arrange the following French borrowings into the semantic groups: “administration”, “law”, “religion”, “military”.

E.g. guard, lieutenant, moat, authority, navy, accuse, adultery, abbey, baptism, cardinal, advocate, peace, cathedral, assize, attorney, bail, bar, chant, chaplain, retreat, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, sergeant, siege, soldier, chancellor, charity, clergy, constable, coroner, council, arrest, arson, assault .

V. Arrange the following words into the semantic groups: “food and drink”, “fashion”, “leisure and arts”, “science and learning”.

E. g. pork, anatomy, calendar, poultry, dress, embroidery, raisin, image, jollity, roast, salad, emerald, fashion, salmon, music, clause, copy, gender, painting, paper, frock, fur, sardine, lay, leisure, saucer, sausage, literature, melody, spice, garment, gown, stew, sugar, geometry, grammar, jewel, lace, jaundice, logic.

VI. Explain the appearance of the etymological doublets in ME. Identify their origin. Find triplets. Give your own examples.

shirt skirt

shrew screw

shirt skirt

shrew screw

senior sir

canal channel

captain chieftan

hospital – hostel -hotel

VII. Think how you can classify these words:

breathable, unhappy, prestigious, singly, table ward, pre-election, booklet, overhead, gooseling, kitchenette, interplanetary, hypertension, ex-student, reasonably, adaptation, overdrugging, quality, hopelessness, intranet, admission, answerability, terribly, converse, upturn, nonformals, untrue, decolonize, ablaze, invaluable, disconnect.

VIII. Classify the following words into three columns (adverbs, adjectives or verbs): dampen, friendly, dearly, silken, roughen, masterly, kindly, darken.

IX. Comment on the following EModE synonyms. Define their origin (Native, Scandinavian, French)

E.g. want–wish, search–look for, bloom–blossom, skill–craft, odour–smell.

X. Comment on the derivation means in the following words.

E.g. husbandry, goddess, government, treatment, agreement, streamlet, ringlet, leaflet, booklet, coward, bastard, funeral, refusal, arrival, proposal, disappoint, disdain, disagree disown, disburden, distrust, engage, encircle, encompass

XI. Text for grammatical and lexical analysis: “A Treatise for Astrolabe” (a medieval essay by Geoffrey Chaucer) (Words in bold type are for phonological and morphological analysis).

Litel Lowis my sone, I have percieved wel by **certeyne** evidences thyn abilite to **lerne** sciences **touchinge** noumbres and proportiouns; and as wel I considere I thy **bisy** preyere in special to lerne the Tretise of the Astrolabe. Than, fir as mechel as a phillosophre seith, “he **wrappeth** him in his **frend**, that condescendeth to the **rightful** preyers of his frend” ther-for have I **geven** thee a suffisaunt Astrolabie as for **oure** orizonte, compowned **after** the latitude of Oxenford; up-on which by mediacion of this litel tretise, I purpose to teche thee a certain nombre of conclusions apertening to the same instrument.

Seminar 9

DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY ENGLISH

Plan

1. Evolution of English:

- 1.1. Economic and political unification. Conditions for linguistic unity;
- 1.2. The introduction of printing and the fixation of the language norm;
- 1.3. The formation of the national literary language

2. Geographical expansion of English.

Objectives: Students will be able to

- define the processes of economic and political unification on the British Isles;
- conditions for linguistic unity of the country;
- familiarize with the introduction of printing and the fixation of the language norm;
- familiarize with the formation of the national literary language.

Strategies for learning:

- Focus attention on the procedures of the plan.
- Review the main points of the lecture, follow the outline.
- List a number of processes of economic and political unification, conditions for linguistic unity by memory.
- List the most complicated problems, consult the recommended internet-recourses .
- Perform practical assignments, check your theoretical and practical skills through recommended multiple -choice tests.

Points for discussion:

1. Economic and political unification. Conditions for linguistic unity.
2. The introduction of printing and the fixation of the language norm.
3. The formation of the national literary language.
4. Geographical expansion of English.
5. Words from outside of Europe.
6. Local varieties of English on the British Isles.
7. British and American English.

Practical assignments

I. Fill in the missing parts of the table.

Date	Event
	The village artisans and craftsmen travelled about the country looking for a greater market for their produce. They settled in the old towns and founded new ones near big monasteries, on the rivers and at the cross-roads.
	Britain began to export woolen cloth produced by the first big enterprises, the "manufactures".
1455-1485	
1438	
	William Caxton published the first English printed book, THE RECUYEIL OF THE HISTORIES OF TROY, in Bruges.
1477	
	The progress of literature and especially the flourishing of the drama.
	The bourgeois revolution.
1660	
	The industrial revolution.
1620	
	A puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwealth.
	John Ray published a book entitled "COLLECTION OF ENGLISH WORDS NOT GENERALLY USED".

II. Arrange the following words into the following groups: Spanish words, English words, American English words, Australian English words.

ballpoint, eraser, package, canyon, ranch, aubergine, tin, stampede, bloke, chick, sweets, chips, macca's, servo, footy, minced meat, flashlight, faucet.

III. Arrange the following words into the following groups: Canadian English words, English words, American English words, Australian English words.

washroom, biro, rubber, parcel, chocolate bar, eggplant, can, pop, keener, hoser, arvo , barbie, macca's, loonie, eh, candy, french fries, ground beef, torch, tap, servo, footy.

IV. Arrange the following words into the following groups: Canadian English words, English words, American English words, Australian English words.
chick, mate, passage, pop, keener, pillar box, ZIP code, thongs, bloody oath, cross-roads, tube, underground, grade school, high school, hoser.

V. Match Canadian English words with their meanings and fill in the table:
washroom, pop, double-double, mickey, keener, hoser , loonie

Canadian English word	Meaning in English
	public toilet
	beverage
	a filtered coffee with two creams and two sugars
	a small bottle of alcohol
	nerd
	loser
	one-dollar coin

VI. Match Australian English words with their meanings and complete the table:
arvo , barbie, macca's, servo, footy, bloke, chick ,mate, thongs, bloody oath

Australian English word	Meaning in English
	man
	McDonald's
	petrol station
	friend
	barbecue
	woman
	afternoon
	footwear
	that's right
	AFL or Rugby League

VII. Arrange the following words into the following groups: Arabic borrowings, borrowings of Indian languages, Russian borrowings, Japanese borrowings.
kimono, hara-kiri, algebra, zenith, yoga, karma, shampoo, nirvana, swastika,

admiral, cotton, muzhik, telega, arsenal, rajah, khaki, alcohol and zero, fakir, imam, harem, geisha, jujitsu, beluga, narodnik.

VIII. Text for analysis: W. Shakespeare, Sonnet 2. Supply a historical explanation for the words in italics: probable origin, spelling, pronunciation, grammatical forms and their meanings. Translate into Modern English/your native language.

When forty winters *shall besiege* thy brow,
And dig *deep trenches* in thy *beauty's* field,
thy youth's *proud livery*, so gaz'd on *now*,
Will be a tatter'd weed, of small worth held.
Then *being ask'd* where all thy beauty lies,
Where all the treasure of thy lusty daus
To say, within thine own deep-sunken eyes,
were an all-eating shame, and *thriftless* praise
How much more praise *deserv'd* thy beauty's use,
If *thou couldst* answer | 'This *fair child* of mine
Shall sum my count, and *make* my old excuse",
Proving his beauty by *succession* thine!
This *were* to be new made when thou art *old*,
And see thy *blood warm* when thou *fell'st* it cold

Recommended Literature

1. Бабенко О.В. Курс лекцій з історії англійської мови. Навчальний посібник для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія (Переклад)", Частина 1: Вид-но НУБіП, 2011.– 150 с. на англ. мові.
2. Бабенко О.В. Курс лекцій з історії англійської мови. Навчальний посібник для студентів зі спеціальності 6.020303 "Філологія (Переклад)", Частина 2: Вид-но НУБіП, 2011.–157 с. на англ. мові.
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4. Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови: навч.посібник для студ. вищ. навч. закладів. /Л.Г.Верба; за ред. Е.Ф. Рікко. – Вид.3, виправл. – Вінниця: Нова Книга, 2012.– на англ. мові, 296 с.
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9. Левицький В. В. Основи германістики. – Винниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. – 527 с.
10. Расторгуева Т.А. История английского языка: Учебник/ Т.А. Расторгуева. – 2-е изд. стер. – М: ООО «Издательство Астрель»: ООО «Издательство АСТ», 2003.-348, [4] с. – на англ. яз.
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SAMPLE TESTS

ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

1. Choose the incorrect letter.

Phonology

- a) is the study (and use) of sound patterns to create meaning.
- b) is the study of sound in speech.
- c) includes comparative linguistic studies.
- d) relies on phonetic information for its practice.

2. Choose the correct letter.

The system of vowels in Old English

- a) included eight short vowels (monophthongs) (according to other sources 7) and seven long vowels.
- b) included nine short vowels and nine long vowels.
- c) included ten short vowels and ten long vowels.
- d) included six short vowels and six long vowels.

3. What phenomenon in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

Ʒod (god) - Ʒōd (good)

west (west) – wēst (waste)

- a) The length of the vowel in OE was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning.
- b) The length of the vowel in Middle English was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning.
- c) The length of the vowel in New English was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning.
- d) The length of the vowel in Early New English was a phonemic quality. The words having long and short vowels differed in meaning.

4) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

hard > heard (hard)

arm > earm (arm)

- a) breaking of vowels;

- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) diphthongization of vowels;
- d) back (velar) mutation.

5) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

sandian – **sendan** (to send)

namnian – **nemnan** (to name)

- a) breaking of vowels;
- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) diphthongization of vowels;
- d) back (velar) mutation.

6) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

skal- **sceal** (shall)

skāggwon - **scēawian** (to show)

- a) breaking of vowels;
- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) diphthongization of vowels;
- d) back (velar) mutation.

7) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

i > **io** **hira** – **hiora** (their)

silufr – **siolufr** (silver)

- a) breaking of vowels;
- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) diphthongization of vowels;
- d) back (velar) mutation.

8) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

naht – **neaht-niht-nieht** – **nyht**

- a) breaking of vowels;
- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) diphthongization of vowels;
- d) mutation before h.

9) What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

a _{+h+} vowel > ēa sl**ah**an – slēan (slay)

e _{+h+} vowel > ēo seh**en**-sēon (see)

i _{+h+} vowel > ēo t**i**han- tēon (accuse)

o _{+h+} vowel > ō fo**h**an-fōn (catch)

- a) breaking of vowels;
- b) umlaut of vowels i/j mutation;
- c) contraction;
- d) mutation before h.

10) Choose the incorrect letter.

- a) The Germanic Consonant Shift is also known as the First Sound Shift or Grimm's Law.
- b) Grimm's Law implies a set of relationships among the consonants of the Germanic and non-Germanic Indo-European languages.
- c) The Germanic Consonant Shift is considered to be Grimm's Law and Verner's Law taken together.
- d) Grimm's Law (or the First Sound Shift) doesn't help to explain the consonant changes from P-I-E to Germanic.

11. What law do the examples in the table illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

		IE	Germanic		IE	Germanic		There were shortcomings. It didn't always work.	IE	Germanic
	bh>b	bhratar	broþar	b>p	abel	apple	p>f		pater	fadar
	dh>d	madhu	medu	d>t	decem	ten	t>þ (θ)		tres	three
	gh>g	hostis	gast	g>k	genu	knee	k>h		noctem kerd	nahts heart

- a) Grimm's Law;
- b) Verner's Law;
- c) Jespersen's Law;
- d) Horn's Law.

12. Choose the incorrect answer.

- a) Looking at Sanskrit forms and comparing them to Germanic ones Verner noticed that the placement of STRESS (ACCENT) affected how Indo-European consonants were shifted.
- b) Karl Verner published his findings in the article “An exception to the first consonant shift” in one of the prestigious linguistic research journals.
- c) According to K. Verner Law voiceless fricatives became voiced when they were in a voiced environment and the Indo-European stress was not on the preceding syllable.
- d) Verner’s Law was discovered in the 18-th century.

13. What law do the examples in the table illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

s	z ← s (later)	snusys	snuṣ á	vuóc	nurus	snuz ō		snoru	
	z → r								

- a) Grimm’s Law;
- b) Verner's Law;
- c) Jespersen’s Law;
- d) Horn’s Law.

14. Find the missing term.

Historical process by which a phonetic difference of allophones becomes a difference between phonemes is called ... ?

- a) phonetics;
- b) historical morphology;
- c) historical syntax ;
- d) phonologization.

15. Find the incorrect letter.

The significance of Verner’s Law was in the following:

- a) Verner proved that the First Consonant Shift was a systematic process.
- b) It played an important role in the further etymological studies.
- c) Verner’s Law was of great importance for the reconstruction of Proto-Indo-European stress.
- d) Verner was a famous German linguist.

16. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

cirice ("church")

ceaster ("castle")

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) loss of consonants in certain positions;
- d) germination.

17. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

(wæs, wæron)

was, were

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) germination.

18. Choose the correct definition to the term "rhotacism"

- a) is the conversion of a consonant (usually a voiced alveolar consonant — /z/, /d/, /l/, or /n/) to a rhotic consonant in a certain environment.
- b) is a change in a vowel, originally caused by a change in stress or accent.
- c) lengthening or doubling of consonants in certain positions mostly before [j], [l], [r]
- d) The essence of this change is that the syllable that influenced the preceding vowel contained a back vowel – o or u, sometimes even a.

19. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

(wæs, wæron)

was, were

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) germination.

20. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

pridda- pirða (third)

- a) palatalization;

- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) metathesis of r

21. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

fisc ("fish")

sceotan ("to shoot")

scearp ("sharp")

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) metathesis of r

22. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

fisc ("fish")

sceotan ("to shoot")

scearp ("sharp")

brycg ("bridge") [ɔ̃]

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) metathesis of r

23. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

sēcan- sōcte-sōhte (seek-sought)

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) metathesis of r

24. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

Bronhter – **brōhter** (brought)

fimf- **fif** (five)

- a) palatalization;
- b) assimilation before t;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) loss of consonants in certain positions.

25. Choose the correct definition to the term “gemination”.
- a) is the conversion of a consonant (usually a voiced alveolar consonant — /z/, /d/, /l/, or /n/) to a rhotic consonant in a certain environment.
 - b) is a change in a vowel, originally caused by a change in stress or accent.
 - c) lengthening or doubling of consonants in certain positions mostly before [j], [l], [r]
 - d) The essence of this change is that the syllable that influenced the preceding vowel contained a back vowel – o or u, sometimes even a.

26. What process in OE do these examples illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

fulian –fyllan (fill)

talian–tellan (tell)

salian–sellan (sell)

- a) palatalization;
- b) gemination;
- c) rhotacism ;
- d) loss of consonants in certain positions.

27. Choose the incorrect answer.

- a) Assimilative changes are the changes that never occurred in the language in specific surroundings.
- b) There are two types of assimilation: regressive, progressive.
- c) If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive,
- d) If it influences the following sound it is called progressive.

28. Match phonological changes in the period of Old English with their definitions and examples (Table 1). Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 3, 2; 2,4,3; 3, 4,2 ; 4,1,1; 5,6,6; 6, 5,5;
- b) 1, 2, 3; 2,3,4; 3, 2,4 ; 4,1,1; 5,6,5; 6, 5,6;
- c) 1, 2, 3; 2,3,4; 3, 4,2 ; 4,1,1; 5,6,6; 6, 5,5;
- d) 1, 2, 3; 2,3,4; 3, 2,3 ; 4,1,1; 5,6,6; 6, 5,5

Table 1

Phonological phenomenon	Definition	Examples
1. Back, or Velar Mutation	1. This is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when	1. hard > heard (hard) herte > heorte (heart)

	it is followed by a specific consonant.	
2. Contraction	2. Diphthongization of a root vowel under the influence of a back vowel (o or u) in the following syllable.	2. sandian – sendan (to send) namnian – nemnan (to name) talian-tælan-tellan (to tell)
3. Palatal mutation (i-umlaut)	3. The essence of this phenomenon lies in loss of “h” and formation either a long vowel or a long diphthong.	3. hira – hiora (their) hefon – heofon (heaven)
4. Breaking	4. The essence of this change is that a back sound (a, o) changes its quality if there is a front sound (i) in the next syllable.	4. sehen-sēon (see) tihan- tēon (accuse) fohan-fōn (catch)
5. Diphthongization after palatal consonants	5. The essence of this change is that sounds a and e that preceded h underwent several changes, mutating to diphthongs ea,ie and finally were reduced to i/y:	5. naht – neaht-niht-nieht – nyht (night).
6. Mutation before h	6. Diphthongization may have resulted after palatal consonants sk’, k’ and j (sounds) (in spelling sc, c, ȝ):	6. skal- sceal (shall) ȝæf - ȝeaf (gave), scort – sceort (short), yong- ȝeonȝ , (young)

MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

29. Choose the incorrect answer. Some processes which began in Old English were completed in Middle English.

a) formation of new sounds [tʃ] [ʃ], [dʒ].

b) Pendulum-like movements of sounds (Germanic **ɑ** → Old English **æ** → Middle English **ɑ**).

- c) Middle English had a number of French unassimilated sounds.
 d) Vowels in Middle English were not similar to those of Old English.

30. Match phonological changes in the period of Middle English with the examples (Table 2) . Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,4; 4,2; 5, 3;
 b) 1, 3; 2,1; 3,4; 4,2; 5, 5;
 c) 1, 5; 2,2; 3,4; 4,1; 5, 3;
 d) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 3.

Table 2

1.	Late ME had only two vowels in unaccented syllables: [ə] and [i].	1.	e.g. OE <i>stān</i> , <i>rād</i> – ME <i>stone</i> , <i>rode</i> [rstone], [rrode] – NE <i>stone</i> , <i>rode</i> .
2.	In ME when the ending –e survived only in spelling, it was understood as a means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to words which did not have this ending before.	2.	e.g. OE <i>nama</i> > ME <i>name</i> [na:mə] – NE <i>name</i>
3.	Groups of two or more consonants (except from ld) produced the reverse effect: they made the preceding long vowels short, and henceforth all vowels in this position became or remained short.	3.	e.g. OE <i>wild</i> – ME <i>wild</i> [wi:ld] – NE <i>wild</i> .
4.	ME short vowels became long in open syllables.	4.	e.g. OE <i>cēpte</i> > ME <i>kepte</i> [ˈkeptə] – NE <i>kept</i> .
5.	ME short vowels were lengthened before two consonants – a sonorant and a plosive.	5.	e.g. OE <i>talū</i> – ME <i>tale</i> [ˈta:lə] – NE <i>tale</i> , OE <i>bodiz</i> – ME <i>body</i> [ˈbodi] – NE <i>body</i> .

31. Match phonological changes in the period of Middle English with the examples (Table 3) . Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 3; 2,2; 3,4; 4,2;

- b) 1, 2; 2,3; 3,1; 4,4;
 c) 1, 5; 2,2; 3,4; 4,1;
 d) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4.

Table 3

1.	In Early ME the long OE [a:] was narrowed to [o:].	1.	e.g. OE <i>dæz</i> > ME <i>day</i> [dai].
2.	The short OE [æ] was replaced in ME by the back vowel [a]	2.	e.g. OE <i>stān</i> – ME (Northern) <i>stan(e)</i> , (other dialects) <i>stoon</i> , <i>stone</i> – NE <i>stone</i> .
3.	In Early ME the sounds [j] and [ɣ] <i>between and after vowels changed into [i] and [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowels</i>	3.	e.g. OE <i>þæt</i> > ME <i>that</i> [θat] > NE <i>that</i> .
4.	In ME the glide <i>-u</i> developed from the other source as well OE [w].	4.	OE <i>snāw</i> became ME <i>snow</i> [snou].

32. Match phonological changes in the period of Middle English with the examples Table 4. Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 3; 2,2; 3,4; 4,2;
 b) 1, 2; 2,3; 3,1; 4,4;
 c) 1, 3; 2,2; 3,1; 4,4;
 d) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4.

Table 4

1.	h lost in clusters	1.	e.g. OE <i>hlaford</i> , <i>hlæfdige</i> , <i>heafod</i> , <i>hæfde</i> > ME <i>lord</i> , <i>ladi</i> , <i>hed</i> , <i>hadde</i> ("lord," "lady," "head," "had") (sometimes retained: OE <i>heofon</i> , <i>hræfn</i> , <i>dreflian</i> > "heaven," "raven," "drivel")
2.	g became w after l and r :	2.	e.g. OE <i>swelgan</i> > ME <i>swolwen</i> ("swallow"), OE <i>feolaga</i> > ME <i>felawe</i> ("fellow"), OE <i>morgen</i> > ME <i>morwen</i> ("morning"), OE <i>sorg</i> > ME <i>sorow</i> ("sorrow").
3.	fricative f/v tended to drop out before con-	3.	e.g. OE <i>hlæfdige</i> > ME <i>ladi</i> ("lady"), OE <i>hnecca</i> > ME <i>necke</i> ("neck"), OE <i>hræfn</i> > ME

	sonant+consonant or vowel+consonant		raven.
4.	OE prefix ge- lost initial consonant and was reduced to <i>y</i> or <i>i</i> :	4.	e.g. OE <i>genog</i> > ME <i>inough</i> ("enough").

33. Choose the incorrect answer.

- a) In the history of the English language the consonants were far more stable than the vowels.
- b) Such consonants as [t], [d], [n], [l],[m],[k] have not been subjected to any alteration in ME.
- c) Consonants of Middle English were not similar to those of Present Day.
- d) loss of long consonants (OE *mann* > ME *man*).

34. Choose the incorrect answer.

- a) There was no [ŋ] as in *hung* (velar nasal) and [ʒ] as in *measure* in ME.
- b) Phonemic voiced fricatives [v], [z], [p] were added in ME period.
- c) In ME unstressed final consonants tended to be lost after a vowel: OE *ic* > ME *i*, OE *-lic* > ME *-ly* (e.g. OE *rihtlice* > ME *rihtly* ("rightly")).
- d) final *-n* in many verbal forms wasn't lost, e.g. OE *cuman* > Modern English *come* (the *n* remains in some past participles of strong verbs: *seen*, *gone*, *taken*).

35. Match phonological changes in the period of Middle English with the examples (Table 5). Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 2; 2,1; 3,4; 4,3; 5, 5;
- b) 1, 3; 2,1; 3,4; 4,2; 5, 5;
- c) 1, 5; 2,2; 3,4; 4,1; 5, 3;
- d) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 3.

Table 5

1.	w generally dropped after <i>s</i> or t :	1.	<i>lamb</i> , <i>comb</i> , <i>climb</i>
2.	final b lost after <i>m</i> but retained in spelling	2.	OE <i>sweostor</i> > <i>sister</i> ,
3.	initial stops in clusters gn- and kn- still pronounced	3.	OE <i>ælc</i> , <i>swilc</i> , <i>hwilc</i> , <i>micel</i> > <i>each</i> , <i>such</i> , <i>which</i> , <i>much</i>
4.	<i>l</i> was lost in the vicinity of	4.	ME <i>gnat</i> , <i>gnawen</i> , <i>knowen</i> , <i>knave</i> ,

	palatal <i>c</i> in adjectival pronouns		<i>cniht</i> ("gnat," "gnaw," "know," "knave," "knight") <i>h</i> often lost in unstressed positions: OE <i>hit</i> > ME <i>it</i>
5.	final -n also lost in possessive adjectives	5.	"my" (OE <i>min</i> > ME <i>mi</i>), "thy" (OE <i>þin</i> > ME <i>þi</i>)

MODERN (NEW) ENGLISH PHONOLOGICAL SYSTEM

36. Who first studied The Great Vowel Shift? Choose the correct answer.

- a) Verner;
- b) Grimm;
- c) Otto Jespersen;
- d) Plotkin.

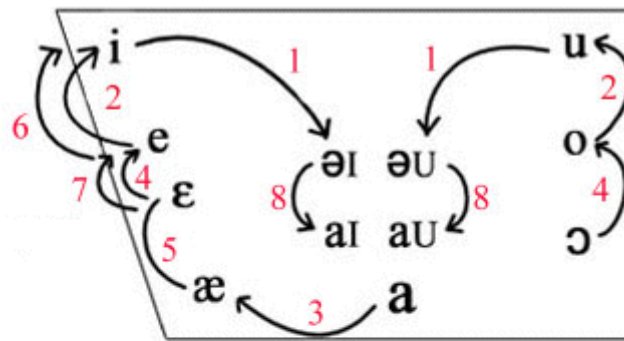
37. Complete the statement. The Great Vowel Shift took place...

- a) in England before 1100 and continued long after 1800.
- b) in England before 1400 and continued long after 1700.
- c) in Scotland between 1150 and 1650.
- d) in Wales between 1150 and 1650.

38. What major linguistic change does this diagramme illustrate? Choose the correct answer.

- a) Second Consonant Shift;
- b) First Consonant Shift;
- c) Great Vowel Shift;
- d) Grimm's Law.

Diagramme 1.



- Step 1: i and u drop and become e and o
 Step 2: e and o move up, becoming i and u
 Step 3: a moves forward to æ
 Step 4: ε becomes e, ɔ becomes o
 Step 5: æ moves up to ε
 Step 6: e moves up to i
 A new e was created in Step 4; now that e moves up to i.
 Step 7: ε moves up to e
 The new ε created in Step 5 now moves up.
 Step 8: əI and əU drop to aI and aU

39. Read the statements and choose the correct letter.

The essence of the Great Vowel Shift lies in the process when the long vowels began to shorten. The short vowels DID NOT shift.

- a) false;
- b) true;
- c) it's impossible;
- d) hardly ever

40. Briefly we can summarise that the Great Vowel Shift resulted in the following changes. Match the columns and choose the correct letter.

- a) 1, 6(1) ; 2, 1,(6) ; 3, 2 ; 4,7 ; 5, 3; 6, 4 ; 7, 5 ;
- b) a) 1, 6(1) ; 2, 1,(6) ; 3, 2 ; 4,3 ; 5, 7; 6, 4 ; 7, 5 ;
- c) a) 1, 6(1) ; 2, 1,(6) ; 3, 2 ; 4,7 ; 5, 3; 6, 5 ; 7, 4 ;
- d) a) 1, 6(1) ; 2, 1,(6) ; 3, 7 ; 4,2 ; 5, 3; 6, 4 ; 7, 5 ;

1.	[ε:] →	1.	[i:]
2.	[e:] →	2.	[aɪ]
3.	[i:] →	3.	[u:]
4.	[ɔ:] →	4.	[aʊ]
5.	[o:] →	5.	[eɪ]
6.	[u:] →	6.	[i:]
7.	[a:] →	7.	[əʊ]

41. How many diphthong phonemes were there in late Middle English? Answer the question and find the correct letter.

- a) There were eight diphthong phonemes in late Middle English.
- b) There were nine diphthong phonemes in late Middle English.
- c) There were seven diphthong phonemes in late Middle English.
- d) There were six diphthong phonemes in late Middle English.

42. What new sounds appeared in New English (Early Modern) consonant system? Answer the question and chose the correct letter.

- a) /ŋ/, /ʒ /:
- b) / s /, / z /, / f/, / v /:
- c) / z /, /ʃ /, / v /:
- d) /ŋ/, /ʒ /

43. Match phonological changes in the period of New English (Early Modern) with the examples (Table 6). Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1, 2; 2,1; 3,4; 4,3; 5, 5;
- b) 1, 3; 2,1; 3,4; 4,2; 5, 5;
- c) 1, 2; 2, 1; 3,5; 4,3; 5, 4;
- d) 1, 5; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 3.

Table 6

1.	The sound /l/ was lost in combinations before k, m, f, v, d	1.	e. g. knight, knee, know, knock, knife, gnome, gnarl, gnat
2.	The consonants were lost in initial clusters: g and k in gn, kn: and also in such words as sword, two, towards. /h/ disappeared in many unstressed syllables e/g/ forehead, shepherd, Birmingham, Nottingham.	2.	e. g. talk, walk; folk, yolk, chalk calm, palm, balm, alms (but not in helm) half, calf (but wolf, elf) halves, should, could, would
3.	The sound /b/ was dropped in combination <i>mb</i> when at the end of the word and not followed by another consonant:	3.	e.g. wreath, write, wrong, wreck, wring, wrist, wrestle e.g. answer, conquer, Greenwich, Norwich.
4.	/w/ was lost before mainly r at the beginning of the word and in unstressed syllables after a consonant in such words as	4.	e.g. forehead, shepherd, Birmingham, Nottingham
5.	/h/ disappeared in many unstressed syllables	5.	e.g. lamb, climb, tomb, bomb

HISTOTICAL GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

OE Verbs

44. Fill in the gap. Choose the correct letter.

In OE verbs were divided into ...

- a) strong or weak verbs;
- b) regular and irregular;
- c) preterite;
- d) participle II.

45. Choose the incorrect letter.

- a) Strong verbs form their preterite and participle II by change of the root-vowel.
- b) Weak verbs form their preterite and participle II by addition of a dental suffix.
- c) The OE system of finite verb-forms includes three tenses –Present, Future and Preterite.
- c) The OE system of finite verb-forms includes three moods–Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative.

46. There were the following major verb categories in OE. Choose the incorrect statement.

- a) mood: Indicative, Imperative, Subjunctive.
- b) person: 1st, 2nd, 3rd,
- c) number: Sg. (Singular) and Pl.(Plural), Dual.
- d) conjugation: strong (the Ablaut) and weak (suffixes-d/-t).

47. Choose the correct letter.

- a) The strong verbs in OE were subdivided into 8 classes.
- b) The strong verbs in OE were subdivided into 7 classes.
- c) The strong verbs in OE were subdivided into 6 classes.
- d) The strong verbs in OE were subdivided into 3 classes.

48. How many classes (**groups**) were the **weak verbs** in OE divided into? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) The weak verbs in OE were subdivided into 2 classes.
- b) The weak verbs in OE were subdivided into 3 classes.
- c) The weak verbs in OE were subdivided into 4 classes.
- d) The strong verbs in OE were subdivided into 6 classes.

49. How are OE Present-Preterite verbs called nowadays? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) regular verbs;
- b) irregular verbs;
- c) modal verbs;
- d) auxiliary verbs.

50. What group of OE verbs are the following verbs (*witan*, *cunnan*, *þurfan*, *dearan*, *munan*, *sculan*, *magan*) referred to? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) regular verbs;
- b) irregular verbs;
- c) modal verbs;
- d) auxiliary verbs.

51. Match OE Present-Preterite verbs with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1,2; 2, 1; 3, 4; 4,3; 5, 6; 6, 7; 7,5
- b) 1,5; 2, 1; 3, 4; 4,3; 5, 6; 6, 7; 7,2
- c) 1,2; 2, 4; 3, 4; 4,1; 5, 6; 6, 7; 7,5
- d) 1,7; 2, 1; 3, 4; 4,3; 5, 6; 6, 2; 7,5

1. <i>witan</i> ,	1. can
2. <i>cunnan</i>	2. to know
3. <i>þurfan</i>	3. to dare
4. <i>dearan</i>	4. to need
5. <i>munan</i>	5. shall
6. <i>magan</i>	6. to remember
7. <i>sculan</i>	7. may

52. What features were typical of anomalous verbs in OE? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) Anomalous verbs in OE used several different stems for their tenses.
- b) There were a few anomalous verbs in OE.
- c) Anomalous verbs were met very rarely in the texts.
- d) Future action was expressed by the Present forms, sometimes using verbs of modality.

53. Match OE anomalous verbs with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct variant.

- a) 1,2; 2, 1; 3, 4; 4,3;
- b) 1,4; 2, 1; 3, 3; 4,2;
- c) 1,2; 2, 4; 3, 4; 4,1;
- d) 1,3; 2, 4; 3, 4; 4,1;

1. <i>béon</i>	1. to go
2. <i>gán</i>	2. to do
3. <i>willan</i>	3. will
4. <i>dón</i>	4. to be

54. How many non-finite forms were there in OE? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) 1;
- b) 4;
- c) 3;
- d) 2

55. Choose the correct statement.

- a) In OE the Infinitive resembled the noun and had the category of Nominative Case and Dative Case.
- b) In OE the Infinitive resembled the adjective and had the category of Nominative Case and Dative Nominative.
- c) In OE the Infinitive resembled the adverb and had the category of Nominative Case and Dative Nominative.
- d) In OE the Infinitive resembled the pronoun and had the category of Nominative Case and Dative Nominative.

56. Choose the correct statement.

- a) In OE Participles I and II resembled the verb, the adverb and the adjective.
- b) In OE Participles I and II resembled the verb, the pronoun and the adjective.
- c) In OE Participles I and II resembled the verb, the noun and the adjective.
- d) In OE Participles I and II resembled the adverb, the pronoun and the adjective.

ME verbs

57. Choose the correct statement.

- a) ME verbs added a new type of verb, preterite-present verbs.
- b) ME verbs added a new type of verb, phrasal verbs.
- c) ME verbs added a new type of verb, irregular verbs.
- d) ME verbs added a new type of verb, anomalous verbs.

58. What new features were typical of ME verbs? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) Perfect Tense became common;
- b) Progressive Tense came into being;
- c) Future Tense (with *shall* and *will* auxiliaries) became common.
- d) strong verbs substituted the other ones.

59. What new features were not typical of ME verbs? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) passive constructions (with 'be' as auxiliary);
- b) modal auxiliaries instead of subjunctive;
- c) categories of tense, mood, number, person, strong, weak and other verbs.
- d) decrease of weak verbs.

60. Did the use of auxiliaries (be & have) become common in ME? Answer the question. Choose the correct letter.

- a. True.
- b. False.
- c. It's impossible.
- d. Hardly ever.

61. Did the OE verbs *beon/wesan* collapse into one form in ME? Answer the question. Choose the correct letter.

- a. False.
- b. It's impossible.
- c. Hardly ever.
- d. True.

EModE verbs

62. During what period did verb inflections become simplified? Answer the question and find the correct letter.

- a) Early Modern period;
- b) Modern period;
- c) Old English period;
- d) Middle English period;

63. Analyse the verbs in bold in Shakespeare's phrase (EModE), "With her, that hateth thee and **hates vs all**" and answer the question. What do these forms demonstrate?

- a) the plural present form of OE verbs ;
- b) plural form of EModE nouns;
- c) the plural present form of EModE verbs;
- d) the alternate verb forms' coexistence.

64. Choose the incorrect letter.

- a) In EModE the modal verbs cemented their distinctive syntactical characteristics.
- b) In EModE the use of modals without an infinitive became rare (as in "I must to Coventry"; "I'll none of that").
- c) In EModE some verbs ceased to function as modals during the Early Modern period.
- d) In EModE the present form of must, mot, didn't become obsolete.

65. Find the statement that doesn't refer to Perfect and Progressive forms during EModE period. Choose the correct letter.

- a) In EModE Perfect and Progressive forms of the verbs had not yet been standardised.
- b) In EModE Perfect and Progressive forms of the verbs were standardised.
- c) In EModE both forms of auxiliary verbs "to have" "to be" were taken to express Perfect and Progressive forms.
- d) This example from the King James Bible, "But which of you ... will say unto him ... when he is come from the field, Go and sit down..." [Luke XVII:7] illustrates the use of Progressive form in EModE.

66. Choose the correct letter. In EModE "The house is building" could mean "The house is being built."

- a) False;
- b) It's impossible.
- c) True;
- d) Hardly ever.

67. In EModE the phrase "I am walking" could be expressed the following ways. Choose the correct letter.

- a) "I am walking";
- b) "I do walk";
- c) "I walkst";
- d) "I am a-walking"

68. In what period did “-ing” become universal present participle ending? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) ME
- b) EModE
- c) OE
- d) Present Day English

OE nouns

69. What part of speech in OE had the following categories: grammatical gender (masculine, feminine, neuter), singular and plural number; strong and weak declensions; 4 cases?

- a) OE noun;
- b) OE adjective;
- c) OE pronoun;
- d) OE verb.

70. Did a grammatical gender of an OE noun coincide with its natural gender? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

71. Analyse the examples of OE nouns in terms of grammatical and natural gender and choose the correct letter.

- a) In OE *sēo sunne* (the Sun) was feminine, *se mōna* (the Moon) was masculine, and *þæt wīf* "the woman/wife" was neuter.
- b) In OE *sēo sunne* (the Sun) was neuter, *se mōna* (the Moon) was masculine, and *þæt wīf* "the woman/wife" was feminine.
- c) In OE *sēo sunne* (the Sun) was neuter, *se mōna* (the Moon) was feminine, and *þæt wīf* "the woman/wife" was masculine.

d) In OE *sēo sunne* (the Sun) was feminine, *se mōna* (the Moon) was neuter, and *þæt wīf* "the woman/wife" was masculine.

72. Which two categories of declension were OE nouns divided into? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) strong and weak nouns;
- b) minor and weak nouns;
- c) strong and minor nouns;
- d) minor and vocalic nouns.

73. Analyse the following stem- forming suffixes of OE nouns: a (ja, wa), ō (jo, wo), i, u What category of OE noun declension do they refer to? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) strong;
- b) weak;
- c) minor;
- d) irregular.

74. Analyse the following stem- forming suffixes of OE nouns: n, r, nd. What category of OE noun declension do they refer to? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) strong;
- b) weak;
- c) minor;
- d) irregular.

75. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter. 'In OE the strong noun paradigm declines for case, gender and singular/plural'.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

76. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter. 'In OE the weak paradigm of nouns is more simplified and has less variation between the genders and cases'.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

77. What does this table demonstrate? Analyse and fill in the gap. Choose the correct letter.

Table 6. Examples of noun declension in EModE

case	strong		weak	
	singular	plural	singular	plural
nom/acc	engel	engles	name	namen
genitive	engles*	engle(ne)* *	name	namen
dative	engle	engle(s)	name	namen

78. The early Modern English words engel (angel) and name (name) ...

- a) demonstrate two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English: strong and weak.
- b) disapprove two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English: strong and weak.
- c) don't demonstrate two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English: strong and weak.
- d) demonstrate two distinct noun-ending patterns from the more complex system of inflection in Old English: strong and minor.

78. Analyse the following statement and choose the correct letter. 'Misinterpretation of genitive ending -s as 'his' (e.g. John Browne his meadow, Ann Harris her lot)' is typical of

- a) OE;
- b) EModE;
- c) ME;
- d) Present Day English.

79. In what period did the following categories of nouns (two cases (common and possessive), two numbers (singular and plural), no grammatical gender) become common? Choose the correct letter.

- a) in OE;
- b) in EModE;

- c) in ME;
- d) in Present Day English.

80. Read the statement and choose the correct letter.

“OE adjectives were similar to Slavic adjectives”.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

81. Choose the correct sentence.

- a) The adjective in OE had the following categories: two numbers; three genders; four cases.
- b) The adjective in OE had the following categories: three numbers; three genders; five cases.
- c) The adjective in OE had the following categories: three numbers; two genders; five cases, besides two declensions, strong and weak
- d) The adjective in OE had the following categories: two numbers; three genders; five cases, besides two declensions, strong and weak.

82. In what position was a weak form of the OE adjective used? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) after a demonstrative pronoun, a noun in the genitive case;
- b) after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun ;
- c) after a demonstrative pronoun, a personal pronoun or a noun in the genitive case;
- d) after a personal pronoun or a noun in the genitive case.

83. Read the statement and choose the correct letter.

“In OE a strong adjective was for a strong noun, a weak adjective was for a weak noun”.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

84. Answer the question “What phenomenon do the examples in the table demonstrate? Choose the correct letter.

	Singular	Plural
nominative	seo gōde cwen	þa gōdan cwena
accusative	þa gōdan cwene	þa gōdan cwena
genitive	þære gōdan cwene	þara gōdra cwena
dative	þære gōdan cwene	þam gōdum cwenum

- a) the weak adjective declension;
- b) the strong adjective declension;
- c) the weak noun declension;
- d) the strong noun declension;

85. Answer the question “What phenomenon do the examples in the table demonstrate? Choose the correct letter.

	Singular	Plural
nominative	gōd cwen	gōde cwena
accusative	gōde cwene	gōde cwena
genitive	gōdre cwene	gōdra cwena
dative	gōdre cwene	gōdum cwenum

- a) the weak adjective declension;
- b) the strong adjective declension;
- c) the weak noun declension;
- d) the strong noun declension.

87. What phenomenon of OE grammar do these examples demonstrate? e. g. earm (poor)-earmra-earmost, blæc (black) - blæcra - blacost

- a) three degrees of comparison of ModE adjectives;
- b) three degrees of comparison of EModE adjectives;
- c) three degrees of comparison of OE adjectives;
- d) suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective.

88. Fill in the gap. The following OE adjectives eald (old)-ieldra-ieldest, strong - strengra – strengest, long - lengra – longest, geong (young) - gingra - gingest demonstrate ... Choose the correct letter.

- a) the example of the Germanic ablaut;
- b) the example of the Germanic assimilation;
- c) the example of the Slavic ablaut;

d) the example of the Slavic ablaut.

89. Find the missing forms of suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective.

Choose the correct letter. yfel (bad)..... ..

- a) wiersa, wierrest, wierst;
- b) lǣssa, lǣst ;
- c) betera, betst;
- d) māra, mǣst

90. Find the missing forms of suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective.

Choose the correct letter. lȳtel

- e) wiersa, wierrest, wierst;
- f) lǣssa, lǣst ;
- g) betera, betst;
- h) māra, mǣst.

91. Find the missing forms of suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective.

Choose the correct letter. mycel

- a) wiersa, wierrest, wierst;
- b) lǣssa, lǣst ;
- c) betera, betst;
- d) māra, mǣst.

92. Find the missing forms of suppletive degrees of comparison of OE adjective.

Choose the correct letter. □ōd

- a) wiersa, wierrest, wierst;
- b) lǣssa, lǣst ;
- c) betera, betst;
- d) māra, mǣst.

93. What period of history of English do the following changes in adjectives refer to? Changes: the category of gender is lost, in the plural the strong and the weak forms of adjectives coincide.

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present Day English

94. What period of history of English do the following changes in adjectives refer to?

Changes: of all the parts of speech the adjective has undergone the most profound grammatical changes. In the course of time it has lost all its grammatical categories except the degrees of comparison.

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present Day English

95. What period of history of English do the following changes in adjectives refer to?

Changes: The new way of forming the degrees of comparison: the use of the adverbs more and most before the adjective came into practice. The degrees of comparison are formed by means of the suffixes -er and -est.

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present-Day English.

96. What part of speech in OE reserved the dual form?

- a) the noun;
- b) the verb;
- c) the pronoun;
- d) the adjective.

97. What pronouns in OE had 3 persons, 3 numbers, 3 genders? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) personal pronouns;
- b) interrogative pronouns;
- c) possessive pronouns;
- d) demonstrative.

98. What case of OE personal pronouns might be used as possessive? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) the nominative case;
- b) the genitive case;
- c) the instrumental case;
- d) the dative case.

99. Find equivalents of OE demonstrative pronouns *se/þæt/sēo* in Modern English. Choose the correct letter.

- a) the, these/those;
- b) the, that/these;
- c) this/these/the;
- d) the, that/those.

100. Find equivalents of OE demonstrative pronouns *þes/þis/þēos* in Modern English. Choose the correct letter.

- a) the, these/those;
- b) the, that/these;
- c) this/these;
- d) the, that/those.

101. Match OE interrogative pronouns with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,5; 2,3; 3,2; 4,6; 5,4; 6,1;
- b) 1,5; 2,2; 3,3; 4,6; 5,4;6,1;
- c) 1,6; 2,3; 3,2; 4,5; 5,4;6,1;
- d) 1,3; 2,6; 3,2; 4,5; 5,4, 6,1.

1. hwá	1. which
2. hwæt	2. when
3. hwonne	3. what
4. hwæ'r	4. why
5. hwý	5. where
6. hwilc	6. who

102. Match OE definite pronouns with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 5; 4,4; 5,3;
- b) 1,5; 2,2; 3,3; 4,5; 5,4;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,5; 5,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5,4.

1. gehwá	1. each
2. gehwilc	2. every
3. ægþer	3. the same
4. swilc	4. such
5. sé ylca	5. either

103. Match OE indefinite and negative pronouns with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4.

1. sum	1. any
2. æ'nig	2. no
3. nán	3. none
4. næ'nig	4. some

104. What pronouns in Middle English didn't lose the categories of gender, case and number? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) personal pronouns;
- b) interrogative pronouns;
- c) possessive pronouns;
- d) demonstrative.

105. What new class of pronouns appeared in Middle English?

- a) personal pronouns;
- b) interrogative pronouns;
- c) possessive pronouns;
- d) demonstrative.

106. Find OE possessive pronouns and choose the correct letter.

- a) sum, æ'nig, nán, næ'nig;
- b) min, myn , thin, thyn/thy, hir, hire;
- c) gehwá; gehwilc; ægþer; swilc, sé ylca;
- d) hwá, hwæt, hwonne, hwæ'r , hwý, hwilc.

107. What origin is pronoun 'their'? Choose the correct letter.

- a) Slavic;
- b) German;
- c) Spanish;
- d) Scandinavian.

108. In what period did possessive pronouns lose the category of case and gender? Choose the correct letter.

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present-Day English.

109. In what period did possessive pronouns retain the category of number?

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present-Day English.

110. In what period did the forms of pronouns 'tho', 'thos' stand for 'that', and forms 'thes'/'thise' stand for 'this'?

- a) ME;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d) Present-Day English.

111. In what period did interrogative pronouns (hwy –why) change phonetically (the aspiration was weakened and in spelling the letters h and w changed place) ?

- a) Present-Day English;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d)) ME.

112. What new class of pronouns appeared in ME? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) personal pronouns;
- b) reflexive pronouns;
- c) possessive pronouns;
- d) demonstrative.

113. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter. In ME reflexive pronouns are formed from the possessive pronoun my/thy or the objective case of the third person personal pronoun him/hir/hem/them+ self – himself, herself, hemselven.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

114. In what period did OE pronouns: *ǣðer*, *ǣlc*, *swilc*, *sum*, *ǣni*, *nān* change their phonetic form and give the present-day forms: *either*, *each*, *such*, *some*, *any*, *none*?

- a) Present-Day English;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d)) ME.

115. What period of history of OE can be characterized by the development of separate possessive adjectives and pronouns (my/mine, thy/thine)? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Present-Day English;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d)) ME.

116. What period of history of OE can be characterized by the development of possessive of it: his > it > its (sometimes spelled it's)? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Present-Day English;
- b) EModE;
- c) OE;
- d)) ME.

117. What century did forms thou and thee disappear? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in the 20th c
- b) in the 19th c
- c) in the 17th c;
- d) in the 16th c.

118. In EModE the use of 'ye/you' became common. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) True;
- b) False;
- c) Hardly ever;
- d) It's impossible.

119. In EModE subject ye became you. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

120. In EModE relative pronouns 'that', 'which', 'who', 'as' became common. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

121. In EModE reflexive pronouns ‘myself’, ‘ourselves’, ‘yourself’, ‘themselves’

became common. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It’s impossible.

122. In EModE indefinite pronouns ‘every’, ‘other’, ‘some’, ‘somewhat’, ‘something’ became common. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It’s impossible.

123. What part of speech in OE gave birth to the indefinite article? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) nouns;
- b) pronouns;
- c) numerals;
- d) verbs.

124. What two groups are OE adverbs divided into? Answer the question and choose the correct answer.

- a) primary (simple), secondary (derived);
- b) regular, irregular;
- c) primary, irregular;
- d) regular, derived.

125. What adverbs are referred to simple in OE? Choose the correct letter.

- a) wide (widely), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), hearde (hard);
- b) þonne (then), þær (there), þider (thither), nú (now), hér (here), hider (hither);
- c) bealdlice (boldly), freondlice (in a friendly way);
- d) wíde - wídor - wíðost (widely - more widely - most widely)

126. What adverbs are referred to secondary (derived) in OE? Choose the correct letter.

- a) wide (widely), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), hearde (hard);
- b) þonne (then), þæ'r (there), þider (thither);
- c) nú (now), hér (here), hider (hither);
- d) syna (soon), oft (often), eft (again), swá (so).

127. Match OE simple adverbs with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4.

1. þa	1. there
2. þonne	2. then
3. þæ'r	3. thither
4. þider	4. then

128. Match OE simple adverbs with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4.

1. oft	1. again
2. eft	2. often
3. swá	3. so
4. hwílum	4. sometimes

129. Match OE simple adverbs with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 5.

1. nú	1. here
2. hér	2. hither
3. hider	3. now
4. heonan	4. hence
5. sóna	5. soon

130. What suffix did secondary (derived) adverbs in OE add? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) the suffix –e;
- b) the suffix –y;
- c) the suffix –i;
- d) the suffix –o.

131. Find the examples of derived adverbs in OE with the suffix –e. Choose the correct letter.

- a) þa (then), þonne (then), þæ'r (there), þider (thither);
- b) nú (now), hér (here), hider (hither), heonan (hence);
- c) bealdlice (boldly), freondlice (in a friendly way);
- d) wide (widely), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), hearde (hard).

132. Find the examples of derived adverbs in OE with the suffixes -lic, -lice. Choose the correct letter.

- a) þa (then), þonne (then), þæ'r (there), þider (thither);
- b) nú (now), hér (here), hider (hither), heonan (hence);
- c) bealdlice (boldly), freondlice (in a friendly way);
- d) wide (widely), déope (deeply), fæste (fast), hearde (hard).

133. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

In OE adverbs, as well as adjectives, had their degrees of comparison by adding the suffix –or/ra and –ost/est:

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

134. Analyse the statements which are not typical of ME adverbs. Find the wrong idea and choose the correct letter.

- a) Adverbs in Middle English aren't changed phonetically, like all other parts of speech.
- b) Compound adverbs of the type 'theroute', 'therwith', 'theof', 'therby' are very common.
- c) Secondary adverbs with the suffixe – e were in use. But the process of leveling of the final vowel started.
- d) A new and a very productive way of forming adverbs –adding the suffix –ly appears.

135. Analyse the statements which are typical of OE numerals. Find the wrong idea and choose the correct letter.

- a) Old English had a system of numerals of common Indo-European origin.
- b) The numerals 2 twá and 3 þríe had three genders.
- c) Cardinals from 1 to 4 might be declined.
- d) Numerals from 20 to 100 were formed by placing tens first, and then units.

136. Analyse the statements which are typical of OE numerals. Find the wrong idea and choose the correct letter.

- a) in OE 1 án is declined just like a strong adjective.
- b) The numerals 2 twá and 3 þríe had 3 genders and 4 cases.
- c) 3 þríe is a typical i-stem noun.
- d) Numerals from 20 to 100 were formed by placing tens first, and then units.

137. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 5.

1. one	1. twá
2. two	2. án
3. three	3. þríe
4. four	4. féower
5. fife	5. fíf

138. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 5.

1. six, syx, siex	1. eight
2. seofon, syofn	2. seven
3. eahta	3. nine
4. nigon	4. six
5. tien, tyn	5. ten

139. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 5.

1. endlefan	1. eleven
2. twelf	2. thirteen
3. þriotíene	3. twelve
4. féowertíene	4. fourteen
5. fiftíene	5. fifteen

140. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4; 5, 5.

1. twentig (twenti□)	1. thirty
2. án ond twentig	2. twenty-one
3. þritig	3. forty
4. féowertig	4. twenty
5. fiftig	5. fifty

141. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
- b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;

- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
 d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1. siextig	1. seventy
2. siofontig	2. eighty
3. eahtatig	3. sixty
4. nigontig	4. hundred
5. hundtéontig, hund, hundred	5. ninety

142. Match OE numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
 b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
 c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
 d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1. hundæleftig	6. one hundred and twenty
2. hundtwelftig	7. two hundred
3. tú hund	8. one hundred and ten
4. þúsend	9. two thousand
5. tú þúsendu	10. one thousand

143. Match OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
 b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
 c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.
 d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1 forma, fyresta	1. the third
2 óþer, æfterra	2. the second
3 þridda, þirda	3. the fourth
4 féorþa	4. the first
5 fifta	5. the fifth

144. Match OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;
 b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;
 c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.

d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1. siexta, syxta	1. the seventh
2. siofoþa	2. the eighth
3. eahtoþa	3. the sixth
4. nigoþa	4. the tenth
5. téoþa	5. the ninth

145.
Match

OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;

b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;

c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.

d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1. endlefta	1. the twelfth
2. twelfta	2. the thirteenth
3. þreotéoþa	3. the eleventh
4. féowertéoþa	4. the fifteenth
5. fiftéoþa	5. the fourteenth

146. Match OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;5,5;

b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3; 5,5;

c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4; 5,5.

d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,5; 5, 4.

1. sixtéoþa	1. the eighteenth
2. siofontéoþa	2. the seventeenth
3. eahtatéoþa	3. the nineteenth
4. nigontéoþa	4. the sixteenth
5. twentigoþa	5. the twentieth

147. Match OE ordinal numerals with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;

b) 1,4; 2,2; 3,1; 4,3;

c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;

d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. þrittigopa	5. the thirtieth
2. féowertigopa	6. the fiftieth
3. fiftigopa	7. the fortieth
4. hundtéontigopa	8. the hundredth

148. What period were the following cardinal numerals (on, two/tweye, thre, fower, four, fif, six, seven, nyne, ten, enleven, ywelve, thirteen) typical of? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

149. Analyse the following innovations in MME numerals and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) development of suffix- ty from Old English *tiġ*;
- b) addition of the Scandinavian borrowing ‘millioun’;
- c) ordinal numerals have developed the suffix –th from Old English –opa;
- d) french borrowing ‘second’ replaced the former Old English ‘yþer, æfterra’.

150. What phonological process influenced on the formation of ME ordinal numeral ‘third’ from OE ‘þridda’? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) palatal mutation;
- b) monophthongization;
- c) diphthongization;
- d) metathesis.

151. What period did the gerund become common? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

152. What’s funny about Old English prepositions? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) They often come after their "object" and must be named postpositions.
- b) They are too long.
- c) They are too short.
- d) They look strange.

153. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. æfter	1. behind
2. beæftan	2. before
3. beforan	3. between
4. betweox	4. after

154. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. for(e)	1. from
2. fram	2. with
3. mid	3. in front of
4. ongean	4. against

155. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. geond	1. until
2. op	2. through, throughout

3. þurh	3. through
4. ymb(e)	4. about, around

156. Match OE prepositions with their modern equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. binnan	1. above, over
2. bufan	2. over
3. ofer	3. on, in
4. on	4. within

157. Analyse the following borrowings from French (according to, around, during), Latin (except), Norse (till) which enriched prepositional corpus. What period did they become common? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

158. What period were new phrasal prepositions (by means of, in spite of, because of) developed? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

159. Match modern conjunctions with their OE equivalents. Choose the correct letter.

- a) 1,2; 2,1; 3, 3; 4,4;
- b) 1,4; 2,1; 3,2; 4,3;
- c) 1,1; 2,3; 3,2; 4,4;
- d) 1,3; 2,1; 3,2; 4,4;

1. because	1. ac
2. but	2. hwæþere
3. however	3. (ǣgþer) oþþe
4. either... or... (or...)	4. for þǣm

160. Fill in the gap and choose the correct letter.

Compound subordinating conjunctions with **that** as their second element were common in

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

161. What period do the following examples of interjections (p̄ea (alas), Hū (what then? how?), peʒlā (oh) belong to? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

162. What period do the following examples of interjections gramercy (FR grant merci), thank you, benedicite, goddamn, bigot (by God) belong to)? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

163. What period do the following examples of interjections gramercy (excuse me, please (if it please you), hollo, hay, what, God's name)? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) OE;
- b) ME;
- c) EModE;
- d) Present-day English.

164. Analyse the statements which describe Middle English Syntax. Find the mistake.

- a) In Middle English Syntax there was a fixed word order.
- b) Post position of the adjective (after a noun) e. g. with eyen *narwe* (with narrow eyes) a mantel *roialliche* (a royally mantle) was typical of ME period.
- c) impersonal sentences are used without formal subject.e.g. as that me thynketh (as it seems to me).
- d) Negation in ME was the same as it was in OE (double negation). e.g. he nolde no raunsoun (he didn't want any ransom).

165. Analyse the statements which describe EModE English Syntax. Find the mistake.

- a) tendency to place adverbial modifier before words modified (is again come);
- b) double negatives are not acceptable;
- c) do as auxiliary in questions and negatives;
- d) influence of Latin, "elegant English," long sentences featuring subordination, parallelism, balanced clauses;

DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND WORD-FORMATION

166. How many OE words do linguists estimate? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) from 30 000 words to 100 000 words;
- b) from 50 000 words to 100 000 words;
- c) from 60 000 words to 100 000 words;
- d) from 30 000 words to 150 000 words.

167. Analyse the statements and choose the correct letter.

- a) The OE vocabulary was almost purely Latin.
- b) The OE vocabulary was almost purely Greek.
- c) The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic.
- d) The OE vocabulary was almost purely Scandinavian.

168. What is a "native word"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It is a word that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.
- b) A word which belongs to the common IE layer and constitutes the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.

- c) It is a word that can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western, northern.
- d) It is a word that doesn't occur in any other known language. These words are not numerous and don't form a clear-cut semantic group.

169. What is "a common Germanic word"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It is a word that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.
- b) A word which belongs to the common IE layer and constitutes the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.
- c) It is a word that can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western, northern.
- d) It is a word that doesn't occur in any other known language. These words are not numerous and don't form a clear-cut semantic group.

170. What is "a common IE word"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It is a word that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.
- b) A word which belongs to the common IE layer and constitutes the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.
- c) It is a word that can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western, northern.
- d) It is a word that doesn't occur in any other known language. These words are not numerous and don't form a clear-cut semantic group.

171. What is "a specifically OE word"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It is a word that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.
- b) A word which belongs to the common IE layer and constitutes the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.
- c) It is a word that can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western, northern.
- d) It is a word that doesn't occur in any other known language. These words are not numerous and don't form a clear-cut semantic group.

172. What is “a west Germanic word”? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It is a word that was not borrowed from another language, but was inherited from an earlier stage of the language, i.e. a word that is not a loanword.
- b) A word which belongs to the common IE layer and constitutes the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.
- c) It is a word that has parallels only in the West Germanic languages, sometimes only in one of them.
- d) It is a word that doesn't occur in any other known language. These words are not numerous and don't form a clear-cut semantic group.

173. Find Common IE words and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæ□ (day), nyht (night);
- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) bridda (bird), wō□ian (to woo, to court), scirrefa /sheriff, ōwef (woof).

174. Find Common Germanic words and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæ□ (day), nyht (night);
- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) bridda (bird), wō□ian (to woo, to court), scirrefa /sheriff, ōwef (woof).

175. Find West Germanic words and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæ□ (day), nyht (night);
- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) bridda (bird), wō□ian (to woo, to court), scirrefa /sheriff, ōwef (woof).

176. Find specifically English words and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæ□ (day), nyht (night);

- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) bridda (bird), wōðian (to woo, to court), scirrefa /sheriff, ōwef (woof).

177. What words were considered borrowings In OE? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Celtic and Latin words;
- b) Greek and Latin words;
- c) Scandinavian and Germanic words;
- d) Scandinavian and Celtic words.

178. Find Celtic words and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæġ (day), nyht (night);
- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) dūn (dum), (down) (hill), dun (brown); binn (bin); uisge (water) > Exe, Usk, Esk; (later whiskey); amhuin (river) > Avon, Evon; Llyn – dūn (fortress) > Londinium; Loch (lake).

179. How many layers were Latin words in OE classified into? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) 2;
- b) 3;
- c) 5;
- d) 4.

180. Find Latin words of the first layer and choose the correct letter.

- a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæġ (day), nyht (night);
- b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);
- c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;
- d) mynet (mint – Lat. moneta), pund (pound – Lat. pondo), ynce (ounce – Lat. uncial).

181. Find Latin words of the second layer and choose the correct letter.

a) ceald (cold), wæter (water), stān (stone), snāw (snow), mere (sea), sunne (sun) mōna (moon), dæ□ (day), nyht (night);

b) hond (hand), hors (horse), eorpe (earth), land (land), sand (sand), sǣ (sea);

c) ȝreat, sceap, macian;

d) candel (candle), en□el (angel), crǣda (creed), ymn (hymn), martyr (martyr), pāpa (pope), mæsse (mess).

182. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

a) fiscere, bōcere, wriþere;

b) bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ;

c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ȝēarlīc;

d) carfull, sinnfull, sláplēās, griplēās.

183. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

a) frēond, dēmend, hǣlend, waldend;

b) bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ;

c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ȝēarlīc;

d) carfull, sinnfull, sláplēās, griplēās.

184. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

a) ȝōdnis, swētnes, lenȝpu, strenȝpu;

b) bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ;

c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ȝēarlīc;

d) carfull, sinnfull, sláplēās, griplēās.

185. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

a) wīsdōm, frēodōm, cildhād, weoruldhād;

b) bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ;

c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ȝēarlīc;

d) carfull, sinnfull, sláplēās, griplēās.

186. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

a) bysiȝ, hāliȝ, mistiȝ, wēriȝ;

- b) rēoflāc, scinlāc , rāden, frēondrāden, mannrāden;
- c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ʒēarlīc;
- d) carfull , sinnfull , sláplēās , griplēās.

187. Find OE nouns (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

- a) bysiʒ , hāliʒ , mistiʒ , wēriʒ;
- b) rēoflāc, scinlāc , rāden, frēondrāden, mannrāden;
- c) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ʒēarlīc;
- d) carfull , sinnfull , sláplēās , griplēās.

188. Find OE adjectives (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

- a) frēond , dēmend, hǣlend, waldend;
- b) rēoflāc, scinlāc , rāden, frēondrāden, mannrāden;
- c) wīsdōm, frēodōm,cildhād, weoruldhād;
- d) dēādlic, frēōndlic, ʒēarlīc.

189. Find OE adjectives (focus attention on the suffixes) and choose the correct letter.

- a) frēond , dēmend, hǣlend, waldend;
- b) rēoflāc, scinlāc , rāden, frēondrāden, mannrāden;
- c) wīsdōm, frēodōm,cildhād, weoruldhād;
- d) carfull , sinnfull , sláplēās , griplēās.

190. Find the OE words which were formed by prefixation. Choose the correct letter.

- a) a-faran, be-settan, for-don, fore-sec , ze-rinnan, mis-cwe ;
- b) carfull , sinnfull , sláplēās , griplēās;
- c) eorþcræft, hūsbonda, hāligdæg, gōdspel, sunnandæg ;
- d) wīsdōm, frēodōm,cildhād, weoruldhād.

191. Find the OE words which were formed by composition. Choose the correct letter.

- a) a-faran, be-settan, for-don, fore-sec , ze-rinnan, mis-cwe ;
- b) carfull , sinnfull , sláplēās , griplēās;
- c) eorþcræft, hūsbonda, hāligdæg, gōdspel, sunnandæg ;

d) wīsdōm, frēodōm, cildhād, weoruldhād.

192. Find the OE kennings. Choose the correct letter.

- a) sweord-freca, here- rinc;
- b) a-faran, be-settan, for-don, fore-sec, ze-rinnan, mis-cwe ;
- c) carfull, sinnfull , slæplēās , griplēās;
- d) eorþcræft, hūsbonda, hāligdæg, gōdspel, sunnandæg .

ME period and formation of the national literary English

193. How long did ME period last? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) It lasted from about 1066 to about 1500.
- b) It lasted from about 1166 to about 1400.
- c) It lasted from about 1166 to about 1450.
- d) It lasted from about 1160 to about 1550.

194. What period in the history of English should be seen as a transition point? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) EModE;
- b) ME;
- c) OE;
- d) Present-day English.

195. What dialect was the most important in OE? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Northumbrian;
- b) Mercian;
- c) Kentish;
- d) West Saxon.

196. What dialect in OE was a dialect of King Alfred? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Northumbrian;
- b) Mercian;
- c) Kentish;
- d) West Saxon.

197. What language co-existed with Old English dialects? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Greek;
- b) Latin;
- c) German;
- d) French.

198. When did the Norman Conquest of England happen? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in 1066;
- b) in 1166;
- c) in 1266;
- d) in 1216.

199. What consequences did the Norman invasion have for the English population? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) The Normans built around 1000 castles, among them the White Tower of London.
- b) The Normans also didn't control education.
- c) The Normans also imported their national symbols.
- d) Normans brought their language, Norman French.

200. What did Britain begin to export in Middle Ages? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) woolen cloth;
- b) fur;
- c) honey;
- d) silk.

201. What Battle did William the Conqueror kill king Harold? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in the Battle of Oxford;
- b) in the Battle of London;
- c) in the Battle of Hastings;
- d) in the Battle of Cambridge.

202. What tapestry were the events at Hastings woven into? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Bayeux tapestry;
- b) Peterborough tapestry;
- c) Northumbrian tapestry;
- d) Mercian tapestry;

203. What can you see in the picture? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) the Bayeux tapestry;
- b) the Peterborough tapestry;
- c) the Northumbrian tapestry;
- d) the Mercian tapestry.



204. What is the Bayeux tapestry? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) It is a unique and extraordinary document to reflect this episode of French history.
- b) It is an embroidered cloth—not an actual tapestry—nearly 70 metres (230 ft) long, which depicts the events leading up to the Norman conquest of England.
- c) The tapestry is regarded as one of the greatest examples of Anglo-Saxon art.
- d) The tapestry was ordered by a Norman, but it was made by English (Anglo-Saxon) artisans.

205. Analyse the sentences and choose the wrong one.

- a) Norman = North-man, descendants of Danes, spoke French influenced by Germanic dialect.
- b) The Normans were Norwegian Vikings.
- c) In 911 they forced the French king, Rollo, to cede French territory.
- d) By 1000 Normandy didn't become one of the most powerful and successful regions in Western Europe.

206. Analyse the statement and fill in the gap, choose the correct letter.

There is a recognizable gap in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus, because the Written English didn't exist for about ... years as the consequence of the political changes after the Norman Conquest.

- a) 150-170;
- b) 100-150;
- c) 50-100;
- d) 120-150.

207. Who is considered to be a “father of English Poetry”? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Geoffrey Chaucer;
- b) W.Shakespeare;
- c) the king James;
- d) the king Alfred.

208. What is Chaucer's best-known work? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) “The Canterbury Tales”;
- b) “Ecclesiastical History of the English People”;
- c) “Beowulf”;
- d) “Much ado about nothing”.

209. Fill in the gaps and choose the correct letter.

“The Canterbury Tales” is a collection of stories written in (1)... by Geoffrey Chaucer at the end of the 14th century. The tales (mostly written in verse although some are in prose) are presented as part of a story-telling contest by a group of (2)... as they travel together on a journey from Southwark to the shrine of Saint Thomas Becket at (3)....

- a) Middle English, pilgrims, Canterbury Cathedral;
- b) Old English, peasants, Canterbury Cathedral;
- c) Middle English, pilgrims, St Paul's Cathedral;
- d) Present-day English, pilgrims, Canterbury Cathedral.

210. Fill in the gaps and choose the correct letter. “The Canterbury Tales” were written in ...dialect in

- a) Kentish, 1783;
- b) Southern, 1378;
- c) East Midland, 1387.
- d) Northern, 1377.

211. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

“The Canterbury Tales” is a marvelous trilingual picture of the history of the English language of Chaucer’s time, its trilingualism being presented together in a profound synthesis of nature (English), culture (French), and religion (Latin).

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It’s impossible.

212. What dialect took a position as a written standard during the Old English period? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Northumbrian;
- b) Mercian;
- c) Kentish;
- d) West Saxon.

213. Find ME dialects.

- a) Kentish, Southern, Northern, East-Midland and West-Midland;
- b) Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, Anglian, West Saxon;
- c) Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, East-Midland and West-Midland;
- d) Anglian, West Saxon, Kentish, East-Midland and West-Midland.

214. What dialect became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14 century? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Northern;
- b) Kentish;
- c) Southern;
- d) London.

215. What Middle English towns constituted the famous literary and cultural triangle? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Brixworth, Portsmouth, Liverpool;
- b) London— Liverpool— Cambridge;
- c) London—Oxford— Cambridge;
- d) Oxford— Portsmouth — Liverpool.

216. How many years did communication in England go on in three languages? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) 150;
- b) 200;
- c) 300;
- d) 250.

217. What three languages did communication in England go on during 300 years? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Scandinavian, English, French;
- b) German, Greek, English;
- c) English, French, Latin;
- d) Latin, English, German;

218. Choose the correct statement.

- a) During ME church literature was in Latin, chivalric poetry was for the most part in French while folklore continued to develop in Anglo-Saxon.
- b) During ME church literature was in *Greek*, chivalric poetry was for the most part in *Latin* while folklore continued to develop in *Anglo-Saxon*.
- c) During ME church literature was in *Greek*, chivalric poetry was for the most part in *Latin* while folklore continued to develop in *French*.
- d) During ME church literature was in *Greek*, chivalric poetry was for the most part in *English* while folklore continued to develop in *Anglo-Saxon*.

219. When did English become the language of grammar-schools? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in 1348.
- b) in 1438.
- c) in 1538.
- d) in 1638.

220. When did the Language Act declare English the official language of the law courts? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in 1348.
- b) in 1362.
- c) in 1538.
- d) in 1638.

221. What King was the first on the throne with English as his mother tongue? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Henry IV;
- b) Henry V;
- c) Richard II;
- d) Richard III.

222. When were all parliament records written in English? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Since 1423;
- b) Since 1223;
- c) Since 1523;
- d) Since 1323;

223. Who proclaimed English as the official language? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Henry IV;
- b) Henry V;
- c) Richard II;
- d) Richard III.

224. What processes played an important role in the unification of the English language? Find the wrong process.

- a) the changes in the economic and social conditions;
- b) the growth of towns with mixed population;
- c) the weakening of social ties between the various regions;
- d) a new class, the bourgeoisie, became common.

225. Why were the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485) the most significant event of the ME period? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) This event didn't mark the decay of feudalism and the birth of the new social order.
- b) In the Wars of the Roses Henry Tudor became the king Henry VII of England.
- c) The political result of this prolonged struggle was the rise of an absolute monarchy.
- d) The rise of an absolute monarchy meant a high degree of political centralization and this contributed to centralization in language as well, i.e. to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

226. Who published the first English printed book? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Johann Gutenberg;
- b) William Shakespeare;
- c) William Caxton;
- d) Bede.

227. What was the title of the first English printed book? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "THE DICTES AND SAYINGS OF THE PHILOSOPHERS".
- b) "The Canterbury Tales";
- c) "The Peterborough Chronicle";
- d) "THE RECUYEIL OF THE HISTORIES OF TROY".

228. Where was the first English printed book? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in London;
- b) in Oxford;
- c) in Cambridge;
- d) in Bruges.

229. What was the title of the first English book printed in England? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "THE DICTES AND SAYINGS OF THE PHILOSOPHERS";
- b) "The Canterbury Tales";
- c) "The Peterborough Chronicle";

d) “THE RECUYEIL OF THE HISTORIES OF TROY”

230. What town did the first book appear to be printed in England? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in London;
- b) in Oxford;
- c) in Cambridge;
- d) in Bruges.

231. The spread of printing helped to normalize spelling and grammatical forms. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

232. The written form of the English language became standardized earlier than its spoken form. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

233. What language did William Shakespeare and his contemporaries (Edmund Spenser, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson and others) write in? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in Early NE literary language;
- b) in Middle English;
- c) in Present-day English;
- d) in Old English.

234. What outstanding events influenced the English in the 17-th and 18-th cc.? Answer the question and choose the incorrect letter.

- a) the bourgeois revolution of the 17th c.;
- b) the Restoration of the English monarchy in 1660;
- c) the industrial revolution in the 18th c.;
- d) the introduction of Christianity.

235. Analyse the statements and choose the correct letter.

In the 17th c. colonizing was caused by acute political struggle in the mother country and persecuting the Puritans.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

236. What was the name of the Puritan ship which reached North America in 1620? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "The mayflower";
- b) "The Titanic";
- c) "The Britannica"
- d) "The Royal tulip"

237. When did the ship "The mayflower" reach North America?

- a) in 1620;
- b) in 1660;
- c) in 1630;
- d) in 1616.

238. When did England found her first colony abroad?

- a) in 1583;
- b) in 1853;
- c) in 1383;
- d) in 1533.

239. How long did the conquest of the West Indies continue?

- a) over a hundred years;
- b) over 50 years;
- c) over 80 years
- d) over 20 years.

240. American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;

- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

241. What was the result of the East Indian Trading Company? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) The British monopolized the trade with India.
- b) The British monopolized the trade with China.
- c) The British monopolized the trade with Persia.
- d) The British monopolized the trade with Australia.

242. What century did the British censure partial control over the administration of many provinces in India? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) in the late 19th c.
- b) in the late 17th c.
- c) in the late 16th c.
- d) in the late 18th c.

243. Due to what document did England get many disputed territories from France? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Under the Treaty of Paris after the Seven Year's War (1763).
- b) Under the Treaty of London after the Seven Year's War (1763).
- c) Under the Treaty of Paris after the Six Year's War (1763).
- d) Under the Treaty of Madrid after the Six Year's War (1763).

244. Where did English convicts begin to be sent beginning with 1786? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) to America;
- b) to Senegal;
- c) to Canada;
- d) to Australia.

245. How many groups of local varieties of English are there on the British Isles nowadays? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) 6;
- b) 5;
- c) 8;
- d) 9.

246. What dialect on the British Isles has its own literature? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) the Scottish dialect;
- b) the Western dialect;
- c) the Midland dialect;
- d) the Eastern dialect.

247. What is one of the best known modern dialects of British English? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) the dialect of London, Cockney;
- b) the Western dialect;
- c) Midland dialect;
- d) Eastern dialect.

248. What is a typical feature of Cockney? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) rhyming slang;
- b) rhyming colloquial words;
- c) rhyming syntax;
- d) rhythmic intonation.

249. Find AE words and choose the correct letter.

- a) passage, pillar box, cross-roads; tube, underground;
- b) hall, mail-box, intersection, subway;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) aubergine, tin, sweets, chips, minced meat.

250. Find AE words and choose the correct letter.

- a) passage, pillar box, cross-roads, tube, underground;
- b) ballpoint, eraser, package, flashlight, faucet ;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) aubergine, tin, sweets, chips, minced meat.

251. Find AE words and choose the correct letter.

- a) passage, pillar box, cross-roads, tube, underground;
- b) eggplant, can, candy, french fries, ground beef;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) aubergine, tin, sweets, chips, minced meat.

252. Find frequently used Canadian words and choose the correct letter.

- a) washroom, chocolate bar, pop, two-four, double-double, mickey;
- b) eggplant, can, candy, french fries, ground beef;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) aubergine, tin, sweets, chips, minced meat.

253. Find frequently used Canadian words and choose the correct letter.

- a) washroom, chocolate bar, pop, keener, hoser, loonie, eh;
- b) eggplant, can, candy, french fries, ground beef;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) aubergine, tin, sweets, chips, minced meat.

254. Find frequently used Australian words and choose the correct letter.

- a) washroom, chocolate bar, pop, keener, hoser, loonie, eh;
- b) eggplant, can, candy, french fries, ground beef;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) arvo, barbie, macca's, servo, footy .

255. Find frequently used Australian words and choose the correct letter.

- a) washroom, chocolate bar, pop, keener, hoser, loonie, eh;
- b) eggplant, can, candy, french fries, ground beef;
- c) biro, rubber, parcel, torch, tap;
- d) bloke, chick ,mate, thongs, bloody oath.

256. Find Indian borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) algebra, zenith, admiral, cotton, arsenal, alcohol and zero, fakir, imam, harem;
- b) nirvana, swastika, yoga, karma, shampoo, rajah, khaki;
- c) kimono, hara-kiri, geisha, jujitsu;
- d) muzhik, telega, beluga, narodnik,

257. Find Russian borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) algebra, zenith, admiral, cotton, arsenal, alcohol and zero, fakir, imam, harem;
- b) nirvana, swastika, yoga, karma, shampoo, rajah, khaki;
- c) kimono, hara-kiri, geisha, jujitsu;
- d) muzhik, telega, beluga, narodnik,

258. Find Arabic borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) algebra, zenith, admiral, cotton, arsenal, alcohol and zero, fakir, imam, harem;
- b) nirvana, swastika, yoga, karma, shampoo, rajah, khaki;
- c) kimono, hara-kiri, geisha, jujitsu;
- d) muzhik, telega, beluga, narodnik.

259. Find Japanese borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) algebra, zenith, admiral, cotton, arsenal, alcohol and zero, fakir, imam, harem;
- b) nirvana, swastika, yoga, karma, shampoo, rajah, khaki;
- c) kimono, hara-kiri, geisha, jujitsu;
- d) muzhik, telega, beluga, narodnik.

260. Find Scandinavian borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) slaughter, thrift, trust, window, flat, loose, low, odd, tight;
- b) court, crown, duke, empire, government, liberty, majesty, manor;
- c) fruit, fry, grape, gravy, gruel, herb, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mince;
- d) graph, phone, telephone, phonograph, dictaphone, or appendicitis.

261. Find Greek borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) slaughter, thrift, trust, window, flat, loose, low, odd, tight;
- b) court, crown, duke, empire, government, liberty, majesty, manor;
- c) fruit, fry, grape, gravy, gruel, herb, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mince;
- d) graph, phone, telephone, phonograph, dictaphone, or appendicitis.

262. Find French borrowings and choose the correct letter.

- a) slaughter, thrift, trust, window, flat, loose, low, odd, tight;
- b) muzhik, telega, beluga, narodnik,
- c) fruit, fry, grape, gravy, gruel, herb, jelly, lemon, lettuce, mince;
- d) graph, phone, telephone, phonograph, dictaphone, or appendicitis.

263. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “administration”

- a) authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council;
- b) accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar;
- c) abbey, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant, chaplain, charity, clergy;
- d) guard, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier.

264. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “law”

- a) authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council;
- b) accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar;
- c) abbey, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant, chaplain, charity, clergy;
- d) guard, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier.

265. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “religion”

- a) authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council;
- b) accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar;
- c) abbey, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant, chaplain, charity, clergy;
- d) guard, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier.

266. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “law”

- a) authority, bailiff, baron, chamberlain, chancellor, constable, coroner, council;
- b) accuse, adultery, advocate, arrest, arson, assault, assize, attorney, bail, bar;
- c) abbey, baptism, cardinal, cathedral, chant, chaplain, charity, clergy;
- d) guard, lieutenant, moat, navy, peace, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier.

267. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “food and drink”

- a) pork, poultry, raisin, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, saucer, sausage, spice, stew, sugar;
- b) dress, embroidery, emerald, fashion, frock, fur, garment, gown, jewel, lace;
- c) image, jollity, lay, leisure, literature, melody, music, painting, paper;
- d) anatomy, calendar, clause, copy, gender, geometry, grammar, jaundice, logic.

268. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “fashion”

- a) pork, poultry, raisin, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, saucer, sausage, spice, stew, sugar;
- b) dress, embroidery, emerald, fashion, frock, fur, garment, gown, jewel, lace;
- c) image, jollity, lay, leisure, literature, melody, music, painting, paper;
- d) anatomy, calendar, clause, copy, gender, geometry, grammar, jaundice, logic.

269. Find French borrowings which belong to the semantic field “science and learning”

- a) pork, poultry, raisin, roast, salad, salmon, sardine, saucer, sausage, spice, stew, sugar;
- b) dress, embroidery, emerald, fashion, frock, fur, garment, gown, jewel, lace;
- c) image, jollity, lay, leisure, literature, melody, music, painting, paper;
- d) anatomy, calendar, clause, copy, gender, geometry, grammar, jaundice, logic.

270. Find nouns of French origin and choose the correct letter.

- a) basin, blanket, bucket, ceiling, cellar, chair, chamber, chandelier, chimney, closet;
- b) action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage;
- c) easy, final, poor, foreign, honest, horrible, large, mean, natural, nice, original;
- d) advise, allow, arrange, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy.

271. Find verbs of French origin and choose the correct letter.

- a) basin, blanket, bucket, ceiling, cellar, chair, chamber, chandelier, chimney, closet;
- b) action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage;
- c) easy, final, poor, foreign, honest, horrible, large, mean, natural, nice, original;
- d) advise, allow, arrange, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy.

272. Find adjectives of French origin and choose the correct letter.

- a) basin, blanket, bucket, ceiling, cellar, chair, chamber, chandelier, chimney, closet;
- b) action, adventure, affection, age, air, city, coast, comfort, country, courage;
- c) easy, final, poor, foreign, honest, horrible, large, mean, natural, nice, original;
- d) advise, allow, arrange, carry, change, close, continue, cry, deceive, delay, enjoy.

273. Find words with a diminishing suffix and choose the correct letter.

- a) disappoint, disdain, disagree, disown, disburden
- b) admirable, tolerable, legible, flexible, readable,
- c) courage, carriage, marriage, luggage and leakage.
- d) islet, cirlet, streamlet, ringlet, leaflet, booklet.

274. Find words with a prefix and choose the correct letter.

- a) disappoint, disdain, disagree, disown, disburden;
- b) admirable, tolerable, legible, flexible, readable,
- c) courage, carriage, marriage, luggage and leakage.
- d) islet, circlet, streamlet, ringlet, leaflet, booklet.

275. During the Early Modern English period the English lexicon grew from 100,000 to 200,000 lexemes, which in itself indicates the growth (doubling) in English words at the time. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

276. What did the word "fond" mean before EModE period? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "foolish";
- b) "like to do"
- c) "brilliant";
- d) "splendid"

277. What did the word "sophisticated" mean before EModE period? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "adulterated";
- b) "refined";
- c) "sophisticated";
- d) "subtle".

278. What did the word "naughty" mean before EModE period? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) "capricious";
- b) "morally bad";
- c) "whimsical";
- d) "cranky".

279. Find words with prefixes for forming nouns and choose the correct letter.

- a) forecourt, preconception, antechapel;
- b) unfit, inhospitable, discontent;
- c) mismatch, misname;
- d) unburden, disburden, dethrone.

280. Find words with suffixes for forming nouns and choose the correct letter.

- a) forecourt, preconception, antechapel;
- b) unfit, inhospitable, discontent;
- c) wittiness, capability, heeler, examiner;
- d) unburden, disburden, dethrone

281. Find words with suffixes for forming verbs and choose the correct letter.

- a) forecourt, preconception, antechapel;
- b) unfit, inhospitable, discontent;
- c) wittiness, capability, heeler, examiner;
- d) brighten, facilitate, beautify

282. In Early Modern English verbs are commonly produced from nouns and adjectives by means of conversion. Analyse the statement and choose the correct letter.

- a) Hardly ever;
- b) False;
- c) True;
- d) It's impossible.

283. Define Celtic words and choose the correct letter.

- a) Exe, Usk, Esk, Avon, Evon, Llyn, Londinium, Arthur, Donald;
- b) weall, ceaster, port, mīle, mynet, pund, ynce, cīese, pipor, bēte, butere;
- c) candel, enzel, crǣda, ymn, martyr, pāpa, mæsse, mynster, prēost;
- d) psealm, scrīne, scōl, maȝister, dihtan, meter.

284. Define Celtic words and choose the correct letter.

- a) Loch, Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary, Kennedy;
- b) weall, ceaster, port, mīle, mynet, pund, ynce, cīese, pipor, bēte, butere;
- c) candel, enzel, crǣda, ymn, martyr, pāpa, mæsse, mynster, prēost;
- d) psealm, scrīne, scōl, maȝister, dihtan, meter.

285. Define Latin words of the 1st layer and choose the correct letter.

- a) Exe, Usk, Esk, Avon, Evon, Llyn, Londinium, Arthur , Donald;
- b) weall , ceaster, port , mīle, mynet, pund , ynce, cīese, pipor, bēte, butere;
- c) candel, enzel, crǣda, ymn, martyr, pāpa, mæsse, mynster, prēost;
- d) psealm, scrīne, scōl, maḡister, dihtan, meter.

286. Define Latin words of the 2nd layer and choose the correct letter.

- a) Exe, Usk, Esk, Avon, Evon, Llyn, Londinium, Arthur , Donald;
- b) weall , ceaster, port , mīle, mynet, pund , ynce, cīese, pipor, bēte, butere;
- c) candel, enzel, crǣda, ymn, martyr, pāpa, mæsse, mynster, prēost;
- d) Loch, Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary, Kennedy.

287. Define Latin words of the 2nd layer and choose the correct letter.

- a) Exe, Usk, Esk, Avon, Evon, Llyn, Londinium, Arthur , Donald;
- b) weall , ceaster, port , mīle, mynet, pund , ynce, cīese, pipor, bēte, butere;
- c) psealm, scrīne, scōl, maḡister, dihtan, meter;
- d) Loch, Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary, Kennedy.

288. Define OE nouns and choose the correct letter.

- a) fiscere, bōcere, wrītere, bæcestre, spinnestre, myltestre;
- b) bysiḡ, hāliḡ , mistiḡ, wēriḡ ,dēādlic, frēōndlic, ḡearlīc ,carful;
- c) wīde, lanḡe, fæste, lustfullīce, fæstlīce, sōplīce;
- d) hālḡian, ḡehīersumian, clǣnsian, lāpettan, hālettan, wursian , yfelian.

289. Define OE adjectives and choose the correct letter.

- a) fiscere, bōcere, wrītere, bæcestre, spinnestre, myltestre;
- b) bysiḡ, hāliḡ , mistiḡ, wēriḡ ,dēādlic, frēōndlic, ḡearlīc ,carful;
- c) wīde, lanḡe, fæste, lustfullīce, fæstlīce, sōplīce;
- d) hālḡian, ḡehīersumian, clǣnsian, lāpettan, hālettan, wursian , yfelian.

290. Define OE verbs and choose the correct letter.

- a) fiscere, bōcere, wrītere, bæcestre, spinnestre, myltestre;
- b) bysiḡ, hāliḡ , mistiḡ, wēriḡ ,dēādlic, frēōndlic, ḡearlīc ,carful;
- c) wīde, lanḡe, fæste, lustfullīce, fæstlīce, sōplīce;
- d) hālḡian, ḡehīersumian, clǣnsian, lāpettan, hālettan, wursian , yfelian.

MISCELLANEOUS

291. "Old English" was the language of tribes who invaded Britain from the East. They spoke different dialects of a(n) Complete the sentence and choose the correct letter.

- a) American language
- b) Russian language
- c) Germanic language
- d) Italian language

292. The Vikings invaded Britain in 878 AD. Where did they come from? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Scandinavia
- b) Scotland
- c) Italy
- d) Spain

293. After the Battle of Hastings in 1066 what language was spoken by the Royal Court and the ruling class? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Old English
- b) French
- c) Portuguese
- d) Old Spanish

294. Who wrote in Middle English? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Shakespeare
- b) Byron
- c) Chaucer
- d) Bede

295. Who was the most famous writer to write in English during the 16th century? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Shakespeare
- b) Keats
- c) Chaucer
- d) Byron

296. What was the bestseller in England in 1611? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Harry Potter
- b) War and Peace
- c) The King James Bible
- d) Cædmon's Hymn

297. The printing press was introduced into England by ... Complete the sentence and choose the correct letter.

- a) William Shakespeare in 1592
- b) Geoffrey Chaucer in 1398
- c) William Caxton in 1476
- d) Rupert Murdoch's great-great grandfather in 1755

298. The words "children", "oxen", "geese", "mice" and "teeth" are a survival from a time when English had a greater number of ... Complete the sentence and choose the correct letter.

- a) inflections;
- b) lexical items;
- c) Russian words;
- d) French words.

299. What kind of words are "kangaroo" and "boomerang"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter

- a) Native American words
- b) Australian Aboriginal words
- c) Chinese words
- d) Indian words

300. What kind of words are "glasnost" and "perestroika"? Answer the question and choose the correct letter.

- a) Spanish borrowings;
- b) French borrowings;
- c) Russian borrowing;
- d) Ukrainian borrowings

THEMES FOR SELF-STUDY WORK

1. The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the HEL
2. Methods of studying the HEL. Sources of studying the HEL
3. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people
4. The periodization of the HEL. General characteristic of each period
5. Basic phonological features of Germanic languages
6. Basic grammatical features of Germanic languages
7. Word-formation and vocabulary of Germanic languages
8. Old Germanic alphabets
9. Grimm's Law and Verner's Law
10. Old English Dialects and Written Records.
11. Old English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
12. Old English Vowel Changes.
13. Old English Consonant Changes.
14. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Noun.
15. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Pronoun.
16. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Adjective.
17. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Verb.
18. Old English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
19. Morphological Classes of Verbs in Old English.
20. Old English Syntax.
21. Old English Vocabulary.
22. Word-Formation in Old English.
23. Middle English Dialects and Written Records.
24. The standardization of the English language.
25. Middle English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
26. Middle English Vowel Changes.
27. Middle English Consonant Changes.
28. Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Noun.
29. Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Pronoun.
30. Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Adjective.
31. Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Verb.
32. Middle English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
33. Morphological Classes of Verbs in Middle English.
34. Middle English Syntax.
35. Word-Formation in Middle English.

36. The Latin and Greek Influence on the Middle English Language.
37. The Scandinavian and French Influence on the Middle English Language.
38. The Great Vowel Shift and Other Vowel Changes in Modern English.
39. Modern English Consonant Changes.
40. Modern English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
41. The Development of New Grammatical Forms and Categories in Modern English (Future Tense, Perfect, Continuous Forms, Passive Voice, etc.).
42. Modern English Syntax.
43. Word-Formation in Modern English.
44. History of the OED.

SAMPLE SELF-STUDY WORK

**Analysis of the extract from the 'Tragedie of Hamlet Prince of Denmarke'
by W. Shakespeare**

Extract '*The Tragedie of Hamlet Prince of Denmarke*' (W. Shakespeare)

Ber. Sit downe awhile,

And let vs once againe assaile your ears,

That are so fortified against our story,

What we haue two nights have seene.

Hor. Well, sit we downe,

And let us heare Bernardo speake of this.

Ber. Last night of all,

When yond same starre that's westward from the pole

Had made his course t' illume that part of heauen

Where now it burns, Marcellus and my selfe,

The bell then beating one-

Enter Ghost.

Mar. Peace! break thee off! Looke where it comes againe!

Ber. In the same figure, like the King that's dead.

Mar. Thou art a scholar; speak to it, Horatio.

Ber. Lookes it not like the King? Marke it, Horatio.

Hor. Most like. It horrows me with feare and wonder.

Ber. It would be spoke to.

Mar. Speake to it, Horatio.

Hor. What art thou that usurp'st this time of night

Together with that faire and warlike forme

In which the Maiestie of buried Denmarke

Did sometimes march? By heauen I charge thee speake

Sample analysis

The epoch of William Shakespeare includes the period of development of Early Modern English in the second half of the XV- th century and the first half of the XVIII- th century. It is a period of 'lost endings'. William Shakespeare (1564 - 1616) is the greatest playwright, philosopher, poet, and, undoubtedly, one of the most enigmatic figures in the literature.

It's Shakespeare who tremendously influenced the development of the English language through his plays and sonnets.

Thus, we think the analysis of this extract from '*The Tragedie of Hamlet Prince of Denmarke*' gives us indisputable evidence.

Shakespeare put *a lot of new words* into his works. In this fragment we find the following examples: *warlike* (compound adjective), *ungarter'd* (Past Participle formed by prefixation), *westward* (compound noun), some shortenings *usurp'st*, archaic words *yond*, *thou*, *thee*, borrowings *wonder*, *faire*.

The pronouns are also widely used in this text. For example, let *vs* (us), (*objective pronoun, plural*), *my selfe* (reflexive), *thou* (subjective case, singular), *thee* (objective case, singular) and *we*, *your*, *all*. We may conclude that OE forms and Modern English forms coexisted in this period.

The usage of prepositions is a feature of Shakespeare's plays as well: ...speake *of* this, that part *of* heauen, It horrors me *with* feare, *like* the King, speak *to* it.

In terms of syntax the structure of sentence is characterized by more flexibility than today. We find sentences with the inversion '*By heauen I charge thee speake!*', '*When yond same starre that's westward from the pole*', '*Where now it burns*'.

Ellipsis is also a typical feature of Shakespearean style. We may observe this phenomenon in this question: '*Did sometimes march?*'

The author originated the forms of *the subjunctive mood*, e.g.: '*It would be spoketo.*', '*Had made his course t'illume that part of heauen*'. In this period phrasal verbs appear, e.g.: *break thee off*, Present Perfect tense, e.g.: *have seene*, participle I, e.g.: *beating*, suppletive form of the verb to be, e.g.: *thou art*.

In terms of orthography we see some old spelling. The fragment demonstrates the writing habits which were developing in the 14 - 15 centuries and laid down the foundation for the modern English orthography. But in the ME period spelling remained inconsistent. Thus, the sound [v] could appear in writing as *v* or *u*, e.g.: *vs*, *us*, *hauet* The sound [ʃ] could be spelt *sh*, e.g.: *which*, *march*. There was no constituency in the use of the final *e* and the use of different digraphs, e.g. *downe*, *againne*, *assaile*, *heare*, *speake*, *starre*, *seene*. The final letter was silent but written.

Shakespeare was acutely aware of the way the Early Modern English language that he grew up with was changing and it is yet another way that he was able to create the levels of meaning that made him such an enduring writer.

SAMPLE STATE EXAMINATION CARDS

Examination card #1

I. Theory: Specific features of the Old English Phonology.

II. Practical assignment: Phonological analysis of the Old English text.

Assignments:

1. Read the Old English text and compare it with the Modern English version.
2. Analyse the Old English Text from the phonological point of view.

Old English Text

Nu sculon herian heofonrices Weard,
Metodes mihte and his modgeþanc,
weorc Wuldorfæder, swa he wundra
gehwæs

ece Dryhten, or onstealde.

He ærest scop eorþan bearnum
heofon to hrofe halig Scieppend.

þa middangeard mancynnes Weard
ece Dryhten, æfter teode
firum foldan Frea ælmihtig.
(Cædmon's Hymn) (658 -680)

Modern English

Now [we] must praise [the] Guardian of [the] heavenly kingdom, [the power] of
God and his conception,

[the] work of [the] Father of Glory, in that He, eternal Lord, established [the]
beginning of every marvellous thing.

He, holy Creator, first created
heaven as a roof for children of men.

Then [the] Guardian of mankind,
eternal Lord, almighty Master, afterwards adorned [the] earth for living beings.

Examination card #2

I. Theory: Specific features of the Old English Morphology.

II. Practical assignment: Morphological analysis of the Old English text.

Assignments:

1. Read and translate the Old English text.
2. Find nouns in the text and define their declensions, cases and numbers.
3. Find the verbs and analyse them in terms of their categories.

Old English Text:

Sē wudu is ēāstlanȝ and westlanȝ hund tweltiȝes mīla lanȝoððe lanȝra and
þrītiȝes mīla brād. Sēo ēā þe wē ær ymbe spræcon liþ ūt of þām wealda.

(‘The Parker Chronicle’) (the 9th century)

Glossary:

wudu m. n. m. wood, forest

ēāstlanȝ adv. along the east

westlanȝ adv. along the west

hund tweltiȝes num. one hundred and twelve

mīl n. f. o. mile

oððe conj. or

lanȝra adj. longer (comp. of lanȝ/lonȝ)

þrītiȝ num. thirty

brād adj. broad

sēo dem. pron. f. that

ēā n. f. cons. river

þe rel particle which

sprecan sv. 5 (p. t. pl. spræcon) to speak

ær adv. before, earlier

ymbe prep. about

licȝan sv. 5 (3rd pers. sing. liþ) to lie, to rest

ūt adv. out

weald n. m. a. forest

Examination card #3

I. Theory: Changes in the Middle English morphology. Changes in the spelling system.

II. Practical assignment: Morphological analysis of the Middle English text.

Assignments:

1. Read the Middle English text and compare it with the Modern English version.
2. Find and analyse the analytical form of the verb syngen (to sing). Speak on the formation of analytical forms in ME.
3. Use the glossary and comment on the changes in the orthography in ME period.

Middle English Text:

And in his harping, whan that he hadde songe,
Hise eyen twinkled in his heed aright
As doon the sterres in the frosty night.
This worthy lymytour was cleped huberd.

Modern English Text:

And in his harping, after he had sung,
His two eyes twinkled in his head as bright
As do the stars within the frosty night.
This worthy limiter was named Hubert.

Geoffrey Chaucer 'the Canterbury Tales' (the end of the 14th century)

Glossary:

harpe v. to play on harp < OE hearpian
whan adv. when < OE hwanne, hwænne
syngen v. to sing < OE sinȝan
eye, ey n. eye < OE ēāȝe
wtynklen v. to twinkle < OE twinclian
heed n. head < OE hēāfod
aright adv. rightly < OE reoht, rieht, rigt
as adv., conj. as < OE eal swā
doon v. to do < OE dōn
sterre n. star < OE steorra
frosty adj. frosty < OE forstig
night n. night < OE neaht, niht n. f. cons.

Examination card #4

I. Theory: Changes in the ME morphology and vocabulary.

II. Practical assignment: Morphological and lexical analysis of the ME text.

Assignments:

1. Read the ME text and compare it with Modern English version.
2. Analyse the words in bold in terms of their
 - probable origin;
 - spelling;
 - pronunciation;
 - grammatical forms;
 - meanings.

Text for analysis: "The vision of Piers Plowman" (William Langland) (1360–87):

In a **sommer seson** **whan** soft **was the sonne**,
I shope me in **shroudes** as I shepe were,
In habite as an heremite vnholy of workes,
Went **wyde** in this world **wondres** to here.
Ac on a May mornynge on Maluerne **hulles**,
Me byfel a ferly of fairy, me **thoughte**;
I was very forwandred and went me to reste
Vnder a brode banke bi a bornes side,
And as I lay and lened and loked in the **wateres**,
I slombred in a **sleping** it sweyued so merye.

Modern English

In a summer season when soft was the sun,
I clothed myself in a cloak as I shepherd were,
Habit like a hermit's unholy in works,
And went wide in the world wonders to hear.
But on a May morning on Malvern hills,
A marvel befell me of fairy, methought.
I was weary with wandering and went me to rest
Under a broad bank by a brook's side,
And as I lay and leaned over and looked into the waters
I fell into a sleep for it sounded so merry.

Examination card #5

I. Theory: Changes in the Early Modern English vocabulary.

II. Practical assignment: Complex analysis of the EModE text.

Assignments:

1. Read the EModE text.

2. Analyse the words in italics in terms of their

- probable origin;
- spelling;
- pronunciation;
- grammatical forms;
- meanings.

EModE text:

*When forty winters shall besiege thy brow,
And dig deep trenches in thy beauty's field,
thy youth's proud livery, so gaz'd on now,
Will be a tatter'd weed, of small worth held.
Then being ask'd where all thy beauty lies,
Where all the treasure of thy lusty daus
To say, within thine own deep-sunken eyes,
were an all-eating shame, and thriftless praise
How much more praise deserv'd thy beauty's use,
If thou couldst answer | 'This fair child of mine
Shall sum my count, and make my old excuse',
Proving his beauty by succession thine!
This were to be new made when thou art old,
And see thy blood warm when thou fell'st it cold*

(W. Shakespeare, Sonnet 2.)

Examination card #6

I. Theory: Changes in the Early Modern English vocabulary.

II. Practical assignment: Complex analysis of the EModE text.

Assignments:

1. Read the EModE text.
2. Analyse the words in bold in terms of their
 - word-building;
 - spelling;
 - grammatical forms;
 - meanings.

To be, or not to be (from Hamlet 3/1) (W. Shakespeare)

To be, or not to be: that is the question:
Whether **'tis** nobler in the mind to suffer
The slings and arrows of **outrageous** fortune,
Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them? To die: to sleep;
No more; and by a sleep to say we end
The **heart-ache** and the thousand natural shocks
That flesh is heir to, **'tis a consummation**
Devoutly to be **wish'd**. To die, to sleep;
To sleep: **perchance** to dream: ay, there's the rub;
For in that sleep of death what dreams may come
When we **have shuffled off** this mortal coil,
Must give us pause: there's the respect
That makes **calamity** of so long life;
For who would bear the whips and scorns of time,
The oppressor's wrong, the proud **man's contumely**,
The pangs of **despised** love, the law's delay,
The **insolence** of office and the spurns
That patient merit of the unworthy takes,
When he himself might his **quietus** make
With a bare **bodkin**? who would **fardels** bear,
To grunt and sweat under a weary life,

But that the dread of something after death,
The **undiscover'd** country from whose bourn
No traveller returns, puzzles the will
And makes us rather bear those ills we have
Than fly to others that we know not of?
Thus conscience does make cowards of us all;
And thus the native **hue** of resolution
Is **sicklied o'er** with the pale cast of thought,
And enterprises of great pith and moment
With this regard their currents turn awry,
And lose the name of action. - Soft you now!
The fair Ophelia! Nymph, in thy orisons
Be all my sins **remember'd**.

Appendix 5

Матеріали I Всеукраїнської студентської наукової конференції

“STUDIA LINGUA: АКТУАЛЬНІ ПРОБЛЕМИ ЛІНГВІСТИКИ І МЕТОДИКИ ВИКЛАДАННЯ ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ”,

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ETYMOLOGICAL AND PHONOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF SCOUSE, LIVERPOOL ENGLISH

This article claims to offer a brief analysis on history of Scouse, English dialect, and its linguistic features. Liverpool English is not quite like its neighbours. In the formation of this dialect, speakers of several varieties of English came into contact with each other, and the history of Scouse is to be considered as the history of its speakers.

This phenomenon has been described in some detail in a number of studies, including Knowles (1973), Lyon (1981), Newbrook (1986, 1999), Sangster (2001), Honeybone (2001), Belchem (2000), Sangster (2001), Honeybone (2001), Watson (2002, 2006, 2007).

Originally, the first true inhabitants of the area which later became "Merseyside", were based on the Wirral Peninsula, 200 years before people settled in what was to become Liverpool. Interspaced between the UK mainland and Wales, they steadily created their own dialect and accent. The accent then expanded into local surrounding areas, and truly began to develop thanks to the large numbers of immigrants into Liverpool in the 18th and 19th centuries including those from the Isle of Man, Wales, Scandinavia, Germany, Scotland, and, most substantially, Ireland. The influence of these different speech patterns became apparent in Liverpool and Birkenhead, distinguishing the accent of its people from those of the surrounding Lancashire and Cheshire areas. It is only recently that Scouse has been treated as a cohesive accent/dialect; for many years, Liverpool was simply seen as a melting pot of different accents without one of its own [1: 22]. Liverpool was granted letters patent in 1207, inviting settlers to what had been a small and largely unimportant fishing village and port. In common with many northern English cities, Liverpool only grew in size to become an important urban centre in the past few centuries. It was granted city status in 1880. Its real population growth started in the 18th century and explod-

ed in the 19th century, when Liverpool rose to prominence as England's second biggest city and as the single most important port of the British Empire [2: 25]. Those events influenced immensely on a new dialect formation. Nowadays Scouse is the accent and dialect of English found in the city of Liverpool and the adjoining urban areas of Merseyside. This is particularly strong within areas of neighbouring boroughs of south Sefton, Knowsley and the Wirral. The Scouse accent of the early 21st century is markedly different in certain respects from that of earlier decades. The Liverpool accent of the 1950s and before was more a Lancashire-Irish hybrid. But since then, as with most accents and dialects, Scouse has been subject to phonemic evolution and change. Over the last few decades the accent is no longer a melange but has started to develop further. Today there are variations on the Scouse accent, with the south side of the city adopting a softer, lyrical tone, and the north a rougher, more gritty accent [4: 31]. Most linguists single out the following specific features of Scouse: TH stopping, non-rhoticity, the absence of contrast between square and nurse, Liverpool lenition [3: 401-405].

The phoneme contrast exists in most varieties of English between such words as [tɪn] *tin* : [θɪn] *thin* [dɛn] *den* : [pɛn] *then*. Liverpool English loses this contrast. It leads to neutralizations such as those in [tɪn] *tin*: [tɪn] *thin*; [dɛn] *den*: [dɛn] *then*. Importantly for our purposes, **TH stopping** is hardly reported in the other dialects which contributed to the Liverpool English koine. By itself, this seems to be a case which would speak in favour of the 'swamping' scenario. The use of the glottal stop as an allophone of /t/ can occur in various positions, including after a stressed syllable. It is particularly common amongst the younger speakers of the Scouse accent. /t/ may also be flapped intervocally. /t/ and /d/ are often pronounced similarly to the fricatives /s/ and /z/. The loss of dental fricatives, /p/ and /θ/, was commonly attributed as being present due to Irish English influence. They were realised as /d/ and /t/ respectively. However, in the younger generation, this feature is being outnumbered by those who realise them as labiodental fricatives. For example, /θ/ becomes /f/ in all environments. [θɪnk] becomes [fɪnk] for "think." /p/ becomes /v/ in all environments except word-initially, in which case it becomes /d/. [dɪpə] becomes [dɪvə] for "dither"; [pəʊ] becomes [dəʊ] for "though."

Liverpool English is resolutely **non-rhotic**, pronouncing /r/ only at the beginning of a syllable and between vowels, but not at the end of a syllable: floor [flɔːr] (Rhotic) and [flɔː] (Scouse). No trace of rhoticity has been reported for any speaker of the variety. If we compare this with the dialects which

came into contact in nineteenth century Liverpool, it is immediately obvious that many of them *were* rhotic. There are two possibilities to explain the fact that Liverpool English is now nonrhotic. Either it never became rhotic when it was being formed, or it did and has since become non-rhotic. The majority of speakers in Liverpool during the period of dialect mixture were rhotic – all the speakers from Ireland, Scotland and North-West England, at least – and this variant should therefore have been taken up into the koine. Any continuity with earlier forms of English spoken in the area would be in favour of rhoticity, too, given the general resilience of rhoticity in the North-West. On this assumption, the subsequent loss of rhoticity would be a case of ‘drift’, where the new dialect has changed in the same way as other, older varieties in England.

The resulting **absence of contrast in SQUARE and NURSE** likely derives from the facts that the children could not accurately create two phonological categories. The nurse-square vowel merger leads to identical pronunciation ‘*fur*’ and ‘*fair*’. A final ‘er’ is a sound whilst pronounced ‘schwa’ in surrounding Lancashire and Cheshire is emphasised strongly as the ‘e’ in ‘pet’ /pɛt/.

Liverpool lenition is a synchronic, variable process whereby underlying plosives are realised as affricates and fricatives in certain specific prosodic and melodic environments. It means that the plosives which are emboldened in the words in might be pronounced as follows: *crime* [kxra:m]; *expect* [ɛxspɛxt]; *deep* [dɸi:p]; *time* [tθa:m]; *night* [naɪθ]; *stop* [stɒɸ]; *lead* [li:p]. In a strong Scouse accent, the phoneme /k/ in all positions of a word except the beginning can be realised as /x/ or sometimes /kx/ [5: 196; 6: 54-63].

Table 1. Differences in pronunciation

RP Pronunciation	Old Scouse	Modern Scouse
[ɜ:] as in 'fur'	[ɜ:]	[ɛ:]
[ɛə] as in 'square'	[ɜ:]	[ɛ:]
[ri:d] as in 'read'	[i:]	[i:]
[sli:p] as in 'sleep'	[i:]	[i:]
[bʌtə] as in 'butter'	[bʊtə]	[bʊtɛ]
[fɔ:k] as in 'fork'	[fɔ:x]	[fɔ:x]

Other Scouse features include:

- The use of 'giz' instead of 'give us'.

- The use of the term 'made up' to portray the feeling of happiness or joy in something. For example, 'I'm made up I didn't go out last night'.
- The term 'sound' is used in many ways. It is used as a positive adjective such as 'it was sound' meaning it was good. It is used to answer questions of our wellbeing, such as 'I'm sound' in reply to 'How are you?' The term can also be used in negative circumstances to affirm a type of indifference such as 'I'm dumping you'. The reply 'sound' in this case translates to 'yeah fine', 'ok', 'I'm fine about it', 'no problem' etc.
- [k] pronounced as [x] at the ends of some words.
- Scouse is noted for a fast, highly accented manner of speech, with a range of rising and falling tones not typical of most of northern England.
- Irish influences include the pronunciation of the name of the letter 'h' as /heɪtʃ/ and the 2nd Person plural (you) as 'youse/yous/use' /ju:z/.

In conclusion we may emphasize the following. When Scouse had been formed, it had something in common with neighbouring Northern Englishes, and something in common with Englishes from further afield, such as those from Ireland. It was not a direct continuation of any dialect that existed before, but had been created from a mixture of dialects. The four features considered in this article did not all pattern in the same way. **TH stopping** is due to the Hiberno-English input, almost as if it had swamped the other dialects. The fact that Liverpool English is **non-rhotic** seems to suggest exactly the opposite, however, and either the minority non-rhotic English varieties from south and east of Liverpool won out, or non-rhoticity was introduced by 'drift', or by the general spread of the change as it moved across England. The absence of a **SQUARE~NURSE** contrast was possibly predictable on a majority-wins basis, as both South Lancashire and some Hiberno-English varieties were unhelpful to the establishment of a contrast. Finally, Liverpool lenition would not have been predicted to have the pattern that it has today, which is unique to Liverpool. Liverpool English is indeed not quite like its neighbours. But some of its linguistic features come from a mix which owes much to them, and to other dialects, such as the Hiberno-Englishes. It has also innovated new features or entirely redeveloped existing ones to form new traits. Among the many cultural achievements of the people of Liverpool, the formation of a completely new dialect – although not a unique feat – must count as one of the greatest.

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COCKNEY: ITS SOUNDS, PAST AND PRESENT

The **term** "Cockney" was in use as early as 1600, when Samuel Rowlands in his satire *The Letting of Humours Blood in the Head-Vaine*, referred to a *Bow-bell Cockney*. John Mishew was the first lexicographer to define this word as a newly-born dialect.

Studying dialects is one way of validating people's identities and ways of life. The term **Cockney** has both **geographical** and **linguistic** associations. Geographically and culturally, it often refers to working class Londoners, particularly those in the East End. Linguistically, it refers to the form of English spoken by this group.

This **article** claims to describe the most specific features of Cockney English in terms of **history** and modern **phonology**. This phenomenon has been analysed and systematized in a number of researches, including Cruttenden, A. (2001), Ellis, Alexander J. (1890), Hughes, Arthur; Trudgill, Peter (1979), Matthews, William (1938), Sivertsen, Eva (1960), Wells, J.C. (1982), Wright, Peter (1981), Nikolenko A. G. (2007).

The **etymology** of Cockney has long been discussed and disputed. One explanation is that "Cockney" literally means cock's egg, a misshapen egg such as sometimes laid by young hens. It was originally used when referring to a weak townsman, opposed to the tougher countryman and by the 17th century the term, through banter, came to mean a Londoner [4: 15-16]. Today's natives of London, especially in its East End use the term with respect and pride. London, the capital of England, is situated on the River Thames, approximately 50 miles north of the English Channel, in the south east section of the country. It is gen-

erally agreed, that to be a true Cockney, a person has to be born within hearing distance of the bells of St. Mary le Bow, Cheapside, in the City of London. It is considered to epitomize the working class accents of Londoners and in its more diluted form, of other areas.

The area and its colorful characters and accents have often become the foundation for British "soap operas" and other television specials. "East Enders" and the characters' accents and lives within this television program provide wonderful opportunities for observers of language and culture. The traditional core Cockney districts of the East End are Bethnal Green, Whitechapel, Spitalfields Stepney, Wapping, Limehouse, Poplar, Clerkenwell, Aldgate, Shoreditch, Millwall, Hackney, Hoxton, Bow and Mile End [2: 11]. Migration of Cockneys has also led to migration of the dialect. Ever since the building of the Becontree housing estate, the Barking & Dagenham area has spoken Cockney. As Chatham Dockyard expanded during the 18th century, large numbers of workers were moved from the dockland areas of London, bringing with them a "Cockney" accent and vocabulary. Within a short period this famously distinguished Chatham from the neighbouring areas, including the City of Rochester, which had a Kentish accent. In Essex, towns that mostly grew up from post-war migration out of London often have a strong Cockney influence on local speech. However, the early dialect researcher Alexander John Ellis [2: 21]. believed that Cockney developed due to the influence of Essex dialect on London speech. Today cockney areas are situated in Dagenham, Barking, Romford, Chigwell, Harlow, Tottenham, Enfield, Basildon, Thurrock, Cheshunt, Brimsdon.

Some of the more characteristic features of the Cockney accent include the following: **Monophthongization**. A **monophthong** (Greek *monyphthongos* from *mynos* "single" and *phthyngos* "sound") is a pure vowel sound, one whose articulation at both beginning and end is relatively fixed, and which does not glide up or down towards a new position of articulation. This affects the lexical set mouth vowel. It is widely agreed that the "mouth" vowel is a "touchstone for distinguishing between "true Cockney" and popular London" and other more standard accents [6: 122]. Cockney usage would include monophthongization of the word mouth [5]: Example: *mouth* = mauf [mæ:f] rather than mouth [mæʊf].

The **glottal stop**, or more fully, the **voiceless glottal plosive**, is a type of consonantal sound used in many spoken languages. In English the feature is represented for example by the hyphen in *uh-oh!* and by the apostrophe. The symbol in the International Phonetic Alphabet that represents this sound is ʔ. A 1970's study of schoolchildren living in the East End found /p,t,k/ "almost in-

variably glottalized" in final position. Examples: *cat* = [kæʔt]; *up* = [ʌʔp]; *sock* = [sɒʔk]

It can also manifest itself as a bare [ʔ] as the realization of word internal intervocalic /t/ Examples: *Waterloo* = Wa'erloo ['wɔ:ʔəlʊə]; *City* = Ci'y [sɪʔi]; *A drink of water* = A drin' a wa'er [wɔ:ʔə]; *A little bit of bread with a bit of butter on it* = A li'le bi' of breab wiv a bi' of bu'er on i'. [bʌʔə].

Dropped ‘h’ at beginning of words (Voiceless glottal fricative).

In the working-class ("common") accents throughout England, ‘h’ dropping at the beginning of certain words is heard often, but it’s certainly heard more in Cockney, and in accents closer to Cockney on the continuum between that and RP [1: 31]. The usage is strongly stigmatized by teachers and many other standard speakers.

Examples: *house* = ‘ouse; *hammer* = ‘ammer

TH fronting. Another very well known characteristic of Cockney is **th fronting** which involves the replacement of the dental fricatives, /θ/ and /ð/ by labiodentals [f] and [v] respectively. Examples: *thin* = fin [fɪn]; *brother* = bruvver [brʌvə]; *three* = free [fri]; *bath* = barf [bɑ:f]

Vowel lowering. Examples: *dinner* = dinna [dɪnə]; *marrow*= marra [mære]

Prosody. In linguistics, **prosody** is the rhythm, stress, and intonation of speech. The voice quality of Cockney has been described as typically involving "chest tone" rather than "head tone" and being equated with "rough and harsh" sounds versus the velvety smoothness of the Kensington or Mayfair accents spoken by those in other more upscale areas of London.

Cockney Rhyming Slang. Cockney English is also characterized by its own special vocabulary and usage in the form of "cockney rhyming slang". The way it works is that you take a pair of associated words where the second word rhymes with the word you intend to say, then use the first word of the associated pair to indicate the word you originally intended to say. Some rhymes have been in use for years and are very well recognized [8: 62]. Examples: "apples and pears" – stairs; "plates of meat" – feet; Brahms (Brahms and Liszt) – tired and emotional; cream crackered – rather tired; dog & bone – phone; loaf (loaf of bread), “use your loaf” – head; mutt and jeff – deaf; natter – chatter; nifty – fifty; North and South – mouth; Old Joanna – Pian(a) (piano); pig’s ear – beer; plates (plates of meat) – feet; pony– twenty five; porkies (pork pies) – lies; tea leaf – thief; tick tock – clock; titfer (tit for tat) – hat; trouble and strife – wife.

Table 1. Variable phonological features of Cockney

№	Phonetic markers	Example
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1.	Monophthongization	<i>mouth</i> = mauf [mæ:f] rather than mouth [mæʊf]
2.	The glottal stop, or the voiceless glottal plosive	<i>cat</i> = [kæʔt]; <i>up</i> = [ʌʔp]; <i>City</i> = Ci'y [sɪʔni]; <i>butter</i> [' b ʌ ʔ ə]
3.	Dropped 'h'	<i>house</i> = 'ouse; <i>hammer</i> = 'ammer
4.	TH fronting	[f i ŋ k] for <i>think</i>
5.	Vowel lowering	<i>dinner</i> = dinna [ɔɪnə]
6.	Vocalisation of pre-consonantal and prepausal /l/ ('dark /l/')	['miok] for <i>milk</i> ['pi:po] for <i>people</i>

In conclusion we may summarize the following:

/l/-vocalisation and **/t/-glottalling** are widespread in all social accents on the continuum between Cockney and RP. TH fronting is still a feature of Cockney which is extremely rare in the other social accents. The glottal stop in intervocalic (and to a certain extent prelateral) position as well as TH fronting can still serve as 'boundary markers' between EE (Estuary English) and Cockney. **L-vocalization** is a process by which an [l] sound is replaced by a vowel or semi-vowel sound. The use of a vocalised variant for 'dark /l/' started off as a well-known feature of Cockney about a century ago. It has found its way into RP where it is currently making rapid progress. The history of **/t/-glottalling**, i.e. glottal replacement of post-vocalic /t/, is very similar to that of /l/-vocalisation. The glottal stop started off as a stigmatised stereotype of Cockney and is now very much on the increase. It has also entered RP although its social acceptability still depends on the phonetic context. **TH fronting** can serve as a 'boundary marker' between Cockney and EE.

Cockney has been spoken in London for more than 500 years. The future of Cockney is vague and unpredictable. Linguists' opinions are different. Some insist that the Cockney accent will disappear from London's streets within 30 years. According to new research by Paul Kerswill, Professor of Sociolinguistics at Lancaster University, the Cockney accent will move further east [3: 47]. In London, it will be replaced by Multicultural London English - a mixture of Cockney, Bangladeshi and West Indian accents. The study, funded by the Economic and Social Research Council, says the accent, which has been around for more than 500 years, is being replaced in London by a new hybrid language. The new accent, known in slang terms as Jafaican, is most famously spoken by rap star Dizze Rascal. Cockney in the East End is now transforming itself into

Multicultural London English, a new, melting-pot mixture of all those people living here who learnt English as a second language. But there are also more optimistic predictions. Wells is so bold as to predict that "Cockney seems likely that it will become entirely standard in English over the course of the next century" [7: 259].

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NEW ZEALAND ENGLISH VS. AUSTRALIAN ENGLISH

In this article our concern is some features of New Zealand English in comparison with Australian English. Such linguists as D. Bayard, H.W. Orsman, P. Trudgill, O. I. Brodovich, M. M. Makovsky conducted linguistic researches in this area.

To northern hemisphere English speakers, the New Zealand accent is virtually indistinguishable from that of its giant Australian neighbour. But differences are there, and reflect the different histories of settlement and aboriginal relations of the two antipodean nations. Unlike Australia, which was probably settled by humans over 50,000 years ago, New Zealand was the last habitable landmass in the world to be colonised. The Polynesian ancestors of the Māori arrived only at about 1150-1200 AD, several centuries after Scandinavians and Inuit arrived in Iceland and Greenland. The first English-speaking settlers ar-

rived in Aotearoa (to use New Zealand Māori name) in 1792; they were Australian rather than British, and were sealers from the recently established penal colony at Port Jackson (now Sydney). The trickle of settlers from Australia and Britain (and Ireland and America) increased during the early 19th century, and became a flood after British and Māori chieftains signed the 1840 Treaty of Waitangi, the founding document of New Zealand. Large-scale organised settlement from both Britain and Australia began, and by midcentury the indigenous Māori were outnumbered by the incoming Pākehā (as people of European ancestry were and are called) [1].

The closest dialectal relative of NZE is Australian English; indeed, in many ways NZE is descended from Australian English (although Kiwis don't like to be told this!). South African English is also fairly close, as all three southern hemisphere countries were settled at roughly the same time. Then ties go back to southeastern England and RP. Some have tried to derive both NZE and Australian English from the Cockney accent of London, but this is a gross overexaggeration; the two accents share some features, but differ markedly in others (e.g., h-dropping and /-t-/ glottalisation in words like "butter").

In terms of lexicon, much NZE slang and idiom is shared with and usually derived from Australian; "bush" (forest) and "cocky" (farmer; from "cockatoo") first appeared across the Tasman Sea.

In terms of phonology, the major perceived difference is the /ɪ/ vowel in "fish and chips". In Australian this is very high – almost /i/ so Kiwis hear Aussies saying "feesh and cheeps". In NZE the same vowel is very centralised, approaching /ə/, so Aussies accuse Kiwis of saying "fush and chups". There are other differences; the NZE /ɜ/ vowel in "bird" is fronted and rounded. The /æ/ and /e/ vowels in "bat" and "bet" are even higher in NZE than they are in Australian, so northern hemisphere English speakers tend to hear a Kiwi pronunciation of "pat" as "pet" and "pet" as "pit". A fair number of Australians pronounce words like "dance, chance" with an "American-sounding" /æ/ vowel rather than the usual NZE /a/. There is one area in New Zealand where the /æ/ vowel is common in such words: the province of Southland at the southern end of the South island. This is the only clearly defined regional dialect area in the country, and is also distinguished by the famous "Southland R": a post-vocalic /-r/ used by what is now a shrinking number of Southlanders, shrinking because it draws comment from other Kiwis rather like the West Country /-r/ does in England [2]. These features originate from the large number of Scots and Irish settling there in the 19th century, but appear to be vanishing in the overall "mixing bowl" of

general NZE. Under American influences, many youth pronounce "more" and "sure" as *mua* and *shua*, whereas their Australian counterparts continue to pronounce them as *maw* and *shaw* as do all older New Zealanders. New Zealanders tend to be more likely to turn a vowel in an unstressed syllable into a schwa, although this is far from a universal trait. A clear example of this trait is shown in the pronunciation of *Queensland*, which in IPA terms would be /'kwɪnzlənd/ to a New Zealander (rhyming with "seasoned"), but /'kwɪnzɪlənd/ to an Australian (rhyming with "freehand"). However, both pronunciations occur in Australia. Pronunciation of the name of the letter 'h' is /eɪtʃ/, as in Great Britain and North America, as opposed to the aspirated /heɪtʃ/ of Hiberno-English origin found in Australian English, although this is still widely debated within educational institutions within Australia. (This refers only to the pronunciation of the letter's name, not to the pronunciation of words beginning with that letter.) Pronunciation of the letter 'l' at the end of a word such as *kill*, is sometimes voiced as a 'w'. This is further found in provincial cities and towns. Some speakers will not differentiate the sound of the word 'bill' from 'bull', and both will have the final 'l' sound changed to a 'w'. Even words such as 'build' will be affected and will sound like 'buwd'. A common use of this is the word 'milk' usually said 'muwk' (rhyming with 'bull(k)' to a speaker outside of New Zealand). Although this varies greatly in different areas and between different socio-economic groups within New Zealand itself. This seems to be most commonly found in South Auckland. From the beginning of the British settlement on the islands, a new dialect began to form by adopting Māori words to describe the different flora and fauna of New Zealand, for which English did not have any words of its own. Other differences in the dialects relate to words used to refer to common items, often based on major brands [3: 414- 415].

Table 1. Vocabulary differences

NZ	Australia	Explanation
cellphone/ mobile/mobile phone (cell)	mobile phone (mobile)	A portable telephone.
chilly bin	Esky	insulated container for keeping drinks and food cool
dairy	milk bar delicatessen	A kind of convenience store
downtown	city centre or CBD	Commercial heart of a major city

duvet	doona	A padded blanket
jandals	thongs	backless sandals (or flip-flops in other English dialects:(Japanese Sandals)
judder bar/speed bump	speed hump	Traffic speed limiting device
Private Bag	Locked Bag (also Private Mail Bag)	Special mail delivery for large organisations
Swannie (Swann-dri)	Driza-Bone	The quintessential back-country farmer's coat of each country

togs	bathers swimmers cossies togs (used mainly in Northern N.S.W. and Queensland)	Swimwear
trolley	shopping trolley	A device for transporting shopping within supermarket precincts
trundler	shopping jeep	A two-wheeled device for transporting shopping from local shops. Now rarely seen.
tramp	Bush walk	Bush walking or hiking

In informal speech, some New Zealanders use the third person feminine *she* in place of the third person neuter *it* as the subject of a sentence, especially when the subject is the first word of the sentence. The most common use of this is in the phrase "She'll be right" meaning either "It will be okay" or "It is close enough to what is required". This is similar to Australian English.

There are some peculiarities in intonation. New Zealanders will often reply to a question with a statement spoken with a rising intonation at the end. This often has the effect of making their statement sound like another question. This rising intonation can also be heard at the end of statements, which are not in response to a question but to which the speaker wishes to add emphasis. High rising terminals are also heard in Australia, but are said to be more common in, and possibly originating from, New Zealand.

To sum up, we can emphasize the following. New Zealand English is similar to Australian English in pronunciation, with some key differences. One of the most prominent differences is the realisation of /ɪ/: in New Zealand English, as in some South African varieties, this is pronounced as a schwa. There is a unification towards the 'foundation accent'. The phonology of New Zealand English is similar to that of other non-rhotic dialects such as Australian English and RP, but with some distinct variations.

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FEATURES OF MODERN CANADIAN ENGLISH

We live in the period of globalization, when the world is becoming a global village. Human communication is different from what it used to be before. There is little question that English is the most widely taught, read, and spoken language. Nowadays Canadian English, one of its varieties, is a big concern. Thus, Ukraine and Canada collaborate in many spheres of social life: in science, education, tourism, culture. To know the peculiarities of Modern Canadian English and socialize with native speakers freely is important and crucial. That makes our research topical.

Such world known linguists as H. Agar, J. Algeo, L. Bergeron, Scargill M. conducted linguistic researches in this area. Nowadays W. Labov, S. Ash, Ch. Boberg, S. Hamilton, L.G. Verba, A.G. Nikolenko go on to elaborate the research in the field of English dialects and its varieties.

In this article our focus is peculiarities of Canadian English on different language levels and its etymology.

Canadian English (CaE) is the variety of English spoken in Canada. English is the first language, or "mother tongue", of approximately 24 million Canadians (77%), and more than 28 million (86%) are fluent in the language (2006 Census). [5]. 82% of Canadians outside Quebec speak English natively, but within Quebec the figure drops to just 11% [3: 68].

Canadian English contains elements of British English and American English in its vocabulary, as well as many distinctive "Canadianisms". In many areas, speech is influenced by French, and there are notable local variations. Canada has very little dialect diversity compared to the United States [2: 38]. The phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon for most of Canada are similar to that of the Western and Midland regions of the United States. Canadian English and American English are sometimes classified together as North American English.

Canadian English is the product of four waves of immigration over a period of almost two centuries. The first large wave of permanent settlement in Canada, and linguistically the most important, was the influx of British Loyalists fleeing the American Revolution, chiefly from the Middle Atlantic States. The second wave from Britain and Ireland was encouraged to settle in Canada after the War of 1812 by a government worried about anti-English sentiment among its citizens. Waves of immigration from around the globe peaking in 1910 and 1960 had a lesser influence, but they did make Canada a multicultural country, ready to accept linguistic change from around the world during the current period of globalization [2: 430].

The term "Canadian English" has a pedigree dating back to 1857, at which time Rev. A. Constable Geikie referred to it as "a corrupt dialect growing up amongst our population" in an address to the Canadian Institute. Geikie's preference was obviously for the British English spoken 'at home'. In 1962 Gage Publishing of Canada began its Dictionary of Canadian English series with *The Beginning Dictionary* in 1962, followed by *The Intermediate Dictionary*, and *The Senior Dictionary* in 1967. *The Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles (DCHP)* appeared in the same year.

The pronunciation of certain words has both American and British influence; some pronunciations are more distinctively Canadian. Perhaps the most recognizable feature of CanE is **Canadian raising** [1: 20-38]. It is a phonetic phenomenon. Certain diphthongs are "raised" before voiceless consonants (e.g., /p/, /t/, /k/, /s/, /f/). The /a/-component of the diphthong changes from a low vowel to a mid-low vowel ([ʌ] or [ɛ]). Perhaps the most common example of Canadian raising in everyday speech is that to non-Canadians "out" is heard pronounced the same as "oat" while to Canadians the two are heard pronounced differently. This means that to a non-Canadian listener, the vowels spoken by a person with Canadian raising in the phrase "out and about in a boat" have all the same sound, rendering them as "oat and aboat in a boat". Canadian raising is not

limited; thus, it may represent a sort of merging of the Scots Vowel Length Rule with the general English rule lengthening vowels before voiced consonants of any sort.

The most common understanding of the **Great Vowel Shift** is that the Middle English vowels [i[□], u[□]] passed through a stage [ə¹, ə^U] on the way to their modern pronunciations [a¹, a^U]. Thus it is difficult to say whether Canadian raising reflects an innovation or the preservation of an older vowel quality in a restricted environment.

Most Canadians have two principal allophones of /a¹/ (raised to lower-mid position before voiceless consonants and low-central or low-back elsewhere) and three of /a^U/ (raised before voiceless consonants, fronted to [a^U] or [æ^U] before nasals, and low-central elsewhere). Unlike in many American English dialects, /æ/ remains a low-front vowel in most environments in Canadian English. Ontario and Maritime Canadian English commonly show some raising before nasals, though not as extreme as in many American varieties.

In terms of **vocabulary** we emphasize the following peculiarities. Canadian English shares **vocabulary** with other English dialects, it tends to share most with **American English**. Many terms are shared with **Britain**. In some cases British and the American terms coexist in Canadian English to various extents; a classic example is *holiday*, often used interchangeably with *vacation*, distinguishing the two between a trip elsewhere and general time off work respectively. In addition, the vocabulary of Canadian English also features words that are seldom (if ever) found elsewhere. As Walter Avis states in his introductory essay to *The Senior Dictionary* (1967), “That part of Canadian English which is neither British nor American is best illustrated by the vocabulary, for there are hundreds of words which are native to Canada or which have meanings peculiar to Canada”. He goes on to elaborate that much of this new vocabulary is the result of the unique Canadian landscape, flora, fauna, weather, a way of life. A good resource for these and other words is the *Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles (DCHP)*. The search for a standard is precisely what dictionary making is about, but this arbitrary cross-section of Canadian Dictionaries yields no consensus.

As a member of the Commonwealth of Nations, Canada shares many items of institutional terminology and professional designations with the countries of the former British Empire – e.g., *constable*, for a police officer of the lowest rank, and *chartered accountant*. Education semantic field is also interesting for analysis. The term *college*, which refers to post-secondary education in

general in the U.S., refers in Canada to either a post-secondary technical or vocational institution, or to one of the colleges that exist as federated schools within some Canadian universities. Most often, a *college* is a community college, not a university. In Canada, *college student* might denote someone obtaining a diploma in business management while *university student* is the term for someone earning a bachelor's degree. For that reason, *going to college* does not have the same meaning as *going to university*. Within the public school system the chief administrator of a school is generally "the principal", as in the United States, but the term is not used preceding his or her name, i.e. "Principal Smith". The assistant to the principal is not titled as "assistant principal", but rather as "vice-principal". Canadian universities publish *calendars* or *schedules*, not *catalogs* as in the U.S. Canadian students *write* or *take* exams (in the U.S., students generally "take" exams while teachers "write" them); they rarely *sit* them (standard British usage). *Canadian slang* as a variation of substandard speech is obvious nowadays. The lexical constituent of Anglo-Canadian slang is very dissimilar. There can be singled out the following units.

Units those are common for American and Canadian Languages, North-Americanisms. For example: jitney (a cheap taxi); beanie (a freshman's cloth cap); dump (a pub, a bar); lightning (cheap whisky) ; weeno (wine); bull (idle talk); guff (nonsense, lies).

Units, those appeared and used in the USA, but gradually get into the Canadian language. For example: eager-beaver (boarder); fink (unpleasant person); doodad (a thing for reminding about sth.).

Units, those appeared and are used in Canada, but can be met in American English. For example: noodle, nut (head); fink (strike-breaker, blackleg).

Units those are appeared and used exceptionally in Canada [4: 96-102].

For example: - railway men's slang: pig (locomotive), plug(a small train);

- musicians' slang: canary (a female singer), to blow(to play);

- military slang: Joe boy (a recruit) , moldy(torpedo);

- sport slang: rink-rat (a boy, cleaning the rink),arena rat(fan, supporter).

So, we can say that Canadian slang is a very complicated system that unites chronologically different layers of the American and Canadian slang.

Having analysed some peculiarities of Canadian English diachronically and synchronically on different language levels we may conclude the following.

Canadian English is the product of four ways of immigration over a period of almost two centuries. This term is first attested by Rev. A. Constable Geikie in 1857. The pronunciation of English in most of Canada is very similar to

the pronunciation of English found in the Western United States. Canadian English grammar and spelling combines British and American rules. It shares vocabulary with other English dialects, most with American English. Canadian slang is a new and quite original system that doesn't copy either American or British system.

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ІТАЛІЙСЬКІ ЗАПОЗИЧЕННЯ В АНГЛІЙСЬКІЙ МОВІ

У статті розглянуто питання збагачення англійського словника італійськими запозиченнями, проаналізовано проблему їх адаптації у системі мови-рецептора.

Ключові слова/ Keywords: запозичення / loanwords, внутрішньомовні чинники/ intralingual factors, екстралінгвальні чинники/extralinguistic factors.

Однією із рушійних сил, що забезпечував розвиток англійської мови, був іншомовний вплив, який виявлявся в процесі запозичення нових лек-

сичних та фразеологічних одиниць. Цей процес пов'язаний з екстралінгвальними чинниками, що виникли в наслідок спілкування між носіями мови [5]. Лексика є найбільш рухомою та проникливою до іншомовних запозичень мовною підсистемою. Її відкритий характер і динамізм особливо чітко спостерігаються при вивченні історичного розвитку лексичного складу мови.

Метою цієї статті є дослідження італійських запозичень у складі англійської мови.

Мета роботи зумовлює необхідність вирішення таких завдань: визначення екстралінгвальних чинників, що впливають на процес запозичення італійських лексичних одиниць; виявлення процесів асиміляції запозичень.

Об'єктом дослідження є італійські запозичені лексеми, які поступово почали входити до складу англійської мови з початку XIV століття.

Предметом вивчення є структурні і семантичні особливості італійських запозичень, зафіксованих англомовними словниками [4].

Одним із шляхів поповнення англомовного лексикону був процес запозичення італійських лексичних одиниць. Екстралінгвальний підхід до етимології та еволюції лексики дає можливість виявити причину вживання того чи іншого слова в англійській мові та отримати нові дані про їх семантику. Проведене нами соціолінгвістичне дослідження виявило певні відповідності між історичними подіями та поповненням лексичного складу англійської мови словами іншомовного походження, зокрема, італійськими. Час проникнення тієї чи іншої лексичної одиниці до англійської мови було зумовлене поширенням контактів з Італією.

Як відомо з історії, Італія була однією з перших країн в Європі, де стали складатися капіталістичні відносини. Уже в XIV столітті там існувала торгова буржуазія, яка мала у своєму розпорядженні значні кошти. Англійська економіка була пов'язана з італійською мануфактурою, яка не могла б існувати без англійської вовни. Ці економічні зв'язки знайшли своє відображення в словниковому складі англійської мови, який, починаючи з XIV століття, запозичує італійські слова, що стосуються торгівлі та мануфактурі.

Одним з таких слів є слово *bank* – банк. Воно походить від італійського слова *banca*, що означає лавка. Щоб зрозуміти його етимологію, слід пригадати, що в XIII–XIV століттях у північно-італійських республіках процвітало лихварство, суть якого полягала в тому, що лихварі давали ку-

пцям гроші в борг під певний відсоток. Зазвичай вони сиділи на площах за невисокими столиками, що мали назву *banco*, так як були схожі на лаву *banca*. Незабаром, установи, що виникли на основі цих операцій, також стали носити назву *banco*. У англійську мову слово *bank* проникло в XVI столітті.

Разом з розвитком торгівлі в Італії розвивалась і військова справа. Деякі слова, що позначали поняття, пов'язані з військовою організацією, проникли також і в англійську мову, як і в інші європейські мови. Сюди належать іменники *alarm* – тривога, *colonel* – полковник, *squadron* – ескадрон, ескадра і деякі інші.

Слово *alarm* походить від італійського словосполучення *all'armi*, яке використовувалося як вигук у значенні призову "до зброї!", "Тривога!". У XVI столітті було утворено іменник *alarm* зі значенням заклик до зброї, тривога. Далі виникає значення сполох і, нарешті, дзвін годинника, звідси виникло складне слово *alarm-clock* – будильник.

Однак, найбільш впливовою італійська мова була в епоху Відродження. Відомо те значення, яке література і мистецтво Відродження мали для всієї європейської культури. Англія також відчула на собі цей вплив. Особливо це стосується галузі образотворчого мистецтва, архітектури і музики. Тому цілком природно, що цілий ряд предметів і понять, що відносяться до цих областей, названі словами, запозиченими з італійської мови.

Так, у галузі образотворчого мистецтва були запозичені слова *mezzotinto* – меццотінто (особливий спосіб друкарського відтворення гравюр), *studio* – студія (майстерня художника і ряд інших).

У галузі архітектури були запозичені іменники: *balcony* – балкон, *fresco* – фреска, *cornice* – карниз, *mezzanine* – антресолі, *stucco* – штукатурка.

Особливо багато слів було запозичено з галузі музики та музичної культури. Сюди слід віднести: А) Назва музичних інструментів, наприклад: *cello* – віолончель, *piano* – рояль, *violin* – скрипка, *piccolo* – мала флейта; Б) Назви співочих голосів, наприклад: *bass* – бас (чоловічий голос), *baritone* – баритон, *contralto* – контральто, *soprano* – сопрано; В) Назви музичних творів, як наприклад: *opera* – опера, *sonata* – соната, *aria* – арія.

Нарешті, у галузі літератури можна відзначити запозичення таких слів, як *canto* – пісня і *stanaza* – строфа.

У XIX столітті запозичуються деякі слова, що відображають політичну боротьбу в Італії. Наприклад, *carbonary* – вугляр, *camorra* – банда. Збільшується група запозичень, пов'язаних з наукою, проте, найбільшу кількість запозичень, як і в попередні два століття, надійшло з галузі музики і мистецтва. Як приклади можна навести такі слова: *sonatina*, *cavatina*, *legato*, *prima donna*, *diva*, *fiasco*, *studio*, *replica*.

З запозичень початку XX століття можна відзначити: *autostrada* – автострада, *duce* – вождь і *fascist* – фашист. Останнє слово пов'язане з латинським словом *fascis* – назва емблеми виконавчої влади в Стародавньому Римі (пучок березових прутів із встромленою посередині сокирою) [1, с. 240].

Проведений аналіз запозичень з італійської мови дозволяє дійти певних висновків, а саме: процес запозичення цих лексичних одиниць зумовлений внутрішньомовними чинниками (необхідністю позначення нових понять і реалій), а також екстралінгвальними чинниками, зокрема, мовними контактами); багато італійських запозичень входить до англomовної лексики на позначення економічних, політичних і військових понять, але більшість їх становлять терміни на позначення предметів і явищ мистецтва, архітектури і музики; італійські запозичення підлягають процесам графічної, фонетичної та морфологічної асиміляції. Отже, сотні італійських слів були асимільовані, засвоєні англійською мовою та стали її невід'ємною частиною.

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СИНТАКСИЧНИЙ ПОРЯДОК СЛІВ В АНГЛІЙСЬКІЙ МОВІ: ДІАХРОНІЧНИЙ АСПЕКТ

У сучасній мовознавчій науці міждисциплінарний підхід до вивчення мовних явищ стає однією з необхідних вимог для здобуття результатів дослідження. Відбувається нівелювання меж між окремими науками, і науковці все частіше наголошують на необхідності інтегрального підходу, що пов'язує і взаємно доповнює різні наукові парадигми. Питання що до синтаксичного порядку слів розглядалися у багатьох працях. Утім, цей напрямок дослідження залишається одним з найпріоритетніших.

Метою дослідження є виявлення особливостей синтаксичного порядку слів англійської мови в діахронічному аспекті.

Феномен мовної особистості є в останні десятиліття об'єктом постійної і пильної уваги багатьох лінгвістів (Карасик В. І., Караулов Ю. М., Красних В. В., Крисін Л. П., Седов К. Ф., Степанов Ю. С., Бабенко О.В. та інші). Можна стверджувати, що в сучасному мовознавстві велика кількість напрямків, від власне лінгвістики до теорії комунікації, займається розробкою проблеми мовної особистості та становленням розвитку її в історії мови. Однак, незважаючи на постійно зростаючий інтерес до цієї проблеми, багато питань ще не вирішені з достатнім ступенем повноти і конкретності. Саме цим зумовлена *актуальність* нашого дослідження.

Предметом дослідження виступив мовленнєвий порядок та дотримання його в різних часах в історії англійської мови, а також предметну інформацію щодо синтаксису.

Для початку ми розглянемо історію формування порядку слів в англійській мові на різних стадіях її розвитку. Все почалося з давньоанглійської мови.

1) Прямий підмет, за ним присудок і другорядні члени так як і в сучасній англійській мові: *He wæs zelæfedre ylde* ("Він був із слабого десятка"). Підмет *he*, присудок (єднальна частина) *wæs, zelfedre* :

2) Зворотний присудок, а потім підмет: *lixte sē lēota* ("засяло світло"). Використовувався в риторичних цілях, крім тих випадків, коли обста-

вина стояла на початку. Коли обставина на початку – зворотний порядок слів був типовим явищем : *Pā wundraðe ic* ("Тоді я здивувався "), або коли другорядні члени речення стояли на початку речення.

3) Синтетичний вживався переважно в підрядних реченнях. Підмет на початку речення, присудок в кінці, а між ними другорядні члени речення. Особливо характерний для поетичних текстів: *Ohthere sæde Aelfrede cuninge ... Pæt hē ealra norþmonna norþmēst būde* (" Охтхере сказав королю Альфреду, що він з усіх сіверян жив північніше всіх ").

Є дуже багато різних думок щодо розвитку мови. Важливим є те, якщо в давньоанглійській мові існував прямий порядок слів в групі Subject+Predicate, то в середньоанглійській мові прямий порядок слів встановлювався в групі Subject + Predicate + Object та в групі Attribute + Noun [6, с. 45].

Пізніше прямий порядок слів стає обов'язковим. Зворотний порядок слів починає вживатися в питаннях. У питаннях підмет починає поміщатися між частинами присудка: *Are you writing ?* У цих умовах потрібно було щось робити з простим теперішнім і минулим, тому що у них спочатку не було допоміжного дієслова. Вводиться службове слово «do», яке в питаннях і запереченнях закріпилося як системне. Отже, застосовується неповна інверсія – підмет стоїть після першої частини присудка.

Синтетичний порядок слів повністю зник. Порядок слів виявився відповідальним за появу конструкцій з непрямым об'єктом при аналітичному пасиві. Порядок слів сприяв подальшому розвитку англійської мови, а також став базою для подальших подій в мові, які призвели до такого явища як переклад.

Ліберальний порядок слів. У давньоанглійській мові речення зазвичай має підмет, присудок та додаток (SVO).

EXAMPLE: *"I (subject) am baking (verb) a cake (object)"*.

Однак, оскільки додаток також є вираженим раніше, то у деяких випадках порядок слів є гнучким і може бути змінений, щоб підкреслити різні частини речення: *"Ċeacan (object) bacie (verb) ic (subject)"* – *"It's a cake that I'm baking"*. Крім того, він є загальним, щоб змінити порядок слів (підмета, присудка, додатка) після багатьох різних сполучень, які особливо є залежними: *"Ic sæzde him, pæt ic hine spellan polde"* – *"I told him I wanted to kill him"*. Це також не рідкість, що в кінці речення після модального дієслова є інфінітивне дієслово: *"Ic pille þone sang singan"* – *"I want to sing the song"* [3, с.17]. Прикметники стоять найчастіше перед іменником –

grēna mann" – "the green man", якщо не використовуються після дієслова – *hē is grēne*" – "he is green". Прикметники завжди узгоджуються зі словом, вони змінні в роді, числі та відмінку. Тобто, подвійне вираження одного і того ж члена речення різними морфологічними засобами. Яскравими прикладами різних інтерпретацій є: SVO - *He hæfde þa [i.e. Hamtunscire] of he ofslog þone aldorman. (OE)He had it [i.e. Hampshire] until he killed the ealdorman. VSO order: Þa geascode he þone cyning (OE).Then he discovered the king. OSV order: hiene þa Cynewulf on Andred adræfde (OE).Cynewulf then drove him into [the forest] Andred [4, с. 17].*

1. Деякі випадки синтаксису МЕ виникли під впливом французької мови. Головне місце прикметника (після іменника):
EXAMPLE: *with Eуen narwe* (з вузькими очима), *a mantel roialliche* (царські мантії).
2. Зв'язки між словами в реченні нагадують в основному одне й те ж – угоду. Тепер присудок узгоджується з підметом, повторюючи персону і число іменника чи займенника.
3. Прикметники і займенники – частково узгоджуються в числі з іменниками, які вони визначають.
4. МЕ безособові речення використовуються без офіційного підмета.
EXAMPLE: *as that me thynketh* (як мені здається).
5. Заперечення в МЕ таке ж саме, яке було в ОЕ (подвійне заперечення). EXAMPLE: *he nolde no raunsoun* (він не хотів ніякого викупу).

Структура речень в EModE обумовлена попереднім розвитком морфології. Присвійні та вказівні прикметники іноді використовуються разом (*that their opinion*); прикметники іноді вживаються з іменниками (*faith invincible, line royal*); більш широке використання іменників додатків (*sugar almonds, merchant goods*).

Дієслівні фрази: повноцінний перфект; є допоміжним для дієслів, які виражають рух (*he is happily arrived*); витісняють будучи допоміжними; прогресивний час використовує підвищення; алегоричне використання *do* (*I do weep, doth heavier grow*); *do* як допоміжне в питаннях та негативних реченнях (*I doubt it not, why do you look on me*); фразові-модальні: *be going to, have to, be about to*; деякі продовжують використання безособових конструкцій: *it likes me not, this fears me, methinks*, але попередні безособові дієслова частіше використовувалися в називному відмінку.

Природно, у синтаксисі як науці вивчаються лише синтаксичні зв'язки і відносини між словами і між цілими висловлюваннями. Але так як ці синтаксичні відносини характеризуються певними «значеннями» і формальним їх виразом, то синтаксис виявляється наукою про синтаксичні граматичні категорії – категорії словесних позицій і категорії словесних конструкцій, про їх систему і структуру. Таким чином, окремі конкретні слова та окремі конкретні висловлювання належать синтаксису лише остільки, оскільки і виявляються носіями і виразниками синтаксичних категорій.

Отже, синтаксис – розділ граматики, який вивчає способи поєднання й розміщення слів у мові. Синтаксис відіграв і відіграє величезну роль у розвитку англійської мови. Він є основою всієї англійської мови, без якої мова, як така, не існувала би.

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ОСОБЛИВОСТІ ПОХОДЖЕННЯ СЕРЕДНЬОАНГЛІЙСЬКИХ ДІАЛЕКТІВ

У статті висвітлено основні риси англійських діалектів у період Середньовіччя, проаналізовано особливості їх походження.

Ключові слова/Keywords: діалекти/dialects, основні риси/main features, походження/origin.

Вивчення діалектів в історії будь-якої мови – це безцінний матеріал не тільки для досконалого проникнення у витoki мови, її історичного минулого, а також дає змогу оцінити і зрозуміти особливості становлення та розвитку літературної норми, різних соціальних та професіональних мов. Вивчення діалектів та їх особливостей дозволяє досліджувати становлення та розвиток значення слів.

Багато вчених приділяли увагу дослідженню діалектів, а саме В.Д. Аракін, І.П.Іванова, Б.О.Ільш, Ю. П. Костюченко, Т. О. Расторгуєва та багато інших. У своїх наукових працях вони висвітлювали питання особливостей діалектів англійської мови у період з XI по XV століття.

Мета статті – дослідити походження середньоанглійських діалектів.

Актуальність теми полягає в тому, що англійська мова веде свій початок від мови давньогерманських племен (англів, саксів та ютів), які переселилися до населеної кельтами Британії у V -VI ст. Взаємодія племінних мов англів, саксів та ютів, які розвивались в умовах формування англійської народності і призвела до утворення територіальних діалектів.

Англійська мова довгий час розвивалася під впливом як Скандинавії, так і Франції, але мовою церкви і мовою науки залишалася латинь [5, с. 126].

Діалекти середньоанглійського періоду виникли на основі давньоанглійських діалектів. У давньоанглійський період, а саме VIII – IX ст., існувало чотири основні групи діалектів: нортумбрійський, мерсійський, уессекський та кентський [1, с.87] .

У середньоанглійському періоді історії мови діалекти називали за ознакою їх географічного положення, тому що давньоанглійські королівства, за якими класифікували діалекти, поступово зникли. Отже, колишній нортумбрійський діалект тепер дістав назву північний (Northen), мерсійський – центральним (Midland), який у свою чергу поділявся на західно-центральний (West-Midland) та східно-центральний (East-Midland),

уессекський – південним або південно-західним (Southern or South-Western), й оскільки графство Кент продовжувало існувати на місці колишнього королівства, кентський діалект зберіг свою назву, а іноді цей діалект ще називають південно-східним (South-Eastern) [3, с. 92] .

У середньовічній феодальній державі всі діалекти були рівноправні між собою. У середньоанглійському періоді були три основних групи:

Північні діалекти – шотландський і північний діалекти, які продовжують традиції давнього нортумбрійського діалекту. Цей діалект був поширений на північ від річки Твід у низовинній частині Шотландії [1, с. 112]. Північний діалект швидко розвивався. Флективна система його іменників та дієслів із переходом до середньоанглійського періоду дуже різко скоротилась та й взагалі синтаксис був спрощений завдяки скандинавам, які після завоювання Англії оселились на цих територіях і не хотіли вивчати складну давньоанглійську мову. Скандинави почали спрощувати важкі слова та синтаксичні конструкції, англійці у свою чергу, почали пристосовуватись до цієї говірки. Так і з'явився північний діалект. Відмінними рисами його є написання «qu» замість «hw», «wh», написання «s» замість «sh», зберігання О.Е. «a» (М.Е. *mast* < О.Е. *mast*) [6, с. 249].

Північний діалект, наведений великою кількістю поем, а саме поемою «Cursus Mundi», написаною близько у 1300 р., релігійною поемою «Розкаяння совісті» («The Prick of Conscience»), написаною Робертом Ролле з Хемполя та містеріями XIV століття «Townley Plays» і першої половини XV століття «York plays» та іншими [1, с. 114].

Центральні (мідлендські) діалекти. На основі мерсійського давнього періоду склалися центральні діалекти (інколи «мідлендські діалекти»), які розташовані на північ від річки Темзи до гирла Хамбер. Вони ділилися на ряд дрібніших діалектів, з яких найбільш вживаними були: східно-центральний діалект, розташований в східній частині середньої Англії, і західно-центральний діалект на прилеглий території до Уельсу [1, с. 114].

Цей діалект можна і досі зустріти на територіях сучасної Англії. Необхідно зазначити, що саме центрально-східний діалект відіграв велику роль у формуванні та становленні Лондонського діалекту. Характерними особливостями мідлендського діалекту є наявність лабіалізації голосних (*sunne* (-ü-), *gung* (-ü-) (young)), наявність у М.Е. «o» замість О.Е. «a» плюс носовий (М.Е. *tonie* < О.Е. *many*) [5].

Центральний діалект, наведений великою поемою «Ормулум», написаною на початку XIII століття ченцем Ормом, літописом «Peterborough Chronicle», що є продовженням англосакської хроніки до 1154 року, віршами «Sir Gawain and the Green Knight» та іншими, поемою «Бачення про Петре орачі», що належить Уільяму Ленгленду [1, с. 114].

Південні діалекти склалися на основі уссекського і кентського діалектів давнього періоду, наведені південно-західним і кентським діалектами [1, с. 115]. Південний діалект вважається «консервативним» діалектом, через це вплив інших мов на нього – незначний, слід зазначити, взагалі не зазнав впливу скандинавської мови. Характерними особливостями цього діалекту є наявність сильної лабіалізації голосних (М.Е. *sunne* (-ü-), *huiren* (-ü-) < О.Е. *hieran* (N.Е. *hear*)), одзвінчення «f» (*vor* (*for*), *avinde* (*find*)) [2].

Південний діалект, наведений римованою хронікою «Брут», написаною Лайамоном, статутом черниць «Ancren Riwle», віршованою хронікою Роберта Глостерського, перекладом з латинської мови «Поліхроникона» ченця Ранульфа Хигдена, трактатом «Розкаяння совісті» («Auebyte of Inwyt»), що є перекладом з французького, зробленим уродженцем Кента Даном Мічелом у 1340 році та інші [1, с. 115].

Проте, наприкінці періоду з'являється *лондонський діалект*, який витіснив всі інші. Лондонський діалект XIV ст. увібрав в себе межі різних діалектів. Основа його діалектної бази, до цього часу, є східно-центральний діалект. Він стає спочатку літературною мовою, а потім розмовною мовою. У лондонському діалекті XIV ст. співіснують, наприклад, форми *shuttle* і *shittle* (д. а, *scytel* "човник у ткацькому станку").

Лондонський діалект початку XIV ст., наведений віршами Адама Деві; друга половина – творами Джеффри Чосера «*Canterbury Tales*», «*A Legend of Good Women*», тощо. Та найважливіша роль відведена автору Джону Уїкліфу, який перевів Біблію на англійську мову.

Отже, особливе місце серед середньоанглійських діалектів займає лондонський діалект, що об'єднав межі східно-центральних і південних діалектів і заклав в основу нової англійської національної мови [4, с. 175].

Діалекти стають фактично неписьменними, оскільки національна мова (на основі лондонської літературної мови) охоплює всі сфери, пов'язані з писемністю: державну документацію, наукову і художню літературу. Поступово національна мова все більше розширюється, модифікуючи і поглинаючи в себе діалекти. Слід зазначити, що діалекти продовжують існувати в усній формі і у наш час.

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ОСОБЛИВОСТІ ЛЕКСИЧНОГО СКЛАДУ ДАВНЬОАНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

У статті розглядаються проблеми процесу запозичення, що є властивими і особливо значущими для лексичного складу англійської мови. Проблема полягає в тому, що в процесі тривалого історичного розвитку англійська мова у той чи інший спосіб запозичила значну кількість іноземних слів, які проникли в її словниковий склад. Особливістю є доведення того факту, що незважаючи на велику кількість запозичених слів, мова не втратила своєї самобутності.

Ключові слова/ Keywords: давньоанглійська мова/ Old English, афіксація/affixation, словоскладання/ word composition, запозичення/borrowings, асиміляція/ assimilation.

Тема цієї статті відноситься до галузі лексикології. Як відомо, лексика є найдинамітнішою стороною мови в будь-який період часу. Мова виникла одночасно з виникненням суспільних відносин у процесі спільної трудової діяльності первісних людей, і з моменту своєї появи розвиток мови був безперервно пов'язаний з розвитком суспільства. Вивчення історії будь-якої мови, в тому числі й англійської, не може дати повної картини розвитку цієї мови, якщо не буде врахована історія її словникового складу. Незважаючи на те, що давньоанглійський період починається так званою «долітературною епохою», яка не залишила нам текстових пам'яток, не

слід забувати про багатий вже на той час словниковий склад мови, який варто дослідити.

Давньоанглійська мова, так звана рання форма англійської мови, характеризується певним словниковим фондом, що містить життєво необхідні для людини поняття, однак, давньоанглійська лексика відома нам далеко не в повному обсязі. Цей факт і зумовлює актуальність даної теми.

Мета роботи полягає у вивченні особливостей лексичного складу давньоанглійської мови. У зв'язку з цим потрібно вирішити такі завдання: розглянути основні складові словникового фонду давньоанглійської мови; розкрити проблему визначення кількісного складу давньоанглійської лексики; узагальнити основні причини лексичних змін, способи збагачення лексики, типи і продуктивність словотворчих засобів.

Згідно джерел, давньоанглійська мова – рання форма англійської, що була поширена на території нинішньої Англії та південної Шотландії з середини V до середини XII століть.

Давньоанглійська мова була західногерманською мовою. У порівнянні з сучасною англійською, давньоанглійська була морфологічно багатшою і нагадувала сучасну ісландську, а орфографія мови безпосередньо відображала вимову.

У залежності від часу та умов своєї появи в мові слова давньоанглійського періоду можуть бути розділені на чотири групи:

1. Спільноіндоєвропейські слова, до числа яких відносяться ті найдавніші слова, які існували колись у загальноіндоєвропейській мові-основі та збереглися у всіх або принаймні в цілому ряді індоєвропейських мов, наприклад:

давньоангл. *feeder* – батько (лат. *Pater*, греч. *Patēr*)

давньоангл. *etan* – є (лат. *edo* – ем, рос. Еда)

давньоангл. *twā* – два (лат. *Duo*, рос. два).

2. Слова загальногерманські, які зустрічаються тільки в германських мовах, тобто є загальними для всіх германських мов, але відсутні в інших індоєвропейських мовах, якщо не враховувати деяких запозичень з германських в інші індоєвропейські мови, наприклад:

давньоангл. *finzer* – палець (гот. *Figgrs*, днв. *Finger*),

давньоангл. *hūs* – будинок(давн.-и. *hus*, днв. *Hūs*)

давньоангл. *scip* – корабель (гот. *Skip*, днв. *Skif*)

3. Слова власне англійські, які утворилися на ґрунті англійської мови і не зустрічаються більше ні в яких інших мовах, крім англійської, якщо не

враховувати можливі запозичення з англійської в інші мови. Сюди слід віднести також і цілий ряд історично складних слів, які складають специфіку англійської мови давнього періоду, наприклад: давньоангл. *wīfman* > *wimman* – жінка з *wīf* – дружина, жінка + *man* – людина.

4. Слова, запозичені з інших мов [1, с. 98].

Описуючи кількісний склад давньоанглійської лексики, лінгвіст О. І. Смирницький звертає увагу на те, що лексичний склад окремих давньогерманських мов не відомий нам у повному обсязі. Навіть ті мови, фонетика і граматики яких з достатньою повнотою здобута з збережених писемних пам'яток, у лексичному відношенні можуть бути вивчені лише частково, у залежності від матеріалу, поміщеного в пам'ятках [2, с. 155].

Словниковий склад індоєвропейської англійської мови поповнювався за рахунок:

1. Утворення нових слів з елементів вже існуючих у мові (афіксація, словоскладання, переосмислення);

– у іменників *-ere* (*bcere, fiscere, writere*), *-estre* (*bcestre, spinnestre, webbestre*); *-ing* (*cyning* > *king*), *-ling* (*deorling*); *-u* (*lengu, strengu*); *-dom* (*wisdom, frodom*); *-scipe* (*freondscipe*); *-ung* (*leornung, warnung*); *-nis* (*bysignis, swetenis*); *-Man* (*man, Norman*) [4, с. 67].

– у прикметників: *-ig* (*mihtig*); *-lic* (*freondlic*); *-full* (*cearfull*); *-leas* (*Helpleas*).

В англійській мові давнього періоду широко поширеною була і префіксація: *mis-* (*Misdd*), *un-* (*unfager*), *ge-* (*geson*).

2. Шляхом запозичень з інших мов.

У давньоанглійській мові виявляється цілий ряд слів латинського походження. Все це найдавніші культурні запозичення – назви речей і понять, з якими англосаксонські племена познайомилися ще на континенті. Вони складають так званий перший шар латинських запозичень. Слова, що входили в цей шар, були запозичені ще в I століття н.е. В основному, це побутові слова в розмовній формі.

Наприклад: *Lat. vinum* > *OE win* (wine); *Lat. pondo* > *OE pund* (pound); *coquina* > *OE cuscene* (kitchen); *Lat. molina* > *OE myln* (mill); *Lat. prunum* > *OE plume* (Plum); *Lat. valium* > *OE weall* (wall); *Lat. castra* > *OE ceaster* (-caster, chester); *Lat. portus* > *OE port*.

У найдавніший період латинські слова сприймалися усним шляхом і оформлялися за правилами фонетики давньоанглійської мови. Вони повністю асимілювалися в англійській мові.

Другий шар латинських запозичень утворений словами в основному книжкового характеру, що позначають поняття, пов'язані з новою релігією і обрядами, які з'явилися у зв'язку з введенням християнства на території Англії в кінці VI - початку VII ст. Це такі слова як: Lat. papa (pope), episcopus > bishop, Lat. monachus > monk (Monk), Lat. nonna > nunna (nun), Lat. monasterium > munster, Lat. altare (Altar), Lat. schola > scl, Lat. magister > magester (master).

Кельтські мови не надали лексичному складу англійської мови значного впливу. У давньоанглійській мові можна зустріти лише окремі кельтські слова. Переможці англосакси не мали приводу запозичувати слова з мови переможених кельтів. Прикладами кельтських запозичень є: dunn – бурий, сірувато-коричневий (dun); binn – ясла (bin – засіки).

Скандинавські запозичення стали проникати на територію Англії, починаючи з VIII ст. Набіги вікінгів тривали до 1042 р., коли влада данців була повалена. Протягом цього періоду скандинави селилися на захопленій території, головним чином – на північному, північно-східному і східному узбережжі, поступово проникаючи в глиб країни. У IX ст. було запозичене слово lagu (закон) у складі назви Danelag (область Датського права)[3, с. 312].

Слід зазначити, що значна частина словникового складу була загальною для англійської та скандинавських мов. У багатьох словах корінь був однаковий, а закінчення різними, наприклад: fisk-fiskr; wind - windr; sunu - sunr; cyning - konongr; heorte -hiarta; ic - ek, beran - bera; standan - standa.

Інша частина словникового складу англійської мови та скандинавських діалектів не співпадала. Лексичний вплив скандинавських діалектів на англійську мову поширився на досить обширну лексичну сферу. Найбільш ранні запозичення відносяться до IX-X ст, це такі слова як: lagu (law), kalla (to call), taka (to take), feolaga (fellow), skye (sky), egg, syster, window, low, loose, ill, wrong, ugly, to cast, to lift.

Одним з фонетичних критеріїв для визначення скандинавських запозичень є наявність в них звуку [k] (call, cast) або групи sk (sky, skill, skin, skirt). Іншим критерієм є наявність звука [g] на початку слова перед передньо язиковими голосними [5, с. 123]. Отже, слова get, guess, guest – це скандинавські запозичення.

Розглянувши лексику давньоанглійської мови ми дійшли до висновку, що основний пласт цієї лексики займають запозичення з латинської, скандинавської та кельтської мови.

Слід зауважити, що лексика кожної національної мови – своєрідна система, що історично склавшись відображає багатівіковий досвід спілкування людей певного етномовного колективу і пізнання ними довколишньої дійсності. Лексичні запозичення в англійській мові мають складну семантичну структуру, але ми дійшли висновку, що запозичуючи слова з інших мов англійська мова не втратила свою своєрідність. Навпаки, збагатилася найкращими мовними елементами, які вона запозичила протягом усіх періодів свого розвитку. Отже, ми вважаємо, що англійська мова не була обмежена рамками і при цьому не втратила свого «обличчя». Вона залишилася мовою германської групи разом з усіма характерними рисами, які не полишали її протягом усіх періодів її розвитку; і ті зміни, яких вона зазнала в зв'язку з запозиченнями, лише збагатили її словниковий запас.

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ВПЛИВ РУНІЧНОГО ПИСЬМА НА РОЗВИТОК АЛФАВІТУ ДАВНЬОАНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

У статті досліджено розвиток давньоанглійської мови на перших етапах її становлення, а саме як рунічний алфавіт ліг в основу давньоанглійського. Зокрема, у літерах англійського алфавіту можна впізнати рунічні знаки. Сучасні лінгвісти вважають, що вони і стали причиною створення нового письма.

Ключові слова/ Keywords: руни / runes, алфавіт / alphabet, письмо / writing, давньоанглійська мова / Old English, германці / Germanic tribes, футарк / futhorc.

Рунічне письмо було найдавнішим видом писемності у германців. Германці надавали особливого значення ворожінню-жеробкуванню: розкидавши на шматку тканини палички з вирізаними на них знаками і прочитавши молитву, жрець брав навмання три палички і ворожив, читаючи знаки на них. Ці знаки, що вважалися магічними, були буквами рунічного письма, алфавітом першого зв'язного письма у стародавніх германців. Назва букв – “руни” – утворено від основи, що мала значення “таємниця” (гот. *runa* “таємниця” і німецьке дієслово *raunen* “таємно, крадькома шепотіти”).

Рунічне письмо використовувалося з I-II по XII ст. на території сучасних Данії, Швеції та Норвегії, до X-XIII ст. в Ісландії та Гренландії, а в Швецькій провінції Деларна аж до XIX. Що ж до писемності англійської мови, то тут вона з'явилась приблизно у V ст. н. е., беручи за основу англосаксонські руни.

Після прийняття християнства країнами північної Європи рунічне письмо було витіснене латиницею, таким чином з VII ст. алфавіт англійців почав змінюватись [2, с.17].

Рунологія, як самостійна наукова дисципліна, зародилася в 70-і рр. 19 ст. Її основоположником був данський вчений Людвіг Віммер. Дуже великий внесок до розвитку рунології внесли норвезькі учені Суф'юс Бугге і Магнус Ульсен, шведські учені Отто фон Фрісен, Еліас Вессен і ряд інших дослідників. Однак, не дивлячись на зусилля рунологів, ряд написів до цих пір не розшифрований, а їх інтерпретація дуже спірна, це пояснюється складністю матеріалу і його фрагментарністю. Для розшифровки написів необхідно застосовувати дані інших наук. Як сформулював це рунолог Карл Марстрандер, “рунологія – це палеографія, лінгвістика, археологія і міфологія”. Дійсно, нерідко лексичне значення слова якого-небудь ру-

нічного напису зрозуміле, але яку функцію виконував цей текст, залишається загадкою [1, с.20].

Саме тому дослідження даної теми є *актуальним* для сучасних дослідників. Адже, на сьогодні помітно зріс інтерес до писемності давніх германців, а дешифрування письмових знаків як джерела інформації стало першочерговим завданням науковців.

Мета роботи полягає у визначенні, що ж являє собою рунічне письмо, який із його різновидів мав безпосередній вплив на давньоанглійський алфавіт та прослідкувати використання рунічного письма протягом історії.

Особливістю рунічного алфавіту є порядок слів, який називають футарком – за першими шістьма літерами. Алфавіт складався із 28 рун і розподілявся на три ряди – атти, по 8 рун у кожному. Кожен атт називався за його першою руною: *Freys att*, *Hagals att* та *Tys att*. До першого атту входили руни *f, u, a, r, k, g, w*. До другого – *h, n, i, j, e (ih-wh), p, R (z), s*, до третього – руни *t, b, e, m, l, d, o*. Кожна з рун мала свою назву. Перші назви не збереглися, але існують їх можливі назви, відновлені з назв рун в більш пізніх алфавітах. Щодо алфавіту давньоанглійської мови, то тут майже зовсім не збереглося пам'яток, лише деякі, переважно короткі, написи і фрагменти.

Старший або “загальногерманський” футарк є найдавнішим. Молодший футарк був створений на основі старшого, але використовувався лише для писемності, у повсякденному житті. Руни молодшого футарку не мали ніякого магічного змісту, а були просто літерами. [4, с.37].

Напрямок письма – зліва направо, хоча у ранніх написах зустрічався бустрофедон. Бустрофедон – спосіб написання, при якому напрямок письма чергується в залежності від парності рядка, тобто, якщо перший рядок пишеться зліва на право, то другий – справа наліво. При зміні напрямку літери писалися дзеркально [5].

Руни стали основою і причиною створення англійського алфавіту. Завдяки рунічному письму в давньоанглійському алфавіті з'явилися такі літери, як *thorn (Þ þ)* та *wynn (ƿ ƿ)*. Літера *eth (Ð ð)* була пізніше видозмінена на букву *dee (D d)*, та врешті *yogh (ȝ ȝ)* тепер відома, як *g*.

Сполука *a-e (ash (Æ æ))* була прийнята до давньоанглійського алфавіту, як літера, названа внаслідок руни *æsc*. Також на ранньому етапі розвитку англійської мови сполука *o-e (ethel (E e))* також з'явилася, як окрема

буква, таким же чином названа від руни *æðel*. Крім того, використовувались такі сполуки, як *v-v* або *u-u* (*double-u*), тобто сучасна буква *W, w* [6].

У ході історії кількість рун не була постійною. Рунічний алфавіт з 28-ми літер був сформований близько 550–650 рр. до нашої ери. Фризський футарк був збільшений в Англії за рахунок подальшого додавання рун. В кінці кінців він переріс в рунічний алфавіт, що включав 33 літери, який був складений в ХІХ сторіччі в Нортумберленді і є найдовшим. В англосаксонських рунічних рядах заключний атт вміщує руни, які в деякій мірі виявляли кельтський вплив. Окрім цих літер, існують також більш пізніші додаткові руни, які використовуються, але не входять у склад алфавітів [3, с.22].

В Англії, внаслідок сильного впливу церкви, нормою став латинський алфавіт, і руни вже не вживалися офіційно. Але, звичайно, вони продовжували жити в сільській традиції. Протягом всієї історії існування рун відбувався їх постійний розвиток: руни не стали незмінним алфавітом, застиглим на певному відрізку часу. Алфавіти розвиваються згідно з потребами місця і часу, в яких вони вживаються. В ході історії руни отримали найбільш повний розвиток у Скандинавії, частина якої залишалася язичницькою аж до двадцятого століття. Тут вони щодня використовувалися для всіляких цілей – від фермерського клейма і купецьких ярликів (*Bumerker i Merke-lapper*) до церковних написів і магічних формул на талісманом і амулетах. Руни також стали невід’ємною частиною календарів. Скандинавські алфавіти спершу позбавились восьми рун з початкових 24, але пізніше старі руни були відновлені, а нові – додані. Ці руни, що практично використовувалися до кінця 18-го ст., мали інший порядок, ніж у Старшому футарку та його похідних. До звичайних 16-ти скандинавських рун було додано три нових – дві з фонетичним значенням букви «Ікс» та одна, що звучала як “Y” [6].

Загалом перший алфавіт давньоанглійської мови мав такий вигляд:

ƿ (*feoh*), *ᵿ* (*ūr*), *ƀ* (*þorn*), *ƿ* (*ōs*), *ᚱ* (*rād*), *ᚠ* (*cēn*), *ᚷ* (*gyfu*), *ƿ* (*wynn*), *ᚨ* (*hægl*), *ᚠ* (*nȳd*), *ᚠ* (*īs*), *ᚠ* (*gēr*), *ᚠ* (*ēoh*), *ᚠ* (*peorð*), *Y* (*eolh*), *ᚠ* (*sigel*), *ᚠ* (*Tīr*), *ᚠ* (*beorc*), *M* (*eh*), *ᚠ* (*mann*), *ᚠ* (*lagu*), *ᚠ* (*Ing*), *ᚠ* (*ēðel*), *ᚠ* (*dæg*), *F* (*āc*), *F* (*æsc*), *ᚠ* (*ȳr*), *** (*īor*), *ᚠ* (*ēar*).

Таким чином на основі англосаксонських рун у V ст. н.е. сформувався новий алфавіт, який проіснував аж до VII ст. і наклав сильний відбиток на розвиток сучасної письменності англійської мови. В них можна впізнати сучасні англійські літери. Саме тому цей період часу можна з впевненістю називати початком становлення англійської мови.

Як це властиво будь-якому запозиченому алфавіту, рунічне письмо з самого початку поєднувало в собі два принципи: південноєвропейський і германський. З одного боку, тут була представлена традиційна графічна система й палеографічні прийоми, що відображали накопичений століттями і навіть тисячоліттями досвід письмової фіксації численних і різносистемних мов Європи та Азії, рухаючись від одного народу іншому, а з іншого, почалася спроба адекватно відобразити особливості фонологічної ладу древніх германських діалектів.

Важливість цих знаків розуміють й сучасні люди, тому все більше з'являється літератури, яка намагається розгадати таємничі знаки – руни.

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СКАНДИНАВСЬКИЙ ТА ФРАНЦУЗЬКИЙ ВПЛИВ НА СЕРЕДНЬОАНГЛІЙСЬКУ МОВУ

У статті йдеться про вплив французьких та скандинавських запозичень на усіх рівнях функціонування англійської мови у період Середньовіччя, здійснюється аналіз споріднених з середньоанглійською мов, елементи яких увійшли у повсякденний вжиток, як і в окремій галузі життєдіяльності, у ході історичного розвитку.

Ключові слов/Keywords: середньовічний період/medieval period, лексичні запозиченні/lexical borrowings, словниковий склад/ vocabulary, скандинавський вплив/ Scandinavian influence, сфери вжитку французьких слів/ the scope of usage of French words.

Середньоанглійська мова (1050—1550) знаходилася під впливом норманської французької мови (після завоювання в 1066 році) і церковної латині.

Середньоанглійський період (XI—XIV ст.) – період формування мови англійської народності (V—XI ст.) на території Британії. Руни замінені латинським алфавітом (6 століття). Основні характерні особливості мови того часу: розвинена система голосних, дифтонгів, палаталізація приголосних, флективна будова, вільний порядок слів, морфологічна диференціація частин мови, добре розвинена система словотворчих афіксів, продуктивне словоскладання. В лексичний склад входять в основному давньогерманські слова, з незначними кельтськими і латинськими запозиченнями. Згодом, після завоювання Англії Данією (1017), в ній з'являються скандинавські географічні назви, військові терміни, суспільно-побутова лексика [8].

Метою статті є встановлення особливостей та відмінностей скандинавських та французьких запозичень на фонетичному, граматичному і лексичному рівнях у мові середньоанглійського періоду.

Актуальність теми статті зумовлена важливістю дослідження та аналізу впливів споріднених з англійською скандинавської та французької мов на середньоанглійську задля встановлення характерних рис запозичень даної епохи, що присутні і в сучасній мовній структурі Великої Британії.

Тривале перебування скандинавів у середньоанглійській період значно позначилося на розвитку англійської мови. Впливу мови скандинавів на мову англійців сприяло насамперед те, що суспільний лад та рівень розвитку англійців і скандинавів був однаковим, а мова скандинавів за своєю граматичною будовою та словниковим складом споріднена з мовою англійців, була близькою та зрозумілою останнім. Окрім цього, зближенню обох мов сприяла відсутність єдиних мовних норм, закріплених письмом.

Значне місце у процесі дослідження впливу Скандинавії на середньоанглійську мову посідають дослідження Н.М. Раєвської. Науковець вказувала на те, що ряди слів англійської мови асимілювалися до своєї форми скандинавських синонімів, наприклад, *sister* походить від стародавньої норвезької мови *syster* (не від англійської *sweeter*) [4, с.239].

Особливої уваги заслуговують наукові праці Т.О. Расторгуєвої. Вона досліджувала вплив скандинавських запозичень на словниковий склад давньоанглійської мови, наводила приклади корінних скандинавських та англійських слів, порівнюючи їх із сучасною англійською мовою [5].

Про наявність скандинавів серед англійського населення свідчить велика кількість топонімів у північних і східних областях: найбільш часто зустрічаються топоніми із скандинавськими компонентами *thorp* ‘village’, *toft* ‘piece of land’, *by* з староскандинавської *byr* ‘village’, *beck* ‘rivulet’, *ness* ‘cape’, наприклад, *Troutbeck*, *Inverness*, *Woodthorp*, *Grimsby*, *Brimtoft*.

Переконливим доказом тісного контактування двох мов в повсякденному житті і присутність двомовності, що переважала в багатьох сферах, є заміщення деяких корінних форм слів скандинавськими запозиченнями. Слід відзначити, що форми слова рідко запозичуються з іноземної мови. Поступово *they*, разом з формами *them*, *their*, *themselves* замінили староанглійське *hie*. Вважається, остаточній вибір *they* (замість *hie*) був прийнятий, якщо не зумовлений, схожістю середньо англійських похідних кількох займенників третьої особи: *hie*, *he*, і *heo*, (‘they’, ‘he’, ‘she’).

Зміни в словнику відповідно до скандинавського впливу відбувались у різні способи: скандинавське слово могло входити в мову як якась інновація, без заміни будь-якого іншого лексичного пункту; яскравими прикладами є походження вищезазначених слів *law*, *fellow*, *outlaw*. Частіше, певно, запозичене слово являлось синонімом корінного англійського слова і їхня конкуренція призводила до різних результатів: запозичення могло раптово зникнути або обмежитись у діалектному використанні; в той самий час запозичене слово могло посісти місце корінного слова; і запозичене і корінне слова могли співіснувати як синоніми з незначною різницею в значенні.

Як і в середньоанглійській, так і донині важко розмежувати скандинавські запозичення і корінні слова. Єдиним критерієм, який можна розглядати як суттєвий для встановлення різниці, це деякі фонетичні риси запозичених слів: група приголосних [sk] часто свідчить про скандинавські запозичення, наприклад, *sky*, *skill*; [sk] не з’явилося в корінних словах, так як давньоанглійське [sk] було пом’якшене і модифіковано в [ʃ]: середньоанглійське *fish*, *ship* (від *fisc*, *scip*). Звуки [ʃ] і [sk] інколи присутні в споріднених словах в двох мовах: корінне *shirt* і скандинавське запозичене слово *skirt* належать до етимологічних дуплетів (що означає, що вони повертаються до тих самих германських коренів, проте піддані фонетичним та семантичним змінам; також *scatter* і *shatter*, *scream* і *shriek*) [5, с. 298-301].

Вплив скандинавської мови відчувається у середньоанглійській та частково у сучасній літературі. Так, у першому рядку балади про Робін Гуда зустрічаємо: “Lythe and Listin, gentilmen”, де *lythe*, синонім для *listen*, –

слово скандинавського походження. В цій же баладі Шеріф Нотінгемський звертається до Малого Джона з словами “Say me now, whight young man, whate is now thy name”, де слово whight (сильний, сміливий) також скандинавського походження (з wight – сміливий”). Вальтер Скотт та Берне вживали слово waug (сканд.) замість worse тощо [6, 1, с.15].

Скандинавський вплив найпомітніше відчувається у словниковому складі мови. Пам'ятки давньоанглійського періоду відображають лише частину запозичень, які значно повніше представлені у пам'ятках середньоанглійського періоду.

Дослідженням французьких запозичень займалися вчені-лінгвісти В. Д. Аракін, І. В. Арнольд, О. І. Смирницький та інші [3].

Французька мова з'явилася на території Англії разом з приходом норманських завойовників. Нормани господарювали в Англії протягом довгого часу і, відповідно, залишили глибокий слід на розвитку англійської мови. Норманські правителі та переселенці, які осіли у південно-західних містах одразу після завоювання (1066 р.), розмовляли різновидом французької мови, званої як “англо-норманська”. Цей різновид зник близько двохсот років по тому, ґрунтовно змінивши при цьому англійську мову. У XIII – XIV ст. англійська мова піддалася новій хвилі французького впливу; цього разу джерелом став центральний паризький різновид французької мови, що був більш літературним та культурним [5, с.301-302].

Наслідком цих послідовних хвиль, перш за все, є велика кількість лексичних запозичень. На початковій стадії проникнення вживання французьких слів обмежувалось певними різновидами англійської: мова аристократичних кіл у королівському суді, мова середнього класу, а саме тих, хто вступив у контакт і з правителями, і з підвладними, мова освіченого населення і населення південно-східних міст. Зрештою запозичені з французької мови слова проникли у мовний простір, спочатку в контексті усної комунікації, а пізніше й у літературу [5, с.301-302].

Близько трьох тисяч слів були запозичені з французької мови в англійську, і це збагачення словникового складу вважається найістотнішим наслідком впливу французької мови на англійську [2, с.190].

У багатьох випадках неможливо встановити, чи є найменування прямим запозиченням з французької мови, чи воно утворене в англійській мові від запозиченого слова за допомогою англійського суфікса і є не запозиченням, а гібридним новоутворенням, яке на відміну від запозичень-гібридів, не є продуктом запозичення і утворюється не під впливом іншо-

мовної моделі, а на питомій основі шляхом з'єднання корінного та раніше запозиченого й асимільованого у мові елементів [7, с.371-373].

Французькі запозичення в Середньоанглійський період описуються зазвичай у відношенні до семантичних груп.

До сьогоденного дня більшість слів, що стосуються уряду та адміністрації країни мають французьке походження: *assembly, authority, chancellor, council, counsel, country, court, crown, exchequer, govern, government, nation, office, parliament, people, power, realm, sovereign* і багато інших. Близькими до цієї групи є слова, що належать до епохи феодальної системи і слова, що позначають титули і ранги знаті: *baron, count, countess, duchess, duke, feudal, liege, manor, marquis, noble, peer, prince, viscount*. Ці запозичення свідчать про те, що нормани володіли набагато краще розробленою адміністративною системою і різноманітнішою системою рангів.

Безліч військових термінів, що ввійшли у вжиток в середньоанглійський період, це природні наслідки того, що військові справи вирішувалися норманами, а також, що організація їхньої армії і воєнної служби була новою для Англії. Наприклад: *aid, armour, arms, army, banner, battle, captain, company, dart, defeat, dragoon, ensign, escape, force, lance, lieutenant, navy, regiment, sergeant, siege, soldier, troops, vessel, victory* і багато інших [5, с.303].

Проте ще більша кількість слів запозичених з французької спостерігається у галузі законодавства та юриспруденції, які перебували безпосередньо під контролем норманів. Декілька сотень років судочинство обслуговувалося виключно французькою мовою, тож досі англійські слова у цій галузі велика рідкість. Багато слів, спершу запозичених як юридичні терміни, увійшли у повсякденний вжиток: *acquit, accuse, attorney, case, cause, condemn, court, crime, damage, defendant, false, felony, guilt, heir, injury, interest, judge, jury, just, justice, marry*.

Багато французьких слів належать до релігійної сфери вжитку, оскільки на протязі XII – XIII ст. усі найважливіші посади в церкві займало норманське духовенство: *abbey, altar, archangel, Bible, baptism, cell, chapel, charity, chaste, clergy, grace, honour, glory, miracle, nativity, paradise, passion, pray, procession, religion, rule, sacrifice, saint, sermon, tempt, vice, virgin, virtue*.

Окрім цих сфер, що відображають панівну роль норманів у Британії як завойовників та правителів, є й багато інших, що розкривають вплив норманів на спосіб життя англійців.

Із запозичень, що стосуються таких слів як будинок, меблі та архітектура можна помітити, що нормани здійснили багато нововведень, які стали використовуватись у англійців разом з їхніми французькими назвами: *arch, castle, cellar, chimney, column, couch, curtain, cushion, lamp, mansion, palace, pillar, porch, table, wardrobe*. Інша група включає назви предметів одягу: *apparel, boot, coat, collar, costume, dress, fur, garment, gown, jewel, robe* [5, с.304].

Можна також виділити слова, що стосуються різних аспектів життя вищих класів і міського життя: форми звертань – *sir, madam, mister, mistress*; назви прийомів їжі – *dinner, supper*. У роботі Дж. Уолліса (1653) вперше було зазначено, що страви часто мають французькі назви, в той час як назви тварин, з яких ці страви готують, англійські. *Beef, veal, mutton, pork, bacon, brawn, venison* – французькі запозичення, і корінні англійські слова – *ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine, bear, deer*. Перевага французьким термінам у куховарстві, так само як і одязі, може пояснюватися тим, що саме французька запровадила моду на обидва цих види діяльності, і тим, що саме французькі професіональні кухарі та кравці осіли у Британії.

Окрім слів, що давали імена нововведеним предметам вжитку, назвам певних явищ тощо, французький вплив приніс також зміни у словнику, стосовно заміщення уже існуючих корінних назв французькими запозиченнями, що стало результатом заміщення у ряді германських та романських коренів у мові, **наприклад**, запозичення *very, river, peace, easy* замінили слова давньоанглійської мови: *swipe, ēa, frip, ēape*. Найчастіше співіснування запозиченого і корінного слова закінчувалось їхнім розмежуванням, обидва варіанти залишились, оскільки вони різнилися у стилі, діалектах, відтінках значення або вживання. З пари запозичення і корінного слова англійської мови, запозичене завжди мало більш літературний книжний відтінок [5, с.305].

Французькі запозичення міцно закріпились в англійській мові у XVI-XVII та наступних століттях, але поруч із корінними англійськими словами вони зазнали певних змін у відповідності до фонетичних вимог англійської мови. Найголовнішою зміною у звуковій структурі цих слів було перенесення наголосу з кінця слова, що й досі притаманне французькій, на один із попередніх складів. І це явище й досі є характерним для англійської мови [3].

Таким чином, як французька, так і скандинавська мови, як виявилось, здійснили вирішальний вплив на англійську мову після завершення

доби античності, котрою користуються і донині, проте їхній вплив, отриманий з різних географічних центрів, здійснювався протягом різноманітних етапів, що зачепило усі сфери життя англійців.

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**A CONCISE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BY
OWEN ALUN AND BRENDAN O’CORRAIDHE**

In the beginning there was an island off the coast of Europe. It had no name, for the natives had no language, only a collection of grunts and gestures that roughly translated to “Hey!”, “Gimme!”, and “Pardon me, but would you happen to have any woad?”

Then the Romans (who had a pretty decent language) invaded it and called it Britain, because the natives were “blue, nasty, br(u→i)tish and short.” This was the start of the importance of u (and its mispronunciation) to the language. After building some roads, killing off some of the nasty little blue people and walling up the rest, the Romans left, taking the language instruction manual with them.

The British were bored so they invited the barbarians to come over (under Hengist) and “Horsa” ’round a bit. The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes brought slightly more refined vocal noises.

All of the vocal sounds of this primitive language were onomatopoeic, being derived from the sounds of battle. Consonants were derived from the sounds of weapons striking a foe. “Sss” and “th” for example are the sounds of a draw cut, “k” is the sound of a solidly landed axe blow, “b”, “d”, are the sounds of a head dropping onto rock and sod respectively, and “gl” is the sound of a body splashing into a bog. Vowels (which were either gargles in the back of the throat or sharp exhalations) were derived from the sounds the foe himself made when struck: AAY! EEEEE! III! OH! OOH! and sometimes, “Why?”

The barbarians had so much fun that they decided to stay for post-revel. The British, finding that they had lost future use of the site, moved into the hills to the west and called themselves Welsh.

The Irish, having heard about language from Patrick, came over to investigate. When they saw the shiny vowels, they pried them loose and took them home. They then raided Wales and stole both their cattle and their vowels, so the poor Welsh had to make do with sheep and consonants. (“Old Ap Ivor hadde a farm, L Y L Y W! And on that farm he hadde somme gees. With a dd dd here and a dd dd there...”)

To prevent future raids, the Welsh started calling themselves “Cymry” and gave even longer names to their villages. They figured if no one could pronounce the name of their people or the names of their towns, then no one would visit them. (The success of the tactic is demonstrated still today. How many travel agents have YOU heard suggest a visit to scenic Llyddumlmunnyddthllywddu?)

Meantime, the Irish brought all the shiny new vowels home to Erin. But of course they didn't know that there was once an instruction manual for them, so they scattered the vowels throughout the language purely as ornaments. Most of the new vowels were not pronounced, and those that were, were pronounced differently depending on which kind of consonant they were either preceding or following.

The Danes came over and saw the pretty vowels bedecking all the Irish words. “Ooooh!” they said. They raided Ireland and brought the vowels back home with them. But the Vikings couldn't keep track of all the Irish rules so they simply pronounced all the vowels “oouuoo.”

In the meantime, the French had invaded Britain, which was populated by descendants of the Germanic Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. After a generation or two, the people were speaking German with a French accent and calling it English. Then the Danes invaded again, crying “Oouuoo! Oouuoo!,” burning abbeys, and trading with the townspeople.

The Britons that the Romans hadn't killed intermarried with visiting Irish and became Scots. Against the advice of their travel agents, they decided to visit Wales. (The Scots couldn't read the signposts that said, “This way to Llyddyllwyyddymmllwylldd,” but they could smell sheep a league away.) The Scots took the sheep home with them and made some of them into haggis. What they made with the others we won't say, but Scots are known to this day for having hairy legs.

The former Welsh, being totally bereft, moved down out of the hills and into London. Because they were the only people in the Islands who played flutes instead of bagpipes, they were called Tooters. This made them very popular. In short order, Henry Tooter got elected King and began popularizing ornate, unflattering clothing.

Soon, everybody was wearing ornate, unflattering clothing, playing the flute, speaking German with a French accent, pronouncing all their vowels “oouuoo” (which was fairly easy given the French accent), and making lots of money in the wool trade. Because they were rich, people smiled more (remem-

ber, at this time, “Beowulf” and “Canterbury Tales” were the only tabloids, and gave generally favorable reviews even to Danes). And since it is next to impossible to keep your vowels in the back of your throat (even if you do speak German with a French accent) while smiling and saying “oouuo” (try it, you’ll see what I mean), the Great Vowel Shift came about and transformed the English language.

The very richest had their vowels shifted right out in front of their teeth. They settled in Manchester and later in Boston.

There were a few poor souls who, cut off from the economic prosperity of the wool trade, continued to swallow their vowels. They wandered the countryside in misery and despair until they came to the docks of London, where their dialect devolved into the incomprehensible language known as Cockney. Later, it was taken overseas and further brutalized by merging it with Dutch and Italian to create Brooklynese.

That’s what happened, you can check for yourself. But I advise you to just take our word for it.

Five Events that Shaped the History of English

Philip Durkin, Principal Etymologist at the *Oxford English Dictionary*, chooses five events that shaped the English Language.

The Anglo-Saxon Settlement

It’s never easy to pinpoint exactly when a specific language began, but in the case of English we can at least say that there is little sense in speaking of the English language as a separate entity before the Anglo-Saxons came to Britain. Little is known of this period with any certainty, but we do know that Germanic invaders came and settled in Britain from the north-western coastline of continental Europe in the fifth and sixth centuries. The invaders all spoke a language that was Germanic (related to what emerged as Dutch, Frisian, German and the Scandinavian languages, and to Gothic), but we’ll probably never know how different their speech was from that of their continental neighbours. However it is fairly certain that many of the settlers would have spoken in exactly the same way as some of their north European neighbours, and that not all of the settlers would have spoken in the same way.



The reason that we know so little about the linguistic situation in this period is because we do not have much in the way of written records from any of the Germanic languages of north-western Europe until several centuries later. When Old English writings begin to appear in the seventh, eighth, and ninth centuries there is a good deal of regional variation, but not substantially more than that found in later periods. This was the language that Alfred the Great referred to as ‘English’ in the ninth century.

The Celts were already resident in Britain when the Anglo-Saxons arrived, but there are few obvious traces of their language in English today. Some scholars have suggested that the Celtic tongue might have had an underlying influence on the grammatical development of English, particularly in some parts of the country, but this is highly speculative. The number of loanwords known for certain to have entered Old English from this source is very small. Those that survive in modern English include *brock* (badger), and *coomb* a type of valley, alongside many place names.

The Scandinavian Settlements

The next invaders were the Norsemen. From the middle of the ninth century large numbers of Norse invaders settled in Britain, particularly in northern and eastern areas, and in the eleventh century the whole of England had a Danish king, Canute. The distinct North Germanic speech of the Norsemen had great influence on English, most obviously seen in the words that English has borrowed from this source. These include some very basic words such as *take* and even grammatical words such as *they*. The common Germanic base of the two languages meant that there were still many similarities between Old English and the language of the invaders. Some words, for example *give*, perhaps show a kind of hybridization with some spellings going back to Old English and others being Norse in origin. However, the resemblances between the two languages are so great that in many cases it is impossible to be sure of the exact ancestry of a particular word or spelling. However, much of the influence of Norse, including the vast majority of the loanwords, does not appear in written English until after the next great historical and cultural upheaval, the Norman Conquest.



1066 and after

The centuries after the Norman Conquest witnessed enormous changes in the English language. In the course of



what is called the Middle English period, the fairly rich inflectional system of Old English broke down. It was replaced by what is broadly speaking, the same system English has today, which unlike Old English makes very little use of distinctive word endings in the grammar of the language. The vocabulary of English also changed enormously, with tremendous numbers of borrowings from French and Latin, in addition to the Scandinavian loanwords already mentioned, which were slowly starting to appear in the written language. Old English, like German today, showed a tendency to find native equivalents for foreign words and phrases (although both Old English and modern German show plenty of loanwords), whereas Middle English acquired the habit that modern English retains today of readily accommodating foreign words. **Trilingualism in English, French, and Latin was common in the worlds of business and the professions**, with words crossing over from one language to another with ease. You only have to flick through the etymologies of any English dictionary to get an impression of the huge number of words entering English from French and Latin during the later medieval period. This trend was set to continue into the early modern period with the explosion of interest in the writings of the ancient world.

Standardization

The late medieval and early modern periods saw a fairly steady process of standardization in English south of the Scottish border. The written and spoken language of London continued to evolve and gradually began to have a greater influence in the country at large. For most of the Middle English period a dialect was simply what was spoken in a particular area, which would normally be more or less represented in writing - although where and from whom the writer had learnt how to write were also important. It was only when the broadly London standard began to dominate, especially through the new technology of printing, that the other regional varieties of the language began to be seen as different in kind. As the London standard became used more widely, especially in more formal contexts and particularly amongst the more elevated members of society, the other regional varieties came to be stigmatized, as lacking social prestige and indicating a lack of education.

In the same period a series of changes also occurred in English pronunciation (though not uniformly in all dialects), which go under the collective name of the Great Vowel Shift. These were purely linguistic ‘sound changes’ which occur in every language in every period of history. The changes in pronunciation weren’t the result of specific social or historical factors, but social and historical



factors would have helped to spread the results of the changes. As a result the so-called ‘pure’ vowel sounds which still characterize many continental languages were lost to English. The phonetic pairings of most long and short vowel sounds were also lost, which gave rise to many of the oddities of English pronunciation, and which now obscure the relationships between many English words and their foreign counterparts.

Colonization and Globalization

During the medieval and early modern periods the influence of English spread throughout the British Isles, and from the early seventeenth century onwards its influence began to be felt throughout the world. The complex processes of exploration, colonization and overseas trade that characterized Britain’s external relations for several centuries led to significant change in English. Words were absorbed from all over the world, often via the languages of other trading and imperial nations such as Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands. At the same time, new varieties of English emerged, each with their own nuances of vocabulary and grammar and their own distinct pronunciations. More recently still, English has become a *lingua franca*, a global language, regularly used and understood by many nations for whom English is not their first language. The eventual effects on the English language of both of these developments can only be guessed at today, but there can be little doubt that they will be as important as anything that has happened to English in the past sixteen hundred years.



Borrowed Words in English

by Charles Fredeen

The “guests from another language,” or borrowed words, permeate the English language. Through linguistic osmosis, these many thousands of words were taken over from one language by another during the course of English history mainly due to the constant uninvited arrival of invaders to the island.

If borrowings are testimonials to our (“our” being humans) “physical mobility and mental laziness” then the British would probably win the gold medal. How could a country whose original inhabitants were Celts have ceded that language to the one we currently know as English? It is because of the many times that the British Isles were invaded, obviously by outsiders, who brought their language, dialects and customs into the country. As the invaders settled in, they transformed both the written and spoken words of the English residents, who were able to adapt through the assimilation of borrowed words.

Otto Jespersen¹, in his book *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, points out that the English language is a “chain of borrowings” that was a result of the conquests of Britain by various invaders. The foreigners brought their languages to England but were unable to completely impose their languages on the British. Instead, the foreigners’ languages were intermixed as if being thrown into a blender with the native speakers’ words. With that, these groups succeeded, to varying degrees, in influencing the evolution of written and spoken English as we now know it.

First came the Romans and with their occupation of England, introduced Latin to some, but not all, its inhabitants. While the Celts co-existed with the Romans and “continental Germans,” only a few hundred borrowed Latin words are found in Old English, which was basically a “self-sufficing” language, according to Jespersen. With the Teutonic/Germanic invasions of 450 A.D., the Celtic language was relegated to the mists of its Irish island. But the inhabitants of England needed to communicate with their new neighbors and the borrowing of words began.

The Christianization of the country in the 6th Century forced more inhabitants to adopt Latin words and phrases through the Church. Still, these borrowed Latin words were used mainly in the realm of the upper classes when “every educated Englishman spoke and wrote Latin as easily as he spoke and wrote his mother tongue,” according to James Bradstreet Greenough and George Lyman Kittredge² in their book, *Words and Their Ways in English Speech*. These “educated” men (and I would think women, too) could use the borrowed words both in conversation and on the written page.

Once the Angles, Saxons and Jutes arrived in Britain, and with the Celts displaced, the language literally began evolving as the new-arrivals began settling in. The Celtic influence began rapidly diminishing as the so-called “superior” borrowed words began to take hold. While at first speaking their own Teutonic languages, upon establishing themselves with the native inhabitants their language gradually drifted away from their home countries and began to mesh with one another. Of course, the language from this period would be barely recognizable to most, if not all, (except for etymologists) present-day readers. Yet, while the Angles, Saxons and Jutes brought us the original English language, the foundation of English as we know it today is Germanic with a massive French influence.

The history of the English language, and its borrowings, is founded on three invasions: Teutonic; Scandinavian (Vikings); and, most importantly, by

the Norman conquest of England by the Duke of Normandy in 1066. (Luckily, the Nazis never made it across the Channel.) The Teutonic and Scandinavian invasions obviously affected the native language. But it was the French-speaking Normans, led by William the Conqueror (Guillaume le Conquérant), who introduced the greatest, most extensive and most permanent collection of borrowed or “loan” words, as Jespersen is fond of writing, to the English language upon their successful 1066 invasion of the island.

The Norman occupation lasted much longer than that of the Norse invasion and unlike the Scandinavians, who co-existed with the invaded, the Normans overwhelmed the English. The British status quo was tossed out as the Normans reconfigured the structures of England, from its legal system to its religions, by becoming the ruling masters of the island.

While the Normans brought their French to the British Isles, they, too, were also operating in a sense with borrowed words. If, as Greenough and Kittredge point out, French is simply Latin in a “corrupt form” then the conquered British inhabitants would have had to absorb two borrowed languages — French and Latin. And the question for them, if they chose to ask it, is from which genesis the written or spoken words the Normans brought to the shores came from — Latin or French.

The invading Normans also introduced a sort of language class warfare to the Britons. If a foreign language is thrust upon the conquered, one would think that it would spread from top to bottom through all strata of the inhabitants. The “losing” language would thus disappear. Yet, that did not happen after the Normans’ arrival. The conquered nobles adopted the French model, but the peasants retained the Germanic tongue, setting up both a class and a linguistic divide that would remain until their languages, and borrowed words, blended into Middle English.

But morphing French words and phrases into the English language does not mean there was a certain borrowing snobbery. Writers, such as Chaucer, or diplomats, the royalty, high-ranking members of the military and businessmen who were familiar with French culture (and given the closeness of European borders, easily attainable), readily adopted and adapted words borrowed from the French into the English language. In many cases, the borrowing was not cavalier, but was a necessity to communicate.

The Norman Conquest forced the creation of an entirely new way of English life, influencing the language of its law, religion, medicine and arts. Since the French/Latin-speakers were the dominant power, the Britons had to borrow

words in order to simply communicate with their new masters who “ousted” some of the local vernacular. These “newcomers” may have rid some of the centuries-old English synonyms, but they became ingrained because of their ties to the originals. The Anglo-Saxon king and queen survived the French influence, but with the Normans along came such titles as duke and duchess. Well, Britons would have to be able to understand what either of these two terms meant and, thus, they would assimilate these borrowed words into, if not every day use, their sometime use.

According to Jespersen, many British adopted borrowed French words not only to communicate, but because they felt it was the “fashion” to imitate their “betters.” Again, while some might perceive this as a form of snobbery, many of us do strive to improve our language skills. While saying someone tried to overthrow a government is basic and to the point, using *coup d’etat* as the phrase is instantly recognizable to many readers and, almost, puts more of a sense of urgency to the event. You could say a woman is stylish, which I am sure she would appreciate, but substituting the borrowed *chic* usually makes more of an impact. Obviously, our knowledge of borrowed words not only expands our vocabulary but enables us to converse with one another.

While it is understandable that the Britons would borrow words that did not exist in their native language, such as *majesty* and *mayor*, it is somewhat mystifying why they would replace their *swin* with the French *porc*. That is unless you consider how the English farmers and French aristocrats dealt with livestock. With these two related words, the Germanic *swin* is more down-to-earth while the French *porc* was considered more refined. *Swin* evolved into the present-day *swine*, which is what English peasants would have been raising, while the *porc* or *pork* would have been what the upper-class French would eat. It is “animal versus food” and, again, the borrowings would elevate the perceived social standing of the English man or woman who used the French word. And as Greenough and Kittredge illustrate, sometimes the foreign word, such as *divide*, becomes more popular than the inhabitants’ *cleave*. Also, one word can crowd out another, with the native being the one shunted aside as in what happened to the local *ey* which was replaced by the Scandinavian *egg*.

The French language-influence on the English presented them with more abstract words than what the Britons might have considered to be their clear and concrete definitions of their native words. The English *child* as opposed to the borrowed French *enfant*, or the English *freedom* compared to the French *liberty* are examples.

The amazing thing about the transformation and evolution of the English language is the extent to how receptive the country's inhabitants were to outside languages, particularly French and Latin. It is almost as if an invader could plant a language seed and the Britons would cultivate it. But unlike the French who most likely would stay with that one language plant, the English (perhaps because of their love of gardening) seemed intent on growing as many synonymous words as possible. And, continuing with this somewhat silly gardening analogy, Jespersen points out that many times "the English soil has proved more fertilizing than the French soil" for transplanted words. Why offer one native word, as the French seem to enjoy, when you can convert a multitude of borrowed words and multiply them into synonymous bits of language as the English seem wont to do? Or, as the University of Minnesota's professor and author of *Word Origins and How We Know Them*, Dr. Anatoly Liberman³ asks in his lecture, *A Coat of Many Colors*, is it "better to have two nostrils or one?" With a multitude of similar words, the English at least, seem to have embraced the "two nostrils" theory, sometimes using both the native and the borrowed words side-by-side.

This borrowing has also helped inflate the size of English dictionaries. The voluminous English dictionaries, as compared to French, German or Dutch dictionaries for example, can credit their size to the borrowings of foreign words the British adopted. If the English were originally concerned that their native language was not up to snuff with the French or Latin tongues, the Britons' borrowings might give new meaning to "size matters."

While I have mainly focused on the Norman Conquest and the seismic language shift 1066 created in the linguistic world, there were others that might have been subsequently involved in English-word borrowings — if they had arrived in time. Among them are Spanish and Italian, but as Greenough and Kittredge point out, while their influence upon English literature has "been very great, but upon (English) vocabulary these languages have had no appreciable effect." That is because the Normans made the goal first and the English had basically borrowed all the words and phrases they needed.

England's emergence as a superpower brought it, in a sense, border expansion because of colonialism. This also introduced its people to sights they had never seen and for which they would need descriptive words. The Britons could only borrow them as there was no native term to express what they encountered.

There were no such things as boomerangs or kangaroos in England, so when the Britons came upon them instead of creating entirely new words to define them, the easier alternative was to borrow the Australian words. Elephants, leopards and panthers also were not native to England and, again, these animal names would have to be borrowed for Britons to describe them to one another. Even the tomato, unknown in the country until its introduction from the New World, would have to be named. Borrowing from the Spanish *tomate*, the British settled on tomato.

While these examples were new words to the English and diversified their vocabulary, they did not affect the “structure” of their speech. Instead, they were “simply the adoption of names for particular things,” according to Greenough and Kittredge.

The Renaissance brought a multitude of classical words, particularly from France and Italy, increasing the Latin influence on language in England. But Italy, along with Spain, contributed few borrowed words because the English language was nearly completely formed by this age. The new words and phrases enriched the British language, but Jespersen believes at somewhat of a cost. Because of the various invasions, the English had, over time, begun to “shrink from consciously coining new words out of native material.” That concept brings us full circle back to the “physical mobility and mental laziness” aspect of borrowing words.

These, in a sense, exotic words now easily roll off the tongues of English-speaking people. We all know what a kindergarten, from the German, means. Most would know what a baguette or croissant, from the French, also mean. And, staying with baked goods, the Yiddish bagel (originally *beygl*) is certainly well known to many English-speaking people, particularly New Yorkers.

But do all foreign or exotic words lend themselves to borrowing and become ingrained in the English language? In *The Lexicographer’s Dilemma*, author Jack Lynch brings up the Arabic *jihad* and questions whether it is an English word yet. Before September 11, 2001, I doubt many English speakers had heard of the word. By September 12, I believe that *jihad* was as familiar a phrase to us as the word bread.

Liberman, in one of his lectures, illustrated the borrowed words *sputnik* and *perestroika*. At various points in time these borrowed words were all the rage. While I was too young to comprehend *sputnik* when it was launched, throughout my early school years I learned its significance. Yet, I doubt that any

person in high school today would understand the word or fathom how quickly it was borrowed into the English language.

The same fate awaited perestroika. About six years after it was proposed in the Soviet Union, the word filled inches of newspaper copy in the mid 1980s. But I would be amazed to find any mention of Gorbachev's initiative for today's English-speaking newspaper readers. If borrowed words are a "result of language contact in a certain place at a certain time," as Liberman phrases it in *Word Origins*, then these two Russian words fit the bill perfectly. But these etymons probably have little "staying power," particularly since neither really forms ties with other words. So, like the many borrowed words from the past that failed to live on, these two are also probably consigned to the linguistic junk heap, at least for English readers.

In wrapping up, the borrowing of words illustrates that when two languages compete for domination over one another, adaptability and adoptability are key ingredients. The Celts did not understand this and their language was marginalized. The Germanic-speakers faced the same fate when confronted with the Norman Conquest, but many of the higher-educated Britons saw the (Gallic) writing on the wall and chose to borrow the necessary words and phrases to communicate in a changed environment. By, out of necessity, opting to borrow from their foreign rulers, the English language evolved into the most extensive and prolific on the planet.

(Very) Brief History of the English Language

Dave Wilton, Monday, January 15, 2001

Indo-European and Germanic Influences

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches:

- Latin and the modern Romance languages;
- The Germanic languages;
- The Indo-Iranian languages, including Hindi and Sanskrit;
- The Slavic languages;
- The Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian (but not Estonian);
- The Celtic languages; and
- Greek.

The influence of the original Indo-European language, designated proto-Indo-European, can be seen today, even though no written record of it exists. The word for *father*, for example, is *vater* in German, *pater* in Latin, and *pitr* in Sanskrit. These words are all cognates, similar words in different languages that share the same root.

Of these branches of the Indo-European family, two are, for our purposes of studying the development of English, of paramount importance, the Germanic and the Romance (called that because the Romance languages derive from Latin, the language of ancient Rome, not because of any bodice-ripping literary genre). English is in the Germanic group of languages. This group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. Around the second century BC, this Common Germanic language split into three distinct sub-groups:

- East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to southeastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.
- North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic (but not Finnish, which is related to Estonian and is not an Indo-European language).
- West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

Old English (500-1100(1066) AD)

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles (whose name is the source of the words England and English), Saxons, and Jutes, began populating the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD. They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian--the language of northeastern region of the Netherlands--that is called Old English. Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.

These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words. These Celtic languages survive today in Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland and in Welsh. Cornish, unfortunately, is now a dead language. (The last native Cornish speaker, Dolly Pentreath, died in 1777 in the town of Mousehole, Cornwall.)

Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England. Some examples are *dream*, which had meant joy until the Vikings imparted its current meaning on it from the Scandinavian cognate *draumr*, and *skirt*, which continues to live alongside its native English cognate *shirt*.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this statistic is deceptive; Old English is much more important than this number would indicate. About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like *be*, *water*, and *strong*, for example, derive from Old English roots.

Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem *Beowulf*, lasted until about 1100. This last date is rather arbitrary, but most scholars choose it because it is shortly after the most important event in the development of the English language, the Norman Conquest.

The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100 (1066)-1500)

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD. (The Bayeux Tapestry, details of which form the navigation buttons on this site, is perhaps the most famous graphical depiction of the Norman Conquest.) The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock (*Norman* comes from *Norseman*) and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots.

Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the seventh century (ecclesiastical terms such as *priest*, *vicar*, and *mass* came into the language this way), but now there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words.

The influence of the Normans can be illustrated by looking at two words, *beef* and *cow*. *Beef*, commonly eaten by the aristocracy, derives from the Anglo-Norman, while the Anglo-Saxon commoners, who tended the cattle, retained the Germanic *cow*. Many legal terms, such as *indict*, *jury*, and *verdict* have Anglo-Norman roots because the Normans ran the courts. This split, where words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romantic roots and words frequently

used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots, can be seen in many instances.

Sometimes French words replaced Old English words; *crime* replaced *firen* and *uncle* replaced *eam*. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French *gentle* and the Germanic *man* formed *gentleman*. Other times, two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English. Thus we have the Germanic *doom* and the French *judgment*, or *wish* and *desire*.

It is useful to compare various versions of a familiar text to see the differences between Old, Middle, and Modern English. Take for instance this Old English (c.1000) sample from the *Bible*:

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum
si þin nama gehalgod tobecume þin rice gewurþe þin willa on eorpan swa swa
on heofonum
urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us to dæg
and forgyf us ure gyltas swa swa we forgyfap urum gyltendum
and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge ac alys us of yfele soþlice.

Rendered in Middle English (Wyclif, 1384), the same text starts to become recognizable to the modern eye:

Oure fadir þat art in heuenes halwid be þi name;
þi reume or kyngdom come to be. Be þi wille don in herþe as it is dounin heu-
ene.
yeue to us today oure eche dayes bred.
And foryeue to us oure dettis þat is oure synnys as we foryeuen to oure dettouris
þat is to men þat han synned in us.
And lede us not into temptacion but delyuere us from euyl.

Finally, in Early Modern English (King James Version, 1611) the same text is completely intelligible:

Our father which art in heauen, hallowed be thy name.
Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth as it is in heauen.
Giue us this day our daily bread.
And forgiue us our debts as we forgiue our debtors.
And lead us not into temptation, but deliuer us from euill. Amen.

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the no-

bility adopted a modified English as their native tongue. About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-50) killed about one third of the English population. The laboring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman.

This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English. The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*. Unlike Old English, Middle English can be read, albeit with difficulty, by modern English-speaking people.

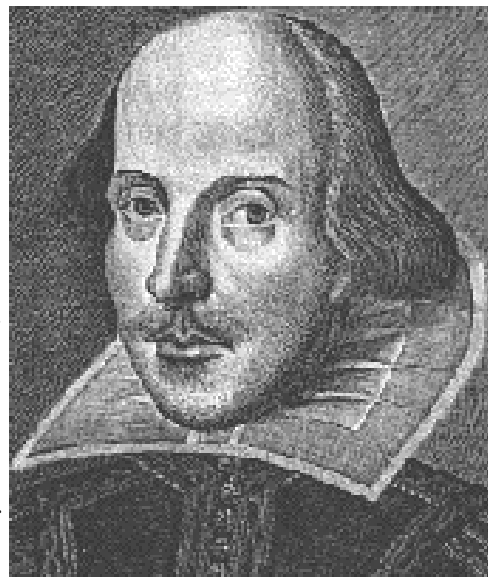
By 1362, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. In that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.

The Middle English period came to a close around 1500 AD with the rise of Modern English.

Early Modern English (1500 (1475)-1800 (1750))

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these *inkhorn* terms, but many survive to this day. Shakespeare's character Holofernes in *Loves Labor Lost* is a satire of an overenthusiastic schoolmaster who is too fond of Latinisms.

Many students having difficulty understanding Shakespeare would be surprised to learn that he wrote in modern English. But, as can be seen in the earlier example of the Lord's Prayer, Elizabethan English has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Chaucer. Many familiar words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless catch-phrases are his. Newcomers to Shakespeare are often shocked at the number of clichés contained in his plays, until they realize



that he coined them and they became clichés afterwards. *One fell swoop, vanish into thin air, and flesh and blood* are all Shakespeare's. Words he bequeathed to the language include *critical, leapfrog, majestic, dwindle, and pedant*.

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a

change in pronunciation that began around 1400. While modern English speakers can read Chaucer with some difficulty, Chaucer's pronunciation would have been completely unintelligible to the modern ear. Shakespeare, on the other hand, would be accented, but understandable. Long vowel sounds began to be made higher in the mouth and the letter e at the end of words became silent. Chaucer's *Lyf* (pronounced /leef/) became the modern word *life*. In Middle English *name* was pronounced /nam-a/, *five* was pronounced /feef/, and *down* was pronounced /doon/. In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over, however, vowel sounds are still shortening, although the change has become considerably more gradual.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

Late-Modern English (1800-Present)

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words. These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface, and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

The industrial and scientific revolutions created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek. Words like *oxygen*, *protein*, *nuclear*, and *vaccine* did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots. Such neologisms were not exclusively created from classical roots though, English roots were used for such terms as *horsepower*, *airplane*, and *typewriter*.

This burst of neologisms continues today, perhaps most visible in the field of electronics and computers. *Byte*, *cyber-*, *bios*, *hard-drive*, and *microchip* are good examples.

Also, the rise of the British Empire and the growth of global trade served not only to introduce English to the world, but to introduce words into English. Hindi, and the other languages of the Indian subcontinent, provided many words, such as *pundit*, *shampoo*, *pajamas*, and *juggernaut*. Virtually every language on Earth has contributed to the development of English, from the Finnish *sauna* and the Japanese *tycoon*, to the vast contributions of French and Latin.

The British Empire was a maritime empire, and the influence of nautical terms on the English language has been great. Words and phrases like *three sheets to the wind* and *scuttlebutt* have their origins onboard ships.

Finally, the 20th century saw two world wars, and the military influence on the language during the latter half of this century has been great. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries. Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced standard English. During the mid-20th century, however, virtually all British and American men served in the military. Military slang entered the language like never before. *Blockbuster*, *nose dive*, *camouflage*, *radar*, *roadblock*, *spearhead*, and *landing strip* are all military terms that made their way into standard English.

American English

Also significant beginning around 1600 AD was the English colonization of North America and the subsequent creation of a distinct American dialect. Some pronunciations and usages “froze” when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, American English is closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some Americanisms that the British decry are actually originally British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost at home (e.g., *fall* as a synonym for autumn, *trash* for rubbish, *frame-up* which was reintroduced to Britain through Hollywood gangster movies, and use of *loan* as a verb instead of lend).

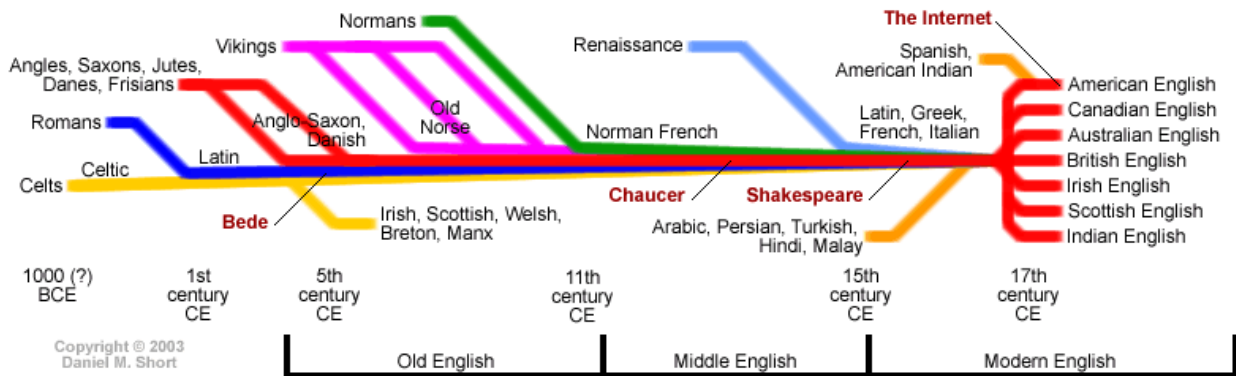
The American dialect also served as the route of introduction for many native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like *Mississippi*, *Roanoke*, and *Iowa*. Indian-sounding names like *Idaho* were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names for other things besides places were also common. *Raccoon*, *tomato*, *canoe*, *barbecue*, *savanna*, and *hickory* have native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish has also been great influence on American English. *Armadillo*, *mustang*, *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede*, and *vigilante* are all examples of Spanish

words that made their way into English through the settlement of the American West.

To a lesser extent French, mainly via Louisiana, and West African, through the importation of slaves, words have influenced American English. *Armoire*, *bayou*, and *jambalaya* came into the language via New Orleans. *Goober*, *gumbo*, and *tote* are West African borrowings first used in America by slaves.

TIMELINE



THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT

<http://eweb.furman.edu/~wrogers/phonemes/>

Beginning in Middle English, the so-called "long vowels" in English were raised and fronted. This complex phenomenon proceeded at different rates in different dialects, and was not completed in standard London English until the eighteenth century. Unshifted long vowels still survive today in various dialects.

The Great Vowel Shift accounts for much of the "strangeness" of English spelling. That is, Present-Day English, though it uses the same Latin alphabet as many of the European languages, spells the long vowels differently from their counterparts in the European languages. Very generally speaking, PDE spelling reflects Middle English pronunciation--that is, the pronunciation of English prior to the Great Vowel Shift.

The Great Vowel Shift was going on for a long time. The simplified table that follows does not account for all of the effects of the Great Vowel Shift.

ME VOWEL (ca. 1400)	EME VOWEL (ca. 1600)	PDE VOWEL (after 1800)
/i:/	/'i/	/aI/
/e/	/i/	/i/
/e:/	/e/	/i/
/a:/	/e/	/e/
/φ:/	/o/	/o/

/o/	/u/	/u/
/u/	/'u/	/aU/

OLD ENGLISH VOWELS

Vowels			Diphthongs
Front	Central	Back	
High	<u>/i/</u> , <u>/i:/</u> <u>/y/</u> , <u>/y:/</u>	<u>/u/</u> , <u>/u:/</u>	[The symbol /' ("schwa") stands for the mid-central vowel. The /' is not phonemic in OE. Here it indicates a central glide from the first element of the diphthong.] <u>/æ'/</u> , <u>/æ:/'</u> <u>/e'/</u> , <u>/e:/'</u>
Mid	<u>/e/</u> , <u>/e:/</u>	<u>/o:/</u> , <u>/o/</u>	<u>/i'/</u> , <u>/i:/'</u>
Low	<u>/æ/</u> , <u>/æ:/</u>	<u>/a/</u> , <u>/a:/</u>	[The diphthongs /i'/, /i:/' existed early in OE, but by the 10th century had fallen together with /i/, /i:/. See "Breaking" ●, "Palatal Diphthongization" ●, and "Umlaut" ●.]

MIDDLE ENGLISH VOWELS

Vowels			Diphthongs	
Front	Central	Back		
High	<u>/i/</u>		<u>/u/</u>	<u>/au/</u>
	<u>/I/</u>		<u>/U/</u>	<u>/æi/</u>
Mid	<u>/e/</u>	<u>/'/</u>	<u>/o/</u>	<u>/eu/</u>

				<u>/iu/</u>
	<u>/e/</u> ,		<u>/ô/</u> ,	
	<u>/e:/</u>		<u>/ô:/</u>	<u>/ôi/</u>
Low		<u>/a/</u> , <u>/a:/</u>		<u>/ôu/</u>
				<u>/Ui/</u>

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH VOWELS

	Vowels			Diphthongs
	ront	Central	Back	
				<u>/i/</u>
	<u>/i/</u>		<u>/u/</u>	
High	<u>/I/</u>		<u>/U/</u>	<u>/u/</u>
				<u>/ôi/</u>
	<u>/e/</u>		<u>/o/</u>	
Mid	<u>/e/</u>	<u>/ɨ/</u>	<u>/ô/</u>	
Low		<u>/æ/</u>	<u>/a/</u>	

PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH VOWELS

Vowels			Diphthongs	
	Front	Central	Back	
High	<u>/i/</u> <u>/I/</u>		<u>/U/</u> <u>/u/</u>	<u>/aI/</u> <u>/aU/</u> <u>/ôI/</u>
Mid	<u>/e/</u> <u>/e/</u>	/ʌ/	<u>/ô/</u> <u>/o/</u>	
Low	<u>/æ/</u>	<u>/a/</u>		

OLD ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation					
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar
Stops	Voiceless	<u>/p/</u>	.	.	<u>/t/</u>	.	<u>/k/</u>
	Voiced	<u>/b/</u>	.	.	<u>/d/</u>	.	<u>/g/</u>
Affricates	Voiceless	<u>/c</u></u>	.
	Voiced	<u>/j</u></u>	.
Fricatives		.	<u>/f/</u>	<u>/q/</u>	<u>/s/</u>	<u>/s</u></u>	<u>/h/</u>
Nasals		<u>/m/</u>	.	.	<u>/n/</u>	.	.
Lateral		.	.	.	<u>/l/</u>	.	.
Retroflex		.	.	.	<u>/r/</u>	.	.
Semivowels		<u>/w/</u>	.	.	.	<u>/j/</u>	.

MIDDLE ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation					
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar
Stops	Voiceless	<u>/p/</u>	.	.	<u>/t/</u>	.	<u>/k/</u>
	Voiced	<u>/b/</u>	.	.	<u>/d/</u>	.	<u>/g/</u>
Affricates	Voiceless	<u>/c</u></u>	.
	Voiced	<u>/j</u></u>	.
Fricatives	Voiceless	.	<u>/f/</u>	<u>/q/</u>	<u>/s/</u>	<u>/s</u></u>	<u>/h/</u>
	Voiced	.	<u>/v/</u>	<u>/p/</u>	<u>/z/</u>		
Nasals		<u>/m/</u>	.	.	<u>/n/</u>	.	.
Lateral		.	.	.	<u>/l/</u>	.	.
Retroflex		.	.	.	<u>/r/</u>	.	.
Semivowels		<u>/w/</u>	.	.	.	<u>/j/</u>	.

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Manner of Articulation		Point of Articulation					
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar
Stops	Voiceless	<u>/p/</u>	.	.	<u>/t/</u>	.	<u>/k/</u>
	Voiced	<u>/b/</u>	.	.	<u>/d/</u>	.	<u>/g/</u>
Affricates	Voiceless	<u>/c</u></u>	.
	Voiced	<u>/j</u></u>	.
Fricatives	Voiceless	.	<u>/f/</u>	<u>/q/</u>	<u>/s/</u>	<u>/s</u></u>	<u>/h/</u>
	Voiced	.	<u>/v/</u>	<u>/p/</u>	<u>/z/</u>	<u>/z</u></u>	
Nasals		<u>/m/</u>	.	.	<u>/n/</u>	.	<u>/h/</u>
Lateral		.	.	.	<u>/l/</u>	.	.
Retroflex		.	.	.	<u>/r/</u>	.	.
Semivowels		<u>/w/</u>	.	.	.	<u>/j/</u>	.

PRESENT-DAY ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Manner of Articulation	Point of Articulation					
	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar
	l	al	al	r	al	r

Stops	Voices s Voiced	<u>/p/</u> <u>/b/</u>	.	.	<u>/t/</u> <u>/d/</u>	.	<u>/k/</u> <u>/g/</u>
Affricates	Voices s Voiced	<u>/tʃ/</u> <u>/dʒ/</u>	.
Fricatives	Voices s Voiced	.	<u>/f/</u> <u>/v/</u>	<u>/q/</u> <u>/p/</u>	<u>/s/</u> <u>/z/</u>	<u>/ʃ/</u> <u>/ʒ/</u>	<u>/h/</u>
Nasals		<u>/m/</u>	.	.	<u>/n/</u>	.	<u>/ŋ/</u>
Lateral		.	.	.	<u>/l/</u>	.	.
Retroflex		.	.	.	<u>/ɻ/</u>	.	.
Semivowels		<u>/w/</u>	.	.	.	<u>/j/</u>	.

FOR NOTES

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