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Курс історії англійської мови

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Курс історії англійської мови: навчально-методичний посібник для студентів галузі знань 01 Освіта, спеціальності 014.02 Середня освіта (мова і література (англійська)) та галузі знань 035 Філологія 035.04 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно) (мова і література (англійська)), освітнього ступеню Бакалавр. Укладач Л.О. Пашіс. – 2-е видання, виправлене і доповнене. – Черкаси: ЧНУ, 2018. – 174 с.

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Передмова

Навчально-методичний посібник «Курс історії англійської мови» рекомендовано студентам, які навчаються за спеціальністю 014.02 Середня освіта (мова і література (англійська)) та 035.04 Германські мови та літератури (переклад включно) (мова і література (англійська)) галузі знань – 035 Філологія, освітній ступінь Бакалавр та які вивчають дисципліну Історія англійської мови .

Зміст посібника відповідає основним розділам навчальної програми з Історії англійської мови, орієнтований на підготовку висококваліфікованих фахівців з англійської мови і враховує багаторічний досвід викладання цієї дисципліни автором.

Навчально-методичний посібник «Курс історії англійської мови» складається з 7 розділів, які охоплюють основні теми цього університетського курсу та вправ, що спрямовані на закріплення матеріалу, формування навичок та вмінь аналізувати фонетичні, морфологічні, синтаксичні процеси та явища в германських мовах.

У додатку подаються уривки текстів стародавнього та середньоанглійського періоду для аналізу та перекладу.

Таблиці, що подані у кінці навчально-методичного посібника, унаочнюють та систематизують основні положення чітко і коротко, створюючи канву всього курсу.

У ході укладання посібника використовувались наукові статті, монографії, дисертації та підручники з історії мови вітчизняних та зарубіжних авторів. Велику допомогу у підготовці посібника надала кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійської мови Лук'янова Г.Л., яка викладала дисципліну Історія англійської мови упродовж більш ніж 40 років.

Автор висловлює глибоку вдячність рецензентам – кандидату філологічних наук, доценту кафедри англійської та німецької філології Полтавського національного педагогічного університету імені В.Г. Короленка Луцькій Т.В., та кандидату філологічних наук, завідувачу кафедри іноземних мов ННІМ Черкаського національного університету імені Богдана Хмельницького Куліш І.М.

Сподіваємось, що навчально-методичний посібник «Курс історії англійської мови» допоможе студентам ефективно засвоїти матеріал та сформувати вміння аналізувати мовні явища, співставляти один процес з іншим.

Бажаємо успіхів у вивченні цієї дисципліни!

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What is the History of English?

The history of English studies the major events in the historical development of the English language:

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

Modern English reflects many centuries of development. The history of English explains such discrepancy between letters and sounds as in *knight* [nait] 6 letters 3 sounds

When Latin characters were used in Britain (7th c.) writing was phonetic: the letters stood for the same sounds as in Latin. But later, when printing was introduced (the 15th c.) the written form of the word became fixed but the sounds continued to change. In the 14th century *knight* sounded as [knix't], *root* as [ro:t], *tale* as [ˈtɑ:lə].

The history of the English language has been reconstructed on the basis of written record of different periods. The earliest written texts in English date to the 7th c. and the earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or the 4th c. A.D. But the development of English began a long time before it was recorded.

Some information about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers, especially Roman. The pre-written history of English was first studied by methods of comparative linguistics in the 19th c. These methods help the linguists to discover the kinship of the Indo-European (IE) family of languages and to group them into Germanic, Slavonic, Celtic and others.

Now in addition to reconstruction which is based on comparing different languages the scholars use methods of internal reconstruction. It studies history from internal sources alone. The method is based on the assumption that every language is a well-organized and well-balanced structure of elements. If among the productive systems of the language there occur some non-productive systems one can say that they are relics of preceding stages of development.

e.g. Modern forms “*oxen*”, “*teeth*” are isolated now, but they were found in larger groups of nouns in earlier periods.

Characteristic Features of Germanic Languages

Outline

1. Indo-European Family. The Germanic group of languages
 - 1.1. East Germanic
 - 1.2. North Germanic
 - 1.3. West Germanic
2. Linguistic characteristics of Germanic languages
 - 2.1. Word stress
 - 2.2. The Germanic Vowel Shift
 - 2.3. The First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law)
 - 2.4. The Second Consonant Shift (Verner's Law)
 - 2.5. Germanic Rhotacism

1. Indo-European Family. The Germanic group of languages.

The historical (genealogical) classification of languages groups them according to their origin from a common linguistic ancestor. English belongs to the Germanic group which is one of the twelve groups of Indo-European (IE) family.

The Germanic languages in the modern world are:

- English (Great Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and other countries);
- Danish (Denmark);
- German (Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Switzerland);
- Afrikaans (South African Republic);
- Swedish (Sweden);
- Icelandic (Iceland).

The history of the Germanic group begins with the Proto-Germanic (PG) language. The Proto-Germanic is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE languages between the 15th and 10th c. B.C. PG is an entirely pre-historical language. It was never recorded in written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages.

The Old Germanic languages form 3 groups:

- East Germanic;
- North Germanic;
- West Germanic.

1.1. East Germanic

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful were the Goths. The Gothic language is now dead but it is presented in written

records of the 6th c. (e.g. Ulfilas' Gospels – a manuscript of about 200 pages, 5th-6th c.).

This is a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic by Ulfilas, (a West Gothic bishop). Other East Germanic languages have left no written traces (Vandalic, Burgundian).

1.2. North Germanic

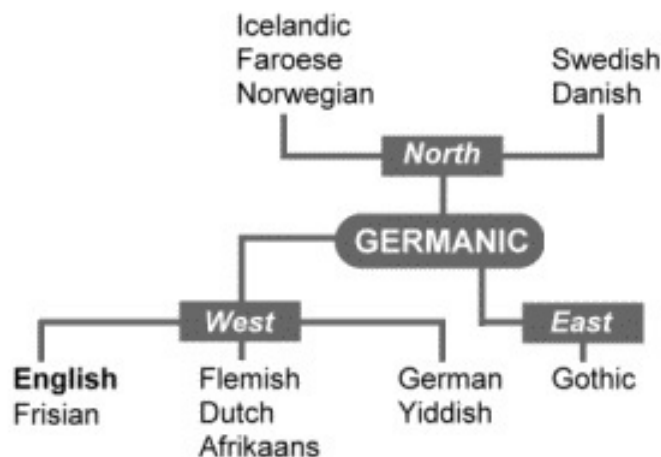
The North Germanic tribes lived on the southern coasts of the Scandinavian peninsula and in Northern Denmark (since the 4th c.). They spoke Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. There are runic inscriptions dated the 3d-9th c. Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material. The alphabet was called runic alphabet or the runes.

Other languages are: Old Danish, Old Norwegian, Old Swedish.

The north Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Victory Age.

1.3. West Germanic

West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe. They spoke Old High German (8th c.), Old English (7th c.), Old Saxon (9th c.), Old Dutch (12th c.)



2. Linguistic Characteristics of Germanic Languages

2.1. Word Stress

In ancient IE the position of the stress was free and movable, it could fall on any syllable of the word. It could be shifted (e.g. R. *домом, дома, дома*). In early PG word stress was still movable but in late PG its position in the word was stabilized. The stress was fixed on the first syllable, other syllables - suffixes and endings – were unstressed. The stress was no longer movable. In Modern English there is a sharp contrast between stressed and unstressed syllables. The main stress falls on the root-morpheme and is never shifted in building grammatical forms:

be come be coming over come

The fixing of word stress played a very important role in the development of the Germanic languages. Unstressed syllables were phonetically weakened and lost. This weakening affected mostly suffixes and endings. Many suffixes merged with endings, they were weakened and dropped.

PG * fiskaz
 Gt fisks
 OIcl fiskr
 OE fisc

2.2. Germanic Vowel Shift

Throughout history vowels showed a strong tendency to change. They underwent

- qualitative change
- quantitative change
- dependent change
- independent change

IE short [o] > in Germanic more open [a] and in PG they merge into [o].

R. могу, мочь OE mazan, mæz

IE long [ɑ:] was narrowed to [o:] and merged with [o:].

Latin mater OE modor

R. мать

2.3. The First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law)

It was formulated by Jacob Grimm in the early 19th. It consists of three major consonant changes.

Firstly, the IE aspirated voiced stops appeared in Latin as voiced fricatives and in Germanic as unaspirated voiced stops:

IE aspirated voiced stops > voiced fricatives > Germanic voiced stops

bh > f > b Latin frater – Mod E brother

dh > f > d Latin fingere – Mod E dough

gh > h > g Latin hortus – Mod E yard
 (ON garðr)



Jacob Grimm

bh	dh	gh
↓	↓	↓
b	d	g

Sanskrit bhrator – Gothic broþar
 dharsnoti – OE dear (to dare)

rudhiras – OE read (red)

Secondly, the IE voiceless stops retained in Latin became voiceless fricatives.

IE voiceless stops > Germanic voiceless fricatives

p > f Latin pater – Mod E father
t > th Latin tress – Mod E three
k > h Latin cornu – Mod E horn

p	t	k
↓	↓	↓
f	þ	h

Ukrainian п'ять – Gothic fimf

Latin tres – OE þri

Ukrainian котрий – Gothic hwaþar
OE hwæþer

Thirdly, the IE voiced stops also retained in Latin became voiceless stops.
IE voiced stops > Germanic voiceless stops

b > p Latin turba – Mod E thorp (found in place names)
d > t Latin dens/dentis – Mod E tooth
g > k Latin ager – Mod E acre

b	d	g
↓	↓	↓
p	t	k

Ukr. болото – OE pol (pool)

Lat. duo – OE twa (two)

Lat. genu – OE cneo (knee)

Greek agros – OE æcer (acre)

These correspondences between Latin and English are important as English borrowed many words from Latin so that the same word etymologically may have come into English through two different channels, once through Germanic and a second time through Latin. In the following pairs the 1st word is Germanic and the second Latin:

brother / fraternal
yard / horticulture

horn / cornucopia
tooth / dentist

three / trinity

acre / agriculture

Exceptions to Grimm's Law:

- 1) $\begin{matrix} sp \\ st \\ sk \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \diagdown \\ \diagup \\ \diagup \end{matrix} \text{ the second element didn't change}$

Ukr. стати – Gothic standan

Latin hostis – Mod E guest

- 2) $\begin{matrix} pt \\ kt \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \diagdown \\ \diagup \end{matrix} \text{ the 1}^{\text{st}} \text{ elements are changed, but } \mathbf{t} \text{ is not}$

Sanskrit nakta– Gothic nahts (ніч)

2.4. The Second Consonant Shift (Verner's Law)



Carl Verner

Danish scholar Carl Verner discovered another series of consonant changes in the late 19th century. By Verner's Law the voiceless fricatives which had developed through stage 2 became voiced when they were in a voiced environment and when the stress in IE was on the syllable which preceded this consonant.

This result in the following changes:

$f > v$

$th > d$

$k > g$

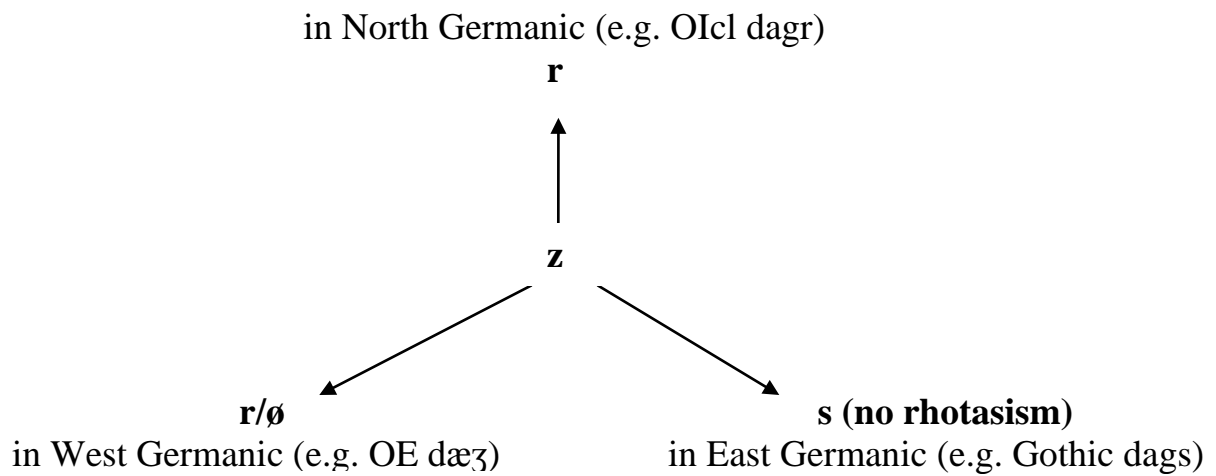
In addition the voiceless fricative /s/ became /z/ and then in North and West Germanic developed further to /r/. This change is called **Germanic Rhotacism**. The effects of this change by Verner's Law are not very visible in Mod E, because of various developments which have taken place subsequently. In Old E the variation between the original consonants and the new one can be seen in the present and singular preterite tense as compared with the preterite plural and past participle of strong verbs.

OE weorpan – preterite plural wurdon

forleoſan – past participle forloren (Mod E adj forlorn)

2.5. Germanic Rhotacism

The consonant /z/ that resulted from the voiceless fricative /s/ by Verner's Law developed into /r/ in North and West Germanic Languages.



- Gothic hausjan – OHG horen – OE hieran
- Forms of strong verbs:

Gothic kiusan – kaus – kusum – kusans

OE ceosan – ceas – curon – coren

(to choose)

Periods of the History of the English Language

Outline

1. Traditional Periodisation.
2. Henry Sweet's division of the History of the Language.
3. Approach of Yuri Kostyuchenko.

1. Traditional Periodisation

Traditionally histories of the English have divided their account into three main periods:

- Old English (sometimes referred to as Anglo-Saxon, 449 – 1066);
- Middle English (1066 - 1475/1485);
- Modern English (1476/1485 – up to now).

The last period is divided into 2: Early Modern English and Late Modern English. The reasons for this division are as much political as linguistic. Old English differs from Middle English in that the Norman Conquest of 1066 introduced new settlers who spoke a variety of Old French and thus changed the nature of English. But there was an equally important series of invasions by Scandinavians (the so-called Viking invasions and settlements) from the end of the 8th century onwards. Middle English differs from Early Modern English, and the transition from one to the other is traditionally dated at **1485** when the Tudors replaced the Yorkists after the Battle of Bosworth. Both **1066** and **1485** are political dates whose familiarity has forced historians of the language to accept them as significant for the development of the language as well.

2. Henry Sweet's division of the History of the Language

The usual division of the history of the language into three major periods – Old, Middle and Modern – was first proposed by **Henry Sweet** in 1873: This division was based on the inflectional characteristics of each stage:

OE is the period of **full inflections**

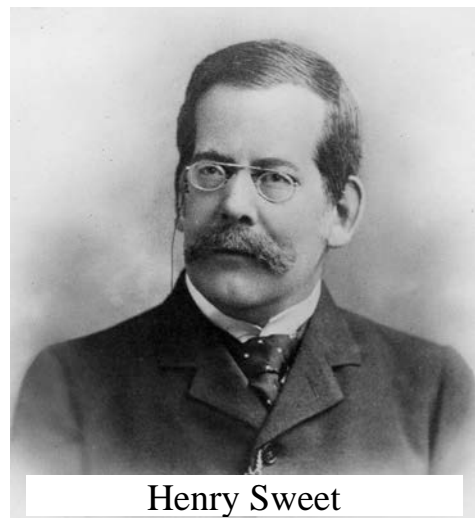
(e.g. nama, gifan, caru)

ME of **leveled inflections**

(e.g. naame, given, caare)

Modern E of **lost inflections**

(e.g. naam, giv, caar)



Henry Sweet

H. Sweet's argument is based on a morphological feature, namely the leveling and fall of inflections (unstressed -e is the leveled form of -a/u) (In Modern E -s/plural, 3d form singular and -ed (Past Ind)).

H. Sweet chose the development of inflections, but other scholars have chosen other phenomena. Various features in the language undergo changes at different times. In the change-over from Middle to Modern English, for instance, is the fall of inflections a more significant feature of the language than, for instance, the Great Vowel Shift?

3. Approach of Yuri Kostyuchenko

Yu.P. Kostyuchenko offers the following periodization of the History of English:

- I. Period to 449
- II. Period after 449 is subdivided into:
 - a) Old English V-XI centuries
 - b) Middle E XII-XV
 - c) period of formation of the standard language XV-XVII
 - d) New English – the second half of the 17th century up to now

Important Dates:

- 449 – Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain
- 1066 – the Norman Conquest
- 1475 – Introduction of Printing
- 1485 – the Tudors replaced the Yorkists

Old English Period: Historical Background

Outline

1. Pre-Germanic Britain
 - 1.1. Celts
 - 1.2. Roman Britain
2. Germanic Settlement of Britain

1.1. Celts

The earliest inhabitants of the British Isles whose linguistic affiliation has been established are the **Celts**. The first millennium B.C. was the period of Celtic migrations and expansion. Traces of their civilization can be found all over Europe. Celtic languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before our era. Later they were absorbed by other IE languages. The **Gaelic** branch survived as **Irish** in Ireland. It also expanded to Scotland as **Scottish-Gaelic** of the Highlands and is still spoken by some people on the Isle of Man. The Brittonic branch is represented by **Kymric** or **Welsh** in Modern Wales and by **Breton** or **Armorican** spoken in modern France. Another Brittonic dialect in Great Britain is **Cornish**. It was spoken until the end of the 18th century. The major impact of the Celtic language on English has been through the names of places and rivers. Places such as *London*, *Winchester* and rivers such as *Thames* and *Avon* are wholly or partly of Celtic origin. Anyway Celtic has left little mark on English: quite apart from the vocabulary, there is little evidence of any influence on morphology, phonology or syntax.



1.2. Roman Britain

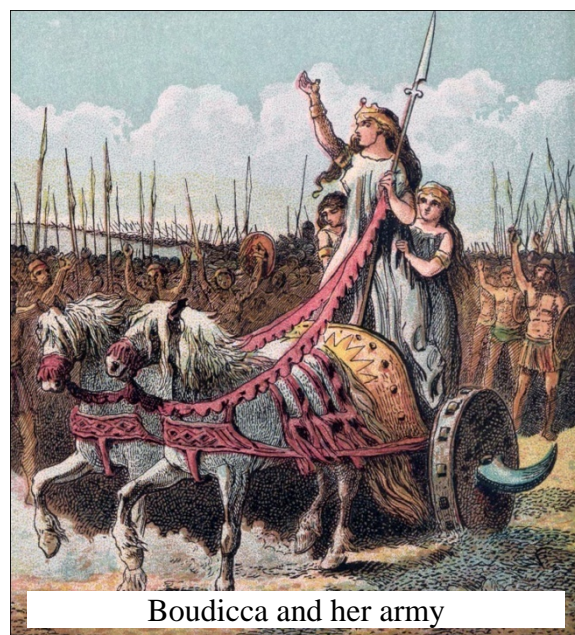


Ancient Britons oppose the Roman landings

Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain in **55** and **54 B.C.** Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons: to obtain tin, pearls and corn. He had some strategic reasons as well. The chief purpose was to discourage the Celts of Britain from coming to the assistance of Celts in Gaul. The expedition of 55 B.C. ended disastrously and his return the following year was not a great success. The resistance of the Celts was unexpectedly spirited. Soon he returned to Gaul. The expedition had resulted in no material gain and some loss of prestige. The following summer he

again invaded the island after much more elaborate preparations. This time he succeeded in establishing himself in the southeast. Julius Caesar exacted tribute from the Celts (which was never paid) and again returned to Gaul. Britain was not again troubled by Roman legions for nearly a hundred years.

In **43 A.D.** Britain was invaded by Roman legions under **Emperor Claudius**. An army of 40 thousand was sent to Britain and within 3 years had subjugated the people of central and southeastern regions. A serious uprising of the Celts occurred in 61 A.D. under Boudicca (Boadicea), the widow of one of the Celtic chiefs. 70 thousand Romans and Romanized Britons were massacred. The Romans never penetrated far into the mountains of Wales and Scotland. They protected the northern boundary by a stone wall stretching across England. The district south this line was under Roman rule for more than 300 years. Britain was



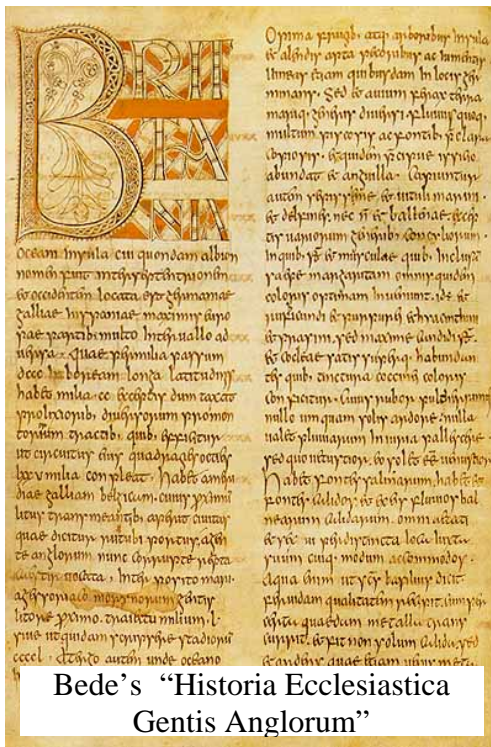
Boudicca and her army

made a province of Roman Empire. Many towns with mixed population grew and London was one of the most important trading centres of Roman Britain. Where the Romans lived and ruled, there Roman ways were found for great highways soon spread from London to the north, the northwest, the west and the southwest. The houses were equipped with heating apparatus and water supply, their floors were paved in mosaic. Roman dress, Roman ornaments and utensils were in general use. By the 3rd century Christianity had made some progress in the island.

The upper classes and the townspeople in the southern districts were Romanised, but rural areas were less Romanised. Population in the north was little affected by the Roman occupation and remained Celtic both in language and custom. Among the other evidences of Romanization must be included the use of the Latin language. A great number of inscriptions have been found, all of them in Latin. The majority of these were military or official class documents. Latin did not replace the Celtic language in Britain. On the whole, there were certainly many people in Roman Britain who habitually spoke Latin or upon occasion could use it. But its use was not sufficiently widespread to cause it to survive, as the Celtic language survived.

The Roman occupation lasted nearly 400 years. It ended in the early 5th century. In **410 A.D.** the Roman troops were officially withdrawn to Rome. The Empire was collapsing due to internal and external causes.

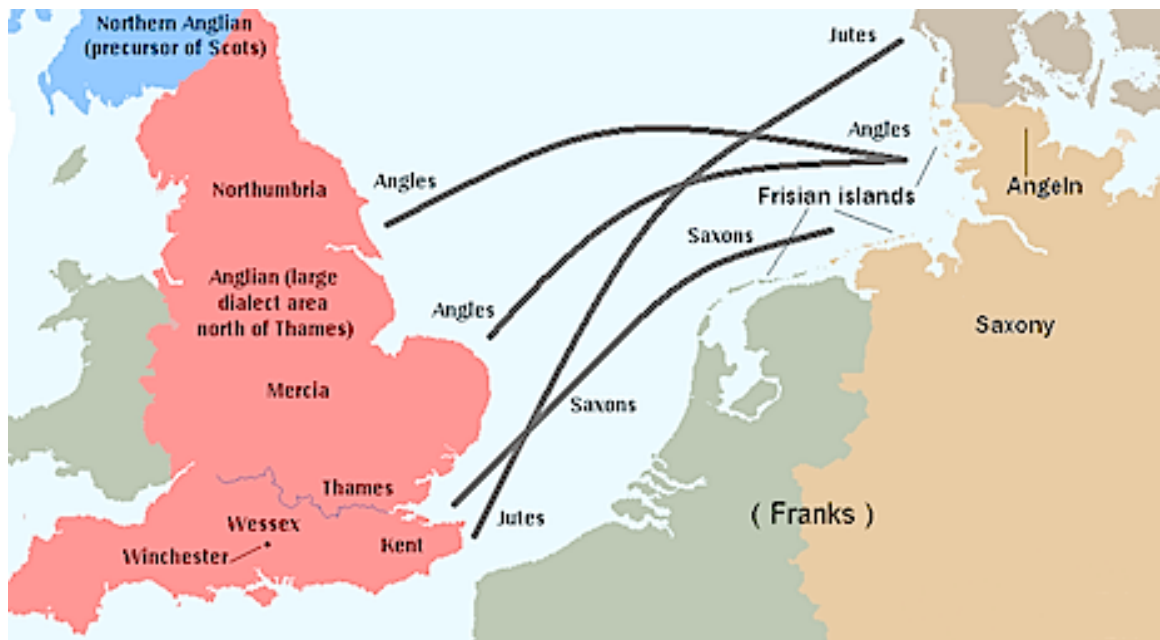
2. Germanic Settlement of Britain



The 5th century is the age of increased Germanic expansion. About the middle of the century several West Germanic tribes invaded Britain and colonized the island by the end of the century. This invasion lasted into the 6th century. The English historian **Bede** (673-735) recorded those events in "**Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum**" (Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation). He wrote that England was colonized by three Germanic tribes: **Angles, Saxons** and **Jutes**. Bede reported that the Saxons were invited by the Romanised British to help them fight against their enemies from the north. Having settled in the east of England the newcomers invited others of their tribes to settle there. It happened in **450 A.D.** While there may be some elements of truth in this, Saxons have

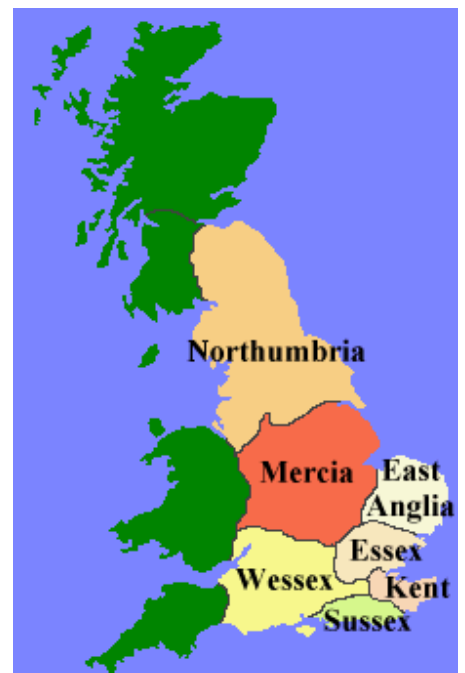
been plundering the east coast of England for many years. When the Roman armies were withdrawn in 410, Britain became more exposed to the attacks.

Traditionally, it has been accepted that **the Angles** occupied the **Midlands** and **north** of the country. **The Saxons** settled all of **Southern England** except Kent and parts of Hampshire and the Isle of Wight. Their name survives in various county and regional names, such as Sussex "South Saxons", Wessex "West Saxons" and so on. **Kent** and the **Isle of Wight** with parts of neighbouring **Hampshire** were settled by **the Jutes**, though the dialect of Kent is referred to as Kentish rather than Jutish.



Anglo-Saxons gradually settled the lands formerly occupied by the Celts. One can assume that after initial settlements in the south-east and East Anglia, the Anglo-Saxons pushed along rivers and the Roman roads. By the end of the 6th c. they had apparently occupied most of England except for the western fringes like Cornwall. In some districts Anglo-Saxons probably settled down beside the Celts in more or less peaceful contact. In others, as in the West Saxon territory, the invaders met with stubborn resistance. Many of the Celts were driven into the west and sought refuge in Wales and Cornwall, and some emigrated across the Channel to Brittany. Civilization that had been attained under Roman influence was largely destroyed. The Roman towns were burnt and abandoned.

At about the middle of the 6th c. it was possible to recognize several distinct regions which lead their own forms of government. This became recognized as the **Heptarchy**, or 7 kingdoms – Wessex, Sussex, Kent, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria. It is these 7 kingdoms which provide the basic for most dialect study of this period, though written remains are not found until the beginning of the 8th c. Politically, no one of these kingdoms was able to achieve supremacy over the others.



The Names of “England” and “English”

The Celts called their Germanic conquerors Saxons indiscriminately. The land was called Saxonica. But soon the terms Angli and Anglia occur besides Saxones and refer not to the Angles individually but to the West German tribes

generally. From the beginning, however, writers in the vernacular never call their language anything but Englisc (English). The word is derived from the name of Angles (OE Engle). The land is called Angelcynn. From about the year 1000 England (land of the Angles) begins to take its place.

The English language of today is the language that has resulted from the history of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes. It is impossible to say how much the speech of the Angles differed from that of the Saxons or that of the Jutes. The differences were certainly slight.

Old English Dialects

The Germanic tribes that settled in Britain in the 5th and 6th c. spoke closely related dialects belonging to the West Germanic group. Eventually they began to use English. But at the early stages of their development the dialects remained disunited. OE dialects acquired certain common features that distinguished them from the continental Germanic languages. They also showed regional divergence. Tribal dialects were transformed into local/regional dialects.



The main four dialects were the following:

Kentish, spoken in the area now known as Kent and Surrey and in the Isle of Wight. This dialect developed from the tongue of the Jutes and Frisians.

West Saxon, spoken in the rest of England south the Thames and the Bristol Channel, except Wales and Cornwall. There Celtic dialects were preserved.

Mercian, spoken in the kingdom of Mercia (the central region, from the Thames to the Humber).

Northumbrian, spoken from the Humber north to the river Forth.

The boundaries between the dialects were not distinct and may be

movable. None of the dialect was dominant, they enjoyed equality.

By the 8th c. the centre of English culture had shifted to Northumbria and the Northumbrian dialect got more prominence.

In the 9th c. the political and cultural centre moved to Wessex and the West Saxon dialect is preserved in a greater number of accounts than all the other dialects. Towards the 11th c. the West Saxon dialect developed into a bookish language.

Old English Written Accounts

Outline

1. Runic Accounts
2. Old English Manuscripts

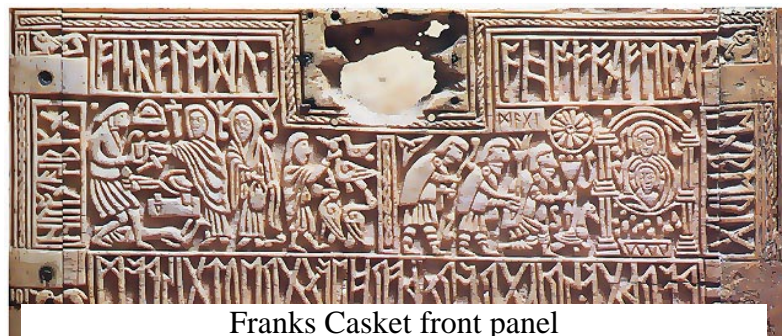
1. Runic Accounts

The earliest written records in English are inscriptions on hard material made in runes. The word “*rune*” originally meant “secret”, “mystery”. Each character indicated a separate sound. But a rune could also indicate a word beginning with that sound and was called by that word. E.g. þ denoted [θ] and [ð]. It was called “thorn” and could stand for Old English word þorn (thorn). In some inscriptions the runes were arranged in a fixed order making a sort of alphabet. It was called **futhork**. The letters are angular, straight lines are preferred. This is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut on hard material: stone, bone or wood. The number of runes was from 28 to 33 (new sounds appeared). The two best known runic inscriptions in England are:



Ruthwell Cross

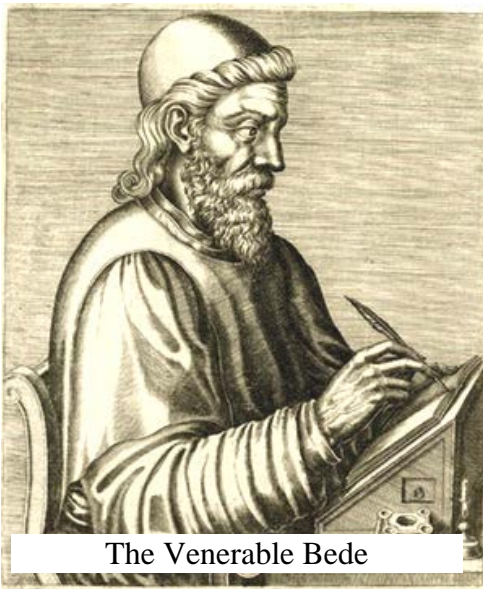
- 1) on a box called the **Franks Casket**
- 2) a short text on a stone cross in Dumfriesshire near the village of Ruthwell known as the “**Ruthwell Cross**”. Both records are in the Northumbrian dialect.



Franks Casket front panel

2. Old English Manuscripts

Compared with other West Germanic peoples, the Anglo-Saxons are exceptional in their early use of writing and in the large amount of writing that survives. Writing in those times was very much the **property of the church** and written texts were largely produced in **monastic scriptoria**. Writing was mostly in **Latin**. Sermons could be delivered orally in English even if they were written down and survive in their written form in Latin. Even so, some writing in English was needed. Names of English places and people had to be written down. Certain traditional features of Anglo-Saxon life, such as the law, would need to reflect the language in which it had been handled down in traditional form to maintain ancient legal practices.



The Venerable Bede

Many documents survived: various wills, grants, deals of purchase, agreements, proceedings of church councils, laws. They are known as **Anglo-Saxon Charters**. The earliest are in **Kentish and Mercian dialects** (8-9th c.). Later laws and charters were written in West Saxon.

Glosses to Gospels and other religious texts were made in monasteries for those who did not know enough Latin.

Bede's **Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum** was written in Latin in the 8th c. but it contains an English fragment of 5 lines known as **Bede's Death Song** and a religious

poem of nine lines **Cædmon's Hymn**.

The greatest poem of the time is **Beowulf** (7th or 8th c.). It was originally composed in the Mercian or Northumbrian dialect, but has come down to us in a West Saxon copy (10th c.). The author is unknown.

The earliest samples of continuous prose are **Anglo-Saxon Chronicles**. These are brief account of the year's happenings made at various monasteries.

Literary prose appeared in the 9th c. which witnessed a flourishing of learning and literature during King Alfred's reign. King Alfred translated from Latin books on geography, history, philosophy. One of his most important contributions is **Orosius's World History**.



Anglo-Saxon Chronicles

Old English Alphabet and Pronunciation

Apart from the runic alphabet, which had been used in earlier Germanic society for inscriptions on all kinds of objects, from weapons to standing stones, the earliest speakers of English were pagan and illiterate. The coming of Christianity in 597 AD introduced Latin literacy to England, which was followed by attempts to render the English language in the letters of the Latin alphabet. Old English forms of the Latin letters were very different from modern printed forms and in addition OE used some letters no longer found in English: ð – eth, ȝ – yogh (it is printed as **g** in modern editions). These two letters were derived from Irish Latin.

þ thorn

ƿ wynn (printed as **w** in modern editions)

æ ash (Latin digraph)

Thorn and eth are equivalent to “th” in the Modern spelling system.

The letters **v** and **z** were not normally used in OE texts, and their roles were filled by **f** and **s**. The letters **f** and **s** stand for voiced fricatives between vowels / a vowel and a voiced consonant. e.g. *ofer* ['ɔvər], *risan* ['ri:zan]

The same with **þ** and **ð**: *oðer* ['ɔ:ðər], *wyrþe* ['wyrðə]

By comparison with Modern English, OE was written relatively “**phonetically**”. So when reading, each letter is individually sounded even double consonants and in the initial position as in *hring*, *hlaford*, *writan*, *cnihht*

Vowels had a similar value to those in Latin.

Ways of Reading Letter ȝ

/g/	before consonants before back vowels in the middle of the word after n	<i>ȝreat</i> <i>ȝuma</i> <i>sinȝan</i>
/g/	after l after r in the middle of the word between back vowels	<i>folȝian</i> <i>sorȝ</i> <i>draȝan</i>
/h/	in the final position after front vowel	<i>dæȝ</i> <i>wæȝ</i>
/j/	in the beginning of the word before front vowel	<i>ȝeong</i> <i>ȝear</i>

OE Phonetic Changes

Outline

1. OE systems of vowels and consonants
2. Breaking (Fracture)
3. Front mutation (i-mutation)
4. Back mutation
5. Lengthening of vowels

1. OE systems of vowels and consonants

During the times of the migration into England and the early settlements, a number of changes in the phonology of the various dialects of English took place. These changes gradually made the pronunciation different from the varieties of Germanic. These changes affect the vowels and diphthongs principally.

The inventory of OE vowels is the following

short	i e u o a
long	i e u o æ

Diphthongs iu eu au ai were long and short.

Old English Inventory of Consonants

Place of articulation		Labial, labiodental		Forelingual (dental)		Medio lingual (palatal)		Back lingual (velar)		
Manner of articulation										
Noise consonants	plosive	voiceless	p	p:	t	t:	k'	k':	k	k:
	voiced		b	b:	d	d:		g':	g	g:
	fricative	voiceless	f	f:	θ	θ:	s	s:	x'	x':
	voiced		v		ð		z		γ (j)	γ
Sonorants			m	m:	n	n:				(ŋ)
			w		r	l		j		

The distinctive feature of OE consonants was difference in length (long :: short). It happened in intervocalic position. Sometimes single and long consonant were found in identical phonetic conditions:

OE læde (1st person singular) and lædde (Past) (to lead)

2. Breaking (Fracture)

This change affected front vowels **i e æ** when they occurred before **r l h** + one near consonant or single **h**.

The front vowels were “broken” into diphthongs

i i > io / eo

e > eo

æ > æa

sehan > *seohan* (see)

sæh > *seah* (saw)

erl > *eorl* (warrior)

3. Front Mutation (i-mutation)

When an original /i/ or /j/ occurred in a syllable following one which contained a back vowel, then the back vowel of the preceding syllable was fronted. /i/ or /j/ mostly disappeared, but it something remains in writing as *i*. The mutation of the back vowels led to the following result:

a → æ

o → e e

u → y y

Goth. *batiza* > OE *bætera*

fodjan > *fedan*

One important effect of this mutation was the creation of *y*, a new, rounded front vowel.

Traces of these changes can be found in many modern English words:

foot – feet

strong – strength

tale – to tell

food – to feed

blood – to bleed

4. Back mutation

Back mutation occurred whereby the short front vowels *æ e i* were diphthongized when the back vowels *u, a* were present in the following syllable, though the former often appears in later written texts as *o*. This change was irregular.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{æ e i} + \text{u} \\ \text{a} \end{array} \left| \right. > \text{diphthongs}$$

e.g. *hefon* > *heafon*

cæru > *cearu* (care)

5. Lengthening of vowels

1. The rejection of nasals before fricatives:

OHG *ʒans* – OE *ʒos*

sinþs – *sip, uns - us*

2. The loss of /h/ before /d/

mæʒden – *mæden*

sæʒde – *sæde*

3. As a result of contraction:

slazan > sleazan > sleaan > slean

OE Consonant Changes

Consonants were more stable than vowels, but certain changes took place in OE period.

1. Palatalisation of Velar Consonants

The velar consonants [k g x γ] were palatalized before a front vowel and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel.

OE *cild* [k] → [kʰ] → (child)

spræc [k] → [kʰ] → (speech)

2. Loss of Consonants

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants. In the process the preceding vowel was nasalized and lengthened.

OHG *uns* → OE *us* (us)

Fricative consonants could be dropped between vowels and before some plosive consonants. The preceding vowel was lengthened or there was the fusion of the preceding and succeeding vowel into a diphthong.

Gothic *slahan* → OE *slean* (slay)

Gothic *saihwan* → OE *seon* (see)

[j] was regularly dropped in suffixes after producing various changes in the root: palatal mutation of vowels, lengthening of consonants after short vowels. The loss of [w] was fixed in some case forms of nouns.

e.g. Nom. *treo* Dat. *treowe* (tree)

Nom. *sæ* Dat. *sæwe* (sea)

Old English Grammar

Outline

1. General Characteristics of Old English Grammar.
2. The OE Noun.
3. The OE Pronoun.
4. The OE Adjective.
5. The OE Adverb.
6. The OE Verb.
7. The OE Verbals.

1. General Characteristics of Old English Grammar

OE was a synthetic (inflected) language. The relations between words and expression of other grammatical meanings were shown with the help of simple (synthetic) grammatical forms. Grammatical endings, or inflections, were the main form-building means.

There were the following parts of speech in OE:

the noun		nominal parts of speech
the adjective		
the pronoun		
the numeral		
the verb		
the adverb		
the preposition		
the conjunction		
the interjection		

There were 5 nominal grammatical categories:

- number
- case
- gender
- degrees of comparison
- categories of definiteness/indefiniteness

Verbal grammatical categories were not many:

tense		verbal categories proper
mood		
number		
person		

2. The OE Noun

OE noun has two grammatical categories: number and case. Nouns also distinguished three forms of gender: masculine, feminine and neuter.

Abstract nouns with suffix –þu were feminine:

e.g. OE *lenzþu* (length)
hyhþu (height)

Nouns with suffix –ere were masculine:

OE *fiscere* (fisher)
bocere (learned man)

OE *wif* (wife) was of neuter gender

mæzden (maiden) was of neuter gender

OE *wifman* (woman) – masculine gender

The category of number consisted of two members: singular and plural.

singular, masculine *sunu* plural – *suna*

singular, feminine *hand* plural – *handa*

The category of case had 4 members: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative.

System of Declension

OE system of declension was based on a number of distinctions:

- the stem – suffix
- the gender of nouns
- the phonetic structure of the word
- phonetic changes in the final syllables

The stem-suffixes could consist of vowels (a-stems i-stems), of consonants (n-stems), of sound sequences (-ja-stems, -nd-stems). Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix. They were called root-stems.

The examples of declensional paradigms

	a-stem		u-stem	n-stem
	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Masculine
Singular				
nom	stan	scip	ziefu	nama
acc	stan	scip	ziefe	naman
gen	stanes	scipes	ziefe	naman
dat	stane	scipe	ziefe	naman
			ziefe	naman
Plural				
nom/acc	stanas	scipu	ziefu	naman
gen	stana	scipa	ziefu	namena
dat	stanum	scipum	ziefum	namum

The traces of a-stem declension in Modern English:

1) 's (possessive case) goes back to the genitive case singular of masculine and neuter gender;

2) –s (plural of nouns) goes back to nominative and accusative case plural of masculine gender nouns;

3) Uninflected forms of plural in Modern E (like “sheep”, “deer”) come from the nouns of neuter gender of the long syllabus type.

3. The OE Pronoun

There were the following classes of pronouns in OE:

- personal
- demonstrative
- interrogative
- indefinite

The grammatic categories were either similar to the categories of the nouns (in pronouns-nouns) or to the adjectives (adjective pronouns)

Relative, possessive and reflexive were not yet fully developed in OE.

The Personal Pronouns

The Personal Pronouns had three persons, three numbers, three genders in the third person.

The first and the second-person personal pronouns declined through the four case system in singular and plural.

First person			
Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nom.	ic	wit	we
Gen	min	uncer	ure, user
Dat.	me	unc	us
Acc.	mec, me	uncit	usic,us
Second person			
Nom.	þu	ʒit	ʒe
Gen	þin	incer	eower
Dat.	þe	inc	eow
Acc.	þec, þe	incit, inc	eowic, eow

The third-person personal pronouns had three genders, four cases, singular and plural.

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
nom	he	heo	hit	hie
acc	hine	hie	hit	hi
gen	his	hire	his	hiera
dat	him	hire	him	him

The oblique cases of personal pronouns + adjective –*self* could serve as reflexive pronouns.

Demonstrative Pronouns

There were the following demonstrative pronouns:

se (masculine) той

þæt (neuter) ƿe
seo (feminine) ta
 Plural *þa*

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All cases
nom	se, se	seo	þæt	þa
acc	þone	þa	þæt	þa
gen	þæs	þære	þæs	þara
dat	þæm	þære	þæm	þæm
instr	þy, þon, þe		þy, þon, þe	

Interrogative Pronouns

hwa (*who*) (masculine and feminine)

hwæt (*what*) (neuter)

They had four-case paradigm. The instrumental case of *hwæt* was used as a separate interrogative word *hwy* (*why*). Such interrogative pronouns as *hwelc*, *hwæþer* (*which*) were used as adjective pronouns.

Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns were many:

an and its derivative *æniȝ* (*one, any*)

nan (*none*)

nanþinȝ (*nothing*)

nawiht / *nowiht* / *noht* (*not*)

hwæt – *hwuzu* (*something*)

4. The OE Adjective

OE adjectives had the categories of numbers, gender and case, degrees of comparison and definite/idefinite.

The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns. They had one more case – Instrumental. It was used when the adjective was an attribute to a noun in the Dative case expressing an instrumental meaning:

lytle werede – with (the help of) a small troop

OE adjectives declined in two ways: according to the weak and according to the strong declension. The endings of **strong** declension coincided with the endings of a-stems of nouns for adjectives in masculine and neuter and of o-stems in the feminine. Some endings in the strong declension of adjectives have no parallels in the noun paradigm; they are similar to the endings of pronouns. The strong declension is called sometimes pronominal.

The **weak** declension used the same ending as n-stem nouns except in the Gen. Case, plural it was *-ra* (but not *-ena*)

Most adjectives could be declined in both ways: strong and weak. It was determined by:

- the syntactical function of the adjective
- the degrees of comparison
- the presence of noun determiners

The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners:

þa menn sindon zode – the men are good

midhnescre beddinze – with soft bedding

The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Genitive case of personal pronouns.

	Strong	Weak
	Masculine	Masculine
Nom.	blind	blinda
Gen.	blindes	blindan
Dat.	blindum	blindan
Acc.	blindne	blindan
Instr.	blinde	blindan

But some adjectives were always declined strong:

eall (all)

maniz (many)

oper (other)

Weak declension had adjectives in the superlative and comparative degrees and the adjective *ilca* (same)

There existed also semantic difference between strong and weak forms of declension. The strong forms were associated with the meaning of **indefiniteness** – corresponded to the meaning of *a/an*.

The weak forms had the meaning of **definiteness** (“**the**”). Weak forms were regularly used together with demonstrative pronouns. This opposition of weak and strong forms gave the ground for A. Smirnitsky to single out the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness.

Degrees of Comparison

OE adjectives had three degrees of comparison:

- positive
- comparative
- superlative

Suffixes *-ra* and *-est/-ost* were used to form the comparative and the superlative degrees.

soft – softra – softost (soft)

weriz – werizra – werizost (weary)

Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by the interchange of the root + vowel:

zlæd – zlædra – zladost (glad)

long – lenzra – lenzest (long)

There were suppletive forms:

god – bettra – bet(e)st (good)

lytel – læssa – læst (little)

micel – mara – mæst (much)

yfel – wiersa – wierest (evil)

5. The OE Adverb

OE adverbs were formed in the following ways:

1) by adding suffix *-e* to the adjectives

Adj+e

wid – wide

sweotul – sweotule

heard – hearde

2) with the help of suffix *-lice* (Modern *-ly*) which was added to the nouns

N+lice

freond – freondlice

3) by adding suffix *-es* to the nouns. (Historically it is the ending of the Genitive Case of the masculine gender a-stem nouns)

N+es

dæg – dæges (вдень)

nyd (необхідність) – *nydes* (за необхідністю)

willa (воля) – *willes* (охотно)

Adverbs formed from the adjectives had the degrees of comparison. The degrees-forming suffixes were: *-or* (for comparative) and *-ost* (for superlative)

6. The OE Verb

The OE verbs were divided into two major categories, the so-called **weak** and **strong** verbs. The weak verbs were a feature of Germanic and were formed by adding an inflectional ending that included a dental or alveolar consonant. The strong verbs were formed by changing the stem vowel. The number of strong verbs inherited from Germanic probably amounted to 300-400 and their number was constantly decreasing.

The Category of Tense

All verbs had two tenses: present and preterite. Other tenses were expressed through adverbs or were understood from the context. The Future Tense may be expressed by the verbs *willan/scullan* + infinitive. E.g. *Wille ic aseczan*.

The Category of Mood

The verb had an infinitive, the present and past participle. In addition to the indicative mood and imperative mood, there was the subjunctive for both tenses. The usage of the Subjunctive Mood was different from its usage in later periods. The subjunctive forms denoted unreal acts or supposition but in a very general way.

Subjunctive was used not only in the conditional sentences, but in the clauses of time, clauses of result and in reported speech. In indirect speech indicative mood forms could occur side by side with subjunctive.

The Category of Person consisted of three forms: the first, the second and the third person (singular and plural)

The Category of Number

The predicate agreed with the subject in number and person.

The Category of Voice

There was no passive. The verbs that were to become auxiliary verbs were mostly notional verbs in the earliest period, though traces of their development towards auxiliaries may be found, particularly in texts translated from or based on Latin. These verbs were mostly anomalous in structure because, as so-called preterite-present verbs, they had formed new present tense forms from old preterits and had formed new preterits. They did not have the forms that were found in other verbs.

The form *hatte* (Past, Singular), infinitive *hattan* (call) had the passive meaning. Passive meaning was usually expressed by the words *beon*, *wesan* (to be), *weorþan* (become) and the Past Participle.

e.g. *þa boc þe is enemned on læden*

Pastoralis – the book which is called Latin “Pastoralis”

þet hus wearð þaforbunden – That house was (got) then burned down.

During the OE period such construction gradually turned into analytical Passive Voice forms.

The Strong Verbs

The strong verbs fall into seven distinct patterns. The patterns are usually indicated through the forms of the infinitive, preterite singular (third person), preterite plural and past participle.

I.	i	a	i	i
	<i>ridan</i>	<i>rad</i>	<i>ridon</i>	<i>ridden</i> (to ride)
II.	eo/u	ea	u	o
	<i>leosan</i>	<i>leas</i>	<i>luron</i>	<i>loren</i> (to lose)
III.	e	æ	u	o
	<i>helpan</i>	<i>healp</i>	<i>hulpon</i>	<i>holpen</i> (to help)
IV.	ea > æ			
	e	æ	æ	o
	<i>beran</i>	<i>bær</i>	<i>bæron</i>	<i>boren</i> (to bear)
V.	e	æ	æ	e
	<i>sprecan</i>	<i>spræc</i>	<i>spræcon</i>	<i>specen</i> (to speak)
VI.	a	o	o	a
	<i>faran</i>	<i>for</i>	<i>foron</i>	<i>faren</i> (to go, to travel)
VII.	This group shows different patterns because it originally consisted of reduplicating verbs. But the vowel or diphthong of the infinitive was repeated in the participle and both forms of the preterite had either <i>e</i> or <i>eo</i> .			
	<i>hatan</i>	<i>het</i>	<i>heton</i>	<i>haten</i> (to be called)

The Weak Verbs

There are three categories of weak verbs. Since the weak verbs form their preterite by adding an inflection which contains *d* or *t* in OE, there is no need to distinguish the preterite singular from its plural, because they differ only in the ending indicating number.

- I. *cepan cepte cepted* (to keep)
- II. *endian endode endod* (to end)
- III. *habban hæfde hæfd* (to have)

The weak verbs are subdivided into three classes on the bases of:

- the Infinitive ending
- the sonority of the suffix
- the sounds preceding the suffix.

Class I

- Infinitive *-an* (seldom *-ian*)
- Past forms *-de/-ede/-t*

- Participle II –*d/-ed/-t*

Subdivision:

- double consonants in the infinitive:
temman – temede – temed (totame)
- vowel interchange in the root:
telan – tealde – teald

Class II:

- Infinitive – *ian*
- Past – *ode*
- Participle II – *od*

Class III:

- Infinitive – *an*
- No vowel before dental suffix
- Past – *de*
- Participle II –*d*

Preterite – Presents Verbs

(past - present)

They were 12 of them. Six of them survived in ModE.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>aʒ</i> (ought) | 7. <i>witan</i> (to know) |
| 2. <i>cunnan cann</i> (can) | 8. <i>þurfan</i> (потребувати) |
| 3. <i>dear (r)</i> (dear) | 9. <i>ʒe-nah</i> (досить) |
| 4. <i>sculan, sceal</i> (shall) | 10. <i>duʒan</i> (годиться) |
| 5. <i>mazan, mæʒ</i> (may) | 11. <i>munan</i> (пам'ятати) |
| 6. <i>mot</i> (must) | 12. <i>unnan</i> (ставитися прихильно) |

Originally they belonged to the strong verbs and formed the Past tense form by the change of the root vowel:

witan – wat – wiste. But in the course of time the Past tense form acquired the meaning of the Present : *wat – знаю*.

They showed attitude to an action denoted by another verb, the infinitive which followed the preterite – present. Eventually they developed into modern modal verbs.

Anomalous Verbs

These verbs have irregular forms. E.g. *willan, don, ʒan, beon, wesan* resembled the preterite – presents in meaning and function. It indicated an attitude to an action and was often followed by the infinitive.

þa ðe willaʒ mines forsiðes fæʒnian – those who wish to rejoice in my death

Eventually *willan* became a modal verb.

Some verbs combined the features of weak and strong verbs. Past tense of OE *don* was formed with a vowel interchange and the Participle in – n: *don – dyde – zedon (to do)*

Two OE verbs were suppletive: they are *beon* and *wesan*

OE *zan* – *eode* – *ze-zan* (to go)

Beon (be) 1st p. sing *eom*, *beo*

2nd p. *eart*, *bist*

The Past tense was built from the root *wes*

Wesan – *wæs* – *wæron* - *weren*

7. OE Verbals

There were two non-finite forms: the Infinitive and the Participle.

The Infinitive

It had no verbal categories but had some nominal. As a verbal noun by origin, the infinitive had two case system: the Nominative and the Dative case:

drifan (to drive) (Uninflected Nominative)

to drifanne (Inflected Dative)

The form *to drifanne* indicated direction or the purpose of the action (in order to drive)

Uninflected Infinitive was used in the phrases with the verbs that turned into modal or anomalous verbs:

þu meaht sinzan – you may sing

þa ouzon he sona sinzan – then began he soon to sing

The Participle

It had both verbal and nominal characteristics. Participle I was opposed to Participle II through voice and tense distinctions: Participle I is active and expresses present or simultaneous process. Participle II has passive meaning and denotes the state/quality resulting from past action. Participle II of intransitive verbs has active meaning.

Participle I is formed from the Infinitive with the help of suffix *-ende*

Participle I: *drifende* (driving) (infinitive *drifan*)

Participle II has its own stem. If it was a strong verb there was a vowel interchange and suffix *-en*. From weak verbs Participle II had *-d/-t*. As a rule Participle II had the prefix *-ze*.

Participle II (*ze*) – *drifen* (driven)

Participles were used predicatively and attributively. If used attributively participles were declined weak and strong and agreed with nouns in number, gender and case:

Ic nat hwænne mine dazas azane beoþ – I don't know when my days are gone.

Azane agrees with *dazas*.

OE Syntax Outline

1. The order of sentence elements.
2. Multiple negation.
3. Compound and complex sentences.

1. The order of sentence elements

OE was primarily a spoken language, therefore the written forms of the language resembled oral speech. The syntax of the sentence was relatively simple. Complicated syntactical constructions were rare.

In Germanic the order of sentence elements was usually SOV, but this was no longer the rule in OE. The word order of sentence elements in OE is mixed, though there was a tendency to put the verb in second position. This often led to a SVO order, except that when an adverbial came at the beginning of a sentence, this provided an AVSO order to give a clause like *þa cwæð sum oðer deofol* (said another devil). Whereas in Germanic the object had tended to precede the verb, in OE this was no longer the case, and more often than not the object followed the verb either directly or after the subject. This is by no means invariable and there were two clausal arrangements where it was infrequent. The first is where the verb consisted of an auxiliary element and infinitive or participle. In this situation it was frequent to have the order S – aux – OV as in *we sceolon eac Cristes acennednysse ... wurðian* (we must also honour Christ's birth). The second is in subordinate clauses where the verb was commonly placed at the end of the clause, as in *þæt hi heora lare zymon* (that they attended to their instruction). Because of these variations there is a dispute among scholars what the precise word-order patterns were in OE. It was not a verb-second language and it did not retain the SOV order. OE was in transitional stage moving from SOV to SVO, though with a preference for AVSO.

2. Multiple Negation

One of the characteristic features of OE syntax was multiple negation within a simple sentence or clause. The most common negative particle was *ne*. It was placed before the verb. It was often accompanied by other negative words: *naht* or *noht*. These words reinforced the meaning of negation:

Ne con ic noht sinzan ... ic naht sinz an ne cuðe (I cannot sing (I cannot sing nothing))

3. Compound and Complex Sentences

Compound and complex sentences existed in the English language since earliest times. But many constructions in early original prose were disorderly and looked clumsy.

Coordinate clauses were mostly joined by *and*, a conjunction of a most general meaning:

And þa ouzgat se cyninz þæt ond he, on þa duru eode, and þa unbeanlice hine werede

And then the king saw that, and he went to the door, and then bravely defended himself

Repetition of connectives at the head of each clause was common in complex sentences:

þa he þær to zefaren wæs, þa eodon hie to hiora scipum

then (when) he came there, then they went to their ship

The pronoun and conjunction *þæt* was used to introduce object clauses and adverbial clauses, alone or with other form-words:

oððæt (until)

ær þæm þe (before)

þæt (so that)

Some clauses were joined *asyndetically*.

OE Vocabulary

Outline

1. Native OE words
 - 1.1. Common IE words
 - 1.2. Common Germanic words
 - 1.3. Specifically OE words
2. Borrowed words (loan-words)
 - 2.1. Borrowing from Celtic
 - 2.2. Latin Borrowings
3. Word-building in OE
 - 3.1. Derivation
 - 3.2. Word-Composition

1. Native OE Words

A.I. Smirnitsky, M. Pei think that the total vocabulary of OE range from 30 thousand to 100 thousand. 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.

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

- common IE words;
- common Germanic words;
- specifically OE words.

1.1. Common IE words

Common IE words are the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of the human body, terms of kinship.

E.g. nouns:	adjectives:	verbs:
<i>mere</i> (sea)	<i>neowe</i> (new)	<i>sawan</i> (sow)
<i>mona</i> (moon)	<i>zeonȝ</i> (young)	<i>sittan</i> (sit)
<i>treow</i> (tree)	<i>riht</i> (right)	<i>beran</i> (bear)
<i>næȝl</i> (nail)		<i>teran</i> (tear)

1.2. Common Germanic words

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group.

This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common IE words. The ratio is 1:2.

Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history, i.e. in PG when the Teutonic tribes lived close together. Semantically these words are connected with nature, sea and everyday life:

E.g. nouns:	verbs:	adjectives:
<i>hand</i> (hand)	<i>sinzan</i> (sing)	<i>earm</i> (poor)
<i>sand</i> (sand)	<i>findan</i> (find)	<i>zrene</i> (green)
<i>eorþe</i> (earth)	<i>macian</i> (make)	
<i>fox</i> (fox)	<i>steorfan</i> (die)	

1.3. Specifically OE words

The next etymological layer of native words can be defined as specifically OE that is words which do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words are few:

- clipian* (call)
- brid* (bird)
- wifman* (woman)
- hlaford* (loaf)
- weard* (keeper)

2. Borrowed Words (Loan Words)

Borrowed words constituted only a small portion of the OE vocabulary (about 600 words). OE borrowing came from two sources: Celtic and Latin.

2.1. Borrowings from Celtic

Many borrowings from Celtic are to be found in place-names. OE kingdoms Kent, Deira and Bernicia derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes.

Such proper names as Exe, Esk, Usk, Avon, Evan go back to Celtic.

Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids. The Celtic component is combined with a Latin or a Germanic component:

<i>Celtic plus Latin</i>	<i>Celtic plus Germanic</i>
Man – chester	York – shire
Win – chester	Salis – bury
Wor – cester	Lich – field
Lan – caster	Devon – shire
	Canter – bury

2.2. Latin Borrowings

Latin words entered the English language at different stages of OE history. Early OE borrowings from Latin indicate the new things and concepts learned from the Romans. They pertain to war, trade, agriculture, building and home life:

ceapian (to trade)

pund (pound)

ynce (inch)

mynet (coin)

win (wine)

butere (butter)

mil (mile)

Among the Latin loan-words were some place-names or components of place-names used by the Celts:

caster
ceaster > camp

colonia
port > settlement for soldiers

After introduction of Christianity (597 AD) numerous Latin words appeared in OE.

apostol (apostle)

antefn (anthem)

biscop (bishop)

candel (candle)

munuc (monk)

3. Word-building in OE

OE employed two ways of word-formation:

- derivation
- word composition

3.1. Derived words were built with the help of affixes: prefixes and suffixes. In addition to these words were distinguished with the help of sound interchange and word stress.

Sound interchange in the root was frequent. But it was not used alone but combined with suffixation.

E.g. *ridan* (verb) – *rad* (noun)

sinzan (verb) – *sonz* (noun)

The use of consonant interchange was far more restricted than the use of vowels.

E.g. *risan* – *ræran* (rise, rear) (Verner’s Law + Rhotacism)

Prefixation was a productive way of building new words in OE. Some OE prefixes go back to IE prototypes (*un-*). Many prefixes appeared in PG: e.g. *mis-*, *be-*, *ofer-*

Prefixes were widely used with verbs but were far less productive with other parts of speech.

E.g. *zan* (go) *a – zan* (go away)

be – zan (go round)

fore – zan (precede)

The most frequent and probably the most productive were such OE prefixes: *a-*, *be-*, *for-*, *fore-*, *ze-*, *ofer-*, *un-*.

The prefix modified the lexical meaning of the word, usually without changing its reference to a part of speech:

E.g. *dæd* (crime) – *un-dæd* (deed), (noun)

Suffixation was the most productive means of word derivation in OE. Suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of the word but could refer it to another part of speech. Suffixes were mostly used in forming nouns and adjectives, but seldom – in forming verbs. Noun-forming suffixes are divided into suffixes of “*agent nouns*” and those of *abstract nouns*.

Agent nouns forming suffixes:

•unproductive-*a*, e.g. *hunta* (hunter)

-o/-end, e.g. *freond* (friend)

OE agent nouns in *-ere* were derived from nouns and verbs:

E.g. *bocere* (a learned man)

fiscere (fisher)

bæcere (baker)

Nouns in *-ere* were masculine, the corresponding suffix of feminine nouns *-estre* was less common: *bæcestre* (female baker)

Suffix *-inȝ* was used to build patronymics and to show the descend of a person: *Centinȝ* – a man coming from Kent

Abstract nouns suffixes. The most productive were:

-þu: *brad* (adj) – *brædþu* (broad – breadth)

lanȝ – *lenȝþu* (long – length)

Another productive suffix which formed abstract nouns from adjectives was *-nes/-nis*: *blindnis* (blindness), *druncennis*, *unrihtwisnes* (in justice).

Another productive suffix *-ung/-ing* was used to build abstract nouns from verbs: *wilnian* – *wilnung* (desire)

A most important feature of OE suffixation is the growth of new suffixes from root-morphemes. The second components of compound words turned into suffixes and the words were transformed from compound to derived. To this group belong OE *-dom*, *-had*, *-lac*, *-scipe*, *ræden*

E.g. *freodom* (free choice, freedom, dom = choice, honour)

wisdom (wisdom)
cristendom (Christianity)
cildhad (childhood, had = title)
wedlac (wedlock, lac = gift)

3.2. Word-composition.

It was a highly productive way of vocabulary development in OE. It was common to all IE languages but in none of the groups has it become as widespread as in Germanic. Word-composition in OE was more productive in nominal parts of speech than in verbs.

Compound nouns had various first components – stems of nouns, adjectives and verbs, their second components were nouns.

Type **N + N** was the most productive

- E.g. *mann – cynn* (mankind)
boc – cræft (literature)
sonz – cræft (poetry)
heafod – weard (leader)

A + N

Compound nouns with adjective-stems were less productive:

- E.g. *wid – sæ* (ocean, “wide sea”)
Ʒod – dæd (“good deed”)

V + N, Adverb + N

Compound nouns with verb and adverb-stems were rare:

- E.g. *bæc – hus* (baking house)
inn – Ʒanz (entrance)

A + N

Compound adjectives were formed by joining a noun-stem to an adjective:

- E.g. *dom – Ʒeorn* (eager for glory)
mod – ceariƷ (sorrowful)

Middle English Period Outline

1. Historical Background:
 - 1.1. The Scandinavian Invasion.
 - 1.2. The Norman Conquest.
2. Early ME Dialects and the Rise of the London Dialect.
3. ME Literature.
4. Introduction of Printing.

In early Middle English the differences between the regional dialects increased. Dialectal differences in early Middle English were accentuated by such historical events as the Scandinavian invasion and the Norman Conquest.

1.1. The Scandinavian Invasion



The Scandinavian Invasion embraces over two centuries. The British Isles were ravaged first by Danes and later by Norwegians in the 8-th century. By the end of the 9-th century the Danes obtained permanent settlement in England. More than half of England was recognized as Danish territory – “Danelaw”. In the early years of the occupation the Danish settlements were little more than armed camps. Later the Danes began to bring their families. The new settlers and English intermarried and intermixed. They lived close together and they intermingled easily as there was no linguistic barrier between them. OE and Old Scandinavian belonged to the Germanic group of languages and at that time

were close. The intermixture of the newcomers and English continued from the 9-th century on, during two hundred years.

Scandinavian Place-Names

In the areas of the heaviest settlement the Scandinavians outnumbered the Anglo-Saxon population. In Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, Northumberland, Cumberland up to 75% of the place-names are Danish and Norwegian. More than 1400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavian origin with the element *thorp* “village”. e.g. *Althorp*, *Woolthorp*, *Linthorp* or *toft* “a piece of land”. e.g. *Brimtoft*, *Lowestoft*, *Eastoft*, *Nortoft*.

Many place-names contain the word *thwaite* (an isolated piece of land): *Applethwaithe*, *Braithwaite*, *Cowperthwaite*.

Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically.

Due to the contacts and mixture of Old Scandinavian with chiefly Northumbrian and East Mercian, these dialects acquired Scandinavian features.

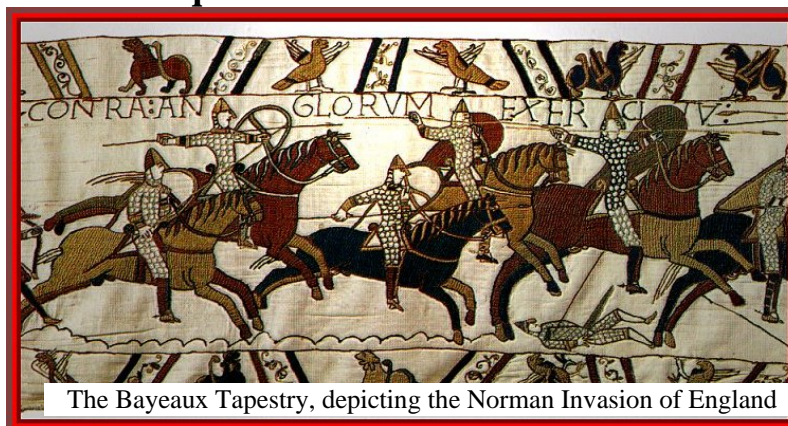
Native or Borrowed

It is difficult to decide whether a word in Modern E is a native or a borrowed one because of the similarity between Old E and the language of the Scandinavian invaders. Many of the common words of the two languages were identical. But in some case there are very reliable criteria by which we can recognize a borrowed word. The most reliable depend on differences in the development of certain sounds in the North Germanic and West Germanic areas. One of the simplest to recognize is the development of the sound *sk*. In Old E it was early palatalized to /ʃ/ (written as *sc*), except in the combination *scr*, but in the Scandinavian countries it retained its hard *sk* sound. So while native words like *ship*, *shall*, *fish* have *sh* in Modern E, words borrowed from the Scandinavian are generally still pronounced with *sk*: *sky*, *skin*, *skill*, *scrape*, *scrub*, *bask*. The OE *scyrthe* has become a *shirt*, while the corresponding ON form *skyrta* gives us *skirt*. The retention of hard pronunciation of *k* and *g* in such words as *kid*, *dike*, *get*, *give*, *gild*, *egg* is an indication of Scandinavian origin.

There existed in Middle E the form *geit*, *gait* which are from Scandinavian, beside *gat*, *got* from the OE word. The native word has survived in Modern E *goat*.

But modern word *bloom* could come equally well from OE *bloma* or Scandinavian *blom*. But the OE word meant an “ingot of iron”, whereas the Scandinavian word meant “flower, bloom”. It happens that the OE word has survived as a term in metallurgy, but it is the Old Norse word that has come down in ordinary use.

1.2. The Norman Conquest



The Norman Conquest had a greater effect on the English language than any other in the course of history.

The Norman Conquest began in 1066. By origin the Normans were a Scandinavian tribe that two centuries back began their inroads on the northern part of France and they finally occupied the territory on the both banks of the Seine. The territory occupied by the Normans was called Normandy. Normandy is a district extending 75 miles back from the Channel across from England on

the northern coast of France. The Normans adopted the French language and culture. When the Normans came to Britain they brought the French language with them.

In 1066 when Edward the Confessor died after a reign of 24 years Harold Godwin was proclaimed king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy he landed in Britain.

In the battle of Hastings (October 1066) Harold was killed and the English were defeated. This date is the date of the Norman Conquest. After the victory at Hastings William was crowned king. William and his barons laid waste many lands and burned down many towns and villages. Northumbria and Mercia were almost depopulated. Most of the lands of the Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of the Normans barons.

After the conquest hundreds of French crossed the channel and made their home in Britain.



The Norman Conquest was one of the greatest events in the history of the English language. The most immediate consequence of the Norman domination in Britain is the wide use of the French language in many spheres of life. For almost 3 hundred years French was the official language of

- administration;
- the king's court;
- the law courts;
- the church;
- the army.

It was the everyday language of :

- many nobles;
- the higher clergy;

- many townspeople in the South.

The intellectual life, literature, education were run by French-speaking people. French and Latin were the languages of writing. For teaching French was used too and translations from Latin were done into French.

It is true that English was an uncultivated tongue, the language of a socially inferior class.

But the greater part of the population used their native tongue: lower classes in the towns, people in the country-side. In Midlands and up north people continued to speak English and French was foreign to them. That English survived for a considerable time in some monasteries is evident from the fact that at Peterborough the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was continued until 1154. Among churchmen the ability to speak English was apparently fairly common. But most of the people were illiterate and the English language was used exclusively as a spoken one.

But slowly the two languages began to permeate each other. Probably many people became bilingual and had a fair command of both languages. According to some sources William the Conqueror made an effort himself at the age of 43 to learn English, that he might understand and render justice in the disputes.

But these linguistic conditions were gradually changing as English was the living language of the whole population but French was restricted to some social spheres and to writing. In the 13-th century only a few steps were made for English to get the victory.

The earliest recognition of English by the Norman kings was “Proclamation” issued by Henry III in 1258. It was written in three languages: French, Latin and English.



Henry IV, King of England

In 1362 the English language became the language of the Parliament, courts of law and at the end of the century - the language of teaching.

King Henry IV (1399 – 1413) was the first king after the conquest whose native tongue was English.

The 300 years of French domination affected English greatly. The early French borrowings reflect the spheres of Norman influence upon English life. Late borrowings are attributed to the cultural, economic and political contacts between the countries. New words, coming from French, were not adopted simultaneously by all English speakers. They were first used in some varieties (in dialects of Southern England). This resulted in

growing dialectal differences.

2. Early Middle English Dialects and the Rise of the London Dialect

The regional ME dialects developed from OE dialects. The following dialect groups are distinguished in Early ME:

The Southern group

- the Kentish dialect (extended its area)
- the South – Western dialect (a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects but not only West Saxon but also East Saxon. The East Saxon dialect was not prominent in OE but it became very important in Early ME and it made the basis of the dialect of London in the 12-th and the 13-th centuries.

The group of Midland (Central) dialects – corresponding to the OE Mercian dialect

- West Midland
- East Midland

In ME the Midland area became more diversified linguistically than the OE Mercian kingdom. But it occupied approximately the same territory: from the Thames in the South to the Welsh-speaking area in the west and up north to the river Humber.

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

In Early ME, while the state language and the main language of literature was French, the local dialects were relatively equal. In Late ME, when English had been reestablished as the main language of administration and writing, the London dialect prevailed over the others.



The Rise of the London Dialect

The history of London goes back to the Roman period. Even in OE times London was the biggest town in Britain, although the capital of Wessex (the main OE kingdom) was Winchester. The capital was transferred to London a few years before the Norman Conquest.

The early ME records made in London (beginning with the Proclamation of 1258) show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon. In terms of the ME division it belonged to the South-Western dialect group. Later records indicate that the speech of London

was becoming more mixed and East Midland features prevailed over the Southern features. Most of the people who came to London after 1/3 of

population of Britain died in the epidemics in the middle of the 14-th century were from East Midlands. So Londoners' speech became close to the East Midland dialect. The documents produced in London in late 14-th century show obvious East Midland features. The mixed dialect of London extended to two universities: Oxford and Cambridge and it ousted French from official spheres and from writing.

In the latter part of the 15th century the London dialect had been accepted as a standard, at least in writing in most parts of the country.

3. ME Literature

The literature written in England during the ME period reflects fairly accurately the changing fortunes of English. During the time that French was the language best understood by the upper classes, the books were in French. All of continental French literature was available for their enjoyment. The literature in English that has come down to us from the period 1150-1250 is almost exclusively religious or admonitory. The Ancrene Riwe, the Ormulum (c.1200), a series of paraphrases and interpretations of Gospel passages, and a group of saints' lives are the principal works.

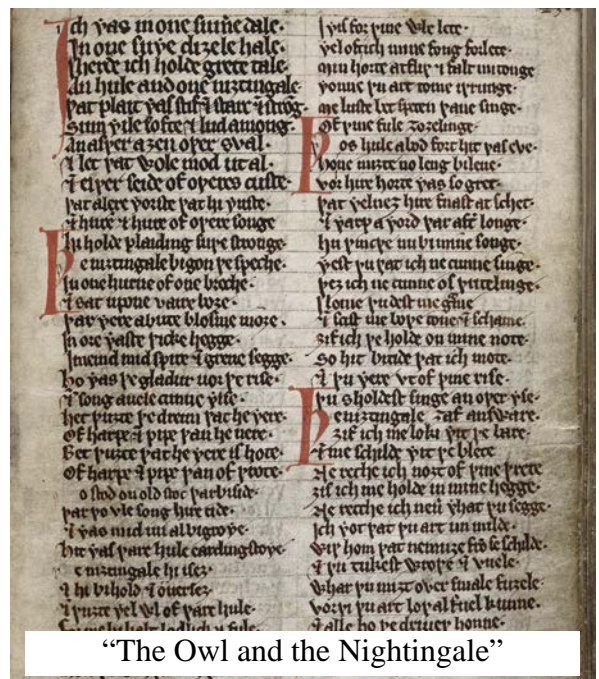
“The Owl and the Nightingale” (c. 1195) is a long poem in which two birds exchange recriminations in the liveliest fashion. The hundred years from 1150 to 1250 have been justly called *the Period of Religious Record*.

The separation of the English nobility from France by about 1250 and the spread of English among the upper class is manifested in the next hundred years of English literature. Romance appeared at that time.

The period from 1250 to 1350 is a *Period of Religious and Secular Literature* in English and indicates clearly the wider diffusion of the English language.

The general adoption of English by all classes, which had taken place by the latter half of the 14th century, gave rise to a body of literature that represents the high point in English literary achievement in the Middle Ages. The period from 1350 to 1400 is called *the Period of Great Individual writers*. The chief name is that of *Geoffrey Chaucer* (1340 – 1400).

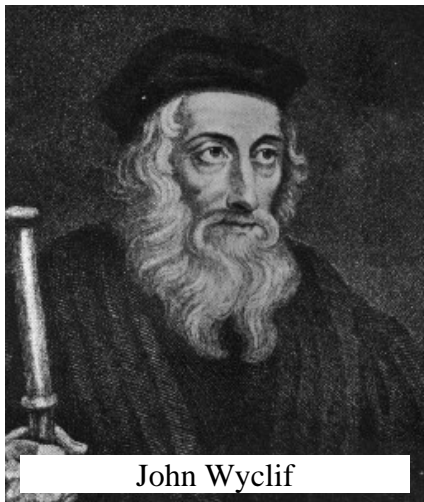
The flourishing of literature (the second half of the 14-th century) testifies to the complete reestablishment of English in writing. Most of the authors used the London dialect which by the end of the 14-th century had become the principal language used in literature.



“The Owl and the Nightingale”

Numerous manuscripts of the late 14-th century belong to different genres. Poetry was more prolific than prose. Translations also continued. This period of rapid development of literature is called the “*age of Chaucer*”.

One of the prominent authors was *John de Trevisa of Cornwall*. In 1387 he completed the translation of seven books on world history. It was *Polychronicon* by R. Higden. It was translated from Latin into the South-Western dialect.



John Wyclif

The most important contribution to the English prose was *John Wyclif’s* translation of the *Bible* in the London dialect (1384). Wyclif’s Bible was copied and read by many people all over the country.

The main poets besides Chaucer were *John Gower* (*Vox Clamatis* “The Voice of Crying in the Wilderness” in Latin), *William Langland* (“The Vision Concerning Piers the Plowman”, three versions, 1362 – 1390).

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340 – 1400) was the most outstanding figure of the time. In many books on the history of the English literature he is called the founder of the literary language. His greatest work is unfinished collection of stories “The Canterbury Tales”. His poems were copied so many times that over 60 manuscripts of “The Canterbury Tales” have survived to this day.



Geoffrey Chaucer

Chaucer’s literary language based on the mixed London dialect is considered to be classical ME. In the 15-th and the 16-th centuries it became the basis of the national literary English language.

The opening lines of the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales by G. Chaucer (late 14-th c.)

- (1) Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote
/xwan 'θat ap'rillə 'wiθ his 'ʃu:rəs 'so:tə/
- (2) the droghte of March hath perced to the roote,
/θə 'druxt of mɑ:ʃ hɑθ 'pərsəd 'to: θə 'ro:tə/
- (3) And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
/and 'bɑ:ðəd 'evri 'vein in 'switʃ li ku:r/
- (4) Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
/of xwitʃ ver'tju: en'dzendrəd 'is θə 'flu:r/

When April with his sweet showers
The draught of March has pierced to the root,
And bathed every vein in such liquor,

Of which (whose) virtue (power) engendered is the flower;

4. Introduction of Printing

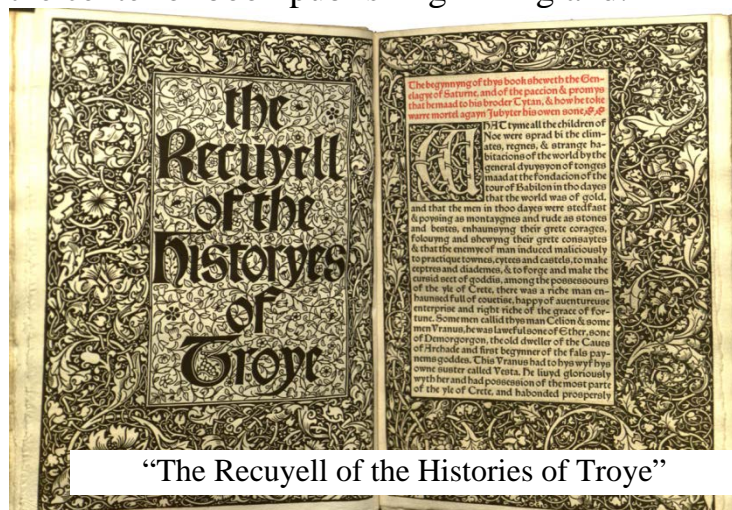
The invention of printing had immediate effect on the language development. Printing was invented in 1438 in Germany by Johann Gutenberg. The first printer of English books was William Caxton who learned the method of printing during his first visit to Cologne and in 1473 he opened his own printing press in Bruges.



“The Canterbury Tales”

The first English book was printed in 1475. It was Caxton’s translation of the story of Troy. A few years later he brought his press to England and set it up in Westminster, not far from London. Among the earliest publications were the poems of Geoffrey Chaucer. In preparing manuscripts for publication William Caxton and his followers edited them and brought them into conformity with the London form of English. In such a way Caxton’s spelling was more normalized than the chaotic spelling of the manuscripts. The written form of many words remains unchanged to the present day in spite of many changes in the pronunciation. Caxton’s spelling reproduced the spelling of the preceding century and was conservative even in his days.

With the introduction of printing a new influence of great importance in the dissemination of London English came into play. From the beginning London has been the center of book publishing in England.



“The Recuyell of the Histories of Troye”

ME Spelling Changes

The system of letters inherited from OE was modified in the course of time and enriched by foreign traditions.

In ME the runic letters passed out of use:

þ(thorn) and **ð(eth)** were replaced by the digraph **th**

ƿ(wynn) was replaced by “double u” **w**

æ(æsh) was no longer used and was replaced by **e, ea, e**

ȝ(yogh) was replaced by **g** (OE ȝod → ME god)

After 1300 **ȝ** representing /j/ was gradually replaced by **y** when **ȝ** represented a velar or a palatal spirant it was replaced by **gh**: e.g. *right, brought*.

Sometimes **h** alone replaced **ȝ** as in *riht, briht, brouht*.

Many innovations in ME spelling testify to the influence of French. The digraphs **ou, ie** and **ch** which occurred in many French borrowings were adopted to indicate sounds [**u:**], [**e:**] and [**tʃ**].

E.g. ME double ['dʊblə]

out[u:t]

chief[tʃe:f]

child[tʃi:ld]

much[mʊtʃ]

The letters “**j**”, “**k**”, “**v**”, “**q**” were probably first used in imitation of French manuscripts. The use of “**g**” and “**c**” which has survived today goes back to French. These letters stood for [**dʒ**] and [**s**] before front vowels and for [**g**], [**k**] before back.

Other changes cannot be traced directly to French influence. There was a tendency to wider use of digraphs:

• sh (*ssh, sch*) to indicate [ʃ]

ME ship – OE scip

• dg [dʒ]

ME edge [edʒə]

• wh replaced OE *hw*

ME what [hwat] – OE hwæt

Long sounds were shown by **double letters**.

e.g. ME book [bʊ:k]

Long [**e:**] could be indicated by **ie** and **ee**

o was used not only for [**o**] but also to indicate short [**ʊ**] alongside with the letter **u**. Thus OE munuc > ME monk [mʊŋk].

The letter **y** was used as an equivalent of **i** and it was preferred when **i** could be confused with the surrounding letters **m, n** and others.

w was interchangeable with **u** in the digraphs **ou, au**.

e.g. ME doun, down [du:n]

and **w** was preferred in final position:

ME how[hu:]

now[nu:]

Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling

<i>Letters indicating vowels</i>	<i>Letters indicating consonants</i>
Single letters	
a /a/ y, as well as i /i/ o /o/ or /u/	c /s/ or /k/ f /f/ g /dʒ/ or /g/ j /dʒ/ k /k/ s /s/ or /z/ v (often spelt as u) /v/ y /j/
Digraphs	
ee /e:/ or /ɛ:/ ie /e:/ oo /o:/ or /ɔ:/ ou /u:/ or /ou/ ow /u:/ or /ou/	ch, tch /tʃ/ dg /dʒ/ gh /x/ or /x̣/ qu /kw/ th /θ/ or /ð/ sh, sch, ssh /ʃ/ wh /hw/

Changes in Phonetic System

Outline

1. Word Stress
2. Vowel Changes
 - 2.1. Unstressed vowels
 - 2.2. Stressed Vowels
 - 2.3. Quantitative Changes
 - 2.4. Qualitative Changes
 - 2.5. Diphthongs
3. Consonants
 - 3.1. Evolution of Consonants
 - 3.2. Loss of Consonants

1. Word Stress

In OE stress as a rule was on the first syllable of the word, rarely on the second syllable. That is the prefix or the root were stressed but the suffixes and endings were unstressed. Word stress in OE was fixed. It didn't move in inflection and rarely in derivation.

In ME period the word stress acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the assimilation of the loan words (especially from French). When they first appeared in the English language they probably retained their original stress – on the ultimate syllable. This kind of stress couldn't be preserved for long. The loan words were assimilated and the stress moved closer to the beginning of the word.

M.E. vertu [vər 'tju:] → NE virtue ['vɜ:tʃə]

2. Vowel Changes

2.1. Unstressed vowels

In Early ME the pronunciation of unstressed syllables became increasingly indistinct. In OE there were five short vowels in an unstressed position [e, i, a, o, u]

Late ME had only two vowels: [ə] and [ɪ]

OE fiscas – ME fishes ['fɪʃəz]

OE rison – ME risen ['rɪzən]

The occurrence of only two vowels [ə] and [ɪ] in unstressed final syllables is an important mark of ME. It distinguishes ME on the one hand from OE with its greater variety of unstressed vowels, and, on the other hand, from New English when ME final [ə] was dropped. The final [ə] disappeared in Late ME but it continued to be spelt as **e**. In the London dialect of Chaucer's time it was unstable. It could be easily missed out before the following initial vowel or when required by rhythm. When the ending **e** survived only in spelling, it was

understood as means of showing the length of the vowel in the preceding syllable and was added to the words which did not have this ending before:

OE stan – ME stoon, stone

But new unstressed vowels appeared in borrowed words or developed from stressed ones, as a result of various changes:

e.g. vocalization of [r] writer [er] → [ə]

actor [or] → [ə]

2.2. Stressed Vowels

Stressed vowels changed in quality and in quantity. Not a single OE monophthong or diphthong remained unchanged in the course of history.

Long vowels were the most changeable and historically unstable. They had a strong tendency to become narrower and to diphthongize, but short vowels displayed a reverse trend – towards greater openness.

2.3. Quantitative Changes

In OE quantity was the main basis of correlation in the vowel system: short vowels were opposed to long ones. Vowel length was an inherited feature as OE short vowels developed from PG short vowels. In late OE and Early ME vowel length began to depend on phonetic condition.

1. Short vowels were lengthened before **ld**, **nd**, **mb** unless followed by a third consonant (9-th c.)

OE wild > ME wild [wi:ld]

2. All other groups of two or more consonants made the preceding long vowels short (11-th c.).

OE cepte > ME kepte ['keptə]

3. Short vowels became long in open syllables (**mainly [e], [a], [o]**)

(12-th – 13-th c.)

OE open > ME open ['ɔ:pən]

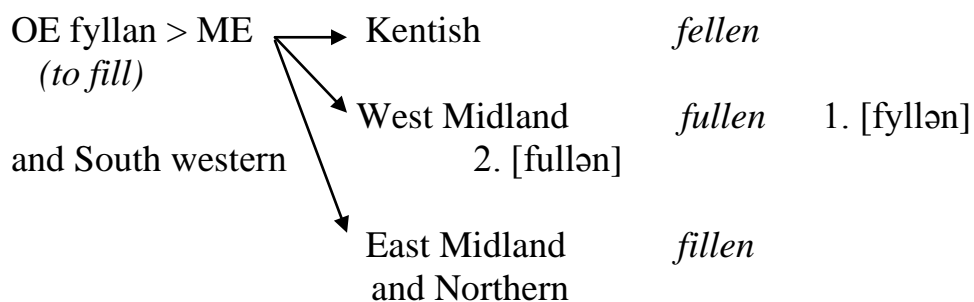
OE namu > ME name ['nɑ:mə]

2.4. Qualitative Changes

1. OE [y], [y:] disappeared in ME merging with various sounds in different dialects:

In Kentish [e] [e:]

South-West, west Midlands [u] [u:]



2. OE [ɑ:] was narrowed to [ɔ:] (all long monophthongs became closer)

[ɑ:] > [ɔ:] in all the dialects except the Northern group

OE stan > ME *stoon, stone* ['stɔ:n(ə)]

(stone)

Northern *stan(e)*

ME [ɔ:] must have been a more open vowel than long [o:] inherited from OE

3. OE short [æ] > ME back [a]

e.g. OE þæt > ME that [a]

OE ærm > ME arm [a]

OE blæcu > ME blak [a]

2.5. Diphthongs

One of the most important sound changes of the Early ME period was the loss of OE diphthongs and the growth of new ones. OE diphthongs were contracted to monophthongs:

OE [ea] > ME [ɛ:] *east* > *eest* (east)

OE [ea] > ME [a] *earm* > *arm* (arm)

[eo] *deop* > *deep* [e:] (deep)

[eo] [e:] [e] *ceosan* > *chesen* ['tʃe:zən] (choose)

[io] [i:] [ɪ] *heorte* > *herte* (heart)

[io]

As a result of these changes the vowel system lost two sets of diphthongs, long and short. A new set of diphthongs developed from some sequence of vowels and consonants due to the vocalization of OE [j] and [ɣ]. These sounds between and after vowels changed into [i] and [u] formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowels.

E.g. OE dæg > ME day [daɪ]

These changes gave rise to two sets of diphthongs with i – glides and u – glides.

System of Vowels in Late Middle English

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
e + j	ei	weʒ	wey [wei]	way
e: + j	ei	ʒreʒ	grey [grei]	grey
æ + j	ai	mæʒ	may [mai]	may
a + y	au	laʒu	lawe [ˈlauə]	law
o + y	ou	boʒa	bowe [ˈbouə]	bow
a: + w	ou	cnawan	knowen [ˈknouən]	know
a: + x	au + x	brahte	braughte [ˈbrauxtə]	brought

3. Consonants

3.1. Evolution of Consonants

English consonants were far more stable than vowels.

The most important developments in the history of English consonants were the development of affricates and sibilants. In OE there were no affricates and no sibilants except [s, z]. The new type of consonants developed from OE palatal plosives [k', g'] and from [sk']. The three new phonemes were [tʃ], [dʒ], [ʃ] (in writing - ch, tch, g, dg, sh, ssh, sch)

3.2. Loss of Consonants

- In OE long consonants were opposed to short. In Late ME long consonants were shortened and the opposition through quantity was lost.
- Initial **h** was dropped before **r, l, n**.
 OE hriŋz > ME ring (ring)
 OE hlafoꝛd > ME loꝛd (lord)
- Before **w** **h** remained in the North where OE hw > quh or qwh.
- In the South **h** was dropped before **w**.

OE hwæt > ME
 ↗ North quhat
 ↘ South what

- **v** was dropped before consonants:

OE hæfde > ME had

Middle English Morphology

Outline

1. Changes in Grammar System
2. The ME Noun
3. The ME Pronoun
4. The ME Adjective
5. The ME Verb

1. Changes in Grammar System

The grammatical system underwent profound changes in ME period. From a synthetic (inflected) language with well-developed morphology English transformed into a language of the analytical type with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over the synthetic ones.

The division of words into parts of speech was one of the most permanent language characteristics. Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between

- the noun
- the adjectives
- the pronoun
- the numeral
- the verb
- the adverb
- the preposition
- the conjunction
- the interjection

The only new part of speech was the article which split from the pronoun in Early ME. In ME synthetic forms became smaller, many of the old synthetic forms were lost and no new synthetic forms have developed.

Inflexions (grammatical suffixes and endings) continued to be used in all inflected parts of speech. But they became less varied. OE period is described as a period of full endings, ME – a period of “leveled endings”. In ME the vowels in the endings were reduced to the neutral [ə] and many consonants were leveled under [n] or dropped.

The **analytical** way of form-building is a new device. Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions). The first component of such phrases weakened or lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker and the second component retained its lexical meaning and acquired new grammatical value in the compound form.

OE he hæfde þa – he had them (the prisoners)

Hie hine of slæzene hæfdon – they had him killed

The main direction of development of the nominal parts of speech can be defined as **morphological simplification**. The period between 1000 and 1300 was called an “age of great change” by A. Baugh. Some nominal categories were lost (gender and case in adjectives, gender in nouns).

Noun cases were reduced as well as numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared.

In Late ME the adjectives lost the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms.

The decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system but to a lesser extent than the nominal system. The simplification and leveling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform.

On the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew as new grammatical forms and distinctions came into being. The verb acquired the categories of Voice and Aspect. Within the category of Tense the Future Tense forms developed. New forms of the Subjunctive appeared within the category of the Mood.

2. The ME Noun

In ME there was a strong tendency to simplification of the declensions. The decline of the OE declension system lasted over 3 hundred years and revealed dialectal differences. It started in the North of England (10th c.) and then spread southwards. In the Midlands the process extended over the 12th century but in the southern dialects it lasted till the end of the 13-th century.

In Early ME the southern dialects used only four markers *-es*, *-en*, *-e* and **the root vowel interchange**. Masculine and neutral nouns had only two declensions – weak and strong.

In the Midland and Northern dialects the system of declension was simpler. There was only one major type of declension. The majority of nouns took the endings of OE masculine a-stems:

-(e)s in the Genitive singular

-(e)s in the plural irrespective of the case

The OE *Gender* disappeared. In the 11th and 12th centuries the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support – the weakened and leveled endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender.

In Chaucer's time gender is a lexical category, like in ModE: nouns are referred to as "he"/"she" if they denote human beings:

She wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous,

Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde

(Chaucer)

She would weep, if she saw a mouse

Caught in a trap, if it was dead or it bled

OE *mous* was feminine

The category of **case** underwent profound changes in Early ME.

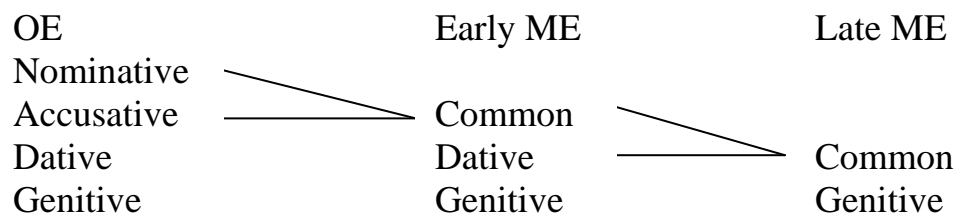
OE 4-case system → ME 2-case system.

In OE the forms of the Nominative and Accusative were not distinguished in the plural and in some classes they coincided in singular too. In Early ME they fell together in both numbers.

In strong declension the Dative was sometimes marked by *-e* in the Southern dialects though not in the North or in the Midlands. The form without

the ending *-es* prevailed in all areas, and three OE cases Nominative, Accusative and Dative fell together. They can be called the Common Case.

In the 14th century the ending *-es* of the Genitive singular became universal with only several exceptions. In the plural the Genitive case had no special marker.



Though the Genitive case survived as a distinct form, its use became limited. Unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of and object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the Genitive case is used only attributively to modify a noun but even in this function it has a rival – prepositional phrases (of-phrases).

The category of **Number** was one of the most stable of all the nominal categories.

3. The ME Pronoun

In Early ME OE *heo* (she) was replaced by the group of variants *he*, *ho*, *sce*, *sho*, *she*. One of them she finally prevailed over the others. ME developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun *seo* (OE *se*, *seo*, *þæt* (that)). It was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and extended to other areas.

The descendant of OE *heo* – ME *he*

Another important lexical replacement took place. OE *hie* (3rd person singular) was replaced by the Scandinavian loan-words *they* [θei]. It came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. “They” ousted the Nominative case OE *hie*, and “them”, “their” (from the same Scandinavian loan) replaced OE case forms “*hem*” and “*heora*”. The two sets of forms (coming from *they* and *hie*) occur side by side in Late ME texts:

That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke.

Who has helped them when they were sick.

The category of **number** was brought in conformity with the corresponding categories of nouns and verbs.

The forms of **the dual number** went into disuse in Early ME.

The category of Case underwent great changes. The forms of the Dative and the Accusative cases began to merge in OE. This syncretism took a long time and in Early ME it spread to the 3rd person and it was completed in Late ME. The OE Genitive case of personal pronouns turned into a new class of pronouns – possessive.

Demonstrative Pronouns Development of the Article

In Early ME the OE demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, þæt, þes, þeos, þis* lost most of their inflected forms. The ME descendants of these pronouns are *that* and *this*

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>	
this	thise / thes(e)	(<i>this – these</i>)
that	tho / thos(e)	(<i>that – those</i>)

The other direction of the development of the demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, þæt* led to the formation of the definite article. In OE texts these pronouns were frequently used as noun-determiners with a weakened meaning approaching that of the modern definite article. In the manuscripts of the 11th and 12th centuries this use of demonstrative pronouns becomes more and more common. As a demonstrative pronoun “that” preserved number distinctions but as a definite article – usually in the weakened form the [θə] - it was uninflected.

The meaning and functions of the definite article became more specific when it came to be opposed to the indefinite article, which developed from the OE numeral and indefinite pronoun “an”.

OE **interrogative** and **indefinite** pronouns were subjected to the same simplifying changes as all nominal parts of speech. The paradigm of the OE interrogative pronoun *hwa* was reduced to two forms – “*who*” (the Nom. Case) and “*whom*” (the Objective case).

4. The ME Adjective

In the ME period the adjective underwent simplifying changes. The ME adjective lost all its grammatical categories except the degrees of comparison. The OE adjectives had five-case paradigm and two types of declension (strong and weak). By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective and the noun became loose and in Early ME it was lost.

The peculiar suffix **-en** (from OE **-an**) of the weak declension lost its **n**

ME	Singular	Plural
<i>Strong declension</i>	yong	yonge
<i>Weak declension</i>	yonge	yonge

The degrees of comparison is the only form which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. In OE the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees were synthetic (suffixes *-ra* and *-est/-ost*).

In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way but the suffixes were weakened to *-er, -est* and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common and soon fell in disuse.

The most important innovation in ME was the development of analytical forms of degrees of comparison. The basis for it was developed by the OE adverbs *ma, bet, betst, swiþor* – more better. When the phrases with ME “more”

and “most” became more common, they were used with all kinds of adjectives regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words.

e.g. more swete (sweeter)
better worthy (worthier)
more hard (harder)

Two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical were used in free variation until the 17th and 18th centuries.

5. The ME Verb

The morphology of the verb displayed such distinct tendencies:

- considerable **simplification** which affected the synthetic forms
- **complication** owing to the growth of now analytical forms and new grammatical categories
- development of **finite and non-finite forms** of the verb

Number distinctions were not only preserved in ME but even became more consistent and regular. In the 13th and 14th centuries the ending *-en* turned into universal marker of the plural forms of the verb. It was used in both tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods. The ending *-en* was frequently missed out in the late 14th century and was dropped in the 15th century.

The Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged into one form.

All number distinctions were lost with the exception of the 2nd and 3rd person Present tense Indicative Mood. The singular forms were marked with: **-est** and **-eth/-es**.

Person. The differences on the forms of Person were maintained in ME. They became more variable. The OE endings of the 3rd person singular - **-þ**, **-eþ**, **-iaþ** merged into **-(e)th**.

Owing to the reduction of endings and leveling of forms the formal differences between the moods were also greatly obscured. In OE only a few forms of the Indicative and Subjunctive Mood were homonymous (the 1st person singular of the Present and the 1st and the 3rd person singular of the Past). In ME the homonymy of the mood forms grew.

The distinction of *tenses* was preserved in the verb paradigm through all periods. The Past tense was built with the help of the dental suffix in the weak verbs and with the help of the root-vowel interchange – in the strong verbs. The only exception was the small group of verbs which came from OE weak verbs of Class I. In such verbs the dental suffix merged with the last consonant of the root *-t* – and after the loss of the ending its three principal forms coincided.

e.g. OE settan – sette – 3e-set(ed)
ME seten – sette – set(set)

Verbals

The system of verbals in OE consisted of the Infinitive and two Participles. In the Late ME a new verbal, the Gerund, developed. The Gerund can be traced to three sources:

- the OE verbal noun in *-unz/ -inz*
- the Present Participle
- the Infinitive

The earliest examples of a verbal noun resembling Gerund date back to the 12th century.

Strong and Weak Verbs

The two morphological types of verbs – strong and weak, were well preserved in ME. The number of *weak* verbs was constantly increasing at the expense of the newly borrowed and newly created verbs, but the number of *strong* verbs was diminishing. Some of them became obsolete (e.g. OE *weorþan* (become)), others became weak (OE *slæpan* (sleep)).

Sometimes the distinctions between different classes of verbs were obliterated.

e.g. suffix -ode of the weak second class verbs was reduced to -ede and coincided in the -ede suffix of the 1-st class

The marker of the Past Tense and Participle II employed by the weak verbs is the dental suffix *-d/ -t* proved to be very productive in all historical periods. This simple and regular way of form-building, employed by the majority of OE verbs, attracted hundreds of new verbs in ME. Many former strong verbs began to build weak forms alongside with strong one, the strong forms fell in disuse. The reverse process (weak → strong) was of rare occurrence.

Several **preterite** – **present** verbs died out. The surviving verbs lost some of their old forms and grammatical distinctions. ME *can* (OE *cann*, Pres.Ind., singular, 1-st and 3-rd person) was used not only in the singular but also in the plural (by the side of *cunnen*).

ME *shall* (OE *sceal*) has lost many of its old forms: the plural forms, the forms of the Present Subjunctive, the Infinitive and has retained only two forms *shall* and *should* (ME *sholde, sholde(n)*).

The OE *willan*, though not a *preterite-present* by origin, has acquired many features typical of the group. In ME it was commonly used as a modal verb expressing volition. In the course of time it formed a system with *shall*. These verbs began to weaken their lexical meanings and to change into auxiliaries.

The Future Tense

In the OE language there was no form of the Future tense (only Past and Present).

In ME the use of modal phrases, especially *shall* became increasingly common.

Shall + *Inf.* – future action. *Shall* could remain its modal meaning of necessity, but often weakened and denoted “pure” futurity.

The Subjunctive Mood

In OE the forms of the Subjunctive Mood were synthetic. In the course of ME there sprang up several new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood. In OE modal phrases consisting of *sculan*, *willan* and *mazan*+ *Inf.* indicated future actions. If the modal verb has the form of the Subjunctive (Present and Past) the meanings of the phrase approached that of the Subjunctive Mood. Modal phrases expressing problematic and imaginary actions occur in the works of Chaucer along with the old synthetic forms:

*In al the pari sshe wif ne was ther noon
That to the offrynge before hir sholde goon
In all the parish this was not one wife
who would go before her to the offering*

Category of Voice

In OE the finite verb had no category of voice. The analytical passive forms developed from OE verb phrases:

OE beon + *Participle II of transitive verbs*

In ME *ben* + *Past Participle* developed into an analytical form.

Middle English Syntax

1. In ME the word order was less pliable than in OE, but not so rigid as in ModE. The number of sentences with **direct word order** was growing at the expense of those with **inverted or synthetic** word order.

Closely connected with it was the necessity to express **the subject** even in impersonal sentences. The structure *Me thinketh it ...* gradually yielded to the order *It seemed me ...It thoughte me* “*It seemed to me, It occurred to me*”.

2. The weakening and loss of inflections resulted in the **weakening** and loss of **agreement and government**. The tendency grew to place the modifiers as closely as possible to the words which they modified.

3. The widespread use of **prepositions** in ME was another remarkable development in the language. In OE most prepositions had governed the dative case. With the disappearance of the dative case prepositions came to be used freely with the common case of nouns.

OE *On þæm oþrum þrim dazum* - On those other three days
ME *in that seson (season) on a day*.

4. The OE system of relative and correlative elements (*þe, þa ...etc.*) was replaced by new relatives developed from OE interrogative and demonstrative pronouns: *who, what, which, that, etc.*

5. The **single negative** began to be used in the fourteenth century, particularly in the north, though the cumulative negation was still widely spread.

e.g. Ne schal non werien no linnene cloth - No one shall wear any linen clothes

Middle English Vocabulary Changes

Borrowings played a much greater role in ME than in OE. They came mostly from two sources: Scandinavian and French.

Apart from many place names (over 1400) in **-by, thorpe, -thwaite**, etc. the number of **Scandinavian borrowings** was not very great but they were mostly everyday words of very high frequency. Some of them found their way into the oral speech of Anglo-Saxons as early as the ninth century, but it was not until ME that they became part and parcel of the English vocabulary.

e.g. ME *lawe* (law) < OE *lazu* < Sc. *lagu* (n., pl., the sg. in OE *Danelaz*)

ME *taken* (take) < OE *tacan* < Sc. *taka*

ME *callen* (call) < OE *ceallian* < Sc. *kalla*

The extent of the Scandinavian influence can be inferred from the fact that even personal pronouns were borrowed. The Scandinavian forms ***þeir*** (they), ***þeim*** (them), ***þeirra*** (their) gradually ousted the respective OE forms ***hie***, ***him***, ***hira***.

The Scandinavian conjunction ***þo*** (though) replaced the OE conjunction ***þeah***.

Other borrowings are the ModE: *husband, fellow, window, egg, skirt, sky, skin, skill, anger; wrong, ill, happy, ugly, low, odd; cast, want, die, drown*, and many similar simple words.

Owing to the intimate relationship between the two languages, it is often difficult to say whether the form of a given word is **Scandinavian or English**. The word *sister*, for instance, is usually regarded as a development of the Scandinavian *systir*, but it might also be considered as a development of the OE *sweostor* under Scandinavian influence. OE *ziefan, zietan* would have normally developed into E. *yev (yiv), yet*, but under the influence of Sc. *giva, geta* they have become E. *give get*.

The number of French borrowings during the Middle English period was much greater than that of Scandinavian loan-words, and their character was different since the relations between both the peoples and their languages were different.

A great part of French loans were **aristocratic words** testifying that the French were the conquerors, the rulers of the country. Here belong

- designations of rank (E. *sovereign, prince, princess, duke, duchess, marquis, marquise, count, countess, baron, baroness, peer, noble*)

- titles of respect (E. *sir, madam, mistress*)

- governmental and administrative words (E. *state, government, parliament, crown, court, reign, royal, majesty, country, nation, people, tax*)

- legal terms (E. *justice, judge, jury, bar, bill, decree, crime, verdict, sentence, accuse, punish, prison*)

- military terms (E. *army, navy, defence, enemy, war, battle, victory, siege, castle, tower, soldier, sergeant, captain*)

- religious terms (E. *religion, faith, clergy, parson, pray, preach, saint, miracle*)

- words reflecting the life and habits of the nobility of France (E. *pleasure, leisure, feast, dance, dress, fashion, jewel*)

- their dominance in the arts and literature (E. *art, colour, beauty, paint, column, music, poem, romance*).

The relation between the English people and the French aristocracy is also reflected in the semantic correlation of some English words and some medieval French borrowings. As Walter Scott pointed out in "Ivanhoe", the domestic animals kept their English names while the English were looking after them in the fields (E. *ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine*), but were given French names when they appeared on the Norman lord's table (E. *beef, veal, mutton, pork*). Compare also the English house and the French palace; the English *miller, blacksmith* and the French *painter, tailor*; the English *breakfast* and the French *dinner, supper*; the English *hand* and the French *face*.

Naturally, there were also numerous "neutral" French loan-words like the E. *aim, air, dozen, error, grief, clear, double, easy, carry, change, envy*, etc.

If we take into consideration not only the meanings of words but their forms as well, we have to distinguish between two varieties of French borrowings: Norman French (NF) and Central French (CF). The Norman conquerors brought with them a peculiar northern dialect of French that differed in a number of ways from Central French or Parisian French, the source of Modern French. For instance, NF [k] corresponded to CF [ʃ], and NF [tʃ] to CF [s]. Up to the 13th century French borrowings came mostly from NF. Later the overwhelming majority of French loan-words came from CF. It often happened that a word was borrowed twice, first from NF then from CF, thus forming etymological doublets.

e. g. *canal* (< NF) and *channel* (< CF), *catch* (< NF) and *chase* (CF).

The heavy influx of Scandinavian and French loan-words could not but affect the native elements of the English vocabulary.

Many Old English words grew out of use and were ousted by foreign synonyms,

e.g. *niman* (take), *clipian* (call), *sweltan* (die), *andian* (envy), *æwnian* (marry), etc.

Many others changed their meanings and usage. Compare, for instance, the Old English verb *steorfan* "to die" and its modern outgrowth to *starve*, or the Old English *hærfest* "autumn" and the Modern English *harvest*.

Very often the basic word remained in the language, while its derivative was replaced by a loan-word. For instance, OE. *þyncan* has developed into E. *think*, while OE. *ofþyncan* was ousted by *repent* (< OF. *repentir*); the verb *perceive* (< OF. *percevoir*) has replaced ME *ofseen* (< OE. *ofseon*), while OE *seon* > ME *seen* > E. *see*; the verbs *deserve, pass, precede* have replaced OE. *ofzan, forzan, forezan*, while *zan* has normally developed into *go*.

Such cases undermined the Early English system of affixation. But new **affixes** appeared instead. The suffix **-able** from such French borrowings as *admirable, tolerable*, came to be used with native Germanic roots as well:

eatable, readable, bearable. Similarly, the Romanic prefixes **re-**, **en-** in the words *rewrite, endear*.

Conversely, the native affixes were used with foreign roots: *beautiful, charming, unfaithful*.

The **divergence between native and borrowed** synonyms assumed different forms. Sometimes they became stylistically different, as in the case of E. *foe* (< OE. *zefa*) and E. *enemy* (< OF. *ennemi*) or E. *begin* (ME. *beginnen*) and E. *commence* (< OF. *cumencer*). Sometimes they acquired different shades of meaning, as in the regularly quoted pairs: *swine - pork, calf - veal, ox - beef, sheep - mutton*. If they had been historically cognate, but changed both form and meaning, they formed etymological doublets. For instance, *skirt, scatter* (< Sc.) and *shirt, shatter* (< OE).

One of the most important ME innovations was the development of **conversion** as a new type of derivation. Owing to the leveling of endings and the loss of **-n** in unstressed syllables, OE *ende* and *endian* fell together as ME *ende* ['endə]. OE *lufu* and *lufian* as ME *love* ['luvə]. Such cases of homonymy served as models for the creation of new nouns from verbs (*smile* v. → *smile* n.) and vice versa (*chance* n. → *chance* v.).

New English Period

NE Phonetic Changes

Outline

1. The Great Vowel Shift
2. Changes of Short Vowels in Early NE
3. NE Diphthongs
4. NE Consonants

1. The Great Vowel Shift

The Great Vowel Shift is the major event in the historical development of English vowels. The Great Vowel Shift involved the change of all ME long monophthongs and some of the diphthongs. The Great Vowel Shift is the series of changes of long vowels between the 14th and 18th centuries. All long vowels became closer or were diphthongized. These changes can be called “independent” because they were not caused by definite phonetic conditions in the syllable or in the word. These changes affected regularly every stressed long vowel in any position.

The Great Vowel Shift

Change illustrated	Examples	
ME (intermediate stage)NE	ME	NE
i:ai	time / ti:mə/ finden / fi:ndən/	time find
e: i:	kepen / ke:pən/ field / fe:ld/	keep field
ɛ: i:	e: street /strɛ:t/ east /ɛ:st/ stelen / stɛ:lən/	street east steal
ɑ: ei	maken / mɑ:kən/ table / tɑ:blə/	make table
ɔ: ou	o: stone / stɔ:n/ open / ɔ:pən/ soo /sɔ:/	stone open so
o: u:	moon /mo:n/ goos /gɔ:s/	moon goose
u: av	mous /mu:s/ funden / fu:ndən/ now/nu:/	mouse found now
av ɔ:	cause / kɑvz(ə)/ drawen / drɑvən/	cause draw

Thus the essence of the shift is the narrowing of all the long vowels and diphthongization of the narrow long ones.

The Great Vowel Shift was not followed by any regular spelling changes which contribute greatly to the present discrepancy between the spoken and written English.

During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed.

ME	a	↙ / a:/	e	↙ / e:/	o	↙ / o:/	i	↙ / i:/
NE		/ei/		/i:/		/ɜv/		/ai/

The Great Vowel Shift didn't add any new sounds to the vowel system. But it was the most profound and comprehensive change in the history of English vowels: every long vowel and some diphthongs were "shifted" and the pronunciation of all the words with these sounds changed

2. Changes of Short Vowels in Early NE

The short vowels were more stable than the long vowels. Only two short vowels (out of 5) underwent certain changes. These are /a/ and /u/

ME /a/ normally changed into /æ/

ME *cat* /kat/ - NE *cat* /kæt/

ME *glad* /glad/ - NE *glad* /glæd/

ME *man* /man/ - NE *man* /mæn/

After /w/ sound /a/ was rounded and coincided with /ɔ/

OE *wæs* > ME *was* > NE *was* /wɔz/

Short /v/ was delabialized in the 17th century and it developed into a new sound /ʌ/, e.g. *cup*, *son*, *sun*, *up*

The same sound is observed in "blood, flood, mother" in which /u:/ was shortened (before the 17th century).

ME *blod* > NE /*blu:d*/ > /*blud*/ > /*blʌd*/

A preceding labial consonant usually presented the delabialization of /u/ as in: *full*, *pull*, *bull*.

3. NE Diphthongs

ME diphthongs /ai/ and /ei/ were gradually levelled under /ei/, the spelling was *ay/ai*

ME *day* – NE *day*

wey – NE *way*

seil – NE *sail*

ME /av/ was monophthongised and became /ɔ:/ as in "*paw*, *law*, *cause*, *pause*". ME /ev/ > /iv/ which soon became /ju:/ as in "*new*, *dew*, *view*".

The sound /u/ in French loan-words was usually replaced by /iu/, later /ju:/. This is the reason why letter u is called /ju:/, the letter q - /kju:/.

4. NE Consonants

One of the most important changes of the 15th century was the voicing of /f/, /s/, /θ/, /tʃ/ and /ks/ in weakly stressed words and syllables. This phenomenon is somewhat similar to that discovered by K. Verner in the old Germanic languages.

ME /f/ > /v/ “of”, active (ME *actif*)

ME /s/ > /z/ *is, his, comes*

ME /θ/ > /ð/ *with, the, they*

ME /tʃ/ > /dʒ/ *knowledge* (ME *knowlenche*), *Greenwich* / *grinidʒ*/

ME /ks/ > /gz/ *examine, exhibit, exact*

ME /x/ (written as *gh*) has either been lost (mostly before /t/) or it has changed to /f/ (mostly when final)

ME *daughter* /*dauxtər*/ - E /*dɔ:tə*/

eight /*eixt*/ - E /*eit*/

ME *laugh* /*lavx*/ > /*lavf*/ > /*la:f*/

Short /l/ preceding /x/ was usually lengthened when the latter was lost

ME *night* /*nixt*/ > /*ni:t*/ > /*nait*/

Final /b/ has been lost after /m/: *climb, dumb, comb*

Final /ng/ has been reduced to /ŋ/

ME *thing* /*θing*/ > NE /*θiŋ*/

Initial /k/ or /g/ before /n/ and /w/ before /r/ has been lost: *knife, gnat, wrong*

In the 15th century /d/ before /r/ often changed into /ð/:

ME *fader* > E *father*

ME *weder* > E *weather*

New sibilants developed in the 17th century from the combinations

s + j sj > ʃ

z + j zj > ʒ

t + j tj > tʃ

d + j dj > dʒ

ME /*nasjon*/ > /*neisjən*/ > /*neɪʃn*/

NE Morphology

Outline

1. The NE Noun.
2. The NE Adjective.
3. The NE Pronoun.
4. The NE Verb.

1. The NE Noun

The only inflections were those marking the plural and the possessive singular. In the 16th century there were forms of the old weak plural in – *n*. But most of them gave way before the usual *s-forms*:

fon (*foes*)
kneen (*knees*)
fleen (*fleas*)

But beside the more modern form Shakespeare occasionally uses :

eyen (*eyes*)
shoon (*shoes*)

Today, except for the poetical *kine* and mixed plurals like *children* and *brethren*, the only plural of this type is *oxen*.

In ME the – *es* of the genitive was frequently written and pronounced – *is*, – *ys*.

The ending was thus often identical to the pronoun *his* , which commonly lost its *h* when stressed. Thus there was no difference in pronunciation between *stonis* and *ston is* (*his*). In the 13th century the ending was sometimes written separately as though the possessive case were a contraction of a noun and the pronoun *his*. This is an explanation of the apostrophe, which we still retain as a graphic convenience to mark the possessive.

One more construction is the group possessive: e.g. *the King of England's nose somebody else's hat*.

Group possessive occurred in the 15th century and examples are common in the 16th century.

2. The NE Adjectives

The adjective had lost all its ending and the only category that survived was the category of the degrees of comparison. In the 16th century the degrees were not always precisely those now in use remind us that forms like our *elder* were once more common in the language. e.g. comparatives such as *lenger*, *strenger*.

Shakespearian comparisons like *honester, violentest* are now replaced by analytical forms. A double comparative or superlative is also fairly frequent in the work of Shakespeare and his contemporaries:

more larger

most boldest

The chief development affecting the adjective in modern times has been the gradual setting down of usage so that monosyllables take – *er* and – *est* while most adjectives of two or more syllables take more and more.

3. The NE Pronoun

The 16th century saw the establishment of the personal pronoun in the form that it has had ever since: I, he, she, it, we, you, they.

Such pronouns as *thou, thy, thee* went out of use.

- *ye* (nominative case) was substituted by *you*.

Possessive pronouns in the 15th – 16th centuries are: my, his, her, its, his, our, your, their, mine.

- Pronoun *hir* was replaced by *her*
- *its* as the possessive of *it* was introduced.

Reflexive pronouns

The forms of weak declension –*selven* changed into the forms with –*self*, –*selves* which was added to possessive pronouns. e.g. *meself, himself, themselves*.

Pronouns with the component –*self* can be found as the subject of the sentence: *Myself have letters*.

4. The NE Verb

1. Such examples show the difference:

- Goes the King hence today? (does)
- Is execution done on Cawdor? (has been)

2. The scarcity of progressive forms:

- What do you read, my Lord? (are reading)

3. The compound forms of participle (having spoken, having decided) are frequent.

4. Impersonal use of the verb were much more common than they are today:

e.g. *It yearns me not, it dislikes me, so please him come*.

5. Certain differences in inflections are more noticeable:

- the ending of the 3rd person singular of the present indicative

ME – *eth: telleth, giveth, saith, doth*

15th century – occasionally – *s* appeared.

Present Indicative			Past Indicative		
I	see	we see	I	saw	we saw
thou	seest		thou	sawest	
he	seeth, sees		he	saw	

Alongside the predominant plural without ending, we find occasionally expressions like *troubled minds that wakes*.

Strong verbs that remained were subject to considerable fluctuation and alteration in the past tense and past participle.

Class I

OE writan – wrat – writon – written
 ME written – wrot – written- written
 NE write – wrote – written

Class III

OE drincan – drunk – druncon – drunken
 ME drinken – drank – drunken – drunken
 NE drink – drank – drunk

Among verbs that developed weak forms in this period were: *bide, crow, flay, mow, dread, wade*.

In certain common verbs the form of the past tense differed from that of today. Such past forms as *brake* and *spake, clave, tare, bare, sware* are familiar to us from the Bible.

Bote- past of bite was in use too. The participle *baken* is more frequent in the Bible than *baked*.

Brent, brast of burnt, burst

Weak Verbs

Only one class of weak verbs exists in NE. In the 15th-17th centuries two classes of verbs appeared: regular and irregular. Regular verbs constitute 95% of all English verbs.

Preterit-present verbs

The number of the verbs reduced to 7 verbs:

1. can – could
 2. may – might
 3. moete – must
 4. dar
 5. durren
 6. owe – ought
 7. wit, wot
 8. shall – should
- dare
-

Verb wit/ wot occurred in Shakespeare`s language, but it is ousted by *to know, to be aware of*. In Modern E there is a noun “wit” and its derivatives: *witness, witted, witty*.

New English Vocabulary Changes

The Renaissance was marked by a great influence of Latin and Greek on the English vocabulary. At this time thousands of **Latin bookish** words often scientific or technical terms like “*formula, maximum, minimum, item, radius*” were borrowed. Many words in *-ate, -ute* were assimilated (e.g. *separate, irritate, execute, constitute*).

There appeared **Latin-French** etymological doublets such as: *pauper pour, history story, example sample*.

These are Latin-Latin doublets and even triplets. E.g. Latin “*discus*” (< Greek) is represented in English by “*dish*” (Ob borrowing), “*disk*” (ME borrowing), *disc* and *discus* (NE borrowing)

Greek loans are even more specifically terminological. The names of most sciences are of Greek origin: *mathematics, physics, botany, lexicology*. Such words as *synonym, antonym, metaphor, metonymy, archaism* are also of Greek origin.

These are compounds that never existed in Greek but have been coined from **Greek morphemes**: *telephone, microscope, photograph*. One of the results of the Latin and Greek influence on the English vocabulary is the formation of numerous **hybrids**. **Latin and Greek** affixes were widely used with **English roots**: *talkative, starvation, antiaircraft* and **English affixes with Latin or Greek roots**: *underestimate, unjust, membership, falsehood*.

The influx of French borrowing continued through the New English period. In most cases these new loan-words are distinguishable from previous French borrowings by their phonetic and spelling peculiarities.

e.g. *ME village, NE mirage*

- a) the stress shifted according to English accentuation
mi'rage - stress on the last syllable remained
- b) g /dʒ/ - typical English sound
/ʒ/ - French sound

e.g. *bourgeois, regime, machine, chemise* can be easily identified by spelling and pronunciation.

English borrowed much from other languages:

- *Italian* mostly words relating to the arts: *violin, portico, solo, ballerina, sonata, tempo* but also *ballot, manifesto, casino, algebra, zero, bankrupt*.
- From *Spanish* and *Portuguese*: *potato, cocoa, tobacco, cigar, canoe, embargo, contraband*.
- *Russian* borrowings: *tsar, dmn, rouble, copeck, tundra, taiga, samovar, vodka, decembrist, bolshevik, Soviet, sputnik*.
- From *Dutch*: *dock, landscape, easel, sketch*.

About 70% of all the words in an unabridged dictionary of Modern English are said to have been fully or partially borrowed from other languages.

Exercises and Tasks

Exercise 1

Explain the sound correspondence in the following words.

Sansc. páñcā (n), Goth. fimf, OI. fimm, OE. fīf, Sansc. nápāt, Lat. nepōs – OI. nefe, OHG. nefo, OE. nefa;

Sansc. pitár, Gr. patér – Goth. fadar, OI. faðir, OHG. fatar;

Sansc. trí, tratas, Gr. treis, Lat. tres, Ukr. три – Goth. þrija, þreis, OI. þrīr, OE. þrī, þrīe;

Sansc. katarás, Lith. katrás, Ukr. котрий – Goth. hwaþar, OI. huaþarr, OHG. hwedar, OS. Hwedat, OE. hwæþer;

Sansc. nábhas, Ukr. небо – OS. nebal, OHG. nebul, OI. nifl;

Sansc. bhárāmi, Ukr. беру – Goth. bairan, OI. bera, OHG. beran, OE. beran;

Sansc. dhṛsnóti, Gr. thrasýs, Goth. (ga) dars, OHG. tar, OE. dear (r);

Sansc. rudhirás, Gr. erythrós, Ukr. рудий – Goth. rauþs (gen. case – raudis), OI. rauðr, OE. rēad;

Lat. hostis, Ukr. гість – Goth. gast, OI. gestr, OHG. gast, OE. giest;

Lith. dubùs – Goth. diups, OI. djúpr, OE. dēōp, Ukr. болото;

Gr. δύο, Lat. dúo, Ukr. два – Goth. twai, OI. tveir;

Lat. edere, Ukr. їжа – Goth. itan, OI. eta, OE. etan;

Sansc. dru, dāru, Ukr. дерево, Goth. triu, OI. trē, OE. trēō (w);

Gr. agrós, Lat. ager – Goth. akrs, OI. akr, OE. æcer;

Sansc. yugá, Lat. jugum – Goth. juk, OI. ok, OHG. joh, OE. geoc;

Sansc. jānu, Gr. góny, Lat. genu – Goth. kniu, OHG. chniu, OI. kne, OE. cnēō.

Ukr. стати – Lat. stare – Goth. standan

Lat. miscēre – Lith. matszyti – OE. miscian, OHG. miscan;

Gr. kléptein – Goth. hlaft

Sansc. náakta – *Goth.* nahts

Lat. nox (gen. case noctis) – *OE.* neaht

OHG. swéhur – swígar

Sansc. rajas (darkness) – *Goth.* riqiz-is (gen. case)

Goth. maiza – *OHG.* mêro, *OE.* m̄ara

Goth. batiza – *OHG.* bezziro, *OE.* betera

Goth. hausjan – *OHG.* hōren, *OE.* hīeran

OE. cēosan – cēas – curon – coren (to choose)

Goth. bidjan – *OE.* biddan

i-Mutation

Exercise 2

Explain the vowel changes in these words

*setian > OE sittan (to sit)

*leggian > OE licgan (to lie)

*sættian > OE settan (to set)

*sandian > OE sendan (to send)

*aldirō > OE ældra (elder)

*dāl(i) > OE dæl (deal)

OE lengra (longer) – *OE.* lāng, *goth.* laggs

*fodian – *goth.* fōdjan > fōēdan > fēdan (to feed)

*kwōni > OE cwōēn (queen) > cwēno

*gold > OE gylden (golden)

*fullian > OE fyllan (to fill)

*kūþian – *goth.* kunþjan > cýðan (to proclaim)

OE eald (old) > ieldra (older)

OE heord (herd) > hierde (shepherd)

Exercise 3

Analyse the vowel change in these words

wide > wiodu > wudu (wood)

medo > meodo (mead)

saru > searu (armour)

curun > coron

Exercise 4

Explain the change of monophthongs into diphthongs in the following words

milc > meolc (milk)

liht > lioht > leoht (light)

erþe > eorþe (earth)

earl > eorl (nobleman)

eh > eoh (horse)

all > eall (all)

ahta > eahta (eight)

*barnan > bærn > bearn (child)

Exercise 5

Explain cases of lengthening of vowels in the following words

tīhan > teōn (to draw)

sēhan > seōn (to see)

slāhan > sleān (to kill)

fōhan > fōn (to catch)

Exercise 6

Explain the consonantal changes in these words

OE. māra – goth. maize – OI. meiri (more)

OE. betera – goth. batiza – OI. betri (better)

OE. hīeran – goth. hausjan – OI. heyra (hear)

OE. ēare – goth. auso – OI. eyra (ear)

Exercise 7

Analyse the cases of metathesis in the following words

OE. burna – goth. brunna – OI. brunnr

OE. þirda < þridda – goth. þridja – OI. þriði – ukr. третій

OE. Fryhto – fyrhto – goth. faurhteī

OE. Byrnan – birnan – goth. Brinnan – OI. brinna

Exercise 8

What cases are these OE nouns used on?

a-stem declension

- dazum
- dagas

ja-stem declension

- bridda
- nettes

wo-stem declension

- þeow
- þearwum

n-stem declension

- zuman
- zumena

Exercise 9

What classes do these OE pronouns belong to? Provide the Nominative Case form of these pronouns:

- | | |
|----------|----------|
| • uncer | • hwa |
| • hire | • þære |
| • þin | • hwæþer |
| • eower | • þy |
| • his | • hwy |
| • þæt | • noht |
| • nawiht | |

Exercise 10

Form the degrees of comparison of these OE adjectives:

- wid
- micel
- lang
- eald
- god
- lytel
- læt

Exercise 11

In what way were these OE adverbs formed?

- micles (very)
- stundum (at intervals)
- dæȝes (by day)
- deope (deep)
- eorþlic (earthly)
- bealdlice (boldly)
- to dæȝ (to-day)
- be-foran (before)

Exercise 12

Write these numerals in OE:

12	80
5	100
17	1000
4	120
20	
60	

Exercise 13

Give OE ordinal numerals:

- the first
- the twentieth
- the fifth
- the hundredth
- the ninth
- the sixtieth
- the twelfth
- the twenty-first

Exercise 14

What classes do these OE verbs belong to?

- lǣtan
- fleogan
- driftan
- sittan
- helpan
- faran
- metan
- standan

Exercise 15

What classes do these weak verbs belong to?

- cepan
- gretan
- seczan
- mearcian
- lufian
- libban

Exercise 16

What group do these OE verbs belong to?

- don
- wesan
- beon
- ȝan

Exercise 17

*What OE verbs belong to the group präteritopræsentiā?
Comment on word order of these OE sentences:*

- he cristen wif hæfde
- nan he dorste nan þing ascian
- he næfre nænig leoþ ȝeleornade

Exercise 18

Distribute these OE words of Germanic origin into semantic groups, e.g. plants, animals, weather, parts of the body, seasons, time, housing, people, relatives and others:

mup, hūs, ac, ȝear, shaw, dæȝ, corn, winter, rum, fot, wind, sunu, sumer, wifman, ren, earm, treow, heorte, græs, finger, nosu, weder, fisc, pin-treo, cyning, hand, mæȝden, swin, broþor, hors, modor.

Exercise 19

Comment on the formation of the following OE words:

- a-stettan
- wedlac
- an-gin
- on-settan
- 3odnis
- on-3ean
- carfull
- un-writere
- lengþu
- 3odlic

Exercise 20

What languages were these OE words borrowed?

- Aberdeen
- Awon
- Kennedy
- stræt
- camp
- win
- munt
- Arthur

Adventure of English

Melvyn Bragg, Baron Bragg (born 6 October 1939) is an English broadcaster and author, best known for his work with ITV as editor and presenter of the *The South Bank Show* (1978–2010). Earlier in his career, Bragg worked for the BBC in various roles including presenter, a connection which resumed in 1988 when he began to host *Start the Week* on Radio 4. After his ennoblement in 1998, he switched to presenting the new *In Our Time*, a discussion radio programme which has run to over 550 editions.

He is currently Chancellor of the University of Leeds.

Bragg was born on 6 October 1939 in Carlisle, the son of Mary Ethel (*née* Park), a tailor, and Stanley Bragg, a stock keeper turned mechanic. He attended the Nelson Thomlinson School in Wigton and read Modern History at Wadham College, Oxford in the late 1950s and early 1960s.

Tasks to “Adventure of English”

















Part 1

1. How does language in Friesland sound? Provide examples.
2. What have you learnt about the Germanic tribes? How did Celts feel under German invasion? Provide the words that came from the Celtic language. What had happened by the end of the 6th century? Give examples of placenames.
3. Give examples of the words from Old English.
4. How did Old English words sound? Transcribe 5 of them.
e.g. [‘sunu]
How many words were there in Old English?
5. What did Christianity bring to the language? How was the Latin alphabet different from the runes?

6. Was Old English a fully developed poetic language? Give example of OE poetic words.
7. What was the influence of Vikings and Danes?
8. Characterize King Alfred the Great's activity.
9. Where can we hear/see Danish influence?
10. What words were borrowed from the Old Norse?

Charts, Tables and Illustrations

Runic Alphabet

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

Classification of the Germanic Languages

The North Germanic Branch		The East Germanic Branch	The West Germanic Branch	
Old Language	Modern Languages	Dead Languages	Old Languages	Modern Languages
Old Norse	Islandic Faroese <i>Scandinavian:</i> Danish Norwegian Swedish	Gothic Vandalic Burgundian	Old Saxon Old English Old High German	English German Frisian Dutch Flemish Afrikaans Jiddish

Afrikaans

There are approximately six million speakers of Afrikaans the vast majority of whom live in South Afrika, although nowadays it is not uncommon to hear it spoken in cities such as London due to the large amount of emigration.

Afrikaans has its origins in Dutch and so it is one of the Indo-European languages (belonging to the Germanic group). It has also taken many words from the Malay and African languages.

The variety of Dutch which eventually become Afrikaans developed from the mid sixteen-hundreds and so can be called the youngest language in the world. In fact, the earliest example of Afrikaans in print did not appear until 1856.

Flemish

It is a member of the West Germanic group of the Germanic subfamily of the Indo-European family of languages. Generally regarded as the Belgian variant of Dutch rather than as a separate tongue, Flemish is spoken by approximately 5.5 million people in Belgium, where it is one of the official languages, and by a few thousand persons in France. So closely are Flemish and Dutch related that the difference between them has been compared to the difference between American and British English; however, some scholars hold

that they have diverged sufficiently since the 16th cent. to be described as separate languages.

Dutch

Dutch is a West Germanic language with about 20 million speakers mainly in the Netherlands and Belgium. There are small Dutch-speaking communities in northern France, in Aruba, the Netherlands Antilles, Suriname and in Indonesia.

The official or standard form of Dutch is known as *Algemeen Beschaafd Nederlands* (ABN), 'general civilized Dutch'. It is taught in schools and used by authorities in the Netherlands, Flanders (Belgium), Suriname and the Netherlands Antilles.

Yiddish

Yiddish is a Germanic language with about three million speakers, mainly Ashkenazic Jews, in the USA, Israel, Russia, Ukraine and many other countries. The name Yiddish is probably an abbreviated version of (yidish-taytsh), which means "Jewish German".

There have been Jews in area that is now Germany since Roman times. A distinct Jewish culture known as Ashkenazi, or Germanic Jewry, appeared by the 10th century. Ashkenaz was the medieval Hebrew name for Germany, though the Ashkenaz area also included parts of northern France and later spread to Eastern Europe.

Old Norse

Old Norse, the language of the Vikings, is a North Germanic language once spoken in Scandinavia, the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland, and in parts of Russia, France and the British Isles. The modern language most closely related to Old Norse is Icelandic, the written form of which has changed little over the years, while the spoken form has undergone significant changes.

Between 800 and 1050 AD a division began to appear between East Norse, which developed into Swedish and Danish, and West Norse, which developed into Norwegian, Faroese, Icelandic and Norn, an extinct language once spoken in Shetland, Orkney, and northern parts of Scotland.

Frisian

Frisian is a group of West Germanic languages spoken in Germany and the Netherlands. There are three main varieties of Frisian: West Frisian which is spoken by about 450,000 people in the Netherlands; North Frisian a collection of nine different dialects spoken in Schleswig-Holstein (Germany) by about 8,000 people, and Sater Frisian with about 2,000 speakers in the German state of Lower Saxony. Frisian is closely related to English with up to 80% of lexical similarity.

Grimm's Law

1. Indo-European voiceless stops **p, t, k** in Germanic languages turned into voiceless fricatives **f, þ(θ), h**
e.g. Lat. *piscus* OE *fisc*
 tres *þreo*
 octo *eahta*
2. Indo-European voiced stops **b, d, g** in Germanic languages became voiceless **p, t, k**
e.g. Lat. *dubus* OE *deop*
 duo *twegen*
 genu *kneo*
3. Indo-European voiced aspirated stops in Germanic languages lost their aspiration
e.g. Sansc. *bharami* OE *beran*
 rudhiras *read*
 hostis *ziest*

Exceptions from Grimm's Law

1. Consonants **p, t, k** remained unchanged after **s**
e.g. Lat. *sputare* OE *spitan*
 Gr. *aster* OE *steora*
2. In consonant combinations **pt, kt** only the first element was changed
e.g. Lat. *cleptus* OE *hliftus*
 octo *eahta*

Verner's Law

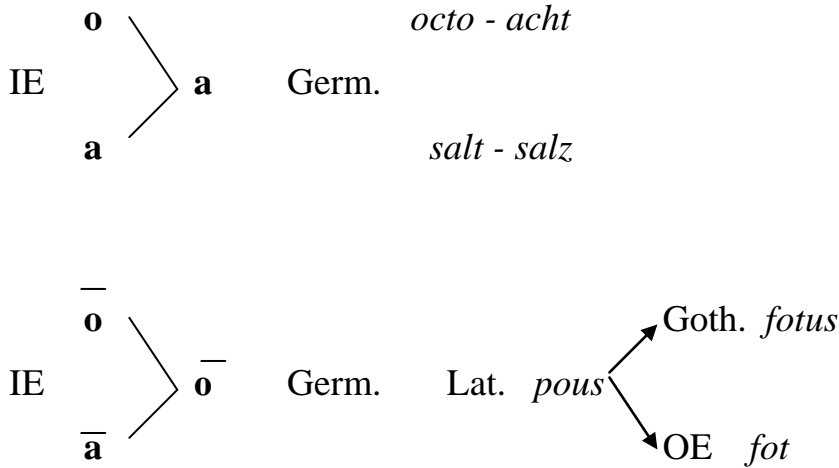
The voiceless fricatives became voiced when they were in a voiced environment and when the stress in IE was on the syllable which preceded this consonant.

e.g

f > v	k > g
t > d	h > g
þ > d	s > z

e.g. Sanscr. *pitar* Goth. *fa'dar*
 Gr. *decas* Goth. *ti'gus*

Germanic Vowel Shift



West Germanic Lengthening of Consonants (Gemination)

Short (single) consonants except *r* were lengthened if preceded by a short vowel and followed by *i, j*

e.g. Goth. *bidjan* OE *biddan*

Goth. *badi* OE *bedd*

Rhotacism

The name of this phenomenon comes from Greek name of the letter *r* which was *rho*

$z \rightarrow r$

e.g. Goth *maiz̥a* OE *mar̥a*

laisjan *læran*

The Periodisation of the History of the English Language

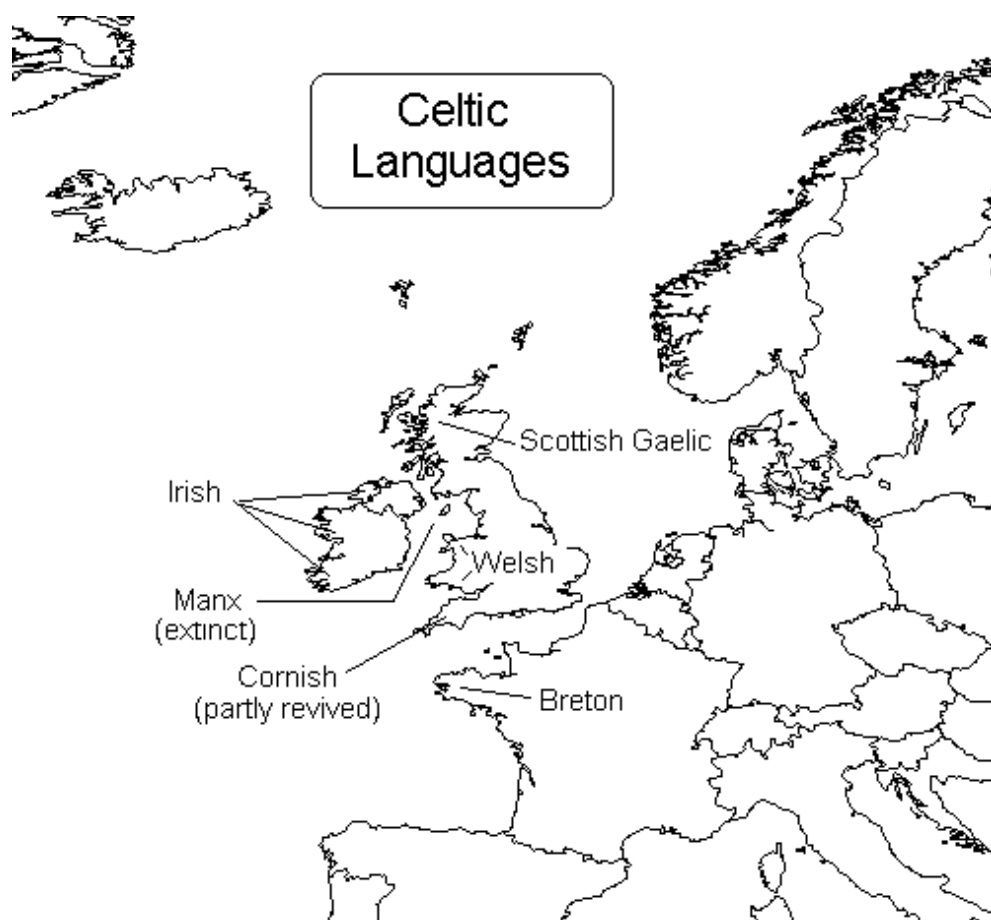
<i>Old English (OE)</i>	The period of full endings	5 th (7 th) - 11 th centuries
<i>Middle English (ME)</i>	The period of leveled endings	12 th - 15 th centuries
<i>New English (NE)</i>	The period of lost endings	16 th century -

Approach of Yuri Kostyuchenko

1. Period before 449
2. Period after 449 is subdivided into:
 - Old English V-XI centuries
 - Middle E XII-XV
 - period of formation of the standard language XV-XVII
 - New English – the second half of the 17th century up to now

Celtic Languages

Language	Area	Status
Welsh (Cymric)	Wales	still spoken
Cornish	Cornwall	extinct
Scots Gaelic	Scotland	still spoken
Manx	Isle of Man	still spoken
Irish Gaelic	Ireland	still spoken



Dialects of Old English



Frank's Casket



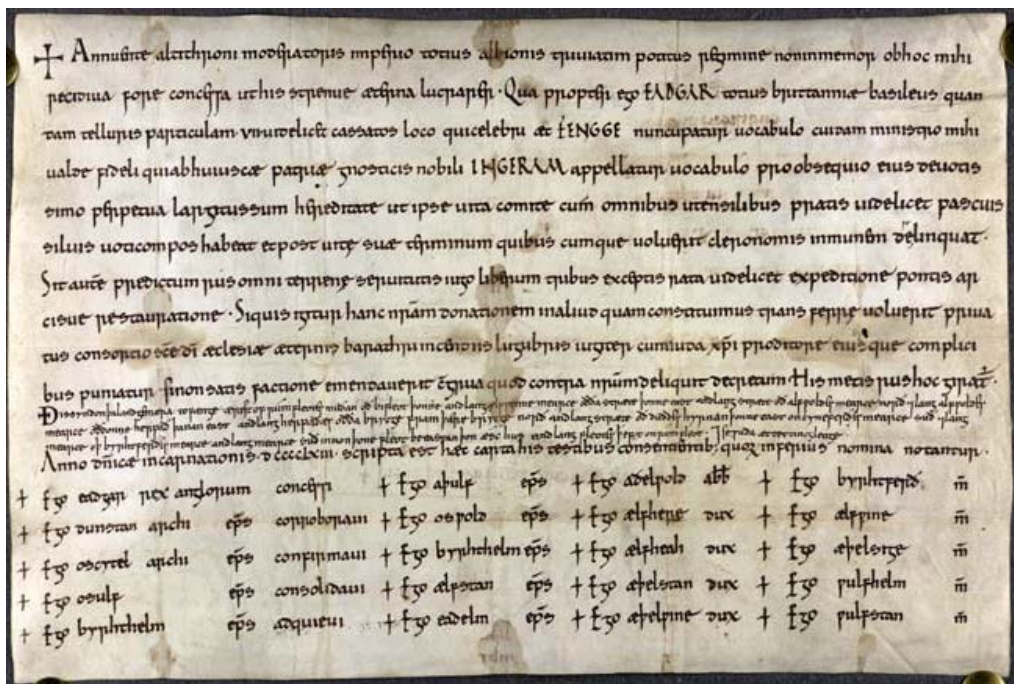
The Runic Casket is made of whale bone. As for the size of the plates, parts of the jaw have been used. The measurements of the panels:

Front and Back ~ 23 cm x 10.5 cm

the Sides ~ 19 cm x 10.5 cm

the Lid (remaining portion) ~ 22,5 cm x 8.5 cm

Anglo-Saxon Charters



Bede: Biography

Bede "the Venerable" was the first great English scholar. He was born in Northumbria (according to tradition, at Monkton, Durham, east of Newcastle) 672 or 673 and died at the monastery of Jarrow (6 m. e. of Newcastle) on May 25, 735. Almost all that is known of his life is contained in a notice added by himself to his *Historia ecclesiastica*, which states that he was placed in the monastery at Wearmouth at the age of seven, that he became deacon in his nineteenth year, and priest in his thirtieth.

He was trained by the abbots Benedict Biscop and Ceolfrid, and probably accompanied the latter to Jarrow in 682. There he spent his life, finding his chief pleasure in being always occupied in learning, teaching, or writing, and zealous in the performance of monastic duties.

His works show that he had at his command all the learning of his time. He was proficient in patristic literature, and quotes from Pny the Younger, Vergil, Lucretius, Ovid, Horace, and other classical writers, but with some disapproval. He knew Greek and a little Hebrew. His Latin is clear and without affectation, and he is a skilful story-teller.

Like all men of his time he was devoted to the allegorical method of interpretation, and was credulous concerning the miraculous; but in most things his good sense is conspicuous, and his kindly and broad sympathies, his love of truth and fairness, his unfeigned piety, and his devotion to the service of others combine to make him an exceedingly attractive character. His works were so widely spread throughout Europe and so much esteemed that he won the name of "the teacher of the Middle Ages."

Bede became known as Venerable Bede soon after his death, but this was not linked to consideration for sainthood by the Roman Catholic Church. His scholarship and importance to Catholicism were recognized in 1899 when he was declared a Doctor of the Church as St Bede The Venerable.



The England of Bede, c.731. Place-names from *The Ecclesiastical History*.
 Source: David Hill, *An Atlas of Anglo-Saxon England* (Oxford, 1981), 30.

Bede's Death Song

Fore thēm nēidfærae nāenig uuiurthit
thoncsnotturra than him tharf sīe
tō ymbhycggannæ, ær his hiniongæ,
huæt his gāstæ gōdæs æththa yflæs
æfter dēothdæge dōemid uueorthæ.

Bede's Death Song in ModE

Before the journey that awaits us all,
No man becomes so wise that he has not
Need to think out, before his going hence,
What judgment will be given to his soul
After his death, of evil or of good.

Cædmon's Hymn

Nu scylun her 3an hefaenricaes uard,
metudæs maecti end his mod3idanc,
uerc uuldurfadur, sue he uundra 3ihuaes,
eci dryctin, or astelidæ.

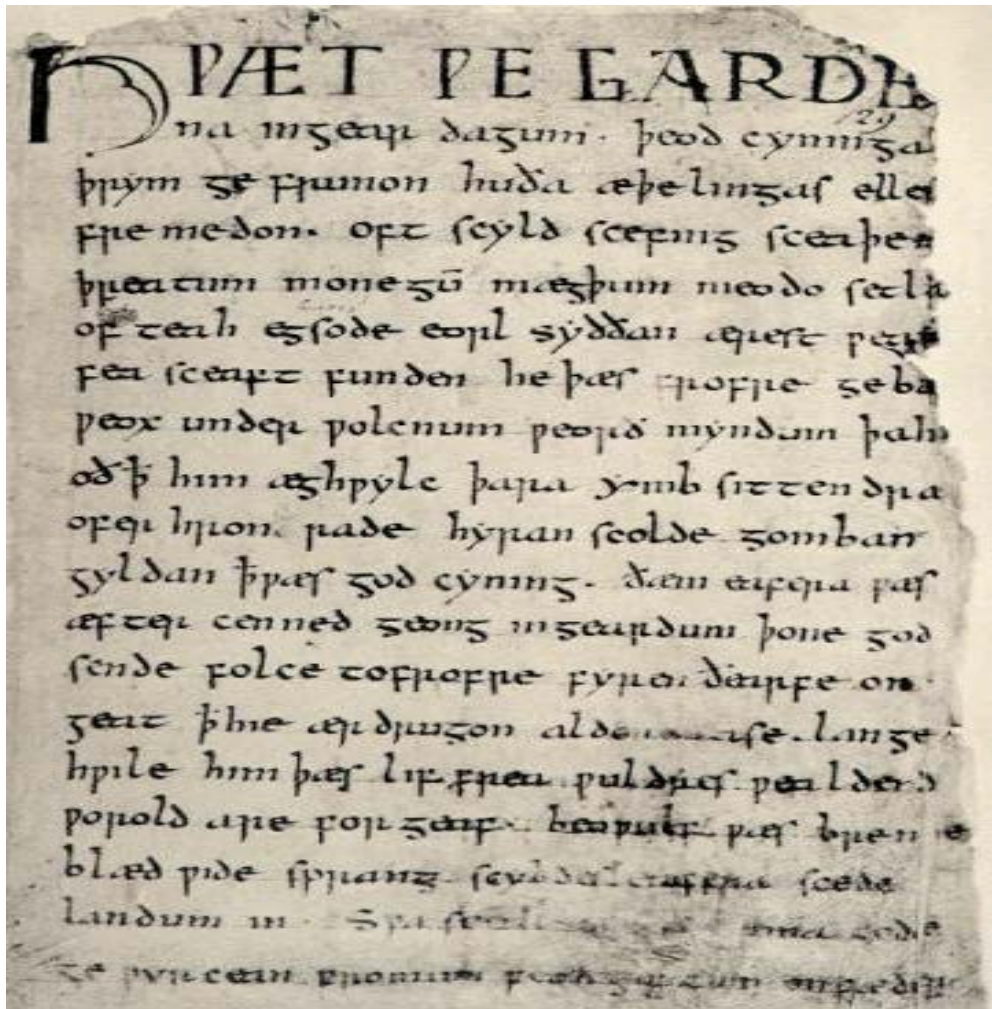
He aerist scop aelda barnum
heben til hrofe, hale3 scepen;
tha middun3eard moncynnæs uard,
eci dryctin, æfter tiadæ

firum foldu, frea allmecti3.

This might be translated literally by each half-line as follows

'Now must [pl.] praise guardian of heavenly kingdom, might of creator and his heart-thought, work(s) of glorious father, as he of each wonder, eternal lord, ordained beginning. He first created to children of men heaven as a roof, holy creator, then middle earth, guardian of mankind, eternal lord, afterwards established, earth for men, almighty lord.

The First Page of “Beowulf”



Toponymy

<i>Celtic plus Latin</i>	<i>Celtic plus Germanic</i>
Man – chester Win – chester Wor – cester Lan – caster	York – shire Salis – bury Lich – field Devon – shire Canter – bury

Ways of Reading Letter Z

/g/	before consonants before back vowels in the middle of the word after n	<i>ʒreat</i> <i>ʒuma</i> <i>sinʒan</i>
/g/	after l after r in the middle of the word between back vowels	<i>folʒian</i> <i>sorʒ</i> <i>draʒan</i>
/h/	in the final position after front vowel	<i>dæʒ</i> <i>wæʒ</i>
/j/	in the beginning of the word before front vowel	<i>ʒeong</i> <i>ʒear</i>

The Old English Phonetic Structure: Vowels

	front	back
short	æ e ɪ y œ	a o u ɑ̃
long	æ e ɪ y œ	a o u -

The Old English Phonetic Structure: Consonants Occlusive

stops								sonorants			
short	p	b	t	k	k'	g	g'	d	m	n	ŋ
long	pp	bb	tt	kk	k'k'	gg	g'g'	dd	mm	nn	-

Constrictive

fricatives					sonorants					
short	f(v)	θ(ð)	s(z)	h(ǵ)	x	x'	r	j	w	l
long	ff	θθ	ss	hh	-	-	rr	-	-	ll

Breaking

Front >Diphthongs

æ > ea

e > eo

i > io

if they were followed by *r, l, h + consonant or single h*

e.g. *ærms* > *earm*

cælds > *ceald*

werc > *weorc*

lirnen > *liornen*

Palatal Mutation

Back	a	o (if followed by i, j)	u
Front	æ	e	y

e.g. *laisjan* > OE *læran*
fodian > OE *fedan*
luttil > OE *lytel*

Exceptions from Palatal Mutation

Palatal mutation didn't take place:

1) due to the failure of chronological coincidence

e.g. *folcisc* (*folk*)

2) if sound *i* was stressed

e.g. *an'lic* (*only*)

3) due to the restoration of unmutated vowels from cognate words

e.g. *mod, n* *modiz, adj*

Double Mutation

In words consisting of three syllables with **a, o, u** in the first syllable, **u** in the second and **i** in the third the vowels of the first two syllables became front:

e.g. OS *arundi* – OE *ærende*

OS *saturni-dæz*– OE *sæterndæz*

Traces of Palatal Mutation in Modern English

1. In some plurals of nouns
e.g. *man – men*
2. In some abstract nouns formed from adjectives
e.g. *strong – strength*
3. In some verbs formed from nouns
e.g. *food – to feed*
4. In some verbs formed from adjectives
e.g. *full – to fill*
5. In some comparatives
e.g. *old – elder – eldest*

Back Umlaut

Front vowels **æ, e, i** turned into diphthongs if the following syllable contained a back vowel – **a, o, u**

- e.g. **æ** > **ea** *cæ* > *cruearu*
 e > **eo** *hefon* > *heofon*
 i > **io** *silufr* > *siolufr*

Lengthening of Vowels

4. The rejection of nasals before fricatives:
OHG *ʒans* – OE *ʒos*
sinhs – *sip*, *uns* – *us*
5. The loss of /h/ before /d/
mæʒden – *mæden*
sæʒde – *sæde*
6. As a result of contraction:
slazan > *sleazan* > *sleaan* > *slean*

Consonantal Changes

Palatalisation of Initial Consonants

1. Initial consonants [k, g, g] were palatalized and turned into [k', g', g']

e.g. *ceap*, *senzian*

2. Combination *sc* was always palatal

e.g. *scip*

3. Later the palatal consonants turned into sibilants (assibilation)

k' > tʃ *g' > dʒ* *sk' > ʃ*

e.g. *cild* > *child* *brycʒ* > *bridge* *scip* > *ship*

If the vowel was not original, assibilation didn't take place.

Goth. *kuninʒ* > *cyninʒ* > *kinʒ*

Changes of Vowels in Unstressed Syllable

loss of vowels	shortening of vowels	reduction of vowels
<p>- in open syllable unstressed vowel was lost</p> <p>e.g. <i>mazap̄s</i> > <i>mæʒden</i></p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>haitada</i> > <i>hatte</i></p> <p>- vowel [u] was lost if the vowel in the stressed syllable was long</p> <p>e.g. <i>sceapu</i> > <i>sceap</i></p>	<p>- all long vowels became short in unstressed syllable</p> <p>e.g. <i>stanæ</i> > <i>stane</i></p>	<p>- in unstressed syllable vowels are reduced</p> <p style="text-align: center;">[a, æ, e] > e</p> <p style="text-align: center;">[u] > o</p> <p>e.g. <i>blæc<u>u</u>st</i> > <i>blacost</i></p> <p style="padding-left: 40px;"><i>stanæ</i> > <i>stane</i></p>

Nouns of A-Stem Declension

Masculine Gender

Singular		Plural
N	<i>stan</i>	<i>stanas</i>
G	<i>stanes</i>	<i>stana</i>
D	<i>stane</i>	<i>stanum</i>
Acc	<i>stan</i>	<i>stanas</i>

Neuter Gender

(short syllable)

Singular		Plural
N	<i>scip</i>	<i>scipu</i>
G	<i>scipes</i>	<i>scipa</i>
D	<i>scipe</i>	<i>scipum</i>
Acc	<i>scip</i>	<i>scipu</i>

(long syllable)

Singular		Plural
N	<i>swin</i>	<i>swin</i>
G	<i>swines</i>	<i>swina</i>
D	<i>swine</i>	<i>swinum</i>
Acc	<i>swin</i>	<i>swin</i>

Nouns of O-Stem Declension

	Singular	Plural
N	<i>lufu</i>	<i>lufa</i>
G	<i>lufe</i>	<i>lufa</i>
D	<i>lufe</i>	<i>lufum</i>
Acc	<i>lufe</i>	<i>lufa</i>

Nouns of Root-Stem Declension

	Singular	Plural
N	<i>fot</i>	<i>fet</i>
G	<i>fotes</i>	<i>fota</i>
D	<i>fet</i>	<i>fotum</i>
Acc	<i>fot</i>	<i>fet</i>

Nouns of N-Stem Declension

	Singular	Plural
N	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>
G	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>	<i>nama<u>na</u></i>
D	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>	<i>nama<u>m</u></i>
Acc	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>	<i>nama<u>n</u></i>

OE Composition

Substantives:

“subst.+subst.”: *æfentīd*

“adject.+adject.”: *cwisceolfor*

Adjectives:

“subst.+ adject.”: *wīn-sæd*

“adject.+adject.”: *wīd-cūþ*

“adject.+ subst.”: *blī þ-heort*

zlæd-mod

Compound verbs are rare: e.g. *efenþrōwian*

OE Adjectives

Strong Declension

		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Sing.	N.	gōd	gōd	gōd
	G.	gōd-es	gōd-re	gōd-es
	D.	gōd-um	gōd-re	gōd-um
	A.	gōd-ne	gōd-e	gōd-
	I.	gōd-e		gōd-e
Pl.	N.	gōd-e	gōd-a	gōd
	G.	gōd-ra	gōd-ra	gōd-ra
	D.	gōd-um	gōd-um	gōd-um
	A.	gōd-e	gōd-a	gōd

Weak Declension

		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Sing.	N.	gōd-a	gōd-e	gōd-e
	G.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-an
	D.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-an
	A.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-e
Pl.	N.	gōd-an gōd-ena <i>or</i> gōd-ra gōd-um gōd-an		
	G.			
	D.			
	A.			

Degrees of Comparison of OE Adjectives

- The suffixes forming degrees of comparison are: **-ra, -ost**,
e.g. *blæc – blæcra – blacost*
- A number of adjectives had mutated comparatives:
e.g. *ƷeonƷ – ƷinƷra – ƷinƷest*
- Suppletive forms:
e.g. *Ʒod – bettra – bet(e)st (good)*
lytel – læssa – læst (little)
micel – mara – mæst (much)

Old English Adverb

1. A qualitative adjective + **e**:

e.g. *fæst – fæste*

heard – hearde

2. An adjective + **lic** + **e**

e.g. *heard – heardlice*

3. From some cases of nouns:

e.g. Gen. Sg. *niztes – by night*

dæƷes – by day

Dat. Pl. *wundurum – wonderfully*

OE Preposition

1. **Primary:**

of, to, mit, wiþ, æt, on

- Secondary:**

before, ætƷædere

2. **Spatial meaning:**

on þæm lande

- Temporal meaning:**

on morƷenne

The Old English Numeral

Number	Old English	Modern English
1	an	one
2	twegen	two
3	þreo	three
4	feofer	four
5	fif	five
6	siex	six
7	seofan	seven
8	eaƷta	eight
9	niƷta	nine
10	tiene	ten
11	endleofan	eleven
12	twelfe	twelve
13 – 19	number + tiene e.g. <i>feofertiene</i>	fourteen
20 – 60	number + tiƷ e.g. <i>feofertiƷ</i>	forty
70 - 120	hund + number + tiƷ e.g. <i>hundeƷtatiƷ</i>	eighty

Old English Personal Pronouns

Singular

	1 st person	2 nd person	3 rd person		
			masc.	fem.	neutr.
N	ic	þu	he	heo	hit
G	min	þin	his	hire	his
D	me	þe	him	hire	him
Acc	me	þe	hine	hie	hit

Dual Number

N	wit	3it
G	uncer	incer
D	unc	inc
Acc	unc	inc

Plural

N	we	3e	hie
G	ure	eower	hiera
D	us	eow	him
Acc	us	eow	hie

Demonstrative Pronouns

	<i>Singular</i>			<i>Plural</i>
	<i>masculine</i>	<i>feminine</i>	<i>neuter</i>	
N	se	seo	þæt	þa
G	þæs	þære	þæs	þara
D	þæm	þære	þæm	þæm
Acc	þone	þa	þæt	þa
Instr	þy			

Strong Verbs

	Infinitive	Past (Sg)	Past (Pl)	Past Participle
I	<i>writ<u>an</u></i>	<i>wrat</i>	<i>writ<u>on</u></i>	<i>written</i>
II	<i>beod<u>an</u></i>	<i>bead</i>	<i>bud<u>on</u></i>	<i>bod<u>en</u></i>
III	a) nasal+conson. <i>drinc<u>an</u></i>	<i>dranc</i>	<i>drun<u>con</u></i>	<i>druncen</i>
	b) l+conson. <i>help<u>an</u></i>	<i>healp</i>	<i>hul<u>pon</u></i>	<i>holp<u>en</u></i>
	c) r+conson. <i>steorf<u>an</u></i>	<i>stearf</i>	<i>stur<u>fon</u></i>	<i>storf<u>en</u></i>
IV	<i>ber<u>an</u></i>	<i>bxr</i>	<i>bxr<u>on</u></i>	<i>bore<u>n</u></i>
V	<i>tred<u>an</u></i>	<i>trxd</i>	<i>trxd<u>on</u></i>	<i>tred<u>en</u></i>
VI	<i>far<u>an</u></i>	<i>for</i>	<i>for<u>on</u></i>	<i>fare<u>n</u></i>
VII	<i>hat<u>an</u></i>	<i>het</i>	<i>het<u>on</u></i>	<i>hate<u>n</u></i>

Strong Verbs

The strong verbs fall into seven distinct patterns. The patterns are usually indicated through the forms of the infinitive, preterite singular (third person), preterite plural and past participle.

I. ī ā i i
 rīdan rād ridon ridden (to ride)

II. ēo/ū ēa u o
 lēosan lēas luron loren (to lose)

III. e æ u o
 helpan healp hulpon holpen (to help)

IV. ea > æ
 e æ æ o
 beran bær bæron boren (to bear)

V. e æ æ e
 sprecan spræc spræcon specen (to speak)

VI. a ō ō a
 faran fōr fōron faren (to go, to travel)

VII. This group shows different patterns because it originally consisted of reduplicating verbs. But the vowel or diphthong of the infinitive was repeated in the participle and both forms of the preterite had either *e* or *ēo*.

 hātan hēt hēton hāten (to be called)

Conjugation of Strong Verbs

	Present Indicative	Present Subjunctive
Singular	<i>wri<u>te</u></i>	<i>wri<u>te</u></i>
	<i>wri<u>test</u></i>	
	<i>wri<u>teþ</u></i>	
Plural	<i>wri<u>taþ</u></i>	<i>written</i>

Imperative Mood

Singular	<i>wri<u>t</u></i>
Plural	<i>wri<u>taþ</u></i>

	Past Indicative	Past Subjunctive
Singular	<i>wri<u>at</u></i>	<i>wri<u>te</u></i>
	<i>wri<u>test</u></i>	
	<i>wri<u>at</u></i>	
Plural	<i>wri<u>ton</u></i>	<i>written</i>

Weak Verbs

Class I		Class II	Class III
regular	irregular		
<i>deman – demedede – demed;</i>	<i>tellan – tealde – teald</i>	<i>macian – macode – macod;</i>	<i>libban – lifde – lifd;</i>
<i>fremman – fremede – fremed</i>		<i>lufian – lufode – lufod</i>	<i>seczan – sæzde – sæzd</i>

Preterit Present Verbs

<i>witan</i> <i>cunnan</i>							
Indicative							
Present Tense				Past Tense			
<i>S_{sg}</i>	I	II	III	<i>S_{sg}</i>	I	II	III
	<i>wat</i> <i>cann</i>	<i>wast</i> <i>canst</i>	<i>wat</i> <i>cann</i>		<i>wiste</i> (-sse), <i>cupe</i>	<i>wistest</i> (-sset), <i>cupest</i>	<i>wiste</i> (-sse), <i>cupe</i>
<i>PI</i>	<i>witon,</i> <i>cunnon</i>			<i>PI</i>	<i>wiston</i> (-sson), <i>cupon</i>		

Anomalous Verbs

<i>wesan</i> <i>beon</i>											
Present Indicative				Past Indicative				Past Subjunctive			
<i>S_{sg}</i>	I	II	III	<i>S_{sg}</i>	I	II	III	<i>S_{sg}</i>	I	II	III
	<i>eom</i> <i>beo</i>	<i>eart</i> <i>bist</i>	<i>is</i> <i>bip</i>		<i>wæs</i>	<i>wære</i>	<i>wæs</i>		<i>wære</i>		
<i>PI</i>	<i>sint</i> <i>beop</i>			<i>PI</i>	<i>wæron</i>			<i>PI</i>	<i>wæren</i>		

Types of Sentences

I	Declarative		<i>þa bearmas and þa finnas spræcon neaz an zeþeode</i>
II	Interrogative	general questions	<i>eart þu Esau?</i>
		special questions	<i>hwæt sceal ic sinzan?</i>
III	Exclamatory		<i>sinz me hwæt-hwuzu!</i>

Syntactical Relations and Means of Expressing Them

I. Concord (agreement) is represented in predicative and attributive relations.

e.g. *ic bidde þæm Deniscum scipum*

II. Government (completive relations)

a) direct

e.g. *Brinz me mete of huntōþe*

b) indirect

e.g. *Eft cwæþ Esau to his sunu*

c) when a noun is modified by another noun

e.g. *hwales ban*

fuzela feþer

Word Order in Old English

Deviation from SP Model

1. Placing some secondary part of the sentence first

e.g. *þa dælde he him his æzte;*

2. In interrogative sentences

- general questions:

e.g. *Eart þu Esau, min sunu?*

- special questions:

e.g. *hwæt eart þu sunu min?*

3. In imperative sentences

e.g. *swiza þu!*

4. Inversion due to emphasis

e.g. *Beowulf is min name.*

5. Synthetical word order (the subject comes first and the predicate closes the sentence)

e.g. *He sæde Alfrede cyninze þæt he ealra norþmanna norþmest bude.*

Old English Syntax

Word Order

Inversion

1. *þa dælde he him his æzte*

2. *Eart þu Esau, min sunu?*

Hwæt eart þu, sunu min?

3. *Swiza þu!*

4. *Beowulf is min name.*

5. *He sæde Elfrede cyninze þæt he ealra Norþmanna norþmest bude.*

Prefixes (OE)

a	arisan, awacan
be	bezan, behon, besettan
for	fordon, forweorþan
ʒe	ʒeseon, ʒewyrcean
mis	mislician, misdæd
of	ofslean, ofteon
on	onbindan, onlucan
to	tobrecan, toteran
un	uncuþ
wan	wanhal

Verb Suffixes

s	bletsian, clænsian
læc	nealæcan “approach” ʒerihlæcan “acquit”
ett	bliccettan “sparkle” cohhettan “cough”

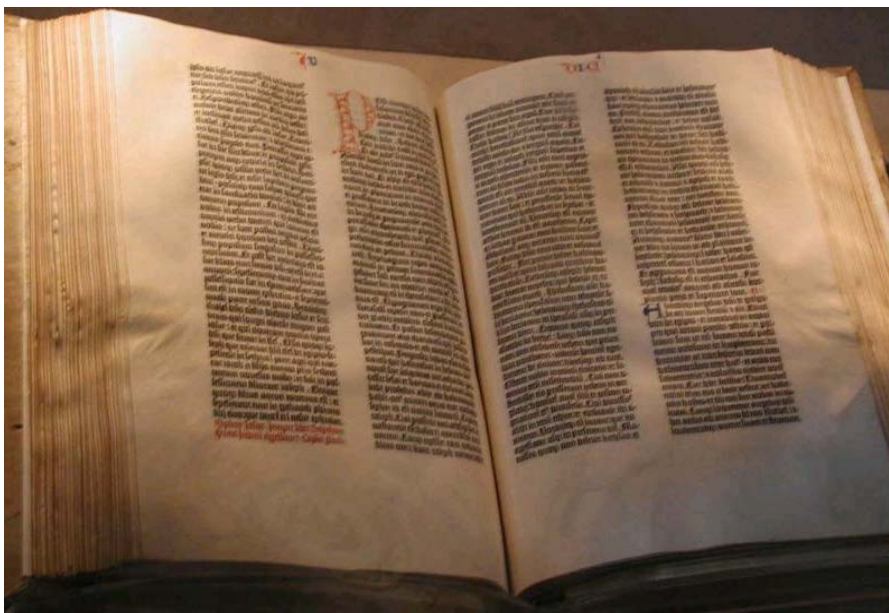
Substantive Suffixes

ere	fiscere “fisherman” writere “writer”
estre	bæcestre “baker”
end	demend “judge”
inʒ	cyninʒ “king”
en	ʒyden “goddess”
nes	ʒodnes “goodness”

ME Dialects



Gutenberg Bible (Library of Congress, Washington D.C.)



Chaucer: Illustration from Cassell's History of England, circa 1902.

Born c. 1343. Died October 25, 1400 (Aged c.57)

Occupation: Author, poet, philosopher, bureaucrat, diplomat

Influenced Ovid



Canterbury Tales Woodcut 1484



ME Changes in Spelling:

Consonants

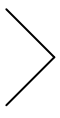
Old English	Middle English
c /k/ <i>cild</i> <i>boc</i>	ch /tʃ/ <i>child</i> <i>bok</i>
cw /kw/ <i>cwen</i>	qu /kw/ <i>queen</i>
f /f/ , /v/ <i>æfre</i>	f /f/ v /v/ appeared <i>ever</i>
	dg /dʒ/ <i>bridge</i> gh /h/ <i>light</i>
sc /sk/ <i>scip</i>	sh /ʃ/ <i>ship</i>
þ /θ/, /ð/ <i>þæt</i>	th /θ/, /ð/ <i>thatte</i>

Changes in Spelling:

Vowels

Old English	Middle English
u <i>hus</i> <i>sup</i>	ou <i>hous</i> <i>south</i>
y <i>yvel</i>	u <i>uvel</i>
u <i>sum</i> <i>sunu</i>	o <i>some</i> <i>sone</i>
e, y	ie, ui <i>chief,</i> <i>field, build</i>

Middle English Changes in Phonetics: Vowels

Front **i, e** did not change
Back **o, u** 

y, æ, a; ea, eo, io – changed

1. **y – i** /northern dialect/

e.g. *fyllan – fillen; fyr – fir*

y – e /southern dialect/

e.g. *fyllan – fellen; fyr – fer*

y – y /western dialect/

2. **æ – a**

e.g. *þæt – that*

æ – a /southern dialect/

e.g. *æfter – after*

æ – e

e.g. *æfre – evre*

æ – a

e.g. *fæt – fat*

3. **a – o**

e.g. *stan – ston*

ʒan – ʒon

Middle English
Unstressed Endings

Old English	Middle English
an <i>drincan</i>	en <i>drinken</i>
as <i>stanas</i>	es <i>stones</i>
a	e
u <i>sunu</i>	e <i>sune</i>
<i>wyn</i> <i>syn</i>	mute “e” appeared <i>wine</i> <i>sine</i>

ME Simplification of Groups of Consonants

h was lost before **l, n, r**

Old English	Middle English
hl <i>hlaford</i>	l <i>loverd</i>
hn <i>hnute</i>	n <i>nute</i>
hr <i>hring</i>	r <i>ring</i>

Simplification of OE Diphthongs

All diphthongs were monophthongized

Old English	Middle English
ea <i>healf</i> <i>earn</i>	a <i>half</i> <i>arm</i>
ea <i>beam</i> <i>stream</i>	e <i>bem</i> <i>strem</i>
eo <i>heorte</i> <i>steorfan</i>	e <i>herte</i> <i>sterven</i>
eo <i>ceosan</i> <i>deor</i>	e <i>chesen</i> <i>der</i>
io <i>siolfor</i>	eo > e <i>seolfor – selver</i>
ea <i>sceacan</i>	a <i>shaken</i>

Middle English Changes in Phonetics:

Consonants

Old English	Middle English
<p>/k/</p> <p><i>cild</i></p> <p><i>cycen</i></p>	<p>/tʃ/</p> <p><i>child</i></p> <p><i>kichen</i></p>
<p>/sc/</p> <p><i>scip</i></p> <p><i>scinan</i></p>	<p>/ʃ/</p> <p><i>ship</i></p> <p><i>shinen</i></p>
<p>/ʒ/</p> <p><i>bryʒ</i></p> <p><i>eʒ</i></p>	<p>/dʒ/</p> <p><i>bridge</i></p> <p><i>edge</i></p>
<p>/ʒ/</p> <p><i>boʒa</i></p> <p><i>sorʒ</i></p>	<p>/w/</p> <p><i>bowe</i></p> <p><i>sorwe</i></p>
<p><i>hwilc - hwilch</i></p>	<p>/l/ disappeared before /tʃ/</p> <p><i>hwich - which</i></p>
<p><i>swuster</i></p>	<p>/w/ disappeared before u</p> <p><i>suster</i></p>

Formation of New Diphthongs

front vowel + g	
Old English	Middle English
eg <i>weʒ</i>	ei, ey <i>wei, wey</i>
æʒ <i>dæʒ</i>	ai, ay <i>dai, day</i>
back vowel + g	
ag <i>draʒan</i>	aw <i>drawen</i>
og <i>boʒa</i>	ow <i>bowe</i>

Formation of New Vowels

e o (open)

e o (close)

	Old English	Middle English
e	<i>he</i> <i>beam</i> <i>sæ</i>	<i>he</i> <i>bem</i> <i>se</i>
o	<i>hopian</i> <i>stan</i>	<i>hopen</i> <i>ston</i>
e	<i>feld</i> <i>seon</i>	<i>feld</i> <i>sen</i>
o	<i>sona</i>	<i>sone</i>

ME Morphological Structure:

Noun

Nom. Sg, Nom., Gen., Acc. Pl.	Acquired a common ending -e
Nom., Gen., Acc. Pl. (-an, -en) Dat. Pl. (-um) Gen., Dat., Acc. Sg. (-an)	changed -an > -en > -e
Nom., Acc. Pl. (-as) Gen. Sg. (-es)	now had -es which existed for a long time

One type of declension was formed.

Middle English Period

Personal Pronouns

		I	II	III		
				masculine	feminine	neuter
Singular	Nom.	I, ich	thow	he	she	hit, it
	Obj.	me	the	him	her	hit, it
Plural	Nom.	we	ye	hi, they		
	Obj.	us	you	hem, them		

Middle English Possessive Pronouns

		I	II	III		
				masculine	feminine	neuter
Singular		min, mi	thin, thi	his	her	his
Plural		our	your	hire, their		

ME Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns underwent great changes in ME. The definite article came out of the category of demonstrative pronouns. the system of declension of the demonstrative pronouns was simplified.

	<i>Masc. gender</i>			<i>Neuter gender</i>		
	OE	ME		OE	ME	
N.	sē	the	the	þæt	that	that
G.	þæs	thes	–	þæs	thes	–
D.	þēm	than	–	þæm	than	–
Acc.	þōne	thane	–	þæt	that	–

Plural form þā turned into thōse. The definite article the and the demonstrative pronoun that in the 15-th century were no longer declined and had no genders.

In the 15-16-th centuries such forms appeared: this – these, that – those.

Middle English Period

Adjective

Degrees of Comparison

	-er	-est
glad fayr	gladder fayrer	gladdest fairest
suppletive forms		
god evil littel	bettre werse lesse	best werst lest
mutated forms		
old long strong	elder lenger strenger	eldest longest strengest

Middle English Numeral

on	1
two	2
thre(e)	3
fower, four	4
five	5
six	6
seven	7
eighte	8
nizen > nine	9
ten	10
endleven, eleven	11
twelve	12
13-19 – tene e.g. <i>fourtene</i>	13-19
20-90 – ti, ty e.g. <i>fourty</i>	20-90
millioun (French)	1000000

Middle English
Strong Verbs

I class				
OE	<i>stigan</i>	<i>stag</i>	<i>stigon</i>	<i>stigen</i>
ME	<i>stigen</i>	<i>stog</i>	<i>stigen</i>	<i>stigen</i>
II class				
OE	<i>beodan</i>	<i>bead</i>	<i>budon</i>	<i>boden</i>
ME	<i>beden</i>	<i>bod</i>	<i>boden</i>	<i>boden</i>
III class				
OE	<i>drincan</i>	<i>dranc</i>	<i>druncon</i>	<i>druncen</i>
ME	<i>drinken</i>	<i>drank</i>	<i>dronken</i>	<i>dronken</i>
OE	<i>helpan</i>	<i>healp</i>	<i>hulpon</i>	<i>holpen</i>
ME	<i>helpen</i>	<i>halp</i>	<i>holpen</i>	<i>holpen</i>
IV class				
OE	<i>beran</i>	<i>bær</i>	<i>bæron</i>	<i>boren</i>
ME	<i>beren</i>	<i>bar</i>	<i>bar</i>	<i>boren</i>

The Peculiarities of Mid E Syntax:

1. Gradual fixation of word-order of a sentence: S+P+O

When the sentence began with adverbial modifier the word order was indirect.

This 3ere f̄or the King Stevne over s̄e.

2. Existence of more than one negation.

3. Adverbial use of the prepositions.

4. Extensive use of the prepositional constructions.

5. Extensive use of the Subjunctive Mood.

6. The use of the auxiliary verb *dōn*.

7. The formation and the use of the analytical forms of the verb by means of *haben* (have), *willen* (will), *shullen* (shall), *ben* (to be).

The Great Vowel Shift

Spelling	Middle English Pronunciation	Modern English Pronunciation
<i>take</i>	/tɑ:'kə/	/teik/
<i>beat</i>	/bɜ:'tə/	/bi:t/
<i>meet</i>	/me:'tə/	/mi:t/
<i>like</i>	/'li:kə/	/laik/
<i>boat</i>	/bɔ:t/	/bout/
<i>tool</i>	/to:l/	/tu:l/
<i>house</i>	/hu:s/	/haus/

The Effects of the Great Vowel Shift

M.E.	Chaucer		Shakespeare
ī	[fi:f]	<i>five</i>	[farf]
ē	[me:də]	<i>meed</i>	[mi:d]
ē	[kle:nə]	<i>clean</i>	[kle:n]
ā	[na:mə]	<i>name</i>	[ne:m]
ō	[gɔ:tə]	<i>goat</i>	[go:t]
	[ro:tə]	<i>root</i>	[ro:t]
ū	[du:n]	<i>down</i>	[daun]

NE Irregular Verbs

1. Strong verbs:

write – wrote – written

get – got – got

2. Weak regular verbs:

feel – felt- -felt

send – sent – sent

3. Weak irregular verbs

sell – sold – sold

buy – bought – bought

4. Unchangeable verbs:

put – put – put

split – split – split

5. Anomalous verbs

Chronology

Ruler	Historical events	Literary events
	400	
	Withdrawal of Roman forces (410) Anglo-Saxon Settlement commences Last Roman Emperor deposed (476)	
Legendary King Arthur	500	
	600	
Edwin, King of Northumbria (616–33) Penda, King of Mercia (626–55)	Conversion of Kent to Christianity (597) Conversion of Northumbria (625) Sutton Hoo ship burial (635)	
	700	
Offa, King of Mercia (757–96)		Cædmon's Hymn
	800	
	Danish raids commence (787)	
Alfred the Great, of Wessex (871–99)		
	900	
Æthelstan (924–40)	Dane-law established (886) Unification of England	Anglo-Saxon Chronicle begun <i>Brunanburh</i>
	1000	
Ethelred the Unready (978–1016)	Death of Ælfric (1010)	West Saxon Gospels <i>Battle of Maldon</i>
Cnut (1017–35) Danish Rule (1017–42) Edward the Confessor (1042–66) William I (1066–87) * William II (1087–1100) Henry I (1100–1135)	• Norman Conquest (1066)	
	1100	
		<i>Peterborough Chronicle ends</i>
Stephen (1135–54) Henry II (1154–89)	Oxford University established (1167)	<i>Ormulum</i>
	1200	
Richard I (1189–99) John (1199–1216) Henry III (1216–72)	Loss of Normandy (1204) Arrival of the Friars (1221)	<i>Ancrene Wisse</i>

Edward IV (1461–83)		Wars of the Roses (1455–85)	
Edward V (1483)/Richard III (1483–85)		Introduction of printing (1476)	
Henry VII (1485–1509)	1500	Discovery of America (1492)	Skelton
Henry VIII (1509–47)			Tyndale's Bible
Edward VI (1547–53)/Mary (1553–58)		Dissolution of the Monasteries (1536–9)	
Elizabeth I (1558–1603)		Loss of Calais (1558)	
James I (1603–25)	1600	East India Co founded (1600)	
Charles I (1625–49)		Union with Scotland (1603)	A. V. of Bible (1611)
The Commonwealth (1649–60)		First American colonies	Shakespeare First Folio (1623)
Charles II (1660–85)			<i>Paradise Lost</i> (1667)
James II (1685–88)			
William (1689–1702) and Mary (1689–94)			
Anne (1702–14)	1700		Newton's <i>Opticks</i> (1704)
George I (1714–27)			<i>Rape of the Lock</i> (1714)
George II (1727–60)			Johnson's <i>Dictionary</i> (1755)
George III (1760–1820)			
		American Declaration of Independence (1776)	
	1800	First Australian colonies	
George IV (1820–30)			
William IV (1830–37)		First passenger railway (1830)	<i>Pickwick Papers</i>
Victoria (1837–1901) *		India under Crown rule (1858)	
		Primary Education Act (1870)	<i>New English Dictionary</i> (1884)
Edward VII (1901–10)	1900	First petrol-driven car (1885)	
George V (1910–37)		Earliest aircraft (1903)	
		First public radio broadcast (1906)	
George VI (1937–53)		First World War (1914–18)	D. H. Lawrence
Elizabeth II			New English Bible

GLOSSARY

The English alphabet. Old English was first written in the *runic alphabet* known as *futhork*, and isolated runic inscriptions continued to be made in Britain until the 12th c. With the advent of Christianity, *the Roman alphabet* was applied to the language with fairly regular sound-symbol correspondence but sometimes with different spoken realizations in different dialects. Because Old English had phonemes not present in Latin, however, a number of new symbols were introduced: æ (ASH), þ (THORN), ð (ETH), and ƿ (WYNN), thorn and wynn being taken from futhork. The letter g was modified as ȝ (YOGH), which existed alongside continental g for some centuries after the Norman Conquest in 1066. The use of these symbols was discontinued after the introduction of printing in the 15th c, partly because printers' sets of continental typefaces lacked them. By that time, the sound of æ had merged with that of short *a*, the sound of thorn and eth was already spelt *th* in words transliterated from Greek into Latin, and wynn had been largely superseded by *w*. The loss of these letters left an alphabet of 24 letters, in which *i/j* and *u/v* were not clearly distinguished. From about 1600, however, they were gradually separated over a period of more than two centuries into the vowel letters *i*, *u* and the consonant letters *j*, *v*. Graphic variation was long preserved with the two forms of lowercase *s*, written either as *s* or *ʃ* (long *s*), the latter normally in medial position, as in *poʃʃeʃs* *possess*. The greater typographical simplicity of using only one form of *s* led to the rapid abandonment of the long form by printers after 1800, and by the general public soon after. The Roman alphabet as currently used for English consists of the 26 large and small letters *Aa, Bb, Cc, Dd, Ee, Ff, Gg, Hh, Ii, Jj, Kk, Ll, Mm, Nn, Oo, Pp, Qq, Rr, Ss, Tt, Uu, Vv, Ww, Xx, Yy, Zz*. No diacritic marks are normally used for native English words, unless the apostrophe and the diaeresis sign are counted as such.

ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE [c.891- 1154], also *Old English Annals*, *Old English Chronicle*. A set of annals, the first extended original composition in

English, probably begun in the court of King ALFRED and continued in monasteries, in which the seven surviving manuscripts were written. The last, for 1154, is also the last known document in OLD ENGLISH. The Chronicle includes six poems amidst the prose entries, starting with the 937 annal on the battle of Brunanburh. The chroniclers used many sources, including Bede's history, other annals and records, and popular stories. The use of the vernacular rather than Latin for chronicles was rare at that time.

CAXTON, William [C.1420-C.1491], English printer, editor, and translator, who introduced PRINTING to England in 1476, and published the first printed editions of CHAUCER, Lydgate, Gower, and Malory. He was in Bruges in the Low Countries in 1450, where he became a leader of the English community and protege of Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy. At her suggestion, he completed his first translation (from French), *The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye* (1471). Wearied by copying, he went to Cologne to learn the art of printing introduced at Mainz c.1450, and the *Recuyell*, the first book printed in English, was published in 1476 at his press in Bruges.

Caxton set up the first printing house in England near the court and Westminster Abbey, just outside London. He published about 100 works, mostly in English and rarely in fashionable French or revered Latin. His first dated book was *Dictes and Sayenges of the Phylosophers* (1477). His patrons included kings, nobles, and wealthy merchants, who sometimes commissioned books, but the religious works which he published were probably the most widely read. Many of his publications were his own translations, but many were by English authors, such as Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* (1478) and Malory's *Morte Darthur* (1485). He sometimes set out his views on language and style in prologues and epilogues added to his publications. Best-known is the prologue to his translation of the French *Eneydos* (1490), where he confronted the difficult choice among late 15th c. styles: native 'olde and homely termes', courtly 'fayr & straunge termes', and 'comyn termes that be dayli vsed'.

CELTIC AND OLD ENGLISH. The influence of Celtic on OLD ENGLISH appears to have been slight: 'The small number of Celtic words which found their way into the English language in earlier times has always been a cause of surprise to philologists' (Bernard Groom, *A Short History of English Words*, 1934). This early impermeability of English can be accounted for in at least three ways: (1) *A familiar environment.* The old and new environments of the Anglo-Saxons were much the same and therefore the vocabulary they brought from mainland Europe served them well in Britain. Unlike the British in Australia a thousand years later, they had no need to adopt local words for novel flora, fauna, and experiences: for almost every-thing they encountered they already had serviceable words. (2) *Little or no hybridization.* There appear to have been no contact languages or CODE-MIXING between Celtic and Anglo-Saxon through which infiltration could occur, as happened later with Norse and with Norman French. Any hybridization in Western Europe at the time appears to have been between Popular LATIN and local languages, not among local languages. (3) *The attraction of Latin.* The major cultural and religious influence of the time was Latin, with an equal impact on Celtic and Germanic. Speakers of both went to Latin for cultural and religious loanwords. It is no more surprising therefore that Celtic did not influence Old English than that both Celtic and Germanic religion collapsed in the face of Christianization.

CELTIC VARIETIES OF ENGLISH. In varieties of English used in Ireland, the ISLE OF MAN, Scotland, and Wales, there has been considerable influence from the local languages, which have served not only as sources of loans but also as substrates for the shaping of these varieties. In the case of IRISH ENGLISH, such influence travelled across the Atlantic from the 16c onward to provide a major element in the English of Newfoundland, England's (and in a sense Ireland's) oldest North American colony.

CORNISH. The ancient Celtic language of Cornwall: 'In Cornwall is two speches: the one is naughty Englyshe, and the other is Cornyshe speche' (Andrew Boorde, *Introduction of Knowledge*, 1547). The language began to

decline during the Reformation, and its last known fluent speaker, Dolly Pentreath of the village of Mousehole, died in 1777.

DANELAW, also **Danelagh**, **Danelaga**. The system of law in the part of England ceded to Danish invaders in 878, and the area itself, roughly north and east of a line from London to Chester. In the mid-10th c, Scandinavian kings maintained a Norse-speaking court at York, but the ordinary population, English and Danish, seems to have developed a simplified language for use in their daily contact. In the later 10th c, the kings of Wessex established overlordship over the Danish settlers, who however retained control of local affairs. William of Malmesbury declared (c.1130) that the language north of the Humber and especially at York 'sounds so harsh and grating that we southerners cannot understand a word of it' and blamed this on the presence of 'rough foreigners' (*De Gestis Pontificum Anglorum*, Book 3, Prologue).

DANISH. A Germanic Language spoken in Denmark, in parts of Schleswig (North Germany), and mostly as a second language in Greenland and the Faroe Islands. It has been historically influential on ENGLISH and NORWEGIAN. In the 9-11th c, Old Danish (NORSE) was used extensively in England, especially in the DANELAW. Danish influence survives in the general vocabulary of English (such as the *sk-* words *sky*, *skill*, *skin*, *skirt*, *scrape*, *scrub*) and the dialect vocabulary of northern England and Scotland (*gate/gait* a road, *sark* a shirt), as well as in the unusual feature that the words *they*, *their*, *them*, *though*, both are all Norse. Danish place-names are common in the Danelaw, especially those ending in *-by* (farm, town), such as *Grimsby*, *Whitby*.

DUTCH. The national language of the Netherlands, virtually identical with Flemish and ancestral to AFRIKAANS. Scholars use the term Netherlandic as a general and especially historical term for the varieties spoken in the Netherlands, Belgium, and north-western France. With English and FRISIAN, Dutch belongs to the Low German branch of the West Germanic group of INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGES; all are structurally similar. Such words as *lip*, *maken*, *open*, *water* show that Dutch is closer to English than is GERMAN, whose equivalents

are *Lippe, machen, offen, Wasser*. It was a major language of commerce in the 17th c, and was established in North America (especially in the colony first known as New Amsterdam, then New York), in southern Africa (where Cape Dutch became Afrikaans), in the Caribbean region, and in Indonesia (formerly the *Dutch East Indies*).

FRISIAN. A Germanic Language spoken in coastal regions and islands in the north of the Netherlands and in neighbouring western Germany to the Danish border; the most closely related of the Continental languages to English. Some scholars have supposed the existence of an ANGLO-FRISIAN language during the migratory period before the ANGLO-SAXON tribes reached Britain in the 5c. The languages share common phonological features, such as: the initial consonant in English *cheese, church, chaff*, Frisian *tsiis, tsjerke, tsjef* (compare DUTCH *kaas, kerk, kaf*, GERMAN *Käse, Kirche, Kaff*); a front vowel in English *sleep, sheep*, Frisian *sliepe, skiep* (compare Dutch *slapen, schaap*, German *schlafen, Schaf*); the loss of n in words such as English *goose, us*, Frisian *goes,us* (compare Dutch *gans, ons*, German *Gans, uns*). The main variety is *Modern West Frisian*, spoken by some 400,000 people in and around the Netherlands province of Friesland. Since the 19th c, Frisian has revived as a literary language. A movement seeking independence from the influence of the province of Holland has enhanced the legal status of Frisian and promoted its use alongside Dutch, especially in schools, where it was illegal until 1937. The Frisian Academy (founded in 1938) sponsors scholarly publications on Frisian history and culture, including a definitive historical dictionary.

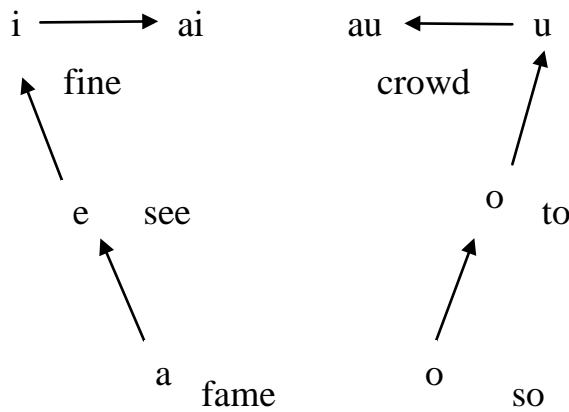
GAELIC. The English name for the Celtic language of Ireland (*Gaeilge*), Scotland (*Gaidhlig*), and the Isle of Man (*Gaelg, Gailck*); commonly pronounced 'Gay-lik' in Ireland, 'Gallik' in Scotland, where it is often referred to, especially by its speakers, as *the Gaelic* (*Does she have the Gaelic? Does she speak Gaelic?*). In Ireland it is generally known as IRISH, and formerly in Scotland was referred to as both Erse and Irish. Gaelic was the principal language of Ire-land before and after Norse settlement in the late 8th c and

remained so until the 18c, after which it went into decline under pressure from English. It was taken 4p Scotland in the 3-5th c and was the foremost language of the kingdom during the early Middle Ages. It dominated the Highlands and Western Isles until the late 18th c, after which it also went into decline under pressure from English. It is the national language of the Irish Republic (co-official with English), spoken by some 100,000 and read by some 300,000 people; in Scotland it has some 80,000 speakers, mainly in the Hebrides and GLASGOW. It died out as a natural language on the ISLE OF MAN with the last native speaker, Ned Maddrell, in 1974, but revivalists sustain a version of it in an ORTHOGRAPHY distinct from the Irish and Scottish varieties. Gaelic was spoken widely in Canada and parts of the US in the 18-19th c, but is now limited to a community of perhaps 5,000 in Nova Scotia, mainly on Cape Breton Island.

GERMANIC LANGUAGES. A group of related languages including ENGLISH, DUTCH, FRISIAN, GERMAN, the SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES (DANISH, Faroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, Swedish), and a number of derived languages (YIDDISH from German, AFRIKAANS from Dutch) as well as the extinct Burgundian, GOTHIC, NORN, and Vandal. In spite of a scholarly tradition going back at least to Jacob Grimm in the early 19c, some basic questions regarding these languages still await convincing answers: At what point in history and in what ways did a common Proto-Germanic break away from Indo-European? Do the various Germanic languages form a DIALECT continuum? How can they best be classified into regional and typological groups? On these issues, linguistic speculation needs the support of more cultural and historical data. What is certain, however, is the common heritage of, and mutual contact between, the Germanic languages, as shown in the table.

English	Dutch	German	Swedish
one	een	eins	en
two	twee'	zwei	tva
three	drie	drei	tre
come	komen	kommen	komma
day	dag	Tog	dag
earth	aarde	Erde	jord
hay	hooi	Heu	hö
live (verb)	leven	leben	leva
waterfall	waterval	Wasserfull	vattenfall
young	jong	jung	ung

GREAT VOWEL SHIFT. A sound change that began c.1400 and ended c.1600, changing late MIDDLE ENGLISH long, stressed MONOPHTHONGS from something like the sounds of mainland European languages to those that they now have: for example, Middle English *fine* had an *i* like Italian *fino*. Words that entered English after the completion of the shift have often retained the original sound, as in *police*: compare *polite*, which entered earlier. In terms of articulation, the Middle English front VOWELS raised and fronted and the back vowels raised and backed; vowels already at the top became DIPHTHONGS with *ah* as the first element and the old vowel as the second, as in *fine* (see diagram). The shift marked a major change in the transition to EARLY MODERN ENGLISH, and is one reason the works of Geoffrey CHAUCER and his contemporaries sound so unlike present-day English. Chaucer's *a* in *fame* sounded much like the *a* in present-day *father*, his *e* in *see* like the *a* in *same*, the *i* in *fine* like the *ee* in *fee*, the *o* in *so* like the *aw* in *saw*, the *o* in *to* like the *oe* in *toe*, and the *ou* or *ow* in *crowd* like the *u* in *crude*.



GRIMM'S LAW. The first Germanic sound shift, a statement of the relationship between certain consonants in GERMANIC LANGUAGES and their originals in Indo- European (IE), first described in 1818 by the Danish philologist Rasmus Rask (1787-1832) and set out in detail in 1822 by the German philologist Jacob Grimm (1785-1863). Greatly simplified, Grimm's Law states the regular changes in IE labials /p, b, f/, velars /k, g, h/, and dentals /t, d, θ/, as they developed in Germanic. In general, Grimm's Law holds that unvoiced IE stops became Germanic unvoiced continuants, that voiced IE stops became Germanic unvoiced stops, and that unvoiced IE continuants became Germanic voiced stops. In the triangles, the change from IE to Germanic runs clockwise, the derivation of Germanic from IE anticlockwise.

MANX GAELIC (*also Manx*). This Celtic language is closely related to Irish and Scottish GAELIC. It was probably introduced in the 4th c by Irish settlers and may have replaced an earlier language similar in structure to Welsh. In the 10-13th c, Manx was influenced by Norse, especially in its lexicon, but continued to be the main language of the island until the end of the 18th c, when English began to assume a dominant role. Ned Maddrell, the last surviving speaker of Manx, died in 1974. The *Manx Society* has sought to sustain Manx as the second language of the island. The form now in use tends to be that of its classical literary period, the 18th c, Anglicisms being replaced by coinages from Manx roots. It tends to be influenced in the spoken form by Irish Gaelic, since islanders can receive the Irish-language programmes of Radio Telefis Eireann.

KENTISH. A dialect of OLD ENGLISH, known in the 8th c only from names in LATIN charters but in the 9th c as a language used for the charters themselves. It may have descended from the speech of the JUTES, who are said to have settled in Kent in the 5th c.

NORSE. Also *Old Norse, Scandinavian*, and (with particular reference to its use in England) DANISH. The SCANDINAVIAN LANGUAGES in an early, relatively homogeneous form, OLD ENGLISH and Old Norse were related and to some extent mutually intelligible. Despite differences in grammar, communication appears to have been widespread, especially in the early Middle Ages when Danes settled in much of England and the country was ruled by Danish kings (1016-42). The numerous PLACE-NAMES in *-by, -thorp, -thweite, -toft* testify to the density of the settlement known as the DANELAW. Many words were identical or similar in the two languages, such as *folk, hus, sorg* (sorrow), which were both English and Norse, and such correspondences as Old English *fæder, gærs/græs, wif*, Old Norse *faðir, gras, vif* (father, grass, wife). Norse came to exercise a marked influence on English, especially when the Norman Conquest in the 11th c broke the continuity of the Old English standard based on the West Saxon dialect. Norse influence has taken two forms: influence, on English at large and influence on NORTHERN ENGLISH and SCOTS.

SANSKRIT. Also, especially formerly, Sanscrit [From Sanskrit *samskrta* put together, well-formed, perfected). The dominant classical and scholarly language of the Indian subcontinent, the sacred language of Hinduism (with Pali), a scriptural language of Buddhism, and the oldest known member of the Indo-European language family. It is usually written in the Devanagari script, which runs from left to right. Much as Latin influenced European languages, Sanskrit has influenced many languages in South and South-East Asia. Since the 19th c, it has also provided loans to European languages including English and French. The most apparent of these loans relate to religion, philosophy, and culture, such as *ahimsa, chakra, guru, karma, kundalini, mahatma, pundit*,

swami, and yoga/yogi, but less direct loanwords in English (borrowed through other languages) include *carmine, cheetah, chintz, chutney, juggernaut, jungle, and jute*.

SAXON. 1. A member of a Germanic people that once lived near the mouth of the Elbe, and in Roman times spread across Germany from Schleswig to the Rhine. Some (the *Anglo-Saxons*; that is, those who joined the Angles) migrated in the 5-6th c to Britain; others (*the Ealdseaxe, Old Saxons*) became the founding people of Saxony, the name of a German territory that has changed its location and political standing several times over the centuries. 2. The DIALECTS spoken by the Saxons in southern England, in Essex (home of the East Saxons), *Middlesex* (the Middle Saxons), *Sussex* (the South Saxons), and *Wessex* (the West Saxons). The term has sometimes been used instead of OLD ENGLISH and ANGLO-SAXON, as the name of the language carried to Britain by the Angles and Saxons.

SCOTTISH GAELIC. The Celtic language of the West Highlands and Western Isles of Scotland. GAELiC-speaking Scots arrived from Ireland on the west coast of what is now Scotland in 3-5th c AD. AS they gradually gained power, their language spread throughout the country, though not the whole population; in the south-east, for example, it was probably used mainly among the ruling classes. With the increased influence of NORTHERN ENGLISH, the use and prestige of Gaelic began to decline and since the 12th c there has been a gradual retraction. Political factors, social pressures, and educational policies have combined to threaten the language with extinction. In the later 20th c, more positive attitudes have developed and efforts are being made to sustain Gaelic, encourage bilingual policies, and give it a valued place in school and preschool education. Many, however, fear that these measures are too little too late. Gaelic is now used as a community language virtually only in the Western Isles. At the 1981 census, there were little over 80,000 speakers, with only a few hundred under the age of five and there are few monoglot speakers above this age.

STANDARD. A prestigious and uniform variety of a LANGUAGE: *the literary standard, standard English*. The application of the term to language dates from the 18th c, when the idea of standard shapes, sizes, and measures and of commercial and manufacturing standards began to develop. Since then, the concepts of a *standard language* (one with agreed norms and conventions) and a language standard (a level below which a 'cultivated' language should not fall) have been closely associated. For some, the expressions are two sides of the same linguistic coin: the standard is and should be the highest and best form of a language. For others, there is no necessary tie between the two: a standard language is an averaging-out of differences, neither higher nor better than any other variety of a language, and used with particular ends in mind. For others still, uncertainty may lead to ambivalence and con-fusion about the relative merit of standards and dialects, DIALECT, colloquial usage, and slang are often lumped together, with greater or less discrimination, as *nonstandard, SUBSTANDARD, or deviant forms* when judged against a dominant form that is taught in all schools and used by all major public and private institutions.

STRONG VERB. A term in the description of GERMANIC LANGUAGES for a VERB that indicates such differences as tense by modifying its vowels: English *ring, rang, rung*. In contrast, WEAK VERBS add inflections: *play, played, played*. These terms are usually re-placed in grammars of MODERN ENGLISH by *regular verb* (in place of weak verb) and *irregular verb* (in place of strong verb). In Old English, strong verbs could have as many as four different vowels, since the first- and third-person singular in the past differed from all the other past forms: compare *was* and *were* in the Modern English past of the verb be. An example from OLD ENGLISH is the verb *helpan*, with e in the present tense, but past *healp* (first- and third-person singular) and *hulpon*, and the past participle *holpen* (with the *-en* inflection found in some Modern English irregular verbs: *shaken, taken*). In Modern English, this verb has become weak (*help, helped*), a change that has affected many other strong verbs over the centuries, such as *climb, step, walk*. The strong verbs that have survived

into Modern English seldom retain the original distinctions, and all (except the highly irregular *be*, with *was* and *were*) have lost the two forms for the past. In some Modern English verbs, the vowels of the past and the past participle have become identical (*sting*, *stung*), and in others all three forms are the same (*put*). Some originally strong verbs have regular variants (*swell*, *swelled*, or *swollen*). A few originally weak verbs have become strong, such as *wear*, *dig*, *fling*. Differences may occur between varieties: (1) *dive*, *dived* in BrE, but often *dive*, *dove* in AmE; (2) *sell*, *sold* and *tell*, *told* in standard English worldwide, but *sell*, *sellt* and *tell*, *tellt* in SCOTS. Occasionally, for facetious purposes, people play with strong forms: *I think very hard about it* and *Where were you brung up?* In general, new verbs in Modern English are regular; that is, formed on the pattern of weak verbs, the pronunciation of the *-ed* inflection as /(\ə)d/ or /t/ varying systematically according to the immediately preceding sound. Verbs formed by prefixation or compounding usually take the same forms as the verbs on which they are based: *offset*, *babysit*, and (both regular and irregular) *deepfreeze*. Some phrasal verbs prefer a weak form (contrast *The car sped up the hill* and *The car speeded up*).

WEAK VERB. In the traditional description of Germanic languages, a VERB that indicates such meaning differences as tense through the addition of inflections: Modern English *play*, *played*. In contrast, STRONG VERBS modify their vowels: *ring*, *rang*, *rung*. The terms are usually replaced in grammars of Modern English by *regular verbs* (in place of weak verbs) and *irregular verbs* (in place of strong verbs).

A selection of dates

associated with the history of the English language.

- 55 BC** Roman military expedition to Britain by Julius Caesar.
- 43 AD** Roman invasion under the emperor Claudius, beginning 400 years of control over much of the island.
- 410** The Goths sack Rome.
- 436** The end of a period of gradual Roman withdrawal. Britons south of the Wall are attacked by the Picts and by Scots from Ireland. Angles, Saxons, and other Germanic settlers come first as mercenaries to help the Britons, then take over more and more territory.
- 449** The traditional date for the beginning of Anglo-Saxon settlements.
- 450-80** The first surviving Old English inscriptions, in runic letters.
- 700** The first manuscript records of Old English from about this time.
- 792** Scandinavians begin to raid and settle in Britain, Ireland, and France. In 793, they sack the monastery of Lindisfarne, the centre of Northumbrian scholarship.
- 795** The Danes settle in parts of Ireland. *
- 815** Egbert of Wessex defeats the south-western Britons of Cornwall and incorporates Cornwall into his kingdom.
- 834** The Danes raid England.
- 865** The Danes occupy Northumbria, establish a kingdom at York, and Danish begins to influence English.
- 871** Alfred becomes king of Wessex, translates works of Latin into English, and establishes the writing of prose in English.

- 886** The boundaries of the Danelaw are settled.
- 1000** The approximate date of the only surviving manuscript of the Old English epic poem Beowulf.
- 1014** The end of Danish rule in Ireland.
- 1066** The Norman Conquest. William defeats Harold Godwin at Hastings, and sets in train the Normanization of the upper classes of the Britain Isles. England multilingual: English the majority language, Danish in the north, Cornish in the far south-west, Welsh on the border with Wales, Norman French at court and in the courts, and Latin in church and school.
- 1150** The first surviving texts of Middle English.
- 1167** The closure of the University of Paris to students from England accelerates the development of a university at Oxford.
- 1209** The exodus of a number of students from Oxford leads to the establishment of a second university in Cambridge.
- 1343-1400** The life of Geoffrey Chaucer.
- 1348** English replaces Latin as medium of instruction in schools, but not at Oxford and Cambridge.
- 1362** Through the Statute of Pleading, written in French, English replaces French as the language of law in England, but the records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used for the first time in Parliament.
- 1384** The publication of John Wycliffe's English translation of the Latin Bible.
- 1385** The scholar John of Trevisa notes that 'in all the gramere scoles of Engelond, children levethe Frensche and construeth and lerneth in Engliche.'

- 1400** By this date the Great Vowel Shift has begun.
- 1450** Printing by movable type invented in the Rhineland.
- 1476** The first English book printed: The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye, translated from French by William Caxton, who printed it at Bruges in Flanders Caxton sets up the first printing press in England, at Westminster In 1478, he publishes Chaucer's Canterbury Tales.
- 1485** The Battle of Bosworth. after which the part-Welsh Henry Tudor becomes King of England. Welsh nobles follow him to London.
- 1525** The publication of William Tyndale's translation of the New Testament of the Bible.
- 1558-1603** The reign of Elizabeth I.
- 1564-1616** The life of William Shakespeare.
- 1607** The Jamestown colony in Virginia, the first permanent English settlement and the first representative assembly in the New World.
- 1619** At the Jamestown colony in America, the first African slaves arrive on a Dutch ship.
- 1620** The Mayflower arrives in the New World and the Pilgrim Fathers set up Plimoth Plantation in Massachusetts. English is now in competition as a colonial language in the Americas with Dutch, French, Spanish, and Portuguese.
- 1622** Publication in London of the first English newspaper, Weekly News.
- 1623** Publication in London of the First Folio of Shakespeare's plays.

- 1662** The Royal Society of London receives its charter from Charles II. In 1664, it appoints a committee to consider ways of improving English as a language of science.
- 1776** The Declaration of Independence by thirteen British colonies in North America and the start of the American War of Independence (1776-83) which created the United States of America, the first nation outside the British Isles with English as its principal language.
- 1852** The publication of Roget's Thesaurus.
- 1917** The publication of Daniel Jones's English Pronouncing Dictionary.
- 1919** The publication of H. L. Mencken's The American Language.
- 1922** The establishment of the British Broadcasting Company, renamed in 1927 the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC).
- The founding in the US of the monthly magazine The Reader's Digest.
- 1928** The publication of Murray's Dictionary as The Oxford English Dictionary, 70 years after Trench's proposal to the Philological Society.
- 1938** Photocopying invented.
- 1942** The publication in Japan of The Idiomatic and Syntactic Dictionary of English, prepared before the war by A. S. Hornby, E. V. Gatenby, and H. Wakefield.
- 1948** The dictionary of Hornby et al is brought out by Oxford University Press as A Learner's Dictionary of Current English.
- 1951** The launch of the first two working business computers:

the LED in the UK and the UNIVAC in the US.

- 1967** The Welsh Language Act gives Welsh equal validity with English in Wales, and Wales is no longer deemed to be a part of England.
- 1969** Canada becomes officially bilingual, with a commitment to federal services in English and French.
- 1984** The launch of the Apple Macintosh personal (desktop) computer.
- 1985** The publication by Longman of *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. The publication by Belknap Press of the first volume of the *Dictionary of American Regional English*.
The launch by Cambridge University Press of the quarterly journal *English Today: The International Review of the English Language*.
- 1986** The showing by the BBC in the UK and public television in the US of *The Story of English*, a television series with both British and American backers, accompanied by a book of the same name, and followed by a radio version on BBC World Service.
- 1989** The publication of the 2nd edition of *The Oxford English Dictionary*, blending the first edition and its supplements.
- 1995** The publication of *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of The English Language* by Cambridge University Press.
- 1996** The publication of *The Oxford English Grammar* by Oxford University Press.

OE and ME Texts

Anglo-Saxon Chronicles

[60 BC]

AER Cristes geflæsnesse .lx. wintra, Gaius Iulius se casere ærest Romana Bretenlond gesohte 7 Brettas mid gefeohte cnysede 7 hie oferswiþde 7 swa þeah ne meahte þær rice gewinnan.

AD 1

Octavianus ricsode .lxvi. wintra, 7 on þam .lxii. geare his rices Crist wæs acenned.

Þa tungelwitgan of eastdæle cuomon to þon þæt hie Crist weorþedon 7 þa cild on Bethlem ofslægene wærun for Cristes ehtnesse from Herode.

3

Her swealt Herodus from him selfum ofsticod, 7 Archilaus his sunu feng to rice.

6

From frymþe middangeardes oþ þis gear wæron agan .v. þusendu wintra 7 .cc. wintra.

11

Her onfeng Herodes Antipatres sunu to rice in Iudea.

12

Philippus 7 Herodes todældun Lyssiam 7 Iudeam feoþericum todældun.

16

Her feng Tiberius to rice.

26

Her onfeng Pilatus gyminge ofer Iudeas.

27

Her onfeng Pilatus to gymenne ouer þa Iudeas.

30

Her wæs Crist gefulluhtud 7 Petrus 7 Andreas gehwierfede 7 Iacobus 7 Iohannes 7 Philippus 7 þa .xii. apostolas.

33

Her wæs Crist ahangen, from fruman middangeardes ymb .v. þusendo wintra 7 .cc. 7 .xxvi. wintra.

34

Her wæs Paulus gehwierfed, 7 sanctus Stephanus oftorfod.

35

Her se eadiga Petrus se apostol gesæt bisecepsetl in Antiochia þære ceastre.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicles in ModE

- B.C. 60 .** Before the incarnation of Christ sixty years, Gaius Julius the emperor, first of the Romans, sought the land of Britain; and he crushed the Britons in battle, and overcame them; and nevertheless he was unable to gain any empire there.
- A.D. 1 .** Octavianus reigned fifty-six winters; and in the forty-second year of his reign Christ was born. Then three astrologers from the east came to worship Christ; and the children in Bethlehem were slain by Herod in persecution of Christ.
- A.D. 3 .** This year died Herod, stabbed by his own hand; and Archelaus his son succeeded him. The child Christ was also this year brought back again from Egypt.
- A.D. 6 .** From the beginning of the world to this year were gone five thousand and two hundred winters.
- A.D. 11 .** This year Herod the son of Antipater undertook the government in Judea.
- A.D. 12 .** This year Philip and Herod divided Judea into four kingdoms.
- A.D. 16 .** This year Tiberius succeeded to the empire.
- A.D. 26 .** This year Pilate began to reign over the Jews.
- A.D. 30 .** This year was Christ baptized; and Peter and Andrew were converted, together with James, and John, and Philip, and all the twelve apostles.
- A.D. 33 .** This year was Christ crucified; (9) about five thousand two hundred and twenty six winters from the beginning of the world. (10)
- A.D. 34 .** This year was St. Paul converted, and St. Stephen stoned.
- A.D. 35 .** This year the blessed Peter the apostle settled an episcopal see in the city of Antioch.

Beowulf

1	Fyrst forþ gewat:	flota wæs on yþum,
2	bat under beorge.	Beornas gearwe
3	on stefn stigon;	streamas wundon,
4	sund wiþ sande;	secgas bæron
5	on bearm nacan	beorhte frætwe,
6	gubsearo geatolic;	guman ut scufon,
7	weras on wilsip,	wudu bundenne.
8	Gewat þa ofer wægholm winde gefysed	
9	flota famiheals	fugle gelicost,
10	oþ þæt ymb antid	oþres dogores
11	wundenstefna	gewaden hæfde
12	þæt þa lipende	land gesawon,
13	brimclifu blican,	beorgas steape,
14	side sænæssas:	þa wæs sundliden,
15	eoledes æt ende...	

2. **Beornas** – люди, мужі, воїни (від стародавнього тотемічного «ведмідь» – bear, нім. Bar).

5. **on bearm** – на груди, тобто на палубу корабля.

7. **wudu bundenne** – дерево зв'язане, тобто корабель.

10. **dogores** – читай dogres, завдяки випадінню ненаголошеного голосного з метою збереження ритму вірша.

14. **sundliden** – морехід, тобто корабель.

Anglo-Saxon Dictionary

A

an-tid – імен. ж. і (ст.а. the corresponding time of a following day)

æt – прийм. > at > AT, ст.в.н. az, ст.ісл. at, гот. at

B

bat – імен. ч. a > boot > BOAT, ст.ісл. batr

bearn – імен. ч. a > berm (ст.а. bosom) гот. barms, ст.в.н. barm

beam – імен. с. a > bern > BAIRN (ст.а. child) гот. barn, ст.ісл. barn

beorg – імен. ч. a > bergh > BARROW (ст.а. hill, mountain) нім. Berg,
ст.ісл. bjarg

beorgan – де 3 сн.> bergen (ст.а. save, guard)

нім. bergen, ст.ісл. bjarga, гот. Bairgan

beorht – прикм. > bright > BRIGHT, гот. bairhts, ст.ісл. bjart

beorn – імен. ч. a > bern (ст.а. warrior, hero)

beran – де 4 сн.> beren > BEAR (ст.а. carry, bear) нім. ge-bären, ст.ісл. bera,
гот. bairan

bindan – де 3 ch.> bynden > BIND нім. binden, ст.ісл. binda, гот. bindan

bllican – де 1 ch. (ст.а. shine, glitter, sparkle)

brim-clif – імен. с. a (ст.а. cliff by the sea)

D

dæg – імен. ч. a > day > DAY, нім. Tag, ст.ісл. dagr, гот. dags

dogor – див. dæg (in poetry "day")

E

eall – займ. > al > ALL, нім. all, ст.ісл. allr, гот. alls

ende – імен. ч. ja > ende > END, нім. Ende, ст.ісл. endi, гот. andeis

eoled, ealad (?) – імен. (ст.а. water-way), ea + lad < lædan

F

fam – імен. с. a > foam, ст.в.н. feim

fami-heals – прикм. (ст.а. foamy-necked), див. "tam + heals"

fyrst – імен. ч. i > first, frist > FRIST (ст.а. space of time) нім. Frist, ст.ісл. frest
flota – імен. ч. n > flote > FLOAT (ст.а. ship, fleet)
forþ – присл. > forth > FORTH (ст.а. forward, away), нім. fort
frætwa – імен. ж. wo (ст.а. ornaments, treasures)
fugol – імен. ч. a > fowel > FOWL (ст.а. bird) нім. Vogel, ст.ісл. fugl, гот. fugls

G,(3)

gan – де непр. > goon > GO, нім. gehen, шв. ga
gearwe – імен. ж. o > gere > GEAR (ст.а. equipment, armour)
geato-lic – прикм. (ст.а. splendid)
gelic – прикм. > y-lich > LIKE, нім. gleich, ст.ісл. glikr, гот. galeiks
gelicost – див. "gelic"
gesawon, geseah – див. "seon"
gewaden – див. "wendan, gan"
gcwitan – де I сн. (ст.а. go, move)
guma – імен. ч. n > gome (ст.а. man), гот. guma, ст.в.н. gomo, ст.ісл. gumi
guþ-searu – імен. с. wa (ст.а. armour), див. "searu"

H

habban – де 3 сл. > haven > HAVE, нім. haben, ст.ісл. hafa, гот. haban
heals – імен. ч. a > hals (ст.а. neck, throat), нім. Hals
hlaford – імен. ч. a > lhoverd, lord > LORD (ст.а. master)

I,Y

ymb – присл, прийм. > umbe (ст.а. around, about), нім. um, ст.ісл. umb
in – прийм. > in > IN, нім. in, ст.ісл. i, гот. In
yр – імен. ж. jo (ст.а. wave)

L

land, land, lond – імен. с. a > lond > LAND нім. Land, ст.ісл. land, гот. land

licgan – де V сн. > lyen > LIE, нім. liegen, ст.ісл. liggja, гот. ligan

liþan – де I сн. > lithen (ст.а. go, travel) ст.в.н. lidan, ст.ісл. liþa, гот. Leīþan

N

naea – імен. ч. n (ст.а. ship)

næs – імен. ч. ja > nes (ст.а. sea-ness, cliff), див. "sæ-næs"

O

ofer – присл., прийм. > over > OVER, нім. ober, ст.ісл. ofr (преф.), гот. ufar

on – присл., прийм. > on > ON, нім. an, ст.ісл. a, гот. ana

oþ – спол. (ст.а. until, as far as)

ofer – займ. > other > OTHER, нім. ander, ст.ісл. annar, гот. anjaar

oþrum – дав. відм. множ, від oþer

S

sæde – див. "secgan"

sæ-næs – імен. ч. ja (ст.а. sea-cliff), див. "næs"

sand – імен. ч. a > sond > SAND, нім. Sand, ст.ісл. sandr

scufan – де 2 ch. > shoven > SHOVE, нім. schieben, ст.ісл. skufa, гот. skiuban

searu – імен. с. wa (ст.а. armour, device, art) гот. sarw — «зброя», ст.в.н. saro

secg – імен. ч. ja > segge (ст.а. man, warrior) ст.ісл. seggr, ст.сакс. segg

seon – де V сн. > seen > SEE, нім. sehen, ст.ісл. sja, гот. saihvan

side – імен. ж. n > side > SIDE, нім. Seite, ст.ісл. síða

sprecan – де V ch. > speken > SPEAK, нім. sprechen

stefn – імен. ч. i > stem > STEM (ст.а. front part of a ship) нім. Stamm, Stab,

ст.ісл. stafn, stafr

stigan – де I ch. > styen (ст.а. move, mount up) нім. steigen, ст.ірл. stiga,

гот. steigan

stream – імен. ч. a > streem > STREAM (ст.а. flow)

sund – імен. с. а > sound > SOUND (strait) (ст.а. swimming, тут "sea")

sund-lida – імен. ч. n (ст.а. traveller, sailor, тут "ship")

þ, TH

þa – див. "se"

þa – присл. tho (ст.а. then, when, as), ст.ісл. þa

þanne – присл. > thanne > THAN, THEN (ст.а. then, when) нім. denn, ст.ісл.

þa, гот. þan

þætt, þæt – сполучн. > þætte, that > THAT

þe – відн. займ. > þe (ст.а. who, which), гот. þei

U

under – присл., прийм. > under > UNDER нім. unter, ст.ісл. undir, гот. undar

ut – присл. > out > OUT, нім. aus, ст.ісл. ut, гот. ut

W

wæg-holm – імен., ч. а (ст.а. surging sea)

wæs, wæron – див. "wesan"

wendan – де I сл wenden > WEND, WENT мин. ч. від "to go" (ст.а. turn)

нім. wenden, ст.ісл. vanda, гот. wandjan

wer – імен. ч. а > were (ст.а. man, hero), ст.ісл. verr, гот. wair

wesan – де. V сн. неправ. (+beon) > AM, ART, IS, ARE, WAS, WERE нім.

war, waren, ge-wesen, ст.ісл. vera, vesa, гот. Wisan

wil-siþ – імен. ч. а (ст.а. desired journey, voyage)

wind – імен. ч. а > wind > WIND, нім. Wind, ст.ісл. vindr, гот. winds

windan – де. III сл. > wynden > WIND, нім. winden, ст.ісл. vinda, гот. windan

wiþ – прийм. > with > WTTH (ст.а. opposite, against, towards) нім. wider,

ст.ісл. vjar, гот. wijara

wudu – імен. ч. u > wode > WOOD (ст.а. wood, timber, ship)

wunden-stefna – имен. ч. n (ст.а. ship with curved stem)

Examples of Analysis

1. Fyrst – n., masculine gender, i – stem declension, Nom., sing., Mid. E *first*, *frist*, Mod. E *FRIST*; OE meaning “space of time”. Germ. *Frist*, ON *frest* //

notes: 1. OE *y* > Mid. E *i* (changing in phonetics, vowels (Mid. E), North. Dialect).

2. OE *yr* > Germ. *ri* (v + r > r + v – Metathesis)

2. wundon – v., strong, class III, past pl. of *windan*; 4 principal forms: *windan* – *wand* – *wundon* – *wunden*; Mid. E *wynden*, Mod. E *WIND*, Germ. *winden*, ON *vinda*, Goth. *windan* //

notes: 1. OE *i* > Mid. E *y* (changes in spelling, vowels).

2. OE *an* > Mid. E *en* (reduction of vowels in unstressed syllables).

Bede's Death Song

Fore thēm nēidfæræ nānig uuiurthit
thoncsnotturra than him tharf sīe
tō ymbhycggannæ, ær his hiniongæ,
huæt his gāstæ gōdæs æththa yflæs
æfter dēothdæge dōemid uueorthæ.

Bede's Death Song in ModE

Before the journey that awaits us all,
No man becomes so wise that he has not
Need to think out, before his going hence,
What judgment will be given to his soul
After his death, of evil or of good.

Caedmon's Hymn

Nu we sculon herigean	heofonrices weard,
meotodes meahte	ond his modgeþanc,
weorc wuldorfæder,	swa he wundra gehwæs,
ece drihten,	or onstealde.
He ærest sceop	eorðan bearnum
heofon to hrofe,	halig scyppend;
þa middangeard	moncynnes weard,
ece drihten,	æfter teode
firum foldan,	frea ælmihtig.

Caedmon's Hymn in ModE

Now we must praise	the Protector of the heavenly
kingdom,	
the might of the Measurer	and His mind's purpose,
the work of the Father of Glory,	as He for each of the wonders,
the eternal Lord,	established a beginning.
He shaped first	for the sons of the Earth
heaven as a roof,	the Holy Maker;
then the Middle-World,	mankind's Guardian,
the eternal Lord,	made afterwards,
solid ground for men,	the almighty Lord.

From *The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer (Middle English)

Heere bigynneth the Knyghtes Tale

Whilom, as olde stories tellen us,
Ther was a duc that highte Theseus;
Of Atthenes he was lord and governour,
And in his tyme swich a conquerour,
5 That gretter was ther noon under the sonne.
Ful many a riche contree hadde he wonne,
What with his wysdom and his chivalrie;
He conquered al the regne of Femenye,
That whilom was ycleped Scithia,
10 And weddede the queene Ypolita,
And broghte hir hoom with hym in his contree,
With muchel glorie and greet solempnytee,
And eek hir yonge suster Emelye.
And thus with victorie and with melodye
15 Lete I this noble duc to Atthenes ryde,
And al his hoost, in armes hym bisyde.



And certes, if it nere to long to heere,
I wolde have toold yow fully the manere
How wonnen was the regne of Femenye
20 By Theseus, and by his chivalrye,
And of the grete bataille for the nones
Bitwixen Atthenes and Amazones,
And how asseged was Ypolita
The faire hardy queene of Scithia,
25 And of the feste that was at hir weddyng,
And of the tempest at hir hoom-comyng;
But al the thyng I moot as now forbere,
I have, God woot, a large feeld to ere,
And wayke been the oxen in my plough,
30 The remenant of the tale is long ynough.
I wol nat letten eek noon of this route,
Lat every felawe telle his tale aboute,
And lat se now who shal the soper wynne;-
And ther I lefte, I wol ayeyn bigynne.

**From *The Canterbury Tales* by Geoffrey Chaucer (ModE)
Knight's tale**

Once, as old histories tell us,
There was a duke who was called Theseus;
He was lord and governor of Athens,
And in his time such a conqueror
5 That there was no one greater under the sun.
Very many a powerful country had he won;
What with his wisdom and his chivalry,
He conquered all the land of the Amazons,
That once was called Scithia,
10 And wedded the queen Ypolita,
And brought her home with him into his country
With much glory and great ceremony,
And also her young sister Emelye
And thus with victory and with festivity
15 I leave this noble duke riding to Athens,
And all his host in arms beside him.

And certainly, if it were not too long to hear,
I would have told you fully the manner
How the reign of Femenye was won
20 By Theseus and by his chivalry;
And of the great battle at that time
Between Athenians and Amazons;
And how Ypolita was besieged,
The fair, bold queen of Scithia;
25 And of the festivity that was at their wedding,
And of the storm at her home-coming;
But all that matter I must now forgo.
I have, God knows, a large field to till,
And the oxen in my plow are weak.
30 The remnant of the tale is long enough.
Also I will not hinder any one of this company;
Let every fellow tell his tale in turn,
And let's see now who shall win the supper;
And where I left off, I will again begin.

John Gower
Prologue to The Confessio Amantis (Middle English)



Of hem that writen ous tofore
The bokes duelle, and we therefore
Ben tawht of that was write tho:
5 Forthi good is that we also
In oure tyme among ous hier
Do wryte of newe som matiere,
Essampled of these olde wyse
So that it myhte in such a wyse,

10 Whan we ben dede and elleswhere,
Beleve to the worldes eere
In tyme comende after this.

Bot for men sein, and soth it is,
That who that al of wisdom writ
15 It dulleth ofte a mannes wit
To him that schal it aldai rede,
For thilke cause, if that ye rede,
I wolde go the middel weie
And wryte a bok betwen the tweie,
20 Somwhat of lust, somewhat of lore,
That of the lasse or of the more
Som man mai lyke of that I wryte:

And for that fewe men endite
24 In oure englissh, I thenke make
A bok for king Richardes sake,
To whom belongeth my ligeance
With al myn hertes obeissance
In al that evere a liege man
Unto his king may doon or can:
30 So ferforth I me recomande
To him which al me may comande,
Preyende unto the hihe regne
Which causeth every king to regne,
That his corone longe stonde.

Prologue to *The Confessio Amantis* (ModE)

Of those who wrote in days of yore,
The books remain, and we therefore
May learn by what was written then.
Thus it is fit that living men
Should also in this latter age
Find some new subject for their page,
(Though copied from the tales of old)
If it be cast in such a mould
That when we die and go elsewhere
It lingers on the wide world's ear
In times to follow after this.

Only, men say - and truth it is -
That works of wholly solemn kind
Will often dull a reader's mind,
Who studies in them every day;
So I will walk the middle way,
If you advise me so to do,
And write a book between the two -
Something to please, something to profit -
So that the most or least part of it
May give some readers some delight.

And furthermore, since few men write
In our English, I think to make
One book at least for England's sake.
King Richard's sixteenth year it is;
And what will happen after this,
God knows - for men see nowadays,
Whichever way they turn their gaze,
The world so changed and overthrown
That it is well-nigh upside down
Compared with days of long ago.

William Langland
Piers Plowman: The Prologue (Middle English)



- 1 In a somer sesun, whon softe was the sonne,
2 I schop me into a shroud, as I a scheep were;
3 In habite as an hermite unholy of werkes
4 Wente I wyde in this world wondres to here;
5 Bote in a Mayes morwnyng on Malverne hilles
6 Me bifel a ferly, of fairie, me-thoughte.
- 7 I was wery, forwandred, and wente me to reste
8 Undur a brod banke bi a bourne side;
9 And as I lay and leonede and lokede on the watres,
10 I slumbrede in a slepyng, hit swyed so murie.
11 Thenne gon I meeten a mervelous sweven,
12 That I was in a wilderness, wuste I never where;
13 And as I beheold into the est an heigh to the sonne,
14 I sauh a tour on a toft, tryelyche i-maket;
15 A deop dale bineothe, a dungun ther-inne,
16 With deop dich and derk and dredful of sighte.
17 A feir feld full of folk fond I ther bitwene,
18 Of alle maner of men, the mene and the riche,
19 Worching and wandringe as the world asketh.
- 20 Summe putten hem to the plough, pleiden ful seldene,
21 In settinge and in sowynge swonken ful harde,
22 And wonnen that theos wasturs with glotonye distruen.
23 And summe putten hem to pruide, apparaylden hem ther-
after,
24 In cuntenaunce of clothinge comen disgisid.

Piers Plowman: The Prologue (ModE)



- 1 IN a summer season when soft was the sun,
2 I clothed myself in a cloak as I shepherd were,
3 Habit like a hermit's unholy in works,
4 And went wide in the world wonders to hear.
5 But on a May morning on Malvern hills,
6 A marvel befell me of fairy, methought.
- 7 I was weary with wandering and went me to rest
8 Under a broad bank by a brook's side,
9 And as I lay and leaned over and looked into the waters
10 I fell into a sleep for it sounded so merry.
11 Then began I to dream a marvellous dream,
12 That I was in a wilderness wist I not where.
13 As I looked to the east right into the sun,
14 I saw a tower on a toft worthily built;
15 A deep dale beneath a dungeon therein,
16 With deep ditches and dark and dreadful of sight
17 A fair field full of folk found I in between,
18 Of all manner of men the rich and the poor,
19 Working and wandering as the world asketh.
- 20 Some put them to plow and played little enough,
21 At setting and sowing they sweated right hard
22 And won that which wasters by gluttony destroy.
23 Some put them to pride and apparelled themselves so
24 In a display of clothing they came disguised.

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Useful E-Resources

1. Adventure of English

Режим доступа:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K1XQx9pGGd0&list=PLbBvyau8q9v4hcgNYBp4LCyhMHSyq-lhe>

2. Anthology of the English Literature

Режим доступа: <http://www.luminarium.org/>

3. Borrowed Words in English

Режим доступа: <http://www.danshort.com/ie/borrowedwords.htm>

4. English Timeline

Режим доступа:

<http://www.bl.uk/learning/langlit/evolvingenglish/accessvers/index.html>

5. The History of English

Режим доступа: <http://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/>

6. The Origins of the English Language

Режим доступа: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/help/faq-history>

7. Proper Elizabethan & Basic Faïre Accents

Режим доступа: <http://www.renfaire.com/Language/index.html>

8. Significant Historical Written Accounts

Режим доступа: <http://www.britannia.com/history/docs/index.html>

9. Teach Yourself to Read Chaucer's Middle English

Режим доступа: <http://sites.fas.harvard.edu/~chaucer/teachslf/less-0.htm>

10. Timelines of British History

Режим доступа: <http://www.britannia.com/history/timelines.html>

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