ВЄДЄРНІКОВА Т.В., ГОНЧАРОВА О.А.

АНГЛІЙСЬКА МОВА З УРАХУВАННЯМ ГАЛУЗЕВОЇ ПІДГОТОВКИ

Методичні рекомендації до курсу лекцій

«До друку та в світ дозволяю»
директор Інституту інформатизації освіти
професор А. І. Прокопенко

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УКЛАДАЧІ:

Вєдєрнікова Т.В. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, доцент кафедри теорії і практики англійської мови Харківського національного педагогічного університету імені Г.С. Сковороди

Гончарова О.А. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент, доцент кафедри теорії і практики англійської мови Харківського національного педагогічного університету імені Г.С. Сковороди

РЕЦЕНЗЕНТИ:

Лук'янова Г.В. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри іноземних мов Харківського національного університету будівництва та архітектури;

Шевченко А.Г. –   кандидат філологічних наук, доцент кафедри практики англійського усного і писемного мовлення Харківського національного педагогічного університету імені Г.С. Сковороди.

В запропонованих методичних рекомендаціях до курсу «Англійська мова з урахуванням галузевої підготовки» висвітлюється широке коло актуальних питань з історичної фонетики, морфології та синтаксису англійської мови, розглядаються загальні проблеми походження, розвитку і визначення місця англійської мови, узагальнюються іншомовні впливи на її становлення та еволюцію, прослідужється лінгвістичні процеси розвитку і становлення англійської національної мови з прадавніх часів до наших днів. Навчальний матеріал відображає історію розвитку фонетико-граматичних аспектів і лексичного складу англійської мови з сучасних наукових і методичних позицій, передбачаючи тісний зв'язок теоретичної і практичної підготовки.
Для студентів немовних факультетів зі спеціалізацією «Англійська мова».

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PREFACE

The English language has had a remarkable history. In the course of its history the English language has changed a lot, in other words it has been globalized. When we first catch it in historical records, it is a language of none-civilized tribes on the continent of Europe along the North Sea. From those murky and undistinguished beginnings, English has become the most widespread language in the world, used by people for more purposes than any language on Earth.

The purpose of the paper is to retrace development of the Standard English language formation as well as to study linguistic background of its establishment; to review written records in an early stage of the English language development; to inspect the origins of the Standard English language; to analyze linguistic situation in the Middle English Age before the Standardization; to consider the main factors contributing to the Standard English language development; to examine changes in the English language on all levels during its standardization.

The actual course of lectures contains a discussion of some theoretical aspects of language evolution, a short description of the Germanic languages, a preliminary brief survey of the history of English, and a detailed description of the language in the Old English period. Only a sound knowledge of Old English can ensure an understanding of the subsequent development of the language. It is also outlines the development of the English language from the 12th to the 19th century. The description is not based on periods; every aspect of the language — the sounds, spelling, grammar, vocabulary, as well as the relevant historical conditions — is described separately, through all the periods so as to show their uninterrupted evolution and gradual transition from Old English to Modern English.

It is based on the results of recent research in theoretical linguistics and serves as an introduction to the history of the English language.

LECTURE 1
The History of the English Language as a Science. Main Classifications of the Historical Periods

1. Main Periods in the History of the English Language
2. Classification of the Germanic Languages

Introduction

The History of the English Language appeared as a profound science in the 19th century. Every science has its object, subject and aims.

The **object** of The History of the English Language is the English Language itself, its phonetic, grammatical and lexical aspects.

The **subject** of The History of the English Language is:

- main changes in the phonetic structure and spelling of the language at different stages of the development of the language;
- the evolution of the grammatical system;
- the growth and development of the vocabulary.

All these changes are considered against the background of the main historical events that took place in the country.

The **aim** of The History of the English Language is to study the changes mentioned above.

The History of the English Language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest written texts in English are dated in the **7th century**. The earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the **3rd or 4th centuries A.D.**

Language is constantly changing, at different speed and at different linguistic levels (phonetics, grammar, lexicon). The linguistic history explains many features of present-day language.

A language can be studied **synchronically**:

- a certain period in the history of the development of a language is taken (fixed time boundaries) – **horizontal study**;
- each level of a language is studied (phonetics, grammar, lexicon);
- different functional varieties of a language are studied (different dialects of this period).

or diachronically:

- all periods in the history of the development of a language are taken – **vertical study**;
- only one level of a language is studied (phonetics or grammar or lexicon);
- only one functional variety of a language is studied (e.g. Standard English).

These two types of studying a language are closely interconnected and create a full picture of the development of a language.

The History of the English Language is interconnected with **other linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines**:

1. General Linguistics – provides us with general linguistic laws and rules valid for and language.

2. History – historical events that take place in a country influence to a great extent the language of this country.

3. Theoretical Phonetics – provides us with main phonetic notions and helps to explain phonetic phenomena.

4. Theoretical Grammar – provides us with main grammatical notions and helps to explain grammatical phenomena.

5. Lexicology – provides us with main lexicological notions and helps to explain lexical phenomena.

6. Cultural Studies – helps to understand better the connection between the culture and the language of the country and their mutual influence.

7. Literature – gives us examples of the languages of this or that historical period and these works of literature serve as the material for the language research.

Main Periods in the History of the English Language

The historical events that took place on the British Isles have influenced the linguistic situation in the country greatly. The table below shows the interconnection between the history and the language situation:

Dates	Events	Population	Languages
Old English Period			
7th c. B.C.	Celtic Invasion	Celts	Celtic Dialects
7th c. B.C. – 410 A.D.	Roman Invasion	Celts, Romans	Celtic Dialects, Latin
mid.5th c. – late 6th c.	Anglo-Saxon Invasion	Celts, Anglo-Saxons	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects.
597	Introduction of Christianity	Celts, Anglo-Saxons	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects, Latin
after 8th c.	Scandinavian Invasion	Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians (Danes)	Celtic Dialects, Old English Dialects, Latin, Scandinavian Dialects
Middle English Period			
1066	Norman Conquest	Celts, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians, Normans	Celtic Dialects, Middle English Dialects, Latin, French
late 14th c.	English – official language of the country	the English	Middle English Dialects, London Dialect (standard)
New English Period			
1475	Introduction of Printing (William Caxton)	The English	English (New English)
16th – 17th c.	Expansion of the British Empire	The English	English – national language spreading overseas
Modern English Period			
20th c.	**English – a global language**		

Thus, the main periods in the language evolution are (rough dates are given):
1. Old English Period – prewritten (450-700)
                                                    – written (700-1100)
During this period <u>1 million</u> people spoke Old English Dialects
Middle English Period – 1100-1500
During this period <u>4 million</u> people spoke Middle English Dialects
2. New English Period – 1500-1800
3. Modern English Period – 1945 -present time
Nowadays <u>300 million</u> people speak English as a mother tongue.

Classification of the Germanic Languages

There are different classifications of the languages but as far as we deal with the history of the language we will consider **genealogical classification.** It is based on the conception that all the languages

can be classified according to their <u>origin</u>.

There are different points of view on the problem of language origin. Some scholars try to prove that there existed one <u>universal language</u> from which all the other languages stem.

The theory of William Allman (1990):

Proto-Germanic Language (one of the 12 groups of languages belonging to Indo-European family that stemmed from the common Indo-European Language)		
Indo-European Language	8 000 years ago	Turkey
Nostratic Language	14 000 years ago	The Near East
Proto-World Language	200 000 years ago	Africa

Modern classification of the Germanic Languages:

North Germanic Languages	West Germanic Languages	East Germanic Languages
1. Swedish (spoken in Sweden and Finland by 9 mill. people)	**1. English** (spoken by 300 mill. people as a mother tongue + millions speak it as a second language	**1. Gothic** (dead)
2. Norwegian (spoken in Norway by 5 mill. people)	**2. German** (spoken by 100 mill. people in Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Lichtenstein)	
3. Danish (spoken in Denmark by 5 mill. people)	**3. Dutch/Netherlandish** (spoken by 20 mill. people in the Netherlands and some parts of Belgium)	
4. Icelandic (spoken in Iceland by 250 thou. people)	**4. Frisian** (spoken by 400 thou. people in some parts of the Netherlands and Germany and some islands in the North Sea)	

5. Faroese (spoken in the Faroe Islands (north-east Atlantic) by 40 thou. people)	**5. Luxemburgish** (spoken by 350 thou. people in Luxemburg and some parts of Germany and France)	
	6. Yiddish (spoken by Jews in different countries in Europe and America, is actually a mixture of the Southern Germanic Dialects, Hebrew and Slavonic elements)	
	7. Afrikaans (spoken by 3 mill. people in the South African Republic, combines English, Dutch and African elements)	

LECTURE 2
The Influence of the Germanic Tribes and Proto-Germanic Language

1. First Mention of the Germanic Tribes
2. Proto-Germanic Language
3. Old Germanic Languages

First Mention of the Germanic Tribes

As far as the English Language belongs to the Germanic group of languages, this group makes a part of the History of the English Language and we are going to consider the whole group before starting to speak about English itself.

The first scholars to mention the Germanic tribes in their works were:

1. Pitheas (4th c. B.C.) – a Greek historian and geographer, the work "An Account of a Sea Voyage to the Baltic Sea".

2. Julius Caesar (1st c. B.C.) – a roman Emperor, the work "Commentaries on the Gallic War".

3. Pliny the Elder (1st c. A.D.) – a Roman scientist and writer, the work "Natural History" (contained the classification of the Germanic tribes).

4. Tacitus (1st c. A.D.) – a Roman historian, the work "Life and Customs of the Ancient Germans".

Proto-Germanic Language

The Proto-Germanic Language (PG) is supposed to have split form the Indo-European Language (IE) some time between **15th and 10th c. B.C.** The Ancient Germans (the Teutons) moved further north and settled on the southern coast of **the Baltic Sea** and in the region of **the Elbe**.

The Proto-Germanic Language has never been recorded in written form. In the **19th c.** it was reconstructed by means of **comparative linguistics**.

With time the dialectal differences among the Germanic tribes grew because of the migration and geographical expansion. The reasons for this **migration** and expansion were:

- overpopulation in the areas of the original settlement;
- poor agricultural techniques;
- scanty natural resources in the areas of the original settlement;

The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the region of the Elbe was to **the Scandinavian Peninsula.** As a result, 2 branches of the Proto-Germanic Language appeared:

- southern branch (those who remained in the region of the Elbe);
- northern branch (those who moved northwards, to the Scandinavian Peninsula).

Later some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled **east** of the other Germanic tribes. As a result, the Proto-Germanic Language split into 3 branches:

- **East Germanic Languages** (those who returned and settled in the east);
- **North Germanic Languages** (those who moved northwards, to the Scandinavian Peninsula, and stayed there);
- **West Germanic Languages** (those who never left the mainland).

Old Germanic Languages:
1. East Germanic Languages

The East Germanic tribes were known as **the Goths**. They were one of the most numerous and powerful Germanic tribes who returned form Scandinavia around 200 A.D. and settled in the east of Europe. The Goths were subdivided into two major branches:

- **Visigotæ** (lived on the territory of present-day France) – linguistically were absorbed by the Romanised Celts and spoke their Celtic Dialects;
- **Ostrogotæ** (lived on the territory of present-day northern Italy) – they spoke the Gothic Language (now dead).

Other East Germanic tribes (Burgundians, Vandals, Langobards) also had their respective languages.

The Gothic Language was THE MOST IMPORTANT OF THE OLD GERMANIC LANGUAGES because:

1. It had **the oldest written records** – **4th – 6th c. A.D.** (compare, Old English – 7th c., Old High Germanic – 8th c.).

2. The Goths were the first Germans to become Christians. In the **4th c. A.D Ulfilas**, a Gothic bishop, **translated the Bible** from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek Alphabet. **"Ulfilas' Gospels"** is a work of 200 pages copied in the 5th – 6th c. Now this copy is kept in Uppsala (Sweden) and is known as "The Silver Codex" because it is written with silver and golden letters.

3. The Gothic, having the earliest written records among the Germanic Languages, is considered to be **very close to the Proto-Germanic Language** and thus throws some light on the history of this common Proto-Germanic Language.

2. North Germanic Languages

The North Germanic tribes settled on the southern coast of Scandinavia and in Northern Denmark (since the **4th c. A.D.**). They lived relatively isolated and showed little dialectal variation at that time.

There existed <u>one common language</u> – **Old Norse/Old Scandinavian**. It had the following <u>characteristics</u>:

- It used the <u>original Germanic Alphabet</u> called **the Runes/the Runic Alphabet**. It appeared in the **3rd – 4th c. A.D.** It has come down to us in **runic inscriptions** – separate words written/carved on objects made of wood, stone, metal.
- It was **spoken by all North Germanic tribes.**

In the **9th – 10th c. A.D.** the Scandinavians started their <u>voyages</u> to America and islands in the Atlantic Ocean (Leif Ericson, a Scandinavia raider, was the first to land on the American Continent). In addition to this <u>overpopulation</u> in these areas caused the migration of the people to inner Scandinavia. This provoked the beginning of the **linguistic differentiation**. In Scandinavia the linguistic division corresponded to the political division: there were <u>3 kingdoms</u> (Sweden, Denmark and Norway) that were constantly fighting for dominance and they had <u>3 respective languages</u> (earliest records in these languages date back to the 13th c.):

- **Old Danish –** later it developed into Danish (now the national language of Denmark);
- **Old Swedish** - later it developed into Swedish (now the national language of Sweden and a part of Finland);
- **Old Norwegian** – was the last to develop, later transformed into Norwegian (now the national language of Norway).

In the **8th c. A.D.** sea-rovers and merchants founded numerous colonies on the islands in the North Sea and in the Atlantic Ocean (the Shetland Islands, the Orkneys, the Faroe Islands) and reached even Iceland and Greenland. Thus two more North Germanic languages appeared:

- **Faroese** (In the Faroe Islands the writing was done in Danish for centuries. The first written records in **Faroese** appeared only in the <u>18th c.);</u>
- **Icelandic (9th c. A.D.)**

The Icelandic Language was THE MOST IMPORTANT OF ALL NORTH GERMANIC LANGUAGES because:

1. The isolation of Iceland caused the **preservation of archaic vocabulary and grammatical system**.

2. The preservation of archaic vocabulary and grammatical system makes this language **very close to Old Norse** and helps to reconstruct this ancient common Germanic language.

3. Icelandic has **the largest body of written texts** (12th – 13th c.), e.g.:

– "The Elder Edda" (12th c.) – a collection of heroic songs;
– "The Younger Edda" (13th c.) – a text-book for poets;
– Old Icelandic Sagas.

3. West Germanic Languages

The West Germanic tribes lived between the Oder and the Elbe and they never left the mainland. They were:

- **the Franconians** (Low, Middle and High Franconians) – settled the lower basin of the Rhine and with time began to speak the language of the Romanised Celts,

apart from Low Franconians who spoke **Old Low Franconian** that later developed into → **Dutch;**

- **the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes and the Frisians** – settled the coastal territories of the Netherlands, Germany, the south of Denmark and the British Isles. The languages they spoke were:

– **Old English** – later developed into → **English** (national language – **16th c.**; first written records – **7th c.**);

–**Old Saxon** – later developed into a <u>territorial dialect</u> in Germany;

–**Old Frisian** – later developed into → **Frisian**

- **High Germans** – settled the southern mountainous areas of Germany and spoke **Old High German** that later developed into two distinctive languages:

→ **German:**

– is known for great dialectal diversity;
– first written records – <u>8th – 9th c.</u>;
– <u>12th c.</u> – literary form of the language appears.

→ **Yiddish**

LECTURE 3
Linguistic, Grammatical and Phonetic Features of the Germanic Languages

1. Vowel changes
2. Consonant changes
3. Grammatical Features

All the Germanic Languages of the past and present have common linguistic features that are not shared by other groups of languages in the Indo-European family (Slavonic group, Romance group, etc.). These features are characteristic of the Germanic group <u>only</u>. They appeared during the period of the Proto-Germanic Language, before it split into a certain number of the Germanic languages. First of all we are going to discuss the common Germanic phonetic features.

Word Stress/Accent

Indo-European (Non-Germanic)	Proto-Germanic	
1. <u>free</u> stress (movable, i.e. can appear in any part of a word (root, prefix, suffix));	1. <u>fixed</u> stress (can't move either in form- or word-building and is usually placed on root or prefix);	
2. <u>pitch</u> stress (musical)	2. <u>dynamic</u> stress (force, breath stress)	
E.g.: русский	E.g.: German	English
б`елый	`Liebe	`white
белизн`а	`lieben	`whiteness
белов`атый	`lieberhaft	`whitish
бел`ить	ge`liebt	`whitewash

The Proto-Germanic type of stress led to the formation of the following peculiarities of the Germanic languages as compared to non-Germanic Indo-European languages:

- **phonetic** – as a result of the fixed position of the stress the unstressed syllables were becoming weaker and weaker, they got less distinct and neutral sounds (such as "schwa") appeared;

- **morphological** – as a result of the fact that the stress was fixed on the root and the syllables following the root were always unstressed and weak, many Germanic languages began to lose suffixes and grammatical endings and became ANALYTICAL LANGUAGES.

E.g.:   Old English (OE)   [`sunu]
        Middle English (ME)   [`sunə]
        New English (NE)   [`sun]
        Modern English (ModE)   [`sʌn]   (the word "son")

Vowels
Vowels underwent different types of changes:

     1. Qualitative change – affects the quality of a sound (e.g. [o → ʌ]).

     2. Quantitative change – affects the length of a sound (e.g. [i → i:]).

     3. Dependent/positional change – a change that occurs in certain position or in certain phonetic conditions (e.g. *bit_ – bite* [bit → bait]).

     4. Independent/spontaneous change – affects a certain sound in all positions irrespective of phonetic conditions and serves to distinguish a grammatical phenomenon (ablaut).

     Main tendencies in Vowel Changes in the Germanic Languages:
1. Short vowels → become neutralized.
2. Long vowels → become short and more open.
                   → become diphthongized and more closed.

     Proto-Germanic Vowel System:

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

     Some vowel correspondences between Germanic and on-Germanic languages:

Sound Correspondence	Non-Germanic		Germanic		
	Latin	**Русский**	**English**	**German**	**Swedish**
[a: → o:]	*mater*	*мать*	*mother*	-	*moder*
[o → a]	*nox*	*ночь*	-	*Nacht*	*natt*
[e → i]	*ventus*	*ветер*	*wind*	*Wind*	*vind*
[u → o]	*sunus*	*сын*	*son*	*Sohn*	*son*

     Consonants

The comparison of the Germanic and non-Germanic languages within the Indo-European family reveals regular correspondences between German and non-German consonants.

First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law) – in the 19th Jacob Grimm, a German scholar, discovered the existence of <u>regular correspondence between Indo-European (IE) and German consonants</u> and subdivided them into 3 groups:

№	Consonant Correspondences		Examples			
			Old		Modern	
	IE	**PG**	**Non-German (Latin)**	**German (OE)**	**Non-German (Italian, рус.)**	**German (English, German)**
1	**[bh,dh,gh]** → aspirated voiced stops	**[b, d, g]** non-aspirated voiced stops	**_bh_**_rāta_ (Hind)	**_b_**_rōþor_	**_б_**_рам_	**_b_**_rother_, **_B_**_ruder_
			_ru_**_dh_**_ira_(Hind)	_rēa_**_d_**	-	_re_**_d_**
			_h__ostis_	**_g_**_iest_	**_г_**_ость_	**_g_**_uest_, **_G_**_ast_
2	**[b, d, g]** → voiced stops	**[p, t, k]** voiceless stops/plosives	_la_**_b_**_are_	**_p_**_ōl_	**_б_**_олото_	**_p_**_ool_, **_Pf_**_uhl_
			_d__ecem_	**_t_**_īen_	**_d_**_ieci_, **_д_**_есять_	**_t_**_en_
			_g__enu_	**_cn_**_ēo_	**_g_**_inocchio_	_k_**_n_**_ee_, _K_**_n_**_ie_
3	**[p, t, k]** → voiceless stops/plosives	**[f, θ, h]** voiceless fricatives	**_p_**_edis_	**_f_**_ōt_	**_p_**_iedi_	**_f_**_oot_, **_F_**_uß_
			_t__res_	**_þ_**_rēo_	**_t_**_re_, **_m_**_pu_	**_th_**_ree_
			_c__ordis_	**_h_**_eort_	**_c_**_uore_	**_h_**_eart_, **_H_**_erz_

Verner's Law – Carl Verner, a Danish scholar (19th c.), explained the <u>consonant correspondences as a gradual historical process</u> (a change takes place in the course of time):

Consonant Correspondences			Latin	OE	ModE
1. [p, t, k] → voiceless stops/plosives	**[f, θ, h]** → voiceless fricatives	**[v, ð/d, g]** voiced fricatives	_se_**_p_**_tem_	_seo_**_f_**_en_	_se_**_v_**_en_
			_pa_**_t_**_er_	_fæ_**_d_**_er_	_fa_**_th_**_er_
			_so_**_c_**_rus_	_swai_**_ho_**(Gothic)	_Schwa_**_g_**_er_(Germ)
2. Rhotacism			_au_**_s_**_is_ (Lithuanian)	_Au_**_so_** (Gothic)	_ea_**_r_**, _Oh_**_r_** (Germ)
[s] →	**[z]** →	**[r]**			

P.S.: these processes usually happened <u>on condition</u> that the consonants were situated <u>between vowels and if preceded by an unstressed vowel</u>.

Modern Examples: _see**the** – so**dd**en, dea**th** – dea**d**, wa**s** – we**r**e._

Second Consonant Shift – happened in the 9th c. in <u>Old High German</u> and today we can observe it comparing English and German:

Consonant Correspondences		English	German
1. [t]	**[ts]**	_t_wo	_z_wei
	[s]	_wa_**_t_**_er_	_Wa_**_ss_**_er_
2. [θ]	**[d]**	_**th**ree_	_**d**rei_
3. [d]	**[t]**	_**d**aughter_	_**T**ochter_
4. [k]	**[h]**	_ma**k**e_	_ma**ch**en_

Grammatical Features

The Proto-Germanic and the Old Germanic Languages were SYNTHETIC, i.e. the relationships between the parts of the sentience were shown by the forms of the words rather than by their position in the sentence or by auxiliary words.

The grammatical forms of the words were built by means of:

1. Suppletion (inherited from Indo-European) – the usage of 2 or more different roots as forms of one and the same word:

Part of Speech	Indo-European Non-Germanic Languages		Germanic Languages	
	Italian	**русский**	**English**	**German**
Personal Pronouns	*io, mio, mi/me*	*я, меня, мне*	*I, my, mine, me*	*ich, mich, mir*
Adjectives	*buono, migliore, ottimo*	*хороший, лучше, лучший*	*good, better, best*	*gut, besser, bester*
Some Verbs	*essere, sono, e`, ero, saro`, etc.*	*есть, был, будет*	*be, is, are, am, was, were*	*sein, bin, ist, sind, war, gewesen, etc.*

2. Inflections (inherited from Indo-European) – though in the Germanic languages inflections were simpler and shorter than in other Indo-European languages.

Let's take **the system of declensions** as an example. In PG it was well-developed but in the Old Germanic languages, due to the stress that was fixed on the root and the weakening of the end of a word as a result, the declensions started to disappear. While the nouns and adjectives still preserved **stem-suffixes**, they had declensions but once the stem suffixes started to weaken and disappear, the declensions were lost as well and the endings were simplified and got fewer:

Word Structure			
PG	*mak-oj-an*	**root** + **stem-suffix**(word-deriv.)	+ **gram. ending**(form-marker)
Old Germ. Languages	*mac-ian*	**stem** (root melted with stem-suffix)	+ **gram. ending**

3. Sound Interchange – the usage of interchange of vowels and consonants for the purpose of word- and form-building (e.g.: English: *b<u>ea</u>r – b<u>i</u>rth, buil<u>d</u> – buil<u>t</u>, t<u>oo</u>th – t<u>ee</u>th*; German: *geb<u>ä</u>ren – Geb<u>u</u>rt*)

Ablaut/Vowel Gradation – an independent vowel interchange, unconnected with any phonetic conditions (phonetic environment/surrounding) used to differentiate between grammatical forms of one and the same word. The Germanic ablaut was consistently used in building the principle forms of strong verbs.

Jacob Grimm has subdivided all the verbs into **two groups** according to the way they build their principle forms:

	Strong Verbs (irregular)	**Weak Verbs (regular)**

		called so because they have preserved the richness of forms since the time of Proto-Germanic	called so because they have lost their old Proto-Germanic forms and acquired new ones
form-building		**vowel interchange + gram. ending**	**suffix –d/t (a Germanic invention!)**
E.g.	**OE**	*reisan – rais – risum – risans*	*macian – macode - macod*
			cepan – cepte - cept
	ModE	*rise – rose - risen*	*make – made – made*
			keep – kept – kept

LECTURE 4
The Old English Period in the History of the English Language

1. Historical Background and Linguistic Situation
2. Old English Dialects

Historical Background and Linguistic Situation

1. When the first people arrived to Britain 500 B.C. it was still part of the continent. Later, **5000 B.C.,** at the end of the Ice Age, Britain became an island separated from the rest of Europe by the English Channel.

2. The first distinctive inhabitants of the British Isles were **the Iberians** who came from the territory of present-day Spain around **3000 B.C**. They were known for their stone work and battle axes made of stone.

3. The Beaker Falk who came from Eastern Europe around **2000 B.C**. were known for their pottery.

4. The Picts came around **1000 B.C.** They were considered to be a mixture of the Celts and the Iberians and were called so because they were covered all over with paintings and tattoos. Their language is still a mystery for the scholars – it can be easily read but the scholars cannot decode it (cannot understand what is written).

5. The next to come were **the Celts.** They arrived in **700 B.C.** from the territory of Central and Northern Europe. There were **2 main Celtic tribes** that settled in the British Isles:

Tribe	Scots	Britons
Place of Settlement	first they settled in Ireland and then moved to Scotland and intermixed with the Picts	settled in the south-east of England
Celtic Languages	**The Gaelic Branch**	**The Britonnic Branch**
	1. Irish/Erse (Ireland)	1. Breton (Brittany, modern France)
	2. Scotch Gaelic (the Scottish Highlands)	2. Welsh (Wales)
	3. Manx (dead; the Isle of Man)	3. Cornish (dead; Cornwall)

The Celts also had their own ancient alphabet called **Ogham** (additional information).

6. The Romans:

55 B.C. – Julius Caesar attacked Britain. Reasons:
- economic (tin ore, corn, slaves);
- political (the Romans fought with the Celts of Gaul on the continent who found shelter in Britain and were supported by the Celts of Britain).

Soon after his arrival, Julius Caesar left Britain with many slaves and riches.

43 A.D. – Emperor Claudius conquered Britain and it became a province of the Roman Empire. Contributions:
- paved roads;
- cities (trading centers);
- walls (protection from the Celts – e.g. Hadrian's Wall between   England and Scotland);
- Latin language (literacy).

410 A.D. – the Roman Empire began to collapse and the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain and sent home to help and preserve the Empire.

7. After the **5th c.** the 3 waves of **the Germanic tribes** arrived to Britain:

Wave	1st	2nd			3rd		
Tribe	**Jutes or/and Frisians**	**Saxons**			**Angles**		
Kingdoms	Kent, Isle of Wight	Sussex	Essex	Wessex	East Anglia	Mercia	Northumbria

The feudal system that the Germanic tribes brought with themselves had led to the isolation of each tribe and political disunity (feudal wars). As a result, this period witnessed a great **dialectal diversity.** The most important dialects were the dialects of the 4 most powerful kingdoms:

Old English Dialects

Kingdom	Kent	Wessex	Mercia	Northumbria
Dialect	**Kentish**	**West Saxon**	**Mercian**	**Northumbrian**
Spoken	in Kent, Surrey, the Isle of Wight	along the Thames and the Bristol Channel	between the Thames and the Humber	between the Humber and the Forth
Origin	from the tongues of Jutes/ Frisians	a Saxon dialect	a dialect of north Angles	a dialect of south Angles
Remarks		**9th c**. – Wessex was the centre of the English culture and politics. West Saxon – the bookish type of language (Alfred the Great – the patron of culture and learning)		**8th c**. – Northumbria was the centre of the English culture

The first historian who started to record the history of the Germanic tribes on the British Isles and is considered to be the first English historian is **Bede the**

Venerable, an English monk, who wrote "The Ecclesiastical History of the English People".

The most important dialect in the Old English period was the **WEST SAXON DIALECT**.

8. Christianity – 597 (6th c.)

There were 2 forces that worked together to spread Christianity in Britain:
- missioners from Rome (founded the religious centre in Canterbury);
- missioners from Ireland (the Celts were already christened).

Consequences:
- centralization of the country;
- development of the culture and learning (monasteries, schools, etc.); Latin was the language of the church and learning.

9. In the **8th – 9th c.** Britain was raided and attacked by **the Danes/Scandinavians/Vikings.** The only king who was able to keep them at bay was Alfred the Great of Wessex. In **878** the Treaty of Wedmore was signed and England was divided into **Wessex** (belonged to Alfred) **and Danelaw** (belonged to the Danes). But as soon as the Scandinavian dialects also belonged to the Germanic group, the Danes soon linguistically merged into the local Old English dialects leaving some Scandinavian elements in them.

LECTURE 5
Specific Features of the Old English Alphabet and First Written Records

1. Old English Alphabet
2. Rules of Reading
3. Old English Poetry

Alphabet

The first Old English written records are considered to be the **runic inscriptions.** To make these inscriptions people used the Runes/the Runic Alphabet – the first original Germanic Alphabet.

Runes/Runic Alphabet:
- appeared in the **3rd – 4th c. A.D.**;
- it was also called **Futhark** (after the first 6 letters of this alphabet);
- the word "rune" meant "secret, mystery" and was used to denote magic inscriptions on objects made of wood, stone, metal;
- each symbol indicated a separate sound (one symbol = one sound);
- the symbols were angular due to the fact that they had to be carved on hard materials;
- the number of symbols: GB – 28-33; on the continent – 16-24).

See the copy of the alphabet (additional information)

Best known Runic Inscriptions:

1. Franks Casket – a box with 4 sides made of whale bone, each side contained a picture in the centre and runic inscriptions around the picture that told the story of the whale bone in alliterative verse.

2. Ruthwell Cross – was found near the village of Ruthwell, Dumfriesshire, it is a 15 feet tall stone cross ornamented in all sides with runic inscriptions that are actually a passage from a religious poem "The Dream of the Rood".

Old English Alphabet

The Old English Alphabet was borrowed from Latin, but there were also some letters that were borrowed from the Runic Alphabet:

- Ð ("thorn") = [θ] and [ð]

- ƿ ("wynn") = [w]
- æ ("mann") = stood for OE word "man"
- ȝ ("dæ ȝ") = stood for OE word "day"

Some new letters were introduced:

- ζ = [g] and [j];
- ð/þ/Ð/đ = [θ] and [ð];
- æ = a ligature of [a] and [e];
- œ = a ligature of [o] and [e].

Rules of Reading:

They resemble the modern rules, with several exceptions though:

1. f = [v] **1.** <u>between</u> vowels;
   s = [z] **2.** <u>between</u> a vowel and a voiced consonant [r, m, n, l, d,]
   ð/þ = [ð]
2. ζ – [j] – <u>between</u> and <u>after</u> front vowels [e, i, æ];
   – [g] – <u>initially</u> and <u>between</u> back vowels [a, o, u].
3. cζ=[gg].
4. c = [k].
5. n = [ŋ] when fallowed by [k] or [g].

Old English Manuscripts

Most of the Old English manuscripts were written in Latin characters. The Latin Alphabet was modified by the scribes to suit the English language (some letters were changed and some new letters were added (see examples above)). The Old English manuscripts that give us the examples of the language of that period are:

- personal documents containing names and place names;
- legal documents (charters);
- glosses to the Gospels and other religious texts (Latin-English vocabularies for those who did not know Latin good enough to understand the texts);
- textual insertions (pieces of poetry).

Old English Poetry

1. Among the earliest textual insertions in Old English are the peaces of Old English poetry. They are to be found in "The Ecclesiastical History of the English People" written in Latin in the **8th c.** by Bede the Venerable, an English monk. These two pieces are:

- 5 lines know as "Bede's Death Song";
- 9 lines of a religious poem "Cædmon's Hymn".

2. All in all we have about 30 000 lines of OE verse from many poets, but most of them are unknown or anonyimous. The two best known Old English poets are **Cædmon and Cynewulf** (Northumbrian authors).

3. The topics of Old English poetry:

- **heroic epic** ("Beowulf", the oldest in the Germanic literature, 7th c., was written in Mercian or Northumbrian but has come down to us only in a 10th c. West Saxon copy. It is based on old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons and features the adventures and fights of the legendary heroes);
- **lyrical poems** ("The Wanderer", "The Seafarer", etc. Most of the poems are described to Cynewulf);
- **religious poems** ("Fate of the Apostles" (probably Cædmon), "Dream of the Rood", etc.).

4. The peculiarities of Old English poetry:

- written in Old Germanic alliterative verse:
- – the lines are not rhymed;
- – the number of the syllables in a line is free;
- – the number of stressed syllables in a line is fixes;
- – the line is usually divided into 2 halves, each half starts with one and the same sound; this sound may be repeated also in the middle of each half.

(As an example see an abstract from "Beowulf" on p. 8 in "A Reader in the History of English" by Е.К. Щука.)

- a great number of synonyms (e.g. *beorn, secζ, ζuma, wer* were all the synonyms of "man") and metaphorical phrases or compounds describing the qualities or functions of a thing (e.g. *hronrād* "whale-road" (for "sea"); *bānhūs* "bone-house" (for "a person's body"); *hēaþu-swāt* "war-sweat" (for "blood")).

LECTURE 6
The Middle English Period in the History of the English Language

1. Historical Background and Linguistic Situation
2. Middle English Dialects
3. Written Records of the Middle English Period
4. Middle English Alphabet. Rules of Reading:
Historical Background
1042-1066 – King **Edward the Confessor**:
- brought up in France;
- had lots of Norman advisors and favorites;
- spoke French and wanted his court to speak it;

- rumour had it that he appointed William, Duke of Normandy, his successor.

However, after the death of Edward in 1066 the government of the country was in the hands of the Anglo-Saxon feudal lords and they proposed their own king – **Earl Harold Godwinson** of Wessex.

1066 – Harold Godwinson became king of England. William was not satisfied with this fact. He gathered a big army, there happened the <u>Battle of Hastings</u>, William won it, became king and was called since then **William the Conqueror**.

After the Norman Conquest of the British Isles the Normans occupied important positions in church, government and army. William strengthened <u>feudal system</u> and <u>royal power</u> (vassals were not allowed to have big armies so they could not oppose the king; with the Oath of Salisbury each vassal promised direct loyalty to king and military help in return for land; Domesday Book provided William with information about all people and lands he possessed, he proclaimed himself the owner of all the lands in the country). This led to the **centralization** of the country:

- <u>Wales</u> – was the first to join England in the 13th – 16th c.;
- <u>Scotland</u> – remained independent until Queen Elizabeth the 1st of England died and as she was childless the throne passed to James the 4th of Scotland who became James the 1st of England and unified Scotland and England. Finally, in 1707 Great Britain appeared as a country consisting of England, Wales and Scotland;
- <u>Ireland</u> – the attempts to conquer Ireland were made in the 12th c. but they did not prove to be successful. In 1921, after a long fight, the UK managed to keep only a small part of Ireland – Northern Ireland.

Linguistic Situation

After the Norman Conquest:

- **French** became the <u>official language of administration</u> (it was used in the king's court, in the law courts, in the church (as well as Latin), in the army, by the nobles in the south of England). It was also used as a language of writing and teaching as well as **Latin**.
- **English** was the <u>language of common people</u> in the Midlands and in the north of England. It still remained the language of the <u>majority</u> who were the representatives of the lower classes of society and never learned French, so the Norman barons had to learn English to be able to communicate with locals.
- **Celtic Dialects** were still used by the Celtic population in the remote areas of the country.

Actually, during the presence of the Normans the country experienced the period of bilingualism (French and English were both used in the country and started to intermix, i.e. a lot of the French words crept into the Middle English Dialects and it came to resemble present-day English a lot).

The Norman and the English drew together in the course of time and intermixed. French lost its popularity due to the fact that it was not the language of the majority and could not be used to communicate with local people. English regained its leading position with time and became accepted as the official language. The proofs are:

- The Parliamentary Proclamation of 1258 – Henry the 3rd addressed the councilors in Parliament in French, Latin and English.

- In the 14th – 15th c. legal documents (wills, municipal acts, petitions, etc.) started to be issued in English.
- 1364 – Parliament was opened with an address in English.
- 1399 – Henry the 4th accepted the throne and made a speech in English.
- Translations of the documents written in French into English.

Thus in the **14th c. English** becomes the <u>language of literature and administration.</u>

Middle English Dialects

OE Dialects	Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian		Northumbrian
	↓	↓	↓		↓
ME Dialects	**Kentish Dialect**	**South-Western Dialects**	**Midland Dialects**		**Northern Dialects**
Examples	-	<u>East Saxon Dialect</u> **London Dialect** Gloucester Dialect	West Midland Dialect	<u>East Midland Dialect</u>	Yorkshire Dialect Lancashire Dialect

<u>The most important dialect</u> in the <u>Middle English period</u> was the **London dilect**.

London Dialect

In the **12th -13th c.** the London Dialect became the literary language and the **standard,** both in written and spoken form. The **reasons** why this happened:

The <u>capital</u> of the country was transferred from Winchester, Wessex, to <u>London</u> a few years before the Norman Conquests.

<u>The East Saxon Dialect</u>, that was the basis of the London Dialect got, became the most prominent in the Middle English period.

Most writers and authors of the Middle English period used the London Dialect in their works.

Features of the London Dialect:

The basis of the London Dialect was <u>the East Saxon Dialect.</u> The East Saxon Dialect mixed with <u>the East Midland Dialect</u> and formed the **London Dialect.**

Thus the London Dialect became more <u>Anglican</u> than Saxon in character → The London Dialect is **an Anglican dialect.**

Middle English Written Records
Geoffrey Chaucer and His Contribution

Geoffrey Chaucer was one of the most prominent authors of the Middle English Period and he <u>set up a language pattern</u> to be followed. He is considered to be the founder of the literary language of that period. Most authors of the Middle English Period tried to fallow this standard.

Features of the Chaucer's Language:

Chaucer's Language was the basis for the <u>national literary language</u> (**15th – 16th c.**).

New <u>spelling rules</u> (digraphs) and new <u>rules of reading</u> (1 letter = several sounds) appeared as compared to the Old English.

New <u>grammatical forms</u> appeared (Perfect forms, Passive forms, "to" Infinitive constructions, etc.).

Chaucer tried to <u>minimize</u> the number of the <u>French loans</u> in the English Language.
Chaucer introduced <u>rhyme</u> to the poetry.

Middle English Alphabet

The Middle English Alphabet resembled the Old English Alphabet but some changes were introduced:

th replaced ð

w replaced Þ;

æ, œ disappeared;

digraphs (2 letters = one sound) appeared (came from French):

th for [θ] and [ð];

tch/ch for [tʃ];

sch/ssh/sh for [ʃ];

dg for [dʒ];

wh replace <u>hw</u> but was pronounced still as [hw];

gh for [h];

qu for [kw];

ow/ou for [u:] and [ou];

ie for [e:].

Rules of Reading:

They resemble the modern rules, with several exceptions though:

1. Double vowels stood for long sounds, e.g. oo = [o:]; ee = [e:].
2. g = [dʒ]
   c = [s] <u>before front</u> vowels ([i, e]).
   g = [g]
   c = [k] <u>before back</u> vowels ([a, o, u]).
3. y = [j] – at the beginning of the word;
   = [i] – in the cases when i stood close together with r, n, m and could be confused with one of these letters or could be lost among them, it was replaced with y, sometimes also for decorative purpose. (e.g. *nyne* ['ni:nə], *very* ['veri]).
4. th = [ð]
   s = [z]   <u>between</u> vowels.
5. o = [o] – in most cases;
   = [u] – in the words that have [Λ] sound in Modern English (e.g. *some, love*);
6. j = [dʒ]

LECTURE *7*
The New English Period in the History of the English Language

1. Introduction of Printing
2. Normalisation of the English Language

In the 15th – 16th c. the feudal system started to decay and bourgeois relationships and capitalism started to develop. England became a <u>centralised</u> state.

Introduction of Printing

The first printer of English books was **William Caxton** (1422-1491). He was born in Kent. In 1441 he moved to Flanders (a region in Belgium) and later, in 1473, he opened up his own printing press in Bruges.

1475 – the first English book was printed in Bruges by William Caxton. It was a translation of the story of Troy.

A few years later William Caxton brought his printing press to England and set it up in Winchester. Here he published the work of the famous authors of that time – Geoffrey Chaucer, John Gower, John Lydgate – and translated books from French.

Contribution of Printing:

- The works of the authors of that time were <u>edited</u> and <u>brought into conformity with the London Dialect</u> and as far as all the book were written in this dialect, it spread quickly and became the true <u>standard</u> of the English language;

- As far as printing allowed to multiply books in great number, they were sold and thus the <u>literacy</u> of the population grew;

- Before the introduction of printing different scribes could spell the same words differently; with the introduction of printing <u>the spelling became fixed</u> and it hasn't changed since that time though the pronunciation has changed greatly (this fact explains the difficulties of the English spelling).

Age of Shakespeare

The sources of information about the language:

- <u>private letters</u> (as far as books became available, more people became literate and started to write letters, wills, diaries, etc.);

- <u>books for pupils and didactic works</u> (e.g. "An Orthographie" by John Hart; "Grammatica Lingæ Anglicanæ" by John Wallis, etc.);

- <u>lists of difficult words and dictionaries</u> (e.g. "English-English Dictionary" (dialectal words explained with the help of the bookish English) by Henry Cockeram, etc.).

Normalisation of the English Language

Normalisation is the fixing of the norms and standards of a language to protect it from corruption and change.

Type of Standard	Written Standard	Spoken Standard
Time Limits	by the **17th c.**	end of the **18th c.**
Sources	Language of Chaucer (the London Dialect)	• private letters; • speech of characters in drama; • references to speech be scholars.
Peculiarities	1. <u>less stabilised</u> than at later stage; 2. wide range of <u>variation</u> (spelling, gram. forms, syntactical patterns, choice of words, etc.); 3. <u>rivalry with Latin</u> in the field of science, philosophy, didactics.	1. As spoken standard the scholars considered the <u>speech of educated people</u> taught at school as "correct English". This was the speech of <u>London</u> and that of <u>Cambridge and Oxford Universities</u>.

The normalisation of the English language started in the **17ᵗʰ – 18ᵗʰ c.** In 1710 **Jonathan Swift** published in his journal "The Tatler" an article titled "A Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue". J. Swift was a purist (struggled for the purity of the language) and suggested that a body of scholars should gather to fix the rules of the language usage.

The Normalisation of the English language consisted in publishing:

1. **Grammar's of English**:

- John Wallis, "Grammatica Lingæ Anglicanæ" (prescriptive/normative grammar);

- Robert Lowth, "A Short Introduction to English Grammar" (Lowth distinguished 9 parts of speech; made consistent description of letters, syllables, words and sentences; rules of no-double negation (*I don't want no dinner* – incorrect!) and no-double comparison (*more better* – incorrect!) appeared, etc.).

2. **Dictionaries** (18ᵗʰ c.)**:**

- E. Coles, "Dictionary of Hard Words" (gave explanations of hard words and phrases);

- **Samuel Johnson** – one of the best-known English lexicographers. As well as J. Swift, he was a purist and believed that the English language should be purified and corrected. He was the first to compile a dictionary that resembles the present-day dictionaries. His **"Dictionary of the English Language"** is the finest example of his hard and productive work.

LECTURE *8*
Phonetic Peculiarities of the Old English period

1. Vowel system
2. Consonant system

OE sound system developed from PG sound system.

OE Word Stress/Accent:

– **fixed** (can't move either in form- or word-building and is usually placed on root or prefix);
– **dynamic** (force, breath stress);
– in **Noun and Adjective** stress was mainly on the <u>prefix</u> if there was one:
   E.g. *'misdæd* (misdeed), *'uðζenζ* (escape), *'oreald* (very old)
– in **Verb** stress was mainly on the <u>root</u> even if there was a prefix:
   E.g. *a'risan* (arise), *mis'faran* (go astray)
– stress served to distinguish **Noun from Verb** (and still does):
   E.g. *'andswaru* (N answer) – *and'swarian* (V answer)
'onζin (N beginning) – *on'ζinnan* (V begin)
   E.g. (modern English) – *'present – pre'sent*; *'ally – al'ly*.

OE Vowels
Unstressed vowels were weakened and dropped.

Stressed vowels underwent some changes:

splitting – 1 phoneme split into several allophones which later become separate phonemes

e.g.　　→ a

　　　a → ã

　　　　→ æ

　　merging – separate phonemes become allophones of one phoneme and then disappear and are not distinguished any more as separate phonemes

e.g.　a →

　　ã → a

　　æ →

Rise of Diphthongs

In PG there were no diphthongs. There was just a sequence of two separate vowels. Diphthongs appeared in OE: some (usually long diphthongs) – as a result of <u>merging</u> of two vowels:

Sounds	Diphth.	Gothic	OE
a + u	**ea:**	<u>au</u>so	<u>ea</u>re (ear)
e + u	**eo:**	þ<u>eu</u>dans	þ<u>ēo</u>den (king)
(I + u)	**(io☺** (dialectal variant)	d<u>iu</u>ps	d<u>īo</u>p (deep)

others (usually short diphthongs) – as a result of the influence of the succeeding and preceding consonants (<u>breaking</u> of [æ, e]):

Monoph.	Diphth.	Influence	Gothic	OE
æ →	**ea**	before *l*	<u>a</u>lls	<u>ea</u>ll (all)
æ →	**ea**	before *h*	<u>a</u>htau	<u>ea</u>hta (eight)
e →	**eo**	before *r*	h<u>e</u>rza	h<u>eo</u>rte (heart)
æ →	**ea**	after *sk'/k'*	sk<u>a</u>dus	sc<u>ea</u>du (shade)
æ: →	**ea:**	after *j*	j<u>â</u>r	ӡ<u>ēa</u>r (year)

Palatal Mutation/i-Umlaut

Mutation – a change of one vowel to another one under the influence of a vowel in the following syllable.

Palatal mutation (or i-Umlaut) happened in the **6th -7th c.** and was shared by all Old Germanic Languages,

except Gothic (that's why later it will be used for comparison).

Palatal mutation – <u>fronting</u> and <u>raising</u> of vowels under the <u>influence of [i] and [j]</u> in the following syllable

(to approach the articulation of these two sounds). As a **result** of palatal mutation:

• [i] and [j] <u>disappeared</u> in the following syllable sometimes leading to the <u>doubling of a consonant</u> in this syllable;

• new vowels appeared in OE ([ie, y]) as a result of merging and splitting:

before palatal mutation	after palatal mutation	Gothic	OE
a → **o →**	**e**	b<u>a</u>d**i**	b<u>e</u>dd (bed)

æ →			
a: →	**æ:**	*d<u>ai</u>ls*	*d<u>æ</u>lan* (deal)
ŏ/ō →	**ĕ/ē**	*m<u>ō</u>tjan*	*m<u>ē</u>tan* (meet)
ŭ/ū →	**ŷ/ȳ** (labialised) **(new!)**	*fu<u>l</u>jan*	*f<u>y</u>llan* (fill)
ĕă/ēā → **ĕŏ/ēō →**	**ĭĕ/ī͞ē (new!)**	*<u>ea</u>ld* (early OE)	*<u>ie</u>ldra* (late OE)

Traces of i-Umlaut in Modern English:
1. irregular Plural of nouns (*man – men; tooth – teeth*);
2. irregular verbs and adjectives (*told ←tell; sold ←sell; old – elder*);
3. word-formation with sound interchange (*long – length; blood – bleed*).

OE Vowel System (symmetrical, i.e each short vowel had its long variant)

	Monophthongs							+	Diphthongs		
Short	ĭ	ĕ	ă	ǽ	ŏ	ŭ	ŷ	+	ĕŏ	ĕă	ĭĕ
Long	ī	ē	ā	æ	ō	ū	ȳ		ēō	ēā	ī͞ē

The length of vowels was <u>phonologically relevant</u> (i.e. served to distinguish words): e.g. (OE) *is* (is) – *īs* (ice); *col* (coal) –*cōl* (cool); *god* (god) – *gōd* (good),

OE Consonants
OE consonants underwent the following changes:
1.Hardening (the process when a soft consonant becomes harder)– usually <u>initially</u> and <u>after nasals</u> ([m, n])

[ð] →	[d]	*rau<u>ð</u>r* (Icelandic)	*rēa<u>d</u>* (OE) (red)
[v] →	[b]	-	-
[γ] →	[g]	*guma* (Gothic)	*ζuma* (OE) (man)

2.Voicing (the process when a voiceless consonant becomes voiced in certain positions) – <u>intervocally</u> and <u>between a vowel and a voiced consonant or sonorant</u>
[f, θ, h, s] → [v, ð, g, z]   e.g. *wulfos* (Gothic) – *wulf*[v]*as* (OE) (wolves)

3.Rhotacism (a process when **[z]** turns into **[r]**)
e.g. *mai<u>z</u>a* (Gothic) – *mā<u>r</u>a* (OE) (more)

4.Gemination (a process of doubling a consonant) – <u>after a short vowel</u>, usually happened as a result of palatal mutation (e.g. *fu<u>ll</u>an* (OE) (fill), *se<u>tt</u>an* (OE) (set), etc.).

5.Palatalisation of Consonants (a process when hard vowels become soft) – <u>before a front vowel</u> and sometimes also <u>after a front vowel</u>
[g, γ, k, h] → [g', γ', k', h']   e.g. *c*[k']*ild* (OE) (child); *ecȝ* [gg'] (OE) (edge), etc.

6.Loss of Consonants:
– sonorants before fricatives (e.g. *fi<u>m</u>f* (Gothic) – *fīf* (OE) (five));
– fricatives between vowels and some plosives (e.g. *sæ<u>ζ</u>de* (early OE) – *sæde* (late OE) (said));

– loss of [j] – as a result of palatal mutation.
– loss of [w] (e.g. case-forms of nouns: *sæ* (Nominative) – *sæwe* (Dative) (OE) (sea).

LECTURE 9
The Development of Vowel and Consonant System in Middle English and New English

1. The Development of Vowel System in Middle English
2. The Development of Consonant System in Middle English
3. Historical Background of Modern English Spelling

Word Stress/Accent:
In ME and NE word stress acquired greater positions freedom and greater role in word derivation.

Recessive tendency – stress in loan-words moved closer to the beginning of the word (e.g. in French words the stress is usually placed on the ultimate or pen-ultimate syllable, but the stress in the words of the French origin that penetrated into English has moved to the beginning of the word).

E.g. ME *vertu* [ver'tju:] – NE *virtue* ['vɜ:tʃə]

Rhythmic tendency – regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables (3 or more) that creates rhythm and has led to the appearance of the secondary stress.

E.g. ME *diso'beien* – NE, *diso'bei*

Vowels
English vowels proved to be more changeable than consonants. Long vowels proved to be more changeable than short ones.

Middle English
The changes that occurred to vowels in ME were as follows:
1.Quantitative:
Reduction – weakening and disappearance of unstressed vowels. As far as the stress was mainly on the root the vowels in prefixes and suffixes got weak and underwent reduction. In unstressed position only two vowels were left – [ə] and [i]. They had never been contrasted.

E.g. ME *tale* ['ta:lə], *body* ['bodi]

In NE sound [ə] (schwa) was dropped at the end of the words but the letter e was left in spelling to show the length of the preceding vowel.

Shortening – all long vowels became short before consonant clusters (NB!! except **[ld, nd, mb]** – before these clusters vowels remained long or if a vowel was short it became long)

Other Consonant Clusters	
OE	**ME**
fīftiζ	*fifty* (fifty)
fēdde	*fedde* (fed)
wīsdom	*wisdom* (wisdom)

Lengthening (12ᵗʰ – 13ᵗʰ c.) – short vowels became long:
– before clusters **[ld, nd, mb]**;
– in 2-syllable words, <u>only</u> to **[e, o, a]** in <u>open stressed syllable</u>

Clusters [ld, nd, mb]		2-syllable words	
OE	**ME**	**OE**	**ME**
cild	*chīld* (child)	*mete*	*mēte* (meat)
findan	*fīnden* (find)	*open*	*ōpen* (open)
climban	*clīmben* (climb)	*talu*	*tāle* (tale)

2. Qualitative:
The system of vowels in ME were no longer symmetrical as it was in OE
Short Vowels
[y] changed to **[i]** e.g. OE *hyll* – ME *hill* (hill);
[æ] changed to **[a]** e.g. OE *wæs* – ME *was* (was).

i	e	a	o	u

Long Vowels
[ȳ] changed to **[ī]**;
[ǣ] fell together with **[έ]**;
[ā] changed to **[ō]** e.g. OE *stān* – ME sto[o:]ne (stone).

		close		open	
ī	ū	ē	ō	έ	ǿ

New Diphthongs
OE diphthongs turned into monophthongs:

OE Diphth.	ME Sounds	OE	ME
ĭĕ/īē →	**i**	*līehtan*	*lighten* (lighten)
ĕŏ/ēō →	**e**	*heorte*	*herte* (heart)
ĕă/ēā →	**æ**	*ēast*	*eest* (east)

New diphthongs appeared <u>due to</u> **vocalisation** of **[j], [γ]** and **[w]**. These <u>consonants</u> turned into <u>vowels</u> (**[i], [u]** and **[u]** respectively) and became the glides of the new diphthongs:

i-glides	OE	ME	u-glides	OE	ME
[ei]	*weʒ* [j]	*wey*[i] (way)	**[iu]**	-	-
[ai]	*mæʒ* [j]	*may*[i] (may)	**[au]**	*laʒ* [γ]*u*	*law*[u]*e* ['lauə] (low)
[oi] (in French loan-words)		*boy, toy*	**[ou]**	*cnāw*[w]*an*	*know*[u]*en* ['knouən] (know)

New English
Great Vowel Shift – the change that happened in the **14ᵗʰ – 16ᵗʰ c.** and affected <u>all long monophthongs + diphthong [au]</u>. As a result these vowels were:
– diphthongized;

– narrowed (became more closed);
– both diphthongized and narrowed.

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[i:] →	[ai]	*time* ['ti:mə]	*time* [teim]
[e:] →	[i:]	*kepen* ['ke:pən]	*keep* [ki:p]
[a:] →	[ei]	*maken* ['ma:kən]	*make* [meik]
[o:] →	[ou]	*stone* ['sto:nə]	*stone* [stoun]
→	[u:]	*moon* [mo:n]	*moon* [mu:n]
[u:] →	[au]	*mous* [mu:s]	*mouse* [maus]
[au] →	[o:]	*cause* ['kauzə]	*cause* [ko:z]

This shift <u>was not followed by spelling changes</u>, i.e. it was not reflected in written form. Thus the Great Vowel Shift explains many modern rules of reading.

Short Vowels

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[a] →	[æ]	*that* [θat]	*that* [ðæt]
		man [man]	*man* [mæn]
→	[o] after [w]!!	*was* [was]	*was* [woz]
		water ['watə]	*water* ['wotə]
[u] →	[ʌ]	*hut* [hut]	*hut* [hʌt]
		comen [cumen]	*come* [cʌm]

There were exceptions though, e.g. *put, pull,* etc.

Vocalisation of [r]

It occurred in the **16th – 17th c.** Sound [r] became vocalised (changed to [ə] (schwa)) when stood <u>after vowels at the end of the word</u>.

Consequences:
– new <u>diphthongs</u> appeared: [ɛə], [iə], [uə];
– the vowels before [r] were <u>lengthened</u> (e.g. *arm* [a:m], *for* [fo:], etc.);
– <u>triphthongs</u> appeared: [aiə], [auə] (e.g. *shower* ['ʃauə], *shire* ['ʃaiə]).

The Development of Consonant System in Middle English and New English

English consonants proved to be more stable than vowels. Nevertheless, new sets of consonants started to appear.

Sibilants and Affricates

Sibilants – a type of <u>fricatives</u>, <u>narrower</u> and <u>sharper</u> than all other fricatives ([f, v, θ, ð, h]) – [s, z, ʃ,ʒ].

Affricates – sounds consisting of a <u>plosive</u> immediately followed by a <u>fricative</u> – [tʃ, dʒ].

In OE there were only <u>2 sibilants</u> – [s, z]. **[ʃ]** appeared in **ME** and **[ʒ]** – in **NE**.
Affricates **[tʃ, dʒ]** appeared both in ME and in NE.

Middle English

New consonants developed from <u>palatal plosives</u> **[k'], [g']** and the cluster **[sk']**:

OE Sounds	ME Sounds	In Writing	OE	ME
[k'] →	[tʃ]	tch, ch	*cild* [k'il'd]	*child* [tʃild]
[g'] →	[dʒ]	g, dg	*ecge* ['egg'ə]	*edge* ['edʒə]
[sk'] →	[ʃ]	sh, ssh, sch	*fisc* [fisk']	*fish* [fiʃ]

New English

Palatalisation – as a result of reduction of unstressed vowels <u>several consonants merged into one</u>:

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[sj] →	[ʃ]	*commissioun* [komi'sjon]	*commission* [kə'miʃən]
[zj] →	[ʒ]	*pleasure* [plə'zjurə]	*pleasure* ['pleʒə]
[tj] →	[tʃ]	*nature* [na'tjurə]	*nature* ['neitʃə]
[dj] →	[dʒ]	*procedure* [ˌprosə'djurə]	*procedure* [prə'si dʒə]

There were some exceptions though, e.g. *mature, duty, due, suit, statue, tune*, etc.

Fricatives

Voicing – occurred in the **16ᵗʰ c.** (**NE**) to fricatives:

- in <u>functional words</u> and <u>auxiliaries</u> that are <u>never stressed</u>;
- when <u>preceded by an unstressed</u> and <u>followed by a stressed vowel</u>.

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[s] →	[z]	*possess* [pə'ses]	*possess* [pə'zes]
[θ] →	[ð]	*this* [θis], *the* [θə], *there* [θɛə]	*this* [ðis], *the* [ðə], *there* [ðɛə]
[f] →	[v]	*of* [of]	*of* [ov]
[ks] →	[gz]	*anxiety* [ˌən'ksaiəti]	*anxiety* [ˌən'gzaiəti]
[tʃ] →	[dʒ]	*knowledge* ['kno:lətʃə]	*knowledge* ['no:lidʒ]

Loss of Some Consonants

In **NE** some consonants were vocalised or gave birth to diphthongs and triphthongs.

[r] was vocalised at the end of the word in the 16ᵗʰ -17ᵗʰ c.

[j] disappeared as a result of palatalisation); [j] remained only <u>initially</u> (e.g. *year, yard*, etc.);

[x, x'] were lost (e.g. ME *taughte* ['tauxtə] – NE *taught* [to:t], ME *night* [nix't] – NE *night* [neit]

[kn] → **[n]** (e.g. ME *know* [knou] – NE *know* [nou]);

[gn] → **[n]** (e.g. ME *gnat* [gnat] – NE *gnat* [næt]);

Historical Background of Modern English Spelling

OE Spelling
based on **phonetic principle**;
employed <u>Latin characters</u>;
one letter = one sound;
Exceptions: **ȝ, f, s, ð** (1 letter = 2 or more sounds).

ME Spelling
based on **conventional principle**;

more <u>ambiguous</u> and less stable (printing was not introduced yet and the manuscripts contained <u>numerous variants of spelling</u> – practically each scribe had its own way to spell the words);

<u>digraphs</u> (2 letters = 1 sound) appear + 1 letter = several sounds, several letters/combinations of letters = 1 sound (these were the deviations from phonetic principle):

1 letter = several sounds		several letters/combinations of letters = 1 sound	
letter	**sounds**	**letters**	**sound**
o	[o], [u], [o:], [ǿ]	g, dg, j	[dʒ]
c	[s], [k]	k, c, q	[k]
g	[g], [dʒ]		
u	[u], [v]		

NE Spelling

based on **<u>conventional principle</u>** was preserved;

<u>new digraphs</u> appeared (indicated borrowings from other languages) – **ph, ps, ch;**

spelling became **<u>fixed</u>**.

There reasons for such stabilisation were as follows:

Introduction of <u>Printing</u> (1475) → one obligatory standard!

<u>Normalisation</u> of the language (17th – 18th c.)→ one obligatory standard!

ModE Spelling

Modern English spelling <u>reflects pronunciation</u> of the **14th – 15th c.**

LECTURE 10
The Old English Morphological System

1. Parts of Speech
2. System of Declensions
3. Classification of the Verb
4. The Development of the Syntactic System

Old English was a **synthetic** language, i.e. there were a lot of inflections.

Parts of Speech

In OE 9 parts of speech had already been distinguished:

changeable	**1. Noun**	**<u>Nominal Categories:</u>**
	2. Adjective	**Number, Case, Gender,**
	3. Pronoun	**Degrees of Comparison,**
	4. Numeral	**Determination**
	5. Verb	**<u>Verbal Categories:</u>** **Tense, Mood, Person, Number, Voice, Aspect, Order, Posteriority**
unchangeable	**6. Adverb** (only Degrees of Comparison)	-
	7. Prepositions	-
	8. Conjunctions	-
	9. Interjections	-

<u>**Noun**</u>

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

Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N).

Case – Nominative (Nom) (agent), Genitive (Gen) (attribute), Dative (Dat) (instrument, indirect/prepositional object), Accusative (Acc) (recipient, direct/prepositionless object).

System of Declensions

In OE there were **25** declensions of nouns. All nouns were grouped into declensions according to:

– <u>stem-suffix;</u>
– <u>Gender.</u>

We will mention only the most numerous declensions/stems here:

Strong Vocalic Stems		Weak Consonantal Stems	
Stem-suffix	**Gender**	**Stem-suffix**	**Gender**
a-stem	M, N	**n-stem**	M, N, F
o-stem	F	**r, s, nd-stems**	M, N, F
i-stem	M, N, F	**root-stem**	M, F
u-stem	M, F		

<u>**Adjectives**</u>

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

Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N).

Case – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc) + **Instrumental** (Instr).

<u>Instrumental Case</u> was used to express instrumental meaning but only in the adjective while the noun stood in Dative Case:

by/with + Adjective (Instr) + Noun (Dat)

Degrees of Comparison – positive, comparative, superlative.

Determination (Definiteness/Indefiniteness) – today this category has to do with the Article but in OE <u>there were no articles</u> and definiteness/indefiniteness was <u>expressed with the help of inflections</u> of the Adjective, i.e. the inflections of the Adjective helped to determine whether a noun was definite or indefinite.

In OE there existed the <u>weak</u> and <u>strong declensions</u> of the Adjective. They will be discussed more precisely in Lecture 16.

<u>**Pronoun**</u>
Classification:

Personal (Noun-Pronouns (had some categories of the Noun and resembled the Noun in syntactic function)).

They had the following categories:

- **Person –** 1st, 2nd, 3rd;
- **Number –** Singular (Sg), Plural (Pl) + **Dual** (1st, 2nd pers. (we both, you both) when only <u>two</u> persons were meant);
- **Gender –** Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N) – <u>only in 3rd person</u>!;

- **Case** – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc).

Demonstrative (Adjective-Pronouns (had some categories of the Adjective and resembled the Adjective in syntactic function)).
They had the following categories:
- **Number –** Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
- **Gender –** Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N);
  Case – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat),
  Accusative (Acc) + **Instrumental** (Instr).
  Interrogative – unchangeable.

  Indefinite – unchangeable.

Numeral
Classification:

Cardinal – *ān* (one), *twēʒen* (two), *þrēō* (three) – had the categories of Gender and Case. All the other cardinal numerals were unchangeable.

Ordinal – were unchangeable.

Verbs Classification:

1. Finite
They had the following categories:
Tense – Present and Past (NB no Future! – future actions were expressed by the Present Tense forms);
Mood – Indicative, Imperative, Superlative;
Person – 1st, 2nd, 3rd;
Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
Conjugation – strong and weak.

2. Non-finite:

Infinitive resembled the Noun and had the category of:
Case – Nominative (Nom) and Dative (Dat)
e.g. Nom *beran* (uninflected) – Dat *to berenne* (inflected, indicated direction or purpose);

Participles 1, 2 resembled the Verb, the Noun and the Adjective and had the following categories:

Tense – Present (Participle 1) and Past (Participle 2);
Number – Singular (Sg) and Plural (Pl);
 Gender – Masculine (M), Feminine (F), Neuter (N);
Case – Nominative (Nom), Genitive (Gen), Dative (Dat), Accusative (Acc);
 Voice – Active (Part. 1, 2) and Passive (Part 2).
Finite and Non-finite Verbs will be discussed more precisely in Lecture 18.

Preterite-Present Verbs
There were 12 of these verbs and most of them later turned into Modal Verbs.
Anomalous Verbs

They were <u>irregular</u> verbs that combined the features of the weak and strong verbs. There were 4 of them – *willan* (will), *bēon* (to be), *ζān* (to go), *dōn* (to do).

The Development of the Syntactic System

Old English was a **synthetic** language, i.e. there were a lot of <u>inflections</u> that showed the <u>relations</u> between the words <u>in a sentence</u>.

Syntactic Connections between the Words

1. **Agreement** – a <u>correspondence</u> between 2 or more words in Gender, Number, Case, Person:

relation – correspondence between the <u>Subject</u> and the <u>Predicate</u> in Number and Person;

correlation – agreement of an <u>adjective</u>, a <u>demonstrative pronoun</u>, a <u>possessive pronoun</u>, <u>Participle 1, 2</u> with <u>noun</u> in Gender, Number, Case.

2<u>.</u> **Government** – a type of <u>correspondence</u> when one word (mainly a verb, less frequently – an adjective, a pronoun or a numeral) <u>determines the Case</u> of another word:

e.g.: OE *niman* (to take) → noun in Acc;

OE *secζan* (to say) → noun in Dat (to whom?), noun in Acc (what?);

OE *hlusten* (to listen) → noun in Gen.

Word Order

In **OE** the word order was **free** as far as there were a lot of <u>inflections</u> that showed the <u>relations</u> between the words <u>in a sentence</u>.

Most common <u>word-order patterns</u> were:

1. S + P + O(in <u>non-dependent</u> clauses);

2. S + O + P(when the Object was a <u>pronoun</u>, e.g. OE *Ic þe secζe* – literally "to you say");

(in <u>dependent</u> clauses, e.g. OE *þis wæs ζefohten siþþan hē of Ēāst Enþlum cōm* – literally "This battle was held when he from eastern England came" – such word order was called **"frame"** – after a connective went the Subject, it was followed by all the other parts of the sentence and the last place was occupied by the Predicate which thus created a frame together with the Subject);

3. P + S + O (in <u>questions</u>, e.g. OE *Hwat sceal ic sinζan* – "What shall I sing?");

(in sentences starting with <u>adverbial modifier</u>, e.g. OE *Nū synt ζeþrēāde þeζnas mīne* – literally "Now were threatened my servants").

In **ME** and **NE**, due to the <u>loss of the Cases</u> and, as a result, loss of the <u>inflections</u> the distinction between the Subject and the Object of a sentence was lost. Thus the word order became **fixed** and **direct** (S + P + O – The Subject almost always took the first place and was followed by the Object).

Such word order led to the appearance of the <u>formal Subject</u> (formal *it, there*, e.g. *It was winter; There is a book.*) that took the place of the Subject if a sentence did not have one and thus <u>preserved</u> the direct word order.

Inversion was used only in <u>questions</u> and for <u>emphasis</u>.

Negation

In **OE** the common word for negation was *ne* (IE origin). It was simply placed before a word that was to be negated:

e.g. OE *Ne can ic* ("I don't know", or literally "Not know I").

As a result of this position before a word the particle *ne* often <u>fused</u> with:

a verb (e.g. OE *nis ← ne is; næs ← ne wæs; næfde ← ne hæfde* (had),

a numeral (e.g. OE *nān ← ne an* (none));

a pronoun (e.g. OE *nic ← ne ic* (not me));

an adverb (e.g. OE *nēfre ← ne āfre* (never)).

<u>Multiple negation</u> was perfectly <u>normal</u>:

e.g. OE ***Nis nān*** *wisdom* ***ne nān*** *rēad* ***naht*** *onean God.* – "There is no knowledge concerning God."

Often the particle *ne* was <u>strengthened</u> by the particle ***naht***.

In **ME** particle *ne* fell <u>out of use</u> and was replaced completely by the particle ***naht*** that later developed into ***not***, stood manly <u>after a verb</u> (V + not) and negated it:

e.g. *I fell to earth I knew not where.*

In **NE**, during the Normalisation Period, <u>no-double-negation rule</u> appeared that prohibited more than one negative word in a sentence.

LECTURE 11
Different Ways of Word-Formation and Vocabulary in Old English Period

1. Old English Vocabulary
2. Word-Formation in Old English

Old English Vocabulary

The history of words throws light on the history of the speaking community and its contacts with other people.

According to some rough counts <u>OE vocabulary</u> had between **23 000** and **24 000** lexical units. About <u>only</u> **15%** of them survived in <u>ModE</u>.

In **OE** there were an extremely <u>low percentage of borrowings</u> from other languages (only **3%** as compared to **70%** in <u>ModE</u>). Thus <u>OE</u> from the point of view of its vocabulary was a <u>thoroughly</u> <u>Germanic</u> language.

Native OE words can be subdivided into <u>3 following layers</u>:

1. Common IE words – the <u>oldest</u> and the <u>largest</u> part of the OE vocabulary that was inherited by the Proto-Germanic, and later by all the Germanic languages, from the Common <u>Indo-European</u> Language.

Semantic fields:

- **family relations** (*father, mother, daughter, brother,* etc. (except *aunt, uncle* – words of the Germanic origin));
- **parts of human body** (*eye, nose, heart, arm,* etc.);
- **natural phenomena, plants, animals** (*tree, cow, water, sun, wind,* etc.).

Parts of speech:

- **nouns** (*eye, brother,* etc.);
- **verbs** (basic activities of man) (*to be, can, may, to know, to eat, to stand, to sit,* etc.);

- **adjectives** (essential qualities) (*new, full, red, right, young, long,* etc.);
- **pronouns** (personal and demonstrative) (*I, my, this, that, those, these,* etc.);
- **numerals** (most of them) (*1-10, 100, 1000,* etc.);
- **prepositions** (*for, at, of, to,* etc.).

2. Common Germanic words – the part of the vocabulary that was <u>shared by</u> most <u>Germanic languages</u>. These words never occurred outside the Germanic group of languages. This layer was <u>smaller</u> than the IE layer.

Semantic fields:

- **nature, plants, animals** (*earth, fox, sheep, sand,* etc.);
- **sea** (*starve, sea,* etc.);
- **everyday life** (*hand, sing, find, make,* etc.).

Parts of speech:

- **nouns** (*horse, rain, ship, bridge, life, hunger, ground, death, winter, evil,* etc.);
- **verbs** (*to like, to drink, to bake, to buy, to find, to fall, to fly, to make,* etc.);
- **adjectives** (*broad, sick, true, dead, deaf, open, clean, bitter,* etc.);
- **pronouns** (*such, self, all,* etc.);
- **adverbs** (*often, again, forward, near,* etc.).

3. Specifically Old English words – native words that occur <u>only in English</u> and do not occur in other Germanic and non-Germanic languages. They are <u>very few</u> and are mainly <u>derivatives and compounds</u> (e.g. *fisher, understand, woman,* etc.).

4. Borrowed words – this part of OE vocabulary, as it has already been mentioned above, was a <u>small</u> portion of words that remained on the periphery of OE vocabulary. The words were mainly <u>borrowed from</u>:

- **Latin** (around 500 words only) (*abbat, anthem, alms,* etc.);
- **Celtic dialects:**
  - <u>common nouns</u> (*bin, cross, cradle,* etc.) – most of them died out, some survived only in dialects;
  - <u>place names</u> and names of <u>waterways</u>:
    - *Kent, London, York,* etc.*;*
    - *Ouse, Avon, Evan, Thames, Dover* – all with the meaning "water";
    - **-comb** ("deep valley") – *Duncombe, Winchcombe,* etc.;
    - **-torr** ("high rock") – *Torr, Torcross,* etc.;
    - **-llan** ("church") – *Llandoff, Llanelly,* etc.;
    - **-pill** ("creek") – *Pylle, Huntspill,* etc.
- **hybrids:**

Celtic element + Latin element	Celtic element + Germanic element
Man-chester	*York-shire*
Corn-wall	*Devon-shire*
Lan-caster	*Salis-bury*
Devon-port	*Lich-field*

Word-Formation in Old English

In OE the <u>vocabulary</u> mainly <u>grew</u> by means of <u>word-formation</u>. The words fell into <u>3 main types</u>:

- **simple words** (root-words) – a word consisting of a root-morpheme with no derivational suffixes (e.g. OE ʒōd (good), *land* (land), *dæʒ* (day), etc.);
- **derived words** – a word consisting of a root-morpheme + 1 or more then one affix (e.g. OE *be- ʒinnan* (begin), *ʒe-met-inʒ* (meeting), etc.);
- **compound words** – a word consisting of more then one root-morpheme (e.g. OE *mann-cynn* (mankind), *fēower-tīene* (fourteen), etc.).

Word-Derivation:
- **sound interchange –** was employed <u>frequently</u>, but never alone (usually was accompanied by <u>suffixation</u>). **Sources** of sound-interchange:
  – <u>ablaut</u> (OE *rīdan* (V) – *rād* (N) = NE *ride* (V) – *raid* (N); OE   *sinʒ an* (V) – *sonʒ* (N) = NE *sing* (V) – *song* (N), etc.);
  ▪ <u>palatal mutation</u>:
  – verbs from nouns (*doom* → *deem; food* → *feed,* etc.);
  – verbs from adjectives (*full* → *fill; healthy* → *heal,* etc.);
  – -nouns from adjectives (*long* → *length; strong* → *strength,* etc.);
  – <u>consonantal interchanges</u> (*death – dead; rise – rear,* etc.).
- **word stress –** was <u>not frequent</u>; it helped to differentiate between <u>parts of speech</u> and was used together <u>with other means</u> (e.g. OE *'andswaru* (N answer) – *and'swarian* (V answer);
- **prefixation –** was a <u>productive</u> way (unlike in ModE):
- <u>IE prefixes</u> (OE **un-** (negative));
- <u>Germanic prefixes</u> (OE **mis-, be-, ofer-**(over-));
- prefixes were widely used with <u>verbs</u>, but were far less productive with the other parts of speech (e.g. OE *ʒān* (to go) – *ā-ʒān* (to go away) – *be-ʒān* (to go round) – *fore-ʒān* (to precede), etc.);
- prefixes often <u>modified lexical meaning</u> (e.g. OE *siþ* (journey) – *for-siþ* (death));
- there were <u>grammatical prefixes</u>, e.g *ʒe-*: was used to build <u>Participle 2</u> of strong verbs (e.g. OE *sitten* (to sit) – *ʒesett* (sat), etc.);
- turned <u>durative</u> verbs <u>into terminative</u> (e.g. OE *feran* (to go) – *ʒeferan* (to reach), etc.).
- **suffixation –** was the <u>most productive</u> way, mostly applied to <u>nouns</u> and <u>adjectives</u>, seldom to verbs.

Classification of OE suffixes:

Suffixes of **agent nouns** (**-end** (OE *frēond* (friend)), **-ere** (OE *fiscere* (fisher)), **-estre** (feminine) (OE *bæcestre* (female baker)), etc.);

Suffixes of **abstract nouns** (**-t** (OE *siht* (sight)), **-þu** (OE *lengþu* (length)), **-nes/nis** (OE *beorhtnes* (brightness), *blindnis* (blindness)), **-unʒ/inʒ** (OE *earnunʒ* (earning)), etc.);

Adjectival suffixes (**-iʒ** (OE *hāliʒ* (holy)), **-isc** (OE *mannisc* (human)), **-ede** (OE *hōcede* (hooked)), **-sum** (OE *lanʒsum* (lasting)) etc.);

New suffixes derived from <u>noun root-morphemes</u> (**-dōm** (OE *frēodōm* (freedom)), **-hād** (OE *cīldhād* (childhood)), **-lāc** (OE *wedlāc* (wedlock)), **-scipe** (OE *frēondscipe* (frendship)), etc.);

New suffixes derived from adjective root-morphemes (**-lic** (OE *woruldlic* (worldly)), **-full** (OE *carfull* (careful)), **-lēas** (OE *slǽplēas* (sleepless)), etc.).

Word-Composition

Word-composition – a combination of 2 ore more root-morphemes – was a highly productive way of word-formation. The main patterns were:

- N + N → N (the most frequent) (e.g. OE *ζimm-stān* (gemstone), OE *mann-cynn* (mankind));
- syntactical compounds → N (e.g. OE *dæζes-ēaζe* (literally "day's eye" = NE daisy));
- Adj + N → Adj (so-called **bahuvrihi type**) (e.g. OE *mild-heort* (literally "mild heort" = NE merciful), OE *ān-ēaζe* (literally "one eye" = NE one-eyed));
- N + Adj → Adj (e.g. OE *dōm-ζeorn* (eager for glory), OE *mōd-ceariζ* (sorrowful));
- V + N → N (very rare) (e.g. OE *bæc-hūs* (baking-house)).

Word composition was often accompanied by other ways of word formation mentioned above (e.g. OE *þēaw-fæst-nes* (*þēaw* = "custom" N, *fæst* = "firm" N, *nes* = "-ness" suffix)) = NE discipline).

LECTURE 12
Foreign Sources of Borrowings in the English Language

1. Latin Borrowings in Old English
2. French and Scandinavian Borrowings in English

Latin Borrowings in Old English

OE Latin has been the most long-lasting donor of borrowings to English because its influence started before the 5ᵗʰ A.D. (when Anglo-Saxons still lived on the Continent) and continues up to present day.

Usually Latin borrowings in **OE** are classified into the following layers:

1. **Continental borrowings** – words that the West Germanic tribes borrowed from Latin while they still lived on the Continent. Later, when they conquered the British Isles, they brought these words with them. These words are present in all the Germanic languages.

Semantic fields:

- **concrete objects** (household (*cup, pillow,* etc.*)*, food (*cheese, butter,* etc.), animals (*mule, turtle,* etc.));
- **units of measurement** (*mile, pound, inch,* etc.).

2. **Borrowings after the Roman Invasion** of the British Isles (through the Romanised Celts) that lie within the following semantic areas:

- **trade** (*trade, deal, chest, flask,* etc.);
- **building** (*chalk, file, copper,* etc.);
- **domestic life** (*dish, kettle,* etc.);
- **military affairs** (*wall, street, pile,* etc.);
- **place names:**

– **castra** ("castle") (*Chester, Lancaster,* etc.);
– **wich** ("village") (*Norwich, Woolwich,* etc.);
– **port** ("port") (*Bridport, Devonport,* etc.).

3. Borrowings after the Introduction of Christianity (597) that lie within the following semantic areas:

- **religion** (*angel, hymn, idol, pope, psalm*; from Greek through Latin – *anthem, bishop, candle, apostle,* etc.);
- **learning** (*school, scholar, master, verse, accent, grammar,* etc.);
- **everyday life** (*plant, pine, radish, cap, sock,* etc.).

Moreover, there appeared a lot of so-called **translation loans** – words that were translated part-for-part from Latin (e.g. *Monday* ("moon day", from Latin *Lunae dies*), *goldsmith* (from Latin *aurifex* (*auri* = gold, *fex* = worker)), etc.).

All Latin borrowings in OE underwent **assimilation**, i.e.:

– changed their spelling according to the English rules;
– underwent some phonetic changes according to the English rules;
– were used in derivation and compounding;
– acquired grammatical categories of the English parts of speech.

ME

After the Norman Conquest the main spheres of the Latin Language remained:

- church;
- law;
- academic activities.

French became the official language of administration (it was used in the king's court, in the law courts, in the church (as well as Latin), in the army, by the nobles in the south of England).

English was the language of common people in the Midlands and in the north of England. It still remained the language of the majority who were the representatives of the lower classes of society and never learned French, so the Norman barons had to learn English to be able to communicate with locals and soon English regained its position as the language of the country.

The surge of interest in the classics during the Age of the Renaissance led to a new wave of borrowings from Latin and Greek (through Latin mainly).

Latin	Greek
abstract concepts (*anticipate, exact, exaggerate, explain, fact, dislocate, accommodation,* etc.)	**theatre** (*drama, episode, scene, theatre,* etc.)
	literature (*anapest, climax, epilogue, rhythm,* etc.)
	rhetoric (*dialogue, metaphor,* etc.)
affixes de- (*demolish, destroy,* etc.), **ex-** (*extract, , explore, explain,* etc.), **re-** (*reread, retell, retry,* etc.), **-ate** (*locate, excavate,* etc.), **-ent** (*apparent, present, turbulent,* etc.), **-ct** (*correct, erect,* etc.)	**roots** for creation of new words ( )
	affixes -ism (*humanism, mechanism, aphorism,* etc.), **-ist** (*protagonist, terrorist, cyclist,* etc.), **anti-** (*antibody, antidote, antibiotic,* etc.), **di-** (*digest, diverse,* etc.), **neo-** (*neo-realism, neo-conservatism,* etc.)
Greco-Latin Hybrids (words one part of which is Greek and the other one – Latin): e.g. *tele-graph, socio-logy, tele-vision,* etc.	

Fate of these Borrowings in English:

1. Many of them underwent a **shift of meaning**:

e.g. Lat. *musculus* (literally "little mouse") → Eng. *muscle*;

Gr. *kosmos* ("universe") → Eng. *cosmetics*;

Gr. *climax* ("ladder") → Eng. *climax* (the top of something).

2. Many of them formed the basis for **international terminology**:

e.g. Latin borrowings: *facsimile, introvert, radioactive, relativity,* etc.;

Greek borrowings: *allergy, antibiotic, hormone, protein, stratosphere,* etc.

3. Many of them increased the number **synonyms** in English:

Native Germanic Word	French Borrowing	Latin Borrowing
reckon	*count*	*compute*
size	*calibre*	*magnitude*
kingly	*royal*	*regal*

French and Scandinavian Borrowings in English

In **ME** the main donors of borrowings to English were French and Scandinavian Languages:

Basis for Comparison	French Borrowings	Scandinavian Borrowings
Time	since the **11th c.** (Norman Conquest)	since the **9th c.** (Scandinavian Invasion)
Number	10 000	1 000
Area	French borrowings started to penetrate from the South and spread northwards.	Scandinavian borrowings came to English from Northern and North-Eastern Dialects
Ways of Borrowing	French borrowings penetrated through oral and written speech and at first were adopted only by the high strata of the society (French was the language of the administration, king's court, law courts, church (as well as Latin) and army).	Scandinavian borrowings penetrated only through oral speech as far as the Scandinavians had never been too eager to come to the power wherever they went. They were just raiders.
Assimilation of Borrowings	French borrowings were more difficult to assimilate as far as French was a Romance language while English was a Germanic one (they belonged to different language groups). So they two languages differed in some essential features (stress/accent, vocalic system, etc.) and the assimilation was hard.	Scandinavian borrowings were easier to assimilate as far as the Scandinavian Dialects as well as Old English Dialects were Germanic dialects (they all belonged to one and the same language group). So the languages were very similar and the assimilation was easy.

Semantic Fields	• **government and administration** (*assembly, authority, council, to govern, office, nation,* etc.); • **feudal system** (*baron, countess, duke, feudal, noble,* etc.); • **military** (*aid, arms, army, battle, defeat, force,* etc.); • **law** (*crime, court, jury, justice, false, defendant,* etc.); • **church** (*abbey, Bible, chapel, clergy, grace,* etc.); • **art, architecture**(*chimney, palace, colour, figure, design,* etc.); • **entertainment** (*pleasure, leasure, sport, dance, cards,* etc.); • **address** (*madam, sir, mister,* etc.).	**everyday life** (*cake, raft, skirt, birth, dirt, fellow, root, window, to die,* etc.); **military** (*knife, fleet,* etc.); **legal matters** (*law, husband,* etc.); **some pronouns and conjunctions** (*they, their, them, both, though,* etc.); **essential notion** (N *scar, anger;* V *to call, to take, to want to kill, to cast, to scare;* Adj *happy, ill, weak, wrong;* Pron *same, both;* Prep *till, fro,* etc.).
Recognition in ModE	French borrowings are often <u>recognisable</u> due to some phonetic, word-building and spelling <u>peculiarities</u>: • **oi, oy** (*point, joy, toy,* etc.); • **initial v** (*very, voice,* etc.); • **-age** (*village, carriage,* etc.); • **c as [s]** (*pierce, city,* etc.).	Scandinavian borrowings are <u>hard to distinguish</u> from the native words as far as Scandinavian Dialects belonged to the same language group (Germanic). The only distinctive Scandinavian feature in English: **Scandinavian cluster [sk]** (*sky, skill, skin, skirt,* etc.);
Contributions	• French borrowings **enlarged** the English **vocabulary** (a lot of new words); • Some French borrowings **replaced** the **native words** (*very, river, easy,*etc.); • French borrowings **enlarged** the number of **synonyms** in English: native *to hide* – Fr. borr. *to conceal,* native *wish* – Fr. borr. *desire,* native *smell* – Fr. borr. *odour,* etc. • Some French **affixes** were borrowed into English (**com-, sub-, dis-, -ment, -ish, -able,** etc.).	• A lot of Scandinavian borrowings **disappeared**, some were left only in dialects; • Some Scandinavian borrowings **replaced** the **native words** (*they, take, call,* etc.); • Scandinavian borrowings **enlarged** the number of **synonyms** in English: native *to blossom* – Scan. borr. *to bloom,* native *wish* – Scan. borr. *want,* native *heaven* – Scan. borr. *sky,* etc

A Chronology of the English Language and Some Important Dates

55 BC: Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar.

43 AD: Roman invasion and occupation under Emperor Claudius. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain.

436: Roman withdrawal from Britain complete.

449: Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins.

450-480: Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period.

597: St. Augustine arrives in Britain. Beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons.

731: The Venerable Bede publishes The Ecclesiastical History of the English People in Latin.

792: Viking raids and settlements begin.

865: The Danes occupy Northumbria.

871: Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is begun.

911: Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Ganger. The beginning of Norman French

1000: The oldest surviving manuscript of Beowulf dates from this period.

1066: The Norman conquest.

1150: The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period.

1171: Henry II conquers Ireland.

1204: King John loses the province of Normandy to France.

1348: English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin.

1349-50: The Black Death kills one third of the British population.

1362: The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time.

1384: Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible.

1388: Chaucer begins The Canterbury Tales.

1400: The Great Vowel Shift begins.

1476: William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.

1485: Caxton publishes Malory's Le Morte d'Arthur.

1492: Columbus discovers the New World.

1525: William Tyndale translates the New Testament.

1536: The first Act of Union unites England and Wales.

1549: First version of The Book of Common Prayer.

1564: Shakespeare was born.

1603: Union of the English and Scottish crowns under James I

1604: Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, Table Alphabeticall.

1611: The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published.

1616: Death of Shakespeare.

1623: Shakespeare's First Folio is published.

1666: The Great Fire of London. End of The Great Plague.

1702: Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant, in London.

1755: Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary.

1770: Cook discovers Australia.

1776: Thomas Jefferson writes the Declaration of Independence.

1782: Washington defeats Cornwallis at Yorktown. Britain abandons the American colonies.

1788: British penal colony established in Australia.

1803: Act of Union unites Britain and Ireland.

1828: Noah Webster publishes his dictionary.

1851: Herman Melville publishes Moby Dick.

1922: British Broadcasting Corporation was found.

1928: The Oxford English Dictionary is published.

ABBREVIATIONS

Eng. = Modern English.
Fr.   = French.
Ger. = German.
Gk.   = Greek.
Goth. = Gothic.
I-E. = Indo-European.
Lat. = Latin.
LdE. = London English (Modern).
ME.   = Middle English.
MnE. = Modern English.
ODan. = Old Danish.
OE.   = Old English.
OF.   = Old French.
OFris. = Old Frisian.
OHG. = Old High German.
OIcl. = Old Icelandic.
OLF. = Old Low Franconian.
ON.   = Old Norse.
ONorw. = Old Norwegian.
OSax. = Old Saxon.
OSw. = Old Swedish.
Skt. = Sanskrit.
Teut. = Teutonic.
WS.   = West Saxon.

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Навчальне видання

ВЄДЄРНІКОВА Тетяна Володимирівна

ГОНЧАРОВА Ольга Анатоліївна

Методичні рекомендації

Відповідальний за випуск: докт. пед. наук, проф. Костікова І.І.

Комп'ютерна верстка: Вєдєрнікова Т.В.

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