ПІВДЕННОУКРАЇНСЬКИЙ НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ
ПЕДАГОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ім. К.Д.УШИНСЬКОГО

Г.В.Мельниченко

ІСТОРІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ

*методичний посібник
для студентів заочного відділення*

Одеса – 2010

УДК: 4 (Англ.) + 378

Р е ц е н з е н т:

Єременко Т.Є. – кандидат філологічних наук, професор кафедри германської філології і методики викладання іноземних мов.

Мельниченко Г.В. Історія англійської

М 34   мови \ Методичний посібник – Одеса: Південно-
      український національний педагогічний
      університет ім. К.Д.Ушинського, 2010. – 91 с.

Навчальний посібник "Історія англійської мови", розроблений за модульним принципом навчання, стисло охоплює всю історію розвитку мови – від її витоків до сучасного стану. Посібник призначено для студентів заочного відділення педагогічного університету.

ВСТУП

Процес формування іншомовної комунікативної компетенції майбутніх учителів іноземних мов включає, поряд з класичними компонентами – мовною, мовленнєвою та соціокультурною компетенціями – історико-лінгвістичну складову, під якою розуміються знання з історії мови, яку майбутні фахівці мають викладати.

Предметом вивчення «Історії англійської мови» є основні події в історії розвитку мови, а саме, - становлення фонетичної структури й орфографії, еволюція граматичної системи й збагачення словнику в контексті конкретних історичних подій, що призвели до саме такої послідовності змінення форми мови.

Методичний посібник «Історія англійської мови» розроблений за модульним принципом розташування навчального матеріалу й оцінювання успішності його опрацювання. Він містить шість змістових модулів за темами: «Предмет курсу «Історія англійської мови»», «Германські мови», «Давньоанглійська мова», «Середньоанглійська мова», «Новоанглійська мова: ранній період», «Сучасна англійська мова». Кожний модуль включає декілька блоків: цільовий, інформаційний, контрольний. Посібник також пропонує теми для самостійного дослідження – рефератів. Нижче наводимо вимоги для написання реферату:

Таблиця 1
ВИМОГИ ДЛЯ НАПИСАННЯ РЕФЕРАТУ

№	Категорії	Вимоги
1	Метод пред'явлення	доповідь та обговорення
2	Якість пред'явлення	a) доповідь: 3-5 хвилин; матеріал підлягає вивченню напам'ять b) застосування наочних засобів (таблиці, малюнки, фотографії, дошка)
3	Якість виконання реферату	a) друкований b) 5-7 сторінок c) 5-7 використаних джерел
4	Послідовність пред'явлення	a) повідомлення теми b) представлення основного змісту реферату c) обговорення питань

Модульний принцип засвоєння засад курсу дозволяє отримати залік шляхом накопичення балів за різні типи роботи. Нижче наводимо таблицю, яка демонструє можливий розподіл балів:

Таблиця 2
РОЗПОДІЛ БАЛІВ З КУРСУ «ІСТОРІЯ АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ»

Тип роботи			Максимальна кількість одиниць за навчальною програмою	Максимальна кількість балів	Загальна сума балів
ПРАКТИЧНІ ЗАНЯТТЯ		присутність	4 години	5х2=10	100
	участь	тест за змістом 12 тем, представлених у методичному посібнику (складається шляхом вільної комбінації питань з тестів після кожного модуля)	1 Тест	50	
		доповідь	1 реферат	40	

Шкала оцінювання:
95-100 балів – відмінно
75-94 балів – добре
60- 74 балів – задовільно
59-0 балів – незадовільно

Залік отримують студенти, що отримали не менше 60 балів. За умов отримання меншої кількості балів студент має бути готовим до обговорення наступних залікових питань:

ТЕМИ ДЛЯ ЗАЛІКУ

1. The comparative historic method.
2. Germanic languages: linguistic features, classification.
3. The Great Consonant Shift.
4. Old English written records. Runic inscription.
5. Old English phonology.
6. Old English morphology.
7. Old English syntax.
8. Old English vocabulary.
9. Middle English dialects. The London dialect.
10. G. Chaucer as a founder of the literary dialect. The major features of Chaucer's English.
11. Linguistic situation on the British Isles after the Norman Conquest.
12. Peculiarities of Middle English phonology.
13. Peculiarities of Middle English morphology
14. Peculiarities of Middle English syntax.
15. Middle English vocabulary and word formation.
16. Early New English. Socio-linguistic features.
17. Early New English – linguistic features.
18. The Great Vowel Shift.
19. The first English dictionaries.
20. Expansion of English today.

MODULE 1
THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.
THE COMPARATIVE HISTORICAL METHOD.
ANALYSIS OF DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGES

Objectives:
1) to know the place of English in the world
2) to develop understanding of the procedure of the Comparative Historic Method
3) to know the main scholars contributing to the development of historical linguistics

Theme 1. The Subject Matter of the History of the English Language

Today English is one of the major languages of the world, spoken by nearly 500 mln people, and by 350 mln as the first language. It is a mother tongue outside England in all the continents of the world, and it is used as a medium of international communication. In the past few hundred years English has played an essential role in seafaring and international trade, it has become one of the most important commercial languages of the world.

So, within the subject of the History of the English Language you are going to obtain an idea of the history of the language and its structure, perform a rough survey of English, from its origins as a Germanic dialect to the literary and cultural achievements of its 1,500-year history to the state of American speech and global English today.

The Subject Matter of the History of the English Language is: the main events in the historical development of the English Language, the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of

English speaking communities relevant to language history. It also aims at revealing contacts of English with other related and unrelated languages.

There are some postulates to remember when speaking about development of any language:

1) No historical form of a language is simpler or more complicated than any other. English may have lost its old inflectional system, but it has gained new patterns of syntax and word order. No language decays or gets corrupted from an older form. As a corollary, languages do not evolve from lower forms into higher ones.

2) Languages do not change evenly over time; they change at different rates and in different areas. For example, the language of Shakespeare, 400 years old, is relatively comprehensible to us. But the language of Chaucer, 150 years older than the language of Shakespeare, was almost incomprehensible to Shakespeare's contemporaries

Theme 2. The Comparative Historical Method

Scholars sent to colonial positions in the British Empire noticed something recognizable in the exotic languages they encountered. At the end of the eighteenth century, the English scholar, judge and diplomat **William Jones,** when working in India, noticed certain features in the vocabulary and grammar of Sanskrit that were shared with Latin and Greek and the modern European languages. In particular, he noticed certain words, like Sanskrit *raj*, Latin *rex*, German *reich*, and Celtic *rix*, that seemed similar in sound and meaning (they were all words for *king* or *ruler*).

If you look at some cognates like the following, you might come to the same conclusion:

Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Gothic	English
pita	pater	pater	fadar	father
padam	poda	pedem	fotu	foot

He also noticed certain grammatical features, like forms of the verb *to be*, that were shared in different languages.

Jones supposed that these various languages must have descended from an original tongue. In 1799, he identified the tongue as Sanskrit, but later – in 1782 – he got to believe that Sanskrit, Greek and Latin all came from a common source, which had disappeared. This language is now known as Proto-Indo-European. It is thought that a group of people called the Kurgans spoke this language and lived in what is now southern Russia from some time after 5000 BC. In about 3500BC the Kurgans probably began to spread west across Europe and east across Asia. As groups of the Kurgans travelled further and further away from each other, they began to develop stronger differences in their dialects. With the passing of the time these dialects became different languages.

How then can we say anything about a language which existed more than 6000 years ago, before the time of written language? The answer comes from the study of so-called *cognates*, words of common origin in different languages. These words often resemble each other, and differences that exist between languages tend to be systematic. The scientific method that investigates cognates in order to reconstruct an original Indo-European form is the comparative historic method.

The comparative historic method - **the reconstruction of earlier forms of a language, or of earlier languages, by comparing surviving forms in recorded languages.**

The comparative method is based on some steps to be followed in the application of it, which are as follows:

1. Assembling cognate lists – comparing phonemes and morphemes in related languages on the basis of comparing meaningful units. It is supposed hypothetically that these units have common ancestors.

2. Establishing regular correspondence between

compared units. Once cognate lists are established, the next step is to determine the regular sound correspondences they exhibit. The notion of regular correspondence is very important here: mere phonetic similarity, as between English *day* and Latin *dies* (both with the same meaning), has no probative value. English initial *d-* does *not* regularly match Latin *d-*, and whatever sporadic matches can be observed they are due either to chance (as in the above example) or to borrowing (e.g. Latin *diabolus* and English *devil*, both ultimately of Greek origin). But English and Latin *do* exhibit a very regular correspondence between *t-* and *d-*. For example:

English	ten	two	tow	tooth
Latin	decem	duo	duco	dent-

3.   Establish   approximate   chronological correspondence between compared phenomena.

4. Reconstruct proto-form.
Let's examine some cognate words in Latin, Old Slovak and Gothic: *hostis (Lat) – гость (Old Slovak) – gasts (Gothic).* There is a certain similarity in their meaning and sounding, which enables us to suppose that the three words have common origin. To prove that idea we must make sure that the differences in pronunciation and spelling of these words are not occasional but regular. In other words we must make certain that correspondence between sounds **h** (Lat), **г** (Old Slovak), **g** (Gothic), **o** (Lat), **o** (Old Slovak), **a** (Gothic), which we see in the examples exists in other words of these languages. We find a proof when we compare these words with corresponding words from other related languages. When comparing them with Old Indian it becomes clear that the initial consonant of the ancestor word was aspirated **gh.** Thus it is possible to reconstruct the proto-form that existed in Proto-Indo-European – **ghostis** which gave birth to the three mentioned above words.

Theme 3. Analysis of Development of Languages

In the 19th century, following up on Jones's discovery, language scholars began to develop the study of comparative grammar.

1. Scholars, particularly in Germany, began to propose lines of descent among different languages, introducing the metaphor of "the language tree" (one proto-language splitting into various daughter languages, some of those then splitting again into further languages). The authorship of the theory of "the language tree" belongs to **A. Schleicher**, due to whom all languages originate from one proto-language, forming a language type (tree) divided into language families (branches).

The theory was strongly criticized by **F.Shmidt** refuting its main theses about a common proto-language and chance of its reconstruction as integrity. Due to him, relation of languages is based upon their geographical closeness, thus every language is a transitional link from one to another neighbouring language. The theory got the name "The Theory of Waves". Shmidt's scientific views got application in studies of Indo-European dialects by means of the Linguistic Geography Method.

2. The comparative method got developed out of many attempts to reconstruct the proto-language which Jones had hypothesized about, known as Proto-Indo-European. The first attempt to analyze the relationships between the Indo-European languages was made by the German linguist Franz Bopp in 1816. Professor of Oriental literature and general philology at the University of Berlin (1821–67), Bopp published a Sanskrit grammar (1827) and a Sanskrit and Latin glossary (1830). He sought to trace the common origin of Sanskrit, Persian, Greek, Latin, and German, a task never before attempted. The task which Bopp endeavoured to carry out in his *Comparative Grammar* was threefold - to give a description of the original grammatical structure of the languages as deduced from their intercomparison, to trace their phonetic laws, and to investigate the origin of their grammatical forms.

3. In 1818, the Danish philologist **Rasmus Rask**

developed the principle of regular sound changes to explain his observations of similarities between individual words in the Germanic languages and their cognates in Greek and Latin. Rask was the first to indicate that the Celtic languages, which include Breton, Welsh, and Irish, belong to the Indo-European family and also stated that Basque and Finno-Ugric do not. He established the relationship of Old Norse to Gothic and of Lithuanian to Slavic, Greek, and Latin.

It was another German, **Jacob Grimm** - better known for his Fairy Tales - who formulated the law of consonants correspondence in older Indo-European, and Low Saxon and High German languages. The main merit of Grimm was that he ascertained the so called sound law (later – Grimm's law) stating an internal connection between acts of general shift in languages development (voiced → voiceless→fricatives→ voiced and so on (by circle):

bhratar (Sanskrit) > **b**roþar (Gothic) - *fricatives→ voiced*
dauhtar (Gothic) > **T**ochter (German) – *voiced → voiceless*
piper (Lat) > **Pf**effer (German) – *voiceless→fricatives*

4. Both Rask and Grimm were unable to explain apparent exceptions to the sound laws that they had discovered. It was in 1875 that a Danish scholar, **Karl Verner**, made a methodological breakthrough when he formulated the sound law which now bears his name, and which was the first sound law to use comparative evidence to show that a phonological change in one phoneme could depend on other factors within the same word, such as the neighbouring phonemes and the position of the accent: in other words, the modern concept of *conditioning environments*.

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 1

1. How many people speak English as a first language:
a) 350 mln;   b) 500 mln;   c) 35 mln;
d) 153 mln.

2. The subject matter of the History of the English Language covers
a) the English language in its interrelation with culture;
b) contacts of English with other related and unrelated languages;
c) the history of phonetic structure and spelling of the English language;
d) material culture of historically ancient and modern peoples;
e) the changing historical conditions of English speaking communities;
f) peculiarities of spreading of peoples throughout the world in the past and nowadays for determining ethnic borders;
g) language as a systematically composed body of words that exhibit regularity of structure and arrangement into sentences;
h) cultural and routine peculiarities of peoples of the world;
i) the evolution of the grammatical system of the English Language;
j) the growth of the vocabulary of the English Language.

3. The Comparative Historic Method aims at
a) establishing the differences and similarities of development of different countries with the same language;
b) comparing the way the cognate languages have been developing;
c) reconstructing earlier forms of a language or languages by comparing surviving forms in recorded languages

4. Who was the first to have noticed some similarity of Latin, Greek, English and Sanskrit and stated the hypothesis about a common language ancestor for them?
a) Rasmus Rask;
b) Franz Bopp;
c) William Jones;
d) Jacob Grimm.

5. The peoples speaking Proto-Indo-European are supposed to live
a) in southern Russia from some time after 5000 BC;
b) in northern part of modern Germany in 5 BC;
c) on the territory of the Scandinavian peninsular in 1000 BC.

6. The peoples speaking Proto-Indo-European are supposed to be called
a) the Slovaks;
b) the Kurgans;
c) the Anglo-Saxons.

7. Match the names of the scientists with the achievements associated with them:

a) A. Schleicher	1) the principle of regular sound changes between individual words in the Germanic languages and their cognates in Greek and Latin
b) F.Shmidt	2) an internal connection between acts of general shift in the languages development (voiced→voiceless→fricatives→ voiced...)
c) Franz Bopp language	3) existence of a so called proto-

	4) the modern concept of *conditioning environments*
d) Rasmus Rask	5) "the family tree"
	6) established the relationship of Old Norse to Gothic and of Lithuanian to Slavic, Greek, and Latin.
e) Jacob Grimm	7) the law of consonants correspondence in older Indo-European
	8) "The theory of Waves"
f) Karl Verner	9) first to have given a description of the original grammatical structure of the Indo-European languages and to have investigated the origin of their grammatical forms
g) William Jones	10) analysis of the relationships between the Indo-European languages

MODULE 2
GERMANIC LANGUAGES
Objectives:
1) to know the place of the Germanic languages among the world languages
2) to develop understanding of spreading of the Germanic languages
3) to know the main common features of the Germanic languages

Theme 4. A brief history of the Germanic Tribes

Evidence developed by archaeologists and linguists suggests that a people or group of peoples sharing a common material culture dwelt in northern Germany and southern Scandinavia in 1000BC –500 BC. Linguists suggest that this group spoke the Proto-Germanic language, a distinct branch of the Indo-European Language Family.

The southward movement, probably influenced by a deteriorating climate in Scandinavia in 600 BC –300 BC, brought the Germanic peoples to Europe. Warm and dry climate of southern Scandinavia deteriorated considerably, which not only dramatically changed the flora, but forced people to change their way of living and to leave their settlements.
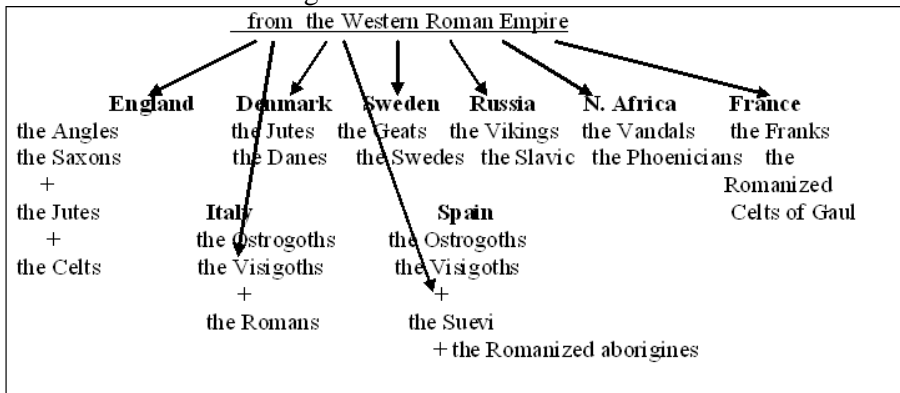
The Germanic peoples settled in northern Europe along the borders of the Roman Empire from the 2nd century. The tribal homelands to the north and east emerged collectively in the records as Germania. The peoples of this area were sometimes at war with Rome, but also engaged in complex and long-term trade relations, military alliances, and cultural exchanges with Rome as well.

A great wave of mysterious migration was that of the Germanic tribes beginning in the 2nd century AD and resulting in conquest of the western Empire. This is an odd chapter in

history, for the population of Italy was much larger than the population of migrating Germans. The Visigoths, one of the largest of the Germanic tribes, probably did not number more than 100,000 people and could field probably no more than 25,000 soldiers. This is in comparison to the 60 to 70 million people living in the Empire and a standing army that outnumbered the entire population of the Visigoths. Still, the Visigoths managed to enter Rome and assert administrative control over much of the western Empire.
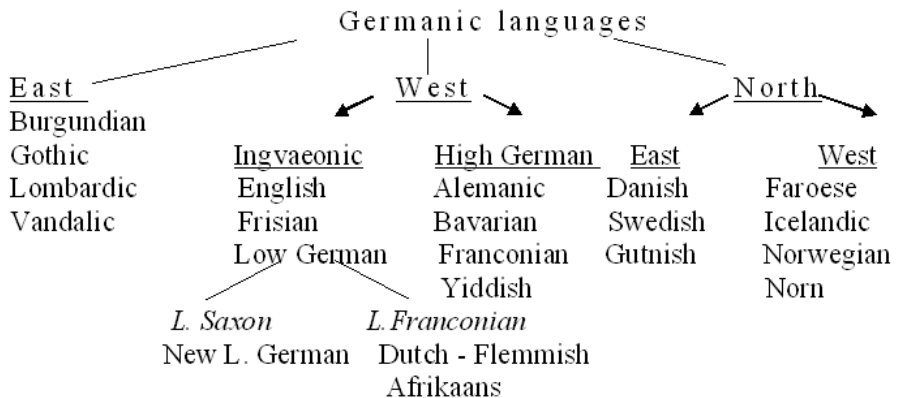
During the 5th century, as the Western Roman Empire lost military strength and political cohesion, numerous Germanic tribes, under pressure from invading Asian peoples and/or population growth and climate change, began migrating in far and diverse directions, taking them to England and as far south through present day Continental Europe to the Mediterranean and northern Africa. Over time, this wandering meant intrusions into other tribal territories, and wars for land became more often. A defeat meant either scattering or merging with the dominant tribe, and this continued to be how nations were formed.

Table 2. Migration and assimilation of the Germanic tribes

from the Western Roman Empire

England	Denmark	Sweden	Russia	N. Africa	France
the Angles	the Jutes	the Geats	the Vikings	the Vandals	the Franks
the Saxons	the Danes	the Swedes	the Slavic	the Phoenicians	the
+					Romanized
the Jutes	**Italy**		**Spain**		Celts of Gaul
+	the Ostrogoths		the Ostrogoths		
the Celts	the Visigoths		the Visigoths		
	+		+		
	the Romans		the Suevi		
			+ the Romanized aborigines		

Theme 5. Linguistic features of the Germanic languages

The English language belongs to the group of the Germanic languages.

```
                    Germanic languages

East                      West                      North
Burgundian
Gothic        Ingvaeonic     High German   East        West
Lombardic     English        Alemanic      Danish      Faroese
Vandalic      Frisian        Bavarian      Swedish     Icelandic
              Low German     Franconian    Gutnish     Norwegian
                             Yiddish                   Norn

       L. Saxon        L. Franconian
    New L. German   Dutch - Flemmish
                       Afrikaans
```
(The division had begun by 4AD)

The Germanic languages possess several unique features, such as the following:

1. **The shifting of stress accent onto the root of the stem and later to the first syllable of the word**. Though English has an irregular stress, native words always have a fixed stress regardless of how many and what morphemes are added to them. The result of the heavy fixed word stress was very important for development of the languages: unstressed syllables were pronounced weaker and weaker until they disappeared: flasc**e** → flask, se**ofo**n→seven

2. **The consonant shift** known as **Grimm's Law**. According to Grimm's Law, certain consonant sounds found in ancient Indo-European languages (such as Latin, Greek, and

Sanskrit) underwent a change in the Germanic tongue. For example, the sounds *p, d, t,* and *k* in Latin correspond to *f, t, th,* and *h* respectively in English:

p → f (ped/foot, pisc/fish, pater/father, pyro/fire)

t → ⱺ (th-sound) (tres/three, tu/thou, frater/brother).

k→ h (centum/hundred, cord/heart, cannabis/hemp, canard/hana, cornu/horn)

d → t (dent/tooth, duo/two, decem/ten)

g → k (genu/knee, genus/kin, gelidus/cold).

3. Other **common features of Germanic consonants:**

- pronouncing voiceless plosives   p, t, k with aspiration (except Dutch, Afrikaans);
- opposing voiceless and voiced (except Icelandic, Danish, Faroese, where all plosives correlate due to aspiration);
- devoicing of voiced plosives at the end of the morpheme (except English, Frisian, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian).

4. **Common features of Germanic vowels:**

- diphthongs in all languages except Swedish;
- differentiation of short and long vowels;
- reduction of unstressed vowels; in endings – in all languages except Icelandic, Swedish, Faroese.

5. **The levelling of the Indo-European tense and aspect system into the present and past tense** (also called *preterit* (форма прошедшего времени - пре́терит). There are two voices: active and passive; three moods: indicative, imperative, subjunctive.

6. The use of a **dental suffix** (/d/ or /t/) to indicate past tense. This dental suffix has its variants in different languages: -d, -t, -þ:

Old. Saxon: thênkian –thâh**t**a (to think)

Old. Scandinav.: calla – calla**ð**a (to call)

       Gothic: sōkjan – sōki**d**a (to search)

7. The presence of **two distinct types of verb conjugation**: weak (using *dental suffix* (as in English *care, cared, cared* or *look, looked, looked;* German *fragen, fragte, gefragt*)) and strong (using *ablaut* (as in English *lie, lay, lain* or *ring, rang, rung;* German *ringen, rang, gerungen*)).

8. Another distinctive characteristic is the **umlaut** - a type of vowel change in the root of a word caused by partial assimilation to a vowel or semivowel occurring in the following syllable (*fot* (singular), *fötter* (plural) in Swedish; and *Kampf* (singular), *Kämpfe* (plural) in German.)

9. **Two numbers**: **singular and plural** (dual forms – like in OE pronouns wit - we two, OE git – you two, only in Gothic).
10.   Some distinctive characteristic shared by the Germanic **nouns** are:

-**general and genitive case** (4 cases – Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative) are preserved in German, Icelandic, Faeroese). In Afrikaans case flexions are absent;

-**singular, plural** (the most number of formal indicators of the plural is presented in German – there are 5of them, the least – in English)

-**masculine, feminine, neutral genders** – in German, Norwegian, Icelandic, Faeroese, Yiddish; **general and neutral** – in Swedish, Danish, Dutch, Frisian

11. **Comparison of adjectives** in the Germanic languages follows a parallel pattern, as in English: *rich, richer, richest;* German *reich, reicher, reichst;* and Swedish *rik, rikare, rikast.*

12. **Formation of the genitive** singular by the addition of *-s* or *-es.* Examples are English *man, man's;* Swedish *hund, hunds;* German *Lehrer, Lehrers* or *Mann, Mannes.* English has 161 strong verbs; almost all are of Germanic origin.

13. **Articles**: the article exists in late Germanic (but neither in Gothic nor in Old English), in several Slavic languages (so-called "Balkan language alliance" (Macedonian, Bulgarian)

14. **Syntax:**
a. tendency to a fixed word order, especially verb – predicate;
b. inversion in emphatic, interrogative, imperative constructions and clauses.

15. **Vocabulary:** a number of basic words in these languages are similar in form: *cf.* English (Finger) Dutch (Vinger); German (Finger); Gothic (Figgrs); Icelandic (Fingur); Swedish (Finger); Danish (Finger).

16. **Writing.** From the 2nd to 7th AD the **runic alphabet** or **Futhark** is in use (from the first few letters). Runes were also used in divination and magic. Supposed origin of runes is ancient North Italian alphabet

ᚠ f	ᚢ u	ᚦ th	ᚨ a	ᚱ r	ᚲ k	ᚷ g	ᚹ w
ᚺ h	ᚾ n	ᛁ i	ᛃ j	ᛇ ae	ᛈ p	ᛉ z	ᛋ s
ᛏ t	ᛒ b	ᛖ e	ᛗ m	ᛚ l	ᛜ ng	ᛞ d	ᛟ o

Latin alphabet is introduced in the 7th AD in England, 8th AD – Germania, since 11th AD – Iceland, Norway, 13th AD-Sweden, Denmark

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 2

1. The history of the Germanic language covers a period of approximately how many years:
a) 3000 years   b) 1000 years   c) 2000 years   d) 1500 year

2. Which of the following languages is not a Germanic Language?
a) Danish   b) English   c) Dutch   d)Finnish

3. Group the languages into three categories:
   a) the east Germanic languages
   b) the west Germanic languages
   c) the north Germanic languages

Swedish, Norn, Gothic, Burgundian, Lombardic, Norwegian, Dutch, Yiddish, English, Icelandic, Frisian, Bavarian, Vandalic, Alemanic, Danish, New Low German, Flemmish, Franconian, Faroese, Gutnish, Afrikaans

4. Match the names of the Germanic tribes with the tribes they assimilated with:
1) the Angles   a) the Danes
2) the Vikings   b) the Slavic
3) the Saxons   c) the Romanized Celts of Gaul
4) the Visigoths   d) the Swedes
5) the Franks   e) the Phoenicians
6) the Vandals   f) the Celts
7) the Jutes   g) the Romans
8) the Geats   h) the Etruscans

5. Which of these features are typical of the Germanic stress?
a) the 1st syllable stress
b) the 3rd from the end syllable stress
c) force stress
d) melodic stress

6. Fill in the missing consonants due to the Great Consonant Shift:
a) [ ] → [d] → [ ] → [Ө]
b) [bh] → [ ] → [ ] → [f]

c) [gh] → [ ] → [k] → [ ]

7. Which of these features are typical of Germanic vowels?
a) diphthongs
b) short and long vowels
c) pronunciation on a higher pitch level
d) reduction of unstressed vowels

8. Reduction of unstressed vowels is typical of:
a) Icelandic   b) English   c) Swedish   d) German   e) Faroese

9. Which of these features of the (i) noun and (ii) verb are typical of the Germanic languages:
i
a) 7 cases
b) singular and plural
c) masculine, feminine, neutral genders
d) common and objective cases
ii
a) preterit
b) ablaut
c) completeness and incompleteness
d) dual forms
e) personal endings

10. Latin alphabet started substituting runes in England in
a) the 2 AD   b) the 5th AD   c) the 7th AD   d) the 11th AD

MODULE 3

OLD ENGLISH

Objectives:

1) to know the historical events resulting in changing the language;

2) to know what languages were spoken on the territory of the British Isles within the period;

3) to know the main peculiarities of the Old English language;

4) to develop understanding the rules of reading Old English texts

Theme 6. The history of Old English and its development

Chronological division of the English language:

1.Old English (c.450-1066): from the 1st Germanic tribes up to the Norman conquest;

2.Middle English (c. 1066-1475): from the Norman conquest up to the 1st printed book by W. Caxton;

3.New English (c. 1476 – now).

From the 5st century BC the British Isles were inhabited by **the Celts**. At the time the Celts reached Britain they spoke the common language, close to Gaulish in France. But later, when the Celtic tribes occupied Ireland, Northern England, and Wales, their tongues were divided according to tribal divisions. The group that settled the southern England and Wales spoke Brythonic (Welsh, Breton, Cornish); those who settled in Scotland and Ireland spoke Gaelic (Irish, Scotch-Gaelic, Manx).

Not much is left from the Celtic languages in English. Though many place names and names for rivers are surely Celtic (like *Usk* - from Celtic *usce* "water", *Avon* - from *awin* "river", *Dundee* - from *dun* "a hill", *Llandaff* – from *llan* "church", Ballantrae – from *bail* "house"). The Thames,

Mersey, Severn, London and Leeds are also of Celtic origin. And, certainly, the word *whiskey* which means the same as Irish *uisge* "water". But this borrowing took place much later.

From the 1ˢᵗ century AD the British Isles were colonized by **the Romans**. Their rule is marked by **the 1ˢᵗ layer of Latin loanwords** in the English language: names of cities, places and hills (*Dorchester, Winchester, Lancaster ← Lat. camp, castra (fort, castle); Portsmouth, Bridport ←Lat. portus; Stratford ←Lat. strata; Fossway, Fosbrook ←Lat. fossa (ров)*), many names of goods (*wīn (wine←Lat. vinum), pere (pear←Lat. pirum), piper (pepper←Lat. piper*), words denoting things and institutions with which the Germans got acquainted after the contact with Roman civilization: (*stræt (street←Lat. strata), weall (wall ←Lat. vallum), cycene (kitchen ←Lat. coquina), myln (mill←molinum)*

The 2ⁿᵈ layer of Latin loanwords refers to the 6th century when Christianity starts activities in Britain. The Bible is translated into Old English, and quite a lot of terms are borrowed from Latin at that time: many bishops, missionaries and Pope's officials come from Rome taking their vocabulary with them. They are mostly of Greek origin and connected with religious sphere: biscop (bishop)←Lat. episcopus, apostol (apostle) ←Lat. apostolus, dēofol (devil) ←diabolus, mæsse (mass) ←missa, munuc (monk) ← monachus, māgister (master) ←magister.

The 3ʳᵈ layer of Latin loanwords is associated with the New English period - since approximately the 16ᵗʰ century - with development of science. The words of this period are mainly abstract and scientific (e.g., nylon, molecular, vaccine, phenomenon, and vacuum).

Roman control of Britain came to an end when the Roman Empire began to collapse. In AD 409 Rome withdrew its last soldiers from Britain and the Romano-British, the Romanized Celts, or Romanized Britons, were left to fight alone against the

raiders from Germany. **In 449 AD the Germanic tribes (the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frises) from Southern Scandinavia and Northern Germany pushing from their densely populated homelands achieved British shores on their ships.** The Anglo-Saxon conquest lasted for several centuries, and all this period Celtic aborigines moved farther and farther to the west of the island until they managed to fortify in mountainous Wales, in Cornwall, and preserved their kingdoms in Scotland.

Anglo-Saxon culture was very strong. The names of week days were named after Germanic Gods: *Tiw* - the violent God of War (Tuesday), *Wodin* - King of the Gods (Wednesday), *Thor\ Thunor* - the fierce Thunder God (Thursday), *Frei* - the Mother Goddess (Friday). New place-names appeared. The ending *-ing* meant folk or family, therefore "*Reading*" is the place of the people or family of Reada, "*Hasting*" of the people or family of Heasta. *Ham* means farm and *ton* means settlement, thus *Wokimgham* means the farm of Wocca's people. *Birmingham, Nottingham, Southampton, Kingston* are Anglo-Saxon place-names.

Over the course of the next century-and-a-half the newcomers established seven kingdoms known as the **Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy**: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Kent, Essex, Sussex, and Wessex.

There were four principal Old English dialects:

1. Kentish – developed

The chief dialect areas of Old English. The map also shows some of the more important Anglo-Saxon kingdoms known from the early period, and their approximate locations.
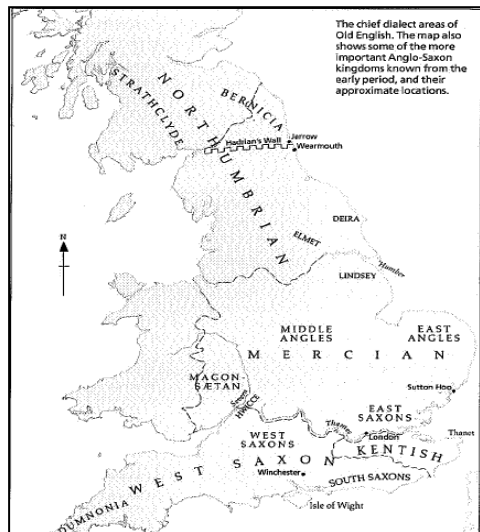
from the language of the Jutes, Frisians;

2. West Saxon – the main dialect of Saxons, the rest not survived;

3. Mercian - central region (southern Anglia and the kingdom of Mercia)

4. Northumbrian – another Anglian dialect

Dialects existed in the kingdoms until they were independent. Due to domination of the dialects the Old English period may be divided into historically demarcated periods:

1. Northumbrian efflorescence: During the 7th and 8th centuries Northumbria's culture and language dominated in Britain. This period was marked by a rich religious and literary culture. The monasteries of Northumbria produced beautiful manuscripts of the Bible, providing the contexts for writing of historical and intellectual texts. The Nothumbrian dialect was the most interesting of the dialects of Old English. First of all, it reflected the ancient speech of Angles, which is still poorly studied. Another interesting moment is that Northumbrian collected a rather wide vocabulary of borrowed words, mainly from Old Scandinavian, which really influenced Northern English greatly, and from Celtic.

The Viking invasions of the 9th century brought this domination to an end. Only Wessex remained as an independent kingdom. By the 10th century the West Saxon dialect became the official language of Britain.

The Viking invasions remained an essential trace in the English language. The next groups of foreign loanwords were taken from Scandinavian dialects. They are words beginning with sk-: *skin, skirt, sky, skip, skull, scant, score, steak, skill, slam*; pronouns *they, their, them*. Others are: *bag, cake, die, egg, get, give, husband, leg, neck, same, take, window, muggy, ill, till (together with OE tō), ugly, rugged, bark, hit, loft (чердак), odd (нечетный),thrive, want (недостаток), weak,*

wrong. The words of martial stratum and the things associated with it: *ship, fellow, club* (дубина), *and knife. There are some synonymous words in Modern English of OE and Old Norse origin: blossom – bloom, from – fro (to and fro), shirt – skirt, scot – shot, evil – ill, heaven – sky.* Over six hundred end in -by which means "farm" or "town" (Witby), others end in -thorpe (small village), -toft (piece of land): Scanthorpe, Blacktoft.

2. Wessex efflorescence: During the period of the 9th and early 10th centuries, Wessex became the seat of Anglo-Saxon intellectual, literary, and political life.

3. Disappearance of Old English: During the 11th century a new set of teachers and scholars set up schools for educating students in English and Latin. By the end of the 11th century, however, within a generation or two of the Norman Conquest, much of this literary and intellectual activity was gone. Anglo-Saxon bishops and priests were replaced by Norman French ones. By the middle of the 12th century, Old English was gone.

Theme 7. The Old English Phonetics

The Old English **vowels** could be either short or long in Old English, just like in Modern English or German. The length of the vowels is marked by the sign of *macron: ā (also presented as á).* The difference between open and closed syllables obviously did not exist and vowels could be short and long in every position. The table below explains all Old English (OE) vocals compared to those of English and followed by examples:

OE	Description; Position; Pronunciation	Examples
a	Short back vowel; mainly in open syllables, when the following one contains a back vowel; like in English **cup**	*habban* (to have)
á	Long back [a] vowel; in any kind of syllables; like	*stān* (a

	in English *star*	stone),
æ	Short back vowel; mainly in closed syllables, or in open ones, if the next syllable contains a front vowel; like in English *bad*	*wæter* (water)
ǽ	Long back vowel; like in German *zählen*	*stǽlon* (stolen),
e	Short front vowel; like in English *bed*	*sengean* (to sing)
é	Long front [e] vowel; like in German *Meer*	*déman* (to judge)
i	Short front vowel; like in English *still*	*niht* (a night)
í	Long front [i] vowel; like in English *steal*	*wrítan* (to write)
o	Short back vowel; like in English *boss*	*coren* (chosen)
ó	Long back vowel; like in English *store*	*scóc* (divided)
u	Short back vowel; used only when the next syllable contains another back vowel; English *book*	*curon* (they chose)
ú	Long back vowel; like in English *stool*	*lúcan* (to look)
y	Short front vowel; like in German *fünf*	*gylden* (golden)
ý	Long front vowel; like in German *glühen*	*mýs* (mice)
å	A special short sound met only before nasals in closed syllables (pronounced between a and o)	*månn* (a man)

The Old English tongue had two original diphthongs: *ēā* - *céás* (he chose) and *ēō*- *céósan* (to choose). As for corresponding short diphthongs, ea, eo, io, ie, and īē, all of them got developed as a result of umlaut, breaking and palatalisation:

1. Breaking

æ → *(developed into) ea* before combinations of "*r*+consonant", "*l*+cons.", "*h*+cons.", and before *h* final: *ærm* → *earm, æld* → *eald, herte* → *heorte.*

2. Palatalization

- the process which took place under the influence of *g, c, sc* before vowels at the beginning of the word: *e* → *ie (gefan* → *giefan), æ* → *ea (cæster* → *ceaster)*

3. i-mutation

- being caused by *i* (or *j*) in the next syllable, it affected all vowels, except *i* and *e* and lead to vowels moving from their back position to the new front one: *æ* → *e (tælian* → *tellan), u* → *y (fullian* → *fyllan)*

4. Back Mutation

- appears before sonants and labial consonants (i.e. *r, l; p, b, f, m*): *i* → *io (hira* → *hiora)*

5. Contraction of vowels due to a dropped *h*:

after the consonant had dropped, two vowels met, and they collided into one long vowel:

ah + vowel → *eah* + vowel → *éa*, (*slahan* → *sleahan* → *sléan*)

The **consonants** in the Old English language are simple to learn for a nowadays English-speaker:

Labials	*p, b, f, v*
Dentals	*d, t, s, þ* (English [th] in *thin*), *ð* (English [th] in *this*)
Velars	*c* [k], *g(ȝ), h*
Liquids	*r, l*
Nasals	*n, m*

Of them the special attention is always attracted to the letter *g(ȝ)*. Though it was written in the same way in every position, it was pronounced in three different ways:
1. as English **[g]** in *gift* - before any consonant or *a, o, u* (back vowels): (*gód* (a god).

2. as Greek **[γ]** or Irish *gh* and very close to Ukrainian [г] in pronunciation - after (between) back vowels (*a, o, u* or after *r, l.*): *dagas*, *folgian*.

3. as English **[j]** - preceding or following any front vowel (*e, i, y*): dæg (a day). As we see, this *g* in *dæg* later turned into the Modern English *y*.

Consonants could also be subject to **mutation,** the main of which are:

1.Voicing of fricative sounds (*h, f, s, þ*) appearing if a fricative is between vowels: *ofer* [´over], *selfa* [´selva], *rīsan* [´ri:zan], *ōðer* [´o: ðer], *wyrþe* [´wyrðe]. However in Old English unlike any other old Germanic languages there exist long consonants – **geminates** marked by a doubled letter "*sticca* (stick), *steorra* (star). Geminates despite their intervocal position has always been voiceless: *offrian* [f:] – to offer, *oððer* [θ:] – or.

2. Palatalization appears only in Late Old English, but significantly changes the pronunciation making it closer to today's English: *cild* [kild] → [child]; *scip* [skip] → [ship]; everywhere [g], [cg] sounds turn into [d*ȝ*]: *bricg* [bricg] → [brid*ȝ*]

3. Doubling of consonants (gemination) followed by *-j* (except for *-r-*) after a short consonant: *tælian* → *tellan, swæfian* → *swebban* (later ff→bb)

4. Hardening: voiced fricatives →voiced plosives [ð, v, γ → d, b, g]: Gt *broþar*→Grm *Bruder*

5. Rhotacism: modification of **–s** into **–r**: Gt *raisjan*→ *OE ræ:ran (to rear)*

6. Splitting of velar C:

   a) palatalisation of velar \c\ before\after front vowels: *cild* [k'ild]→[tʃaild]

   b) preserving the features of velar consonant otherwise: *cēpan* (keep)

7. **Loss of consonants**

a) loss of nasal before fricatives (lengthening for compensation = Ingweonic loss of nazal): Gt *fimf →OE fíf, OE wifman→NE 'wife';*

b) loss of fricatives between vowels and before some plosive consonants: Gt *slahan →OE slean* (slay)

8. Metathesis: sounds exchanging the places: P.Gmc. *thridjas* → O.E. *þridda* → third (c.950 in Northumbria)

Theme 8. The Old English Morphology

Of eight Proto-Indo-European cases, **Old English noun** kept just four: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative cases. All Old English nouns were divided as to being either strong or weak. While the first category had a *branched declension* (склонение), special endings for different numbers and cases, the weak declension was represented by nouns which had already begun to lose their declensional system. Examine an example of declension of a strong noun:

Singular		Plural	
Nom.	stán (stone)	Nom.	stánas
Gen.	stánes	Gen.	stána
Dat.	stáne	Dat.	stánum
Acc.	stán	Acc.	stánas

Such a **weak** nouns as *nama* (name) is more simple and stable in declension:

Sg.		Pl.	
N	nama (name)	N	naman
G	naman	G	namena
D	naman	D	namum
A	naman	A	naman

There was another group of nouns that according to Germanic laws of ablaut changed the root vowel during declension. In Modern English such words still exist: *goose - geese, tooth - teeth, foot - feet, mouse - mice* etc. In Old English time they were far more numerous in the language.

	Masc.			Fem.				
		Sg.						
N	mann	fót (foot)	tóþ (tooth)	hnutu (nut)	bóc (book)	gós (goose)	mús (mouse)	burg (burg)
G	mannes	fótes	tóþes	hnute	bóce	góse	múse	burge
D	menn	fét	téþ	hnyte	béc	gés	mýs	byrig
A	mann	fót	tóþ	hnutu	bóc	gós	mús	burg
		Pl.						
N	menn	fét	téþ	hnyte	béc	gés	mýs	byrig
G	manna	fóta	tóþa	hnuta	bóca	gósa	músa	burga
D	mannum	fótum	tóþum	hnutum	bócum	gósum	músum	burgum
A	menn	fét	téþ	hnyte	béc	gés	mýs	byrig

The general rule is the so-called *i*-mutation, which changes the vowel.

Nouns were declined due to their stem (**a-stem, ja-stem, wa-stem, i-stem, etc.**), the stem was defined not on the basis of Old English, but historically. For example, *stán* has an a-stem, but the words *scip* (ship) and *múþ* (a mouth) has the same stem, because *scip* got developed from P.Gmc. skip**a**n, while *múþ* – from P.Gmc. munth**a**z. The Old English *ende* (end) belongs to ja-stem developed from P.Gmc. and**ja**.

As well as the noun, **the Old English adjective** can be declined in case, gender and number. Moreover, the instrumental case was preserved. Adjectives must follow sequence with nouns which they define - that is why the same adjective can be masculine, neuter and feminine. The declension is more or less simple; it looks much like the nominal system of declension. As for weak adjectives, they also exist in the language. The thing is that one need not learn by heart which adjective is which type - strong or weak, as you

should do with the nouns. If you have a weak noun as a subject, its attributive adjective will be weak as well. So - a strong adjective for a strong noun, a weak adjective for a weak noun. Thus if you say "a black tree" that will be *blæc tréow* (strong), and "a black eye" will sound *blace éage*.

The last thing to be said about the adjectives is the degrees of comparison. Again, the traditional Indo-European structure is preserved here: three degrees (absolute, comparative, superlative) formed with the help of suffixes *-ra* and *-est*: *earm* (poor) - *earmra – earmost*, *blæc* (black) - *blæcra – blacost*. Many adjectives changed the root vowel - another example of the Germanic ablaut:

> *eald* (old) - *ieldra - ieldest*
> *strong - strengra - strengest*
> *long - lengra - lengest*
> *geong* (young) - *gingra - gingest*

The most widespread and widely used adjectives always had their degrees formed from a different stem. Many of them are still seen in today's English:

> *gód* (good) - *betera - betst* (or *sélra - sélest*)
> *yfel* (bad) - *wiersa - wierest*
> *micel* (much) - *mára - máést*
> *lýtel* (little) - *læ'ssa - læ'st*
> *fear* (far) - *fierra - fierrest, fyrrest*
> *néah* (near) - *néarra - níehst, nýhst*
> *fore* (before) - *furþra - fyrest* (first)

Old English Verbs are divided into two groups – strong and weak ones. All *strong* verbs are distinguished between seven classes, each having its peculiarities in conjugation and in the stem structure.

Class	I	II	IIIa	IIIb	IIIc	IV	V	VI	VII
Infinitive	í	éo	i	eo	e	e	e	a	different
Past	á	éa	a	ea	ea	æ	æ	ó	é, eo, éo

singular									
Past plural	i	u	u	u	u	æ'	æ'	ó	é, eo, éo
Participle II	i	o	u	o	o	o	e	a	a, á, ea

 See the examples:

I *wrítan* (to write), *wrát, writon, writen*

II *béodan* (to offer), *béad, budon, boden*

III a) i + a nasal cons.: *drincan* (to drink), *dranc, druncon, druncen*

   b) *r, h* + a cons.:   *steorfan* (to die), *stearf, sturfon, storfen*

  c) *l* + a cons.:   *helpan* (to help), *healp, hulpon, holpen*

IV *stelan* (to steal), *stæ'l, stæ'lon, stolen*

V *tredan* (to tread), *træ'd, træ'don, treden*

VI *faran* (to go), *fór, fóron, faren*

VII *hátan* (to call), *hét, héton, háten*

   feallan (to fall), *feoll, feollon, feallen*

   cnéawan (to know), *cnéow, cnéowon, cnáwen*

      Weak verbs in Old English (today's English regular verbs) were conjugated in a simpler way than the strong ones, and did not use the ablaut interchanges of the vowel stems. They did have the three forms - the infinitive, the past tense, the participle II.

Past - *de*   Past Participle - *ed*   *déman* (to judge), *démde, démed*

Past - *te*   Past Participle - *ed*   *cépan* (to keep), *cépte, cépt / céped* (When the suffix is preceded by a voiceless consonant)

Past - *de,te*   Past Participle – *d, t*   *tellan* (to tell), *tealde, teald bringan* (to bring), *bróhte, bróht* (Irregular)

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

Old English Adverbs can be either primary (original adverbs) or they can derive from adjectives. In fact, adverbs appeared in the language rather late, and early Proto-Indo-Europeans did not use them, but later some auxiliary nouns and pronouns losing their declension started to play the role of adverbial modifiers. That's how primary adverbs emerged:

þa (then)	(hither)
þonne (then)	*sóna* (soon)
þǽr (there)	*oft* (often)
nú (now)	*eft* (again)
hér (here)	*swá* (so)

hider

Secondary adverbs originated from the instrumental singular of the neuter adjectives of strong declension. They all add the suffix *-e*: *wide* (widely), *déope* (deeply), *fæste* (fast), *hearde* (hard). Another major subgroup of them used the suffixes *-líc, -líce* from more complex adjectives: *bealdlíce* (boldly), *freondlíce* (in a friendly way).

The Old

English language preserves the system of declension only for three **numerals**: *án* (1), *twá* (2), *þríe* (3) in case and gender. Mainly according to Old English texts ordinal numerals were used with the demonstrative pronoun *þá* (that) before them. This is where the definite article in *'the first', 'the third'* comes from. To say "the 22nd", for example, you should combine the following: either *twá and twenigoþa* (two and twentieth), or *óþer éac twentigum* (second with twenty). So the order is different from Modern English, but instead closer to Modern German where "the 22nd"

sounds like *zwei und zwanzig* (two and twenty).

New Old English words were created in four main ways:

A. **Determinative compounding**: Common to all Germanic languages, this kind of compounding forms new words by bringing together two normally independent nouns: e.g., *earhring* (earring); *bocstaef* (book-staff, i.e., letter); or an adjective and a noun, e.g., *middangeard* (middle yard, i.e., earth); *federhoma* (feather coat, i.e., plumage); *banlocan* (bone locker, i.e., body). Many of these words make up unique poetic

vocabulary of OE literature, especially in metaphorical constructions known as **kennings**: e.g., *hronrad* (whale road, or sea).

B. **Repetitive compounding**: bringing together words that are very nearly identical, or that complement and reinforce each other for specific effect. Thus, *holtwudu* (wood-wood, forest); *gangelwaefre* (going about one, swift moving one, in OE reserved as the word for "spider"; *flutterby* which was transposed in Modern English into *butterfly*).

C. **Noun-adjective formations**: *graesgrene* (grass green); *lofgeorn* (praise eager);

goldhroden (gold adorned). In Modern English, this form of compounding is revived in such phrases as *king-emperor* or *fighter-bomber*.

D. **Prefix formations**: like in other Germanic languages it is the most common way of creating new words. OE had many prefixes that derived from prepositions and that altered the meaning of words in special ways. The word *blōd* (blood) became *blōdig* (bloody), and *blind* became *blindlīce* (blindly).

Word Order.
Words in an Old English sentence appeared in a different order from those in Modern

English. In Modern English *the girl helped the boy,* and *the boy helped the girl* have different meanings which are communicated by the word order. In Old English these meanings were communicated by the endings of each word, which changed according to the job it did in the sentence. Thus Old English word order was relatively free.

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 3

1. Old English period covers
a) 450-1066AD
   b) 405 - 1475 AD
c) $7^{th} - 2^{nd}$ BC
d) 210 – 1474 AD

2. Arrange the

dwellers of the British Isles due to the sequence of historical periods they lived in:

a) Roman colonists

b) the Germanic tribes

c) the Picts

d) the Celts

e) the Vikings

f) the Norman conquest   6) 6th AD

g) Roman Christians

7) 8th AD

3. The informal confederation of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms from the 5th to the 9th century was called:

a)   Heptagon

b)   Heptarchy

c) Heptateuch

4.   This confederation comprised (Tick those which made it up):

a) Northumbria b) Cumbria c)

Mercia d) East
Anglia
e) Kent   f) West
Wales g) Essex
h) Sussex   i)
Wessex
j) Ireland

5. Arrange the words
into appropriate
column due to their
origin:

...pean	Celtic	Germanic	Latin	Sca...

a)   down   b)
Tuesday c) mother
d) wine   e) egg f)
earth   g)
whiskey   h) eye
i) skin   j) take   k)
Birmingham
l) moon   m) street
n) neck   o) do

6.   Arrange the
words   into
appropriate column
due to the period of
their appearance in
Old English:

Borrowing from Latin	
the 1st	the 2nd

layer of loanwords (from the 1st AD)	layer of loanwords (from the 6th AD)

a) Winchester b) pear c) master d) post
e) devil f) angel g) castle h) bishop

i) kitchen

7. Which of these are the Old English dialects:
a) Kentish b) South Saxon c) West Saxon d) East Saxon e) Mercian f) Northumbrian

8. Which of the letters did not belong to the Old English alphabet?
a) æ b) q
c) z d) g
e) j f) v

9. Among the

diphthongs of Old
English the original
ones are:
a) ēā   b) ēō
c) ea   d) iu
e) ai

10. Name the
mutation the early
OE vowels
underwent during
their development.
Choose the names
from the pool
below:
a) cæster → ceaster
(city)   f)
lárian → læ:ran
(teach)
b) fullian → fyllan
(fill)   g)
saru → searu)
(device)
c) scacan →
sceacan (shake)
                 h)
herte → heorte
(heart)
d) ærm → earm
(arm)   i)
mūs → mỹs (mouth)
e) jâr → gēar (year)

j) swestar → sweostor
(sister)

k) slahan → slēan)
(strike)

1. i-mutation; 2. palatalization; 3. back (velar) mutation; 4. breaking; 5. contraction of vowels due to a dropped *h*

11. Establish the rules of reading OE consonants by matching the lines in columns:

I) a) **3** is pronounced as Eng. **[g]** 1) preceding or following

any front vowel (*e, i, y*)
b) **3** is pronounced as Ukr. **[γ]** 2) before back vowels - *a, o, u*
c) **3** is pronounced as Engl. **[j]** 3) after (between) back

vowels or after *r, l*
d) **3** is pronounced
as Engl. **[d3]**   4) in
combination *cg (c3)*

I I) a) **c** is
pronounced as **[t⌡]**
1) before original
back vowel
   b) **c** is
pronounced as **[⌡]**
2) in combination
s*c*: *scēap*

(sheep), *fisc* (fisc)
   c) **c** is
pronounced as **[k]**
3) between or
before front

vowels *a, æ, e* and *y*

12. <u>Establish the</u>
<u>rules of reading OE</u>
<u>consonant [h] by</u>
<u>matching the lines</u>
<u>in the columns:</u>
 a) **h** is pronounced as
Eng. **[h]**   1) after
front vowels a, æ, e
and y
 b) **h** is pronounced
as Rus. **[x]**   2)

initially
 c) **h** is pronounced
as Engl. **[x']**   3)
after back vowels -
a, o, u

13. Which of the
words below present
the examples of
geminates:
a) sticca   b)
Zān   c)
oððer   d)
offrian

14. Match the
words with the
consonants
mutation they
illustrate:
a) Gt broþar → Grm
Bruder
b) OHGerm gans
→ OE gōs
c) Gt raisjan→ OE
ræ:ran
d) P.Gmc satjanan
→ O.E. settan
e) OE rinnan – OE
irnan
5) rhotacism

15. Strong verbs are
 the verbs that
a) form the past and
 participle by adding

a dental suffix
b) form the past and
participle through
changing root
vowel
c) their the past and
participle forms
coincide with the
infinitive

16. Weak verbs
made up the past
forms
a) by adding -te
b) by adding -de
c) by adding - te, -de
d) through changing
the root vowel

17. Tick the features
of the OE noun:
a) three genders
b) eight cases
c) various stem-type
declension
d) singular and
plural

18. Tick the features
of the OE adjective:
a) the genders
depending on ones
of the noun it
modifies
b) five cases

c) independent strong or weak forms of declension

d) suffixes –er, -est in the comparative and superlative

e) ablaut in the root in some degrees of comparison

19. Old English pronouns have

a) dual number

b) eight cases

c) the 2nd person singular   d) no gender

20. Tick the features inherent in the Old English numerals:

a) ordinal n. use the suffix *-ta* or *-þa*

b) ordinal n. use the suffix *-te* or *-þe*

c) 21 are pronounced - *án and twentig*

d) 21 are pronounced - *twentig and án*

21. Old English word formation

types are:
a) determinative compounding
b) qualitative compounding
c) repetitive compounding
d) noun-adjective formation
e) adjective -noun formation
f) prefix and suffix formation

22. "Kenning" is the term meaning:
a) the unique official vocabulary of OE documents, especially referring to royal family
b) the borrowed vocabulary of OE literature taken from the Vikings
c) the unique poetic vocabulary of OE literature, especially in metaphorical constructions

23. Which of these features are

inherent in the Old English syntax?
a) free word order
b) direct word order
c) only one negative word within the sentence
d) several negative words within the sentence
e) synthetic word order

MODULE 4
MIDDLE ENGLISH
Objectives:
1) to know the historical events that influenced changes of the language;
2) to know what languages were spoken on the territory of the British Isles within the

period; to know some of their peculiarities;

3) to describe the major differences between Old English and Middle English;

4) to know the main phonetic, grammatical, syntactic and lexical peculiarities of development of the language within the Middle English period;

5) to develop understanding the rules of reading Middle English texts.

Theme 9. Short

historical background

The history of Middle English is often divided into three periods:

1) Early Middle English Period: 1066 - 1204 - Decline of English

- Norman invasion (1066): full control of England; Frenchmen in all high offices
- decay of Anglo-Saxon traditions
- loss of Normandy in 1204; separati

on of French and English nobility; Anglo-French dialect prevails

2) Central Middle English period: **1204 - 1348 - Rise of English**

- after 1300: identification of the English kings with England and its people. In the 1300s - break with the Norman tradition of allegiance to the Roman church
- decline of French cultural dominan

ce in England

3) Late Middle English period: **1348 – 1457 - Dominance of English**

- Black Death 1348-1351, death of one third of English population, social chaos, labor shortages, emancipation of peasants, wage increases, rise in prestige of English as the languag

- e of working classes
- general adoption of English in the 14th century (in court, school, writing)
- 1457 – invention of the printing machine by William Caxton

1) At the battle of Hastings on 14 October 1066, King Harold was killed and his army defeated by the Norman invaders. This was beginning of the Norman Conquest - an event which would completely change the history of the English language.

The victorious William then conquered the

southeastern coast and London and was crowned king on Christmas Day 1066. In reality, however, much of England remained independent of his rule and he had to resume his campaign against the southwest, west and north, wiping out the native English nobility. He also replaced most of native clergy with Norman bishops and abbots, and Norman merchants took over much of the English commerce. Thus the English were reduced, for the most part, to the lower stations in the social structure.

For 200 years after the conquest, **French** was the language of the upper classes in England. To what

extent English remained in use? It is likely that its use was widespread and that at least some of the immigrated French learned enough English to communicate with their peasants. Intermarriage also helped English maintain its "legitimacy." But clearly English was socially stigmatized as the language of the conquered people

England, in fact, became much like a French colony, though gradually, as the Normans became more settled in England, the two peoples became more and more united, eventually, of course, identifying themselves as English as the split

between France and England developed in the fourteenth century.

2) **English begins to re-establish itself** after 1200, as English kings increasingly identified themselves with England and its people. Also at that time religious dissidents, at great risk to themselves, broke with the Norman tradition of allegiance to the Roman church and produced the first English version of the Bible in many centuries.

How had the language managed to survive the French invasion? After all, Celtic had not survived the Anglo-Saxon invasion 500 years before. Evidently the English language in

the 11th century was too well established for it to be supplanted by another language. Unlike Celtic, it had a considerable written literature and a strong oral tradition. It would have taken several hundred years of French invasion and large number of immigrants to have changed things; and some historians have estimated that the number of Normans in the country may have been as low as 2 per cent of the total population.

3) A great event in the 14th century was the illness known as the Black Death. Between 1348 and 1350, about thirty percent of the people in England died. This had several results. One

was that many churchmen, monks, and school teachers were replaced by less educated men, who spoke only English. In 1362 English was used for the first time at the opening of Parliament. Before that records of Parliamentary addresses and debates were recorded in French or in Latin - though it's likely that a lot of this business was carried on in English and translated into French or Latin purely "for the record." Also the position of ordinary people changed. Because there were fewer of them, they felt more independent. Some of them were able to rent more land, and others

demanded higher wages for their work. As they became more important, the **social importance of their language, English, grew.**

English was used more and more in government, as fewer and fewer people could understand French. In the 15th century English completely replaced French at home, in education and in government. It also replaced Latin as the language of written communication, so that after 1450 most letters were in English. English had survived but it had changed enormously.

Theme 9. General linguistic

features of Middle English

1) Early Middle English (1066 – 1204):

- Old English system of writing was still in use
- decay of Anglo-Saxon literary practices; very little written English is preserved from this period
- England in the 1066 became a bilingual country:

Norman French is used as a prestige language; English - everyday folk language. French was the language of court, of law, of the literature of the period. Even now, after a thousand years, the Norman influence on the English languag

e is still visible. Consider these pairs of Modern English words. The first of each pair is derived from Old English and the second is of Anglo-Norman French origin:

pig – pork

cow – beef

sheep – mutton

wood – forest

house – mansion

worthy – honourable

bold – courageous

The role of Anglo-Norman as the language of *government* and *law* can be seen by the abundance of Modern English words for the mechanisms of government derived from Anglo-Norman: *court, judge, jury, appeal, parliament*.

Let's look at some vocabulary that was borrowed in the "**early**" period. Besides so called obscure words like *canon, countess, sermon, custom, virgin, purgatory, tournament, witness, constable, medicine, butler, abbey, crown, baron*, there are

others, and from other registers; such everyday words as "*fruit, rich, poor, pay, mercy, change, very, catch*" also enter English during the Early Middle period. But basically, words in what we might broadly term "**administrative**" - concepts used in Norman **law, religion, and economics**.

In many cases English words are connected with simpler, concrete, folk's notions, whereas foreign ones refer to a more elevated style, have abstract and formal shade

begin-commence

hearty-cordial   smell – odor

ask   –

demand

wish –
desire   seethe –
boil

work –
labour   life -
existence

Sometimes use of some English words was restricted by certain phraseological units: OE dōm → doom: *the day of doom*, *to meet one's doom*; in usual juristic sense the word was replaced with "*judgment*"

Besides, English preserved some French words that became obsolete in France later and got out of use: *able – habile, certainty – certitude.*

- Latin is a written language of the Church and secular documents. Indeed, there are

examples of trilingual documents, for example, a medical treatise in which the writer shifts between English, Latin, and French in the middle of sentences. This period of trilingual activity developed triplicate synonymy of modern English. For instance, English has three words meaning roughly "*of or relating to a king*":

kingly from Old English,

royal from French

regal from Latin

- **English** did not cease to be used in the court: it retained a cartulary function (being the language used in royal charters); nor did it disappear as a language of literary

production. Even during what has been called the 'lost' period of English literary history, the late 11th to mid-12th century, Old English texts, especially homilies, saints' lives and grammatical texts, manuals to histories, encyclopedias to poems of moral (and often immoral) discussion and debate were being created

- **Scandinavian was still spoken in the Danelaw** (*The Vikings, or "Danes", as the Anglo-Saxons called them, came from Denmark and Norway, and from 787 made many small attacks on England. Fighting continued until 878, when king Alfred*

made an agreement with the Vikings to divide England into two: the northern and eastern part, known as the Danelaw, was to be controlled by the Vikings, and the rest of England was to be controlled by King Alfred). **Celtic** prevailed in Wales and Scotland

- the use of an **orthography influenced by the Anglo-Norman writing system** and the borrowing of large numbers of Anglo-Norman words

dialects of Middle English. T
importance of the East Midl
'triangle' for the developme
of modern Standard English
discussed on p. 54.
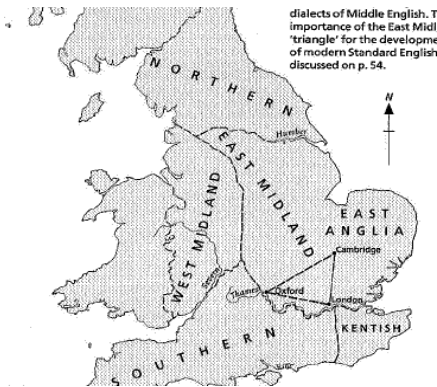
- increa se in dialectal differences, formation of literary dialects. In the epoch following the Norman Conquest there continued to exist and develop the same dialects as in the Old English period though named differently:

Northumbri an →

Nort hern Mercian

Midland
West Saxon

Southern
Kentish

1. **Southern** (Kentish and Southwestern) was spoken in counties south of the River Thames. Distinctive feature: pronunciation of initial **s-** and **f-** as **z-** and **v-**, respectively, e.g., ME words for the male and female fox - *vox* and *vixen*; the latter is kept in Modern English.

2. **Midland** (corresponding roughly to the Mercian dialect

area of Old English times) was spoken from the Thames to southern Yorkshire and northern Lancashire. Its major distinctive feature: use of the older OE form for "she" as *ha* or *heo*, rather than the newer emerging form of *she*.

3. **Northern** was spoken in the Scottish Lowlands, Northumberland, Cumbria, Durham, northern Lancashire, most of Yorkshire. Its most distinctive features are: a rich **Scandinavian vocabulary** and

a set of sounds also keyed to certain Scandinavian habits of pronunciation. The language sounded old-fashioned, **not participating in the major sound shifts** that made the transition to Modern English pronunciation.

The main dialects in Middle English were similar to those of Old English, but they used different words, word endings and pronunciations. Understanding people from different areas, even those which were quite close, was difficult. There is a famous description by W. Caxton of a conversation in Kent between a farmer's

wife and some sailors from London (about 80 kilometers away). The sailors asked for some *eggys* but she did not understand this word because in her dialect eggs were *eyren*. Thinking that they must be speaking a foreign language, she told them she "*coude speke no frenshe*" (*She couldn't speak French*).

When people wrote, they used the words and pronunciations of their dialects. For example, the sound [x] in the middle of words was spelt – *gh* – in the south and –*ch*- in the north, so *night* pronounced [nixt] at that time could be spelt as *night* or *nicht*. Sometimes a spelling from one dialect has survived, together

with the pronunciation from another. For example *busy* is the spelling from one dialect, but the pronunciation from another.

No one of those literary standards was a "dialect" in opposition to a national "standard."

- a greatly simplified inflectional system, e.g. the complicated grammatical relations that were expressed in Old English by means of the dative and accusative cases are replaced in Early Middle English with **constructions that involve prepositions**

- inflection of most cases (e.g. dative and accusative) gave

way to **prepositional constructions** (but for the OE genitive)

- **disappearance of grammatical genders**

2) Central Middle English period (1204 to 1348):

- rise in use of English, smoothing out of dialectal differences

3) Later Middle English (1348 to 1457):
- 1362 - English became the official language of legal proceedings;

dialectal differences are still perceptible; the period is also characterized by increase in English writing, more common in legal documents than French or Latin by 15th century;

- 15th century - English completely replaced French at home, in education and government; Latin is still in use as the language of written communication;
- basic lines of inflection as they appear

in Modern English first established; reduction of inflectional system is underway;

- beginning of standard English based on London (the East Midland dialect) dialect - in the hands of John Gower and Geoffrey Chaucer, W. Caxton and other printers.

Late in the Middle English period, with the introduction of printing into England in 1475 and adoption by the printing industry (centered in London) of a standard in orthography and

usage, there appeared the first inklings of modern Standard English.

Modern Standard English is strongly influenced by the dialect spoken in London and the surrounding counties in 1350-1450. It is the language of Geoffrey Chaucer who used the East Midland dialect, spoken in the Oxford, Cambridge and London triangle and used by government officials.

Before that time legal documents in England were still predominantly in French and Latin; during that time, there was an entire shift to English. The Royal council and the subsidiary courts began to

conduct their business in English using "**Chancery English**" - a written form of English used by government bureaucracy and for other official purposes from the late 14th century. Due to the differing dialects of English spoken and written across the country at the time, the government required a clear and unambiguous form for use in its official documents. Chancery Standard was developed to meet this need. The standard was developed in response to the king's order for government officials to use English rather than Anglo-Norman or Latin.

Theme 10. Phonetic, morphological and syntax features of Middle English

The match between sound and spelling worsened; there was confusion in spelling system influenced by French scribes and former dialectal variety.

Middle English Consonants

- consonants of Middle English were very similar to those of Present Day English but lacking [ŋ] as in hu**ng** (velar nasal) and [*3*] as in mea**s**ure (alveo-palatal voiced fricatives)
- addition of phonemic voiced fricatives: [v], [z]

as an effect of French loanwords: vetch/fetch, view/few, vile/file

- loss of long consonants (OE mann →ME man)
- *h* got lost in clusters (OE *hlæfdige* →ME *ladi* ("lady")
- *g* became *w* after *l* and *r* (OE *swelgan* →ME *swolwen* ("swallow"), OE *morgen* →ME *morwen* ("morning")
- OE prefix ge- lost its initial consonant and was reduced to y or i (OE *genog* →ME *inough* ("enough")
- unstressed final consonants tended to be lost after a vowel: OE *ic* →ME *i*, OE -*lic* →ME -*ly* (e.g. OE *rihtlice* →ME *rihtly* ("rightly")
- final -n in many verbal forms

(infinitive, plural subjunctive, plural preterit) was lost, e.g. OE *cuman* →Modern English *come* (the *n* remains in some past participles of strong verbs: *seen, gone, taken*); final -n got also lost in possessive adjectives "my" (OE *min* →*ME mi*) and "thy" (OE *þin* →*ME þi*) and indefinite article "an" before words beginning with consonant (-n remained in the possessive pronouns, e.g. mine)

- *w* generally dropped after *s* or *t*: OE *sweostor* →*sister* (sometimes retained in spelling: *sword, two*; sometimes still pronounced: *swallow, twin, swim*)

- *l* was lost in the vicinity of palatal *c* in adjectival pronouns OE *ælc, swilc, hwilc, micel* →*each, such, which, much* (sometimes remained: filch)

- fricative *f/v* tended to drop out before consonant +consonant or vowel+consonant: OE *hlaford, hlæfdige, heafod, hæfde* →ME *lord, ladi, hed, hadde* ("lord," "lady," "head," "had") (sometimes retained: OE *heofon, hræfn, dreflian* →"heaven," "raven," "driven")

- final *b* got lost after *m* but retained in spelling: *lamb, comb, climb* (remained in medial position: *timber, amble*); intrusive *b* after *m*: OE *bremel,*

næmel,
æmerge→ME
bremble, nimble, ember (also OE
þuma→ME
thombe, "thumb")

- initial stops in clusters *gn-* and *kn-* were still pronounced (ME *gnat, gnawen, knowen, knave, cniht* ("gnat," "gnaw," "know," "knave," "knight")

- *h* was often lost in unstressed positions (OE *hit* →ME *it*)

- If a word contains the Germanic "gh," the latter sounded a soft, nearly guttural sound, between a modern "g" and a modern "k," e.g., kni<u>gh</u>t, ri<u>gh</u>t, bri<u>gh</u>t

Vowels

- Vowels in Middle English were similar to those of Old English, except for

the loss of OE *y* and *æ* so that *y* was unrounded to *i* and æ raised toward [^] or lowered toward [a:].

• addition of a new phonemic sound (mid central vowel), represented in linguistics by the symbol called schwa: Ə, the schwa sound occurred in unstressed syllables and its appearance is related to the ultimate loss of most inflections

• loss of unstressed vowels: unstressed final -e was gradually dropped, though it was probably often pronounced. (The final "e" in many words *may* be sounded if it helps the meter of an individual line, e.g., *When that Aprille with his shoures*

sot<u>e</u>

The drought<s>e</s> of March<s>e</s> hath perced to

*the rot<u>e</u> (*G, Chaucer)

-e of inflectional endings was also lost, even when followed by a consonant (as in -es, eth, ed) (e.g. *breathe/breathed*) except for *wishes, judges, wanted, raided*; final -e in French loanwords was not lost because of French final stress, hence *cité* →"city," *pureté* →"purity"

• French loanwords added new diphthongs, e.g. OF *point*, *noyse* →ME *point*, *noise*

• short vowels tended to lengthen before certain consonant clusters (OE *climban, feld* → ME *climbe, feld* ("climb," "field")

- lengthening of short vowels in open syllables (OE *gatu, hopa* → ME *gate, hope)*
- shortening of long vowels in stressed closed syllables (OE *sōfte, gōdsibb, scēaphirde* →ME *softe, godsib, scepherde* ("soft," "gossip," "shepherd"); exceptions (before -st): OE *gast, crist* →ME *gost*, *Christ* ("ghost," "Christ")
- in a long word (if two or more unstressed syllables followed the stressed one), the vowel of the stressed syllable was shortened (Christ/Christmas [ME Christesmesse], break/breakfast [ME brekefast])

Middle English Graphics and

Writing

It is marked by influence of French scribes and new spelling conventions.

- ash (æ), eth (ð), thorn (þ) and yogh (*3*) are dropped, substituted for a ([a:] or [^]), th [ð] or [θ]), g correspondingly
- French loans "j" , "v" , "q", "g", "z", "k"
- "q" and "z" more widely were used under French influence, "qu" substituted for "kw" (OE *cwic, cwen* →ME *quicke, queen*)
- use of *o* instead of *u* (come, love) as a way to avoid confusion caused by use of minims (vertical strokes) (OE *cumin, lufu*)
- *c* substituted for *s* as an influence of

French loans like *cellar, place,* which affected the spelling of native words like *lice, mice*

- *k* got used before *i/e, n* (OE *cene, cyssan, cneow* →*keen, kiss, knee*), cf. *cat, cool, cut, clean*

- increased use of digraphs: *th* for thorn/eth sounds, *ou/ow* for long *u* (hour, round); doubling of vowels to indicate length (beet, boot); *sh* for palatal fricative [ʃ] (OE *scamu* →*shame*); *ch* for palatal affricate [tʃ] (OE *ceap, cinn*→ME *cheap, chin*); *dg* for palatal affricate [dʒ] (OE bricg → ME bridge) (but *j* in initial position according to French convention, ME *just*); *gh* for velar

fricative [h] (OE *þoht, riht*→ME *thought, right*; *wh* for *hw* (voiceless aspirated bilabial fricative) (OE *hwæt, hwil* →ME *what, while*); *gu* for *g*, in French loans (*guard, guile, guide*, OE *gylt* →*guilt*).

Middle English Morphology

-loss of inflections
-loss of grammatical gender
-two noun cases: possessive and non-possessive
-all adjective inflections are lost, loss of weak/strong distinction
-introduction of Continuous and Perfect aspect; use of analytical way of rendering modality; use of auxiliary verb to form future tense
-relative rigidity of word order,

increasing use of prepositions and particles

Middle English Nouns are characterized by the following features:
-Use of suffix -es for genitive singular and all plurals, e.g.

	singular	plural
Nominative, Accusative, Dative	stōn	stōnes
Genitive	stōnes	stōnes

Nouns ending with –f and –th retained exchanging voiceless for voiced

	sg	pl
N	līf, path	līves, pathes
G	līves,	

pathes   līves,
pathes

Some nouns having umlaut in N, A, D (pl) were declined due to this scheme:

sg	pl
N, D, A	
man	men
Gen	
mannes	mennes
fōtes	fētes

Some neuter nouns retained the form of plurality without any suffixes: *thing (things), yēr (years), hors (horses), shēp (sheep), swīn (swine) dēr (deer),* as well as some masculine and feminine: *winter (winters), mōneth (months), night (nights)*, though suffix -es gradually passes through this

group of words making such forms appear as *thinges, yēres, mōnethes.*

Some nouns that referred to weak declension group in OE retained –en in plural: *oxe –oxen*, *eye – eyen, brōther – brēthren, doghter – doghtren*.

Loss of case inflexion reflected important shifts in language thinking, but the mechanisms of that as well as their connection with social life of the country can't be described clearly. But it's obvious that this process was enhanced by the influence of French as already in OF there was a tendency of introducing prepositional constructions instead of case inflexions. O.

Jespersen believes that the cause of it lies in the Scandinavian dialects bordering on English in the 9-11 centuries. He is right to have pointed out nouns that sounded similar to those in English:

sunu (E) – sunr (Sc)

wind (E

)
–
w
i
n
d
r
(
S
c
)

O. Jespersen supposes that in the process of communication the common root which was clear for both peoples was pronounced the most clearly whereas the flexion hindering mutual understanding was articulated unclearly, which led to reduction. This theory was very popular but seems unconvincing. If the phenomena of this kind had really taken place, they would have

remained no less than the feature of the dialects of the frontier district. It is difficult to believe that such border dialectal phenomena could have changed grammatical structure of a certain language.

-Instead of disappeared flective forms there appeared prepositional constructions:

to – **OE** *Ēode tō his hūse* (went to his house): **to** loses the meaning of "towards" and renders indirect object relations.

of – **OE** *He dyde helm of hafelan* (He took the helmet off his head): **of** loses the meaning

of "from, off" acquiring the meaning of the genitive case: **ME**: *the droghte of Marche* (the drought of March)

with - OE *Gefeaht wi*ð ðone (fought with the army): **with** loses the meaning of "against" and acquires the one of instrument of activity : **ME** *speken with tonge* (speak a language)

Adjectives
-**greatest inflectional losses**: loss of case, gender, and number distinctions.
In weak declension there was lost a typical suffix of the plural –*en*. Thus the only adjective case

inflexion was a weak *–e,* and a complicated OE paradigm came to such scheme:

Sg
Strong declension

Weak declension
N,G,D,A gōd
Plural
Strong declension

Weak declension
N,G,D,A gōde

In northern dialects destruction of declension reached its logical end already in the Middle English period: there was lost the only flexion – e, the adjective became unchangeable: *gōd* in all cases, numbers and genders.

-distinction between strong/weak got

lost;
-comparative OE -ra →ME -re, then -er (by metathesis), **superlative OE -ost, -est →ME -est**;

grēt –
gretter –
grettest
glad –
gladder –
gladdest

Some adjectives retained umlaut in the comparative and superlative degrees: *old – elder – eldest, long – lenger – longest, strong – strenger – strengest*, but together with them there started to appear forms without alternation (*strong – stronger – strongest*). In some cases the old form stood apart from the new formation with a change of meaning (*older/elder,*

oldest/eldest).

Some adjectives formed degrees of comparison from a different root:

Gōd - bettre – best

Evil – werse – werst

Muchel – mōre – mōst

Litel – lasse - lēst

- **beginnings of analytical comparison** (French influence):

swetter/more swete, more swetter, moste clennest; more and moste are used as intensifiers.

Morphological forms with more, most are used irrespectively of

syllables number: *more kind, difficulter*.

Verbs
- retained categories of tense, mood, number, person, strong, weak types
- addition of a new type of verb, two-part or separable verbal expression, use of adverbial particles instead of prefixes used in Old English (e.g. *put in, blow out, pick up, take over*)
- increased use of weak verbs. Due to general tendency – unification of different types and simplification of paradigm – many strong verbs joined the weak type during ME period. By the New English period **80 verbs** joined the weak type. Thus, the

verbs of the 7th class (there still remained 7 classes) *slēpen, wēpen, rēden* already in OE formed weak forms: *slēpte, wēpte, rēdde,* while *folden, helpen* – in Late ME.

- as for **strong** verbs, there happened some important changes too: under the influence of weakening vowels up to –e letter, flexions of the infinitive and past plural changed too:

OE wrītan – wrāt – wrīton – wrīten

ME wrīten – wrōt – writen – writen

- use of passive constructions (with 'be' as auxiliary)
- use of modal auxiliaries instead of subjunctive (*may, might, be*

going to, be about to)

- "tō" started to be used with infinitives as their indicator. However some verbs like *beginnen, longen, wishen* when next to other verbs were also used without "tō": *But atte laste speken she began.* (But at last speak she began.) Infinitives without "tō" were also used with verbs of motion: *Thow shalt com speken with thi ladi.*

Personal Pronouns
- use of 2nd person plural (ye) to address one person as polite form (French influence), eventual loss of singular forms in the18th century
- loss of *ch* in the first-person singular
- ich/I (pronounced as the 'i' in "kid");

me was used for the object case; *min(e)* and *mi* - before words beginning with vowel and consonant respectively

- emergence of absolute pronominal forms (*ours, hers, yours, theirs*)

- second person singular: *þu*, *thou,* etc.

- appearance of reflexive pronouns: *myself (= myselven and the same form for the other pronouns), thyself, himself, herself, ourself, yourself, themselves*

Middle English Syntax

- a trend towards modern word order: *subject-predicate-object* in affirmative independent clauses; *predicate-*

subject-object in questions and imperatives

- double and triple negation was freely used for making it stronger

- the adjective was placed before the noun (*erthely servaunt*)

- prepositions were placed before objects; sometimes followed if the object was a pronoun (*he seyde him to*)

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 4

1. Decline of English covers the period:
a) 1204 - 1348
b) 1348 – 1457
c) 1066 – 1204
d) 1166 – 1248

2. Rise of English is connected with:

a) break with the Norman tradition of allegiance to the Roman church

b) decay of Anglo-Saxon traditions

c) invention of the printing machine by William Caxton

3. Which of these factors stipulated the dominance of English?

a) Black Death

b) Norman invasion

c) invention of the printing machine

d) separation of French and English nobility

4. Match the main features of the language development with the appropriate period.

E a r	C e n	L a t

ly Middle English Period	tral Middle English period	e Middle English period

a) rise in use of English

b) Old English system of writing is still in use

c) beginning of

standard English based on the London dialect

d) English became the official language of legal proceedings

e) decay of Anglo-Saxon literary practices

f) the basic lines of inflection as they appear in Modern English first established

g) Norman French - the prestige language

h) English – the everyday folk language

i) W. Caxton and other printers

j) the East Midland dialect as a standard

k) Latin - a written language of the Church and secular documents

l) use of orthography influenced by Anglo-Norman writing system

m) increase in

dialectal differences, formation of literary dialects

n) English completely replaced French at home, education and government; Latin is used as the language of written communication

5. Which of these are Middle English dialects?
a) Eastern
  b) Western
c) Northern
d) Southern
  e) Midland
f) Central

6. Due to which of the dialects is there such feminine form of the word as "fox" as "vixen"?
a) Eastern   b) Western   c) Northern
d) Southern
e) Midland   f) Central

7. Which of the Middle English dialects was characterized by a rich Scandinavian vocabulary and a set of sounds also keyed to certain Scandinavian habits of pronunciation?

a) Eastern b) Western c) Northern d) Southern

e) Midland f) Central

8. Chancery English is:

a) a dialectal variant of English having specific features

b) a written form of English used by government bureaucracy and for other official purposes from the late 14th century

c) the original language of Geoffrey Chaucer

9. Geoffrey

Chaucer wrote in
a) the East Midland dialect
b) the Southern dialect
c) the Northern dialect

10. W. Caxton and other printers used
a) the East Midland dialect
b) the Southern dialect
c) the Northern dialect

11. Which of the following alternation (s) did OE runes undergo in the ME period?

a) *þ* is sporadically replaced by *-w*
b) *þ* is sporadically replaced by *-th*
c) *ρ* is sporadic

ally
replaced
by -*w*
d) ρ is
sporadic
ally
replaced
by - *uu*
e) ρ is
sporadic
ally
replaced
by - *th*
f) *3* is
replaced
by –*g*
g) *3* is
replaced
by –*z*
h) *æ* is
sporadic
ally
replaced
by *a*

12. Complete the
following theses to
demonstrate the
changes that OE
consonants
underwent in the
ME period:
a) cw change for qu
(cwic → quick)

1) after l and r

b) gu for g (guard)

2) after s or t

c) h lost (OE hlæfdige → ME ladi)

3) in French loans

d) g became w (OE swelgan → ME swolwen) 4) under French

influence

e) unstressed final consonants tended to be lost (OE ic → ME)

5) before cons +cons

or vow+const

f) w generally dropped (OE sweostor → 6) in the vicinity of

palatal c sister)

g) l lost (OE micel →   much)

7) in clusters

h) fricative f/v

(OE hlaford → ME

i) b lost   (lamb, comb)
9) initially
j) h often lost (OE hit → ME it)
10) after a vowel

13. Tick the right items demonstrating the changes that OE consonants underwent in the ME period:
a) appearance of long –*s* symbol
b) *gh* instead of *h* [x]
c) *ch* instead of

c3

d) introduction of French letters *k, z , v* and *j*

e) *sc* turned into *d3*

f) *hw* turned into *wh*

g) *c* for *s*

h) prefix ge- lost initial consonant and was reduced to y or i

i) *kn* cluster lost the first phoneme

14. A minim is a

a) a word in which -*u* was replaced by -*o*

b) a phenomena of changing –*u* for –*o* which took place in front of –*u, m, v, w (uu)*

c) a short vertical stroke of a pen which in adjacent position is difficult to read

15. Which of the vowels modifications took place in the ME period?

a) *u* replaced by *ou*

b) *g* palatal merged with the preceding front vowel into a diphthong

c) disappearance of schwa - Ә

d) complete loss of final *-e*

e) disappearance of diphthong –[oi]

f) lengthening of short vowels before certain consonant clusters –ld, -nd, – mb, etc.

g) lengthening of short vowels in open syllables

h) lengthening of long vowels in stressed closed syllables

i) changing - *er* for - *ar*

j) æ turned to a before r

16. Which of the

following
statements about
ME noun are (is)
correct?
a) all noun case
ending except for
Genitive and
Accusative got lost
b) the plural is
formed with by
means of adding -
en, -es to the
singular form
c) Genitive is
formed by means of
suffix –es
d) nouns
    ending
    with –f
    and –th
    did not
    exchange
    voiceless
    for
    voiced: līf
    - līfes
e) noun class
distinctions
were still
preserved
f) grammatical
gender got lost
g) flective forms
are still more

preferable than prepositional constructions

17. The ME adjective has distinction in
a) case   b) gender   c) case, gender, number

d) number

18. The degrees of comparison are formed by means of the suffixes:

a) -re,(later -er); -est   b) -ra, -ost
c) -er, -ost
d) -re, -est

19. Were perfect and continuous aspects presented during the period?
a) yes, they were

20. How many negations were possible to use in a ME sentence?
a) only one

b) two

c) two or three

MODULE 5
NEW ENGLISH: THE EARLIER PERIOD

Objectives:

1) to know the historical events stipulating changes of the language;

2) to understand the phenomenon and results of the Great Vowel Shift

3) to know the main linguistic peculiarities of the period

4) to understand the sources of enrichment of the vocabulary of the period

Theme 10. Short historical background and linguistic portrait of the

period

New English (c. 1476 - now): Early NE (1476-1660)

Normalisation Period (1660-1800)

Late NE (including present-day English)

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance.

Two major factors influenced the language and separated Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400.

The second factor was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton

brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common. Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common. Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

Thus, by the 16th century the London dialect occupied the main place of the national language.

But there were still some spheres of life where English didn't work – it was church and science. As for the church – this problem was solved by Henry VIII (beg. 16th c) spreading Protestantism which led to separation of the Church of England from papal authority. Thus all church texts were translated into English and divine service was conducted in English. It was a long and difficult process because advocates of Latin tried to preserve segregation of science and religion. Indeed, using native language both for scientific work and conducting theological disputes gave great opportunities for

acquainting masses with the problems discussed, which was rather undesirable for representatives of religious sphere.

It was more difficult to establish English as a language of scientific literature. Thomas Elyot when writing "The Governour" – the first attempt to create a scientific work in the native language - says in the preface that it would have been simpler for him to write it in Latin, but he wanted to prove that English could be used for serious work. The difficulty lay in the fact that English didn't have special terminology. Elyot solved this problem in such a way: he introduced a Latin

word in anglicized form, e.g. *maturitas* → *maturity*.

English of that time was very much littered with Latin borrowings. Poets of the 15th century decorated their texts with anglicized Latin words without a slightest necessity. This manner of writing acquired a special name – aureate language (*раззолоченный язык*). Unnecessary Latinisms raised protests of advocates of the right style. Critics of such borrowings (purists) named them *inkhorn terms*; they made an attempt to preserve purity of English, reviving older English words, archaisms.

Linguists made attempts to produce English technical

vocabulary on the basis of compounding: *threlike* (equilateral triangle), *likejamme* (parallelogram), *endsay* (conclusion), *saywhat* (definition), *dry mock* (irony).

So the language development of that time is marked by a clash of two trends – **purism** and **wide use of Latin words for compensating missing terms** in English.

This is the period that brought into English the 3rd layer of Latin loanwords:

1. verbs finishing with –**ute**: *attribute, constitute, persecute, execute*.

2. -----**ate**: *irritate, locate, narrate, separate*.

3. -----**ent**, -**ant**: *arrogant, important, significant; dependent, evident, patient*.

4. -----**ct**: *affect, collect, contradict.*

Besides, in the **16th** century for the second time there were loaned a number of words that had entered English earlier in their French form. This led to etymological duplicates, different in form and meaning:

from French
from Latin

defeat

defect
feat (подвиг)
fact
sure

secure (уверенный)
treason

tradition

The process of loaning got order, thus some Roman suffixes (-tive, -tion) got independence to such a degree as to form new forms of original English stems: *talkative, starvation,* etc.

Interest awoken to classical Greek and Roman literature during the period of the Renaissance gave opportunity to compare old Germanic loanwords with classical Latin forms, which brought to necessity of

introducing the right, Latinized spelling of these words:

Old spelling	Latin form	New spelling
sutel	subtilis	subtle
egal	eqaulis	equal
dette	debitum	debt
doute	dubito	doubt

As we can see, in some words, due to etymological consideration, there appeared a consonant which nevertheless was not reflected in pronunciation.

In some cases the etymology was erroneous. Thus, in the word **iland** (from OE **iȝland**) letter **s** was inserted by analogy with the word **isle** (from Fr. isle). OE rīm (rhyme) got such a form by analogy of the word *rhythm* typical of loanwords from OGrm.

17-18th centuries is the period of **French** loanwords, characterized by their preservation of pronunciation and accent typical for French: *ballet, machine, bouquet, buffet*, etc.

17-18th centuries is also the period of **colonial expansion**: control of seas, acquisition of colonies throughout the world (Bermuda, Jamaica, Bahamas,

Honduras, Canada, American colonies, India, Gambia, Gold Coast, Australia, New Zealand). This led to a great number of loanwords from non-Indo-European languages, spread of English around the world.

LOANWORDS:
From Latin and Greek: anonymous, appropriate, atmosphere, autograph, catastrophe, climax, delirium, emphasis, encyclopedia, enthusiasm, exact, exaggerate, expectation, expensive, explain, external, fact, impersonal, relaxation, scheme, skeleton, soda, species, system, etc.

From or via French anatomy, battery, bizarre, chocolate, colonel, comrade,

detail, entrance, equip, explore, invite, moustache, passport, pioneer, ticket, vase, volunteer, etc.

From or via Italian
balcony, carnival, cupola, design, lottery, macaroni, opera, solo, sonata, sonnet, soprano, violin, volcano

From or via Spanish or Portuguese
alligator, apricot, banana, barricade, canoe, cockroach, cocoa, guitar, hurricane, maize, mosquito, mulatto, Negro, potato, sombrero, tobacco, etc.

From other languages bamboo, ketchup (Malay), bazaar, caravan, turban (Persian), coffee, yoghurt kiosk (Turkish), cruise, easel,

knapsack, landscape, yacht (Dutch), curry (Tamil), flannel (Welsh), guru (Hindi), harem (Arabic), troll (Norwegian), trousers (Irish Gaelic), etc.

The principal distinction between early- and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has much more words. These words are the result of the rise of technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed.

The industrial and scientific revolutions created

a need for neologisms to describe new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek. Words like *oxygen*, *protein*, *nuclear*, and *vaccine* did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots.

This burst of neologisms is continuing today, perhaps most visibly in the field of electronics and computers, e.g. *byte*, *cyber-*, *bios, hard-drive*, and *microchip*.

Finally, the 20th century saw two world wars, and the military influence on the language during the latter half of this century has been

great. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries. Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced Standard English. During the mid-20th century, however, virtually all British and American men served in the military. Military slang entered the language like never before. *Blockbuster, camouflage, radar, roadblock* and *landing strip* are all military terms that made their way into Standard English.

American English. Also significant at around 1600 AD was the English colonization

of North America and the subsequent creation of a distinct American dialect. Some pronunciations and usages "froze" when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, American English is closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some "Americanisms" that the British decry are actually originally British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost at home (e.g., *fall* as a synonym for autumn, *trash* for rubbish, *frame-up* which was reintroduced to Britain through Hollywood gangster movies, and *loan* as a verb instead of *lend*).

The American dialect also served as the route of

introduction for many native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like *Mississippi, Roanoke*, and *Iowa*. Indian-sounding names like *Idaho* were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But names for other things besides places were also common. *Raccoon, tomato, canoe, barbecue, savanna* have native American roots, although in many cases some original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Theme 11. Linguistic features of the period
1. Phonology
<u>Consonants</u>
- addition of

phonemic velar nasal [ŋ] (as a result of development of OE allophone of /n/ before /g/) and voiced alveopalatal fricative [*3*] (as a result of (a) borrowing from French (<u>beige</u>); (b) a set of sound changes called *palatalization*:
/zj/ → /3/: *seizure;* /sj/ → /ʃ/: *nation*, *ocean;* /dj/ -> /d3/: *soldier;* /tj/ -> /tʃ/: *creature*

- disappearance of allophones of **/h/** at the beginning of the word: *heir*, *honest*; before *t*: *sight*, *caught, straight*; disappearance or development into [f] in final position: *sigh, tough*
- loss of *l* after

low back vowel and before labial or velar consonant: *half, palm, talk*

- loss of t/d in consonant clusters with s: *castle, hasten*.

- loss of ME intrusive t after s: *listen, hustle*

- g/k lost in initial position before n: gnaw, gnome, know, knight

- w was lost in initial position before r: *wrong, wrinkle, wrist*. *W* in unstressed position after consonant disappeared in words: *answer, conquer, liquor*, but retained in those having suffix *–ward* and *language, conquest*. In the stressed position it disappears when it is

between a consonant and rounded vowel: *sword, two, who, whose, whom*. It is interesting that in the word *whole* (OE hāl – ME hōl) the letter *w* was introduced into spelling after sound [w] disappeared in *who*

- general loss of *r* before consonants or in final position; also regular loss of *r* in unstressed positions or after back vowels in stressed positions: *quarter, brother*

- development of palatal semivowel /j/ in medial positions (after the major stress and before unstressed vowel: *tenner/tenure, pecular/peculiar*

Vowels

During the 15th to 18th centuries long Vowels were

	Chaucer		Shakespeare
ɪː	[fɪːf]	five	[faɪv]
eː	[meːdə]	meed	[miːd]
ɛː	[klɛːnə]	clean	[kleːn] (now [k
aː	[naːmə]	name	[neːm]
ɔː	[gɔːtə]	goat	[goːt]
oː	[roːtə]	root	[ruːt]
uː	[duːn]	down	[daʊn]

affected by the so called *Great English Vowel Shift*, discovered by Otto Jespersen. The long vowels shifted upwards:

> **i: →ai**
> **e: →i:**
> **ε: →e: →i:**
> **a: → ei**
> **o: →ou**
> **o: →u:**

u: →au

Short vowels were not affected by the Great English Vowel Shift. Thus, ME *sak* remained ME *sack*, ME *fish* remained ME *fish*.

Short Vowels

-further loss of final unstressed -*e* (exceptions: *judges, passes, wanted*)

- *a* → *æ*; but *æ* → *a* before *r*: *harm, scarf, hard*; and *æ* → *a* before voiceless fricatives: *staff, path*; original /a/ remained when the fricative was followed by another vowel: *classical, passage*

-*a* before l → o: *all, fall, walk*; also after *w*: *want, reward*; but not if the vowel preceded a velar

2. Morphology and Syntax

<u>Nouns,</u>
peculiarities:
-only two cases (common and possessive);
-two numbers (singular and plural), a few -n plurals (shoes/shoon, housen, eyen) which soon disappeared but for *ox* and *child*. Isolated plural retained in "*twelvemonth* – a year", "*fortnight* – 2 weeks", "*sennight*- week" (without –es in pl).

As –es was interpreted as an indicator of the plural, Old French *cerise* existing as *cherris* was interpreted as plural and for the singular was dropped. The same with *pese* (peas) and *rēdels* (riddle). In other cases, on the contrary, -s plural

was interpreted as a constituent of a word and so original form of the plural was used as sg:

bodice (корсет) ← bodies

truce (перемирие) ←trēowes (sg ←trēow, договор)

quince (айва) ← quines (sg quine)

- some unmarked genitives (mother tongue, lady slipper); -s of genitives was sometimes omitted when a word ended in a sibilant or the following word started with one (peace sake); misinterpretation of genitive ending -s as 'his' (e.g. *John Browne his meaddow*, *Ann Harris her lot*)

Adjectives:
adjectives had lost all inflections (even

–e – an indicator of weak declension and plurality) except comparative (-er) and superlative (-est) *(synthetic)* and *more, most (analytic).* These could be combined (e.g., *most unkindest cut of all*) for emphasis. Eventually, monosyllables started using synthetic forms and multisyllables - analytic.

Pronouns, peculiarities:
- the most heavily inflected word class
- development of separate possessive adjectives and pronouns (*my*/*mine*, etc); possessive of *it*: *his* →*it* →*its* sometimes spelled *it's*. *It's* was spelled with an apostrophe until about 1800. Singular forms (*thou, thy, thee*)

were used with familiars or when speaking to someone of a lower rank. Plural forms (*ye, your, you*) were used as marks of respect when addressing superiors. By the end of the 16th century, the singular forms disappeared (except among Quakers). Shakespeare's works (17th c) has both forms, the former – in conversation with relatives, friends and servants, to express anger and contempt.

Verbs: peculiarities:
- two-part verbs are very common (*shorten up, wear out, cut off*);
- transformation of strong verbs into weak: *washen – to*

wash, steppen – to step, helpen – to help, though some verbs retain both forms: (*shave – shaven, shaved, mow – mown – mowed*). This process is not over yet; e.g. coll. *knowed* instead of *knew*, *seed* instead of *saw*.

cf. also a reverse phenomenon: OE hŷdan – hŷdde – hŷded

ME hīden – hidde – hidd

NE hide – hid – hidden

There appeared a special group of unchangeable verbs whose roots ended with –ed, -t:

cutten – cutte-cutt
shutten – shutte-shutt

sprēden –
spredde –
spred

- disappearing or losing separate forms for *the past* and *past participle* (cling/clung/clung): either *past sg* or *past pl* remained

-*ing* became universal present participle ending; -*s* and -*th* were the 3ʳᵈ person singular present indicative endings, eventually *just -s*;

- use of the gerund spread in the 16ᵗʰ century. It appeared in the Middle English period, but full development of its features took place in the Early New English period. Shakespeare used both indefinite and perfect forms of infinitives. By the end of the 18ᵗʰ – differentiation of the gerund and the

verbal noun got fixed; 17th – there appeared analytical forms of the gerund;

- the *future* tense is rendered by both *will* and *shall* irrespectively of the person and number (up to the 17th c) (*I **will** sooner have a beard grow in the palm of my hand, than he **shall** get one on his cheek*); there appeared a complicated system of the Future-in-the-Past;

- by the 18th – the *Present Perfect and Continuous* aspect got fixed in their modern structure and use;

- by the 16th – the *Past Perfect* got fixed (though only in object clauses), by the 18th – in its full use;

- since the 15th – *do* acquired

its auxiliary function and used as an auxiliary verb.

Syntax
- *do* with negatives and in questions was often missing (*they knew him not*);
- inverted word order was still acceptable (*follow thou me, things eternal*);
- double negatives were still acceptable;
- some continued use of *impersonal constructions* (*it likes me not, this fears me, methinks*) but the former impersonal verbs were more often used personally with a nominative subject;
- Subject-Object-Verb pattern was acceptable for pronoun objects

and for emphasis (*as the law should them direct, Richard that dead is*); Object-Subject-Verb or Object-Verb-Subject patterns were used to emphasize an object;

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

- Shakespearean clichés (vanish into thin air, flesh and blood).

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 5

1. The New English period comprises

the interval:
a) c. 1476 – now
b)   1476-1660
c) 1660-1800

2. Which of the event influencing the language development of the mentioned period took place at that time?
a)   industrial Revolution: more intensive urbanization, technical vocabulary based on Latin and Greek roots
b) defeat of Spanish Armada   1588, control of seas
c) Black Death

3.   The term "*inkhorn"* means:
a) a way of representing in writing regional or dialect variations by spelling words in nonstandard ways
b) a bit-by-bit, or

morpheme-by-morpheme, translation of one word in one language into another word in another language, often used to avoid bringing new or loan words into the translating language
c) scientific words from Latin or Romance languages, coined and introduced into English in the 16th and 17th centuries

4. Was the spelling of that time fixed yet?
a) Yes
        b) No

5. Which of the linguistic features characterise(s) the period?
a) - silent –*e* to mark the length
b) final –*e* is still pronounced
c) initial stops in

clusters *gn-* and *kn-* are still pronounced

d) appearance of velar nasal [ŋ]

e) appearance of alveo-palatal fricative [*ʒ*]

6. The way of pronunciation the word *seizure* obtained since the Early New English period is named

a) back mutation   b) palatalisation c) i-umlaut

7. Which of the following changes in pronunciation took place in the Early new English period:

   a) *w* dropped after *s* or *t*: *sweostor →sister*

   b) w got lost in initial position before r: *wrong, wrinkle, wrist*

   c) *l* got lost in the vicinity of palatal *c*

in adjectival pronouns: *ælc, swilc → each, such*

d) final *b* got lost after *m* but retained in spelling: *lamb, comb, climb*

e) initial stops in *gn-* and *kn-* are still pronounced

f) g/k got lost in initial position before n: *gnome, knight*

g) g lost in -ng in a final position, producing the phonemic velar nasal

h) use of *ou* instead of *u* : *hus → house*

i) addition of a

new phonemic
sound called
schwa - ə

8. The Great Vowel
Shift - a massive
sound change
affecting
a) diphthongs
b) diphthongoids
c) long vowels
d) short vowels
e) all vowels

9. The Great Vowel
Shift occurred
during
a) the 15th to 18th
centuries   b) the
11^{h} to 14th centuries
c) the 19th century

10. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift
  a) short vowels
     shifted
     downwards
  b) diphthongs
     became
     monophthongs
  c) long vowels
     shifted
     upwards
  d) diphthongoids

turned to
monophthongs

11. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift [i:] turned
into
a) i   b) ai   c) iə

12. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift [e:] turned
into
a) i   b) ai   c) iə

13. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift [a:] turned
into
a) ei   b) ai   c) Λ

14. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift [o:] turned
into
a) o   b)   u
c) oi   d) əu

15. As a result of
the Great Vowel
Shift [u:] turned
into
a) o   b)   au
c) u   d) əu

16.   The   Great

Vowel Shift didn't take place in the words where the vowel was followed by

a) m   b) s

c) r

17. Which of these were inherent in the Early New English noun?

a) four cases – Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative

b) two cases – common and possessive

c) -n in the plural in a few dialects – *shoon, housen, eyen*

d) plural formed by means of suffixes –as, -a, -u

e) isolated plural forms –

twelvemonth
f) the category of gender

18. *Shall* and *will* in the future tense were used
   a) for the 1st person sg and pl and for the 2nd, 3rd persons sg and pl respectively
   b) irrespectively of the person and number
   c) were presented by *should* and *would* - forms respectively

19. Was *do* used in its auxiliary function yet?
a) yes   b) no

20. Monosyllabic adjectives formed the superlative degree of comparison by

means of

a) suffix –est
b) suffixes – est, -ost
c) suffix –est and often - a quantifier *most*
d) suffixes – est, -ost and often - a quantifier *most*

21. The pronoun *ye*

a) is used with familiars or when speaking to someone of a lower rank
b) is used as marks of respect when addressing superiors
c) fell out of use by the time

22. Familiar for the 2nd person singular *thou* disappeared

a) by that time
b) by the end

of the 16th century

c) by the end of the 11th century

23. The Early New English syntax is characterized
a) by a fixed word order   b) by a relatively free word order   c) by a free word order

24. Are double negatives still acceptable?
a) yes   b) no

25. The words *progress, probability, bizarre* were borrowed from
a) Greek   b) French   c) Spanish

26. Match the words with the languages they were borrowed from:
1) balcony

a) French
2) progress
b) Italian
3) anarchy
c) Spanish
4) cockroach
d) German
5) leprechaun
e) Japanese
6) ketchup
f) Chinese
7) soy
g) Dutch
8) shampoo
h) Greek
9) landscape
i) Hindi
10) waltz
j) Celtic

MODULE 6
MODERN ENGLISH
Objectives:
1) to understand some main linguistic feature of the period
2) to understand sources of enrichment of the vocabulary

of the period
3) to know the history of elaborating the Oxford English Dictionary

Theme 12. Lexical description of Modern English

If speakers of English from 1800 were able to speak to those from 2000, they would notice a few differences in grammar and pronunciation, but not very many. The main difficulty for the nineteenth-century speakers would be in understanding a huge number of new words.

Discoveries and inventions in all areas of science in the last two hundred years have led to appearance of new words for machines,

materials, plants, animals, stars, diseases and medicines, and new expressions for scientific ideas. The spread of English around the world, and easier and faster communication, have resulted in creation of thousands of other new words. About 100,000 new words have entered the language in the last hundred years - more than ever before.

Here are some examples of these new words, with the date when each word first appeared in writing. Most new words (about two-thirds) have been made by combining two old words: *fingerprint* (1859), *airport* (1919), *streetwise* (1965). The recent development in

computers has introduced many of this type: *online* (1950), *user-friendly* (1977) and *download* (1980). Some new words have been made from Latin and Greek; for example, *photograph* (1839), and *video* (1958). Others are old words that have been given new meanings. For example, *pilot* (1907) was first used to refer to a person who directs the path of ships, and *cassette* (1960) used to mean a small box. About five per cent of new words have come from foreign languages. For example, *disco* (1964) has come from French and *pizza* (1935) from Italian. And a few words have developed from the names of things we buy: for example,

coke (1909) from Coca-Cola, and *Walkman* (1981) from *Sony Walkman.*

Beginnings or endings have been added to make new words: *disinformation* (1955) is false information, *touchy-feely* (1972) describes people who express their feelings by touching others. Sometimes both a beginning and an ending have been added: for example, *unputdownable* (I 947) describes a book which is so interesting that you cannot stop reading it. Some words have been shortened: *photo* (1860) for *photograph; plane* (1908) for *aeroplane; telly* (1940) and TV (1948) for *television.* Some words first appeared as slang

before they joined the main language; for example *boss* (1923) was an American slang word meaning *manager* in the seventeenth century. Some words have combined sounds from two other words: for example, *smog* (1905), used to describe the bad air in cities, is made from *smoke* and *fog.* Only a few new words have not been created from other words. Two examples are *nylon* (1938) to describe a man-made material, and *flip-flop* (1970), a type of shoe that makes a noise as you walk.

Our changing world and shifting interests have added hundreds of new words and meanings to the English language in the last two decades, e.g.

netizen — Internet user

tree hugger — environmen- talist

karaoke — singing

digerati — people who know about computers

wannabe — one who has aspirations

ecotouris m — traveling to natural lands

pathography — biography focusing on the negative elements of a subject, popularized by a U.S. writer Joyce Carol Oates; also, the study of the effects of illness on a historical

person's life.
nutraceutical — a food or other substance that has been supplemented with ingredients believed to have health benefits.

The growth in vocabulary is clear when we look at the making of the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)* in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. This dictionary includes all English words since 1150 (even those that are no longer used). It shows, with examples, when each word was first used in writing and how the meaning of a word has changed over the centuries.

Finding all this information was a huge job, although

no one realized at the beginning exactly *how* huge. James Murray, a forty-two-year-old Scot, was appointed the director of work on the dictionary in 1879, and the aim was to finish the job in ten years. After five years, the first part of the dictionary was produced, but it only covered the letters A-ANT. Everyone realized that this was going to take a lot longer than ten years to finish. In fact, it took another forty-four. Sadly, Murray did not live to see its completion: he died in 1915, working on the letter U. However, he knew that he had helped to create a dictionary which would provide an accurate history of the development of the English language.

The first *OED* was completed in 1928 and had 414,800 words. The second *OED,* produced in 1989, explains the meanings of 615,100 words. It includes more scientific words and words from North America, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, the Caribbean, India and Pakistan. However, the *OED* does not include many spoken words, slang words or words from non-British kinds of English. Some people think that there are probably a million different words and expressions in English today. A third *OED* is planned for 2010, with the first changes to Murray's work since 1879: earlier and later examples of

words will be added, as well as more details on each word's history.

The spread of new words in the twentieth century was made possible by newspapers, radio, television, films, pop music and the Internet. These ways of communication can reach huge numbers of people. Television and radio have also influenced pronunciation.

In the 1920s the BBC chose a particular accent for its presenters. This was the educated accent of the upper classes of south-east England. It became known as 'Received Pronunciation' ('RP'), or 'the King's English'. The use of RP on radio and television meant

that more people heard it and connected it with social importance. It was not acceptable to use strong regional accents on television or radio, or in professions such as teaching or politics. However, in the 1960s social differences began to break down, and regional accents became more acceptable everywhere. And as the number of radio and television programmes grew, more presenters with different accents had to be employed.

Today RP is no longer a particularly important accent and people in Britain are now used to hearing all kinds of accents on radio and

television. Different pronunciations, words and expressions can now travel faster and further. Some of these new words and expressions come from American English.

SELF-ASSESSMENT TEST
Module 6

1. New words in the English language in the last two hundred years have been appearing as a result of:

    a) dominance of English in the world

    b) establishment of the status of English as an international scientific language

    c) discoveries and

inventions in all areas of science

2. Which means of word formation are used nowadays?
a) compounding
b) borrowing
c) affixation
d) inversion of sounds in order
e) shortening of words

3. Appearance of such words as *netizen, tree hugger, wannabe, pathography, nutraceutical* is the result of
a) development of science
b) intercultural relations

4. The Oxford English Dictionary (OED) includes all English words

   a) since 1150 and up to now
   b) since 1800 and up to now
   c) modern and rare words and phrases

5. The work on the first OED started in

   a) 1879

   b) 1150

   c) 1937

6. The first OED was completed in … and had a total of … words.

a) 1989: 41, 800
b)1900; 4, 180
c) 1928; 414,800

7. A third *OED* planned for 2010 is

to include:

a) more examples of words
b) more details on each word's history
c) slang words

8. 'Received Pronunciation' is

a) the accent of standard English in England
b) the accent of standard English throughout the world
c) the accent approximate at the most to standard English in England

9. 'Received Pronunciation' (RP) is also called

a) "approved pronunciation"
b) "the King's English"
c) "the Noble English"

10. On today's radio and television RP

a)   is still a solely acceptable accent
b) is becoming more and more corrupted
c) is no longer a particularly important accent

GLOSSARY

❖ **Ablaut**: alteration of the root vowel during the declension: *mann, fót, tóþ, hnutu, bóc - menn, fét, téþ, hnyte, béc*

❖ **Amelioration**: the act of improvement of the meaning: *dizzy* (meant 'foolish' in OE), French borrowing *nice* ('foolish', 'stupid') acquired new meanings (flamboyant, rare, modest, elegant) in the 15th century

❖ **Assibilation**: pronunciation with a hissing sound, making sibilant

❖ **Back (velar)**: diphthongisation of vowels before back vowel in the next

❖ **Mutation**: *i* turns into *io* before *r, l; p, b, f, m* (hira → hiora "of them")

❖ **Beach-la-Mar**: jargon used in trade relations in the Pacific Ocean

❖ **Breaking**: diphthongisation of front vowel under the influence of succeeding *h, l, r*

❖ **Broad Australian English**: most recognizable variety of Australian English; identifies Australian characters in non-Australian films and television programs

❖ **Centum languages**: (Latin 100) the western languages that descended from IE and have a word for that number closely related to *centum* (the Germanic languages have the word beginning with h-, which is a later sound change).

❖ **Chancery English**: the form of the English language developed in written documents of the fifteenth century in Chancery (the official writing center of royal administration)

❖ **Cockney**: local inner east London accent

❖ **Cognate**: two or more words from two or more different, but related, languages that share a common root or original

❖ **Comparative Historic Method**: reconstruction of earlier forms of a language, or of earlier languages, by comparing surviving forms in recorded languages

❖ **Creole**: a type of mixed language that develops when

dominant and subordinate groups that speak different languages have prolonged contact, incorporating the basic vocabulary of the dominant language with the grammar and an admixture of words from the subordinate language and becoming the native tongue of the subordinate group

❖ **Cultivated Australian English**: variety of Australian English that has many similarities to British RP, and is often mistaken for it. It is now spoken by less than 10% of the population.

❖ **Dual number**: designating or pertaining to a number category that indicates two

persons or things, as in Old English for the 1st and 2nd persons *wit* "we two", git "we two"

❖ **Estuary English**: a new accent combining RP and Cockney

❖ **Gemination**: doubling of consonants (except for *-r-*) followed by *-j* after a short consonant: *tælian → tellan, swæfian → swebban* (later ff → bb)

❖ **General Australian English**: the variety that the majority of Australians use; it predominates among modern Australian films and television programs

❖ **Great Vowel Shift**: a massive sound change affecting English long vowels during the 15th to 18th

centuries: long vowels shifted upwards

❖ **Grimm's Law**: a set of relationships among the consonants of the Germanic and non-Germanic Indo-European languages, first codified and published by Jakob Grimm in 1822

❖ **Hardening**: turning of voiced fricatives into voiced plosives [ð, v, γ→ d, b, g]: Gt *broþar*→Grm *Bruder*

❖ **i - mutation**: fronting and raising of all vowels, except *i* and *e*, caused by *i* (or *j*) in the next syllable: (framian → fremman)

❖ **Inkhorn terms**: words from Latin or Romance languages, often polysyllabic and of

arcane, scientific, or aesthetic resonance, coined and introduced into English in the 16th and 17th centuries.

❖ **Kennings**: unique poetic vocabulary of OE literature, especially in metaphorical constructions: *hronrad* (whale road, or sea)

❖ **Kettering accent**: a mixture of East Midlands, East Anglian, Scottish, Cockney

❖ **Kroo-English**: jargon used by the Negroes in Liberia and on the coastline of Guinea and Western Africa, a language bases of English mixed with Portuguese vocabulary

❖ **Kurgans**: the speakers of Proto - Indo - European

(southern Russia, 5000 BC)

❖ **Macron**: a diacritical mark placed above a vowel to indicate a long sound or phonetic value in pronunciation (ā)

❖ **Metathesis**: inversion of sounds in order. We hear this when we identify certain regional dialects by the pronunciation "*aks*" for "*ask*." ME *brid* → *bird*; *axian* → *ask*; *thurgh* → *through*; *beorht* → *bright*.

❖ **Minim**: a short vertical stroke of a pen which in adjacent position is difficult to read

❖ **Received Pronunciation (RP)**: "the British accent" - the variant of English used by radio and television

❖ **Rhotacism**: modification of –**s**

into **–r**: Gt *raisjan→ OE* *ræ*:*ran (to rear)*

❖ **Palatalization**: diphthongisation of a front vowel under the influence of preceding palatal k'(c), sk' (sc), j (g, or Z) (*gefan* → *gi*efan)

❖ **Pejoration**: the process or conditioning of worsening or generating (OE *ceorl* ('peasant') → ME *cherl*, "churl")

❖ **Picts**: non-Indo-European peoples settling the territory of the British Isles before the 7th century

❖ **Pidgin**: a simplified form of speech, usually a mixture of two or more languages that has a rudimentary grammar and vocabulary and is used for communication

between groups speaking different languages. Grammatical features are: absence of morphological changes of words, the plural does not differ from the singular, the verbs are deprived of tense - forms, e.g.

❖ **Satem languages**: (Old Persian 100) eastern languages

❖ **Umlaut**: a change in a vowel sound caused by partial assimilation to a vowel or semivowel occurring in the following syllable

❖ **K. Verner's law**: the sound law of conditioning environment: a phonological change in one phoneme could depend on the neighbouring

phonemes and the position of the accent within the same word

TOPICS FOR REPORTS

1. The comparative historical method.
2. The Proto-Germanic language:

linguistic peculiarities.

3. The Gothic language – the only written trace of the early Germanic tribes.
4. The Great Consonant Shift. Interpretation of the Great Consonant Shift.
5. The Vikings: their global colonization and linguistic influence (in Britain, Normandy, Russia, Spain, Morocco, Italy, Iceland, Greenland, etc).

6. The prefixes and suffixes in Old English: their origin and meaning.
7. The Celtic language: its original variant and development.
8. The Old English dialects.
9. The written records of the Old English language. The runic alphabet.
10. Origin and development of Old English vowels (Comparison of Gothic and Old English).
11. Historical background

continuous and perfect aspects.

18. Development of the gerund and participle

19. Development of the article.

20. History of Prefixation.

21. History of Suffixation.

22. W. Shakespeare's language.

23. The first English dictionaries.

24. The phenomenon and interpretation of the Great Vowel Shift.

25. Modification of Early New English vowels.

26. Developme

the English Language in Internet (Airspeak, Seaspeak, science) (one for choice).

34. Phonetic peculiarities of the Canadian English.
35. The first Oxford English Dictionary (OED).
36. English in Scotland, Wales, Ireland.
37. Historical development of syntactical relations in word combinations.
38. The history of the structure of the English simple

sentence.

39. The history of the structure of the English complex and compound sentence.
40. The history of the English vowels.
41. The history of the English consonants.
42. The history of the English noun.
43. The history of the English verb.
44. The history of the English adjective.
45. The history of the English article.
46. The history

of the English numeral.

47. The history of the English modal verbs.
48. The history of the English spelling.
49. Development of the English passive voice.
50. Development of the English mood.

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

1.Арсеньева М.Г. Балашова С.П., Берков В.П., Соловьева Л.Н. Введение в германскую филологию. -

М., 1980.

2.Бруннер К. История английского языка. – Том 1. – М., Изд-во иностранной литературы, 1955. – 322 с.

3.Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. – Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2004. – 304 с.

4.Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л. П. История английского языка. – М., 1978, 1998.

5.Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. – М., 1968.

6.Жлуктенко Ю.О., Яворська Г.А. Вступ до германського мовознавства. – К., "Вища школа", 1986.

7.Майе А. Основные особенности германской группы языков. – М., 1952.

8.Михайлова Л.А., Ольмезова Н.В. The History of the English Language. – Одесса, ЮУГПУ им. К.Д.Ушинского, 2006. – 115 с.

9.Прокош Э. Сравнительна грамматика германских языков \ Э. Прокош. - М.,

1954.

10. Расторгуева Т.А. История английского языка: Учебник. – М.,"Изд-во Астрель", "Изд-во АСТ", 2003. – 348с.

11. Сравнительна грамматика германских языков: в 5 т. – М., 1962-1966. Стеблин – Каменский М.И. История скандинавских языков. – М. - Л., 1953.

12. Ходина Н.Т. Фонетические и морфологические особенности германских языков. Учебно-методическое

пособие по спец. 022600 ОПД.Ф. 02.1.1. - Воронеж, Воронежский государственный университет, 2003.

13. Crystal D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. – BCA, Cambridge University Press, 1995.

14. Lerer S. The History of the English Language: Lectures. Part 1. - Stanford, The Teaching Company Limited Partnership, 1998.

15. Viney B. The History of the English

Language. –
Oxford, Oxford
University
Press, 2003. –
62 p.

CONTENTS

Навчальне
видання

МЕЛЬНИЧЕН КО Галина Володимирівн а

ІСТОРІЯ АНГЛІЙС ЬКОЇ МОВИ

методичний посібник для студентів заочного відділення