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Facultatea de Limbi și Literaturi Străine
Catedra de Filologie Engleză**

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**Readings
in the
History of the English Language**

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“But as all things under heaven
do in length of time
encline into alteration and varietie,
so do languages also...”

Richard Verstegan (1605)

Preliminaries

The present readings in the History of the English Language are based on texts and illustration materials by such well known authors in the given area as, Thomas Pyles and John Algeo, Rolf Berndt, Leslie Blakeley, Bill Bryson, Bright Viney, Ilyish B., Rastorgueva T., Arakin V., Adrian Poruciuc and others. Also, class materials on the History of English from the Institute for Applied Language Studies, University of Edinburgh, as well as maps and illustrations from Microsoft Encarta Encyclopedia (2002) and Wikipedia Encyclopedia were used.

The main purpose of the course *History of the English Language* is to familiarize the students with the main aspects of the History of the English Language in order to broaden their understanding of modern English and to acquaint them with the fundamentals of its historical development; to identify similarities and divergencies in the evolution of English and other Indo-European languages with the aim of expanding the students' knowledge of the present day correspondencies and differences between the related languages and of their provenance. The course will describe the state of the language during the initial periods of its development and it will provide an understanding of the ways in which the English language has changed since its origin. Finally, the course will present a more comprehensive picture of the language system as a whole at a given period of development, of its diverse sub-systems and of their intercorrelations.

A study of the beginnings of English is of greatest importance for the proper understanding of the present day status of the language. Thus, H. C. Wyld emphasises the importance of the study of different periods of the language: “If we would feel and realize the drama of linguistic evolution we must penetrate by patient study into the spirit and life of the language at each period – a long and slow process – and then, when we can ‘Look before and after’, we shall gradually gain a sense of growth and development. ... All that the best History of English ever written can do for the student is to act as a guide to the path which he must tread anew for himself”.* (Wyld H. C., *A Short History of English*, p. 20// Blakeley Leslie, *Old English*, p. X)

The students can be highly motivated if they realize that much of the Old English phonetics, syntax and vocabulary are assimilated in Modern English and can be applied to help them. Besides, the students will learn much more willingly if they understand that the knowledge of Old and Middle English is helpful to clarify the peculiarities of Modern English.

Another important result of the study of the History of English is that the students are introduced to the subject of Comparative Philology in the following succession: Indo-European (IE) – Proto Germanic (PG) – West Germanic (WG) – Old English (OE) – Middle English (ME) – New English (NE) – Modern English (MdE). In such a way the students will become well aware of the ways in which languages undergo changes, as the best way to master Modern English is to understand the changes which took place in the earliest periods in order to account for the numerous exceptions of present day English. The students will try to understand the regularities of changes and main tendencies of development, rather than just learn different rules and forms by heart. They should discover that this greatly reinforces the interest in the subject.

The course treats two main aspects of the English Language – the Phonetic and the Grammatical Systems, regarded separately through the main periods in the development of the English Language (Old English – Middle English – New English). The course begins with generalities about Germanic Languages and their main characteristics (Lectures I-II). Next, the course focuses on the significant changes and the causes that lead to them and that affected the entire phonetic system (Lectures III-VIII). Also, here are singled out the peculiarities of the English spelling system, demonstrating how it evolved that way. Lectures IX-XIV present a description of the Grammatical System revealing the essential changes in the structure of English that gradually contributed to the transformation of the English Language from a purely synthetic type into an analytic one. The development of the vocabulary throughout the main periods of language evolution is suggested for independent study (reading sources are presented).

The chosen method, namely that of regarding the phonological, morphologico-syntactic and lexical systems separately through the main periods of historical development of the language, beginning with its origins up to the modern stage, seems the most appropriate procedure. It is expected that namely this method will permit a better understanding of the course.

LECTURE I

THE SUBJECT AND AIMS OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH GERMANIC LANGUAGES THE OLD TEUTONS (GERMANS)

OUTLINE

1. The Importance of Studying the History of the English Language
2. Subject and Aims of the History of English
3. Germanic Languages
4. Modern Germanic Languages:
 - a. North Germanic Languages
 - b. West Germanic Languages
5. The Old Teutons (The Ancient Germans)
6. Old Germanic languages:
 - a. East Germanic Group
 - b. North Germanic Group
 - c. West Germanic Group
7. The Written Language of the Teutons
8. Old Germanic Texts

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Ilyish B., *History of the English Language*, L., 1973, pp.5-8, §30-33.
2. Rastorgueva T. A., *History of English*, M., 1983, pp.10-13, §24-33.
3. Pyles Th., Algeo S., *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp.1-3, §43-50, 91.
4. Berndt R., *History of the English Language*, Leipzig, 1982, pp.11-15.
5. Blakeley L., *Old English*, London, 1973, pp.9-14.
6. Аракин В. Д., *Очерки по истории английского языка*, М., 1985, стр. 9-12.

LISTENING¹

Lecture I: *Introduction to the Study of Language*

Lecture II: *The Historical Study of Language: Methods and Approaches*, Seth Lerer, Ph. D.,
Stanford University, USA, 1998

The Birth of a Language, Introduction

¹Fragments from a course of lectures on the History of the English Language, recorded by Professor Seth Lerer, Ph.D. at Stanford University (USA) and the audio recording *Birth of a Language* will be also used during the lectures.

Kevin Schafer/ALLSTOCK, INC.

The Seven Sisters

Visible from far away because of their striking color, the Seven Sisters sit on the coastline of southeastern England near the town of Eastbourne. These cliffs are composed of white chalk, a type of limestone, and are found on both the English and French sides of the English Channel.

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Language is ability, inherent in us. Languages such as English are particular systems that are developments of that ability. We can know the underlying ability only through studying the actual languages that are its expressions. A good approach to studying languages is the historical one. To understand how things are, it is often helpful and sometimes essential to know how they got to be that way. If we are psychologists who want to understand a person's behavior, we must know something about that person's origins and development. The same is true of a language.

Many are interested in the history of language because it may help us answer questions about language and society today. Questions about standardization of English, about English as an official language, about relationships among spelling, pronunciation, grammar and style – these are all questions that have a history. Each of them has been asked by speakers and writers of English for nearly a thousand years.

There are also other, more concrete reasons for studying the history of English. One is that many of the irregularities of English today are the remnants of earlier, quite regular patterns. For example, the highly irregular plurals of nouns like *man-men*, *mouse-mice*, *goose-geese*, and *ox-oxen* can be explained historically* So

can the spelling of Modern English, which may seem chaotic, or at least unruly, to anyone who has had to struggle with it. The orthographic joke attributed to George Bernard Shaw, that in English *fish* might be spelled *ghoti* (*gh* as in *enough*, *o* as in *women*, and *ti* as in *nation*), has been repeated often, but the only way to understand the anomalies of English spelling is to study the history of this language. The fact that the present-day pronunciation and meaning of *cupboard* do not much suggest a board for cups is also something we need history to explain. Why do we talk about *withstanding* a thing when we mean that we stand in opposition to it, rather than in company *with* it? If people are unkempt, can they also be kempt, and what does kempt mean? Is something wrong with the position of secretly in “She wanted to secretly finish writing her novels”? Is there any connection between heal, whole, healthy, hale, and holy? Knowing about the history of the language can help us to understand and to answer these and many similar questions. Knowledge of the history of English is no nostrum or panacea for curing all our linguistic ills, but it can at least alleviate some of the symptoms.

Another reason for studying the history of English is that even a little knowledge about it can help to clarify the literature written in earlier periods, and some written rather recently. In *The Eve of St. Agnes*, John Keats describes the sculptured effigies on the tombs of a chapel on a cold winter evening:

The sculptured dead, on each side, seemed to freeze, Imprisoned in black, Purgatorial rails.

What image should Keats’s description evoke with its reference to *rails*? Many a modern reader, taking a cue from the word *imprisoned*, has thought of the *rails* as railings or bars, perhaps a fence around the statues. But *rail* here is from an Old English word that meant *garments* and refers to the shrouds or funeral garments in which the stone figures are clothed. Unless we are aware of such older usage, we are likely to be led badly astray in the picture we conjure up for these lines. In the General Prologue to his *Canterbury Tales*, Geoffrey Chaucer, in describing an ideal knight, says: “His hors weren goode”. Did the knight have one horse, or more than one? *Hors* seems to be singular, but the verb *weren* looks like a plural. The knight did indeed have several horses; in Chaucer’s day *hors* was a word like *deer* or *sheep* that had a plural identical in form with its singular. It is a small point, but unless we know what a text means literally, we cannot appreciate it as literature.

SUBJECT AND AIMS OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

A language can be studied in various aspects: Phonetics, Grammar, Word-Stock, Style and so on. We consider Modern English synchronically through all these aspects. We regard *the language as a fixed unchangeable system*. But a synchronic approach can be contrasted to a diachronic approach in which *no element of the language is treated as fixed or stable*. When considered diachronically *every*

linguistic fact can be interpreted as a stage or a step in the never ending evolution of the language. In studying Modern English we often resort to history - to explain current phenomena, such as a spelling or an unusual form, etc.

The subject of *the History of English* is a systematic study of the development of English from the time of its origin to the present day. The history of English deals with the phonetic, grammatical and lexical evolution of the English language. During the 15 hundred years or so of its recorded history English has changed so greatly, that its earliest form is unintelligible to Modern English speakers. Present day English reflects these centuries of development in a great number of specific features and peculiarities, which can be accounted for only with the help of the knowledge of the *History of English*.

The history of English is of great importance, it shows the ties of English with the languages of the Germanic group, as well as its ties with the languages of other groups, such as French and Latin. The history of English will show that linguistic alterations may be dependent or caused by the events in the history of the people, for example, *the influence of one language on another, the appearance of new words to name new objects*.

A study of the phonetic, grammatical, and lexical evolution of the language will enable us to see the general trends in the development of English and their interdependence.

One of the primary aims of *the course of the history of English* is to provide with the knowledge of history sufficient to account for the essential features and some specific peculiarities of Modern English.

A few illustrations will show how features in Modern English can be explained in terms of their past development that all levels of the language are apt to change.

A scholar of English will say that English spelling is conventional and that is why it is rather difficult. The values of Latin letters in English differ from their values in other languages, say German or French. The connection between letters or their combinations with the sounds they designate often seems untrue.

I e.g. *bit* [b I t]
3 letters 3 sounds
bite [b a I t]
4 letters 3 sounds

The final "e" does not stand for any sound, but it is used conventionally to show that the preceding letter has its alphabetic value (it shows an open syllable).

II e.g. *night* [n a I t]
5 letters 3 sounds

The same goal is achieved by the diagraph 'gh'. Now comes the explanation: At the time when the Latin alphabet was introduced into Britain (7 cent.) its letters were used on a phonetic principle and their significance was the same as in Latin (OE

niht-each letter is read: [n I h (x) t]). From OE to ME only spelling considerably changed (while the pronunciation remained the same). In the XV century printing was introduced. Spelling became *fixed*, while the pronunciation of words continued to change. (From ME to NE the most considerable changes happened in phonology). The spelling of the mentioned above words shows the pronunciation of the XIV, XV cent.

ME *nyght* [n I h (x) t] - NE *night* [n a I t], (Modern German: *nacht* [n a: x (h) t]).

After the pronunciation had changed (NE), the spelling became *conventional* and the letters *igh* and *i+cons. +e* are now traditionally associated with the pronunciation [aI].

As it was mentioned and as it can be seen from the examples, since the XIV century English sounds have undergone considerable changes.

Another illustration may be drawn from the history of word-stock. The English language belongs to the group of Germanic languages and is closely related to German, Swedish and others.

The English word-stock however differs from that of cognate languages. It appears to have more roots in common with French and Latin, though the latter belong to another linguistic group, and so the history of English explains this fact.

The history of English can also help us to understand *the peculiarities of Modern English grammar*, both as regards the rules and the so-called *exceptions*. Thus, it will be shown why English nowadays has so few grammatical endings. Modern English is an analytical language in comparison with OE, which was a synthetic language. In this order it is important to mention here the *strict order of words* in Modern English. OE was a language with a free order of words, as it was a synthetic language. But during the history the endings died and the order of words came to play the main role.

The history of English will show how *verbs* have come to be divided into morphological classes; why modal verbs, unlike other verbs, take no ending **-a** in the 3rd person singular Present Indefinite; why some nouns add **-en** or change the root vowel in the plural instead of adding “-s” (e.g. oxen, feet, etc.).

GERMANIC LANGUAGES

English belongs to Germanic (or Teutonic) languages - a large group belonging to one of the biggest linguistic *families* - namely to *Indo-European Family of Languages*.

All the Germanic languages are related through their common origin and joint development at the early stages of history.

The survey of history will show where and when the Germanic Languages arose and acquired their common features and also how they have developed into Modern Independent Languages.

MODERN GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Modern Germanic Languages are classified as follows:

North-Germanic Languages

Danish – in Denmark

Swedish – in Sweden and Finland

Norwegian – in Norway

Icelandic – in Iceland

Faroese – in the Faro Islands

West Germanic Languages

English - in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, and many other former British colonies

German - in Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland

Flemish - in Belgium

Dutch - in the Netherlands

Frisian - in some regions of the Netherlands and Germany

Yiddish - in different countries

Afrikaans - in the South African Republic

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many entries is one of two languages in a bilingual community, e.g. in Canada. The estimates for English range from 250 to 300 million people who have it as their mother tongue. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 million. To this rough estimate we could add an indefinite number of bilingual people in the countries where English is used as an official language (over 50 countries).

OLD GERMANIC LANGUAGES

THE OLD TEUTONS (THE ANCIENT GERMANS)*

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language (also called Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic and simply Germanic). PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th century B.C. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community.

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

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

It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons.

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th century B.C., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. In the 1st century B.C. in *COMMENTARIES ON THE GALLIC WAR (COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO)* Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes - the Suevians - who boarded on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. The tribal names *Germans* and *Teutons*, at first applied to separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group. In the 1st century A.D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in *NATURAL HISTORY (NATURALIS HISTORIA)* made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons *DE SITU MOKIBUS ET POPULIS GERMANIAE*; in this work he reproduced Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. The tri-partite division of the Germanic languages proposed by 19th century philologists with a few adjustments, to Pliny's grouping of the Old Teutonic tribes. According to this division PG split into three branches: East Germanic (Vindili in Pliny's classification), North Germanic (Hilleviones) and West Germanic (which embraces Ingeveones, Istavones and Herminones in Pliny's list). In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.

The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications. The development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally PG split into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the lower valley of the Elbe consisted in their movement north, to the Scandinavian Peninsula, a few hundred years before our era. This geographical segregation must have led to linguistic differentiation and to the division of PG into the northern and southern branches. At the beginning of our era some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled closer to the Vistula basin, east of the other continental Germanic tribes. It is only from this stage of their history that the Germanic languages can be described under three headings: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

East Germanic Group

The East Germanic subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 A.D. they moved south-east and some time later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch, the Visigotae, invaded Roman territory, participated in the assaults on Rome under Alaric and moved on to southern Gaul, to found once of the first barbarian kingdoms of Medieval Europe, the Toulouse kingdom. The kingdom lasted until the 8th century though linguistically the western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanized Celts. The eastern Goths, Ostrogotae consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the lower basin of the Dniester, were subjugated by the Huns under Attila, traversed the Balkans and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy, with Ravenna as its capital. The short-lived flourishing of Ostrogothic culture in the 5th-6th century under Theodoric came to an end with the fall of the kingdom.

The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4th-6th century. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the

4th century Ulfilas, a West-Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Parts of Ulfilas' Gospels - a manuscript of about two hundred pages, probably made in the 5th or 6th century - have been preserved and are kept now in Uppsala, Sweden. It is written on red parchment with silver and golden letters and is known as the *SILVER CODEX*. Ulfilas' Gospels were first published in the 17th century and have been thoroughly studied by 19th and 20th c. philologists. The *SILVER CODEX* is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English.

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in place-names, which reveal the directions of their migrations: Bornholm and Burgundy go back to the East Germanic tribe of Burgundies; Andalusia is derived from the tribal name Vandals; Lombardy got its name from the Langobards, who made part of the population of the Ostrogothic kingdom in North Italy.

North Germanic Group

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The North Germanic tribes lived on the southern coast of the Scandinavian Peninsula and in Northern Denmark (since the 4th c.). They did not participate in the migrations and were relatively isolated, though they may have come into closer contacts with the western tribes after the Goths left the coast of the Baltic Sea. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th c. and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. It has come down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the 3rd to the 9th c. Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material in an original Germanic alphabet known as the runic alphabet or the runes. The runes were used by North and West Germanic tribes.

The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the 9th c., when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages. The famous Viking Age, from about 800 to 1050 A.D., is the legendary age of Scandinavian raids and expansion overseas. At the same period, due to overpopulation in the fjord areas, they spread over inner Scandinavia.

The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance and the relative position of the three languages altered, as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbours. For several hundred years Denmark was the most powerful of the Scandinavian kingdoms: it embraced southern Sweden, the greater part of the British Isles, the southern coast of the Baltic

Sea up to the Gulf of Riga; by the 14th c. Norway fell under Danish rule, too. Sweden regained its independence in the 16th c., while Norway remained a backward Danish colony up to the early 19th c. Consequently, both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian, and Old Swedish date from the 13th c. In the late Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries, Danish, and then Swedish developed into national literary languages. Nowadays Swedish is spoken not only by the population of Sweden; the language has extended over Finnish territory and is the second state language in Finland.

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Beginning with the 8th c. the Scandinavian sea-rovers and merchants undertook distant sea voyages and set up their colonies in many territories. The Scandinavian invaders, known as Northmen, overran Northern France and settled in Normandy (named after them). Crossing the Baltic Sea they came to Russia - the *varyagi* of the Russian chronicles. Crossing the North Sea they made disastrous attacks on English coastal towns, and eventually occupied a large part of England - the Danes of the English chronicles. They founded numerous settlements in the islands around the North Sea: the Shetlands, the Orkneys, Ireland and the Faroe Islands; going still farther west they reached Iceland, Greenland and North America.

Linguistically, in most areas of their expansion, the Scandinavian settlers were assimilated by the native population: in France they adopted the French language; in Northern England, in Ireland and other islands around the British Isles sooner or later the Scandinavian dialects were displaced by English. In the Faroe Islands the West Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians developed into a separate language called Faroese. Faroese is spoken nowadays by about 30000 people. For many centuries all writing was done in Danish; it was not until the 18th c. that the first Faroese records were made.

Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements 9th c. Their West Scandinavian dialects, at first identical with those of Norway, eventually grew into an independent language, Icelandic. It developed as a separate language in spite of the political dependence of Iceland upon Denmark and the dominance of Danish in official spheres. As compared with other North Germanic languages Icelandic has retained a more archaic vocabulary and grammatical system. Modern Icelandic is very much like Old Icelandic and Old Norse, for it has not participated in the linguistic changes which took place in the other Scandinavian languages, probably because of its geographic isolation. At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200 000 people.

West Germanic Group

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the South. They must have retreated further west under the pressure of the Goths who had come from Scandinavia, but after their departure expanded in the eastern and southern directions. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names. On the eve of their *great migrations* of the 4th and 5th c. the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the Modern Netherlands, the federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the federal Republic of Germany. The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are known since the early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, the Thuringians and others.

In the Earle Middle Ages the Franks consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance. Towards the 8th c. their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. Under Charlemagne (768-814) the Holy Roman Empire of the Franks embraced France and half of Italy, and stretched northwards up to the North and Baltic Sea. The empire lacked ethnic and economic unity and in the 9th c. broke up into parts. Its western part eventually became the basis of France. Though the names France, French are derived from the tribal names of the Franks, the Franconian dialects were not spoken there. The population, the Romanized Celts of Gaul, spoke a local variety of Latin, which developed into one of the most extensive Romance languages, French.

The eastern part, the East Franconian Empire, comprised several kingdoms: Swabia or Alemania, Bavaria, East Franconia and Saxony; to these were soon added two more kingdoms – Lorraine and Friesland. As seen from the name of the kingdoms, the East Franconian state had a mixed population consisting of several West Germanic tribes.

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch – the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and Flemish – the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the 10th c.; 12th c. records represent the earliest Old Dutch. The formation of the Dutch language stretches over a long period; it is linked up with the growth of the Netherlands into an independent bourgeois state after its liberation from Spain in the 16th c.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called Dutch, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language,

Netherlandish. It is spoken by almost 20 million people; its northern variety, used in the Netherlands has a more standardized literary form.

About three hundred years ago the Dutch language was brought to South Africa by colonists from Southern Holland. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, **Afrikaans**. Afrikaans has incorporated elements from the speech of English and German colonists in Africa and from the tongues of the natives. Writing in Afrikaans began as late as the end of the 19th c. Today Afrikaans is the mother-tongue of over four million Afrikaans and coloured people and one of the state languages in the South African Republic (alongside English).

The High German group of tribes did not go far in their migrations. Together with the Saxons the Alamanni, Bavarians and Thuringians expanded east, driving the Slavonic tribes from places of their early settlement.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as **Old High German (OHG)**. The first written record in OHG date from the 8th and 9th c. (glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems). Towards the 12th c. High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighbouring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. The Written Standard of New High German was established after the Reformation (16th c), though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th c. as Germany remained politically divided into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms. To this day German is remarkable for great dialectal diversity of speech.

The High German language in a somewhat modified form is the national language of Austria, the language of Liechtenstein and one of the languages in Luxemburg and Switzerland. It is also spoken in Alsace and Lorraine in France. The total number of German-speaking people approaches 100 million.

Another offshoot of High German is **Yiddish**. It grew from the High German dialects which were adopted by numerous Jewish communities scattered over Germany in the 11th and 12th c. These dialects blended with elements of Hebrew and Slavonic and developed into a separate West Germanic language with a spoken and literary form. Yiddish was exported from Germany to many other countries: Russia, Poland, the Baltic States and America.

At the later stage of the great migration period - in the 5th c. - a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxons and Frisians, and probably the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles developed into the *English language*.

The territory of English was at first confined to what is now known as England proper. From the 13th to the 17th c. it extended to other parts of the British

Isles. In the succeeding centuries English spread overseas to other continents. The first English written records have come down from the 7th c., which is the *earliest date in the history of writing* in the West Germanic subgroup.

THE WRITTEN LANGUAGE OF THE TEUTONS

The Teutons had a written language. It was a high level. Yet this written language had a very limited use. The oldest written signs are called **runes**. Originally "runes" meant "secret, mystery" and was used to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. Later the word "runes" was applied to the signs of letters used to make these inscriptions. The runes were employed by many Romanic tribes, especially in Scandinavia. They were used as letters in an alphabet, each to denote a separate sound, besides a rune could also denote a word beginning with that sound and it was called by that word.

	O.E.	N.E.
e.g. þ [θ] ~ [ð]	þorn	thorn
[w]	wynn	joy
ƿ [f]	feoh	cattle

In some inscriptions the runes were found arranged in a fixed order which made up a sort of alphabetical order. After the first six letters this alphabet is now commonly known as "futhork" (runic alphabet).

The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet not to be found in other languages. The letters are angular, straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided. This is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in stone, bone, or wood. The shapes of some letters resemble those of the ancient Greek or Latin alphabets. Others have not been traced to any known alphabet. The order of the runes in the alphabet was original. The number of runes varied in different Old Germanic dialects. There were 28 runes in the Old English alphabet (GB). 16 or sometimes 24 were found on the continent and it reached a maximum of 33 in Northumbria (8th c.).

The runes were never used for everyday writing or for putting down poetry or prose works. Their *only function was to make short inscriptions on objects: rings, coins, amulets*. Only the priests could read them.

Just when and where the runic alphabet was created is not known. It is supposed that it originated at some time in the 2nd and 3rd c. A.D., somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube, where Germanic tribes came into contact with Roman culture. The earliest runic inscriptions belong to this time.

The runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes eventually the runic alphabet underwent many changes: new letters were added, some of the original ones were dropped.

There were two more alphabets used by Germanic tribes: Gothic and Latin.

Ulfila's Gothic alphabet (4th c.) is the alphabet of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible, a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet, with some admixture of Latin and Runic letters. In modern editions of the Gothic text a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet is used.

The latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes is the Latin alphabet. It superseded both the Runic and the Gothic alphabet when a new technique of writing was introduced, namely that of spreading some colour or paint on a surface instead of cutting or engraving the letters. The material now used for writing was either parchment or papyrus. Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religious texts.

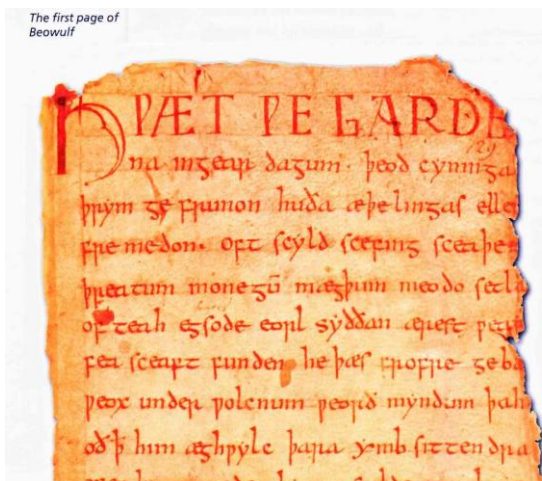
The Latin alphabet was certainly not adequate to represent all sounds of Germanic languages. Thus, to denote the dental fricative (as in English *thing* the Runic letter [þ] which had once been derived from Latin *D*, was used.

OLD GERMANIC TEXTS*

The oldest Germanic texts were Runic inscriptions which may date from the 2nd or 3rd c. These are, however, short texts which do not yield much information on the structure of old Germanic languages.

The earliest longer document is Ulfila's Gothic Bible (4th c.). It has been preserved in several MSS, the most famous being the so-called *SILVER CODE* of the 6th c. now in the University Library at Uppsala (Sweden).

Next comes the Old High German *SONG OF HILDEBRANDT*, a fragment of an epic, 8th c., and the *BEOWULF*, an OE epic, probably written in the 8th c. and preserved in a single 10th c. MS. Then come Old Icelandic epic texts collected in the so-called *OLDER EDDA* comprising songs written down in the 13th c.



Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language", Oxford University Press, 2009, p.10

Old Germanic poetic texts are written in the so-called alliterative verse. The main principle of this verse is as follows. Every line consists of two half-lines, and every half-line has two stressed syllables. The number of unstressed syllables between every two stressed ones may be either one or two. The initial consonant of a stressed syllable of one half-line must be the same as the initial consonant of a stressed syllable of the other half-line. The initial consonants of the remaining two stressed syllables may also coincide with these. Thus every line has 2 or 3 or 4 stressed syllables beginning with the same consonant. For example, in the

following line from *BEOWULF* two stressed syllables in the first half-line and one in the second begins with:

Was the evil spirit.

Grendel called.

If a stressed syllable begins with a vowel, all vowels can alliterate with one another. This can be seen in the following line from *BEOWULF*:

Him sē yldesta

andswarode

To him the oldest

answered

This vowel alliteration is probably due to the fact that an initial vowel was always accompanied by a glottal stop, so that what really bore the alliteration was not the vowel sound as such but this glottal stop.

Thus the Gothic text that has come down to us is at least three hundred years older than any text.

*This material is suggested for independent study of students.

LECTURE II

THE MAIN PECULIARITIES OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

OUTLINE

1. Generalities about Germanic Languages
2. Phonetic system:
 - a. Word stress
 - b. The System of Proto-Germanic Vowels:
 - Reduction of vowels
 - Long and short vowels – the main characteristics feature of the Germanic Group
 - Mutation
 - Fracture
 - Breaking
 - Vowel Gradation or Ablaut
 - c. The System of Consonants in Common Germanic:
 - First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law)
 - Voicing of Fricatives in Proto-Germanic (Verner's Law)
 - Rhotacism
 - Some Interpretations of Consonant Changes
 - West-Germanic Lengthening of Consonants
 - The Second Consonant Shift
3. Peculiarities of the Grammatical System of the Germanic Languages
 - a. The Noun
 - b. The Adjective
 - c. The Verb
4. Old Germanic Vocabulary

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Пыш В. *History of the English Language*, L., 1973, pp. 9-30.
2. Rastorgueva T. A. *A History of English*, M., 1983, pp. 34-48.
3. Pyles Th., Algeo S. *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp. 61-90.
4. Аракин В. Д. *История английского языка*, М., 1985, сmp. 21-26.
5. *Введение в германскую филологию*, М., 1980, сmp. 7-28, 30-33, 39-40.

LISTENING

Lecture III: The Prehistory of English; the Indo-European Context

Lecture IV: Reconstructing Meaning and Sound

Lecture V: *Words and Worlds: Historical Linguistics and the Study of Culture*, Seth Lerer, Ph. D., Stanford University, USA, 1998

As any other branch of the Indo-European (IE) languages, the Germanic languages have their own peculiarities in phonetics, grammar and word-stock. All the Germanic languages of the past and of the present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic. It is very important to know their peculiarities in order to be able to compare certain phenomena of Germanic languages with the correspondent phenomena of other IE languages. Such a comparison helps in many cases to understand better the relationship of a Germanic language, say English, to an IE language of another branch, say Russian or Latin. Such a comparison helps to give a deeper explanation of different phenomena.

PHONETIC SYSTEM

Word Stress

It is believed that at the beginning of the Common Germanic period word-stress was free and movable, as in most other IE languages, which means, that it could fall on any syllable of the word (Cf. Russian *дóмом, домá, дóма*). But some time later, still in Common Germanic, the stress became fixed on the first syllable, usually on the root-vowel. Its position in the word became stable.

The root-morpheme bore the heaviest stress while the other syllables, namely the suffixes and endings, remained unstressed or weakly stressed. The stress was no longer shifted either in inflexion (form building) or derivation (word building) as in Russian (e.g. *become, becoming, overcome*). These features of the Common Germanic stress were inherited by all the Common Germanic dialects and despite later alterations the traces are still observed in the Modern Germanic languages.

The fixed word-stress played an important role in the development of the Germanic languages, and especially in phonetic and morphological changes: the stressed and unstressed syllables underwent widely different changes: stressed syllables were pronounced with great distinctness, while unstressed became less distinct and were phonetically weakened. The differences between the sounds in stressed position were preserved and emphasized, whereas the contrasts between the unstressed sounds were weakened and lost. The weakening and loss of sounds mainly affected the suffixes and grammatical endings. Many endings merged with the suffixes, were weakened and dropped.

Mutation is a kind of regressive assimilation. The pronunciation of vowels was modified under the influence of the following or preceding consonants and even more so - under the influence of succeeding vowels. Eventually, the modified vowel coincided with a vowel which was a different phoneme. At other times it could develop into a new phoneme. The earliest manifestation of this principle has been termed FRACTURE or BREAKING.

Fracture concerns two pairs of vowels:

a) e and i

b) u and o

a) An IE e in the root syllable finds its counterpart in Germanic i, if it is followed by i, j or the cluster nasal + consonant. Otherwise the Germanic languages have in the corresponding words an e.

Vowel System

From an early date the treatment of vowels was determined by the nature of word-stress.

1. We observe a tendency of a gradual reduction of vowels in an unstressed position. In stressed syllables the oppositions between vowels were maintained; in unstressed positions the original contrasts between vowels were weakened or lost. So, by the age of writing the long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped.

2. Strict differentiation of long and short vowels is commonly regarded as an important characteristic feature of the Germanic group, which distinguishes them from other IE languages. Their main characteristic feature in this sphere is the treatment of the IE short vowels ō and ā and the long vowels ǒ and ǣ.

a. IE short ǒ and ǣ appear as short ǣ in Germanic Languages.

IE	Germanic
Russ. я́блоко	Germ. <u>A</u> pfel
Lat. noctem	Goth. Na <u>h</u> ts
Russ. но́чь	Germ. Na <u>h</u> t
Lat. octo	Goth. a <u>h</u> tau
Russ. во́семь	Germ. <u>A</u> cht

b. IE long ō and ā appear as long ō in Germanic languages.

IE	Germanic
Lat. frāter	Goth. brō <u>þ</u> ar
Greek phrātōr	OE brō <u>þ</u> or
Lat. flōs (flower)	OE blō <u>m</u> a
Russ. ма́ть	OE mō <u>d</u> er

Thus, as a result of these changes there was neither a short ǒ nor a long ā in Germanic

languages. Later on these sounds appeared from many sources.

3. Mutation of Vowels in Germanic languages. Germanic Fracture (Breaking).

IE	Germanic	IE	Germanic
i	i	Lat. ventus; Russ. ветер; OE wind; NE wind	
		Lat. edit; Russ. ест; OE iteþ; NE eats	
		Lat. edere; Russ. Есть; OE etan; NE eat	
e			

b) An IE i finds its counterpart in Germanic i, if it is followed by i or by the cluster nasal + consonant. Otherwise the Germanic languages have in the corresponding words an o.

IE	Germanic	IE	Germanic
u	u	Sansk. sunus	OE sunu; NE son
		Russ. сын	
		Celt. hurnan	OE horn; NE horn
	o		

After the changes in Late PG, the vowel system contained the following sounds: Short vowels: i e a o u

Long vowels: i: e: a: o: u:

As shown in 2) b) [a:] developed into [o:]. The new [a:] developed from short [a] before nasals and some other phenomena.

It is believed that in addition to these monophthongs PG had a set of diphthongs made up of more open nuclei and closer glides [ei], [ai], [eu], [au], and also [iu], regarded nowadays as separate monophthongs [i] and [u].

4. Vowel Gradation or Ablaut. Ablaut is a regular alternation of root vowels (e.g. write - wrote - written). In IE languages there is a special kind of vowel alternation, usually called gradation or ablaut. This is found, for example in Russian in such pairs as:

вез-у/ воз; грем-ут/ гром; выбер-у/ вы-бор; нести/ ноша/ носит; (e→o)

Vowel gradation did not reflect any phonetic changes, but was used as a special independent device to differentiate between words and grammatical forms built from the same root.

Ablaut was inherited by Germanic from ancient IE. The principal gradation series used in the IE languages [e – o] was shown above in Russ. нести - ноша. This kind of ablaut is called qualitative, as the vowels differ only in quality. Alternation of short and long vowels, and also alternation with a "zero" (i.e. lack of vowels) represent quantitative ablaut.

e.g. long vowel	short vowel	neutral or loss of vowels
Lat. lēgi (elected)	lego (elect)	
Russ. —	e - o	
	беру – сбoр	брал

The Germanic languages employed both types of ablaut.

Of all its spheres of application in Germanic languages, ablaut was mostly used in building the principal forms of the verbs called strong (irregular). Each form was characterized by a certain grade. The system of gradation in Germanic languages is best seen in the strong verbs of the gothic language; there exist 7 classes of strong verbs.

	Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Participle II
1.	reisan(rise)	rais	risum	risans
2.	kiusan(choose)	kaus	kusum	kusans
3.	bindan(bind)	band	bundum	bundans

As can be seen from these forms, gradation is as follows:

1.	i	ai	i	i
2.	iu	au	u	u
3.	i	a	u	u

The System of Consonants in Common Germanic

The consonants in Germanic languages are characterised by a number of specific features.

At first sight it may appear that Germanic consonants are similar to those of other IE languages. Like other IE languages, the Germanic languages have noise consonants and sonorant, plosives and fricatives, voiced and voiceless consonants.

Yet, comparison of Germanic and non-Germanic consonants does not correspond to the same comparison in other languages. It has been found that during the Common Germanic period all the consonants were altered. The most important of all those alterations is commonly known as the COMMON GERMANIC CONSONANT SHIFT.

THE FIRST CONSONANT SHIFT (GRIMM'S LAW)

The phenomena stated in the law of the first consonant shift were found out and first formulated by Jacob Grimm, a German linguist of the early XIX c. Accordingly the law is also often called Grimm's Law. It expresses regular correspondences between consonants of Germanic and those of other IE languages. Grimm divided this shift into 3 parts, which he called acts. They took place at different times.

Act I: IE voiceless plosives are shifted to corresponding voiceless fricatives in Germanic.

IE	Germanic
p, t, k	f, þ [θ], h
Lat. pes, pedis	OE fot; NE foot (p – f)
Russ. пена	OE fām; NE foam (p – f)
Lat. tres; Russ. три; Mold. trei	OE þreo; NE three (t – þ)
Russ. кровь	OE hrōf
Lat. cor, cordis; Fr. cœur	OE hrōf

Act II: IE voiced plosives are shifted to voiceless plosives in Germanic languages.

IE	Germanic
b, d, g	p, t, k
Russ. болото	OE pōl; NE pool (b – p)
Russ. слабость	OE slēpan; NE sleep (b – p)
Russ. два; Rom. doi	OE twā; NE two (d – t)
Lat. genu; Fr. genou	OE cnēo; NE knee (g – k)

Act III: IE voiced aspirated plosives are reflected in Germanic as voiced plosives.

IE	Germanic
bh, dh, gh	b, d, g
OInd. bhrata	Goth. brōþar; OE brōþor; NE brother (bh – b)
OInd. rudhira; Russ. рдеть	OE read; NE red (dh – d)
Lat. hostis (enemy)	Goth. Gasts (guest) (gh – g)

*Note: Not all the correspondences in Grimm's Law are quite clear (e.g. gh – g was not found in Sanskrit).

So, summing up, we can say that the Germanic sounds are the result of a development of the original IE sounds, as they existed in the IE ancestor language. Some what more complicated phenomena have been formulated in Verner's Law.

VOICING OF FRICATIVES IN PG (VERNER'S LAW)

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late XIXth c. by a Danish scholar, Carl Verner. They are known as Verner's Law. Verner's Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions.

It was observed that in some words, where according to Grimm's Law Act I, one should expect to find a voiceless fricative, one found a voiced fricative or a voiced plosive instead. Carl Verner later suggested that in early PG, at the time of the free word-stress, fricative consonants became voiced, depending on the position of the stress. Verner's Law can be formulated as follows:

All the Common Germanic voiceless fricatives became voiced between vowels (in intervocalic position), if the preceding vowel was unstressed and the immediately following vowel was stressed.

In the absence of these conditions fricative consonants remained voiceless.

In West and North Germanic languages later on such a voiced fricative changed

into the corresponding voiced plosive.

IE	Grimm's Law, Act I	Verner's Law	North and West German
P	F	v	b
T	þ [θ]	ð	d
K	H	Γ	g

e.g. IE Early PG Late PG OE
 pa'ter > fa'θar > fa'ðar > 'faðar > fæder

(In late PG the phonetic conditions that caused the voicing had disappeared: the stress had shifted to the first syllable).

RHOTACISM

This vocalization also affected the fricative s: s – z

In West and North Germanic languages this z developed into r: s – z – r

This is clearly shown by comparing:

Goth. hausjan (hear) - OE hieran - Germ. horen

Goth. laisjan (teach) - OE læran - Germ. Lehren

SOME INTERPRETATIONS OF CONSONANT CHANGES IN COMMON GERMANIC

The question as to why and how the consonant shift was affected in PG has been a matter of discussion ever since it was discovered.

Some theories attribute the shift to the physical peculiarities of the Teutons, namely the shape of their glottis: it differed from that of other IE tribes, and the pronunciation of consonants was modified. Others maintain that the shift came as a result of a more energetic articulation of consonants, brought about by the Germanic force stress.

Another theory suggests that the articulation of the consonants in Germanic was on the contrary, marked by lack of energy and tension.

Some linguists attempt to consider the shift from a phonological aspect. They assert that some time in early PG new ways of distinguishing between consonant phonemes were needed in some positions, namely before t – the voiced and voiceless consonants sounded alike: bt – pt; gt – kt.

To show the contrast more clearly p, t and k passed through the stage of aspirated plosives into a new set of consonants, fricatives. As a result of this change the voiced b, d, g easily lost sonority, which became irrelevant for phonetic distinction. They were devoiced and changed respectively into p, t, k. Thus, the cause of the shift is defined as a need for more precise means of phonemic differentiation.

According to the theory of linguistic substratum the Pre-Germanic population in the areas of Germanic expansion had a different way of articulation of consonants. They articulated the consonants in a different way which influenced the newcomers.

The alteration of the consonant system was a very slow process. It has been found that the shift began first on part of German territories and spread gradually over the whole Common Germanic area. The general pattern of the consonant system was not destroyed. The ruling tendency in the shift was to preserve the system.

Most of the changes included in the shift went on a simultaneously, or followed one another so closely that the system was not broken up in any of the stages.

WEST GERMANIC LENGTHENING OF CONSONANTS

West Germanic languages show peculiar phenomenon in the sphere of consonants, which has been called *West Germanic Lengthening of Consonants*. Its essence is this: every consonant (with the single exception of r) is lengthened if it is preceded by a short vowel and followed by the consonant j.

e.g. OE *sætian* – *settan* (set)

stæpian – *steppan* (step)

tælian – *tellan* (tell) etc.

In writing the long consonants are represented by doubling the consonant letter, therefore the process is also sometimes called *West-Germanic doubling of consonants*.

THE SECOND CONSONANT SHIFT

The Germanic consonant shift is called the first, to distinguish it from a second consonant shift, which occurred in High German Dialects (in Southern Germany).

The PG voiced d corresponds to HG voiceless t:

 OE *bedd* (bed)

 HG *bett*

 OE *don* (do)

 HG *tun*

The PG voiceless p corresponds to HG voiceless f:

 OE *pol* (pool)

 HG *pfuhl*

 OE *hopian* (hope)

 HG *hoffen*

The voiceless k corresponds to the voiceless fricative ch [x] after a vowel:

 OE *maçian* (make)

 HG *machen*

 OE *storc* (stork)

 HG *storch*

and others: **t – s ...**

However, all these changes penetrated into the literary German language. Most of the changes remained confined to the most Southern German dialects (Bavaria, Austria). The second consonant shift occurred between the Vth and VIth c. A.D., spreading from South to North.

A few hundred years later, between the VIIIth and XIIth c. one more change took place, which gave the German consonant system its present shape. As we have seen, the PG **d** developed into **t** in HG; as a result the German consonant system had no **d** – sound. Now a new **d** appeared, coming from the PG:

OE þrie (three)	HG drei
OE þu (thou)	HG du
OE broþor (brother)	HG bruder
OE muþ (mouth)	HG mund

In this way the gap left in the HG consonant system by the change of **d** into **t** in the II consonant shift was filled. Modern literary German again has a complete system:

p / b, t / d, k / g.

PECULIARITIES OF THE GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Throughout history the following parts of speech could be found in the Germanic group: the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Numeral, the Verb, the Adverb, the Conjunction, and the Preposition. In Common Germanic the Noun, the Pronoun, the Adjective had the grammatical categories of gender, number, case. Let us regard the main parts of speech:

NOUN

The original structure of a noun in Germanic, as well as in other IE languages, presents itself as follows: a noun consists of 3 elements:

1. the root
2. a stem-building suffix
3. a case inflexion

Let us consider each of the three; the meaning of the root is clear: it is the lexical meaning of the noun. The meaning of the case inflexion is also clear: it expresses the relation between the thing denote by the substantive and other things or actions and also the category of number.

The meaning of the stem-building suffix is much more difficult to define. From the point of view of the period to which the texts of Old Germanic belong, this suffix no longer has any meaning at all. It would appear that originally stem-building suffixes were a means of classifying the nouns according to their meaning. What the principle of classification was, is hard to tell, there is only one type of noun in Gothic which is characterized by a distinct semantic feature. These are nouns denoting relationship and derived by means of the:

1. stem-forming suffix **r**
e.g. fadar, broþar, swistar, etc.

For all other type it has not proved possible to discover a common feature of meaning.

In Gothic we can clearly see the stem building suffixes in several types of nouns in the Dative plural:

Da3am (to days) = da3- + -a- + m (case inflexion)

3ibom (to gifts) = 3ib- + -o- + m

3astim (to guests) = 3ast- + -i- + m

sunum (to sons) = sun- + -u- + m

-a-, -o-, -i-, -u- are stem-building suffixes. These suffixes are also clearly seen in the Accusative plural of these nouns: da3ans, 3ibos, 3astins, sununs. These stems are called:

2. Vocalic stems. Declension of these nouns – strong declension

There are some other types of noun-stems in Old Germanic languages:

3. n-stems. This declension is called weak.

4. root-stems - a peculiar type. These nouns never had a stem-building suffix, so that their stem had always coincided with their root. Later the stem-building suffix lost its own meaning and merged with the case inflexion. As a result the stem of the noun consisted of the root **alone**.

ADJECTIVE

Declension of Adjectives in Old Germanic languages is complicated in a way which finds no parallel in other IE languages. The adjectives could be declined according to the strong and weak declension.

Weak declension forms are used when the adjective is preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the definite article; they are associated with the meaning of definiteness. In all other contexts forms of the strong declension are used.

VERB

The bulk of the verbs in PG and in OG languages fall into two large groups called strong and weak. These terms were proposed by J. Grimm. He called the verbs strong because they had preserved the richness of form since the age of the parent-language and in this sense could be contrasted to weak verbs lacking such variety of form. From the verbs the terms were extended to noun and adjective declensions.

The main difference between these groups lies in the means of building the principal forms: the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and Participle II. The strong verbs built their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings (made use of IE ablaut with certain modifications).

The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, for the device used in building their principal forms is not found outside the Germanic group. They built the Past Tense and Participle II by inserting a special suffix between the root and the ending:

e.g.	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
------	------------	------------	---------------	----

OIcel.	kalla	kallaþa	kallaþr	call (called)
OE	macian	macode	macod	make (made)

OLD GERMANIC VOCABULARY

Until recently it was believed that the Germanic languages had a large proportion of words, which have no parallels in other groups of the IE family. Recent research however, has revealed that Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexics as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic Vocabulary is made up of words (roots) shared by most IE languages. In addition to roots the common IE element includes other components of words; word-building affixes and grammatical inflexions.

Words, which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group, constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages. They appeared in PG or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically, they also belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home, life, etc. Like IE layer the specifically Germanic layer includes not only roots but also affixes and word-building patterns.

Here are some examples whose roots have not been found outside the group, and some word-building patterns which arose in Late PG.

Old Germanic Languages			Modern Germanic Languages		
Gt	OHG	OE	Sw	G	NE
hus	hus	hus	hus	haus	house
drinkan	trinkan	drincan	drincka	trinken	drink

These are instances of transition from compound words into derived words; they show the development of new suffixes – from root morphemes – at the time when many old derivational stem-suffixes had lost their productivity and ceased to be distinguished of the word structure. The new suffixes made up for the loss of stem-suffixes.

In addition to native words the OG languages share some borrowings. The earliest are to be found in most languages of the group. Probably they were made at the time when the Germanic tribes lived closer together as a single speech community that is in late PG. It is known that the name of the metal **i r o n** was borrowed from the Celtic languages in late PG. Cf. Celt. *isarno*, Gt *eisarn*, OIcel. *sarn*, OE *isen*, *iren* (The Teutons may have learned the processing of iron from the Celts.)

A large number of words must have been borrowed from Latin prior to the migration of West-Germanic tribes to Britain. These words reflect the contacts of the

Germanic tribes with Rome and the influence of the Roman civilization on their life;
they mostly refer to trade and warfare:

L. pondo, Gt. pund, OE pund, NE pound

L. prunus, OE plume, NE plum

L. strata via, OHG strâza, OE stræt, NE street.

LECTURE III

CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISION IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF OLD ENGLISH

OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET

OUTLINE

1. Chronological division of the history of English
2. Historical background of Old English
 - a. The Roman conquest
 - b. The Anglo-Saxon conquest
3. Old English dialects
 - a. Kentish dialect
 - b. West Saxon dialect
 - c. Mercian dialect
 - d. Northumbrian dialect
4. Old English written records
5. Old English alphabet and pronunciation

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6. Аракин В.Д., *История английского языка*, М., 1985, стр.19-20, 26-30.

LISTENING

Lecture VI: *The Beginnings of English*, Seth Lerer Ph. D., Stanford University,
USA, 1998

The Birth of a Language, Backgrounds of Old English

CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISION IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

The historical development of a language is a continuous uninterrupted process without sudden breaks or rapid transformations. Therefore any periodisation imposed on language history by linguists, with precise dates, might appear artificial, if not arbitrary. Yet in all language histories divisions into periods and cross-sections of a certain length are used for teaching and research purposes. The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME) and New English (NE) with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language.

OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) or with the beginning of writing (7th c.) and ends with the Norman Conquest (1066); ME begins with the Norman Conquest and ends on the introduction of printing (1475), which is the start of New or Modern English period; the Modern period lasts to the present day.

If we deal with the language we must find linguistic criteria. The first criterion is the social, cultural, economic levels of the society which uses the language.

English has a very lengthy history.

The second criterion must probably be the state of the phonetic system existing during this or that period.

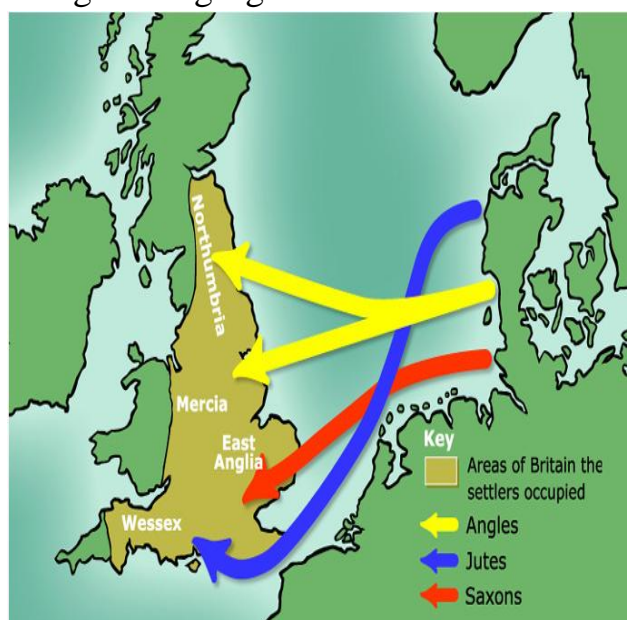
The third criterion is the grammatical categories that existed during these periods.

The fourth criterion is the composition of the word stock, the system of word-formation, the amount of the original word-stock and the weight of the borrowed words.

We shall regard all these three periods in the History of English (OE - ME - NE) through these four mentioned above criteria.

The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845-1912), author of a number of works on the English language and on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English according to the state of unstressed endings:

1st period, Old English (OE) - the period of *full endings*. This means that any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending. For example, the word **sin3an** (**sing**) has the vowel **a**, in its unstressed ending, while the word **sunu** (**son**) has the



<http://troedyrhiw-greenmeadow.blogspot.com/feeds/posts/default?orderby=updated>

vowel u in a similar position.

2nd period, Middle English (ME) - the period of *levelled endings*. This means that vowels of unstressed endings have been levelled under a neutral vowel (something like [ə]), represented by the letter e. Thus, Old English sinzan yields Middle English singen, Old English sunu yields Middle English sune. (also spelled son).

3rd period, New English (NE) - the period of *lost endings*. This means that the ending is lost altogether. Thus Middle English singen became New English sing. Middle English son became Modern English son.

This division is based on a feature both phonetic (weakening and loss of unstressed vowel sounds) and morphological (weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes).

It has been noticed that although language history is a slow uninterrupted chain of events, the changes are not evenly distributed in time: periods of intensive and vast changes at one or many levels may be followed by periods of relative stability. It seems quite probable that the differences in the rate of changes are largely conditioned by the linguistic situation, which also accounts for many other features of language evolution. Therefore the division into chronological periods should take into account both aspects: external and internal (extra- and intralinguistic). The History of English may be subdivided into seven periods differing in linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes (Rastorgueva T., pp. 49-55).

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF OLD ENGLISH*

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Beowulf

—Thus these warriors lived in joy, blessed, until one began to do evil deeds, a hellish enemy. The grim spirit was called Grendel known as a rover of the borders, one who held the moors, fen and Lusuress.

Excerpt from *Beowulf*

This excerpt from the **8th-century Anglo-Saxon** epic poem *Beowulf* introduces the poem's antagonist, **Grendel**. **Half** human and half monster, **Grendel** is described as a descendant of Cain. This biblical description reflects the assimilation of Christian themes in this work of pagan origin. *Beowulf*, the poem's hero, ultimately slays Grendel and Grendel's mother after a series of deadly forays by the two against the court of the Danish king Hrothgar. This excerpt is recited by an actor.

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The English language originated from Anglo-Frisian dialects, which made part of the West Germanic language group. The Germanic tribes which conquered Britain in the 5th c. belonged, as ancient historians say, to three tribes, the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes. These tribes occupied the following territories on the continent: the Angles lived in southern Sleswick, North of the Schlei River; the Saxons lived south of the Angles, in modern Holstein; the Jutes lived north of the Angles, in northern Sleswick, which is now part of Denmark. Closely connected

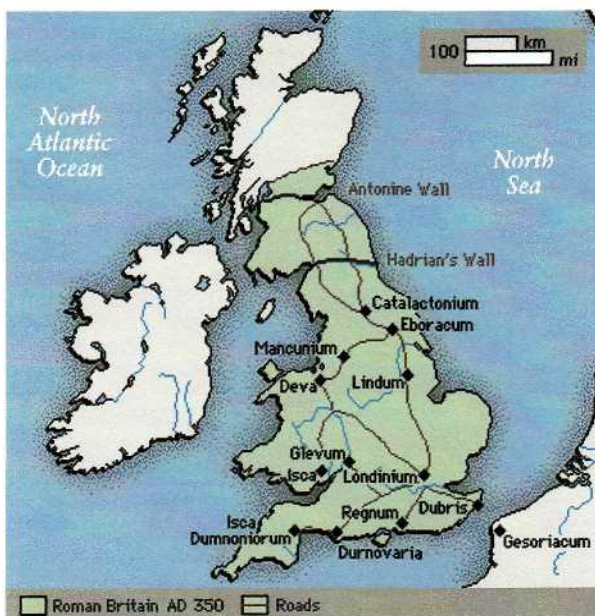
with these tribes were the Frisians, who occupied the coast of the German ocean between the Rhine and the Ems (now part of the Netherlands), and the Hauks, who lived between the Ems and the Elbe. About the 4th c. A.D. these tribes spread westwards; the Saxons appeared on the northern coast of Gaul (modern France), and some of their troops even penetrated as far as the mouth of the Loire, on the Atlantic coast.

The earliest mention of the British Isles is in the 4th c. B.C., when the Greek explorer Pytheas of Massilia (now Marseilles), sailing round Europe, landed in Kent.

At this time Britain was inhabited by Celtic tribes (Britons and Gaels), who spoke various Celtic languages.

Celtic languages are divided into two main groups: the Gallo-Breton and the Gaelic. The Gallo-Breton group comprises (1) Gallic, which was spoken in Gaul (modern France) and (2) British, represented by Welsh (or Cymry) in Wales, Cornish in Cornwall (became extinct in the 18th c.), and Breton in Brittany. The Gaelic group comprises (1) Irish, (2) Scots, so-called Erse, (3) Manx, on the Isle of Man, between Scotland and Ireland.

The Roman Conquest



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Roman Britain

Julius Caesar invaded Britain in 55 BC to conquer the native peoples, called Britons. These tribes resisted subjugation for several decades, and annihilated a Roman garrison, at what is now York, in the 2nd century AD. Roman Emperor Hadrian began building a wall to keep the warlike northern people out of Roman territory. Ruins of the wall, called Hadrian's Wall, still exist. The Antonine Wall was constructed farther north 20 years later.

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In 55 B.C. the Romans under Julius Caesar first landed in Britain. This first appearance of the Romans had no further consequences: after a brief stay the Romans went back to Gaul. In the year 54 Caesar landed in Britain for a second time, he routed the Britons and advanced as far as the Thames. But this stay was also a short one.



Culver Pictures

Gaius Julius Caesar

Gaius Julius Caesar helped to build the foundation for the vast empire ruled by Rome. Caesar's triumph in a civil war against his political rivals made him the absolute ruler of Rome, but former supporters and other members of the Senate soon grew jealous of his power and assassinated him in 44 BC. His designated successor, Octavian, later known as Augustus, became Rome's first emperor.

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Permanent conquest of Britain began in 43 A.D., under the emperor Claudius. The Romans subdued the Britons, and colonized the country, establishing a great number of military camps, which eventually developed into English cities. About 80 A.D., under the emperor Domitian, the Romans reached the river Glotta (the Clyde) and the river Bodotria (the Forth). Thus, they occupied a territory including the modern cities of Edinburgh and Glasgow.

In this period Britain became a Roman province. This colonization had a profound effect on the country (though not as profound as in Gaul). Roman civilization - paved roads, powerful walls of military camps - completely transformed the aspect of the country. The Latin language superseded the Celtic dialects in townships and probably also spread over the country-side. In the 4th c., when Christianity was introduced in the Roman Empire, it also spread among Britons.

The Romans ruled Britain for almost four hundred years, up to the early 5th c. In 410 Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend Italy from the advancing Goths (in this very year the city of Rome was captured by the Goths under King Alaric); so the Britons had to rely on their own forces in the coming struggle with Germanic tribes.



ERL/Sipa Press/Woodfin Camp and Associates, Inc.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle

Considered the primary source for English history between the 10th and 12th centuries, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* also contains earlier examples of prose. This page depicts Charlemagne, king of the Franks in the late 8th century, killing the heathen Saxons.

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The Anglo-Saxon Conquest. It was about mid-5th c. that Britain was conquered by Germanic tribes. An old saying names the year 449 as the year of the conquest, and Hengest and Horsa as the two leaders of the invaders.

The Britons fought against the conquerors for about a century and a half - till about the year 600. It is to this epoch that the legendary figure of the British king

Arthur belongs.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way. The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth; the Saxons, the territory south of the Thames and some stretches north of it; the Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight.

Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken, and in its further development it went its own ways. It is at this time, the 5th c. that the history of the English language begins.

Its original territory was England (in the strict sense) except Cornwall, Wales and Strathclyde (a region in the north-west). These western regions the Britons succeeded in holding, and they were conquered much later: Cornwall in the 9th, Strathclyde in the 11th, and Wales in the 13th c.

The Scottish Highlands, where neither Romans nor Teutons had penetrated, were inhabited by Picts and Scots. The Scots language, belonging to the Celtic group, has survived in the Highlands up to our own days.

Ireland also remained Celtic: the first attempts at conquering it were made in the 12th c.

OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS



Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language",
Oxford University Press, 2009, p.8

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th and 6th c. spoke closely related tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup. Their common origin and their separation from other related tongues as well as their joint evolution in Britain transformed them eventually into a single tongue, English. Yet, at the early stages of their development in Britain the dialects remained disunited. On the one hand, the OE dialects acquired certain common features which distinguished them from continental Germanic tongues; on the other hand, they displayed growing regional divergence. The feudal system was setting in and the dialects were entering a new phase; tribal dialectal division was superseded by geographical division, in other words, tribal dialects

were transformed into local or regional dialects.

The following four principal OE dialects are commonly distinguished:

Kentish, a dialect spoken in the area known now as Kent and Surrey and in the

Isle of Wight. It had developed from the tongue of the Jutes and Frisians.

West Saxon, the main dialect of the Saxon group, spoken in the rest of England south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel, except Wales and Cornwall, where Celtic tongues were preserved. Other Saxon dialects in England have not survived in written form and are not known to modern scholars.

Mercian, a dialect derived from the speech of southern Angles and spoken chiefly in the kingdom of Mercia, that is, in the central region, from the Thames to the Humber.

Northumbrian, another Anglian dialect, spoken from the Humber north to the river Forth (hence the name – North-Humbrian).

The distinction between Mercian and Northumbrian as local OE dialects testifies to the new foundations of the dialectal division: regional in place of tribal, since according to the tribal division they represent one dialect, Anglian.

The boundaries between the dialects were uncertain and probably movable. The dialects passed into one another imperceptibly and dialectal forms were freely borrowed from one dialect into another; however information is scarce and mainly pertains to the later part of the OE period. Throughout this period the dialects enjoyed relative equality; none of them was the dominant form of speech, each being the main type used over a limited area.

As mentioned above, by the 8th c. the centre of English culture had shifted to Northumbria, which must have brought the Northumbrian dialect to the fore; yet, most of the writing at that time was done in Latin or, perhaps, many OE texts have perished. In the 9th c. the political and cultural centre moved to Wessex. Culture and education made great progress there; it is no wonder that the West Saxon dialect has been preserved in a great number of texts. Towards the 11th c. the written form of the West Saxon dialect developed into a bookish type of language, which, probably, served as the language of writing for all English-speaking people.

It follows from the above description that the changes in the linguistic situation justify the distinction of the two historical periods. In Early OE from the 5th to the 7th c. the would-be English language consisted of a group of spoken tribal dialects having neither a written nor a dominant form. At the time of written OE the dialects had changed from tribal to regional; they possessed both an oral and a written form and were no longer equal; in the domain of writing the West Saxon dialect prevailed over its neighbours. (Alongside OE dialects a foreign language, Latin, was widely used in writing.)

OLD ENGLISH WRITTEN RECORDS*

Reading materials:

Runic inscriptions: *Franks Casket* and *Ruthwell Cross*;
Rastorgueva T.A. *History of English*, pp. 63-71.

OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET AND PRONUNCIATION

OE scribes used two kinds of letters: the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet. The runic alphabet was described. The bulk of the OE material - OE manuscripts - is written in the Latin script. The use of Latin letters in English differed in some points from their use in Latin, for the scribes made certain modifications and additions in order to indicate OE sounds.

Depending on the size and shape of the letters modern philologists distinguish between several scripts which superseded one another during the Middle Ages. Throughout the Roman period and in the Early Middle Ages capitals and uncial letters were used reaching almost an inch in height, so that only a few letters could find place on a large page; in the 5th-7th c. the uncial became smaller and the cursive script began to replace it in everyday life, while in book-making a still smaller script, minuscule, was employed. The variety used in Britain is known as the Irish, or insular, minuscule. Out of the altered shapes of letters used in this script - **b**, **f**, **g**, and others - only a peculiar shape of **g**, **Ʒ** is preserved in modern publications. In the OE variety of the Latin alphabet **i** and **j** were not distinguished; nor were **u** and **v**; the letters **k**, **q**, **x**, **w**, were not used until many years later. A new letter was devised by putting a stroke through **d** - **ð** or **ǰ**, also the capital letter – **Ð** to indicate the voiceless and the voiced interdental [θ] and [ð]. The letter **a** was used either alone or as part of a ligature made up of **a** and **e** - **æ**; likewise in the earlier OE texts we find the ligature **œ** (**o** plus **e**), which was later replaced by **e**.

The most interesting peculiarity of OE writing was the use of some runic characters, in the first place, the rune called "thorn" **þ** - **Þ** which was employed alongside the crossed **d**, **ǰ** to indicate [θ] and [ð] – it is usually preserved in modern publications as a distinctive feature of the OE script. In the manuscripts one more rune was regularly used – **ƿ** "wynn" for the sound [w]. In modern publications it is replaced **w**. Some runes were occasionally used not as letters but as symbols for the words which were their names: e.g. for OE **dæƷ**, for OE **mann** (NE **day**, **man**).

Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. This principle, however, was not always observed, even at the earliest stages of phonetic spelling. Some OE letters indicated two or more sounds, even distinct phonemes, e.g. **Ʒ** stood for four different

phonemes; some letters, indicating distinct sounds stood for positional variants of phonemes – **a** and **æ**. A careful study of the OE sound system has revealed that a set of letters, **s**, **f**, and **ƿ** (also shown as **ð** stood for two sounds each: a voiced and voiceless consonant. And yet, on the whole, OE spelling was far more phonetic and consistent than MdE spelling.

The letters of the OE alphabet below are supplied with transcription symbols, if their sound values in OE differ from the sound values normally attached to them in Latin and other languages.

OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET

a	n [n], [ŋ]
æ	o
b	p
c [k] or [kʰ]	r
d	s [s] or [z]
e	t
f [f] or [v]	ƿ, ð [θ] or [ð]
Ʒ [g], [gʰ], [ɣ] or [j]	u
h [x], [xʰ] or [h]	w
i	x
l	y [†]
m	

The letters could indicate short and long sounds. The length of vowels is shown by a macron: *bat* [*b a: t*], NE *boat* or by a line above the letter, as in the examples below; long consonants are indicated by double letters. (The differences between long and short sounds are important for the correct understanding of the OE sound system and sound changes, but need not be observed in reading.)

In reading OE texts one should observe the following rules for letters indicating more than one sound.

The letters **f**, **s** and **ƿ**, **ð** stand for voiced fricatives between vowels and also between a vowel and a voiced consonant; otherwise they indicate corresponding voiceless fricatives:

f	OE ofēr [‘o v e r]	NE over	OE feohtan [‘f e o x t a n]	NE fight
	sefla [‘s e l v a]	self	oft [o f t]	often
s	rīsan [‘r i: z a n]	rise	rās [r a: s]	rose
ghost			3āst [g a: s t]	
ƿ, ð	ōðer [‘o ð e r]	other	ðæt [θ æ t]	that
	wyrðe [‘w y r ð e]	worthy	lēoƿ [l e o: θ]	song

[†] A front labialized vowel like the vowel in Fr. *plume* or Germ. *Bücher*.

The letter **ȝ** stands for **g** initially before back vowels, for **j** before and after front vowels, for **ɣ** between back vowels and for **g** mostly when preceded by **c**:

OE *ȝān* [g], *ȝēar* [j], *dæȝ* [j], *daȝas* [ɣ], *secȝan* [gʰ] (NE go, year, day, days, say).

The letter **h** stands for **x** between a back vowel and a consonant and also initially before consonants and for **x'** next to front vowels; the distribution of **h** is uncertain:

OE *hlæne* [x], *tāhte* [x], *niht* [xʰ], *hē* [x] or *h* (NE lean, taught, night, he).

The letter **n** stands for **n** in all positions except when followed by **k** or **g**; in this case it indicates [ŋ]: OE *sinȝan* (NE sing).[‡]

LECTURE IV

* An illustration of some passages in OE alphabet including the translation into MdE is given in the supplement: Rastargueva T.A., pp. 74, §113; Thomas Pyles pp. 130-131

OLD ENGLISH PHONETIC SYSTEM

OUTLINE


1. Word Stress
2. Old English Vowel System
 - Classification
 - Breaking (Fracture) of Vowels
 - Palatalization
 - Mutation (Umlaut)
 - a. Front Mutation
 - b. Back Mutation
 - c. Mutation before **h**
 - Lengthening of Vowels before: **ld**, **mb**, **nd**
 - Contraction of Diphthongs
3. Old English Consonant System
 - Classification
 - Voicing and Devoicing of Fricatives
 - Loss of Consonants and Lengthening of Vowels
 - Metathesis
 - West Germanic Germination of Consonants
 - Positional Variants of [c] and [ʒ]
 - Palatalization

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LISTENING

The Birth of a Language, Old English

 is so far removed from MdE that one may take it for an entirely different language; this is largely to the peculiarities of its pronunciation.

The survey of OE phonetics deals with word accentuation, the systems of vowels and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the PG system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE. The diachronic description of phonetics in those early periods will show the specifically English tendencies of development and the immediate sources of the sounds in the age of writing.

WORD STRESS

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE.

In OE a syllable was made prominent by an increase in the force of articulation; in other words, a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable. Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either. Cf. the forms of the Dat. case of the nouns *hlāforde* [‘x l a: v o r d e], *cynin3e* [‘k y n I ŋ g e] and the Nom. Case of the same nouns: *hlāford* [‘x l a: v o r d], *cynin3* [‘k y n I ŋ g]. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, e.g. the compound noun received the chief stress upon its first component and the secondary stress on the second component; the grammatical ending –a (Gen.pl.) was unaccented. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix. Cf.:

ā-‘risan, mis-‘faran - v. (NE arise, ‘go astray’);
 tō-weard, ‘or-eald - adj. (NE toward, ‘very old’);
 ‘mis-dæd, ‘uð- 3en3 - n. (NE misdeed, ‘escape’).

If the words were derived from the same root, word stress, together with other means, served to distinguish the noun from the verb, cf.:

‘and-swaru n. - and-‘swarian v. (NE answer, answer)
 ‘on-3in n. - on-‘3innan v. (NE beginning, begin)
 ‘forwyrd n. - for-‘weorþan v. (‘destruction’, ‘perish’)

OLD ENGLISH VOWEL SYSTEM

All OE vowels, including diphthongs, can be either short or long:

Monophthongs: short: **a, æ, e, i, o, u, y** [j u:], **ǣ**

long: **ā, æ, ē, ī, ō, ū, y**

Diphthongs: short: **ea, eo, ie, io, ei**

long: **ea, eo, ie, io**

Vowel phonemes were contrasted through quantity and were distinguished through qualitative changes as: monophthongs and diphthongs, open and close, front

and back, etc.

Practically every long vowel had a corresponding short vowel; length must be considered a phonological criterion.

ǣ - this is a symbol denoting an open and nasalized **o**. Before nasal sonorants **m, n** the sound **ǣ** was pronounced [ɔ̃]. In spelling it was represented either by **a** or by **o**.

e.g. **mǣnn** - **mōnn**

The diphthongs were not stable. They often alternated with monophthongs: hie – hi – hy.

Changes of Stressed Vowels in Early Old English

Sound changes, particularly vowel changes, took place in English at every period of history.

The development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels.

It should be borne in mind that the mechanism of all phonetic changes strictly conforms to the general pattern. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones: after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place. It may result in the splitting of phonemes and their numerical growth, which fills in the *empty boxes* of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the merging of old phonemes, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together. Most frequently the change will involve both types of replacement, splitting and merging, so that we have to deal both with the rise of new phonemes and with the redistribution of new allophones among the existing phonemes.

Old English Breaking (Fracture of Vowels)

It is dated in pre-written OE, for in the texts we find the process already completed. It took place in the 5th c. Some OE vowels changed their quality due to the influence of succeeding or preceding consonants.

It was a kind of diphthongization of vowels before some groups of consonants.

When a vowel stood after a palatal consonant or when a front vowel stood before a velar consonant there developed short glides between them, as the organs of speech gradually prepares themselves for the transition from the first sound to the second. So, the glides together with their original vowels formed diphthongs. It chiefly took place in Wessex dialect.

1. **æ – ea** before: **r + cons.**

l+cons.

		h+cons.	
		final h	
e.g.	Teut.	OE	
	*salt	sælt	sealt
	*warm	wærm	wearm
	*nah	næh	neah (near)
	*sah	sæh	seah (saw)

2. **e – eo** before: **r+cons.**

lc+cons.

lh+cons.

h+cons.

final **h**

e.g.	*melcan	-	meolcan (milk)
	*feh	-	feoh
	*selh	-	seolh

Palatalization

OE vowels also change under the influence of the initial palatal consonants **ʃ**, **c** and the cluster **sc**. **ʃ** and **c** influence only front vowels, while **sc** influences all vowels. As a result of Palatalization the vowel is diphthongized.

e – ie : ʃefan – ʃiefan (give)

æ – ea : ʃæf – ʃeaf (gave); cæster – ceaster (camp)

æ – ea : ʃæfon – ʃeafon (pl. gave)

a – ea : scacan – sceacan (shake)

o – eo : scort – sceort (short)

Mutation (Umlaut)

Mutation is a kind of regressive assimilation where the root-vowel is assimilated to a vowel in the final syllable.

In Teutonic languages it took place in the 5th and 7th c. There are two types of mutation: front (or palatal) and back (or velar).

Front Mutation

A back or an unback vowel became more front under the influence of the elements **i** or **j** in the suffix.

Due to the reduction of the final syllables the conditions that caused front mutation (**i, j**) disappeared.

a – e :	manni	-	menn (men)
	sandian	-	sendan (send)

æ – e :	tælian	-	tellan (tell)
ā – æ :	lārian	-	læran (learn)
u – y :	fullian	-	fyllan (fill)
ū – y :	cūðian	-	cyðan (announce)
o – e :	*ofstian	-	efstan (hurry)
ō – ē :	*dōmian	-	dēman (judge)

Diphthongs also underwent mutation:

ea	}	ie :	*hleahian	-	hliehan (laugh)
eo			*afeorran	-	afierran (remove)

ea	}	ie :	*hearian	-	hieran (hear)
eo			*3etreowi	-	3etriewe (true)

Back Mutation

A different kind of mutation was caused by a back vowel (**u, o, a**) of the following syllable. The essence of back mutation is this: the articulation of the back vowel is anticipated in the preceding front vowel, which accordingly develops into a diphthong. Back mutation did not spread equally to all OE dialects. And it only occurs before: **r, l, p, b, f, m**. (West Saxon dialect)

e.g. i – io	:	silufr	-	siolufr (silver)
e – eo	:	herot	-	heorot (heart)
a – ea	:	saru	-	searu (armour)

Mutation before "h"

Besides the types of mutation considered so far, one more type is found in OE, whose phonetic essence remains somewhat obscure.

An example of this is to be seen in the word meaning *night*. It occurs in OE texts in the following variants: *neaht, nieht, niht, nyht*. Of the four variants the first is obviously a result of fracture from **næht*. The origin of the second variant, *nieht*, is what we have to discuss. We can assume either of the two following alternatives: the change was due to an **i**, which may have been a case ending in the original type of declension to which the word belonged.

A similar state of things is found in the past tense of the verb *mæ3* may be *meahte, mihte, myhte*, and in a few other words.

Lengthening of the Vowels before *ld, mb, nd*

It took place in the 9th c. Vowels were lengthened before the clusters **ld, mb,**

nd.

e.g. bindan - bīndan (bind)
climban - clīmban (climb)
cild - cīld (child)

But if, however, **ld**, **mb**, **nd** were followed by the third consonant there was no lengthening of the preceding vowel.

e.g. cīldru - cīldru (children) - but: cīld

Contraction of Diphthongs

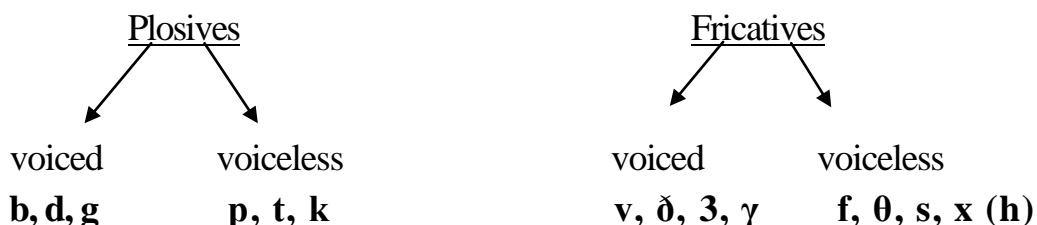
In OE the fricative **h** fell out between two vowels and these vowels were contracted into a monophthong or into a long vowel.

	Fract.		Contr.		
e.g.	se <u>h</u> an	-	se <u>o</u> han	-	s <u>ē</u> on (see)
	sl <u>ah</u> an	-	sl <u>e</u> ahan	-	sl <u>ea</u> n (kill)
	ti <u>h</u> an	-	t <u>ē</u> on		

OLD ENGLISH CONSONANT SYSTEM

On the whole, consonants were historically more stable than vowels, though certain changes took place in all historical periods. It may seem that being a typical OG language OE ought to contain all the consonants that arose in PG under Grimm's and Verner's Law. Yet it appears that very few noisy consonants in OE correspond to the same sounds in PG, for in the intervening period most consonants underwent diverse changes: qualitative and quantitative, independent and positional.

All the consonants fell into noise and sonorant. The noise consonants were subdivided into:



The sonorants were: **m, w, n, r, l, j** and the nasal: **ʒ**. There were no sounds [tʃ], [tʃ], [dʒ]. They did not exist. This is the classification of the consonants according to their manner of articulation (consonants are also classified according to their place of articulation). The most universal distinctive feature in the consonant system was the difference in length. During the entire OE period long consonants are believed to have been opposed to short ones on a phonemic level: (k - k:; d - d:) they were mostly distinguished in intervocalic position. Long con-

sonants are also called germinated.

OE consonants underwent a number of changes. The most of them are as follows:

Voicing and Devoicing of Fricatives

Voicing. The voiceless fricatives **f, θ, s** became voiced fricatives **v, ð, z** between voiced sounds, though the letters **f, Þ, s** were retained in writing:

ofer - [o v e r]

risan - [r I z a n]

broÞor - [b r o ð o r]

Devoicing. The voiced **v, g** became voiceless **f, x (h)** finally and before voiceless sounds:

Cf. wifes - [w I v e s] (wife's)

wif - [w I f] (wife)

Loss of Consonants and Lengthening of Vowels

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

In OE **n** fell out before the fricatives **h, f, Þ, s** and the preceding vowel was lengthened.

e.g. OHG		Goth.
finf	-	fīf (five)
uns	-	ūs (us)

2. OE **g** fell out before **d, n** the preceding vowel was lengthened.

e.g. sæ3de	-	sæde (said)
mæ3den	-	mæden (make)

Metathesis

This is a phonetic change which consists in two sounds exchanging their place. Usually it affects the consonant **r** and a vowel:

e.g. Þridda	-	Þirda (third)
rinnan	-	irnan, iernan (run)

The process seems to have developed in this way: first the vowel disappears, so that **r** becomes syllabic: *Þrda, *rnan, etc., then the vowel reappears on the other side of **r**. Occasionally metathesis affects other sounds as well, for example:

āscian	-	āxian (ask)
wascan	-	waxan (wash)

But the mechanism of the change in these cases remains obscure:

sc – cs (x)

West Germanic Germination of Consonants

In early OE as well as in other dialects of West Germanic subgroup all the consonants except **r** could be lengthened before **j**. The process is known as germination of consonants, or doubling of consonants as it is shown in spelling by means of double letters.

Germination of consonants before **j** occurred after a short syllable. In the process or later **j** was lost, but before disappearing **j** had caused the lengthening of the root vowel:

e.g.	*fuljan	-	fullan
	sætjan	-	settan (connected with front mutation)
But:	*kopjan	-	cepan
	domain	-	deman

Positional Variants of [c] and [ʒ]

- c – [k] ‘curon
- [kʰ] ceas (soft **k** - as palatalized)
- ʒ – [g] ʒleo, ʒōd, sinʒan
- [ɣ] daʒas
- [j] ʒiefan

It was pronounced [g] at the beginning of the words before consonants; before back vowels after **n**.

[ɣ] – after back vowels after **r** and **l**

[j] – before and after front vowels

Palatalization

In OE the consonant **c** [k] before a front vowel became palatalized and approached the sound [tʃ]:

e.g. cʰild [k I l d] - cʰild [tʃ I l d] (child)

Similarly the combination **sc** [sk] became palatalized in all positions and approached the sound [ʃ]

e.g. scʰip [s k I p] - scʰip [ʃ I p] (ship)
fisc [f I s k] - fisc [f I ʃ] (fish)

The palatalization also affected [cg] before a front vowel or when final, where it developed into the affricate [dʒ]:

e.g. brycʒ [brüdʒ] (bridge)

It should be mentioned that the new spelling in all these cases was not introduced until the ME period.

LECTURE V

MIDDLE ENGLISH HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

**MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS
WRITTEN RECORDS
MAIN LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES**

OUTLINE

1. Historical Background of Middle English
 - a. The Scandinavian Conquest
 - b. The Norman Conquest
 - c. Rise of the London Dialect
2. Middle English Dialects and Written Records
 - a. Southern Dialects
 - b. Midland Dialects
 - c. Northern Dialects
 - d. Scotland
3. Types of Middle English Literary Documents
4. Main Linguistic Peculiarities in Middle English

SUGGESTED READINGS

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5. Poruciuc Adrian, *Limba si Istoria Engleza intre William Cuceritorul si William Caxton*, Iasi, 1999, pp. 19-45

LISTENING

Lecture IX: *Conquering Language: What Did the Normans Do to English?*

Lecture XI: *Dialect Sokes and Literary Representation in Middle English.*

Seth Lerer, Ph. D., Stanford University, USA, 1998

The Birth of a Language, Middle English

The period extending from the beginning of the 12th c. to the end of the 15th c. is known as the Middle English period in the development of the English language and the language of the epoch is frequently referred to as Middle English (ME).

Among the historical events that influenced the development of ME the Scandinavian invasion and the Norman Conquest are the most important.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF MIDDLE ENGLISH⁴

THE SCANDINAVIAN CONQUEST

The Scandinavian Conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Scandinavian invasions into England had begun as early as the 8th c. The Anglo-Saxons offered the invaders a stubborn resistance, which is seen in the narrations of the *CHRONICLE*. A page from *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*

In the late 9th c., the Scandinavians had occupied the whole of English territory north of the Thames. In 878, King Alfred made peace with the invaders (the so-called Wedmore peace). The territory occupied by the Scandinavians was to remain in their power; it was henceforward called Danelaw (literally *Danish law*). The Scandinavians, in their turn, recognized the nominal supremacy of the king of England.



Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language", Oxford University Press, 2009, p.16

Scandinavians most thickly settled the northern and eastern parts of England; there were fewer of them in the central territories. About this very time, the Scandinavians invaded Ireland and occupied some of its coastal regions.

In the late 10th c., war in England was resumed, and in 1013, the whole country fell to the invaders. King Ethelred fled to Normandy. In 1016, the Danish king Knut (or Canute) became ruler of England. England became part of a vast Scandinavian empire in Northern Europe. Scandinavian power in England lasted until 1042, when it was overthrown, and the power of Old English nobility was restored under King Edward the Confessor.

The Scandinavian Conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English language. The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structure was similar to that of Old English. They had the same morphological categories; strong and weak

⁴ Independent Study

declension of substantives, the strong substantives filling into several types, according to the stem vowel; strong and weak declension of adjectives; seven classes of strong and three classes of weak verbs.

Close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible. On the other hand, mass settlement off Scandinavians in Northern and Eastern England gave their language a great influence in these regions. The relation between the two languages corresponded to that between Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians: they were spoken by the same social layers and had equal rights. The result was a blending of Scandinavian and English dialects, this process being especially intensive in the North and East.

Influence of Scandinavian dialects made itself felt in two spheres: vocabulary and morphology.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST



Hulton Deutsch

William I of England

William I, known as William the Conqueror, was king of England from 1066 to 1087. As king, William reorganized the feudal system, making all landholders swear greater loyalty to him rather than to their separate lords. William also ordered an exhaustive survey of the landed wealth in his realm. The written results, known as the Domesday Book, helped determine the revenues owed him by his subjects. **Microsoft © Encarta © Encyclopedia 2002.** © 1993-2001 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

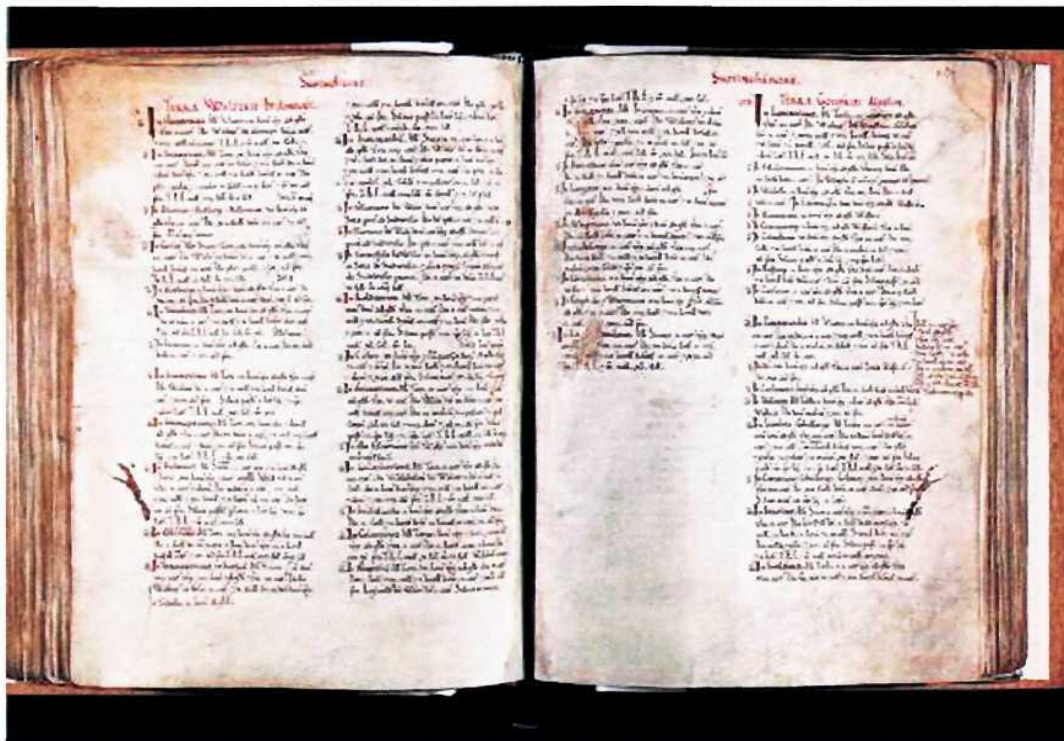
The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved a turning point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe. In the 9th c., they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on both sides of the Seine estuary. Under a treaty concluded in 912 with the Norman chief Rollo, the French king Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans this stretch of the coast, which since then came to be called Normandy. During the century and a half between the Normans' settlement in France and their invasion of England, they had undergone a powerful influence of French culture. Mixing with the local population, they adopted the French language and in the mid-eleventh century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language.



The Bayeux Tapestry, showing the Battle of Hastings

Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language", Oxford University Press, 2009, p.15

In 1066 king Edward the Confessor died. William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, assembled an army with the help of Norman barons, landed in England, and routed the English troops under King Harold near Hastings on October 14, 1066. In the course of a few years, putting down revolts in various parts of the country, the Normans became masters of England. The ruling class of Anglo-Saxons nobility vanished almost completely: some of them perished in battles and uprisings, others were executed, and the remainder emigrated. Norman barons, who spoke French, namely, its Norman dialect, replaced this nobility. Thus, because of the conquest England came to be ruled by a foreign ruling class.



Public Record Office, Surrey, England

Domesday Book

Compiled in 1086 under the direction of William the Conqueror, the Domesday Book was a meticulous survey of feudal estates in England.

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William confiscated the estates of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. All posts in the church, from abbots upwards,

were given to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. Among them were merchants, soldiers, teachers, seeking for a new field of activity. During the reign of William the Conqueror (1066-1087) about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England. This influx lasted for about two centuries. The civil war in the reign of King Stephen (1135-1154) and the anarchy caused by it favoured the influx of Norman barons, who seized English estates. When King John Lackland lost his possessions in Normandy (1203), a great number of Normans who did not care to stay in their country under the new conditions started arriving in England.

During several centuries, the ruling language in England was French. It was the language of the court, the government, the courts of law, and the church; the English language was reduced to a lower social sphere: the main mass of peasantry and townspeople. The relation between French and English was, thus, different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the dominating position of the West Saxon literary language. In the 12th and 13th centuries, all English dialects were on an equal footing and independent of each other. In some of them, especially in the north, Scandinavian influence on the vocabulary became more pronounced.

Under such circumstances, with two languages spoken in the country, they were bound to struggle with each other, and to influence each other. This process lasted for three centuries - the 12th, 13th, and 14th. The results were twofold: (1) the struggle for supremacy between French and English ended in favour of English but (2); the English language emerged from this struggle in a considerably changed condition: its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words, while its grammatical structure underwent material changes.

STRUGGLE BETWEEN ENGLISH AND FRENCH

After the Norman conquest of 1066 the situation in England, as far as language is concerned, was as follows:

(1) The country is divided into two layers: the feudal upper class, the government, the court speak Anglo-Norman, while the main balks of the population - the peasantry and the townspeople - stick to English.

(2) None of the territorial dialects enjoys any privilege as compared with the others.

(3) There is a considerable layer of bilingual population, speaking both languages.

Such a state of things was bound to result in conflicts, whose outcome depended on the relative power of the various social layers in medieval England. Struggle between the two languages for supremacy lasted all through three centuries; towards the end of this period a path for the formation of an English national language began to emerge. The situation was still more complicated by

the fact that alongside the two languages a third language existed, namely Latin as an international language of the church and medieval church science (within the boundaries of Western Europe).

In the latter half of the 14th c. victory of English became evident: French lost one position after another. Only in the 15th c. did it finally disappear from English social life.

In the struggle between the two languages, there are some important dates, marking its successive stages.

The first English kings after the conquest did not know the English language. Henry IV (1399-1413) was the first king whose mother tongue was English. After the conquest Anglo-Saxon, laws were translated into Latin, then into French. French was also the language teachers used in schools. Official and private letters, agreements and other documents were written in Latin in the first centuries after the conquest. In the 13th c., letters written in French appeared; isolated letters in French are found as late as 1440. Courts of law also used French in their procedures; parliamentary business was conducted in French. A symptom of the rise of English came in 1258, when Henry III addressed the population of the country in a Proclamation written in English (the London dialect).

In mid-14th c. the influence of English rose. In 1362 (under king Edward III) Parliament, acting on a petition of the city of London, ruled that courts of law should conduct their business in English, as *French was too little known*, in the same year English was first used in Parliament itself. About this very time, English as the language in which teaching was conducted in schools replaced French. Thus, by the end of the 14th c. supremacy of Anglo-Norman came to an end, though some scattered remains of it stayed on till a much later time, and isolated French formulas have survived until the present, such as the motto on the British coat-of-arms: *Dieu et mon droit (God and my right)*.

The victory of English was due to the rise of social layers that spoke it – the gentry and the town bourgeoisie, which took the upper hand in the struggle against the feudal top layer of society.

RISE OF THE LONDON DIALECT

Hand in hand with this process there developed another, viz., the rise of a national language based on the London dialect. Its cause was the great shifts in social structure characterizing the English of the 14th c.

It was the time when new elements made themselves felt inside the feudal society – the town merchants, bearers of the new social structure, which was to replace feudalism. Growth of commerce and industry, development of money circulation – these were the manifestations of social changes. They marked the end of feudal scattered economy and formation of wider economic ties between various

parts of the country.

These economic and political acts exercised a decisive influence on the language situation in England. Under the new social structure, which was asserting itself the existence of many separate dialects whose speakers did not understand, one another could not last. New social relations created the need for a unified national language standing above dialects and equally intelligible in all parts of the country. However, they did not merely create the need: they also created the conditions for its realization. The problem of a united national language became urgent. Such was the other aspect of linguistic changes in this epoch.

A special position among the dialects belonged to the dialect of London, which after the Norman Conquest became the capital of England. London is situated on the Thames, thus, it lies on the boundary line between the Midland and the Southern dialects. In the 13th c., it already showed a mixture of midland and Southern elements, with the latter prevailing. As time passed, Midland elements grew at the expense of southern ones.

Towards the end of the 14th c. London dialect became influential in other parts of the country. This was due to the growth of its importance as an economic and political centre.

London's geographical position was extremely favourable for a quick growth of its political importance and its role as the birthplace of a national language. Many roads along which England's internal trade was conducted crossed in London. Owing to the great depth of the Thames, sea ships could easily reach London, and it became a centre of the country's trade with the continent. London's role as a trade centre attracted many people from different parts of the country and paved the way for elements of other dialects into London English.

Thus, the London dialect, which became the base of the national English language, was a complex formation, reflecting various influences connected with the social and political life of the period. It contained, alongside East Midland, also South-Eastern (Kentish) and partly South-Western elements.

MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS AND WRITTEN RECORDS

In the period following the Norman Conquest, the same dialects, which existed in OE, continue to develop. But according to a tradition now firmly established, they are given new names. The Northumbrian dialect is now called Northern, Mercian is called Midland, and West Saxon and Kentish are united under the name of Southern. The boundary between Midland and Northern runs along the Humber that between Midland and Southern is close to the Thames.

The midland dialect is subdivided into West Midland and East Midland.

The dialect of London combines East Midland and Southern features.

WRITTEN DOCUMENTS

We shall first give a short list of the main ME documents classified according to dialects, and then we give a brief characteristic of ME writings.

The main ME documents belong to the following dialects.

SOUTHERN DIALECTS

KENT. The chief document is Dan Michel, Ayenbite of Inwit (*Remorse of Conscience*), a religious treaty, translated from the French (1340). William of Shoreham, Poems (early 14th c.). Poema Morale (anonymous, early 13th c.).

SOUTH-WEST. Layamon, Brut (a verse history of Britain, imitated from an Anglo-Norman poem by Wace, early 13th c. southern dialect with Midland admixtures), Ancren Riwe (*Statute for Nuns*), early 13th c., probably adaptation of a midland original. Robert of Gloucester, Rhymed Chronicle. John Trevisa, translation of the monk Ranulphus Higden's Latin Polychronicon (1387).

MIDLAND DIALECTS

WEST MIDLAND. Legends of Catherine, Margaret, and Juliana (13th c.). William of Palerne (romance, early 13th c.). Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight and other poems by the same (anonymous) author (latter half of the 14th c.).

EAST MIDLAND. King Horn (romance, 13th c.). Havelok the Dane (13th c.), Orm, Ormulum (religious poem, early 13th c.). Robert Mannyng of Brunne, Handlyng Synne (*Manual of Sins*, verse translation from the French, ab. 1300). Genesis and Exodus (13th c.). Debate of Body and Soul (13th c.). Peterborough Chronicle (sequel to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, for the years 1132-1154).

LONDON. Proclamation by Henry III (1258), the earliest official document in English since the conquest. Adam Davy, Poems (early 14th c.). Works by Chaucer and Gower.

NORTHERN DIALECTS

Richard Rolle de Hampole, The Prick of Conscience (religious poem, former of 14th c.). Towneley Plays (14th c.), York Plays (former half of 15th c.).

SCOTLAND

Barbour, Bruce (poem about Bruce's struggle for the freedom of Scotland, ab. 1375). James I, The Kingis Quhair (*The King's Book*), collection of poems, early 15th c.

TYPES OF MIDDLE ENGLISH LITERARY DOCUMENTS

ME literature is extremely rich and varied. We find here the most different kinds and genres represented, both in verse and in prose.

In verse, there is, in the 13th c., the religious poem *ORMULUM*, named after its author the monk Orm, who at great length retells in popular style events of Bible and Gospel history, addressing his narration to his brother, also a monk.

About the same time another monk, Layamon, composed a long poem, *BRUT*, on the early history of Britain. This was partly a translation, or paraphrase, of Wace's Anglo-Norman poem *BRUT*, and Layamon used some other sources. The origins of the Britons are traced back to Troy and the flight of some Trojans after its fall.

The anonymous poems of KING HORN and HAVELOK tell the stories of young Scandinavian princes, who are deprived of their rights by their enemies but eventually, regain their throne and reign happily.

Then we must mention a series of moralistic poems, such as *HANDLYNG SYNNE* (*Manual of Sins*), by Robert Mannyng of Brunne, a paraphrase of the French original; *AYENBYT OF INVYT* (*Remorse of Conscience*) by Dan Michel, also adaptation of a French original; *THE PRICK OF CONSCIENCE* by Richard Rolle de Hampole, and others.

Next comes a series of *romances*, that is, stories about knights and their heroic deeds. These are very numerous, all of them anonymous, and some of first-class artistic value, notably the famous story of *SIR GAWAYNE AND THE GREEN KNIGHT*; also *SIR FYRUMBRAS*, *THE DESTRUCTION OF TROY*, etc.

There are several historical chronicles, such as Robert of Gloucester's *RHYMED CHRONICLE*, Barbour's *BRUCE*, etc.

Invaluable documents of the spoken language of the time are the various collections of *Miracle Plays*, such as the *Towneley Plays*, the *York Plays*, and the *Chester Plays*.

In a somer seson whan soft was the sonne

Excerpt from "The Prologue,"
From *The Vision of William
Concerning Pies the Plowman*,
Attributed to William Langland

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Piers Plowman

The 14th-centure poem *The Vision of William Concerning Pies the Plowman* (1360?-1400?), better known as *Piers Plowman*, is generally attributed to William Langland. A religious allegory, the work is witten as a dream vision, a popular medieval form in which a story is presented as if the author had dreamed it. *Piers Plowman* is also a famous example of alliterative verse. In such lines as this one, the repetition of certain sounds (in this case, s) helps create a mood. (Excerpt recited by an actor.)

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In addition, of course we must mention the famous *Vision Concerning Piers the Plowman* by William Langland, a 14th c. picture of the social conditions in the country, invaluable as a historical document.

And we close this enumeration by the two great names of John Gower, author of the long poem *Confessio Amantis* (besides Latin and French works), and the greatest of all, Geoffrey Chaucer, author of *Troilus and Criseide*, *The Canterbury Tales*, and a number of other poems.

Whan that April with his showres soote The
droughte of March hath perced to the roote. And
limited every veine in swich licour. Of which
vertu engendred is the flowr;

Excerpt from "The General Prologue."
from *The Canterbury Tales*



(p) 1992 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved./Culver Pictures

Geoffrey Chaucer

Fourteenth-century English poet and public servant Geoffrey Chaucer wrote verse renowned for its humor, understanding of human character, and innovations in poetic vocabulary and meter. His masterpiece, *The Canterbury Tales* (1387-1400), tells the tale of English people on a pilgrimage to Saint Thomas a Becket's shrine at Canterbury. The pilgrims emerge as complex characters through the stories they tell and through their interactions, which serve as transitions between the different tales. This excerpt from the *Tales* (read by an actor) comes from "The General Prologue," in which Chaucer introduces the characters and establishes the framework of the poem.

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As far as the prose goes, there is perhaps less variety and no prose fiction in the true sense of the word. The two prose pieces of *The Canterbury Tales* are not really stories but rather religious or philosophical treatises.

As an important prose document, we must note Ranulphus Higden's *Polychronicon*, translated by John Trevisa with added passages from other sources. This is a history book containing much useful information about the England of his time, with a most valuable passage on the dialects of the 14th c.



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King Arthur

Legend and lore surround the life of Arthur, a medieval king of the Britons. According to legend, Arthur was raised unaware of his royal ancestry and became king by pulling a sword from a stone. He is depicted here in a painting by Eleanor Bnckdale.

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Yet some men say in many parts of England that King Arthur is not dead, but had by die will of Our Lord Jesu into another place; and men say that he shall come again, and he shall win the holy cross. I will not say that it shall be so, but rathe/ I will say, here in this world lie changed his life. Bui many men say that there is written upon his tomb this verse: HIC IACETARTHURUS, REX QUONDAMREXQUFI FUTURUS. (Latin for "Here lies Arthur, die once and future king.")

Excerpt from *Le morte d'Arthur*

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The Death of Arthur

Fifteenth-century Englishman Sir Thomas Malory authored *Le morte d'Arthur* (1469-1470; *The Death of Arthur*), a prose rendition of the King Arthur legends. Although Malory probably wrote the Arthurian saga as eight distinct romances, English printer William Caxton arranged Malory's work into a single narrative in 1485. An actor recites this selection, which foretells the return of the fallen king.

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In the 15th c, towards the end of the ME period, we come across the first prose fiction in English. Here we have Sir Thomas Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*, a long prose work summing up a number of legends about king Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table, and at about the same time prose translations made by William Caxton, the first English printer, from the French.

Owing to this great variety, we are able to obtain a much more complete idea of various speech styles of the ME period than we could of OE. In particular, both Chaucer and Gower's works and the *Miracle Plays* contain much colloquial language, which seems to reproduce with great exactness the actual colloquial speech of the time. However, much of the material presented by these texts has not been properly made use of. Much remains to be done in this field to obtain a more complete picture of both the written and the colloquial language of those centuries.

MAIN LINGUISTIC PECULIARITIES IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

During the ME period many changes took place gradually in all aspects of the English language. During the ME period the language varied from place to place. Different dialects were spoken in different parts of the country.

The language also changed greatly with each passing century. However, a number of factors and lines of development which are common to old dialects and to all centuries of this epoch and which are characteristic of the ME period as a whole may be singled out. They are as follows:

1. ME is divided into many territorial dialects. Beginning with the 13th c. a new mixed dialect is in the process of formation, the so-called *London Dialect*.
2. The phonetic system gradually undergoes substantial changes.
3. The OE inflective system of declensions and conjugations is gradually destroyed. Grammatical gender disappears and new analytical elements develop in the grammatical system.
4. The vocabulary is greatly enriched mainly by Scandinavian and French loan words.
5. Great changes take place in English spelling.

LECTURE VI

EVOLUTION OF THE SOUND SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

OUTLINE

1. Spelling Changes in Middle English
 - a. Disappearance of Runic Letters
 - b. French Influence
 - c. Similar (to French) Tendencies
 - d. Changes due to Graphic Considerations
2. Reading Rules
3. Word Stress
4. Vowel Changes
 - a. Reduction of Vowels in Unstressed Endings
 - b. Shortening and Lengthening of Vowels
 - c. Changes of Individual Vowel Phonemes
 - d. Monophthongization (Contraction) of Old English Diphthongs
 - e. Rise of New Diphthongs and Related Phenomena
 - f. More Phonetic Changes
 - g. Levelling of Unstressed Vowels
 - h. Development of French Sounds
5. Development of Consonants in Middle English

SUGGESTED READINGS

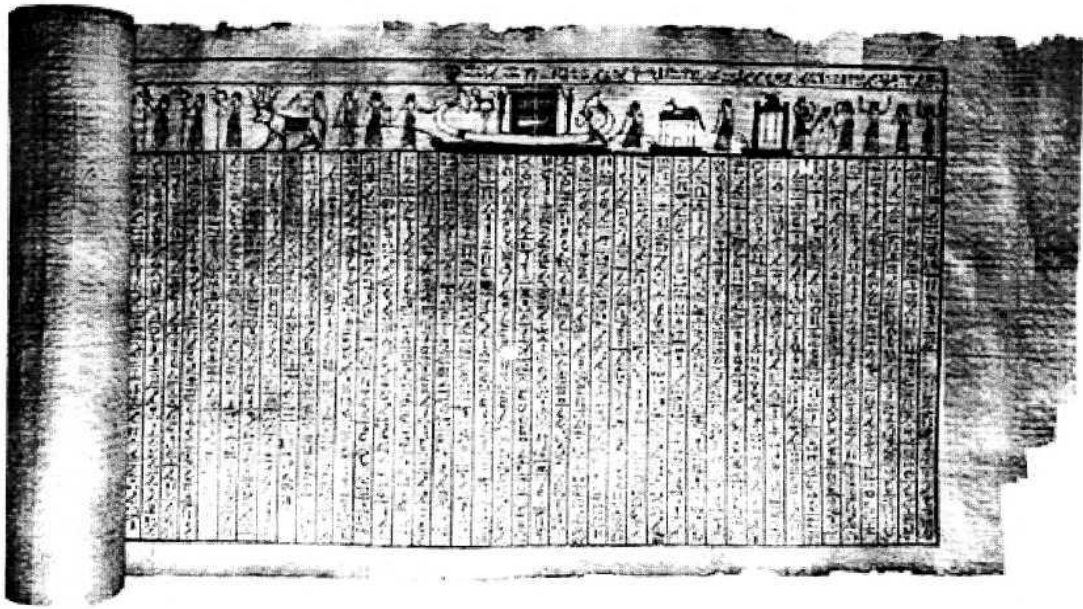
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LISTENING

Lecture X: *Chaucer's English*, Seth Lerer, Ph.D., Stanford University, USA, 1998
The Birth of a Language, Middle English Pronunciation and Spelling Rules

SPELLING CHANGES IN MIDDLE ENGLISH



THE BETTMANN ARCHIVE

Papyrus Scroll

Before paper was invented, many people wrote on scrolls made out of the papyrus plant. By layering, wetting, and then drying layers of the plant's cellulose together, people could create a fine writing surface. This hieroglyphic scroll is part of the Book of the Dead, from ancient Egypt. Its detailed illustrations demonstrate both the durability and quality of papyrus.

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The most conspicuous feature of late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in late ME texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different. Before discussing the evolution of English sounds, one must be acquainted with the system of ME spelling in order to distinguish between sound changes and graphical changes. In the course of ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling, some of them reflected the sound changes, which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters and diagraphs.

1. In ME, the runic letters passed out of use. *Thorn* – **Þ** – and the crossed **ð**, **ḍ** were replaced by the diagraph **th**, which retained the same sound value: [θ] and [ð]; the rune *wynn* was displaced by *double u* – **w**; the ligatures **æ** and **œ** fell into disuse. : æ>a, æ>e.

2. During several centuries, after the Norman Conquest, the business of writing was in the hands of French scribes. They introduced into English some peculiarities of French graphic habits, many of them staying on in English to the present day.

So, the digraphs **ou**, **ie**, **ch** were adopted as new ways of indicating the

sounds [u:], [e:], [tʃ].

Compare the use of these digraphs in some borrowed and native ME words:

borrowed (Fr.)	native	NE
1. ME double [ˈd u b l e] (from OFr. – double [d u b l ə]) (Cf. Mod. Fr. – poule or NE – soup, group)	ME out [u : t]	double, out
2. ME chief [tʃ e: f]	ME thief [θ e: f] (OE – Þēf)	chief, thief
3. ME chaumbre [tʃ a u m b r ə]	ME child [tʃ I: l d] (OE – cild)	chamber, child

In final position and occasionally in middle position as well, instead of **ou** the spelling **ow** was introduced:

cow (OE cū); *how* (OE hū); *down* (OE dūn), etc.

The letters **j**, **k**, **v**, **q** were probably first used in imitation of French manuscripts.

The letter **q** always accompanied by **u**, is introduced to denote either the consonant [k], or the cluster [kw], as in *quarter* or *queen*. In the latter case, it replaces OE **cw**.

The letter **ȝ**, which was used in OE to denote several distinct consonant phonemes, is gradually replaced by the letters **g** and **y**. Thus, OE ȝōd – ME gōd

OE ȝear – ME yēr

The two-fold use of **g** and **c**, which has survived today, owes its origin to French: these letters usually stood for [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels (Cf. ME *gentil* [dʒ e n ˈt I l], ME *mercy* [m e r ,s i]), and for **g** and **k** before back vowels (ME *good* [g o : d], *gōd* [g o d], *cours* [k u : r s]). (NE: gentle, mercy, good, god, course).

It should be noted that the sound [dʒ] is also denoted (in words of French origin) by the letter **j**: *joy*, *judge*, *June*, etc.

ȝ. Other alterations in spelling cannot be traced directly to French influence though they testify to a similar tendency - a wider use of digraphs, which made the spelling very difficult. In addition to **ch**, **ou**, **ie**, **th** mentioned above, in Late ME **sh** was introduced (also **ssh** and **sch**) to indicate [ʃ].

e.g. ME *ship* - OE *scip*.

dg - to indicate [dʒ] (alongside **j** and **g** before front vowels).

e.g. ME *edge* [ˈe dʒ ə], *joyee* [ˈdʒ o I ə], *engendren* [e n ˈdʒ e n d r ə n].

(Cf. ME *edge*, *joyengender* – вызывать, возбуждать).

wh - replaced the OE sequence of letters **hw** as in OE *hwat*, ME *what* [h w a t], NE *what*.

Long sounds were shown by double letters:

e.g. ME *book* [b o : k] (*book*)

ME *sonne* [ˈs u n n ə] (*sun*)

However, with vowels this was not regular e.g. long [e:] could be indicated by **ie**, **ee**, also by **e**.

gh - introduced to distinguish fricative [x', x] and aspirate [h]. In ME the fricative [x'] was preserved in some positions. In addition, in ME the digraph [gh] was used to distinguish it from the aspirated [h].

Cf. ME knyght [k n I x't] and ME he [h e:]

NE knight [n a I t] NE he

In OE, both words were spelt with **h**: *cnieht*, *he*.

4. Some replacements were probably made to avoid confusion of resembling letters: thus, the vowel [u] is often represented by the letter [o], alongside the letter [u]. This spelling is probably partly due to graphic considerations. The letter [o], denoting [u] is found mainly in the neighbourhood of such letters as **u** (**v**), **n**, **m**, that is, letters consisting of vertical strokes. A long series of vertical strokes might be confusing: thus, it might be hard to distinguish between *cume*, *cmue*, *cimie*, etc. Replacing **u** by **o** would avoid this difficulty.

e.g. OE lufu - ME love [l u v ə]

Another case: **y** came to be used as an equivalent of **i** and was preferred when **i** could be confused with the surrounding letters **m**, **n** and others. **y** as well as **w** were put at the end of a word for ornamental reasons, so as to finish the word with a curve.

e.g. ME nyne [n i: n ə], very [ˈv e r I], my [m I:]

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

e.g. ME down, down [d u: n] and was often preferred finally: ME how [h u:], now [n u:], lawe [l a u ə].

Word ending in **-u** in MdE are few: you, thou, emu. The letter **z** is introduced to denote the consonant [z] that in ME became a separate phoneme. However, **z** is not used systematically.

e.g. zē (zeal), but still **s** [z] in chēsen (choose), losen (lose).

The following table summarises the peculiarities of spelling in Late ME. It includes the new letters and digraphs introduced in ME and the new sound values of some letters in use since the OE period (Rastargueva, pp. 186):

Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants
a [a]	c [s] or [k]
y as well as i [i]	f [f]
o [o] or [u]	g [dʒ] or [g]
	j [dʒ]
	k [k]
	s [s] or [z]
	v (often spelt as u) [v]
	y [j]

Digraphs (vowels)	Digraphs (consonants)
ee [e:] or [E:]	ch, tch [tʃ]
ie [e:]	dg [dʒ]
oo [o:] or [O:]	gh [x] or [xʰ]
ou [u:] or [ou]	qu [kw]
ow [u:] or [ou]	th [t] or [D]
	sh, sch, ssh [ʃ]
	wh [hw]

READING RULES

1. **g** and **c** – [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels
[g] and [k] before back vowels
2. **y** – [j] at the beginning of words, otherwise it is an equivalent of the letter **i**, as in NE.
e.g. ME yet [j e t], knyght [k n I x t]
3. **th** and **s** indicate voiced sounds between vowels, and voiceless sounds - initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants: ME worthy [ˈw u r D i], esy [ˈe: z i], thyng [T I ŋ], sorwe [s o r w ə] (sorrow).

NOTE: In ME unlike OE, this rule does not apply to the letter **f**. The voiced [v] is shown by **v** or **u**.

4. **o** usually stands for [u] next to letters, whose shape resembles the shape of letter **u**, though sometimes even in the same environment it can indicate [o].
e.g. ME some [s u m ə], (some) – mone [ˈm o: n e], (moon).
5. **ou** and **ow** were interchangeable; [u:] and [ou]:
e.g. ME hous [h u: s] - ME snow [s n o u] or [s n u:].
6. Long sounds in ME texts are often shown by double letters or digraphs open syllables contain long vowels, while closed syllables may contain both short and long vowels. Besides, vowels are also long before a sonorant plus a plosive consonant and short before other consonant sequences.
e.g. ME maken [m a: k ə n]; lat [l a: t]; lok [l o k]; bihynden [b I ˈh i: n d ə n] (behind)⁵

⁵ Illustrations of ME texts are presented in the Supplement: Rastorgueva T.A. *History of the English language*.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PHONETIC SYSTEM IN THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

The sound system of the English language has undergone profound changes in the thousand years, which have elapsed since the OE period. The changes affected the pronunciation of words, word accentuation, the systems of vowel and consonant phonemes.

In so far as possible the mentioned sound changes are grouped into two main stages:

I - Early ME changes, which show the transition from Written ME to Later NE - the age of literary flourishing or *the age of Chaucer*.

II- Early NE changes, which show the transition from ME to Later NE - the language of the 18th and 19th c.

Here we shall regard the first stage - the phonetic changes that took place during the transition from OE to Late ME, i.e. - the sound changes in ME.

WORD STRESS

The system of word accentuation in OE was described. In OE, stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word, rarely on its second syllable: the prefix or the root of the word was stressed while the suffixes and endings were unaccented. Word stress in OE was fixed: it never moved in inflection and seldom in derivation.

This way of word accentuation, characteristic of OE, was considerably altered in the succeeding periods. The word accent acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan words adopted during the ME period.

In Late ME poetry, we find a variety of differently stressed words, though poetry permits certain fluctuation of word accent, this variety testifies to greater freedom in the position of word stress.

New accentual patterns are found in numerous ME loan words from French. Probably, when they first entered the English language they retained their original stress – on the ultimate or pen-ultimate syllable. This kind of stress could not be preserved for long. Gradually, as the loan words were assimilated, the word stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word in line with the English (Germanic) system. This shift is accounted for by what is known as the *recessive* tendency. In disyllabic words the accent moved to the first syllable, so that the resulting pattern conformed to the pattern of native words, e.g. ME *vertu* [v e r't j u:] became NE *virtue* ['v ε: Í ə], cf. native English *shortly*, *childish*. The shift can be shown as follows: s's > 'ss (s stands for *syllable*).

In words of three or more syllables, the shift of the stress could be caused by the recessive tendency and by the *rhythmic* tendency, which required a regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under the rhythmic tendency, a secondary stress would arise at a distance of one syllable from the original stress.

This new stress was either preserved as a secondary stress or else became the only or the principal stress of the word:

e.g. ME *recommenden* [r e k o 'm e n d ə] > NE *recommend* [ˌr e k ə 'm e n d]
– ss 'ss > ,ss 's;

ME *disobeien* [d i s o 'b e i e n] > NE *disobey* ['d i s o 'b e i] – comfortable [k V m f ə t ə b l] – ss 'ss > ,ss 's;

ME *consecraten* [k o n s e 'k r a:t ə n] > NE *consecrate* [k O n s i k r e i t] – ss 'ss > 'sss.

(Accentual patterns of the type 'sss or s 'sss are common in MdE, cf. *ability, evident, necessity*).

In many polysyllabic words both tendencies, the recessive and the rhythmic, operated together and brought about several changes. For instance in NE *consolation* [k O n s ə 'l e I S n] we find the results of the shift from the final to the preceding syllable [l e I] due to the recessive tendency and a secondary stress on the first syllable. In NE, *possibility* the rhythmic factor accounts for both the primary and secondary stresses (the original position of the accent was on the last syllables).

Sometimes the shifting of the word stress should be attributed not only to the phonetic tendencies but also to certain morphological factors. Thus stress was not shifted to the prefixes of many verbs borrowed or built in Late ME and in Early NE, which accords with the OE rule: to keep verb prefixes unstressed, e.g. ME *accepten, engendren, presenten*; NE *accept, engender, present*; cf. NE verbs *befall, mistake, forget*. Corresponding nouns sometimes, though not always, received the stress on the first syllable: NE 'present n. – pre'sent v.; 'discord n. – dis'cord v. The latter pairs of words show that the role of word accentuation has grown: word stress performs a phonological function as it distinguishes a verb from a noun. Thus, it appears that as a result of specifically English (or rather Germanic) tendencies, continuously applied to numerous polysyllabic loan words, the entire system of word accentuation has altered. The position of the word stress has become relatively free and its phonological application has widened: it can be shifted in word derivation; though it is never moved in building grammatical forms.

VOWEL CHANGES

In the ME, period great changes affected the entire system of vowel phonemes. OE had both long and short vowels and each of these could occur in any phonetic environment. They were independent phonemic units. Because of important changes coming into the vowel system in the 10th - 12th centuries the ME vowel system was basically different.

In OE, quantity (length and shortness) was a distinct phonemic feature. In ME by the 13th c. this is no longer so. The quantity of vowels became dependent on their environment, more exactly – on what follows. With a few exceptions the situation in ME, is briefly this:

- in some phonetic environments only short vowels can appear, while in other phonetic environments only long vowels can appear.
- the quantity of the vowel is predetermined by the environment.

Thus, quantity (length/shortness) ceases being a phonemically relevant feature and becomes a merely phonetic peculiarity of a vowel sound.

Now we will consider the items of this development, which come under separate headings:

Reduction of Vowels in Unstressed Endings

All vowels in unstressed endings were gradually weakened and reduced, changing to a weak e [ə], which often disappeared later on in NE.

e.g.

OE	ME	NE
nama	name [n a: m ə]	[n e I m]
tellan	tellen	[t e l]
luf[ʌ]u	love [l u v ə]	[l ʌ v]
stanas	stones	[s t o u n z]

This phonetic process is closely connected with the grammatical process of weakening and levelling of inflexions in ME. The neutral final e [ə] sometimes became mute in the 14th c. It can be seen in the works of Chaucer.

Shortening and Lengthening of Vowels

The length of vowels became dependent on their position i.e. on whether they stood in open or closed syllables. This process affected the rhythm of the English language, and also to some extent its morphological system.

SHORTENING. All long vowels occurring before two consonants in closed syllables were shortened.

- e.g. cēpan - kēpen
 cēpte - kepte
 fēdan - fēden
 fēdde - fedde
 wīsdōm – wisdom

However long vowels remained long before the lengthening consonant groups **ld, mb, nd**.

- e.g. bīndan – bīnden

But: cildru (**ld** is followed by the 3rd consonant).

The shortening of long vowels is supposed to have taken place by the end of the 11th c.

LENGTHENING.

In the 13th c., short vowels were lengthened in open syllables. That was another

item of the development, which deprived quantity of its status as a phonemic feature. This phenomenon was connected with the reduction of vowels in unstressed endings. Reduced vowels became shorter and influenced the length of vowels in the preceding open syllable.

In the 13th c. the OE short **a, o, e** in open syllables were lengthened.

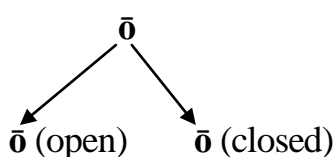
e.g. OE 12th c. 13th c.
 nos[z]u - nos[z](e) - nōs[z]e

The narrow vowels **i, u** remained unaffected by this change. But, however, sometimes these vowels widened into **e** or **o** (central dialects).

e.g. duru - dōre (door)

Changes of Individual Vowels Phonemes in Middle English

1. In ME, there were two long phonemes **o**: a long open and a long closed.



They developed from two different OE phonemes: **ā** and **ō** (in Midland and Southern dialects), but this vowel remained the same in Northern dialects.

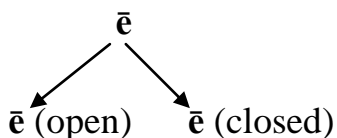
OE **ā** > ME **ō**

e.g. hām - hōm (spelling: ME hoom) (home)
 bāt - bōt (spelling: ME boot) (boat)

OE **ō** > ME **ō**

e.g. tōþ - tōth (ME sp. tooth) (tooth)

2. In ME there were also two phonemes **e**:



Long open **ē** developed from OE **ēa** and **æ**:

OE **ēa, æ** > ME **ē**

e.g. sæ - sē (sea)
 ēast - ēst (east)

Long closed **ē** developed from OE **ēo** and **ē**:

OE **ēo, ē** > ME **ē**

e.g. cēpan - kēpen

sēon – sēn

3. ME **a** developed from OE **æ**:

OE æ > ME a

e.g. glæd – glad

wæs – was

4. OE short **y** and long **y** developed differently in different dialects:

- a. OE y, y > ME i, ī in Northern and East Midland dialects
- b. OE y, y > ME e, ē in the Kentish dialect
- c. OE y, y > ME y, y in West-Midland and South-Western dialects

OE *first* (first) – *first* (N. + E.M.); *ferst* (K.); *fyrst* (W.M. + S.)

However, in OE **y** denoted the sound [ü]. After the change of [ü] into [i] the letter **y** came to denote the sound [i], and so became an equivalent of the letter [i]. To denote the sound [ü] in those dialects, where it was preserved, the letter **u** was used, influenced by French spelling.

Development of Other Vowels

OE **e, ē, i, ī, o** were unchanged in ME (tellan – tellen; wītan – wīten).

OE **ō** mostly remained unchanged (fōt, bōc – bōk)

OE **u, ū** remained unchanged (sunu – so[u]ne / sunə) (son)

Monophthongization (Contraction) of Old English Diphthongs

All OE diphthongs were monophthongized in ME. They were contracted into monophthongs, mostly variants [e]

e.g. ēa > ē: ēald > eld (ē – often spelt ee: dēop > dēp, NE deep)

ēo > ē: hēorte > hēte

Rise of New Diphthongs and Related Phenomena

New diphthongs arise in ME, basically different in type from the OE diphthongs, which were monophthongized in ME. The new diphthongs originate from groups consisting of a vowel and either a palatal or a velar fricative.

The palatal fricative ʒ [j] and the velar spirant ʒ [ɣ] are vocalized, combine with the preceding vowel, and yield diphthongs of a new type.

The palatal consonant yields diphthongs in **-i** and the velar one, which seems to have possessed a labial element in its articulation from the outset, yields diphthongs in **-w**.

The following changes took place accordingly:

1. Rise of diphthongs in **-i**:

eɜ > ai, ay e.g. dæɜ > dai (day); wæɜ > mai (may); læɜ > lai (lay); fæɜr > fair (fayr)

e3 > **ei, ey** e.g. **we3** > wei (wey); **se3l** > seil; **re3n** > rein

ē3 > **ei, ey** e.g. **3rē3** > grei (grey); **hē3** > hei (hey)

2. Rise of diphthongs in -w:

a3 > **aw** e.g. **dra3an** > drawen, **3na3an** > gnawen, **sa3u** > sawe (saw, legend)

ā3 > **ōw** e.g. **ā3en** > ōwen (own) (except in the Northern dialect).

The new diphthongs contained a second narrow element, as distinct from OE diphthongs, whose second element was always either as wide or even wider than the first.

The fricatives **3[j]** and **3 [ɣ]** were also vocalized in some other words where no diphthongs resulted from the process. Here we name to distinguish between two cases:

1) the fricative is preceded by a narrow vowel, which combines with the consonant into a long monophthong,

2) it is preceded by **l** or **r** which does not undergo any change in the process.

3. Rise of long front vowels

i + 3 > **ī**, e.g. **i3el** > īl (hedgehog), **ti3ele** > tīle (brick), **si3pe** > sīthe (scythe),

ī + 3 > **ī** e.g. **stī3en** > stīen (ascend)

y + 3 > **ī** in Northern and East Midland dialects, e.g. **ry3e** > rīe (rye), **by3eþ** > bīeth (buys); in West Midland and South-Western dialects **y + 3** > **üi**: **rūle**, **būleth**; in Kentish **y + 3** > **ei**: **reye**, **beieth**

y + 3 > **ī** (in North and East Midl. dialects), e.g. **dry3e** > drīe (dry); in West Midl. And South-Western dialects: **y + 3** > **ü/ū**: **drūie**, **drūe**; in Jentish **y + 3** > **ei**: **dreie**.

ēa + h > **eih, ih** e.g. **hēah** > hein > high; **nēah** > neih > nigh

ēo + 3, h > **ei > i** e.g. **lēo3an** > leien > līen (lie); **þēoh** > thigh

4. Rise of long back labialized vowels:

u + 3 > **u** (spelt: ou, ow), e.g. **fu3ol** > foul (bird);

u + 3 > **ū** (spelt: ou,ow), e.g. **bū3an** > bowen (bow).

The velar spirant **3** also changes into **w** after the liquids **l** and **r**:

l3 > **lw** e.g. **3al3e** > galwe (gallows);

r3 > **rw** e.g. **mor3en** > morwen (morning); **bor3ian** > borwen (borrow); **fol3ian** > folwen (follow).

More Phonetic Changes

When a vowel was followed by the voiceless spirant **h**, a glide developed between them and a diphthong arose:

a + h > **auh, augh**, e.g. **naht** (nāwiht) > naught; **rahte** > raughte (reached out);

ā + h > **ough**, (in Midland and Southern dialects), e.g. **dāh** > dough; in Northern

dialects $\bar{a} + h > agh$: dagh;

$o + h > ough$, e.g. brohte > broughte; troh > trough;

$\bar{o} + h > ough, \bar{u}gh$, e.g. plōh > plough; bōh > bough; 3enōh > inough (enough).

In dialects where OE y [ü] was preserved as such, that is, in the West Midland and in the South-West, the [u] changed in the 13th c. into u before [í], [Û], [ní], [S]. Thus, for instance, OE *mycel* (large) became [‘m ü l ə l}] > [‘m u l ə l}], OE *swylc* (such) became [s w ü l í] > [s w u l í] > [s w u l]; OE *cycene* (kitchen) became [k ü l ə n] > [k u l ə n]; OE *clyccan* (clutch) > [c l ü l ə n]; *crycc* > *crutch* > *crucche*. In the 15th c. some of these variants penetrated into the national language.

Levelling of Unstressed Vowels

An important change characteristic of the ME period affected the unstressed vowels. All unstressed vowels were as a rule weakened and reduced to a neutral vowel something like [ə], which was denoted by the letter **e**. Thus, for example, the infinitive suffix **-an** was reduced to **-en**, as in *bindan – binden, tellan – tellen, sunu – sune*, the nominative plural ending **-as** became **-es**, as in *stanas – stones*, and the like. This weakening of unstressed vowels is closely connected with developments in declension and conjugation.

From the 13th c. onwards, some dialects showed certain vacillation in spelling unstressed vowels, which probably reflected peculiarities of pronunciation. Thus, in Northern dialects the unstressed vowel was often spelt **i** or **y**: *askid, bundin*; in West Midland dialects a **u** – spelling appears, as in: *fadur, stonus*.

From the phonemic viewpoint this change indicates a decided separation of the unstressed vowels phoneme system from that of the stressed vowels. Whereas the stressed position allows a distinction of many vowel phonemes, the number of unstressed vowel phonemes is very greatly reduced. Thus, while in OE there was no difference between the number of vowel phonemes in stressed and in unstressed syllables, in ME there arises a very significant difference in this respect, and the way is paved for the state of things typical of MnE.

Development of French Sounds

Some Old French sounds had no counterparts in ME. When a word, containing one of these sounds was borrowed by the English language, the sound had to be substituted by some other sound or sound cluster which was nearest to it.

e.g. The French front labialized vowel **y** was pronounced [iu] or [eu]:

OFr. *nature* [n a t j u r] - ME [n a t I u r] or [n a t e u r].

Special mention must be made on French nasal vowels. French nasal vowels

were replaced by corresponding simple vowels:

Fr. [īn], [īm]	were substituted by in, im (instance, simple);
[ɛn], [ɛm]	> en, em (offence, mention);
[ān]	> an, aun (abandon, chaunge);
[ām]	> am, aum (lampe, chaumbre);
[ōn]	> oun, own (round, renown).

DEVELOPMENT OF CONSONANTS IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

1. The OE palatalized sound **c'** was already approaching the affricate [tʃ] in OE. In ME this sound turned completely into [tʃ] and in spelling **-ch**:
e.g. cild – child [ˈtʃɪl d]
2. The OE **sc'** changed into [ʃ] spelt: **sh, ssh, sch**.
e.g. scip – ship
3. The OE **cg'** changed into [dʒ] spelt: **g, gg, dg**.
4. The OE groups **hl, hn, hr** lost their first consonant **h** and were simplified into **l, n, r**.
e.g. hlaford > loverd
hnutu > nute
hring > ring

Coming to an end we must state that the ME sound system, as represented, for instance, in Chaucer's works, differs materially from the OE system, as found in the works of King Alfred.

From the phonemic point of view, the following important points have to be stated:

1. Vowel quantity has lost its phonemic significance, that is, two vowels can no longer be distinguished by quantity: length vs. shortness. As a result, the number of vowel phonemes was reduced.
2. On the other hand, the appearance of the new diphthongs [ai], [ei], [au], [ou] marks the rise of 4 new vowel phonemes. In this way, the reduction of vowels is partly counteracted.
3. The number of consonant phonemes has increased. The sounds [f] and [v] have become separate phonemes no longer dependent on environment. The same must be said about the sounds [s] and [z].

LECTURE VII

NEW ENGLISH HISTORICAL BACKGROUND FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE EXPANSION OF ENGLISH

OUTLINE

1. Historical Background of New English
2. Formation of the National Language
3. The Scottish Language
4. Expansion of English
5. English Outside Europe
6. English as a World Language
7. Varieties of English
8. British and American English
9. Hybrid Languages
10. The Future Of English

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Ilyish B., *History of the English Language*, L., 1973, pp. 228- 245
2. Rastorgueva T.A., *A History of English*, M., 1983, pp. 164-184
3. Berndt R., *History of the English Language*, Leipzig, 1982, pp. 38-47
4. Pyles Th., Alger S., *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp. 165-181, 212-236
5. Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 11-20, 35-45, 179-197, 99-116, 161-178, 239- 245

LISTENING

Lecture XII: *A Multilingual World: Medieval Attitudes toward Language Change and Variation*, Seth Lerer, Ph.D., Stanford University, USA, 1998.

The Birth of a Language, New English

Varieties of English

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND*

The New or Modern period began approximately at the end of the 15th or at the beginning of the 16th c. and continues up to the present day. It may be subdivided into Early New English and Late New English or Modern English.

The period of the 16th c. and about the first three quarters of the 17th c., i.e. up to the Restoration after the English bourgeois revolution is usually singled out and designated as the period of EARLY NEW ENGLISH. At that time English had some peculiarities as compared with the language of our days.

The period of NE is the period of formation and development of the National English Language.

The formation of nations is connected with the development of capitalist relations in society, (the most significant event of the period was the *War of Roses* (1455-1485), which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order – capitalism, the growth of trade and industry, the formation of the home market, the expansion of economic relations among different countries, the great geographical discoveries by the beginning of the 16th c. All these events and processes had brought about the advent of a new epoch, the epoch of primary accumulation. In England, as in other European countries the unification of the country was stimulated by the establishment of the absolute monarchy, which took place in England after the War of Roses.

The formation of a centralized state in England created favourable conditions for the development of the national economy and national culture of the national home market, and as a result of all this – the formation of the English nation in the 16th c. and 17th c. It led to the formation of the English National Language.

FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL LANGUAGE

The main characteristic features of any national language are as follows:

1. It is common to all the people, belonging to the given nation.
2. It is not divided into dialects, although they still exist, playing a secondary role.
3. It serves both the spoken language and the literary language of the nation.

The growth and development of economic and cultural relations among different parts of a country requires the formation of a single standard of the language, that can be easily understood by all the people of the country, because the people, speaking different dialects do not understand each other.

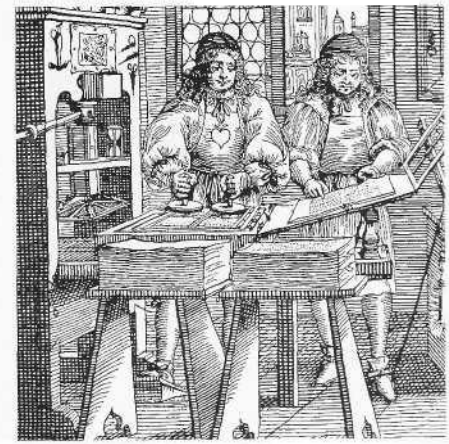
The London dialect, which developed in ME period, provided the bases for such a common standard of English. Because of continuing extension of economic and cultural relations between the capital and different countries in England, the London dialect spread gradually over the whole country. In the course of the 15th c. and beginning with the 16th c. it developed into the national English language.

***Independent study.**

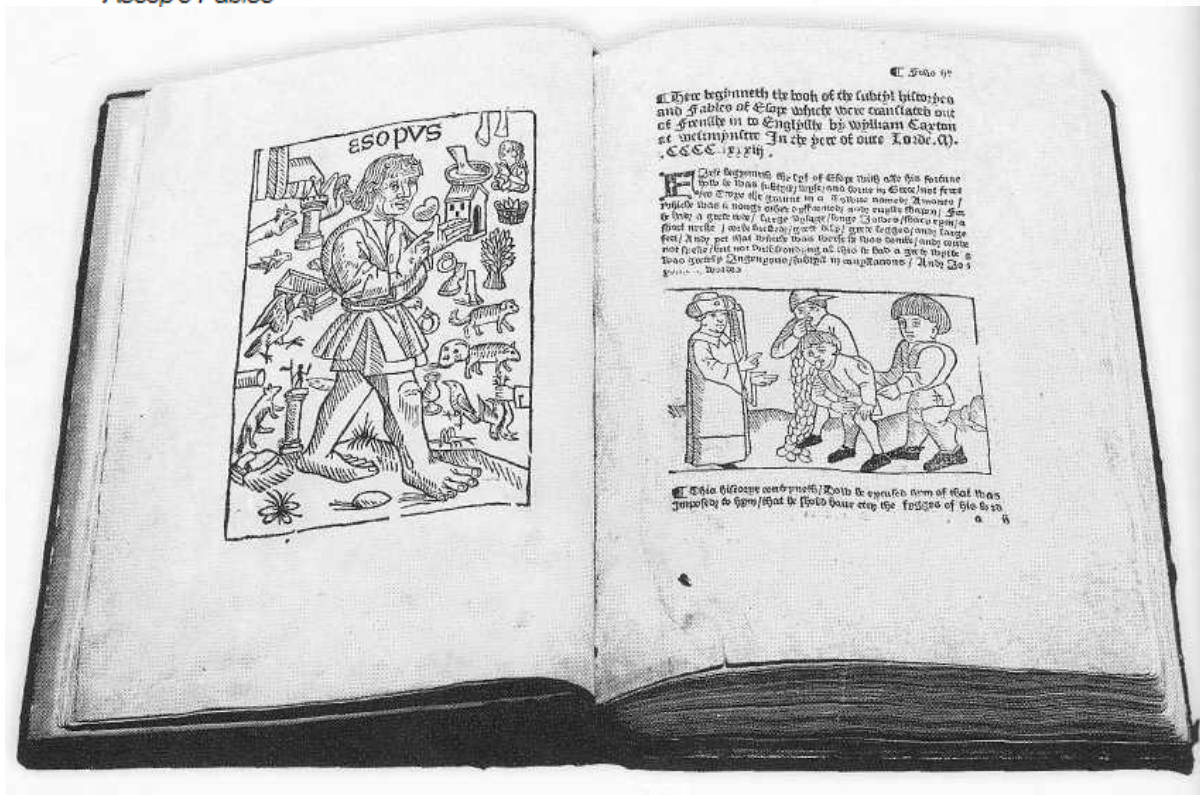
An early printing machine

Two historic events contributed to the formation of National English language:

1. The establishment of the absolute monarchy, which put an end to the feudal division of the country.
2. The invention of printing and its introduction in England.



Caxton's book of Aesop's Fables



Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language",
Oxford University Press, 2009, p.24

William Caxton (1422-1491) was the first English printer. He founded the first English printing office in London in 1476. In 1477, the first English book was published. Caxton kept the ME spelling of words; though in many cases it had become obsolete and did not reflect the phonetic changes that had taken place. Caxton's orthography became the basis of Mod. English spelling.

The Renaissance in England was the period of rapid development in all spheres of life. The English language was greatly enriched by the appearance of new economic and social phenomena, by geographic and scientific discoveries, by the influence of other languages and by the flourishing of literature. The scientific study of the English language began in the 17-18th c. At that time, a number of grammarians appeared who investigated grammar, spelling and pronunciation.

They tried to establish standard rules for these aspects of the language, but this task was accomplished only in the 19th c.

With the spread and development of the National English, the National language supplanted the local dialects of the language. Yet, they still exist in present day English, but they are only remnants of the previous epochs.

THE SCOTTISH LANGUAGE

At the very time the English national language was forming, a similar process was developing in another centre in the British Isles, namely in Scotland.

Scotland was at the time an independent kingdom consisting of four regions: the country of the Picts, comprising the territory of Scotland north of the Firth-of-t-Clyde and Firth-of-Forth except Argyllshire; the Scottish kingdom of Argyllshire; the northern part of Lothian, inhabited by Angles, south-east of the Firth-of-Forth, having its centre in Edinburgh. Thus, the Scottish kingdom included both Celtic and Germanic elements.

These regions began to unite in the 10th c., when Kenneth Mac Alpin, king of Scots, subdued the Picts. In 1018, the northern part of Strathclyde was united with Scotland. The dominating language of the kingdom was Celtic. After part of Lothian was joined with Scotland, the English language began to spread at the expense of Celtic. Malcolm III king of Scotland (1057-1093), reigning at the time of the Norman conquest of England, was educated in English traditions and fostered the spread of English in his country. This policy caused widespread opposition and brought about internal struggle, which lasted well into the 12th c., when king David I (1124-1153) united the parts of the country on the basis of English language and English culture. Thus, when speaking of this period, we can use the term *Scottish language* to denote a Germanic dialect, which was one of the Middle English Northern dialects and formed the basis of the Scottish national language.

Towards the end of the 13th c., a struggle arose between England and Scotland. Edward I, king of England, interfered in the internal struggles of Scottish barons and attempted to conquer Scotland by force of arms. In the course of a war, which lasted until 1305, Scotland was subdued.

Soon, however, the Scots led by Robert Bruce rebelled against English rule. In the battle of Bannockburn (1314), the English army was routed and Scotland's independence restored. In 1328, England recognized an independent Scotland. The country's political independence had important consequences for her language. When the English national language was forming, Scotland remained outside this process. A special national language arose in Scotland, which is often called *Scots*, and a separate national literature. Its first document was the poem *Bruce* by John Barbour (ab. 1375); early in the 15th c. king James I (1394-1437) composed *The Kinges Quhair (The King's Book)*.

EXPANSION OF ENGLISH*

Within the British Isles, the English language gradually supplanted the Celtic languages. In the extreme south-west of England, in Cornwall, the local Celtic language - Cornish - died out in the 18th c. At the time when the English national language was in the process of formation, a similar process was taking place in Scotland, which was an independent kingdom then. The Scottish language *Scots* flourished for a short time as a literary language as long as Scotland retained its sovereignty. Nevertheless, after the unification with England under the Stuarts - in 1603 - it was reduced to dialectal status. English became the official and the literary language in Scotland. The native Celtic dialect gradually gave way before the English language imposed by the conquerors. Nowadays English is the official language of the British Isles.

ENGLISH OUTSIDE EUROPE

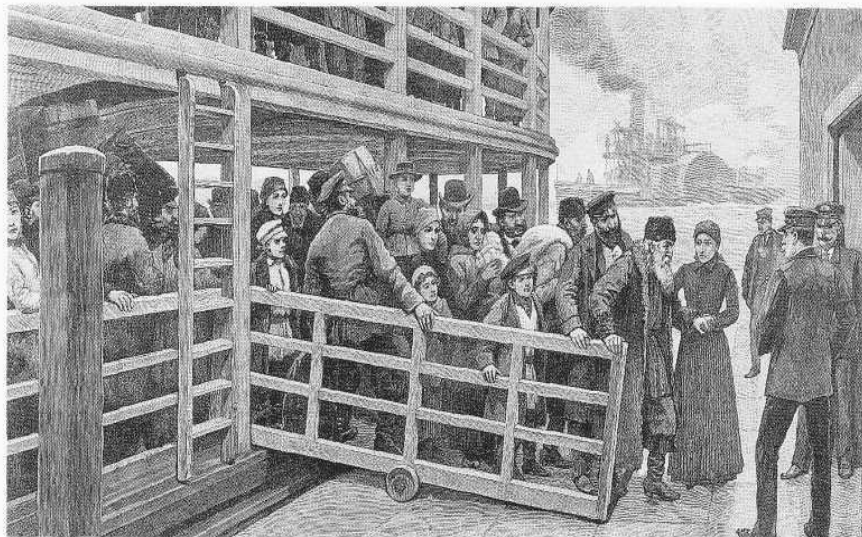
At the end of the 16th c., England formed its first colonies abroad. Newfoundland was captured in 1583. The conquest of the West Indies began at about the same time. The 17th c. saw the English colonization of the New World (North America). It began with the famous voyage of the *Mayflower* in 1620. By the middle of the 18th c., there were 15 British colonies in America, which in 1776 proclaimed themselves an independent nation, the USA.



Mayflower

The *Mayflower* brought the first group of Pilgrims to North America in 1620. No one knows exactly what the ship looked like, but it was probably about 27 m (90 ft) long and had three masts and two decks. It probably weighed about 163 metric tons (180 short tons). The ship sailed from Plymouth, England, on September 16, 1620, with 102 passengers and arrived at what is now Provincetown, Massachusetts, on November 21. **Microsoft © Encarta © Encyclopedia 2002.** © 1993-2001 Microsoft Corporation. All rights reserved.

*Independent study. See also Rastorgueva T. A., pp. 168 – 169



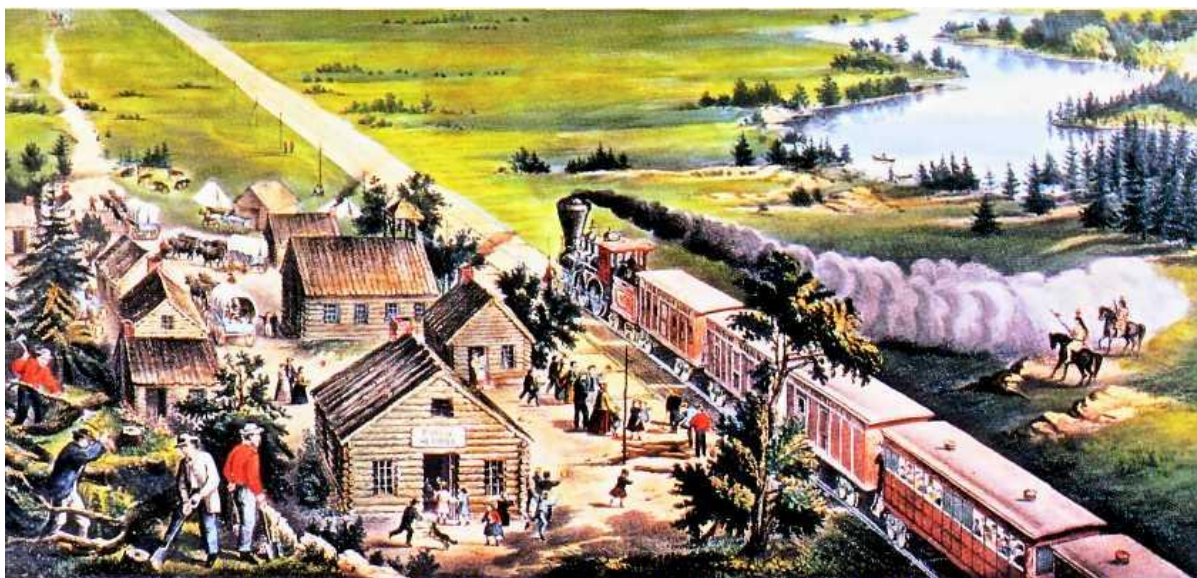
Settlers arriving from Europe in the nineteenth century

In the 17th c. the English colonists in North America spoke the National English of that time, i.e. Early New English.

Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language", Oxford University Press, 2009, p.41

The further development of the language in America had only a few peculiarities as compared with its development in England. This is probably because of the close relations between two countries and the continuous flow of immigration from England to America in the course of the 17th-19th c.

The railroad took settlers west



Bright Viney, "The History of the English Language", Oxford University Press, 2009, p.42

In the 20s of our century a theory came into being, which asserted that there was a separate American language different from English. The chief exponent of this theory was a famous American author and journalist Henry Louis Mencken (1880-1948). His book *The American language* was first published in 1919 and then appeared in several more editions. This theory had no scientific foundation and only served the political purposes of great power. But this is one single language. It is possible to speak only of different variants of the same language.

American English is not the same in all parts of the country. It also has

some local variants. These variants cannot be called dialects.

In the 18th c., the English language penetrated into India. In the course of 7-year war (1756-1763), the English conquered Canada, which had been a French colony. During the 19th c. the whole of Australia, New Zealand and many islands in Oceania were colonized. In the early years of the 20th c., the English language penetrated into South Africa. In all these lands, the English language began to be employed as the official language and the language of learning. It is still used although the countries have become independent; in the new period, the boundaries of English extended far beyond the British Isles and embraced both hemispheres and the inhabited continents. In every area, English has developed some specific features differing from those of Standard English in Britain. They are due to the original dialects of the settlers or to the new developments of the areas concerned.

ENGLISH AS A WORLD LANGUAGE

Suggested readings

Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 11-20, 35-45, 179-197.

VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Suggested readings

Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 99-116.

Rastargueva T.A., *A History of English*, M., 1983, pp. 180-181.

Listening: *Varieties of English*

BRITISH AND AMERICAN ENGLISH

Suggested readings:

Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 161-178.

Pyles Th., Alger S., *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp. 212-236.

HYBRID LANGUAGES

These are dialects arising in the Pacific area and in Africa. They are based on combining local structure with the English vocabulary. They combine some features of the grammatical structure of the natives' mother tongue with a limited

English vocabulary. These hybrid languages or jargons serve the purpose of intercourse between the English and the local population. The chief hybrid languages are:

1. Pidgin English
2. Beach -La -Mar
3. Kroo English

Pidgin English existed for some time in Eastern China and in Japan. The term *pidgin English* is a corruption of the name *business English*. It arose in the 18th c. It served as a means of communication between the local population and the colonizers in China, Japan, the South Seas and California.

Beach -La -Mar is a jargon used in commercial relations in the Pacific Area.

Kroo English is used in Liberia and Guinea, in West Africa. It is a mixed language on an English basis with admixture of Portuguese words.

As the former colonies and dependent countries freed themselves from imperialist domination, these jargons are apt to disappear. There is no declension or conjugation in the hybrid languages. There is usually no difference between the singular and plural of nouns. The relations between words are expressed semantically.

e.g. Beach-La -Mar uses the word *all* to denote plurality. The idea of possession is expressed by the word *belong*. There is no category of tense in verbs. The idea of future is expressed by the phrase *by and by*, as in the sentence *Brother belong a me by and by he dead = My brother will soon die*.

THE FUTURE OF ENGLISH

Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 239-245

Melvia A. Hasman, *The Role of English in the 21st Century*, FORUM, English Teaching journal, January, 2000.

LECTURE VIII

DEVELOPMENT OF PHONETIC SYSTEM IN NEW ENGLISH

OUTLINE

1. Development of the Phonetic System
 - a. Reduction of Vowels
Loss of Unstressed [ə]
 - b. The Great Vowel Shift
 - c. Influence of [r]
 - d. Special Cases (when great Vowel Shift did not work)
 - e. Shortening of [ē] and [u:]
 - f. French Borrowings
 - g. Arise of [a:] and [o:]
 - h. Special Cases
 - i. The Formation of Phoneme [ɛ] and the Centering Diphthongs
 - j. Changes of Short Vowels in New English
 - k. Other Changes
 - l. Development of Unstressed Vowels
2. Changes in the System of Consonants
 - a. Development of [x]
 - b. Loss of [l] before [k, m, f, v]
 - c. Appearance and Loss of [w]
 - d. Voicing of Voiceless Fricatives
 - e. Loss of Consonants in Clusters
 - f. Change of [d] to [D] when Close to [r]
 - g. [j] Merged with Preceding Consonant
 - h. Loss of Consonants in Initial Clusters
 - i. Spelling Pronunciations

SUGGESTED READINGS

1. Ilyish B., *History of the English Language*, L., 1973, pp. 228- 245
2. Rastorgueva T.A., *A History of English*, M., 1983, pp. 188-218
3. Berndt R., *History of the English Language*, Leipzig, 1982, pp. 174-203
4. Pyles Th., Alger S., *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp. 165-182
5. Bryson Bill, *The Mother Tongue: English and How It Got That Way*, New York, USA, 1990, pp. 84-98
6. Аракин В.Д., *История английского языка*, М., 1985, стр. 193-204, 204-208

LISTENING

The Birth of a Language, New English

CHANGES IN THE VOWEL SYSTEM

Reduction of Vowels

Loss of Unstressed [ə]

In the New English period, the process of reduction of vowels in an unstressed position in many cases reached its final stage and the vowel disappeared completely. At the outset of the NE period, the vowel [ə] of unstressed endings was lost. This vowel had been on the verge of loss in the 15th century already. The rhythm of Chaucer's verse shows that in many cases it was no longer pronounced. In the 15th century, it finally disappeared, it became mute. Loss of [ə] started in the Northern dialects. The vowel [ə] was lost when it was final and when it was followed by a consonant (e.g. in the plural forms of nouns: *tables*; in the 3rd person singular Present Indefinite: *likes*; and in Participle II: *lived, filled*). However the sound [ə] was preserved and later changed into [ɪ] in endings after sibilants and affricates and after **t**, **d**.

e.g. *asses, houses, washes*

The vowel was also preserved and developed into [ɪ] in some adjectives and adjectival participles:

e.g. *naked, learned, crooked, blessed*

Loss of unstressed [ə] is connected with important changes in grammatical structure: with this loss, the infinitive of many verbs coincided in its phonetic form with substantives:

e.g. *love* (v + s), *hand* (v + s)

In some three-syllable and four-syllable words, the vowel of a middle syllable was lost:

e.g. *chapiter* – *chapter* [ˈtʃ & p t ə]

medicine – [ˈm e d s i n]

colonel – [ˈk ɒ l ə n ə l] / [ˈk ɜː n ə l]

business – [ˈb i z n i s]

*At the same time [er] changed into [ar]:

e.g. *ferre* – *far*

sterre – *star*

were – *war*

herte – *heart*

In some spellings a combined spelling appeared.

However, in a number of words this change did not take place:

e.g. *perfect, universal, university, learn, mercy* etc.

The Great Vowel Shift

It was the most significant phonetic change of the NE period, beginning in the 15th century. It left its imprint on the entire vowel system of the NE period. The Great Vowel Shift is a complex of closely connected processes concerning all long vowels, which were gradually developing from the end of the 15th century to the 17th century or even to the 18th century.

There are different points of view as to the period of time during which these processes took place.

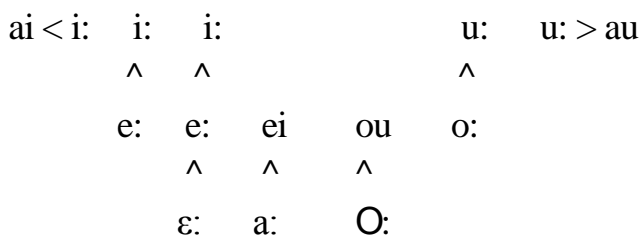
The well-known English scholar Henry Sweet and the Danish scholar Jespersen thought that the shift was completed only in the 18th century. Professor Wyld asserted that the shift was completed by the late 16th century.

The essence of the shift was: the narrowing of all Middle English long vowels (they became shorter) and the diphthongisation of the narrowest long ones.

These phonetic changes developed slowly and gradually. Professor Arakin shows how this shift was going on gradually:

14 century	15 century (beginning)	15 century (2 nd half)	16 century
ī	ī i	eī	aī
[t ī m ə]	[t ī I m]	[t e ī m]	[t a ī m]

The shift can be represented by the following diagram:



The Great Vowel Shift is also represented in the following table:

OE	ME	NE	Centuries
ī 1. līcian	ī līken	ai like (rise, side, time)	16 cent. shire [aɪə]
ō 2. tōþ	ō (closed) tooth	u: (sp. Oo) tooth (tool, moon, food)	16 cent. moor [uə]
ū 3. hūs	ū (ou) / (ow) hoūs	au house	16 cent.

		(down, now)	flower [auə]
ē ēo 4. mētan, sēon	ē (closed) meetan, seen	I: (sp. ee, ie, ei) sea, heap (sleep, keen, be)	16 cent. beer [Iə]
& ēa 5. s&, hēap	ē (open) see, heap	I: (sp. Ea) sea, heap (read, beat, clean)	17 cent. ear [Iə]
ā (ā) 6. bāt	ō (open) boot	ou (oa) boat (road, load, go)	17 cent. boar [O:]
ǣ 7. nāma	ā nāme (in open syl.)	Ei name (take, brave, same)	18 cent. hare [ɛə]

The spelling **ea** and **ee** were introduced only in the 16th century in order to differentiate between **ē** and **ē**. The diagraph **oa** began to designate the open **ō** and the diagraph **oo** - the close **ō**. No changes were noticeable because they developed gradually.

Influence of [r]

When the long vowel was followed by the consonant **r**, the results of the shift were somewhat different. Articulation of **r** favours a broader pronunciation of the preceding vowel, and in so far counteracts the tendency of the shift. The following table shows the specific features of the shift before **r**, as compared with other consonants.

Spelling	ME	MnE	Spelling	ME	MnE
1. fate	fa:t	feit	fare	fa:r	fɛər
2. beat	bɛ:t	bi:t	fear	fɛ:r	fiər
			bear	bɛ:r	bɛər
3. steep	ste:p	sti:p	steer	ste:r	stiər
4. time	ti:m	taim	tire	ti:r	taɪər
5. boat	bo:t	bout	boar	bo:r	bo:r
6. moon	mo:n	mu:n	moor	mo:r	muər
7. house	hu:s	haus	power	pu:ər	pauər

Triphthongs arising in words like *tire* and *power* eventually became diphthongs or even Monophthongs: [t a I ə r – t a ə r – t a: r; p a u ə r – p a ə r – p a: r]

As a result of these changes new phonemes [iə], [ɛə], [uə] came into being.

Special Cases

Some words have sounds, which do not correspond to the general law of vowel shift. This is due to some additional phonetic changes in such vowels in certain positions. The main deviations are as follows:

1. No change of ME [ū] into [au]. Long [ū] remained unchanged, when followed by a labial consonant.

NE	ME
room	room [u:]

2. Shortening of ē (open). (ME ea [e])

The ME [ē] did not change into [i:]. In some words, it was shortened, became close and did not undergo the vowel shift. The shortening is mainly found before **d, th**.

e.g. bread death
OE brēad; ME breed; NE bread

[ē] was shortened into [e] and therefore did not change into [i:]. The vowel was also shortened before **t, s, f**.

e.g. let, sweat, get, less, lest, deaf
(but: read, lead, beneath)

3. First shortening of [u:] in the 16th century.

The NE long [u:] from ME [ō] (closed) was shortened before dental consonant in the 16th century. In the 17th century, the short [u] became [V].

OE mādar; ME mo[O:]der; NE mo[V]ther

4. Second shortening of [u:]

In the 18th century, there was another shortening of [u:] before **k** and dental consonants.

e.g. OE bōc; ME boo[O:]k; NE boo[u]k

The Change [e:] > [I:]

In the 17th century, the last item of the vowel shift was completed. Long close [e:], resulting from ME long open [ɛ:] was narrowed to [I:]. As a result, the sound values of the digraphs **ea** and **ee** coincided.

e.g. beat [b e: t – b I: t], sea [s e: - s I:], meat [m e: t – m i: t], streak [s t r e: k – s t r I: k], lead [l e: d – l I: d], read [r e: d – r I: d].

In *great* and *break* the [e:] was preserved and was eventually diphthongized into [ei]; causes of this peculiar development are not clear.

New English French Borrowings

French borrowings of the 17th century and later did not undergo the vowel

shift but kept their French pronunciation and French stress.

e.g. promina[a:]de, va[a:]se, technique, unique, police, machine, etc.

Arise of [a:] and [o:]

In the 16th century two new long vowels arose [a:] and [o:]. The ME [ō] and [ā] changed according to the vowel shift, but new long [a:] and [o:] developed in NE.

They developed from the following sources:

1. [a:] from ME [ǣ].

In many words, the ME short ǣ before fricatives developed as follows:

ǣ > & > & > a:

e.g. before: θ (ð): bath, path, rather, father

s: brass, class, grass, pass

(when s + vowel = passenger, passage, classic)

st: last, past

sk: ask, mask, basket (but: ma[&]sculine)

sp: gasp, grasp, clasp.

However in the USA and in some dialects in Great Britain [&] is pronounced. But some words of this type have kept in the national language.

e.g. mass, lass.

2. [o:] and [a:] in the combination **al** + **consonant** (-all [O:], -alk [O:], -alm [a:], -alf [a:]).

a) In the 15th c. **al** developed into [aul]

e.g. all [aul]

talk [taulk]

b) In the 16th c. [aul] changed to [o:l]

e.g. all [O:], talk [O:]

However, in many French and Latin borrowed words with the diphthong [au] the latter also changed to [o:].

e.g. author, cautious, auxiliary

c) The sound [l] disappeared before [k] and labial consonant s.

e.g. talk [t O: l k] – [t O: k]

chalk [t O: l k] – [t O: k]

d) Both the combinations [-alm, -alf, -aulm, -aulf] developed to [a:m], [a:f] in the same way.

e.g. calm, half

3. [o:] and [a:] - the vocalization of [r].

The phoneme [r] was vocalized in the 18th century.

ǣ + r = [a:]

The short ǣ (ME) with the vocalized [r] became [a:] in NE.

e.g. arm, far [a:]

The ME sequence [er] changed in NE to [ar] and later to [a:]

er - ar - a:

e.g. ferre - far

sterre - star

clerk - clerk

Likewise the ME short **ǒ + r** became long [o:]

e.g. corn

Special Cases

Before **lf, lv** an [a:] develops; *calf, half, behalf, calve*. Some words, however, have [æ] and the [l] is preserved: *salve, valve*. The name *Ralph* is pronounced [r æ l f, r a: f, r e I f].

The development of [au] before the clusters **n + consonant** and **m + consonant** is difficult. Here we find three possibilities:

[æ]: cant, decanter, rant, scant, scanty, pant, grand, ancestor;

[a:]: plant, enchant, advantage, command, branch, chance, sample;

[o:]: gaunt, haunt, taunt.

Before **[n,d,g]** the vowel is usually [ei]: change, strange.

In the 19th and 20th c., the vowel in these words was often different from the present-day, as may be seen from descriptions given by phoneticians of the time. It would appear that the vowel in these words vacillated for a long time, one word probably influencing another, etc. Therefore, it does not seem possible here to establish a clear law governing the development of the vowel.

In a few words long [o:] did not develop into [ou] and tends to be shortened into [o], as in *cloth* (in the plural form *clothes* and in the verb *clothe* the vowel developed in the usual way).

There is vacillation between [o:] and [o] in the words *froth, cross, loss, toss, cost, frost*. The vowel of ME *gōn* (second participle of the verb *gōn*) has been shortened [g o n]; ME *hōt* yielded MnE *hot*; ME *sōry* yielded MnE *sorry*. The root vowel was also shortened in the word *sausage*.

Long [u:] was shortened before [k]: *book, cook, hook, took, brook, shook, crook*, and occasionally before other consonants as well, as in *good, stood, hood, foot, wool, soot* (but the words *brood, food, mood, rood*, have preserved the long vowel).

A few words vacillate between [u:] and [u:] *broom, room* (this word preserved ME long [u:] without diphthongization).

The Formation of the Phoneme [ɜ:] and the Centering Diphthongs

In the 16th century, a new vowel appeared, namely [ɜ:]. Its appearance was closely connected with changes of some vowels before [r] and with vocalization of [r]. The short ME vowels [i, e, u] followed by the vocalised [r] developed into [ɜ:].

e.g. her, burn, bird

The combination [wor] changed into [wɜ:].

e.g. word, work

The ME long vowels [ā, ē, ū + r] formed the modern diphthongs [ɛə], [iə], [uə] - the so-called centering diphthongs.

e.g. bear, bare, near, poor

Changes of Short Vowels in NE

1. The ME short [ǣ] changed into [æ] in the 16th century, except the case when it was followed by [w].

e.g. OE þæt ME that [θ ǣ t] NE that [ð æ t]

OE glæd ME glad [g l æ d] NE glad [g l æ d]

The combination wa [wa] – [wɔ] in the 17th century.

e.g. OE wæs ME was [w a s] NE was [w ɔ z]

But before [t, g, ŋ] – [wa] changed into [wæ]

e.g. wag

2. The ME [ū] lost its labialization. It became [ʌ] in most cases.

e.g. luck, cut

The same occurred with the spelling **o** as in *son, come, love*, where **o** represented the ME, **ū** in words like *blood, enough*. The long vowel **ū** was shortened in the 16th century and later developed into [ʌ].

But after the labial consonants [p, b, f] the ME short [ū] in many cases did not change into [ʌ].

e.g. put, full, bull, bush

Other Changes

In the 17th c., many facts show that [ei] and [e:] have been merged into [ei].

In the forms *says, saith, said* the vowel was shortened to [e]: [s e ɜ, s e θ, s e d]. This was due to the usually unstressed position of these forms.

At the same time vowels resulting from ME [o:] and [ou] were also merged: the vowels of *stone, oak, most* coincided with those of *slow, snow, low*.

Development of Unstressed Vowels

Unstressed vowels, which had tended to be shortened and lost during the entire

history of the English language, continued this trend in the Modern period. Most unstressed vowels were reduced to either [ɪ] or [ə]. The results of their development may be illustrated by the following examples:

1. In the second syllable of dissyllabic words:
 [ɪ]: wishes, ended, illness, village, mountain
 [ə]: patience, remnant, purpose
2. In the first syllable of disyllabic words:
 [ɪ]: begin, return
 [ə]: admire, announce, command

In some words, however, the unstressed vowel was not weakened. If the unstressed syllable is part of a compound word, its vowel may preserve its full articulation. This may be seen in the words *doorstep*, *hatband*. The quality of an unstressed vowel is also often preserved in scientific terms: *dialogue*, *syntax*, *chaos*, *phenomenon*.

Unstressed [ou] also often preserves its quality: *window*, *sorrow*, *yellow*, *fellow*. Weakening of [ou] to [ə] is typical of non-literary speech; compare spellings representing such speech: *winder*, *feller*.

The vowel [ə] between a consonant and [n] tends to disappear; the [n] becomes the syllabic: *nation* [ˈn eɪ Sə n > ˈn eɪ n]; *passion* [ˈp æ Sə n > ˈp æ n].

In polysyllabic words with initial stress intermediate vowels are often lost, and the number of syllables reduced by one or even two, as in *literature* [ˈlɪ t ə r ə t ə > ˈlɪ t rɪ t ə], *laboratory* [ˈl æ b ə r ə t ə rɪ > ˈl æ b ə r t rɪ > ˈl æ b r ɒ t rɪ], nowadays more often [l ə ˈb ɒ r ə t rɪ], *interesting* [ˈɪ n t rɪ s tɪ ŋ].

CHANGES IN THE SYSTEM OF CONSONANTS

Development of [x]

We must distinguish two variants of the development of [x]:

1. [x] before t,
 2. in final position.
1. [x] before t is lost, and the preceding short vowel is lengthened.
 e.g. *light* [lɪ x t – lɪ: t]; *bright* [brɪ x t – brɪ: t]; *night* [nɪ x t – nɪ: t], *brought* [brɒ u x t – brɒ: t].

Long [i:] arising from this change, took part in the vowel shift: [lɪ: t – l aɪ t]. Spelling did not reflect this change, and these words are spelt with **gh** up to the present time. After the digraph **gh** had become silent, it was introduced into the word *delight* (from French *delit*), on the analogy of the word *light*. In a similar way, the word *sprightly* is an arbitrary variant of the word *sprite* (spirit). In forms like *brought*, *fought* the [ou] developed into [o:].

In Northern dialects the [x] before t has been preserved to our days.

2. [x] final mostly changes into [f], as in *rough*, *enough*. The word *dwergh* came to be spelt *dwarf*. In all other cases, the spelling remained unchanged, so that the digraph **gh** came to denote the consonant [f].

In a few words final [x] was lost, as in *bough, dough, though*. On the other hand, the word *laughter* is pronounced with [f] that is probably due to influence of the word *laugh*.

Loss of [l] before [k, m, n, f, v]

[l] was lost before [k] and the labial consonants [m, f, v]. Thus, the words *talk, walk, chalk* came to be pronounced [t o: k, w o: k, tʃ O: k].

However, l before v was preserved in words of Latin origin, as in *dissolve, resolve, valve*.

[l] was lost before d in *should, would*, which were usually unstressed.

At the time when [l] was in the process of dropping and a word could be pronounced both with [l] and without it, an [l] appeared in words which had not had it in ME. This often happened in words of French origin; introduction of [l] might be supported by influence of the Latin prototype of the word and by imitation of French Latinizing spelling of the 14th and 15th centuries. Here belong the words *fault* (ME *faute* - Old French *faute* - Latin *falta* from *fallo* 'deceive'). It may be assumed that the letter first appeared as an etymologizing spelling, and then, under influence of various factors, the sound [l] appeared in these words.

Appearance and Loss of [w]

In a few words with an initial labialized vowel there appeared an initial (so-called prophetic) [w]. The most well known example is the word *one*. In OE it was *an*, in ME *ōn*. The later development is not quite clear. Already in the 16th century, the word was occasionally spelt *wone*, which points to appearance of initial [w]. The development seems to have been this: [o: n - w o: n - w u: n - w u n - w Λ n]. Even in the late 17th century, the pronunciation [w Λ n] was considered vulgar; in the 18th century, it was accepted by the literary language. A similar development took place in the adverb *once* [w Λ n s] - ME *ones*; compare also *none* and *nothing*.

[w] also appeared in the word *woof* (ME *oof* - OE *owef*). Here it was probably due to analogy of the words *weave* and *web*.

[w] was lost in an unstressed syllable after a consonant in the words *answer* [‘a: n s ə], *conquer* [‘k O ŋ k ə], *Greenwich* [‘g r I n I tʃ].

Compare also *it'll, it'd, I'll, you'll, he'll*. However, [w] was preserved in the words *conquest* [‘k O ŋ k w I s t], *forward*, and in other words containing the suffix **-ward**, except *towards* which vacillates between [t O: d z] and [t u ‘w o: d z]; also in the words *language, languish, languid*. In a stressed syllable [w] disappeared in the group **consonant + w + labialized vowel**:

e.g. *sword* [s o: d], *two* [t u:]; compare also *who, whom, whose*.

In the word *whole* [h o u l] the latter [w] was introduced in spelling on the analogy of *who, whom, whose*, when the [w] in these words was dropped. This spelling was probably due to the tendency of differentiating the word from the substantive *hole* (OE *holu* - ME *hōle*).

Voicing of Voiceless Fricatives

About the same time, voiceless consonants were voiced in several types of words. Conditions for the voicing have not yet been completely clarified: in some words, the process occurs, in others it does not, though phonetic conditions appear to be identical. One of the conditions for the change seems to have been the unstressed position of the preceding vowel.

Voicing mainly affects the consonant [s] and the cluster [ks], which become [z] and [gz], respectively. In a few words, it also affects the consonants [f] and [j], which accordingly become [v] and [dʒ].

1. [s – z]. The most well known examples of this voicing are some words of French origin: *dessert* [d I ‘z ə: t], *resemble*, *possess*, *observe*, *dissolve*. However, in some words, under identical phonetic conditions, the consonant remained voiceless: *dissect*, *dissemble*, *dissent*. The verb *discern* may be pronounced either [d I ‘z ə: n] or [d I ‘s ə: n].
2. [ks – gz]. The following pairs of words are illustrative of the change (in the second of each pair the vowel preceding the cluster has either primary or secondary stress: *exhibit* [I g ‘z I b I t] - *exhibition* [e k s I ‘b I S ə n], *anxiety* [æ ŋ ‘z a I t I], *anxious* [‘æŋ k] ə s].
3. The relation between [f] and [v] can only be illustrated by one example: of [əv] and off [o:f].
4. The change [t] > [dʒ] occurred in ME *knowleche* - ME *knowledge*; ME *partriche* - MnE *partridge*, also in geographical names like Greenwich [‘g r I n I dʒ], Norwich [‘n O r I dʒ].

The exact conditions of the change have yet to be studied.

The voicing of the initial fricative in the pronominal words *the*, *this*, *that*, *then*, *there*, *though*, *etc.* may as belong here, but it may also have occurred at an earlier date. Since both the voiceless and the voiced consonants are represented by the spelling **th**, the time of the change is hard to determine.

Loss of Consonants in Clusters

In many cases when a word ended in two consonants, the final one was lost. The following words belong here.

Final [mb] was simplified to [m] in *lamb*, *dumb*, *climb*, *comb*, *tomb*, *plumb*, *bomb*. When final [b] was dropped, the letter [b] was preserved, and on the analogy of these words the letter was added to words ending in [m] which had never had any final [b]. This is the case in *thumb* (OE þuma), *limb* (OE lim), *crumb* (OE cruma).

Final [mn] was also simplified to [m] in *damn*, *condemn*, *hymn*, *column*, *solemn*, *autumn*.

Final [ln] was simplified to [l] in *mill* (OE *myln*). In *kiln* final [n] is usually preserved.

In some cases in a cluster of three consonants the middle one was dropped.

The cluster [stl] was simplified to [sl] in *castle*, *whistle*, *rustle*, *bustle*; the cluster [stn] was simplified to [sn] in *glisten*, *fasten*, *moisten*; the cluster [ftn] was simplified to [fn] in *often*, *soften*; [stm] – [sm] in *Christmas*, *postman*; [ktl] – [kl] in *exactly*, *directly*; [ktn] – [kn] in *exactness*; [skl] – [sl] in *muscle*.

The clusters [ndg], [ldg] may change to [ndʒ], [ldʒ] as in French *strange*, *danger*, *divulge*. [d] is dropped in the clusters [dnz, nds, ndm, ndk], etc., as in *Wednesday*, *handsome*, *grandmother*, *grandfather*, *landscape*, *handkerchief*.

The clusters [ntch], [lth] may change to [nʃ], [lʃ] as in *French*, *branch*, *milch*.

On the other hand, words having one final consonant sometimes acquire another. Thus, some words with final [n] have added a –d: *soun* - *sound*, *poune* - *pound*, *boun* - *bound*, *astoune* - *astound*, *lene* - *lend*.

Some words of French origin with final -n have acquired a -t: *peasant*, *pheasant*, *tyrant*.

The causes of this change are not quite clear. Possibly they were due to the analogy of words with final -nd or -nt: *land*, *hand*, *band*, *bond*, *kind*, *mend*, *rend*, *sent*, *spend*, *tend*, *extend*, *expand*, *wind*, *crescent*, *orient*, *Occident*, *patient*, *pint*.

In the clusters [mt] and [ms], an intermediate p may appear: *empty*, *glimpse* (ME *emti*, *glimse*).

A final -t appeared in several prepositions and conjunctions in -s: *amonges* - *amongst*, *amidde* – *amidst*, *againes* – *against*.

Change of [d] to [ð] when Close to [r]

The consonant [d] becomes [ð] in the neighbourhood of r in the words *fader* - *father*, *moder* - *mother*, *gadere* - *gather*, *togedere* - *together*. A similar change [t > θ] appears to have taken place in *autour* - *author*.

[j] Merged with Preceding Consonant

The last essential phonetic change in the sphere of consonants was merger of [j] with the preceding consonant. This happened after a stressed vowel. The change affected the clusters [sj, zj, tj, dj] and a few others.

The change [sj – ʃ] occurred in the following words: *Asia*, *Russia*, *pension*, *session*, *digression*, *social*, *musician*.

In many words the spelling is -ti-. This spelling, borrowed from French, denoted in French the cluster [sj] and was taken over into English. After the change [sj – ʃ] it came to denote the consonant t: *nation*, *revolution*, *population*, and many more words in -tion: *patient*, *ratio*, *partial*.

In a few words, we find the spellings -xi- and -xu-; in these cases, the changing cluster is preceded by [k]: *connexion* (*connection*), *anxious*, *luxury*.

In some words of a literary or scientific character the pronunciation [sj] or [si] is preserved or restored under the impact of the spelling: *halcyon* [ˈhælsɪən], *axiom* [ˈæksɪəm], *peninsula* [pɪˈnɪnsjələ], *insulate* [ˈɪnsjuleɪt].

In *issue* and *tissue*, both pronunciations can be heard: [ˈɪʃu:], [ˈtɪʃu:] and [ˈɪsju:], [ˈtɪsju:].

When the cluster [sj] preceded the stress vowel, it usually remained unchanged: *suit* [sju:t], *assume* [əˈsjum]. However, in two words [sj] preceding the stressed vowel changed into [ʃ]: *sure* [ʃuə] and *sugar* [ˈʃugə].

The change [zj – ʒ] is parallel to the change [sj – ʃ]: *collision* [kəˈlɪʒən], *precision* [pɪˈsɪʒən], *division* [dɪˈvɪʒən].

The group [zju] yields [ʒu – ʒə]: *measure* [mɛʒə], *treasure* [ˈtrɛʒə], *leisure* [lɛʒə]; compare also *usual* [ˈu:ʒəl].

Some rarer words preserve [zj] or [zi]: *Parisian* [pəˈrɪzɪən], *Caucasian* [kəˈkɛɪzɪən], *gymnasium* [dʒɪmˈnɛɪzɪəm].

Before a stressed vowel this change only occurred in the word *luxurious* [lʌgˈʒjʊəriəs]. Usually [zj] is preserved in such conditions: *resume* [rɪˈzju:m], *presume* [pɪˈzju:m].

[tj] becomes [tʃ] in a number of words: *question* [ˈkwɛstʃən], *righteous* [ˈraɪtʃəs], *digestion* [dɪˈdʒɛstʃən].

The group [tju] yielded [tʃu – tʃə]: *nature* [ˈneɪtʃə], *culture* [ˈkʌltʃə] and many other words in **-ture**.

In a few words two pronunciations may be heard: [tʃ] as a result of phonetic development, and [tj] influenced by the spelling: *virtue* [ˈvɜ:tʃu:] and [ˈvɜ:tju:], *statue* [ˈstætʃu:] and [ˈstætju:].

Before a stressed vowel [tj] is preserved: *tune* [tju:n], *student* [ˈstju:dənt].

The change [dj – dʒ] is parallel to [tj – tʃ], but it is only found in a few words; *soldier* [ˈsɔljə], *virtue* [ˈvɜ:dʒə].

In many cases [dj] is preserved: *tedious* [ˈtɪdʒəs], *educate* [ˈɛdʒuket]. The pronunciation [dʒ] in these words is non-literary.

In quick speech the changes [tj – tʃ] and [dj – dʒ] sometimes occur even when the [t] or [d] is the final consonant of one word, and the [j] the initial consonant of another. Such pronunciation is sometimes reflected in spelling: compare: *Doncher know?* for *Don't you know?* or *How didge manage?* for *How did you manage?*

The change [zj – ʒ] brought about the rise of a new phoneme while the other changes merely increased the number of words containing the phonemes [ʃ, tʃ, dʒ], which had existed in the language before. The number of words containing the new phoneme [ʒ] soon grew owing to French loan words of the Restoration period.

In all cases considered so far, the [j] was absorbed by the preceding consonant, yielding a fricative or an affricate.

In the cases to be considered now [j] disappears without leaving any trace.

Thus, it is lost after the liquid consonants [r] and [l].

In words like *crew*, the change is [k r I u > k r j u > k r u:], also in *grew*, *threw*, and, with a different spelling, *fruit*, *rude*, *crude*, *bruise*, *peruse*.

After [l] two varieties have to be distinguished. If [l] is preceded by another consonant, the [j] disappears, as in *blue*, *flute*, *sluice*, *plural*.

If [l] is not preceded by another consonant, two pronunciations are possible: with [j] and without it. The pronunciation without [j] seems, however, to prevail. Compare *luminous*, *lute*, *lunar*, *salute*.

[j] is also dropped after [tʃ] and [dʒ], as in *chew*, *jubilee*. In non-literary speech [j] is dropped after some other stop consonants: [t, d, n]. In the USA loss of [j] after these consonants is very frequent: *new* [n u:], *dew* [d u:], *tune* [t u: n].

Loss of Consonants in Initial Clusters

In certain cases, the initial consonant of a cluster is lost. Thus, [k] and [g] are lost before [n] in *knave*, *knight*, *knee*, *know*, *knit*, *knell*, *gnat*, *gnarled*, *gnaw*; also in words of Greek origin: *gnosis*, *gnomic*.

When [kn] or [gn] was preceded by a vowel, it was preserved, as in *acknowledge*, *diagnosis*.

Initial [w] is lost before [r]: *write*, *wrong*, *wring*.

The cluster [hw] or the voiceless [w], which was denoted by the spelling **wh**, changed into [w]. In present-day English pronunciation there is usually no difference between *which* and *witch* and between *whether* and *weather*, however, the pronunciation [hw] or [w] for written **wh** can also be heard.

The consonant [h] was dropped in many unstressed syllables, as in *forehead* [ˈf o: r I d], *shepherd* [ˈʃ e p ə d].

Spelling Pronunciations

Some loan words, mostly bookish ones, whose spelling was more familiar than their sounding, had their pronunciation influenced by the spelling. For example, the words *fault* and *vault* were borrowed from French as *faut*, *vaut*; then the letter **f** was introduced to mark their ultimate Latin origin (*falta*, *volta*), and finally an [l] appeared in pronunciation as well. The word *nephew* (from French *neveu*) was spelt *neuw* in ME. But as the French word comes from Latin *nepotem*, an etymological spelling with **ph** was introduced in English. Eventually a new pronunciation [ˈn e f j u:] induced by the spelling appeared alongside [ˈn e v j u:].

LECTURE IX

DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM (OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH) PRELIMINARY REMARCS PARTS OF SPEECH AND GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

OUTLINE

1. Old English Grammatical System
2. Middle English Grammatical System
3. New English Grammatical System

(Short Characterization of each Period in the development of the English Language).

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LISTENING

The Birth of a Language, *The Structure of English*

OLD ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

We will make a short account of the Grammatical Categories of all these three periods in the development of the English language. We will begin with a characterization of the Grammatical Structure of OE.

OE possessed a well-developed morphological system made up of synthetic grammatical forms. OE was a synthetic language. It showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple grammatical forms. The means of grammatical form building were as follows:

1. grammatical endings
2. sound alternation in root-morphemes
3. prefixes
4. suppletive formation

1. Grammatical endings (or inflexions), were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all the parts of speech that could change their form; they were usually used alone but could also occur in combinations with other means.

2. Sound alternations (or interchanges) were employed on a more limited scale and were often combined with other form building means, especially endings. Vowel interchanges were more common than interchanges of consonants. Sound alternations were not confined to verbs, but were also used in the form-buildings of nouns and adjectives.

3. The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs.

4. Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives and a couple of verbs.

It is important to note that no analytical form existed in OE. The grammatical system was of a synthetic (inflected) type. In discussing OE grammar, we will consider the main inflected parts of speech, characterized by certain grammatical categories the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb and the verb.

Grammatical categories are usually subdivided into nominal categories, found in nominal parts of speech and verbal categories found chiefly in the finite verb.

We shall assume that there were 5 nominal grammatical categories in OE:

1. Number
2. Case

3. Gender
4. Degrees of Comparison
5. The Category of Definiteness/Indefiniteness

The noun, the adjective, the pronoun and the numeral in OE had the categories of gender, number and case.

These categories were independent in the noun, while in the adjective and the pronoun they were dependent, i.e. they showed agreement with the corresponding noun.

Gender was represented by 3 distinct groups of nouns: masculine, feminine, neuter.

From the point of view of number, the parts of speech fell into 2 groups, they all distinguished 2 numbers; the singular and the plural. While the personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person had also special forms to denote 2 objects, i.e. forms of dual number.

The category of case was represented by 4 cases: in the noun, adjective, pronoun and some cardinal numerals.

1. Nominative
2. Genitive
3. Dative
4. Accusative

(Sometimes - the Instrumental case - for the adjective)

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous:

1. Tense
2. Mood (verbal categories proper)
3. Number
4. Person (showing agreement between the verb-predicate and the subject)

The distinction of categorical forms by the noun and the verb was to a large extent determined by their division into morphological classes: declensions and conjugations.

MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

As it was said, the grammatical system of OE was of a synthetic type. But in OE, a general tendency towards the leveling, simplification and sometimes disappearing of some inflected forms may be observed. Thus, the survival of the inflected forms of the Instrumental Case in some OE adjectives (and some pronouns) indicate that at an earlier period of time there must have

been an Instrumental Case in the declension of Nouns.

The i-stem nouns had lost almost all their specific inflexions in the OE period. This process of weakening and disappearing of inflective forms is accelerated in the ME period.

In the course of 400 years of the ME period most of the inflected forms of nouns, adjectives and verbs are gradually reduced and many of them disappeared.

The disappearing inflected forms are gradually replaced by new so-called analytical forms, such as form words, prepositions and auxiliary verbs instead of inflexions.

Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions).

The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical value in the compound form. Cf., e.g. the meaning and function of the verb *to have* in OE *he hæfde Ða* – “he had them” (the prisoners); *Hie hīve ofsláþene hæfdon* - they had him killed or, perhaps, they had killed him, *Hie hæfdon oferþan fastenþle* - they had overspread East Anglian territory. In the first sentence *have* denotes possession, in the second the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third; it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of *have* in the translation of the sentence into MdE. The auxiliary verb *have* and the form of Part.II are the grammatical markers of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle.

The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

By the end of the ME period (XV century) the grammatical system of English is rather close to that of Modern English. The line of development of the grammatical system, i.e. from the predominance of inflected forms to analytical forms is typical of Germanic Languages.

The process of leveling and weakening the inflexions is closely connected with the phonetic process of the reduction of vowels in unstressed endings.

But still it is difficult to determine the inner relations of these two processes. The ME weakening of inflexions and the reduction of final vowels began first and developed faster in the Northern and Midland dialects, because these dialects were influenced by Scandinavian dialects (X-XII cent.). In the Southern dialects the process was slower.

NEW ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

The leveling and the simplification of the morphological system, the loss of inflexions and the development of analytical forms brought the English grammatical system very close to the present-day condition by the beginning of the NE period.

But in early NE there were many survivals of earlier periods.

Generally, it must be said that analytical form-building was not equally productive in all parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification. Simplifying changes began in PG times. They continued at a slow rate during the OE period and were intensified in Early NE.

The period between 1000 and 1300 has been called *the age of great changes* for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English Grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost - *Gender* and *Case* in *Adjectives*, *Gender* in *Nouns*. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In late ME the adjective lost the last vestiges of the old paradigm: the distinction of number and distinction of weak and strong forms.

Already at the time of Chaucer, and certainly by the age of Caxton the English nominal system was very much like modern, not only in its general pattern, but also in minor details.

The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process; it cannot be described in terms of one general trend. The simplification and leveling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform. The OE morphological classification of the verb was practically broken up. But on the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms came into being. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased. The verb acquired the categories of voice, time correlation and aspect. Within the category of tense there developed a new form: the Future Tense. In the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. The Infinitive and the Participle lost many nominal features and developed verbal features; they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It should be mentioned that new changes in the verb system extended from Late OE till Late NE.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax. The main of them were:

- the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence;
- the growth of predicative constructions;

– the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses.

Syntax changes are mostly observed in late ME and in NE.

CONCLUSIONS: In the course of development the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period the very grammatical type of language has changed: from a *synthetic* (inflected) language with a well-developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the *analytical* type, with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones.

But the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable constituents.

The following survey of grammar under consideration deals with the main parts of speech: the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Verb (+ the Adverb). We shall consider them separately in the course of three periods: OE - ME - NE. Many features of syntax will be self-evident from the study of morphology. The description of syntax is confined only to the main peculiarities which may help to trace the trends of development in later periods.

LECTURE X

THE NOUN (OLD ENGLISH –MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE

1. Old English Nouns
 - a. Grammatical Categories
 - b. The Use of Cases
 - c. Morphological Classification of Nouns. Declension
 - d. The Strong Declension (Vocalic Stems)
 - e. Weak Declension (N-stems)
 - f. R-stems
 - g. Relics of S-stems
 - h. Root-stems
2. Middle English Noun
 - a. Paradigms of ME Declension of Nouns in the 14th century
 - b. Survivals of OE Plural Forms
 - c. OE Dative Case of the Infinitive and the Participle **to**
 - d. Prepositional Phrases
3. New English Noun
 - a. New English Noun Categories
 - b. Relics in the Category of Number (Plural of Nouns)

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OLD ENGLISH NOUN

Grammatical Categories. The Use of Cases

The OE Noun had two grammatical and morphological categories: number and case. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category. It was merely a classifying feature, accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes.

The category of Number consisted of 2 members: singular and plural. They will be clearly seen in all declensions.

The Noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative. In most declensions two or even three forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinction of cases was less consistent than that of numbers.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE can be loosely defined as the case of the active agent, for it was the case of the subject used with the verbs, denoting activity; the Nominative case could also indicate the subject, characterised by a certain quality or state; the Nominative case could serve as a predicative and as the case of address.

THE GENITIVE CASE was the case of nouns and pronouns serving as attributes to other nouns.

e.g. *hiora scipu* (their ships)

THE DATIVE CASE was the chief case used with prepositions: *on mo3enne* (in the morning) alongside with the Accusative, Dative could indicate the passive subject of a state.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. Being a direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action and other meanings

e.g. *hive na nes Pin3es ne lyste* (nothing pleased him)

It should be noted that one and the same verb could be construed with different cases without any noticeable change of meaning. The vague meaning of cases was of great consequence for the subsequent changes of the case system.

Morphological Classification of Nouns. Declension

The most peculiar feature of OE nouns was their division into several types of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The term declension is also known as stem. The stem is the root together with the stem-suffix.

The Indo-European noun consisted of 3 morphemes:

	Root	+	Stem-Forming	+	Case Ending Suffix
Russ.	чит	-	ал	-	a
	им	-	ен	-	ем
Lat.	lup	-	u	-	s

The division of nouns into declensions was as follows:

I. Nouns with vowel-stems (vocalic stems).

a - stems (masc., neutr.) wa – stems

j a - stems

o - stems (fem.) wo – stems

jo - stems

u - stems (masc., fem)

i - stems (masc.,fem., neutr.)

It is known as strong declension (vocalic stems).

II. Nouns with n-stems. The weak declension

Nouns of all genders belong here.

III. Nouns with consonant-stems

r-stems

s - stems

nd-stems

Nouns of all genders belong here.

IV. Nouns with root-stems.

The nouns of masc. and fem. belong here.

The division into stems does not coincide with the division into genders. Some stems were confined to one or two genders only, thus a-stems were only masc. or neutr., o-stems were always fem. and others included all genders.

The Strong Declension (Vocalic Stems)

a-stems may be either masc. or neutr.

Masc: stan (stone)

Sg. PI.

N. stan stanas

G. stanes stana

	D. stane	stanu		
	Acc. stan	stanas		
	Neutr. <i>scip</i> (ship), ban			
	Sg.		PL.	
N..	scip	ban	Scipu	Ban
G.	scipes	banes	Scipa	Bana
D.	scipe	bane	Scipum	Banum
Acc.	Scip	ban	Scipu	Ban

The difference between the 2 genders is only seen in the Nominative plural. In the Nominative gender the ending depends on two factors;

- on the number of syllables
- on the quantity of the root-syllable (shortness/length)

In monosyllabic words with a short root-syllable, the Nominative and Accusative plural have the ending **u**.

In monosyllabic words with long, root-syllable these cases have no ending at all. In disyllabic words with a short root-syllable, these cases have no ending. In disyllabic words with a long root-syllable, they have the ending **u**.

These differences depend on rhythmical causes. The words, having the vowel **æ** in the singular change it into **a** in the plural.

In words, ending in **f, ð** these consonants become voiced **v, ð** before a case ending.

There are two variants of a-stem: **wa-**, **ja-**stems. They have the elements of **j** and **w** in their paradigm.

As far as **ja-**stems are concerned, their root vowel undergoes mutation under the influence of an original **j** in the stem.

O-stems.

Germanic **o**-stems are sometimes called **a**-stems, because their **o** corresponds to the Indo-European **a**.

o-stems are all feminine.

The form of the Nominative depends on two factors: the number of syllables and the shortness/length of the root-syllable.

Monosyllabic words with a short root-syllable take in this case the ending **u**.

Monosyllabic ones with a long root-syllable and disyllabic ones have no ending at all.

N.	carru (care)	far (journey)	Cara	fora
G.	care	fore	Cara	fora
D.	care	fore	Carum	forum
Acc.	Care	fore	Cara	fora

There are two variants: **wo**-stems and **jo**-stems. As to **jo**-stems, their root-vowel underwent mutation, induced by an original **j** in the stem.

a-stems and **o**-stems are the most common stems in OE.

I-stems

Among **i**-stems there are nouns of all 3 genders: masc., fem. and neuter. The masc. and neuter **i**-stems do not differ much in their declensions from the **a**-stems; and the feminine ones do not differ much from the **o**-stems. The root vowel had undergone mutation.

U-stems

Among **u**-stems there are nouns of 2 genders: masc., and feminine. The form of the Nominative and Accusative sg. depends on the length or shortness of their root syllable.

Nouns having a short root-syllable have in the Nominative and Accusative sg. the ending **u**. Those with a long one have no ending at all.

Masculine

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	sunu (son)	feld (field)	sunu	felda
G.	sunu	felda	sunu	felda
D.	sunu	felda	sunu	feldum
Acc.	sunu	feld	sunu	felda

Feminine

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	duru (door)	hand (hand)	duru	handa
G.	duru	handa	duru	handa
D.	duru	handa	duru	handum
Acc.	duru	hand	duru	handa

Weak Declension (N-stems)

N-stems correspond to Russian nouns like *умя*. Nouns of all genders belong here:

		Singular	
	Masc.	Feminine	Neuter
N.	nama (name)	cwene (woman)	eare (ear)
G.	naman	cwenan	earan
D.	naman	cwenan	earan
Acc.	naman	cwenan	eare
		Plural	
N.	naman	cwenan	earan
G.	namena	cwenena	earena
D.	namum	cwenum	earum.
Acc.	naman	cwenan	earan
e.g.	M.	F.	N.
	3una (man)	heorte (heart)	eare (ear)
	wifa (a wise man)	eorþe (earth)	ea3e (eye)
	steorra (star)		
	mona (moon)		
	dema (judge)		

Some abstract nouns as *brædu* were originally F. n-stems. But these nouns took the u-ending in the Nomin. Sg. on the analogy of o-stems and thou are usually unchanged in the Sg. Plural forms of these nouns are not found. N-stems correspond to Russian words like - *имена*.

R-stems

R-stems are represented by a few M. and F. nouns, denoting relationship. They are:

fæder (father)	modor (mother)
dohter (daughter)	broþar (brother)
sweester (sister)	

The Dative Sg. Of these nouns usually had mutation.

Masculine

	Sσ		Dl	
N.	fæder	broþor	Fædras	broþor
G.	fæder, -es	broþor	Fædera	Broþra

D.	fæder	breðer	Fæderum	broþrum
Acc.	Fæder	broþor	Fæderas	broþor

Feminine

N.	mador	dohtor	madru(a)	dohtor (tra. tru)
G.	modor	dohtor	Modra	Dohtra
D.	raeder	dehter	Modrum	Dohtrum
Acc.	Modor	Dohtor	modru(a)	dohtor (tra, tru)

R-stems correspond to the Russian nouns *мать, дочь*.

Relies of S-stems

From a purely OE standpoint these stems may be called R-stems, but as this term (r-stems) is applied to the type *fæder*, these nouns are mostly termed S-stems

A few neuter nouns preserved in OE a system of declension showing in all case of the Plural an R-element. This **r** comes from the Indo-European stem-building suffix **s** (rhotacism).

	Sσ		Pl	
N.	lamb (lamb)	Cild (child)	Lambru	cild (cildru)
G.	lambes	Cildes	Lambra	cilda(cildra)
D.	lambe	Cilde	Lambrum	cildum
Acc.	Lamb	Cild	Lambru	cild(cildru)

The noun *cild* mostly has its Pl. forms derived without **r**, according to the system of neuter a-stems, with a long root syllable.

Occasionally, however, it has **r** in the N., G., and Acc. Plural. S-stems correspond to the Russian nouns *небо - небеса, чудо - чудеса*.

Root-stems

The words of this type never had any stem-forming suffix, so the case endings were added immediately to the root. This type of stem is represented in various Indo-European languages. Masculine root-stems are declined in the following way:

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	mann (man)	fo̅t (foot)	menn	fet
G.	mannes	fates	manna	fota
D.	menn	fet	mannum	fotum
Acc.	mann	fot	menn	fet

In 3 case-forms in the D. sg. and in the N. and Acc. pl. there is a result of

mutation.

		Feminine	
	Sg.		Pl.
N.	hnutu (nut) boc (book)	Hnvtē	Boc
G.	hnute	Boce	boca
D.	hnyte	Bec	Hnutum
Acc.	Hnutu	Boc	Hnyte

Altogether, there were only 8 endings employed in the noun paradigms: a, e, u, as, es, um and the 0 (zero) inflexion.

MIDDLE ENGLISH NOUN

The OE system of declension of nouns according to their stems is gradually weakened and finally disintegrates.

1. The paradigms of different stems of the strong declension are gradually levelled and confused. The specific inflexions of OE cases become unified and simplified, weakened and phonetically reduced. Many such inflexions gradually disappear.
2. The inflexion of the weak declension en (from OE an) also gradually disappears.
3. In early ME there are still a variety of paradigms of noun declension. But by the end of the 14th century, the entire system of OE noun declension is already reduced to a very simple paradigm.

Together with the disintegration of the old system of the declension of nouns grammatical gender disappears, because it was closely connected with the system of stem-declension.

In the Northern and Midland dialects, grammatical gender already disappeared in the 11th and the 12th centuries. In the Southern dialects, it disappeared later on.

Paradigms of ME Declension of Nouns in the 14 century

	Sg.	Pl.
N.	ston	stones ⁶
G.	stones	stones

⁶ s - in the plural - as a survival

D. ston	stones
Acc. ston	stones
N. dor	dore, dores
G. dores	dore, dores
D. dor	dore, dores
Acc. dor	dore, dores

The inflexions of nouns, as we see, were reduced to their present day status in the literary language of the 14th cent. Namely, two OE inflexions remained in the language. They were extended to all types of Nouns and are still widely used in Modern English:

1. The inflexion of the Plural of the NE **(e)s** – ME **es** – OE **as**. This inflexion is from OE **a - m**. Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl. spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number.

In Late ME the ending **-es** was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl. In Early NE, it extended to more nouns - to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed **-es** as one of the variant endings. The pl. ending **-es** (as well as the ending **-es** of the Gen. Case) underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables.

2. The inflexion of the Possessive Case **s**, which is a survival of the ME Genitive case ending **es**. It is from OE Genitive inflexion of Masc. and Neuter **a-stem** nouns. The history of the Genitive Case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE, it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME, the Gen. Case is used only *Attributively*, to modify a noun, but even in this function, it has a rival -prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition *of*. The practice to express genitival relations by the *of*-phrase goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in Alfric's writings (10th cent.), but its regular use instead of the inflexional Gen. does not become established until the 12th c. The use of the *of*-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts, there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the *of*-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones.

The Survivals of OE Plural Forms

The survivals of OE and ME plural forms of nouns are usually

classified in Mod. English Grammar as exceptions (*feet, deer, teeth*). They are remnants of old forms, such as:

1. The Mod. plural forms *men, feet, teeth, geese, etc.*, which were nouns of the root declensions in OE. They had no inflections in the plural, but a mutation.

e.g. OE man -menn

ME man- menn

OE f ot - fet

ME foot – feet

2. The Modern plural forms *deer, sheep, swine* were OE neuter nouns, which had no inflections in the plural.

e.g. OE ME

sceap shep

deor der

swin(e) swine

3. Some OE nouns of the weak declension kept an *-en* inflexion from OE *an* in the plural.

e.g. ox – oxen

4. This *-en* suffix was also added to the plural forms of some r-stem nouns:

e.g. broker – brethren

5. The *-en* suffix was also added to the plural forms of two nouns, belonging to s-stems in OE.

e.g. OE cild - cildru

ME child – children

OE Dative Case of the Infinitive and the Participle *to*

The OE Dative of the Infinitive, which expressed direction or purpose, loses its *e* inflexion and its syntactical meaning. Moreover, the preposition *to* becomes a particle before the Infinitive, deprived of any semantic value as in Md.E.

Prepositional Phrases

Together with the disintegration of the inflected forms of nouns, the development of prepositional phrases takes place. Thus, the *of-phrase* develops and performs the function of the Genitive Case.

The Dative inflected case is supplanted by the *to-phrase*. The original

meaning of the preposition *of* was *from* and *to* indicated *direction*.

The original meanings of the prepositions *of* and *to* are weakened and they show only grammatical relations.

This process must have played the main role.

First, prepositions began to be used to show more exactly the meaning of the cases and then the inflexion of the cases began to lose their meaning and the main expression of syntactical relations was transferred to prepositions.

NEW ENGLISH NOUN

By the beginning of the NE period grammatical gender and the declension of nouns were completely lost. The only inflexions that remained are as follows:

1. The inflexion of the Modern Possessive Case '-s-' which has two sources:

- a. the inflexion of the OE Genitive Case sg. masc. and neuter, **a-stem** > **es**
- b. the possessive pronoun *his*, which in the 14-16th c., was often placed after nouns to indicate possession.

2. The inflexions of the Plural of Nouns, of which there are several types:

a. the regular modern inflexion of nouns in the plural.

e.g. (e) s [s, z, iz]

b. a survival of the OE n-stems (weak declension), i.e. the OE inflexion -an-en (ME reduced), which remained in the plural of the noun.

e.g. ox - oxen

and was transferred to *child* - *children*, which belonged to s-stems; and *brother* - *brothren* (r-stems)

c. The OE plural forms of the certain nouns with root-stems, which underwent mutation, but in which no inflexions remained in NE.

e.g. man-men, feet, geese, teeth, mice, lice.

d. Some OE neuter nouns without inflexions in the plural, which have kept their plural forms.

e.g. deer, sheep, swine

e. Some nouns with a final f, θ which have kept the OE vocalization in the intervocalic position in the plural;

e.g. lives, wives, wolves, baths, paths

but in some words vocalization disappeared e.g. roofs, beliefs.

LECTURE XI

THE PRONOUN

(OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE

1. Old English Pronoun

- a. Personal Pronouns
- b. Demonstrative Pronouns
- c. Possessive Pronouns
- d. Interrogative Pronouns
- e. Relative Pronouns
- f. Indefinite Pronouns
- g. Definite Pronouns
- h. Negative Pronouns

2. Middle English Pronoun

- a. Personal Pronouns
- b. Possessive Pronouns
- c. Demonstrative Pronouns. The Definite Article
- d. The Indefinite Article
- e. Interrogative Pronouns
- f. Reflexive Pronouns
- g. Relative Pronouns
- h. Other Pronouns

3. New English Pronoun

- a. Personal Pronouns
- b. Possessive Pronouns
- c. Reflexive Pronouns
- d. Demonstrative Pronouns
- e. Interrogative Pronouns
- f. Other Pronouns

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LISTENING

The Birth of a Language, *The Structure of English*

OLD ENGLISH PRONOUN

There were several types of pronouns OE: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, possessive, negative, relative, definite and indefinite. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to those of nouns (in "noun—pronoun") or corresponded to those of adjectives (in "adjective-pronoun"). Some features of pronouns were peculiar to them alone.

Personal Pronouns

In OE, as in Gothic there is besides sg. and pl. personal pronouns also a dual number for the 1st and 2nd persons.

Singular				
I person	II person	III person		
N. ic	þu	he	heo, hio	hit
G. min	þin	his	hire, hierē	his
D. me	þe	him	hire, hierē	him
A. mec, me	þec, þe	hire	hie, hi, hy	hit
Dual number				
I person	II person	III person		
N. wit	3it			
G. uncer	incer			
D. unc	inc			
A. unc, unit	inc, incit			
Plural				
I person	II person	III person		
N. we	3e	hie, hi, hy, heo		
G. ure, user	eower	hira, heora, hiera, hyra		
D. us	eow	him, heom		
A. usic, us	eowinc, eow	hie, hi, hy, heo		

Personal pronouns were declined like nouns according to a 4-case system. The forms of the oblique cases differed greatly from the basic Noun-case form, as most of the sounds were altered. The ancient ending and the root had fused into one morpheme. Some pronouns, namely in the 1st person had suppletive

forms.

Some case forms of the pronouns of the IIIrd person were similar to those of the demonstrative pronouns. Special attention should be paid to the G. case of the personal pronouns. Besides, being used as forms of the oblique case (objects), they were used in an attributive function.

e.g. his modar - his mother

sunu min - my son

Demonstrative Pronouns

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: **se**, **þes**. **Se**, - the prototype of *that*, which distinguished 3 genders in the sg. and had one form for all the genders in the pl.: se (m.) - seo (f) - þæt (N.)-sg. + þa-pl.

þes - the prototype of *this*, with the same subdivisions: þes (m.) - þeos(f.) - þis (N.sg.) + þas (pl.)

Demonstrative pronouns were declined like adjectives and thus had a 5-case system. They took specific pronominal endings in some case forms that are endings, which are not found in the noun declension: **r** in the G. pl., **m** in the D. sg.

The pronoun **se**, (**seo**, **þæt**) (*that*) was widely used before nouns with the weakened demonstrative meaning, approaching that of the definite article and might help one determine the case, gender and number of the corresponding noun.

There were no articles in OE. The definite article developed from this pronoun in ME.

The Declension of the Demonstrative Pronouns se (seo , þæt)

Masc.	Neuter	Feminine	Plural
N. se. se	þæt	Seo	þa
G. þæs	þæs	þære	þara. þæra
D. þæm. þam	þæm. þam	þære	þam þæm
A.þone. þa	þæt	þa	þa
Inst. þy, þon	þy,þon	þæ	þare
	þæm, þam		

Its paradigm, just like other nominal paradigms contains some homonymous forms.

Possessive Pronouns

These pronouns are derived from the G. case of the personal pronouns of

all persons and numbers. They are: **þin, min, incer, uncer, ure, eower** -they are declined as strong adjectives. The possessive pronouns **his, hire, hiera** are unchanged. There is the reflective possessive pronoun – **sin**, which is also declined as a strong adjective.

Interrogative Pronouns

The interrogative pronouns **hwa, hwæt** have only singular forms:

N.	hwa	hwæt
G.	hwæs	hwæs
D.	hwæm	hwæm
A.	hwone	hwæt
Inst.	hwy	hwi

The interrogative pronoun **hwilc (which)** is declined according to the strong declension of adjectives.

Relative Pronouns

The most usual OE relative pronoun is **þe**.

e.g. *þa beorðas, þe, man hæf Alpis – the mountains, which are called the Alps.*

The pronoun **seþe** is also used, consisting of the demonstrative pronoun **se** and the relative pronoun **þe**. The pronoun **se** can also be used as a relative pronoun without **þe**, but **se** is inflected, according to gender, number, case, while **þe** remains unchanged.

Indefinite Pronouns

Sum (some) and **ænið (any)** are indefinite pronouns. They are declined as strong adjectives.

Definite Pronouns

The pronouns **3ehwa (every)** is declined as **hwa**. The Pronoun **3ehwilc (each)**, **ælc (each)**, **æðþer (either)** and **swilc (such)** are declined as strong adjectives. The pronoun **se ilca (the same)** – as weak adjectives.

Negative Pronouns

The negative pronouns **nan** and **næni3** (**no and none**) are also declined as strong adjectives

MIDDLE ENGLISH PRONOUN

Personal Pronouns

Personal Pronouns had the following forms in ME:

		Singular	
	I person	II person	III person
N.	I, ich	thou	he; he, she, hit, it
Obj.	me	the	him, hir, her, hit, it
		Plural	
N.	we	ye	hi, they
Obj.	us	you	hem, them

Peculiarities

1. In ME most of the personal pronouns underwent some changes in pronunciation and spelling.
2. Dual number of pronouns disappeared.
3. Genitive case forms no longer existed as such (but there are possessives pronouns).
4. The Dative and Accusative merged into one Objective Case.
5. The 3rd person plural pronoun hi was gradually superseded by the pronoun they (of Scandinavian origin). The objective case is represented both by hem (of OE origin) and them (Scandinavian).
6. Initial h- of the Neuter pronoun hit was often lost. This is due probably to its usually unstressed position.
7. The origin of the Fem. pronoun she is not quite clear. It may have developed from the OE fem. demonstrative pronoun seo. Occasionally the pronoun ye was used in addressing one person. This use is frequent in Chaucer's works.

Possessive Pronouns

The Genitive Case of personal pronouns was singled out and became an independent category of Possessive pronouns. This process began in OE. Possessive pronouns had the following forms in ME:

	Singular	
I person	II person	III person
min, mi	thin, thi	his, hir, her, his
	Plural	
our	your	hire, their

The forms **min**, **thin** are used if the following word begins with a vowel or with **h**.

The forms **my (mi)**, **thy (thi)** are found before a word with an initial consonant.

Alongside of these, forms in *s* have been derived on the analogy of the genitive of nouns in such phrases, as *the body is the husbondes = the body is her husband's*. In the 14th century expressions of this type are used: *Pis land salle be youres = this land shall be yours*.

Demonstrative Pronouns the Definite Article

The OE demonstrative pronouns **se**, **seo**, **þæt** developed in ME into **þe**, **þeo**, **þat**. (with **th** M.F.N).

Later on because of the disappearance of grammatical gender these forms were differentiated in their function and meaning.

The former masculine **þe** became the definite article **the** and the former Neuter **þat** became the demonstrative pronoun **that**.

In OE, there were no articles as a special part of speech. The demonstrative pronoun **se** (all genders and forms) was weakened and played the part of the definite article. In ME, the form **the (þe)** became an independent part of speech – the definite article as such.

In OE, demonstrative pronoun **þes (þeos, þis)** was declined and had three genders even in ME period. However, with the disappearance of grammatical gender **this (þis)** remained the singular for all forms. The ME plural was **these, thise**.

(þat) that — plural **tho, thos**.

The Indefinite Article

In OE the numeral **an** (stressed) was often weakened in its meaning to the function of the indefinite article, in which case was unstressed.

OE **an** (stressed) — ME **on** — NE **one**

First **one** was pronounced: [O:n] > [won] > [wu:n] > [wun] > [wʌn]

OE **an** (unstressed) — ME **an**

In OE **an** in unstressed position in ME was shortened and therefore did not

change into 'on' but developed into **ǣn**. After the differentiation of the two forms **ǣn** became the indefinite article.

Before consonants **ǣn** lost the final **n** and became **a**.

Interrogative Pronouns

In ME forms of the interrogative pronouns developed from OE.

Masc.	Fem.	Neuter
N. who	who	what
G. who	whos	whos, whos
Obj. whom	whom	what

The OE instrumental form **hwý** (**why**) developed into an adverb **why**.

Reflexive Pronouns

In ME the groups objective case of personal pronouns + *self* develop into reflexive pronouns ***himself, herself, themselves***.

In some cases (e.g. **herself**) — **self** was interpreted as a substantive modified by a possessive pronoun; on this pattern new reflexive pronouns were derived: ***myself, ourselves, yourself***.

Relative Pronouns

From OE form **þæt**, this was the N. and Acc. Neuter of the demonstrative and relative pronoun, the ME **that** developed, which was used as a relative pronoun without distinction of gender and number. In the 14th century new relative pronouns appear, from interrogative ones: ***which, who***.

Other Pronouns

The OE defining pronouns **3ehwa** (**every**) and **3ehwīc** (**each**) disappeared in ME. The pronouns **æ3þer** (**either**), **ælc** (**each**), **swīc** (**such**) and **se ilca** (**the same**); the indefinite ones **sum** (**some**) and **æni3** (**any**), the negative **nan** (**no**), (**none**) are preserved as ***either, ech, swich, that, ilke, som, any, noon*** and become invariable.

THE NEW ENGLISH PRONOUN

Personal and Possessive Pronouns

The ME forms of personal pronouns underwent little change in the NE period. The tendency to use the pronoun **ye** in addressing one person arose in ME already. In Shakespeare's works, both **ye** and **thou** are found with stylistic differentiation between them. Eventually **thou** completely vanished from ordinary literary language and was preserved in elevated, poetic, religious style.

In the 16th century the distinction between the Nom. **ye** and Objective **you** began to disappear. In the 17th century **ye** finally became archaic. In the neuter personal pronouns, vacillation between **hit** and **it** continued during the 16th century. By the end of the century **hit** disappeared altogether.

The neuter possessive pronoun was **hit** until the 17th century. The new form **its** seems to have appeared in the early 17th century. Shakespeare used **it** in a few cases only.

In the course of the 17th century neuter **his** was finally superseded by **its**.

In the feminine possessive pronouns there was some tiny vacillation between **hir** and **her**, which may be due to weakening of the vowel in an unstressed position. The forms **mine** and **thine** were used in 2 cases only in Early Modern English.

1. as a non-attributive part of the sentence

e.g. *This island is mine.*

2. as an attribute before a word with initial vowel

e.g. *mine eyes, mine enemies, thine eyes.*

Reflexive Pronouns

They developed in NE from the corresponding ME forms without any particular changes.

Demonstrative Pronouns

In NE, the demonstrative pronouns acquired the following forms:

1. **this** (ME **this**, OE neuter form **Þis**)

plural **these** (ME **thise**, **these**, derived from **this**)

2. **that** (ME **that**, OE neuter form **Þæt**)

plural **those** (ME **thos**, OE **Þas**)

Interrogative Pronouns

NE interrogative pronouns developed from ME in the following way:

1. **who** (ME **who** - OE **hwa**), objective **whom** (ME **whom**, OE **hwæm**)
2. **whose** (ME **whos**, OE **hwa**)
3. **what** (ME **what**, OE **hwæt**)
4. **which** (ME **which**, OE **hwilc**)

Other Pronouns

ME **ilke** (**that**) did not survive in NE.

The pronouns *each*, *such*, *some*, *any*, *none* were preserved in NE.

Besides, the compound pronouns *somebody*, *nobody* are formed, which develop a two-case system, and also *something*, *anything*, *nothing*.

LECTURE XII

THE ADJECTIVE (OLD ENGLISH - MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE

1. Old English Adjective
 - a. Declension
 - b. Degrees of Comparison
2. Middle English Adjective
 - a. Decay of Declension
 - b. Degrees of Comparison
3. New English Adjective
Degrees of Comparison

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LISTENING

The Birth of a language, The Structure of English

OLD ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

Declension

The forms of all OE adjectives express the categories of gender, number and case. Every adjective could be declined according to the weak and strong declensions.

THE STRONG DECLENSION of adjectives differs to some extent from the strong declension of nouns. Some case-forms of the adjectives correspond to those of the pronouns. The strong declension of the adjectives as a whole is a combination of nominal and pronominal forms. Most adjectives are declined as a-stems for M. and N. and as o-stems for the feminine.

THE WEAK DECLENSION does not differ from that of nouns, except in the G. pl. of all genders, which often takes the ending **-ra**, taken over from the strong declension.

Degrees of Comparison

Like the adjectives in other languages most of OE adjectives could form degrees of comparison.

The regular means used in the building of the Comparative and superlative degrees were the suffixes **-ra** and **-est** / **-ost**. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root vowel. Many adjectives had mutation.

The comparatives are declined as strong adjectives. The superlatives take the forms of the strong declensions very rarely and mostly follow the weak declension.

e.g. **blæc - blæcra - blacost**

In some adjectives the vowel undergoes mutation in the comparative and superlative degrees.

Some adjectives have suppletive forms of the comparative and superlative degrees:

3od (good) - betera - betst

yfel (bad) - wiersa - wierest

micel (large, much) - mara - mæst

lytel (little) - læssa - læst

MIDDLE ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

The declension of adjectives underwent substantial changes in ME. Declension of adjectives had always been determined by agreement with nouns in Number, Gender and Case.

In Germanic languages the use of strong and weak adjective declension depended on whether the adjective was preceded by the definite article or a similar word or not. But the disappearance of grammatical genders in ME nouns and the reduction of case endings led to a considerable change in adjective declension.

Besides, the characteristic weak declension ending **-en** was dropped.

The only case ending in adjectives came to be **-e** and the highly developed OE paradigm was reduced to the following system:

	Strong		Weak
N., G., D., Acc.	god	Sg.	gode
N., G., D., Acc.	gode	Pl.	gode

In the Northern dialects declension of adjectives was completely lost. The only surviving case ending **-e** was dropped, the adjective became invariable. In other dialects the adjectives in **-e** became invariable.

e.g. newe

frewē

The degrees of comparison had the following suffixes:

	Comparative	Superlative
OE	-ra	-ost, -est
ME	-er	-est

e.g. Glad - gladder - gladdest

Some adjectives keep a mutated vowel in comparative and superlative degrees:

e.g. old - elder - eldest

long - lenger - longest

Several adjectives preserve suppletive degrees of comparison:

e.g. god - better - best

evil - worse - worst

Alongside such degrees of comparison analytical forms of degrees of comparison like **more** and **most** appear. But we shall consider them later - in ME.

NEW ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

In ME adjectives dropped the ending -e, which had signaled the plural and the weak declension in ME. Thus, ME adjectives no longer agree with their nouns in number. This was essential for the syntactic structure of the language.

Degrees of Comparison

As it was mentioned, alongside synthetic degrees of comparison, phrases consisting of more and most + adjective appear in ME.

In ME the 2 mentioned above types were differentiated:

1. Suffixes of the degrees of comparison are used with monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives.
2. The phrases with **more** and **most** are limited to the other disyllabic and polysyllabic ones.

In the XV century mutation, which had survived in ME in the comparative and superlative of some adjectives is eliminated.

The only remnant of mutation in degrees of comparison is seen in **eldest** from **old** (alongside with **older - oldest**).

LECTURE XIII

THE ADVERB (OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH –NEW ENGLISH) THE NUMERAL

OUTLINE

1. Old English Adverb
 - a. Groups of Adverbs in OE
 - b. Degrees of Comparison
2. Middle English Adverb
 - a. The Groups of Adverbs in NE
 - b. Degrees of Comparison
3. New English Adverb
 - a. Suffix **-ly** – the only Productive Adverb-Forming Suffix
 - b. Degrees of Comparison
4. The Numeral

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OLD ENGLISH ADVERB

Groups of Adverbs in OE

There are three different groups of adverbs in OE:

a. *pronominal adverbs*, such as **þa** (than), **þonne** (then), **þær** (there), **her** (here), **nu** (now), **hwonne** (when), **hwær** (where), **heonan** (hence). Here also belong the adverbs **sona** (soon) **oft** (often), **eft** (again), **swa** (so).

These are called primary adverbs, that is, they have not been derived from any other part of speech. There are also secondary adverbs, derived from some other part of speech. They are much more numerous:

b. *derivative adverbs*, formed from other parts of speech by means of suffixes. The most common adverb-suffixes are: **-lice (-ly)** and **-e** (or **-lic**)

e.g. mann (man) + **lice(-ly)** - mannlice (manly)

wid (wide) + **-e** = wide (wide)

c. *adverbs derived from various case-forms of nouns and adjectives*. A large number of OE adverbs consist of the various cases of nouns and adjectives used adverbially

e.g. **hwilum** (sometimes) - from the Dative plural of the noun **hwil** (while, time)

dæ3es (in day time) - from the Genitive of the noun **dæ3**(day).

Degrees of Comparison

Adverbs form their degrees of comparison by means of the suffix **-or** (for the comparative) and **-ost (-est)** (for superlative).

e.g. wide - wid**or** - wid**ost**

Some adverbs derive their comparative without any suffix, by means of mutation of the root vowel:

lon3 (long) – leng

feorr (far) – fiery

softe (softly) – seft

eape (easily) – iep

The mutation is due to the fact, that originally the comparative was derived by means of the suffix **-r**, preceded by the vowel **-i**. This vowel caused mutation and disappeared, the **-r** disappeared, too.

A few adverbs, corresponding to adjectives with suppletive degrees of comparison, also derive their degrees of comparison by the suppletive method:

e.g. **wel** (well) - **betre** – **best**
yfele (badly) - **wiers, wurs** - **wierst, wurst**
micele (much) - **mare** - **mæst**
lytle (little) - **læsse** - **læst**

MIDDLE ENGLISH ADVERB

In ME some adverbs derived in OE from adjectives by means of the suffix **-e** are still in use.

e.g. fast - **faste**

If the adjective ended in **-e**, the adverbs did not differ from it.

e.g. **newe** - **newe**

At the same time a new way of deriving adverbs, which had arisen in OE, by means of the suffix **-ly**, developed:

e.g. special - **specially**

Degrees of Comparison

Degrees of comparison of adverbs were derived by the same suffixes that were used for adjectives.

e.g. **gretly** - **gretter** - **gretest**

In a few adverbs mutation is preserved:

e.g. **longo** - **lenger** - **longest**

A few adverbs preserve suppletive degrees of comparison:

e.g. **much** - **mo, more** - **most**

litel - **lasse** - **lest**

wel - **bet, better** - **best**

evile - **wers** - **werst**

In ME phrases of the type “**more, most + adverb**” appear. In ME the morpheme **-s** was joined to other adverbs from OE:

e.g. OE *heonan* - ME *hennes, hens* - NE *hence*

OE *sippan* - ME *sithens, sins* - NE *since*

OE *ealne we3* *all the way, all the time* - ME *always, always* – NE *always*

OE *twiwa* – ME *twies* – NE *twice, etc.*

NEW ENGLISH ADVERB

In NE the suffix **-ly** became the only productive adverb-forming suffix. This suffix could be joined to the stem of any adjective, whose meaning admits of adverb formation.

In ME adverbs with the **-e** suffix, inherited from OE, lost their -e and thus became undistinguishable from the corresponding adjectives. A few adverbs of this type have been preserved in NE:

e.g. fast, loud, hard

The other old adverbs, which coincided with their adjectives, were replaced by new adverbs, derived by means of the **-ly** suffix.

In the formation of the degrees of comparison no change occurred in NE.

THE NUMERAL

Numerals from 1 to 3 are declined; numerals from 4 to 14 are usually invariable, if used as attributes to nouns. They are declined if they are used without a noun.

Numerals, denoting "tens" have their Genitive in **-es, -a, -ra** and have their Dative in **-urn**. (*Independent Study)

¹¹ Ilyish B., pp.206

LECTURE XIV

THE VERB (OLD ENGLISH - MIDDLE ENGLISH — NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE

1. Verbs in Common Indo-European and Germanic (Short Characteristic)
2. Old English Verb System
 - a. Verbal Categories in Old English
 - b. Strong Verbs
 - c. Weak Verbs
 - d. Conjugation of Strong and Weak Verbs
 - e. Minor Groups of Verbs
 - a. Preterit Present Verbs
 - b. Suppletive Verbs
 - c. Anomalous Verbs
 - f. Verb Aspects
 - g. Tenses
 - h. Non-Finite Forms of the Verb
 - i. Moods
 - j. Analytical Formations
3. Middle English Verb System
 - a. Strong Verbs
 - b. Weak Verbs
 - c. Verb Conjugation
 - d. Preterit - Present Verbs
 - e. Irregular Verbs
 - f. The Problem of Aspect
 - g. Tenses
 - a. Perfect Tenses
 - b. Continuous Tenses
 - c. Future Tenses
 - d. Development of Analytical Tenses

- h. Non-Finite Forms of the Verb
 - a. Present Participle
 - b. The Gerund
- i. Moods
- j. Voice (Passive Voice)
- 4. New English Verb System
 - a. Personal Endings
 - b. Strong Verbs
 - c. The Second Participle
 - d. Weak Verbs
 - e. Strong Verbs Becoming Weak and Vice Versa
 - f. Irregular Weak Verbs Becoming Regular
 - g. Rise of Invariable Verbs
 - h. Preterit-Presents Verbs
 - i. The Verbs **Be, Go, Do, Will**
 - j. The Perfect Tense
 - k. Aspect
 - l. Mood
 - m. Use of Auxiliary **Do**
 - n. The Gerund

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LISTENING

Lecture VI: *The Beginnings of English*

Lecture VIII: *Changing Language: Did the Normans Really Conquer English?*

Lecture X: *Chaucer's English*, Seth Lerer, Ph. D., Stanford University, USA,
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The Birth of a Language, The Structure of English. The Verbal System

VERBS IN COMMON INDO-EUROPEAN AND GERMANIC (SHORT CHARACTERISTIC)

Common Indo-European had a complicated and multiform verbal system. There were numerous classes of verbs, each having active, middle and passive voices; indicative (for statements), imperative (for commands, subjunctive (for unreal statements) and optative (for wishes) moods; present, imperfect, perfect and future tense-aspects, with dual number distinct in all these forms.

The IE verbal system, especially aspect, tense and conjugation was rather complicated (Sanskrit, Greek, Latin).

The Germanic verbal system, on the contrary, was greatly simplified.

1. The outstanding feature of the Germanic verb is that it had but two tenses: a Present and a Past (Preterit), the first of which was used for all present and future time, and the second - for all past time. No Future proper existed in German.

2. Another important peculiarity of the Germanic verbal system is its development of the two main classes of the verb into the so-called strong and weak verbs according to the way they built their principal forms.

3. The next peculiarity of the semantic verb, closely connected with the previous one, is the regular use of gradation (ablaut) to express tense relation in the strong verbs.

5. And the last, but not least characteristic of the Germanic verbal system is the dental preterit of the weak verbs - the formation of the past tense with a dental suffix **-d, -t** in the so-called weak verbs.

OLD ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

The OE verb was characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had very complicated structure verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form building means. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

Verbal Categories In OE

Being a typical Germanic language, OE has two principal classes of verbs: **strong** and **weak**.

The **strong verbs** form their preterit (*past*, originally *perfect*) by means of ablaut (**vowel gradation**):

e.g. ridan (to ride) - rad (rode)

Inf.	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
helpan	healp	hulpon	holpen (strong verb)

The verb **helpan** (to help) has a different root-vowel in each of its four forms stems. Besides, each form is characterized by a specific ending: **-an, - , -on,-en**.

The weak verbs form their preterit by adding a dental suffix, containing a dental - **d,-t**:

e.g. hieran (to hear) - hier**ed** (heard)

(to make) :macian - mac**ode** - mac**od** (weak verb)

The weak verb **macian** does not change the root vowel. It has the dental suffix - **od** in the endings.

These two groups (strong and weak) differ in the number of principal forms:

3 forms for the weak verbs

4 forms for the strong verbs.

Besides these two major groups of verbs there existed some minor groups. Their conjugation differed both from the weak and the strong conjugation. These are minor classes of irregular verbs, such as:

a. Preterit Present Verbs

b. Suppletive Verbs

c. Anomalous Verbs, which are characterized by certain morphological and semantic peculiarities of their own. The OE verb has the following independent forms, expressed synthetically (by means of inflexions, suffixes or sound interchange):

- one voice (active)
- two numbers (sg. and pl.)
- three persons
- two tenses (present and preterit), no future
- three moods (Indicative, subjunctive, imperative)
- two aspects (perfective and imperfective)

There is no Gerund, nor are there any analytical verbal forms and auxiliary verbs. The simple future was generally expressed by the present tense as in the oldest periods of other Germanic languages. But already in OE the present forms

of **beon (be)**, **scullan (shall)**, **willan (will)** with the infinitive began to be used to express the future (usually with some modal connection).

The meaning of the Perfect in OE could be denoted by free syntactic combinations consisting:

a. of the forms of the verb **habban (to have)** + the past participle (with transitive and intransitive verbs)

b. of the **forms of the verb beon, wesan (to be)** with intransitive verbs only.

Strong Verbs

Strong verbs (the term was first used by J.Grimm) are verbs with gradation (**ablaut**). Ablaut in to be found in all IE languages and by means of it different grammatical forms or different words can be formed.

e.g. Russian: **везу - воз - взял**

The principal IE gradation is "**e - o - reduction**". But a peculiarity of Germanic languages is the regular use of gradation to express tense relation in the strong verbs.

In Teutonic languages the principal IE gradation acquires the form "**i/e - a -reduction**".

In OE this series of gradation is used to build up main forms of strong verbs.

There must have been over 300 strong verbs in OE. These are very old verbs.

Many of them are commonly used words, denoting simple vital actions, such as:

slepan (to sleep)

drincan (to drink)

etan (to eat)

They are primary (not derived) verbs and belong to ancient words. But this class was unproductive already in OE and their number decreased (there are about 190 of them in MdE, some being archaic.) All newly built or borrowed verbs acquired the conjugation system of weak verbs (**-ed**).

OE ablaut is a qualitative gradation. But there also was quantitative gradation (in IE too, e.g. An interchange of long and short vowels: Latin: **edo-edi**). It was also reflected in Germanic languages (especially in strong verbs, class VI).

Like Teutonic OE had **7 classes** of strong verbs. Each of these classes is characterized by its own ablaut series, with 4 different vowels. Consequently OE

strong verbs had 4 principal forms:

1. the infinitive (had the root vowel **i/e**, e.g. **ridan**)
2. the preterit sg. (1st. and 3rd persons) (had the root vowel **a** e.g. **rad**).
3. the preterit pl. (had a reduction of the root vowel, e.g. **ridon**)
4. the past participle (had also a reduction, e.g. **(ge)riden** i.e. **i - a - i - i**)

However, this simple gradation was complicated by sonorants, which usually followed the root vowel in Germanic languages.

Five classes of strong verbs had a qualitative gradation; the 6th class had a quantitative gradation; the 7th class had no regular gradation at all. It included verbs, which had developed from ancient verbs with reduplication.

The classes of strong verbs and their ablaut in OE may be illustrated by the following examples:

Class I (i-class). The formula of this class: i/e - a - reduction +i

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
i+i=-i	a+i-ai-a	o+i=i	o+i=i
riasn (to rise)	Ras	rison	Risen
ridan (to ride)	Rad	ridon	Ridden
acino (to shine)	Scan	scinon	Scinen
bitan (to bite)	Bat	biton	Biten

Class II (u-class)

Infinitive Past Sg. Past Pl. Past Part.

i+u – iu – eu - eo	a+u – au – ea	o+u – u	o+u - u - o
Beodan	Bead	Budon	Boden
Sceotan	Sceat	Scuton	Scoten
Ceosan	Ceas	Curon	Soren

[eo–ea–u- o] –II

Class III. Formula: i/e – a – reduction + sonorant + consonant (plosive)

This class is subdivided into 3 subclasses:

a) i/e – a – reduction +nasal + consonant (plosive)

[i – a (o) – u - u]

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
I+cs(m,n)+cpl	a(o)+cs+cpl	u+cs+cpi	u+cs+cp
Drincan	Dranc	druncon	druncen
Sin3an	san3	sun3on	sun3en
Findan	Fand	fundon	Funden
Bindan	Band	bundon	bunden

b) i/e - a - reduction + l +consonant (plosive)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
E+ l+ cpl	ea + l + cpl	u + l + cpl	o + l + cpl
Helpan	Healp	Hulpon	Holpen

[e(i)_ea – u - o] –III, b

c) i/e - a - reduction + r or h + consonant (plosive)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
eo + r,h + cpl	ea + r,h + cpl	u + r,h + cpl	o + r,h +cpl
weorþan	wearþ	wurþon	worþen
Feohtan	Feaht	fuhton	Fohten

[eo - ea - u – o] – III, c

Class IV. Formula: i/e - a - reduction + Sonorant alone (l,m,r)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
E + l, m, r	æ+ l, m, r	Æ+ l,m, r	o + l, m, r
Stelan	Stæl	stælon	stolen
Beran	Bær	bæron	Boren

[e - æ– æ-o] – IV

Class V. It is characterized by a noise consonant in the root (it is also rather small)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
E + cons.	æ + cons.	æ + cons.	e + cons.
cnedan	Cnæd	cnædon	cneden
Etan	Æt	Æton	Eten
sprecan	Spræc	spræcon	sprecen

Formula: i/e - a –reduction + Consonant alone

Class VI. Formula: i/e - a - reduction + quantitative ablaut

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
A	o	O	A
Bacan	Boc	bocon	bacen
Faran	For	foron	Faren
standan	Stod	stodon	standen

*The verb "standan" takes an – n – infix in the infinitive and past participle.
[a – o – o - a] – IV

Class VII. Formula: i/e - a - reduction + no regular ablaut

Most vowel interchanges in class VII resulted from the doubling of the root (reduplication) in the Past Tense-stems. (As Russian: дать – дадим (Future). That is why the Past Tense-stems have a long monophthong or a long, diphthong in the root.

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
blendan	Blend	Blendon	Blenden
Lætan	Let	Leton	Læten
beatan	Beot	Beoton	Beaten
cnawan	Cneow	Cneowon	Cnawen

Weak Verbs

The number of weak verbs in OE exceeded that of strong verbs and was

obviously growing. Among weak verbs we regularly find formations from noun and adjective atoms or also from some stems of strong verbs, which is a proof of the later appearance of weak verbs.

All weak verbs built their principal forms by adding a dental suffix to Present Tense stems.

There are 3 classes of weak verbs in OE. Every weak verb is characterized by 3 forms: **Infinitive, Preterit (Past) and Past Participle.**

Class I

Regular Verbs. Regular Verbs of class I always have mutation in their root vowel due to the original i-element in the suffix.

Infinitive	Preterit	Past Participle
-an/-ian	-de/-ede/-te	-ed/-d/-t
deman	demde	demed
nerian	nerede	nered
cepan	cepte	cept, ceped

Irregular Verbs. These verbs had element **-i**, which produced mutation in the Infinitive only. In the Preterit there was no **-i** and so these forma had no mutation. As a result the vowel of the Preterit and Past Participle differs from that of the infinitive:

e.g. tellan - tealde - teald
 sellan - sealde - seald

Class II

These verbs originally had the suffix **-oi** in the Infinitive and **-o** in the other forms.

The infinitive suffix **-oi** was reduced to **-i**. The Infinitive of these verbs ends in **-ian**. In OE **-o** was preserved in the Preterit and Past Participle.

Infinitive	Preterit	Past Participle
-ian	-ode	-od
macian	macode	macod
lufian	lufode	lufod

The absence of mutation in the infinitive is due to the fact that the **i-element** appeared at the time, when the prowess of mutation was already over.

Class III

Many verbs originally belonging to Class III have changed into Class I or Class II. Thus, class III was in OE in the process of disintegration, i.e. it was dying out in OE. The Infinitive of these verbs originally had the stem suffix **- i**,

which produced germination. Only 3 verbs have survived: *to have*, *to live*, *to say*.

Infinitive	Preterite	Past Participle
-an	-da	-d
habban	hæfde	hæfd
libban	lifde	lifd
seæn	sæ3de	sæ3d

So, as it was said, the class of weak verbs has been the only productive class of verbs throughout the history of English.

As to the origin of the dental suffix and how it came into use in Germanic little is certainly known.

1. Some scholars are inclined to regard it as developed from the root of the verb **don (to do)** - IE root **-dhe**, which stands in ablaut relation to the OE **-don**. On this theory such a form as OE **lufode (loved)** was supposed to be equivalent to: **lufe + dyde - lova + did**.

2. But other scholars think it also probable that the dental suffix in OE weak past participle goes back to the IE suffix **-t-** (IE **-t** - Germ. **-d**, according to Verner's law) as in the **-t** of such Latin Participles **lectus**, **amatus**, or Russian Participles.

Conjugation of Strong and Weak Verbs

It greatly differs in OE from the Modern English paradigm. Verbs had fairly distinct personal endings in OE though their system was already disintegrating.

The conjugation of the following verbs will show the personal endings of strong and weak verbs:

Strong Verb, class I: *ridan*

Principal forms: Infinitive - **ridan**

Preterite sg. - **rad**

Preterite pl. - **ridon**

Past Participle - (**3e**) **riden**

Present Participle - **ridende**

Indicative

Present

Sg.

Pl.

I ride

ridath

II ridest	ridath
III rideth	ridath
Past	
I rad	ridon
II ride	ridon
III rad	ridon

Subjunctive

Present		Imperative
I	riden	Sg. rid
II ride	riden	Pl. ridath
III	riden	
Past		
I ride	riden	
II ride	riden	
III ride	ridden	

Weak Verb, class I : "hieran" (to hear)

Main Forms: Infinitive - **hieran**

Preterite sg. - **hierde**

Past Participle - (3e)**hierod**

Present Participle – **hiende**

Indicative

Present	
Sg.	Pl.
I hiere	hierath
II hierest	hierath
III hier(e)th	hierath
Past	
I hierde	hierdon

II hieidest	hierdon
III hierde	hierdon

Subjunctive

Imperative

Present

I hierde	hieren	Sg. hier
II hierde	hieren	Pl. hierath
III hierde	hieren	

Past

I hierdea	hierden
II hierde	hierden
III hierde	hierden

Singular: personal endings: I person -e

II person -st

III person -th

Plural: the forms of the plural of the 1st and 2nd persons had disappeared already in the oldest periods of the language, their place having been taken by the form of the 3rd person.

Minor Groups of Verbs

Some minor groups of verbs of diverse origin could be referred to neither weak nor strong verbs. A few anomalous or irregular verbs in OE combined both ways of form building, i.e. of strong and weak verbs. The following classes were observed:

1. Preterit Present Verbs
2. Suppletive Verbs
3. Anomalous Verbs

The most interesting group was the so-called Preterit Present Verbs.

Preterit - Present Verbs

These are very old verbs. Originally they were strong verbs. Their old past tense had become the present tense. It acquired the meaning of the Present. Therefore a new Past Tense was formed according to the fast of weak verbs. They are inflected in the present like the preterit of strong verbs and have no

ending in the 3rd pers. sg. he cann (he can). That is why the NE modal verbs *can, may, must, shall*, which descend from them have no **s-ending** in the 3rd pers. sg. in the Present Tense.

Most of the Preterit-Present verbs are characterized by a modal meaning and are usually followed by a nominative infinitive or - another verb, e.g. is **cann singan**. Dative infinitive with the preposition *to* is not used after them. Therefore in NE modal verbs are followed by the infinitive without the particle "to". Some of the Preterit-Present verbs lack past participle and infinitives. There were 12 verbs of this kind in OE.

OE	ME
1. cunnan	can
2. a3an	ought
3. ma3an	may
4. mot	must
5. dearr	dare
6. sculan	shall
7. munan	remember
8. ðeorfan	need
9. unnan	wish
10. witan	know
11. 3eneah	to be enough
12. du3an	to be fit

Infinitive	Present Sg.	Past Sg.	Past Part.
Cunnan	can(n)	cuthe	cuþ, cunnen
sculan	sceal	sceolde	
a3an	a3, ah	ahte	a3en
ma3an	mæ3	meahte	
	mot	most	

Suppletive Verbs

There were 2 suppletive verbs in OE:

wesan, beon	-	to be
3an	-	to go

These verbs differ from other verbs. Their forms are derived from different roots, that is their system is based on suppletivity.

The forms of the verb **be** are derived from 3 roots **-wes, -es, -be**. Similar phenomena are found in other IE languages, e.g. Russian **быть - есть**, etc.

The suppletive system of these verbs seems to be due to the fact, that its elements originally had different meanings, which were more concrete than the abstract meaning be.

One of these roots had the meaning **grow**. The verb **go** is also suppletive in many IE languages, e.g. Russian **иду - шел**.

The process seems to be similar to that of the verb **be**. The system of this verb seems to have developed from different roots, which originally had more concrete meanings than the abstract "go". They denoted more concrete kinds of movement.

The Verb *wesan, beon*

Infinitive: - "wesan", "beon"

Indicative :

		Present			
		Sg.	Pl.		
I	eom, beo		sint, sindon, earon		
II	eart, bist		aron, beoþ		
III	ia, biþ				

		Past		
I	wæs		wæron, wæren	
II	wære			
III	wæs			

Subjunctive:

		Present		
I, II, III	-si, sie, sy, beo		sin, sien, syn, beon	
		Past		
	wære		wæren	

Imperative: wes, beo wesað, beoþ

Present Participle: weaende, beonde

The forms of this verb often coalesce with the negative particle "ne".

e.g. ne is = nis ne wæron = næron ne wæs = næs

The forms **wesan**, **wæs**, **wæron** are derived according to class V strong verbs. The forms derived from the root **be** are often used with the future meaning.

The Verb *3an* (go)

Infinitive: 3an; 3an3an

Indicative:

Present

Sg.	Pl.
I 3a	
II 3æst	3aþ
III 3æþ	

Past

I eode	
II eodes	eodon
III eode	

Imperative:

3a	3ap
----	-----

Subjunctive:

Present

3a	3an
----	-----

Past

eode	eoden
------	-------

Participle I: 3ande, 3an3ende

Participle II: 3e, 3an

This verb has mutation in the 1st and 2nd persons sg. Present Indicative.

The Verbs *don* and *willan*

These 2 verbs have some individual peculiarities. The verb **don(do)**, like the verb **3an**, always has mutation in the 2nd and 3rd persons sg.pres.ind. Its past tense is derived according to the weak conjugation. The alternation **o/y** is not clear.

The forms of the verb **willan** like the verb *beon* often coalesce with the negative particle **ne**: **ne wille – nulle, nelle; ne wolde – nolde**, etc. Indicative forms have been influenced by Subjunctive.

Old English Verb System as a Whole

Aspects

The perfective aspect was expressed by the prefix **3e-**, sometimes by the prefixes **a-, be-, for-**

e.g. *seffan* - *3e3effan* (ставить - стать)

risan - *arisan* (вставлять - стать)

3iefan - *for 3iefan* (давать - дать)

Tenses

There were only 2 tenses, expressed by synthetic means in OE: the Present and the Past. The Future, if necessary, was expressed by lexical means.

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb

There are 2 non-finite forms of the verb in OE: the Infinitive and the Participle: Participle I and Participle II. Gerund didn't exist in OE.

The OE Present Participle has an active meaning and is formed with the help of the suffix **-ende**:

ridende - riding

maciende - making

The Past Participle of the strong verbs is formed with the help of ablaut and the suffix **-en**:

findan - *funden*

The Past Participle of the weak verbs is formed with the help of dental suffixes - **d,-t**:

macod, *cept*.

The Past Participle (Part. II) often has the prefix **3e-**, which strengthens the meaning of perfectivity:

3emacod, *3efunden*.

Both participles agree in number, gender and case with nouns they modify

and are declined like adjectives.

Moods

OE, just as other Germanic languages had 3 moods: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative.

The Indicative was used to express an action as real.

The Imperative expressed order or request to a 2nd person. Occasionally, the Imperative expressed wish.

The Subjunctive expressed an action that was merely supposed. It was widely used in OE both in main and in subordinate clauses. In the main clauses the Subjunctive was used to express a wish. In Subordinate clauses was used more widely especially in conditional clauses. It was also used in the clauses of concession and temporal clauses, having the meaning of supposition. It was also used in Indirect Speech, including indirect questions.

Analytical Formations

During the OE period the system of the verb acquired some analytical formations.

e.g. **habban + Part. II**

Originally these formations meant that the subject owned a thing, having a certain feature as a result of an action performed upon it. Then they acquired the meaning of the result of an action.

e.g. ic **habbe** þa boc **3ewritten**

I **have** this book **written**.

Other formations:

beon + Part. II

e.g.: **is** his eaforda nu heard her **cumen**

his son, the brave one, **is** now **come** here

sceal + infinitive; wille + infinitive (approach the meaning of future)

sceolde + infinitive; wolde + infinitive (acquire a modal meaning)

MIDDLE ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

All types of verbs existing in OE (strong, weak, preterit-present, irregular) were preserved in ME. In each of these types we find some changes, due to the phonetic phenomena of the ME period, and changes, due to analogy. Besides, some verbs changed from the strong conjugation to the weak and some others from the weak to the strong.

Strong Verbs

a. The inflexions of verb conjugations were also leveled and reduced in ME. Thus the OE ending of the Infinitive **"-an"** and the ending of the past plural **-on** were both reduced and leveled to **"-en"**.

OE writtan, writon - ME writen

b. The OE perfective prefix **"3e"** changed into **"-i"** and disappeared.

c. Grammatical alternation of consonants completely abandoned.

d. The four forms of the OE strong verbs were gradually reduced to three forms, because of the leveling of inflexions. In the 2nd and 3rd classes of strong verbs the 3rd form (past pl.) was leveled to the 4th form (past part.).

Class I

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
OE ridan	Rad	Ridon	Riden
ME riden	Rod	Riden	Riden
writen	Wrot	Writen	Writen

Class II

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
Chesen	Ches	chosen	Chosen

Class III

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
drinken	Drank	[u:] Drunken	[u:] Drunken
Helpen	Halp	Holpen	Holpen
Kerven (carve)	Carf	Corven	Corven

Class IV

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
beren (bear)	Bar	Beren	Boren

Class V

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
Meten	Mat	maten, maten	Meten

Some strong verbs of Class V passed over to class IV, e.g. **speken** was of class V and it passed over to class IV:

e.g. speken – spak – speken – spoken

Class VI

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
Shaken	Shok	Shoken	Shaken

Class VII

Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Past part.
Fallen	Fell	Fellen	Fallen

Weak Verbs

There existed 3 classes of weak verbs in OE.

Peculiarities:

1. The inflexion **-ian** of class II (macian - **ode,-od**) and of some verbs of class I lost the element **-i**.

OE	ME
locian	looken
lufian	loven
styrian	sturen

2. The OE suffixes of the Past Tense and Past Participle of Class II **-ode,-od** were weakened to **-ede,-ed**:

OE	ME
macode	makede
macod	maked
lufode	lovede
lufod	leved

3. Class III lost its germination of consonants in the Infinitive:

OE	ME
habban	haven

4. However irregular weak verbs of Class I retained the vowel change in the Infinitive, Past Tense and Past Participle. This was due to the fact that in OE mutation occurred only in the Infinitive of these verbs:

e.g. OE	þenkan - þohte - þoht
ME	thenken - thoughte - thought

The change of vowels remains in WE verbs such as **to buy, to think, to teach, to tell**, etc.

5. In some weak verbs with a stem ending in **-1,-n,-f,-v** the Past suffix **-d** changes into **-t**; verbs with a stem in **-rd, -nd, -ld** formed their past in **-rte, -nte, -lte** and their 2nd Participle in **-rt, -nt, -lt**.

e.g: sendan - sende - send (OE)
sendun - sente - sent (ME)

Verb Conjugation

Verb Conjugation underwent considerable changes in ME. As a result of levelling of unstressed vowels the difference between the endings **-an,-on, -en** was lost. It proved stable only in some Participles II, where it has been preserved down to the NE period.

Furthermore differences between the 2nd and 3rd persons e.g. Present Indicative and in other Present Tense Forms due to mutation disappeared in ME.

In ME verb conjugation some OE inflexions still remained, while the others were modified.

The paradigms of conjugation varied according to dialects. The conjugation of the present tense of a strong verb in the XIV century Midland Dialects was as follows:

Present Indicative	
Sg.	Pl.
I binde	binden
II bindest (Northern -es)	binden (Northern bindes)
III bindeth, (Northern -es)	binden (Southern bindeth)

Preterit - Present Verbs

OE Preterit - Present Verbs were preserved in ME, except the verb **þeneah**

(to be enough), which was lost. Their forms underwent changes due to the general tendencies of the period.

The Verbs **ben** and **gon** (Suppletive Verbs). These two verbs inherited the OE system

The Verb *ben*

Present Indicative

Sg.	Pl.
I am	
II art	ben (Nrth. -am ,
III is	South. -beth)

Past Indicative

Sg,	Pl.
I was	
II were	weren
III was	

The Verb *gon*

Present indicative

Sg.	Pl.
I go (ga) Northern forms	
II gost (gast)	gon (gas) (South. Goth)
III goth (gas)	

Past Indicative

Sg.	Pl.
I yede,wente	
II yedest,nenteat	geden, wenten
III yede,wente	

The Verbs *don* and *willen*

Forms of these verbs developed from OE.

The Verb *don*

Present Indicative

Sg.	Pl.
I do	
II dost (North. dos)	don
III doth (North dos)	

Past Indicative

Sg.	Pl.
I dide, dude, dede	
II didest	diden
III dide	

The Verb *willen*

Sg.	Pl.
I wil, wol	
II wilt, wolt	wollen (North.-willes; South.-willeth)
III wil, wol	
Sg.	Pl.
I wolde	
II woldest	wolden
III wolde	

Middle English Verb System as a Whole

Aspects

The prefix **3e-**, which was sometimes used in OE to express completion of an action became *y-* in ME. Its use grows more and more irregular and then it disappears altogether (*in Chaucer's works: *y-falle*, *y-come*), so it is only the context that shows whether the action was completed or not.

Tenses

Perfect Tenses

Perfect forms, which arose in OE are widely used in ME. In Chaucer's works there are many sentences with Present and Past Perfect. The Perfect Tenses developed from the following free syntactical constructions: the verbs

habban, beon, wesan with a direct object, followed by the Past Participle as an attribute to it.

e.g. He hæp þa boc 3ewriten.

(He has this book written)

He is cumen.

(He has come).

In such constructions the agreement of the Past Participle with the direct object or the subject disappeared in ME. The Past Participle was placed directly after the verbs **to have** + **to be** and formed together with it a simple predicate.

So, in ME there are 2 auxiliary verbs, used in the Perfect Tenses: **haven** and **ben**. **Haven**, was used with transitive verbs and **ben** - with intransitive ones. In NE **to have** supplanted the verb **to be** with intransitive verbs as well.

Some survivals of the OE and ME forms may be seen in NE in such construction as: *he was gone, the food was gone* etc.

Continuous Tenses

In ME the first examples of the Continuous Aspect appeared, consisting of the verb **be(n)** and first participle. But they were very rare. Thus, in Chaucer's works only 6 examples of such forms have been found.. Here is one of them:

Sigyng he was (He was singing)

The origin of these formations hasn't been quite cleared up. There are two possible sources:

1.OE phrases, consisting of the verb **beon** and the Participle I in **-ende**.

2.OE phrases, consisting of the verb **beon**, the preposition **on** and the verbal noun in **-in** .

Future Tenses

In OE there was no future tense. The OE free combinations **sculan** (**shall**) with the infinitive of another verb expressed obligation, and a combination of **willan** expressed volition. In OE some of these constructions had already been weakened in meaning. In ME they developed into the Analytical Future Tense.

The original meaning of the verbs **sculan** and **willan** comes to the fore in NE sometimes.

e.g. *I will come. - I wish to come.*

I will do. - I wish to do.

I shall come. - I must come.

I shall go there. - I must go there.

Development of Analytical Tenses

Professor Smirnitsky asserts, that there were no analytical tense-forms in OE, but there were a number of compound syntactical constructions (compound predicates) which developed into analytical tenses in ME.

Professor B. Ilyish calls these constructions "analytical formations" and he shows that in some cases they approached very close to analytical tenses (simple predicates).

Non - Finite Forms of the Verb (Present Participle, Gerund)

In OE the verbal noun had the suffixes **-ing**, **-ung**. The **-ing** gradually developed some verbal functions and became the gerund.

In OE the Present Participle had the suffixes **-ande**, **-ende**, **-inde**. By the end of the ME period **-inde** changed into ; **-inge**, by analogy with the inflexion of the gerund **-in**.

It is also possible that this new form of the Present Participle developed partly under the influence of the use of the gerund with the prepositions **in** and **an** reduced to **-a**. In such phrases as:

He is a huntinge. (He is on hunting).

Moods

The three OE moods were preserved in ME. The Subjunctive Mood preserved in ME many features it had in OE. It was often used in temporal and concessional clauses. In conditional clauses the present subjunctive is used to denote a possible action. An unrelcondition, referring to the present is expressed by the past subjunctive.

Voice. Passive Voice

In OE the passive constructions of the type "*He was of- slæ3en*" (*He was killed*) were not simple, but compound predicates, where the Past Participle was a predicate which agreed with the subject.

Sometimes, however, this agreement was lost and highly probable that the whole construction was already felt to be a simple predicate in OE.

The Passive Voice is widely developed in ME. In ME the analytical Passive Voice is completely formed and widely developed.

As the verb **weorþan** disappeared, the only auxiliary for the passive was the verb **ben**. The verb **ben** + **Past Participle** could express both a state and an action, and only the context could show which of the two was meant in each particular case. In ME the sphere of the Passive Voice grew as compared with OE. The subject of the Passive construction could be a word, which in a corresponding active construction would have been an indirect object.

NEW ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

Personal Endings

Important changes occurred in conjugation.

Since the ending **-e** of the 1st pers. sg., of the pl. present indicative and of the infinitive was lost, these forms now had no ending at all.

Another change affected the 3rd pers. sing, present indicative. The ending **-eth** was replaced by **-a**, which in ME had been a characteristic feature of the Northern dialect, in the 15th cent. the **-s**-form gradually penetrated, through the medium of Midland dialects, into the literary language. In Shakespeare's works the **-s**-form is used alongside with **-eth**, apparently without any stylistic differentiation.

In the 17th cent, the ending **-eth** was finally superseded by **-a** and was only preserved in elevated style. But even in this sphere **-th-** forms are only used sparingly.

The 2nd person form in **-st**, connected with the personal pronoun **-thou**, was gradually ousted during the 17th century from the normal literary language. The difference between forms in **-st** (or in **t**) and forms without ending when addressing one person is not quite definite. What seems certain, however, is that forms in **-(s)t** can only be used when there is some degree of intimacy between the speaker and the person addressed.

Thus, the category of number in the 2nd person of verbs is on the point of vanishing.

Strong Verbs

In formation of strong verbs forms an important change also took place in this period.

In OE and ME every strong verb was characterized by four basic forms: infinitive; 1st and 3rd person singular, past indicative; plural past indicative with 2nd person sg. and past subjunctive; second participle.

In NE these four forms were reduced to three: infinitive; past tense; second participle.

ME forms				NE forms		
Infin.	Past sg.	Past pl.	Part.II	Infin.	Past	Part.II
Class I						
writen	wrot	writen	writen	write	wrote	written
risen	ros	risen	risen	rise	rose	risen
riden	rod	riden	ridden	ride	rode	ridden
biten	bot	bitten	biten	bite	bit	bitten

shinen shon shinen shinen shine shone shone

Class II

sheten shet shoten shoten shoot shot shot
chesen ches chosen chosen choose chose chosen
fresen fres frosen frozen freeze froze frozen

Class III

binden bond bounden bounden bind bound bound
finden fond founden founden find found found
drinken drank drunken drunken drink drank drunk
singen sang sungen sungen sing sang sung

Class IV

beren bar beren boren bear bore born(e)
teren tar teren toren tear tore torn
stelen stal stelen stolen steal stole stolen

Class V

sitten sat seten seten sit sat sat
geten gat geten geten get got got(gotten)

Class VI

taken tok token taken take took taken
shaken shok shoken shaken shake shook shaken
awaken awok awoken awoken awake awoke awaken

Class VII

fallen fell fellen fallen fall fell fallen
knowen knew knewen knowen know knew known
growen grew grewen growen grow grew grown
holden held helden holden hold held held

In several verbs the past singular form superseded that of the second participle: Class I - **abide, shine, strike**, Class V - **sit**, Class VI -**wake, stand**, Class VII -**hold**.

In the past tense of the verb **strike** the long **-[o:]** developed into ^[U:_U_A] (**struck.**), in the same way as in the words **brother, blood**, etc.

The ME verb **bidden, beden** developed in NE the forms **bid, bade**,

bidden. The verb **spit, spat** appears to be a mixture of two weak verbs: OE **spittan** and OE **spætan**. ME **slen** acquired in NE the infinitive form **slay** influenced by the second participle form **slain**.

The starting point of the whole process appears to have been Class VI and Class VII verbs, whose past sg. and past pl. vowels had coincided since the oldest times. In these verbs when the plural ending was dropped, all difference between numbers in the past tense disappeared, e.g. **shok, tok, knew, fell**.

Their influence was corroborated by that of weak verbs which had also lost any differentiation between numbers in the past tense.

The Second Participle

The **-en** ending of the second participle requires special discussion. It proved strong enough in many verbs to withstand the general tendency to drop unstressed endings. With some verbs which had been dropping the ending in ME it was later restored and is now obligatory. Thus, in the verb **fall**, as in a number of other verbs, the **-en** of the second participle was liable to be lost in ME. In NE the only admissible form of the participle is **fallen**.

In a few verbs, a second participle is found both with the **-en** ending and without it. Thus the verb **bid** has a second participle **bidden** or **bid**; the verb **bite** - the participle **bitten** or **bit**.

Weak Verbs

Classification of weak verbs into I and II classes is no longer applicable in NE. In ME it was still possible to draw a distinction between the two classes according as the past tense had or had not an **-e-** before the **-d** of the past suffix; in NE, when the unstressed **-e-** disappeared in all cases, this distinction can no longer be upheld. The ME Class I verb **demen-demde-demed** and the ME Class II verb **hopen-hopede-hoped** have quite similar forms in NE: **deem-deemed-deemed**; **hope-hoped-hoped**.

The unstressed vowel has been preserved after **-d** and **-t** only: **end-ended-ended**, **want-wanted-wanted**. This difference, due to purely phonetic causes, cannot be sufficient reason for establishing a special grammatical class of verbs.

Strong Verbs Becoming Weak and Vice Versa

A number of strong verbs became weak in the NE period. Some of these verbs have preserved some strong forms alongside of the weak ones. e.g. The verb **climb** sometimes has a strong past form **clomb**, the verb **melt** - a second participle **molten**.

A few verbs preserving strong forms occasionally have new weak forms. Thus, the verb **abide**, whose past tense and second participle are usually **abode**, occasionally has the form **abided** in both cases. The verb **wake** or **awake** has, alongside of weak forms, a strong past tense **awoke** and a strong second participle **(a) woke** or **(a) woken**.

The process of strong verbs becoming weak is still continuing, though at a much slower rate.

In a few cases the opposite process occurred: weak verbs became strong. The OE weak verb **hydan-hyddde-hyded** (hide), ME **hiden, hidde, hidd**, became a Class I strong verb. The vowels of the infinitive, on the one hand, and of the past tense and second participle, on the other, which in this verb were the result of a long vowel shortened before two consonants, had coincided with the vowels of Class I strong verbs of the type **bite-bit-bitten**, where the past tense had followed the vowel of the past plural; as a result, a new strong second participle **hidden** was formed on the analogy of Class I strong verbs, alongside of **hid**.

In a few cases weak verbs underwent the influence of strong ones only partially. They preserved the weak form of the past tense, but acquired a weak second participle.

Irregular Weak Verbs Becoming Regular

A few irregular weak verbs became regular. The ME verb **strecchen-straughtestraught** became NE **strecch-stretched-stretched**. The original second participle of this verb has survived as the adjective **straight**.

Rise of Invariable Verbs

In NE a group of invariable verbs came into existence. Most verbs of this group stem from weak verbs with a root ending in **-d** or **-t**; a few of them come from strong verbs of different classes.

The ME verbs **cutten-cutte-cutt, shutten-shutte-shut, setten, sette-sett**, etc. became invariable as a result of the disappearance of unstressed endings: **cut, shut, set**, etc.

Strong verbs becoming invariable were: Class III verb **bresten-brast-brostenbrosten**, NE **burst** and Class VII verb **leten-let-leten-leten**, which developed a weak past tense **lette** already in ME.

Preterite — Present Verbs

1. The verb **can** has been preserved. The absence of ending in the 3rd person singular present (**he can**) testifies to the verb originally belonging to the preterit-present type. The form **could** may be used to mean the past indicative or the present subjunctive.

2. The verb **shall** has been preserved in NE mainly as an auxiliary of the future tense. The form **should** has preserved its meaning of past tense only in the future in the past; in all other uses it has acquired a modal meaning instead of a temporal and has become an auxiliary of the conditional mood; besides, it has acquired a meaning close to that of **ought**. In most cases **should** no longer is a past tense of the verb **shall**, but a separate verb.

3. The verb **may** (past tense **might**) has been preserved in NE. The form

might is hardly used as a past tense (except indirect speech). Owing to the modal meaning of the verb the form acquired a meaning of present conditional. The absence of an **-s**-ending in the 3rd person singular present indicative characterizes the verb as preterit-present.

4. The ME verb **mot, moste**. The form **mote** is sometimes found in Early NE as an archaism. The form **moste** had sometimes been used in a present meaning in ME already. This use and the concomitant change of the meaning **can** into **must** started from a use of the conditional form: ME **þou moste (you might)** came to mean “*you must*”. In NE **must** is used as a present tense.

Some verbs of this group disappeared.

The Verbs *Be, Go, Do, Will*

The verb **be** did not change much since the ME period. The main change was the penetration of the Northern form **are** into the present plural indicative instead of **be**. For the 2nd person singular past indicative we find a vacillation between the variants **wert** and **wast**. The former was derived by adding the **-t** -ending to the ME form **were**; the latter was derived by adding the same ending to the form **was**. In the past tense, the distinction between the indicative (**I was, (he) was**) and the subjunctive (**I were, (he) were**) has been preserved; however, in colloquial style there is a tendency to use (**I was, (he) was**) instead of (**I were, (he) were**).

The verb **be** is the only English verb to have retained the difference between past singular and past plural. Such forms as (**we was, (you) was, (they) was**) are felt as vulgarisms and are not admitted into the literary and colloquial styles.

The verb **do** has undergone changes common to weak verbs; besides, in the forms **dost, does, doth, done** the vowel has been shortened. The form **did** no longer divides into two morphemes in NE.

In the verb **go** the past form **went** has been preserved, while the form **yede** disappeared.

The verb **will, would** have preserved their forms in NE mostly as auxiliary verbs. The form **will** is used as an auxiliary of the future tense, and **would** as an auxiliary of the future in the past and the conditional mood. In NE **would**, in some cases of its use, can no longer be considered a form of **will**, but has become a separate verb.

Tenses and Aspects. The Perfect

The system of perfect forms, which had arisen in OE and developed in ME, goes on unfolding in the modern period. In Shakespeare's works there is a fully developed system of perfect forms, e.g.: ...*if I have too austere punished you...*

Aspect

The category of aspect seems to have arisen only in the NE period. In OE differences in the way an action proceeds in time were expressed by the prefix *e-* in an unsystematic way, and in any case they did not amount to a grammatical category of aspect. In ME even this distinction was lost.

In NE a continuous aspect was gradually formed, expressed by a verb obvious morphological pattern (**be+first participle**). Verbal forms lacking this pattern became a system of common aspect. It is hard to state a definite point at which the category of aspect came into being, as the process developed slowly, and even as late as the 19th century it was still possible to use forms of the common aspect to denote an action unfolding at a definite moment.

Continuous forms are found in Shakespeare's texts somewhat more frequently than in Chaucer's, but on the whole, they are not numerous. The present continuous is used, for example in this sentence in *The Merchant of Venice*: *your mind is tossing on the ocean*. A continuous infinitive is found in *Much Ado About Nothing*: *I wonder that you will still be talking*. Beatrice is teasing Benedict: *He is always talking, though nobody cares to listen to him*.

However, in most cases where an action occurring at a given moment in the present or in the past is meant, the non-continuous form is used.

e.g. OLIVER: *Now, sir, what make you here?*

ORLANDO: *Nothing, I am not taught to make anything.*

Use of continuous forms is still rather limited in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Sometimes a continuous form is used with the adverb *always* to denote a repeated action, with an emotional colouring.

e.g. BRIK: *Careless, this is your trick, you're always spoiling company by leaving it.*

CARELESS: *And thou art always spoiling company by coming into't.*

Sometimes the present and the past perfect continuous are used. In the 19th century continuous forms are used more widely. But in the early 19th century they were considered a feature of the colloquial style and were not admitted in poetry. Eventually, however, continuous forms penetrated far deeper into all styles of the language.

In the 19th century passive continuous forms appear. They express an action taking place at a given time in the present or past more clearly, distinguishing it from the result of an action. But the system of passive continuous forms has been limited to the present and to the past; neither a future continuous passive nor any perfect continuous passive forms have been

developed so far.

Henry Sweet gives a full system of verb forms, including such forms as **he has been being seen** and **he will have been being seen**. He adds the remark: "Some of the longer forms are seldom or never used". From the point of view of modern linguistics this means that Sweet has pointed out structural possibilities which may be developed in the future.

Mood

The mood system developed in NE mainly towards creating more precise means of expressing modal meanings and, in this connection, towards the growth of analytical verb forms.

Thus, in the sphere of the subjunctive, the use of the pattern **should/would + infinitive** gradually grew in main clauses of a conditional sentence.

In Shakespeare's time both the synthetic subjunctive, inherited from OE, and analytical forms were used in such cases.

Syntactical subjunctive forms of the 1st and 3rd persons were also used to express appeal or wish, as in *sit we down, judge me the world*.

In the main clause of a conditional sentence analytical conditional forms gradually superseded the synthetic ones.

Use of Auxiliary Do

In Early NE the verb **do** was widely used as an auxiliary. Owing to its lexical meaning, which corresponds to the grammatical meaning of any verb as a part of speech, it easily lends itself to auxiliary use.

In the 16th and 17th centuries forms of the present and past are often derived by means of the auxiliary **do**. In Shakespeare's texts we can find the following examples: *Why do you not perceive the jest?* However, forms without **do** are also used in such sentences: *Now, sir! What make you here?*

Thus, in Shakespeare's time the use of the auxiliary **do** both in affirmative, interrogative and negative sentences was optional.

In the 17th century there was considerable hesitation in this sphere. Thus, in John Milton's prose works **do** is hardly ever used at all, while in Samuel Pepys's Diary (1660-1669) it is used very widely, and in John Evelyn's Diary **no do** is found in affirmative sentences.

In negative sentences the use of **do** gradually grew during the 17th century. In Shakespeare's works **do** is found in approximately 30% of all negative sentences.

In philosophic and scientific prose hesitations in this sphere last for a much longer time.

The Gerund

The gerund, which came into being in ME, developed further in NE. It was

gradually more and more clearly separated from the verbal substantive in **-ing**.

While the boundary between the verbal substantive and the gerund was indistinct, so was that between word-building and derivation. As they became more clearly differentiated, the boundary, too, became clearer. However, the fact that **-ing** was a word-building as well as a derivational suffix, made the distinction less definite than it is in other languages.

LECTURE XV*

DEVELOPMENT OF THE VOCABULARY DURING THREE MAIN PERIODS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

OUTLINE

1. Composition of OE Vocabulary
 - a. Native Words
 - b. Foreign Elements in the Old English Vocabulary
 - c. Borrowings from Celtic
 - d. Latin Influence on the Old English Vocabulary
 - e. Etymological Layers of the Old English Vocabulary
 - f. Word Formation in Old English
 - Word Structure
 - Ways of Word Formation
 - Word Derivation
 - Sound Interchanges
 - Word Stress
 - Prefixation
 - Suffixation
 - Word-Composition
 - Stylistic Stratification of the OE Vocabulary
2. Development of the Vocabulary in Middle English
 - a. Types and Sources of Changes
 - b. Scandinavian Influence
 - c. French Influence
 - d. French Derivational Affixes in English
 - e. Suffixes
 - f. Prefixes
 - g. Sound Interchanges
 - h. Word Stress
 - i. Word-Composition
 - j. Conversation
 - k. Development of Stock Phrases

3. Enrichment of Vocabulary in the Renaissance Period (NE)
 - a. Italian and Spanish Words
 - b. Latin Words
 - c. Latinization of French Words
 - d. Greek Words
 - e. Mixed Vocabulary of English
 - f. Borrowings of Colonial and French Words in the 17th century
 - g. Borrowings of the 18th - 19th Centuries
 - h. Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in New English
 - i. International Words
 - j. Word-Building
 - Prefixation
 - Suffixation
 - Word-Composition
 - Conversion
 - k. Simplification. Back Formation
 - l. Semantic Changes in the Vocabulary
 - m. Development of Stock Phrases

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LISTENING

Lecture Five: *Words and Worlds: Historical Linguistics and Study of Culture*

Lecture Seven: *Old English: The Anglo-Saxon World View*

Lecture Nine: *Conquering Language: What Did the Normans Do to English?*

Lecture Ten: *Chaucer' English*, Seth Lerer, Ph. D., Stanford University, USA,

1998

The Birth of a Language, Development of the Vocabulary in English

*Lecture XV is given for independent study.

A graphic of a scroll with a black outline and grey shading on the top and left edges, suggesting it is unrolled. The word "Supplement" is written across the center of the scroll in a large, bold, orange-to-yellow gradient serif font.

Supplement

MIDDLE ENGLISH

There also was a nun, a Prioress,
Whose smile was simple, quiet, eyen coy.
The only oath she swore was, "By Saint Lou!"
And she was known as Sister Eglantine.
Sweetly she sang the service divine,
Intoning through her nose the melody.
Fairly she spoke her French, and skilfully,
After the school of Stratford-at-the Bow
Parisian French was not for her to know.
Precise at table and well-bred withal
Her lips would never let a morsel fall;
She never wet her fingers in her sauce,
But carried every titbit without loss
Of even the smallest drop upon her brest.
Manners and good behaviour pleased her best.
She always wiped her upper lip so clean
That not a speck of grease was ever seen
Upon the cup from which she drank.
Her food was reached for neatly; she was never rude.
Though her demeanour was the very best,
Her mood was amiable, she loved a jest,
She always tured to copy each report
Of how the latest fashion ran at court,
And yet to hold herself with dignity.
But, speaking of her inner nature, she
Was so soft-hearted that she could not see
A mouse caught in a trap, if it had bled.
A few small dogs she had, and these she fed
With roasted meat, or milk and sweetened bread,
And she wept loud if one of them were dead,
Of if a person struck and made them smart –

She was all goodness and a tender heart.
 Her wimple draped itself a modest way;
 Her nose was straight, her eyes transparent grey,
 Her mouth was small, but very soft and red,
 Hers was a noble and a fair forehead,
 Almost a span in breadth, one realized;
 For she was small but scarcely undersized.
 Her cloak was well designed, I was aware;
 Her arm was graced with corals, and she bare
 A string in which the green glass beads were bold,
 And from it hung a brilliant brooch of gold
 On which there was engraved a large, crowned A,
 Followed by "Amor vincit omnia".
 There was also a Nonne, a Prioress,
 That of hir smyling was ful simple and coy:
 Hir gretteste ooth was but by seynt Loy;
 And she was cleped madame Eglentyne.
 Ful wel she song the service divyne,
 Entuned in hir nose ful semely;
 And Frensh she spak ful faire and fetisly,
 After the stole of Stratford atte Bowe,
 For Frensh of Paris was to hir unknowe.
 At mete wel y-taught was she with-alle;
 She leet no morsel from hir lippes falle,
 Ne wette hir finges in hir sauce depe.
 Wel coude she carie a morsel, and wel kepe,
 That no drope ne fine up-on hir brest.
 In curteisye was set ful muche hir lest.
 Hir over lippe wyped she so Ilene,⁷
 That in hir coppe was no ferthing sene
 Of grece, whan she dronken hadde hir draughte.

⁷ From "The Prologue to The Canterbury Tales" by Chaucer (latter half of 14th century).

Ful semely after hir mete she raughte,
And sikerly she was of greet disport,
And ful pleasunt, and amiable of port,
And peyned hir to countrefete there
Of court, and been estatlich of manere,
And to ben holden digne of reverence.
But, for to speken of hir conscience,
She was so charitable and-so pitons,
She wolde wepe, if that she sawe a mows
Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde.
Of smale houndes had she, that she fedde
With rosted flesh, or milk and wastel-breed,
But sore weep she if oon of hem were deed,
Or if men smoot it with a yerde smerte:
And al was conscience and tendre herte.
Ful semely hir wimpel pinched was;
Hir nose tretys; hir even greye as glass
Hir mouth ful smal, and ther-to softe and reed;
But sikerly she hadde a fiar forheed;
It was almost a spanne brood, I trowe;
For, hardily, she was nat undergrowe.
Ful fetis was hir cloke, as I was war.
Of smal coral aboute hir arm she bar
A peire of bedes, gauded al with grene;
And ther-on heng a broche of gold ful shene,
On which ther was first writ a crowned A,
And after, "Amc vincit omnia".

EVERY MAN

(Enter Death)

Death. Almighty God, I am here at your will,
Your commandment to fulfil.

God. Go thou to Everyman,
And show him, in my name,
A pilgrimage he must on him take,
Which he in no wise may escape;
And that he bring with him a sure reckoning
Without delay or any tarrying. (God withdraws).

Death. Lord, I will in the world go run overall,
everywhere
And cruelly outsearch both great and small;
Every man will I beset that liveth beastly
Out of God's laws, and dreadeth not folly.
He that loveth riches I will strike with my dart,
His sight to blind, and from heaven to depart – separate
Except that aims be his good friend -
In hell for to dwell, world without end.
Lo, yonder I see Everyman walking.
Full little he thinketh on my coming;
His mind is on fleshly lusts and his treasure,
And great pain it shall cause him to endure
Before the Lord, Heaven King.

(Enter Everyman)

Everyman, stand still: Whither art thou going
Thus gaily? Hast thou thy Maker forget?

Everyman. Why askest thou?

Wouldest thou wit? know

Death. Yea, sir; I will show you:

In great haste I am sent to thee –
From God out of his majesty.

Everyman. What, sent to me?

Death. Yea, certainly.

Though thou have forget him here,
He thinketh on thee in the heavenly sphere,
As, ere we depart, thou shalt know.

Everyman. What desireth God of me?

Death. That shall I show thee:

A reckoning he will needs have
Without any longer respite.

Everyman. To give a reckoning longer leisure I crave;

This blind matter troubleth my wit.

Death. On thee thou must take a long journey;

Therefore thy book of count with thee thou bring,
accounts

For turn again thou cannot by no way return
And look thou be sure of thy reckoning,
For before God thou shalt answer, and show
Thy many bad deeds, and good but a few;
How thou hast spent thy life, and in what wise,
Before the chief Lord of paradise.
Have ado that we were in that way,
For, wit thou well, thou shalt make none attorney.

Everyman. Full unready I am such reckoning to give.

I know thee not. What messenger art thou?

Death. I am Death, that no man dreadeth,

For every man I rest, and no man spareth; arrest
For it is God's commandment
That all to me should be obedient.

Everyman. O Death, thou comest when I had thee least in mind:

In thy power it lieth me to save;
Yet of my good will I give thee, if thou will be kind –goods
Yea, a thousand pound shalt thou have -

And defer this matter till another day.

Death. Everyman, it may not be, by no way.

⁸I set not by gold, silver, nor riches, set no store by
Ne by pope, emperor, king, duke, ne princes;
For, and I would receive gifts great, if
All the world I might get;
But my custom is clean contrary.
I give thee no respite. Come hence, and not tarry.

Everyman. Alas, shall I have no longer respite?

I may say Death giveth no warning I.

⁸ An extract from the 15th century morality play: "Everyman".

SCOTS AND STANDARD ENGLISH

IT is remarkable how many people regard Scots as merely a degraded form of Standard English, when the fact is that each is derived from a distinct dialect of the Germanic tongue brought to England by the Teutonic invaders who settled along the east coast in the fifth and sixth centuries.

By the middle of the seventh century, the dialect of the Angles of Northumbria had extended with the conquests of King Edwin as far north as the Firth of Forth, and under the name of Inglis gradually took over from Gaelic as the main language of the Scottish Lowlands. The resultant Celtic and Scandinavian contacts greatly increased the difference between Inglis as spoken in Scotland and the Anglian speech of Northumbria, and after Scotland gained her independence the name of the principal tongue was changed from **Inglis** to **Scottis**.

Lowland Scots vocabulary consists partly of words drawn from the same, mainly Anglo-Saxon, source as their Standard English equivalents, and partly of words quite foreign to the vocabulary of the English language.

The main points of distinction between Scots and English words of obviously common origin are set out below.

VOWELS

English **a** becomes:

(1)**ai** (pronounced as in English *gate*) in such words as *airs* (art), *aix* (axe), *cairry* (carry), *taint* (cart), *faither* (father), *raither* (rather), *taint* (tart), *yaird* (yard);

(2)**au** (pronounced as in *raw*) in words like *baur* (bar), *caur* (car), *faun* (far), *haunle* (handle), *saumon* (salmon), *scaur* (scar), *staun* (stand);

(3)**e** in words such as *gled* (glad), *glass* (glass), *gress* (grass), *lether* (ladder), *seck* (sack), *sterve* (starve).

The vowel **a**, with its normal a sound as in *arm* is retained in Scots in words like *want*, *warm*, *wash*, *water*.

The vowel a is retained in certain English **a-consonant-e** words, but the terminal **e** is discarded and the pronunciation is altered accordingly — *cam* (came), *mak* (make), *shak* (shake), *tak* (take).

English **e** becomes:

(1)**a** in *dwall* (dwell), *wal* (well), *wast* (west), *wat* (wet), *washer* (weather), *whan* (when);

(2)**ai** (pronounced as in *gate*) in *mairchant* (merchant), *saicont*

(second), *thaim* (them);

(3)**ei** (pronounced as in *feet*) in *deivil* (devil), *seiven* (seven),
streitch (stretch), *weft* (wet).

Note that the English **ee** sound is generally spelt **ei** in Scots, less frequently **ie**, or **ee** "according to old usage" (Makars' Club Style Sheet, 1947).

English **i** becomes:

(1)**ei** in *dreip* (drip), *seik* (sick), *steir* (stir);

(2)**u** in *hull* (hill), *mull* (mill), *whun* (whin), *whup* (whip), *whurl* (whirl),
whustle (whistle), *wrinkle* (wrinkle).

Note that the **i** sound in *mine* is often represented in Scots by the letter **y**.

English **o**, when preceded or followed by a lip consonant, becomes **a** in Scots - *aff* (off), *gab* (gob), *pat* (pot), *sab* (sob), *tap* (top).

Note that the **o** sound as in *lot* becomes an **oa** sound as in *board* in such Scots words as *cost* (pronounced *coast*), *lost*, *order*, *scholar*.

English **oi** becomes **i**, pronounced as in *mine* and often spelt **y** as in *byle* (boil), *hyst* (hoist), *pynt* (point).

English **oo** becomes **ui** or **u-consonant-e** in a number of Scots words, these being pronounced in the Ayr-Clyde-Forth area like **i** in *bit*, and in certain other areas more like the **u** in the French word *plume*. Examples are *-fuil* (fool), *guid* (good), *mune* (moon), *ruit* (root), *spune* (spoon), *stuid* (stood).

English **ou** and **ow** pronounced as in *now* generally have the **ou** spelling in Scots, but are pronounced like **oo** in *soon* - *brown* (*brown*), *flouer* (flower), *how* (how), *hous* (house), *mows* (mouse), *shower* (shower), *town* (town).

On the other hand, English **ow** as in *row* (of houses) becomes **aw** in words like *blaw* (blow), *awe* (owe), *shave* (show), *slaw* (slow), *saw* (sow).

English **u** or **o** with a **u** sound becomes **i** in *brother* (brother), *dizzen* (dozen), *mither* (mother), *simmer* (summer).

CONSONANTS

The **b** in English **mb** words is replaced in Scots with a second **m** - *fummle* (fumble), *grummle* (grumble), *mummle* (mumble), *timmer* (timber), *trummle* (tremble).

English **ch** at the beginning or end of a word sometimes becomes **k** or **c** - *birk* (birch), *kirk* (church), *poke* (pouch), *sic* (such).

On the other hand, English **ch** is retained in form and sound in words like *chaff* (chafe), *chaumer* (chamber), *chaunt* (chant), *thaw* (chew), *cheery* (china).

English **d** is often omitted in such words as *ahin* (behind), *bli^p* (blind), *caunle* (candle), *frien* (friend), *haun* (hand), *kennle* (kindle). Here as elsewhere

the insertion of an apologetic apostrophe is to be deplored.

Scots retains the **f** where certain English nouns ending in **f** and **fe** form their Plurals by changing the ending to **ves** - *knifes* (knives), *leafs* (leaves), *loafs* (loaves), *wifes* (wives).

English **dge** is replaced by **g** in *brig* (bridge), *rig* (ridge), *seg* (sedge), *draig* (dredge).

English **gh** is replaced by the guttural digraph **ch** in words like *fricht* (fright), *licht* (light), *micht* (might), *ocht* (ought), *sicht* (sight), *slaughter* (slaughter), *wecht* (weight).

The letter **h** is inserted in such words as *shinner* (cinder), *creish* (grease), *gushet* (gusset), *shew* (sew).

English **l** is often omitted from the middle of a word when preceded by a back vowel — *cows* (colt), *faut* (fault), *gowd* (gold), *hand* (hold), *poupit* (pulpit), *saut* (salt), *sodger* (soldier).

The **ll** ending is dropped in such words as *ball*, *call*, *fall*, *wall*, and either an apologetic apostrophe is substituted as was the custom before the appearance of the Style Sheet in 1947, or the **a** vowel is doubled — *baa*, *caa*, *faa*, *waa* — with the original aw sound retained. In fact a few writers favour a simple change from **a** to **aw** — *baw*, *caw*, *Jaw*, *waw* — in order to make the pronunciation quite clear to the reader.

The letter **r** sometimes changes place with the preceding or following vowel as in *brunt* (burnt), *crib* (kerb), *cruds* (curds), *kirsen* (christen), *start* (scratch), *shaird* (shred), *warsle* (wrestle).

English **sl** words sometimes appear in their Scots version with an inserted **c** or **k** - *sclander* (slander), *sclate* (slate), *sclice* (slice), *sklent* (slant).

English **w** disappears before the vowel in words like *athout* (without), *oo* (wool), *soum* (swim), *soup* (sweep).

Spelling and Pronunciation

THE fact that there are so many different spellings and pronunciations in different parts of Scotland poses the problem of how to present, in a book such as this, a system of spelling and pronunciation that will not by its incompleteness do very grave injustice to the Scots tongue in all the richness of its various dialects.

On the other hand, such is the chaotic state of Scots orthography that not only does each writer have his own favorite manner of spelling, but quite often one finds the same person serving lip the same word in two or three different forms. There is therefore at least some scope for a regularizing of Scots spelling without having to interfere overmuch with dialect words in all their colorful variety.

The system employed here is based partly on the Makars' Club proposals made in Edinburgh in 1947, partly upon observation of the spelling practice of leading contemporary Scots writers, and partly upon word spelling as given in the pages of the Scottish National Dictionary.

A key to spelling and pronunciation is given below, while the pronunciation of individual words that may cause difficulty appears in brackets immediately after the head-word in the Scots-English section of the Word Book. Unless where otherwise stated, vowel and consonant sounds are generally the same as in Standard English.

A in the Scots pronunciation of such words as *want, warm, wash, water* retains the more usual **a** sound as in *arm*.

Aa = English **aw** as in *lawn*, but more open — *aa, baa, caa, faa*.

Ai = English **a** as in *fate* — *inch, taint, main, sair*.

Ei, ie = English **e** in *me* — *ip, seik, stein, scribe*.

Eu, as in *sheuch*, is pronounced **yoo** in the Lothians and other districts, and **yu** (shyuch) elsewhere. Other examples are *deuk, neuk, heuk, eneuch*.

Ey, y = English **i** as in *mine* — *gey, Mey, stey, syne*.

I in the Scots version of a number of English words of two or more syllables is pronounced **ee** as in *sweet*, and some writers indicate this in their spelling — *adverteesement, feenish, parteeclear, exhibeetion, peety, rideeclous, speerit*.

Ou, oo = English **oo** in *moon* — *broun, flour, hou, hous, nou, smoor*.

Ow, owe = English **ow** in *down*. Unlike English, Scots never uses **ou** for this sound — *bowel, growe, lowe, sowl, thow*.

Ui and **u-consonant-e** = English **i** in *bin* in areas south of the Forth and Clyde. In other areas it is more like the **u** in the French word *plume*. However, in such words as *muir, puir* where **ui** precedes the consonant **r**, it is pronounced like English **a** in *fate* — *fail, guid, ruit, stuid, mune, spune*.

Ch and **gh** have a guttural **kh** sound quite lost to English — *fricht* (fright), *licht, nicht, micht, richt, sicht, ergh, brugh*. On the other hand, the English **ch** sound as in *chin* is retained at the beginning or the end of words such as *chaumer* (chamber), *chaunt, chairge, fleich* (flatter), *streitch*.

Ng is pronounced as in English *singer*, with the **g** sound completely suppressed. This is an important distinction, especially in the pronunciation of words common to both English and Scots — *anger, finger, hunger, single*.

R has a much more prominent sound in Scots than in English, the Scots "rolled **r**" being well enough known not to require further mention.

Scots Grammar

SINCE Scots and English are derived from sister dialects, their grammars have many points of similarity. The main differences are as follows:

Nouns

While the Plural number is formed in most cases by adding **s** to the Singular, nouns of time, space, measurement and number often retain the Singular form, as in "Twa bag o tatties," "Twa acre o grun".

On the other hand, such nouns as *parritch*, *brose*, *broth* are followed by **u** plural verb like the English noun of Multitude, it were intended to denote the constituent parts:

The parritch are rale guid this morning.

Again, where in English those nouns that end in **f** or **fe** generally form their Plurals by changing the **f** or **fe** to **ves**, Scots simply follows the general rule of adding **s** to the Singular — *wifes*, *knifes*, *lifes*, *loafs*, *sheafs*.

Adjectives

As in English, the degrees of comparison are formed by adding **er** and **est** in the case of single syllable words, and **mair** (more) and **maist** (most) to most words of two or more syllables. The following irregular comparisons are however to be noted:

guid (good)	better	best
ill (bad)	waur	warst
hin (rearward)	hinner	hinmaist
monie (many)	mair	maist
muckle (much)	mair	maist

Key Cardinal and Ordinal Adjectives are:

Ae, yae (one)	furst (first)
Twa, twae (two)	saicont (second)
Thrie (three)	thurd (third)
Fower (four)	fort (fourth)
Five (five)	fift (fifth)
Sax (six)	saxt (sixth)
Seiven (seven)	seivent, seiventh(seventh)
Aicht, aucht, echt (eight)	aicht (eighth)
Nine (nine)	nint

Ten (ten)	tent (tenth)
Eleiven (eleven)	eleivent (eleventh)
Twal (twelve)	twalt

Groups of people engaged in some activity are denoted by the addition of some to the Cardinal Number:

Hou about makkin a fowersome at cairds?

Still under Numeral Adjectives, **a small number more** becomes **a pickle mair**, or **a when mair**, and **a considerable number more** becomes **a guid when mair**, or **a hantle mair**, or **a sicht mair**.

On the other hand, **a small amount more** becomes **a thocht mair**, or **a wee tait mair**, and **a considerable amount more** becomes **a guid pickle mair**, or **a sicht mair**.

These Demonstrative Adjectives are also to be noted:

	Definite		Indefinite	
Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.	
This	thir, thu	onie (any)	Onie	
That	Thae	a, yae (a certain)	---	
thon (yon)	thou	anither (another)	Ither	
sic (such)	Sic			

Pronouns

Although the Personal Pronouns are much the same in Scots as in English, some writers use the following forms as being nearer to popular pronunciation:

First Person, Masculine or Feminine

Nominative Singular a, as (I)

Possessive Singular ma, mine's

While the Objective Singular is **me**, the Plural **us** or **'s** is used in its place in colloquial speech — Gie's (give me) a piece.

Second Person, Masculine or Feminine

Nominative Singular ye, you (emphatic)

Possessive Singular yur, your (emphatic)

Objective Singular ye, you (emphatic)

Third Person, All Genders

Nominative Plural thae

Objective Plural thaim

The English Indefinite Demonstrative Pronoun, **one**, becomes **a body** in Scots. The Scots equivalent of both Nominative and Objective cases of the Interrogative Pronoun **who** is **wha**, and **of what sort of** is **whatna**.

That is the word used for all relative pronouns, Nominative and Objective cases, **wha** and **wham** having largely fallen into disuse.

Verbs

To quote the Style Sheet on the Spelling of Scots, 1947, "Past tenses and Past participles of weak verbs end in **it**, **t** and **ed** according to euphony — *flypit, skailt, gamed, snawed, loued*."

Verbs ending in vowel sounds form their Past tenses and Past participles by adding **d** to the Present tense form — *gaed, gied, peyd*. Past tense *loued* in the Style Sheet quotation is, however, preferable in order to avoid confusion with the adjective *loud*.

As to strong verbs (i.e. verbs which form their Past tenses and Past participles by changing the inside vowel instead of adding a final **it**, **t** or **ed**), the following list may be of some assistance in view of the fact that problems of space have made it impossible to include Past tenses and Past participles in the Word Book. The list is taken from the compiler's Teach Yourself Scots articles in the magazine, *Lallans*.

Bear	bure buir	Borne
Beat	bate	beaten Baten
byde (dwell)	bid bade	Bidden
brek (break)	brak bruik	brak Braken
Bring	brocht brung	brocht Brung
Burst	brast	Bursen

Can	cud	Cuid
Creep	crap creepit (w)	cruppen creepit (w)
ding (beat)	dang	Dung
Drink	drave	Driven
Dae	did	Dune
Eat	ett	Etten
Faa	fell	Faan
Fecht	faucht focht	fauchten fochten
fin(d)	fan(d)	fun(d)
Get	got/gat	Gotten
Gie	gae gied(w)	gien gied(w)
greit (weep)	grat/gret	Grutten
grup (seize)	grap gruppit(w)	gruppen gruppit(w)
Hae	had/hid	Haen
Hit	hat	hutten Kitten
lat (let)	loot luit	latten Lutten
lauch (laugh)	leuch laucht(w)	lauchen leuchen laucht(w)
Leap	lap	Luppen
lowp, (leap)	lowpit(w)	lowpen lowpit(w)

Mistak	misteuk	Mistaen
Pit	pat pit(w)	pitten putten pit(w)
Pruive	pruived(w)	proven pruived(w)
Quit	quat	Quat
rive (rend)	rave rived(w)	riven rived(w)
Seek	socht	Sochten
Set	suit set(w)	setten set(w)
shak (shake)	sheuk shuik shakit(w)	sheuken shuiken shakit(w)
Shear	shuir	Shorn
Sit	sat sut	sitten Sutten
Speak	spak	spoken Spak
staun (stand)	stude stuid	stude Stuid
Sweit (sweat)	swat sweitlet(w)	Swutten sweitlet(w)
Tell	tauld tellt(w)	Tauld tellt(w)
Tyne (lose)	tint tynen(w)	Tint tyned(w)

Wash	wuish wush washt(w)	Washen Wushen washt(w)
Win	wan	wan Wun

The Scots Present participle is another case where the apologetic apostrophe is used quite needlessly. Instead of the common **ing** ending of the English Present participle and Verbal noun, Scots makes a distinction and replaces **ing** with **an** and **in** respectively. So, even if more and more writers are using the **in** ending for both Participle and Verbal noun – probably to avoid being pedantic – there is absolutely no reason for taking this as just another example of speech slovenliness.

The use of the Present tense of the verb **to be** along with a Present participle to express a state of doubt or wonder is to be noted – *I'm wondering/I'm doubting whither* for *I wonder/I doubt whether...*

The Present tense of the verb **to be** is the same in Scots as in English, but the Past tense is – *I wis, you/ye wur, he/she/it wis, we wur, ye wur, they wur.*

The Scots forms of the Auxiliaries **shall, should** and **have** are **sal, soud** and **hae**.

Adverbs

In many cases where English adds **ly** to an adjective to form the adverb, Scots uses the same form for both parts of speech. Thus *to caa canny* means *to proceed cautiously* – and *I'm awfu tired* means *I'm extremely tired*.

Other Parts of Speech are as detailed in the Scots-English Vocabulary.

*Class materials on “The Scots Language”, Institute for Applied Language Studies, University of Edinburgh, Great Britain, 1993

THE COCK

You are going to hear a short story in Doric, the Scots of the north east around Aberdeen. **Don't panic!** Scots is similar enough to English for you to understand a lot of the story but you will have to use all your linguistic resources, your background knowledge, and your ability to make inferences. You will, in fact, be put in a similar situation that a low-level learner of English faces when presented with a text that has "comprehensible input plus" (see *Krashen*).

This is a traditional comprehension exercise — see the questions below. The questions are written in English and, of course, these can be used to help you understand as much of the passage as is required to complete the task.

Before you listen to the passage, discuss what you might expect to hear.

1. What did the cock do each morning?
2. Why did he do this, according to the story?
3. What was wrong with the farmer's shirt?
4. Describe the farmer's mood.
5. What was the farmer's complaint?
6. What was the farmer's threat?
7. Give the time and place of the meeting and the participants.
8. What was happening before the cock joined the meeting?
9. What was the mouse's idea?
10. Was the mouse's idea effective the next morning?
11. Why did the pig and the cow complain? What about the mouse?
12. Why did the farmer roar?
13. What was the farmer's reaction when he saw what had happened to the cock, and what did he do?
14. What is the moral of the story?

THE COCK

There was aince a wee cock that was affa prood o his craw. Ilka mornin he stuid on tap o the hen-hous and crawed sae lodb that ye heard him for miles aroon. Ae mornin the fairmer cam oot o the fairmhous and walkit owre tae the hen-hous. He was dressed in his nickytams wi his sark tail hingin ootowre. His face was reid, and he didna leuk happy.

"Ye crawin brute," he shouted, shakkin his neive at the cock, "ye've waukened me up and it's still the middle o the nicht, ye're aye wauknin me owre early, fit dae ye think ye're daein ? That craw's eneuch tae wauken the deid. Nou dinna ye craw sae lood the morn or I'll mak a fine pot o broth oot o ye." Wi that he stampit back tae the fairmhous, leavin the puir cock wonderin fit tae dae.

Nou that cock was affa prood o his craw and fair thocht he was the king amang aa the ither craiteurs o the fairmyaird. He caa'd a meetin that eftireen in the muckle barnie at hauf-past ane. Aa the beasts and the birds frae the fairmyaird cam. Some sat on the raifters and some on the flair tae speir fit was wrang wi the cock and fit he was needin them for. They were aa bletherin amang themsels whan the cock cam in, and he had tae craw loodly tae mak himsel heard.

"Ah, wae's me, fit'll I dae, I craw sae loodly and I'll hae tae dee."

"Aye," said the coo, "ye div craw sae loodly."

"Aye," said the pig, "ye wauken us owre earily."

"I ken fit tae dae," squeakit a wee mousie, "I'll chaw the pynts oot o the maister's sheen and we'll tie up yer mou sae as the soond's nae sae lood."

Aabody thocht that was a bricht idea o the wee mousie's. Nou the neist mornin ye wadna hae heard the cock's craw gin ye'd been stannin neist til him! The sun cam up owre the hill and the birdies cam oot tae sing but there was nae sign o the fairmer.

The coo moosed sadly. "I'm needin milkit," she said.

The pig grunted; "Far's that fairmer chiel, I'm affa hungert."

"I'm nae worriet," says the mousie, "whan the fairmer sleeps the mousie eats!" And he scampered back intil the hous.

"A whilie later a great muckle roar cam frae the hous, an upstairs windae was flung open and oot cam the fairmer's heid. "Far's that cock ?" he bawled.

He ran doon the stairs and oot at the door, and there in the fairmyaird he saw the cock wi his moo aa tied up.

"Ah, ye puir beastie," he said, "fa did that tae ye, my bonnie loon ? Come til I lowse ye, I'm nae eese withoot yer bonny sang in the mornin."

Sae whan ye're in the country and the cock's craw gars ye rise early, jist

mind that country fowk are richt gled o his sang, for they maun stairt their wark
in guid time!

Sonja Mary Rasmussen

THE COCK

You are going to hear a short story in Doric, the Scots of the north east around Aberdeen. **Don't panic!** Scots is similar enough to English for you to understand a lot of the story but you will have to use all your linguistic resources, your background knowledge, and your ability to make inferences. You will, in fact, be put in a similar situation that a low-level learner of English faces when presented with a text that has "comprehensible input plus" (see *Krashen*).

The multiple choice questions below are written in English and, of course, these can be used to help you understand as much of the passage as is required to complete the task. Before you listen to the passage, discuss what you might expect to hear.

1) What was the cock proud of?

- a) his hen house
- b) the noise he made
- c) the view from his house

2) Tick the statements about the farmer that are true:

- a) he was angry
- b) he had a round face
- c) he had his shirt tucked in his trousers

3) The cock wakened the farmer so early each morning that he threatened to:

- a) strangle him
- b) tie him up in a cloth and drown him
- c) make soup out of him

4) All the farmyard animals met in the big barn at:

- a) half-past nine
- b) just past seven
- c) half-past one

5) Tick which questions the animals wanted to ask the cock:

- a) Why did he want to see them?
- b) What should they do about the farmer?

- c) Why was the cock upset?
 - d) How could they help him?
- 6) What were the responses of the cow and the pig to the cock?
- a) Sympathetic
 - b) Critical
- 7) What did the mouse suggest that they tie the cock's mouth with?
- a) the farmer's shoelaces
 - b) the farmer's wife's stockings
 - c) string from the milking shed
- 8) How much noise did the cock make the next morning?
- a) only a little
 - b) hardly any
 - c) not a squeak
- 9) Who benefitted from the farmer oversleeping?
- a) the pig
 - b) the cow
 - c) the mouse
- 10) From which part of the house did the farmer shout for the cock?
- a) his bedroom
 - b) the front door
 - c) the kitchen window
- 11) How did the farmer describe the cock's crowing?
- a) a pleasant noise
 - b) a useful noise
 - c) a necessary noise
- 12) The moral of the story is:
- a) Country folk should look after their poultry and feed them early.
 - b) Never be angry with an animal that helps you with your work.
 - c) If you are an early riser, you have no need of a cock to waken you.

*Class materials on "The Scots Language", Institute for Applied language Studies, University of Edinburgh, Great Britain, 1993

OLD ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED

The following sentences supplied with transcription and a translation into Mod E illustrate the use of the alphabet in OE. The passage is taken from Ohthere's account of his voyage round the Scandinavian Peninsula, inserted by King Alfred in his translation of Orosius' *WORLD HISTORY* (West Saxon dialect, 9th c.):

“Ohthere sæde his hlaforde Ælfrede⁹

[ˈo:xtxere ˈsæ:de his ˈxla:vorde ˈælfre:de] "

“Ohthere said (to) his lord Alfred

cynin3e þæt he ealra Norþmanna norþmest

[ˈkyninge þæt he: ˈealra ˈnord, manna ˈnorþ, mest]

king that he (of) all Northmen to the North

bude ... þa for he 3iet norþryhte

[ˈbu:de þa: fo:r he: jiet ˈnorþ, rux'te]

lived (had lived). Then sailed he yet (farther) northwards

swa feor swa he meahte on þæm

[swa: feor swa: he: ˈmeaxte on þæm]

as far as he might (could) in the

oþrum þrim da3um 3esi3lan.”

[ˈo:þrum þri:m ˈdaɣum jeˈsiɣlan]

other three days sail”.

⁹ Rastorgueva T.A., *History of English*, M., 1983, p.74

OLD ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED

The first two of the following passages in late West Saxon are from a translation of the Old Testament by Æfric, the greatest prose writer of the Old English period. The opening verses of chapters 1 and 2 of Genesis are printed here from the edition of the Early English Text Society (O.S. 160), with the abbreviations expanded, modern punctuation and capitalization added, some obvious scribal errors corrected, and a few unusual forms regularized.

I. 1. On angynne gesceop God heofonan and eorþan.

In [the] beginning created God heavens and earth.

2. Seo eorþe soþlice wæs idel and æmtig, and þeostra wæron over

þære nywelnysse bradnysse;

earth truly was void and empty, and darknesses were over the abyss's surface;

and Godes gast wæs gefeod ofer wæteru.

and God's spirit was brought over [the] water.

3. God cwæþ þa: Gewurþe leoht, and leoht wearþ geworht.

God said then: Be light, and light was made.

4. God geseah þa þæt hit god wæs, and he todælde þæt leoht fram þa deostrum.

God saw then that it good was, and he divided the light from the darkness.

5. And het þæt leoht dæg and þa þeostru niht:

And called the light day and the darkness night:

þa wæs geworden æfen and morgen an dæg.

then was evening and morning one day.

II. 1. Eornostlice þa wæron fullfremode heofonas and eorþe

Indeed then were completed heaven and earth

and eall heora frætewung.

and all their ornaments.

2. And God þa gefylde on þone seofoþan dæg

And God then finished on the seventh day

fram eallum þam weorcum þe he gefremode.

from all the work that he made.

3. And God gebletsode

And God blessed

Ʒone seofoƷan dæg and hine gehalgode, for Ʒan Ʒe he on
Ʒone dæg

the seventh day and it hallowed, because he on that day

geswac his weorces, Ʒe he gesceop to wyrçenne.

ceased from his work, that he made to be done. (10)

11. Pyles Th., Algeo S. *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp. 130 – 131

MIDDLE ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED

The opening stanzas of the Prologue to the CANTERBURY TALES by G. Chaucer (late 14th c.) are given below with transcription and translation; the word stress is shown as required by the iambic meter of the poem and is therefore marked both in monosyllabic and polysyllabic words.

- (1) Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote

[xwan 'θat ap'rillə 'wiθ his 'ʃurəs 'so:tə]

- (2) the droghte of March hath perced to the roote,

[θə 'druxt of 'mɑrtʃ hɑθ 'pɜrsəd 'to: θə 'ro:tə]

- (3) And bathed every veyne in swich licour,

[and 'bɑ:ðəd 'evri 'vein in 'switʃ li'ku:r]

- (4) Of which vertu engendred is the flour;

[of 'xwitʃ ver'tju: en'dʒendrəd 'is θə 'flu:r]

When April with his sweet showers

The draught of March has pierced to the root,

And bathed every vein in such liquor,

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

- (5) Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breech

[xwan 'zefi'rus ε:k 'wiθ his 'swe:tθ 'brɛ:θ]

- (6) Inspired hath in every holt and heeth

[in'spirəd 'hɑθ in 'evri 'hɔ:lt and 'hɛ:θ]

- (7) The tendre croppes, and the younge sonne

[θə 'tendrə 'kroppəs 'and θəjʊŋgŋə 'sunnə]

- (8) Hath in the Ram his halve cours y-ronne,

[hɑθ 'in θə rɑm his 'hɑlvə 'kurs i-'rʊnnə]

When Zephyr also with his sweet breath

Inspired has into every holt and heath

The tender crops, and the young sun

Has in the Ram half his course run (has passed half

of its way in the constellation of Ram).

- (9) And smale foweles maken melodye,

[and 'smələ 'fuləs 'ma:kən 'melo'diə]

- (10) That slepen al the nyght with open ye –
 [θat 'slɛ:pən 'al θə 'nix't wiθ 'o:pən `i:e]
- (11) So priketh hem nature in here corages
 [so: 'prikəθ 'hem nɑ'tju:r in 'her ku'radʒəs]
- (12) Thanne longeri folk to goon on pilgrimages,
 [θan 'lɔŋgən 'folk to: 'go:n on 'pilgri'madʒəs]
 And small birds sing (lit. fowls make melody)
 That sleep all the night with open eyes (i. e. do not sleep) –
 So raises nature their spirit (lit. pricks their courage) —
 Then folks long to go on pilgrimages,
- (13) And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
 [and 'palmrəs 'for to: 'se:kən 'straundʒe 'strondəs]
- (14) To ferne halwes, couthe in sondry londes...
 [to: 'fɛrnə 'ha:lwəs 'ku:ð in 'sundri 'lɔ:ndəs]
 And palmers — to seek strange strands,
 To ancient saints know in different lands...(11)

MIDDLE ENGLISH ILLUSTRATED

The following passage in the Northern dialect is from *The Form of Living*, by Richard Rolle of Hampole, a gentle mystic and an excellent prose writer, who died in 1349. Strange as parts of it may look to modern eyes, it is possible to put it word for word into Modern English:

Twa lyves par er þat christen men lyfes: ane es calledactyve
Two lives there are that Christian men live: one is called active
lyfe, for it es mare bodili warke; another, contemplative lyfe, for it
life, for it is more bodily work; another, contemplative life, for it
es in mare swetnes gastely. Actife lyfe es mykel owteward and
is in more sweetness spiritually. Active life is much outward and
in mare travel, and in mare peryle for þe temptacions þat er in
in more travail, and in more peril for the temptations that are in
þe worlde. Contemplatyfe lyfe es mykel inwarde, and forþi it es
the world. Contemplative life is much inward, and therefore it is
lastandar and sykerar, restfuller, delitabiler, luflyer,
more lasting and more secure, more restful, more delightful, lovelier,
and mare medeful, for it hase joy in goddess lufe and savowre
and more full of reward, for it has joy in God's love and savor
in þe lyf þat lastes ay in þis present tyme if it be right ledde.
in the life that lasts forever in this present time if it be rightly led.
And þat felyng of joy in þe lufe of Jhesu passes al other
And that feeling of joy in the love of Jesus surpasses all other
merites in erth, for it es swa harde to corn to for þe freelte of
merits on earth, for it is so hard to come to for the frailty of
oure flesch and þe many temptacions þat we er umsett with
our flesh and the many temptations that we are set about with
þat lettes us nyght and day. Al other thynges er lyght at com to
that hinder us night and day. All other things are easy to come to
in regarde parof, for þat may na man deserve, bot anely it es
in regard thereof, for that may no man deserve, but only it is
gifen of goddess godenes til þarn þat verrayli gifes þam to
given of God's goodness to them that verily give them(selves) to

contemplacion and til quiete for cristes luf.
contemplation and to quiet for Christ's love.(12)

12. Pyles Th., Algeo S., *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, FL., 1992, pp. 162 – 163

MIDDLE ENGLISH FURTHER ILLUSTRATED

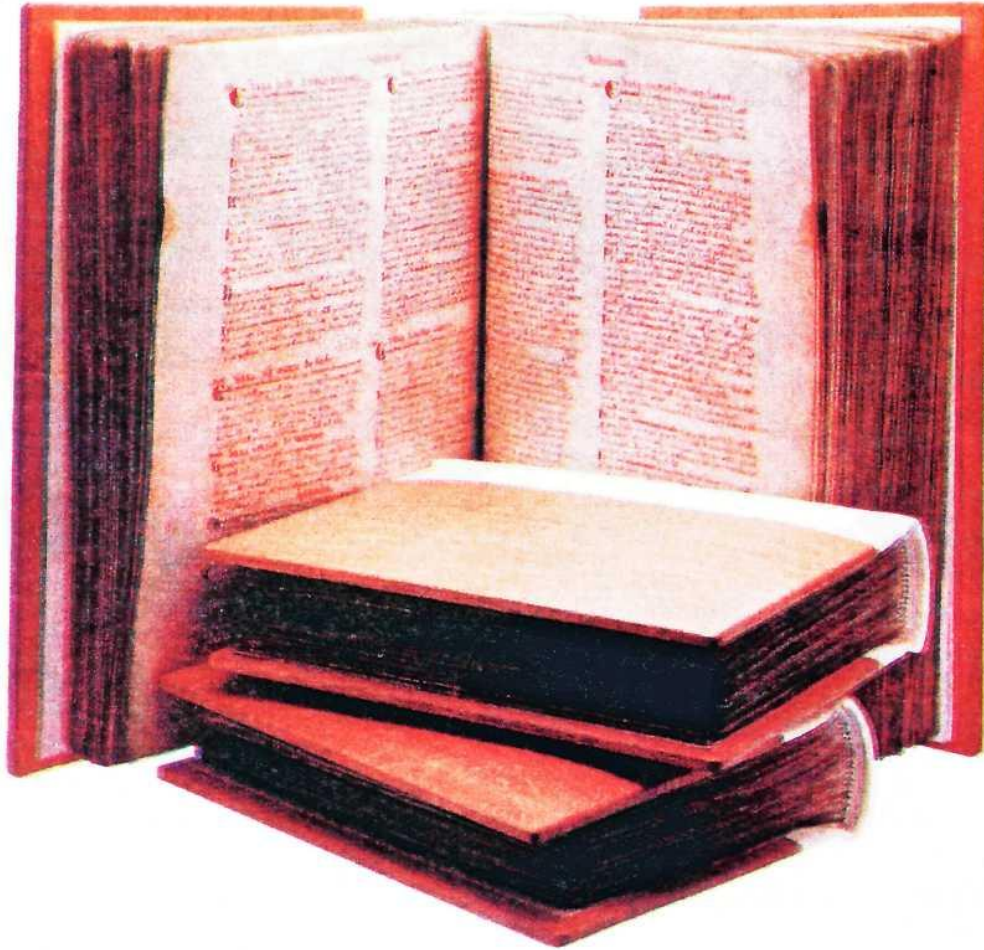
The following passages in late Middle English are from a translation of the Bible made by John Wycliffe or one of his followers in the 1380s. The opening verses of chapters 1 and 2 of Genesis are based on the edition by Conrad Lindberg (*Ms. Bodley 959*, Stockholm Studies in English 6, 1959); the parable of the Prodigal Son (Luke 15) is based on the edition by Josiah Forshall and Frederic Madden (*The New Testament in English*, Oxford, 1879). Punctuation has been modernized, and the letters thorn and yogh have been replaced, respectively, by **th** and **y, gh, or s**. These versions may be compared with the parallel passages in chapters 5 and 8.

I. 1. In the first made God of nought heuen and erth. 2. The erth forsothe was veyn withinne and voyde, and derknesses weren vp on the face of the see. And the spirite of God was yborn vp on the waters. 3. And God seid, "Be made light," and made is light. 4. And God sees light that it was good and dyuidide light from derknesses. 5. And clepide light day and derknesses night, and maad is euen and moru, o day.

II. 1. Therfor parfit ben heuen and erthe, and alle the anournyng of hem. 2. And God fullfillide in the seuenth day his werk that he made, and he rystid the seuenth day from all his werk that he hadde fulfyllide. 3. And he blisside to the seuenthe day, and he halowde it, for in it he hadde seesid fro all his werk that God schapide that he schulde make.

XV. 11. A man hadde twei sones. 12. And the yonger of hem seide to the fadir, "Fadir, yiue me the porcioun of catel that fallith to me." And he departide to hem the catel. 13. And not aftir many daies, whanne alle thingis weren gederid togider, the yonger sone wente forth in pilerymage in to a fer cuntre; and there he wastide hise goodis in lyuyng lecherously. 14. And aftir that he hadde endid alle thingis, a strong hungre was maad in that cuntre, and he bigan to haue nede. 15. And he wente, and drough hym to oon of the citeseyns of that cuntre. And he sente hym in to his town, to fede swyn. 16. And he coueitide to fille his wombe of the coddis that the hoggis eeten, and no man yaf hym. 17. And he turnede ayen to hym silf, and seide, "Hou many hirid men in my fadir hous han plente of looues; and Y perische here thorough hungir. ... " 20. And he roos vp, and cam to his fadir. And whanne he was yit afer, his fadir saigh hym, and was stirrid bi mercy. And he ran, and fel on his necke, and kisside hym. 21. And the sone saide to hym, "Fadir, Y haue synned in to heuene, and bifor thee; and now Y am not worthi to be clepid thi sone." 22. And the fadir seide to hise seruauntis, "Swithe brynge ye forth the firste stoole, and clothe ye hym, and yiue ye a ryng in his hoond, and schoon on hise feet. 23. And brynge ye a fat calf, and sle ye, and ete we, and make we feeste. 24. For this my sone was deed, and hath lyued ayen; he perischid, and is foundun."¹⁰

¹⁰ Pyles Th., Algeo S. *The Origins and Development of the English Language*, Orlando, Fl., 1992, pp.163-164

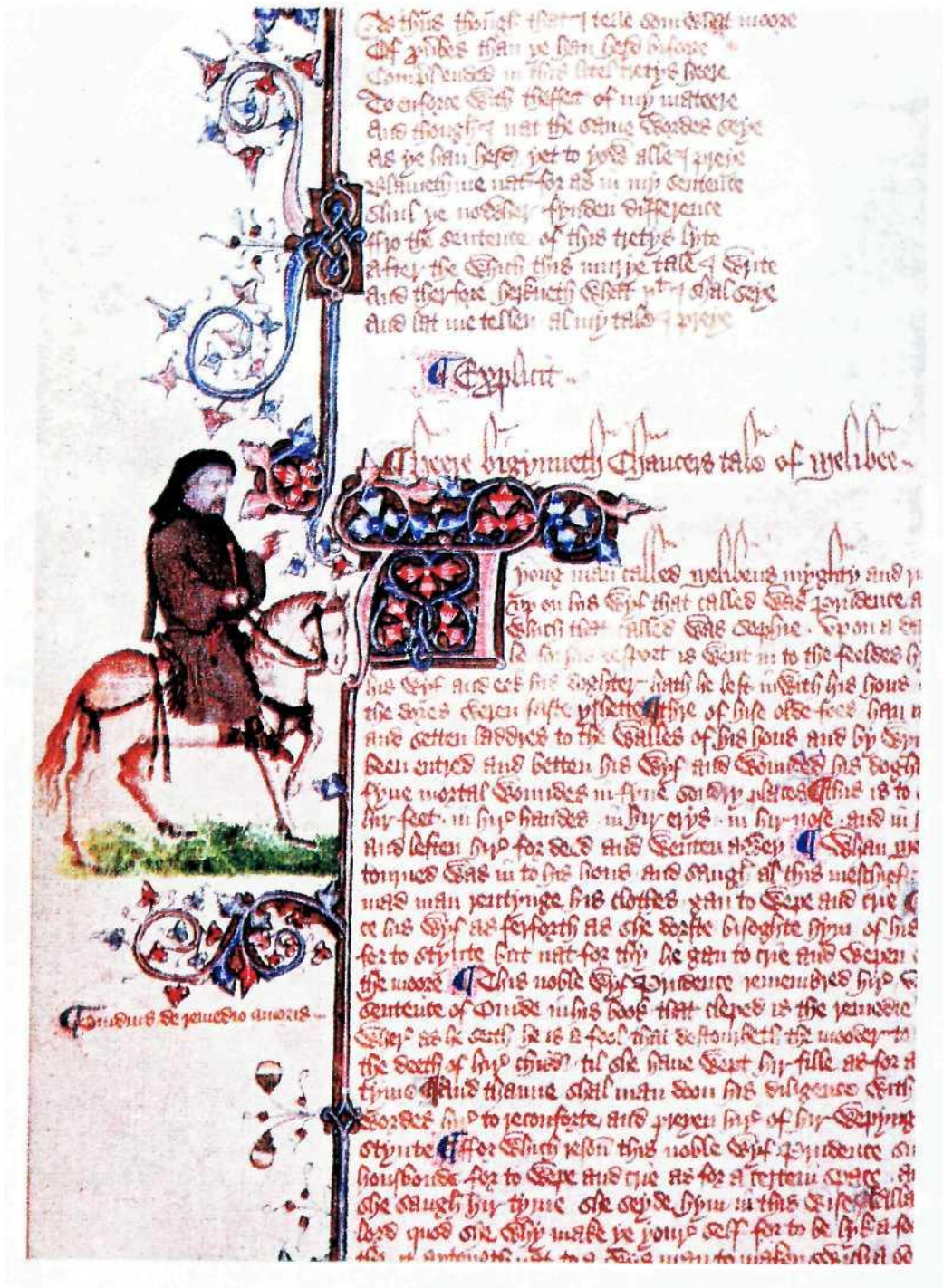


The Domesday Book, primul mare recensământ al averilor Angliei, terminat în 1086, din ordinul regelui William I Cuceritorul.

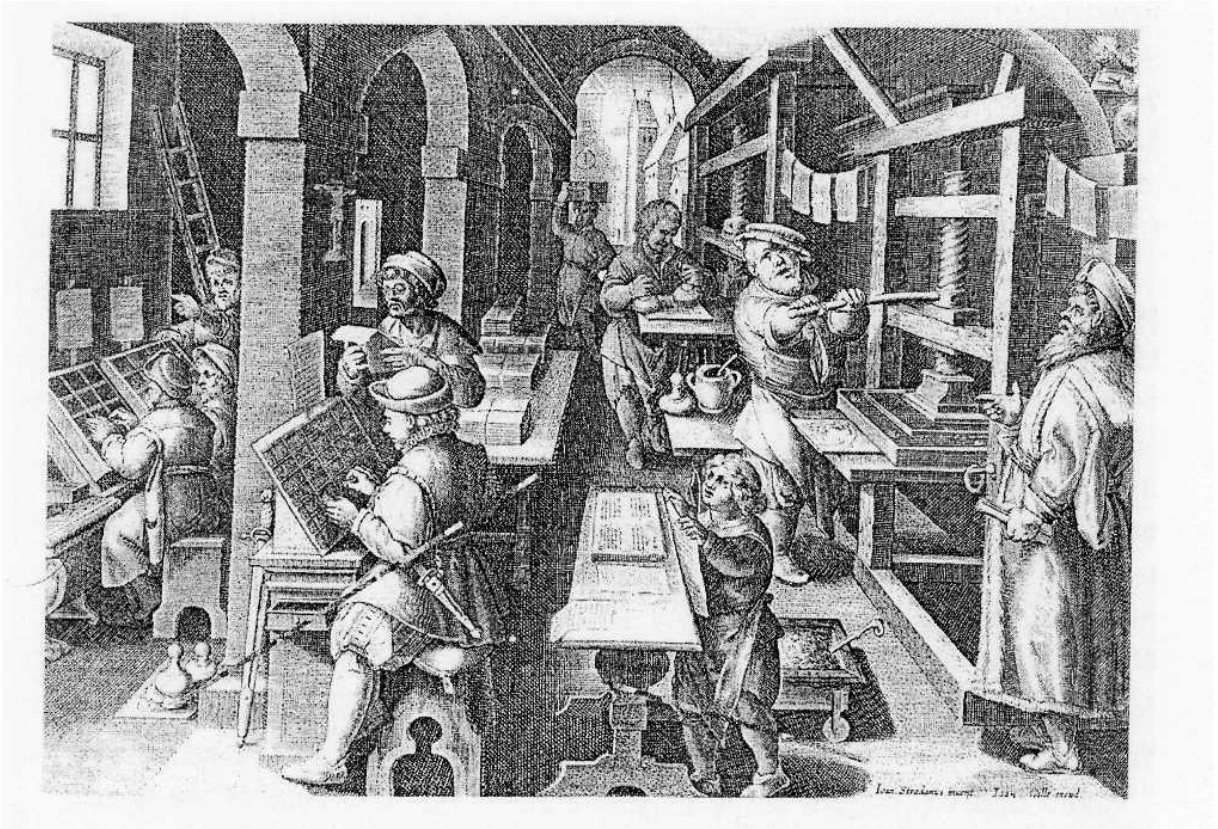
Next six illustrations are from: "Limba și Istorie Engleză Între William Cuceritorul și William Caxton" by Poruciuc Adrian, Iași, 1999



Pagină din Biblia în limba latină scrisă de William of Devon (secolul al XIII-lea).



Geoffrey Chaucer ca personaj în propria operă Povestirile din Canterbury. Manuscrisul Ellesmere (1410).



Gravură din secolul al XVI-lea reprezentand o tiparniță.

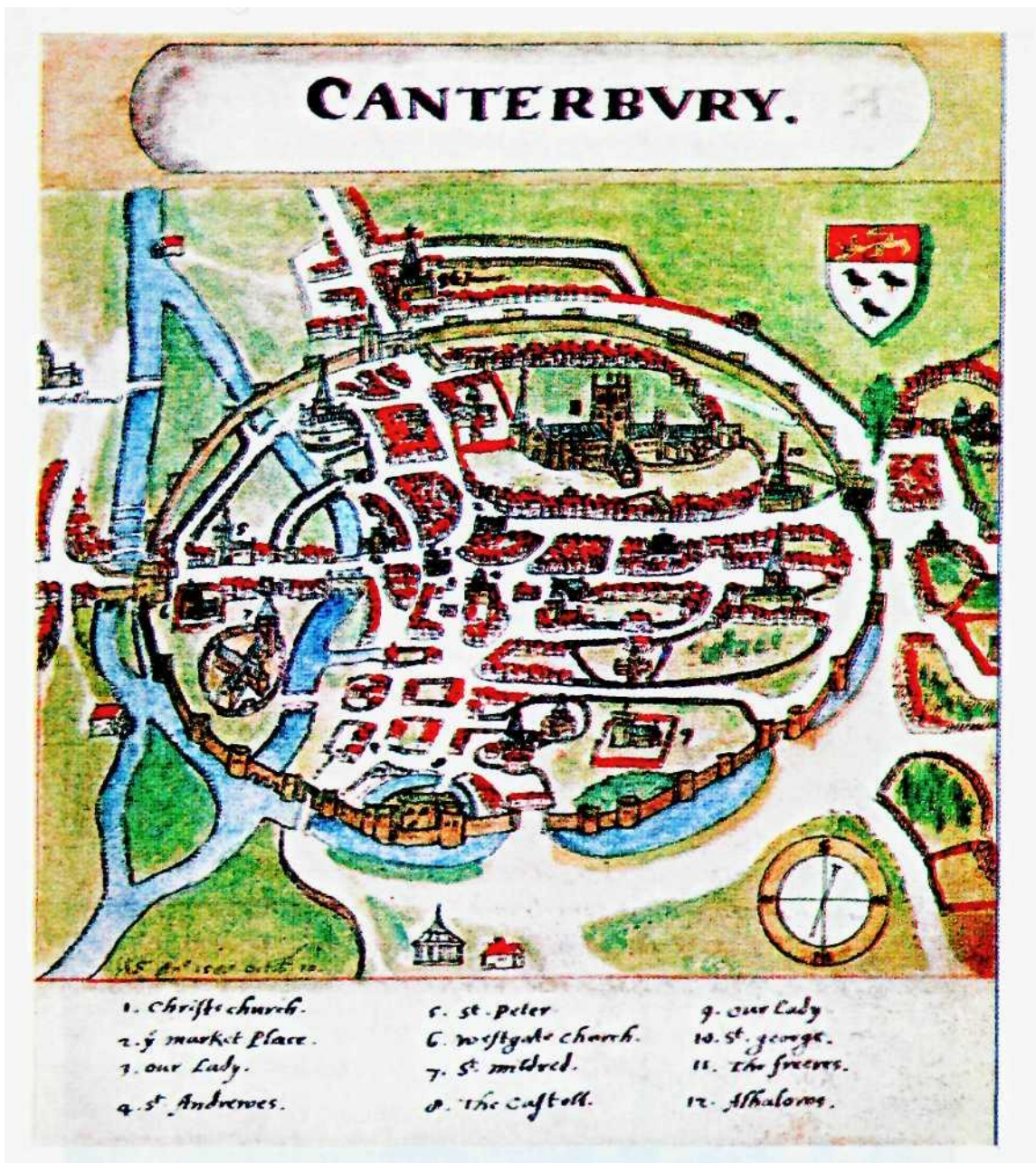
The Squyers tale



Here begynneth the squyers tale

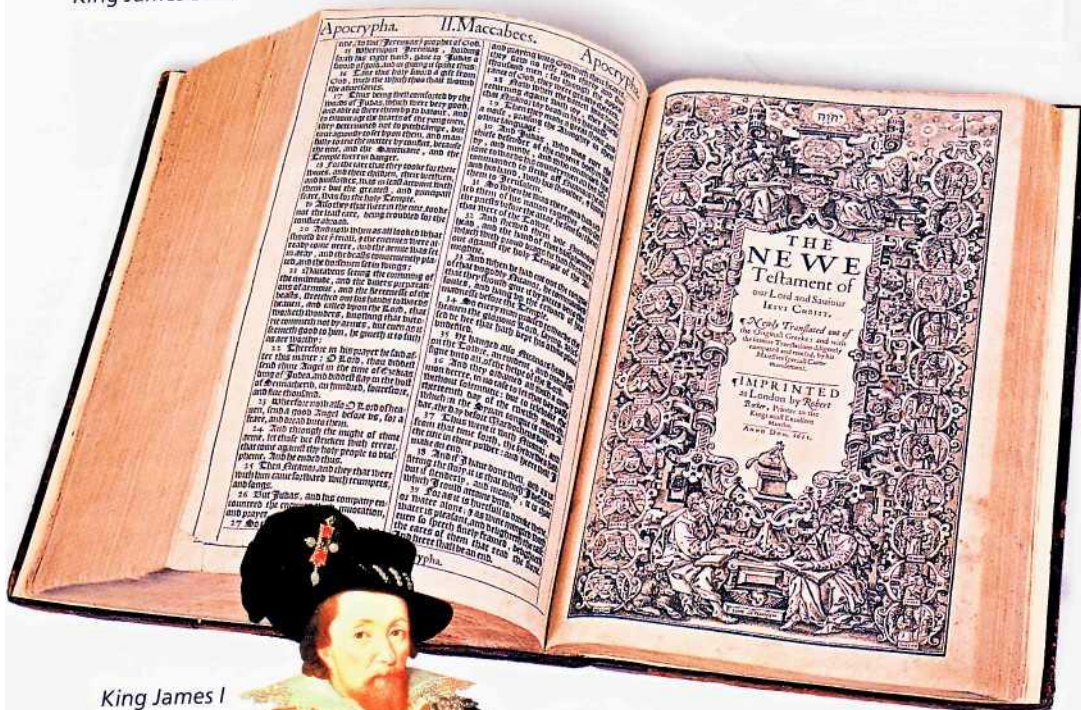
At surry in the lond of Tartarye
There dwelldyd a kyng that barryd ruffe
Thorow whiche there dyde many a doughty man
Thys nobyl kyng was clepyd Cambuscan
Whiche in hys tyme was of so gret renoun
That ther was no where in no regioun
So excellent a lord in alle thyng
He lackid nought that longed to a kyng
As of the secte of whiche he was born
He kepte hys lay to whiche he was sworn
And thereto he was hardy wyse and ryche
Oftwys juste and allwey y lych
Soth of hys word kyngne and honourable
Of hys corage as ony cunter stabyll

Scutierul, personaj Chaucerian reprezentat în ediția din 1484 a "Povestirilor din Canterbury" de William Caxton.



Plan al oraşului Canterbury, desenat în perioada elisabetană (sfârşitul secolului al XVI-lea).

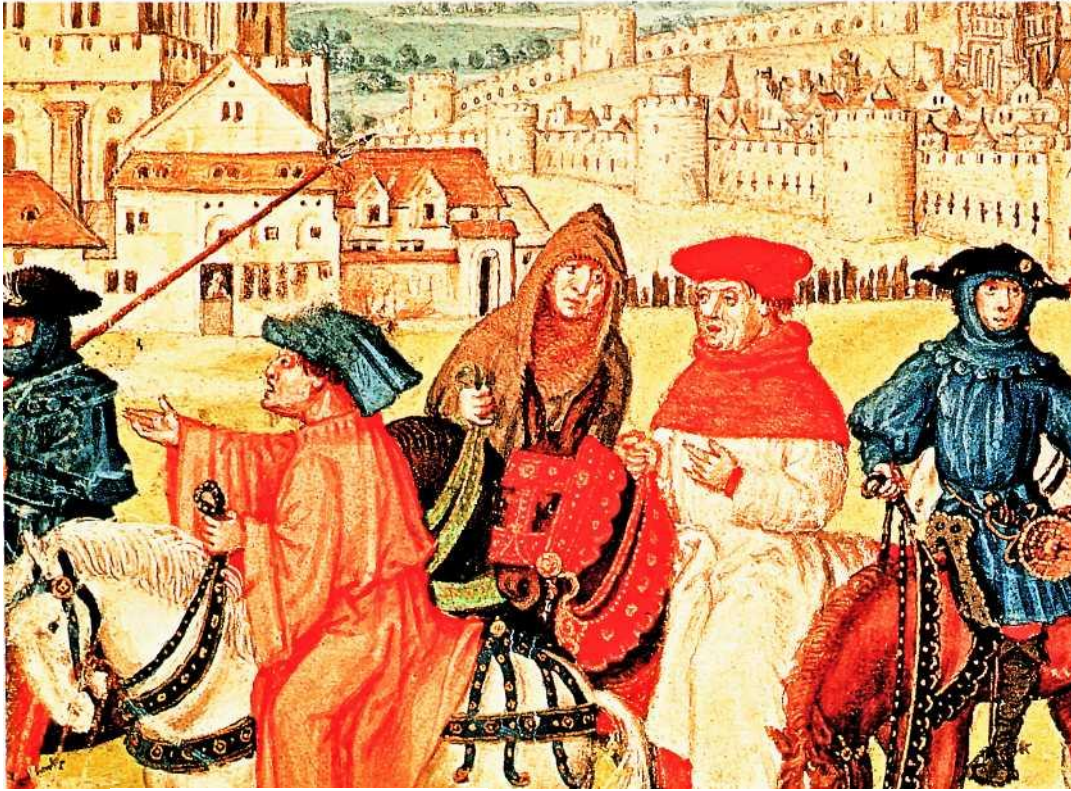
Pages from an early King James Bible



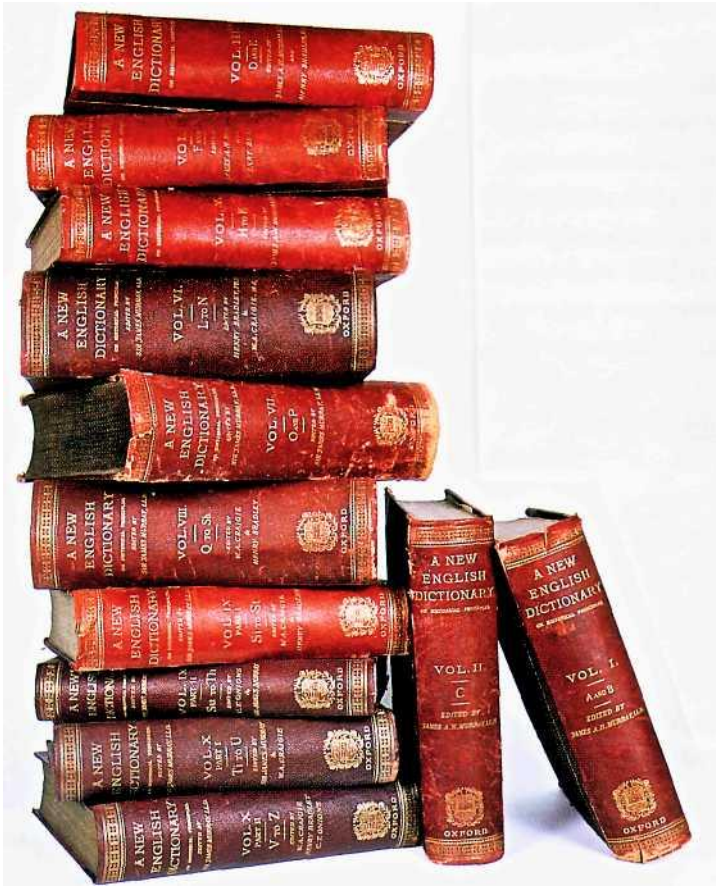
King James I



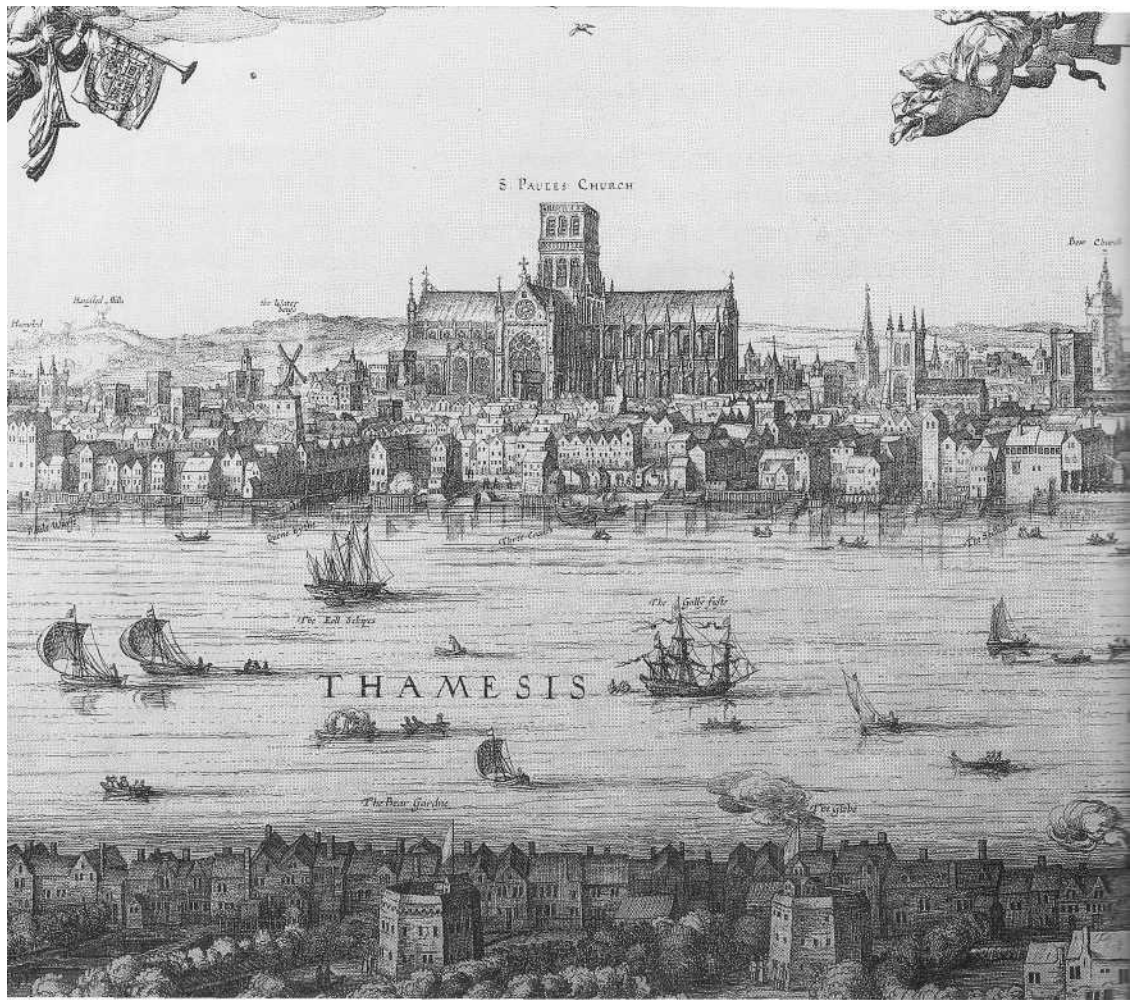
Next four illustrations are presented from: "The History of the English Language" by Bright Viney, Oxford University Press, 2009



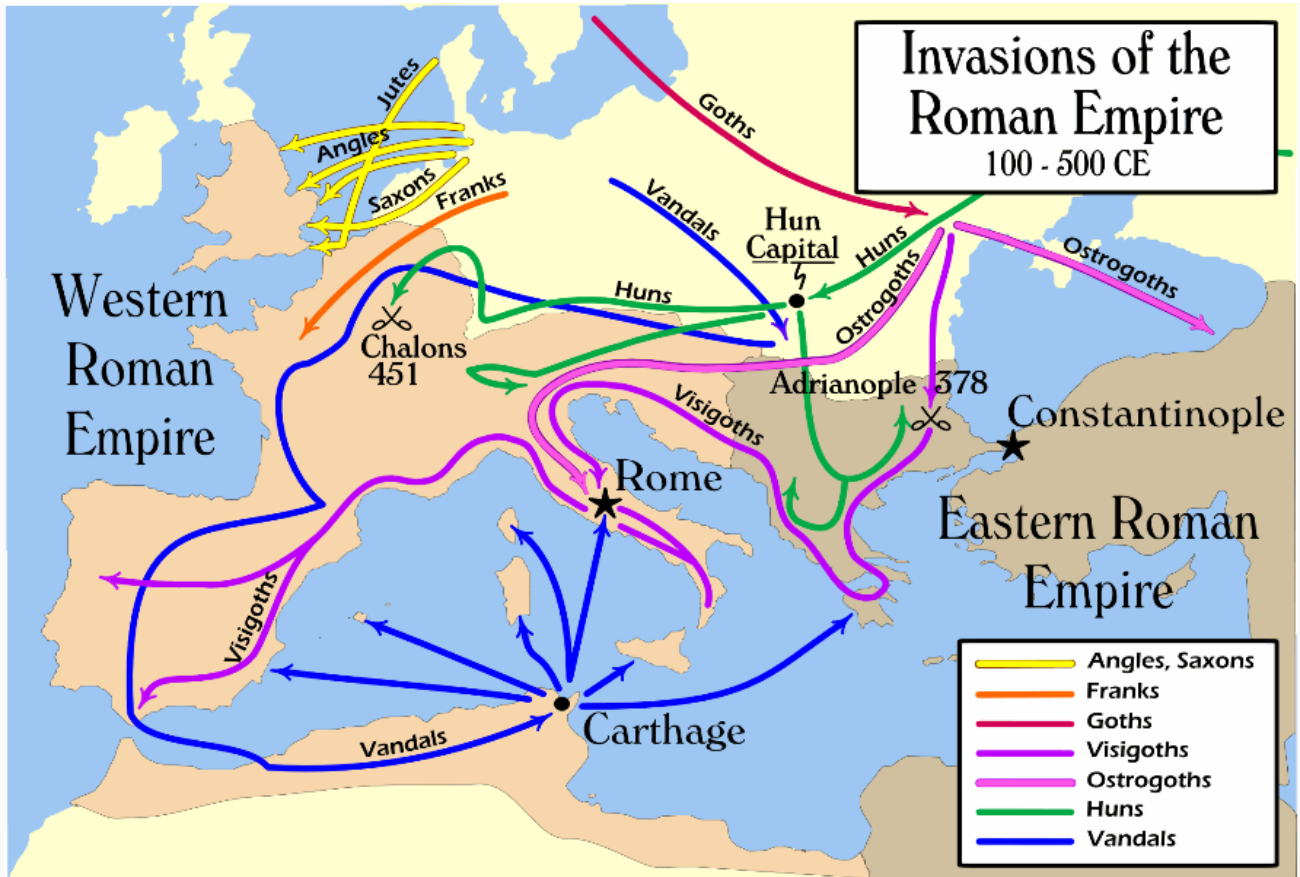
*Travellers on their way to
Canterbury*

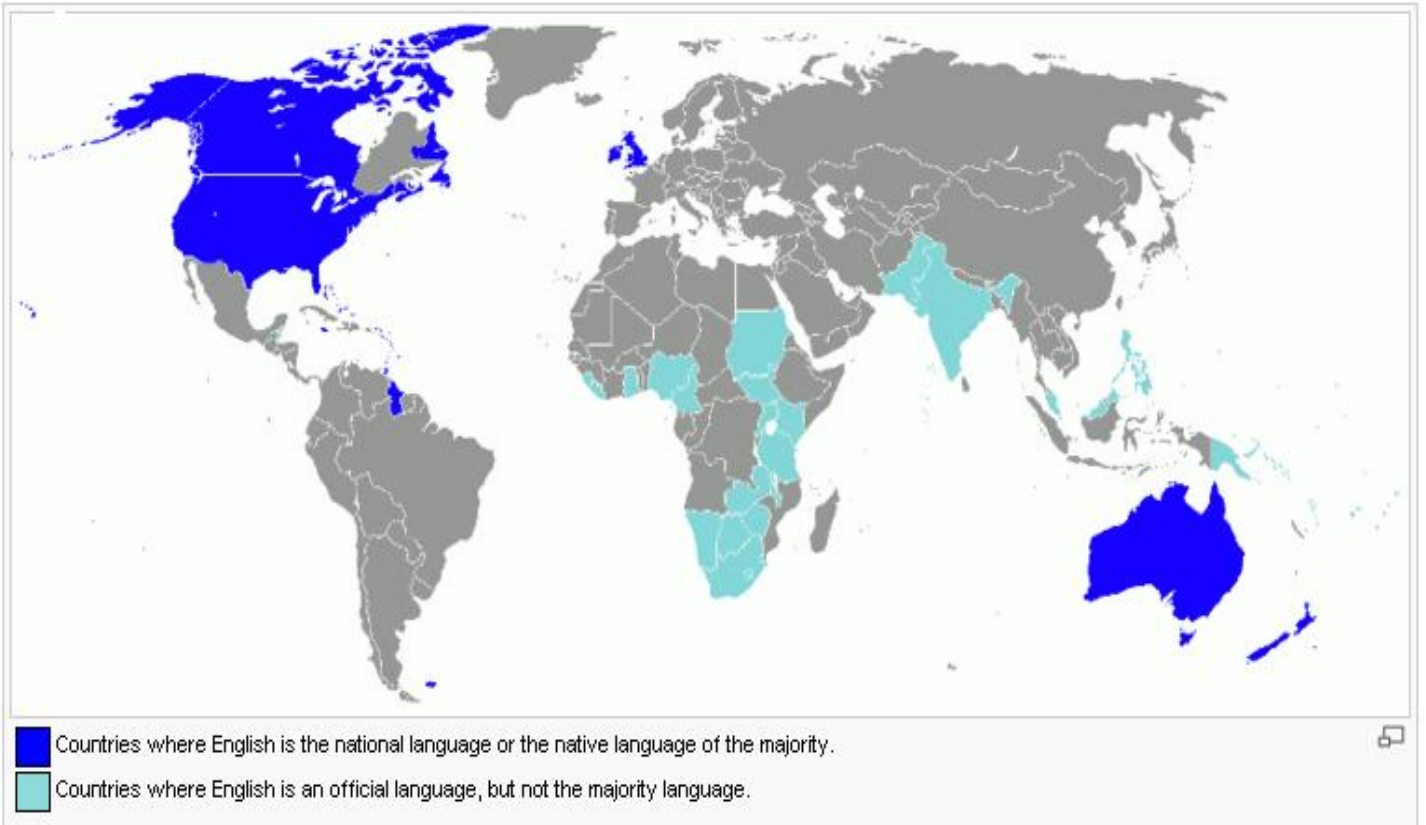


The first edition of the Oxford English Dictionary



London in 1600





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