

**НАЦІОНАЛЬНИЙ АВІАЦІЙНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ**  
**Факультет лінгвістики та соціальних комунікацій**  
**Кафедра англійської філології і перекладу**

**КОНСПЕКТ ЛЕКЦІЙ**

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## Lecture 1

### INTRODUCTION. THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

1. Modern Germanic languages.
2. Old Germanic tribes and their written dialects.
3. Phonological and morphological peculiarities of the Germanic languages.

#### Recommended literature

Жлуктенко Ю.О., Яворська Т.А. Вступ до германського мовознавства. – К: Вища школа, 1986. – 231 с.

#### 1. Germanic languages:

<u>West Germanic languages:</u>	<u>North Germanic languages:</u>	<u>East Germanic languages</u> <u>(now extinct):</u>
English	Danish	Gothic
German	Swedish	Vandalic
Netherlandic (Dutch, Flemish)	Icelandic	Burgundian
Frisian	Norwegian	
Yiddish	Faroese	
Afrikaans		

#### 2.

The earliest information about Germanic tribes comes from the writings of Julius Caesar, Tacitus, Pliny the Elder and other Roman era writers.

#### Germanic tribes by the 1<sup>st</sup> c. AD:

North Germanic tribes - Scandinavia

East Germanic tribes – rivers Oder and Vistula

West Germanic tribes

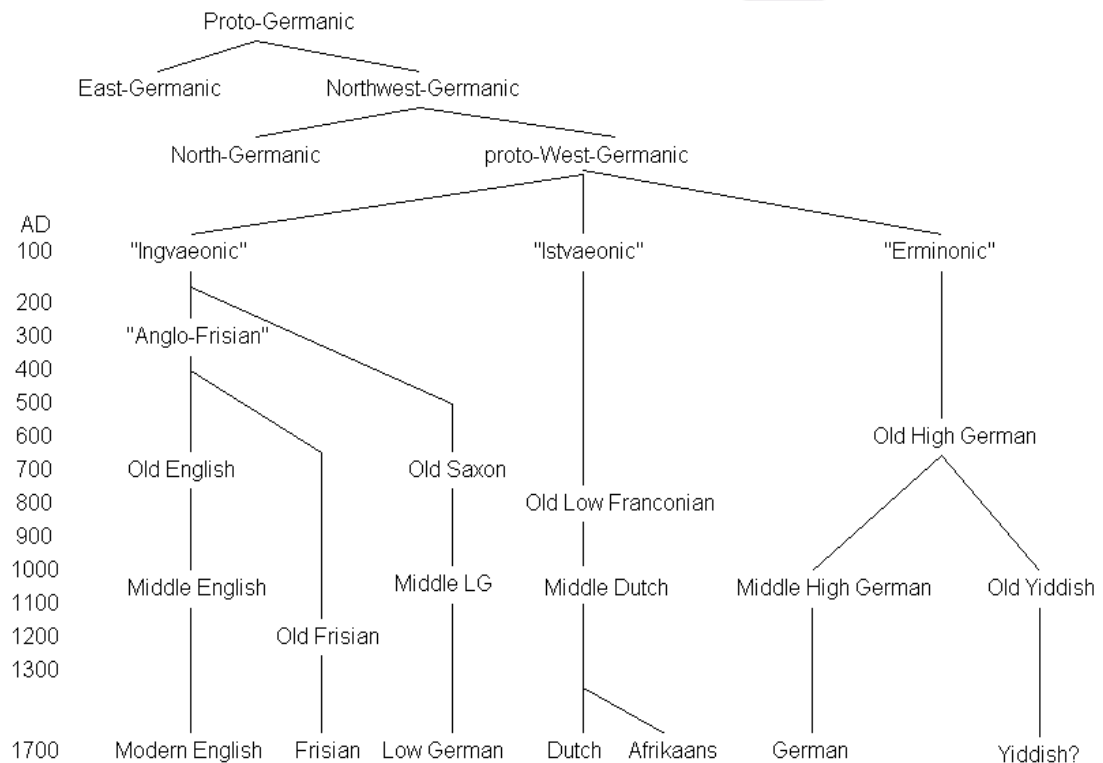
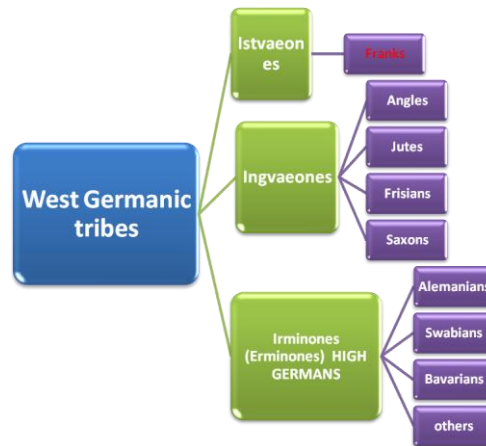
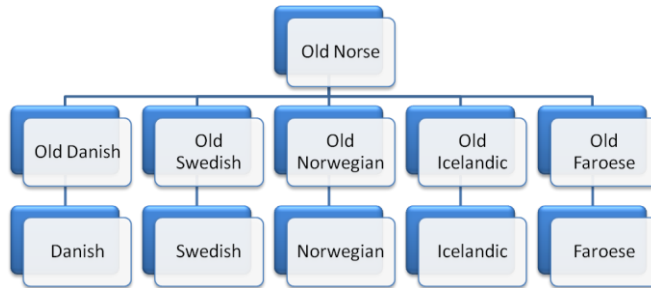
Istvaeones – lower Rhine

Irminones – the river Elbe

Ingvaeones – Jutland and the Danish islands

#### Tacitus “Germania”:

- ▶ In their ancient songs, their only way of remembering or recording the past, they celebrate an earth-born god, Tuisco, and his son Mannus, as the origin of their race, as their founders. To Mannus they assign three sons, from whose names, they say, the coast tribes are called **Ingævones**; those of the interior, **Herminones**; all the rest, **Istævones**.
- ▶ For my own part, I agree with those who think that the tribes of Germany are free from all taint of intermarriages with foreign nations, and that they appear as a distinct, unmixed race, like none but themselves. Hence, too, the same physical peculiarities throughout so vast a population. All have fierce blue eyes, red hair, huge frames, fit only for a sudden exertion. They are less able to bear laborious work. Heat and thirst they cannot in the least endure; to cold and hunger their climate and their soil inure them.
- ▶ They choose their kings by birth, their generals for merit. These kings have not unlimited or arbitrary power, and the generals do more by example than by authority. If they are energetic, if they are conspicuous, if they fight in the front, they lead because they are admired.
- ▶ They also carry with them into battle certain figures and images taken from their sacred groves. And what most stimulates their courage is, that their squadrons or battalions ... are composed of families and clans. Close by them, too, are those dearest to them, so that they hear the shrieks of women, the cries of infants. They are to every man the most sacred witnesses of his bravery-they are his most generous applauders. The soldier brings his wounds to mother and wife ...



3.

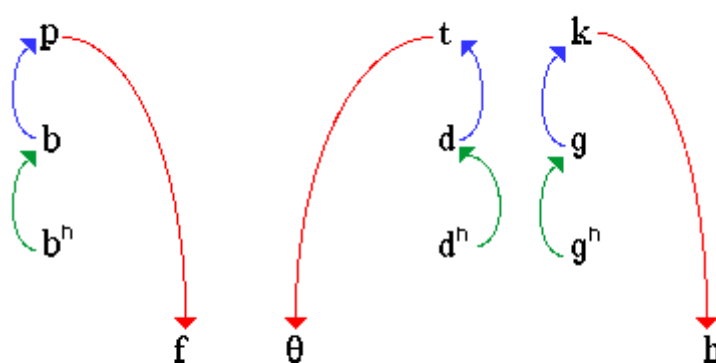
**Some typological features of the Germanic languages:**

- ▶ The levelling of the IE tense system into past and present.
- ▶ The use of a dental suffix (/d/ or /t/) instead of vowel alternation (ablaut) to indicate past tense.
- ▶ The presence of two distinct types of verb conjugation: weak (using dental suffix) and strong (using ablaut).

- ▶ The use of strong and weak adjectives.
- ▶ The consonant shift known as Grimm's Law.
- ▶ A number of words (called Common Germanic) with etymologies that are difficult to link to other Indo-European families, but variants of which appear in almost all Germanic languages.
- ▶ The shifting of stress onto the root of the stem.

**Grimm's law**, description of the regular correspondences in Indo-European languages formulated by Jacob Grimm in his *Deutsche Grammatik* (1819–37; “Germanic Grammar”); it pointed out prominent correlations between the Germanic and other Indo-European languages of Europe and western Asia. The law was a systematic and coherent formulation, well supported by examples, of patterns recognized as early as 1814 by the Danish philologist Rasmus Rask. It is important for historical linguistics because it clearly demonstrates the principle that sound change is a regular phenomenon and not a random process affecting only some words, as had been thought previously.

### Grimm's Law



voiceless stops --> voiceless fricatives

voiced stops --> voiceless stops

voiced aspirated stops --> voiced stops

Latin *pēs*, *pēdis* – Gth *fōtus*, OIcel. *Fótr*, OE *fōt*  
 Latin *tres*, Ukr *тpи* – Gth *þreis*, Icel. *þrir*, OE *þrēo*  
 Latin *cor*, *cordis* – Gth *hǣrto*, OIcel. *Hjarta*, OE *heort*

Lith *bala*, Russian *боло́то* – OHG *pfuol*, OE *pōl*  
 Latin *decem*, Ukr *десять* – Gth *taihum*, OIcel. *Tíu*, OE *tīen*  
 Latin *iugum*, Russian *у́го* – Gth *juk*, OIcel. *Ok*, OE *zeoc*

OInd. *bhrāta* – Gth *broþar*, OIcel *bróðir*, OE *brōþor*  
 OInd *mādhyas* – Gth *midjis* [ð], OE *middel*  
 Latin *hostis*, Russian *гос́ть* – Gth *gasts*, OIcel. *gestr*, OE *giest*

### Karl Verner's law (1875)

Verner's law, linguistic explanation of the apparent exceptions to Grimm's law, which first demonstrated the significant role that accent (stress) played in linguistic change in the Germanic languages. It provided further evidence for the important claim of 19th-century linguists that phonetic laws have no exceptions and proved to be a decisive influence in establishing the direction taken by the Neogrammarian school of historical linguistics. This law, one of the greatest discoveries in historical linguistics, was first presented in an article, “Eine Ausnahme der ersten Lautverschiebung” (“An Exception to the First Sound Shift”), in the *Zeitschrift für vergleichende Sprachforschung* in 1876, by the Danish linguist Karl Verner.

Grimm's law stated that the Indo-European p, t, and k sounds changed into f, þ, and h in the Germanic languages. Verner noticed that Grimm's law was valid whenever the accent fell on the root syllable of the Sanskrit cognate, but, when the accent fell on another syllable, the Germanic equivalents became b, d, and g. This was also the case with s and r. Technically, this rule states that in the Germanic branch of Indo-European, all non-initial voiceless fricatives (spirants) became voiced between voiced sounds if they followed an unaccented syllable in Indo-European or Sanskrit. For example, Sanskrit bhr̥tār, with the accent on the root syllable, corresponds to Gothic brōþar, but Sanskrit pitā, accented on the final syllable, corresponds to Gothic fadar.

L *caput* – Gth *haubīþ*, OE *hēafod* [v]  
L *pater*, OInd *pitá-* Gth *fadar* [ð], OIcel *faðir*, OE *fæder*  
L *socrus*, R *свекровь* – OHG *swigur*, OE *swezer*

PIE \*s > PGmc \*z > r (North and West Germanic languages)

s / r alteration

OE *ceoſan* – *cēas* – *cuſon* – *coren*

Compare: *waſ* - *were*

## Ablaut

(vowel gradation, vowel alteration)

**Indo-European ablaut:** /e/ - /o/

Qualitative ablaut:

*везу* – *воз*, *беру* – *бор* (full grade)

*зону* – *нал*, *беру* – *брал*

(full grade – zero-grade)

Quantitative ablaut:

Latin *legō* «збираю, читаю» - *lēgi* «збираю, читав»

*fođiō* «копаю» - *fōdi* «копав»

(full and lengthened grades)

**Indo-European ablaut:** /e/ - /o/

**Germanic ablaut:** /e/ - /a/ /i/ - /a/

Gothic *niman* – *nam* – *nēmum* – *numans*

OE *writan* – *wrāt* – *writon* - *writen*

## Accent

Proto-Indo-European had a variable pitch accent that could fall on any syllable of a word, but in late Proto-Germanic, two changes occurred: first, the quality of the accent changed, such that articulatory energy was increasingly focused on the accented syllable; second, the position of the accent was regularized on the initial (root) syllable. These changes had far-reaching effects on the subsequent development of Germanic, for nonaccented syllables became subject to reduction and even total loss; thus, Proto-Germanic \*kuningaz but German König, Danish konge, English king. Reduction of unstressed vowels was often associated with the mutation or “umlaut” of preceding accented vowels. In some instances grammatical information that had been carried by suffixes came instead to be marked by alternations of root vowels—e.g., \*fōt/\*fōti but English foot/feet, German Fuss/Füsse.

Morphological structure of a word in early PG:

**Root + stem-suffix + grammatical ending**

PG \**fisk-a-z*, \**mak-ōj-an*

Morphological structure of a word in late PG:

**Stem + grammatical ending**

Gth *fisk-s*, OE *mac-ian*

## Declensions

Proto-Germanic kept the Proto-Indo-European system of three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter) and three numbers (singular, dual, plural), though the dual was becoming obsolete. It reduced the Proto-Indo-European system of eight cases to six: nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, instrumental, and vocative, though the last two were becoming obsolete. In the adjective declensions there were two innovations: (1) To the Proto-Indo-European vowel types (\*o-, \*ā-, \*i-, and \*u- stems) it added some pronominal endings to give the Germanic “strong” adjective declension. (2) It extended the Proto-Indo-European \*n- stem endings to all adjectives to give the Germanic “weak” adjective declension. In modern German: strong *gutes Bier* ‘good beer’ / weak *das gute Bier* ‘the good beer.’

## Conjugations

The Proto-Indo-European verb seems to have had five moods (indicative, imperative, subjunctive, injunctive, and optative), two voices (active and mediopassive), three persons (first, second, and third), three numbers (singular, dual, and plural), and several verbal nouns (infinitives) and adjectives (participles). In Germanic these were reduced to indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods; a full active voice plus passive found only in Gothic; three persons; full singular and plural forms and dual forms found only in Gothic; and one infinitive (present) and two participles (present and past).

The Proto-Indo-European tense-aspect system (present, imperfect, aorist, perfect) was reshaped to a single tense contrast between present and past. The past showed two innovations: (1) In the “strong” verb, Germanic transformed Proto-Indo-European ablaut into a specific tense marker (e.g., Proto-Indo-European \*bher-, \*bhor-, \*bhēr-, \*bhṛ- in Old English *beran* ‘bear,’ past singular *bær*, past plural *bæron*, past participle *boren*). (2) In the “weak” verb, Germanic developed a new type of past and past participle (e.g., Old English *fyllan* ‘fill,’ past *fylde*, participle *gefyllled*). Weak verbs fell into three classes depending on the syllable following the root (e.g., Old High German full-e-n [from \*full-ja-n] ‘fill,’ *mahh-ō-n* ‘make,’ *sag-ē-n* ‘say’). Gothic also had a fourth class: full-nō-da ‘it became full.’

Strong verbs:

OE *beran* – *bær* – *bæron* – *boren*

Weak verbs:

OE *fyllan* – *fylde* – *gefyllled*

## Lecture 2

# OLD ENGLISH

1. Periodization of the history of English.
2. Formation of the English people. OE dialects.
3. OE phonetics.
4. OE morphology.
5. OE lexicon.

### Recommended literature

1. Verba L. History of the English language. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha, 2006. – 293 p.
2. Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. – M.: 2003. – 348 p.
3. Baugh A., Cable Th. A History of the English Language. – L: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. – 438 p.
4. Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. – М.: Просвещение, 1985. – 254 с.
5. Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П., Беляева Т.М. История английского языка. – СПб, 1999. – 510 с.

1. There exist several periodizations of the history of the English language. Most of them can be grouped as intralinguistic (based on linguistic factors) and extralinguistic (based on historical events that determined the development of the English nation).

The author of the first scientific historical phonetics and grammar of the English Language, Henry Sweet proposed the periodization that corresponds to the morphological structure of the language in different centuries.

#### Henry Sweet's morphological periodization:

**Old English** - period of full endings

*macian*

**Middle English** - period of reduced endings

*maken*

**New English** - period of lost endings

*make*

Another existing periodization is **extralinguistic**. It is based on the historical events, which influenced the English language. According to such extralinguistic periodization, the English language history is traditionally divided into three periods: Old English, Middle English and New English with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical effects affecting the language. Old English is connected with the German settlement in Britain (5th century) and with the beginning of writing (7th century) and ends with the Norman Conquest (1066). Middle English begins with Norman Conquest and ends with the introduction of printing (1475). New English is associated with the growth of the English nation.

**Old English** – 5<sup>th</sup> – 11<sup>th</sup> c.

**Middle English** – 11<sup>th</sup> – 15<sup>th</sup> c.

**New English** – 16<sup>th</sup> c. -

As the history of the language is inseparable from the history of its speakers, the optimal periodization should bear in view both linguistic and historical-social factors.

**The Old English period (5 – 11<sup>th</sup> centuries)** begins with the migration of certain Germanic tribes from the continent to Britain in the fifth century A.D., though no records of their language survive from before the seventh century, and it continues until the end of the eleventh century. Old English comprised several territorial dialects and was characterized by the absence of a single unified speech standard.

Perhaps the most distinctive difference between Old and Modern English is that Old English was an inflexional language. Compared to Modern English, the Old English lexicon was characterized by an insignificant number of borrowings. The sentence structure and word order were freer than today due to inflections which expressed connections between words.

The period of **Middle English** extends roughly from the twelfth century through the fifteenth. This period witnessed major developments in English phonetics, grammar and lexicon. Among the chief characteristic differences between Old and Middle English were the loss of grammatical gender and of the old system of declensions in the noun and adjective and, largely, in the pronoun. The influence of French (and Latin, often by way of French) considerably changed the word stock. The London dialect rose and developed to become the basis of the national language.

The period of **Modern English** extends from the fifteenth century to our days. The early part of this period saw the completion of a revolution in the phonology of English that had begun in late Middle English and that effectively brought English sounding close to what it's like today.

Other important developments of MdE include the stabilizing effect on spelling of the printing and the beginning of the direct influence of Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek on the word stock. Later, as English came into contact with other cultures around the world and distinctive variants of English developed in the many areas which Britain had colonized, numerous other languages made small but interesting contributions to the English word-stock.

**2.** The earliest inhabitants of the British Isles whose linguistic affiliation has been established are the Celts. From the 8th century B.C. onward, expansion of continental tribes brought the Celts to Britain.

In 43 A.D. the legions of the emperor Claudius invaded the southern Britain and crushed the resistance of the Celtic tribes. In the first 20 years of occupation some progress had been made in spreading Roman civilization. Towns were founded, fortifications and paved roads built, the imperial cult had been established, and merchants were introducing the Britons to material benefits. Roman citizenship was now an avenue of social advancement, and it could be obtained by 25 years' service in the military forces as well as (more rarely) by direct grants. Many soldiers and traders settled in Britain. The population of Roman Britain at its peak amounted perhaps to about two million.

Romanization was strongest in the towns and among the upper classes, as would be expected; there is evidence that in the countryside Celtic continued to be spoken, though it was not written. Many people were bilingual.

The 4th century was a period of great prosperity in towns and countryside alike. However, the weakness of the British province lay in the fact that its defence against increasing Celtic raids was controlled from Rome, which often had to take away legions to defend itself. In 410, the Roman troops were officially withdrawn from Britain. That was the end of Roman rule in Britain which lasted nearly 400 years.

Power fell gradually into the hands of tyrants. Chief of these was *Vortigern*. It was this king of the Britons who made the mistake of inviting the Saxons to settle and guard strategic areas of the east coast against the Irish and the Picts.

Revolt by these mercenaries against their British employers in the southeast of England led to large-scale Germanic settlements near the coasts and along the river valleys. Their advance was halted for a generation by native resistance, culminating in the Britons' victory about 500. But a new Germanic drive of Jutes together with large numbers of Frisians and Saxons from northern Germany and Angles from what is now Denmark - commonly known as Anglo-Saxons - began about 550, and before the century had ended, the Britons had been driven west to the borders of Cornwall and Wales, while invaders were advancing west of the Pennines and northward.



By the end of the 7th century people in Britain regarded themselves as belonging to "the English people," though divided into several kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex and Kent (Essex, Sussex and Wessex eventually formed one kingdom of Wessex). Thus, after Germanic settlement was complete, the tribal organization was replaced by a territorial. The earlier tribal division did not match the kingdoms. For example, the Angles formed two kingdoms, Northumbria and Mercia, whereas the Frisians did not form a separate kingdom and mixed with other tribes.

The Anglo-Saxon kingdoms constantly fought for dominance until in early 9<sup>th</sup> century *Egbert of Wessex* was accepted as the ruler of Mercia and all regions south of the Humber. The Northumbrians accepted Egbert without fighting.

In 597 the monk Augustine led a mission from Rome to Kent; Kent was the first English kingdom to be converted to Christianity. The Christian church provided another unifying influence, overriding political divisions.

Beginning with the raid in 793 on the monastery at Lindisfarne, Vikings became a serious threat to England. In the 9<sup>th</sup> c. the Vikings made raids on a large scale. It was difficult to deal with an enemy that could attack anywhere on a long and undefended coastline. Destructive raids are recorded for Northumbria, East Anglia, Kent, and Wessex. The country had to unite to oppose the enemies.

A large Danish army came to East Anglia in 865, apparently intent on conquest. By 871, when it first attacked Wessex, it had already captured York, been bought off by Mercia, and had taken possession of East Anglia. Many battles were fought in Wessex. A Viking attack in the winter of 878 came near to conquering Wessex. That it did not succeed is to be attributed to courage, political wisdom and military talents of Alfred the Great, king of Wessex.

The importance of Alfred's victory over the Danes cannot be exaggerated. It prevented the Danes from becoming masters of the whole of England.

By the peace treaty of 878 England was divided into two halves: the north-eastern half under Danish control called *Danelaw* and the south-western part united under the leadership of Wessex.

Attacks from Scandinavia were renewed in the 980-ies. The new raids tended to be more national and political in nature than the movements of the earlier Viking Age. They were often led by kings or princes, and their objective was political dominion. By the 2<sup>nd</sup> decade of the 11<sup>th</sup> c. English military force was so demoralized and discredited that many welcomed the Danish king Sweyn and his young son Cnut. In late 1016 Cnut was received as king of all England. He quickly accepted Christianity and his rule was the rule of good order in the country. Cnut and his sons governed the kingdom from 1016 to 1042 when the old dynasty was restored in the person of Edward the Confessor. On his death in January 1066, the strongest man in the kingdom, Harold Godwinson, Edward's brother-in-law, was elected and crowned Harold II of England. Nine months later, at Hastings, Harold was killed and William the Conqueror succeeded to the English kingdom.

The Old English (Anglo-Saxon) language comprised four territorial dialects which developed on the basis of the tribal dialects: Northumbrian in northern England and southeastern Scotland; Mercian in central England; Kentish in southeastern England; and West Saxon in southern and southwestern England. Mercian and Northumbrian are often classed together as the Anglian dialects. Most Old English writings are in the West Saxon dialect; the first great period of literary activity occurred during the reign of King Alfred the Great in the 9th century.

OE written records include epic poetry, descriptions of the lives of saints, sermons, Bible translations, legal works, chronicles, riddles, and others. In all there are about 400 surviving manuscripts from the period.

The earliest existing OE written records are two runic inscriptions in Northumbrian dialect. One of them is an inscription on a box made of whale bone called the "Franks Casket", the other is a short text on a stone cross near the village of Ruthwell, known as the "Ruthwell Cross".

## **Major records written in Latin alphabet:**

### **Northumbrian dialect**

- Bede's "Death Song".
- Caedmon's hymn (7<sup>th</sup> c.)
- Glosses to Latin texts

### **Mercian dialect**

- Glosses to Latin texts of the 8<sup>th</sup> c.
- Vespasian Psalter (9<sup>th</sup> c.) – glosses to the whole Latin book of psalms

### **Kentish dialect**

- legal documents of the 1<sup>st</sup> half of the 9<sup>th</sup> c.
- glosses and translations of psalms

### **West Saxon dialect**

The bulk of the surviving documents from the Old English period are written in the West Saxon dialect. It seems likely that with consolidation of power, it became necessary to standardize the language of government to reduce the difficulty of administering the remoter areas of the kingdom. As a result, paperwork was written in the West Saxon dialect. Besides, the literary flourish of this dialect was facilitated by Alfred the Great. This king shared the contemporary view that Viking raids were a divine punishment for the people's sins, and he attributed these to the decline of learning, for only through learning could men acquire wisdom and live in accordance with God's will. Hence, he invited scholars to his court from Mercia, Wales, and the European continent. He learned Latin himself and began to translate Latin books into English in 887. He directed that all young freemen of adequate means must learn to read English, and, by his own translations and those of his helpers, he made available English versions of "those books most necessary for all men to know".

Translations from Latin done by Alfred or under his supervision:

- The Ecclesiastical History of the English People, by Bede
- Seven Books of Histories Against the Pagans, by Orosius, a 5th-century theologian
- Pastoral Care of St. Gregory I, the 6th-century pope, a manual for priests in the instruction of their flocks
- Alfred's rendering of the Soliloquies of the 5th-century theologian St. Augustine of Hippo, to which he added material from other works of the Fathers of the Church, discussed problems concerning faith and reason and the nature of eternal life
- Boethius' Consolation of Philosophy

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle probably originated in Alfred's reign. Its earliest annals (from 60 BC) are brief. The entries covering the Danish wars of the late 9th century are much fuller, and those running from the reign of Aethelred I to the Norman Conquest in 1066 (when the Chronicle exists in several versions) contain many passages of excellent writing.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle contains various heroic poems inserted throughout. The earliest from 937 is called *The Battle of Brunanburh*, which celebrates the victory of King Athelstan over the Scots and Norse. There are five shorter poems: capture of the Five Boroughs (942); coronation of King Edgar (973); death of King Edgar (975); death of Prince Alfred (1036); death of King Edward the Confessor (1065).

Aelfric, abbot of Eynsham, wrote in the second half of the 10th century. He was the greatest and most prolific writer of Anglo-Saxon sermons, which were copied and adapted for use well into the 13th century. He also wrote a number of saints lives, an Old English translation of the Rule of Saint Benedict, pastoral letters, translations of the first six books of the Bible, glosses and translations of other parts of the Bible including Proverbs, Wisdom and Ecclesiasticus.

In the same category as Aelfric, and a contemporary, was Wulfstan II, archbishop of York. His sermons were highly stylistic. He wrote a number of clerical legal texts *Institutes of Polity* and *Canons of Edgar*.

### Poetry

Virtually all Old English poetry is written in a single metre, a four-stress line with a syntactical break, between the second and third stresses, and with alliteration linking the two halves of the line. The poetry is formulaic, drawing on a common set of stock phrases and phrase patterns, applying standard epithets to various classes of characters, and depicting scenery with such recurring images as the eagle and wolf, which wait during battles to feast on carrion, and the ice and snow, which appear in the landscape to signal sorrow. In the best poems such formulas give a strong impression of the richness of the cultural fund from which poets could draw. Other standard devices of OE poetry are the *kenning*, a metaphorical name for a thing, usually expressed in a compound noun (e.g., "swan-road" used to name the sea); and variation, the repeating of a single idea in different words, with each repetition adding a new level of meaning.

Most Old English poetry is preserved in four manuscripts of the late 10th and early 11th centuries. The Beowulf manuscript (British Library) contains *Beowulf*, *Judith*, and three prose tracts; the Exeter Book (Exeter cathedral) is a miscellaneous gathering of lyrics, riddles, didactic poems, and religious narratives; the Junius manuscript (Bodleian Library, Oxford) contains biblical paraphrases; and the Vercelli Book (cathedral library, Vercelli, Italy) contains saints' lives, several short religious poems, and prose homilies.

The longest (3,182 lines), and most important, OE poem is *Beowulf*, which appears in the damaged Nowell Codex. It was originally composed in the Mercian or Northumbrian dialect but has come down to us in a 10<sup>th</sup> c. West Saxon copy. It tells the story of the legendary Geatish hero Beowulf. The story is set in Scandinavia, in Sweden and Denmark, and the tale likewise probably is of Scandinavian origin.

OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. However, some letters indicated two sounds (f, s, þ), some even different phonemes (e.g. Ʒ), some letters stood for positional variants of phonemes (a and æ).

### 3. Origin of OE vowels.

OE vowels are mainly of Common Germanic origin and have regular correspondences in other Germanic languages:

OE	Gothic	OHG
i fisc	i fisks	i fisc
e stelan	i stilan	e stelan
æ dæ Ʒ	a dags	a tac
a daƷas	a dagos	a taga
o stolen	u stulans	o gistolen
u full	u fulls	u fol
i: līpan	i: leiþan	i: līdan

<b>e:</b> (Anglian) <b>æ:</b> (West Saxon) slēpan slǣpan	<b>e:</b> slēpan	<b>a:</b> slāfan
<b>a:</b> stān	<b>ai</b> stains	<b>ei</b> stein
<b>o:</b> brōþor	<b>o:</b> brōþar	<b>uo</b> bruodar
<b>u:</b> tūn	<b>u:</b> tūn	<b>u:</b> zūn

æ which used to be an allophone of a in closed syllables and before front vowels became a separate phoneme in OE.

#### Relevant features of OE vowels:

- quality (differentiation in rise (degree of openness) and place of articulation (front, middle, back));
- quantity (long and short)

Some OE vowels resulted from combinative sound changes which mostly took place in pre-written period:

- palatal mutation;
- breaking;
- palatal diphthongisation;
- velar mutation

**Palatal mutation** (also known as umlaut, front mutation, i-umlaut, i/j-mutation or i/j-umlaut) is an important type of sound change, more precisely a category of regressive assimilation, in which a back vowel is fronted, and/or a front vowel is raised, if the following syllable contains /i/, /ī/ or /j/ .

#### Palatal mutation

tellan < \*taljan

hællan < \*hāljan

dehter < \*dohtri (Dative sing.)

fēt < \* fōti (pl.)

fyllan < \* fuljan

eald – ieldra (comparative) < \* ealdiza

Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions which caused palatal mutation, that is /i/ or /j/, had disappeared in most words before the age of writing.

Of all the vowel changes in OE, palatal mutation was certainly the most comprehensive process, as it could affect most OE vowels, both long and short, diphthongs and monophthongs. The phonological result of this process was appearance of new vowels and numerous instances of merging and splitting of phonemes.

The labialised front vowels /y/ and /y:/ arose through palatal mutation from /u/ and /u:/ and turned into new phonemes, when the conditions that caused them had disappeared.

**Breaking** of front vowels /æ/, /e/ - diphthongization of short front vowels before groups of consonants, including /r/, /l/, /h/; also before the sonorants and /h/ at the end of a word.

/æ/ > /ea/: earm, eahta, eald, eall, seah

/e/ > /eo/: seolh “seal”, eorl, heorte, feoh, feohtan “fight”, feor “far”

Phonological result of breaking: it produced a new set of vowels in OE – the short diphthongs /ea/ and /eo/.

Breaking was unevenly spread among the OE dialects. It was more characteristic of West Saxon than of the Mercian and Northumbrian:  
WS tealde – Mercian talde “told”

**Palatal diphthongisation:** after the palatal /kʰ/, /skʰ/ and /j/ short and long /e/ and /æ/ turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element. /skʰ/ which was always palatalized, caused diphthongization not only of front vowels but also of /o/. This process was characteristic only of West Saxon dialect.

Mercian Ʒ- WS Ʒiefan; Mercian Ʒæf “gave” – WS Ʒeaf; Mercian cæ- WS ceaster; Mercian cald – WS ceald; Mercian scæl – WS sceal.

**Velar mutation** – diphthongization of front vowels in the syllables preceding a back vowel. It was more spread in Anglian dialects than in West Saxon.  
/a/ > /ea/ caru – cearu; fela – feola; hefon – heofon.

### OE diphthongs:

/ea/, /eo/, /ie/,

/ea:/, /eo:/, /ie:/

OE diphthongs has an identical structure: their first element was a front vowel and the second element was a back glide.

Only long diphthongs were of Common Germanic origin. The short diphthongs arose as a result of combinative changes during the Old English period. /ie/ was also a result of a combinative change – it was the result of palatal mutation of diphthongs.

### Unstressed vocalism

Reduction of unstressed vowels began already in the Common Germanic period. In OE this process continued. In three-syllable words the long stressed vowel in the first syllable was reduced:

hlǣfdiƷe > hlæfdiƷe

In two-syllable words, when an affix was added to the word, the unstressed vowel in the second syllable was dropped if the first syllable was long:

Dēofol – dēofles; in the past of weak verbs: dēmdē “judged”, but fremede “performed”

### OE consonants

ON the whole, consonants were historically more stable than vowels.

Relevant features of OE consonants:

- type of articulation: plosives, fricatives, sonorants
- place of articulation: labial, labiodental, forelingual (dental), mediolingual (palatal) and velar
- quantity: short and long

## Plosives

Plosives were differentiated also as voiced and voiceless. This difference was phonemic. Velar plosives were also differentiated as palatal and non-palatal.

Short: /t/-/d/, /p/-/b/, /k/-/g/ and palatal /k'/'

Long: /t:/-/d:/, /p:/-/b:/, /k:/-/g:/ /k':-/g':/'

Only velar plosives had the distinctive feature of palatalization. /k/ appeared before back vowels: *cann*, *cōl*, *cuman*. /k'/' appeared before front vowels: *cild*, *cēap*. If such distribution was absolute, these sounds should be considered allophones of the same phoneme. However, by the time of written records after palatal mutation of back vowels the non-palatal /k/ can appear before front vowels as well: *cēne* (MdE *keen*) < \**kōni*, *cnoccian* < \**knokkōjan*.

Velar /g/ appears before back vowels and before an initial consonant, also after a nasal: *græs*, *zōd*, *sinzān*, but sometimes it appears before a vowel which became front as a result of palatal mutation: *zēs* “geese”.

At the end of the OE period palatal /k'/' /k':/' and /g':/' transformed into forelingual sibilants. This transformation is sometimes called **assibilation**.

/k'/'>/tʃ/ *cild*, *læccean* “catch”

/g'/'>/dʒ/ *brycz*

/sk'/'>/ʃ/ *scip*, *sceorte*

As a result, by the end of OE, the palatal plosives left the sound system. Instead a new class of phonemes appeared – sibilants (two affricated and one fricative).

## Fricatives

The relevant features of fricatives were place of articulation and quantity of the consonant.

### Forelingual fricatives:

In this group voice was not phonologically relevant: voiced/voiceless character of the consonant was determined by its position in a word. Initially and in the end only voiceless were possible; between vowels or between a vowel and a sonorant only voiced fricatives occurred:

*fif* – *ofer*, *sittan* – *rīsan*, *þēof* “thief” – *baþian*

In writing, the voiced and voiceless allophones of each fricative phoneme were represented by the same letter.

### Back- and mediolingual fricatives

In Early Old English voice was a relevant phonological feature for backlingual and mediolingual (palatal) fricatives. Palatalization depended on the position of the consonant and was an accompanying feature.

**Voiceless** fricatives occurred only in the final position or before another consonant. The voiceless backlingual /x/ occurred only after back vowels: *sōhte*, *ruh*; the voiceless palatal /x'/ occurred after a front vowel: *niht*, *she* /sex'/. In the intervocalic position both allophones of the phoneme /x-x'/ were lost by the time of the earliest written records (compare Modern German: *sehen*). In the initial position the phoneme /x-x'/ lost its fricative character and became aspirate, sounding like /h/ in MdE. As the articulation of the sound changed essentially, it became a separate pharyngeal phoneme.

The **voiced** phoneme was also represented by two allophones: non-palatal /ɣ/ and palatal /ɣ'/. Their distribution was similar to that of the voiceless back- and mediolingual fricatives; the non-palatal allophone occurred with back vowels, in the intervocalic and final positions: *draʒan*, *slōʒ*. The palatal allophone occurred with front vowels in the same positions: *fæʒer*, *weʒ*. These sounds never occurred in the initial position. In the initial position before back vowels and consonants stood plosive /g/, before front vowels /ɣ' > /j/: *ʒeong*, *ʒyfen* “ocean”, *ʒiefan*.

Closer to the end of the OE period, voice gradually lost its phonological relevance for this group of fricatives.

Non-palatal voiced allophone was devoiced in the final position: *slōʒ* > *slōh*

Palatal voiced allophone transformed into /j/ in the final position: *dæʒ*, *weʒ*

Thus, in Late OE backlingual allophones of the voiced and voiceless phonemes grew close to each other; a similar change happened to the mediolingual allophones. It resulted in two phonemes: a backlingual fricative with a voiced and voiceless allophones and a mediolingual fricative with a voiced and voiceless allophones: /x-ʒ/, /x'-ʒ'/.

**Long** fricatives occurred in the intervocalic position and could only be voiceless: *cyssan*, *offrian*, *hliehhan* “laugh”. So the feature of voice had no phonological relevance for long consonants.

**Sonorants:** /r/, /l/, /m/, /n/. They were positionally free. Long sonorants, like all long consonants only occurred in the intervocalic position: *tellan*, *swimman*, *onginnan*, *steorra*.

Phonological results of developments in the system of OE consonants:

- Appearance of new phonemes, two affricates and one sibilant
- Loss of palatalization in the system of plosives
- Transformation of back- and mediolingual fricative phonemes

## 4.OE Morphology

### Nouns

Old English nouns were declined – that is, the ending of the noun changed to reflect its function in the sentence.

OE nouns had the following grammatical categories:

- of gender
- of number
- of case

Three genders – masculine, feminine, or neuter. Masculine and neuter nouns generally share their endings. Feminine words have their own subset of endings. The plural does not distinguish between genders.

Grammatical gender was a means of formal classification of nouns. In IE languages gender appeared later than stem division, thus the later gender classification was superimposed on earlier classification by types of stems. As a rule, each type of stems included nouns of a certain gender or genders. Though OE declensions were developments of the PG ones, they had already lost their distinct characteristic features due to simplification of the word structure (from 3 to 2 elements) and loss of stem-building suffixes. OE noun declensions are characterized by many homonymic inflexions.

It's impossible to define the gender by the form of an OE noun. Grammatical gender is not motivated by the lexical meaning of nouns. Often they contradicted each other:

wīf (neuter), wīfman (masc.), bræþ „breath“ (masc.), bēam „tree“ (masc.)

OE nouns four major cases: nominative, genitive, dative and accusative.

Major groups of noun declensions in OE are strong or weak.

### Strong Nouns

Included a-stems (masc. and neuter), ō-stems (feminine), i-stems (all genders).

Here are the strong declensional endings and examples for each gender:

The Strong Noun Declension						
Case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	–	-as	–	-u/–	-u/–	-a
Genitive	-es	-a	-es	-a	-e	-a
Dative	-e	-um	-e	-um	-e	-um
Accusative	–	-as	–	-u/–	-e	-a, -e
Example of the Strong Noun Declension for each Gender						
Case	Masculine engel 'angel'		Neuter scip 'ship'		Feminine sorg 'sorrow'	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	engel	englas	scip	scipu	sorg	sorga
Genitive	enges	engla	scipes	scipa	sorge	sorga
Dative	engle	englum	scipe	scipum	sorge	sorgum
Accusative	engel	englas	scip	scipu	sorge	sorga/sorge



## Weak Nouns (n-stems, all three genders)

Here are the weak declensional endings and examples for each gender:

The Weak Noun Declension						
Case	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-a	-an	-e	-an	-e	-an
Genitive	-an	-ena	-an	-ena	-an	-ena
Dative	-an	-um	-an	-um	-an	-um
Accusative	-an	-an	-e	-an	-an	-an

Example of the Weak Noun Declension for each Gender						
Case	Masculine nama 'name'		Neuter éage 'eye'		Feminine tunge 'tongue'	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	nama	naman	éage	éagan	tunge	tungan
Genitive	naman	namena	éagan	éagena	tungan	tungena
Dative	naman	namum	éagan	éagum	tungan	tungum
Accusative	naman	naman	éage	éagan	tungan	tungan

## Root-stem declension

Though the nouns of the group were few, they have survived till MdE. They were characterized by absence of the stem-building suffix. The case inflexion was added directly to the root. In Dative Sing. and Nom and Acc, Plural these nouns show palatal mutation. Apparently, it was caused by PG *-i-* which followed the root and caused umlaut of the root vowel.

Case	Masculine fót 'foot'		Feminine mūs "mouse"	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	fōt	fēt	mūs	my:s
Genitive	fōtes	fōta	mūse	mūsa
Dative	fēt	fōtum	my:s	mūsum
Accusative	fōt	fēt	mūs	my:s

## Adjectives

Adjectives in Old English are declined using the same categories as nouns: five cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and instrumental), three genders (masculine, feminine, neuter), and two numbers (singular, plural). In addition, they can be declined either strong or weak. The weak forms are used in the presence of a definite or possessive determiner, while the strong ones are used in other situations. The weak forms were also used when the adjective was substantivized: *sē gomela* "the old man". The weak forms are identical to those for nouns, while the strong forms use a combination of noun and pronoun endings:

*jungun mannum, wīse lāreowas* (strong declension)

pās lytlan bōc (weak declension, Acc. sing.)

### Degrees of comparison

Common Germanic suffixes of comparative degree \*-iza, \*-oza underwent rhotacism and reduction of the initial syllable. As a result, in OE they combined in -ra.

Common Germanic suffixes of the superlative degree \*-ist, \*-ost > OE -est, -ost.

Those adjectives which had in PG -i- in the suffixes, show results of the palatal mutation of the root vowel.

eald – ieldra – ieldest “old”

long – lengra – lengest “long”

heard – heardra – heardost “hard”

Sometimes, levelling of forms by analogy took place:

strong – strengra – strengest, strongest

Some adjectives had suppletive forms:

zōd – betera, bettra, selra – betst, selest

yfel – wiersa, wýrsa – wierrest, wýrst

micel – māra – mǣst

Some superlative forms were built with the help of -mest. This suffix, in fact, combined two superlative suffixes, IE -m (compare Latin optimus “the best”, primus “the first”) and common superlative suffix -est. The superlative forms with -mest were mainly built from adverbs but they functioned as adjectives.

inne “inside” – innera – innemest

norþ – norþerra - norþmest

Comparative forms were declined by weak paradigm. Superlative forms mostly declined by weak paradigm too, though strong forms also occurred.

### Pronouns

OE pronouns are represented by personal, demonstrative, possessive, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns.

Most pronouns are declined by number, case and gender; in the plural form most pronouns have only one form for all genders. Additionally, Old English pronouns reserve the dual form (which is specifically for talking about groups of two things, for example "we two" or "you two" or "they two"). These were uncommon even then, but remained in use throughout the period.

## Personal pronouns

First Person			
Case	Singular	Plural	Dual
Nominative	ic, íc	wé	wit
Genitive	mín	úre	uncer
Dative	mé	ús	unc
Accusative	mec, mé	úsic, ús	uncit, unc

Second Person			
Case	Singular	Plural	Dual
Nominative	þú	gé	git
Genitive	þīn	éower	incer
Dative	þē	éow	inc
Accusative	þéc, þé	éowic, éow	incit, inc

Third Person			
Case	Singular	Plural	Dual
Nominative	hé <i>m.</i> , héo <i>f.</i> , hit <i>n.</i>	hié <i>m.</i> , héo <i>f.</i>	–
Genitive	his <i>m.</i> , hire <i>f.</i> , his <i>n.</i>	hiera <i>m.</i> , heora <i>f.</i>	–
Dative	him <i>m.</i> , hire <i>f.</i> , him <i>n.</i>	him	–
Accusative	hine <i>m.</i> , hie <i>f.</i> , hit <i>n.</i>	hié <i>m.</i> , hio <i>f.</i>	–

As seen from the paradigms above, personal pronouns had the following peculiarities:

- 1<sup>st</sup> person pronouns had a suppletive paradigm
- 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> sing. pronouns were of Common IE origin, the plural forms of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> persons were Common Germanic.
- 3rd person personal pronouns developed from demonstrative pronouns.
- The category of gender existed only in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person sing. and was rather lexical than grammatical, as it was determined by the person or thing the pronoun referred to.

## OE Verbs

OE verbs had two tenses only (present-future and past), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), two numbers (singular and plural), and three persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd).

### Morphological classes of OE verbs:

Strong verbs

Weak verbs

Preterite-present verbs

Anomalous verbs

### Strong verbs

Strong verbs use the Germanic form of conjugation known as ablaut. In Old English, there were seven major classes of strong verb; each class has its own pattern of stem changes. The classes had the following distinguishing features to their infinitive stems:

- I. i: + 1 consonant.
- II. e:o or u: + 1 consonant.

- III. Originally e + 2 consonants (This was no longer the case by the time of written Old English).
- IV. e + 1 consonant (usually l or r, plus the verb *brecan* 'to break').
- V. e + 1 consonant (usually a stop or a fricative).
- VI. a + 1 consonant.
- VII. No specific rule – first and second have identical stems (e: or e:o), and the infinitive and the past participle also have the same stem.

### Weak verbs

In contrast to the strong verbs and their ablaut, the weak verbs are primarily identified by the fact that they form the past tense by means of a dental suffix. The weak verbs are divided into three classes, depending on the relationship between the infinitive and the past tense forms.

### Preterite-present verbs

The preterite-present verbs are a class of verbs which have a present tense in the form of a strong preterite and a past tense like the past of a weak verb. These verbs derive from the subjunctive or optative use of preterite forms to refer to present or future time. For example, *witan*, "to know" comes from a verb which originally meant "to have seen". Few preterite present verbs appear in the Old English corpus, and some are not attested in all forms.

#### OE preterite-present verbs:

witan 'to know'  
 āzan 'to own'  
 duȝan 'to be worthy'  
 cunnan 'to be able, to know'  
 unnan 'to grant'  
 þurfan 'to need'  
 dearr 'to dare'  
 sculan 'to have to'  
 munan 'to remember'  
 mōt 'to be allowed, may'  
 maȝan 'to be able, may'  
 ȝeneah 'to be enough'

## 5. Old English lexicon

**Common Indo-European words** constitute the oldest part of the OE word stock. They belong to the epoch of IE language community (parent language).

Major semantic groups:

- names of natural phenomena, plants and animals: OE sunne "sun", mona "moon", snaw "snow", treo(w) "tree", cu "cow", oxa "ox", hund "hound", etc.
- names of parts of the human body: heafod "head", fot "foot", tunge "tongue", eare "ear", cneo "knee", etc.
- terms of relationship: sunu "son", modor "mother", fæder "father", broþar "brother", sweostor "sister", dohtor "daughter", etc.
- basic human activities: don "do", beon "be", licgan "lie", standan "stand", etan "eat", seon "see), sittan "sit", etc.
- essential qualities: niwe "new", lang "long", hwat "white", blæc "black", cald "cold", etc.
- personal pronouns of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> person singular
- simple numerals

**Common Germanic words** are those which are shared by most Germanic languages, but have no parallels outside the Germanic languages. Common Germanic words originated when the Germanic tribes lived close together and had already formed a distinct linguistic group. Some of the Common

Germanic words are found only in certain Germanic languages. This is due to various degree of closeness between various Old Germanic dialects.

Major semantic groups:

- human environment: hus “house”, rum “room”, cnif “knife”, sæ “sea”, hlaf “loaf, bread”, feld “field”, etc.
- basic human activities: macian “make”, singan “sing”, wyrcan “work”, findan “find”, huntian “hunt”, risan “rise”, etc.
- basic qualities: brad “broad”, nearu “narrow”, god “good”, yfel “evil, bad”, etc.
- names of people and animals, parts of the human body: fox, hors “horse”, bera “bear”, sceap “sheep”, hand, hond, cild “child”, blod “blood”, þeow “servant”, etc.
- seasons, time: wicu “week”, winter, etc.

**Common West Germanic words:** cymlic “beautiful”, heorþ “hearth”

**Old English words which are not found outside English** are few: clipian “call”, brid “bird”, clud “mass of rock, hill”, owef “woof”, wogian “woo, court”.

**Borrowed words** in Old English are few. They come from the two main sources: Celtic and Latin. At the end of the period words were borrowed from Scandinavian, but they appear in written texts mostly in Early Middle English period.

Celtic borrowings are mostly place-names or parts of them: Avon (Celtic “river”), aber (celtic “mouth of a river”) in Aberdeen, dun (Celtic “fortress”), llan (Celtic “church”), torr (Celtic “high rock”), comb (Celtic “deep valley”).

Celtic borrowings which are not place-names: OE cradol “cradle”, OE ancor “hermit”, OE bannoc “bit”, OE dunn “grey, dark”, OE broc “badger”, OE luh “lake”.

Latin borrowings. The earliest Latin borrowings belong to the period when the Germanic tribes lived on the continent and had contacts with the Romans. The way of borrowing those words was through spoken language. All of the them have been completely assimilated in English.

Latin	Old English	Modern English
vinum	wīn	wine
caupona	cēap	cheap
moneta	mynet	mint
pondo	pund	pound
cista	ciest	chest
catillus	cetil	kettle
coquina	cycene	kitchen

Latin borrowings connected with Christianization of Britain:

These words were borrowed from books and have mainly bookish and formal character. Semantically these are words relating to religion and schooling. Many of them are of Greek origin, but came to English through Latin.

Examples:

- OE apostol < Lat. apostolus < Gr. apostolos
- OE antefn < Lat. antefana < Gr. antiphona
- OE biscop < Lat. episcopus < Gr. episcopos
- OE candel < Lat. candela
- OE deofol < Lat. diabolus
- OE munuc < Lat. monachus < Gr. monachos
- OE scol < Lat. schola < Gr. skhole
- OE discipul < Lat. discipulus

### Lecture 3

## FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY LANGUAGE

1. Social and linguistic situation in England in the 11-13<sup>th</sup> centuries.
2. Rise of the London dialect and the making of the national language.
3. Establishment of the norm.
4. Social and regional dialects of the Modern English language.
5. Expansion of English in the world. National and regional variants of English.

#### Recommended literature

1. Verba L. History of the English language. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha, 2006. – 293 p.
2. Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. – M.: 2003. – 348 p.
3. Baugh A., Cable Th. A History of the English Language. – L: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. – 438 p.
4. Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. – М.: Просвещение, 1985. – 254 с.
5. Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П., Беляева Т.М. История английского языка. – СПб, 1999. – 510 с.

#### 1.

##### **The effects of the Norman Conquest (1066) on the sociolinguistic situation in England (11<sup>th</sup>-13<sup>th</sup> c):**

1. For centuries all important positions in church and state were held by the Normans.
2. The country was divided into two layers: the feudal upper classes who spoke Norman French and the peasantry and the town people who spoke English.
3. French became the official language of the country.
4. All Early Middle English territorial dialects were equal in status and had only local significance.
5. In the 13<sup>th</sup>-14<sup>th</sup> c. there appeared a considerable layer of bilingual population.
6. The Conquest is associated with a revival of Latin learning in England.
7. There were three languages in use: French, Latin and English. Each had a different social function.

#### 2.

##### **The sociolinguistic situation in England changed in the 14<sup>th</sup> -15<sup>th</sup> c. due to historical, political, social, economic factors**

1. The loss of English mainland possessions on the continent in the 13<sup>th</sup>-15<sup>th</sup> c. [John the Lackland (1204); One Hundred Years' War (1337-1453)] as a result of which French and English nobility had to be separated from each other.
2. The emergence of the middle class in England and the rise of its social importance [The Black Death of 1348-1356; The Peasants' Revolt of 1381; the growth of medieval towns in the 13<sup>th</sup> c.]
3. The consolidation of the English nationality by the 13<sup>th</sup> c. and the formation of the English nation by the 15<sup>th</sup> c.
4. The loss in the prestige of Norman French that became marked as provincial.

In the 14-15<sup>th</sup> c. the relations between the English regional dialects were changing. The development of economy and trade, growth of cities led to intensification of contacts between various parts of the country, and as a result to more intensive speech contacts. With the increasing role of London in the life of the country, the influence of the London dialect on other English dialects grew. The dialectal basis of the London dialect also changed: in the 12<sup>th</sup> and 13<sup>th</sup> c. South Western features dominated in the speech of Londoners. In the 14<sup>th</sup> c. London dialect is clearly a East Midland dialect, including features of other dialects. The Midlands and East Anglia were the most densely populated parts of England and they supplied London with streams of young immigrants.

The authority of the London dialect was facilitated by a number of factors:

- it was the dialect of the capital and central administration; centralization of the country (War of the Roses > centralized monarchy > strengthening of the official speech form)

- its mixed dialectal character
- literary activities of Geoffrey Chaucer
- John Wycliff's translation of the Bible
- it was used in the centers of learning, Oxford and Cambridge
- introduction of printing

The London dialect became the basis of the English national language.

Regional dialects were gradually going out of written use and retained the function of means of oral communication in various parts of the country.

When Caxton started printing (the first book in English 'The Rocuyell of the Histories of Troy' was published in 1475), he was painfully aware of the uncertain state of the English language. In his prologues and epilogues to his translations he made some revealing observations on the problems that he had encountered as translator and editor. He points out how rapidly the language was altering:

"And certaynly our langage now used varyeth ferre from that whiche was used and spoken when I was borne."

The challenging task of choosing which forms of the language to fix in printed text is seen from these words by Caxton:

"And thus bytwene playn, rude, and curious I stande abasshed, but in my judgements the comyn termes that be dayli used ben lyghter to be understonde than the olde and auntyent englysshe."

In orthography, Caxton kept to traditional spellings which were already lagging behind the changes in the pronunciation.

By the 16<sup>th</sup> c. there were still two spheres where English was hardly used: church life and science. As for the church, the Reformation solved the problem in the first half of the 16<sup>th</sup> c. After separation from Rome, the Church of England introduced English as the language of religious service and instruction.

As for the sphere of scientific prose, here the introduction of English took quite a time.

Sir Thomas Elyot, in "The Boke Named the Governour" (1531), wrote the first treatise in English that dealt specifically with education. Th.Elyot intended to show that serious scientific works can also be written in English. Due to the lack of terms in English, he created such terms on the basis of Latin words and explained the meanings of the new terms.

Roger Ascham in "The Scholemaster" (1570) underlined the importance of the English language (in spite of his being a professor of Greek) and proposed that it should be used in teaching the classical languages.

In the Renaissance period scientists and scholars disputed about the possibility of writing scientific works and text-books in the native language. There were two main points of view. Those who insisted on the necessity to use English as the language of science and scholarly instruction were opposed by those who thought English to be inadequate for such purposes, too "primitive", lacking necessary terminology.

The "purists" believed that English was contaminated by unnecessary borrowings from Latin and Greek. Many new words were being introduced into the language by writers, and purists regarded these words as useless as they usually required knowledge of Latin or Greek to understand.

Writers such as Thomas Elyot and George Pettie were enthusiastic borrowers of new words whereas Thomas Wilson and John Cheke argued against them. Many of these newly created terms, such as *dismiss*, *celebrate*, *encyclopedia*, *commit*, *capacity* and *ingenious* stayed in the language and are commonly used. Faced with the numerous new words from foreign languages some writers either tried to deliberately restore older English words (*gleeman* for musician, *sicker* for certainly, *inwit* for conclusion, *yblent* for confused) or create wholly new words from English roots (*endsay* for conclusion, *yeartide* for anniversary, *forsayer* for prophet, *crossed* for crucified).

By the late 16<sup>th</sup> century the formation of the English national language can be considered complete. Though the national language was formed on the basis of the London dialect, they should not be identified. In contrast to a dialect, a national language has a universal character as a means of communication of the nation; it is not limited regionally. A national language functions both in oral and written forms. The national English language incorporated features of various dialects. A national language comprises the literary form as its highest expression and dialects. A national language is also characterized by functional diversity. The further development of English was concerned with establishment of the language norm, unification of the speech forms and usage.

### 3.

17-18<sup>th</sup> centuries were a period of flourish of the English literature and the time of conscious efforts aimed at improvement and normalization of the language.

Three main problems of the period:

- gap between pronunciation and spelling;
- need for establishment of grammatical norms;
- need for codification of the English vocabulary and its usage.

John Dryden admired the *Academie Francaise* which focused on language and literature issues, and complained that English had "not so much as a tolerable dictionary, or a grammar; so that our language is in a manner barbarous" as compared with elegant French. In 1662 the Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge received its charter. Its first members, much concerned with language, appointed a committee "to improve the English tongue particularly for philosophic purposes." The committee, however, achieved no real result. In 1712, Jonathan Swift addressed Lord Treasurer, making "A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining [fixing] the English Tongue." This letter received some popular support, but its aims were frustrated by a turn in political situation. Though various attempts were made to reform the English spelling, spelling improvements resulted only in occasional slight changes.

The first grammars of English appeared in the 16-17<sup>th</sup> c. (John Lily, Alexander Gill, John Wallis, etc.). Early grammars followed the pattern of Latin grammars.

Two trends in codification of the English grammar:

- reason
- usage

These two approaches did not contrast each other. Rather, the arguments of "reason" and "usage" were used by grammarians while considering disputable questions.

The grammarians of the 18<sup>th</sup> c. (Joseph Priestley, Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, etc.) acknowledged inevitable changes which were going on in the language and tried to "clean" the language of everything unnecessary and corrupt and "fix permanently" the language forms. Grammarians spent too much time condemning such current "improprieties" as "I had rather not," "you better go," "between you and I," "it is me," "who is this for?", "between four walls," "a third alternative," "the largest of the two," "more perfect," and "quite unique." Without explanatory comment they banned "you was" outright, although it was in widespread use among educated people.

Of great importance for codification of the English vocabulary and its usage was "A Dictionary of the English Language" by Samuel Johnson, published in two volumes in 1755. There had been earlier English dictionaries, but none on the scale of Johnson's. In addition to giving etymologies, and definitions, Johnson illustrated usage with quotations drawn almost entirely from writing from the Elizabethan period to his own time. It may have been his desire to fix the language by his work, yet he realized that languages do not follow prescription but are continually changing.



## Conclusion:

by the late 18<sup>th</sup>- early 19<sup>th</sup> century the norm of the national literary language was established in grammars and dictionaries. The English language had acquired all the major features of a mature national literary language:

- universal and obligatory norm;
- functional universality and stylistic differentiation;
- literature of high rank and international recognition

## 4.

With the formation of the national language, regional dialects narrowed the sphere of their functioning to mainly oral regional communication. Besides, with the growth of the general cultural level of the people, regional speech variants were more and more associated with the social and educational background of the people using them. Interestingly, the writers of the Renaissance period often used dialectal speech to give social marking to their characters, showing that they belong to lower social layers.

### Sociocultural colouring of regional dialects in Renaissance literature

Southern English – for ‘clownish’ characters”

Northern English – rude dialect of ploughmen and an ancestral English

Representatives of various professions developed their own professional dialects, or jargons, for professional communication within limited groups of people. Their main differences from Standard English lie not in the sphere of phonetics or grammar, but of vocabulary. It is typical to use commonly used words in more specific, professional meanings. Modern English has a wide variety of jargons (of lawyers, sportsmen, sailors, the military, students, computer specialists, etc.).

Criminal groups of people developed their own argots, whose aim it to exclude outsiders from communication.

Various groups of substandard words and their usage are covered by the term “slang”.

Among the English social dialects probably the most widely known is Cockney. Cockney was used as a form of oral speech by the lower ranks of the Londoners throughout the New English period.

Typical features of Cockney speech include:

- dropped H, as in *not 'arf* (not half)
- use of *ain't* instead of *isn't*, *am not*, *are not*, *has not*, and *have not*
- pronunciation of voiceless TH [θ] as F, as in *faas'nd* for *thousand*, and voiced TH [ð], as in *bother*, as V.
- long A sound used instead of OW sound, as in the *thousand* example
- use of a glottal stop for intervocalic 't', as in *bottle* and *butter*
- additional H put at the front of words beginning with vowel sounds, as in 'good hevening'.
- soft 'R'; replacement of 'R' with 'W' as in 'Mewwy Cwistmas'.
- dark final L as in *Millwall*, pronounced *Miw-waw*.
- rhyming slang: head – loaf of bread; wife – trouble and strife; stairs – apples and pears; trousers – round the houses

Modern English regional dialects are classified by territorial principle: Northern, Midland, Western, Eastern and Southern.

### Differences of modern regional dialects from Standard English:

#### **In the Northern dialect**

- RP /a:/ is still pronounced /æ/ in words such as *laugh*, *fast*, and *path*; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.
- In the words **run**, **rung**, and **tongue**, the vowel is pronounced /u/, like the **oo** in "book."
- In the words **bind**, **find**, and **grind**, the root vowel is pronounced /i/, like the sound in "feet."
- The vowel sound in the words **go**, **home**, and **know** in the Northern dialect is /o:/.
- In parts of Northumberland, RP "it" is still pronounced "hit," as in Old English.
- In various Northern dialects the definite article "the" is heard as t, th, or d. Thus, one may hear "t'book" but "th'apple."

- In many Northern dialects strong verbs retain the old past-tense singular forms **band, brak, fand, spak** for RP forms **bound, broke, found, and spoke**.
- Strong verbs also retain the past participle inflection -en as in "comen," "shutten," "sitten," and "getten" or "gotten" for RP "come," "shut," "sat," and "got."

#### **In some Midland dialects**

- the diphthongs in "throat" and "stone" have been kept apart, whereas in RP they have fallen together.
- RP "singing" **g** is often pronounced as in RP "finger".
- In Norfolk one hears "skellington" and "solintary" for "skeleton" and "solitary"
- Other East Anglian words show switching of consonants, as in "singify," and substitution of one liquid or nasal for another, as in "chimbly" for "chimney," and "synnable" for "syllable."

#### **In South Western dialects**

- initial **f** and **s** are often voiced, becoming **v** and **z**.
- development of a **d** between **l or n and r**, as in "parlder" for "parlour" and "carnder" for "corner." The bilabial **w** has developed before **o** in "wold" for "old," and in "wom" for "home"
- The verbs **keel** and **kemb** have developed regularly from Old English **celan** "to make cool" and **cemban** "to use a comb," whereas the corresponding RP verbs **cool** and **comb** come from the adjective and the noun, respectively.

Among grammatical peculiarities typical of regional dialects are:

- non-observance of sequence of tenses
- multiple negation
- use of the personal pronoun *ye*
- variation in the use of past forms of verbs: *telled, told; forgot, forgotten, gaed, gang "went", etc.*

## **5.**

**National variants of English:** in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand

**Regional variants of English:** in India, in South Pacific, in Africa

### **American variant of English**

Phonetic peculiarities:

- pronunciation of /r/

- [æ] before [f], [s], [θ], [ð], [z], [v] alone or preceded by [n].
- The merger of [ɑ] and [ɒ], making *father* and *bother* rhyme.
- Dropping of [j] after [n], [d], [t], [s], [z], and [l], so that *new, duke, Tuesday, suit, resume, lute* are pronounced /nu:/, /du:k/, /tu:zdeɪ/, /su:t/, /ɹɪzu:m/, /lu:t/.
- Æ-tensing in environments that vary widely from accent to accent. In some accents, particularly those from Philadelphia to New York City, [æ] and [eə] can even contrast sometimes, as in *Yes, I can* [kæn] vs. *tin can* [keən].
- The flapping of intervocalic [t] and [d] to alveolar tap [ɾ] before non-initial reduced vowels. The words *ladder* and *latter* are mostly or entirely homophonous, possibly distinguished only by the length of preceding vowel.
- The dropping of [t]s that occur between [n] and an unstressed vowel, making *winter* and *winner* sound the same. This does not occur when the *t* after the *n* belongs to a second stress syllable, as in *entail*.

### Grammar peculiarities:

get-got-gotten

I have already eaten / I already ate.

I've just arrived home. / I just arrived home.

I suggest that she **should start** working right away. (British English)

I suggest that she **start** working right away. (American English)

### Lexical peculiarities

The first American dictionary was written by Noah Webster in 1828. At the time America was a relatively new country and Webster's particular contribution was to show that the region spoke a different dialect from Britain, and so he wrote a dictionary with many spellings differing from the standard.

### **Americanisms:**

<b>US</b>	<b>GB</b>
apartment	flat
cab	taxi
candy	sweets
cookie	biscuit
market, store	shop
faculty	staff (of a university)
first floor	ground floor
gas	petrol
highway	main road
noplace	nowhere
pants	trousers
pitcher	jug
rubber	condom
school	school, college, university
sick	ill
sidewalk	pavement
subway	underground, tube
trailer	caravan
truck	van, lorry

## Lecture 4

### DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH LEXICON

1. Scandinavian borrowings.
2. French borrowings.
3. Latin and Greek borrowings.
4. Borrowing from other European languages.

#### Recommended literature

1. Verba L. History of the English language. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha, 2006. – 293 p.
2. Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. – M.: 2003. – 348 p.
3. Baugh A., Cable Th. A History of the English Language. – L: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. – 438 p.
4. Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. – М.: Просвещение, 1985. – 254 с.
5. Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П., Беляева Т.М. История английского языка. – СПб, 1999. – 510 с.

#### 1.

Etymologically mixed vocabulary is a characteristic feature of Modern English which reflects various contacts between the language spoken by the English people and other languages and cultures.

There are two major ways by which new words appear in the language:

- word formation and semantic changes (development of new meanings in the existing words)
- borrowing from foreign sources

Out of these two, the leading role in expansion of the English vocabulary has always belonged to the word formation and semantic change, i.e. internal sources.

At the same time, the drastic change in the etymological composition of the English vocabulary during Middle and New English periods is obvious. OE vocabulary was almost entirely Germanic, with a small number of loan-words from Latin, Greek (through Latin) and Celtic. In the present-day English vocabulary words and roots of Anglo-Saxon origin constitute, according to different estimates, from one fourth to one third. Nevertheless, these words have the greatest frequency of occurrence and are the most basic words used by the speakers. In a running conversational text, it is not rare to find that as many as 90 % of the words are of Anglo-Saxon origin.

#### Scandinavian borrowings

Most of Scandinavian borrowings first appeared in the written language in Middle English; but many were no doubt borrowed earlier, during the period of the Danelaw (9th-10th centuries). At this time, significant numbers of Scandinavians made England their home. About 1400 Old Norse-based place-names in the present-day England prove the strength of Scandinavian settlements. The invaders settled as farmers and intermarried with the English, adopting their customs and everyday life. Easy assimilation of Scandinavian words was facilitated by the close kinship between the both people and their dialects. Linguists say that the dialects spoken by the English and Scandinavians at that time were mutually understandable. The result of their interaction was a linguistic fusion. Many common words in the Anglo-Saxon and Old Norse were either identical or very close in form, which often makes it hard to distinguish words borrowed from Old Norse.

Some criteria for recognizing Scandinavian borrowings:

- palatalization of /sk/ in OE took place long before it did in Scandinavian, so if native words like shall, fish, etc. have /ʃ / in Modern English, Scandinavian borrowings retain /sk/ as in sky, skill  
OE scyrte > shirt; Old Norse skyrta > skirt

The sounds /ʃ/ and /sk/ are sometimes found in related words in the two languages:

OE shirt – Scand. skirt

shatter – scatter

shriek – screech

Such words are called **etymological doublets**. They go back to the same Germanic root but came to the language by different ways.

- /k/ and /g/ before front vowels in native words normally > /tʃ/ and /dʒ/:

OE chin and Scand. kid, OE yield and Scand. girth.

These criteria however are not always reliable (e.g. native *king*).

Semantically, Scandinavian borrowings are very basic and denote common, everyday things, actions and qualities:

birth, egg, guess, root, scale, seat, sister, skirt, sky, tidings, knife, leg, window, skill, skin, fellow, husband, law, etc.

Place name suffixes:

-by, -thorpe, -gate etc.

The new words did not fill any real gap in the language, as words resulting from the introduction of Christianity. The Scandinavian and English languages were used side by side and any loss or retention must have been the result of pure chance.

Interaction between Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian words:

(a) the English word sometimes displaced the cognate Scandinavian word: fish instead of fisk; goat instead of gayte;

(b) the Scandinavian word sometimes displaces the cognate English word: egg instead of ey, sister instead of sweoster;

(c) both might remain, but with somewhat different meanings: dike-ditch, hale-whole, raise-rise, sick-ill, skill-craft, skirt-shirt;

(d) the English word might remain, but takes on the Scandinavian meaning dream (originally 'joy', 'mirth', 'music', 'revelry'); and

(e) the English words that were becoming obsolete might be given a new lease of life, eg dale and barn.

## 2. French borrowings

The contact between the French and the English was of a completely different nature from that between the Scandinavians and the English:

- social superiority of the French speakers
- languages belong to different language groups

French borrowings of the 11-14<sup>th</sup> c. were a result of the Norman conquest.

Loanwords from French filled the gaps in English vocabulary denoting things connected with new experiences and ways of doing things introduced by the Normans. So while the English already had kings, queens and earls, terms taken from French include count, countess, sire, madam, duke, marquis, dauphin, baron, chevalier, servant. Other semantic fields that became enriched with French loanwords include:

- Government: parliament, chancellor, government, country, crown, bill, act, council, county, tax, custom
- Finance: treasure, wage, poverty
- Law: attorney, plaintiff, larceny, fraud, jury, verdict, prison, justice
- War: battle, army, castle, tower, siege, banner, assault
- Religion: miracle, charity, saint, pardon
- Morality: virtue, vice, gentle, patience, courage, mercy, courtesy, pity
- Recreation: falcon, scent, chase, quarry
- Art, fashion, culture and luxury goods.: costume, gown, art, beauty, colour, image, cushion, tapestry, art, bracelet, clarinet, dance, diamond, fashion, fur, jewel, painting, pendant, satin, ruby
- Cuisine: stew, grill, roast, bacon, mutton, pork, veal, salmon
- Household Relationships: uncle, aunt, nephew, cousin

other: adventure, change, charge, chart, devout, dignity, fruit, letter, magic, male, female, mirror, pilgrimage, proud, question, regard, special

French influence led to different kinds of changes in the vocabulary:

- innovations (as said above), when names of new objects and concepts were added
- replacement of native words by French loans, e.g. French very, river, peace, easy displaced the native OE swiþe, ea, friþ, eaþe
- appearance of synonyms, with semantic and stylistic differentiation: commence-begin, conceal-hide, arrive-come, act-do, desire-wish, injury-harm, profound-deep.

Assimilation of French words in English was a more difficult process compared with assimilation of Scandinavian words. Anglo-Norman words must have been hard to pronounce due to phonetic differences between English and French. Nevertheless, all French borrowings of this period lost their foreign features: they were adapted to the norms of English pronunciation, entered English morphological paradigms and word-building patterns. ME borrowings from French underwent the same Early NE phonetic changes as native words.

French borrowings from around 1400 onwards were a result of cultural, political and economic contacts with France.

These later borrowings are more distant from the core of the vocabulary, with attention being explicitly called to their sophisticated, well-bred, cultivated, even arty 'French' texture: notice the spellings and pronunciations of some of these words:

ballet, tableau, statuesque, cliché, motif, format, lingerie, soufflé, hors d'oeuvre, rouge, etiquette.

French borrowings of the NE period belong to the spheres of social life, diplomatic relations, culture, art and fashions. French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years; Paris led the fashion in dress, food and social life, to a certain extent in art and literature.

Diplomatic terms: attaché, communiqué, dossier

Social life: café, hotel, restaurant, picnic, ball, beau, coquette, buffet, champagne, menu, comrade, rendezvous, bourgeois

Art: ballet, ensemble, essay, genre, motif

Military terms: corps, marine, police, brigade, manoeuvre, campaign

Fashions: blouse, chemise, corsage, soup, lingerie, cravat, jean(s)

French loans of the 19-20<sup>th</sup> c.: consommé, bureaucracy, socialism, communism, chauvinism, garage, chauffeur, cul-de-sac, déjà vu

As seen from the examples, French borrowings of the NE period in most cases retain some of their foreign features (stress on the final syllable, mute letters, nasalized vowels, specific spelling, etc.), i.e. they have not been completely assimilated in English, though with some words this process is underway (garage, restaurant).

### 3.

#### **Latin and Greek borrowings of the Renaissance period**

Many Latin borrowings came in in the early NE period. Sometimes, it is difficult to say whether the loan-words were direct borrowings from Latin or had come in through French. One great motivation for the borrowings was the change in social order, where science and progress of knowledge began to be increasingly valued. In the 16-17<sup>th</sup> c, Latin was the main language of philosophy and science, its use in the sphere of religion became more restricted after the Reformation and publication of the English versions of the Bible. As a result, many of the new words are academic in nature, they denote abstract notions belonging to the spheres of science, medicine, literature, legislation, religion, etc.

affidavit, apparatus, compendium, equilibrium, equinox, formula, inertia, momentum, molecule, pendulum, premium, stimulus, subtract, vaccinate, vacuum.

This resulted in the growing distinction between learned and popular vocabulary in English.

As Latin words came to English both indirectly and through French, a number of French-Latin etymological doublets appeared, i.e. pairs of words which go back to the same Latin root but came to English by different ways:

through French	directly from Latin
feat	fact
ray	radius
defeat	defect
mayor	major
poor	pauper
sure	secure
sire, sir	senior

One of the effects of the intensive borrowing from Latin was the further increase of the number of synonyms. A normal result of the adoption of Latin words (if they did not denote some new concepts) was an addition of another synonym to the existing set. These synonyms show semantic and stylistic differences:

Native English	French	Latin
rise	mount	ascend
ask	question	interrogate
fast	firm	secure
fire	flame	conflagration
fear	terror	trepidation
holy	sacred	consecrated
time	age	epoch

Since the living Greek and English languages were not in direct contact until modern times, borrowings were necessarily indirect, coming either through Latin (through texts or various vernaculars), or from Ancient Greek texts, not the living language. Greek words came to English in various periods.

In NE period many Greek words came to English, mainly through other languages: through French – *agony, aristocracy, enthusiasm, metaphor*; through Latin – *ambrosia, nectar, phenomenon, rhapsody*. There were some general vocabulary items like *fantasy, cathedral, charismatic, idiosyncrasy* as well as more technical vocabulary like *anatomy, barometer, microscope, homoeopathy*. More recently, a huge number of scientific, medical, and technical neologisms have been coined from Greek roots.

The dawn of the age of scientific discovery in the 17th and 18th centuries created the need for new words to describe newfound knowledge. Many words were borrowed from Latin and Greek (mostly through Latin), while others were coined from Latin and Greek roots, prefixes, and suffixes, and Latin/Greek word elements freely combine with elements from other languages including native Anglo-Saxon words. Some of the words which entered English at this time are: apparatus, atomic, carnivorous, component, datum, formula, incubate, mechanics, molecule, nucleus, organic, ratio, structure, synthesis.

Use of Latin/Greek elements to coin terms: *photo-* produced *photograph, photogenic, photolysis and photokinesis*; *bio-* gave *biology, biogenesis, biometry, bioscope*; *tele-* gave *telephone, telepathy, telegraphic, telescopic*. Other Greek elements used to coin new words include *crypto-, hydro-, hyper-, hypo-, neo-, anti- and stereo-*, Latin elements used in creation of international terms are: *trans-, post-, pre-, super-, sub-, counter-*.

In some cases, a word's spelling clearly shows its Greek origin. If it includes ph or includes y between consonants, it is very likely Greek. If it includes rrh, phth, or chth, or starts with hy-, ps-, pn-, or chr-, or the rarer pt-, ct-, chth-, rh-, x-, sth-, or bd-, then it is with very few exceptions Greek.

The use of Latin words in the sciences produced pairs with a native Germanic noun and an adjective of Latin origin:

town/urban, man/human, head/capital, ear/aural, tooth/dental, tongue/lingual, lips/labial, finger/digital, hand/manual, eye/ocular or visual, mouth/oral, brain/cerebral, mind/mental, nail/unguial, moon/lunar, sun/solar, earth/terrestrial, star/stellar, son or daughter/filial, mother/maternal, father/paternal, brother/fraternal, book/literary, edge/marginal, house/domestic, king/regal.

Such correspondences are called cases of lexical suppletivity.

#### Latinization of English orthography

The spelling of some French loan-words was changed in Renaissance time by learned people and “returned” to their Latin prototypes though their forms were historically correct, since they were adopted from OFr. This Latinization of the 15-16<sup>th</sup> c. inserted letters into some words, which in most cases made the relation between pronunciation and spelling even more complicated:

adventure from aventure, debt from dette, doubt from doute, receipt from receite, subtle from sutil, perfect from parfit, etc.

#### **4.**

##### **German loan-words in English**

German words have been incorporated into English usage for various reasons. Common cultural items, especially foods, have spread to English-speaking nations and are often identified by their German names. The history of excellence among German-speaking nations in science, scholarship, and classical music has led to many German words being adopted by academics for use in English contexts. Discussion of German history and culture requires use of German words.

18th century German loan-words:

quartz (18 c.), waltz (18 c.), noodle (18 c.)

19th century German loan-words: schnapps, poodle, dachshund, schnauzer, semester (of Latin origin), kindergarten, lager, rucksack

20th century German loanwords:

blitzkrieg, zeppelin, delicatessen, hamburger, gestalt, strudel

##### **Dutch loan-words in English**

Shipping, naval terms

cruise (17 c.), dock (14 c.), freight (15 c.), galleon (16 c.)

leak (15 c.), pump (15 c.), reef (16 c.), skipper (14 c.), smuggle (17 c.), yacht (16 c.)

Cloth industry

rock (14 c.), spool (14 c.), stripe (17 c.)

Art

easel (17 c.), etch (17 c.), landscape (16 c.), sketch (17 c.)

Food and drink

booze (13 c., readopted in 16 c.), brandy(wine) (17 c.), cookie (18 c.), gin (18 c.), hops (15 c.)

Other

dollar (16 c., Early Flemish, LG *daler* (Du. *daalder*) – G. *taler*, short of *Joachimst(h)al* (i.e. Joachim’s valley) in the Erzgebirge, Germany), scum (13 c.), split (16 c., orig. nautical term: break up a ship on a rock), uproar (16 c.)

##### **Italian loan-words**

Art, music, architecture:

alto, balcony, cupola, fresco, gondola, grotto, macaroni (16 c.), madrigal, motto, piano, opera, pantaloons, prima donna, regatta,



soprano, opera, stanza, studio, tempo, torso, violin

Military terms: arsenal, squadron (16 c.)

Food: broccoli (17 c.)

17<sup>th</sup> c.: ghetto = Jewish part of a town, umbrella

Words from Italian American immigrants:

cappuccino, espresso, mafioso, pasta, pizza, ravioli, spaghetti, zucchini

18<sup>th</sup> century: casino = public room for social meetings

19<sup>th</sup> century: lasagne, vendetta, spaghetti, diva

20<sup>th</sup> century: ciao, paparazzi, dolce vita, Fascist  
to manage (16 c.)

### **Spanish loan-words:**

Military terms:

armada, barricade, guerilla

Spanish colonizers came in contact with new plants, animals, natural phenomena, notions:

alligator, armadillo, banana, chocolate, cockroach, canyon, coyote, cannibal, marihuana, mosquito,  
tornado, tobacco, potato, tomato, hurricane, Negro

Specific Spanish notions:

matador (17 c.)

junta (17 c.) – in Spain and Italy deliberative or administrative council

19-20<sup>th</sup> centuries: mustang, ranch, cafeteria, macho, machismo

### **Russian loan-words**

16 c.: tsar, Cossack (through French), rouble

17<sup>th</sup> c.: steppe, copeck, Kremlin (through French, of Tatar origin)

18<sup>th</sup> c.: astrakhan, knout (through French)

19<sup>th</sup> c.: vodka, samovar, pogrom, dacha

20<sup>th</sup> c.: kalashnikov, glasnost, perestroika, gulag, sputnik, kolkhoz

## Lecture 5

### DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH SOUND SYSTEM OVER THE MIDDLE AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH PERIODS

1. Changes of vowels in Late Old English - Middle English.
2. Development of diphthongs.
3. Changes of vowels in Early New English.
4. Development of unstressed vowels.
5. Historical development of the consonant system.

#### Recommended literature

1. Verba L. History of the English language. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha, 2006. – 293 p.
2. Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. – M.: 2003. – 348 p.
3. Baugh A., Cable Th. A History of the English Language. – L: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. – 438 p.
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#### 1.

##### Qualitative vowel changes

OE /y//y:/ in Early ME disappeared from the system of vowels, merging with:

/e//e:/ in Kentish

/i//i:/ in the Northern and East Midland dialects

/u//u:/ in the South-Western and West Midland dialects

In the South and West the phonemes /y//y:/ disappeared later than in other dialects, around the 14<sup>th</sup> c.

The present-day literary norm reflects various dialectal variants:

OE brycg – MdE bridge

OE hwylc – MdE which

OE mycel – MdE much

OE myrige – MdE merry

“Hybrid” forms: bury (OE byrgan), busy (OE bysig), build (OE byldan).

In Early ME OE /a:/ which was to a large extent labialized narrowed to /ɔ:/:

OE stan > ME ston

OE gan > ME gon

/a:/ did not change in the North.

OE short /æ/ merged with /a/: *pæt* > *that*, *wæs* > *was*

In the South and partially in Western dialects *e* is found in writing, which probably means that the phoneme /æ/ was preserved there and the letter *æ* was no longer used in ME.

The phoneme /æ:/ which was a result of palatal mutation of /a:/ continues existing in ME, but it becomes a little more narrowed (ɛ in transcription).

##### Quantitative vowel changes

Quantitative changes of vowels began already in the late OE period.

1) Shortening (7-8 c.) before consonant clusters

EOE *gōdspell* > LOE *godspel*

EOE *cēpan*, *cēpte* > LOE *cēpan*, *cepte* > ME *keep* – *kept*

OE *wīs* – *wīsdōm* > LOE *wīs* – *wīsdōm* > ME *wise* – *wisdom*

The shortening often did not take place before *st*:

OE *fȳst* > ME *fist*, BUT: ME *est* [ɛ:], *preest* [e:], *goost* [ɔ:]

2) Lengthening of short vowels before clusters “sonorant + plosive” (*ld*, *nd*, *mb*, *rd*, *ng*) (8-9<sup>th</sup> c.):  
*bald* *a* > *a:* > *ɔ:*

*talde* a > a: > ɔ:

*milde* i > i:

*cild* i > i:

*bindan* i > i:

*climban* i > i:

The lengthening did not take place if the cluster was followed by a third consonant.

Compare: *cild* – *cildru*, MdE *child* – *children*

### 3) Open syllable lengthening of short vowels (13<sup>th</sup> c.)

While lengthening, vowels lowered (became more open):

OE *wicu* > ME *weeke*      i > e:

OE *duru* > ME *door*      u > o:

OE *stelan* > ME *stelen*    e > ε:

OE *mete* > ME *meat*      e > ε:

OE *open* > ME *open*      o > ɔ:

OE *nama* > ME *name*      a > a:

Phonological consequences of quantitative changes:

These changes weakened the phonological correlation of quantity in the system of vowels, as the quantity of a vowel began to be dependent on the position of the vowel in the word. The only position where the quantity of a vowel remained free was the position in monosyllabic words before one consonant: *wis* (long sound), *is* (short sound).

The limitations in the ability of vowel length to serve as a distinctive phonological feature ruined the phonological relevance of vowel quantity by the end of Middle English. The correlation of quantity was replaced by a new correlation of contact (checked / non-checked vowels). With the correlation of contact the quantity of a vowel remains only an accompanying phonetic feature. The major distinctive feature of a vowel is the nature of its contact with the following consonant. Checked vowels are phonetically short and non-checked vowels are phonetically long.

### Summary of vowel changes since Old English:

1) loss of phonemes /y//y:/

2) new correlation of open/close long vowels

3) asymmetry of the system is broken

4) phonological correlation long/short vowels is ruined

Long /i:/ and /u:/ appear to be “outsiders” in the system.

## 2. Diphthongs

In Early Middle English all old diphthongs were contracted to monophthongs. In the meantime, a new set of diphthongs developed as a result of vocalization of OE /j/ and /y/. The vocalization gave rise to two sets of diphthongs: with i-glide and u-glide:

weg > wei, dæg > day, dragan > draw, fugol > fowl, boga > bow.

Voiceless fricatives /x'/ and /x/ were vocalized later, in the 13-14<sup>th</sup> centuries:

leoht > lieht > /liit/, eahta > ehte > /eite/

bohte > bought, ahte > ought

## 3.

### The Great Vowel Shift

Dating:

according to Henry Sweet and Otto Jespersen – 16 – 18<sup>th</sup> c.

according to Henry Wyld – end of 14<sup>th</sup>–early 15<sup>th</sup> – late 16<sup>th</sup> c.

Phonetic essence of the Great Vowel Shift:

Upper long vowels became diphthongs, and low and mid-vowels rose and/or became diphthongs.

Phonological consequences of the Great Vowel Shift:

- sharp reduction in the number of long vowels;
- no new phonemes appeared; the shift basically consisted in redistribution of phonemes, merging of long sounds with already existing diphthongs;
- diphthongs no longer formed a separate system – they became part of the system of phonetically long (non-checked) vowels and were opposed to the phonetically short (checked) vowels

Step 1: i and u drop and become  $\theta i$  and  $\theta u$

Step 2: e and o move up, becoming i and u

Step 3: a moves forward to  $\text{æ}$

Step 4:  $\epsilon$  becomes e,  $\circ$  becomes o

Step 5:  $\text{æ}$  moves up to  $\epsilon$

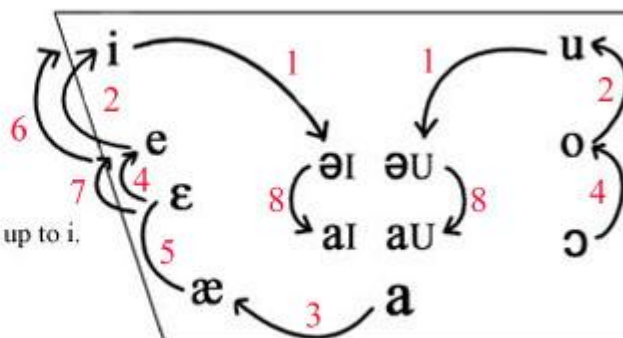
Step 6: e moves up to i

A new e was created in Step 4; now that e moves up to i.

Step 7:  $\epsilon$  moves up to e

The new  $\epsilon$  created in Step 5 now moves up.

Step 8:  $\theta i$  and  $\theta u$  drop to ai and au



**Qualitative changes of short vowels** did not have a systemic character.

15<sup>th</sup> c.: *er* often became more open and developed into *ar*: *ferre* > *far*, *sterre* > *star*, *werre* > *war*. In some words the change was not fixed (*servant*, *certain*) and the variants with *ar* exist in dialects. *Clerk*, *sergeant*, *Derby* retain old pronunciation.

/a/ > /æ/ 15 c. that, cat. etc. As this change is reverse to the change of  $\text{æ}$  in Early ME, some linguists believe that it was not a “step back”, but rather substitution of /a/ by the phoneme /æ/ from another dialect in London dialect.

1<sup>st</sup> half of the 17<sup>th</sup> c.: /u/ lost its labial character and changed into /ʌ/: *love*, *shut*.

This change brought a new phoneme into the system of checked vowels. Delabialization sometimes did not take place when /u/ followed a labial consonant: *full*, *push*, *bull*, *pull*.

### Quantitative changes of vowels in Early New English

16-17<sup>th</sup> c.: Long /u:/ and /e:/, resulting from the Great Vowel Shift, shortened before dental and back-lingual consonants. This change did not have a systemic character.

Examples: *blood*, *flood*, *book*, *shook*, *foot*, *stood*, *bread*, *dead*, *breath*.

16<sup>th</sup> c.: /æ/ > /æ:/ before final voiceless fricatives or combinations “fricative+ plosive”:

*grass*, *after*, *class*, *mass*, *draft*, etc.

This sound was retained in American English; in British English /æ:/ > /a:/, or /a/ came to the norm from dialectal forms.

### Early New English diphthongs

16-17<sup>th</sup> c.:

Vocalization of *r* resulted in appearance of so-called ‘centralized’ diphthongs (with  $\theta$  as the second element).

The influence of *r* could slow down or prevent the changes of long vowels under the Great Vowel Shift, as *r* tended to make the vowel more open, while the shift made it closer.

i: + r > ai +  $\theta$  *tire*, *fire*

e: + r > i: +  $\theta$  *beer*

o: + r > u: +  $\theta$  *moor*

u: + r > au +  $\theta$  *hour*

$\epsilon$ : + r > i  $\theta$ ,  $\epsilon$   $\theta$  *fear*, *bear*

a: + r > ei  $\theta$  > e  $\theta$  *care*

ɔ: + r > ɔθ > ɔ: *more*

#### 4.

In ME vowels in unstressed syllables were reduced to /ə/

*caru* > *care*

*stanas* > *stones*

*lufode* > *lovede*

Reduction of /ə/ at the end of a word brought about a new word-building pattern – **conversion**, as reduction wiped out the formal differences between the principal forms of nouns, adjectives and verbs.

The minimal word structure in late ME was reduced to one syllable.

#### 5.

##### **Historical development of consonants**

##### **Phonologization of the voiced/voiceless forelingual fricatives and loss of the phonological feature of quantity**

Word-medial fricatives [v, z, ð] were allophones in Old English, e.g. *līf* ‘life’ ended in [-f] whereas *libban* — cf. the preterite form with the voiced fricative *lifde* — had an internal voiced fricative [v]. However with the loss of the inflectional endings the verb was reduced to a single syllable and the final /-v/ now contrasted with the final /-f/ of the noun, hence the change in status of voice among fricatives in Middle English which from then on distinguished phonemes.

The system status of voiced and voiceless fricatives was strengthened by the fact that with French loans instances of voiced initial fricatives now occurred in English, adding to the functional load — and hence to the systematic importance — of these segments: *vertu* ‘virtue’ *vileynye* ‘villainy’ *zēle* ‘zeal’

Another development relevant to this issue is the loss of distinctive consonant length in Middle English. In Old English consonants could be long or short, e.g. /-s-/ [-z-] and /-ss-/ [-ss-] were phonemically distinct. cf. *Offa* (proper name), *missan* ‘miss’, *sibban* ‘sit’ which show geminates (long consonants) for all three fricative types in Old English. In the Middle English period this distinction begins to be lost so that the instances of voiceless word-medial geminates were reduced to simple segments but remained voiceless, so that the original phonetic contrast between voiced medial non-geminate versus voiceless medial geminate was now reduced to a simple distinction between voiced and voiceless fricative in medial position, thus strengthening the phonemic significance of voice for these fricatives.

Later initial /θ-/ in grammatical formatives such as *the*, *there*, *that*, etc. was softened to [ð] because of the unstressed character of the words. Thus the series /v-, ð-, z-/ in initial position was completed.

##### **Vocalization of fricatives** (see The Middle English diphthongs)

##### **Rise of the new nasal phoneme ŋ in late ME – early NE.**

**Simplification of consonantal clusters:** lamb, knight, column, dumb, etc.

##### **Assibilation of the 17-18<sup>th</sup> c. ( in French loan-words):**

/sj/ > /ʃ/ *commision*, *sure*, *session*

/zj/ > /ʒ/ *decision*, *measure*, *leisure*

/tj/ > /tʃ/ *picture*, *nature*

/dj/ > /dʒ/ *soldier*

The important phonological outcome of this process was the rise of the new phoneme /ʒ/, the voiced match of /ʃ/. Another result of the assibilation was increase in the functional load of sibilants.

## Lecture 6

### DEVELOPMENT OF THE GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM OF ENGLISH OVER THE MIDDLE AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH PERIODS

1. The Noun in Middle and Early New English.
2. Major changes in the systems of strong and weak verbs.
3. Development of the grammatical categories of the verb in Middle English and Early New English.

#### Recommended literature

1. Verba L. History of the English language. – Vinnytsa: Nova Knyha, 2006. – 293 p.
2. Rastorgueva T.A. A History of English. – M.: 2003. – 348 p.
3. Baugh A., Cable Th. A History of the English Language. – L: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978. – 438 p.
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#### 1.

During the Middle English period English nouns lost their complex system of inflectional endings due to reduction of unstressed endings and unification of paradigms. Masculine and neuter nouns, with few exceptions, joined the a-stem declension. The neuter gender stopped existing as a separate paradigm. Feminine nouns mostly joined the o-stem declension. After reduction of endings this type lost its endings. The weak declension also gradually lost its inflexions.

The only endings which survived were –(e)s of Genitive singular and –(e)s of the plural form.

The nouns of OE root declension preserved their specific character, though in this group unification took place inside the paradigms: the vowel resulting from palatal mutation became the marker of plural forms, whereas the non-mutated vowel remained in the singular: man – men. Some nouns from that group joined the regular declension (book, nut).

A small group of nouns formed plural with -n: ox-oxen, child-children, brother-brethren.

The noun category of gender disappeared by the 14<sup>th</sup> century. In the 11-12<sup>th</sup> c. the category of gender lost its formal support – the reduced endings of adjectives stopped indicating gender. Also, in OE gender was closely connected with the type of declension. With ruination of separate declensions, the category of gender lost its formal expression.

The grammatical category of case underwent profound changes in ME. With reduction of endings, the system of cases gradually reduced from four to two cases in Late ME. OE paradigms show that the Nominative and Accusative cases were not distinguished in the plural, and often had the same form in the singular. The Dative form lost its formal markers. As a result, OE Nominative, Accusative and Dative cases fell together.

The formal distinction between cases in plural was lost completely. The only distinctive case form opposed to the Common Case was Genitive singular –(e)s. In late 17-early 18 c. the Genitive case began to be marked with the apostrophe, to distinguish it from the plural marker.

The functions of the Genitive Case became more limited. In OE it could be used with the general meaning of an object and could function as an object to a verb or adjective. In ME such use as an object was replaced by prepositional phrases. The inflectional Genitive Case began to be preferred with animate nouns and the possessive meaning became dominant.

The category of number appeared to be the most stable of all noun categories. In OE this category did not have a specialized marker separate from the case marker. During the simplification of paradigms, the plural ending –(e)s appeared to be a strong marker and it spread by analogy to most nouns, functioning as a specialized plural marker.

#### 2.

In ME strong verbs underwent considerable changes which ruined differences between classes and prepared transfer to the modern system of three principal forms. During ME, many strong verbs

joined the weak type of verb conjugation. The verbs of the 7<sup>th</sup> class *slepen, wepen, reden* already in OE had weak forms *slepte, wepte, rædde*. In ME these forms became common. A number of verbs of other classes followed this tendency to build weak forms of the past and Participle II.

A very important change in the system of strong verbs was removal of the distinction between the past singular and past plural stems. This process was facilitated by the same root vowel in the 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> classes and the influence of weak verbs which had a single stem for all the past forms. In late ME – early NE the analogical levelling of verb forms is observed in all classes, supported by phonetic changes which wiped out distinctive types of vowel interchange.

As a result, strong verbs lost distinction between separate classes. Confusion and mutual interference of various classes ruined the whole system of strong verbs which existed in Old English.

The inventory of strong verbs hardly got any supply of new verbs. Exceptions: *strive* (from French), *take* and *thrive* (from Scandinavian).

The system of weak verbs in ME and early NE also developed along the line towards regularity. The proportion and functional load of weak verbs in ME increased considerably. The weak type was a productive pattern of past forms formation, and the new, borrowed, verbs joined this type.

Reduction of endings, dropping of the final –e resulted in the loss of differences between classes of weak verbs. A unified type of verb conjugation was formed, where the past and Participle II forms were built with the help of the dental suffix. The basis for this standard type was OE weak verbs of the 2<sup>nd</sup> class.:

OE macian – macode – macod

ME maken – maked, made – maked, made

NE make – made – made

The “irregular” weak verbs of the 1<sup>st</sup> class retained their specific character:

OE tellan – tealde – teald

ME tellen – tald(e) – tald

NE tell – told – told

Some weak verbs developed the irregularity of forms due to phonetic changes which took place in ME:

OE kepen – kepte – kept (long vowel in all three forms)

ME keepen – kept – kept (shortening in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> forms)

NE keep – kept – kept (Great Vowel Shift in the 1<sup>st</sup> form)

The OE opposition of strong-weak verbs was replaced by the opposition of regular-irregular verbs in NE.

Sources of regular verbs:

1) former weak verbs of the 2<sup>nd</sup> class

2) new verbs which built their forms by the productive pattern

3) some former strong verbs and some weak verbs of the 1<sup>st</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> class (*live* and those verbs of the 1<sup>st</sup> class which had the same root vowel in all forms)

Sources of irregular forms:

1) former strong verbs

2) former 1<sup>st</sup> class weak verbs which had different root vowels (*keep*), different consonants (*send, build*) and 3<sup>rd</sup> class verbs *have, say*.

### 3.

#### Present Tense paradigm in late ME:

Present singular	1 <sup>st</sup> person	-e
	2 <sup>nd</sup> person	-est, -es (North)
	3 <sup>rd</sup> person	-eth, -es (North)

Present plural	All persons	-eth (South) -en (Midlands) -es (North)
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Analytical forms of the English verb developed as a result of grammaticalization of the original free syntactical combinations:

#### Analytical forms of Future

##### **OE sculan, willan + Inf.**

Flode wolde ealle synfull adrencan.

Se engel sæde þæt heo sceolde modor beon.

#### Analytical forms of Passive Voice

##### **OE beon / wesan, weorþan + Past Participle of transitive verbs.**

Þær wearþ cyninȝes þeȝn ofslæȝen.

Þa wæs Hroþzare hors zebæted.

#### Analytical forms of Perfect

##### **OE habban, beon + Past Participle**

Nu is se dæȝ cumen.

Hie hæfdon heora lufsanȝ zesungene.

#### Analytical forms of Continuous

In OE duration of an action was sometimes denoted by combination

beon/wesan + Present Participle

Þa þa he sprecende wæs ...

But the meaning of these constructions was different from the meaning of the present-day Continuous:

Þæt þu sie þȝ lenȝ libbende on eorþan ...

Se wer wæs swiþe belewite, and ondrædende ȝod and forbuzende yfel.

In late ME duration of the action was also expressed by

be + prep. on/in + verbal Noun

He was on huntinge

In early NE two forms existed side by side:

**Is + ... ing** (new form of Present Participle developed since 13<sup>th</sup> c. by analogy with the verbal noun)

**Is a-...ing**

These forms merged around 16<sup>th</sup> century.

#### Analytical forms of Oblique Moods

In ME, alongside OE inflexional forms, compound verbal modal predicate was used to denote the meaning of an unreal, desirable, possible etc. action:

**Sholde, wolde, may, might + Inf.**