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Introduction. Why Study the History of the English Language?

Languages, like nations, have their own history. Studying the rise and growth of the language is no less exciting than studying the world history. But the university curriculum includes the History of the English language not only with the purpose of satisfying our curiosity; if you are going to become a translator, a linguist, a language teacher - in a word you study English professionally - **you cannot do without firm and regular knowledge in this subject**, because one cannot explain the structure and peculiarities of the contemporary English language without knowing the main lines of its centuries-old development.

Every student of English knows what extreme difficulties one has to face while mastering the English **spelling**. According to the popular proverb, they write in English ‘Manchester’ but read ‘Liverpool’. How can it be explained that one and the same sound, like for example [i:], is denoted in different ways in the words ‘mete’, ‘meat’, ‘meet’? Why does the same combination of letters designate different sounds as in the words ‘trouble’, ‘south’, ‘bouquet’? Why are there six letters in the word ‘knight’ while only three sounds are pronounced: [n] - [ai] - [t]? You will be able to answer all these questions when you get acquainted with the history of the English language.

One should not think, though, that the course of the history of English pursues only a pragmatic aim. While doing this subject you will learn how the language develops and enriches itself, how it accumulates means for subtle semantic distinctions, how it absorbs and assimilates elements from other languages.

Studying the history of English will help you understand how the language lives and grows, it will help you form your own linguistic outlook.

The History of the English language is closely connected with the life of the people who use it - the English nation, and - later - other English-speaking nations. That is why when we discuss this or that linguistic phenomenon we should keep in mind the social and historic situation in which the language rises and develops.

Studying the history of the English language will help you master deeply such special linguistic disciplines as phonetics, lexicology and grammar of modern English. In the course of the history of English you will get acquainted with the most interesting monuments of English literature - the epic poem "Beowulf", works by G. Chaucer and William Shakespeare, early English versions of the Holy Bible.

Knowledge in the history of the English language will be helpful to you when you begin to learn another foreign language - German or French.

The students who are going to learn German will find many parallels in the English and German lexicon. It is natural, as **English and German are close relatives, both the languages belonging to the same West Germanic subgroup of the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages.**

The students who are going to study French will also find out that many words in the English and French lexicon are similar. This fact may be explained by the powerful influence of French which the English language was subjected to in the 11th - 12th centuries.

In this course there will be outlines of the Old, Middle and New periods in the history of the English language, you will read and translate texts belonging to different periods and dialects.

THE OLD ENGLISH LANGUAGE: ITS BEGINNINGS, GROWTH AND MATURITY

Chapter 1. The Origin of the English Language

1. English among Other Languages of the World. The Germanic Languages

Modern English is sometimes spoken of as the 20th century Latin. Today it is the language of international communication in science, commerce, tourism and culture. According to the newest statistics it is the native language for 350 million people (236 mln in the US,) and a second language for another 400 million. English is spoken as a native tongue in 12 countries and is used as the official language in about 50 countries. More than 80 per cent of the information accumulated in the computer systems all over the world is in English.

Richard Malcaster, an English scholar, used to complain in 1582: "English is unimportant. It is spoken only on our island, and even not on the whole of it..." He could not foresee that in a quarter of a century English immigrants would found their colony in Virginia and it would be the first step in the triumphant march of the English language through the world.

To understand the place of the English language among the other languages of the world it is important **to discuss its genealogical relations**. The genealogical approach allows to divide languages into "families", each family containing only languages that are supposed to have originated from one protolanguage.

It is hard to believe, but very long ago there existed some **Proto-Indo-European language** of which have originated such languages as Greek, Latin, English, Russian, French and many other languages the genetic relations of which are difficult to suspect if you do not have special linguistic education. Big families of languages are divided into groups. Finally, large groups are divided into subgroups.

The outstanding domestic historical linguists and culturologists Thomas V. Gamkrelidze and V. V. Ivanov place the homeland of the Indo-European protolanguage more than 6,000 years ago in the Transcaucasus, in eastern Anatolia. The landscape described by the protolanguage as now resolved must lie somewhere in the crescent that curves around the southern shores of the Black Sea, south from the Balkan peninsula, east across ancient Anatolia (today the non-European territories of Turkey) and north to the Caucasus Mountains. Here the agricultural revolution created the food surplus that impelled the Indo-Europeans to found villages and city-states from which, about 6,000 years ago, they began their migrations over the Eurasian continent and into history.

Some daughter languages must have differentiated in the course of migrations that took them first to the East and later to the West. Some spread west to Anatolia and Greece, others southwest to Iran and India (Sanskrit). Most Western languages stem from an Eastern branch that rounded the Caspian Sea.

Contact with Semitic languages in Mesopotamia and with Kartvelian languages in the Caucasus led to the adoption of many foreign words.

Indo-European Family	<p>GROUPS AND LANGUAGES:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The Albanian language, the language of ancient Illyria. The oldest monuments belong to the seventeenth century, 2. The Armenian language, the oldest monuments of which belong to the fifth century A.D. 3. The Baltic group, embracing (a) Old Prussian, which became extinct in the seventeenth century, (b) Lithuanian, (c) Lettic (the oldest records of Lithuanian and Lettic belong to the sixteenth century) 4. The Celtic [k] group, consisting of: (a) Gaulish (spoken in Gaul, France, known to us by Keltic names and words quoted by Latin and Greek authors, and inscriptions on coins); (b) Britannic, including Cymricor Welsh, Cornish, and Bas-Breton or Armorican (the oldest records of Cymric and Bas-Breton date back to the eighth or ninth century); (c) Gaelic, including Irish-Gaelic, Scotch-Gaelic, and Manx. The oldest monuments are the old Gaelic ogam inscriptions, which probably date as far back as about A.D. 500. 5. The Germanic group, consisting of : <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (1) East Germanic – Gothic, Vandalic, Burghundian. Almost the only source of our knowledge of the Gothic language is the fragments of the biblical translation made in the fourth century by Ulfilas, the Bishop of the West Goths. See pp. 195-7. (2) North Germanic or Scandinavian — (a) called Old Norse until about the middle of the eleventh century; (b) East Scandinavian, including Swedish, Danish and Faroese; (c) West Scandinavian, including Norwegian and Icelandic. <p>The oldest records of this branch are the runic inscriptions, some of which date as far back as the third or fourth century.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (3) West Germanic, which is composed of the following languages: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) German¹ (b) English (c) Dutch² (d) Frisian (e) Afrikaans (Boerish) (f) Yiddish (g) Luxemburgian 6. The Greek language, with its numerous dialects. 7. The Indic group, including the language of the Vedas, classical Sanskrit, and the Prakrit dialects; 8. The Iranian group, including (a) West Iranian (Old Persian, the language of the Persian cuneiform inscriptions, dating from about 520-350 B.C.) ; (b) East Iranian (Avesta—sometimes called Zend-Avesta, Zend, and Old Bactrian—the language of the Avesta, the sacred books of the Zoroastrians). 9. The Italic group, consisting of Latin and the Umbrian-Samnitic dialects. From the popular form of Latin are descended the Romance languages: Portuguese, Spanish, Catalan, Provencal, French, Italian, Raetoromanic, Rumanian or Wallachian. 10. Slavonic, embracing: (a) the Eastern group, including Russian (Great Russian, White Russian, and Little Russian), Ruthenian; (b) Southern: Bulgarian, and Illyrian (Servian, Croatian, Slovenian); (c) the Western group, including Czech (Bohemian), Slovak, Sorabian (Wendish), Polish and Polabian. <p>Extinct Groups and Languages</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11. Hittite [‘hitait] – хеттские, a group of extinct languages, which died out in the 2-1 millennium B.C.; spoken on the territory of modern Turkey and Northern Syria.
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¹ Old German consists of two branches: High German, the oldest monuments of which belong to about the middle of the eighth century; Low German, with records dating back to the ninth century.

² Old Dutch is called Old Low Franconian , until about 1200.

	<p>The Hittite language is very important for Indo-European reconstruction.</p> <p>12. Tocharian [ka:] – тохарские, languages which died out after the 8th century A.D.; spoken in oases of Eastern Turkestan. Tocharian, now extinct, represented by texts discovered in Chinese Turkestan, which are thought to be anterior to the tenth century A.D.</p> <p>13. the Illyric(an) language (ancient Balcan)</p> <p>14. the Phrygian language (2-1 mill. B.C.).</p> <p>15. the Thracian (фракийский) language (6-3 c. B. C.)</p> <p>16. the Venetic language (6-1 c. B. C.)</p>

It should be noted that alongside with large groups of languages, like Germanic, Italic or Slavic, the Indo-European family includes individual groups each of which consists of only one language, such as Albanian, Armenian and Greek.

It goes without saying that our chief interest will be with the Germanic (Teutonic) group, since it includes English and its nearest relatives. It is divided into three main subgroups: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic. **The chief language of East Germanic was Gothic, now known mainly from fragments of the 4th century translation of the Holy Bible by Wulfila (Ulphilas), the Aryan bishop of the West Goths.**

In the following chart the group of Germanic languages is presented:

Germanic Group	North Germanic (Scandinavian)	Norwegian Icelandic Swedish Danish Faroese [fearouz]– фарерский, spoken on the Faroes (autonomous region of Denmark).
	East Germanic	Gothic – the language of Goths (1B.C. – 6-8 A.D.) Vandal – died out very early and practically left no traces Burgundian - died out very early and practically left no traces
	West Germanic	English Frisian – the language spoken in some regions of the Netherlands, Saxony, on the Frisian isles Dutch High German Low German Afrikaans, spoken in the SAR Yiddish, spoken in different countries.

It is very important to determine genetic relations among the languages of the world as the literary monuments of the earliest period of the language are few and fragmentary. To get the reliable data about the phonetics, word-stock and the grammatical structure of a language that existed many centuries ago it is necessary to take into consideration the facts of other languages belonging to the same family or group. It goes without saying that languages may effect each other by contact, whether they are related or not. In the times of social upheavals, wars and great migrations languages could be mixed, or some nations could borrow languages of other peoples. That is why linguists usually emphasize that the genetic classification of languages should not be confused with ethno-geographic classifications: “The relations of languages are not based upon belonging of the nation speaking those languages to the same race” /Бруннер 1955, 44/.

According to the classification presented above the English language belongs to the West Germanic subgroup of the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages.

As we can see in the chart on Page 4, the group of Germanic languages is divided into three subgroups:

(1) North Germanic, or Scandinavian, (2) West Germanic, (3) East Germanic.

English belongs to the West Germanic subgroup together with High German, Low German, Dutch and Frisian.

The North Germanic (Scandinavian) subgroup includes Norwegian, Icelandic, Swedish, Danish and Faroese. The study of these languages is important for us as the Scandinavian dialects influenced the development of the English language in the epoch of Scandinavian invasions into Britain.

As for the languages of the East Germanic subgroup we can speak about them only in the past tense: they are all dead. Only about the Gothic language (records found from 1B.C. to 6 A.D.) there is more or less complete information. Because of the peripheral settlement of Goths compared with the other Germanic tribes Gothic had preserved the greatest affinity with the Proto-Germanic language., e.g. the archaism of the system of fricative and explosive consonants (no Verner's Law), the absence of mutation of vowels, the presence of mediopassive and the dual number and underdevelopment of analytical structures in the system of verb. Thanks to this conservatism the Gothic Language *is very important* both for the Proto-Germanic reconstruction, for the comparative studies of the other Germanic Languages and for the reconstruction of Germanic languages. Owing to Gothic material, forms which otherwise would have remained quite hypothetical are unambiguously confirmed. This is true of ablaut, umlaut, declension and conjugation in Germanic languages.

Among the written monuments in Gothic one should mention the translation of the Holy Bible which was made from the Greek by Bishop Wulfila (Ulphilas). Wulfila's translation refers to the 4th century AD and is the earliest surviving Germanic text. This literary monument is extremely important for the study of Germanic languages and the history of English. By comparing the structure of the Gothic and Old English languages we can better understand many phenomena in the development of the latter, and especially those of its pre-literary period.

From the history of the antique authors about the Germanic tribes

The first mention of Germanic tribes is made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. B.C. Next comes the Roman general, statesman and writer Caius Julius Caesar (100-44 B. C.) who gives several chapters to the Germans in his COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO – "Commentaries on the War in Gaul". Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes — the Suevians — who bordered on the Celts in the North-East of Gaul. The tribal names Germans and Teutons, at first applied to separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group. In the 1st c. A. D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in NATURAL HISTORY (NATURALIS HISTORIA) made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons DE SITU, MORIBUS ET POPULIS GERMANIAE; in this work he reproduced Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes. F. Engels made extensive use of these sources in the papers ON THE HISTORY OF THE ANCIENT GERMANS and THE ORIGIN OF THE FAMILY, PRIVATE PROPERTY AND THE STATE. Having made a linguistic analysis of several Germanic dialects of later ages F. Engels came to the conclusion that Pliny's classification of the Teutonic tribes accurately reflected the contemporary dialectal division. In his book on the ancient Teutons F. Engels described the evolution of the economic and social structure of the Teutons from Caesar's to Tacitus's time.

The Germanic tribes were classified into:

Tribes: Vindili (Goths, Vandals and Burgundians)	East Germanic
Ingvaeones (Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians) Istaevones (Franks) Herminones (modern Germans)	West Germanic
Hilleviones (modern Scandinavians)	North Germanic

Historically, all the Germanic languages originated from the Proto-Germanic language, which, in its turn split from related Indo-European tongues sometime between the 15th and the 10th c. B.C. The Ancient Germans, or Teutons, moved further north and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe.

In Caesar's time, land tenure did not involve private property; instead, fields were divided annually among clans. By the time of Tacitus, however, land was distributed annually to individuals according to social class. The basic sociopolitical unit was the pagus (clan). In Caesar's period, some pagi had military leaders as chiefs, but only during wartime. By Tacitus's time, however, several pagi, at least, had fulltime, elected chiefs. These leaders did not have absolute power but were limited by a council of nobles and an assembly of fighting men. Military chiefs had groups (comitium) of men who swore allegiance to them in both peace and war - theigns.

Germanic Mythology

The Scandinavian legends and myths about ancient heroes, gods, and the creation and destruction of the universe developed out of the original common mythology of the Germanic peoples and constitute the primary source of knowledge about ancient German mythology. Because Scandinavian mythology was transmitted and altered by medieval Christian historians, the original pagan religious beliefs, attitudes, and practices cannot be determined with certainty. Clearly, however, Scandinavian mythology developed slowly, and the relative importance of different gods

and heroes varied at different times and places. Thus, the cult of Odin, chief of the gods, may have spread from western Germany to Scandinavia not long before the myths were recorded; minor gods—including Ull, the fertility god Njord, and Heimdall—may represent older deities who lost strength and popularity as Odin became more important. Odin, a god of war, was also associated with learning, wisdom, poetry, and magic.

Besides Odin, the major deities of Scandinavian mythology were his wife, Frigg, goddess of the home; Thor, god of thunder, who protected humans and the other gods from the giants and who was especially popular among the Scandinavian peasantry; Frey, a god of prosperity; and Freya, sister of Frey, a fertility goddess. Other, lesser gods were Balder, Hermod, Tyr, Bragi, and Forseti; Idun, Nanna, and Sif were among the goddesses. The principle of evil among the gods was represented by the trickster Loki. Many of these deities do not seem to have had special functions; they merely appear as characters in legendary tales.

The Valkyries, a band of warrior-maidens that included Svava and Brunhild, served Odin as choosers of slain warriors, who were taken to reside in Valhalla. There the warriors would spend their days fighting and nights feasting until Ragnarok, the day of the final world battle, in which the old gods would perish and a new reign of peace and love would be instituted. Ordinary individuals were received after death by the goddess Hel in a cheerless underground world.

The Scandinavian gods were served by a class of priest-chieftains called godar. Worship was originally conducted outdoors, under guardian trees, near sacred wells, or within sacred arrangements of stones. Later, wooden temples were used, with altars and with carved representations of the gods. The most important temple was at Old Uppsala, Sweden, where animals and even human beings were sacrificed.

Germanic alphabets

1. Runes, characters in the ancient alphabet used by Germanic peoples. Runic inscriptions have been found all over Western Europe, on stone monuments and on such objects as metal spearpoints and amulets; the greatest concentrations are in England and Scandinavia. The runic alphabet, called futhark after the sounds of the initial letters, originally had 24 characters. In English versions the number was eventually increased to 33, whereas in Scandinavia it was reduced to 16 and later expanded to 26.

It is believed that runes are derived from a northern Etruscan alphabet used among Italic tribes in the Eastern Alps, and that they were developed in the 2nd or 3rd century ad by a Germanic people living in the region of modern Bohemia. The earliest surviving inscription is from the mid-3rd century. Runes were in wide use from the 4th to the 12th century. A form of runes was used in Scandinavia throughout the Middle Ages as an alternative to the Latin alphabet used by the clergy, and runes survived in occasional use in rural Sweden at least until the 17th century. Runes were also used to augment the Latin alphabet for certain sounds, notably the thorn (þ, th) used in Anglo-Saxon England and modern Iceland.

2. During the decline of the Roman Empire and the ensuing ages of turmoil, the Christian church was the principal guardian of Western culture. Monasteries became centers of learning, establishing libraries and copying chambers. Monks copied mostly religious books, as well as some ancient texts; many produced decorated books called illuminated manuscripts.

The monastic Latin script.

The Merovingian, or pre-Carolingian, script written in France during the 7th and 8th centuries was reformed during the reign of the emperor Charlemagne, when much attention was given to copying earlier manuscripts. Scribes, writing in a plain, simple, and beautiful script strongly influenced by the earlier half-uncial characters, produced a new hand known as the Carolingian minuscule. During the 11th century Carolingian minuscule began to assume an individual form in the various nations of western Europe.

In the 12th century the so-called Gothic script, or black letter writing came into use; it was a modification of the Carolingian minuscule with angles replacing the curves. Excessive angularity and compression, and the use of numerous contractions and abbreviations, made the Gothic script difficult to read.

Once the prevalent form for printed material in Germany, it is now rare.

A renaissance of the Carolingian style took place in Italy in the 14th century, where an extremely regular and beautiful style developed, leading to the so-called Humanistic script of the 15th century. This style served as the model for the first typesetters of Italy, and thus the clear and simple Roman letters that go back through the Carolingian script to the half-uncials of the earlier period were preserved. These minuscule letters were the ancestors of the lowercase letters of the modern Roman type.

The Gothic monuments, as handed down to us, are written in a peculiar alphabet which, according to the Greek ecclesiastical historians Philostorgios and Sokrates, was invented

- The Bible by Ulfilas (Wulfila), the Aryan bishop of the West Goths, who in the 4th c. AD translated of the Holy Bible (Codex Argenteus). But Wimmer' and others have clearly shown that Ulfilas simply took the Greek uncial alphabet (20 letters) as the basis for his, and that in cases where this was insufficient for his purpose he had recourse to

the Latin (u, o, q, r, s, f) and runic alphabets (2 letters – thyth and ezeq - z). The alphabetic sequence of the letters can be determined with certainty from the numerical values, which agree as nearly as possible with those of the Greek.

General features of the Germanic languages

Word stress. As far as word stress is concerned, one of the most important features of the Germanic languages is that both historically and synchronically they have certain peculiarities. It is believed that in Indo-European language(s) there were two types of stress: musical pitch and force (dynamic) stress. Besides in Indo-European the word stress was free. In the Germanic languages it is fixed. So we come to the conclusion that since in Indo-European there was free stress and in the Germanic languages it was fixed some time there happened fixation of stress. It was discovered that in the course of the Common Germanic Period word stress came to be fixed on the first meaningful part of the word – e.g. Goth. skalkinon ‘to serve’, frodaba ‘cleverly’. Usually the prefix in nouns was stressed (Goth. afar-dags – ‘the next day’, andawaurdi ‘answer’), and in verbs – unstressed – the stress fell on the first root syllable (Goth. andhafjan ‘to answer’, gagatilon ‘unite’). The word stress in the Germanic languages is interesting itself, but it is also important that this fixed stress couldn’t but result in weakening of unstressed positions which in its turn resulted in neutralization of certain vowels, dropping, change of quality and quantity.

The structure of the word. It is believed that in Indo-European the words were three-morphemic, that is root, suffix and flexion (ending) – Scr. varta-ya-ti ‘he is turning’. In the Germanic languages words regularly came to be two-morphemic: Goth. sun-u ‘son’, fæder-as ‘fathers’, eaþe-lic ‘difficult’. Many notional words, mostly nouns, lost their suffixes ð root + ending. However, in old Germanic languages the suffixes remained in verbs, some adjectives and adverbs.

The sound system

Vowels. The old Indo-European distinction between the long and the short vowels was in the main preserved. A peculiar feature of the Germanic vowels is their instability. They have always been unstable, liable to different positional changes, mostly of assimilative character. Also: lengthening, shortening, neutralization, dropping.

There are certain correspondences btw the Indo-European and the Germanic vowels, which mainly concern the short and long [a] and [o]. They are as follows: in the IE languages there are pairs of long and short ‘a’ and ‘o’, while in the Germanic languages there are only a short ‘a’ and a long ‘o’. They have the following correspondences:

Lat. noctem, Rus. ночь – Goth. nahts (IE o – Germ. a) - IE o = Germ. a

Skr. bhra:ta, Lat. fra:ter, Rus. брат – OE bro:þor (IE a: - Germ. o:) (Залеская, Матвеева, 1984: с. 11) – IE a: = Germ. o.

The short o and long a evolved from different sources, when the Common Proto-Germanic Language split into several languages.

Besides, IE e: - Goth. e:, OE æ, OHG a:

Lat. se:men – Goth. se:þs, OE sæd, OHG sa:t.

IE u – Germ. u and o:

Skr. su:nú - Goth. su:nus

Skr. jugám – OE geoc (<*goc)

IE	Common Germanic	Gothic	Old English
a, o,	A	a	æ
e	E	i	e
i	I	i	i
u	u	u	u (o)
-	-	a:	a:
a:, o:	o:	o:	o:
e:	E:1 > æ:	e:1	æ;; o: (before nasals) – Lat. mena ‘moon’ – OE m o:na
different sources	E:2	e:2	e:
i:	I:	i:	i:
u:	u:	u:	u:

An important phonetic feature of vowels, common to all the Germanic languages, is the so-called German Brechung or Fracture (общегерманское преломление). The fracture concerns two pairs of vowels: the pair e-i and u-o.

The Indo-European e in the root syllable is embodied in the Germanic i, if it is followed by i, j, or the cluster 'nasal+consonant'. These positions are called NARROWING POSITIONS. Otherwise the Germanic languages have in the corresponding words an –e–.

Lat. medius 'middle' – OE middle

Lat. ventus 'wind' – OE wind

Lat. edere 'eat' – OE etan

Lat. ferre 'carry' – OE beran

The IE u finds its counterpart in Germanic u, if it is followed by u or by the cluster 'nasal+consonant'; otherwise the IE u finds its counterpart in Germanic o.

Sansk. sunus 'son' – OE sunu

Lat. iugum 'yoke' – OE geoc (<*goc)

In Gothic the general law of fracture is modified by a specific feature. In Gothic every IE 'e' becomes 'i', and only before the consonants 'r', 'h', and 'hw' this 'i' changes back into 'e'. The short 'e' is denoted by the digraph 'ai' and the short 'u' – by 'au'. Lat. sedere 'sit' – Goth. sitan, but

Lat. ferre 'carry' – Goth. bairan

Lat. pecus 'cattle' – Goth. faihu,

Lat. sequi 'follow' – Goth. saivan 'see'

In class 2 strong verbs: the Prt II of the verb kiusan 'choose' is KUSANS, tiuhan 'draw' – tauhans. Class 4: stilan 'steal' – stulans, bairan 'carry' – baurans.

Other phonetic features of the Germanic vowels are:

- a strong tendency to weakening and reduction of unstressed inflections /Quirk, Wrenn 1958, 3/;
- the use of ablaut (gradation) as a phono-morphological means. The IE ablaut 'e-o-zero' is transformed in most Germanic languages into 'i-a-zero' (see ABLAUT).
- the Ingvaeone lengthening of vowels owing to the falling out of 'n' and 'm' before the fricatives [p, h, f, s].

O.E. þync(e)an, þuncede > þu:hede > þo:hete

O.E. uns > u:s

O.E. fimf > fi:f

O.E. onþer > o:ðer

Consonants. Many old German consonants have also developed from the corresponding Indo-European consonants. However, if we consider the old Indo-European roots in the Germanic languages we find that the position of the sounds is different. They are as if were shifted in relation to the original Indo-European basis. The scholars long ago discovered these discrepancies but the great scholar who explained it was Jacob Grimm. He discovered the regularity of the correspondences. He found three groups of correspondences and since his time they are referred to as three acts or as Grimm's Law (Consonant Shift). He discovered that in Indo-European basis the voiceless plosives became voiceless fricatives in all the Germanic languages (p – f; penta – five). According to the second act a voiced plosive became voiceless (slabare – sleep). According to the third act aspirated voiced plosives lost their aspiration (bh – b; bhrata – brother).

According to Jacob Grimm's law, the Common Germanic Consonant Shift, which took place in the 4-2. c. B. C. - 3-4. c. A.D., included several stages:

I. the Indo-European (non-Germanic) voiceless explosives [p], [t], [k] correspond to the Germanic voiceless fricatives [f], [þ], [h] (Рус. полный – Eng. full; Lat. pater – Eng. father; Lat. cordia – Eng. heorte), this is the first act of the shift;

II. the Indo-European voiced explosives [b], [d], [g] correspond to the Germanic voiceless explosives [p], [t], [k] (Рус. болото – Eng. pool; рус. еда – Eng. eat; рус. иго – Eng. yoke), the second act of the shift, which took place much later;

III. the Indo-European aspirated voiced plosives [bh], [dh], [gh] found in Sanscrit correspond to the Germanic voiced plosives without aspiration [b], [d], [g] (Sansk. bhrata, Lat. frater – Gothic brother; Sanscr. madhu (honey) – O.E. medo; Lat. hostis (=reconstructed Sanscr. *gh) (enemy) – Gothic gasts /Ильиш 1968, 25 - 28/4.

Notes:

a. If the sound 't' had been preceded by a voiceless fricative (e.g. h, s) it had not changed into [þ], but remained [t] to avoid the cluster of 2 voiced fricatives (Lat. noctem – Goth. nahts, Lat. stare (stand) – Goth. standan).

b. The Germanic voiced explosives b, d, g which are the reflexes of IE bh, dh, gh correspond to the Russian б, д – беран – брать, дѣ:lan – делить.

In Latin *bh > *b > f: beran – Lat. fero; *dh > *d > f: Skr. rudhira – Lat. rufus.

c. The law of satem-centum: Rus. z, s, [ж] – IE k, g (знать – Lat. gnosco; князь – Germ. kyning; зерно – Germ. grain).

As to the origin of the consonant shift there are several theories explaining the shift. One of the most current is the influence of the so-called substratum (underlayer) of a language of a different type. There is another theory according to which the reasons for the shift should be found in the peculiarities of the language itself, in some inner laws. However, even after Grimm's explanation there remained several cases when Grimm's Law didn't work or there was some change which couldn't be explained through Grimm's Law. For instance, in the position where according to Grimm's Law the voiceless sound [p] was expected there appeared the voiced [ð] (Pater – Father).

It was explained by another Danish linguist Carl Verner. He came to the conclusion that *voicing took place if the consonant and vowel were preceded by an unstressed vowel (Verner's Law)*. This fact testifies to the existence of a free stress.

The Grammar System

Among the common grammatical features of the Germanic languages, it is necessary to mention:

- 1) the division of verbs into “strong” and “weak” ones according to the formation of the past tense and Participle II, (with the help of the dental suffix or the ablaut (gradation));
- 2) the opposition of the present and past tense in the system of the forms of the verb,
- 3) 2 declensions of nouns – strong and weak. The weak declensions of the adjectives were always marked by the suffix -n-. The weak declension marked the definitiveness of the nouns.
- 4) the use of different cases of the adjective depending on the syntactic conditions of the agreed noun and some others.
- 5) The fixed word-order. In Indo-European as it was a highly inflected language word order was free. In the Germanic languages word order gradually became fixed. In some languages like English, it resulted in the fixation of the position of each member of the sentence. Sometimes it also resulted in the frame constructions and inversions.

Word formation and vocabulary. Like any other Indo-European language, the Germanic languages have always employed three main word-building devices: affixation, word composition, sound changes (non-productive).

Considering Germanic word stock, we usually distinguish two main layers: native words and borrowings. As to the native words we distinguish three subgroups: Common Indo-European words, Common Germanic Group, genuine native Group.

2. Periods of the History of the English Language

There are no jumps and leaps in the life of the language. Phonetic, lexical and grammatical changes are accumulated gradually, developing as variants and coexisting forms. This gradual accumulation finally changes the shape of the language so much that one can hardly recognize it. Indeed, if the original of the Old English epic poem “Beowulf”, Chaucer's poetry and a contemporary English text were shown to “a man in the street”, he would say that they were written in different languages, while in fact it is the same English language but the texts refer to different periods.

Traditionally the history of the English language is divided into three periods: Old English, Middle English and New English. The transition from Old English to Middle English is usually associated with the date of the Norman Conquest (1066); the transition from Middle English to New English is often connected with the consolidation of the monarchy, the end of the Wars of the Roses 1455-1485 or with the introduction of printing in the country. The New English period is traditionally defined as starting with the 15th and lasting till now. Within it scholars specify the Early New English period (16th, 17th till the Epoch of Restoration³).

Of course, one should not look upon those dates as absolute. It would be absurd to think that for instance in 1065 Old English was spoken in Britain and in 1067 - Middle English. It is only natural to admit that in the depth of Old English there appeared and developed the features that finally made Middle English; and in the structure of Middle English so features of Old English coexisted with the new phenomena.

It is not by chance that some scholars relegate the border between Old English and Middle English to a later period. E.g., A.I.Smirnitsky is of opinion that 1075 should be considered, though relatively, as the date separating Old English and Middle English /Смирницкий 1955, 19/. B.A.Ilyish insists on 1100 /Ильиш 1968, 50/; A.Baugh and T.Cable put up this border as late as to 1150 /Baugh, Cable 1978, 51 - 52/. M.Schlauch, though recognizing 1066 (the year of the Norman Conquest) as the conventional border between Old English and Middle English, still marks that in the Middle English language some principal features of Late Old English remained up to 1200 /Schlauch 1959, 38 - 39/. J.Fisiak introduces

³ Restoration – the period of Britain following the return of Charles II as king in 1660 after the English Civil War (1642-1660). It was characterized by advances in trade, opposition to the Roman Catholic Religion, the establishment of the Whig and Tory political parties, and new developments in poetry and the theatre.

intermediate sub-periods into A. Baugh and T. Cable's classification: 1150 - 1250 is regarded as a transitional subperiod between Old English and Middle English and 1450 - 1500 as a transitional sub-period between Middle English and New English /Fisiak 1968, 9/.

Periodization of the English language may be based on various grounds a) on purely linguistic data; b) on the blend of historical and linguistic facts; c) on the literary monuments earmarking this or that period.

It goes without saying that first of all we should take into account the characteristics that may be found in the language itself, its phonetics, lexicon and grammar.

The traditionally accepted division of the history of the English language was formulated by H. Sweet (1845-1912). The division into Old English, Middle English and New English reflects important points of difference in the phonetic system, morphology and vocabulary.

✓ The Old English language is characterized by full endings (which means that various vowels could be used in an unstressed position – e.g., *singan*; *sunu*), a developed system of cases and the predominance of original (non-borrowed) words. 700 A.D. (the earliest English writings) – 1100 A.D.

✓ The Middle English language is characterized by weakened and leveled endings (which means that the former variety of vowels in the unstressed endings was mainly reduced to two sounds - [e] and [i], e.g. *singen*; *sune*, *son*), the degradation of the case system and the penetration of a great number of loan-words, chiefly from the Scandinavian dialects and French. 1100 – 1500 A.D.

✓ The Modern English is the period of lost endings (*sing*; *son*). The period of the loss of grammatical morphemes. 1500 – 1600 – Early Mn E period; 1600 - well into our own times – Late Mn E period.

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

The chronological limits of each period (700 (the earliest writings) – 1100; 1100-1500; 1500-1600, 1600-.... The approximate dates fixing the boundaries between the periods are: 1066 – the year of the Norman Conquest; 1475 – the introduction of printing in England by W. Caxton or 1485 – the end of the Wars of the Roses, the decay of feudalism, the rise of the English nation; William Shakespeare (1564 - 1616).

A more detailed classification of the periods to a certain extent related to the traditional triple one is proposed in T.A. Rastorguyeva's book. This classification reckons with more historical events and language characteristics. The author suggests seven periods:

✓ Early Old English (450 - 700), the prewritten period of tribal dialects;

✓ Written Old English (700 - 1066), when the tribal dialects were transformed into local, or regional, dialects, the period signified by the rise of the kingdom of Wessex (King Alfred) and the supremacy of the West Saxon dialect;

✓ Early Middle English (1066 - 1350), the period beginning with the Norman Conquest and marked with the dialectal divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences – the Scandinavian and Norman French languages (Anglo-Norman);

✓ Classic Middle English (1350 - 1475) – Restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language. The main dialect is the London dialect. The age of Geoffrey Chaucer, the period of literary efflorescence. The pattern set by Chaucer generated a fixed form of language, we may speak about language stabilization. This period corresponds to H. Sweet's "period of levelled endings".

✓ Early New English (1476 - 1660), the first date is earmarked by the introduction of printing as the first book was printed by William Caxton. This is the age of W. Shakespeare (1564 – 1616), of the literary Renaissance. The country is unified, so is the language. The 15th c. – the period of lost endings and loss of freedom of grammatical construction (H. Sweet).

✓ Neoclassic period (1660 - 1800), the period of language normalization. Differentiation into distinct styles, fixation of pronunciation, standardization of grammar.

✓ Late New English (1800 - the present time). The Received Standard of English appears.

✓ Within the latter period T.A. Rastorguyeva specifies Contemporary English - from 1945 to the present time /Rastorguyeva 1983, 54/.

B. Strang, rejecting the traditional classification, suggests a retrospective division of the history of the English language into 200-year long cuts. The scholar proceeds from the assumption that 200 years is a period within which the physical contacts between the generations cease and the language acquires new features. In B. Strang classification she proposes the following periods: 1970 - 1770, 1770 - 1570, 1570 - 1370, 1370 - 1170 and so on ending with the year 370 /Strang 1979/.

3. Beginnings of English

Where and when did the English language originate?

This question may be answered exhaustively: English appeared in Britain in the 5th century AD on the basis of the dialects of Germanic tribes - Angles, Saxons and Jutes.

The first population of Britain were the Iberians, the non-Indo-European tribe, belonging to the Neolithic age (late Stone Age, 3-1 millenniums BC). It was at that time that the great stone monument of Stonehenge was built.

Round the 7th c. BC the IE tribes of Celts invaded Britain. The Celtic tribe of Britts came there in the 5th c. BC, and in the 1st BC so did the Belgians (белги). In the 500-600 BC Britain was a wooded country inhabited by various Celtic tribes - Britts, Scots, Picts. The broad Channel separating Britain from the Continental Europe kept it isolated from the historic events that were taking place on the Continent. At first Celts had a tribal order, but soon there began the stratification of tribes into the classes of landlords, free tillers and serfs. In the 1st BC first towns appeared in Britain where crafts and trade began to thrive.

As early as in the 1st (55 BC) century BC The Roman Empire headed by Julius Cæsar (see *Who's Who in This History*) invaded the British Isles. Later that expedition found reflection in Cæsar's famous book "Commentarii de bello Gallico". The first Roman troops withdrew soon, but in 54 BC they came again, conquered Britts and reached as far as the Thames. However, the actual Roman conquest of Britain began in 43 AD under Emperor Claudius.

The resistance which the Celtic tribes offered to the invaders was ruthlessly choked down: the poorly armed and badly organized Celts could not oppose the powerful military machine of the Romans. One of the most famous revolts (59-61 A.D.) was headed by the queen of celts Boadicea. The rebels razed the towns of London and St Albans and were fought off by the Roman Governor of Britain Suetonius.

By the end of the 1st century AD Britain had been conquered by the Romans and for about 400 years remained a province of the Roman Empire. Establishing the Roman order in Britain by force and fire, the invaders built fortresses, towns, roads, two huge walls: the Wall of Hadrian and the Wall of Antonine. The British colony was very important to Rome, as it was its main supplier of grain crop. The Romans implanted their culture and the Latin language. It is natural that during several centuries the local population was subjected to a strong influence of the Roman civilization and the language of the Celts acquired many elements from Latin.

Not much is left from Celtic languages in English. Though many place names and names for rivers are surely Celtic (like Usk - from Celtic *usce "water", or Avon - from *awin "river"), the morphology and phonetics are untouched by the Celtic influence. Some linguists state that the word down comes from Celtic *dún "down"; other examples of Celtic influence in place names are the following: cothair (a fortress) - Carnarvon uisge (water) - Exe, Usk, Esk dun, dum (a hill) - Dumbarton, Dumfries, Dunedin llan (church) - Llandaff, Llandoverly, Llandudno coil (forest) - Kilbrook, Killiemore kil (church) - Kilbride, Kilmacolm ceann (cape) - Keadre, Kingussie inis (island) - Innisfail inver (mountain) - Inverness, Inverurie bail (house) - Ballantrae, Ballyshannon, and, certainly, the word whiskey which means the same as Irish uisge "water". But this borrowing took place much later.

At the beginning of the 5th century the Roman power in Britain came to an end. The Empire suffered decay, Rome's walls were shaking under the assaults of the "barbarians", and in 408 AD the legions dislocated in Britain were called back to Rome to defend it from Goths. However, the latter still succeeded in occupying Rome in 410 AD.

The further events in the history of Britain are well described by Bede the Venerable (see *Who's Who in this History*) in his "Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum".

In the middle of the 5th century (as early as 449 AD), as Bede the Venerable narrates, Britain was conquered by Angles, Saxons and Jutes. Those were Germanic tribes belonging to the Ingvaeone group. According to Bede, in 449 AD the Germanic tribes headed by the chieftains Hengist and Horsa landed on the island of Thanet in the Thames estuary. The transmigration of these tribes lasted for 150 years and ended in their occupation of most English territory. The territory of Britain was divided as follows: the Saxons and the Angles (who came from the European coast of the North Sea) occupied the territories south and north off the Thames; the Jutes (who came from the Juteland Peninsula in Europe) settled on the Peninsula of Kent and the Isle of White. The Britons fought against the conquerors till about 600. It is to this epoch that the legendary figure of the British king Arthur belongs. The Celtic tribes were eventually done to the world (wide) and retreated to the north and to the west - to Cornwall and Wales.

By the end of the 7th century the invaders had conquered the territory which was later named the Kingdom of Anglia (under King Egbert of Wessex, who united England in one feudal state in the 9th c.). Moving northward they reached Fort-of-Firth and in the West they got as far as Cornwall, Wales and Cumbria /Barlow 1982, 49 - 50/.

Angles, Saxons and Jutes spoke similar West Germanic dialects. The similarity of the of the dialects helped them to understand each other very easily. Close contacts of the tribes and their isolation from other Germanic tribes living on the Continent resulted in the penetration of the dialects into each other and, finally, the formation of a new language community - the English language.

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th century originally had no state unity and permanently waged wars.. In the 6th century there were nine small kingdoms in Britain: Deira, Bernicia (Angles), East Anglia (Angles), Mercia (Angles in the north, Saxons in the south), Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, Wessex (Saxons), and Kent (inhabited by Jutes) /Barlow 1982, 50/. Later Deira and Bernicia were united and named Northumbria. There was no concord among the kings, and no peace among the kingdoms. Each ruler desired to gain the supreme power and subordinate the others. At

the end of the 6th c. there were 7 kingdoms: Northumbria, East Anglia, Wessex, Essex, Sussex, Kent and Mercia. Later they united into the 4 kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and Kent.



Northumbria which appeared as a result of the forcible unification of Deira and Bernicia in the 7th century gained the dominating position /Blair 1969, 197 - 198/. Edwin, the King of Northumbria, enlarged the borders of his kingdom and built the citadel Edinburgh /Halliday 1983, 31/. In the 8th century Mercia became the most powerful kingdom. The zenith of her power is associated with the name of King Offa /Halliday 1983, 32/.

At the beginning of the 9th century the dominating position passed over to Wessex. This kingdom dominated and united nearly all the territory of Britain, its capital Winchester becoming the capital of Britain.

The Wessex king Alfred the Great (849-901), the enlightened monarch, played an important role in the strengthening of the Wessex position, as he increased the fleet, strengthened the army, built new fortresses and forts, set up the England's first school for feudal lords, invited scholars and writers to England and himself translated from Latin.

In the 9th AD Egbert, the King of Wessex, defeated Mercia's troops and became the first king of all England (the Kingdom of Anglia). The country was divided into the administrative units, the counties, headed by King's officers – sheriffs. Several counties were united under the power of earls, who became major feudal lords.

English history and the development of the English language were greatly influenced by Scandinavian invasions. The first incursion of the Vikings in England took place in the 8th century /Ильиш 1958, 146/. By the end of the 9th century the Scandinavians had occupied a considerable part of the country to the North of the Thames.

The king of Wessex Alfred the Great (849 -99) is renowned for his defence of England against the Danes and for his encouragement of learning. The Danish invasion of Wessex in 871 ended in inconclusive peace, and in 876 the Danes struck again. Based at Athelney, Alfred harassed the enemy until winning, in 878, the great victory at Edington. It is to this period that the probably apocryphal story (told in the 12th-century *Chronicle of St. Neot's*) of Alfred burning the

cakes relates. The subsequent peace with the Danish leader Guthrum gave the Danes control over much of eastern England (*Danelag*), but by 890

Alfred's authority was acknowledged over all the remainder of England.

In the years that followed Edington, Alfred reorganized the *fyrd*, strengthened the system of *burhs* (fortresses), and developed a fleet, which enabled him to repel further Danish invasions in the 890s.

Alfred is largely responsible for the restoration of learning in England after the decay in scholarship, which the Norse raids had accelerated.

By the end of the 10th century, however, the contradictions between the Scandinavians and the English crown had become aggravated, and a new war resulted in the Scandinavians' conquest of the whole country. Thus in 1013 England became a part of the large Scandinavian state. The English King Æthelred II (968 - 1016), a weak and cruel man who got the name of Æthelred the Unready (deriving from the Old English *Redeless*, devoid of counsel), bought the Danes off with money several times and finally fled to France (Normandy) and the Danish King Cnut (Kanute) became the official ruler of England. But the situation did not last long, the Danish power failed in 1042.

The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders were well understood by the people of England /Смирницкий 1965, 10/. And as early as in Old English one can observe the impact of the Scandinavian dialects. It goes without saying that that impact was especially strong in the North where the main Scandinavian settlements were situated.

In 1042, when the power of the Anglo-Saxon nobility was restored, Æthelred's son Edward the Confessor (called so because he grew in a monastery and cared more for quiet, learned life) was summoned from Normandy and became the new King of England. Edward the Confessor remained the ruler of the country for about a quarter of a century - until his death in 1066. The year of Edward's death was to appear a turning point in the English history. 1066 has entered the annals as the year of the Norman Conquest, which for the history of the English language was the event marking the transition to a new period - Middle English.

It is said that Edward promised his cousin, William of Normandy, who visited him in 1051, that the latter would be King of England. Normans were descendants of vikings, to be more exact, of Danes, who had settled in the 9th century (after King Alfred victory over them in 896) on the territory of France (the lower Seine) later called Normandy. They had sworn allegiance to the French king Karl (Charlemagne's grandson), adopted Christianity, took on the French language and Romanic customs.

In 1066, with the backing of the papacy, William claimed his right and landed an invasion force at Pevensey, Sussex. He defeated and killed his rival, King Harold, at Hastings in October 1066 and then formally accepted the kingdom at Berkhamsted before being crowned in Westminster Abbey at Christmas Day.

The Norman conquest was not, however, complete. William faced a number of English revolts during the years 1067 to 1071, which he effectively, if ruthlessly, crushed. Furthermore, the subjection of the new kingdom involved the introduction of Norman personnel and social organization (feudalism), as well as administrative and legal practices. The effect of the conquest on English culture was considerable. William's reign witnessed reforms in the church under his trusted adviser Lanfranc, who became archbishop of Canterbury in 1070, and, most notably, the compilation of the *Domesday Book* (1086) – the book containing lists of population of Britain.

1066 shook Britain. After the Norman Conquest English was no longer the state language of England. At court, in the universities, in all the official spheres English was superseded by French, the language of the conquerors. English remained the language of the peasantry and the urban poor. English was changing under the influence of French soaking up French words and morphemes. Of course, it took time for the new elements to get absorbed in the English language.

4. Old English Literary Documents

The oldest documents of English literature are represented by inscriptions on pieces of handicraft and cult objects. Among the oldest inscriptions of this kind it is necessary to mention first of all the famous Frank's box and the Ruthwell cross. Frank's box is made of whale bone and has the following alliterated rhyme on it:

hronæs ban fisc flodu ahof on ferg-enberi warþ gastri grom he on greut giswon which has been deciphered by R. Page as follows: "The fish beat up the sea(s) on the mountainous cliff. The king of terror became sad when he swam of the shingle." /Blair 1977, 308/.

Frank's box belongs to the middle of the 7th century; the Ruthwell cross is of later origin /Аракин 1965, 21/. The inscriptions on both of them are referred to the Northumbrian dialect and are written in the Runic alphabet. The Runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes. The letters of that alphabet, called Runes, have peculiar form: they are sharp-shaped signs deprived of rounded or horizontal lines. The first six letters of it form another name of the Runic alphabet – FUTHARK. The Runic inscriptions, though having great historic importance, can hardly give a clear notion of the structure of Old English.

Chronologically, the first fuller document of Old English literature is the epic poem "Beowulf", which consists of more than 3000 lines. The poem is supposed to have been originally written in the Mercian or Northumbrian dialect /Rastorguyeva 1963, 66/, but the surviving copy was written in the Wessex dialect and is dated by the 10th century. In

spite of the fact that the poem contains a fantastic, fairy-tale element, that is narrates about monsters and dragons, it quite clearly depicts the court habits of the medieval times, creates the image of a brave warrior-hero. "Beowulf", as J.C. Anderson marks, is by all means the most important document of Old English epic literature. Its importance is not only in the characteristic incarnation of the ideal of the Germanic warrior, it is the only sample of the Old English heroic epic poetry which has survived in the complete form /Anderson 1966, 63 - 64/.

Another oldest literary document written in the Northumbrian dialect is the text of Cædmon's hymn found on a page of an 8th century manuscript /Sweet 1957, 148/. The documents belonging to the same period are Cynewulf's poetic works such as "The Traveler's Song", "The Wanderer of the Seas" and "The Pilgrim". Cynewulf's works full of deep feelings may be not only of historic interest to us, they may be regarded as genuine pieces of poetry.

The dialect which is very well represented in Old English literature is the Wessex dialect, on the basis of which the all-national literary language (koine) began to develop in the 9th century. Of greatest historic value are King Alfred's works. King Alfred (see *Who's Who in This History*) was an educated Wessex monarch who lived in 849 - 901. Among the most important works by King Alfred are: the translation of Pope Gregory the First's "Cura Pastoralis" from Latin, the translation of Bede the Venerable's works, the translation of "The World History" by the Spanish monk Orosius and also the rendering of "The Consolation of Philosophy" by the Roman philosopher Boetius. King Alfred's translations have a remarkable peculiarity: we can find in them original fragments written by Alfred himself. Thus, in the translation of "The World History" we can see Alfred's own stories about the trips of Ohthere and Wulfstan, Scandinavian travelers. In those stories we can read about customs and traditions of the peoples who lived in the North of Europe, that is why those fragments are important not only as language samples but also as the sources of historic information.

The Wessex dialect is also represented by the works of Bishop Ælfric who lived on the verge of the 10th and 11th century. Alongside with spiritual literature (like homilies, the translation of the "Old Testament" and "The Lives of the Saints") Ælfric wrote some works of secular character. For a philologist, Ælfric's "Grammar" and "Glossary of the English Language" are sure to be of special interest.

A work which is very important for the study of the history of English is "The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle". The first surviving fragments of the Chronicle belong to the 7th century, the last to the middle of the 12th century. The oldest part of "The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle" was written in the Early Wessex dialect /Смирницкий 1955, 29/.

The Mercian and Kentish dialects are represented in Old English literature by fewer works.

In the Mercian dialect there survived some spiritual hymns and a number of glosses, i.e. Old English notes on the pages of Latin books. Such notes were made to clear up some difficult expressions in the religious texts. The oldest Mercian glosses belong to the 8th century /Смирницкий 1955, 30/.

The Kentish dialect is represented by old official documents referring to the 7th century, glosses and two poetic works - a hymn and a psalm.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 1

- 1) How many people speak English in the contemporary world?
- 2) Why is English sometimes spoken of as the "20th century Latin"?
- 3) In how many countries is English the official language?
- 4) What is the genealogical classification of languages?
- 5) Name the groups of the Indo-European family of languages.
- 6) Which languages make separate groups in the Indo-European family of languages?
- 7) Name the subgroups of the Germanic group of languages.
- 8) Which languages belong to the West Germanic subgroup?
- 9) Are the relations of languages based upon belonging of the nations speaking those languages to the same race?
- 10) Give the formulation of J.Grimm's law.
- 11) Explain the relation between the Russian word **болото** and English **pool** from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
- 12) Explain the relation between the Lithuanian word **pirmas** 'first' and English **first** from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
- 13) Explain the relation between the Latin word **duo** 'two' and English **two** from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
- 14) Explain the relation between the Russian word **три** and English **three** from the point of view of J.Grimm's law.
- 15) Why is the Gothic language of special interest for linguists?
- 16) When did the English language originate?
- 17) Name the Celtic tribes that inhabited Britain before the Roman period.
- 18) Name the Germanic tribes on the dialects of which the English language was based?

- 19) How long did the Roman reign in Britain last?
- 20) Why did the Roman have to leave Britain in the 5th century?
- 21) How did the Roman colonization influence the language of the Celts?
- 22) Who described the Conquest of Britain by the Germanic tribes?
- 23) What group did the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes belong to?
- 24) What helped the formation of the English language on the basis of the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes?
- 25) What was the political situation in Britain after the Germanic Conquest?
- 26) Name the nine Germanic kingdoms which existed on the territory of Britain in the 6th century.
- 27) Which kingdom had the dominating position in the 7th century?
- 28) Which was the most powerful kingdom in Britain in the 8th century?
- 29) Explain the meaning of “Danelag”.
- 30) When did the Scandinavian invasions begin?
- 31) How long did Britain remain a part of the Danish Empire?
- 32) Who became the king of England after the fall of the Danish power?
- 33) When was the Anglo-Saxon power restored?
- 34) Name the periods of the history of the English language.
- 35) Calculate which is the shortest and which is the longest period in the history of the English language.
- 36) What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?
- 37) Name the most important Old English literary documents.
- 38) What did the letters of the Runic alphabet look like?
- 39) What is “Beowulf”?
- 40) Which dialect had become the most important by the end of the Old English period?

Chapter 2. The Phonetic Structure and Spelling in the Old English Language

1. The Phonetic Structure of Old English

In Old English, like in other languages, there were vowels and consonants.

The Old English vowels differed from each other not only by quality (i.e. by articulation), but also by quantity (i.e. by length). The length of vowels is denoted by a line above the corresponding letter, e.g.: a, e, o. You know that in modern English it is also important to distinguish long and short vowels, but such a sound as, for instance, [æ] has no long correspondence in today’s English, like there is no corresponding short vowel to [a:]. The situation in Old English was different: all vowels existed in pairs, i.e. alongside with every short vowel there was a long one having the same articulation. That is why the Old English system of vowels is spoken of as symmetric. As a whole the system of monophthongs in Old English looks like this: [a] [æ] [e] [i] [o] [u] [y] [a/o] [a:] [æ:] [e:] [i:] [o:] [u:] [y:].

This vowel was a positional variant of the short [a] and was pronounced before the consonants [n] and [m]. The vowel [a/o] was articulated as a sound intermediate between [a] and [o]. That is why in the Old English texts we can see the same words spelt in different variants: **land** vs. **lond**, **man** vs. **mon**, **and** vs. **ond**, etc.

Besides the monophthongs, there were four pairs of diphthongs in the vowel system of Old English:

[ea] [eo] [ie] [io]

[ea:] [eo:] [ie:] [io:]

The Old English diphthongs were descending, i.e. the first element was the strong, accented one. The peculiarity of the Old English diphthongs was also in the following: their second element was wider than the first.

The system of consonants included the following sounds:

- labial [p], [b], [m], [f], [v]
- front-lingual [t], [d], [þ], [n], [s], [r], [l]
- velar [k], [g], [h], [ɣ], [ɣ’], [x]

The signs **þ** (**thorn**) and **ð** (**eth**) denoted the voiceless or voiced interdental sound (like in Modern English ‘**thing**’ or ‘**this**’). The letter **g** (yogh) had several meanings; it denoted the hard [g] (like in Modern English ‘**good**’, the palatalized [gʲ] (like in Russian **гиря**), the velar fricative **yogh** (3ogh) (3 3 [gh] (like the Ukrainian [r]), and finally [j] (like in Modern English ‘yes’) (see OE spelling).

Correspondences between the Common Germanic and the Indo-European Phonemes OE vowels were largely of common Germanic origin [Иванова, Чахоян, Беляева 1999: 59]:

Gothic	Old High German	OE
short vowels		
[i] - fisk	[i] – fisc	[i] fisc ‘fish’
[i] - stilan	[e] – stelan	[e] stelan ‘steal’
long vowels		
[a] dags	[a] tac	[æ] dæg ‘day’
[a] dagos	[a] taga	[a] dagas ‘days’
[a] manna	[a] mann	[o] ma(o)nn, mánn
[u] stulans	[o] gistolen	[o] stolen ‘stolen’
[u] fulls	[u] fol	[u] full ‘full’
long vowels		
[i:] leiþan	[i:] li:dan ‘to suffer’	[i:] li:þan ‘to travel’
[e:] sle:pan	[a:] sla:fan	[e:] (Angican dialect) [æ:] (West Saxon dialect) sle:pan, slæ:pan
[ai] stains	[ei] stein	[a:] sta:n ‘stone’
[o:] bro: þar	[uo] bruodar	[o:] bro: þor
[u:] tu:n ‘settlement’	[u:] zu:n	[u:] tu:n ‘town’
diphthongs		
[au:] auk ‘for, bcs’	[ou:] ouch ‘also’	[ea:] ea:c ‘also’
[iu] diups	[io] tiof	[eo:] deo:p ‘deep’

2. Ablaut

The term ‘*ablaut*’ is used to denote the gradation of vowels in the root which “functions as the inner inflection” /Ахманова 1966, 28/. We can find ablaut in many Indo-European languages. For instance, in Russian we can see that in the forms беру - выборы - брал there is gradation **-e-/-o-/zero**.

The typical IE ablaut was E – O – ZERO. The typical OE ablaut was I – A – ZERO.

There was qualitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its quality and quantitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its length.

Qualitative gradation (степени качественного аблаута)

a/o – the full grade, a fully stressed vowel; i/e – the reduced grade, a weakly stressed vowel; zero – the zero grade, an unstressed vowel.

In the Indo-European languages the most widespread was the gradation e-o, e.g. Greek lego (говоря) – logos (слово), Lat. tego: (покрываю) – toga (одежда); Rus. беру – собор – брать; бреду – брод, везу-воз, течь – поток – ткать.

Quantitative gradation (степени количественного аблаута)

e /o – the full grade; e:/o: - the prolonged grade; zero – the zero grade.

E.g. Greek pate’rizō ‘to call a father’ – the full grade; vocative case pa’tēr – the prolonged grade; genitive pat’ros – the zero grade.

Being a phonetic process, ablaut was most associated with the formation of the basic forms of Indo-European strong verbs. Thus, it came to be understood and employed as *a grammatical means of the form building in verbs*.

In the Germanic languages the Indo-European gradation e-o-zero corresponded to the gradation e-a-zero, because I.-E. o = Germ. a; the Indo-European e corresponded in some Germanic languages, O.E. among them, to i: i-a-zero.

For the Germanic languages, including Old English, the ablaut is very important, as it is a means of word-change and word-building.

Ablaut is used in the forms of the so-called strong verbs. Let us compare the four basic forms (the infinitive, the past tense singular, the past tense plural and Participle II) of the Old English verb WRITAN 'to write'.

They are as follows: (1) WRI:TAN 'to write', (2) WRA:T '(he) wrote', (3) WRITON '(they) wrote', (4) WRITEN 'written'. We can see that besides different endings in the forms given above there is the gradation of vowels in the root: **-i/-a/- -zero-zero**.

Now let us take another verb DRINCAN 'to drink' and consider its forms: (1) DRINCAN 'to drink', (2) DRANC '(he) drank', (3) DRUNCON '(they) drank', (4) DRUNCEN 'drunken'. The vowel gradation is different here: **-i/-a/-u(-zero-zero)**.

If we take the corresponding forms of the verb BERAN 'to bear' we shall find a different pattern of gradation: **-e/-æ/-æ/-o(-zero)** (BERAN 'to bear' - BÆR '(he) bore' - BÆRON '(they) bore' - BOREN 'borne').

The different patterns of vowel gradation in the four principal forms give the basis for the classification of the strong verb which we are going to discuss later.

Ablaut may be also seen in the formation of words as a means of word-building /Ильиш 1968, 60/; e.g.:

BELIFAN 'to leave' - LAF 'remainder'

FORLEOSAN 'to lose' - LEAS 'deprived'

BERAN 'to bear' - BÆR 'stretcher'

FARAN 'to travel' - FOR 'journey'

RIDAN 'to ride' - RAD 'road'

SINGAN 'to sing' - SONG 'song'

In spite of the fact that the English language has changed tremendously for the centuries of its existence, some traces of the Old English ablaut still may be found in Modern English. It is ablaut that can help us explain such a phenomenon as the so called 'irregular' verbs. The conventional term 'irregular' does not seem quite correct if we look upon the phenomenon from the historic point of view. Historically, the verbs which form their past tense and Participle II by way of vowel change in the root are quite REGULAR. The traces of ablaut may be also found in the pairs of such words as STRONG - STRENGTH, LONG - LENGTH, SING - SONG, etc. Knowing what ablaut is you will be able to establish the relations between similar words which are not very evidently connected semantically, e.g.: RIDE and ROAD.

3. Phonetic Changes of the Old English Period

The phonetic system never remained unchanged during the Old English period. There were nine main phonetic changes in the Old English language: (1) Old English fracture, (2) diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonants, (3) umlaut, (4) lengthening of vowels under certain conditions, (5) voicing and unvoicing of fricatives, (6) palatalization of consonants and development of sibilants, (7) metathesis (метатеза – взаимная перестановка звуков или слогов в пределах слова), (8) assimilation of consonants, (9) doubling and falling out of consonants.

Let us discuss each phenomenon in detail.

VOWEL CHANGES:

1) The Old English fracture is a change of the short vowels [æ] and [e] into diphthongs before some groups of consonants, when [æ] turned into the diphthong [ea] and [e] into the diphthong [eo]. Such diphthongization took place when [æ] or [e] was followed by the combination of [r], [l] or [h] with any other consonant or when the word ended in [h]. E.g.: *ærm > earm 'arm; poor', *æld > eald 'old', *æhta > eahta 'eight', *sæh > seah 'saw', *herete > heorte 'heart', *melcan > meolcan 'to milk', *selh > seolh 'seal', *feh > feoh 'property'.

2) Diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonants or PALATALIZATION of vowels took place when the vowel was preceded by the initial /j/ or /kʰ/ and /skʰ/: **g-, c-, sc-**. It had two stages /Смирницкий 55, 122/. Originally as a result of the palatalization of the consonants there appeared an ascending diphthong (i.e. a diphthong with the second element stressed), and then, according to the English phonetic norm, the ascending diphthong turns into a usual descending one; e.g.: /e/ > /ie/ > /ie:/; /o/ > /eo/ > /eo/. If we drop the transitional stage (the ascending variant of the diphthong), the general process of diphthongization may be presented as follows:

[a] > [ea] [e:] > [ie:]

[a:] > [ea:] or [eo:] [o] > [eo]

[æ] > [ea] [o:] > [eo:]

[æ:] > [ea:] [u] > [io] (in the 9th c. [io] > [eo])

[e] > [ie] [u:] > [io:] (in the 9th c. [io:] > [eo:])

As a result of this change new words with diphthongs appeared in the Old English language ; e.g.:

*scacan > sceacan ‘to shake’, *scawian > sceawian ‘to see’, *scamu > sceamu or sceomu ‘shame’, *gæf > geaf ‘gave’, *gær > gear ‘year’, *sceld > sciold ‘shield’, *ge > gie ‘you’, *scort > sceort ‘short’, *scop > sceop ‘created’, *gung > giong > geong ‘young’, *gutan > giotan > geotan ‘to pour’.

3) Umlaut is a change of the vowel caused by partial assimilation with the following vowel in the word /Ильиш 1973, 48/. Umlaut, as V. M. Zhirmunsky writes, is a Germanic, but not proto-Germanic phenomenon: we do not see it in the oldest documents of Germanic languages /Жирмунский 1960, 314/. In Old English it is necessary to distinguish the front-lingual umlaut (the change of the vowel under the influence of the following [j]) and the velar umlaut (the change of the vowel under the influence of the following [u], [o] or [a]). A phenomenon similar to umlaut takes place as well before the consonant /h/ /Ильиш 1973, 50/.

In the i-umlaut (i-mutation, front-lingual umlaut, палатальная или переднеязычная перегибословка) both monophthongs and diphthongs are involved. This phenomenon implies the fronting and narrowing of back vowels under the influence of the following [j]. The change of the vowels in that case is as follows:

[a] > [e], e.g.: *sandian > sendan ‘to send’

[a] > [æ], e.g.: *larian > læran ‘to teach’

[æ] > [e], e.g.: *tælian > tellan ‘to tell, to count’

[o] > [e], e.g.: *ofstian > efstan ‘to hurry’

[o] > [e], e.g.: *wopian > wepan ‘to weep’

[u] > [y], e.g.: *fullian > fyllan ‘to fill’

[u] > [y], e.g.: *ontunian > ontynan ‘to open’

[ea] > [ie], e.g.: *hleahian > hliehhan ‘to laugh’

[ea] > [ie], e.g.: *hearian > hieran ‘to hear’

[eo] > [ie], e.g.: *afeorian > afierran ‘to move’

[eo] > [ie], e.g.: *getreowi > getriewe ‘true’

The mechanism of the front-lingual umlaut can be seen very well in the examples above: the vowel [i] in the ending of the word influences the root vowel in such a way that the latter becomes narrower, while the sound [i] itself as a rule disappears.

The degrees of comparison in some adjectives; e.g.:

STRA(O)NG ‘strong’ - STRENGRA ‘stronger’ (*strangiza) - STRENGEST ‘strongest’ (*strangist)⁴

LA(O)NG ‘long’ - LENGRA ‘longer’ (*langiza) - LENGEST ‘longest’ (*langist)

EALD ‘old’ - IELDRA ‘older’ (*ealdiza) - IELDEST ‘oldest’ (*ealdist)

The velar umlaut

The velar umlaut means the diphthongization of front vowels under the influence of back vowels in the following syllable. In case of the velar umlaut the following changes take place:

[a] > [ea], e.g.: *saru > searu ‘armour’

[e] > [eo], e.g.: *hefon > heofon ‘heaven’

[i] > [io], e.g.: *sifon > siofon ‘seven’

The phonetic changes before the consonant /h/ are characterized, as some scholars notice, by certain ambiguity /Ильиш 1973, 50/. As a result of this change the Old English word *næht, for instance, develops the following variants: **neht, niht, nyht**; the past form of mag (may) – **meahte – michte, mihte, myhte**.

4) The lengthening of vowels:

a) before the homorganic clusters (гоморганные согласные, образующиеся одним и тем же произносительным органом) **nd, ld, mb** took place in the 9th century. The cause of this phenomenon is not clear enough. The scholars write about its unusual, even enigmatic character /Плоткин 1967, 62; Мифтахова 1964, 6 - 9/. Such words as BINDAN ‘bind’, BUNDEN ‘bound’, CILD ‘child’ began to be pronounced as BI:NDAN, BU:NDEN, CI:LD. But in case there was a third consonant after **nd, ld** or **mb** no lengthening took place, e.g., in the plural form CILDRU ‘children’ the short [i] remains. Vowels were also lengthened when certain consonants following them dropped out:

b) when ‘m, n’ dropped out before ‘f, s, [thorn]’, and ‘n’ dropped out before ‘h’ (the Ingvaeone lengthening of vowels). E.g., *fimf > fi:f, *uns > u:s, *onþer > o:ðer, *þonhte > þo:hte

c) g before ‘d, n’. E.g. *sægde > sæ:de; *frignan > fri:nan

⁴ Here we deal with the quantitative ablaut or the common IE ablaut. Or as Prof. Mezenin maintains, here we have i-mutation.

d) the lengthening of vowels and syllabic contraction due to the falling out of intervocalic [x] and [x'] is a phonetic phenomenon which consists in the elimination of the consonant [h] in the position between two vowels, while those vowels form one phoneme, mainly a long diphthong:

[a] + [h] + vowel > [ea], e.g.: *slahan > slea:n 'to kill'

[e] + [h] + vowel > [eo], e.g.: *sehan > seo:n 'to see'

[i] + [h] + vowel > [eo], e.g.: *tihan > teo:n 'to accuse'

[o] + [h] + vowel > [o], e.g.: *fohan > fo:n 'to catch'

As a result of the contraction, as it can be seen in the examples, the syllable structure of the word changes: disyllabic words become monosyllabic.

The dropping out of 'h' between l and a vowel also caused the diphthongization and lengthening: *seolhas > seo:las 'seals'.

CONSONANT CHANGES:

5) The voicing of fricatives /f - v, þ - ð, s - z/ in the intervocalic position consists in following: in the final position voiceless consonants are fixed, and the in the position between **two** vowels (the intervocalic position) - voiced ones. For example, in the word WIF 'woman' the final consonants was voiceless, but in the same word in the form of the genitive case the letter **f** expressed the voiced sound [v] (**WIFES**). Similarly in the infinitive form of the verb WEORÐAN 'to become' the letter **ð** denoted the voiced sound [ð], while in the past tense form WEARÐ the same letter denoted the voiceless sound [þ]. Likewise, the letter **s** in the infinitive form of the verb CEOSAN 'to choose' was read as the voiced [z], and in the form of the past tense CEAS - as the voiceless [s].

6) Palatalization of consonants and development of sibilants (assibilation) could be observed already in the earliest stage of the Old English language /Ильинш 1958, 54/. The consonant [k'] - in spelling **ch** - in the position before or after the front-lingual vowel changes into the affricate [tʃ]. The combination [sk'] in spelling **sc** changes into the sibilant [ʃh] in any position. In the intervocalic position after a short vowel [k'], as G. Kurath believes, changes into the long sibilant [ch], in other situations - into the usual [S] /Kurath 1956, 439/. The consonant [g'] - in spelling **g** - in the position before or after a front-lingual vowel changes into the affricate [dʒ].

In spelling these phonetic changes found expression only in the Middle English language:

CILD > CHILD 'child',

SCIP > SHIP 'ship',

BRYCG > BRIDGE 'bridge'.

7) Metathesis - this term denotes such a phonetic phenomenon when sounds (consonants and vowels) and sometimes even syllables in a word exchange their places, e.g.: THRIDDA > THIRDA 'third', RYNNAN > IERNAN, IRNAN, YRNAN 'to run', ASCIAN > AXIAN 'to ask', WASCAN > WAXAN 'wash', etc.

8) Assimilation of consonants, i.e. full or partial likening of the consonant to the next consonant in the word is observed in the Old English language rather frequently. Full assimilation can be observed, for instance, in the words WISTE > WISSE 'knew', WIFMAN > WIMMAN 'woman'. Partial assimilation takes place in the following words: STEFN > STEMN 'voice', EFN > EMN 'level'.

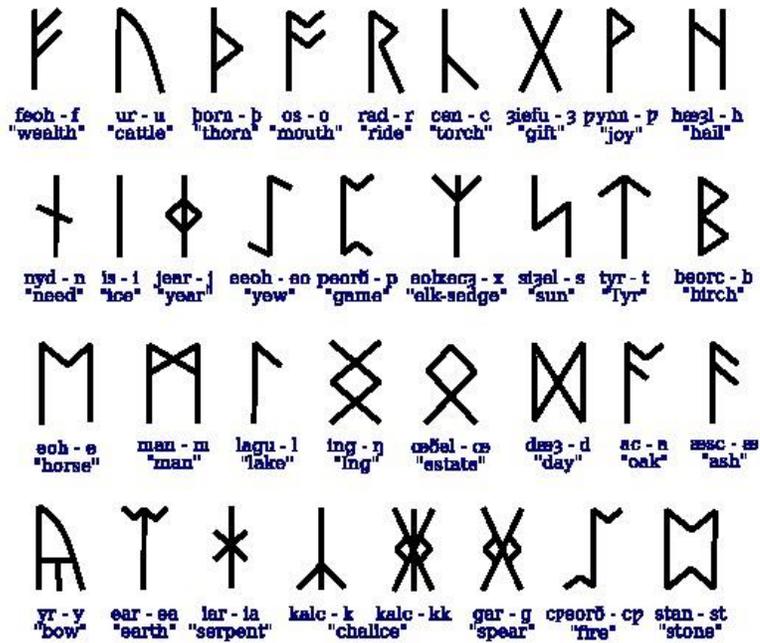
9) The lengthening and doubling of consonants; the falling out of consonants

a) the lengthening and doubling of consonants is connected with i-mutation: the stem-building 'i' or 'j' fell out and the consonant doubled (*TÆLIAN > TÆLLAN);

b) the falling out of consonants is connected with the lengthening of vowels (*SÆGDE [j] > SÆ:DE "said").

4. Old English Spelling

As you remember, in the inscriptions found in the Old English language the Runic alphabet (futhork) was used. Frisian and Anglo-Saxon runes were 29-33 in number, sometimes they were used to designate one letter or a whole word, e.g. 'day' (dagaz), a 'man' (manna), fortune (wynna).



In later and larger documents, the alphabet on the Latin basis was used. As the phonetic structure of the Old English language was considerably different from the Latin phonetic structure, in order to express the sounds which did not exist in Latin some additional signs were introduced into the alphabet.

As a whole the Old English alphabet looked like this:

a æ b c d e f g h I l m n o p r s t þ ð u w x y

The letters **a**, **æ**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**, **y** denoted short and long vowels, and also elements of the diphthongs **ea**, **eo**, **ie**, **io**.

The letter **æ** which denoted the sounds [æ] and [æ:] is a **ligature**, i.e. it was formed by the fusion of the letters **a** and **e**.

The letter **c** ('cēn') unlike in Latin and Modern English denoted the hard consonant /k/ or the palatalized /k'/. The modern reading [si:] of this letter and its reading before front vowels reflects the graphic norms of Old French.

The letter **f** denoted the voiceless /f/ or the voiced /v/. The voiced consonant /v/ was also denoted by the letter **u**.

The letter **yogh** (**ȝogh**) (**ȝ ȝ**), called 'yogh', is of the Irish origin /Williams 1975, 315/. It designated the sounds [g], [ykp. ȝ], [ykp. ȝ'] [j] or [x].

✓ This letter sounded like [g] in the initial position before back vowels (GAN), before and after consonants (GLÆD), after the nasal 'n' (GEONG, SINGAN);

✓ it sounded like the Ukrainian [ȝ] between back vowels (DRAGAN) and after 'r' and 'l' (SORG); it sounded like the Ukrainian [ȝ'] if it was not in the initial position before a front vowel (FOLGIAN, HALGA - saint) or if it was after a front vowel (DÆG);

✓ it sounded like [j] in the initial position before front vowels (GEAR); in some cases in the initial position it reflected the common German [j] (GEONG).

✓ it sounded like [x] in the final position after a back vowel (BEAG)

The combination **cg** designated the geminate or long consonant⁵ [gg'] and in Late Old English as [dʒe], like in the word BRYCG 'bridge'.

The letter **h** denoted the sounds /x/, /x'/ or /h/.

The letter **s** denoted the voiceless /s/ or the voiced /z/.

The letters **þ** and **ð** were equivalent. The letter **þ**, called 'thorn', was borrowed from the Runic alphabet to designate the voiceless interdental /θ/ or the voiced /ð/. Later in the same meaning the letter **ð**, called 'eth' was used. The letter **ð** is a modification of the Latin **d**.

Another letter borrowed from the Runic alphabet was **P** (wyn (ƿ p)). It was called 'wynn' and denoted the bilabial sound [w]. In the XI c. this sound was designated by the double letter **uu** by Norman scribes which was later transformed into the letter **w** (that is why it is called in English 'double u').

It should be also marked that the letters **u** and **v** were not distinguished until the 16th century.

⁵ There were geminates or long consonants in OE which were designated by double consonant letters (offrian – to offer, oððe – or) or by 'cg'.

The letter **x** denoted the consonant cluster [ks] was used mainly in borrowed words.

In individual manuscripts the letters **q**, **z** and the ligature **oe** could be found, but the occasional character of these signs does not give us any ground to include them into the Old English alphabet.

In contemporary editions of the Old English texts some additional signs are also used (diacritic marks).

The letter with the diacritic mark **a** denotes a short vowel intermediate in articulation between /a/ and /o/. This sound appeared before the nasal consonants, e.g.: MANN ‘man’, NAMA ‘name’.

The length of the vowel is denoted by the sign **_** above the letter, e.g.: WRITAN ‘to write’; its shortness may be denoted by the sign **,** e.g.: WRITON ‘(they) wrote’.

In the original manuscripts the length of vowels was denoted by the sign **‘** (‘accent’) or **^** (‘circumflex’).

Instead of the ligature **æ** the sign **ǣ** was also used.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 2

1. How many vowel monophthongs were there in Old English?
2. What does it mean when we say that the Old English system of vowels was symmetric?
3. Explain the fact that in Old English texts we come across such spelling variants as man - mon, land - lond, etc.?
4. How many diphthongs were there in Old English phonetic structure? Name them.
5. Give the definition of ablaut. Write out the four basic forms of the verb writan ‘to write’.
6. Give the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjectives strong, long, eald in Old English. Explain them.
7. Is there historic relation between the modern words road and to ride?
8. Name the nine principal phonetic changes that took place in Old English.
9. What is the Old English fracture?
10. Explain the change *herte > heorte.
11. Explain what is diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonant.
12. Explain the change *scacan > sceacan.
13. Explain the change *scamu > sceamu.
14. Explain the change *scort > sceort.
15. What is umlaut?
16. Explain the change *sandian > sendan.
17. Explain the change *wopian > wepan.
18. Explain the change *fullian > fyllan.
19. What is velar umlaut?
20. Explain the change *slahan > sleon.
21. Explain the change *sehan > seon.
22. Explain the change *tihan > teon.
23. Explain the change *fohan > fon.
24. Explain what is lengthening of vowels before the homorganic clusters.
25. Why do you think the root vowels in modern forms child and children differ?
26. In what instances did voicing and unvoicing of fricatives take place?
27. In what positions did the palatalization of [kʰ] take place?
28. In what positions did the palatalization of [skʰ] take place?
29. Explain the change cild > child.
30. Explain the change scip > ship.
31. What is metathesis?
32. Explain the change yrnan > rynnann.
33. Explain the change ascian > axian.
34. What is the assimilation of consonants?
35. Explain the change wiste > wisse.
36. Explain the change wifman > wimman.
37. What sounds did the letter F denote in Old English?
38. How were the interdental consonants denoted in Old English?
39. Why do you think the letter Z was not used in Old English?

Chapter 3. Lexicon and Word-building in the Old English Language

1. Classification of the Old English Lexicon

Have you ever asked yourself how many words there in the language?

Of course, it is impossible to give an exact answer to this question. The matter is new words appear in the language actually every day. The biggest dictionary in the English-speaking world - Oxford Dictionary - published in 1928 included about half a million words. But only in five years its compilers had to publish an amendment to the dictionary as the process of the creation of new word never stopped. In the spring of 1985, a new amendment was completed. It included the words which have appeared in the English language in the second half of the 20th century. The total number of those newest English words exceeds 60,000.

It is still more difficult to say how many words there were in the Old English language as the surviving documents present only a small part of the Old English lexicon. According to A.I.Smirnitsky's evaluation "the word-stock of the Old English language consisted of several tens of thousands of units. Thus, the vocabulary of Old English was approximately ten times less than that of modern English /Смирницкий 1955, 159/.

The study of the lexicon of any language starts with its classification. The principles of classification may be different. For our material, i.e. for the word-stock of the Old English language, it is expedient to use classification according to three principles: morphological, stylistic and etymological.

The morphological classification is based on the study of the structure of the word. From this point of view words are divided into **simple**, or non-derivative, words, which consist only of the root, **derivative** words, which have in their structure a morphological affix, and **compound** words, which contain two or more roots. Thus, the words FISC 'fish', MYCEL 'big', HEAFOD 'head' are simple ones. The word FISC-ERE 'fisherman' is a derivative one: in its morphological structure there is a suffix with a meaning of the doer of action -ER(E). The word MYCEL-HEAFD-ED-E 'big-headed' is compound as two roots are connected in its structure.

The stylistic classification is based on the division of words into **stylistically neutral** and **stylistically marked**. Stylistically marked vocabulary includes learned words, words the use of which is limited by a definite sphere, for instance, church words or military terms, poetic words, etc. Thus, the words MANN 'man', DÆG 'day', LAND 'land', FARAN 'to travel', SEON 'to see', DRINCAN 'to drink', SCEORT 'short' are stylistically neutral. The words FERS 'verse', CIRCUL 'circle', DECLINIAN 'to decline' belong to the learned words (it may be noticed that all of them are borrowed words). The words BISCOP 'bishop', CLERIC 'clergyman', DEOFOL 'devil' belong to the church sphere. The poetic vocabulary is richly presented in the poem 'Beowulf', e.g.: BEADO-RINC 'hero-warrior', HELM-BEREND 'bearing a helmet', GLEO-BEAM 'tree of joy, harp' etc.

The etymological classification is based on the origin of words. From the point of view of this classification it is important to know whether the word belongs to the original, long-standing, vocabulary in the language or whether it is a loan-word, i.e. was borrowed from another language. If it is a loan-word it is necessary to establish from what language and at what historic period it was borrowed. If the word belongs to the original vocabulary it is important to establish whether it has parallels in other Germanic or other Indo-European languages.

Examples of words belonging to different etymological groups are given below.

Indo-European Words. FÆDER 'father', MODOR 'mother', NEOWE 'new', SITTAN 'to sit', HEAFOD 'head'.

Germanic Words. EORTHE 'earth', LAND 'land', EARM 'poor', FINDAN 'to find', HAND 'hand', HORS 'horse'.

Specific English Words. CLIPIAN 'to call', BRID 'nestling', BOY 'boy', GIRLE 'girl', HLAFDIGE 'lady', HLAFORD 'lord', DÆGES EAGE 'day's eye, daisy'.

Borrowed Words. STRÆT 'road', WEALL 'wall', MYLN 'mill', BISCOP 'bishop'.

2. Indo-European Vocabulary in the Old English Language

Many words in different Indo-European languages originate from the common Proto-Indo-European root. Among such words we can very often find words denoting family relation (mother, brother, daughter, etc.), numerals, words denoting day and night and others /Rozendorn 1967, 83/. Here also belong the words which denote vitally important processes (to eat, to sleep, etc.).

It is only natural that the words ascending to the same Indo-European root for an inexperienced person are not easy to identify. Compare, for example, the modern English word FIRST and Lithuanian PIRMAS, or English SLEEP and Russian СЛЯБЫЙ. The outward similarity of those words may be not very evident but still their relation is an established fact. To judge about the belonging of these or those words to the Indo-European vocabulary, one has to trace the history of the words taking into account all the changes that took place in different periods of the language evolution. To find the scientific grounds of the genetic relation of words linguists use the **comparative-historic method**. This method which was worked out in the 19th century is a reliable insurance against various errors that may happen for the simple reason that words in different languages have external similarity. L.Bloomfield in his book "Language" gives an interesting example. In the New Greek language the word /'mati/ means 'eye'; in the Malayan language the word /mata/

has the same meaning. The common meaning and the outward similarity of the form seem to testify the relation of those words. But the historic analysis indicates that any genetic relation between those words is impossible /Bloomfield 1968, 328 -329/.

Let us discuss several examples of words belonging to the Indo-European vocabulary in the Old English language.

The word **FÆDER** 'father' has the following parallels in Indo-European languages: Latin **PATER**, Greek **PATER**, Sanskrit **PITAR**. We know now that the correspondence of the Germanic [f] to the Indo-European (non-Germanic) [p] has a regular character (J.Grimm's law). So the phonetic identity and common meaning testify that the word **FÆDER** belongs to the Indo-European vocabulary.

To the same category we can refer the word **MODOR**. In Latin its correspondence is the word **MATER**, in Greek **METER**, in Sanskrit **MATA** (the stem of the oblique cases is **MATAR-**). We can notice that the Russian word **МАТЬ** is closer to the phonetic structure of the corresponding words in other Indo-European languages in the forms of the oblique cases too: **МАТЕРИ, МАТЕРЬ**, etc.

The Old English adjective **FUL** 'full' and the verb derived from the latter **FYLLAN** 'to fill' has relation with the Latin adjective **PLENUS**, Greek **PLEOS** and also with the Russian **ПОЛНЫЙ** (here, like in case with the word **FÆDER**, we can observe the effect of Grimm's law).

The word **STEORRA** 'star' also belongs to the Indo-European vocabulary. In Latin its correspondence is **STELLA**, in Greek **ASTER**.

3. Words of the Germanic Vocabulary and Specific Old English Words

The Germanic vocabulary in Old English includes the words which have parallels in other Germanic languages but have no correspondences in other Indo-European (non-Germanic) languages. These words are fewer in number than the Indo-European words, as the researchers state. According to T.A.Rastorguyeva's evaluation the ratio of the Germanic and Indo-European vocabulary in the Old English language is 1 : 2 /Rastorguyeva, 1983 , 132/. The Germanic vocabulary originated in the period when the Teutonic tribes dwelt on the Continent and spoke the same language. The words of the common Germanic vocabulary are easy to recognize. In the following table you can see some Old English words belonging to the Germanic vocabulary and their parallels in the Old-High-German, Gothic and Old Icelandic languages.

Table # 1
Common Germanic Vocabulary

Old English	Old High German	Gothic	Old Icelandic
earthe 'earth' fox 'fox' hand 'hand' sand 'sand' sceap 'sheep' scip 'ship' stan 'stone' word 'word'	erda fuhs hant sant scaf scif stein wort	airtha - handus - - skip stains waurd	jorth - hond sandr - skip steinn orth

Words belonging to the specific Old English vocabulary, i.e. words having no etymological parallels either in Germanic or in other Indo-European languages, are not numerous. As examples we may consider the verb **CLIPIAN** 'to call' which went out of use in the Middle English period and the noun **BRID** 'nestling' from which the modern word **bird** developed. The list of these words will be enlarged though if derivative and compound words formed on the bases of Germanic and Indo-European elements are included into it /Rastorguyeva 1983, 133/. Thus, the word **WIFMAN** 'woman' (**WIMMAN** being the later form of it) was formed of the Germanic roots **WIF** 'wife' and **MANN**'. The word **HLAFORD** 'lord', which developed into the contemporary **lord**, includes the Indo-European root **HLAF** 'bread' and the Germanic root ascending to the verb **WEARDAN** 'to keep'. The word **HLÆFDIGE** 'lady' has a similar origin. In its morphological structure we can distinguish the root **HLAF** mentioned above and acquiring the form **HLÆF** as a result of umlaut and the Germanic verbal stem **DIG(AN)** 'to mix bread'. Besides the linguistic interest, which the origin of the words **lord** and **lady** presents, it is very interesting to consider the oldest social background which may be discovered in studying the etymology of those words.

4. Borrowed Words

The main source of borrowed word for the Old English language was Latin. The ways of English and Latin often crossed in various historic circumstances. For the Old English period three moments were sufficient. Firstly, the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes had different relations with the Romans who spoke Latin before their invasion into Britain in the 5th century. Secondly, after they had conquered Britain, Angles, Saxons and Jutes communicated with the Celtic population who, as you are sure to remember, had been influenced by the Roman culture and the Latin language.

Thirdly, since the end of the 6th century Britain has been a Christian country, and Latin was language of church and theology in Western Europe.

The three moments mentioned above determine the **three layers** of Latin borrowings in the Old English language which differ in time and the character of the borrowed words.

The first layer belongs to the period when the Old English language did not yet actually exist. The Latin words that had taken root in the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes later naturally passed in into the new language community which we call now Old English after the Germanic tribes had settled in Britain.

What kind of words were they?

First of all those were names of objects of material culture and names of goods that the Germanic people bought from Romans on the Continent /Ильиш 1968, 79/.

From the Latin expression **strata via** ‘cobbled road’ the first element was borrowed, and the word **STRÆT** acquired the meaning ‘road’ (of any kind). We can notice that in New English the word **street** which developed from the Old English **STRÆT** has changed its meaning. The Latin **vallum** ‘fortress wall’ gave birth to the Old English **WEALL** ‘wall’. The Latin **coquina** ‘kitchen’ was borrowed in the Old English form **CYCENE** (with the same meaning). The Latin **molinum** ‘mill’ was transformed in Old English as **MYLN**.

Names of many goods in Old English were of Latin origin, e.g.:

Latin **vinum** ‘wine’ > Old English **WIN** ‘wine’

Latin **piper** ‘pepper’ > Old English **PIPOR** ‘pepper’

Latin **ceresia** ‘cherry’ > Old English **CYRSE** ‘cherry’

Latin **sinapi** ‘mustard’ > Old English **SENEP** ‘mustard’

Latin **caseus** ‘cheese’ > Old English **CYSE** ‘cheese’

Latin **caulis** ‘cabbage’ > Old English **CAWL** ‘cabbage’

Many words which denote things of household and everyday life also have come from Latin, e.g.:

Latin **discus** ‘disc’ > Old English **DISC** ‘dish’

Latin **cuppa** ‘cup’ > Old English **CUPPE** ‘cup’

Latin **catillus** ‘pot’ > Old English **CYTEL** ‘pot, kettle’

Latin **amphora** ‘bowl’ > Old English **AMBOR** ‘bucket’

Latin **saccus** ‘sack’ > Old English **SÆC** ‘sack’

Latin **cista** ‘chest’ > Old English **CISTE** ‘chest, box’

It is interesting to consider how the Latin word **uncia** ‘1/12 part of the measure’ was transformed in the process of borrowing in Old English. In the Old English language that word appeared in the form **YNCE** and had two meanings: ‘ounce’ and ‘inch’. But later the word developed in two variants with each of which a separate meaning was associated.

The second layer of Latin borrowed words in Old English is connected with the interception of some language elements by Angles, Saxons and Jutes from conquered Celts. As an example of such a borrowing we can consider the word **CROSS** from the Latin **crux** /Rastorguyeva 1983, 134/. A considerable number of toponyms adopted by the Germanic invaders from Celts included the element **CEASTRE** or **CESTRE** from the Latin **castra** ‘camp, military settlement’ and **PORT** from the Latin **portus** ‘port, harbour’. These toponyms survive in modern English, e.g.: *Davenport, Gloucester, Lancaster, Manchester, Winchester, Worcester*, etc.

The third layer of Latin borrowings which is connected with the introduction of Christianity in Britain is naturally limited semantically: it comprises the words having relation to religion, theology, the Holy Bible and the life of the church. The peculiarity of those words is that they are mainly of Greek origin, but it is important to keep in mind that all those words have entered the Old English lexicon through Latin, that is why they should be considered borrowings from the Latin language. Some examples of those words are given below:

Greek **aggelos** ‘messenger’ > Latin **angelus** ‘angel’ > O.E. **ANGEL** ‘angel’

Greek **diabolos** ‘devil’ > Latin **diabolus** ‘devil’ > O.E. **DEOFOL** ‘devil’

Greek **episkopos** ‘bishop’ > Latin **episcopus** ‘bishop’ > O.E. **BISCOP** ‘bishop’

A special group of borrowings includes the so called loan translations, or calques. Calques are words and word-combinations that preserve the structure of the original but the elements of which were translated into the Old English language. In this respect it is interesting to consider the Old English names of the days of the week. The Latin names of the days of the week were devoted to the Sun, the Moon or the gods of the Græco-Roman Olympus. The word consisted of the name of the god in the Genitive case and the word **dies** ‘day’. In the Old English language the same pattern was used, with the exclusion that the names of Roman gods were replaced by the names of god of the Germanic mythology, as can be seen in the table below:

Table # 2

Names of the Days of the Week

	<i>Latin</i>		<i>Old English</i>	
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Monday	Lunæ dies	Day of Moon	Monan-dæg	Day of Moon
Tuesday	Martis dies	Day of Mars	Tiwes-dæg	Day of Tiu
Wednesday	Mercuri dies	Day of Mercury	Wodnes-dæg	Day of Woden
Thursday	Iovis dies	Day of Jupiter	Thunres-dæg	Day of Thuner
Friday	Veneris dies	Day of Venus	Frige-dæg	Day of Friya
Saturday	Saturni dies	Day of Saturn	Sætern-dæg	Day of Saturn
Sunday	Solis dies	Day of Sun	Sunnan-Dæg	Day of Sun

Words borrowed from other languages (besides Latin) were not many in the Old English language.

A limited number of words entered the Old English language from the Celtic language, e.g.: **BINN** 'manger', **BRATT** 'cloak', **DUN** 'grayish-brown'.

The modern adverb **down** is also of Celtic origin. The Old English word **DUN** 'hill, dune' was borrowed from the Celtic language. The expression **OF DUNE** had the meaning 'down the hill, downwards'. Later this expression developed into the contemporary adverb. The name of the town of **LONDON** (Lat. Londinium) originates from Celtic Llyn + dun in which llyn is another Celtic word for "river" and dun stands for "a fortified hill", the meaning of the whole being "fortress on the hill over the river".

5. Word-building. Derivative Words .

In the Old English language two main means of word-building may be distinguished: (1) affixation word-building, i.e. the formation of words from the roots existing in the language with help of suffixes and/or prefixes; (2) the formation of new words by merging two or more roots (stem-combination). Words produced by the first means are called **derivative**. Words formed by the second means are called **compound**.

Let us first consider the main suffixes of nouns in the Old English language.

The suffix **-ere** was used to denote a man's occupation, e.g.: **FISCERE** 'fisherman' from the word **FISC** 'fish'.

The suffix **-estre** was used in the words denoting a woman's occupation, e.g.: **BÆCESTRE** 'cook' from the verb **BÆCAN** 'to cook, to bake'.

The suffix **-nd** had the broad meaning of a doer, e.g.: **FREO:ND** 'friend'.

The suffix **-ing** was used for the formation of nouns denoting belonging to a kin, e.g.: **CYNING** 'king'. The original meaning of this word as we can see was 'one of the kin, belonging to the kin' - from the common Germanic root ***cun-** 'kin'.

The suffix **-ling** was used as diminutive, e.g.: **DEO:RLING** 'darling'.

With the help of the suffix **-en** nouns of the feminine gender could be formed. For example, it was possible to produce the noun of the feminine gender **GYDEN** 'goddess' from the noun of the masculine gender **GOD** 'god'.

The suffix **-nis, -nes** was used for the formation of abstract nouns from adjectives, e.g.: **GO:DNIS** 'goodness' from the adjective **GO:D** 'good, kind'.

The suffix **-u** had a similar meaning, e.g.: **LENGU** 'length' from the adjective **LONG** 'long'.

The suffixes **-þ, -uþ, -oþ** was used to form nouns denoting abstract notions and also different kind of human activity, e.g.: **FISCOD** 'fishing'.

The suffix **-do:m** was used in the structure of some nouns of abstract semantics denoting state, e.g.: **WISDO:M** 'wisdom', **FREO:DO:M** 'freedom'.

The suffix **-had** was used in words denoting state or title, e.g.: **CILDHAD** 'childhood'.

Let us further consider the main suffixes of adjectives.

The suffix **-ihte** was used to produce adjectives from the substantive stem and denoted incomplete quality, e.g.: **STÆNIHTE** 'stony' from the noun **STAN** 'stone'.

The suffix **-ig** was also used to form an adjective from the substantive stem, e.g.: **MISTIG** 'misty' from the noun **MIST** 'mist'.

The suffix **-en** was used to produce adjectives of material meaning, e.g.: **GYLDEN** 'golden' from the noun **GOLD** 'gold'.

The suffix **-isc** was used in words denoting belonging to a nationality, e.g.: **ENGELISC** 'English', **FRENCISC** 'French'.

The suffix **-sum** had a very broad meaning and was used in adjectives formed from the substantive stem, e.g.: **SIBSUM** 'peaceful' from the noun **SIBB** 'peace'.

The suffix **-feald** denoted multiplication, e.g.: **SEOFONFEALD** 'sevenfold' from the numeral **SEOFON** 'seven'.

The suffix **-full** denoted the completeness of the quality, e.g.: **SYNNFULL** ‘sinful’ from the noun **SYNN** ‘sin’, **CARFULL** ‘careful’ from the noun **CARU** ‘care’.

The suffix **LEAS** had negative meaning, e.g.: **SLÆPLEAS** ‘sleepless’.

With the help of the suffix **-lic** it was possible to produce various adjectives from substantive stems, e.g.: **FREONDLIC** ‘friendly’, **LUF LIC** ‘lovely’.

The suffix **-weard** denoted direction, e.g.: **HAMWEARD** ‘directed to or facing the house’.

Now let us consider the suffixes of verbs. Compared with the suffixes of nouns and adjectives they are not numerous. The semantics of the verbal suffixes is not always clear enough, sometimes it is difficult to determine. For the sake of convenience we shall consider the suffixes of the verbs together with the inflection of the infinitive.

The suffix **-sian** had causative meaning, e.g.: **CLÆ:NSIAN** ‘to clean’ from the adjective **CLÆNE** ‘clean’.

The semantics of the suffix **-læcan** was vague. Here is an example with this suffix: **NEA:LÆCAN** ‘to approach’ from the word **NEA:H** ‘near’.

The suffix **-ettan** was used to denote the repeated character of the action, e.g.: **BLICCETTAN** ‘to sparkle’, **SPORETTAN** ‘to spur’, **COHHETTAN** ‘to cough’, **CEAHHETTAN** ‘to caw’.

Finally let us consider prefixes in the Old English language.

The prefix **a:-** was used with the verbal stems and denoted transition into a different state, e.g.:

A:WACAN ‘awake’.

The prefix **a-**, homonymous to the latter, was used with adverbial stems and had collective meaning, e.g.: **AHWÆR** ‘everywhere’ from the word **HWÆR** ‘where’.

The prefix **be-** had the meaning of the concentration of the action around a particular object, e.g.:

BETHENCAN ‘to think over’.

The prefix **ge-** denoted the collective character of the action **GEFERA** ‘fellow traveler’.

The homonymous prefix **ge-** used with verbal stems had an aspective meaning and denoted the completion of the action, e.g.: **GESEON** ‘to see (to have seen)’.

The prefix **for-** was associated with the meaning of destruction or loss, e.g.: **FORWEORTHAN** ‘to perish’.

The prefix **mis-** expressed negation, e.g.: **MISLICIAN** ‘to dislike’.

The prefix **of-** intensified the meaning of the verb, e.g.: **OFSLEAN** ‘to murder’ from the word **SLEAN** ‘to kill’.

The prefix **on-** was used to denote bringing back to the previous state, e.g.: **ONBINDAN** ‘to untie’.

The prefix **to:-** was used in the structure of the verbs with the meaning of destruction, e.g.:

TO:BRECAN ‘to break’.

The prefix **un-** expressed negation, e.g.: **UNCU:Ð** ‘unknown’. The prefix **wan-** also had negative meaning, e.g.: **WANHAL** ‘unhealthy’.

In adverbs one should mention the suffix **-li:ce**: **FREO:NDLICE**; **EORNOSTLI:CE** (серьзно).

Word-building. Compound Words

The main types of compound words in the Old English language could be formed according to the following patterns:

1) **Noun stem + noun stem > noun**. For example, as a result of combination of the substantive stems **BOC-** ‘book’ and **CRÆFT** ‘art’ there appeared the word **BOC-CRÆFT** ‘literature’. The complex word **EORTH-CRÆFT** ‘geography’ has a similar structure, its first element **EORTH-** having the meaning ‘earth’. The word **GAR-WIGA** ‘lance-carrier’ is composed of the stems **GAR-** ‘lance’ and **WIGA** ‘warrior’. Complex words of this type are numerous: **GIMMSTAN** ‘precious stone’, **GUD-GEWINN** ‘competition of warriors’, **GUD-RINC** ‘warrior’, **GUDWINE** ‘companion’, **HEAFOD-MANN** ‘chief’, **HYRN-WIGA** ‘warrior’, **LEOD-CRÆFT** ‘poetry’.

1) **Noun stem with a case inflection + noun stem > noun**. As the first component of the complex words of this type a case form of the noun (mainly the Genitive case singular or plural) was used. Thus, in the name of the city **BIRMGAHAM** ‘Birmingham’ (which literally means ‘home of Birminings’) the first element **BIRMGAH-** is the form of the Genitive case plural. In the word **DÆGES-EAGE** ‘daisy’ the component **DÆGES-** is the form of the Genitive case singular of the noun **DÆG** ‘day’. So the literal meaning of the name of this flower is ‘the eye of the day’. (See also the Old English names of the days of the week in Section 4).

2) **Noun stem + adjective stem > adjective**. Thus, the complex word **CILD-GEONG** ‘childish’ consists of the substantive stem **CILD-** ‘child’ and the adjective stem **GEONG** ‘young’. In the word **DOM-GEORU** ‘ambitious’ it is easy to differentiate the substantive element **DOM-** ‘dignity, honour’ and the adjective element **GEORU** ‘wishing, eager’. The word **GOLD-FAH** ‘shot with gold’ consists of the stem **GOLD-** ‘gold’ and **FAH** ‘parti-colored’. Here are some examples that are clear enough: **HAM-CYME** ‘one who returned home’, **IS-CEALD** ‘ice-cold’, **MOD-CEARIG** ‘sad’.

3) **Adjective stem + noun stem > noun.** As examples of the words produced in this pattern we can consider the nouns **CWIC-SEOLFOR** 'quicksilver, mercury', **GOD-DÆD** 'feat, deed' (literally: 'good doing'), **HALIG-DÆG** 'holiday' (literally: 'holy day'). This group also includes such words as **NEAH-GEBUR** 'neighbour' (literally: 'living nearby') and **WID-SÆ** 'open sea, ocean' (literally: 'wide sea').

4) **Adjective stem + noun stem > adjective.** Alongside with the nouns formed from adjective and substantive stems there were adjectives produced in the same pattern in Old English.

Thus, from the stems **FAMI-** 'foamy' and **HEALS** 'neck' the complex adjective **FAMI-HEALS** 'foaming the waters' (literally: 'with foam around the neck') was produced. From the adjective stem **MILD-** 'mild' and the substantive stem **HEORT** 'heart' the complex adjective **MILDHEORT** 'mild-hearted' was formed. As a result of connection of the stems **STIÐ-** 'strong' and **MOD** 'character' there appeared the word **STIÐ-MOD** 'brave'.

5) **Adjective stem + noun stem + suffix -EDE > adjective.** This pattern is different from the ones described above as the connection of the adjective and substantive stems is produced with the help of the suffix **-EDE**. The complex adjectives of this pattern are usually denoted by the Sanskrit term *bahuvrihi*. As an example of the bahuvrihi pattern we can consider the word **MICELHEAFDEDE** 'big-headed' in which the adjective stem **MICEL-** 'big' is connected with the substantive stem **HEAF(O)D** 'head'. The word **AN-HYRNEDE** 'one-horned' is formed in a similar way. We can notice that the bahuvrihi pattern exists in the New English language as well (cf. **bigheaded**, **one-eyed**, etc.).

6) **Noun stem + participle stem > noun.** For example, the connection of the substantive stem of Latin origin **CEASTER-** 'castle' and the participle **BUEND** 'living' the word **CEASTERBUEND** 'inhabitant of the castle' was formed. The complex word made of the substantive stem **FLETT-** 'home' and the participle **SITTEND - FLETT-SITTEND** - had the meaning 'guest'.

The word **GAR-BEREND** had the meaning 'lance-carrier' (it was based on the stems **GAR-** 'lance' and **BEREND** 'carrying'. Similarly such words were produced as **LIND-HÆBBEND** 'shield-carrier' and **SÆ-LIÐ** 'mariner' (literally: 'traveling on seas').

7) **Verb stem + noun stem > noun.** The words produced in this pattern are not numerous. As an example of such a word we can take the noun **BÆC-HUS** 'bakery' based on the verbal stem **BÆC-** 'to bake' and the substantive stem **HUS** 'house'.

8) **Adverb stem + noun stem > noun.** The words of this pattern are very few. One of such words is, for example, **INN-GANG** 'entrance' which is based on the adverb stem **INN** 'inside' and the substantive stem **GANG** 'pass'.

9) **Adjective stem + adjective stem > adjective.** Among the words of this pattern there are such adjectives as **WID-CUD** 'widely known' and **FELA-MODIG** 'brave'.

10) **Noun stem + noun stem > adverb.** The characteristic feature of the complex words of this pattern is the fact that the second substantive element is usually used in the form of the Dative case plural (with the inflection **-um**). E.g.: **STYCCE-MÆLUM** 'here and there' based on the stems **STYCC-** 'piece' and **MÆL** 'time'; **DROP-MÆLUM** 'drop by drop' based on the stems **DROP-** 'drop' and **MÆL**.

Preposition + noun stem > adverb. Among the words of this pattern we can consider, for example, **ONWEG** 'away' based on the preposition **ON** 'in' and the substantive stem **WEG** 'way'; **TO-EACAN** 'in addition' based on the preposition **TO** 'to' and the stem **EAC** 'addition'.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 3

1. How many words were there in the Old English lexicon according to Professor A.I.Smirnitsky's evaluation?
2. Name the three main principles of the classification of the lexicon.
3. What is the morphological classification of the lexicon?
4. What is the stylistic classification of the lexicon?
5. What is the etymological classification of the lexicon?
6. Give five examples of *simple* words in Old English.
7. Give five examples of *derivative* words in Old English.
8. Produce the morphological analysis of the word **mycelheafdede**.
9. Give five examples of stylistically marked words in Old English.
10. Why is important to look for parallels of Old English words in other Germanic or Indo-European languages?
11. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Indo-European lexicon.
12. Give three examples of Old English words belonging to the common Germanic lexicon.
13. Give three examples of words belonging to the specific English lexicon.
14. Give ten examples of borrowed words in Old English.

15. What is *the Comparative-Historic Method*?
16. Why is it impossible to rely upon the outer similarity in establishing the genetic relations between words?
17. What confirms that the English word **first**, Russian **первый** and Lithuanian **pirmas** belong to the same Indo-European root?
18. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word **stella**?
19. What is the Old English correspondence for the Latin word **mater**?
20. What is the correspondence of the Old English word **hand** in other Germanic languages?
21. What is the correspondence of the Old English word **stan** in other Germanic languages?
22. What is the correspondence of the Old English word **word** in other Germanic languages?
23. What is the origin of the word **lord**?
24. What were *the three layers* of Latin borrowings in Old English?
25. Why were there Latin words in the dialects of Angles, Saxons and Jutes before they conquered Britain?
26. What is the origin of the word **street**?
27. What is the origin of the word **cheese**?
28. What is the origin of the word **kettle**?
29. What is the origin of the word **sack**?
30. Give five examples of English geographical names with the Latin element **castra**?
31. What is the origin of the word **angel**?
32. What is the origin of the word **devil**?
33. What is the origin of the word **bishop**?
34. What is *a loan translation*?
35. Compare the structure of the word 'Monday' in Old English and Latin.
36. Compare the structure of the word 'Friday' in Old English and Latin.
37. Give three examples of Celtic borrowings in English.
38. Analyze the morphological structure of the Old English word **fiscere**?
39. What is the origin of the word **darling**?
40. What is the origin of the word **childhood**?

Chapter 4. Grammar of the Old English Language

1. Grammatical Structure of the Old English Language

The grammatical structure of the Old English language is substantially different from that of contemporary English.

The modern English language is considered to be **predominantly analytical**, as many grammatical forms are built with help of various auxiliary words, i.e. **analytically**.

In the Old English language such forms were few and they were seldom used. The main means of expressing grammatical relations was with the help of inflections. That is why the Old English language is qualified as **predominantly synthetic**.

Like other Germanic languages Old English had a developed system of parts of speech.

The nominal parts of speech, i.e. nouns, adjectives, numerals, pronouns, had a system of declension.

The verb had a system of conjugation. Besides in the verbal paradigm there were declined non-finite forms: infinitive, Participle I and Participle II.

The main forms of the verb were: the Infinitive, the Past Singular, the Past plural form, the Past Participle.

Prepositions and conjunctions that were used for the connection of words and groups of words in the sentence belong to auxiliary parts of speech.

Besides the prepositions and conjunctions there was another auxiliary part of speech - particle /Ильиш 1958, 66/.

As in the Old English language there existed a developed system of cases which expressed the function of the word in the sentence and the relations between the words, Old English syntax was somewhat different than that of the contemporary English. The order of words in the sentence was much freer: the sentence could start with the adverbial modifier or object, while the subject could follow the predicate.

Old English possessed a rather developed morphological system, made up of synthetic grammatical forms. It had the following means of word and form-building:

1. grammatical endings, used with all the inflected parts of speech
2. sound alternations of vowels in the root morpheme, used in verbs, nouns and adjectives
3. grammatical prefixes, used in verbs

4. suppletive formations, already at that time relics of the past, with a greatly restricted use (to be - was, were - been; wasan, beo:n – was, waron - ben).

No analytical forms existed in Old English.

How did it happen that the grammatical structure of the English language has changed so radically that from a **predominantly synthetical** language it has turned into **predominantly analytical**.

In order to answer this question, it is necessary to study the grammatical changes of all the periods. It should be kept in mind too that the grammatical changes are closely connected with other processes - first of all with the phonetic changes.

The grammatical structure of the Old English language is a kind of a starting point for the study of later changes. But already within the system of the Old English language one can notice those tendencies in grammar that determined the further ways of the development of the language.

2. Noun

Nouns in the Old English language had the forms of gender, number and case. In the noun these categories were independent, while in the adjective and pronoun they were dependent, i.e., they agreed with the corresponding categories of the noun.

Gender forms were three: masculine, feminine and neuter. The difference was more grammatical than semantic: wi:f (wife) – neuter; wi:fman – masculine.

The category of number was represented by 2 numbers – singular and plural.

The four case forms - Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative - expressed various syntactic relations in the sentence. There must have been a fifth case in the pre-written period – the instrumental case. But in the O.E. documents we find only traces of this case, because the Dative and the Instrumental cases had fallen together. Already in O.E. many case-forms were homonymous.

The paradigms of noun declension in the Old English language were various. This or that set of case inflections depended on the stem-forming phoneme, i.e. the sound - vowel or consonant - which characterized the substantive stem. It should be marked that in the written period of the history of the English language these stem-forming phonemes were absorbed by the root of the word or the case inflection, that is why it is practically impossible to identify them in the morphological structure of the Old English noun. Still it is very important to distinguish the nouns with different *stem-forming suffixes for differentiating the declension types*.

Traditionally, the following types of declension were distinguished in O. E. nouns:

1. nouns with vocalic stems (гласные основы) formed the so-called strong declension (the 1. type); a-stems, o:-stems, u-stems and i-stems. There was a further differentiation within a stems and o:-stems of ja- and wa-; jo: and wo:-stems.
2. nouns which originally ended in consonants formed the following groups (consonantal stems): the 2. type – weak (n-) declension; r-stems and nd-stems – the minor consonantal declension.
3. root-stem nouns, which had never had any stem-building suffixes. In these nouns the root and the stem had coincided from the very beginning. It means that the root vowel hadn't been protected from the influence of the following sounds.

The type of the declension determined the paradigm of the endings, it is connected with the category of gender. However, the division into stems didn't coincide with the division into genders. Some types had only 1 or 2 genders (in the a-stem type there were only masculine and neuter genders; in the O:-stem type there was only the feminine gender; u stem had masculine and feminine gender and i-stem embraced all the 3 genders.

Every declension had a specific set of endings; and within it the endings were differentiated according to genders.

The numerical representation of these types of declension by nouns was by no means equal. The most vastly represented stems were a-, o:- and n-stems; others embraced considerably fewer words.

Table # 3(a)

The Morphological Classification of the Old English Nouns

Vowel Stems

(Strong Declension)

- a -	- o: -	- i -	- u -
Gender: masculine neuter	Gender: feminine	Gender: masculine, feminine, neuter	Gender: masculine, feminine

Table # 3(b)

Consonant Stems

Weak declension: -n-	Root declension	-r-, -s-, -nd-
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Gender: masculine, feminine, neuter	Gender: masculine, feminine	Gender: masculine, feminine, neuter
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The most frequent type of declension in the Old English language is presented by the nouns of **strong declension with the -a-stem**.

Table # 4

The Declension of Nouns with -a-Stem

Fisc ‘fish’(masculine gender),

Scip ‘ship’, ba:n ‘bone’, ‘deor’ ‘animal’(neuter gender)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	fisc	fiscas
Genitive	fisces	fisca
Dative	fisce	fiscum
Accusative	fisc	fiscas

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	scip, ba:n, deo:r	scipu, ba:n, deo:r
Genitive	scipes, ba:nes, deo:res	scipa, ba:na, deo:ra
Dative	scipe, ba:ne, deo:re	scipum, ba:num, deo:rum
Accusative	scip, ba:n, deo:r	scipu, ba:n, deo:r

In the singular there was no difference in the declension of masculine and neuter nouns.

Important! Monosyllabic nouns of the neuter gender with a long root vowel (долгосложные слова) had no ending in the Nominative and Accusative plural. This was the rule for such nouns as deo:r, scea:p (sheep), swi:n (swine). The fact historically explains why these nouns have the same forms of the singular and the plural.

Disyllabic nouns (двусложные сущ-е) of the neuter gender with a short root vowel (краткосложные) had no endings, but with a long root vowel (долгосложные) had an ending –u in the Nominative and Accusative cases plural.

The Declension in the plural of Nouns with -a-Stem reced ‘house’and hea:fod ‘head’ (neuter gender)

Nominative	reced, hea:fdū	
Genitive	recedes, hea:fdes	
Dative	recede, hea:fde	
Accusative	reced, hea:fdū	

There were two subtypes of a-stems in Old English, ja-stems and wa-stems.

In the case of **ja-stems** the stem-building suffix had originally been complicated by the sonant (laryngeal sound [sonant] — ларингальный звук [сонант]) j. This sound caused the umlaut (i-mutation) of the root vowel in O.E. in comparison with more ancient sources (Gothic harjis «войско» - O.E. here, Goth. kuni (род) – O.E. cynn). The peculiarities of this type of stems are as follows:

a) Nouns with an originally short root syllable with the exception of those whose root syllable ended in –r had their final consonant doubled (neutr. cynn).

b) Nouns with an originally long root syllable or those ending in – r did not double their final consonant, their Nominative and Accusative ended in –e (ri:ce (reign), here (army)). In these cases j may be preserved in the noun paradigm (heriges).

As for **wa-stems**, w was preserved in many oblique cases (bearu – ‘лес’, bearwes, bearwe, bearu; bearwas; bearwa; bearwum; bearwas). So, at least with nouns of masculine gender we observe “w” in the Genitive and Dative singular and practically in all the cases in the plural number. The Nominative and Accusative singular and plural of the neuter nouns coincide (treo:w, treo:wes, treo:we, treo:w; treo:w, treo:wa, treo:wum, treo:w).

A-stem nouns correspond to Latin and Russian nouns of masculine and neuter nouns of the 2nd declension: Lat. hortus (garden), gladius (sword) –; oppidum (town), officium (office); Russ. стол, ручей; окно, белье.

The Declension of Nouns with –o:-Stem

Only nouns of feminine gender belonged to this type. They were subdivided into long syllable nouns and short syllable nouns.

Monosyllabic nouns with a short syllable take in the Nominative case the ending **-u**; monosyllabic nouns with a long syllable and disyllabic ones have no ending at all in the Nominative case.

Tal- 'tale' (with a short root vowel)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	tal<u>u</u>	tala, -e
Genitive	tale	tala, -ena
Dative	tale	talum
Accusative	tale	tala, -e

Wu:nd 'wound' (with a long root vowel)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	wu:nd	wu:nda, -e
Genitive	wu:nde	wu:nde, -ena
Dative	wu:nde	wu:ndum
Accusative	wu:nde	wu:nda, -e

The special types of o:-stems were jo:- and wo:- stems.

In the case of jo-stems the root vowel had undergone i-mutation (umlaut) (brycg (bridge), brycge, brycge, brycge; brycga, brycga, brycgum, brycga). In the case of wo:-stems the sound "w" was preserved in the paradigm (sceadu (shade), sceadwe, sceadwe, sceadwe, sceadwa, sceadwa, sceadwum, sceadwa).

IMPORTANT! In this type of declension, we observe vast homonymy – Genitive, Dative and Accusative in the singular and Nominative, sometimes Genitive and Accusative in the plural.

O:-stems correspond to Latin and Russian nouns of feminine gender (the 1st declension): Lat. silva (wood), copia (plenty); Rus. рука, статья.

The Declension of Nouns with -I-Stem

Nouns of the i-stem include all the 3 genders. The root vowel of these nouns had undergone the umlaut (i-mutation). The masculine and neuter nouns with i-stems do not much differ in their paradigm from the a-stem declension. The feminine nouns do not much differ from the o-stem declension.

Hyll 'hill' (masculine gender)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	hyll	hyllas
Genitive	hyllas	hylla
Dative	hylle	hyllum
Accusative	hyll	hyllas

Hilt 'hilt рукоятка, эфес' (neuter gender)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	hilt	hilt
Genitive	hiltes	hilta
Dative	hilte	hiltum
Accusative	hilt	hilt

Hy:d 'skin' (feminine gender)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	hy:d	hy:de, -a
Genitive	hy:de	hy:da
Dative	hy:de	hy:dum
Accusative	hy:d	hy:de, -a

It can be noticed that the declension of the -i-stem nouns of the masculine and feminine genders mainly coincides with that of the -a-stem nouns, while the nouns of the feminine gender are declined like the -o-stem nouns.

The i-stem nouns correspond to the 3rd declension of Latin and Russian nouns: Lat. finis (end); Russ. кость.

The Declension of Nouns with -u-Stem

In the following type of the declension of nouns, the **-u-stem declension**, there are masculine and feminine nouns. The masculine nouns with u-stems do not much differ in their paradigm from the a-stem declension. The feminine nouns do not much differ from the o-stem declension. Paradigms in this type of declension depended only on the type of the syllable – long or short, they were not determined by gender. Short-syllable nouns have in the Nominative and Accusative singular the ending –u; long-syllable nouns have no ending at all.

Sunu ‘son’ (masculine gender, short-syllable noun), feld ‘field’ (masculine gender, long-syllable noun)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	sunu, feld	sunu, feldu
Genitive	sunu, feldu	sunu, feldu
Dative	sunu, feldu	sunum, feldum
Accusative	sunu, feld	sunu, feldu

Duru ‘door’ (feminine gender, short-syllable noun), ha[o]nd ‘hand’ (feminine gender, long-syllable noun)

	Singular number	Plural number
Nominative	duru, hand	duru, handu
Genitive	duru, handu	duru, handu
Dative	duru, handu	durum, handum
Accusative	duru, hand	duru, handu

The difference between short and long syllables is observed only in the Nominative and Accusative singular. Here short root nouns have the ending –u and long root nouns have no endings.

IMPORTANT! Here we can see the expanded *homonymy* of case forms. As you can see in the table five of the eight forms (the Genitive and Dative cases of the singular number and the Nominative, Genitive and Accusative of the plural number) have homonymous inflections.

U-stem declension corresponds to the 4th declension of nouns in Latin (fructus (fruit) and has no analogy in Russian.

Consonantal Types of Declension

Weak Declension or N-Declension

This type of declension includes all the 3 genders.

The Declension of nouns with -n-stem (nama ‘name’, cwene ‘woman’, eage ‘eye’)

	Masculine Gender		Feminine Gender		Neuter Gender	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	nama	naman	cwene	cwenan	ea:ge	ea:gan
Genitive	naman	namena	cwenan	cwenena	ea:gan	ea:gena
Dative	naman	namum	cwenan	cwenum	ea:gan	ea:gum
Accusative	naman	naman	cwenan	cwenan	ea:ge	ea:gan

Masculine n-stems end in the Nominative singular in –a, feminine and neuter ones in –e; in the neuter substantives the Accusative corresponds with the Nominative. No other differences between the genders are found.

The extended homonymy of cases is characteristic for the nouns of the weak declension as well. Many of the case forms, as it can be easily seen, are built up with the help of the peculiar inflection **-an**. In the Genitive case plural the

specific inflection **-ena** is used. As for the Dative case plural, you must have already noticed that in this case form in all the types of declension the inflection **-um** is used.

N-stem declension corresponds to Russian nouns with –ен- in the plural (имя-имена, знамя – знамена, семя – семена) and to Latin 3rd declension (no:men – ‘name’).

The Declension of Nouns with -r-Stems and -s-Stems

R-stems are represented by a few masculine and feminine nouns denoting relationship: fæder, bro:thor, mo:dor, dohtor, sweostor, sun(u)r. The Dative singular of these nouns has i-mutation. They correspond to the Latin and Russian 3rd declension nouns pater, ma:ter, мать, дочь.

S-stems embrace a few neuter nouns showing in all cases of the plural the element “r”. This “r” comes from the Indo-European stem-building suffix –es, which changed into “-er” in accordance with the law of **rhotacism**. They include such words as lamb (lamb) – lambru (*lamsu), cealf (calf), æ:g (egg), cild (child), etc. They correspond to the Latin and Russian 2nd declension nouns genus (gender), opus (work) (pl. genera, opera); небо-небеса, чудо – чудеса.

Declension of fæder ‘father’, mo:dor ‘mother’ / cild ‘child’

	-r-stem		-r-stem		-s-stem	
	masculine gender		feminine gender		neuter gender	
	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nominative	fæder	fæderas	modor	modru, modra	cild	cild, cildru
Genitive	fæder, fæderes	fædera	modor	modra	cildes	cilda, cildra
Dative	fæder	fæderum	meder	modrum	cilde	cildum
Accusative	fæder	fæderas	modor	modru, modra	cild	cild, cildru

Root Declension

Predominantly nouns of masculine and feminine genders belonged to this type of declension in Old English. There are but few unimportant neuter nouns in it.

This declension explains some surviving forms of individual nouns found in the contemporary English language - in the so called non-productive plural forms, e.g.: **man-men, woman - women, goose - geese, foot-feet, tooth-teeth** (formed on the analogy with this declension in the ME period), which form their plural by means of sound alternation.

In many Indo-European and all the Germanic languages there is a type of nouns which differs in its morphological structure from all other types. These are root-stem nouns, i.e. nouns which had never had any stem-building suffix, so that the case endings were attached immediately to the root. They represent the oldest type of nouns, prior to those with stem-building suffixes. The fact that the case endings were attached right to the root means that the root vowel wasn't protected from the influence of the following vowel. The original –i- which was reconstructed in the Dative singular and Nominative and Accusative plural affected the root and as a result, there was i-mutation (umlaut) of the root vowel. Thus, the peculiarity of the root declension is the vowel gradation in the root as a means of forming cases. (**man ‘man’, boc ‘book’**)

	Masculine Gender		Feminine Gender	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	man	men	bo:c	be:c
Genitive	mannes	manna	bo:ce, bec	bo:ca
Dative	men	mannum	be:c	bo:cum
Accusative	man	men	bo:c	be:c

Reconstructing the process: Man – men < *monn – monn-i > mann – men.

Other root-stem words in English are: hnutu (nut) – hnyte, go:s (goose) – ge:s, mu:s (mouse) – my:s, lu:s (louse) – ly:s, cu: (cow) – cy:n, niht (night) – niht.

Considering the cause of the surviving of these forms in the structure of modern English A.I.Smirnitsky mentioned that it was **their frequency in the language** that played an important role. The fact that the words were used often enough prevented the changes by analogy: the word implanted into the person's mind before he mastered the whole system

(likewise in the system of the verb, most frequent verbs often belong to irregular ones). Comparatively high frequency of those nouns was connected with their semantic character: they denoted the human being, organs and parts his body, names of animals, etc. It is very important as well that the forms of the plural number of those words were not used as a purely grammatical opposition (oneness vs. more-than-oneness) but to a certain extent had an additional connotation of substantive lexicalized character. E.g., the Old English form MAN(N) 'man' differed from the forms of the Nominative and Accusative plural MEN(N) by the additional meaning of collectiveness in the latter /Смирницкий 1955, 233/. Old English root stems correspond to Latin 3rd declension nouns, as Lat. rex – король, regis – короля, pe:s нога, pe:dis – ноги, pa:x – мир, pa:cis – мира.

Conclusion. The Common Features for Noun Declensions in Old English

- a. The difference is mainly between the paradigms of the masculine and feminine genders. The neuter gender differs but slightly from the masculine one.
- b. The main difference between the types of declension is the presence/absence of the ending –e for masculine and neuter and –u for feminine in the Nominative singular.
- c. There is not a single paradigm where all the case forms were different. There are homonyms within every paradigm; and there are homonyms in various types of declension. This fact has very important implications, in that it became difficult to differentiate between different forms in Old English and there appeared a new tendency: to make the case-forms clear through prepositions. The speaker grew more and more indifferent to the distinct pronunciation of case endings and **the reduction of vowels in unstressed case endings began already in the Old English period.**
- d. Special note should be made of the plural ending –as in the a-stem declension type masculine and –es in the genitive singular case of the same declension. Already on Old English they came to be attached to nouns of other declensions to denote the plural number (-as) and the genitive case in the singular (-es) (the prototype of the possessive case). Stems ending in fricatives had these fricatives voiced before a vowel ending. the traces of this phenomenon are observed in the nouns calf-calves, wolf-wolves, half-halves, leaf-leaves, life-lives, etc.

3. Adjective

The adjective in the Old English language had the forms of gender, number, case and degrees of comparison and *strong* and *weak* declension. Unlike the corresponding categories of the noun, number and case of the adjective had no independent semantics - they were *forms of agreement* with the noun. The use of the forms of the strong or weak declension depended on the context in which the noun modified by the adjective was used. The forms of the weak declension were used when the noun was preceded by a demonstrative, possessive or indefinite pronoun and denoted a definite object or person. In all the other contexts the forms of the strong declension were used

/Ильиш, 1973, 26 -27/.

Unlike the strong and weak declensions of nouns, when referred to adjectives the terms *strong* and *weak declension* have a somewhat different meaning. The difference is that nouns may belong to the strong *or* weak declension depending on the stem-forming phoneme. As for the adjectives, *any* of them may have the forms of the strong *and* weak declension depending on the conditions of its use.

How did the declensions of adjectives arise in Old English? In fact, in all Indo-European languages there was no differentiation of name, the noun and the adjective made up a single category and had the same paradigm. Later the noun and the adjective were differentiated, and some forms of the adjective were derived by the addition of demonstrative and some other types of pronouns. **Thus there appeared a strong (pronominal) declension alongside the weak (nominal) declension.** E.g. Gothic blind (blind) – the weak, nominal declension; blindata, with the strong, pronominal ending –ata (cf. the demonstrative pronoun ata) – the pronominal declension.

O.E. go:d ma(o)nn – se: goda monn (a, this good man), þes godan (the -n suffix of the weak type) mannes
 go:d cwe:n – se:o go:de cwe:n (a, this good woman), þæ:re godan cwe:nes lytel bearn - þæt lyt(e)le bearn – (a, this little child), þæs godan bearnes

Table # 12

The Strong Declension of Adjectives

In the strong pronominal forms adjectives alone are used with nouns. The peculiarity of the strong declension of adjectives is that they have *five* cases (Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative and Instrumentative) and opposition in *gender* not only in the singular number but in the plural as well. The masculine and neuter gender nouns were declined like a-stem nouns. The feminine nouns were declined like O:-stem nouns.

Blæc 'black', ea:dig 'happy'

	Singular Number			Plural Number		
	Mascul.	Femin.	Neuter	Mascul.	Femin.	Neuter
Nominative	blæc, ea:dig	blacu, ea:d(i)gu	blæc, ea:dig	blace	blaca	blacu
Genitive	blaces, ea:d(i)ges	blæcre ea:digre	blaces	blacra	blacra	blacra
Dative	blacum, ea:d(i)gum	blæcre ea:digre	blacu m	blacu m	blacu m	blacum
Accusative	blæcne, ea:digne	blace ea:d(i)ge	blæc	blace	blaca	blacu
Instrumentative	blace, ea:d(i)ge	-	blace	-	-	-

In the weak, nominal declension four cases are distinguished (Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative) and the category of gender is not expressed in the plural number. The weak declension almost completely reflects the N-type (weak) declension of nouns, as many forms in its paradigm end in -n.

Table # 13

The Weak Declension of Adjectives

	Singular Number			Plural Number
	<i>Mascul.</i>	<i>Femin.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	
Nominative	blaca	blace	blaca	blacan
Genitive	blacan	blacan	blacan	blacra, blacena
Dative	blacan	blacan	blacan	blacum
Accusative	blacan	blacan	blace	blacan

It may be easily noticed that the adjectives in the weak declension have the same inflections as the nouns of the weak declension (with -n-stems). The exception is constituted by the genitive plural of all genders, which commonly takes the ending -ra, taken over from the strong declension.

For the *comparative degree* of the adjectives the suffix **-ra** was used, and for the *superlative degree* the suffix **-ost** or **-est**.

Table # 14

The Degrees of Comparison of Adjectives (Standard Forms)

Unmarked Form	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
earm 'poor'	earmra	earmost
blæc 'black'	blæcra	blacost

In the comparative and superlative degrees of some adjectives the i-mutation (the umlaut) takes place. The cause of this gradation in the superlative degree was the vowel /i/ of the suffix —*ist > -est. The change of the vowel in the comparative degree must have taken place by analogy with the superlative degree.

E.g. eald (old) – ie:ldra, ie:ldest; grea:t (great) – grie:tra, grie:test; long – lengra – lengest; strong – strengra, strengest; sceort (short) – scyrta, scyrtest.

Those degrees of comparison which were formed by the addition of the suffixes *-ost > -est and *-ora > -ra, there was no umlaut (earm-earmra, earmost; glæd – glædra, glædost).

In the Old English language there were some adjectives with the *suppletive forms* of the degrees of comparison.

Table # 16

Suppletive Forms of the Degrees of Comparison

Unmarked Form	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
go:d 'good'	betera	betst
yfel 'bad'	wiersa	wierest
micel 'big'	ma:ra	mæ:st
lytel 'little'	læ:ssa	læ:st

4. Pronoun

In Old English there were the following classes of pronouns: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, indefinite and negative /Ильиш 1958, 80/.

The personal pronouns in the Old English language had the category of person, number, case and gender (in the third person singular). The expression of gender was more lexical than grammatical – with living beings it depended on the natural gender of a person or animal, with objects the neuter gender was used already in Old English. One of the characteristic features of the Old English personal pronoun is the existence of *three* forms of number - singular, dual and plural. The forms of the *dual* number are found only in the first and second person.

Table # 17

Old English Personal Pronoun

The Singular Number					
	<i>1st Person</i>	<i>2nd Person</i>	<i>3rd Person</i>		
			masculine	feminine	neuter
<i>Nominative</i>	ic	þu:	he:	he:o	hit
<i>Genitive</i>	mi:n	þi:n	his	hire	his
<i>Dative</i>	me:	þe:	him	hire	him
<i>Accusative</i>	me:, mec	þe:, þec	hine	hi:e	hit
The Dual Number					
	<i>1st Person</i>	<i>2nd Person</i>			
<i>Nominative</i>	wit	git			
<i>Genitive</i>	uncer	incer			
<i>Dative</i>	unc	inc			
<i>Accusative</i>	unc, uncit	inc, incit			
The Plural Number					
	<i>1st Person</i>	<i>2nd Person</i>	<i>3rd Person</i>		
<i>Nominative</i>	we:	ge:	hie:, hi:, hy:, heo		
<i>Genitive</i>	u:re	eo:wer	hiera, hira, hyra		
<i>Dative</i>	u:s	eo:w	him		
<i>Accusative</i>	u:s, u:sic	eo:w, eo:wic	hie:, hi:, hy:, hyra		

The form of the dual number **WIT** has the meaning 'we two' and the form **GIT** 'you two'.

Many of these pronouns developed into the existing modern personal pronouns, but there were several important changes:

1. In the Middle English period the dual number of pronouns disappeared.
 2. The genitive case forms later were ousted by independent possessive pronouns;
 3. The dative and accusative merged into one objective case.
 4. The 3rd person plural pronoun *hi:* was gradually superseded by the pronoun 'they' of Scandinavian origin to avoid the homonymy with the 3rd person feminine pronouns.
 5. The initial *h* of the neutral pronoun *hit* was lost;
 6. The new pronoun *she:* was developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun *se:o* which gradually superseded the pronoun 'he:o', the reason being the avoidance of confusion with the masculine personal pronoun.
- A personal pronoun could be accompanied by the pronoun 'self' (*seolf, sylf*), e.g. *he: hit sylf negeseah* 'he himself did not see it', sometimes the pronoun 'self' was used in the meaning of a personal pronoun, e.g. *selfa ne-dorste under y: þa gewin aldre gene: þan* 'he himself did not dare to plunge under the abyss of waves risking his life'.

The possessive pronouns in the Old English language were built on the basis of the Genitive case of the personal pronouns. The possessive pronouns formed on the basis of personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person were declined

according to the pattern of the strong declension of adjectives. The possessive pronouns of the 3rd person had no declension. **The demonstrative pronouns ÞES ‘this’ and SE: ‘that’** had the category of number, case and gender. The meaning of the pronoun ‘that’ was often weakened to the meaning of the article ‘The’: se: mann ‘the man’, seo: sæ: ‘the sea’, þat lond ‘the land’. Traditionally, it is assumed that the definite article appeared in OE, while the indefinite – in Middle English. The fact is that in OE there was usually an absence of any article where there is the indefinite article ‘a’ now: e.g. in King Alfred’s translation of Orosius we find: He: wæs swi: þe spe:dig man ‘he was a very rich man’.

The Declension of the Demonstrative Pronoun SE: ‘that’

	Singular Number			Plural Number
	<i>Mascul.</i>	<i>Femin.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	se:	seo:, sio	þæt	þa:
<i>Genitive</i>	þæs	þæ:re	þæs	þa:ra, þæ:ra
<i>Dative</i>	þæ:m, þam	þæ:re	þæ:m, þam	þæ:m, þa:m
<i>Accusative</i>	þone	þa:	þæt	þa:
<i>Instrumentative</i>	þy:, þon	-	þy:, þon	-

The Declension of the Demonstrative Pronoun THES ‘this’

This declension is remarkable for the element –s- which in some cases (e.g. gen. and dat. sg. masc. and neuter) is an agglutinative particle joined on to the corresponding form of the pronoun ‘se’. Elsewhere it is part and parcel of the stem and the case endings are added on to them. This gives Prof. Ilyish ground to assume that ‘this’ emerged later than ‘that’. Other linguists, e.g. Prof. Arakin, hold that ‘this’ preceded ‘that’, the former being the demonstrative pronoun of full lexical meaning and the latter had weakened lexical meaning

	Singular Number			Plural Number
	<i>Mascul.</i>	<i>Femin.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	þes	þeo:s, þio:s	þis	þa:s
<i>Genitive</i>	þisses	þisse	þisses	þissa
<i>Dative</i>	þissum	þisse	þissum	þissum
<i>Accusative</i>	þisne, þysne	þa:s	þis	þa:s
<i>Instrumentative</i>	þys, þis	-	þy:s, þis	-

The interrogative pronouns HWA: ‘who’ and HWÆT ‘what’ have case forms.

Table # 20

The Declension of Interrogative Pronouns

(hwa ‘who’, hwæt ‘what’)

<i>Nominative</i>	hwa	hwæt
<i>Genitive</i>	hwæs	hwæs
<i>Dative</i>	hwæm	hwæm
<i>Accusative</i>	hwone	hwæt
<i>Instrumentative</i>	-	hwy:, hwi

The pronoun **HWILC** ‘which’ forms the cases according to the pattern of the strong declension of adjectives. The form hwy: later gave rise to another pronoun - WHY.

The relative pronouns were used for the introduction of attributive subordinate clauses. To this group belong the pronouns **ÐE**: ‘which’ and **SE:ÐE** ‘which’.

The determinative pronouns are used in the attributive functions to nouns. They are as follows: **GEHWA** ‘each’, **GEHWILC** ‘every’, **ÆGTHER** ‘either’, **ÆLC** ‘each’, **SWILC** ‘such’, **SE ILCA** ‘the very’.

The indefinite pronouns are used attributively. They are: **SUM** ‘some’ and **ÆNIG** ‘any’.

The negative pronouns were built up by the fusion of a pronominal or some other stem with the negative particle **ne**: **NAN** ‘none’ (< **NE** ‘no’ + **AN** ‘one’); **NÆNIG** ‘no any’ (< **NE** ‘no’ + **ÆNIG** ‘any’).

5. Verb

The verb in the Old English language had the grammatical categories of tense, mood, person and number. The existence of the category of aspect and voice in the system of the Old English verb is problematic /Ильиш, 1958, 112 - 118; Розендорн, 1967, 53 - 55/. The verb had only two tense forms - present and past - and three mood forms: indicative, subjunctive and imperative. The subject-predicate agreement was expressed with the help of person and number forms. Alongside with the finite forms the Old English verb had non-finite forms: infinitive, Participle I and Participle II. The non-finite forms of the verb could be declined (had case forms).

Morphologically, in the system of the Old English verb two principal types were distinguished: *strong* and *weak* verbs. Besides these two main types there were *irregular* (anomalous verbs with suppletive forms) and *preterit-present* verbs (nearly all the Modern English modal verbs are the descendants of these).

Strong and weak verbs. GENERAL

This division corresponds to the common Indo-European system of verb. In the oldest I-E. languages the main mass of verbs are strong verbs with common Indo-European or common Germanic stems, deriving their past tense and second participle by means of ablaut, or gradation, then there emerged newly-formed weak verbs, which derive these forms by means of a suffix -d- (-t-).

Originally the Indo-European verb had the following structure of the stem: cons. + vowel + cons. The sounding of the vowel varied depending on the conditions, or the quality of the stress falling on it. This phonetic alternation of vowels dependent on full or weakened stress falling on it is called ablaut (gradation).

There was qualitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its quality and quantitative gradation, whereby the root vowel changed its length.

Qualitative gradation (степени качественного аблаута)

o – the full grade, a fully stressed vowel; e – the reduced grade, a weakly stressed vowel; zero – the zero grade, an unstressed vowel.

In the Indo-European languages the most widespread was the gradation e-o, e.g. Greek lego (говорю) – logos (слово), Lat. tego: (покрываю) – toga (одежда); Rus. беру – собор – брать; бреду – брод, беру – собор -брать.

Quantitative gradation (степени количественного аблаута) e /o– the full grade; e:/o: - the prolonged grade; zero – the zero grade

E.g. Greek pate’rizō ‘to call a father’ – the full grade; vocative case pa’tēr – the prolonged grade; genitive pat’ros – the zero grade.

Being a phonetic process, ablaut was most associated with the formation of the basic forms of Indo-European strong verbs. Thus it came to be understood and employed as *a grammatical means of the form-building in verbs*.

In the Germanic languages the Indo-European gradation e-o-zero corresponded to the gradation e-a-zero, because I.-E. o = Germ. a; the Indo-European e corresponded in some Germanic languages, O.E. among them, to i: i-a-zero.

I.-E. e-o-zero - Germ. e-a-zero - O.E. i-a-zero.

e.g. OHG. stelan (красть) – stal (украл) – stolen (украли) – gestolen (украденный)

O.E. bindan (связывать) – band (связал) – bundon (связали) – bunden (связанный)

Being the most ancient Indo-European verbs, strong verbs denote actions connected with people's everyday activity and sometimes reflect the mode of life of ancient tribes. Their number was limited already in the Old English language (**over 300; 195 are still used, 67 preserved their gradation of vowels**). Besides, in O.E. vowel gradation was complicated by the purely O.E. processes of O.E. fracture ([æ] and [e] broke into diphthongs [ea] and [eo] before [r], [l] or [h]) and diphthongization (palatalization) of vowels (OE vowels change under the influence of the initial palatal consonants g, c, sc; g, c influence only front vowels, sc – all vowels: e>ie, etc).

For derived and borrowed verbs a new system of conjugation was formed with the special past forms built by means of the dental suffix -d-/-t-. The system of weak verbs is purely Germanic, the suffixes were added to borrowed words or those derived from other words/parts of speech. In the course of time weak verbs superseded many strong verbs and the number of the latter greatly diminished.

The strong verbs are divided into seven classes depending on the character of the vowel gradation in the four main forms of the verb: (the infinitive, the form of the past tense singular, the form of the past tense plural and Participle II). The infinitive represented the first stem – e/i, the reduced grade of the ablaut, this stem also formed participle 1, the present tense paradigm in the indicative and subjunctive mood and the imperative mood. The past singular form represented the 2nd stem -a, the full grade of the ablaut, this stem was used for the past singular paradigm. The past plural form represented the 3rd stem, the zero grade of the ablaut, this stem was used for the past plural paradigm, the past singular 2nd person forms and the Subjunctive Mood. The participle 2 represented the 4th stem, the zero grade of the ablaut.

The first five classes of English verbs complied with the i/e-a-zero gradation of vowels, they were the variants of one system. The phonemes determining the type of vowel in them, apart from ablaut, were called complicators. The combination of an ablaut vowel (гласный по аблауту) and a complicator resulted in the appearance of a long vowel or a diphthong. The complicator in Class 1 was –i- (i-class); Class 2 - -u- (u-class); Class 3 – a sonorant + a consonant; Class 4 – a sonorant (l, r); Class 5 – any consonant but n, w, r, l. Class 6 is made up of strong verbs with quantitative gradation (a-o:-zero). Class 7 includes strong verbs with reduplicated stems.

Classes of Strong Verbs in the Old English Language

Classes	Infinitive	Past Tense Sing.	Past Tense Pl.	Participle II
Class I	wri:tan ‘to write’	wra:t	writon	writen
Class II	ceo:san ‘to choose’	cea:s	curon	coren
Class III	findan ‘to find’	fand	fundon	funden
Class IV	beran ‘to bear’	bær	bæ:ron	boren
Class V	sittan ‘to sit’	sæt	sæ:ton	seten
Class VI	scacan ‘to shake’	sco:c	sco:con	scacen
Class VII	ha:tan ‘to call’	he:t	he:ton	ha:ten

Class 1 – i-class:

1st stage of gradation the vowel of the root I.-E. –e- > O.E. –i- + complicator –i- > i:, e.g. wri-i-tan > wri:tan;

2nd stage: I.-E. –o- > O.E. –a- + complicator –i- = ai (a:), e.g. wra:t

3rd and 4th stages: the vowel of gradation disappeared, the complicator remains.

Class 2 – u-class:

1st stage of gradation the vowel of the root I.-E. –e- > O.E. –i- + complicator –u- > -iu > eo:, e.g. ceo:san;

2nd stage: I.-E. –o- > O.E. –a- + complicator –u- = au > ea:, e.g. cea:s

3rd and 4th stages: the vowel of gradation disappeared, the complicator remains. U > o according to the Germanic fracture, s > r – due to rhotacism.

Class 3 – sonorant + consonant - class

a) the complicator – nasal + consonant

1st stage of gradation the vowel of the root I.-E. –e- > O.E. –i- + complicator –nd, etc., e.g. findan 2nd stage: I.-E. –o- > O.E. –a- + complicator –nd-, e.g. fa(o)nd

3rd and 4th stages: the vowel of gradation disappeared, the complicator remains. The epenthetic sound (эпентетический, вставочный) u appears in the stem which is introduced for phonetic conditions, actually, for the convenience of pronunciation (fa(o)ndon, fa(o)nden) on the analogy with the past singular form -u- + an > widened –o- + on, en.

a) l+cons.

1st stage of gradation the vowel of the root I.-E. –e- = OE i + complicator –lp > e, etc., e.g. helpan

2nd stage: I.-E. –o- > O.E. –a- + complicator –lp-; owing to the Old English fracture a>(ligature) ea > diphthong ea + l + cons., e.g. healp

3rd and 4th stages: the vowel of gradation disappeared, the complicator remains. The epenthetic sound u appears in the past plural stem, it broadens into o due to the suffix ‘e’ in the past participle (hulpon, holpen).

b) r + cons., h + cons.

1st stage of gradation the vowel of the root I.-E. –e- = OE i/e + complicator, e+r>eo+r e.g. steorfan

(умирать)

2nd stage: I.-E. –o- > O.E. –a- + complicator ; owing to the Old English fracture a>(ligature) ea > diphthong ea + l + cons., e.g. stearf

3rd and 4th stages: the same as above (sturfon, storfen).

Class 4 – sonorant l, r or m

1st stage e + l(r) (beran), e>i+m (niman)

2nd stage a > æ +l (r) bæŕ

3rd stage the qualitative gradation with the previous form BÆ:RON 4th stage u > + l(r) boren

Class 5 – any consonant but n, liquid w, r l.

The gradation in this class is like that of the previous class e-æ-æ:-e, but the suffix of participle 2 (the epenthetic e) is formed **on the analogy with the infinitive**.

NB: In the 5, 6, and 7th classes the epenthetic vowel in Prt 2 is formed on the analogy with the Inf.

Class 6, unlike other classes had the common Indo-European quantitative ablaut o – o:, in the Germanic languages – a – o: (scacan – sco:c – sco:con – scocen).

Class 7 – the result of reduplication or doubling of the root in the past forms. Or it may be described as an addition of an extra syllable consisting of the initial consonant and the vowel e (Goth. ai) in the past tense, both sg and pl. Reduplication is found in the perfect forms of some Latin verbs of 2nd and 3rd conjugation: mordeo: (bite) – momordi:, curro: (run) – cucurri:. The origin of reduplication was probably emphatic repetition to stress the completion of an action. Reduplication was hardly traceable in OE, but this process is well observed in Gothic: haitan (call) – haihait [‘hehait] (называл)– haihaitum [‘hehaitum] (называли).

In OE the reduplication is hardly traceable, the sign of reduplication –e- had merged with the root vowel and produced a long monophthong or a diphthong in the past sg and pl: with e:: blondan (blend), ondræ:dan(fear); with eo- fealdan (fold), healdan (hold); with eo: - gro:wan (grow), blo:wan (blow), feallan (feo:l = fall), healdan (heo:ld) = hold.

There are 4 verbs which preserved certain remnants of reduplication: INF. – PAST SG.

la:can – leolc (play) læ:tan – leolt > le:t (let) ræ:dan – reord > re:d (advise, read) ha:tan – heht > he:t (call)

The strong verbs of Class I include the following verbs: **BELI:FAN** ‘to stay’, **CLI:FAN** ‘to stick’, **DRI:FAN** ‘to drive’, **BI:TAN** ‘to bite’, **SLI:TAN** ‘to tear’, **BESMI:TAN** ‘to dirty’, **BI:DAN** ‘to wait’,

RI:DAN ‘to ride’ and others.

Among the strong verbs of Class II there such verbs as **CREO:PAN** ‘to creep’, **CLEO:FAN** ‘to cut’,

CEO:WAN ‘to chew’, **FLEO:TAN** ‘to leak’, **NEO:TAN** ‘to enjoy’, **SCEO:TAN** ‘to shoot’ and others.

Class III includes: **DRINCAN** ‘to drink’, **BINDAN** ‘to bind’, **SWINDAN** ‘to disappear’, **WINDAN** ‘to wind’, **SINNAN** ‘to recollect’, **SPINNAN** ‘to spin’, **WINNAN** ‘to work’, etc.

In Class IV we can find such verbs as **STELAN** ‘to steal’, **CWELAN** ‘to die’, **HELAN** ‘to conceal’,

TERAN ‘to tear’, **BRECAN** ‘to break’ and so on.

Class V includes the following verbs: **TREDAN** ‘to step’, **METAN** ‘to measure’, **SWEFAN** ‘to sleep’, **WEFAN** ‘to weave’, **CNEDAN** ‘to mix’, **SPRECAN** ‘to speak’, **WRECAN** ‘to pursue’ and others.

Among the verbs of Class VI we can find the following verbs: **FARAN** ‘to travel’, **HLADAN** ‘to load’,

BACAN ‘to bake’, **WASCAN** ‘to wash’.

Finally, in Class VII there such verbs as **FEALLAN** ‘to fall’, **CNEA:WAN** ‘to know’, **BLONDAN** ‘to confuse’, **ONDRÆ:DAN** ‘to fear’, **RÆ:DAN** ‘to read’, **LÆ:TAN** ‘to leave’, etc.

Conjugation of the Strong Verb FINDAN ‘to find’

		Present Tense			Past Tense	
		<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Subjunct.</i>	<i>Imperative</i>	<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Subjunct.</i>
Singular	1 st Person 2 nd Person 3 rd Person	finde findest findeth	finde	find	fand funde fand	funde
Plural		findath	finden	findath	fundon	funden
Infinitive Participle I Participle II		findan findende (ge)funden				

The weak verbs have the following characteristic feature: the forms of the past tense and Participle II of those verbs are not built up by means of vowel gradation in the root but are formed with the help of the dental inflection. These were new derivatives in Old English as compared with the ancient strong verbs. They were derived from strong verbs or other parts of speech or borrowed from other languages and assimilated to the Old English system of verbs. Morphologically, they possessed a more complex structure, because the vowels of the root did not matter for the formation of the past

forms and the participles, while the suffixes did. They proved to be the most viable (жизнеспособный) and became the most widespread type of form-building in the system of verbs.

There were 3 classes of weak verbs in Old English.

The **1st class** contained the verbs whose stem-building suffix was originally i or j. This class was subdivided into regular and irregular verbs.

The *regular* verbs always had the umlaut (i-mutation) of their root vowel due to the –i- (j) element of the original suffix, even after the latter had been dropped out: Goth. do:mian > O.E. de:man

satian > settan (here the consonant is lengthened after the short vowel in the root before the stem-building –i- (sati>seti>sett))

The suffix of the past tense and the participles d/t depended on whether the stem ended in a voiceless or voiced consonant:

e.g. fyllan – fylde (я, он наполнял) de:man – de:mde (судил) se:pan – se:pte (держал) settan – sette (сажал)

Participle II was formed by the attachment of the bare suffix –ed/t to the stem, as for the past tense forms, they had inflexions.

De:man (судить) – de:mde (я, он судил) - de:mton (они судили) – de:med (осужденный) Se:pan (держать, хранить) – se:pte – se:pton – se:pt, se:ped

The sources of the 1st class verbs:

1. nouns: tellan (считать) from tala (счет); deman from do:m (суд).

1. adjectives: hæ:lan (лечить) from ha:l (здоровый), fyllan from full (полный).

2. strong verbs. A special group of weak verbs, called **causative verbs**, were derived from strong verbs and had the meaning 'make sb or sth perform the action denoted by the strong verb'. They were derived from the past singular of strong verbs:

sittan (past sg sæt) – settan (сажать), licgan (past sg læg) – lecgan (класть), ri:san (ra:s) – ra:sian, ræ:ran (raise, rear).

The *irregular class 1 weak verbs* are also called two-stem verbs. In this subclass the stem-building –i- caused the umlaut in the infinitive only. The past and the second participle were formed by the addition of the dental suffix immediately to the stem, without a stem-building suffix. This is why there was no narrowing of the root vowel in the past and prt 2.

There were 2 stems, one for the inf and the pres, the other – for the past: bringan – bro:hite – bro:ht bycgean – bohte – boht (buy) þencean – þo:hite - þo:ht (think) þyncean - þu:hite - þu:ht (seem) tæ:cean – ta:hite – ta:ht (teach) wyrcean – worhte – worht (cf. wrought, work)

sellan – sealde – seald

tellan – tealde - teald

The **2nd class** contained the verbs whose stem-building suffix was originally *-o:ja in the infinitive and – o:- in the other forms. Later the infinitive suffix was reduced to –i-; the infinitive thus ended in –ian:

macian (make) – macode – macod lufian (love) – lufode – lufod hopian (hope) – hopode – hopod

andswarian (answer) – andswarode - andswarod

The absence of i-mutation in the infinitive is due to the fact that –i- appeared at the time when the process of mutation was no longer in operation.

The **3rd class** contained the limited number of verbs, such as habban, libban, secgan (say), hycgan (think), etc. These verbs had different stems for the present and the past, bcs the infinitive in them was influenced by the original stem-building suffix e/i, which dropped out causing the doubling of consonant, and the past forms were formed without any stem-building affix:

habban – hæfde – hæfd

libban – lifde – lifd

secgan – sægde – sægd

Conjugation of the Weak Verb SENDAN 'to send'

		Present Tense			Past Tense	
		Indicat.	Subj.	Imperative	Indicat.	Subj.
Singular	1st Pers. 2nd Pers. 3rd Pers.	sende sendest sendeþ	sende	send	sende sendest sende	sende
Plural		sendaþ	senden	sendaþ	sendon	senden

Infinitive Participle I Participle II sendan sendende send(en)
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The suppletive (anomalous) verbs had some specific peculiarities in their conjugation. Among these verbs there are such as BE:ON/WESAN 'to be', GA:N (pr. sg ga:, pr. pl. ga:þ, past sg. e:ode, past pl. e:odon; prt.I gangende, prt. II (ge)ga:n) 'to go', DO:N (pr. sg do:, pr. pl. do:þ, past sg. dyde, past pl. dydon; prt.I do:nde, prt. II (ge)do:n) 'to do', WILLAN (pr. sg wille, pr. pl. willaþ, past sg. wolde, past pl. woldon; prt.I willende) 'to want'. The verb 'to be' had two infinitives.

Table # 24

Conjugation of the Verb BE:ON/WESAN 'to be'

		Present Tense			Past Ten se	
		Indicat.	Subj.	Imperative	Indicat.	Subj.
Singular	1st Pers.	eom, be:o earst,	sie, si:, sy:, be:o	wes, be:o	wæs wæ:re wæs	wæ:re
	2nd Pers.	bist is, biþ				
Plural	3rd Pers.	sint, be:oþ	si:en, be:on	wesað, be:oþ	wæ:ron	wæ:ron
	Infinitive Participle I Prt II wesan, be:on wesende, be:onde -					

The present forms of *wesan* are almost never used. Therefore, *wesan* is used as the past, imperative, and present participle versions of *sindon*, and does not have a separate meaning. The *bēon* forms are usually used in reference to future actions. Only the present forms of *bēon* contrast with the present forms of *sindon/wesan* in that *bēon* tends to be used to refer to eternal or permanent truths, while *sindon/wesan* is used more commonly to refer to temporary or subjective facts. This semantic distinction (made only during the present tense) was lost as Old English developed into modern English, so that the modern verb 'to be' is a single verb which takes its present indicative forms from *sindon*, its past indicative forms from *wesan*, its present subjunctive forms from *bēon*, its past subjunctive forms from *wesan*, and its imperative and participle forms from *bēon*. (Modern German had an analogous, but even more complicated, development for its verb *sein*.) In late OE and ME, the form *earon/earun*, from the Old Norse *erun*, replaced *bēoþ* and *sind*.

Dōn 'to do' and *gān* 'to go' are conjugated alike; *willan* 'to want' is similar outside of the present tense.

Tense/mood	Pronoun	'do'	'go'	'will'
Infinitive		dōn	gān	willan
Present indicative	ic	dō	gā	wille
	þū	dēst	gæst	wilt
	hē/hit/hēo	dēð	gæð	wile
	wē/gē/hīe	dōð	gāð	willað
Past indicative	ic/hē/hit/hēo	dyde	ēode	wolde
	þū	dydest	ēodest	woldest
	wē/gē/hīe	dydon	ēodon	woldon
Present subjunctive		dō	gā	wille
Past subjunctive		dyde	ēode	wolde

Present participle	dōnde	*gānde	willende
Past participle	gedōn	gegān	*gewillan

The **preterit-present verbs** composed a special type in the Old English language. What was peculiar in their morphological structure is that the forms of the present tense of those verbs were built up like the *past tense of the strong verbs*, i.e. **by means of vowel gradation in the root**, while their past tense forms were produced like the *past tense of the weak verbs*, i.e. **with the help of the dental suffix**. The group of the preterit-present verbs included the following 12 verbs:

WA:T ‘know’, **A:G** ‘have’, **DEA:G** ‘be fit’, **ANN** ‘grant’, **CAN** ‘can, know’, **DEARF** ‘need’, **DEAR** ‘dear’, **SCEAL** ‘must’, **MAN** ‘remember’, **MÆG** ‘may’, **GENEAH** ‘be enough’, **MOT** ‘can’ - all in all 12 verbs.

Five of them disappeared already in the OE period, 7 survived till now: a:gan (to owe, own from the prt II a:gen), cunnan (can, could –from cu:þe; also ‘uncouth’, ‘cunning’), durran (dare), sculan (shall, should - sceolde), magan (may, might - meahte), mo:tan (may -> must-moste), witan (was replaced by ‘know’, but was preserved in the phrases ‘to wit = namely’ and ‘God wot = God knows’).

INFINITIVE	PRESENT SG.	PRESENT PL.	PAST SG.	PARTICIPLE II	TRANSLATION
WI:TAN	WA:T	WITON	WISSE, WISTE	WITEN	‘know’
A:GAN	A:G	A:GON	A:HTE	A:GEN	‘HAVE’
DU:GAN	DEA:G	DUGON	-	-	‘BE FIT’ - ГОДИТЬСЯ
UNNAN	ANN	UNNON	U:ÞE	UNNEN	‘GRANT’, ДАРОВАТЬ
CUNNAN	CANN	CUNNON	CU:ÞE	CU:Þ, CUNNEN	‘CAN, KNOW’
ÞURFAN	ÞEARF	ÞURFON	ÞORFTE	-	NEED, НУЖДАТЬСЯ
DURRAN	DEARR	DURRON	DORSTE	-	DARE, СМЕТЬ
SCULAN	SCEAL	SCULON	SCEOLDE	-	MUST, SHOULD
MUNAN	MAN	MUNON	MUNDE	MUNEN	‘REMEMBER’
MAGAN	MÆG	MAGON	MEAhte	-	‘MAY’, МОЧЬ
-	GENEAH	GENUGON	GENOhte	-	‘be enough’, ХВАТАТЬ
-	MO:T	MO:TON	MO:STE	-	‘CAN’, МОЧЬ

Old English preterit-present verbs, as A.I. Smirnitsky wrote, developed into a group of modern *defective* verbs. Only the absence of the inflection **-s** in the third person singular is explained by their origin *from the preterit-present verbs*. All the other peculiarities may be explained by their modal semantics, which resulted for instance in the fact that their non-finite forms went out of use /Смирницкий, 1955, 268/. But it should be mentioned that the verb **will** was not a preterit-present verb in the Old English period.

Table # 25

Conjugation of the Preterit-Present Verb WAT ‘know’

		Present Tense		Past Tense		
		Indicat.	Subj.	Imperative	Indicat.	Subj.

Singular	1st Pers. 2nd Pers. 3rd Pers.	wa:t wast wa:t	Wite	wite	wiste wistest wiste	wiste
Plural		Witon	Witen	witath	wiston	wisten
Infinitive Participle I Participle II witan witende witen						

Table # 26

Conjugation of the Preterit-Present Verb CAN ‘can, know’

		Present Tense		Past Tense	
		Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
Singular	1st Person 2nd Person 3rd Person	can canst can	cunne	cu:ðe cu:ðest cu:ðe	cu:ðe
Plural		cunnon	cunnen	cu:ðon	cu:ðen
Infinitive Participle II cunnan cunnen, cu:ð					

Table # 27

Conjugation of the Preterit-Present Verb SCEAL ‘must’

		Present Tense		Past Tense	
		Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
Singular	1st Person 2nd Person 3rd Person	sceal scealt sceal	scule	sceolde sceoldest sceolde	sceolde
Plural		sculon	sculen	sceoldon	sceolden
Infinitive sculan					

The Main Categories of OE Verb

Here we shall discuss the most interesting and some debatable categories of the OE verb, i.e. the category of tense, mood, aspect and voice.

As for the category of tense, it consisted of 2 synthetic forms – Present and Past. The Present tense was used to indicate present and future actions. With verbs of perfective meaning or with adverbs of future time the Present acquired the meaning of futurity.

E.g. Ðonne ðu: ða: in bringst, he ytt and ble:tsað ðe:. – When you bring them, he will eat and bless you. Ðu gesihst ðæt i:c ealdige. – You will see that I’m getting old.

Future happenings could also be expressed by verb phrases with modal verbs:

Forðæ:m ge: sculen... we:pan – therefore you shall weep.

Gif ge: willað mi:num bebodum gehy:rsumnian – if you will obey my orders.

The Past tense referred the action to the past without differentiating prior and non-prior actions: and ðæs ofer Ea:stion gefo:r Aedelred; and he: ricsode V (fi:f) gea:r. And then after Easter fing Aethelred died and he had reigned five years.

The category of Mood was represented by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The Subjunctive Mood conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. It was used in volitional or conjectural contexts; in conditional clauses, in clauses of time, result, clauses presenting reported speech. Thus, in Ohtthere’s account of his voyage we find instances of this usage: He sæ:de, ðæt ðæt land sie: swiðe lang. He said that that land be very long.

The category of aspect. Until recently it was believed that in OE the category of aspect was expressed by the regular contrast of the verbs with and without the prefix ge- to denote completed and noncompleted action respectively.

E.g. feohtan – gefeohtan (fight – gain by fighting) li:cian – geli:cian (like – come to like)

But this prefix does not only have the meaning of perfective action. it can change the lexical meaning of a verb (sittan (sit) – gesittan (occupy) beran (bear) – geberan (bear a child)

✓ so far from indicating a completed action, many verbs with ge- denoted a repeated action:

E.g. many oft gecwæð - many (people often said)

Ge- also appears to be an element of word-building, not only of form-building, it is a derivational prefix of vague general meaning.

There were also some other means of expressing aspective meanings, for example the beginnings of the analytical forms – verb phrases habban, beo:n, weorðan (become) + P I (denoting a prolonged state or action) or P II (a state resulting from a previous completed action):

E.g. Ðær wæ:ron sume of ðæm bo:cerum sittende – there were some of those learned men sitting.

Hie: hæfdon ða heora stefn gesettene. – They had that term finished.

These phrases did not yet form regular oppositions with the simple forms and cannot be treated as members of grammatical categories.

The category of voice. In OE texts we find relics of synthetic Mediopassive Proto-Germanic forms, where an active verb acquires a passive meaning: Ða: ea: ðe ha:tte Araxis – “The river that is called Arax”

The passive meaning was frequently indicated with the help of P II of transitive verbs used as predicatives with the verbs beo:n (to be) and weorðan (to become): Ðæt hu:s wearð ða forburnen. – ‘That house was then burnt down’.

Hie: wæ:ron micle swiðor gebrocode. – ‘They were badly afflicted’.

During the Old English period these forms were gradually becoming the analytical forms of the correspondent categories.

6. Adverb

Morphologically, Old English adverbs are divided into simple and derivative ones. Among the simple adverbs we can mention the following: **HER** ‘here’, **NU** ‘now’, **ÐA** ‘then’, etc. The derivative adverbs are usually produced with the help of the suffixes **-e** and **-lice**, e.g.: **WIDE** ‘widely’. The adverb in the Old English language had degrees of comparison. For the formation of the *comparative degree* of adverbs the suffix **-(o)r** was used, and for the formation of the *superlative degree* the suffix **-(o)st**.

Table # 28

Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs (Standard Forms)

Unmarked Form	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
wide ‘widely’ hearde ‘hard’ deope ‘deeply’	widor heardor deopor	widost heardost deopost

ffixes but by means of vowel gradation

Some adverbs form their comparative degree not with the help of suffix in the root.

Table # 29

Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs (Forms with Vowel Gradation)

Unmarked Form	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
long ‘long’ feorr ‘far’ softe ‘softly’	leng fierr seft	lengest fierrest seftess

Some adverbs in the Old English language had suppletive forms of degrees of comparison.

Table # 30

Suppletive Forms of Degrees of Comparison

Unmarked Form	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
wel ‘well’ yfele ‘badly’ micle ‘much’ lytle ‘little’	betre wiers, wyrst mare læsse	bests wierst, wyrst mæst læst

7. Numeral

Numbers in the Old English language were signed as a rule by the *Roman figures*, e.g.: **ƿa sona æfter com Hæsten mid LXXX scipa up on Temese muþan...** ‘then soon after that Hæsten with eighty ships entered the Thames mouth...’ The numeral in Old English were divided into *cardinal* and *ordinal* ones. The cardinal numerals were as follows:

- 1 - an 13 - þriotiene
- 2 - twegen, twa 14 - feowertiene
- 3 - þrie, þreo 15- fiftiene
- 4 - feower ***
- 5 - fif 20 - twentig
- 6 - siex 30 - þritig
- 7 - seofon, siofon 40 - feowertig
- 8 - eahta ***
- 9 - nigon 90 - hundnigontig
- 10 - tien, teon 100 - hundteontig
- 11 - endlefan 200 - tu hund
- 12 - twelf 1000 - thusend

The ordinal numeral, except the first three ones, are formed on basis of the cardinal numerals with the help of the suffix **-þa** or **-ta**.

- 1 - forma, fyresta 11 - endlefta
- 2 - other, æfterra 12 - twelfta
- 3 - þridda, þirda 13 - þreoteoþa
- 4 - feowerþa 14 - feowerteoþa
- 5 - fifta 15 - fifteoþa 6 - siexta ***
- 7 - siofoþa 20 - twentigoþa
- 8 - eahtoþa 30 - þrittigoþa
- 9 - nigotoþa ***
- 10 - teoþa 100 - huntentigoþa

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 4

- 1) What does it mean when the English language is qualified as *predominantly analytical*?
- 2) What was the grammatical structure of Old English: *predominantly analytical* or *predominantly synthetic*?
- 3) How are the phonetic changes in English connected with the development of grammar?
- 4) What grammatical categories had the noun in Old English?
- 5) What types of declension had the noun in Old English?
- 6) What gender could be the nouns of **a**-stem in Old English?
- 7) What gender could be the nouns of *consonant stem* in Old English?
- 8) What was the inflection of the Dative case plural with most nouns in Old English?
- 9) Decline the noun **scip**.
- 10) Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the **o**-stem with a *short* and *long* root vowel (Table # 6).
- 11) Decline the noun **hyll**.
- 12) Compare the inflections in the declension of nouns of the *masculine* and *feminine gender* of the **i**-stem.
- 13) Which case forms had the same inflections in the **u**-stem declension?
- 14) Decline the noun **sunu**.
- 15) Decline the noun **duru**.
- 16) What genders could be the nouns with the **n**-stem? 16) Compare the inflections of the nouns of the masculine, neuter and feminine gender with the **n**-stem in the Nominative and Accusative case singular.
- 17) Decline the noun **man**.
- 18) What was the peculiarity of the root declension in Old English?
- 19) Name five nouns in modern English which preserve traces of the Old English root declension.
- 20) Decline the noun **modor**.

- 21) Decline the noun **cild**.
- 22) What grammatical categories had the Old English adjective?
- 23) What did the use of the *strong* and *weak* declension of adjectives depend upon?
- 24) What were the case forms in the *strong* declension of adjectives?
- 25) What were the case forms in the *weak* declension of adjectives?
- 26) What were the forms of the degrees of comparison of the Old English adjectives?
- 27) Give the comparative and superlative degree of the adjective **earm**.
- 28) Give the comparative and superlative degree of the adjective **eald**.
- 29) Give the comparative and superlative degree of the adjective **yfel**.
- 30) Give the definition of the *suppletive formation* in grammar.
- 31) Decline the personal pronoun **ic**.
- 32) Decline the personal pronoun **he**.
- 33) Decline the personal pronoun **we**.
- 34) What was the structure of the possessive pronoun in Old English?
- 35) What categories had the Old English demonstrative pronoun?
- 36) Name the interrogative pronouns in Old English.
- 37) Name the negative pronouns in Old English.
- 38) What were the two principal types of the verb in Old English?
- 39) What is a *preterit-present verb*?

Chapter 5. Old English Dialects

1. General Information about the Old English Dialects.

We have already mentioned the main dialects of the Old English language. They were: **Wessex**, **Northumbrian**, **Mercian** and **Kentish**. These four dialects consisted of smaller dialectal variants of the Old English language.

The Old English dialects were basically *tribal*, i.e. they had the features and peculiarities which the Germanic tribes brought to Britain in the 5th century. Yet it is problematic whether the Old English dialects may be regarded as a historic continuation of the dialectal differentiation of the Old Germanic (West Germanic) tribes that moved to Britain from the Continent in the 5th - 6th centuries or whether these dialects developed and differentiated in England /Ярцева 1985, 9/.

The territorial distribution of the dialects was as follows. The Northumbrian dialect was spoken by the tribes that had settled to the North of the Humber river. The Mercian dialect was used by the tribes living between the Humber and Thames. The Wessex dialect was spread in the South-West of Britain, in the Kingdom of Wessex. The Kentish dialect was spoken in the South-East of the country.

The Northumbrian and Mercian dialects had many features in common and are sometimes collectively referred to as the **Angle** dialect /Brook 1963, 40 - 45; Baugh 1959, 59 -60/.

The most important surviving documents in the Old English language were written in the Wessex dialect, that is why it is the main source of our knowledge of Old English. But it would be a mistake to think that the modern English language has developed from the Wessex dialect. J.L.Brook proves that the basic form for contemporary English was a species of the Mercian dialect, though individual words were taken from other dialects as well /Brook 1963, 41/.

The modern verb **to hear**, for example, could not have been produced from the Wessex form **hieran**. It originates from the Mercian form **heran**.

Mercian (or Northumbrian) forms developed into the modern adjectives **old** and **cold**; in the Mercian dialect they were **ald** and **cald**, while in the Wessex dialect they had the forms **eald** and **ceald** and according to well-known phonetic laws they should have developed into something like ***eald** [i:ld] and ***cheald**. Actually there were not many language features that would be characteristic only for one of the Old English dialects and would not be found in others. The reason is that various forms could easily pass from one dialect to another /Brook 1963, 42/. The difference between the dialects was mainly of quantitative character, i.e. it generally depended on the frequency of this or that group of forms /Brook 1963, 42/.

2. The Wessex Dialect

The Wessex dialect is represented by multiple and various literary documents. Many of them are very important as a source of information about the Old English language.

On the basis of the Wessex dialect there developed *koine*, the transdialectal literary language of the Old

English period /Ярцева, 1985, 19/.

The development of the *koine* on the basis of the Wessex dialect was possible due to the political and cultural progress which the Kingdom of Wessex achieved in the 10th century.

The main characteristic features of the Wessex dialect were as follows.

The West Germanic long vowel **a:** (from the Germanic **ǣ:**, corresponding to Gothic e: [e:]) develops into **ǣ**, while in the other dialects it is narrowed into **e**. E.g., Goth. **de:þs** and **ste:lum** corresponded to the Wessex **dǣ:d** 'deed' and **stǣ:lon** 'stole', which in their turn corresponded to **ded** and **stelon** in the other dialects. Yet, in the word **me:ce** 'sword' in the Wessex poetic texts **e:** is used (though the form ***mǣ:ce** might be expected). This exclusion is explained by the fact that the word **me:ce** had been borrowed from the Angle dialect and was not used in everyday Wessex speech /Brook 1963, 49 -50/.

Before certain groups of consonants diphthongization of monophthongs takes place /Алексеева 1971, 92/ - **Old English Fracture:**

ǣ + h > ea e + h + vowel > eo ǣ + l + vowel > ea e + lc or lh > eo

a + r + vowel > ea

Another characteristic feature of the Wessex dialect was the palatalization of diphthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonant. As a result of this phenomenon there appeared the forms **gielp** 'to boast', **forgielðan** 'to pay', etc., while in the other dialects the forms **gepl** and **forgeðdan** remain.

The diphthongs **ea** and **eo** change into **ie**, and the long **ǣ:** and **ie** change into the long **ie:** as a result of the front umlaut. In the other dialects the long **ea:** changes into the long **e:**, but the long **eo:** (io:) does not change. Thus, in the Wessex dialect such forms are fixed as **hie:ran** 'to hear', **pie:stru** 'darkness', **hliehhan** 'to laugh', while in the other dialects these words have the form **heran**, **piostru**, **hlehhan**.

But the changes under the influence of the velar umlaut were on the contrary limited. Thus, in the words like **saru** 'armour', **wita** 'wizard' there were no changes in the Wessex dialect, while in the Mercian and Northumbrian dialects the root vowels in these words changed under the influence of the following **u:** **searu**, **wiota**.

A grammatical characteristic feature of the Wessex dialect was the use of the non-syllabic inflection in the 3rd person of the present tense singular of the indicative. In the other dialects this form had the inflection **-ep**.

3. The Northumbrian Dialect.

The Northumbrian dialect is not represented in the literary documents so abundantly as the Wessex dialect. As important sources for the study of the Northumbrian dialect the inscriptions of the 8th - 9th centuries and the interlinear glosses in the Lindisfarn Gospel, the Durham Prayer-Book and the Rushwoth Bible may be regarded. Judging by the errors in the glosses, their authors were not acquainted with the Old English grammar very well and, which is quite remarkable, in some cases they anticipated the norms of the later - Middle English - language /Бруннер 1955, 82 -83/.

The main characteristic features of the Northumbrian dialect are as follows.

The West Germanic vowel **a** (Gothic **a**) remains unchanged before the clusters of **l** with another consonant while in the Wessex and Kentish dialects it changes into **ǣ>ea**. Thus, the Wessex forms **eall** 'all', **healdan** 'hold' correspond to the Northumbrian **all**, **haldan**.

As a result of the front umlaut the diphthong **ea** changes into **e**, e.g.: ***dearni > derne** 'hidden' /Ильиш 1973, 54/.

The long diphthong **ea:** in the Northumbrian dialect (like in Mercian and Kentish) changes into the long monophthong **e:**, e.g.: ***hea:rian > he:ran** 'hear'.

A characteristic feature of all the non-Wessex dialects (including the Northumbrian) is the absence of palatalization after **g-**, **c-**, **sc-**.

Before certain combinations of consonants some vowel monophthongs undergo changes /Алексеева 1971, 92/:

ǣ + l + consonant > a: salde, alle **e + r + consonant > ea:** stearra, fearr **i + r + consonant > io:** iorre

In the conditions of the front umlaut **o > oe**, **o > oe**. In the conditions of the velar umlaut **e > ea**, **i > io**.

4. The Mercian Dialect.

The role of the Mercian dialect was rather important as many forms of it became the basis for the development of the forms of the English literary language. There is an opinion that the Mercian dialect should be considered as the ground of the modern English language.

The Mercian dialect has the following distinctive features.

In the place of the Wessex long **ǣ:** it develops the long **e:**, e.g.: **stre:t** 'street', **sle:pan** 'to sleep'

/Ильиш 1973, 53/.

The diphthongs **ea**, **eo**, **eo**, **eo** are monophthongized under certain conditions: examples??????

ea > a before **h**, **ht**, **x** () **ea > e** before **rc**, **rg** **ea > e** before **h**, **g**, **l**

eo > e and **eo > e** before **h**, **x**, **rc**, **rg**, **rh**, **lh**

In the Mercian dialect, like in the Northumbrian, there is practically no umlaut /Алексеева 1971, 92/, but before certain clusters of consonants some vowel monophthongs undergo changes (OE fracture was present in all the cases but **æ (+ l)**): **æ (+ l + consonant) > a:** alle, salde **a (+ r + consonant) > ea:** earm **e (+ r + consonant) > eo:** steorra **i (+ r + consonant) > eo:** eorre

Under the conditions of the front umlaut the following changes take place: **æ + r + consonant > e; o > oe** or **e; o > oe** or **e**.

The vowel **a** in the open syllable before back vowels changes into **oe: doegum, doega** /Алексеева 1971, 92/.

5. The Kentish Dialect

The number of Old English documents written in the Kentish dialect is not large. The oldest of them are legal documents. Some features of the language of those documents allow to presume that their authors might have spoken other dialects /Бруннер 1955, 82/.

The principal features of the Kentish dialect are as follows.

The Wessex long vowels **æ:** and **a:** correspond to the long **e:** in the Kentish dialect, e.g.: **de:lan** 'to divide'.

The diphthongs **ie** and **ie** and the unstable vowel monophthongs **i, i:, y** and **y:** which developed from them do not exist in the Kentish dialect /Ильиш 1973, 54/.

The Wessex long diphthongs **ea:** and **eo:** correspond to **ia:** and **io:** in the Kentish dialect, e.g.: **dia: d** 'dead'.

In the Kentish dialect, like in the Northumbrian and Mercian, there is no palatalization of vowels after **g-**, **c-** and **sc-**.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 5

- 1) Name the four main dialects of the Old English language.
- 2) What does it mean that the Old English dialects were basically tribal?
- 3) In which territory was the Wessex dialect spoken?
- 4) What is the collective name for the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects?
- 5) In which dialect were the most important surviving Old English documents written? 5) Which dialect is contemporary English based upon in J.L.Brook's opinion?
- 6) What is *koine*? On the basis of which dialect did koine develop?
- 7) How did the West Germanic long vowel **a** develop in the Wessex dialect?
- 8) How did the cluster **e + h + vowel** develop in the Wessex dialect?
- 9) Which of the following forms belong to the Wessex dialect: **hieran, heran, hlehhan, hliehhan**?
- 10) What was the inflection of the verb in the 3rd person singular (the present tense) in the Wessex dialect?
- 11) What were the most important documents written in the Northumbrian dialect?
- 12) How did the cluster **e + r + consonant** change in the Northumbrian dialect?
- 13) How did the long diphthong **ea** change in the Northumbrian dialect?
- 14) In which territory was the Mercian dialect spoken?
- 15) How did **æ** before the cluster **l + consonant** change in the Mercian dialect? Illustrate it.
- 16) How did **a** before the cluster **r + consonant** change in the Mercian dialect? Illustrate it.
- 17) How did **e** before the cluster **r + consonant** change in the Mercian dialect? Illustrate it.
- 18) How did **i** before the cluster **r + consonant** change in the Mercian dialect? Illustrate it.
- 19) What documents are known in the Kentish dialect?

* * *

Now you have got acquainted with the Old English language, its origins, phonetic system, spelling, lexicon, grammar and dialects.

The dramatic events of the 11th century changed the course of the English history and influenced the development of the English language. That was the time when the Old English period ended and the new one started - Middle English. In the struggle with the languages of the conquerors the English language survived, though considerably changed. But this is a different theme.

From now on you will be able to read texts in Old English language. While reading them try to imagine the epoch when they were written. The target of your reading should be exhausting (if possible) interpretation of historic-linguistic character. In reading the text try to observe the rules of reading (first of all mind the letters **g, c, f, th, th, s**). Analyzing the vocabulary try to establish the etymology of words. By all means look for language parallels.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE OF THE 11TH - 15TH CENTURIES: PHOENIX RESTORED TO LIFE

Introduction. The Medieval Period in the History of the English Language

The period of the history of the English language from the Norman Conquest of 1066 to the end of the 15th century is called Middle English. Let us restore the main events of 1066 which had such tremendous consequences for the further lot of England and the development of the English language. At the beginning of 1066 King Edward the Confessor (1003 - 66) died childless. Son of Æthelred the Unready and Emma, daughter of Richard II, duke of Normandy, during Cnut the Great's reign (871-901) Edward lived in exile in Normandy. He was crowned in 1043 and in 1045 married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwine.

Thereafter Godwine's family dominated royal policy. Edward lost popularity by placing Normans in high offices in an attempt to counterbalance Godwine's influence. Tension between the two parties led to Godwine's brief exile (1051), but he quickly re-established supremacy. In his last years Edward increasingly turned from secular affairs, control of the country being left to the great earls, such as Godwine's son Harold. Famed for his asceticism and piety, Edward was buried in Westminster abbey (which he founded). He was canonized in 1161. Feast day: 13 Oct. Harold, the Duke of Wessex, was elected his successor. Harold was the late king's brother-in-law, while William, the Duke of Normandy, was Edward's cousin. William, a descendant of Scandinavian Vikings, claimed for his rights of becoming the king of England. In October 1066 he crossed the Channel and invaded the territory of England. Harold in the head of a powerful military force moved to meet him. On the 14th of October 1066 the historic Battle at Hastings took place. William was the first to attack in order not to give Harold an opportunity to collect his troops. Success attended William. Harold and his best generals were killed and the rest dispersed or taken prisoners. The destiny of the English crown was decided. On the eve of Christmas William's coronation took place in Westminster Abbey. The English historians are inclined to see the cause of the conquest of England by William in the feudal disunity of the country. If England had been united, F.Halliday writes, the Battle at Hastings would not have been of decisive historic importance /Halliday 1983, 39/. But the country was torn by inner contradictions and could not offer any efficient resistance to the invaders.

The old Anglo-Saxon aristocracy was exiled or executed. Their requisitioned estates and lands were generously given away to the new nobility - Norman barons. No less severely did William treat the clergy. Very few bishops and clergymen managed to save their position. The largest part of the clergy ended their days in prison or in exile, their positions being occupied by William's creatures from Normandy.

William to whose name after the events of 1066 the nick-name Conqueror was added became the king of England even without knowing his subjects' language. The king himself and his court spoke only French. The fact that English remained the language of common people while French was the language of aristocracy resulted in a very peculiar linguistic situation in the country: English was pressed back into a lower social sphere and French took a superior position being an attribute of the ruling class /Ильиш, 1958, 149/.

As a result of the domination of the French language in all the official spheres English suffered deep crisis. Before the middle of the 13th century there was practically no literature in English. In state and church affairs, at schools, in commerce, in private and official correspondence French and Latin were used.

In the 13th century, as A.I.Smirnitsky notes, French began losing the character of an everyday colloquial language and gradually turned into a traditionally used official tongue. The domination of the French language comes to an end in the second half of the 14th century /Смирницкий 1955, 24/. The English language survived in the severe struggle with the invaders' language. In the 13th century there began the revival of the English literature, there appear religious treatises, chronicles, translations. But the rivalry with French quickened the process of its development, and the revived English language was sufficiently different from the Old English language - the language of "Beowulf", the chronicles of the 9th - 11th centuries and King Alfred's works.

In 1258 king Henry III addressed the citizens of London with a proclamation written both in French and English. In 1362 under king Edward III Parliament ruled that courts and law should conduct their business in English as "French was too little known". About this very time French was replaced by English in Parliament itself and schools. Thus, by the end of the 14th century the supremacy of Anglo-French came to an end. In 1477 English was introduced at schools. Thus, by the 15th c. English had ousted French from all the official spheres and became the common language of the English Kingdom.

The main historic events in England in the 11-15th centuries are as follows.

The Civil War of 1263-1267 between the Norman overlords and their retainers and the English knights, townsmen and peasantry, as a result of which the parliament arose in 1265, which inaugurated the epoch of centralized monarchy.

The Hundred Years' War from 1337 to 1453 broke out as the result of royal quarrels over land. It was begun by King Edward III who invaded France. Over a few generations the English continually invaded France until in 1453, under Henry VI they were defeated and pushed back out of France.

In 1348 the bubonic plague called the Black death coming from China through Europe killed about 1/3 of the population of England. The peasants' revolt of 1381 was caused by the oppression of peasants, who were mere slaves of lords. The revolt came following the Poll-tax levied on the people of England, which made the life of peasants still harder. Sixty thousand people from the counties of Essex and Kent marched to London led by Wat Tyler and Jack Straw. The young king Richard II promised to the people to do everything they claimed. But the people were betrayed: Wat Tyler was treacherously killed, the king unsaid what he had promised and executed some fifteen hundred of the rebels.

The Wars of the Roses which lasted from 1455 to 1485 was the struggle between the noble family of Lancaster, represented by a red rose, and the noble family of York, represented by a white rose, to make their man king of England. These wars ended in 1485 with the battle of Bosworth, when Henry Tudor of Lancaster was proclaimed King of England. A year later he married the Yorkist heiress Princess Elizabeth and the two houses were reconciled.

The most important written documents of the Middle English period include:

-in Norman French the Lays of Marie de France and probably The Chanson de Roland, knight romances of the 14th century.

-Written in the London dialect: "King Henry III's Proclamation" (1258), works by G. Chaucer (1340 -1400) – first of all, "The Canterbury Tales", in which pilgrims tell each other stories, which are humorous and sometimes bawdy; the poem "Vision of Piers the Plowman" – (видение о Петре Пахаре) by William Langland written in 1362 and reflecting the ideas of the peasants' movement; here also belong the works by John Gower (1330-1408), John Lydgate (1379-1449), John Wycliff (1320-84, the Bible) and William Caxton.

-written in the Scottish dialect: "Bruce" – the poem about a fighter for the independence of Scotland;

-written in the Northern dialect: the religious poem 'The Prick of Conscience' by Richard Rolle de Hampole, Dan Michel's "Ayenbyte of Inwyt" (remorse of conscience), paraphrase of the original (1340)

--written in the Central dialect: the religious poem "Ormulum" (1200) by the monk Orm (the retelling of the Bible), the "Peterborough Chronicle" (1154), which was in fact the continuation of "The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle", written in the Southern dialects: the rhymed chronicle "Brutus" by Layamon, which was an Anglo-Saxon paraphrase of a French work by Wace and concerned the early history of England (ab. 1205); the "Ancres Riwele" – the statute of a convent of nuns in the south-west of England.

(OPTIONAL) The poem "Of Wicked Times of King Edward II" by an unknown author (c. 1315) the chronicle of the 14th century, the poem "The Flower and the Leaf" by an unknown author (the 15th century), mysteries of the 15th century, the poem "Of King Henry VI's Times" by an unknown author (c. 1455), "Chronicle of England" by Capgrave (c. 1463).

Chapter 1. Phonetic Structure and Spelling in the Middle English Language

1. Changes in the System of Vowel Monophthongs in Middle English

In the Middle English language the following changes in the system of vowel monophthongs took place:

- 1) the shortening of vowels in the closed syllable;
- 2) the lengthening of vowels in the open syllable;
- 3) the further development, or transformation, of the short **a** and long **a**;
- 4) the further development of the short **æ** and long **æ**;
- 5) the further development of short **y** and long **y**;
- 6) the reduction of the unstressed vowels.

Let us consider these phenomena in detail.

1) **The shortening of vowels in the closed syllable** is connected with a new phonetic regularity that begins to develop in the Middle English language: the length or shortness of the vowel becomes dependent on the type of the syllable in which that sound was used. In the Old English language there was no dependence of that kind, i.e. both in the open and the closed syllable there might be either a long or a short vowel:

Short vowel ----- closed syllable

Long vowel ----- open syllable

In the Middle English language between the parameter of length/shortness of the vowel and the type of the syllable there appear the relation of the **complementary distribution**, i.e. a short vowel is used only in the closed syllable while a long one only in the open syllable:

Short vowel ----- closed syllable

Long vowel ----- open syllable

As a result of this dependence all the vowels which were followed by two consonants shortened, e.g.:

OE **wīsdōm** > ME **wisdom**.

1. The shortening of vowels had an impact for the grammatical structure of the words. For example, in the infinitive form of the verb **kēpen** 'to keep' the long vowel remained while in the form of the past tense the shortening took place: OE **cepte** > ME **kepte**.

*The long vowels did not change if they stood before the homorganic clusters **ld, nd, mb** (you remember that before these clusters there was lengthening of vowels in the 9th century): OE **bīndan** > ME **bīnden**.*

*In some words the vowels were not shortened before the cluster **st**, e.g.: **masta** 'biggest'.*

In some cases the vowels were shortened in trisyllabic words before one consonant, e.g.: **laferce** 'lark' > **laverke** > **larke**.

2) **The lengthening of vowels in the open syllable** is the other side of the phenomenon described above. The lengthening of vowels in the open syllable is dated by the 13th century /Ильиш 1958, 176 177/.

In this change the vowels **a, e, o** were involved, e.g.:

OE **hōpa** 'hope' > ME **hōpe**

OE **talū** 'tale' > ME **tale**

OE **macian** 'to make' > ME **maken**

OE **nama** 'name' > ME **nāme** OE **sprecan** 'to speak' > ME **spēken**

The short vowels **i** and **u** were not lengthened as a rule, e.g.:

OE **risan** 'to rise' > ME **risen**

OE **cuman** 'to come' > ME **cumen**

3) **The development of the short a and the long ā** was different in different dialects.

The Old English **a** (before nasal consonants) changed into the common **a** in the Northern, East-Central and Southern dialects, e.g.:

OE **man** 'man' > ME **man**

OE **land** 'land' > ME **land**

OE **can** 'can' > ME **can**

In the West-Central dialects **a** changed into **o**: **man** > **mon**, **land** > **lond**, **can** > **con**.

The common Old English short **a** remained unchanged in all the dialects.

The long **ā** in the Central and Southern dialects changed into the long open **o**, e.g.:

OE **hām** 'home' > ME **hom**

OE **stān** 'stone' > ME **ston**

OE **hāt** 'hot' > ME **hot**

In the Northern dialects the long **a** remained unchanged.

4) **The development of the short æ and the long æ** also had different ways. In most dialects the short **æ** changed into **a**, e.g.:

OE **æppel** 'apple' > ME **appel**

OE **glæd** 'glad' > ME **glad**

OE **wæs** 'was' > ME **was**

But in the Kentish and West-Central dialects the short **æ** developed in the direction of narrowing, i.e. changed into **e**: **æppel** > **eppel**, **glæd** > **gled**, **wæs** > **wes**.

As for the development of **the long æ:**, it is a more complicated situation because the development of this vowel depended on its previous history. The original Old English long **æ:** in Northern, Central and Kentish dialects had changed into the long closed **e:** already in the Old English period and remained unchanged during the whole Middle English period. In all the other dialects the original long **æ:** changed into the long open **ɛ:**:

OE **lætan** 'to let' > ME **lɛten**

OE **slæpan** 'to sleep' > ME **slɛpen**

The Old English long **æ** which appeared as a result of *the break of ā (i-mutation of ā = Goth, ai?)* in all the dialects except Kentish also changed into the long open **e**, e.g.:

OE **dæ:l** 'part' > ME **dē:l**

OE **sæ:** 'sea' > ME **sē:**

(in the Kentish dialect the change of **æ** into the long closed **e** had taken place during the Old English period)

5) The development of the short y and long y finally resulted in the fact that these vowels completely disappeared from the English language. The history of the short **y** was different in different dialects. In the Northern and East-Central dialects **y** changed into **i**. In the Kentish dialect **y** changed into **e**. In the West-Central and South-Western dialects **y** remained unchanged for a long time and finally changed into **u** /Mosse 1959, 46 - 47/. Thus, the Old English word **hyll** 'hill' acquires the following dialectal variants in the Middle English language:

hill (Northern, East-Central)

Old English **hyll** ----- **hell** (Kentish)

hyll > **hull** (West-Central, South-Western)

The development of the Old English long **y**: was similar. Cf.:

fīr (Northern, East-Central)

Old English **fy:r** 'fire' ----- **fēr** (Kentish)

fui:r (West-Central, South-Western)

Important: The letter combination **ui** denoted the long vowel /y:/.

6) The reduction of the unstressed vowels was the most important phonetic phenomenon which had an impact on the grammatical structure of the English language as the whole system of grammatical inflections was changed under the influence of this phenomenon.

The reduction of the unstressed vowels, as some scholars believe, took place during the transitional period comprising the end of Old English and the beginning of the Middle English.

In the Old English language the unstressed vowels were pronounced with the same articulation as the stressed ones. In the Middle English language the articulation of the unstressed vowels became weakened which resulted in a situation when all the multitude of vowels that stood in the unstressed position were reduced to the one weak vowel /e/ which was expressed in writing by the letter **e**.

As a result of the reduction of the unstressed vowels many grammatical inflections lost their distinctions. Thus, for example, while in the Old English language the verb in the infinitive form had the ending **-an**, in the form of the past tense plural the ending **-on** and in the form of Participle II the ending **-en**, in the Middle English language these forms lost their distinctions. Cf.:

OE **writan** 'to write' > ME **writen**

OE **writon** '(they) wrote' > ME **writen**

OE **writen** 'written' > ME **writen**

Similar processes took place in the system of the noun. The number of cases reduced and the Old English system of cases began to die out, so this process resulted in the impossibility to tell the cases.

2. Changes in Diphthongs

As you remember, in the Old English language there were four pairs of diphthongs:

ea eo ie io ea: eo: ie: io:

A characteristic feature of the Old English diphthongs was that their second element was more open than the first.

In the Middle English language all the Old English diphthongs changed into monophthongs.

1. The short diphthong **ea** changed into the monophthong **a** through the intermediate stage **æ**, e.g.:

eald 'old' > **æld** > **ald** **earm** 'poor' > **ærm** > **arm** **healf** 'half' > **hælf** > **half**

In the Southern dialects **ea** changed into the long open **e**: **eald** > **eld**, **earm** > **erm**, **healf** > **half**. The long diphthong **ea:** changed into the long open monophthong **e**:

OE **bea:m** 'tree' > ME **bē:m**

OE **brea:d** 'bread' > ME **brē:d**

OE **dea:d** 'dead' > ME **dē:d**

Only in the Kentish dialect the long **ea:** changes into **ya** or **ye** (**their phonetic value remains somewhat obscure**): **bea:m** > **bya:m** or **byem**, **bread** > **bryad** or **bryed**, **dead** > **dyad** or **dyed**.

2. The short diphthong **eo** changed into the monophthong **e** through the intermediate stage **o**, e.g.: **heorte** ‘heart’ > **horte** > **herte** **steorra** ‘star’ > **storre** > **sterre** **steorfan** ‘to die’ > **storven** > **sterven**

The long diphthong **eo:** changed into the long closed monophthong **e:**, e.g.:

OE **ceosan** ‘to choose’ > ME **chesen**

OE **deop** ‘deep’ > ME **dep** or **deep**

OE **deor** ‘deer’ > ME **der** or **deer**

3. The diphthong **ie**, both short and long, had changed into the monophthong **i** in the end of the Old English period /Розендорн 1967, 99/: OE **gietan** ‘to get’ > ME **yiten**

OE **gielidan** ‘to pay’ > ME **yilden**

OE **giefan** ‘to give’ > ME **yiven**

OE **cie:se** ‘cheese’ > ME **chese** [i:] OE **hie:ran** ‘hear’ > ME **heren** [i:]

Note: To denote the sound [i, i:] the letter ‘i’ was found in the ME South-Western dialects; in the other dialects the letter ‘e’ was used to denote this sound.

4. The diphthongs **io** and **io:** had changed into **eo** in the Old English language and the words with this diphthong developed along the usual line, e.g.: **siolfor** ‘silver’ > **seolfor** > **solver** > **selver**; **drio:rig** ‘cruel’ > **drorig** > **drery**.

Alongside with the monophthongization of the Old English diphthongs another process took place - *the appearance of new diphthongs*. The diphthongs in Middle English were different from their OE counterparts, in that the second element in them was narrower than the first: **[ai], [ei], [au], [ou]**. The new diphthongs in the Middle English language appeared from three sources:

1) as a result of connection of the vowels **[æ]**, **[e]** and **[e:]** with the vocalized central-lingual fricative consonant **[j]** (in spelling **g**);

2) as a result of connection of the vowels **a** and **a:** with the vocalized back-lingual fricative consonant **[ɣ]** (in spelling **g**);

3) as a result of the appearance of a glide after the vowels **[a]**, **[a:]**, **[o]** and **[o:]** in the position before the back-lingual fricative **[h]** /Mosse 1959, 50/.

Let us consider all these instances in detail.

First. The short vowel **[æ]**, as it has been mentioned above, changed into **[a]**. Short **[e]** and long **[e:]** remained unchanged. The consonant **[j]** underwent *vocalization*, i.e. changed into the vowel **[i]**.

As a result there appeared the following diphthongs:

æg > **ai** or **ay**; e.g.: **dæg** ‘day’ > **dai** or **day** **eg** > **ei** or **ey**; e.g.: **weg** ‘way’ > **wei** or **wey** **e:g** > **ei** or **ey**; e.g.: **he:g** ‘hay’ > **hei** or **hey**

It should be noticed that in the last instance the long **[e:]** after becoming an element of the diphthong lost its length.

Second. The short vowel **[a]** remains unchanged, while the long **[a:]** changes into the long open **[o:]**. The consonant **[ɣ]** changes into the semivowel **[w]** which undergoes further vocalization and changes into the vowel **[u]**. As a result the following diphthongs are produced: **ag** > **au** or **aw**; e.g.: **dragan** ‘to draw’ > **drawen** **a:g** > **o:u** or **o:w**; e.g.: **a:gen** ‘own’ > **owen** Later the diphthong **[ou]** lost its length.

Third. Ah, a:h > au, aw; e.g. da:g, da:h ‘dough’ > dough [dou].

But: oxt > out; e.g. thought, bought, sought, wrought, nought. But: ox > of; e.g. trough, cough.

3. Changes in the System of Consonants

The most important changes in the system of consonants of the Middle English language were as follows:

1. the palatalization of consonants and *the appearance of sibilants*;
2. the vocalization and omission of the consonant **[v]** before other consonants;
3. the omission of the consonant **[h]** before **[r]**, **[l]** and **[n]** at the beginning of the word;
4. the change of the back-lingual fricative **[ɣ]** into the bilabial **[w]** after **[r]** and **[l]**;
5. the formation of the consonant **[x]** in the position of ‘**h**’ after vowels.

Now let us consider each change in detail.

1. The palatalization of consonants and the appearance of sibilants had begun in the Old English language /Ильиш 1958, 1954/.

In the Middle English language the that process was completed.

The palatalized consonant [k'] which stood next to front-lingual vowels changed into the affricate [tʃ], which was expressed in spelling by the letter combination **ch**. E.g.:

OE **cild** 'child' > ME **child**

OE **cirice** 'church' > ME **chirche**

OE **tæ:can** 'to teach' > ME **tę:chen**

The palatalized cluster [sk'] changed into the sibilant [ʃ] which was expressed in spelling by the combination **sch**, **ssh** or **sh**, e.g.: OE **scip** 'ship' > ME **schip**, **sshipe** or **ship**. *But in the words of the Scandinavian origin the cluster [sk] remained unchanged, e.g.: skirt, sky, to ski, etc.*

The consonant [g'] changed into the affricate [dʒ], which was expressed in spelling by the combination **dge** instead of 'cy', e.g.: OE **brycg** > ME **bridge**.

2. In some words the vocalization or fall of the consonant [v] before other consonants took place. The vocalization of [v] consisted in its change into the vowel [u].

Let us consider, for example, the change of the Old English word **navogar** ['navogar] 'awl'(шило). Firstly, as a result of the fall of the unstressed [o] there appeared the form **navgar**, in which the consonant [v] stood in the position before the consonant [g]. In the process of vocalization [v] changed into [u] and the word acquired the form **nauger**. Later, as a result of **metathesis (or metanalysis, according to Ilyish)**, the initial **n** in the word passed to the indefinite article, hence the later form of this word: **a nauger** > **an auger** /Ильиш 1972, 168/. **The fall** of the consonant [v] may be observed, for example, in the word **hlæfdige** (HLAF 'bread' + DIG(AN) 'to mix') 'lady': **hlæfdige** > **lavdi** > **lady**.

3. The fall of the consonant [h] before [r], [l], [n] at the beginning of a word passed through the intermediate stage of the metathesis: **hl** > **lh** > **l**, **hr** > **rh** > **r**, **hn** > **nh** > **n**; e.g.:

OE **hla:f** > ME **lhof** > **loof** (**loaf**; **bread**)

OE **hlæ:fdige** (**bread kneader**) > ME **lhevedi** > **lavdi** > **lady**

OE **hla:ford** 'lord'(bread master) > ME **lhoverd** > **lord**

OE **hlæ:ne** 'lean' > ME **lhene** > **lene**

OE **hre:o** 'sadness' > ME **rhewe** > **rewe** (**ruth**, **rue** - **жалость, сострадание**)

OE **hring** 'ring' > ME **rhing** > **ring** or **ryng**

OE **hnutu** 'nut' > ME **nhute** > **nute**

4. The change of [g] into [w] after [l] or [r] may be illustrated by the following examples:

OE **morgen** 'morning' > ME **morwen**

OE **birgian** 'to borrow' > ME **borwen**

OE **galge** 'gallows' > ME **galwe**

5. The formation of the consonant [x] in the position of the Old English [h] after vowels was followed by the introduction of the letter combination **gh** by means of which this new sound was expressed in writing. The consonant [x] was similar to the first sound in the Russian word **хижина**. E.g.:

OE **leo:ht** 'light' > ME **light**

OE **ly:htan** 'to lighten' > ME **lighten**

OE **cnihht** 'boy servant' > ME **knight** or **knyght**

OE **beorht** or **briht** 'bright' > ME **bright**

OE **nea:h** 'near' > ME **neigh** [ei] or **nygh**

OE **niht** or **neaht** 'night' > ME **night** or **nyght**

OE **eahta** 'eight' > ME **eighte**

OE **dru:goth** 'drought' > ME **droghte**

OE **hlyhhan** 'laugh' > ME **laghen** or **laughen**

OE **riht** 'right' > ME **right**

Middle English Spelling

The alphabet which was used at the beginning of the Middle English period was practically the same as in Old English /Fisiak 1968, 14/:

a æ e i o u b c d f g h k l m n p q

r s t þ(thorn) ð (eth) w x y ꝥ(yogh) z

But by the end of the Middle English period the alphabet had considerably changed: it had lost the “exotic” letters **æ, þ, ð, ð, and the new letters g, w, v** were introduced. As a whole the alphabet of the late Middle English period looks like that:

a e i o u y b c d f g h k l m n p q r s t v w x z

As a result of changes in the phonetic system and graphics of the Middle English language **the phonetic principle of writing was broken.**

While in the Old English language there was one-to-one correspondence between the letters and the sounds, in Middle English one letter could express different sounds of speech and - vice versa - one and the same sound could be expressed by different means. In the Middle English language there appeared a great number of complex graphemes, i.e. letter combinations expressing these or those sounds.

The change of spelling under the influence of French p. 172 (Illyish)

In ME the runic letters passed out of use. Thorn – þ – and the crossed d – ð, ð – were replaced by the digraph th, which retained the same sound value: [θ] and [ð]; the rune “wynn” was displaced by “double u” – w – ; the ligatures æ and œ fell into disuse. After the period of Anglo-Norman dominance (11th–13th c.) English regained its prestige as the language of writing. Though for a long time writing was in the hands of those who had a good knowledge of French. Therefore many innovations in ME spelling reveal an influence of the French scribal tradition. The most conspicuous feature of Late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in Late ME texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different. In the course of ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling; some of them reflected the sound changes which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters by new letters and digraphs.

In brief, the changes in spelling may be summed up as follows [Залеская, Матвеева 1984]:

- 1) the digraphs ou and ie which occurred in many French borrowings and were regularly used in Anglo-Norman texts were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:] and [e:]. other alterations in spelling cannot be traced directly to French influence though they testify to a similar tendency: a wider use of digraphs.
- 2) the affricates and sibilants came to be designated as ‘ch, sh, dge’(also ssh and sch, j and g): child, edge, shal under the influence of the French orthography (introduced by ME notaries in the 13th c).
- 3) there evolved the letter combination ‘th’ to designate the interdental sounds.
- 4) the digraph wh replaced the OE sequence of letters hw as in OE hwæt, ME what [hwat].
- 5) the sound [h] in some cases came to be designated by ‘gh’ (OE dohtor > ME doghter)
- 6) the letter ‘c’ began to designate [k] before the back vowels and [s] before the front vowels, for front vowels and consonants the letter ‘k’ was introduced:
OE caru > ME care
OE cind > ME kind
OE cna:wan > ME knowen
- 7) OE ‘cw’ came to be symbolized as ‘qu’ (cwene – queen)
- 8) there appeared the letter ‘v’, which alternated with ‘u’ to designate [v] and [u]: OE lufu > ME love, loue [‘luve]; ouer ‘over’; vpon ‘upon’.
- 9) Some replacements were probably made to avoid confusion of resembling letters: thus o was employed not only for [o] but also to indicate short [u] alongside the letter u; it happened when u stood close to n, m, or v, e.g. OE lufu became ME love [luvə].
- 10) long sounds were shown by double letters, e.g. ME book [bo:k], though long [e:] could be indicated by ie and ee, and also by e.
- 11) The letter y came to be used as an equivalent of i and was evidently preferred when i could be confused with the surrounding letters m, n and others.
- 12) Sometimes, y, as well w, were put at the end of a word, so as to finish the word with a curve, e.g. ME very [veri], my [mi:];
- 13) W was interchangeable with u in the digraphs ou, au, e.g. ME down, down [du:n], and was often preferred finally, e.g. ME how [hu:], now [nu:].

14) For letters indicating two sounds the rules of reading are as follows. G and c stand for [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels and for [g] and [k] before back vowels respectively.

15) Y stands for [j] at the beginning of words, otherwise, it is an equivalent of the letter i, e.g. ME yet [jet], knyght [knix't].

The meanings of letters and complex graphemes are given in Tables # 31 and # 32.

Table # 31

Meaning of Letters in the Middle English Language

Letter	Meaning	Example	Letter	Meaning	Example
a	/a/	appel 'apple'	c	/k/ /s/ in French & Latin words before 'e, i, y'	casten 'cast' cessen 'cease'; celle 'monastery cell'
	/a:/	hal > hole 'healthy, whole'	d	/d/	dep 'deep'
e	/e/	tellen 'tell'	f	/f/	fir 'fire'
	/e:/	quene 'queen'	g (borrowed from French)	/g/	glas 'glass'
	/e:/	reden 'read'		/dz /	gelus 'jealous'
long closed o	/o:/	sone 'soon'	h	/h/	habben 'have'
i	/i/	willen 'will'	k	/k/	kepen 'keep'
	/i:/	lif 'life'		/l/	land 'land'
o	/o/	hors 'horse'	m	/m/	man 'man'
	/o:/	fot 'foot'	n	/n/	night 'night'
	/o:/	ston 'stone'	p	/p/	cuppe 'cup'
	/u/ ⁶	sone 'son'; come, som, love, bigonne	r	/r/	ring 'ring'
u (with its allograph 'v')	/u/	full 'full'	T v (with its allograph 'u')	/s/	seuen 'seven'
	/u:/	muthe 'mouth'	s	/z/	desyre 'desire'
	/v/	ouer 'over'	t	/t/	time 'time'
y	/i/	syngen 'sing'	u/v	/u/	vpon 'upon'
	/i:/	wif = wiif 'wife'	v	/v/	gyven 'give'

⁶ This spelling is due to graphic considerations: with the letters u(v), n, m, consisting of vertical strokes 'u' changed into 'o' [u] (come, som, love, bigonne).

	/j/	yeer 'year'	w	/w/	we 'we'
b	/b/	bitter 'bit- ter'		/ks/	box 'box'
			z		zenne 'sin' (dialectal)

The absence of one-to-one correspondence between the graphic and the phonetic systems of the Middle English language proves that **the plane of expression of the written form of the language is no longer orientated on the copying of the plane of expression of the oral form of the language**. The written form of the language has its own functional characteristics /Абуханова 1983, 24/.

Table # 32

Meanings of Letter Combinations in the Middle English Language

Letter Combination	Meaning	Examples	Letter Combination	Meaning	Examples
aa	/a:/	laar 'learning'	ou, ow	/ou/	knownen 'to know; owen 'to own'; slow, snow, crow, low
ai, ay	/ai/	dai, day 'day'	ue ui uu	/o:/ > /e/	seolver ⁷ > suelfer, 'silver'
au, aw	/au/	raw 'raw', raughte 'got'		/y:/ > /u:/	fruit 'fruit', fuir 'fire'
ea	/e:/	readi 'ready'		/w/	uuel, uel 'well'
ee	/e:/	teeth 'teeth', feet 'feet'	c, ch, cch	/t /	cherche 'church', cacchen 'to catch'
	/e:/	beene 'bean'		/k/	cock, cok 'cock'
ei, ey	/ei/	wei, wey 'way'	ge	/d /	egge 'edge', bridge 'bridge'
eo, oe	/o/ /ö/ (in French words)	steorre, stoerre 'star' boeuf, people		/x/	night 'night', sorghe 'sadness'
	/o:/	kreopen, kroepen 'to creep'	ll	/l/	falle 'fall'
ii		wiif 'wife',		/kw/	quene

⁷ The stress became descending (falling on the second element), hence the loss of the first one.

	/i:/	liif 'life'	q, qu, ph sh, sch, ssh		'queen'
oa	/o:/	hoaten 'to call'		/f/	prophet 'prophet'
oo	/o:/	foot 'foot', good 'good'		/sh/	fresh, fresch, fressh 'fresh'
	/o:/	ston 'stone', hool 'healthy'	th th	/th /	with 'with', that 'that'
ou, ow	/u: ⁸	hou, how 'how'; cow, now, down		/ð /	bathen 'to bathe', other 'other'
			wh	/w, h/	what, who

The orthography of the Middle English period is characterized by a considerable instability /Ильиш 1958, 160/. At this period there appeared a great number of graphical variants of words.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 1

- 1) Name the six major changes in the vowel system of the Middle English language.
- 2) What did the length of the stressed vowel depend upon in Middle English?
- 3) In what position did the shortening of vowels take place in Middle English?
- 4) Before what clusters of consonant did the shortening of vowels *not* take place?
- 5) Which vowels were involved in the process of lengthening in the open syllable?
- 6) How did the Old English **a** (before nasal consonants) change in the Northern, East-Central, Southern and West-Central dialects?
- 7) How did the short [æ] change in the Kentish and West-Central dialects? 7) How did the short [y] change in the Northern and East-Central dialects?
- 8) How did the short [y] change in the Kentish dialect?
- 9) How did the short [y] change in the West-Central and South-Central dialects?
- 10) How was the reduction of the unstressed vowels connected with the changes in the grammatical structure of the Middle English language?
- 11) What happened to the Old English diphthongs in the Middle English period?
- 12) On what basis did the new diphthongs appear in Middle English?
- 13) Explain the change of the Old English **dragan** into the Middle English **drawen**.
- 14) Name the five most important changes in the consonant system in the Middle English language.
- 15) In which position did [k'] change? How did it change?
- 16) In which position did [sk'] change? How did it change?
- 17) Explain the change of the Old English **cild** into the Middle English **child**.
- 18) Explain the change of the Old English **cirice** into the Middle English **chirche**.
- 19) Explain the change of the Old English **scip** into the Middle English **schip**.
- 20) Why did the words **skirt**, **ski**, **to ski** remain unchanged?
- 21) Explain the change of the Old English **nafogar** into the Middle English **nauger**.
- 22) Explain the change of the Old English **hnutu** into the Middle English **nute**.
- 23) Explain the change of the Old English **galge** into the Middle English **galwe**.
- 24) Explain the change of the Old English **leoht** into the Middle English **light**. 25) Explain the change of the Old English **riht** into the Middle English **right**. 26) What changes took place in the Middle English alphabet? Which letters went out of use?

⁸Under the influence of French (trouble, couche -> hous (OE hu:s), out (OE u:t), loud (OE hlu:d)).

- 27) What is a *complex grapheme*?
- 28) What was the meaning of the letter combination **ou**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 29) What was the meaning of the letter combination **ch**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 30) What was the meaning of the letter combination **gh**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 31) What was the meaning of the letter combination **ssh**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 32) What was the meaning of the letter combination **qu**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 33) What was the meaning of the letter combination **ee**? Give examples from a Middle English text.
- 34) What was the meaning of the letter combination **ph**? Give examples from a Middle English text.

Chapter 2. Middle English Lexicon and Word-Building

1. Words of the Scandinavian Origin

As you know Scandinavian invasions had a great impact for the course of the English history and the development of the English language. Scandinavian raids into the territory of Britain started in the 8th century /Ильиш 1958, 146/. By the second half of the 9th century the Scandinavians had conquered a considerable part of England to the North of the Thames and according to the conditions of the Wedmore treaty of 878 that territory was passed to the invaders. The part of the country occupied by the Scandinavians acquired a special status and was called *Danelag* (the “Territory of the Danish Law”). The treaty obliged the Scandinavians to recognize the sovereignty of the English king. But the peace between England and the Scandinavians was not stable. In the end of the 10th century the war resumed and at the beginning of the 11th century all England was conquered by the Scandinavians. England became a part of the vast Scandinavian Empire and was ruled by the Danish king Cnut, or Canut the Great. The Scandinavian reign in England lasted up to 1042 when the restoration of the Anglo-Saxon dynasty took place in the country.

The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders were well understood by the inhabitants of England. The influence of the Scandinavian dialects, especially in the lexicon, was considerable already in the Old English period. It is natural that the lexical influence was stronger in the North of the country, in the “Territory of the Danish Law”.

In colloquial speech, Scandinavian words began to penetrate as early as the 9th century, but they are found in written monuments from the 10th century. The English language includes about 650 Scandinavian words. Since Scandinavian and English were related languages, had the same basic grammatical categories, were close in their background structure, the penetration of Scandinavian words into English was very intensive, they quickly assimilated and became common.

Scandinavian words began to penetrate the colloquial speech as early as the 9th century, but they are found in written monuments from the 10th century. The English language assimilated about **650** Scandinavian words. Since Scandinavian and English were related languages and had the same basic grammatical categories, and also were close in their historical structure, the penetration of Scandinavian words into English was very intensive, they quickly assimilated and became common.

The fact that the English and the Scandinavians could understand each other comparatively easily is explained by the close relation of their languages: both English and Old Scandinavian belong to the same West Germanic subgroup of the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages. Besides, The English population and the Scandinavians were approximately on the same level social, economic and cultural development.

Many words in English and in Scandinavian had no distinctions above the structural phonetic and morphological characteristics of the two languages /Смирницкий 1955, 195/. Cf.:

OE **fisc** ‘fish’ vs. OScan **fiskr**

OE **sunu** ‘son’ vs. OScan **sunr**

The above-mentioned close relation of Old English and Old Scandinavian caused the specific mechanism of the penetration of Scandinavian words into the English lexicon. As A.I.Smirnitsky wrote, there was *interaction* between English and Scandinavian dialect variants which were perceived *as regular variants of one and the same word*. As a result of this interaction in the language there appeared *a third variant* which combined the features of both the dialectal variants - English and Scandinavian /Смирницкий 1956, 248/.

The Scandinavian words borrowed by the English language on the verge of the Old English and Middle English periods were mainly words of everyday life. The Scandinavian borrowings enriched the Middle English lexicon with synonyms.

Thus, from the Old Scandinavian word **anгр** ‘grief’ the Middle English **anger** ‘grief; anger’ was originated. The derivative adjective **angry** ‘angry, irritated’ came into use as a synonym of the original adjective **wrooth** ‘angry, cross’.

The Scandinavian word **skye** ‘sky’ came into use alongside with original **heven** ‘sky, heaven’. Later these synonyms developed as stylistically differentiated words.

The word **skile** 'skill' of the Scandinavian origin replaced a bulkier Old English word **orthanc** 'art, skill'.

The Scandinavian verb **taka** 'to take' was borrowed in the Middle English language in the form **taken** 'to take' and gradually replaced the original verb **niman** having the same meaning.

Among the Scandinavian borrowings there is such a word as **sister** 'sister'. This word was phonetically close to the original word with the same meaning. The Old English noun **sweostor** through the intermediate form **swustor** by the 14th century had passed into the form **suster**. But the form **suster** replaced by the Scandinavian form **sysster** which later changed into **sister**.

Alongside with the frequent words of everyday use some military terms were borrowed from the Scandinavian language, e.g.: **fyrcian** 'to form up the troops', **lith** 'fleet'. Later these words were replaced by French borrowings.

Other words that have come from the Scandinavian language are as follows: **lagu** 'law'; **wrang** 'injustice'; **husbonda** 'host'; **casten** 'to cast'; **callen** 'to call'; **feolaga** 'companion, fellow-traveler'; **egg** 'egg'; **fitten** 'to fit'; **fro** 'back'; **hap** 'chance, luck'; **hitten** 'to hit'; **leg** 'leg'; **low** 'low'; **meek** 'meek'; **scathe** 'harm, damage'; **swayn** 'boy, young man'; **til** 'before, till, until'; **thwert** 'across'; **want** 'need, want', etc. It is remarkable that even the system of pronouns underwent the Scandinavian influence.

The Scandinavian form of the personal pronoun of the 3rd person plural **thei** or **they** (from the Scandinavian form **their**) replaced the original pronoun **hie**. From the Scandinavian form of the Genitive case **theirra** and the Dative case **them** the Middle English forms **their** and **them** were produced.

According to V.D.Arakin's evaluation the Middle English lexicon was enriched by 650 words of the Scandinavian origin /Аракин 1955, 28/.

2. Words of French Origin

After the Norman Conquest of 1066 the situation bilingualism, or *diglossia*, developed in England. In V.N.Yartseva's definition, diglossia is the coexistence of two languages in any society or historic formation - from a primitive community to a national state /Ярцева 1985, 112/.

The cause of the development of diglossia is quite understandable.

The Norman aristocracy was unable to exist under the conditions of complete linguistic isolation from the English speaking of the lower strata of the society. That is why a certain part of the population - officials, servants, tax collectors, etc. - had to know the two languages: French for the communication with the aristocracy and English for the communication with common people. Thus, there appeared a large group of *bilingual* population in England, i.e. people who spoke two languages. It may be expected that it was in the speech of the *bilinguals* that the French words penetrated into English lexicon most intensively and were assimilated in the lexical system of the English language.

V.N.Yartseva also mentions that alongside with English bilinguals who had to learn the language of the conquerors another group of people contributed the English language with the French elements - that were the Norman immigrants who learned the tongue of the conquered country and introduced elements of their native language into it /Ярцева 1985, 115/.

The words that came into Middle English from the French language of the Norman conquerors are divided into two groups. The first group includes the words that denoted things and phenomena which were new for English /Ярцева 1985, 115/. These were the words of abstract meaning and lexical elements expressing realia of medieval France. The second group includes the word which did not express new notions, yet masses of such words entered the English language causing not only quantitative but also qualitative changes in its semantics and structure /Ярцева 1985, 116/.

B.A.Ilyish distinguishes the following semantic classes of French borrowings in the Middle English language:

- 1) state, government and court;
- 2) army and military life;
- 3) notions of religion and church;
- 4) names of town trades;
- 5) notions from the field of art;
- 6) entertainment and feasts;
- 7) a great number of everyday word which are not connected with any particular semantic sphere /Ильиш 1958, 166 - 167/.

The sphere "*state, government and court*" includes the following words: **prince** 'prince' < OF **prince baron** or **baroun** 'baron' < OF **ber, baron noble** 'noble' < OF **noble royal** 'royal' < OF **royal court** 'court' < OF **curt, cort justice** 'justice' < OF **justice coroune** 'crown' < OF **corone, coroune countee** 'county' < OF **conte duk** 'duke' < OF **duc emperesse** 'empress' < OF **emperice**

The sphere "*army and military life*" includes the following words:

werre 'war' < OF **werre** **army** 'army' < OF **arme bataille** 'battle' < OF **bataille array** 'array' < OF **arra**
chyvalerie 'chivalry' < OF **chevalerie conquete** 'conquest' < OE **conquete degree** 'rank' < OF **degret regiment**
'regiment' < OF **regiment banner** 'banner' < OF **banner siege** 'siege' < OF **siege**
The sphere "*notions of religion and church*" includes such words as: **religion** 'religion' < OF **religioun saint** 'saint' <
OF **saint frere** 'monk' < OF **fraire preyen** 'to pray' < OF **preirer sermon** 'sermon' < OF **sermon conscience**
'conscience' < OF **conscience cloistre** 'cloister' < OF **cloistre chapel** 'chapel' < OF **chapel**
pilgrimage 'pilgrimage' < OF **pilgrimage**

The sphere "*names of town trades*" includes the following words: **carpenter** 'carpenter' < OF **carpentier bocher**
'butcher' < OF **bocher tailor** 'tailor' < OF **tailour peintre** 'painter' < OF **peintre**

Among the "*notions of the field of art*" we can find the following words:

art 'art' < OF **arte colour** 'colour' < OF **colour figure** 'figure' < OF **figure image** 'image' < OF **image column**
'column' < OF **colonn ornament** 'ornament' < OF **ornament fantasie** 'fantasy' < OF **fantasie soun** 'musical sound'
< OF **soun sounen** 'to sound' < OF **suner dauncen** 'to dance' < OF **dancer**

The sphere "*entertainment and feasts*" includes the following:

apareil 'dress' < OF **apareil plesir** 'pleasure' < OF **plesir leisir** 'leisure' < OF **leisir ese** 'satisfaction' < OF **ese**
feste 'feast' < OF **feste dinner** 'dinner' < OF **diner soper** 'supper' < OF **soper rosten** 'to roast' < OF **roster daintee**
'dainty' < OF **dainte corteis** 'courteous, polite' < OF **curteis**

Among the words of *everyday life* there were such as: **face** 'face' < OF **face gay** 'gay, merry' < OF **gai hour** 'hour' <
OF **heur ink** 'ink' < OF **ink letter** 'letter' < OF **letter place** 'place' < OF **place table** 'table' < OF **table air** 'air' <
OF **ær river** 'river' < OF **riviere chambre** 'chamber' < OF **chambre**

The formation of a great number of synonyms occasionally caused excess in the lexical system of the Middle English language and there appeared a kind of competition among the synonyms.

In many instances a French word replaced the original (Old English) one. For example the word **mountain** replaced the Old English word **beorg** of the same meaning, the French word **paix** 'peace' replaced the original **frith**.

In other cases, the French word failed to survive for this or that reason and after being used in English for some period gave up its place to the original English word. It happened so, for example, to the word **amity** 'friendship' which was replaced by the original **friendship** and the word **moiety** 'half' which finally lost in the competition with the original **halh**.

Of special interest are the instances when both the French and the original English words survived in the language. The condition for such coexistence is the semantic or stylistic differentiation of the synonyms. Thus, the meaning 'autumn' was expressed in Old English by the word **hærfest**. In the Middle English language, the borrowed word **autumn** (from the Old French **automne**) began to compete with it. Finally, the word **autumn** fixed its position in the English lexicon while the word **harvest** also survived due to the fact that it had acquired a new meaning - 'the time of the year when crops are gathered in'.

Let us consider another example. Alongside with the original verb **beginnen** 'to begin' in the Middle English language there was a verb of French origin of the same meaning **commencen**. The coexistence of these two verbs was possible due to their stylistic differentiation: **beginnen** fixed as a word of everyday use while **commencen** became a stylistically marked word mainly used in the official sphere.

Borrowings from the Old French language had one more important consequence for the further development of English. As A I Smirnitsky wrote, they stimulated conversion in the English language. The matter is many parallel borrowings from the same stem took place which joined different paradigms in the system of the English language and thus formed pairs of words characterized by the relations of conversion /Смирницкий 1956, 253/. E.g.:

honour 'honour' // **honouren** 'to honour' < OF **honour labour** 'labour' // **labouren** 'to labour' < OF **labour note**
'note' // **noten** 'to make a note' < OF **note poison** 'poison' // **poisonen** 'to poison' < OF **poison**

3. Development of Original Words

Alongside with the active process of borrowing foreign words in the structure of the Middle English language changes connected with the semantic development of the original lexicon took place.

The directions of the development of the original words were different. Some words considerably changed their meaning, the semantic structure of others became broader or - vice versa - narrower.

For instance, the word **cnicht** in the Old English language had the meaning 'boy, servant, young warrior'. In the Middle English language, a new meaning developed - 'man given the rank of knighthood by the British monarch in recognition of merit'.

The Old English verb **sellan** had the meaning 'to hand in, to give'. In Middle English the verb **sellan** acquired the meaning 'to sell' and lost old meanings.

The Old English word **gebed** 'prayer' went out of use as its meaning was expressed by the borrowed word **preire**. The trace of the word is seen in the word **beads** as running one's fingers over the beads was connected with prayer.

The Old English word **ban** ‘murderer’ weakened its meaning. The Middle English **bane** had the meaning ‘destroyer; destruction’ /Смирницкий 1953, 142/.

The narrowing of semantics is seen in the words **kyn, seek, quene**.

The Old English **cyn** had the meanings ‘sort, kind; tribe, people; family, kinship, generation’. The meaning of the Middle English **kyn** was narrowed to ‘kin, kinship, family, relation’.

The Old English **seoc** had the meaning ‘unhealthy; weak’ In the Middle English **seek** only the meaning ‘unhealthy’ remained.

The Old English **cwene** had the meanings ‘woman; wife’. The meaning of the Middle English **quene** was reduced to ‘queen’ (i.e. ‘king’s wife’).

In the Middle English words **fast** (from OE **fæst**), **mood** (from OE **mod**), **rede** (from OE **ræde** the meanings were broadened.

The Old English **fæst** meant ‘firm, strong’. A new meaning which the word acquired in Middle English was ‘fast, speedy’.

The Old English **mod** had a number of meanings: ‘wit, spirit, character, mood; courage; pride’. In the semantic structure of the Middle English **mood** there appears a new meaning - ‘anger’.

The Old English **ræde** had a narrow meaning ‘prepared for riding’. The Middle English **rede** acquired the meaning ‘ready’ (in broad sense).

4. Word-Building. Derivative and Complex Words

In the Middle English language, like in Old English, two main means of word-building may be distinguished:

1) affixation, i.e. the formation of words from the roots existing in the language with the help of suffixes and/or prefixes;

1) stem-composition, i.e. the formation of new words by means of combination of two or more roots.

Many suffixes with the help of which noun in Old English were formed disappeared. Yet a number of old suffixes survived in the Middle English language; they remained productive and as a rule became polysemantic /Зернов 1986, 112 - 113/. This group includes first of all the suffixes **-er, -ing, -ness**.

By the end of the Middle English period a considerable increase of suffixes of French and Latin origin had taken place. In the course of further development of the English language borrowed word-building elements grew very widespread and more numerous than the original ones.

The suffixes borrowed from French are as follows: **-age, -ance, -ence, -ard, -ee, -ess, -et, -ty, -ity, tion, -ation, -ment**.

The suffixes borrowed from Latin are: **-ism, -ist**.

In the Middle English language the suffixes produced from the nominal stems (**-dom, -hood, -ship**) were completely fixed as word-building morphemes.

Of the adjective-forming suffixes of the Old English origin **-ish, -y, -ed** remain *productive*. They enlarge their semantics and combinability with types of stems with which they could not be combined in the Old English language.

The adjective-forming suffixes **-able, -ible, -ous** were borrowed from French.

The suffixes **-ful, -less, -ly** produced from the adjective stems are finally fixed as word-building morphemes.

Important changes took place in the class of adverbs. In the Middle English language the wordbuilding patterns with the suffixes **-inge, -inga, -e** disappeared. By the end of the Middle English period the suffix **-ly** had become the most productive adverb-forming suffix.

The number of verb-forming suffixes also enlarged. The suffixes **-ish, -ize** were borrowed from French, **-ify** from Latin.

The most frequent suffixes of the Middle English language are given in Table 33.

Table 33

Most Frequently Used Suffixes of the Middle English Language

<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Origin</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Suffix</i>	<i>Origin</i>	<i>Examples</i>
-able	Old French	beleevable ‘believable’	-hod, -hode	Old English	knighthode ‘knighthood’
-acie	Old French	conspiracie ‘conspiracy’	-i, -y	Old English	hungri ‘hungry’
-age	Old French	baronage ‘barony’	-ing	Old English	meting, meeting ‘meeting’

-al, -aile	Old French	arrival, arrivaile ‘arrival’	-ish, -isch	Old English	childish ‘childish’
-al	Latin	misikal ‘musical’	-ite, -itee	Old French	abilitee ‘ability’
-ance, aunce	Old French	accordance ‘accordance’	-les, -less	Old English	endeless ‘endless’
-acioun, ation	Old French	creacioun ‘creation’	-ling	Old English	nestling ‘nestling’
-dom	Old English	kingdom ‘kingdom’	-li, -ly	Old English	manli ‘manly’
-ed	Old English	forked ‘forked’	-ment	Old French	jugement ‘judgement’
-en	Old English	stonen ‘stone’	-nesse	Old English	bitternesse ‘bitterness’
-end	Old English	demend ‘judge’	-ous, -us	Old French	famous, famus ‘famous’
-er, -ere	Old English	baker, bakere ‘baker’	-schipe, shipe	Old English	hardschipe ‘hardship’
-erie, -rie	Old French	husbondrie ‘husbandry’	-som, -sum	Old English	frendsom ‘friendly’
-ess, -esse	Old French	frendesse ‘girl-friend’	-ward	Old English	backward backward
-ful	Old English	sinful ‘sinful’			

The use of prefixes in word-building in the Middle English languages considerably decreased. Only the prefixes **be-**, **mis-**, **un-** remain productive being mainly combined with verb stems. Beginning with 14th century a great number of French prefixes were borrowed in English. Those were: **de-**, **dis-**, **en-**, **em-**, **in-**, **im-**, **non-**, **re-**.

The most frequently used prefixes of the Middle English language are presented in Table 34.

Table 34

Most Frequently Used Prefixes of the Middle English Language

<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Origin</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Prefix</i>	<i>Origin</i>	<i>Examples</i>
a-	Old English	aforth ‘to introduce’	in-, im-	Old French	inconstant ‘inconstant’
bi-, be-	Old English	biliggen ‘to besiege’	i-	Old English	icumen ‘to come’
de-	Old French	depriven ‘to deprive’	mis-	Old English	miswune ‘bad habit’
dis-, des-	Old French	disarmen, desarmen ‘to disarm’	of-	Old English	ofsitten ‘to besiege’
ed-	Old English	edwit ‘admonition’	re-	Old French	replien ‘to reply’
en-, em-	Old French	enprisonen, emprisonen ‘to captivate’	sub-	Latin	submitten ‘to submit’

for-	Old English	fordemen 'to condemn'	un-	Old English	unmovable 'unmovable'
fore-	Old English	forefader 'ancestor'			

The main types of complex words could be produced in the Middle English language according to the following patterns:

- 1) *noun stem + noun stem > noun*, e.g.: **handax** 'hand ax', **deth-dai** 'the day of death';
- 2) *verb stem + suffix -ing + noun stem > noun*, e.g.: **burying-place** 'burial ground', **fasting-dai** 'fasting day';
- 3) *noun stem + verb stem + suffix -er > noun*, e.g.: **housholdere** 'householder', **landholder** 'landowner';
- 4) *adjective stem + noun stem > noun*, e.g.: **courtmantle** 'short cloak';
- 5) *verb stem + adverb stem > noun*, e.g.: **go-ahed** 'movement forward', **set-back** 'retreat', **sit-in** 'sitting';
- 6) *verb stem + noun stem > noun*, e.g.: **pickepurse** 'pickpocket', **hangeman** 'hangman';
- 7) *adverb stem + verb stem > noun*, e.g.: **downfall** 'downfall', **outbrek** 'outbreak';
- 8) *adjective stem + adjective stem > adjective*, e.g.: **redhot** 'red hot', **wordly-wise** 'very wise';
- 9) *noun stem + adjective stem > adjective*, e.g.: **blodred** 'blood red', **colblak** 'coal-black';
- 10) *noun stem + participle stem > adjective*, e.g.: **hert-broken** 'heart-broken', **hertrendering** 'captivating';
- 11) *adjective stem + participle stem > adjective*, e.g.: **clean-shaven** 'cleanly shaven', **stillborn** 'still-born';
- 12) *adjective stem + noun stem + suffix -ed > adjective*, e.g.: **blue-eyed** 'blue-eyed', **yellow-faced** 'yellow-faced';
- 13) *adverb stem + adverb stem > adverb*, e.g.: **here-hence** 'from here', **southeast** 'southeast';
- 14) *adverb stem + preposition stem > adverb*, e.g.: **hereunto** 'from here', **whereof** 'whereof';
- 15) *preposition stem + noun stem > adverb*, e.g.: **inside** 'inside', **outside** 'outside', **ouerhead** 'overhead';
- 16) *numeral stem + noun stem > noun*, e.g.: **filef** 'five-leaves'.

The weakening of the morphological system of the Middle English language caused the development of such a way of word-building as *conversion*. In case of conversion one and the same stem is used in the paradigms of different parts of speech /cf. Section 2 above/. In the mechanism of conversion predominantly verb and noun stems are used.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 2

- 1) What is *Danelag*?
- 2) Why were the Scandinavian dialects easily understood by the inhabitants of England?
- 3) What was the degree of the genetic relation between the Scandinavian dialects and English?
- 4) What was the Old English correspondence to the Scandinavian word **fiskr**?
- 5) What was the Old English correspondence to the Scandinavian word **sunr**?
- 6) What was the character of interaction between Scandinavian and English words?
- 7) Give examples of synonyms that appeared in English as a result of borrowing from Scandinavian.
- 8) What is the origin of the synonyms **skye** and **heven**? How were they differentiated later?
- 9) By what Scandinavian word was the Old English **niman** replaced?
- 10) Explain the origin and the structure of the noun **husbonda**?
- 11) How many Scandinavian words enriched the Middle English lexicon according to Professor V.D.Arakin's evaluation?
- 12) When did the Norman Conquest take place?
- 13) What was the linguistic situation in England after the Norman Conquest?
- 14) Give five examples of French borrowings connected with the sphere "state, government and court".
- 15) Give five examples of French borrowings **connected** with the sphere "army and military life".
- 16) Give five examples of French borrowings connected with the sphere "religion and church".
- 17) Give five examples of French borrowings connected with the sphere "town trades".

- 18) Give five examples of French borrowings denoting concepts of the field of art.
- 19) Give five examples of French borrowings connected with the sphere “entertainment and feasts”.
- 20) Comment on the synonyms **beginnen** and **commencen**.
- 21) How did the French borrowings stimulate conversion in Middle English?
- 22) Comment on the semantic change of the word **knight** in Middle English.
- 23) Comment on the semantic change of the word **sellen** in Middle English.
- 24) Comment on the semantic change of the word **kyn** in Middle English.
- 25) Comment on the semantic change of the word **seek** in Middle English.
- 26) Name the Middle English suffixes borrowed from French.
- 27) Name the Middle English suffixes borrowed from Latin.
- 28) Calculate the ratio of the Middle English suffixes of French, Latin and Old English origin using Table # 33.
- 29) Name the Middle English prefixes of French, Old English and Latin origin.
- 30) Analyze the structure of the word **fasting-dai**.
- 31) Analyze the structure of the word **courtmantle**.
- 32) Analyze the structure of the word **pickepurse**.
- 33) Analyze the structure of the word **downfall**.
- 34) Analyze the structure of the word **go-ahed**.
- 35) Analyze the structure of the word **land-holder**.
- 36) Analyze the structure of the word **handax**.
- 37) Analyze the structure of the word **blue-eyed**.
- 38) Analyze the structure of the word **hert-broken**.
- 39) Analyze the structure of the word **redhot**.
- 40) Analyze the structure of the word **blodred**.

Chapter 3. Middle English Grammar

1. General Features of the Development of Middle English Grammar.

The Middle English language is considered to be a transitional period between Old English and New English /Розендорн 1967, 105 -106/. It was a period of relatively quick changes in the phonetic system, in the lexicon and in the grammatical structure. Yet the development was gradual.

The Middle English period is characterized by considerable changes in the morphological and syntactic structure, “the drastic simplification of the grammatical system under the influence of reduction of unstressed syllables” /Хлебникова 1996, 142/.

The key phonetic process affecting grammar was the reduction of the unstressed vowels which brought about leveling of unstressed endings. It would be a mistake, though, to connect the changes in the grammatical structure with any single phenomenon (like phonetic changes or, for example, the influence of the Scandinavian dialects). ***The changes in morphology and syntax happened under the influence of a number of factors: the reduction of unstressed endings, leveling by analogy, etc.*** It is also important to mark that many phenomena which actively developed in Middle English had begun in Old English.

The system of the noun underwent considerable changes in the Middle English language. By the 14th century the noun had lost the grammatical category of gender. The system of cases changed a lot. By the end of the Middle English period the Old English system of four cases had been destroyed and a new binary system of cases appeared which consisted of two cases - *Common* and *Possessive*. In connection with these changes ***the Old English classification of nouns according to the stem forming suffix was no longer relevant.***

Strong Declension was levelled in ME:

Masc. sg. Nom. ston, Gen. stones; Nom. pl. stones

Neutr. sg. dor, Gen. dores; Nom. pl. dores

Fem. sg. care, Gen. care, cares; Nom. pl. caren, cares Weak Declension was levelled in ME:

Masc. sg. Nom. name, Gen. name, later names; Nom. pl. namen, later names

Neutr. sg. eye, Gen. eye, later eyes; Nom. pl. eyan, later eyes

Fem. sg. quene, Gen. quene, later quenes; Nom. pl. quenen, later quenes

The verb in Middle English also underwent certain changes. In the system of the verb the analytical forms began to develop, such as:

1. the Future tense (Chaucer: a tale wol I telle);
2. the Perfect tenses (the domes alle, that from the tyme of King William were falle ‘all the sentences that had been pronounced since the time of king William’); (that hem hath holpen)
3. Continuous forms (synynge he was al the day).
4. the Passive voice (the castel-yate, which that so wel corven was).

Yet most considerable changes took place in the grammatical system of **the adjective**. The Middle English adjective completely lost the multitude of grammatical forms it had in Old English.

The weakening of the morphological system caused changes in syntax. In the Middle English language the order of words in the sentence acquired a special role. The means of connection in complex sentences developed and became more subtle.

2. Noun. Development of Articles

In Old English noun was characterized by the forms of grammatical gender, case, number and belonging to a particular declension.

Already in OE the reduction of declension had begun, e.g. many i-stem and u-stem nouns were influenced by the a-stems and o:-stems. In ME the distinction of strong and weak declensions was lost. First it happened in the Northern and Central (Midland) dialects (in 11th - 12th centuries) and somewhat later in Southern dialects.

The typical OE weak declension ending -n of the genitive sg and nominative plural disappeared, and so the weak declension lost its most characteristic feature. These changes began in the 12th century. Only two endings proved stable:

a) the ending -es of the genitive singular a-stem nouns, which was later transformed into the ending of the Possessive Case

b) the ending -as of the nominative/accusative plural masculine a-stems, which was later transformed into -es and spread to all nouns as the ending of the plural number.

Only the root-stem nouns with the i-mutation in the plural (men, fe:t, ge:s) and a few which did not change in the plural (she:p, de:r) were not affected by this process.

Gender was lost at the beginning of the Middle English period: in the Northern and Central (Midland) dialects in 11th - 12th centuries and somewhat later in Southern dialects.

The case system was weakened and consequently simplified as a result of the development of homonymous case forms (you must remember many case forms were homonymous as early as in the Old English language).

The category of number of the Middle English nouns was characterized by the competition of the productive patterns of plurality with non-productive types /Ярцева 1960, 113 - 114/. In the course of this competition the standard forms of the plural number with the inflection -es gradually replaced other forms.

It should be noted, that in ME there comes a radical change: the expression of number is separated from that of case. So there is a fundamental difference between the OE ending -as and the ME ending -es: while the OE -as expressed number and case simultaneously, ME -es expressed number alone and was not connected with any notion of case.

Let us compare the case forms of the Old English noun of the masculine gender with a-stem **stan** with the forms which developed in the Middle English language (Table 35).

Table 35

Declension of the Noun *stan, ston* ‘stone’

	Singular Number		Plural Number	
	Old English	ME (14 th c.)	Old English	M. English
<i>Nominative</i>	stan	ston	stanas	stones
<i>Genitive</i>	stanes	stones	stana	stones
<i>Dative</i>	stane	ston	stanum	stones
<i>Accusative</i>	stan	ston	stanas	stones

As we can see, the Dative case singular lost its weak ending -e. As a result in the paradigm of the singular number only one marked (i.e. inflected) form remained: the Genitive case. In the plural number the forms of the Genitive and Dative were ‘leveled’ with the forms of the Nominative and Accusative cases. Thus, in the plural number the case distinctions disappeared completely. Besides, the ending -as changed into -es, so that the form of the Genitive case singular and the form of the plural number became homonymous. By the end of the Middle English period the function of the Genitive

case *had narrowed to denoting possession*, so from then on it is more correct to call it *the Possessive Case*. Thus, once complicated, the paradigm of declension was reduced to two oppositions:

- 1) the opposition of the singular/plural number (**ston** vs. **stones**);
- 2) the opposition of the Common/Possessive case in the singular number (**ston** vs. **stones**).

Somewhat different was the development of the case system of the nouns of weak declension. Let us examine the development of the case forms of the Old English noun **nama** ‘name’ in the Middle English language (Table 36).

Table 36

Declension of the Noun *nama, name* ‘name’

	<i>Singular Number</i>		<i>Plural Number</i>	
	Old English	M. English	Old English	M. English
<i>Nominative</i>	nama	name	naman	namen
<i>Genitive</i>	naman	name	namena	namen
<i>Dative</i>	naman	name	namum	namen
<i>Accusative</i>	naman	name	naman	namen

This group of nouns, as we can see in Table 36, completely lost case distinctions, and only the opposition of number survived: **name** vs. **namen**.

Nota bene: The ending –en of the plural was also extended to two neuter nouns belonging to s-stems (OE *cild-cildru* ME *child-children*; OE *æ:g- æ:gru* ME *ei-eiren*).

The development of the paradigms of some nouns of root declension was specific (see Table 37).

Table 37

Declension of the Noun *man* ‘man’

	<i>Singular Number</i>		<i>Plural Number</i>	
	Old English	M. English	Old English	M. English
<i>Nominative</i>	man	man	men	men
<i>Genitive</i>	mannes	mannes	manna	mennes
<i>Dative</i>	men	man	mannum	men
<i>Accusative</i>	man	man	men	men

While in the Old English language the gradation of the root vowel (the inner inflection) and the gradation of case endings (the outer inflection) are found both in the forms of the singular and in the forms of the plural number, in Middle English their functions are specialized: the vowel gradation is used to mark number distinctions, and the endings signal case distinctions. Thus, in the paradigm of the noun **man** three oppositions are formed:

1. the opposition of the singular/plural number: **man** vs. **men**;
2. the opposition of the Common/Possessive case in the singular number: **man** vs. **mannes**;
3. the opposition of the Common/Possessive case in the plural number: **men** vs. **mennes**.

An important event in the growth of the nominal system of the Old English language was **the development of articles**.

In the Old English language the noun was often determined by the demonstrative pronoun **se:, seo:, þæt, þa:** ‘that’, ‘those’ if the object was known or had been mentioned before. In the 13th century the paradigm of the demonstrative pronoun **that** was reduced to two forms: **that** ‘that’ and **thos** ‘those’. The weak (unstressed) form of the demonstrative pronoun **the** fixed in the function of the *definite article*.

Middle English **that, thos** (demonstrative pronoun)

Old English **se:, seo:, thæt**

Middle English **the** (definite article)

The indefinite article was produced from the Old English numeral **an** ‘one’. The word **an** was used in the article-like function in the Old English language, e.g.: **an man** ‘a man’ (compare with the Russian “Один человек хочет побеседовать с вами”). In the Middle English language the numeral **an** changed into **on** according to the phonetic laws you know. *But in the unstressed position instead of the change a > o, the long a was shortened*. Later **n** was regularly

dropped before consonants. Thus there appeared two forms separated from the numeral which were used as the indefinite article:

Middle English **on** 'one'

Old English **an** 'one'

Middle English **an, a** (indefinite article)

Knowing the origin of the indefinite article you will understand why it is used only with the form of the singular number of countable nouns. It is a reflection of its historic connection with the numeral **an**.

3. Middle English Adjective

Not a single part of speech in Middle English underwent such deep changes as the adjective. The most complicated paradigm of the Old English adjective was destroyed. The adjective lost its case distinctions. Yet almost up to the end of the Middle English period the adjective kept the ending **-e** by means of which the archaic reference to the weak and the category of number (in the strong declension) was expressed.

Table 38

Paradigm of the Old and Middle English Adjective

	<i>Singular Number</i>	<i>Plural Number</i>
<i>Strong Declension</i>	god 'good'	gode
<i>Weak Declension</i>	gode	

The system of the degrees of comparison of adjectives survives in the Middle English language.

The comparative degree is formed with the help of the ending **-er**; the superlative degree is formed with the help of the ending **-est**.

Table 39

Degrees of Comparison of Adjectives

<i>Unmarked Form</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>
gret 'great'	Gretter	grettest
glad 'glad'	Gladder	gladdest
fayr 'fair'	fayrer	fayrest

In some adjectives there remains vowel gradation in the comparative and the superlative degree /Ильин 1958, 202/:

Table 40

Adjectives with Vowel Gradation in the Comparative and Superlative Degree

<i>Unmarked Form</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>
old 'old'	Elder	eldest
long 'long'	lenger	lengest
strong 'strong'	strenger	strengest

The adjective with the suppletive forms of the comparative and superlative degree survive in Middle English:

Table 41

Adjectives with the Suppletive Forms of the Comparative and Superlative Degree

<i>Unmarked Form</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>	<i>Unmarked Form</i>	<i>Comparative Degree</i>	<i>Superlative Degree</i>
god 'good'	bettre	best	muchel 'big'	more	most, mest
evil 'bad'	werse	werst	litel 'little'	lesse	lest

Alongside with the *synthetic* way of forming the degrees of comparison there appeared a new means - with the help of auxiliary words **more** and **most**. This way is called *analytical*. The new way of forming the degrees of comparison in Middle English appeared as manifestation of the general tendency in the development of the grammatical structure of

the English language - the tendency to the development of *analytism*. The Old French language in which the degrees of comparison of adjectives were built analytically also had impact on the development mentioned above /Розендорн 1967, 111; Brunner 1963, 53/.

Both the synthetic and the analytic formation of the degrees of comparison of adjectives were used in Middle English with the monosyllabic as well as with the polysyllabic stems. Thus, the adjective **fayr** 'fair' could have forms **fayrer**, **fayrest** or **more fayr**, **most fayr**. Likewise the adjective **beautiful** 'beautiful' could have forms **beautifuler**, **beautifulest** or **more beautiful**, **most beautiful**.

In the Middle English language a special group of words semantically close to adjectives began to grow - *statives*. The words of this group were composed of the prefix **a-** (from Old English **on-**) and a substantive stem, e.g.: **afered** 'afraid', **alyve** 'alive', **aslepe** 'asleep'. Later the *statives* began to be used only in the predicative function.

4. Middle English Pronoun

In the Middle English language the same groups of pronouns as in Old English may distinguished: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, definite, indefinite, negative. Besides, there appears a new group of *reflexive* pronouns.

The personal pronouns in Middle English had a simpler paradigm than in Old English. Instead of the three Old English number forms (singular, dual and plural) in the Middle English language only two forms are used - singular and plural. The four case system of declension was reduced to the system consisting of two cases - Nominative and Objective. There appeared new forms of personal pronouns: **thei** 'they' and **she** 'she'.

Table 42

Personal Pronouns in Middle English

Singular Number					
	1 st Person	2 nd Person	3 rd Person		
			Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	I, ich	thou [u:]	he	he, she	hit
Objective	me	the	him	hir, her	hit
Plural Number					
Nominative	we	ye	hi, thei		
Objective	us	you [u:]	hem, them		

The possessive pronouns in the Middle English language were finally fixed as a group independent from the personal pronouns. There appeared positional variants of possessive pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person: the full forms **min** 'my, mine' and **thin** 'your, yours' were used if the following noun began with a vowel or -h, e.g.: **min ire**, **thin herte**, or if there were no nouns after them: **myn be the travail and thyn be the glorie (mine be the labour and yours be the glory)**; if the following word started with a consonant the short forms of the possessive pronouns **mi** and **thi** were used, e.g.: **mi feld**, **thi child**.

Table 43

Possessive Pronouns in Middle English

Singular Number				
1 st Person	2 nd Person	3 rd Person		
		Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
min, mi	thin, thi	his	hir, her	his
Plural Number				
our	your	hire, their		

The demonstrative pronouns **this** and **that** in the early Middle English language preserved gender, number and case distinctions characteristic for the Old English period /Ильиш 158,199; Смирницкий 1953, 116 - 117/. Yet by the end of the 14th century gender and case distinctions had disappeared and only the opposition of number remained: the singular number **this** 'this' vs. the plural number **thise**, **thes** or **these** 'these' and the singular number **that** 'that' vs. the plural number **tho** or **thos** 'these'.

The interrogative pronouns, like declinable pronouns of other groups were characterized by the reduction of the number of case forms.

Table 44
Interrogative Pronouns in Middle English

<i>Nominative</i>	who	what
<i>Objective</i>	whom	what

The interrogative-possessive pronoun **whos** 'whose' was semantically close to the pronoun **who**.

The relative pronouns in Middle English developed from the pronouns of other groups. The relative pronoun **that** developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun **thæt**. The relative pronouns **which** (singular) and **whiche** (plural) developed on the basis of the Old English interrogative pronoun **hwilc**. By the end of the Middle English period the relative pronoun **who**, **whom** had developed on the basis of the homonymous interrogative pronoun.

The indefinite pronouns included **som** 'some' (from the Old English **sum**) and **any** 'any' (from the Old English **ænig**).

The negative pronoun **noon** 'none' ascends to the Old English **nan**.

The reflexive pronouns appeared as a separate group only in the Middle English period (there was not such a group in Old English). The reflexive pronouns were formed on the basis of personal pronouns and the pronominal element **self**. In this way such forms were produced as: **miself**, **thiself**, **himself**, **herself**, etc.

5. Middle English Verb

All the types of OE verbs – strong, weak, preterit-present and irregular were preserved in ME. In the system of conjugation of the verb in Middle English important changes took place that were connected with the phonetic changes and the development of the grammatical structure as a whole. In connection with the leveling of the unstressed vowels the distinctions between the inflections **-an**, **-on**, **-en** were lost. By the end of the Middle English period the final **-n** in the verbal forms began to disappear (except the form of Participle II), which caused further development of the grammatical homonyms. ME strong verbs: 1)writen, wrot, writen, writen, writen; 2)chesen, ches, chosen, chosen; 3)fighten, fa(u)ght, foughten, foughten, 4)beren, bar, beren, boren; 5)geten, gat, geten, geten; 6)shaken, shok, shoken, shaken; 7)fallen, fell, fellen, fallen.

Table 45

Conjugation of the Strong Verb *writen* 'to write'

		<i>Present Tense</i>			<i>Past Tense</i>	
		<i>Indicat.</i>	<i>Subj.</i>	<i>Imperative</i>	<i>Indicat.</i>	<i>Subj</i>
<i>Singular</i>	<i>1st Pers. 2nd Pers.</i>	write	write	Writ	wrot	write
	<i>3rd Pers.</i>	writest writeth			wrot(e) wrot	
<i>Plural</i>		writeth			writen	writen
<i>Infinitive: writen Participle I: writinge Participle II: writen</i>						

Important changes took place in the mood forms. The Old English subjunctive was used very largely and had special inflections. In the Middle English language the forms of the Subjunctive mood gradually begin to coincide with the Indicative forms. To express the unreal, problematic or desirable character of the action the verbs **should** and **would** came into use. Later these verbs lost the status of independent lexical units and were converted into auxiliary elements /Розендорн 1967, 125 - 126/. In this way the analytical forms of oblique moods were developing in the English language.

The tendency to the development of analytical forms is also manifested in the appearance of the perfect, continuous aspect, future tense and the passive voice.

The conditions for the formation of the perfect could be marked as early as in the Old English language but only in Middle English the perfect began to be used as a regular grammatical form. The perfect was formed with the help of the auxiliary verbs **haven** and **ben**, which had lost their original meanings 'to have' and 'to be', and Participle II of the notional verb; e.g.: ... **he hadde half his cours y-seyled**... 'he has sailed half his way'; ... **at hight was come in-to that hostelrye wel nyne and twenty in a companye of sondry folk**... 'at a company came to that tavern - they were twenty-nine in number'.

In the 14th century the growth of continuous forms started. The continuous forms were produced with the help of the auxiliary verb **ben** and Participle I of the notional verb; e.g.: **Singinge he was, or floytinge, al the day** 'All the day he was singing or playing the flute'.

The analytical form of the future tense was built up on the basis of the combination of the preteritpresent verb **shal** with the following infinitive; e.g.: **thou shal lyken him to the hound** 'you will compare him with a dog'.

The analytical form of the passive voice was produced with the help of the auxiliary verb **ben** and Participle II of the notional verb. Only transitive verbs were used in the passive verb. Yet the scholars mark that not only the direct object but also the indirect non-prepositional object of the active construction might be transformed into the subject of the passive sentence; e.g.: **he was geven his lyf** 'he was given his life' /Иванова, Беляева, Чахоян 1985, 87/.

6. Middle English Adverb

In the Middle English language there remains the way of forming adverbs from adjectives which existed in Old English, that is with the help of the suffix **-e**; e.g.:

fayr 'fair' > **fayre** 'fairly' **bright** 'bright' > **brighte** 'brightly' **fast** 'firm' > **faste** 'firmly'

Another productive way of producing adverbs from adjective stems was with the help of the suffix **-ly**, e.g.: **newe** 'new' > **newely** 'anew'.

The Middle English adverb had degrees of comparison. The comparative and superlative degrees of adverbs coincided with those of adjectives.

Table 46

Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs

<i>Unmarked</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>	<i>Unmarked</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
gretly	gretter	grettest	litel 'little'	lasse	lest
'greatly'					
longe 'long'	lenger	lengest	wel 'well'	bet, better	best
muchel 'much'	more, mo	Most	evile 'badly'	werse	werst

7. Numerals in Middle English

In the Middle English language, like in Old English *cardinal* and *ordinal* numerals are distinguished.

The cardinal numerals developed from Old English ones in accordance to the phonetic changes of the Middle English period. !!!Про переходы из сильных в слабые, про претерито-презентные и неправильные.

Table 47

Middle English Cardinal Numerals

<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle Engl.</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle Engl.</i>
'one' 'two'	an twa threo	on two thre	'twelve'	twelf thrio-	twelf thir-
'three' 'four'	feower fif siex	four five six	'thirteen' -----	tiene -----	tene -----
'five' 'six'	seofon eahta	seven eighte	'twenty' 'thir-	twentig thritig	twenty thirty
'seven' 'eight'	nigon tien	nynne ten	'ty' 'forty' -----	fewertig -----	fourty -----
'nine' 'ten'	endlefan	eleven	'hundred'	hund(red)	hundred
'eleven'			'thousand'	thusend	thousand

Besides, the numeral **millioun** 'million' was borrowed from the Old French language.

The ordinal numerals also develop on the basis of Old English forms except the numeral **second**, which was borrowed from Old French.

Table 48

Middle English Ordinal Numerals

<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle Engl.</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle Engl.</i>
'first' 'second'	fyrest other	first second	'tenth'	teotha	tenthe elev-
'third'	thridda	thirde fourthe	'eleventh'	endleofta	enthe twelfth
'fourth' 'fifth'	fewertha fifta	fifte sixte sev-	'twelfth'	twelfta	thirten the ----
'sixth'	siexta	enthe eighte	'thirteenth' ----	thrioteotha ---	- twentithe
'seventh'	seofotha	nynthe	'twentieth'	-- twentigotha	thirthe
'eighth'	eahtotha		'thirtieth'	thritigotha	fourthe
'ninth'	nigotha		'fortieth'	fewer- tigotha	

8. Questions and Assignments to Chapter 3

- 1) How did the system of cases of the noun change in the Middle English language?
- 2) How did the root declension change in Middle English?
- 3) Explain the origin of the definite article in Middle English?
- 4) Explain the origin of the indefinite article in Middle English.
- 5) Why is the indefinite article in English used only with the singular number of countable nouns?
- 6) What was the meaning of the inflection **-e** in the Middle English adjective?
- 7) What were the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the Middle English adjectives **old, long, strong**?
- 8) What were the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective **god**?
- 9) What were the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective **evil**?
- 10) What were the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective **muchel**?
- 11) What were the forms of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective **litel**?
- 12) What were the possible variants of the comparative and superlative degrees of the adjective **beautiful** in Middle English?
- 13) What is a *stative*?
- 14) What changes took place in the system of the personal pronouns in Middle English?
- 15) Name the Middle English personal pronoun of the 2nd person singular.
- 16) How did the form of the possessive pronoun in Middle English depend on the first sound of the following noun?
- 17) Name the interrogative pronouns in Middle English.
- 18) Name the relative pronouns in Middle English.
- 19) Name the indefinite pronouns in Middle English.
- 20) Name the reflexive pronouns in Middle English.
- 21) How did the Middle English phonetic changes influence the system of the verb?
- 22) Explain the development of the future tense in the Middle English system of the verb.
- 23) Explain the development of the perfect forms in the Middle English system of the verb.
- 24) Explain the development of the continuous forms in the Middle English system of the verb.
- 25) Name the adverb-forming suffixes in Middle English.
- 26) Count from 1 to 10 using Middle English numerals.
- 27) What was the corresponding *ordinal* numeral for **on**?
- 28) What was the corresponding *ordinal* numeral for **two**?
- 29) What was the corresponding *ordinal* numeral for **thre**?
- 30) What is *framing*? Illustrate it.
- 31) Name the connectors that introduced the object clause and adverbial clauses of purpose and result in the structure of the Middle English complex sentence.
- 32) Name the connector introducing the subject clause.
- 33) Name the connectors introducing the predicative clause.
- 34) Name the connectors introducing the adverbial clause of cause.
- 35) Name the connectors introducing the attributive clause.
- 36) Name the connectors introducing the adverbial clause of time.
- 37) Name the connectors introducing the adverbial clause of place.
- 38) Name the connectors introducing the adverbial clause of condition.
- 39) Name the connectors introducing the adverbial clause of concession.
- 40) Comment on the expression of negation in the Middle English language.

Chapter 4. Middle English Dialects

Middle English dialects may be considered in a way as the development of those in Old English. The Northern dialects grew on the basis of Northumbrian, the Central dialects on the basis of Mercian, the

Southern dialects on the basis of Wessex and Kentish. In spite of this connection the character of Middle English dialects is different: while the dialects in Old English were *tribal*, those in the Middle English language were *territorial*.

1. Northern Dialects

The Northern dialects were situated to the North of the Humber river.

The Northern dialects had the following phonetic and morphological features.

The long [a:] in the Northern dialects did not change into the long [o:].

The Old English vowels [y] and [y:] correspondingly changed into [i] and [i:].

In some cases [k] did not change into [t].

The Old English cluster **sc** [sk] in unstressed syllables changed not into **sh** [ʃ] but into [s], e.g.: **engelisc** > **inglis** 'English' /Moore 1929, 83/.

The noun in the form of the plural number in the Northern dialects had the inflection **-s**. The form of the present tense of the verb had the inflection **-s, -es**. Participle I ended in **-and**.

Among the literary documents written in the Northern dialects the following should be mentioned first of all: works by Richard Rolle de Hampole, Thomas Castleford, the Chronicles of the first half of the 14th century and mysteries (miracle plays) of the 14th - the early 15th centuries.

2. The Central Dialects

The territory where the Central dialects were used was roughly limited by the Humber river in the North and the Thames in the South. They were further subdivided into the East-Central and West-Central dialects.

The Central dialects had the following characteristic features.

The vowels [y] and [y:] in the East-Central dialect changed into [i] and [i:] and the West-Central dialect into [u] and [u:].

The Old English vowel [æ] changed into [e] in the West-Central dialect.

The long Old English [æ:] both in the West-Central and East-Central dialects changed into the narrow long [e:].

The Old English diphthong [eo] changed into the vowel [o] which survived up to the 14th century /Ильиш 1958, 181/.

Among the main literary documents which were written in the Central dialects there are such as: the translation of fragments of the Holy Bible (Genesis and Exodus), the so called "Peterborough Chronicle". The outstanding poetic piece of medieval English literature "Sir Gavayn and Green Knight" also belongs to the Central dialect literary monuments.

3. The Southern Dialects

The Southern dialects were spoken to the South of the Thames. They were further subdivided into the South-West dialect and the Kentish dialect.

The characteristic features of the Southern dialects are as follows.

At the beginning of the word the consonant [f] was frequently voiced, that is changed into [v].

The vowel [æ] changed into [e] which was later replaced by the vowel [a].

The diphthong [ea] changed into [e], e.g.: **eald** > **eld** 'old'.

The short vowel [a] before nasal consonants changed into [o], e.g.: **man** > **mon** 'man', **land** > **lond** 'land'.

In the South-West dialect the long [y:] was shortened to [y].

In the Kentish dialect [y:] > [e:] and [y] > [e].

The form of the plural number of the noun often had the ending **-en**.

Participle I ended in **-inde**.

Participle II retained the prefix **y-** (from the Old English **ge-**) but lost the ending **-n**, e.g.: **y-founde** 'found'.

The Southern dialects are easy to recognize by the characteristic forms of personal pronouns: **ha, a** 'he, she, they'; **hare** 'her, them'; **ham** 'them' /Moore 1929, 74/.

Among the literary documents in the Southern dialects the following works should be mentioned: Layamon's poem "Brut" (the early 13th century), Dan Michel's "Ayenbyte of Inwyt" (1340), "The Status of Nuns", "Polychronicon Ranulphi Higden" translated from Latin by John de Trevisa (1387).

4. The London Dialect and The Rise of the National English Language

The dialect division which evolved in Early ME was on the whole preserved in later periods. In the 14th and 15th c. we find the same grouping of local dialects: the Southern group, including Kentish and the South-Western dialects (the South-Western group was a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects, i.e. Wessex, Sussex and Essex), the Midland or

Central (corresponding to the OE Mercian dialect – is divided into West Central and East Central as two main areas) and the Northern group (had developed from OE Northumbrian). And yet the relations between them were changing.

The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the London dialect as the prevalent written form of language. The history of the London dialect reveals the sources of the literary language in Late ME and also the main source and basis of the Literary Standard, both in its written and spoken forms. During the 13th - 14th centuries the active process of formation of the English nation took place. Alongside with this process the formation of the national literary language on the basis of the London dialect was happening.

The very notion of the London dialect is complex. It includes the dialect of the City, Westminster and Middlesex dialects.

It was not by chance that the London dialect appeared as the basis of the all-national language. After the Norman Conquest London became the capital of England and - as a result - the political, economical and cultural centre of the country.

London being situated on the Thames, the London dialect originally united the features of the Central and Southern dialects. The Early ME written records made in London – beginning with the King Henry III's Proclamation of 1258 – show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon (Essex). Later records indicate that the speech of London was becoming more fixed, with East Central features gradually prevailing over the Southern features.

One of the interesting documents written in the London dialect is Proclamation by King Henry III. Another important literary document in the London dialect was the Holy Bible translated by John Wiclif. It was in the London dialect that Geoffrey Chaucer, the founder of the humanistic tradition in English literature, wrote his works.

V.N.Yartseva emphasized that is difficult to give an objective evaluation of the real connections and relations between the Middle English territorial dialects because the numerous literary documents of the period (before the 14th century) survived in different dialects but none of them was represented in a clear form /Ярцева, 1985, 149/.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 4

- 1) On the basis of what Old English dialect did the Middle English Central dialects develop?
- 2) The Old English dialects were *tribal*. How about the Middle English dialects?
- 3) How did the vowel [æ] change in the West-Central dialects?
- 4) Name the main literary documents written in the Central dialects.
- 5) How did the vowel [y] change in the Kentish dialect?
- 6) In which dialects were there such forms of personal pronouns as **ha, a, hare, ham**?
- 7) Which Middle English dialect was the basis for the formation of the national literary language?
- 8) Name literary documents written in in the London dialect.
- 9) In which dialect were Geoffrey Chaucer's works written?
- 10) Why was the London dialect of special importance among other Middle English dialects?

PART THREE.

Chapter 1: NEW ENGLISH: THE END OF THE 15TH CENTURY – WELL INTO OUR TIME

1. The Wars of the Roses

In 1453 England was defeated by France in the Hundred Years' War. England lost practically all the territories in France.

But the peace was not long. In two years England was involved into a civil war which is known under the poetic name of *The Wars of Roses*. It lasted for thirty years from 1455 to 1485 and finally "brought the period to a bloody close and completed the self-destruction of the nobles as a ruling class" /Morton 1984, 147/.

The Wars of the Roses were actually a dynastic struggle was the struggle between the noble family of Lancaster, represented by a red rose, and the noble family of York, represented by a white rose, to make their man king of England. A.L.Morton writes: "it was the outcome of a policy that had been initiated by Edward III who had married his children to the heirs of the most powerful nobles in the hope of strengthening his family. In this way immense lands and wealth were concentrated in the hands of a small group of men all connected with the royal house and politically ambitious. In the long run, instead of strengthening the Crown it had the effect of concentrating the opposition and making it doubly dangerous" /Morton 1984, 148/.

The first open battle between the parties that had rival claims for the throne took place on May 22, 1455, at St. Albans. In this battle King Henry VI of Lancaster was wounded and Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset killed. In 1460

Edward, Prince of Wales, was disinherited and York was recognized as Henry's heir. But very shortly afterwards, in 1461, York was killed in a battle and his son Edward who won a victory at Mortimer's Cross was crowned as King Edward IV. Edward IV severely suppressed the opposition of the Lancastrians. In 1464 Edward secretly married Elizabeth Woodville. His support of the Woodville family caused the hostility on the part of his brother George, Duke of Clarence, and his supporter Warwick. They managed to restore Henry VI of York to the throne and Edward fled to the Low Countries. In 1471 Edward returned and again destroyed the Lancastrians. Henry VI was taken to the Tower of London where he was soon killed.

In 1483 after Edward's death war was resumed. His brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, seized the throne as Richard III, so colourfully depicted by Shakespeare in his famous drama. In 1485 Richard III was killed by Henry Tudor of Lancaster, Earl of Richmond, in the battle of Bosworth. The dynasty of Tudor succeeded to the throne.

"The civil wars," J.P. Kenyon writes, "lasted for more than thirty years. However, they were not continuous but a series of outbreaks between periods of armed peace or, as was the case for much of Edward

IV's reign, comparative harmony" /Kenyon 1988, 310/.

Henry Tudor, crowned as Henry VII (see *Who's Who in This History*) founder of the new monarchy was, as A.L. Morton puts it, "in the fullest sense a symbolic figure" /Morton 1984, 174/. He managed to consolidate his kingdom, developed industries and avoided wars as he well understood that wars demanded money.

The stability and unity of the country caused further spread of the London literary norm which gradually replaced the territorial dialects and acquired the features of the national language.

2. The Great Invention of Guttenberg

Guttenberg's press was an invention that had the greatest impact on the development of culture. In the middle of the 15th century the first book by way of printing from movable type was made in Germany.

The first English printer was William Caxton (see *Who's Who in This History*). He was born in 1422 in Kent. As a young man Caxton was an apprentice in a mercer's (торговец шелком и бархатом) shop in London. Later, in 1446, he started his own business at Bruges. In 1465 William Caxton was appointed a governor of the Merchants Adventurers. His duty was negotiating commercial treaties. **In early 1470s at Cologne he met Johann Guttenberg from whom he learned the art of printing. In 1476 Caxton returned to London and founded a press at Westminster** /Kenyon 1988, 67/.

Unlike J. Guttenberg whose first printed book was the Holy Bible (now known as *Guttenberg's Bible*), Caxton started with producing books for entertainment. His first books printed in 1477 were *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers* and *Histories of Troye*. Later Caxton printed Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* and Chaucer's poems /Morton 1984, 136/.

Though being a native of Kent, William Caxton mainly **reflected the features of the London dialect in his books**. As B.A. Plyish marks, Caxton stuck to the tradition of the scribes (писец; переписчик) in his spelling and it is next to impossible to find any specific Kentish forms in them /Ильиш 1938, 147/.

The introduction of printing caused the establishment of the spelling standards. Caxton used the spelling forms which were obsolete even for his time, they corresponded to the pronunciation norms that existed in the earlier epoch and did not take into consideration the phonetic changes of the 14th and 15th centuries. So **the normalized English orthography was archaic from the very beginning of its existence. Later further considerable development took place in the English phonetic system, but the spelling remained practically unchanged. As a result there appeared a gap between what is pronounced and what is written in English, the gap that makes English so different from other European languages, the gap that makes so difficult the practice of teaching how to read and write in English both for native and foreign students.**

Of course, it took long to come to complete uniformity in spelling. As A.C. Baugh observes, "it would be a mistake to think that complete uniformity was attained within the space of a few generations. Even in matters of vocabulary dialectal differences have persisted in cultivated speech down to the present day, and they were no less noticeable in the period when **London English was gaining general acceptance**" /Baugh 1963, 235/.

It is only in the 16th century that the existence of the language standard becomes more or less evident. The literary language becomes an example which was to be followed in everyday speech.

H.C. Wyld cites Thomas Eliot who find it necessary that a child should be taught correct English: "the [nurses] and other women about hym, if it be possible, [must] spece none englishe but that which is cleane, polite, perfectly and articulately pronounced, omitting no lettre or syllable, as [foolish] women often times do of a wantonnesse, whereby diuers noble men and gentilmennes children (as I do at this daye know), have attained corrupt and foule pronunciation" /Wyld 1953, 104/.

Yet for a long time there remained variants in pronunciation and spelling. E.g., there were such forms as **bisie** 'busy' (in the East Central dialect) and **besie** (from the Kentish dialect, **than** and **then**, **geve** and **give**, **fader** and **father**, **moder** and **mother**, **service** and **sarvice**, **derk** and **dark**, etc.

In morphology such variant forms of the plural number coexisted as **houses** and **housen**, **shoes** and **shoon**, etc. /Ильин 1938, 148/.

3. The Functional Universality of New English

In the process of turning into the national language English underwent certain qualitative changes. It gradually acquired functional universality, i.e. began to be used in different communicative spheres. English superseded Latin and French in religious, philosophical and scientific fields and developed genres and styles. Thus, “in the 15th and mainly 16th centuries arose the problem of spreading English to all kinds of literary practice, i.e.: fiction, scientific, philosophical and didactic. In the previous centuries in these spheres predominated Latin as the international language of science in Europe of the Middle Age, and a little earlier, the French language which became the ground for creating splendid Anglo-Norman fixation after the conquest of England by Normans. **In the 16th century the situation changed sharply. In contrast with the Middle English period, in this time the territorial dialects (with the exception of Scottish) disappeared from the sphere of literature and the remained documents of that epoch demonstrate a certain uniformity of literary language based on the language of London**” /Ярцева 1985, 235/.

At that time there appeared what is called *linguistic policy*, i.e. the will to influence and direct the development of the language. Anyway, attempts of evaluation of the properties and qualities of the language were quite frequent. The problem of evaluation of English which was used as a literary language, as V.N.Yartseva generalizes, arose before three categories of men of letters: **1) translators from other, and first and foremost, classic languages who aimed at authenticity of their translation; 2) poets, theorists and critics of poetry who sought for new poetical forms which in a certain way imitated genres of the French and classical poetry; 3) writers working in the field of serious (scientific, didactic, philosophical) prose, i.e., of that kind of literature which up to the 16th century had been completely the domain of Latin** /Ярцева 1985, 235/.

Perhaps, to V.N.Yartseva's list another group of people could be added: **the creators of the English Bible**. The Holy Bible occupies a very special place in the spiritual life of English people. Thomas Cranmer (see *Who's Who in This History*), Archbishop of Canterbury, who was responsible for the two *Books of Common Prayer*, wrote in his preface to the 1540 Bible that “it is convenient and good the Scripture to be read of all sorts and conditions of people” /Norman 1982, 185/. In 1380 the famous church reformer John Wycliffe (see *Who's Who in This History*) supervised the translation of the Bible which subsequently bore his name into English. In 1526 appeared William Tyndale's version of the New Testament. It was the first version translated from Greek (whereas the previous versions were translated from the Latin texts). Tyndale's translation served as a ground for the *Great Bible* of Coverdale (1539) which according to the King's order was used in all the churches of the realm. In 1604 King James I (see *Who's Who in This History*) ordered the Hampton Court conference of divines to compile a new translation. Forty-seven scholars were employed between 1607 and 1611 to produce a translation based on Tyndale's *Bishops' Bible* (1568) but referring to all pre-existing English versions. An outstanding example of English prose the *Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible* (1611) remained unchanged for almost three centuries /Kenyon 1988, 26/. Many expressions from the Authorized Version entered the English language.

The text of the Authorized may be regarded as the national treasure of the English people.

In Early New English there remained phonetic and grammatical variants but in the process of the development of the literary language **a kind of selection took place which resulted in the survival of one of the variants as a fixed standard form**. The elements ousted from the literary use could yet survive as colloquial or slang forms.

4. Expansion of English

In 1492 Christopher Columbus discovered America. Five years later, in 1497, King Henry VII engaged the Genoese John Cabot (see *Who's Who in This History*) to find a northerly way to India. As a result Cabot discovered North America. At that period Britain was behind the other European countries in the colonization of the New World. Spain had conquered the Caribbean, Mexico and Peru and got up the Mississippi as far as present-day Memphis. France had got American Louisiana and reached Quebec. As for Britain her interests were concentrated in the East. In 1555 the Muscovy Company was established and English ships dropped anchors at Archangel /Nicholas 1982, 129/.

Only in **1584 Walter Raleigh** (see *Who's Who in This History*) undertook the first voyage to America where he made established the Roanoke Colony in Virginia. But the colony did not exist long: it petered out (исчезать, пропадать) in 1586. In 1587 John White founded a new colony which did not exist long either. And only in **1607 a group of 143 colonists established themselves at Jamestown. In two years, in 1609, the population of the colony was already over 700 people** /Nicholas 1982, 130/.

The early colonists who settled in America had brought the English language to their new country. It was English spoken by Shakespeare and his contemporaries.

The following object of British expansion was Canada. France had conquered Canadian territories before the English colonists came to Virginia. By the early 17th century the English were competing for a stake in the valuable fur trade, and in 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company was formed. By 1763 Britain was supreme in Canada, securing the Hudson's

Bay territories, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia by the treaty of Utrecht (1713) and Quebec, Prince Edward Island and Cape Breton Island by the treaty of Paris (1763) /Kenyon 1988, 60/.

In the 17th century the British Empire took roots in India. By the end of the century England had acquired at least three important positions in India: the territory where the present-day Madras developed, Bengal which later became the city of Calcutta and Bombay obtained by Charles II (see *Who's Who in This History*) as dowry of his Portuguese bride. Though the British never mixed with the Indian society, in the course of centuries the country was westernized and underwent strong influence of the English culture and the English language. Higher education was in English and English in India developed as a well perceived variant. The Indian languages enriched the English lexicon by a number of words like raj 'domination', rajah 'prince', nabob 'lord', etc. /Beloff 1982, 141 - 145/.

In the 18th century the colonization of Australia started. Originally that colony was used as a place of punishment, criminals were transported there from England. It lasted so up to 1868, when the transportation of criminals was replaced by voluntary organized emigration.

In 1839 the colonization of New Zealand began after the treaty of Waitangi between England and the chiefs of the Maori people inhabiting the island. Africa was another part of the world which attracted the attention of England. The first British colony in Africa was Sierra Leone. Competing with France and some other states Britain established its rule Gambia, the Gold Coast and Lagos. The Cape Colony became the basis of the British Expansion in South Africa.

Centuries have passed. The British Empire gave up its place to the Commonwealth of independent sovereignties. But English remains the official language in big and small countries. More than that, in the course of development in more or less isolated conditions it has acquired specific features and nowadays we can easily tell an American or an Australian speaking English from the inhabitant of the United Kingdom. It means that the English language exists today as a multitude *local variants*.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 1

1. When did *The Hundred Years' War* end?
2. Who was defeated in *The Hundred Years' War*?
3. When did *The Wars of Roses* take place?
4. What were the reasons for *The Wars of Roses*?
5. Speak on the circumstances of the Yorks coming to power in 1461.
6. When did the restoration of the Lancastrians take place?
7. Who was the first king in the Tudors' dynasty?
8. Characterize Henry Tudor as a politician.
9. What impact had the stability and unity of the country after the end of *The Wars of Roses* on the development of the national language and literature?
10. When and where was printing invented?
11. Name the first English printer.
12. Where did William Caxton learn the art of printing?
13. When was the first press founded in England?
14. When were the first English books printed? Name them.
15. The features of which dialects can be traced in the first English printed books?
16. Why did the introduction of printing cause the establishment of the spelling standard?
17. How is it possible to explain the gap between spelling and pronunciation in the New English language?
18. What time can we practically ascribe the stabilization of the spelling standard to?
19. How did the literary language influence everyday speech?
20. Give examples of pronunciation and spelling variants in Early New English.
21. Explain the notion of the *functional universality* of New English.
22. What were the relations of the English language with Latin and French in the 15th and 16th centuries?
23. Which dialect was the growth of the English language based upon?
24. Explain the notion of *linguistic policy*.
25. Name English versions of the Holy Bible of the 15th - 17th centuries.
26. What is the *Authorized* (or *King James*) *Version of the Bible*? When was it issued?
27. When did Christopher Columbus discover America?

28. What is the *Muscovy Company*? When was it established?
29. When was the *Roanoke Colony* in Virginia founded?
30. How did Britain reinforce its positions in America in the 18th century?
31. When did the colonization of India begin?
32. Give examples of Indian loan-words in English?
33. When were Australia and New Zealand colonized?
34. What was the first English colony in Africa?
35. How did the expansion of Britain influence the development of the English language?

Chapter 2. Phonetic Changes in the New English Language

1. Changes in the System of Vowels

The changes in the system of vowels in New English were various and complex. We can mention at least fourteen groups of changes and individual vowel changes:

1. the Great Vowel Shift;
2. the variant of the Great Vowel Shift before **-r**;
3. the changes of the diphthongs;
4. the development of the long [a:];
5. the change [aɪ] > [aɪ̯];
6. the monophthongization of [aʊ] and the development of the long open [o:];
7. the development of the long vowel [ɜ:] before **-r**;
8. the change [er] > [ar];
9. the change [a] > [æ];
10. the labialization of [a] after [w] resulting in [wo];
11. the delabialization of the short vowel [u];
12. the shortening of the long open [e:];
13. the loss of the unstressed neutral vowel [ɜ];
14. the loss of the vowel in the central syllable in longer words.

The Great Vowel Shift. This is a change which involved all the long vowels of the Middle English period. The chronological limits of this change are not quite clear. According to O.Jespersen the process probably started in the 15th century and completed at the beginning of the 18th century. The general tendency of the shift was that the vowels were narrowed and the narrowest ones ([i:] and [u:]) were diphthongized (see Table 50).

Table 50

The Great Vowel Shift

Change	Character of Change	Example	Middle English Pronunciation	New English Pronunciation
[i:] > [ai]	diphthongization	Time	[ti:me]	[taim]
[e:]closed > [i:]	narrowing	Sleep	[sle:p]	[sli:p]
[e:]open > [e:] > [i:]	narrowing	Clean	[kle:n]	[kle:n] > [kli:n]
[a:] > [ei]	diphthongization	Name	[ˈna:me]	[neim]
[o:]open > [ou]	diphthongization	Boat	[bo:t]	[bout]
[o:]closed > [u:]	narrowing	Moon	[mo:n]	[mu:n]
[u:] > [au]	diphthongization	house	[hu:s]	[haus]

As it can be seen from Table 50 in the process of the Great Vowel Shift *seven* Middle English long monophthongs ([i:], [e:], [e:], [a:], [o:], [o:], [u:]) turned into *two* monophthongs ([i:] and [u:]) and *four* diphthongs ([ai], [ei], [ou], [au]). It should be marked that the close [e:] and the open [e:] finally merged in one vowel - [i:]. That is why in modern English there are nowadays such *homophones* as **see** and **sea**, **heel** and **heal**, etc.

The Variant of the Great Vowel Shift before -r. The middle English long vowel followed by the consonant **-r** developed in a different way. In this case the vowel which appeared as the result of the change was broader (see Table 51).

Table 51

The Great Vowel Shift (the Variant before the Consonant -r

Change	Character of Change	Example	Middle English Pronunciation	New English Pronunciation
[i:] > [aie]	triphthongization	Tire	[ti:r]	[taie®]
[e:] > [ie]	diphthongization	Steer	[ste:r]	[stie®]
1) [e:] > [ie] 2) [e:] > [ea]	diphthongization diphthongization	fear bear	[fe:r] [be:r]	[fie®] [bea®]
[a:] > [ea]	diphthongization	Fare	[fa:r]	[f ea®]
[o:] > [o:]	no change	Boar	[bo:r]	[bo:®]
[o:] > [ue]	diphthongization	Moor	[mo:r]	[mue®]
[u:] > [aue]	triphthongization	power	[pu:er]	[paue®]

Important! The symbol ® means that the consonant [r] is pronounced in case the following word begins with a vowel.

Phonemic Interpretation of the Great Vowel Shift

There are several hypotheses concerning the Great Vowel Shift (GVS). Baugh and Cable's discussion is purely lexical and diachronic. They assume that each vowel represents an underlying phonological unit and the diphthongs came about only because there was no higher place for the high vowels to rise to. Chomsky and Halle provide a different analysis. They explain the GVS in terms of several synchronic rules which were introduced into the grammar of Modern English. Two of these rules are particularly significant: rule which transforms all tense vowels into diphthongs; and rule which shifts tense vowels.

ɪ	ʊ	ɛ	o	ɑ	o	phonological representation
ɪφ	ʊω	ɛφ	oω	αφ	oω	Diphthongization
ɛφ	oω	ɪφ	ʊω			Vowel Shift (a)
αφ	αω	ɪ:	ʊ:	ɛφ	oω	Vowel Shift (b)

Pilch argues that Middle English did not have contrastive vowel length. Rather, vowel length was conditioned by syllable and word structure. However, there were eight long vowels (long i, long u, long y, long a, long open e, long closed e, long open o, long closed o) and only five short vowels (a, o, u, e, i), with typically a two-to-two correspondence between them. By the time of late Middle English, many words had alternating forms with long and short vowels, but the environmental triggers for the distinction had been lost, e.g. the present and past forms of read.⁹ Contrastive vowel length thus entered the language, but its use was unstable. Starting in London in the 14th century, the contrast of high vowels i, u, - i:, u: was reinterpreted as a contrast with diphthongs i, u – ai, au. This accounts for the shift of the long high vowels to diphthongs. The other long vowels then shifted to fill the gap left by the long high vowels.

Diensberg proposes that the GVS was prompted by the 'massive intake of Romance loanwords in Middle English and Early New English'. He cites evidence that alternations in Middle English stressed vowels match alternations in French loanwords.

Bertacca refutes Diensberg's theory, pointing to the loss of inflectional morphology and various other factors as causes for the GVS.

The other phonetic changes

The Changes of the Diphthongs. The diphthongs [ai] and [ei] were towards the end of the Middle English period merged in [æi] as in **day, way**, etc. Eventually this [æi] developed into [ei]:[dei], [wei], etc.

- In the 17th century the diphthong [ei] ("ai") merged with [ei] from the Middle English [a:] (see *The Great Vowel Shift*). A few pairs of homophones resulted from this: **ail - ale, fane (ноэт. xpам) -feign, lain - lane, maid - made, pail -pale, plain - plane, sail - sale, tail - tale, veil - vale.**

⁹ Pilch does not say so, but presumably the loss of environmental triggers resulted from the reduction of inflectional complexity. This view is confirmed by Bertacca, who also suggests several other possible triggers for the GVS.

- In the forms **says, said** the vowel [ei] was shortened to [e]: [sez], [sed]. This change may be explained by the fact that they usually stood in an unstressed position.
- The Middle English [eu] (in spelling **eu, ew**) developed through [iu] into [ju:], as in **dew [dju:]**. This change also affected French words in which the French vowel [u] had been substituted by [iu], as in **pure, nature**, etc.
- The vowel resulting from the Middle English [o:] (see *The Great Vowel Shift*) and the older [ou] also merged. This also brought about several pairs of homophones: **grown - groan, know - no, mown - moan, row - roe, rowed - road, soul - sole**.

The Development of Long Vowels.

The Development of the Long [a:]. The long [a:] gradually developed from the short [a] before **-s, -th, sk, -sp, -st**. The steps of this development were as follows:

[a] > [æ] > [æ:] > [a:] E.g.:
 ME **glass** [glas] > NE **glass** [gla:s]
 ME **path** [path] > NE **path** [pa:θ]
 ME **vast** [vast] > NE **vast** [va:st]
 ME **gaspen** [ˈgaspen] > **gasp** [ga:sp]
 ME **asken** [ˈasken] > **ask** [a:sk]

Taking into consideration the steps of the development of the long [a:] we can see that the well-known peculiarity of the American variant of the English language which consists in the pronunciation of the word **last, dance, ask**, etc. like [læst], [dæns] and [æsk] is not a result of specific change but one of the steps of the regular development of the Middle English vowel [a] frozen half-way: **a –æ – æ: – a:**.

The Change of [al] into [aul]. In the 15th century between the vowel [a] and the consonant [l] there appeared the glide [u]. As a result the words like **all** [al], **call** [kal], **tall** [tal] were pronounced as [aul], [kaul], [taul]. This phonetic change found reflection in spelling too: in Early New English documents we often come across the word **all** spelt as **aul**.

The Change of [au] into the Long Open [o:]. In the 16th century the diphthong [au] was monophthongized and changed into the long open [o:]. The origin of the [au] did not matter: both the words in which [au] appeared as a result of the change [al] > [aul] and the borrowed words which had this diphthong (like **cause**) equally underwent this change. E.g.:

all [al] > **aul** [aul] > **all** [o:l] **tall** [tal] > **tall** [taul] > **tall** [to:l]
cause [ˈkauze] > **cause** [kauz] > **cause** [ko:z] **August** [ˈaugest] > **August** [ˈo:gest]

The Development of the Long [ɜ:]. A new long vowel appeared in New English as a result of the change of the vowels [i], [u], [e:], [o] (only after [w]) followed by the consonant [r] which in its turn underwent vocalization. E.g.:

first [first] > **first** [fɜ:st]
fur [fur] > **fur** [fɜ:] **word** [word] > **word** [wɜ:d]
learn [le:rn] > **learn** [lɜ:n]

The Change [er] > [ar]. In the 14th - 15th centuries in many words [er] changed into [ar]. In some words this change had no reflection in the spelling. E.g.:

ME **clerk** [klerk] > NE **clerk** [klark]
 ME **sergeant** [serˈdgant] > NE **sergeant** [ˈsardgent]
 ME **Berkeley** [ˈberkeli] > NE **Berkeley** [ˈbarkli]

Derby, Hertford

In others the change was reflected in spelling. E.g.:

ME **sterre** > NE **star**
 ME **werre** > NE **war**
 ME **hervest** > NE **harvest**

There were also some words in which this change was reflected by a special combined spelling **ear**. E.g.:

ME **herte** > NE **heart**
 ME **herthe** > NE **hearth**
 ME **herken** > NE **heark**

The development of short vowels

The change [a] > [æ]. Unless the vowel [a] was preceded by [w] it changed into [æ]. E.g.:

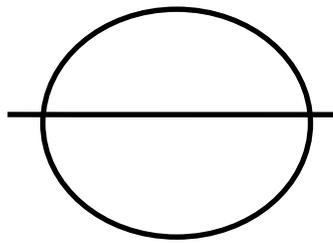
ME **cat** [kat] > NE **cat** [kæt]
 ME **hat** [hat] > NE **hat** [hæt]
 ME **glad** [glad] > NE **glad** [glæd]

It is noticeable that this change has a reverse character in the history of the English vowel system: the Old English [æ] used to change into [a] and the New English change somehow completed the circle.

OE [æ]

ME [a]

NE [æ]



E.g.: Old English **glæd** > Middle English **glad** [glad] > New English **glad** [glæd].

The Change of [a] into the Short Open [o] after [w]. In the 17th century the short [a] changed into the short open [o] under the influence of the preceding [w]. E.g.:

watch [wat] > **watch** [wot]

water [ˈwater] > **water** [ˈwote]

wash [wa] > **wash** [wo]

It should be marked that this change also took place in case the word began with [kw] (in spelling **qu**).

E.g.: **quality** [ˈkwaliti] > **quality** [ˈkwoliti] **quantity** [ˈkwantiti] > **quantity** [ˈkwontiti] **quartz** [kwarts] > **quartz** [kworts]

Yet in quite a number of words [a] after [w] and [kw] changed into [æ] (see above). E.g.:

wax [waks] > **wax** [wæks]

wag [wag] > **wag** [wæg]

waggon [ˈwagen] > **waggon** [ˈwægen]

quack [kwak] > **quack** [kwæk] **quag** [kwag] > **quag** [kwæg]

The Delabialization of the Short [u]. Another interesting change of the 17th century which resulted in appearance of a new vowel was the *delabialization* of the short [u]. E.g.:

come [kum] > **come** [k[^]m]

love [luv] > **love** [l[^]v]

son [sun] > **son** [s[^]n]

cut [kut] > **cut** [k[^]t]

luck [luk] > **luck** [l[^]k]

hunt [hunt] > **hunt** [h[^]nt]

Yet in some words the short [u] remained unchanged if it was preceded by labial consonants [b], [p], [f], [w]. E.g.: **bull**, **bullet**, **bully**, **bush**, **butch**, **butcher**, **bulletin**, **bulwark**, **pudding**, **pull**, **push**, **put**, **puss**, **pulley**, **pulpit**, **full**, **wolf**, **woman**.

The Shortening of the Long Open [e:]. Normally the long open [e:] changed according to the Great Vowel Shift. But in some before the consonants [d], [t], [th], [s], [f] it was shortened. E.g.:

ME **bread** [bre:d] > NE **bread** [bred]

ME **sweat** [swe:t] > NE **sweat** [swet]

ME **death** [de:θ] > NE **death** [deth]

ME **less** [le:s] > NE **less** [les]

ME **deaf** [de:f] > NE **deaf** [def]

The Loss of the Unstressed Neutral Vowel. In the 14th - 15th centuries the neutral vowel [ə] was lost. It generally took place in the plural forms of the noun, in the 3rd form singular of the verb and in the past tense of the verb. In the Middle English language these forms were disyllabic as the inflections **-es** and **ed** made a syllable. As a result of the change in New English they were shortened to one syllable. Compare:

ME **bookes** [ˈbo:kes] > NE **books** [buks]

ME **hattes** [ˈhates] > NE **hats** [hæts]

ME **boares** [ˈbo:res] > NE **boars** [bo:z]

ME **likes** [ˈli:kes] > NE **likes** [laiks]

ME **seemes** [ˈse:mes] > NE **seems** [si:mz]

ME **begges** [ˈbeges] > NE **begs** [begz]

ME **liked** [ˈli:ked] > NE **liked** [laikt]

ME **loved** [‘luved] > NE **loved** [l vd]
ME **stopped** [‘stoped] > NE **stopped** [stopt]

The Loss of the Vowel in the Central Syllable in Longer Words. If the word consisted of three or more syllables it was shortened due to the loss of the vowel in the central syllable. E.g.:

ME **chapter** > NE **chapter**
ME **crimesin** > NE **crimson**
ME **phantasie** > NE **fancy**

It goes without saying that the change did not happen at once but the two forms of the word - the long and the short one - existed for some period as parallel variants. In several instances these variants acquired different meanings and thus enlarged the English lexicon. E.g.:

NE **medicine** [‘medisin] (substance for treatment)
ME **medicine**

NE **medicine** [‘medsin] (science)
NE **courtesy** [‘k :tisi] (politeness)

ME **courtesie**

NE **curtsey** [‘k :tsi] (inclination made by women)

2. Changes in the System of Consonants

The changes in the system of consonants which took place in the New English period were as follows:

- 1) The vocalization of [r];
- 2) the change of the consonant [x] into [f] in the final position in the word;
- 3) the loss of the consonant [x] before [t];
- 4) the loss of the consonant [l] before [d], [f], [v], [k], [m];
- 5) the appearance of the bilabial semi-consonant [w] before a vowel at the beginning of the word;
- 6) the loss of the semi-consonant [w] in the unstressed syllable after a consonant;
- 7) the voicing of the consonant [s];
- 8) the voicing of the cluster of consonants [ks];
- 9) the voicing of the consonant [f] in the preposition ‘of’;
- 10) the voicing of the consonant [t] in some words;
- 11) the shortening of consonant clusters;
- 12) the change of the consonants [d] and [t] into the interdental [] and [] before [r];
- 13) the amalgamation of [j] with the preceding consonant;
- 14) the loss of the consonants [g] and [k] before [n] at the beginning of the word;
- 15) the split of the cluster **wh** (in pronunciation [hw]) into [w] and [h];
- 16) the loss of [h] in unstressed syllables.

Now let us discuss the above mentioned changes in detail.

The Vocalization of [r]. This change in New English, which began in the 16th c., accompanied the changes of vowels in combination with **r**, such as -or, -ar, -er, -ir, -yr, -ur, and the modification of the Great Vowel Shift “vowel + r + vowel”: -ire, -eer (-ere), -ear (-ere), -are, -oar (-ore), -oor (-ure), -ower (our). Vocalization implied that the consonant **r** merged with the preceding vowel. According to the Czech linguist Vahec, **r** belongs to peripheral phonemes, not very well fitting in the system, and its functional use was gradually reduced.

If it was a closed syllable finishing with **r**, then the resulting sounds were [o:], [a:] and [ə:], e.g. sport, ford, bar, star, her, stir, myrth, hurt.

In the sound cluster wor- **r** was also vocalized: world, worm, worse.

The sound cluster -ure in words of French origin underwent reduction and vocalization of -r: nature – [‘neitjur] > [‘neit ə].

If it was an open syllable with the sound clusters “vowel + r + vowel”: -ire, -eer (-ere), -ear (-ere), -are, oar (-ore), -oor (-ure), -ower (-our), then between the first vowel and **r** there appeared the neutral sound [ə], and the diphthongs appeared: here [heər], poor [poər]. Then, because of the Great Vowel Shift, the vowel underwent a change: here [hiər], poor [puər]. The final drop of **r** happened not earlier than the 18th c. (That is why it is still preserved in the form of the retroflexive **r** in the American English variant of the English language, which was developing slightly differently from the British

variant.) Linguists are still not agreed on whether to consider the resulting clusters biphonemic or monophonemic. The results of the vocalization are as follows:

ME [e:] > [i:] > [iə] – here, steer, dear, fierce

ME [ɛ:] > [e:] > [ɛə], [iə] – bear, wear, clear, spear

ME [a:] > [ei] > [ɛə] – care, dare, share

ME [o:] > [u:] > [uə] poor, moor

ME [ɛ:] developed in a double way, because the change according to the GVS [ɛ:] > [e:] > [i:] was somewhat separate from vocalization, and in some cases it remained [ɛ:]: e.g. [iə] clear, spear, but [ɛə] pear, learn.

The triphthongs [aiə] and [auə] preserved the reflex [a] in their structure, while r dropped off.

tire	[ti:r]	[taie@]
power	[pu:er]	[paue@]

The Change of the Consonant [x] into [f] in the Final Position in the Word. The specific consonant of the Middle English period [x] changed into the labial-dental consonant [f] when it stood in the final position in the word. E.g.:

ME **rough** [ru:x] > NE **rough** [r^f]

ME **laugh** [laux] > NE **laugh** [la:f]

ME **tough** [tu:x] > NE **tough** [t^f]

In individual instances the change [x] > [f] was reflected in spelling when the letter combination **gh** was replaced by **f**, e.g.: ME **dwergh** > NE **dwarf**.

The Loss of the Consonant [x] before [t]. When the consonant [x] was followed by [t] it was lost. It is noticeable that the loss of the consonant [x] in such cases was accompanied by the lengthening of the preceding vowel which may be considered as a kind of compensation, i.e. the word in away tends to keep its original space. The long vowels appearing as a result of this change later underwent the influence of the Great Vowel Shift. E.g.:

ME **light** [lixt] > NE **light** [li:t] > [lait]

ME **knight** [knixt] > NE **knight** [ni:t] > [nait]

ME **caught** [kauxt] > NE **caught** [ko:t]

As a rule the letter combination **gh** which does not practically denote any sound in New English remains in spelling. E.g.: **bright, night, fought, brought, bought.**

The Loss of the Consonant [l] before [d], [f], [v], [k], [m]. In the 15th century the consonant [l] was lost before [d], [f], [v], [k], [m].

Thus the phonetic structure of many words was simplified.

E.g.: **should** [u:ld] > **should** [ud]

would [wu:ld] > **would** [wud]

calf [kalf] > **calf** [ka:f]

half [half] > **half** [ha:f]

calves [ˈkalvez] > **calves** [ka:vz]

halves [ˈhalvez] > **halves** [ha:vz]

talk [talk] > [taulk] > [to:k]

walk [walk] > **walk** [wo:k]

calm [kalm] > **calm** [ka:m]

palm [palm] > **palm** [pa:m]

This change did not take place in the words of Latin and French origin. E.g.: **dissolve, resolve, valve, salmagundi** (салмагунди (мясной салат с анчоусами, яйцами и пикулями); ералаш), **salvation, salvo** (повод, предлог; увёртка, слабая отговорка; залп).

The Appearance of the Bilabial Semi-Consonant [w] before a Vowel at the beginning of the Word. In the 16th - 17th centuries the so-called prothetic [w] appeared before the vowels [o], [o:], [ʌ], [u:]. E.g.:

ME **one** [o:n] > NE **one** [wo:n] > [wu:n] > [wun] > [w^n]

ME **ones** [ˈo:nes] > NE **once** [wo:ns] > [wu:ns] > [wuns] > [w^ns]

ME **oof** [o:f] > NE **woof** [wo:f] > [wu:f] (текст. уток; гавканье)

The pronunciation [w^n] (with the initial [w]) was considered vulgar in the 17th century, and only in the 18th century it was accepted as the literary norm /Лыш 1973, 168/.

The Loss of the Semi-Consonant [w] in the Unstressed Syllable. The bilabial consonant [w] was lost in unstressed syllables after a consonant simplifying the phonetic structure of some longer words. E.g.:

ME **answer** [ˈanswer] > NE **answer** [ˈa:nse(r)]

ME **conquer** [ˈkonkwer] > NE **conquer** [ˈkonke(r)]

ME **liquor** [ˈlikwor] > NE **liquor** [ˈlike(r)]

The bilabial [w] also disappeared in many geographic names, e.g.: **Berwick** [ˈberik], **Warwick** [ˈworik], etc.

The Voicing of the Consonant [s]. In some words of French origin the voiceless consonant [s] changed into the voiced [z] when it stood in the position between two vowels. E.g.:

ME **dessert** [deˈsert] > NE **dessert** [diˈz:t]

ME **resemblen** [reˈsemblen] > NE **resemble** [riˈzembl]

ME **possessen** [poˈsesen] > NE **possess** [peˈzes]

Nevertheless in some other similar words the voiceless [s] remained unchanged. E.g.: **dissect**, **dissemble**, **dissent**.

The Voicing of the Cluster of Consonants [ks]. The combination [ks] changed into [gz] when it stood in the position between two vowels in the syllable which was under the stress. Cf.:

exhibit [igˈzibit] but **exhibition** [eksɪˈbɪn]

executor [igˈzekjute(r)] but **execute** [ˈeksɪkju:t]

exhort [igˈzo:t] but **exhortation** [eksɔːˈteɪn]

The Voicing of the Consonant [f] in the Preposition ‘of’. The preposition ‘of’ became very frequent in New English because of the decline of the case system. When ‘of’ was followed by a noun with the indefinite article the consonant [f] appeared in the position between two vowels which might cause its voicing. The voicing of the consonant [f] in the preposition ‘of’ helped to distinguish it from the adverb ‘off’.

The Voicing of the Consonant [t] in Some Words. The voicing of the consonant [t] began in Middle English and was completed in New English. E.g.:

ME **knowleche** > NE **knowledge**

ME **partriche** > NE **partridge** (кyponарка)

ME **Greenwich** [ˈgre:nwit] > NE **Greenwich** [ˈgrɪnɪd]

The exact conditions of this change, as B.A. Ilyish wrote, have yet to be studied /Ilyish 1973, 269/.

The Shortening of Consonant Clusters. In many instances when the word ended in two consonants one of them (as a rule the final one) was lost. If the word ended in three consonants the central one usually dropped. Thus [mb] > [m], [mn] > [m], [ln] > [l], [stl] > [sl], [stn] > [sn], [ftn] > [fn], [stm] > [sm], [ktl] > [kl], [ktn] > [kn], [skl] > [sl].

E.g.:

ME **tomb** [tumb] > NE **tomb** [tu:m]

ME **hymn** [himn] > NE **hymn** [him]

ME **myln** [miln] > NE **mill** [mil]

ME **whistlen** [ˈhwistlen] > NE **whistle** [wɪsl]

ME **fasten** [ˈfasten] > NE **fasten** [fa:sn]

ME **often** [ˈoften] > NE **often** [ɒfn]

ME **Christmas** [ˈkristmas] > NE **Christmas** [ˈkrɪsmes]

ME **exactly** [ekˈsaktli] > NE **exactly** [ɪgˈzæktli]

ME **exactness** [ekˈsaktnes] > NE **exactness** [ɪgˈzæktnis]

ME **muscle** [ˈmuskle] > NE **muscle** [m^sl]

It is quite clear that the general tendency of these changes is the simplification of the phonetic structure of the English word.

The Change of the Consonants [d] and [t] into the Interdental [ð] and [θ] before [r]. In some words if the consonant [d] was followed by [r] it changed into the voiced interdental consonant [ð]. E.g.:

ME **fader** > NE **father**

ME **moder** > NE **mother**

ME **togedere** > NE **together**

Similarly the consonant [t] changed into the voiceless interdental consonant [θ].

E.g.:

ME **autour** > NE **author**

The Amalgamation of [j] with the Preceding Consonant. As a result of assimilation the semi-consonant [j] merged with the preceding consonant in the word. The process of this amalgamation was like this: [s] + [j] > [ʃ], [z] + [j] > [ʒ], [t] + [j] > [tʃ], [d] + [j] > [dʃ]. E.g.:

Asia ['a:sia] > ['a:sja] > ['eisje] > ['ei e]

Russia ['rusia] > ['rusja] > ['rʌsje] > ['rʌ e]

ocean ['o:sean] > ['o:sian] > ['o:sjan] > ['ousjen] > [ou n] division [divisi'on] > [di'vizion] > [di'vizjen] > [di'vi n]

mesure [me'zju:r] > measure ['mezju:r] > ['me e(r)] osier ['o:zier] > ['ozjer] > ['ouzjer] > ['ou e(r)]

nature [na'tju:r] > ['na:tju:r] > ['neitju:r] > ['neit e(r)] question [kwesti'on] > ['kwestion] > ['kwestjon] > ['kwesten]

vertue [ver'tju:] > virtue ['vɜrtju:] > ['v t u:]

soldier [soldi'er] > ['so:ldier] > ['souldjer] > ['sould e(r)]

It may be easily noticed that earlier phonetic forms of some borrowed names, like for instance Asia or Russia, were closer to their original pronunciation (['a:sia] and ['rusia]), while with the development of the English language they have acquired very different forms.

The Loss of the Consonants [g] and [k] before [n] at the beginning of the Word. This phenomenon may be also regarded as simplification of the phonetic structure of the word.

E.g.; **gnarl**, **gnash** (скрежет, щёлканье (зубов)), **gnat** (комар; москит), **gnaw**, **gnome**, **gnomic**, **gnomon** (столбик-указатель солнечных часов), **gnosis**, **gnostic**, **Gnosticism**, **gnu**, **knack**, **knave**, **knead**, **knee**, **kneel**, **knell**, **knickerbockers**, **knickers**, **knife**, **knight**, **knit**, **knob**, **knock**, **knoll** (холм; бугор), **know**, **knowledge**, **knuckle**, **knurl** (выпуклость, шишка).

The geological term **gneiss** nevertheless, allows two variants of pronunciation: [nais] and [gnais].

If the combination [gn] or [kn] was preceded by a vowel the loss of [g] or [k] did not take place. Compare: **gnostic** ['nostik] vs. **agnostic** [æ'gnostik], **knowledge** ['nolid] vs. **acknowledge** [æ'knolid].

The Split of the Cluster wh [hw]. The cluster [hw] which for some reason had acquired the spelling **wh** in Middle English was also simplified. In most words it changed into [w] (e.g.: **whack** [wæk], **whale** [weil], **wham** [wæm] (удар; звук удара/взрыва 2) столкновение), **what** [wot], **wheat** [wi:t], **wheel** [wi:l], **whelp** [welp] (щенок; детеныш), **when** [wen], **while** [wail], **whim** [wim]) and in fewer words into [h] (e.g.: **who** [hu:], **whose** [hu:z], **whole** [houl], **whore** [ho:]). In occasional instances variants may be found: for example the verb **to whoop** 'to utter a loud cry of joy or excitement возглас, восклицание' may be pronounced as [hu:p] or [wu:p]. The cluster [hw] is still surviving in the dialectal speech and in American English. Thus in the 3rd edition of the *New Webster's Dictionary* the word **white** is transcribed as [hwait] and [wait] and so are all the words of this type.

The Loss of [h] in Unstressed Syllables. If the consonant [h] stood in an unstressed syllable it was dropped in some words. E.g.: **forehead** ['forid], **shepherd** ['eped].

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 2

1. Name the 16 changes in the system of vowels in the New English language.
2. What is the *Great Vowel Shift*?
3. Compare the pronunciation of the following words in Middle English and New English: **time**, **line**, **rhyme**, **sleep**, **deep**, **feet**, **clean**, **sea**, **meal**, **name**, **tame**, **case**, **boat**, **coat**, **foam**, **moon**, **soon**, **cool**, **house**, **town**, **out**.
4. How did the following [r] influence the Great Vowel Shift?
5. Compare the pronunciation of the following words in Middle English and New English: **tire**, **hire**, **fire**, **steer**, **deer**, **fear**, **bear**, **clear**, **fare**, **rare**, **there**, **here**, **boar**, **moor**, **power**, **shower**, **flower**.
6. Comment on the loss of the unstressed neutral vowel.
7. Compare the pronunciation of the following forms in Middle English and New English: **lived**, **loved**, **liked**, **likes**, **takes**, **lakes**, **stopped**, **seemed**, **seemes/seems**, **cases**.
8. Explain the pronunciation of the words **clerk**, **sergeant**, **Derby**.
9. Explain the phonetic changes in the following words: ME **sterre** > NE **star**; ME **werre** > NE **war**; ME **herte** > NE **heart**.

10. Explain the changes: ME **chapiter** > NE **chapter**; ME **phantasie** > NE **fancy**; ME **courtesie** > NE **curtsey**.
11. Explain why the letter combination **ea** is read as the short [e] in the following words: **bread, sweat, dead, death, deaf**.
12. Compare the pronunciation of the following words in Middle
13. English and New English: **back, bad, bat, cat, chap, dagger, dam, fag, fact, glad**.
14. Comment on the phonetic changes in the following words: **glass, ask, path, last, dance, fast**. What is the pronunciation of these words in American English?
15. How can be explained that in Early New English documents the pronoun **all** is often used in the form **aul**?
16. Comment on the changes in the following words: **August, cause, pause, bauble, fault, fauna**.
17. Comment on the changes in the following words: **first, hurt, word, nerve, perfect, purse, sir, service, verb, whir**.
18. Comment on the changes in the following words: **quality, quantity, wad, wallow, want,, wanton, wash, wasp, watch, water**.
19. Divide the following words into two groups -the words in which the *delabialization* of the short [u] took place and the words in which it did not: **bull, bullet, bush, but, butter, button, cup, cushion, cut, duff, dull, dumb, dust, full, fund, fuss, fuzz, push, put, thrush**.
20. Name the 15 changes in the system of consonants in the New English language.
21. Compare the pronunciation of the following words in Middle English and New English: **rough, tough, laugh, enough**.
22. Comment on the phonetic changes in the following words: **night, knight, light, might, right**.
23. Comment on the phonetic changes in the numeral **one**.
24. Explain why [w] is not pronounced in the words **answer, conquer, liquor**.
25. Name the consonants before which [I] was lost.
26. Comment on the phonetic changes in the following words: **should, would, talk, walk, calf, half, stalk, calm, palm**.
27. Divide the following words into two groups - the words in which the consonant [s] changed into [z] and the words in which it did not: **descend, desecrate, desert, deserve, design, desire, desist, desolate, resection, resemble, resent, reserve, resident, residual, resign, resist, resolute, resolve, resound**.
28. Divide the following words into two groups - the words in which **x** is pronounced as [ks] and the words in which it pronounce as [gz]. Write out the transcription of these words from the dictionary: **exacerbate, exact, exaggerate, exalt, examination, example, execrable, executive, exegesis, exemption, exert, exhale, exhaust, exile**.
29. Explain the pronunciation of the preposition **of** in New English with the voiced consonant [v].
30. Explain the pronunciation of the noun **sandwich** (with the voiced final consonant).
31. Give 10 examples of the shortening of the consonant clusters like [mb], [stl], [stm], etc.
32. Explain the following changes: ME **fader** > NE **father**; ME **moder** > NE **mother**; ME **togedere** > NE **together**.
33. Give five examples of the *amalgamation* of [j] with the preceding consonant.
34. Explain the development of the contemporary pronunciation of the word **Russia**.
35. Explain why [g] is not pronounced in the word **gnostic**, while it pronounced all right in the word **agnostic**.
36. How did the cluster [hw] (in spelling **wh**) split in New English?
37. Give examples of the words in which the consonant [h] was lost in unstressed syllables.

Chapter 3. New English Grammar

1. Changes in Morphology: Noun

The grammatical structure of the English language in the 15th and 16th centuries developed towards further simplification and uniformity.

Of the three morphological categories known in Old English actually two remained - number and case - because the category of gender had practically disappeared in Middle English.

The category of number is pertinent to all the countable nouns and exists in the form of the binary opposition of the singular and plural form. The system of declension, which was complex enough in Old English, had shrunk to two case forms in Middle English and continued to get still weaker during the

New English period. The Genitive Case has considerably narrowed its semantics, so that it is expedient (fit) to call it the *Possessive Case*. Starting with the 16th century the Possessive Case tends to be used only with the nouns denoting human beings. Thus the paradigm of the New English noun has become quite limited and may be presented as a crossing of the two categories mentioned above. Table 52

The Paradigm of the Noun in the New English Language

	<i>The Singular Number</i>	<i>The Plural Number</i>
<i>The Common Case</i>	boy	boys
<i>The Possessive Case</i>	boy's	boys'

It may be noticed that all the *marked* forms of the paradigm are *homophones*, i.e. they discriminated only in writing, not in pronunciation (unless the noun has the irregular plural form).

The productive plural form, which had gradually developed from the Old English *Nominativus Pluralis* inflection **-as**, in the 16th - 18th centuries was involving into its sphere more and more nouns which used to have a different way of forming the plural number. With the loss of the vowel it acquired three positional variants: **-s [s]** after voiceless consonants; **-s [z]** after voiced consonants and vowels; **-es [iz]** after sibilants.

Alongside with the nouns that have the productive (regular) form of the plural number, there are some nouns which have non-productive forms of the Old English and Middle English origin, e.g.: **man - men, woman - women, mouse - mice, louse - lice, goose - geese, foot - feet, tooth - teeth, cow - kine (the root declension nouns, which had i-mutation in the plural); ox - oxen (the weak declension nouns, which took the ending -an/-en in the plural), child - children (-es-stem), brother - brethren (r-stem), the two latter words had adopted the forms of the weak declension.**

Another trace of the Old English declension may be seen in the group of nouns with homonymous forms of the singular and plural number, e.g.: **sheep, deer, swine, fish (the neuter gender nouns of the a-stem declension with a long root vowel)**. This rule spread to other nouns (fruit, fish, trout - форель, salmon - лосось европейский, сёмга; cod - треска; sturgeon - лосось). Some of them denote a mass (a flock of sheep, a herd of swine, a shoal of fish), rather than a multitude of individuals.

A group of borrowed nouns, mainly belonging to terminology and bookish vocabulary, form the plural number with the help of Latin and Greek inflections, e.g.: **formula - formulæ, phenomenon - phenomena, radius - radii**, etc.

The existence of various means of the formation of the plural number caused a very interesting fact: some nouns acquired double plural forms which later developed stylistic or semantic differentiation. Thus, the noun **brother** as a word of everyday use has a regular plural form **brothers**. This noun has another, though not so frequent, plural form - **brethren**, which is used in the spiritual sense, like **brethren in faith** (compare in Russian: **братья** and **братия**).

As it was mentioned above, the New English Possessive Case has developed on the basis of the Middle English *Genitive Case*. The dominant meaning of the Possessive Case is *belonging*. Alongside with this main meaning the grammarians mention the *subjective* meaning (as in **John's work**), the *objective* meaning (as in **Cæsar's defeat**) and so on. According to B.A.Ilyish, the modern form of the singular Possessive (apostrophe + s) was first used in 1680. Originally the apostrophe (') denoted the omission of the letter **e**. As for the form of the plural Possessive (s + apostrophe), it was introduced a hundred years later - in 1780. The apostrophe in the plural is a conventional sign as it does not stand for any omitted letter /Ilyish 1972, 275/.

Though the Possessive Case is usually used with nouns denoting human beings, it may be seen in various idiomatic expressions with miscellaneous nouns, e.g.: **the ass's bridge** (a name playfully given to the fifth proposition in Book I of Euclid's *Elements of Geometry*), **a bird's eye view** (a view seen from above as by a bird flying), **a stone's throw** (as far as one could throw a stone), **for charity's sake**, etc.

2. Changes in Morphology: Personal Pronoun

In the Early New English the system of the personal pronouns was like that.

Table 53

Early New English Personal Pronouns

	<i>The Singular Number</i>		<i>The Plural Number</i>	
	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Objective</i>	<i>Nominative</i>	<i>Objective</i>

1 st Person		I	me	we	us
2 nd Person		thou	thee	ye	you
3 rd P.	Masc. Fem. Neut.	he she hit, it	him her hit, it, him	they	them, hem

The 1st person singular form **I** superseded another variant which was used in Middle English (**ich**) and since the 16th century has remained invariable. Perhaps its status was reinforced by the Authorized Bible.

E.g.: **And the Lord said unto Cain, Where is Abel thy brother? And he said, I know not: Am I my brother's keeper?** /Genesis 5, 9/

The 2nd person singular form **thou** remains in use in Early New English, e.g.: **Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image (идол), or any likeness of any thing that is in the heaven above, or that is in the earth beneath, or that is in the water under the earth** /Exodus 19, 4/.

As early as in the 16th century we can observe that **thou** is gradually superseded by **you** (addressed to one person). **You** in such cases acquired the connotation of politeness, which can be very well demonstrated in the dialogue of Richard Gloucester and Lady Anne in Shakespeare's "Richard III":

Richard Gloucester

Lady, you know no rules of charity,

Which renders good for bad, blessings for curses. Lady Anne

Villain, thou know'st no law of God nor man.

/Richard III, I, 2, 68 - 70/

Today **thou** is perceived as an archaic word which not used in everyday speech yet understood as a fact of the contemporary language. In modern literature **thou** may be used to achieve special stylistic effects. Thus in W.S. Maugham's novel "The Moon and Sixpence" the pronoun **thou** is used as a means of stylization in the native girl Ata's speech: **'Thou art my man and I am thy woman. Whither thou goest I will go too.'**

The form of the personal pronoun of the 3rd person singular neuter **hit** had been superseded by the form **it** by the end of the 16th century. Its Objective Case form remained for some time **him**, but since the 17th century **it** has been used both for the Nominative and the Objective Case.

The personal pronoun of the 2nd person plural was presented in Early New English by two opposed case forms: **ye** (Nominative) and **you** (Objective). This opposition is strictly observed in the Authorized Bible: **Be not ye therefore like unto them: for your Father knowest what things ye have need of, before ye ask him** /St. Matthew 5, 8/. **For with what judgment ye judge, ye shall be judged: and with what measure ye mete, it shall be measured to you again** /St. Matthew 7, 2/. **And because I tell you the truth, ye believe me not** /St. John 9, 45/.

While in the examples from the Holy Bible given above **ye** is regularly used in the function of the subject and **you** in the function of the object, in Shakespeare this regularity is often broken. Thus in the following example **ye** is used as an object:

Lady Anne

Didst thou not kill this king?

Richard Gloucester I grant ye. (Признаюсь, вы правы)

Lady Anne

Dost grant me, hedgehog? Then God grant me, too, Thou mayst be damned for that wicked deed.

/Richard III, I, 2, 101 - 103/

In the same scene the form **you** is used both as the subject and as an object:

Lady Anne (to gentlemen and halberdiers) What, do you tremble? Are you all afraid? Alas, I blame you not, for you are mortal, And mortal eyes cannot endure the devil.

/Richard III, I, 2, 43 - 45/

This confusion of the forms **ye** and **you** finally resulted in the situation when **you** completely replaced **ye** and became the form which is now indiscriminately used in the Nominative and the Objective Case.

The personal pronoun of the 3rd person plural in New English exists in the forms **they/them**, while in the Middle English period the Nominative form **thei** (of the Scandinavian origin) was opposed to the Objective form **hem** (of the Old English origin). The trace of the Middle English **hem** may be found in the present-day colloquial **'em**.

3. Changes in Morphology: Verb

TRANSFER OF WEAK VERBS TO STRONG AND VICE VERSA (ILYISH P. 282 – 284).

The verb **to be** in Early New English had the forms as given in Table 54.

Table 54

The Forms of the Verb *to be* in Early New English

		<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
--	--	----------------	-------------

<i>Singular</i>	<i>1st Person 2nd Person 3rd Person</i>	am art is	was wert was
<i>Plural</i>	<i>1st, 2nd, 3rd Person</i>	are	were

The forms **art** and **wert** agreed with the personal pronoun **thou**, e.g.:

Thou art beautiful, O my love, as Tirzah, comely as Jerusalem, terrible as an army with banners (Song of Solomon 6, 4).

I grant thou wert not married to my muse... (Shakespeare. Sonnet 82).

Occasionally these forms could be used even without the pronoun **thou** when the 2nd person was implied, e.g.:

After this manner therefore pray ye: Our Father, who art in heaven Hallowed be thy Name, Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done, on earth as it is in heaven. Give us this day our daily bread And forgive us our trespasses, as we forgive those who trespass against us. And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil. For thine is The kingdom, And the power, And the glory, For ever and ever. Amen¹⁰ (St. Matthew 6, 9).

Other verbs in Early New English had the inflection **-est (-st)** in the 2nd person singular and **-eth (-th)** in the 3rd person singular, e.g.:

If thou doest [ˈdu(:)ɪst] well, shalt [Sxlt] thou not be accepted? (Genesis 4, 7). **How sweet and lovely dost make the shame...** (Shakespeare. Sonnet 95).

The ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib (1) ясли, кормушка 2) хлев; стойло)

(Isaiah [aɪˈzaɪə] 1, 3)

Farewell - thou art too dear for my possessing, And like enough thou know'st thy estimate. (Shakespeare. Sonnet 8).

Suns of the world may stain when heaven's sun staineth. (Shakespeare. Sonnet 33).

It is also important to mark that in Shakespeare's times the 2nd person inflection **-est (-st)** was used with the verbs in past tense as well, e.g.:

Presume (злоупотреблять; рассчитывать) not on thy heart when mine is slain:

Thou gav'st me thine not to give back again.

(Shakespeare. Sonnet 22).

Say that thou didst forsake me for some fault, And I will comment upon that offence...

(Shakespeare. Sonnet 89).

The inflection of the 2nd person **-est(-st)** has gradually gone out of use, while **-eth(-th)** has been replaced by **-es(-s)**.

An important phenomenon in the system of the New English verb is the development of analytic forms.

At the beginning of the New English period the wide use of the auxiliary verb **to do** may be observed.

The use of **to do** was not mandatory and served mainly the purpose of rhythm. E.g.:

We must proceed as we do find the people (Shakespeare. Coriolanus, V, 6, 15).

Both in negative nor interrogative sentences to do was not necessary (unlike the present-day use). E.g.: **But goes this with thy heart?** (Shakespeare. King Lear, I, 1, 97).

What mean you, Cæsar? Think you to walk forth? (Shakespeare. Cæsar, II, 2, 8).

How like Eve's apple doth thy beauty grow

If thy sweet virtue answer not thy show.

(Shakespeare. Sonnet 93).

Only in the 18th century the regularity was established when to do became the compulsory structural element in interrogative, negative and emphatic sentences.

In the New English period further development of the perfect forms is observed. Not only finite forms of the verb, but even the participle and the infinitive acquire perfect variants. E.g.:

And, having felt the sweetness of the spoil,

With blindfold fury she begins to forage. (опустошать)

(Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis, 553 -554).

Except the Lord of hosts had left unto us a very small remnant, we should have been as Sodom, and we should have been like unto Gomorrah (Isaiah 1, 9).

¹⁰ О́тче наш, Ї́же еси́ на небесѣх! Да святѣтся имя Твое́, да при́дет Цѣ́рствие Твое́, да бу́дет во́ля Твоя́, я́ко на небесѣ́х и на землѣ́х. Хлеб наш насущный даждь нам днесь; и оста́ви нам до́лги наша, я́коже и мы оставя́ем должникóм нашим; и не введи́ нас во искуше́ние, но изба́ви нас от лука́ваго.

Alongside with the verb **to have** as the auxiliary for the perfect forms the verb **to be** was used, e.g.:

My beloved is gone down to his garden, to the beds of spices, to feed in the gardens, and to gather lilies (Song of Solomon 6, 2).

Thy silver is become dross (окалина, шлак), thy wine mixed with water (Isaiah 1, 22).

In contemporary English only the expression **to be gone** is a trace of the old perfect form with the auxiliary verb **to be**.

Some changes took place in the system of moods. The subjunctive form lost its specific inflection and thus became a *grammatical homonym* with the past tense indicative. As a result of parallel development there appeared the form of the *conditional mood*, an analytic form built with the help of the auxiliary verbs **should** and **would**. E.g.:

O that thou wert as my brother, that sucked the breasts of my mother! When I should find thee without, I would kiss thee; yea, I should not be despised.

(Song of Solomon 8, 1).

The continuous forms have been gradually developing in the New English period. S.Potter marks that “in some ways the supersession of simple by progressive forms can be regarded as the continuation of a long process. Progressive forms are not new. They were used by the nameless author of ‘Beowulf’ and by King Alfred in his translations... They were used by Shakespeare, but not frequently. Whereas, for instance, the boatswain (in *The Tempest*, I, 1, 41) asks Sebastian ‘**What do you here?**’ one would now say ‘**What are you doing here?**’ And whereas Polonius (in *Hamlet*, II, 2, 195) asks ‘**What do you read, my lord?**’ one would now say ‘**What are you reading, my lord?**’” /Potter 1969, 121/.

Nevertheless the continuous (or progressive) forms are quite common in Shakespeare’s language, e.g.: **The cause of this fair gift in me is wanting,**

And so my paten (металлический кружок, диск) back again is swerving. (Shakespeare. Sonnet 87).

By the end of the 16th century the *gerund* had distinctly separated from the *verbal noun* ending in **-ing**. One of the features of the gerund is its ability to be used with a direct object as we can see in Shakespeare’s sonnets: **... all my best is dressing old words new** (Sonnet 76); **... As high as learning my rude ignorance** (Sonnet 78).

By the 18th century a developed system of non-finite forms had established in English:

Table 55

The Non-Finite Forms of the Verb in the New English Language

<i>Infinitive</i>		
	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	to do	to be done
<i>Perfect</i>	to have done	to have been done
<i>Continuous</i>	to be doing	---
<i>Perfect Continuous</i>	to have been doing	---
<i>Gerund</i>		
	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	doing	being done
<i>Perfect</i>	having done	having been done
<i>Participle I</i>		
	<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
<i>Indefinite</i>	doing	being done
<i>Perfect</i>	having done	having been done
<i>Participle II</i>		
	done	

4. Changes in Morphology: Adjective

The New English adjective lost the inflection **-e** which made it practically an unchangeable part of speech.

The degrees of comparison remained the same: positive, comparative and superlative. Alongside with the *synthetic* forms of the comparative and superlative degree - that is with the help of the inflections **-er** and **-est** - there appeared and developed *analytical* forms, i.e. forms built with the help of auxiliary elements **more** and **most**.

In the Early New English language the synthetic and analytical forms might appear as free variants

(such forms as **more free** and **beautifullest** were quite possible in Shakespeare's time). By the 18th century there developed strict regulations for the use of these forms. The monosyllabic adjectives form their degrees of comparison *synthetically*, i.e. by means of affixation; the adjectives the stems of which have more than two syllables form their degrees *analytically*, with the help of **more** and **most**. In case the adjective stem consisted of two syllables the ending of the stem is taken into consideration: the adjectives ending in **-y**, **-er**, **-ow**, **-le** (e.g.: **witty**, **clever**, **narrow**, **able**) have synthetic forms of the degrees of comparison, others - analytical.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 3

1. What are the plural forms of the nouns **mouse**, **louse**, **goose**, **swine**, **radius**, **phenomenon**?
2. What are the two plural forms of the noun **brother**? What difference do they convey?
3. Give examples of the Possessive Case in the meaning of *belonging* and the *subjective* and *objective* meaning?
4. When did the contemporary graphic forms of the Possessive Case (apostrophe + s and s + apostrophe) come into use?
5. What is the form of the 2nd Person Singular personal pronoun in English? What is its stylistic peculiarity?
6. How could you explain that the 2nd Person Plural pronoun **you** has the same form in the Nominative and Objective cases?
7. With what personal pronoun were the forms **art** and **wert** agreed?
8. How many infinitive forms are there in New English?
9. What is the difference in the declension of nouns and personal pronouns in New English?
10. Form the degrees of comparison of the adjectives **nice**, **good**, **pretty**, **lovely**, **expensive**, **clever**, **narrow**.

Chapter 4. Enrichment of Lexicon in the New English Period

1. Development of the Original Vocabulary.

There are three ways of enriching the lexicon of the language. New words can be invented, they can be borrowed from another language, or they can be formed by those morphological processes which happen to be active within a speech community at any particular time /Potter 1969, 69/.

In the New English language, it is composition and derivation that have found further intensive development.

In his book "Changing English" S.Potter analyses such contemporary compounds as *pinpoint*, *cloverleaf*, and *roadhouse*. The verb *to pinpoint* means 'to locate precisely'. One can pinpoint a target for bombing, a problem for solving, an error for eliminating and what not. A *cloverleaf* for a driver is a well-defined road pattern in which there no right-hand turns (remember the left-hand traffic in Great Britain). A *roadhouse* is not any wayside dwelling, but an inn, dance hall, tavern or night club located on a main road in a country district /Potter 1969, 70/.

New words which have been produced by means of affixation are quite numerous.

For example, the prefix *inter-* which entered the English language in a number of Latin words, like *interconfessional*, *intercontinental*, *interdenominational*, etc., gained 'independence' and is today easily combined with other stems forming hybrid word like *intercounty*, *interstate*, *interfamily*, *intergroup*, *interfaith* and others.

An active English prefix today is *mini-*. Historically it appeared as an abbreviation of the Italian word *miniature* /Potter 1969, 71/. It is found in the words *mini-bus*, *mini-cab*, *mini-car*, *mini-cam*, *mini-budget* and, of course, *mini-skirt*. The popularity of the latter word brought to life other derivatives which were constructed in the same way: *maxi-skirts* and *midi-skirts*.

A very active means of enrichment of the New English vocabulary is abbreviation. According to S.Potter, there are two kind of abbreviations: *alphabetisms* and *acronyms*. If an initial-letter series, like CBW (chemical and biological warfare) and FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation), is unpronounceable, we call it an *alphabetism*. If, like ANZAC (the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) and NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), the series is pronounceable, we call it an *acronym* /Potter 1969, 79/. Abbreviations in writing and other forms of recorded speech are as old as language itself. They have always proved useful as time and space savers. To communicate efficiently, to make the other person understand perfectly, you need not 'tell all'. Abbreviations began with Sumerian, the first recorded language on earth. The Romans wrote AUC for *Anno urbis conditae*, counting time from the foundation of their city in the year 753 before the birth of Christ. They wrote SPQR for *Senatus populusque Romanus* 'Roman senate and people', therein expressing their democratic conception of the State. At the end of a friendly letter they put SVBEEV *Si vales, bene est, ego valeo* which might be loosely paraphrased 'I'm quite well, and I do so hope that you are too'. The use of abbreviations seems to be common nowadays in different languages to briefly denote various institutions. Thus UCA in the United States is used for the University of Central Arkansas, like МПГУ in Russia is used for Московский педагогический государственный университет.

In the table below you will find some frequently used abbreviations of the English language.

Table # 56

Frequent Abbreviations of the English Language

<i>Abbreviation</i>	<i>Meaning of Abbreviation</i>
AAAL	American Academy of Arts and Letters
AASW	American Association of Scientific Workers
AGS	American Geographical Society
AML	Air mail letter
ARC	American Red Cross
ASA	American Standard Association
AUBC	Association of Universities of the British Commonwealth
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
B.L.A.	Bilateral agreement
B.M.T.	British Mean Time
BSA	Boy Scouts of America
C.B.D.	Cash before delivery
C.H.E.L.	Cambridge History of English Literature
COD	Cash on delivery
CT	Correct time
D.C.	District of Columbia
D.M.	Doctor of Medicine
ECG	Electrocardiogram
EMF	European Monetary Fund
F.A.S.	Federation of American Scientists
FRG	Federal Republic of Germany
GFTU	General Federation of Trade Unions
GMT	Greenwich mean time
HMS	Her Majesty's Ship
IAC	International Air Convention
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICJ	International Court of Justice
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOJ	International Organization of Journalists
ITO	International Trade Organization
L.A.U.K.	Library Association of the United Kingdom
L.C.	Library of Congress
LSA	Linguistic Society of America
MC	Member of Congress
MP	Member of Parliament
m.p.h.	Miles per hour
n.d.	No date
N.R.C.	National Research Council
OED	Oxford English Dictionary
O.U.	Oxford University
P.G.	Postgraduate
P.M.	Prime Minister
PS	Post scriptum

An interesting way of forming new word in English is *back-formation*, or *negative derivation*. Thus the noun *editor* was borrowed from French in the 17th century. But only in the 18th century the verb *to edit* was produced by means of back-formation. Many people speaking English may be unaware of the fact that the noun *greed* was produced from the adjective *greedy*, and the adjective *difficult* from the noun *difficulty*. In the following table you will find some verbs which were produced by back-formation from other parts of speech.

Table # 57

Back-Formation

<i>Verb</i>	<i>Backformed from</i>	<i>First know Instance</i>
to hawk	hawker	1542
to partake	part taker	1561
to grovel	grovelling	1593
to locate	location	1652
to donate	donation	1795
to reminisce	reminiscence	1829
to housekeep	housekeeper	1842
to orate	oration	1858
to diagnose	diagnosis	1861
to burgle	burglar	1870
to liaise	liaison	1915
to sculpt	sculptor	1934
to bulldoze	bulldozer	1941
to televise	television	1950
to escalate	escalation	1955

2. Borrowings from French

The French language has remained an important source for the enrichment of the vocabulary of the New English period. In the 15th century such words were borrowed from French as *adverb*, *aid*, *axiom*, *blond*, *bracelet*, *brave*, *category*, *chronic*, *coronet*, *crew*, etc.

The grammatical term *adverb* from French *adverbe* (or *averbe*) ascends to Latin *adverbum* which in its turn is a rendering of Greek *epirhema* (where *epi-* denotes 'addition' and *-rhema* 'word').

The word *bracelet* and *coronet* were used in French as diminutive form *bracel* 'ornamental ring for arm' and *corone* 'crown'. The suffix *-et* grew so active in English later that in the 16th century there appeared such diminutive forms as *hillet* 'small hill' and *smilet* 'little smile'. The word *coronet* is used in Shakespeare's "King Lear" (see *Texts to Read*).

Among the French borrowings of the 16th century we see such words as *absurd*, *ananas*, *apology*, *apron*, *arsenal*, *artist*, *atom*, *calibre*, *camp*, *cash*, etc.

It is interesting that in French the word *ananas* was borrowed from the Guarani language. In English the word did not survive and was replaced by *pine-apple*.

The word *apron* appeared as a result of misdivision of noun *napron* (from French *naperon*) and the indefinite article: *a napron* > *an apron*.

Words that were borrowed from French were not necessarily original French words: very often they might be loan-words in French itself. Such, for instance, was *atom* that originally was a Greek word. Its way to English was rather long: Greek *atomos* > Latin *atomus* > French *atome* > English *atom*.

The 17th century was characterized by further considerable growth of the English vocabulary due to borrowing of words from various languages, French among them (Ilyish 1973, 250/). These were: *acid*, *adapt*, *archives*, *attitude*, *ballet*, *belle*, *belles-lettre*, *bouquet*, *brigade*, *brilliant*, *buffet*, *cadet*, *caprice*, *chateau*, *intrigue*, *trait*, *trousseau*, etc.

While the French borrowings of the 15th - 16th centuries were fully assimilated, i.e. acquired all the phonetic features of the English language, the 17th century loan-words often keep the peculiarities of French pronunciation; thus in words *ballet*, *bouquet*, *buffet*, *trait* the final **t** is not pronounced; in the words *bouquet*, *brigade*, *buffet*, *cadet*, *caprice*, *intrigue* the stress remains on the last syllable; the letter combination **eau** is read as [ou].

In the 18th century such words were borrowed from French as *arcade*, *bateau*, *beau*, *boudoir*, *colibri*, *colonnade*, *connoisseur*, *debouch*.

The 19th century enriched the English vocabulary with *acrobat, aeroplane, altruism, ambulance, aviation, baccara, baroque, blouse, cinematograph* and other words.

French borrowings were so numerous that in some cases there appeared homonyms. Thus the word *auto* which came from French in the 18th century was short for *auto-da-fe* (originally Portuguese), while the word *auto* borrowed in the 19th century was short for *automobile*.

In the 20th century such words came from the French language as *chauffeur, gaga, detente*.

3. Borrowings from Latin

Latin, though a “dead” language, also remained an important source for the enrichment of the New English lexicon.

In the 15th century such words as *accidence, athlete* and *concave* were borrowed from Latin.

The noun *accidence* ‘part of grammar dealing with inflections (morphology)’ comes from Latin *accidentia*, which is the translation of the Greek *parepomeia* ‘accompanying things’.

A single use of the word *athlete* was registered in the 15th century; it was only in the 18th century that the word began to be used frequently. This word also takes root in Greek: English *athlete* < Latin *athleta* < Greek *athletes*.

The adjective *concave* ‘hollow’ was formed from Latin *concauus*. This word and the adjective *convex* which appeared in English later formed a pair of antonyms.

In the 16th century such words came from the Latin language as *abdicate, abbreviate, aggravate, alleviate, adult, Anno Domini, circus, configuration, contrast* and others.

The verbs ending in **-ate** were derived from the Latin form of the past participle of the verbs of the 1st conjugation: *abdicare, abbreviare, aggravare, etc.*

While many Latin words underwent assimilation, i.e. acquired the form characteristic for English words, the expression *Anno Domini* ‘in the year of the Lord’ keeps its original form, though in writing is used as an abbreviation (*AD*).

The word *configuration* (of Latin *configuratio*) in the 16th century was used as an astronomic term denoting relative position of planets and only in the 17th century acquired the meaning ‘conformation, outline’.

In the 17th century *accident, adequate, adjutant, affusion, agenda, agriculture, album, anecdote, antenna, appreciate, arena, arrogant, evident, incident* came into English.

The adjectives ending in **-ant/-ent**, like *arrogant, evident*, and also nouns having these endings, like *accident, adjutant, incident*, were derived from the Latin present participle of the verbs of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th conjugation.

The word *agriculture* ‘cultivation of the soil’ comes from Latin *agricultura* ‘tillage of the land’.

The word *album* ‘blank book for the insertion of collected items’ comes from Latin *album* ‘white tablet on which records or notices were inscribed, register, list’.

In the 18th century such words as *alibi* and *congress* were borrowed from Latin.

Alibi ‘plea of having been elsewhere’ appeared as a legal term from Latin *alibi* (*alius* ‘other’ + *ibi* ‘there’).

Congress (from Latin *congressus* < *congrēdi* ‘go together, meet’) was used to name the legislative body of the United States.

The Latin borrowings of the 19th century were restricted by scientific, often biological or medical, terms, e.g.: *agamous* ‘non-sexual’, *amoeba* ‘microscopic animalcule of the class Protozoa’, *aphasia* ‘loss of speech’, *bacillus* ‘rod-shaped vegetable organism’, etc.

An example of a word based on Latin which was introduced in the 20th century is the word *insulin* (from Latin *insula* ‘island’) which denotes a medicine for diabetes extracted from the islands of Langerhans in the pancreas of animals. The word came into use in 1921.

An interesting phenomenon of the New English lexicon is the appearance of the *Latin-French etymological doublets*. B.A.Ilyish describes this phenomenon like this: “ When a word was borrowed from Latin, it would occasionally happen that the same word had been earlier, in the 13th or 14th century, borrowed from French, often with a different meaning. In such cases pairs of doublets would appear in English /Ilyish 1973, 247/. Examples of Latin-French doublets are given in Table #

Table # 58

French-Latin Etymological Doublets

<i>Latin Words</i>	<i>Old French Words</i>	<i>English French from Old</i>	<i>English from Latin</i>
factum	fait	feat	fact
fragilum	fraile	frail	fragile
securum	seure	sure	secure
traditio	traison	treason	tradition

pauperus	povre	poor	pauper
defectum	defait	defeat	defect
maior	maire	mayor	major
radius	rai	ray	radius
abbreviare	abreger	abridge	abbreviate
redemptio	ranson	ransom	redemption
absolvere	assoldre	assoil	absolve
aggravare	aggrever	aggrive	aggravate
allocare	allouer	allow	allocate
appretiare	apreiser	appraise	appreciate
balsamum	basme	balm	balsam
castigare	chastier	chasten	castigate
collocare	coucher	couch	collocate

4. Borrowings from Greek

A great number of Greek words came into the English language not directly but through Latin, French and occasionally other languages. Nevertheless some words may be regarded as immediate Greek borrowings.

In the end of the 15th century there appeared in English such words of Greek origin as *enema*, *eunuch*, *hermaphrodite*, *paradigm*, etc.

Enema 'injection' was taken from Greek *enema* < *eniemai* (from *en-* 'in' + *hienai* 'send').

Eunuch 'castrated male person' originates from the Greek noun *eunoukhos* (from *eune* 'bed' + *ekhein* 'keep'; thus etymologically the meaning of the word was 'bedchamber guard').

Hermaphrodite 'human being or animal combining characteristics of both sexes' comes from the Greek name *Hermaphroditos*; that was the name of the mythical son of *Hermes* and *Aphrodite*, who grew together with the nymph *Salmacis* while bathing in her fountain and so combined male and female characters.

Paradigm is known as a linguistic term denoting a set of morphological (or other) forms. It comes from the Greek noun *paradeigma* 'example' (from *para-* 'by the side of' + *deiknunai* 'show').

The Greek borrowings of the 16th century were numerous. Among them we might mention such words as *abracadabra*, *aorist*, *ephemeral*, *epic*, *epicedium*, *epigram*, *epithet*, *exarch*, *exotic*, *geography* and others.

Abracadabra is a peculiar word which seems to be international nowadays. It is a cabalistic word supposed, when written in the form of triangle and worn, to cure argues, etc. In everyday use it means just 'rubbish'.

Aorist 'tense denoting past time', *epic* 'continuous poetic narrative of heroes', *epicedium* 'funeral ode', *epigram* 'short pithy poem', *epithet* 'adjective, attributive word' are terms from field language and literature.

The adjective *ephemeral* 'existing only for a day or very short time' (from the Greek word *ephemeros* < *epi* + *hemera* 'day') was originally said of a fever but later its meaning was grew broader.

Exarch is a historic term denoting governor of a province under the Byzantine emperors and, later, metropolitan in the Eastern Church. It comes from *exarkhos* 'leader, chief'.

In the 17th century such word were borrowed from the Greek language as *autonomy*, *cyclopædia*, *eparch*, *epiphany*, *episode*, *hypnotic*, *litotes*, *oxymoron*, etc.

Autonomy 'right of self-government' was formed from the Greek word *autonomia* (from *autos* 'self' + *nomos* 'law'). It is noticeable that the corresponding adjective *autonomous* came into use only in the 19th century.

Cyclopædia (clipped form of *encyclopædia*) originally meant 'circle of learning'.

Eparch (from *eparkhos*) originally denoted governor of the province but late was reestablished as an ecclesiastic term (metropolitan). Another ecclesiastic word was *epiphany* 'manifestation of a supernatural being' (from *epiphania* < *epiphainein* 'manifest').

In the 18th century the English language was enriched by such Greek words as *eczema* and *graphite*.

Further penetration of the Greek element into English in the 19th century was specific. Greek roots were used to build up new terms and to express new notions. Among the Greek borrowings of the 19th century we can see the following words: *accordion* 'musical instrument having bellows', *baritone* 'voice between tenor and bass', *ecology* 'branch of biology dealing with environment', *epistemology* 'theory of the method of knowledge', *ethnic* 'pertaining to race, ethnological', *eugenics* 'science of fine offspring production', *hedonism* 'doctrine that pleasure is chief good', *macron* 'mark of length placed over a vowel', *marathon* 'a race of abnormal length (with reference to *Phidippedes*, who ran 150 miles to secure Spartan aid for the Athenians in the battle of *Marathon* in 490 BC)'. Even the word *helicopter* (from Greek *helixikos* 'screw' + *pteron* 'wing') appeared as early as in the 19th century.

In the 20th century a number of scientific terms based on the Greek element was introduced into English; they mainly belong to the so called international words, e.g.: *allergy, ionosphere, isotope, pediatrician*, etc.

5. Borrowings from Italian

B.A. Ilyish in his "History of the English Language" emphasizes that word of Italian origin in English mainly belong to the sphere of arts (*finale, fresco, violin, cornice, umbrella, balcony, grotto*) /Ilyish 1973, 246/, though occasionally we words from other fields were borrowed from Italian.

Thus in the end of the 15th century the noun *cauliflower* 'variety of cabbage, the inflorescence of which forms a white head' came into use in English. This word is a remake of the Italian *cavolfiore* (of the same meaning).

In the 16th century Italian enriched the English language with the words *bankrupt, carnival* and *zebra*.

The word *bankrupt* originates from the Italian expression *banca rotta* 'bench or table broken', which was a symbol of a money-changer's insolvency. Later this form in English was influenced by the French *banqueroute*, and further by the Latin *ruptus* 'broken'. The derivative *bankruptcy* appeared in English about 1700.

The word *carnival* originally denoted the festivities in Catholic countries just before Lent (Mardi Gras) and mid-Lent (mi-Careme); now it denotes any public festivity, usually with processions, dancing and sideshows. It originates from the Italian *carnevale* or *carnovale*.

Zebra 'South African equine quadruped', borrowed from Italian (or perhaps Portuguese), originally comes from the Congolese language. In the 20th century the word *zebra* acquired a very specific meaning in the expression *zebra crossing*: a broad band of alternative black and white stripes painted across the road, indicating that pedestrians have absolute priority over drivers.

Among the borrowings of the 17th century such words should be mentioned as *balcony, broccoli, contadino, gambado, gazette, gusto, penseroso*.

Broccoli 'kind of cauliflower' in Italian is the plural form of *broccolo* 'cabbage head', which, in its turn, is a diminutive form of *brocco* 'shoot'.

Contadino 'Italian peasant' is a kind of exotic word in English. It originates from the Italian noun *contado* 'county'.

In the 18th century the Italian language enriched English with such words as *ballerina* 'female ballet dancer', *cicerone* 'guide explaining antiquities', *condottiere* 'leader of mercenaries', *influenza* 'infectious febrile disorder', *libretto* 'words of an opera', *zecchin* 'gold coin' and others.

In the 19th century English borrowed Italian words *legato* 'smooth and connected (musical term)' and *confetti* 'small sweets used as missiles at a carnival, or small disks of paper used so at weddings'.

6. Borrowings from Spanish

In the 16th century such words were borrowed from the Spanish language as *bastinado, batata, potato, breeze, cacique, escalade, hammock, hurricane, iguana, Negro, renegade*, etc.

Bastinado denoted a kind of corporal punishment, beating with a stick (especially on the soles of the feet). It comes from the Spanish word *bastonada* derived from *baston* 'stick'.

Potato and *batata* are twin words of the same origin, the former denoting a plant widely cultivated for food, the latter the so called Spanish sweet potato. Originally the Spanish word *patata* (or *batata*) was used only in the second meaning. The transference of sense took place due to the likeness of the two plants.

The word *breeze* (from Spanish *briza, brisa*) originally denoted north or north-west wind. Now the meaning of this word is 'light wind'. It is noticeable that in modern English the noun *breeze* of Spanish origin has two homonyms (thought not so frequent in use): *breeze* 'gad-fly' (of Old English origin) and *breeze* 'small cinders' (of French origin).

The noun *cacique* 'chief in West Indies' comes from the Spanish *cacique* or *cazique* (of Carib origin).

Other words of Carib origin which came into English through Spanish are *hammock* 'hanging bed suspended by cords', *hurricane* 'violent wind-storm of the West Indies', and *iguana* 'large arboreal lizard'.

The word *Negro* 'black man, blackamoor' comes from Spanish *negro* 'black'. It was used to denote black Americans but now has gone out of use as "politically incorrect".

Renegade (from Spanish *renegado*) in the 16th century had the meaning 'apostate' (in the religious sense; since the 17th century it denotes any deserter of a cause, etc).

Among the Spanish borrowings of the 17th century such words may be mentioned as *cargo* 'ship-load', *chicha* 'fermented liquor of South America' (American Spanish), *gallinazo* 'American vulture', *malaga* 'white wine exported from Malaga, a seaport in the South of Spain'.

In the 18th century the word *cocoa* came into English which denoted seed of a tropical American tree, powder produced by grinding the seed, and beverage made from this. The form *cocoa* replaced an older form *cacao* which had existed in English since the 16th century.

In the 19th century Spanish enriched the English language with *bronco* 'half-tamed horse' (used in California and New Mexico), *caballero* 'Spanish gentleman', *guano* 'natural manure found on islands about Peru', *guerilla*, usually used in the word-combination *guerilla war* which denotes irregular war waged by small bodies acting independently.

An important borrowing of the 20th century is *cafeteria* 'restaurant in which customers fetch what they want from the counters'.

7. Borrowings from Arab

Arab borrowings in English are not sufficiently enough described in literature on the history of the English language. Nevertheless it is difficult to imagine today's lexicon of English without words that have come from Arab.

Arab borrowings seem to have appeared in English not before the 16th century. Among the earliest words of Arab origin in English the following may be mentioned: *cadi* (or *kazi*), *Caffre* (or *Caffer*), *cafila*, *kabaya*, *kantar*, *kaimakam*, *kali*, etc. All these words appear as exotic, marked by certain oriental flavour, denoting various realia of the East.

The word *cadi* (pronounced as ['keidi] or ['ka:di]) denotes a judge in Oriental countries. Later, in the 17th century the word appears in the forms *casi* and *kazi*.

Caffre (*Caffer*) denotes a member of a South African race of the Bantu family. It originates from the Arab *kafir* 'infidel'. In the 19th century the forms *Caffre* and *Caffer* were replaced by *Kaffir* (*Kafir*).

The word *cafila* 'caravan' comes from the Arab *qafilah* 'company journeying together'.

Kabaya 'light loose tunic' originates from the Arab *qabaya*.

The noun *kantar* denotes measure of weight equal to 100 pounds. It comes from the Arab *qintar* of the same meaning.

The word *kaimakan* 'deputy of the Grand Vizier' comes from the Arab *qa'im maqan* 'one standing in the place of another'.

Kali (also *alkali*) 'prickly saltwort' comes from the Arab *al-qaliy* 'calcined ashes of Salsola and Salicornia'.

In the 17th century the following Arab borrowings were added: *cabob*, *abuna*, *hadji*, *jinn*, *khilat*, *harem*, *Moslem*, *khamsin*, etc.

Cabob 'Oriental meat-dish' comes from the Arab *kabab*.

Abuna 'patriarch of the Abyssinian church' comes from the Arab *abuna* 'our father'.

Hadji 'pilgrim to the tomb of Mohammed' comes from the Arab *hadji* 'pilgrim'. It is added to the name of the person who has undertaken this pilgrimage (cf.: *Hadji-Mourat*).

The word *jinn* in Mohammedan demonology denotes one of an order of spirits. It comes from the Arab *jinn* (the plural form of *jinni*). In the 19th century the form *jinnie* came into use.

Khilat 'dress of honour presented by a king' comes from the Arab *khil'at* 'reward'.

Harem 'women's part of a Mohammedan dwelling-house, or its occupants' originates from the Arab *haram* 'that which is prohibited'.

Moslem (also *Muslim*) 'Mohammedan' comes from the Arab *muslim*.

Khamsin 'hot wind in Egypt lasting about 50 days' comes from the Arab *khamsin* (or *khamsun*) 'fifty'. In the 18th century English acquired such Arab words as *koran* and *khalifa*.

Koran 'sacred book of Islam' comes from the Arab *quran* 'recitation'.

Khalifa (also *caliph*, *calif*, *khalif*) 'Mahommedan chief ruler' comes from the Arab *khalifa*. The word is believed to have penetrated into Europe as a result of the Crusades.

The Arab borrowings of the 19th century are as follows: *aba* (or *abba*), *Islam*, *kanoon*, *Mecca*, *Kaffir*, *kavass*, *kef*, *keffiyeh*, *kourbash*, *Kabyle*, etc.

Aba (or *abba*; also *abaya*) denotes Arabian sleeveless outer garment.

Islam 'Mohammedanism' originates from the Arab *islam* (from *aslama* 'he resigned himself').

Kanoon 'species of dulcimer, harp' comes from the Arab *qanun*.

Mecca is the name of Mohammed's birth-place, which is a place of Muslim pilgrimage (from Arab *Makka*). Nowadays this word is broadly used in figurative meaning (e.g.: *tourists' Mecca* about any place often visited by tourists).

Kavass 'armed police officer' originates from Arab *qawwas* 'bow-maker'.

Kef (also *keif*, *kief*) 'drowsiness, dreamy intoxication, enjoyment of idleness' comes from Arab *kaif*, *kef* 'well-being, enjoyment' (compared in Russian: *кайф*, *кейф*, *кейфовать*).

Keffiyeh 'kerchief' comes from the Arab word *kaffiyah*, *kuffiyeh* (of the same meaning).

Kourbash (or *courbash*) 'whip of hide' originates from Arab *qurbash* 'whip'. *Kabyle* 'Berber of Algeria or Tunis' comes from Arab *qaba'il* 'tribe'.

8. Borrowings from German

Among the borrowings from German of the late 15th century *boor* and *prate* may be mentioned.

The word *boor* 'husbandman' comes from the Low German noun *bur* 'peasant' (compare *Bauer* in modern German).

The verb *to prate* 'talk idly or aimlessly' originates from Low German *praten* (of the same meaning).

In the 16th century the following words were borrowed from German: *ballast*, *kaiser*, *clown*, *Pole*, *prattle*, *slag*, *tram*.

Ballast 'material placed in a ship's hold to give stability' comes from Low German. Today it is an international word used both as a term and metaphorically (compare *балласт* in Russian).

Kaiser 'emperor' originates from the German word *Kaiser*, which is an adoption of Latin *Cæsar* through Greek *kaisar*. The alliterative formula *king and (or) kaiser* was common in the 16th -17th centuries.

Clown 'rustic, ill-bred man; fool or buffoon, especially on the stage' comes from the Low German word *kloun* 'clumsy fellow'. The figure of a clown is quite common in Shakespeare's plays.

Pole (from the German word *Pole*) in the 16th century was the name of the country - Poland. In the 17th century its meaning changed: it denoted a native of this country. The adjective *Polish* appeared in the 18th century.

The verb *to prattle* 'talk childishly or artlessly' comes from the Middle Low German *pratelen*, which was a derivative of the earlier *praten* (see above). The noun *prattle* has the meaning 'childish chatter, small talk'.

Slag 'refuse matter from smelting' comes from the Middle Low German word *slagge* (compare with *шлак* in Russian).

Tram 'shaft of a barrow or cart' (in coal-mining) comes from the Middle Low German word *trame* 'balk, beam, rung of a ladder'.

In the 18th century such German borrowings as *pietism* and *proviand* were added to the English lexicon.

Pietism (movement for the revival of devotion to religious duties in the Lutheran communion) originates from the German *pietismus*, which in its turn is of Latin origin.

Proviand 'provision, commissariat' (from German *Proviand*) was introduced by soldiers who served in the Thirty Years War in 1618 -1648.

The borrowings of the 18th century are *waltz*, *pitchblende*, *post*.

Waltz 'dance performed to music in triple time' originates from German *walzer*.

Pitchblende 'native oxide of uranium' come from German *pechblende*.

Post, another very special word, denotes a pile of hand-made paper fresh from the mould. It comes from the German word *posten* 'parcel, batch, lot'.

Among the borrowings of the 19th century there such words as *ablaut*, *umlaut*, *kindergarten*, *plankton*, *polka*, *poltergeist*.

Ablaut 'vowel-gradation' and *umlaut* 'change in the sound of a vowel due to partial assimilation to an adjacent sound' are philological terms which were introduced in German by Jacob Grimm and later borrowed in English.

Kindergarten originally denoted the school for the instruction of young children according to Froebel's method. It originates from the German words *kind* 'child' + *garten* 'garden'.

Plankton 'floating or drifting organic life', now an international word, comes from the German *plankton* which takes roots in Greek.

Polka 'lively dance of Bohemian origin' which came to English from German ascends to the Czech *pulka* 'half-step'.

Poltergeist 'noisy mischievous ghost' originates from the German words *poltern* 'make a noise, create a disturbance' + *geist* 'ghost'.

The situation with the German borrowings of the 20th century is well described by S.Potter: "Since 1945 German loan-words have been few. Of all the Nazi terms that were current before that year - *Luftwaffe*, *Reichwehr*, *Schulzstaffel*, *Sturmabteilung*, and countless others, *Lebensraum* 'space for living', *Blitz* and *Blitzkrieg* are among the few to survive" /Potter 1969, 66 -67/.

9. Borrowings from Russian

Contacts between England and Russia began in the 16th century and probably at that time first words from Russian were borrowed in the English language. Anyway, in the 16th century such words appeared in English as *Cossack* (from **казак**), *czar* (from **царь**), *telega* (from **телега**), *kvass* (from **квас**), *shuba* (from **шуба**).

In the 17th century to the list of Russian borrowings *steppe* (from **степь**) was added.

The Russian borrowings of the 18th century are as follows: *astrakhan* 'skin of young lambs from Astrakhan in Russia, with wool like fur', *balalaika* 'triangular guitar-like musical instrument, popular in Slav countries', *knout* (from **кнут**), *mammoth* 'large extinct elephant' (from **мамонт**), *beluga* 1. 'great sturgeon', 2. 'white whale' (from **белуга**), *ukase* (from **указ**).

In the 19th century the following Russian words entered the English language: *samovar*, *zemstvo*, *borzoi*, *nihilism*.

As for the latter word - *nihilism*, it is very special: though based on the Latin word *nihil* 'nothing', it was invented in Russian literature to denote to denote extreme revolutionary principle involving destruction of existing institutions (**НИГИЛИЗМ**).

Among the borrowings of the 20th century such may be mentioned as *cadet*, *Bolshevik*, *Cheka*, *Soviet*, *kolkhoz*, *perestroika*, *sputnik*.

Cadet (**кадет**) was a political term of the beginning of the century, an abbreviation made up of the initial letters of **конституционные демократы**. It is remarkable that this loan-word appeared as a homonym to the word *cadet* of French origin (see above).

Bolshevik is a typical ‘Sovietism’, that is a word which was borrowed from Russian after 1917. In “The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English” *Bolshevik* is interpreted as “advocate of proletarian dictatorship in Russia by soviets” /Fowler, Fowler 1964, 132/.

Cheka (from the Russian abbreviation **ЧК**, of **Чрезвычайная комиссия**) is another Sovietism, which is now rather a historic notion.

Soviet (from **совет**) has entered practically all the languages due to the fact that it was a part of the official name of the state - the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (**Союз Советских Социалистических**

Республик).

Kolkhoz (from **колхоз** < **коллективное хозяйство**) denoting a collective farm in the U.S.S.R. was borrowed in the thirties.

Perestroika is one of the borrowings from Russian which appeared in 1985 and is usually associated with the name of M. Gorbachev.

Sputnik is a word which is known in many languages. Here is how S.Potter comments on it: “It is an old Russian word meaning ‘travelling companion’ from *s-* ‘with’, *put* ‘way’, and *-nik*, an agent suffix. This agent suffix *-nik* also lives in Yiddish, as in *kibbutznik*, a member of a *kibbutz* ‘gathering, community dwelling’. In the early sixties this suffix gave rise to *beatnik*, a member of the *beat* or *beaten* generation (also addicted to *beat* or rhythmic music). Then in America it produced *peacenik* and *straightnik* and many other playful formations in *-nik* - perhaps only a passing fashion /Potter 1969, 63/.

In addition to what has already been discussed it is possible to add *tundra* (**тундра**), *verst* (**верста**), *droshky* (**дрожки**), *tarantass* (**тарантас**), *troika* (**тройка**), *borscht* (**борщ**), *vodka* (**водка**), *duma* (**дума**), *Kremlin* (**Кремль**).

10. Borrowings from Dutch

Among the Dutch borrowings of the end of the 15th century it is possible to mention such words as *bung*, *burgher*, *cope*, *cramp*.

Bung (from Middle Dutch *bohge*) denotes a stopper, especially a large cork stopping hole in cast.

Burgher (from Dutch *burger*) denotes a freeman of a burgh or borough; in South Africa the word *burgher* later acquired a special meaning: ‘citizen of European descent, wherever resident.

Cope (from Middle Dutch *kopen*) means ‘to exchange, to barter, to buy’, the latter meaning now obsolete.

Cramp (from Middle Dutch *krampe*) denotes a metal bar with bent ends.

In the 16th century there appeared in English such borrowings from Dutch as *bandoleer*, *galleon*, *linden*, *bully*, *bumboat*, *bumpkin*, *cashier*, *cracknel*.

Bandoleer (from Dutch *bandelier*) denotes a broad belt worn over one shoulder and across the breast.

Galleon (from Middle Dutch *galjoen*) ‘large ship’ is an example of sea terms by which Dutch enriched European languages.

Linden (from Dutch *lindeboom* or *lindenboom*) denotes a lime-tree. It is a common Germanic word (compare German *Lindenbaum*).

The word *bully* (from Middle Dutch *boele*) meant ‘sweetheart’. In the 18th century it acquired the meaning ‘hired ruffian’.

Bumboat (from Dutch *bomschuit*) denoted a scavenger’s boat, later any boat for the carriage of small merchandise.

Bumpkin (from Dutch *bommekijn* ‘little barrel’) had the meaning ‘country lout’. The transformation of meaning is metaphoric.

Cashier ‘one who pays out and receives money is also of Dutch origin, though *cash* comes from French *casse*.

The word *cracknel* or *crackling* (from Middle Dutch *krakelinc* < *kraken* ‘crack’) denoted light crisp biscuit.

In the 17th century the English language borrowed from Dutch the following: *brandy* ‘strong spirit distilled from wine’, *easel* ‘wooden frame to support picture’, *gas* ‘any æriform or completely elastic fluid’, *manikin* ‘little man, dwarf; artist’s lay figure’, *Bruin* (personifying name for a bear), *commodore* ‘naval officer above captain’.

Among the Dutch borrowing of the 18th century *coehorn* and *crawl* may be mentioned.

Coehorn or *cohorn* denotes a small mortar invented by a Dutch engineer, *Baron van Menno Coehorn*.

Crawl (from Dutch *kraal*) denotes pen or reservoir for fish.

In the 19th century Dutch enriched the English with the words *boss*, *cockatiel*, *cockatoo*, *coper*.

Boss ‘master, employer’ (mainly used in American English but understood all over the world) originates from the Dutch word *baas*.

Cockatiel ‘crested grass parrakeet of South Australia’ comes from the Dutch word *kaketielje*.

Cockatoo ‘large bird of the parrot kind’ originates from the Dutch *kakatoe*. The first element of the word was evidently influenced by the word *cock* (compare *Kakadu* in German).

11. Borrowings from Turkish

A number of borrowed words from Turkish entered the English lexicon in the 16th century, among them *janissary*, *kehaya*, *giaour*.

Janissary or *janizary* denotes one of the body of Turkish infantry forming the Sultan's guard (abolished in 1826), Turkish soldier. Used figuratively, it denotes a personal instrument of tyranny. The word originates from Turkish *yeni* 'new' + *tsheri* 'soldiery'.

Kehaya or *cahaya* denotes a Turkish viceroy or any other top person close to the monarch. The word comes from Turkish *kihaya*, but is of Persian origin, composed of the stems *kat* 'house' + *khuda* 'master'.

Giaour is a Turkish contemptuous name for the "infidel", especially Christians. Originally the Turkish word comes from Persian *gaur* with the same meaning. Compare **гяур** in Russian).

Comparatively numerous were the borrowings of the 17th century, such as: *effendi*, *jackal*, *pasha*, *serai*, *khanjar*, *kiosk*, *minaret*, *mullah*, *odalisque*.

Effendi is a title of respect applied to the Turkish government officials and members of the learned professions. It comes from Turkish *efendi* 'lord' (which may have been a corruption of the Greek word *authentēs*).

Jackal denotes an animal of dog kind, of size of a fox, formerly supposed to hunt the lion's prey for him. Metaphorically the word is used to denote a person who does preparatory drudgery, etc. The word originates from Turkish *chakal*.

Pasha or *pacha* (now historic) denotes a Turkish officer of high rank, e.g. military commander, governor of province, etc. There were *pashas of one tail, of two, three tails*, i.e. of the first, second, third grade (from the number of horse-tails displayed as the symbol of war). It comes from Turkish *pasha*.

Serai denotes a Turkish palace and comes from the Turkish and Persian word *serai* 'lodging, residence, palace'. A relative word which came into the English language through Italian is *seraglio* 'part of a Mohammedan dwelling-house assigned to women' (compare **сераль** in Russian).

Khanjar or *handjar* denotes an Eastern dagger. The former is closer to the Turkish original form *khanjar*; in the latter one can easily see the influence of the English element *hand*.

Kiosk, which may have come into English through French, originally denoted an open pavilion or summer-house; later it acquired a new meaning - 'light structure for sale of newspapers, etc.' It originates from Turkish *kiushk* 'pavilion'.

Minaret 'tall slender tower of a mosque' may have come into the English language through French or Spanish. The Turkish word *minaret* is a corruption of the Arab *manarat*.

Mulla 'Mohammedan theologian' comes from the Turkish word *mulla* ascending to the Arab form *maula*. Nowadays it is an international word used in the Muslim world (compare **мулла** in Russian).

Odalisque 'female slave, concubine' comes from the Turkish word *odaliq* (from *odah* 'chamber in a harem' + *-liq*, suffix expressing function). The word must have entered English through French.

A few words were borrowed from Turkish in the 18th century, among them *vali* and *nizam*.

Vali denotes a civil governor in Turkey (from Turkish *vali* ascending to Arab *wali*). Later, in the 19th century, the relative word *vilayet* 'province ruled by a *vali*' appeared in English.

Nizam was the title of the rulers of Hyderabad in 1713 - 1748. Later, in the 19th century the meaning of the word was different: it denoted the Turkish regular army. Originally the Turkish form *nizam* comes from the Arab *nidam* 'order, arrangement'.

A few words were borrowed in the 19th century, such as: *bashi-bazouk* 'mercenary of Turkish irregulars', *kismet* 'destiny, fate, lot', *narghile* 'hookah (device for smoking)'.

12. Words from the Languages of American Indians and Other Borrowings

The pioneers in America came across plants and animals in their new country that they had never seen before. There being no English names for them, the first settlers had to learn the Indian words, which were strange for their ear, so had fitted them to the norms of the English phonetics. In 1608 Captain John Smith described in his report a strange animal about the size of a cat living in American forests. He transliterated the Indian name as *rahaugcum*. Later, in 1672, the word acquired the assimilated English form *raccon* (the colloquial shortened form '*coon*') by which it is known today.

Wood chuck, *chipmunk*, *moose*, *opossum*, and *skunk* were made from some other Indian names for animals the pioneers had never seen before. *Hickory*, *pecan*, *squash*, and *succotash* were Indian names for plants and vegetables that were not known in England. As there were no English words to describe those things, the pioneers used the Indian names for them. Continuing to work and live together with the Indians, the pioneers learned much about Indian life, customs, and beliefs. They borrowed words denoting tools, clothing, and dwelling places. *Moccasins*, *wigwams*, *tepees*, *totems*, *tomahawks*, and *canoes* were new notions for the settlers, and these words entered the English language (Lloyd 1983, 201).

* * * *

In the English lexicon there are loan-words from so many languages that it would be difficult even to enumerate all of them.

It is possible to come across words which has been borrowed from the Afrikaans language spoken in South Africa. E.g.: *aasvogel* 'South African vulture' (from *aas* 'carrion' + *voel* 'bird'); *aardvark* 'South African insectivorous quadruped' (from *aarde* 'earth' + *varken* 'pig'; *eland* 'South African antelope'; *kraal* 'village; cattle enclosure'; *kratz* 'wall of rock'.

A number of word have been borrowed from the Portuguese language. E.g.: *buffalo* 'species of ox'; *mango* 'tropical fruit'; *lingo* 'unintelligible foreign language' (from *lingoa* 'tongue'); *auto-da-fe* 'sentence of the Inquisition' (literally: 'act of the faith'); *port* 'red wine of Portugal' (from *O Porto*, the chief port of shipment for Portuguese wines).

At the times of the British colonization of America many words came into the English language from the tongues of American Indians. E.g.: *curare* 'poisonous substance' (from the Macuchi language); *puma* 'feline quadruped' (from the Quechua language); *caiman* 'American alligator (from the Carib word *acayuman*); *caoutchouc* 'rubber' (from the Carib word *caluchu*); *tapir* 'American swine-like animal' (from the Tupi language).

The conquest of India was followed by borrowing words from Urdu, Hindi, and other languages.

Among the loan-words from Urdu it is possible to mention the following: *chabouk* 'whip' (from *chabuk* 'horse-whip'); *mahal* 'summer palace'; *jaconet* 'Indian cotton fabric' (from *jaganathi*); *khaki* 'dullbrownish yellow fabric' (compare with **хакки** in Russian); *khidmutgar* or *kitmudhgar* 'male servant at table'.

Examples of words borrowed from Hindi are as follows: *dhoti* or *dhootie* 'loin-cloth worn by Hindus'; *dhoby* 'native Indian washerman' (from *dhob* 'washing'); *cutchery* or *cutcherry* 'business office' (from *katchachri*, *kacheri*); *langur* 'Indian long-tailed monkey'; *gooroo* or *guru* 'Hindu spiritual teacher'.

Borrowings from the Hebrew language were mainly connected with the translation and interpretation of the Old Testament. E.g.: *ephah* 'dry measure' (from *e'phah*); *homer* 'measure of capacity' (from *xomer* 'heap'); *kosher* 'prepared according to law' (from *kasher* 'right'); *shekel* 'silver coin of the Hebrews' (from *saqal* 'weight'); *cherub* 'angel of the second order'; *seraph* 'angel of the highest order'.

Borrowings from the Irish language are as follows: *gallograss* 'retainer of an Irish chief' (now a historic word); *hubbub* 'confused noise, as of shouting'; *gab* 'talking, talk' (from *gob* 'beak, mouth'); *galore* 'in abundance' (from *go* 'to' + *leor* 'sufficiency'). Of special interest the word *Tory*, which denoted one of the dispossessed Irish who became outlaws, in 1679 -1680 it was applied to anti-exclusioners; since 1689 it has denoted a member of the two great political parties of Great Britain (from *toraiġhe* 'pursuer').

Persian loan-words in English keep their exotic flavour, oriental spirit. E.g.: *jasmine* or *jessamine* 'climbing shrub with white or yellow flowers (from *yasmin*, *yasman*); *hourì* 'nymph of the Mohammedan paradise (from *huri*); *caravan* 'company travelling through the desert' (later its meaning got broadened: 'fleet of ships', 'covered carriage or cart'); *shah* 'king of Persia'; *markhor* 'large wild goat' (literally 'serpent-eater', from *mar* 'serpent' + *khor* 'eating').

Among the loan-words from the Chinese language the following may be taken as an illustration: *sampan* 'small Chinese boat' (from *san* 'three' + *pan* 'board', so it actually means 'a boat made of three boards); *pekoe* 'superior black tea' (from *pek* 'white' + *ho* 'hair'); *ketchup* 'sauce made from mushrooms, tomatoes, etc.' (from *ke tsiap* 'brine of fish'); *typhoon* 'cyclonic storm in the China seas (from *ta* 'big' + *feng* 'wind; compare **тайфун** in Russian); *kotow* or *kow-tow* 'Chinese gesture of respect by touching the ground with the forehead'.

The Japanese borrowings in English are mainly connected with the realia of Japan. E.g.: *mikado*, now a historic word, 'title of emperor of Japan' (from *mi* 'August' + *kado* 'door'); *kimono* 'long Japanese robe with sleeves' (in European use, a form of dressing-gown); *jinricksha* 'light two-wheeled man-drawn vehicle' (from *jin* 'man' + *riki* 'strength' + *sha* 'vehicle'); *ju-jitsu* or *ju-jutsu* 'system of wrestling and physical training (originally the word is Chinese); *samurai* 'military retainer of daimios, member of military caste (historic), army officer'.

The colonization of New Zealand resulted in the enrichment of English with very exotic words - mainly names of plants and animals unknown in Europe. E.g.: *kiwi* 'New Zealand bird'; *kea* 'parrot of New Zealand' (the word is an evident imitation of the bird's cry); *kie-kie* 'New Zealand climbing plant'; *rata* 'large forest tree of New Zealand'.

In the English lexicon there are borrowings even from such a language as Malay. E.g.: *gambia* 'astringent extract from plants'; *gecko* 'house-lizard', *gong* 'disk producing musical notes'; *kapok* 'fine cotton wool'.

Questions and Assignments to Chapter 4

1. What is a hybrid word?
1. What is back-formation?
2. How did the adjective *difficult* appear in the English language?
3. How did the verbs *to locate*, *to donate*, *to housekeep*, *to orate*, *to burgle* appear in English?
4. Explain the origin of the words *adverb*, *category*, *axiom*, *brave*, *chronic*.
5. What is the meaning of the suffix *-et* in *bracelet*, *coronet*, etc.?

6. Explain the origin of the word *apron*.
7. Explain the meaning of the words *boudoir*, *connoisseur*, *baccara*, *baroque*.
8. Give examples of the French borrowings of the 20th century.
9. What is the meaning of the word *accidence*? Comment on its etymology.
10. Decipher the abbreviations *AD* and *BC*.
11. Make a list of 10 adjectives ending in *-ant* and *-ent*.
12. Explain the origin of the word *Congress*.
13. Explain the origin of the word *alibi*.
14. Explain the meaning of the word *aphasia*.
15. Explain the meaning of the word *paradigm*.
16. What is *abracadabra*?
17. Explain the meaning of the word *ephemeral*.
18. Explain the meaning of the word *epithet*.
19. What is *eugenics*?
20. Explain the origin of the word *helicopter*.
21. Give examples of Italian borrowings in the sphere of arts.
22. Explain the origin of the word *bankrupt*.
23. Explain the origin of the word *broccoli*.
24. What is *libretto*?
25. Explain the origin of the word *potato*?
26. What does a *cicerone* do?
27. Explain the origin of the word *breeze* 'light wind'.
28. What is the meaning of the word *renegade*?
29. What kind of war may be called a *guerilla war*?
30. Name five Arab borrowings of the 16th century.
31. What is a *Caffre*? 32. What is a *kantar*?
33. What is it necessary to do to become a *hadji*?
34. What is the *Koran*?
35. Where is *Mecca* situated? Why is it worshipped by the Mohammedans?
36. What is the English parallel for the Russian word **кайф**?
37. What is the meaning of the word *boor*?
38. What is the origin of the word *Kaiser*?
39. What was a *tram* in the 16th century?
40. What is *umlaut*?
41. What is the meaning of the word *Blitzkrieg*?
42. Give 10 examples of the Russian borrowings in English.
43. Give five examples of "Sovietisms" in English.
44. Give five examples of Dutch borrowings in English.
45. What is a *galleon*?
46. What is the origin of the word *boss*?
47. What is the origin of the word *giaour*?
48. What is the meaning of the expression *pasha of two tails*?
49. What is the origin of the words *caravan*, *ketchup*, *kimono*, *kiwi*, *sampan*?

Peculiarities of Syntax in OE, ME and NE Periods

The Simple Sentence. In the structure of the simple sentence in the Old English language the following parts are distinguished: subject, predicate, object, attribute, adverbial modifier and apposition. The order of words in the Old English sentence was freer than in modern English, as the functions of the words in the sentence were clearly expressed

by the morphological means. In the Old English language, there were such means of expressing the syntactic connections as *government*, *agreement* and *adjoinment* (additionally, *frame*). B.A.Ilyish also adds to these means *framing*, the type of expressing syntactic connections when a part of the sentence is placed between the two components of another part of the sentence /Ильиш, 1968, 156/. In the following sentence: **Ælfred cyning hateð gretan Wærferþ biscep his wordum luflice and freondlice** ‘King Alfred orders to greet Bishop Warferth with his words of love and friendship’ - we can establish the following syntactic links:

- 1) **Ælfred** ----- **hateð** (predicative connection; *agreement*)
- 2) **Ælfred** ----- **cyning** (appositive connection; *agreement*)
- 3) **hateð** ----- **gretan** (objective connection; *government*)
- 4) **gretan** ----- **Wærferth** (objective connection; *government*)
- 5) **gretan** ----- **wordum** (indirect objective connection; *government*)
- 6) **gretan** ----- **luflice** (adverbial connection; *adjoinment*)
- 7) **gretan** ----- **freondlice** (adverbial connection; *adjoinment*)
- 8) **Wærferth** ----- **biscep** (appositive connection; *agreement*)
- 9) **wordum** ----- **his** (attributive connection; *agreement*)
- 10) **luflice** - - - - - **freondlice** (co-ordinative connection; *conjunction*)
- 11) **Ælfred** ----- **his** (deictic objective connection; *agreement*)

The subject of the sentence **Ælfred** is syntactically connected with the predicate **hateð**. It is the *predicative* connection expressed by the agreement of the words in person and number. The noun **cyning** is an apposition to the subject and is consequently linked with latter by the *appositive* connection. This connection is expressed by the agreement in gender, number and case. The predicate **hateð** has an object expressed by the infinitive **gretan**. It is the *objective* connection. The noun **wordum** (the Dative case plural) refers to the verb as an indirect object. It is the *indirect objective* connection expressed by means of agreement. The possessive pronoun **his** refers to **wordum** as an attribute. The *attributive connection* in this case has the form of *adjoinment* as the word **his** is unchangeable. Besides, the masculine gender in the semantic structure of **his** indicates its connection in the sentence with the subject **Ælfred**. Such a connection between the pronoun and its *antecedent* is called *deictic*. The adverbs **luflice** and **freondlice** are linked with the infinitive **gretan** by the *adverbial* connection (in the form of *adjoinment*). As they are homogenous parts of the sentence there is *co-ordinative* connection between them, expressed by the conjunction **and**.

In the Old English language impersonal sentences were often used /Brook 1958, 155 - 156/. In such sentences there may be no grammatically expressed subject, e.g.: **Hearþoræs fornan mihtig meredeor ðurh mine hand** ‘In the heart of the battle death was brought to the sea-monster from my hand’.

The Compound and Complex Sentence. Many scholars notice that one of the characteristic features of the Old English syntax was the fact that compound sentences (based on co-ordination) were quite frequent while complex sentences (with subordination of clauses) were rather rare /Brook 1958, 145/. A.I.Smirmitsky stated that in the Old English language when it had just acquired written fixation complex sentences were not developed enough. Practically there were no special *connectors* for the introduction of subordinate clauses. In the function of subordination conjunctions demonstrative adverbs appeared which were used in the relative meaning in the subordinate clause and were often repeated in the demonstrative meaning at the beginning of the principal clause; e.g.: **þa he þas answeare onfeng, þa ongon he sona singan** ‘When he the answer received, then he soon began to sing’ /Смирницкий, 1955, 299/. In the function of connectors in complex sentences the following adverbs were often used: **ær** ‘before’, **siððan** ‘since’, **ða** ‘then’ and some others. Object subordinate clauses were often introduced by the conjunction **ðæt**, which originated from the demonstrative pronoun **þæt** /Ильиш 1968, 158/.

The Negation. Another characteristic feature of the Old English syntax is a possibility of double or multiple negation in the sentence; e.g.: **Ne mæg nan ðing his willan wiðstandan** ‘Nothing can withstand his will’.

Middle English Syntax

The structure of the *simple sentence* in Middle English was not sufficiently different from that of the Old English simple sentence. We can distinguish in it such parts as the subject, predicate, object, attribute, adverbial modifier and apposition. The order of words in the Middle English sentence became more fixed than in Old English. It may be explained by the weakening of morphological connections between the words. In the Middle English language there were the same means of expression of syntactic links: *government*, *agreement*, *adjoinment* and *framing* /Ильиш 1958, 137/, but their proportion was considerably different. Though *the government* basically remained the same as in the Old English language, it acquired a somewhat different shape in Middle English because it did not any longer consisted so much in the choice of the case form as in the choice of the prepositional combination /Ильиш 1958, 243/. *The agreement* had lost bygone meaning. The sphere of its use was mainly limited by subject-predicate agreement. The use

of *the adjoinment* grew larger in connection with the limitation of the sphere of agreement. *The framing* reinforced its position because the noun group in the Middle English language was determined by the article. Let us analyze the following sentence: **Ful weel she soong the service dyvyne, / Entuned in hir nose ful semely** ‘She sang the divine prayer very well doing it very sweetly through her nose’. In this sentence we can identify the following syntactic links:

- 1) **she** ----- **soong** (predicative link; *agreement*)
- 2) **soong** ----- **the service** (objective link; *agreement*)
- 3) **the service** ----- **dyvyne** (attributive link, *government*)
- 4) **soong** ----- **weel** (adverbial link; *adjoinment*)
- 5) **soong** ----- **entuned in hir nose ful semely** (adverbial link; *adjoinment*)
- 6) **entuned** ----- **in nose** (adverbial link; *government*)
- 7) **entuned** ----- **semely** (adverbial link; *adjoinment*)
- 8) **in nose** ----- **hir** (attributive link; *government*)
- 9) **semely** ----- **ful** (adverbial link; *adjoinment*)
- 10) **weel** ----- **Ful** (adverbial link; *adjoinment*)
- 11) **she** ----- **hir** (deictic connection; *agreement*)

The complex sentence in the Middle English language acquired more precise form than in Old English. The Middle English complex sentence, as V.N.Yartseva writes, is characterized by a gradual growth of new means of expressing subordination, new conjunctions and connectors, the regulations of the order of clauses, the use of asyndeton for some types of subordinate clauses. By the end of the Middle English period there had appeared such a phenomenon as *sequence of tenses* which was used as an additional means of the connection between the principle and subordinate clause. The system of *connectors* that developed in Middle English is presented in Table 49.

Table 49

Connectors in the Structure of the Complex Sentence

Type of the Subordinate Clause	Connectors
Subject Clause Predicative Clause Object Clause Attributive Clause Adverbial Clause of Time Adverbial Clause of Place Adverbial Clause of Cause Adverbial Clause of Purpose Adverbial Clause of Result Adverbial Clause of Condition Adverbial Clause of Concession Adverbial Clause of Comparison	who, what the... the, that that the, that, whilk, who er, ar, whan, that time that there, where, wher-as for-thy, resun why that yef, yf, bute, but yef theyh, thogh, though that, swulk, als, als if, al so

Negation in the Middle English language had the same features as in Old English. It was possible, for example, to use two or more negative words in one sentence: ... **nexst fleshe neshal non werien no linnene cloth** ‘nobody can wear linen cloth on his body’ /Ильиш, 1958, 247/. On the basis of the Old English pronoun **nawiht, naht** ‘nothing’ there developed a new negative particle, which would later replace the negative particle **ne**.

In New English the structure of the simple sentence in many respects became more orderly and more uniform. Yet, at the same time it grew complicated as the sentence came to include more extended and complex parts: longer attributive groups, diverse subjects and predicates and numerous predicative constructions (syntactic complexes).

In OE the ties between the words in the sentence were shown mainly by means of government, agreement, adjoinment with the help of numerous inflections. In ME and Early NE, with most of the inflectional endings levelled or dropped, the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by their relative position, environment, semantic ties, prepositions, and by a more rigid syntactic structure.

Every place in the sentence came to be associated with a certain syntactic function: in the new structure of the sentence syntactic functions were determined by position, and no position could remain vacant. This is evidenced by the obligatory use of the subject. For instance, in OE the formal subject, expressed by the pronoun *hit*, was used only in some types of impersonal sentences, namely those indicating weather phenomena. In ME the subject *it* occurs in all types of impersonal sentences, e. g.

- For *it* reynyd almoste euey othir day. (Brut)
- (‘For it rained almost every other day.’)
- Of his falshede *it* dulleth me to ryme. (Chaucer)
- (‘Of his falsehood it annoys me to speak.’)

The use of the verb-substitute *do*, as well as the use of auxiliary and modal verbs without the notional verb proves that the position of the predicate could not be vacant either. This is evident in short answers and other statements with the notional verb left out, e. g.:

Helpeth me now, as I *dyde* yow whileer. (Chaucer)

(‘Help me now as I did (help) you formerly.’)

Standi So I *do*, against my will... Is Guilliams with the packet gone? He *is*, my lord, an hour ago. (Shakespeare)

As compared with OE the subject of the sentence became more varied in meaning, as well as in the forms of expression. We have already mentioned the increased use of the formal subject *it*. Due to the growth of new verb forms the subject could now denote not only the agent or a thing characterised by a certain property, but also the recipient of an action or the “passive” subject of a state and feeling.

The predicate had likewise become more varied in form and meaning. The simple predicate could be expressed by compound forms which indicated multiple new meanings and subtle semantic distinctions, lacking in OE verb forms or expressed formerly by contextual means.

Though some types of compound predicates had turned into simple — as the verb phrases developed into analytical forms — the compound predicate could express a variety of meanings with the help of numerous new link-verbs and more extended and complex predicatives. NE witnessed a remarkable growth of link-verbs: about 80 verbs occur as copulas in texts between the 15th and 18th c. In a way the new link-verbs made up for the loss of some OE prefixes and compound verbs which denoted the growth of a quality or the transition into a state, e. g.:

And tho it *drewe* nere Cristenesse. (Brut)

(‘And though it drew near Christmas’, ‘Christmas was coming’)

Cecilie cam, whan it *was woxen* night...

(‘Cecily came when it was night...’)

as me best thinketh (Chaucer)

(‘as it seems best to me’)

It *fallep profyte* to summe men to be bounde to a stake. (Wyklif)

(‘It appears good for some men to be bound to a stake.’)

A murd'rous guilt shows not itself more soon

Than love that would *seem* hid...

The rose *looks* fair ... (Shakespeare).

The structure of the predicative became more complex: it could include various prepositional phrases and diverse attributes, e. g.:

Of twenty year of age he was, I gesse. (Chaucer)

(‘He was twenty years old, I guess.’)

That’s a *deep story of a deeper love*;

For he was *more than over shoes in love*. (Shakespeare)

The compound verbal predicate in NE was characterised by a wider use of modal phrases and verbs of aspective meaning, e. g.:

No, though I seye, I *nam* nat *lief to gabbe*. (Chaucer)

(‘No, though I say I am not inclined to gabble.’)

Most frequent in Chaucer’s works was a verb phrase of aspective meaning *gan* plus Inf. (NE *begin*):

He stired the coles til *relente gan* the wex.

(‘He stirred the coals till the wax began to melt.’)

One of the peculiar features of the OE sentence was multiple negation. The use of several negative particles and forms continued throughout the ME period, e. g.:

Ne bryng nat every man into thyn hous. (Chaucer)

(‘Don’t bring every man into your house.’)

(-*ne*- is a negative particle used with verbs, *nat* — another negative particle, for its origin see §219.)

No berd hadde he, *ne nevere* sholde have. (Chaucer)

(‘He had no beard, and never would have one.’)

See also the example: *No, though I seye, I nam nat lief to gabbe* above where *nam* is made up of the negative particle *ne* and *am*. In Shakespeare’s time the use of negations is variable: the sentence could contain one or more means of expressing negation. Cf.:

So is it *not* with me as with that Muse ...

Good madam, hear me speak,

And let no quarrel, *nor no* brawl to come,

Taint the condition of this present hour... (Shakespeare)

Gradually double negation went out of use. In the age of Correctness — the normalising 18th c. — when the scholars tried to improve and perfect the language, multiple negation was banned as illogical: it was believed that one negation eliminated the other like two minuses in mathematics and the resulting meaning would be affirmative. These

logical restrictions on the use of negations became a strict rule of English grammar. The auxiliary “do”, modals and lin-verbs were used in the negative and interrogative sentences.

Compound and Complex Sentences

The growth of the written forms of English, and the advance of literature in Late ME and Early NE manifested itself, among other changes, in the further development of the compound and complex sentence. Differentiation between the two types became more evident, the use of connectives — more precise. The diversity of sentence structures in Late ME and Early NE reveals considerable freedom in the nature and use of clauses. The flexibility of sentence patterns and the variable use of connectives were subjected to new constraints and regulations in the period of normalisation.

The complicated hierarchical structure of the sentence in Late ME and also correlation of connectives inherited from OE is illustrated by the opening stanza of Chaucer’s CANTERBURY TALES.

The poem begins with an adverbial clause of time introduced by *whan that*: the interrogative adverb *whan* (‘when’) is accompanied by the conjunction *that*, the two words together being used as a conjunction; another adverbial clause of time *whan Zephirus...* goes on for two and a half lines, then two temporal clauses are joined by *and*, and two more clauses are inserted — an attributive clause beginning with *That slepen...* and a parenthetical clause; then, finally, the principal clause begins with the adverb *thanne* which correlates with *whan that* and *whan* in the first and fifth lines.

Many new conjunctions and other connective words appeared during the ME period: *both...and*, a coordinating conjunction, was made up of a borrowed Scandinavian dual adjective *bath* and the native *and*; *because*, a subordinating conjunction, was a hybrid consisting of the native English preposition *by* and a borrowed Latin noun, *cause* (*by + cause* ‘for the reason’); numerous connectives developed from adverbs and pronouns — *who*, *what*, *which*, *where*, *whose*, *how*, *why*. These connectives sometimes occurred in combination with *that* (like *whan that* in the above quotation from Chaucer), which probably served to show that the former pronouns and adverbs were employed in a new, connective, function.

The following examples from Chaucer’s works illustrate various types of subordinate clauses in ME and some of the connectives used to join the clauses, especially the polyfunctional *that*:

Subject and object clauses:

And notified is thurghout the toun *That* every wight, with greet devocioun,
Sholde preyen Crist *that* he this manage Receyve in gree, and spede this viage.

(‘And it is notified throughout the town that every man should pray to Christ with great devotion that he receive this marriage favourably and make the voyage successful.’)

An attributive clause joined by *that* and *which* correlated with *thilke* (‘such’):

A knyght ther was and that a worthy man *That* fro the tyme that he first bigan To riden out, he loved chivalrie...

(‘There was a knight and he was a worthy man, that loved chivalry from the time he first began to ride out (as a knight).’)

That oon of hem was blynd and myghte nat see,

But it were with *thilke* even of his mynde *With whiche* men seen, *after that* they been blynde.

(‘That one of them was blind and could not see except with such eyes of his mind, with which men see after they get blind.’)

An adverbial clause of result joined by *so ... that*:

And *so* ferforth she gan oure lay declare *That* she the constable, *er that* it was eve Converted, and on Crist made hym bileve.

(‘And she began to declare (“preach”) our creed to such a degree that she converted the governor and made him believe in Christ, before evening came.’)

The last two quotations contain also *adverbial clauses of time* introduced by *after that*, *er that*.

An adverbial clause of manner introduced by *as*:

And for to kepe his lordes hir degre —

As it is ryght and skylfyl that they be Enhaunsed and honoured, ...

(‘And to maintain the rank of his lords, as it is right and reasonable that they should be promoted and honoured,...’)

Adverbial clauses of condition joined by *if that* and *if*:

What wot I, *if that* Crist have hider ysent My wyf by see...

(‘What do I know if Christ has hither sent my wife by sea.’)

And *if* so be that thou me fynde fals,

Another day do hange me by the hals

(‘And if it be so that you find me false, the next day hang me by the neck.’)

Adverbial clauses of concession joined by *wher-so* and *though that*: But forth she moot, *wher-so* she wepe or singe.

(‘But she must (go) forth, whether she weeps or sings.’)

For I ne can nat fynde A man, *though that* I walked in-to Ynde Neither in citee nor in no village.

(‘For I cannot find a man, though I walked to India, either in a city or in a village.’)
An adverbial clause of cause joined with the help of *by way of reason* and *by cause that*:
 Than seye they ther-in swich difficultee *By way of resoun*, for to speke al playn,
By cause that ther was swich diversitee Bitwene her bothe lawes...

(‘Then they saw there such difficulty in it for the reason, to speak plainly, because there was so much difference between their two laws...’)

In the 16th-17th c. the structure of the sentence became more complicated, which is natural to expect in a language with a growing literature. The following passage from a prose romance by Philip Sidney, one of the best authors of the Literary Renaissance, shows the complex structure of the sentence:

“But then, Demagoras assuring himselfe, that now Parthenia was her owne, she would never be his, and receiving as much by her owne determinate answer, not more desiring his owne happines, then envying Argalus, whom he saw with narrow eyes, even ready to enjoy the perfection of his desires; strengthening his conceite with all the mischievous counsels which disdayned love, and envious pride could geve unto him; the wicked wretch (taking a time that Argalus was gone to his countrie, to fetch some of his principal frendes to honour the mariage, which Parthenia had most joyfully consented unto), the wicked Demagoras (I say) desiring to speake with her, with unmercifull force, (her weake arms in vaine resisting) rubd all over her face a most horrible poyson: the effect whereof was such, that never leaper lookt more ugly than she did: which done, having his men and horses ready, departed away in spite of her servants, as redy to revenge as they could be, in such an unexpected mischiefe.”

Peculiarities of Word Order in OE, ME and NE

The word order in OE was free, not fixed. Sentence patterns in Old English differ from modern English in characteristic ways. OE shares some typical features with Modern High German. It deviates from the SPO structure (subject-predicate-object) of NE in various ways. We will simply highlight some prominent differences here.

1. Embedded clauses can show the verb in the final position.

(1) he biþ feorhscyldig, nimþe se cyng alyfan *wille* thæt man wergylde alysan *mote*.
 he is liable-for-his-life, if-not that king allow will, that one weregild pay may’.

Note that the word order patterns at the time were variable and also deviate from the strict SPO pattern.

Compare, for instance:

(2) Gifu ge hraþor ne gewitst fram Iacobe, and buton þu wyrige Cristes naman, þu scealt *beon beheafdod* samon mid him.

If you don’t turn (yourself) away from Jacob quickly, but you will praise Christ’s name, you will soon be beheaded together with him.

That the verbal complex is frequently split up in two parts (the frame construction). While the finite verb (auxiliary) is in second position, other parts of the verbal complex (participles, gerunds, usually the main verb) can be separated from the aux by other constituents. See the example in (3).

(3) In þeosse abbudissan mynstre *wæs* sum broþor syndriclice mid godcundre gife *gemeared & geweorþad*
 in this abbess’ minster was a brother specially with divine gift celebrated & honored.

This sentence preserved a frame.

2. Other than subject parts of the sentence can appear before the predicate, inversion was very frequent:

In Old English main clauses, more constituents than just only the subject can be found in the preverbal position.

(4) þa geceas he him þane burg wiþ þone sæ ...

Then chose he for them a fortress facing that sea ...

(5) Ac þæm mæg beon suiðe hraðe geholpen from his lareowe

Literal: But to-him may be very quickly helped from his teacher. (But he may be helped very quickly by his teacher).

Local adverbials and pronominal material, competing with full subject noun phrases, predominate in Old English. The wide and yet restricted range of possible categories suggests that the sentences should not be generated by a set of phrase structure rules. It is assumed, rather, that various kinds of constituents can be located preverbally by movement. (Keep in mind that this is Old English.) Structural as well as usage-based factors seem to drive the possible choices (topic shift, frame setting, salience). The following sentence (repeated from above) serves to lead the reader from the general location of the narrative (an abbyss and her minster) to a new referent, the „brother“ who is indeed the hero of the story (Cædmon, by Bede).

(6) In þeosse abbudissan mynstre *wæs* sum broðor syndriclice min godgundre gife *gemeared & geweorþad*
 in this abbess’ minster was a brother specially with divine gift celebrated & honored

3. Old English question and negation patterns

Negation was expressed by a negation word after the first (finite) verb. It was sometimes reinforced by a preverbal *ne*, the oldest form of negation, which slowly declined.

(7) My wyfe rose nott
my wife did not get up'

(8) He ne held it noht
He did not hold it'

(9) I strike not off the forefinger of his right hand (I did not strike off the forefinger of his right hand)

Note that the „double presence“ of negation in example (9) did not cancel out: Old English allows for the negative concord.

Questions were formed by the simple Subject-Verb-Inversion.

(10) Haefst þu ænigne geferan?
hast thou any companion?

Special questions have an initial question pronoun, followed by the finite verb directly.

Again, no auxiliary verb was required.

(11) Hwæt getacniaþ þonne þa twelf oxan buton þa XII apostolas?
what does it mean then those twelve oxen except those XII apostles?

In ME and Early NE the order of words in the sentence underwent noticeable changes: it has become fixed and direct: subject plus predicate plus object (S+P+O) or subject plus the notional part of the predicate (the latter type was used mainly in questions).

Stabilisation of the word order was a slow process, which took many hundreds of years: from Early ME until the 16th or 17th c. The fixation of the word order proceeded together with reduction and loss of inflectional endings, the two developments being intertwined; though syntactic changes were less intensive and less rapid. They may have been delayed by the break in the written tradition after the Norman conquest and by the general unsettling of the grammatical system during the Early ME dialectal divergence, whereas morphological changes may have been intensified for these very reasons.

Though the word order in Late ME may appear relatively free, several facts testify to its growing stability. The practice of placing the verb-predicate at the end of a subordinate clause had been abandoned, so was the type of word order with the object placed between the Subject and the Predicate (see OE examples in § 224). The place before the Predicate belonged to the Subject, which is confirmed by the prevalence of this word order in prosaic texts and also, indirectly, by the transition of the “impersonal” constructions into “personal”: as shown above, in the pattern *the mann(e) liketh* the noun was understood as the Subject, though originally it was an Object in the Dat. case.

In the 17th and 18th c. the order of words in the sentence was generally determined by the same rules as operate in English today. The fixed, direct word order prevailed in statements, unless inversion was required for communicative purposes or for emphasis, e. g.:

Now comes in the sweetest morsel in the night... These numbers *will I tear* and write in prose. (Shakespeare)

The order of the Subject and Predicate remained direct in sentences beginning with an adverbial modifier:

then *the two bears will not bite* one another when they meet. (In OE an initial adverbial modifier required an inverted word order — P+S).

In the Early NE and Middle NE (until 1800), in questions the word order was partially inverted — unless the question referred to the subject group. The analytical forms of the verb and the use of the *do*-periphrasis instead of simple forms made it possible to place the notional part of the Predicate after the Subject even with simple Predicate. Cf.:

Are they good? ... Can you make no use of your discontent? ... Who *comes* here? ... Lady, *will you walk* about with your friend? ... *Did he never make* you laugh? (Shakespeare)

Occasionally we find simple verb forms in questions placed before the Subject: Which way *looks* he? ... How *came* you to this? Full inversion in questions is more common with Shakespeare than with later authors.

PART FOUR

TEXTS TO READ

Northumbrian Riddle

The text given below is one of the 93 surviving Northumbrian riddles. The riddle was presumably written in the 9th century. Its author is unknown. The artistic merits of the riddle, its refined imagery allow to consider it as a small poetic chef d'oeuvre. The text has been borrowed from the *Anglo-Saxon Reader* edited by A.J.Wyatt (Cambridge: University Press, 1959).

Riddle XVI

1. Oft ic sceal wiþ wæge winnan ond wiþ winde feohtan;

2. somod wiþ þam sæcce, onne ic secan gewite
3. eorþan yðum þeahht: me bið se eþel fremde.
4. Ic beom strong þæs gewinnes, gif ic stille weorþe;
5. gif me þæs tosæleð, hi beoð swiþran þonne ic
6. ond mec slitende sona flymað;
7. willað oþfergan þat ic friþian sceal.
8. Ic him þæt forstonde, gif min steort þolað
9. ond mec stiþne wiþ stanas moton
10. fæste gehabban. Frige hwæt ic hatte. (Solution: *ancor*).

N o t e s

1. The four initial lines present an interesting example of expanded verses: each half-line contains more than two feet.

Sæcc = competition, fight.

Me bið se eþel fremde = this land is strange to me.

Ic beom strong þæs gewinnes = I am powerful in that battle (or: for that battle).

Hi = they (waves and winds).

Flyman = drive away.

Friðian = make peace.

þolað = suffers, undergoes.

mec stiþne wiþ = against my power.

Frige = ask (here: guess).

Translation:

Modern English

Oft I must with water battle and with wind fight; together, against them contend; then I depart to seek earth swallowed by waves; from me the homeland is estranged. I am strong in that contest, if I fixed become; if I fail at that, they are greater than I, and rend me, soon drive me to flight, will bear off that which I must protect; I resist that from them, if my hold endures and resolutely with me stones might hold fast. Ask what I am called.

Holy Bible

The Bible (from the Greek “biblia” meaning “books”) is the most popular and widely printed book in the world.

The original languages of the Bible are Hebrew, Aramaic (to a small extent) and also Hellenistic Greek (the Koine dialect) in the New Testament. By now the Bible has been translated into actually all the languages of the world.

The earliest surviving renderings in English of passages of the Bible are by the Anglo-Saxon homilist Ælfric (see *Who's Who in this History*). Two complete Middle English versions from the Vulgate were originated (c. 955 - 1010) by the Lollards. At the Reformation the revival of scholarship and the Protestant emphasis on individual religious exercises stimulated vernacular translations. William Tyndale (see *Who's Who in This History*) translated the New Testament (published 1525) from Greek and the Pentateuch (the first five books of the Old Testament) from Hebrew. Miles Coverdale's Bible (1535), based chiefly on the Vulgate and Tyndale, was the first complete English Bible. The Bible that appeared in 1537 under the name of Thomas Matthew (the pseudonym of John Rogers) was licensed for general reading by Henry VIII and formed the basis for Coverdale's Great Bible (1539), also called the Treacle Bible (from its rendering of Jeremiah 8.22). The 1540 edition of the Great Bible contained a preface by Cranmer, after whom it is sometimes named. In 1560 English refugees from the Marian persecution produced the Geneva Bible (so called from its place of publication), Or Breeches Bible (from its translation of Genesis 3.7), which had marginal glosses that recommended it to the Puritans. From 1571 to 1611 the Bishops' Bible (1568), a translation instigated by the anti-Puritan Archbishop Parker, was the official version. Meanwhile, Cardinal Allen initiated, for Roman Catholics, the translation known as the Reim-Douai Bible. The Hampton Court conference (1604) commissioned the Authorized (or King James) Version of the Bible (1611), which quickly became the standard English Bible. The Revised Version (New Testament, 1881; Old Testament, 1885) incorporated numerous textual improvements, but its departures from the familiar prose of the Authorized Version earned it a hostile reception. The New English Bible (completed 1970) attempts to combine the best modern international scholarship with a contemporary idiom.

In the USA the New American Standard Bible was published in 1960, a version translated from the languages of the original.

The nature of the translation differs from one version to another; similar differences are even visible within the same translation whose character varies from book to book. As in modern times, some ancient translators rendered their source more faithfully than others. Those who adhered closely to their source created “literal” translations reproducing all the characteristics of the source, including so-called Hebraisms. The 17th century King James Version, for example, employs the phrase “to find grace (favour) in the eyes of” which is the precise equivalent of the Hebrew expression, not found previously in the English language. Similar Hebraisms are found in all ancient versions.

By contrast, translators did not aim at a literal representation of the Hebrew Bible incorporated differing quantities of exegesis at all levels. Words were rendered differently in accordance with the various contexts, and unusual translations also appeared. At the same time, details in the biblical texts were explained contextually in accordance with known exegetical traditions and the translator’s imagination.

Thus difficult expressions were clarified, and situation requiring explanation were elucidated in the translation. Some renderings contain more exegetical elements than others, and the more such elements are included, the freer the translations.

The parallel texts given below are fragments from Ælfic’s rendering of the Old Testament and the corresponding passage from the Authorized (King James) Version.

Genesis 27

(Jacob obtains blessing)

1. Þa Isaac caldode and his eagan þystronon, þæt he ne mihte nan þing geseon, þa clypode he Esau, his ylðran sunu,	1. And it came to pass, that when Isaac was old, and his eyes were dim, so that he could not see, he called Esau his eldest son, and said unto him, My son: and he said unto him, Behold, here am I.
2. and cwæð to him: ‘þu gesihst þæt ic caldige, and ic nat hwænne mine dages agane beoð.	2. And he said, Behold now, I am old, I know not the day of my death:
3. Nim þin gesceot, þinne cocur and þinne bogan, and gang ut; and, þonne þu ænig þing begite þæs-þe þu wene.	3. Now therefore take, I pray thee, thy weapons, thy quiver and thy bow, and go out to the field, and take me some venison;
4. þæt me licige, bring me, þæt ic ete and ic þe bletsige, ær-þam-þe ic swelte.’	4. And make me savoury meat, such as I love, and bring it to me; that my sole may bless thee before I die.
5. Þa Rebecca þæt gehride and Easu utagan wæs,	5. And Rebekah heard when Isaac spake to Esau his son. And Esau went to the field to hunt for venison, and to bring it.
6. þa cwæð heo to Iacobe, hire suna: ‘Ic gehirde þæt þin fæder cwæð to Esauwe, þinum breþer:	6. And Rebekah spake unto Jacob her son, saying, Behold, I heard thy father speak unto Esau thy brother, saying,
7. “Bring me of þinum huntþe, þæt ic bletsige þe beforan drihtne, ær ic swelte.”	7. Bring me venison, and make me savoury meat, that I may eat, and bless thee before the Lord before my death.
8. Sunu min, hlyste minre lare:	8. Now therefore, my son, obey my voice according to that which I command thee.
9. far to þære heorde and bring me twa þa betstan tyccenu, þæt ic macige mete þinum fæder þær-of, and he ytt lustlice.	9. Go now to the flock, and fetch me from thence two good kids of the goats; and will make them savoury meat for thy father, such as he loveth:
10. þonne þu þa in bringst, he ytt and bletsath þe, ær he swelte.’	10. And thou shalt bring it to thy father, that he may eat, and that he may bless thee before his death.
11. Þa cwæð he to hire: ‘þu wast þæt Esau, min broþur, ys ruh, and ic eom smeþe.	11. And Jacob said to Rebekah his mother, Behold, Esau my brother is a hairy man, and I am a smooth man:
12. Gif min fæder me handlað and me gecnæwð, ic ondræde þæt he wene þæt ic hine wylle beswican and þæt he wirige me, næs na bletsige.’	12. My father peradventure will feel me, and I shall seem to him as a deceiver; and I shall bring a curse upon me, and not a blessing.

13. Þa cwæð seo modor to him: ‘Sunu min, sig seo wirignys ofer me! Do swa ic þe secge: far and bring þa þing the ic þe bead..’	13. And his mother said unto him, Upon me be thy curse, my son: only obey my voice, and go fetch me them.
14. He ferde þa and brohte and sealde hit hys meder, and heo hit gearwode, swa heo wiste þæt his fæder licode.	14. And he went, and fetched, and brought them to his mother: and his mother made savoury meat, such as his father loved.
15. And heo scrydde Iacob mid þam deor-wurþustan reafe þe heo æt ham mid hire hæfde;	15. And Rebekah took goodly raiment of her eldest son Esau, which were with her in the house, and put them upon Jacob her younger son.
16. and befeold his handa mid þæra tycenafellum; and his swuran, þær he nacod wæs, heo befeold.	16. And she put the skins of the kids of the goats upon his hands, and upon the smooth of his neck:
17. And heo sealde him þone mete þe heo seap, and hlaf; and he brohte þæt his fæder	17. And she gave the savoury meat and the bread, which she had prepared, into the hand of her son
	Jacob.
18. and cwæp: ‘Fæder min!’ He andswarode and cwæp: ‘Hwæt eart þu, sunu min?’	18. And he came unto his father, and said, My father: and he said, Here am I; who art thou, my son?
19. And Iacob cwæp: ‘Ic eom Esau, þin frumcenneda sunu. Ic dyde swa þu me bebude. Aris upp and site, and et of minum huntoþe, þæt þu me blestige.’	19. And Jacob said unto his father, I am Esau thy firstborn; I have done according as thou badest me: arise, I pray thee, sit and eat of my venison, that thy soul may bless me.
20. Eft Isaac cwæp to his sina: ‘Sunu min, hu mihtest þu hit swa hrædlice findan?’ þa andswarode he and cwæp: ‘Hit wæs Goges willa, þæt me hrædlice ongean com þæt ic wolde.’	20. And Isaac said unto his son, How is that thou hast found it so quickly, my son? And he said, Because the Lord thy God brought it to me.
21. And Isaac cwæp: ‘Ga hider near, þæt ic æþrine þin, sunu min, and fandige hwæþer þu sig min sunu Esau, þe ne sig.’	21. And Isaac said unto Jacob, Come near, I pray thee, that I may feel you, my son, whether thou be my very son Esau or not.
22. He eode to þam fæder; and Isaac cwæp, þa þa he hyne gegrapod hæfde: ‘Witodlice seo stemn ys Iacobes stefn, and tha handa synd Esauwes handa.’	22. And Jacob went near unto Isaac his father; and he felt him, and said, The voice is Jacob’s voice, but the hands are the hands of Esau.
23. And he ne gecneow hine, for-þam þa ruwan handa wæron swilce þæs yldran broþur. He hyne bletsode þa	23. And he discerned him not, because his hands were hairy, as his brother Esau’s hands: so he blessed him.
24. and cwæp: ‘Eart þu Esau, min sunu?’ And he cwæp: ‘Ia leof, ic hit eom.’	24. And he said, Art thou my very son Esau? And he said, I am.
25. Tha cwæp he: ‘Bring me mete of þinum huntoþe þæt ic the bletsige.’ þa he þone mete brohte, he brohte him eac win. þa he hæfde gedruncon,	25. And he said, Bring it near to me, and I will eat of my son’s venison, that my soul may bless thee. And he brought it near to him, and he did it: and he brought him wine, and he drank.
26. tha cwæp he to him: ‘Sunu min, gang hider and cysse me.’	26. And his father Isaac said unto him, Come near now, and kiss me, my son.
27. He nealeahte and cyste hine. Sona, swa he hyne ongeat, he bletsode hine and cwæp: ‘Nu ys mines suna stenc, swilce þæs landes stenc the drihten bletsode.	27. And he came near, and kissed him: and he smelled the smell of his raiment, and blessed him, and said, See, the smell of my son is as the smell of a field which the Lord hath blessed:
28. Sylle the God of heofenes deawe and of eorþan fætuisse, and micelnysse hwættes and wines.	28. Therefore God give thee of the dew of heaven, and the fatness of the earth, and plenty of corn and wine.

29. And þeowion the eall folc, and geeadmedun the ealle mægtha. Boe þu þinra broþra hlaford and sin þinre modur suna gebiged beforan the. Se þe the wirige, si he awiriged; and, se þe þe bletsige, si he mid bletsunge gefylled.’

29. Let people serve thee, and nations bow down to thee: be Lord over thy brethren, and let thy mother’s sons bow down to thee: cursed be every one that curseth thee, and blessed be he that blesseth thee.

Geoffrey Chaucer. The Canterbury Tales. The Prologue.

? Geoffrey Chaucer is regarded as the first English poet because he turned the English language into an appropriate medium for poetry /Wells-Cole 1995, v/.

The *Canterbury Tales* is a collection of stories held within the framing narrative of a group of pilgrims on the way to the shrine of St. Thomas a Becket at Canterbury, one of the most popular places visited by pilgrims in England. The device of the framing narrative was popular in the Middle Ages. Chaucer evidently borrowed it from Boccaccio who he may have met in Italy.

The poem opens with a *General Prologue* which gives a description of the pilgrims assembled at the Tabard Inn in Southwark.

You are bound to appreciate the lyrical picture of spring at the beginning of the Prologue and the ironical description of Prioress.

THE PROLOGUE

Here bigineth the Book of the Tales of Caunterbury.

1. Whan that Aprille with his shoures sote
1. The droght of March hath perced to the rote,
2. And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
3. Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
4. Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breeth
5. Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
6. The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
7. Hath in the Ram his halfe course y-ronne,
8. And smale fowles maken melodye,
9. That slepen al the night with open ye, 10. (So priketh hem nature in hir corages):
11. Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages
12. (And palmers for to seken straunge strondes)
13. To ferne halwes, couthe in sondry londes;
14. And specially, from every shires ende
15. of Engelond, to Caunterbery they wende,
16. The holy blisful martir for to seke
17. That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seke.
18. Bifil that, in that seson on a day,
19. In Southwerk at the Tabard as I lay
20. Redy to wenden on my pilgrimage
21. To Caunterbury with ful devout corage,
22. At night was come in-to that hostelrye
23. Wel nyne and twenty in a companye,
24. Of sondry folk, by aventure y-falle
25. In felawshipe, and pilgrims were they alle,
26. That toward Caunterbury wolden ryde;
27. The chabres and the stables wered wyde,
28. And wel we weren esed atte beste,
29. And shortly, what the sonne was to reste,
30. So hadde I spoken with hem everichon,
31. That I was of hir felawshipe anon,
32. And made forward erly for to ryse,

33. To take our wey, ther as I yow devyse.
34. But natheless, whyl I have tyme and space,
35. Er that I ferther in this tale pace,
36. Me thinketh it acordaunt to resoun,
37. To telle yow al the condicioun
38. Of ech of hem, so as it semed me,
39. And which they weren, and of what degree;
40. And eek in what array that they were inne:
41. And at a knight that wol I first biginne.

-
117. Ther was also a Nonne, a Prioresse,
 118. That of smyling was ful simple and coy:
 119. Hir gretteste ooth was but by seynt Loy;
 120. And she was cleped madame Eglentyne.
 121. Ful wel she song the service divyne,
 122. Entuned in hir nose ful semely;
 123. And Frensh she spak ful faire and fetisly,
 124. After the scole of Stratford atte Bowe,
 125. For Frensh of Paris was to hir unknowe.
 126. At mete wel y-taught was she with-alle;
 127. She leet no morsel from hir lippes falle,
 128. Ne wette hir fingres in hir sauce depe.
 129. Wel coude she carie a morsel, and wel kepe,
 130. That not drope ne fille up-on hir brest.
 131. In corteisye was set ful muche hir lest.
 132. Hir over lippe wyped she so clene,
 133. That in hir coppe was no ferthing sene
 134. Of grece, whan she dronken hadde hir draughte.
 135. Ful semely after hir mete she raughte,
 136. And sikerly she was of greet disport,
 137. And ful plesaunt, and amiable of port,
 138. And peyned hir to countrefete chere
 139. Of court, and been estatlich of manere,
 140. And to ben holden digne of reverence.
 141. But, for to speken of hir conscience,
 142. She was so charitable and so pitous,
 143. She wolde wepe, if that she sawe a mous
 144. Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde.
 145. Of smale houndes had she, that she fedde
 146. With rosted flesh, or milk and wastel-breed.
 147. But sore weep she if oon of hem were deed,
 148. Or if men smoot it with a yerde smerte:
 149. And al was conscience and tendre herte.
 150. Ful semely hir wimpel pinched was;
 151. Hir nose tretvs; hir eyen greye as glas;
 152. Hir mouth ful smal, and ther-to softe and reed;
 153. But sikerly she hadde a fair forheed;
 154. It was almost a spanne brood, I trowe;
 155. For, hardily, she was nat undergrowe.

156. Ful fetis was hir cloke, as I was war.
 157. Of smal coral aboute hir arm she bar
 158. A peire of bedes, gauded al with grene;
 159. And ther-on heng a broche of gold ful shene,
 160. On which ther was first write a crowned A,
 161. And after, *Amor vincit omnia*.

Notes

(according to the line numbers)

- (2) The vowel *e* with weak stress is usually dropped before another vowel; thus *droghte of* = *droght'of*; it is also dropped after an unstressed syllable, e.g.: *felaweshipe* = '*felaw'ship*' or '*felaw''shipe*'; it often happens in bisyllabic words having no phrase accent on them, e.g.: *thanne* = *than'*, *were* = *wer'*, *have* = *hav'*, *hire* = *hir'*, etc. The inserted *e* (at least in spelling) is usually mute, e.g.: *foweles* = *fowles* /Смирницкий 1953, 75 - 76/.
- (4) *vertu* = quickening power.
 (4) *Zephirus* = west wind.
 (5) *Ram* = the first zodiacal sign.
 (6) *y-ronne* = participle II of *to run*.
 (10) *ye* = eye; plural *yen*.
 (11) *corage* = heart, desire.
 (11) *stronde* = shore.
 (12) *halwes* = saints; shrines.
 (17) Thomas Becket (see *Who's Who in This History*).
 (20) *Southwerk* = now Southwark, a suburb of London; *Tabard* = loose upper garment with short sleeves or none (here the name of the inn).
 (30) *was to reste* = was gone to rest.
 (125) *Stratford atte Bowe* = now Stratford at Bow, a suburb of London.

William Shakespeare. King Lear. Act I, Scene 1.

Shakespeare wrote his famous tragedy "King Lear" between 1603 and 1606. There is some evidence to it. On November 26, 1607, the printers N.Butter and J.Busby entered the Stationers' Register to assert their right to print it /Fraser 1963, 182/.

The earliest extant version of the tragedy is the *First Quarto* of 1608. This edition is known as the *Pied Bull Quarto*, after the sign which hung before the establishment of the printer. In the title page one can read:

M. William Shaksperre HIS

True Chronicle Historie of the life and death of King Lear and his three Daughters. *With the vnfortunate life of Edgar, sonne* and heire to the Earle of Gloster, and his sullen and assumed humor of Tom of Bedlam:

As it was played before the Kings Maiestie at Whitehall vpon S.Stephans night in Christmas Hollidayes.

By his Maiesties seruants playing vsually at the Gloabe on the Bancke-side.

LONDON,

Printed for Nathaniel Butter, and are to be sold at his shop at Pauls

Church-yard at the signe of the Pied Bull neere

St. Austin's Gate. 1608.

The story of King Lear, a mythical king who reigned in the dim and undated past, was well known in British legend. Holinshed's *Chronicles* dates Lear's reign as "the year of the world 3105." The tale of the impetuous old king had been familiar for centuries before. Appearing first in Geoffrey of Monmouth's chronicle, *Historia Britonum*, composed about 1135, it was quickly assimilated into the legendary history of Britain /Wright, LaMar 1969, 290/.

The opening scene of the tragedy, placed below, immediately reveals the situation about which the whole play revolves. Lear, rash and hasty, has planned to rid himself of worries by dividing his kingdom among his three daughters, Regan, Goneril, and Cordelia. Before making the division he asks each to attest her love for him. Disgusted at the fulsome but hollow pretensions of her two older sisters, Cordelia refuses to flatter her father and is disinherited. When his old courtier, the Earl of Kent, protests, Lear banishes him. The King of France recognizes Cordelia's sincerity and accepts her as his betrothed after the Duke of Burgundy has refused to take a penniless bride. The scene concludes with Regan

with Regan and Goneril already planning to curb the activities of the King, whom they consider senile /Wright, LaMar 1969, 292/.

The scene may be easily separated into two parts. The first part is a kind of an introduction in prose, where the Earl of Kent and the Earl of Gloucester discuss the situation in the country.

The second part is written in verses. You will surely feel elements of a fairy tale about the way the story is presented.

Enjoy reading one of the best plays by Shakespeare!

***The Tragedy of King Lear* ACT I**

Scene 1 [King Lear's palace]

Enter Kent, Gloucester, and Edmund.

Kent. I thought the King had more affected (1) the Duke of Albany (2) than Cornwall. *Gloucester.* It did always seem so to us; but now in the division of the kingdom, it appears not which of the dukes he values most, for equalities are so weighted that curiosity in neither can make choice of either's moiety (3). *Kent.* Is this your son, my lord?

Gloucester. His breeding (4), sir, hath been at my charge. I have so often blushed to acknowledge him that now I am brazed (5) to't. *Kent.* I cannot conceive (6) you.

Gloucester. Sir, this young fellow's mother could; whereupon she grew round-wombed, and had indeed, sir, a son for cradle ere she had a husband for her bed. Do you smell a fault?

Kent. I cannot wish the fault undone, the issue (7) of it being so proper (8).

Gloucester. But I have a son, sir, by order of law, some year elder than this, who yet is no dearer in my account (9): though this knave (10) came something saucily (11) to the world before he was sent for, yet was his mother fair, there was good sport at his making, and the whoreson (12) must be acknowledged. Do you know this noble gentleman, Edmund?

Edmund. No, my lord.

Gloucester. My lord of Kent. Remember him hereafter as my honorable friend.

Edmund. My services to your lordship.

Kent. I must love you, and sue (13) to know better.

Edmund. I shall study deserving.

Gloucester. He hath been out nine years, and away he shall again. The King is coming. *Sound a sennet* (14). *Enter one bearing a coronet* (15), *then King Lear, then the dukes of Cornwall and Albany, next Goneril, Regan, Cordelia, and Attendants.*

Lear. Attend the lords of France and Burgundy, Gloucester.

Gloucester. I shall, my lord. *Exit [with Edmund].*

Lear. Meanwhile we shall express our darker purpose (16). Give me the map there. Know that we have divided

In three our kingdom; and 'tis our fast (17) intent

To shake all cares and business from our age,

Conferring them on younger strengths, while we

Unburthened crawl toward death. Our son of Cornwall,

And you our no less loving son of Albany,

We have this hour a constant will to publish (18) Our daughters' several (19) dowers, that future strife

May be prevented (20) now. The Princes, France and Burgundy,

Great rivals in our youngest daughter's love,

Long in our court have made their amorous sojourn,

And here are to be answered. Tell me, my daughters

(Since now we will divest us both of rule,

Interest (21) of territory, cares of state),

Which of you shall we say doth love us most,

That we our largest bounty may extend

Where nature doth with merit challenge (22). Goneril, Our eldest-born, speak first.

Goneril. Sir, I love you more than word can wield (23) the matter;

Dearer than eyesight, space (24) and liberty;

Beyond what can be valued, rich or rare;

No less than life, with grace, health, beauty, honor;

As much as child e'er loved, or father found;

A love that makes breath (25) poor, and speech unable; Beyond all manner of so much (26) I love you.

Cordelia. [Aside]

What shall Cordelia speak? Love, and be silent.

Lear. Of all these bounds, even from this line to this,

With shadowy forests, and with champains riched (27), With plenteous rivers, and wide-skirted meads (28), We make thee lady. To thine and Albany's issues (29) Be this perpetual (30). What says our second daughter, Our dearest Regan, wife of Cornwall? Speak.

Regan. I am made of that self mettle (31) as my sister,

And prize me at her worth (32). In my true heart

I find she names my very deed of love (33);

Only she comes too short, that (34) I profess

Myself an enemy to all other joys

Which the most precious square of sense professes (35), And find I am alone felicitate (36)

In your dear Highness' love.

Cordelia. [Aside] Then poor Cordelia!

And yet not so, since I am sure my love's More ponderous (37) than my tongue.

Lear. To thee and thine hereditary ever

Remain this ample third of our fair kingdom,

No less in space, validity (38), and pleasure

Than that conferred on Goneril. Now, our joy,

Although our last and least (39), to whose young love

The vines of France and milk (40) of Burgundy

Strive to be interest (41); what can you say to draw A third more opulent than your sisters? Speak.

Cordelia. Nothing, my lord.

Lear. Nothing?

Cordelia. Nothing.

Lear. Nothing will come of nothing. Speak again.

Cordelia. Unhappy that I am, I cannot heave My heart into my mouth. I love your Majesty According to my bond (42), no more nor less. *Lear.* How, how, Cordelia? Mend your speech a little, Lest you may mar your fortunes.

Cordelia. Good my lord,

You have begot me, bred me, loved me. I

Return those duties back as are right fit (43), Obey you, love you, and most honor you.

Why have my sisters husbands, if they say

They love you all? Haply (44), when I shall wed,

That lord whose hand must take my plight (45) shall carry Half my love with him, half my care and duty. Sure I shall never marry like my sisters, To love my father all.

Lear. But goes thy heart with this?

Cordelia. Ay, my good lord.

Lear. So young, and so untender?

Cordelia. So young, my lord, and true.

Lear. Let it be so, thy truth then be thy dower!

For, by the sacred radiance of the sun,

The mysteries of Hecate (46) and the night,

By all the operation of the orbs (47)

From whom we do exist and cease to be,

Here I disclaim all my paternal care,

Propinquity and property of blood (48),

And as a stranger to my heart and me

Hold thee from this for ever. The barbarous Scythian (49),

Or he that makes his generation messes (50)

To gorge his appetite, shall to my bosom Be as well neighbored, pitied, and relieved, As thou my sometime (51) daughter. *Kent.* Good my liege— *Lear.* Peace, Kent!

Come not between the Dragon (52) and his wrath.

I loved her most, and thought to set my rest (53) On her kind nursery (54). Hence and avoid my sight! So be my grave my peace, as here I give Her father's heart from her! Call France. Who stirs? Call Burgundy. Cornwall and Albany, With my two daughters' dowers digest (55) the third; Let pride, which she calls plainness, marry her (56).

I do invest you jointly with my power,

Pre-eminence, and all the large effects

That troop with majesty (57). Ourselves (58), by monthly course,

With reservation (59) of an hundred knights,

By you to be sustained, shall our abode

Make with you by due turn. Only we shall retain The name, and all th' addition (60) to a king. The sway,
Revenue, execution of the rest, Beloved sons, be yours; which to confirm, This coronet (61) part between you.

Kent. Royal Lear,

Whom I have ever honored as my king,

Loved as my father, as my master followed,

As my great patron thought on in my prayers— *Lear.* The bow is bent and drawn; make from the shaft (62).

Kent. Let it fall (63) rather, though the fork (64) invade The region of my heart. Be Kent unmannerly When Lear is mad. What wouldst thou do, old man?

Think'st thou that duty shall have dread to speak

When power to flattery bows? To plainness honor's bound

When majesty falls to folly. Reserve thy state (65),

And in thy best consideration (66) check

This hideous rashness. Answer my life my judgment (67),

Thy youngest daughter does not love thee least, Nor are those empty-hearted whose low sounds Reverb (68) to hollowness (69).

Lear. Kent, on my life, no more!

Kent. My life I never held but as a pawn (70) To wage (71) against thine enemies; nor fear to lose it, Thy safety being motive (72).

Lear. Out of my sight!

Kent. See better, Lear, and let me still (73) remain The true blank (74) of thine eye.

Lear. Now by Apollo— *Kent.* Now by Apollo, King, Thou swear'st thy gods in vain. *Lear.* O vassal! Miscreant (75)!

[*Laying his hand on his sword.*] *Albany, Cornwall.* Dear sir, forbear!

Kent. Kill thy physician, and the fee bestow

Upon the foul disease. Revoke thy gift, Or, whilst I can vent clamor (76) from my throat,

I'll tell thee thou dost evil.

Lear. Hear me, recreant (77)!

On thy allegiance (78), hear me!

That thou hast sought to make us break our vows,

Which we durst never yet, and with strained (79) pride

To come betwixt our sentence (80) and our power, Which nor our nature nor our place can bear, Our potency made good (81), take thy reward.

Five days we do allot thee for provision (82)

To shield thee from diseases (83) of the world,

And on the sixth to turn thy hated back

Upon our kingdom. If, on the tenth day following,

Thy banished trunk (84) be found in our dominions, The moment is thy death. Away! By Jupiter, This shall not be revoked.

Kent. Fare thee well, King. Sith (85) thus thou wilt appear, Freedom lives hence, and banishment is here.

[*To Cordelia*]

The gods to their dear shelter take thee, maid,

[*To Regan and Goneril*]

And your large speeches may your deeds approve (86), That good effects (87) may spring from words of love. Thus Kent, O Princes, bids you all adieu;

He'll shape his old course (88) in a country new. *Exit. Notes*

(1) *affected* = loved.

(1) *Albany* = Albanacte, whose domain extended "from the river Humber to the point of Caithness" (Holinshed).

(2) *equalities... moiety* i.e. shares are so balanced against one another that careful examination by neither can make him wish the other's portion.

(3) *breeding* = upbringing.

(4) *brazed* = made brazen, hardened.

(5) *conceive* = understand (pun follows).

(6) *issue* = result (child).

(7) *proper* = handsome.

(8) *account* = estimation.

(9) *knave* = fellow (without disapproval).

- (10) *saucily* = [a] insolently; [b] lasciviously.
- (11) *whoreson* = fellow (lit., son of a whore).
- (12) *sue* = entreat.
- (13) *sennet* = set of notes played on a trumpet, signaling the entrance or departure of a procession.
- (14) *coronet* = small crown, intended for Cordelia.
- (15) *darker purpose* = hidden intention.
- (16) *fast* = fixed.
- (17) *constant will to publish* = fixed intention to proclaim.
- (18) *several* = separate.
- (19) *prevented* = forestalled.
- (20) *Interest* = legal right.
- (21) *nature... challenge* i.e. natural affection contends with desert for (or lays claim to) bounty.
- (22) *wield* = handle.
- (23) *space* = scope.
- (24) *breath* = language.
- (25) *Beyond... much* = beyond all these comparisons.
- (26) *champains riched* = enriched plains.
- (27) *wide-skirted meads* = extensive grasslands.
- (28) *issues* = descendants.
- (29) *perpetual* = in perpetuity.
- (30) *self mettle* same material or temperament.
- (31) *prize... worth* = value me the same (imperative).
- (32) *my... love* = what my love really is (a legalism).
- (33) *that* = in that.
- (34) *Which... professes* = which the choicest estimate of sense avows.
- (35) *feliciate* = made happy.
- (36) *ponderous* = weighty, substantial.
- (37) *validity* = value.
- (38) *least* = youngest, smallest.
- (39) *milk* i.e. pastures.
- (40) *interest* = closely connected, as interested parties.
- (41) *bond* i.e. filial obligation.
- (42) *Return... fit* i.e., am correspondingly dutiful.
- (43) *Haply* + perhaps.
- (44) *plight* = troth plight.
- (45) *mysteries of Hecate* = secret rites of Hecate (goddess of the infernal world, and of witchcraft).
- (46) *operation of the orbs* = astrological influence.
- (47) *Propinquity and property of blood* = relationship and common blood.
- (48) *Scythian* (type of the savage).
- (49) *makes his generation messes* = eats his own offspring.
- (50) *sometime* = former.
- (51) *Dragon* = [a] heraldic device of Britain; [b] emblem of ferocity.
- (52) *set my rest* = [1] stake my all (a term from the card game of primero); [b] find my rest.
- (53) *nursery* = care, nursing.
- (54) *digest* = absorb.
- (55) *Let... her* i.e. let her pride be her dowry and gain her a husband.
- (56) *effects / That troop with majesty* = accomplishments that go with kingship.
- (57) *Ourself* (the royal “we”).
- (58) *reservation* = the action of reserving a privilege (a legalism).

- (59) *addition* = titles and honors.
- (60) *coronet* (the crown which was to have been Cordelia's).
- (61) *make from the shaft* = avoid arrows.
- (62) *fall* = strike (usually in the battle or fight).
- (63) *fork* = forked head of the arrow.
- (64) *Reserve thy state* = retain your kingly authority.
- (65) *best consideration* = most careful reflection.
- (66) *Answer... judgment* = I will stake my life on my opinion.
- (67) *Reverb* = reverberate.
- (68) *holloness* = [a] emptiness; [b] insincerity.
- (69) *pawn* = stake in a wager.
- (70) *wage* = [a] wager; [b] carry on war.
- (71) *motive* = moving cause.
- (72) *still* = always, constantly.
- (73) *blank* = target.
- (74) *vassal! Miscreant!* = Base wretch! Misbeliever!
- (75) *vent clamor* = utter a cry.
- (76) *recreant* = traitor, unfaithful person.
- (77) *On thy allegiance* (to forswear).
- (78) *strained* = forced (and so excessive).
- (79) *sentence* = judgment, decree.
- (80) *Our potency made good* = my royal authority being now asserted.
- (81) *for provision* = for making preparation.
- (82) *diseases* = troubles (the word is used metaphorically).
- (83) *trunk* = body.
- (84) *Sith* = since (*conjunction*).
- (85) *approve* = prove true.
- (86) *effects* = results, consequences.
- (87) *shape... course* = pursue his customary way.

PART FIVE

WHO'S WHO IN THIS HISTORY

Ælfric (c. 955 - c. 1010). Writer and ecclesiastic, called Grammaticus. A monk at Winchester and later abbot of Cerne and the Eynsham, Ælfric was the finest prose stylist of late Anglo-Saxon England. His works include the *Catholic Homilies* (two sets of sermons), *Lives of the Saints* and a Latin Grammar.

Æthelred (II) the Unready (c. 968 - 1016). King of England (978 -1013, 1014 - 16). Æthelred was crowned after his mother, Ælfthryth (or Elfrida), murdered his half-brother Edward the Martyr. Æthelred's blunders earned him the nickname Unready (deriving from the Old English *Redeless*, devoid of counsel) and the weakness of England during his reign encouraged the renewal of the Danish invasions.

At least five times he bought off the Danes with tributes of silver (*danegeld*) and on St. Brice's day 1002 he ordered the massacre of all Danes in his realms. In 1013 Sweyn I Forkbeard of Denmark seized the English throne, but Æthelred was restored after Swain's death (1014).

Alfred the Great (849 -99). King of Wessex (871 - 99), renowned for his defence of England against the Danes and for his encouragement of learning. The Danish invasion of Wessex in 871 ended in inconclusive peace, and in 876 the Danes struck again. Based at Athelney, Alfred harassed the enemy until winning, in 878, the great victory at Edington. It is to this period that the probably apocryphal story (told in the 12th-century *Chronicle of St. Neot's*) of Alfred burning the cakes relates. The subsequent peace with the Danish leader Guthrum gave the Danes control over much of eastern England (*Danelag*), but by 890

Alfred's authority was acknowledged over all the remainder of England.

In the years that followed Edington, Alfred reorganized the *fyrð*, strengthened the system of *burhs* (fortresses), and developed a fleet, which enabled him to repel further Danish invasions in the 890s.

Alfred is largely responsible for the restoration of learning in England after the decay in scholarship which the Norse raids had accelerated.

Alfred's own written works were translations, though he often added new material to his sources. Their order is uncertain, but those that survive are: (1) his translation of Gregory the Great's *Cura Pastoralis*, a manual of instruction for the clergy to which Alfred added a preface describing the contemporary decline in learning and outlining his intention to make education more readily available; (2) a translation of the *Historia Adversus Paganos* by Paulus Orosius, a textbook of universal history to which Alfred added accounts of his experiences of contemporary travellers; (3) a version of Boethius' *De Consolatione Philosophiae*, originally written entirely in prose but with verse renderings of Boethius' metrical passages added later; (4) a translation of Augustine's *Soliloquia*, which was probably Alfred's final work. The last two include much additional material, and his authorship of the last has been questioned, though now it seems likely that he did not write it. Alfred probably had a hand in translating a shortened version of Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, at one time attributed wholly to him but written largely in a dialect not his own. He may have been instrumental in planning the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, begun during his reign, but there is nothing to suggest that he was involved in writing it.

A great deal of information about Alfred is given in *De Rebus Gestis Ælfredi Magni* by Asser, a Welsh monk who became his friend and teacher. Written in Latin, it chronicles Alfred's life from his birth in 887. The account of national events is largely the same as in *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles*, but Asser added a great deal about Alfred's character and actions. This is at times naive, subjective and fulsome in its praise of the king, but nevertheless remains an invaluable source /Ousby 1994, 15/.

Allen, William, Cardinal (1532 - 94). Scholar and polemicist, in exile from 1565. In 1568 he founded a seminary at Douai to train Englishmen as priests. He directed the translation of the Rein-Douai Bible. He arranged the first Jesuit mission to England in 1580. A champion of the cause of Philip II of Spain, he hoped, if Philip's armada succeeded, to become archbishop of Canterbury. He was created a cardinal in 1587.

Bede (673 - 735). Anglo-Saxon historian and scholar, born in Northumbria, who spent most of his life in the monastery at Jarrow. A student of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, he was renowned for his scholarship and was known after his death as the Venerable Bede. *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*, which Bede completed in 731, is the most important history written in England before the 16th century. Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* is not only interesting, it is not only an important historic work, it is a great piece of belles-lettres art, and in this respect Bede may be justly considered as the founder of English literature /Гвоздецкая 1995, 89/. King Alfred supervised its translation into Old English. Bede popularized the method of dating *anno domini* and wrote on a variety of subjects, including physical science, rhetoric, and astronomy.

Cabot, John (c. 1450 - c. 1499). Explorer and navigator. Born in Genoa, he settled in England in 1484.

Under Henry VII's patronage he sailed from Bristol in 1497, with his son Sebastian Cabot (c. 1476 1557). They landed at a place that may have been in southern Labrador, Newfoundland, or Cape Breton Island (the coasts of which Sebastian mapped); the Cabots, however, themselves to be in Asia. John died at sea during a second expedition. Sebastian became cartographer to Henry VIII and, later, governor to Merchants Adventurers.

Cædmon, St. (7th century). Author of the earliest surviving poem in Old English. This work, a nine-line fragment, is known from its transcription by Bede in his *Ecclesiastical History*. Cædmon (according to Bede) was an oxherd on the estates of Whitby abbey who, after miraculously receiving the gift of song, was received as a monk and wrote many poems on religious themes. None of these has, however, been positively identified. Feast day: 11 or 12 Feb.

Cæsar, Julius (102 - 44 BC). Roman general and statesman. In 55 BC, in the course of his conquest of Gaul, Cæsar made his first expedition to Britain but was forced to leave after a few weeks when bad weather damaged his exposed fleet on the Kent coast. The following year he invaded with more troops and, after heavy fighting, defeated the British leader Cassivellaunus, who agreed to pay tribute. A storm once more wrecked most of Cæsar's fleet and he returned to Gaul with great difficulty. **Canute see Cnut.**

Caxton, William (? 1422 - 1497). The first English printer. Born in Kent, he served as a mercer's apprentice before establishing himself in business in Bruges in about 1446. In 1465 he was appointed a governor at the Merchants Adventurers, negotiating commercial treaties on their behalf. He learned the art of printing at Cologne in the early 1470s and in 1476 returned to England. In 1477 the first book was issued from his press at Westminster, Earl Rivers' *Dictes and Sayenges of the Philosophers*. Between then and his death Caxton produced about 80 complete volumes, including Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, and also found time to work on translations. On his death the press was taken over by his chief assistant, Wynkyn de Worde.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (?1340 - 1400). Poet. Son of a London vintner, he entered royal service in 1357. His familiarity with French and Italian literature was acquired on travel abroad on royal business, and while visiting Genoa and Florence (1372 -73) he may have met Boccaccio and Petrarch. In 1374 he became comptroller of customs, a post he held until 1386, and from 1389 to 1391 he was clerk of the king's works. He received a pension from Henry IV in 1399. *The Canterbury Tales* (begun about 1387), his bestknown work, is a collection of 23 stories related by members of a group of pilgrims on their way to Becket's shrine at Canterbury. The real triumph and achievement of *The Canterbury Tales* is

in its astonishing stylistic variety. It is the last work of a writer who had absorbed everything the English, French and Italian traditions could teach him and who was now demonstrating its mastery of narrative. Not only do the *Tales* offer examples of every kind of story told in the Middle Ages - romances, saints' lives, moral tales, stories of sexual trickery or *fabliaux* -but within each of these categories Chaucer rings changes and tests limits. His three *fabliaux*, the *Miller's Tale*, the *Reeve's Tale*, and the *Merchant's Tale*, all show a husband cuckolded by a younger man; yet they are all utterly different in mood and implication /Wells-Cole 1995, ix/.

Clarence, George, duke of (1449 - 1478). Brother of Edward IV. He was lord lieutenant of Ireland from 1462 to 1469, when he married Isabel, eldest daughter of Warwick the kingmaker. Clarence and Warwick twice (1469, 1470) invaded England, but after the restoration of Henry VI Clarence gave his support to Edward, whom he helped to regain the throne (1471). Quarrels between the brothers culminated in Clarence's attainder for plotting by necromancy Edward's death. Clarence was executed by drowning according to rumour.

Cnut (or **Canute**) (c. 994 - 1035). King of Denmark and England. He accompanied his brother Sweyn Forkbeard on his invasion of England (1013) and was chosen king of Denmark (1014) on Sweyn's death. A protracted struggle with Edmund Ironside, king of Wessex, for control of England ended with Edmund's murder in 1016, and Cnut was crowned in 1017. In the same year he married Emma, the widow of Æthelred II, and by the early 1020s was depending on English more than Danish advisers. His reign was marked by legal and military reforms and, apart from an expedition to Scotland in 1027, internal peace. The famous story of how Cnut demonstrated to flatterers the limitation of his powers, by failing to make the waves recede, was told by Henry the Huntingdon.

Coverdale, Miles (? 1488 - 1569). Translator of the Bible. A zealous Protestant, Coverdale was briefly bishop of Exeter (1551 - 53). His translation of the Bible, published in Zurich 1535, was the first complete printed English Bible.

Cranmer, Thomas (1489 - 1556). Archbishop of Canterbury (1533 - 56). In 1529, at the request of Henry VIII, he prepared a treatise justifying the invalidity of the king's marriage to Catherine of Aragon. After becoming archbishop he declared it void and then pronounced that the marriage of Henry and Anne Boleyn was valid. He exerted an enormous influence on the English Reformation. After the accession of Edward VI he was largely responsible for the two *Books of Common Prayer* (1549, 1552) and 42 articles (1553). After the succession of Mary he was burned at the stake.

Egbert *see* **Egbert**.

Edward II (1284 - 1327). King of England (1307 - 27), son of Edward I and Eleanor of Castile. Born in Caernarfon, he was the first English prince of Wales (1301 - 07). In 1308 he married Isabel of France. Initially England rejoiced at the accession of the handsome young king, but his extravagance and foolishness made his reign a troubled one. His infatuation with Piers Gaveston angered the barons, who in 1308 forced the king to banish his favourite to Ireland. Gaveston's return in 1309 was one of the provocations that led to the appointment of the *lords ordainers*, who forced the king to accept the limitations on royal power contained in the *Ordinances* (1311). Gaveston was again banished, and his return together with Edward's attempts to evade the Ordinances led to civil war (1312). Gaveston was executed and the disastrous Scottish campaign, notably the defeat at Bannockburn (1314), so weakened Edward's position that yielded his authority to his chief opponent and cousin, Thomas, earl of Lancaster. By 1316, however, the king had regained much of his power from the incompetent Thomas and in 1318 found a new favourite, the young Hugh le Despenser. Renewed baronial complaints led to the banishment of Despenser and his father (1321). In 1322 the king recalled them and successfully renewed the war against the barons, capturing and beheading Thomas of Lancaster. Edward was now able to revoke the Ordinances, only to encounter opposition from his wife. In 1325 Queen Isabel, furious at the loss of her estates and humiliated by the king's love for the young Despenser, went to France. There she fell in love with Roger de Mortimer, a bitter enemy of the Despensers. In 1326 Isabel and Mortimer invaded England and 1327 deposed Edward, who died, probably murdered, in Berkeley castle in Gloucestershire. He was succeeded by his son Edward III.

Edward III (1312 - 77). King of England (1327 - 77), son of Edward II and Isabel of France; he married Philippa of Hainault in 1328. He became king after his mother and her lover, Roger de Mortimer, forced his father to abdicate, but assumed personal control of the administration only in 1330, when he had Mortimer executed. Edward did much to revive the prestige of the English monarchy after his father's disastrous reign. He conciliated the barons, pursued an enlightened commercial policy, and reorganized the navy. His reign, however, was dominated by his wars with Scotland and France. He sought to undermine Scottish independence, supporting the coronation of Edward Balliol in 1332 and twice defeating Edward's rival David II - at Halidon Hill (1333) and at Neville's Cross (1336), when David was taken prisoner. In 1337 Edward led England into the Hundred Years' War against France, claiming not only full sovereignty over Aquitaine but also the French throne, taking (1340) the title *King of France*. He was initially successful, winning notable victories at Sluys, at sea (1340), and Crecy (1346) and conquering Calais (1347). In 1355 he resumed hostilities against France to protect his French domains, and at the great victory at Poitiers (1356) King John II of France was captured. His next campaign (1359 - 60) failed and by the treaty of Bretigny (1360) he renounced his claim to the French throne in exchange for recognition of his full sovereignty over his French domains. In the last years of his reign he

became increasingly senile and fell under the influence of his mistress Alice Perrers, while government was largely in the hands of his fourth son, John of Gaunt.

Edward the Confessor, St. (1003 - 66). King of England (1042 - 1066). Son of Æthelred the Unready and Emma, daughter of Richard II, duke of Normandy, during Cnut's reign Edward lived in exile in Normandy. He was crowned in 1043 and in 1045 married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwine. Thereafter Godwine's family dominated royal policy. Edward lost popularity by placing Normans in high offices in an attempt to counterbalance Godwine's influence. Tension between the two parties led to Godwine's brief exile (1051), but he quickly re-established supremacy. In his last years Edward increasingly turned from secular affairs, control of the country being left to the great earls, such as Godwine's son Harold. Famed for his asceticism and piety, Edward was buried in Westminster abbey (which he founded). He was canonized in 1161. Feast day: 13 Oct.

Edwin (d. 632). King of Northumbria (617 -632). Son of Ælle, king of Deira, he defeated Æthelric, king of neighbouring Bernicia to become king of a united Northumbria. He was ultimately acknowledged as *bretwalda* (overlord) of all England except Kent. In 625 he married Æthelburh, Christian daughter of Æthelbert of Kent, and was converted to Christianity (627) by Paulinus, whom he appointed archbishop of York. He died in battle against Penda of Mercia.

Egbert (or **Egbert**) (d. 839). King of Wessex (802 - 39). Son of vassal king of Kent, Egbert was forced into exile (789) by Offa and lived at the court of Charlemagne until 802, when he was elected king of Wessex. In 825 he defeated Beornwulf of Mercia at the battle of Ellendun, and 828 he temporarily annexed Mercia. Northumbria recognized his lordship and he was styled *bretwalda* (overlord) in 829. However, Wiglaf re-established Mercian independence in 830, and thereafter Egbert was effective ruler only of Wessex and its dependent kingdoms of Surrey, Sussex, Kent, and Essex.

Elizabeth Woodville (c. 1437 -1492). Queen consort of Edward IV, the daughter of Richard Woodville, Earl Rivers. She secretly married Edward IV in 1464 and was crowned the following year. The influence she used in securing favours for her family connections made her enemies and following Edward's death she sought sanctuary at Westminster. She died in Bermondsey abbey.

Gregory I, St. (c. 540 - 604). Pope (590 - 604). A monk, theologian, and one of the greatest of medieval popes, Gregory sent Augustine as missionary to Kent in 596. Feast day: 12 March.

Harold II (?1020 - 66). King of England (Jan. - Oct. 1066). Second son of Earl Godwine, Harold was exiled in the anti-Godwine reaction in 1051 but was restored, after invading England, in 1052. In 1053 he succeeded Godwine as earl of Wessex and thereafter dominated the court and English politics. While at the court of William, duke of Normandy (1064), he swore to aid his accession to the English throne, but on the death of Edward the Confessor he himself became king. He was defeated and killed by William at the battle of Hasting.

Henry III (1207 - 72). King of England (1216 - 72). The son of King John and Isabella of Angouleme, he married Eleanor of Provence in 1236. They had three children: Edward (I), Edmund, and Beatrice. Nine years old at his first accession, during the first Barons' War, the leading figures in his minority were successively, William Marshal, 1st earl of Pembroke (until his death in 1219) and Hubert de Burgh. In 1227 he declared himself of age. His ineffectual government, financial mismanagement, and dependence on foreign favourites (Poitevins) provoked baronial opposition. The Marshal rebellion (1233 - 34) forced him to dismiss Peter des Roches and Peter des Rivaux, but the Savoyard relations of his wife Eleanor of Provence (whom he married in 1236) aroused further anger. When Henry demanded an exorbitant sum to fulfil a promise to finance papal wars in Sicily in return for the Sicilian crown for his son Edmund the conflict came to a head. The barons issued the *Provisions of Oxford* limiting the king's power, and Henry's renunciation of these led to the outbreak of the second Barons' War (1264). In May of that year the baronial leader Simon de Montfort captured the king and his son Edward at the battle of Lewes and ruled England until his death at Evesham in Aug. 1265. In the years of his reign Henry played little part in government, which was largely in the hands of Edward.

Henry V (1387 - 1422). King of England (1413 - 22), son of Henry IV and Mary de Bohun. He was created prince of Wales in 1399 and spent many years fighting the Welsh, notably Owain Glyndwr. In 1415 he resumed the Hundred Years' war against France, demanding the restoration of English domains in France and claiming the French throne. His first campaign led to the capture of Harfleur and the great English victory at Agincourt (1415). His alliance with Burgundy and with the emperor Sigismund greatly strengthened his hand in negotiating the treaty of Troyes (1420), by which the French king Charles VI made Henry his heir and regent of France and betrothed him to his daughter Catherine of Valois. Henry died of dysentery two months before the death of Charles, leaving his infant son Henry VI, as heir to his claims in France.

Henry VI (1421 - 71). King of England (1422 - 61, 1470 - 71). Only son of Henry V and Catherine of Valois, Henry succeeded to the throne while still an infant and a council of regency, headed by his uncles John of Lancaster, Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, governed during his minority (1422 - 37). Henry was crowned at Westminster in 1429 and in Paris, as king of France, in 1430. He had no military or administrative skills and suffered recurrent bouts of insanity, which encouraged the feud between leading magnates that dominated his reign. The conflict between Gloucester and Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester, gave way after their deaths (1447) to the power struggle

between the king's chief minister Edmund Beaufort, duke of Somerset, and Richard, duke of York. In 1453 - 54, during a phase of Henry's mental illness, York obtained the protectorship, but after the king's recovery Beaufort was again in the ascendant. In 1455 the conflict between their two houses, Lancaster and York, erupted in the Wars of the Roses, during which Henry was dominated by his wife Margaret of Anjou, whom he married in 1445. After the Yorkist victories of 1461 the king was deposed by York's son Edward (IV) and fled to Scotland. Returning in 1464, he was captured in the following year and imprisoned. In October 1470, however, Warwick the king-maker secured Henry's restoration (or readeption), which lasted until April 1471, when Edward returned to reclaim the throne. Henry was imprisoned in the Tower, where, after Tewkesbury, he was murdered.

Henry VII (1457 - 1509). The first Tudor king of England (1485 - 1509), son of Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, and Margaret Beaufort. Born during the Wars of Roses, he went into exile in Brittany after the collapse of the Lancastrian cause in 1471. In 1485 he invaded England, landing at Milford Haven in Wales, and Defeated and killed Richard III at Bosworth Field on the 22 August. In October he was crowned and in January 1486 he married Elizabeth of York, thus uniting the houses of Lancaster and York. However, Yorkist plots, notably those of Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, continued to threaten his position for most of his reign. In 1489 Henry negotiated the treaty of Medina del Campo with Spain, which arranged for the marriage of his elder son Arthur to Catherine of Aragon, and in 1496 and 1506 respectively, the *intercursus magnus* and *intercursus malus* with the Netherlands. He also established peace with Scotland (1499), subsequently (1503) marrying his daughter Margaret to James IV. Henry introduced few innovations in government but his shrewd and resolute rule restored order after the Wars of Roses. His efficient, although sometimes unscrupulous, management of finances left a healthy surplus to his successor, his second son Henry VIII.

James VI of Scots and I of England (1566 - 1625). King of Scots (1567 - 1625) and of England and Ireland (1603 - 25). James, the first Stuart king of England, was the son of Mary Queen of Scotland her second husband, Henry, Lord Darnley. When James succeeded to the Scottish throne in 1567, following his mother's enforced abdication, he was only 13 months old. His long and troubled minority saw a succession of regents. Religious and aristocratic factions made various attempts to secure the king's person, and civil war raged until 1573 when the earl of Morton took control of Scotland. In 1586 by the treaty of Berwick James was awarded an English pension; and his cousin Elizabeth I promised not to oppose his claims to the English succession unless he provoked her by his actions in Scotland. This sufficed to ensure James' acquiescence to his mother's execution in 1587 and his neutrality when the Spanish armada sailed against England in the following year. In 1592 James consented to an act of parliament establishing Presbyterianism of Scotland; with the support of Presbyterians he was finally able to subdue the Roman Catholic earls of the north. James did much to improve the system of civil government in Scotland and took the first step towards initiating a regular system of taxation. He married Anne of Denmark in 1589.

When James succeeded to the English throne in 1603, he made it clear that there would be no fundamental alteration to the Elizabethan church settlement and that he believed the Anglican church and the monarchy to be independent. His slogan was "no bishop, no king". One manifestation of the frustration of the religious minorities was the Roman Catholic inspired gunpowder plot of 1604.

James' experience in Scotland failed to prepare him adequately for the English throne. He was soon in conflict with his parliaments (1604 - 11, the 1614 Addled Parliament, and 1621 - 22) on the question of the extent of his sovereignty and its refusal to grant what he considered adequate revenue. On occasion he sought financial independence by means of extraparlimentary levies. His liking for attractive young men, notably such court favourites as Robert Carr and George Villiers (duke of Buckingham), alienated many Englishmen. Soon after his accession James made peace with Spain, realizing England could no longer afford the crippling costs of war. He aspired to the role of the peacemaker of Europe, acceptable to both Catholics and Protestants. His efforts were ruined both by the strength of Protestant opinion in Britain and by the reluctance of Spain to form an alliance with him. After the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (1618) on the Continent, James had to settle for a treaty with the Dutch and a French marriage alliance for his heir Charles.

Offa (d. 796). King of Mercia (757 - 96), Crowned after seizing power in the civil war that followed the death of his cousin Æthelbald. Offa consolidated Mercian power over the southern England as well as extending Mercian influence to the north. His daughters married the kings of Wessex and Northumbria, and Offa's special power in England was recognized by Pope Adrian I. Adrian referred to him as the "king of the English" and agreed to the creation of an archbishop at Lichfield, which freed the Mercian church from the control of Canterbury in Kent. Offa negotiated a commercial treaty with the future emperor Charlemagne on equal terms. He may have built *Offa's dyke* and struck a new coinage, issuing the silver penny, which bore his name and title.

Raleigh, Sir Walter (? 1552 -1618). Courtier and explorer. In 1580s he organized several voyages of discovery along the Atlantic seaboard of North America, but an attempt to colonize a region named Virginia (in honour of Queen Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen) was unsuccessful. In 1592 Raleigh fell out of favour with the queen after marrying Elizabeth Throgmorton, one of her ladies in waiting, and in 1595 set off on a fruitless search for the legendary Eldorado supposedly to be found in Guyana. On his return he played a distinguished part in the Cadiz expedition (1596) and also fought the Spanish in the Azores (1597). In 1603, however, Raleigh was accused of conspiring against James I and was imprisoned in the Tower. There he remained until 1616, when he was released for the purpose of undertaking a second

voyage in search of Eldorado. The expedition ended in the English destruction of a Spanish settlement, and on his return to England Raleigh was executed. His literary works include *The Discovery of the Empire of Guyana* (1596), the *History of the World* (1614), and poetry.

Shakespeare, William (1564 - 1616). Dramatist and poet regarded as the greatest writer in English literature. He was born and educated in Stratford-upon-Avon, had joined the Lord Chamberlain's Men as an actor and playwright by 1592, and became one of the landlords of the new Globe theatre in 1598. Shakespeare's chief English history plays, for which Holinshed is the main source, are *Henry VI*, parts 1 - 3, *Richard III* (1589 - 92), *Richard II*, *Henry IV*, parts 1 - 2 (1594 - 97), *Henry V* (1599), *Macbeth* (1599), and *Henry VIII* (1612 -13).

Between the record of his baptism in Stratford on the 26 April 1564 and the record of his burial in Stratford on 25 April 1616, some forty documents name Shakespeare, and many other name his parents, his children, and his grandchildren. More fact are known about William Shakespeare than about any other playwright of the period except Ben Jonson. The facts should, however, be distinguished from the legends. The latter, inevitably more engaging and better known, tell us that the Stratford boy killed a calf in high style, poached deer and rabbits, and was forced to flee to London, where he held horses outside a playhouse. These traditions are only traditions; they may be true, but no evidence supports them, and it is well to stick to the facts.

Mary Arden, the dramatist's mother, was the daughter of a substantial landowner; about 1557 she married John Shakespeare, who was a glove-maker and trader in various farm commodities. In 1557 John Shakespeare was a member of the Council (the governing body of Stratford), in 1558 a constable of the borough, in 1561 one of the two chamberlains, in 1565 an alderman (entitling him to the appellation "Mr."), in 1568 high bailiff - the town's highest political office, equivalent to mayor. After 1577, for an unknown reason he drops out of local politics. The birthday of William Shakespeare, the eldest son of this locally prominent man, is unrecorded; but the Stratford parish register records that the infant was baptized on 26 April 1564. (It is quite possible that he was born on 23 April, but this date has probably been assigned by tradition because it is the date on which, fifty-two years later, he died.) The attendance records of the Stratford grammar school are not extant, but it reasonable to assume that the son of a local official attended the school and received substantial training in Latin. The masters of the school from Shakespeare's seventh to fifteenth years held Oxford degrees; the Elizabethan curriculum excluded mathematics and the natural sciences but taught a good deal of Latin rhetoric, logic, and literature. On 27 November 1582 a marriage license was issued to Shakespeare and Anne Hathaway, eight years his senior.

Several years later Shakespeare went to London. It is not known how he broke into the London theatres as a dramatist and actor. By 1594 Shakespeare was a member of the company of actors known as the Lord Chamberlain's Men. After the accession of James I, in 1603, the company would have the sovereign for their patron and would be known as the King's Men. During the period of its greatest prosperity, this company would have as its principal theatres the Globe and the Blackfriars. Shakespeare was both an actor and a shareholder in the company. Tradition has assigned him such acting roles as Adam in *As You Like It* and the Ghost in *Hamlet*, a modest place on the stage that suggests he may have had other duties in the management of the company. Such conclusions, however, are based on surmise.

What is known well is that his plays were popular and that he was highly successful in his vocation. His first play may have been *The Comedy of Errors*, acted perhaps in 1591. The three parts of *Henry VI* were acted sometime between 1590 and 1592. *Richard III* probably dates from 1593. From this time onward, Shakespeare's plays followed on the stage in rapid succession: *Titus Andronicus*, *The Taming of the Shrew*, *The Two Gentlemen of Verona*, *Love's Labour's Lost*, *Romeo and Juliet*, *Richard II*, *A Midsummer*

Night's Dream, *King John*, *The Merchant of Venice*, *Henry IV (Parts 1 and 2)*, *Much Ado About Nothing*, *Henry V*, *Julius Caesar*, *As You Like It*, *Twelfth Night*, *Hamlet*, *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, *All's Well That Ends Well*, *Measure for Measure*, *Othello*, *King Lear*, and nine others that followed before Shakespeare retired completely, about 1613 /Barnet 1963, vii - xiii; Wright, LaMar 1960, xxxi - xxxviii/.

William (I) the Conqueror (1028 - 87). The first Norman king of England (1066 - 87). Illegitimate son of Robert, duke of Normandy, he married his cousin Matilda of Flanders in 1053. They had four children: Robert, William, Henry, and Adela. William succeeded his father as duke of Normandy in 1035 but was not able to exert full control over his territories until 1047. He visited Edward the Confessor of England in 1051, when he was almost certainly promised the English throne. In 1066, with the backing of the papacy, William claimed his right and landed an invasion force at Pevensey, Sussex. He defeated and killed his rival, King Harold, at Hastings in October and then formally accepted the kingdom at Berkhamsted before being crowned in Westminster Abbey at Christmas Day. The Norman conquest was not, however, complete. William faced a number of English revolts during the years 1067 to 1071, which he effectively, if ruthlessly, crushed. Furthermore, the subjection of the new kingdom involved the introduction of Norman personnel and social organization (feudalism), as well as administrative and legal practices. The effect of the conquest on English culture was considerable. William's reign witnessed reforms in the church under his trusted adviser Lanfranc, who became archbishop of Canterbury in 1070, and, most notably, the compilation of the *Domesday Book* (1086). William spent most of the last 15 years of his life in Normandy and died of an injury received while campaigning against Philip I of France. He was buried in St. Stephen's church at Cæn.

Wulfstan, St. (c.1009 - 1095). Bishop of Worcester from 1062. Educated at Avesham and Peterborough. Wulfstan was the last of the Anglo-Saxon bishops. A supporter of William I, who allowed him to retain the bishopric, Wulfstan, although unlearned, was an excellent administrator and was also noted for his pastoral activities. He rebuilt Worcester cathedral and brought an end to the slave traffic at Bristol. Feast day: 19 Jan.

Wycliffe (or Wyclif), John (c. 1330 - 1384). Church reformer, who inspired the Lollards. Born in Yorkshire, he was educated in Oxford and became master of Balliol College in about 1360. In 1374 he was made rector of Lutterworth. In *De dominio divino* and *De dominio civil* (c. 1376) he argued that the church should not interfere in temporal affairs nor have temporal possessions. After the development of the great schism in the western church he attacked the claims to authority of the papacy and denied the doctrine of transubstantiation. He is best remembered for supervising the translation of the Bible into English.

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Exercises in the History of English (The Common Germanic and Old English Periods)

Old Germanic Languages

- (1) Объясните явление общегерманского преломления и покажите, как оно проявляется в следующих глагольных формах:
 OE būzan – bēaz – buzon- bozen, Goth. biugan - bauh- bugum- bugans “to bow”
 OE beodan - bead - budon — boden, Goth biudan - baud - budum — budans “to bide”
- (2) Дайте древнеанглийские соответствия латинским словам gnoscu, caput, quod. Дайте их славянские соответствия. Чем вызваны изменения согласных?
- (3) Приведите примеры местоимений общиндоевропейского происхождения. (4) Какие из нижеприводимых рядов иллюстрируют действие закона К. Вернера?
 OE freosan - freas - fruron — froren, OE steorfan - stearf - sturfon — storfen, OE standan - stod - stodon — standen, OE slean - sloh - slahon - slegen
- (5) Объясните соответствия согласных в следующих парах слов:
 OE stede - Lat status
 OE nefa - Lat nepos
 OE tacen - Lat digitus
 OE heorte - Lat cordis
- (6) Как соотносятся русское слово "пламя" и английское “flame”? (7) Определите, причину удлинения корневого гласного в следующих словах: OE брег (Gth anþar) OE ūs (OHG uns) OE fif (Gth fimf) (8) Как отражается общиндоевропейский [e] в германских языках?

- (9) Найдите таблицу соответствия готских и древнеанглийских гласных и дайте древнеанглийские эквиваленты следующим готским словам: Goth. *haitan* «звать», Goth. *daups* «мертвый», Goth. *silba* «себя», Goth. *braiþs* «широкий», Goth. *arjan* «пахать» (10) Объясните соотношение корневых гласных в следующих корреляциях: Goth *quidan* - OE *swedan*, OHG *quedan*, Goth *hilpan* - OE *helpan*, OHG *helfan*
- (11) По форме прошедшего времени (в скобках) определите, какие из приведенных готских глаголов являются сильными, а какие слабыми: Goth *satjan* "сажать" (*satida*) Goth *slahan* "бить" (*sloh*) Goth *niman* "брать" (*nam*) Goth *bindan* "связывать" (*band*) Goth *fiskon* "рыбачить" (*fiskoda*) Goth *quidan* "сказать" (*quad*) (12) Приведите примеры существительных с основой на -n- в германских языках.
- (13) Приведите пары однокоренных слов в древнеанглийском и древневерхненемецком языках, которые иллюстрировали бы явление второго передвижения согласных.
- (14) Определите тип склонения прилагательного в следующих сочетаниях OE *þa zelearnedestan men* (те учнейшие мужи), OE *zeonze seoglas* (молодые парни) OE *se micla here* (то большое войско)
- (15) Приведите примеры случаев отсутствия передвижения согласных в германских языках.
- (16) К какому индоевропейскому типу основы восходят существительные *пламя*, *имя*, *flame*, *name*?
- (17) Чем объясняется долгота корневого гласного в форме прошедшего времени *þohte* глагола *þencean*?
- (18) По форме прошедшего времени (в скобках) определите, какие из приведенных готских глаголов являются сильными, а какие слабыми:
 Goth *ligan* - *lag* (лежать)
 Goth *fullnan* - *fullnoda* (наполнять)
 Goth *stilan* - *stal* (красть)
 Goth *rinnan* - *ran* (бежать)
 Goth *habban* - *habaida* (иметь)
 Goth *reisan* - *rais* (подниматься) (19) Объясните соответствия согласных в следующих парах слов:
 OE *hwaet* - Lat *quod*, Goth *itan* - Lat *edo*, Goth *kniu* - Lat *genu*, OE *fotus* - Greek *podos*
- (20) Найдите таблицу соответствия готских и древнеанглийских гласных и дайте древнеанглийские эквиваленты следующим готским словам: *Glh hailis*, *Gth hauhs*, *Glh liufs* (21) Определите тип склонения прилагательного в следующих сочетаниях:
 OE *for ðam wundorlican sleje* (от того ужасного сражения)
 OE *heah beorg* (высокая гора)
 OE *þone heofonlican god* (того небесного господина).
 OE *fela manna* (многих людей)
 OE *for þam eoldan gewunan* (по тому старому обычаю)
 OE *earme menn* (бедные люди)

Peculiarities of Old English

Phonology

- (22) Прочитайте слова, обращая внимание на произношение фрикативных согласных *f*, *s*, *þ*: OE *weorþan* (to become), OE *wisdom*, OE *seosan* (to choose), OE *baþian* (to bathe), OE *ofer* (over), OE *lufian* (to love). Объясните правила произношения щелевых согласных в интервокальных позициях.
- (23) Какие звуки передаются буквой *z* в следующих словах: OE *læzen* (*lay*), *twenig* (*twenty*), *buþan* (*bow*), *secþan* (to say), *zelifan* (to believe), *zislas* (*isles*), *zrund* (*ground*).
- (24) Какое комбинаторное изменение иллюстрируют следующие пары слов: OE *siolufr* <*silufr*, (*silver*) OE *swiucu* < *swicu* (*mercury*) (25) Как произносится буква *f* в древнеанглийских словах? Объясните почему.
- (26) Гласные корня приведенных слов являются результатом переднеязычной перегласовки. Восстановите исходный гласный и приведите однокоренные слова из других германских языков с исходной огласовкой. OE *lyft* «воздух», *hebban* «иметь», *dēman* «судить», *zylde* «золотой»
- (27) Чем объясняется несовпадение согласных у английского *church* и немецкого *Kirche*?

(28) Определите, как соотносятся корневые гласные и согласные в приведенных готских и древнеанглийских словах: Объясните соотношение s — r : Gth hausjan — OE hyran «слушать», Gth raisjan - OE rægan «поднимать», OE læran – Goth laisjan «учить», OE māra - Goth. maisa «больше», OE ieldra – Goth. aldiza «старше».

(29) Объясните происхождение дифтонга в следующих словах, восстановите исходный гласный:

OE eahte (Gth ahtau),	OE earm
OE feohtan,	OE heofon OE
OE feallan (OHG fallan),	seond
OE bearn (Gth barn),	OE eorþa
OE steorre (Gth stairra),	OE healf,
OE cneoht,	OE sciold,
OE heorde,	OE cierran
OE feallan,	

(30) Какой согласный существовал вместо сибиланта в словах shake, shame, shield в древнеанглийском?

(31) Объясните несовпадение корневых гласных в следующих однокоренных словах: OE tellan - OE talu?

(32) Как произносится s в формах глагола "быть" OE wesan – OE wæs? (33) Объясните соответствия между словами:

OE sunn	- Gth kuni
OE drefan	- Gth drobian
OE zelifan, zelyfan	- Gth galaubjan
OE steoran	- Gth stiuran

(34) Приведите варианты написания фонемы /a/ перед носовыми согласными в древнеанглийском.

(35) Объясните, почему формы hæfd и habban древнеанглийского глагола имеют разную огласовку.

(36) В древнеанглийском слова strong и long имели написание через "a" (OE stranz, OE lanz). Чем объясняется более позднее написание и современное произношение этих слов с "o"?

(37) Какой звук соответствует букве a в следующих словах OE: and, danc, land, standan, mann, wandrian?

(38) Ниже приводятся пары однокоренных слов из готского и древнеанглийского языков. Определите, какое из слов готское, а какое древнеанглийское. Укажите фонетические признаки, которыми вы руководствовались. leas — laus, fairra — feor, baug — beaz, kusum — curon, weordan — wairdan, bandi — bend, slean — slahan, augo — eaze.

(39) Какой из позиционных вариантов фонемы /k/ реализуется в словах OE folc, OE cild, OE ceapian, OE clift, OE sceacan, OE castel?

Morphology Имя существительное

(40) Дайте форму именительного падежа множественного числа существительных среднего рода с основой на -a- OE dæl и OE deor. (41) Определите тип склонения и род следующих существительных. Переведите слова. Образуйте формы множественного числа в именительном падеже: OE sceap, OE hand, OE heafod, OE seolh, OE eage, OE fader, OE æz, OE mann, OE boc, OE wez и OE stan.

(42) Дайте историческое объяснение совпадению форм единственного и множественного числа в современном английском у таких слов, как swine, deer, sheep.

(43) Просклоняйте существительные с основой на -a- : OE hrinz (м.р.) и OE zeos (ср.р.). В каких падежах их формы сходны, а в каких нет?

(44) Найдите в приведенном фрагменте текста существительное и определите его форму...ic bebiode on zodes papa...

(45) Существительные OE āc 'oak', OE hnutu 'nut', OE zōs 'goose', OE tōþ 'tooth', OE mūs 'mouse' относятся к существительным с корневой основой. Дайте формы именительного и винительного падежей/множественного числа этих существительных. Восстановите гипотетические формы, предшествующие этому изменению.

(46) Какие основы существительных были индуцирующими (сильными, продуктивными) в древнеанглийском языке? На какие основы они влияли? (47) Найдите в приведенном отрывке текста существительное и определите его форму:

... zif we da stilnesse habad...

Ponne is toemnes þæm lande sudewardum, on oðre healfe þæs mores swa þæt hi mostan heora ealdrihta wyrde beon.

- (48) Просклоняйте существительные OE *dæg*, OE *scip* и OE *caru*.
- (49) Образуйте форму дательного падежа (ед. и мн. число) следующих существительных: OE *hnutu*, *mus*, *seolh*.

Глагол (50) Дайте формы прошедшего времени следующих древнеанглийских слабых глаголов: OE *folzian* (2 кл.), OE *bærnan* (I кл.), OE *fremman* (I кл.), OE *losian* (2 кл.), OE *þencan* (1 кл., неправ.), OE *tellan* (count, account, I кл., неправ.).

(51) Определите гласные по аблауту и усложнители в основных формах глаголов OE *bindan* и OE *weordan*? К каким классам они принадлежат?

(52) К каким грамматическим формам древнеанглийских глаголов восходят современные модальные глаголы *must*, *can*, *could*, *may*, *ought*, *shall*, *dare*?

(53) Определите класс следующих древнеанглийских сильных глаголов и дайте их основные формы: OE *writan*, OE *findan*, OE *helpan*, OE *steorfan*, OE *stelan*, OE *beran*, OE *cwedan*, OE *standan*

(54) Дайте формы прошедшего времени аномальных глаголов OE *wyrcean* и OE *don*.

(55) Дайте основные формы сильные глаголы первого класса OE *lidan*, *licgan*, *risan*, *sittan* и слабые глаголы первого класса OE *lædan*, *læzan*, *a-gæran*, *ze-settan*. Объясните, как они соотносены между собой (Подсказка: эти слабые глаголы называются каузативными).

(56) Определите грамматическую форму следующих древнеанглийских глаголов: OE *abead* (сильн.), *sente* (слаб.), *ah* (претеритопрезентный), *bebude* (сильн.), *begunnen* (сильн.), *droz* (сильн.), *ist* (сильн.).

(57) Образуйте слабый глагол первого класса от существительного OE *lag* (ж.р. -o-). Дайте основные формы этого глагола.

(58) Определите по суффиксу инфинитива, к каким классам относятся следующие слабые глаголы: OE *sendan*, *forspendan*, *timbrian*, *badian*, *searþian*, *deman*, *testan*.

(59) Образуйте форму прошедшего времени единственного числа от следующих древнеанглийских глаголов: OE *sincan*, *hatan*, *stellan*, *duzan*, *zearwian*, *cyssan*, *slean*, *teran*, *treðan*, *steorfan*, *libban*, *willan*.

(60) Объясните огласовку глагола OE *leornian*. Определите класс и дайте основные формы.

(61) Дайте формы прошедшего времени следующих слабых глаголов: OE *felan* (1 кл.), *folzian* (2 кл.), *brennan* (1 кл.), *fremman* (1 кл.), *losian* (2 кл.).

(62) Дайте основные формы слабых глаголов первого класса OE *swirman*, *styrian*, *todigfan*, *hydan*.

(63) Определите класс древнеанглийского сильного глагола *ziefan* и дайте все его грамматические формы.

(64) К какой морфологической группе относится глагол OE *witan* (наст. вр. - *wat*, прош. вр. - *wiste*)? С каким классом сильных глаголов он соотносится? Чем объясняется появление "s" в форме прошедшего времени? Что означает современное выражение *to wit*, существительное *wit*?

(65) Проспрягайте неправильный глагол OE *don*.

(66) Как объясняется наличие соединительного гласного в спряжении ид-ной группы древнеанглийских слабых глаголов I класса и отсутствие его в другой группе? Чем объясняется наличие соединительного гласного у всех древнеанглийских глаголов II класса? Например: OE *locian* (смотреть), прош. вр. ед.ч. - *locode*?

Прилагательное. Местоимение

(67) Просклоняйте следующие сочетания прилагательных с существительными (по сильному и слабому склонению): OE *haliz mann*, OE *heah beoft*, OE *micel humor*.

(68) Приведите формы дательного падежа следующих местоимений: OE *ic*, *þu*, *he*, *heo*, *hit*.

(69) Образуйте сравнительную и превосходную степени от следующих прилагательных: OE *zod*, *lanz*, *lytel*, *eald*, *blæc*, *micel*, *swete*, *earn*.

- (70) Какие фонетические спонтанные и комбинаторные изменения обусловили смену гласного в сравнительной и превосходной степенях сравнения прилагательных: lang – lengra – lengest, strang (strong) – strengra – strengest, eald – ieldra – ieldest? Восстановите гипотетические формы, предшествующие этим изменениям.
- (71) Определите падежную форму следующих местоимений: OE *hy*, *þæm*, *hwilcum*, *þa*, *hit*, *sume*.
- (72) Определите род, число, падеж и тип склонения прилагательного: OE *ac ic sceal from lice feþemundum þurh stearne beorg straete wurgan*.
- (73) Просклоняйте следующие сочетания слов: OE *ealle þis land* (a-, ср.п.), *lytel scip* (a-, ср.п.), OE *swift hors* (-a-, ср.п.), *þes hefca oxa* (-n-, м.р.), OE *hwu tod* (корн., м.р.), *se smala fisc* (-a-, м.р.), OE *seo zreate cu* (корн., ж.р.), *deor wund* (-o-, ж.р.).
- (74) Определите тип местоимения и его форму: OE *...wit eft cumad, siddan wit aerende uncer tweza...*
- (75) Образуйте степени сравнения прилагательного OE *neah*. (76) Определите род, число и падеж существительных в следующих слово сочетаниях: OE *blind deor*, OE *blindena deora*, OE *hira manna*, OE *dam naman*, OE *þæt dazum*, OE *blacum wulfum*, OE *cuninzes secza*, OE *daere dura*, OE *þone here*, OE *þa swih*, OE *þa boc*, OE *þa bee*, OE *ieldra cwen*
- (77) Просклоняйте прилагательное OE *full* в сильном склонении. Дайте степени сравнения этого прилагательного.
- (78) Определите тип местоимения и его форму: OE *... And he gelähte þa sona sumes assan cinban, þe he Jär fände, and gefeagt wid hie and ofsloh an þüsend mid þas assan cinbane*.
- (79) Определите падежную форму местоимения OE *hine*. Дайте всю парадигму склонения личного местоимения.
- (80) Определите падежную форму следующих местоимений: OE *hiera*, *ure*, *disse*.