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ЭЛЕКТРОННЫЙ УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ «История языка»

для специальности 1-21 06 01 Современные иностранные языки (по направлениям) направления специальности 1-21 06 01-01 Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)

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Электронный учебно-методический комплекс предназначен для студентов 3-го курса специальности 1-21 06 01 Современные иностранные языки (по направлениям), выпускаемых факультетом социокультурных коммуникаций БГУ. Содержание ЭУМК предполагает знакомство с основными понятиями и закономерностями эволюции английского языка, этапами его развития и состоянием его фонетической, грамматической и лексической систем на каждом его этапе, а также знакомство с отрывками из наиболее известных памятников письменности на древне-английском, среднеанглийском и ранненово-английском языках в сравнении с современным английским языком. ЭУМК состоит из четырех разделов: теоретического, практического, контроля знаний и вспомогательного. ЭУМК содержит конспект лекций по дисциплине, темы и задания для семинарских занятий, тесты для проверки знаний студентов, вопросы для подготовки к экзамену, учебную программу дисциплины и др.

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ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

Практическое изучение иностранного языка будущего специалиста в области лингвистики неразрывно связано с изучением теоретических вопросов истории развития языка. Необходимо ознакомить студентов с основными понятиями и закономерностями эволюции языка, этапами развития английского языка, а также состоянием его фонетической, грамматической лексической систем каждом этапе И на древнеанглийском, среднеанглийском и ранненовоанглийском. Будущий специалист-лингвист должен быть знаком с отрывками из наиболее древнеанглийском, памятников письменности на известных среднеанглийском и ранненовоанглийском языках, должен уметь анализировать языковые формы и синтаксические конструкции, должен проследить эволюцию системы правописания.

Электронный учебно-методический комплекс «История языка» способствует решению поставленной задачи и предназначен для студентов по направлению подготовки 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные языки (преподавание)».

Данный комплекс разработан в соответствии с Положением БГУ об учебно-методическом комплексе по учебной дисциплине №497-ОД от 10.10.2013 и состоит из четырех разделов: теоретического, практического, контроля знаний и вспомогательного. Теоретический раздел содержит конспект лекций, структурированный В соответствии с учебной программой дисциплины, и презентации к некоторым лекциям. В практическом разделе представлены темы практических занятий, а также примеры заданий с ссылками на аудио- и видеоматериалы в сети Интернет. Раздел контроля знаний содержит различные тесты для промежуточного контроля знаний студентов, перечень вопросов для подготовки к экзамену, а также перечень тем рефератов (презентаций). Вспомогательный раздел учебной представлен программой дисциплины, включающей содержание учебного материала, пояснительную записку, учебнометодическую карту И список литературы.

1.1 КОНСПЕКТ ЛЕКЦИЙ ПО ИСТОРИИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

List of abbreviations

EL – the English language Eng - English Gr – Greek GL – Germanic language(s) Goth – Gothic HEL – the History of the English language IE – Indo-European Lat – Latin ME(P) – Middle English (period) ModE(P) – Modern English (period) NE(P) – New English (period) OE(P) – Old English (period) PG – Proto-Germanic Rus – Russian Sans - Sanskrit

Topic 1. Introduction to the course: "The history of the English language"

- 1. The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the history of the English language (HEL)
- 2. Methods of studying the HEL
- 3. Sources of studying the HEL
- 4. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people
- 5. The periodization of the HEL

1 The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the HEL

Any language can be studied in different aspects: 1) phonetics; 2) grammar; 3) word stock (vocabulary). The aim of this course is to study different linguistic processes, to show causes and ways of formation of specific linguistic features of the EL.

The history of the EL is closely connected with cognate languages. In the process of the development of the EL two main trends can be observed: 1) the appearance of new forms and words; 2) the disappearance of the obsolete forms.

1) <u>Phonetics and spelling</u>. English spelling is difficult because it is more traditional, more conventional than phonetics. The value of Latin letters differs from their value in other cognate languages, such as German or French: *bite* -4 letters, 3 sounds; *night* -5 letters, 3 sounds. Sound system changes rather slowly because it must constantly preserve the contrast between the phonemes that are essential to the differentiation between morphemes.

2) <u>Grammar.</u> During the historical development of the EL some grammatical forms appeared, others became obsolete and disappeared. Every language has an organized structure of grammar. Any changes meet all these requirements and correlate with the norms of the language. Some changes meet exceptions: *a book – books*, but *a woman – women. The lady doth protest too much.* Grammar changes very slowly because grammar structure provides frames and patterns for other systems of the language.

3) <u>Word stock.</u> It's a part of the language that changes more rapidly. In the process of the English development a lot of words of French origin appeared in the EL. The fact that words of the French origin occur very often in the English word stock proves that the process of borrowings is a characteristic feature in a language. Changes in the vocabulary can be observed during the lifetime of one generation: borrowing of a coined word can appear as the result of achievements in technological, economical, computer spheres of life.

It is necessary to state that changes in the word stock are also caused by changes in the linguistic groups to which a language belongs. But all alterations in the word stock do not break up the language system, they support it and show how it works.

Conclusion: A language is non-static. Changes are taking place at all levels of the language. The nature of linguistic changes is mainly determined by its characteristics and its functions in the society (communicative, expressive, etc.).

2. Methods of studying the HEL

Any language can be investigated with the help of two main scientific approaches: 1) synchronic; 2) diachronic. According to <u>the synchronic approach</u>, all linguistic factors of modern English are analyzed. According to <u>the diachronic approach</u>, any language phenomenon is treated as part of ever-lasting process and evolution.

In order to learn as much as possible about the language, its necessary to analyze linguistic factors not only from the point of the synchronic approach, but also with the help of the diachronic one. The division between synchronic and diachronic approaches is conventional. This division exists more in theory than in practice.

In the diachronic approach to studying the language two main methods are used: the comparative method and the internal reconstruction method. <u>The comparative method</u> compares variations between different languages. For example, full cognates have similar phonetic and semantic structure and share the same etymology: Lat. *padre*, Eng. *father*, Gr. *vater*, etc.; root cognates have the same origin but only in their root: Lat. <u>deus</u>, Sanskrit <u>devah</u>, Eng. <u>divine</u>.

<u>The internal reconstruction method</u> compares variant forms within a single language under the assumption that they descend from a single, regular form.

3. Sources of studying the HEL

The studying of the HEL is based on different English historical documents and English texts which formed the English language: for example, "The Song of Beowulf"; King's Alfred translation of Orosius's "Universal History"; Chaucer's "The Canterbury Tales"; W. Shakespeare's "Hamlet".

4. The connection between the HEL and the history of its people

All linguistic alterations are interconnected or closely connected with the events which take place in the political, economical, cultural life of people, i.e. with the history of the country. As a result, new words and word combinations appear in a language in order to name the things that exist in different periods of the development of the country.

Example: During the reign of the Normans, many words related to the ruling classes and the business of government entered English from French. Among these words are: *attorney, bailiff, baron, city, conservative, countess, county, damage, duchess, duke, empire, executive, felony, govern, judicial, jury, justice, legislative, liberal, marriage, nobility, parliament, perjury, petty, prince, prison, regal, representative, republic, royal, senator, sovereign, state, traitor, viscount.*

5. The periodization of the HEL

The history of English is divided into three periods usually called Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English.

The periods of English:

1) 450-1100 -Old English (OE) – the language of Beowulf. Beowulf is an anonymous Old English epic poem in alliterative verse, believed to have been composed in the 8th century A.D.

2) 1100–1500 – **Middle English** (ME) – The language of Geoffrey Chaucer (?1340-1400), the English poet who wrote "The Canterbury Tales".

3) 1500-till today – Modern English (ModE, or NE):

3.1. 1500–1650 – Early Modern English (or Renaissance English) – the language of William Shakespeare.

3.2. 1650 – Present Modern English (or Present-Day English) – the language as spoken today.

This periodization is conventional and based on the historical events of the country.

Topic 2. The English language as a Germanic language

- 1. Subdivision of Germanic languages (GLs)
- 2. Basic features of GLs in phonetics
- 3. Basic grammatical features of GLs
- 4. Germanic word-formation and vocabulary
- 5. Germanic alphabets

1. Subdivision of GLs

English belongs to a group of related languages, which have descended from common Germanic, or Proto-Germanic (PG) as a distinct branch of Indo-European (IE) family of languages. Ethnic and linguistic disintegration resulted in division into three subgroups of GLs:

- 1) <u>East Germanic</u>: Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian. All are dead.
- 2) North Germanic: Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish.
- 3) <u>West Germanic</u>: English, German, Frisian, Afrikaans and others.

In spite of this subdivision GLs make a distinct group with the IE linguistic family due to their common features in: 1) phonetics; 2) grammar; 3) vocabulary. These features were either inherited from the Proto-Germanic parent language or developed parallel in separate GLs later due to their mutual source.

2. Basic features of GLs in phonetics

2.1The 1st Consonant Shift, or Grimm's Law

An essential feature of GLs separating them from other IE languages is their consonantal system, which developed from the original IE system. These regular

correspondences between the consonants of GLs and IELs were discovered and systemized by Jacob Grimm. He found three groups of correspondences and since his time they are referred to as three acts of <u>Grimm's Law</u> (or <u>the 1st</u> <u>Consonant Shift</u>). He discovered that in IE basis the voiceless plosives became voiceless fricatives in all GLs (p - f: penta – five). According to the second act a voiced plosive became voiceless (b - p: slabare – sleep). According to the third act aspirated voiced plosives lost their aspiration ($b^h - b$: $b^h rata - brother$).

IE	G	Examples
/ p /	/ f /	Lat <i>plěnus</i> – Eng <i>full</i>
/ t /	/þ/	Gr <i>tres</i> – Eng <i>three</i>
/ k /	/ h /	Lat <i>noctem</i> – Goth <i>nahts</i>
/ b /	/ p /	Rus болото – Eng pool
/ d /	/ t /	Lat <i>duo</i> – Goth <i>twan</i>
/ g /	/ k /	Lat $ego - OE ic$
/ b ^h /	/ b /	Sans bhratar – Eng brother
/ d ^h /	/ d /	Sans madhu – OE medu
/ g ^h /	/ g /	Lat hostis - Rus гость – Germ gast

There are several theories explaining the origin of the consonant shift. One of the most current is the influence of the so-called substratum (or 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.

2.2Verner's Law

Even after Grimm's explanation there were 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 the voiced [δ] appeared (*Pater – Father*). Instead of an expected voiceless stop a voiced stop would appear in some words. That was explained by *Carl Verner*.

<u>Verner's Law is</u>: unstressed vowel + voiceless stop \rightarrow voiceless fricative \rightarrow voiced fricative \rightarrow voiced stop: $/t/ \rightarrow /b/ \rightarrow /d/$

Example: in the Greek word *patěr* the voiceless stop /t/ was preceded by an unstressed root vowel. Under these conditions the voiceless fricative /b/ which had developed from it in accordance with the 1st consonant shift became a voiced fricative /ð/ and finally it developed into the voiced stop /d/, i.e. Gr *patěr* \rightarrow OE *fæder*.

According to Verner's Law voiceless fricatives /f/, /þ/, /h/ which arose under Grimm's Law, and also /s/ inherited from PIE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless. The consonant pairs involved in grammatical alternation were f/b, þ/d, h/g, hw/w, s/r.

The voicing occurred in PG at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme. The sound /z/ was further affected in western and northern Germanic: $/s/\rightarrow/z/\rightarrow/r/$. This process is known as <u>rhotacism</u>. As a result of voicing by Verner's Law an interchange of consonants in the grammatical forms of the word appeared. Part of the forms retained a voiceless fricative, while other forms – with a different position of stress in Early PG – acquired a voiced fricative.

Examples: *wesan* (быть) – *wæs* (был) – *wæron* (были); *weorþan* (становиться) – *wearþ* (стал) – *wurdon* (стали) – *worden* (превращенный).

Both consonants could undergo later changes in the OG languages, but the original difference between them goes back to the time of movable word stress and PG voicing.

2.3Vowels of GLs

GLs also had some specific features in the system of vowels.

IE short /ŏ/ and /ǎ/ correspond to GLs short /ǎ/: Gr $oct\bar{o}$ – Goth *ahtau*, Rus *ночь* – Germ *nacht*

IE long \bar{o} and long \bar{a} correspond to GLs long \bar{o} : Lat *frāter* – Goth *brōþar* (брат), Lat *flōs* – OE *blōma* (цветок).

Short $|\check{o}|$ & long $|\bar{a}|$ appeared in GLs from inner sources.

2.4Germanic fracture

In GLs the quality of a stressed vowel in some cases depended on the type of the sound that followed it. This dependence is reflected in the notion of <u>fracture</u>. The fracture concerns two pairs of vowels: /e/ & /i/, /u/ & /o/.

In the root syllable IE /e/ = GL /i/, **if** it was followed by 1) /i/ 2) /j/ 3) nasal+consonant, **else** IE /e/ = G /e/.

Examples: Lat *medius* – OE *middle* (середина), Lat *ventus* – OE *wind* (ветер) **but** Lat *edere* – OE *etan* (есть).

IE /u/ = GL /u/ **if** followed by 1) /u/ 2) nasal+consonant, **else** IE /u/ = G /o/. Example: Lat *sunus* – OE *sunu* (сын)

2.5Vowel gradation, or Ablaut

Vowel gradation, or ablaut ("ab" means reducing, "laut" – sound) was inherited by GLs from ancient IE languages. There are two kinds of vowel gradation: qualitative and quantitative.

Qualitative gradation:

Different vowels appear alternatively in various forms of one and the same word: in IE /e/ and /o/, in GL /i/ and /a/.

Examples: *Be3y – BO3, Gepy – Coop, Goth hilpan – halp (preterit sg).*

Quantitative gradation is represented by the alternation of a short vowel with the corresponding long one and also alternation of a short vowel with the zero of the vowel. **Examples:** $6epy - 6pat_b$, OE findan $\rightarrow P2$ fnden \rightarrow fundan.

The origin of gradation has been a matter of discussion for more than 100 years. The prevailing theory is that it might be caused by different stressed conditions:

- the full stress brings the high degree /o/;

- the weakened stress causes the medium degree /e/;

- the unstressed position results in the zero of a vowel.

In GLs vowel gradation was used most constantly in deriving grammatical forms of strong verbs.

2.6 The stress system in GLs

In IELs there were two types of stress: musical pitch and force (dynamic) stress. Besides, in IE the word stress was free. In the GLs it is fixed. 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 (root-syllable). 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 their quality and quantity. Verner's Law, however, shows that the root vowel in GLs might be unstressed and this lead to the conclusion that originally GLs had a free stress system.

3. Basic grammatical features of GLs

3.1 The structure of the word. In IE the words were three-morphemic, i.e. they consisted of a root, a stem suffix and a flexion (ending). This kind of a substantive structure can be seen most clearly in Gothic: daz-a-m. In the GLs words came to be two-morphemic. Many notional words, mostly nouns, lost their suffixes, so they had only a root and an ending.

3.2 The grammatical system. Like many old IELs the old GLs had a well-developed system of grammatical affixes. Thus, the old GLs had a number of noun declensions, verb conjugations and so on. However, there are some grammatical features which are typical only for old GLs: the weak declension of the adjectives which has always been marked by the suffix -n-; the weak

declension marked the definitiveness of the nouns; the weak conjugation of the verbs.

Substantive

- 1. vocalic stems **a**, **o**, **i**, **u** formed strong declension;
- 2. **n-stem** formed the paradigm of weak declension;
- 3. **s/r**–stems;
- 4. **root-stem nouns** which had never had any stem suffix, the root and the stem in these words always coinsice.

In OE, as well as in other GLs, except Gothic, the substantives had two essential parts, because of the stem-suffix having lost its own meaning and united with the case inflexion and could be no longer identified.

Adjective

In GLs adjective declension is represented by

1. <u>strong declension</u> which is a combination of substantival and pronominal endings;

2. <u>weak declenstion</u> which reflected the declension of n-stem substantives.

Adjective declension in all GLs has no parallel with other IE languages.

Verb

The system of verbs of all GLs consisted of 3 types:

- 1. strong verbs,
- 2. weak verbs,
- 3. united preterit-present verbs.

<u>Strong verbs</u> used vowel gradation to derive their preterit and P2. Examples: OE *bindan* (inf) - *bånd* (pret sg) – *bundum* (pret pl) – *bundans* (P2) (ModE bind – связывать).

<u>Weak verbs</u> derived the same forms with the help of a dental suffix –d-. It's phonetic variants were /t/, /d/, / Θ /. Examples: OE *styrian* – *styrede* – *styredon* – *styred* (ModE *stir* – шевелить).

<u>Preterit-present verbs</u> used vowel gradation to derive the forms of the present tense while their form of the preterit was build with the help of the dental suffix. Examples: OE $w\bar{t}an$ (inf) - $w\bar{a}t$ (pres sg) - $w\bar{t}on$ (pres pl) - wiste (pret sg) - wiston (pret pl) - zewiten (P2) (Знать).

3.3 Word order

In IE as it was a highly inflected language word order was free. In the GLs 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.

4. Germanic word-formation and vocabulary

Like any other IE language the GLs have always employed three main word-building devices: affixation, word composition, sound changes (nonproductive).

Considering Germanic word stock we usually distinguish two main layers: native words and borrowings. As to the native words we speak about three subgroups: Indo-European words, words typical of Germanic group, and English proper group.

5. Germanic alphabets

Through the history of their development GLs used 3 different alphabets.

5.1 Runic alphabet

The runes were used as letters, each symbol indicated a separate sound. It is supposed that the runic ABC is based on the Latin or some other Italic alphabet, close to Latin in writing. But the material and technique of writing used by Germanic tribes in their early times caused considerable modifications of Latin in the Runic ABC.

It is supposed that the Runic ABC originated in the 2-3 AD on the banks of the Rhine or the Danube where Germanic tribes could come into contact with the Roman culture. Since the Runic ABC was used by different Germanic tribes (Goths, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians) it was adopted to the needs of each language. New letters were added into it, some of the original fell out.

5.2 Ulphila

Ulphila's Gothic ABC originated in the 4th century. It is based on the Greek ABC but has some Latin and Runic letters. This is the ABC of Ulphila's gothic translation of the Bible. But in modern editions of Gothic texts a Latin transcription of the Gothic ABC is used.

5.3 Latin alphabet

It began to be used when a new technique of writing was introduced, i.e. spreading of colour, paint on the surface instead of cutting and engraving the letters. Introduction of the Latin ABC was stimulated by the spread of Christianity, as Christian religious texts were written in Latin. The Latin ABC was also modified to the peculiar needs of the separate GLs.

Topic 3. The development of the English language: historical conditions and linguistic characteristics

Henry Swead: "OE was the period of full endings, ME was the period of leveled endings and the NE is the period of no endings!"

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders – mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from Englaland and their language was called Englisc – from which the words England and English are derived. Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century.

Traditionally the history of the development of the English language is divided into three main periods:

- 1. The Old English Period (OE) 449 11 century (1066);
- 2. The Middle English Period (ME) 11 century 15 century;
- 3. The Modern English Period (ModE) 15 century up to now.

Each of these periods can be divided into two small periods, ex. OE - Early OE and Late OE.

1. Old English (450-1100 AD)

The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be*, *strong* and *water*, for example, derive from Old English.

From the point of view of the political and social characteristics <u>the OE</u> <u>period</u> was the period of the tribal system. That is the people lived in large clans headed by the leaders. It was the period when they only began to learn to cultivate land.

From the point of view of the linguistic characteristics of the period there was no uniform language. When we speak of the OE language we mean the community of related tongues spoken by the OE tribes. If we consider the language system of the OE period we find that the language of that time was typically synthetic: like all old languages. Each notional part of speech had a great number of grammatical markers (affixes): thus, the noun had nine declensions; the verb had several conjugations. Word order in the sentence was much more free than it is now.

2. Middle English (1100-1500)

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

As to <u>the ME period</u> socially and politically it began as the period of the decay of the tribal system and the formation of feudalism. On the one hand it was progressive for the country but on the other hand it resulted in isolation of different parts of the country which in its turn resulted in the formation of the local dialects.

From the point of view of the development of the language the ME period is characterized as a period of transition from the synthetic structure to the analytical structure which the Modern English language has now. There are two most important processes which effected the language and which are responsible for its change; they are:

- the phonetic process of reduction – unstressed vowels came to be reduced; it was one of the main reasons for dropping of endings;

- the grammatical process of leveling on analogy – the use of different forms according to the same productivity models.

3. Modern English

3.1 Early Modern English (1500-1650)

Early Modern English period of the development of the English nation as a nation from the political point of view and the period of the formation of <u>the</u> <u>uniform literary language</u> and the establishing of <u>the literary norm</u>. Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language.

As the process of the <u>standardization</u> (<u>unification</u>) of the English language was taking place, there were numerous discussions among scholars, writers about the ways of the further English language development. There were three main groups of opinions:

The language can borrow as many words from other languages as possible because it will enrich the language;

English should remain a monosyllabic language and not borrow words from other languages;

The language should develop by itself.

The process of the English language standardization was achieved not by itself but due to the activity of many people. As to the spelling, they were trying to work out certain general fixed rules of spelling, but at the beginning of the Modern English period the spelling still varied from writer to writer.

The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common (uniform) language in print. The first printer was William Caxton. He founded the first printing house. Caxton printed his first book in 1476 in the London dialect which strengthened it. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought <u>standardization</u> to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary "Table Alphabeticall" was published.

3.2 Late Modern English (1650-Present)

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

From around 1600, the English <u>colonization</u> of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example *trash* for rubbish, *loan* as a verb instead of lend, and *fall* for autumn; another example, *frame-up*, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies). Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English), with words like *canyon*, *ranch, stampede* and *vigilante* being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West. French words (through Louisiana) and West African words (through the slave trade) also influenced American English (and so, to an extent, British English). Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

	A brief chronology of English				
BC 55	Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar.				
BC 43	Roman invasion and occupation. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain.	Local inhabitant			
436	Roman withdrawal from Britain complete.	speak Celtish			
449	Settlement of Britain by Germanic invaders begins				
450-480	Earliest known Old English inscriptions.				
1066	William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England.	Old English			
c1150	Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English.				
1348	English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools.				
1362	English replaces French as the language of law. Middle English English is used in Parliament for the first time.				
c1388	Chaucer starts writing The Canterbury Tales.				
c1400	The Great Vowel Shift begins.				
1476	William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.				
1564	Shakespeare is born.				
1604	Table Alphabeticall, the first English dictionary, is published.	Early Modern			
1607	The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established.	English			
1616	Shakespeare dies.				
1623	Shakespeare's First Folio is published				

1702	The first daily English-language newspaper, <i>The Daily Courant</i> , is published in London.	
1755	Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.	
1776	Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of Independence.	
1782	Britain abandons its American colonies.	
1828	Webster publishes his American English dictionary.	
1922	The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded.	Late Modern English
1928	The Oxford English Dictionary is published.	Liigiisii

Topic 4. Phonological history of the English language

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I. OE phonological system

1.1 OE vowel changes

OE vowels made a symmetrical system where short monophthongs were opposed to long ones, and short diphthong were opposed to long diphthongs.

monophthongs	diphthongs
Short a æ e I o u y	ea eo ia io
Long a: æ: e: I: o: u: y:	ea: eo: ia: io:

The main characteristics of OE vowel system:

1. Complete parallelism: opposition of long and short monophthongs, opposition of long and short diphthongs;

2. No reduction of vowels, even in unstressed positions: *sunu* (сын), *nama* (имя);

3. The second element of OE diphthongs was sonorous (later it became glide);

4. The second element was broader (now narrower).

The main sound changes of OE vowel system:

1. <u>Breaking</u>, or <u>Fracture</u> and <u>Diphthongization</u> (the beginning of the 6^{th} century) – some Early OE monophthongs developed into diphthongs.

The front vowels [i], [e] and the newly developed [æ], changed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before [h], before long (doubled) [ll] or [l] plus another consonant, and before [r] plus other consonants, e.g.: [e] > [eo] in OE *deorc*, ModE *dark*. Breaking produced a new set of vowels in OE – the short diphthongs [ea] and [eo]. No immediate traces of breaking can be seen in the modern language due to monophthongization.

2. <u>Palatal mutation</u>, or <u>i-Umlaut</u> (the end of the 6^{th} and the 7^{th} centuries)

Palatal mutation is the fronting and raising of vowels through the influence of [i] or [j] in the following syllable. Due to the palatal mutation many related words and grammatical forms acquired new root-vowel interchanges: e.g. grammatical forms $m\bar{u}s$, $m\bar{y}s$ (NE mouse, mice), $b\bar{o}c$, $b\bar{e}c$ (NE book, books). Traces of palatal mutation are preserved in many modern words and forms, e.g. mouse - mice, foot - feet, blood - bleed.

3. <u>Back mutation</u>, or <u>Velar mutation</u>

Velar mutation is a change of the root vowel caused by the back vowel in the suffix; the front vowel developed into a diphthong: [i] > [io], [e] > [eo], [a] > [ea]. E.g. OE *fer* (поездка) – *feorr* (удаленный). There are no immediate traces of it in the ModE.

4. <u>Lengthening of stressed vowels in the root</u>

Chronologically there were two length enings: the earlier (prehistoric) – III-IV cc, and later – IV c.

The earlier lengthening occurred due to the loss of a consonant:

- dropping of *h*: e.g. Goth. *seohan* - OE *seon* (ModE *see*);

- dropping of a nasal before a fricative: Goth. fimf – OE fif (ModE five).

The second lengthening – the root vowel was lengthened before certain consonant combinations *-ld*, *-nd*, *-md*: e.g. **cild* [*kild] – OE *cild* [k'i:ld] (ModE *child*).

Conclusion. OE short diphthongs represented independent phonemes but not allophones of short vowel. As counter part of the corresponding long diphthongs they conformed the leading principle of the OE vocalic system based on the parallelism of short and long phonemes. After a number of combinative changes the OE vowel system developed certain peculiar phonological features as compared with other Germanic languages.

1.2 OE consonant changes

In the history of the EL consonants turned out to be more stable than vowels. Some of them remained unchanged through the whole period of their existence.

OE consonants can be described on the following grounds:

- 1) place of articulation:
 - labial /p, b, m, f, v/
 - dental /t, d, þ, ð, n, s, r, l/
 - medial-lingual /k', g', x, V'/
 - back-lingual (velar) /k, g, x, \mathbf{Y} /
 - pharyngeal /h/

2) the manner of articulation:

- stops /p, b, t, d, k, g, k'/
- fricatives /f, v, θ , δ , s, z, x, x', V', V/
- 3) voice:
- voiced /b, d, g, ð, v, z/
- voiceless /p, t, k, θ , f, s/
- 4) length:
- short consonants (= single) /s, t, f, g/
- long consonants (= geminates) /ss, ff, tt, gg/

The main characteristics of OE consonant system:

1. The opposition of voiced and voiceless stops as different phonemes: p-b, t-d, k-g

2. Voiced and voiceless fricatives were in allophonic relations – they were positional variants of phonemes: s-z, f-v

3. System of geminates. There were voiced and voiceless long stops (pp-bb, cc-cg) and only voiceless long fricatives (ss, ff). Geminates were opposed to single consonants and participated in meaningful differentiation of words which

proves their phonemic status in OE: OE *scota* – ModE *Scot, Scotsman*; OE *scotta* – ModE *man*.

4. Opposition of palatal and non-palatal consonants: /k/ - /k'/; /g/ - /g'/; /x/ - /x'/; /y/ - /y'/ which disintegrated during the MidE period.

The main sound changes of OE consonant system:

1. **Doubling** of consonants which occurred as a by-product of the process of i-mutation: GL *sætian* – OE *settan* (ModE *to sit*). Geminates turned out to be rather unstable. They appeared at the beginning of the OE period and disappeared at the end of it. In ModE doubling of consonants doesn't indicate length of a sound. It is rather a graphical device used to denote shortness of the preceding vowel (*potter, kiss*).

2. **Rhotacism** – a certain fricative was voiced according to Verner's law and later it developed into "r": $/s/\rightarrow/z/\rightarrow/r/$: ОЕ wesan (быть) – wæs (был) – wæron (были) (ModE to be – was / were – been).

3. **Palatalization** – some consonants were palatalized when they occurred next to a front vowel *e*, *i*, *y*: OE *cild* [*kild]>[k'i:ld] (ModE *child*).

4. **Dropping** of a nasal consonant *m*, *n* before a fricative which caused lengthening of the preceding vowel: Goth tunpus - OE top (3y6), Goth munpus - OE mup (pot) See also: Lengthening of stressed vowels in the root.

5. Voicing – some fricatives were voiced in the intervocalic position. Due to the voicing there are such pairs of words in ModE, as life - lives, shelf - shelves.

6. **Dissimilation** of clusters of stops:

a) a labial stop + a dental stop: /p/, /b/ + /t/, $/d/ \rightarrow$ ft: *zesceapt* \rightarrow *zesceaft* (*meopehue*);

b) a back stop + a dental stop: /k/, /g/ + /t/, $/d/ \rightarrow$ ht: *socte \rightarrow solution solution (*uckan*);

c) a dental stop + a dental stop: /t/, /d/ + /t/, /d/ \rightarrow st, ss: *witde \rightarrow wiste, wisse (3han)

Conclusion: In general, consonant changes of the OE period didn't result in the development of new phonemes. They just show a tendency for the sounds of one and the same word to assimilate and merge into closer units.

2 ME phonological system

2.1 ME vowel changes

- <u>Vowel reduction</u>, especially in unstressed final syllables: OE *talu* ['talu] ME *tale* ['ta:lə] (ModE *tale*. The final [ə] disappeared in Late ME though it was spelt as –e.
- 2. <u>Quantitative changes</u>: lengthening and shortening:

- a) vowels became long and more open in open syllables: OE *nosu* ['nozu] ME *nose* ['no:zə] (ModE *nose*)
- b) vowels became short before other consonant clusters: OE wisdom ME wisdom.
- 3. <u>Qualitative changes</u> which were less important in comparison with quantitative changes.

They affected several monophthongs and created different dialects:

- OE vowels y and \hat{y} were replaced by e and \bar{e} : Examples: OE fyllen - ME Kentish fellen – ME West Midland / South Western fullen – East Midland and Nothern Kentish fillen (ModE to fill);

- OE [a:] was narrowed to [o:]: OE *stān* – ME *stone* ['sto:nə] (ModE *stone*);

- OE $/\alpha$:/ \rightarrow ME $/\epsilon$:/ OE *stræt* ME *street*.
 - 4. <u>The loss of OE diphthongs</u> some of which were contracted to monophthongs: OE [eo] ME [e]: OE *heorte* ME *herte* (ModE *heart*)
 - 5. <u>The growth of new diphthongs</u> which developed due to the vocalization of OE [j] and [Y]: OE wez [wej] ME wey [wei] (ModE way), OE lazu [laYu] ME lawe [lauə] (ModE law). In addition to the diphthongs which developed from the native sources, similar diphthongs with i-glides and u-glides appeared due to the borrowings: [oi] boy, joy, [au] pause, cause.

Conclusion. OE diphthongs became monophthongs. The new ME diphthongs differed from OE in structure: they had an open nucleus and a closer glide, were arranged in a system of 2 sets – with i-glide and u-glide, and were not opposed as long to short.

monophthongs	diphthongs
Short a e Iou	ei ai oi au
Long a: ə: e: ɛ: I: o: u:	Au: ou

2.2 ME consonant changes

1. Change in the phonemic status of fricatives

In OE voiced and voiceless fricatives were in the relation of complementary distribution: voiced fricatives /v/, /z/, $/\delta/$ were to be found in the intervocal position, while voiceless were to be met in the initial or final position.

f-	-f	-V-
S-	-S	-Z-
θ-	-θ	-ð-

Examples: ME first – ModE first - live /li:f/ – ME luvian /lu:vian/ - ModE love; / θ is/ this - /pa: θ / path - /kweðan/ to say; seon/ to see - /kea:s/ he

chose - /keozan/ to chese.

The fact that the quality of fricatives (voiced or voiceless) depended on their position proves their allophonic status in OE: $\langle f - v \rangle$, $\langle s - z \rangle$, $\langle \theta - \delta \rangle$. It changed in ME mainly because of *the disintegration of the system of geminates* at the end of the OE period when doubled consonants retained in spelling but came to denote short voiceless fricatives /f/, /s/, / θ /. As a result, in ME voiceless fricatives began to be found in the intervocal position, which was impossible in OE. Examples: OE /ske $\theta \theta$ an/ \rightarrow ME /ske $\theta \theta$ an/ вредить.

On the other hand in ME after *the reduction of unstressed endings* voiced fricatives began to occur in the final position. Examples: OE /ri:zən/ \rightarrow EME /'ri:zən/ \rightarrow LME /ri:z/ (подниматься); OE /seðan/ \rightarrow EME /seðən/ \rightarrow LME /seð/ кипеть.

Loaned words, mainly French, served as the source of voiced fricatives in the initial position. Examples: *vogue, zeal, zone,* etc.

As a result of all these changes the strict positional distribution of voiced and voiceless fricatives was destroyed. Both kinds of fricatives could now be found in the initial, final or intervocal position. That meant that each fricative became a phoneme: /f/, /v/, /s/, /z/, $/\theta/$, $/\delta/$. This change didn't result in the development of new consonant sounds, but it transformed the status of those already existing ones from allophones to phonemes.

2. Transformation of palatal consonants

OE palatal stops /k'/, /g'g'/ and /sk'/ changed their pronunciation in ME:

 $/k'/ \rightarrow /\mathfrak{g}/OE \ cild \rightarrow ME \ child, OE \ tcc(e)an \rightarrow ME \ techen;$

 $/g'g'/ \rightarrow /dz/OE \ ec \ ze \rightarrow ME \ edge, OE \ bryc \ ze \rightarrow ME \ bridge;$

 $/sk' \rightarrow / \int /OE \ sceal \rightarrow ME \ shal, OE \ sceap \rightarrow ME \ sheep.$

All the 3 consonants were new phonemes in the language. The sound /f/ enriched the group of fricatives, /dz/, /f/ made a new consonant type – <u>affricates</u>.

3. Vocalization of fricatives

After the vocalization of such pairs as /x/ - /x'/, /y/ - /y'/ during the ME period these sounds disappeared and the system of E consonant was reduced by four sounds: EMidE /lixt/ \rightarrow LMidE /li:t/ 'light'.

4. <u>Appearance of new phoneme /ŋ/</u>

It appeared at the end of the 15^{th} century. It developed from the OE combination of **sonorous** /n/ + velar stop /g/. Examples: OE /bringan/ - LME /brin/, OE /singan/ - LME /sin/.

5. Simplification of consonant clusters

- Dropping of /l/ before /tf/: OE /ælc/ \rightarrow EME *elch* \rightarrow LME *ech* – ModE each;

- Dropping of /v/ before /d/: OE $hade \rightarrow EME havde \rightarrow LME had(e) \rightarrow ModE had$.

Conclusion. Consonant changes of the ME period had a phonemic character since they resulted either in the development of new phonemes or their disappearance. Thus, OE /v/-/f/, /z/-/s/, /ð/-/θ/ all got in ME the status of separate phonemes. Besides, such new phones as /tf/, /dz/, /ʃ/ and the phoneme /ŋ/ enriched the system of MidE consonants. After vocalization of fricatives two pairs /x/ - /x'/ and /ɣ/ - /ɣ'/ disappeared. Simplifying changes of consonants moved MidE words nearer to their modern shape.

III ModE phonological system

3.1 ModE vowel changes

1. The Great Vowel Shift

This very long process took place from the 15th till the beginning of the 17th centuries. It affected all long vowels which tended to become more high, more narrow and more front. Those vowels which were narrow enough turned into diphthongs:

- /i:/ \rightarrow /ai/ ME /ti:m(ə)/ ModE /taim/ time
- /e:/ \rightarrow /i:/ ME /'ke:pən/ kepen ModE /ki:p/ keep
- $/\epsilon:/ \rightarrow /i:/ ME / stre:t/ ModE / stri:t/ street$
- /a:/ \rightarrow /ei/ ME /'ma:kən/ maken ModE /meik/ make
- $|\mathfrak{d}:/ \to /ou/ME / sto:n(\mathfrak{d})/ ModE / stoun/ stone$
- /o:/ \rightarrow /u:/ ME /mo:n/ ModE /mu:n/ moon
- /u:/ \rightarrow /au/ ME /nu:/ ModE /nau/ now
- /au/ \rightarrow /o:/ ME /'kauz(\mathbf{a})/ ModE /ko:z/ *cause*
- 2. Qualitative changes
 - $/a/ \rightarrow /a/$ Ex. ME /man/ ModE /mæn/ man;
 - $/a/ \rightarrow /o/$ Ex. ME /was/ ModE /woz/ was;
 - $/u/ \rightarrow /^/ Ex. ME / kum = n / comen ModE / k^m / come.$
- 3. Quantitative changes
 - lengthening: before ss, st, nt, ft. Ex. ME /'after/ ModE /'a:ftə/ after;
 - shortening: before /d/, /t/, /k/, /θ/. Ex. ME /de:d/ deed ModE /ded/ dead.

3.2 ModE consonant changes

1. Vocalization of /r/

It was a very complicated process which took place in the 16th and 17th centuries and caused the formation of new monophthongs, diphthongs and

triphthongs. If the vowel preceding 'r' was short, the resulting sound was a long vowel; if the vowel before 'r' was long, the resulting sound was a diphthong:

	i was iong, the resulting sound was a d
$/0/+/r/ \rightarrow /0:/$	ME /for/ - ModE /fo:/ for
$/a/+/r/ \rightarrow /a:/$	ME /bar/ - ModE /ba:/ bar
$/i/$, $/e/$, $/u/+/r/ \rightarrow /$ ə:/	ME /first/ - ModE /fə:st/ first
$/i:/+/r/ \rightarrow /ai \partial/$	ME /i:r/ - ModE /aiə/ <i>shire</i>
$/e:/+/r/ \rightarrow /ia/$	ME /be:r/ - ModE /biə/ beer
$/\epsilon:/+/r/ \rightarrow /ia/$	ME /hɛːr/ - ModE /hiə/ here
ightarrow (63/ $ ightarrow$	$ME / \delta\epsilon: r/ - ModE / \delta\epsilon \theta / there$
$/a:/+/r/ \rightarrow /\epsilon a/$	ME /ha:r/ - ModE /hɛə/ hare
$/o:/+/r/ \rightarrow /u$ ə/	ME /mo:r/ - ModE /muə/ moor
$/u:/+/r/ \rightarrow /au$ ə/	ME /flu:r/ <i>flour</i> - ModE /flauə/ <i>flower</i> .

2. <u>Voicing of consonants (Verner's Law in ModE)</u>

$/s/ \rightarrow /z/$	ME /was/ - ModE /woz/ was;
$/f/ \rightarrow /v/$	ME /əf/ - ModE /əv/ <i>of;</i>
$ \theta \rightarrow \delta $	ME /θis/ - ModE /ðis/ <i>this;</i>
$/tf/ \rightarrow /dz/$	ME /know'letf/ - ModE /'nolidt/ knowledge;
$/ks/ \rightarrow /gz/$	ME /eksi'bifn/ - ModE /ig'zibit/ exhibit.

It took place usually when consonants were preceded by an unstressed vowel. Compare: Fr. /ak'tif/ – Eng. 'active; Fr. /cap'tif/ – Eng 'captive.

Voicing affected a number of English function words which are not stressed in speech: *is, was, the, of, that.*

In ModE 'of' and 'off' are etymological doublets. The preposition due to its character underwent voicing of the fricative /ov/ while the corresponding post positive is stressed. So it has retained its voiced fricative /of/. In order to distinguish these two different words the letter 'f' began to be doubled in the post-positive 'off'.

Usually the voicing was reflected in spelling (active, captive, knowledge). But there are also cases when it wasn't reflected in spelling (sandwich, Greenwich /dʒ/).

No voicing took place if a consonant was preceded by a stressed vowel and even a weakened secondary stress could prevent it (ex. *anxious*). Besides, there are some cases when voicing didn't occur though the conditions seemed to be quite favorable. Example: *research* – the preceding vowel is not stressed but /s/ didn't change into /z/. There is a theory that s was retained under the influence of such cognate words as *side* and *search*, which are monosyllable and stressed. So no voicing could possibly take place here (Иванова). As for the word *disobey*, *displease* here *dis*- is identified as a distinct morpheme that can be even weakly stressed which may have prevented the voicing.

3. Transformation of consonants

ME combinations of consonants /tj/, /dj/, /sj/ and /zj/ in borrowed (mostly French) words developed into fricatives and affricates $/\int /$, /tf/, /dz/, /z/:

 $/tj/ \rightarrow /tj/ ME /na'tju:re/ - ModE /'neitj = / nature;$

 $/zj/ \rightarrow /z/ME /ple'zju:re/ - ModE /'plezə/ pleasure.$

4. Loss of consonants

Loss of the aspirated sound /h/ in the initial position before vowels: ME /ho'nu:r/ - ModE /'o:n=/ honour. Sometimes it influenced the spelling: ME /hit/ *hit* - ModE /it/ *it*.

5. <u>Simplification of consonant clusters</u>

1. *kn*, *gn* lost their velar sounds /k/, /g/ which however were retained in spelling: *know*, *knee*, *knight*, *gnat*, *gnaw*;

2. *hw* could lose either of its two sounds after the graphic metatheses: *when, why, what, where, which; who, whose, whom;*

3. *wr* lost the initial sound: *wreck*, *write*, *wrong*;

4. *mn*, *mb* the second nasal sound was dropped: *column*, *autumn*; *lamb*, *climb*. After this simplification the final mute *b* began to be added to the words in which it had never been spelled or pronounced before. Examples: OE *cruma* – EModE *crumb* (крошка), OE *liomu* – EModE *limb* (член, конечность);

5. *stl, ftn* the sound /t/ was dropped: *castle, often, listen;*

6. *lf, lk, lm, lv* the sound /l/ was dropped: *calf, folk, halves.*

As a rule, simplifications of consonant clusters were not reflected in spelling which contributed difficulty to ENG spelling and pronunciation.

Topic 5. Historical Grammar of the English language

I The Grammatical System of the OEP

- 1.1 OE Noun
- 1.2 OE Adjective
- 1.3 OE Pronoun
- 1.4 OE Verb

II The Grammatical System of the MEP

2.1 ME Noun

- 2.2 ME Article
- 2.3 ME Adjective
- 2.4 ME Pronoun
- 2.5 ME Verb

III The Grammatical System of the NEP

IV OE, ME and NE Syntax

- 4.1 OE Syntax
- 4.2ME and NE Syntax

I The Grammatical System of the OEP

The OE language was a typically synthetic language. All the notional parts of speech had a number or grammatical categories formed by means of grammatical affixes.

1.1 OE Noun

The OE noun had the grammatical category of number (singular, plural), gender (masculine, feminine, neutral), case (Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative).

The OE noun had nine declensions. The type of declension depended on the Prehistoric German Language stem-building suffix of nouns, although by the time of the EOE writings the stem-suffixes merged with the endings.

OE noun had three main types of declensions:

1) **strong (vowel) declension** – the declension of vocalic stems: a-stem, i-stem, o-stem, u-stem;

2) weak (consonant) declension – n-stem, -s-stem, r-stem;

3) root stem declension – no stem-building suffix, the case endings were added to the root.

1) Strong declension:

- a-stem	m and n	<i>land</i> (land)
- o-stem	f	<i>feðer</i> (fether)
- i-stem	all genders	mete (meat)
- u-stem	m and f	sunu (son)
2) Weak de	eclension:	
-n-stem	all gender	nama (name)
-s-stem	n	<i>cild</i> (child)
-r-stem	m and f (5 no	ouns) faþer, möþer, bröþer, sweaster, dohtor

-en-stem ox - oxen

3) Root stem declension:

 $man - men, f\bar{o}t - f\bar{e}t \text{ (foot - feet)}$

Even the earliest patterns show the tendency to simplification of the OE system of declension:

1) In no type of declension all the 4 cases are characterized by four distinct endings. Usually Nominative and Accusative coincide. Sometimes all cases coincide, except for the Nominative (like in o-stem sg). In the pl it is usually the Dative which has a peculiar inflection -um while other inflections may coincide (in u-stem, o-stem).

2) There are also endings common for various types of declension. Thus, -um for Dative plural can be found in all types of declension. Also -a ending for the Genitive plural is quite common.

3) I-stem was very unstable and was involved into o-stem and a-stem types of declension.

In general these are all features of future unification of the system of declension of nouns in E.

Traces of noun declension in modern English:

The regular suffix -s goes back to the old "as" of the a-stem declension masculine.

The homonymous forms (*deer - deer*) go back to the a-stem declension neutral with the long syllable variant. They were homonymous already then.

Suffix -en is the old suffix of the en-stem declension. There are only three such words in the literal language: ox, child, brother (in dialects there are many more of them). But only "oxen" belonged to the weak declension. "Child" belonged to the n-stem declension.

The suffix of the possessive case 's has developed from the Genitive case with the ending –es of the a-stem declension masculine.

2.3 OE Adjective

The adjective in OE agreed with the noun in gender, number and case. It had all the categories of agreement, besides the adjective had two declensions: the strong and the weak declension.

The strong declension of the adjective had the case ending similar to those of the corresponding vowel declension of the noun. Some endings were like those of the demonstrative pronouns. That is why sometimes the strong declension is referred to as the pronominal declension. As to **the weak declension** it had in oblige cases the suffix with the consonant "n".

The type of the adjective declension depended on the indefinites or definiteness of the noun.

OE adjectives had three **degrees of comparison** which were formed synthetically with the suffix –ra and –est/-ost: glæd – glædra – glædost.

2.4 OE Pronoun

OE pronouns were divided into the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups – relative, possessive and reflexive – they were not fully developed.

OE personal pronouns had the following grammatical categories:

• 3 persons;

• 3 numbers in the 1st and 2nd person. The forms of the dual number were to be met up the middle of the 13th century

- 4 cases;
- 3 genders in the 3rd person sg.

The idea of possession was expressed by the Genitive case of the personal pronouns.

	101		1 st per	son		
case	S	8	per			pl
Nom.	i		W	it	wē	
Gen.	m	īn	unc	er	ūre	
Dat.	n	nē	un	ic	ūs	
Acc.	mē	(c)	und	cit	ūs	s(ic)
			2d per	son		
Nom.	þū		3			
Gen.	þī	īn	inc	er	ēower	
Dat.	þ	ē	in	inc		ow
Acc.	þē	ēc	inc((it)	ēov	w(ic)
			3d per	son		
		sg			pl	
	т	п	f	т	п	f
Nom.	hē	hit	hēo	hīe	hy	hī (heo)
Gen.	his	his	here/hire	hira	hiera	hyra
Dat.	him	him	here/hire	him	him	
Acc.	hine	hit	hīe	hīe	hī	hy (heo)

OE demonstrative pronouns had:

- 4 cases;
- 3 genders;
- 2 numbers.

They included two groups:

- 1) $s\bar{e}(m)$, Paet(n), $s\bar{e}o(f)$, $P\bar{a}(pl)$ the prototype of *that*;
- 2) Pes(m), Pis(n), Peos(f), Pas(pl) the prototype of *this*.

They functioned to express definiteness/indefiniteness of nouns and agreed with them in gender, number and case.

Interrogative pronouns $-hw\bar{a}$ (m, f), and hwa et (n) -had a four-case paradigm (NE *who*, *what*). The Instr. case of *hwaet* was used as a separate interrogative word *hwỹ* (NE *why*).

Indefinite pronouns were a numerous class with several simple pronouns and a large number of compounds: $\bar{a}n$ and its derivative $\dot{a}ni3$ (NE *one*, *any*); $n\bar{a}n$, made up of $\bar{a}n$ and the negative particle *ne* (NE *none*); $n\bar{a}n\dot{p}in3$, made up of the preceding and the noun $\dot{p}in3$ (NE *nothing*).

2.5 OE Verb

OE verb grammatical categories included:

- number;
- person;
- mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive);
- tense (present, preterit).

Other categories (voice, aspect) were only beginning to develop.

There were finite and non-finite forms. The non-finite forms were **the Infinitive** and **the Participle** (I and II). There was no Gerund.

The Infinitive in OE was a verbal noun and belonged to the weak -enstem declension. The Dative Case was often used with the preposition "to" as an adverbial modifier of purpose and later it came to be used as the marker of the infinitive.

The Participle was a verbal adjective. So it agreed with its noun in gender, number and case. As to the formation, Participle I was formed from the present form with the suffix -ende, -ande. As to Participle II, its formation depended on the type of the verb.

OE verbs had <u>four types of conjugation</u>: two major types and two minor types. <u>Two major types</u> were the strong conjugation and the weak conjugation.

A strong verb had four main forms:

Infinitive;

Preterit singular 1st and 3rd person;

• the 2nd person singular and all the persons of the plural and the past subjunctive;

• Participle II.

There are seven classes of strong verbs:

- the first 5 classes: i a zero gradation;
- the 6^{th} class: a o zero gradation;
- the 7th class: root reduplication in the past.

Examples:

 $wr\overline{i}tan (Inf) - wr\overline{a}t (Pret sg) - writon (Pret pl) - writen (Part II) (to write);$ $scacan - sc\overline{o}c - sc\overline{o}con - scacen (to shake);$ $h\overline{a}tan - h\overline{e}t - h\overline{e}ton - h\overline{a}ten (to call, to name).$

The weak verbs had three main forms:

- Infinitive;
- Preterit;
- Participle II.

The weak verbs formed three forms by means of a dental suffix -ed or -de. The suffix of the weak verbs later turned into the standard suffix -ed.

Three classes of week verbs:

In the 1^{st} weak class we find three subclasses:

1. weak verbs with the short root syllable (*nerian* – *nered* – *nered* – cпacatb): suffix was not always lost.

2. weak verbs with the long syllable variants ($d\bar{e}man - d\bar{e}mde - d\bar{e}med -$ судить): suffix –i was lost.

3. irregular verbs with suffix -j-: *taljan* (palatal mutation) > *tellan* (Inf) – *tealde* (there was no $\langle j \rangle$ in the Preterit form) – *teald* (to tell - told - told).

<u>The 2nd weak class</u> was the most regular one. It had no exceptions: always suffix – -oja- > -i-, no palatal mutation. It served as the basis for the future development of the standard (regular) verbs. Endings: -ode (Pret) and -od (P.II): *luvian - luvode – luvod* (to love).

<u>The 3rd class</u> was not numerous and it was in the state of decay: habban - haefde - haefd (to have), libban - lifde - lifd (to live), secgan - saegde - saegd (to say).

There were also two minor types of conjugation:

- Preterit-Present Verbs;

- Suppletive Verbs.

The Preterit-Present Verbs were originally strong verbs belonging to certain classes. Then for some semantic reasons their old past came to be used as

the present tense form after which a new Preterit form was formed according to the weak type as the productive. Example: cunnan (inf) - can (present sg) - cunnon (present pl) - cuthe (pret sg) - cup, cunen (part II) (can). They have given us modal verbs: dare, must, may, should, shall, can, ought.

Suppletive verbs:

There have always been two suppletive verbs: $eom / b\bar{e}o$ (to be), $g\bar{a}n - e\bar{o}de - (ge)g\bar{a}n$ (to go). "To be" in the OEP had two present paradigms: *wesan $-w\alpha es - w\alpha eron - *weren$ (Inf and Part II do not occur in the texts).

II The Grammatical System of the MEP

2.1 ME Noun

During the MEP English developed into an analytical language with analytical means of word connection prevailing over the synthetic ones.

The simplifying changes of the noun began already during the OE period and were intensified in EME. The changes of the 12-13 transformed the entire noun system.

12-13	3 centuries			14 century	
	a-stem	n-stem		a-stem	n-stem
N, Acc sg	stōn	nama	N, Acc sg	stōn	name
G, sg	stōnes	namen	Gen sg	stōnes	names
D, sg	stōne	namen	N, Acc pl	stōnes	names
N, Acc pl	stōnes	namen			
G, pl	stōnes	namen			
Dat pl	stōnes	namen			

1) The main possibility of this simplification lay in the phonetic process of reduction of final unstressed endings which at first unified the neutral /a/. It caused the development of a great number of <u>homonymous</u> forms. By the end of the ME this neutral sound had been dropped and disappeared from pronunciation. In EME 2 types of declension still could be distinguished: strong vowel and weak with n-stem nouns.

2) In the ME period the noun lost its grammatical category of gender after the difference of various types of declension had been lost. In ME adjectives and pronouns showed the gender having lost their forms of agreement. So the gender of nouns was devoted to its main formal support.

3) The number of cases was reduced from 4 to 2 in ME. In the LME period Dat. lost -e ending and combined with former Nom., Acc. and together formed the <u>common case</u>. Only the Gen. case was kept distinctly.

4) In ME the most influential types of declension attracted the other types. In Northern and Midland dialects the most frequent endings were of the former a-stem. Nouns coming from the OE root-stem such as $b\bar{o}k$, $knytec\bar{u}$ also joined in ME a-stem nouns. n-stem nouns were more stable in the South but later they were replaced by a-stem forms.

In ModE the noun *ox-oxen* retained n-stem declension. The noun *child-children* which in OE belonged to s-stem in ME joined n-stem nouns (cildru – childre – children).

In ME there could be found such forms as *eye-eyen*, *toe-ton*, *foe-fon*, *eare-earen* but today they are regulated by a-stem declension.

By the end of the ME only two cases in sg and 1 in pl are distinguished.

There are different theories why the cases in the English language disappeared. Some scientists consider it to be the result of a foreign influence, of Scandinavian dialects. The roots bearing the same meaning had the same endings. There was a similarity of a great number of nouns in English and the Scandinavian languages. Other scientists reject this theory. If it were true the *reduction* of endings under foreign influence would have taken place only in the North, where Scandinavian invaders settled while in reality it had effected all the dialects. Our own explanation is that this rapid distraction of the case system in the ME was prepared by the existence of ambiguous forms in OE already. In OE prepositions were used to specify meaning of this or that case, especially the Dative case. In MidE when inflections were reduced the system of prepositions was ready to express the same relations. Later word order began to work as an additional factor.

Apostrophe

In the 16th century, when neutral -e in the final position is supposed to have been reduced, two possible explanations of what the ' denoted were put forward. First of all, it could be used as a sign of disappearing neutral /ə/. Another explanation is connected with the OE construction of the type *Arthur his men* which was equally in meaning with *Arthur's men*. In a fluent speech the initial part of the possessive pronoun *his* could be weakened. Here the ' could be used to denote the missing part of the possessive pronoun. It should be said that ' came to be a convenient device to distinguish such oral homonymous forms as *brother's book* and *brothers' book*. Since the 18th century it is used officially to distinguish these forms.

2.2 ME Article

The article began to develop in the OEP. There were special markers of definiteness or indefiniteness: the demonstrative pronoun $s\bar{e}$ was used as a definite article; the indefinite pronoun $\bar{a}n$ denoted the indefinite article. By the 14th century the system of the articles in the modern sense was established (Chaucer's works).

2.3 ME Adjective

The adjective began to lose its markers even earlier than the noun. The process began at the end of the OEP. The development went along the same lines: i.e. the reduction of the endings led to dropping and simplification. The adjective lost the old system of declension: in Chaucer's works the ending -e for the plural forms of the strong declension was used occasionally: ex. *goode*.

As the degrees of comparison alongside the old system with the suffixes er, -est, a new, analytical way with "more" and "most" developed. The development was to some extent influenced by the French language. Towards the end of the MEP there were two parallel ways of the formation of degrees of comparison. However, at the beginning of the NEP there wasn't a fixed rule as to which of the two forms to use: for example, in Shakespeare's work: *most beautifullest*.

2.4 ME Pronoun

During the MEP the system of <u>personal pronouns</u> changed greatly. Instead of the old 4-case system in ME a 2-case system was to be found – there were only nominative and common cases. The old nominative case has remained up to now except for "you" in which the old Nom. forms (Nom. *thou, ye*; Obj. *thee, you*) were replaced by the objective case form (*you*). The old form *ye* ('вы') is used in modern dialects, *thou* ('ты') – in the Bible and *thou, thee* ('тебе, тебя, тобой'), *thine* ('твой, твоя, твое, твои') – in the elevated style.

Examples: thou knowest – ты знаешь; thou knew(e)st – ты знал; thou loved(e)st – ты любил.

The modern objective case developed from the oblique cases (the Dat. and Acc.). For some of them (for example, for "I") the Dat. case became the unified form; for others (for example, for "it") the unified form was the Acc. case. The Gen. case left the case system and gave a rise to a new group of possessive pronouns: *min, mi; thin, thi; his, her, his; our; your; here, their*.

Like all the other declinable parts of speech, <u>demonstrative pronouns</u> lost their case forms and their forms of the gender. They have preserved only the sg/pl forms: *this* – *thes*(*e*); *that* – *thos*(*e*).

<u>Interrogative pronouns</u> only changed their pronunciation. Generally they have always been the same: eg. OE $hw\bar{a}$ – ME who (N.), whom (Obj.); OE $hw\bar{i}$ – ME why.

Other groups appeared during the MEP. Some of them developed as compound words: eg. OE $\alpha clc - ME \ eech - NE \ each$; OE $ne + \bar{a}n + pin\beta$ - ME $n\bar{a}n-pin\beta$ - NE nothing.

2.5 ME Verb

Non-finite forms

The development of such non-finite forms as <u>the infinitive</u> and <u>the</u> <u>participles</u> may be described as gradual verbalization. Example: OE $wr\bar{t}an / to$ $wr\bar{t}anne - ME$ to writen (to write).

The OE <u>Infinitive</u> was a verbal noun. During the MEP the Infinitive lost all its noun features except for some of his syntactic functions. Its suffix -an was reduced and dropped: -an>-en>zero. The particle "to" was a preposition with the meaning of purpose.

The OE <u>Participle</u> was a verbal adjective. It lost its nominal morphological characteristics and the category of agreement with the noun (number, gender, case). The suffixes *-ende*, *-inde*, *-ande* later transformed into *-* ing(e).

But the Infinitive and the Participle began to develop verbal features and categories, for example, an ability to take an object. <u>The Gerund</u> developed much later.

Finite forms

Four classes of OE verbs were mainly preserved and the speakers still distinguished the classes. But there were certain important changes.

Strong verbs:

The number of <u>strong verbs</u> was reduced from 300 in OE to 200 in ME. At the same time some strong verbs became weak, they lost their vowel gradation and took on the dental suffix -ed or -de: *to help, to climb, to walk* and some other. At the same time there was a mixture of classes: strong verbs remained strong, but they changed their gradation and their class (very often the $4^{\text{th}} <> \text{the } 5^{\text{th}}$): *to speak* (the 5th into the 4th).

Example: ME finde(n) (Inf) – fand (Past sg) / founde(n) (Past pl) – founden (Part II) – finding / findende (Part I) (ModE find – found – found)

Weak verbs:

The 3rd class stopped existing, thus only two classes remained. The suffixes were -ed and -de. The most regular was the second weak class which

later gave the standard suffix -ed for standard (regular) verbs. Thus, the MEP witnessed the development of weak verbs which then turned into regular verbs. A great number of verbs joined the class of regular verbs. Lots of them were of French origin.

Example: ME looke(n) (Inf) – looked(e) (Past sg) / looked(en) (Past pl) – looked (Part II) – looking(e) (Part I)

Preterit-present verbs:

They preserved their modal meaning but their paradigm changed greatly. Towards the end of the MEP they lost their infinitive and participles and turned into <u>defective</u> verbs. Some of their old forms were dropped or gave rise to other words: $\bar{a} \bar{s} an$ (Inf) - $\bar{a} \bar{s} te$ (Past)> *ought*, $\bar{a} \bar{s} an > ought > owe$ and *own*.

Suppletives:

They have always been the same: to be and to go.

III The Grammatical System of the NEP

In OE there were only four grammatical categories: tense (Present and Preterit), mood, person, number. All of them were synthetic. During the MEP some other categories, mainly analytical, appeared. One of the first to develop was the category of time correlation.

The Future Tense form

The Future Tense was not represented in OE and developed only during the MEP. It developed from a combination of a compound nominal predicate with the verb "shall" or "will". But even in Shakespeare's times this combination could still be used either as a modal predicate or as a Future form.

Example: *Then hate me when thou wilt* (=desire).

The Perfect form

In OE there were many constructions with the verb *habban* ('to have') in its main meaning + an object + an attribute which referred to the object (*to have something done*). Later this construction developed into the Perfect form. We see it when Participle II lost its agreement with the object and later the object took the position after the Participle. This process was going on in the middle of the MEP: *to have done something*.

The Continuous form

The Continuous forms developed in the same way from a free combination into a morphological form. In the beginning it was a compound nominal predicate with the verb "to be" as a link verb and Participle I as a
predicative. Originally it didn't express a process, it meant only permanent characteristic as the Present Indefinite now. The Continuous form acquired its modern meaning much later, in the 16th century, even after Shakespeare. The process which took place was the same as with the Perfect form: originally the Participle agreed with the subject but then it lost its category of agreement and became a part of the Continuous form.

The Passive Voice

The same process took place with the Passive Voice which developed from a free word combination to a fixed morphological form. Originally it was a compound nominal predicate with the verb "to be" + Participle II as a predicative. Gradually the Participle lost its agreement with the subject of the sentence.

The Perfect Continuous Form

It was the last to appear. It appeared at the beginning of the NEP.

The last to appear was **the Continuous form of the Passive** which began to develop only in the 19th century.

In OE we may find the Passive Infinitive, though no passive forms may be found. Other analytical non-finite forms developed during the MEP, but only after corresponding analytical forms of finite forms had developed.

The Gerund

It was also one of the last to appear. There are several theories concerning the development of the Gerund. It could have developed from an OE verbal noun with suffixes $-un\mathcal{Z}$, $-in\mathcal{Z}$ or from the Infinitive. The most current theory suggests that it developed as a mixture of Participle I and the verbal noun with the preposition "on" in the function of the predicative (e.g. *He was on hunting*).

IV OE, ME and NE Syntax 4.1 OE syntax

The syntactic structure of OE was determined by two major conditions: the nature of OE morphology and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language. OE was largely a synthetic language; it possessed a system of grammatical forms which could indicate the connection between words. It was primarily a spoken language, consequently, the syntax of the sentence was relatively simple.

The Phrase. Noun, Adjective and Verb Patterns

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of the phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word

phrases. OE noun patterns, adjective and verb patterns had certain specific features which are important to note in view of their later changes.

<u>A noun pattern</u> consisted of a noun as the head word and pronouns, adjectives, numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number and case, e.g. *on p \not{c}m \ \bar{o}prum \ pr \bar{m} \ dasum* 'in those other three days' – Dat. pl. m.

<u>An adjective pattern</u> could include adverbs, nouns or pronouns in one of the oblique cases with or without prepositions, and infinitives, e.g. *him wæs manna þearf* 'he was in need of man'.

<u>Verb patterns</u> included a great variety of dependant components: nouns and pronouns in oblique cases with or without prepositions, adverbs, infinitives and participles, e.g. *brins* $b\bar{a}$ $b\bar{i}ns$ 'bring those things'.

Word order

The order of words in the OE sentence was relatively free. The position of words in the sentence was often determined by logical and stylistic factors rather than by grammatical constraints. Nevertheless the freedom of word order and its seeming independence of grammar should not be overestimated.

The order of words could depend on the communicative type of the sentence – question versus statement, on the type of the clause, on the presence and place of some secondary parts of the sentence. For instance, inversion was not obligatory for a question and on the contrary inversion could occur in a declarative sentence: *Wille ic sagen* = Mory π сказать.

A peculiar type of word order is found in many subordinate and in some coordinate clauses: the clause begins with the subject following the connective, and ends with the predicate or its finite part, all the secondary parts being enclosed between them (a frame structure). It also should be noted that objects were often placed before the predicate or between two parts of the predicate.

In OE there were 2 types of impersonal sentences:

1. the younger type like the modern with «it» (OE *hit*);

2. an impersonal sentence without the subject: *him \delta \bar{u}hte* - ему подумалось.

Those were the main tendencies in OE word order.

4.2 ME and NE Syntax

In the main the types of the sentences and the number of the sentence remained the same. But still there were several important changes.

In connection with the decay of the synthetic system the word order in the sentence became much more stable. Inversion (when an adverbial modifier stood in the beginning of the sentence (like in German) still existed (till the NEP). The inversion in questions established itself in the beginning of the NEP. The auxiliary «do» became to be used during the MEP towards its end. But in the time of Shakespeare it still could be used even in affirmative sentences, whereas by the 16th or 17th centuries «do» as an auxiliary was used only in negative and interrogative sentences: it became a strict rule. Maybe it is connected with the word order (the predicate should follow the subject even in questions), maybe for some rhythmic reasons.

Together with the development of literature, education and style composite sentences began to develop. Their structure became more complicated, the number of subordinate clauses increased together with the number of conjunctions and special connectives, some of which were bookish and developed from notional words. The difference between the compound and complex sentences became more distinct. As to the type of the predicate the old impersonal one-member type had gone out of use completely (e.g. *Him thought*).

Topic 6. Historical Lexicology of the English Language

I OE vocabulary 1.1 OE word-formation 1.2 OE wordstock II ME vocabulary 2.1 ME word-formation 2.2ME wordstock III ModE vocabulary 3.1 ModE word-formation 3.2 ModE wordstock

I OE vocabulary

1.1 OE word-formation

Like any G. language OE was rich in means of word-building. There were 3 means of word-formation: affixation, word composition and sound gradation (non-productive).

Affixation (prefixes and suffixes)

The noun and the adjective were rich in suffixes: -ere (*leornere* - learner), -ung/-ing (*earnian/earning* – earn/earning).

Sometimes the noun added an element which in OE was a word and later became a suffix: $-h\bar{a}d$ ('title'): $c\bar{l}dh\bar{a}d$ – childhood; $-d\underline{o}m$ ('choice'): $fr\bar{e}od\bar{o}m$ – freedom.

Many OE verbs were formed with the help of prefixes: a-, be-, ge-, mis-, ofer-, un- (the last one was also common with nouns and adjectives): *geboren* – *ungeboren* (born - unborn), *lician* – *misl<u>i</u>cian* (like – dislike).

Word composition

- 1. noun + noun (the most productive type): *mann-cynn* (= mankind)
- 2. adjective + noun: *cwic-seolfor* (= quicksilver)
- 3. noun + adjective: wīn-sad ('насыщенный вином')
- 4. adjective + adjective: *wid-cup* (= widely known)

1.2 OE wordstock

The estimated word stock numbers about 30000 words. It's a very rich vocabulary of the old language. We may divide the word-stock from the point of view of its origin (etymological characteristic) and style (stylistic characteristic).

As far as style is concerned, the OE vocabulary was very rich in poetic words, metaphoric words and expressions (in poetic works especially).

As to the origin of the OE word-stock, we divide it according to the general scheme: native and borrowings.

1.2.1 Native words

By native words we mean IE words, words of Germanic origin and English proper. The basic vocabulary are mostly words of IE origin: names of kindship ($m\bar{o}dor$ – mother, sunu – son), some numerals ($tw\bar{a}$ - two), pronouns (ic – I, $m\bar{n}n$ – my, paet - that), names of some animals, some trees, names of some very frequent verbs ($d\bar{o}n$ – do, $b\bar{e}on$ – be), names of some colors.

There was rather a large group of Germanic words: *sea, earth, land, sand, arm,* some colours (grēne – *green*), some mostly strong verbs (*findan - find*).

As to E. proper, there aren't many of them: *clipian* – to call, *brid* – bird.

1.2.2 Borrowings

The borrowings were not numerous because there no great contacts between ethnic groups. Borrowing came from Latin and later Greek, from the Celts, there were Scandinavian or Danish borrowings and couple of Slavonic borrowings.

Latin and Greek

3 layers (chronologically):

1. the earliest (oldest) - belongs to the time when the A.-S. tribes still lived on the continent and traded with the Romans. We find word related to trade, money, goods: *money, mill, cheese, pear, cherry, pound, inch*.

2. even less numerous layer; it is related to the period when the A.-S. came to the British Isles and were in contact with the Celts. Since the contact

was not very close, we don't find many Celtic words, but we find some Latin words borrowed from the romanized Celts: *sheet*, *chester* (castrum, camp – лагерь), *wall* and some geographical names: *Winchester*, *Lincoln* (Lat. colonia 'settlement for soldiers').

3. words which came into the OE language with learning and through religion: religious words: *bishop, archangel, devil*; everyday words: *clerk*; words borrowed as translated loans: *gospel* ('добрая весть').

Celtic

Mostly in geographic names:

- Celtic plus Latin: *Man-chester*, *Win-chester*;
- Celtic plus Germanic: York-shire, Canter-bury.

Danish or Scandinavian

In the OE language we find Danish or Scandinavian borrowings which are closely connected with the Danish invasion in the 8-9th centuries.

Both the Danes and the A.-S. were Germanic people and they spoke closely related tongues. They had similar grammatical structure and many very common words. They understood each other very well. Gradually there began ethnic integration of the Danes among the A.-S. There were quite a number of borrowings: there were not many of them but they were essential for the language and everyday speech: *angry, bag, cake, egg, edge, fellow, husband, root, scheme, sky, skill.* They preserved Scandinavian combination [sk] (for ex. *shirt* is native, *skirt* is Scandinavian); [g] instead of [d3] – get [get]. The pronouns *she, they*, some prepositions (*fro-from*) and conjunctions (*though*). We find some Danish roots in geographic names.

II ME vocabulary

2.1 ME word-formation

The old productive ways of word-building (affixation and word composition) still remained the same, but some new ones appeared too:

1) Conversion: the transformation into another part of speech. It is closely connected with the loss of endings, simplification of the morphological structure of words. In ME conversion appears to be one of the main devices. Ex. $love - to \ love(n)$.

2) The shift of stress: mostly in Franco-Latin borrowings: *prefer* – *preference*, *to in crease* – *increase*.

3) Simplification (back formation): the process of word-building based on analogy. Compare: beggar - to beg, editor - to edit on analogy with such existing pairs of words as *write* - *writer*, *speak* - *speaker*.

For more than two centuries French was the state language and it affected the English language and vocabulary in all the spheres of life (everyday language, government, military sphere, art, fashion, meals (except names of meat of different animals), religion and so on). About 80-85% of OE (originally Germanic) words were lost completely or replaced by borrowings from Danish and French. Later during the Medieval time with the development of such sciences as medicine, theology and philosophy when many, mostly bookish, words were borrowed. Sometimes borrowings co-existed with the original words: *begin \Leftrightarrow start, commence*.

III ModE vocabulary

3.1 ModE word-formation

Together with the development of the language such new way of the formation of words as shortening or abbreviation developed. A certain word was shortened: *fridge*. Nowadays there are several variants of shortening words.

Many synonyms appeared: sometimes they borrowed words for the nations for which they had already words: native – borrowed, colloquial – bookish:

to beginto startto commence(native)(early borrowed, Old Norse)(bookish, Latin)

Many etymological doublets appeared: they are words which have one and the same origin, but they were borrowed at different chronological periods: *capital - chapter* (a later borrowing).

Etymological hybrids appeared: many words were formed in which different parts have different origin: *read-able* (English+French).

3.2 ModE wordstock

The end of the MEP and the beginning of the NEP witnessed an intensive development of the wordstock. It was connected with the general development of the country, its political and social development, the development of culture and education.

The end of the MEP witnessed the development of 3 sciences: theology, medicine and philosophy (many special terms except from Latin and Greek entered the E language and many of them have become international terms).

But a real flourish is witnessed during the beginning of the new E period and all through the NEP = it's a period of European Renaissance which began in Italy and flourished in many other countries. Together with the Renaissance 43

came great interest in culture, art, classical languages => the revival of learning and of interest for Latin; later Italian and even later French. In the OEP there were about 30000 words, whereas now we find about 50000 words.

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1.2 ПРЕЗЕНТАЦИИ НЕКОТОРЫХ ЛЕКЦИЙ

Topic 2. The English language as a Germanic language
The periods of English:
1) 450–1100 – Old English (OE) – the language of
Beowulf. Beowulf is an anonymous Old English epic
poem in alliterative verse, believed to have been
composed in the 8th century A.D.
2) 1100–1500 – Middle English (ME, MidE) – the
language of Geoffrey Chaucer (?1340-1400), the
English poet who wrote "The Canterbury Tales".
3) 1500–till today – Modern English (ModE, NE):
3.1, 1500–1650 – Early Modern English (or
Renaissance English) – the language of William
Shakespeare.
3.2, 1650 – Present Modern English (or Present-Day
English) – the language as spoken today.

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¹ Презентации открываются двойным щелчком мыши

II ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

2.1 ТЕМАТИКА СЕМИНАРСКИХ ЗАНЯТИЙ

Seminar 1. The periodization of the history of the EL

General characteristics of OE period (450-1100) General characteristics of ME period (1100-1500) General characteristics of ModE period (1500-till today)

Seminar 2. English Alphabets, Pronunciation, Spelling

- 1 Old English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
- 2 Middle English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
- **3 New English** Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.

Seminar 3. Phonological History of the English Language

1 OE phonological system

OE vowel system

OE consonant system

2 ME phonological system

ME vowel changes

ME consonant changes

3 ModE phonological system

ModE vowel system

ModE consonant system

Seminar 4. Historical Grammar of the English Language

1 The Grammatical System of the OEP

OE Noun

OE Adjective

OE Pronoun

OE Verb

2 The Grammatical System of the MEP

ME Noun

ME Adjective

ME Pronoun

ME Verb

3 The Grammatical System of the NEP

Seminar 5. The Development of English Vocabulary 1 Old English

Old English Vocabulary.

2 Middle English

The Latin and Greek Influence on the English Language.

The Scandinavian Influence on the English Language.

3 Modern (New) English

The French Influence on the English Language.

William Caxton and the Introduction of Printing.

The standardization of the English language (first grammars, dictionaries, newspapers).

The Influence of different languages on English.

Seminar 6.

Old English

Old English Dialects and Written Records.

Middle English

Early Middle English Dialects and Written Records. Late Middle English Dialects and Written Records.

Seminar 7.

Modern (New) English

Varieties of the Modern English Language. The British English dialects.

The American English dialects.

2.2 ПРИМЕРЫ ПРАКТИЧЕСКИХ ЗАДАНИЙ

SEMINAR 1-2.

TASK 1. Listen toaudiotexts in OE,MidE, Early ModEand Present-DayEnglish. What arethey about? Whichbook are they from?



Anglo-Saxon Gospels (ca. 1000) 디가Audio

11 He cwæð: Soðlice sum monn hæfde twegen suna. 12 Þa cwæð se gingra to his fæder, "Fæder, sele me mine dæl minre æhte þe me to gebyreþ." Þa dælde he him his æhta.

13 Da æfter feawum dagum eall his þing gegaderode se gingra sunu ond ferde wræclice on feorlen rice ond forspilde þær his æhta, libbende on his gælsan. 14 Da he hie hæfde ealle amierrede, þa wearð micel hungor on þam rice and he wearð wælla.

15 Þa ferde he and folgode anum burhsittendum men þæs rices; ða sende he hine to his tune þæt he heolde his swin. 16 Đa gewilnode he his wambe gefyllan of þam beancoddum þe ða swin æton, and him mon ne sealde.

17 Þa beþohte he hine ond cwæð, "Eala, hu fela hyrlinga on mines fæder huse hlaf genohne habbað, ond ic her on hunger forweorðe!" 18 Ic arise ond ic fare to minum fæder and ic secge him, "Eala fæder, ic syngode on heofonas and beforan þe; 19 Nu ic ne eom wierðe þæt ic beo þin sunu nemned; do me swa anne of þinum hyrlingum."

20 Ond he aras þa and com to his fæder. And þa giet þa he wæs feorr his fæder, he hine geseah ond wearð mid mildheortnesse astyred and ongean hine arn ond hine beclypte ond cyste hine. 21 Đa cwæð his sunu, "Fæder, ic syngode on heofon ond beforan ðe; nu ic ne eom wierþe þæt ic þin sunu beo genemned." Wycliffe Bible (1389) ↓ Audio (ll. 11-21)

11 Forsothe he seith, Sum man hadde tweye sones: 12 And the 30ngere seide to the fadir, Fadir, 3yue to me the porcioun of substaunce, that byfallith to me. And the fadir departide to him the substaunce. 13 And not aftir manye dayes, alle thingis gederid to gidre, the 30ngere wente sone in pilgrymage in to a fer cuntree; there he wastide and his substaunce in lyuynge leccherously.

14 And aftir that he hadde endid alle thingis, a strong hungir was maad in that cuntree, and he bigan to haue nede. 15 And he wente, and cleuyde to oon of the citeseyns of that cuntree. And he sente him in to his toun, that he schulde feede hoggis.

16 And he coueitide to fille his wombe of the coddis whiche the hoggis eeten, and no man 3af to him.

17 Sothli he turned a3en in to him silf, seyde, Hou many hirid men in my fadir hous, han plente of looues; forsothe I perische here thur3 hungir. 18 I schal ryse, and I schal go to my fadir, and I schal seie to him, Fadir, I haue synned agens heuene, and bifore thee: 19 Now I am not worthi to be clepid thi sone, make me as oon thi hvrid of men. 20 And he rysinge cam to his fadir. Sothli whanne he was 3it fer, his fadir sy3 him, and he was stirid by mercy. And he rennynge to, felde on his necke, and kiste him.

21 And the sone seyde to him, Fadir, I haue synned a3ens heuene, and bifore thee ; and now I am not worthi to be clepid thi sone.

King James Bible of 1611 (1) Audio

11 And hee said, A certain man had two sonnes:

12 And the yonger of them said to his father, Father, giue me the portion of goods that falleth to me. And he divided unto them his liuing.

13 And not many days after, the yonger sonne gathered altogether, and tooke his journey into a farre country, and there wasted his substance with riotous liuing.

14 And when he had spent all, there arose a mighty famine in that land, and he beganne to be in want.

15 And he went and ioyned himself to a citizen of that country, and he sent him unto his fields to feed swine. 16 And he would faine have filled his belly with the huskes that the swine did eate & no man gaue unto him.

17 And when he came to himself, he said, How many hired seruants of my fathers haue bread inough and to spare, and I perish with hunger: 18 I will arise and goe to my father, and will say unto him,

Father, I haue sinned against heauen and before thee. 19 And am no more worthy to called thy sonne; make me as one of thy hired seruants. 20 And he arose and came to his father. But when he was yet a

great way off, his father saw him, and had compassion, and came, and fell on his necke, and kissed him.

21 And the sonne said unto him, Father, I haue sinned against heauen, and in thy sight, and am no more worthy to be called thy sonne.

New International Version (1975) ^cJ¹Audio

11 He said, "There was a man who had two sons. 12 The younger one said to his father, 'Father, give me my share of the estate.' So he divided his property between them. 13 "Not long after that, the younger son got together all he had, set off for a distant country and there squandered his wealth in wild living. 14 After he had spent everything, there was a severe famine in that whole country, and he began to be in need. 15 So he went and hired himself out to a citizen of that country, who sent him to his fields to feed pigs.

16 He longed to fill his stomach with the pods that the pigs were eating, but no one gave him anything.

17 When he came to his senses, he said, 'How many of my father's hired men have food to spare, and here I am starving to death!

18 I will set out and go back to my father and say to him: Father, I have sinned against heaven and against you.

19 I am no longer worthy to be called your son; make me like one of your hired men.' 20 So he got up and went to his father. But while he was still a long way off, his father saw him and was filled with compassion for him; he ran to his son, threw his arms around him and kissed him.

21 The son said to him, "Father, I have sinned against heaven and against you. I am no longer worthy to be called your son."

TASK 2. Listen and read the texts again. Which texts are easier to understand and which are more difficult? Why?

TASK 3. Underline familiar words in the Old English text. Which parts of speech are they?

TASK 4. Analyze grammatical features of the Middle English text.

TASK 5. Find spelling, grammatical and lexical differences between the two texts of Modern English. Underline them.

SEMINAR 6-7.

TASK 1. Read the text "Cockney Rhyming Slang".

In Cockney rhyming slang, a particular word is replaced by a phrase which rhymes with the word. Frequently, however, only the first (non-rhyming) part of the phrase is actually used, not the entire phrase. So a *hat* may be called a *tit for*, short for *tit for tat*. Some bits of rhyming slang have become so well-established that they have spread out into more general English, and people are not necessarily aware of where the expressions come from. For instance, *let's have a butcher's* is short for *let's have a butcher's hook*, which rhymes with *look*. *Use your loaf* is short for *use your loaf of bread*, which rhymes with *head*. *To be on your Tod* is short for *to be on your Tod Sloan*. which rhymes with *own*. *That's a load of old cobbler's* is short for *that's a load of old cobbler's awls*, which rhymes with *balls*. *To blow a raspberry* is short for *to blow a raspberry tart*, which rhymes with *fart*.

There are also many bits of Cockney rhyming slang which have become quite well known, but which are still recognised for what they are. Some of these are in the short form (e.g. *Bristols*, short for *Bristol cities*, meaning *titties*, *china*, short for *china plate*, meaning *mate*), others in the long form (e.g. *trouble and strife* for *wife* or *north and south* for *mouth*). All these expressions give the impression that there is a well-established set of rhyming phrases which are used with fixed meanings. To a certain extent this is true, and collections of rhyming slang will give many standard expressions such as *frog and toad* for *road* or *Adam and Eve* for *believe*. But true Cockney rhyming slang also has an impromptu element, where the listener has to guess what the real meaning is from the context, and frequently only with the non-rhyming part of the phrase for a clue.

TASK 2. The following passage, liberally sprinkled with bits of rhyming slang, may be hard to interpret. Try to work out what the whole phrase must be as well as the meaning. Use the dictionary: http://www.anglomania.org/2015/11/ockney-rhyming-slang.html

I got up this morning, brushed my 'Amsteads and my Barnet, kissed the dustbin lids and put on my tit for to go for a ball up the frog. I didn't have much

bees, but I still put an Oxford on a Charing Cross that came in at 20 to 1. I could hardly Adam my Donald! So I went to the rub-a-dub and had a pig's with some chinas. Only one, though, because I didn't want to be elephant's when I got home to the trouble.

TASK 3. Watch the videofilm "THE STORY OF ENGLISH" https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VGID-SgatN8 and do the following tasks:

PART 7: THE MUVVER TONGUE

Section 1

	What			•		the	pro	gramme	concen	trating	on?
2.	Wha	at i	S	the	origin			the	word	Cock	mey?
3.	L ckney	ist	SC	ome			the	cha			
a) (rouble a	nd strif	e		kney term						
	yob										
5.		What			Cockne		-				
6.								t happen			

7. What do the following details taken from Henry Meachin's diary tell us?"alff a hundred in red and wyht" ______

"frust be-tweyn the rybes" _____

"chynes about their nekes"_____

7. What happened after the publication of Samuel Johnson's dictionary?

9. Dr. John Wells explains that new pronunciations in the English language often arise in Cockney. What stages do these 'new pronunciations' go through?_____

10. Complete the following cloze passage taken from the programme:

Upto the eighteenth century, upto, say, about 1750, _____was the speech of anybody and everybody in the city of _____ but the second half of the 18th century was an _____ of great social change. Because it was an age of change you had a new _____ class who wanted a new way to_____ themself. The way they picked on was _____. If you spoke properly, if you had a good grammar, enounced words in a _____ way then you marked yourself as a ______ of the upper class. Until the 18th century, there was virtually no formal guidance about the proper _____ and _____ of English. The language was in such a state of that writers like Jonathan Swift proposed an academy to it. It was not until Samuel Johnson started work on his _____ in this house that what we now know as ______ standard English began to emerge. Before Dr. Johnson, like Jonathan Swift had warned that English was being _____ as they put it by change. Johnson, a man who raised common sense to the heights genius, scorned the idea of _____ in language. To believe in that he said was to believe the _____ of eternal life. Yet paradoxically the work that was done in this house gave the language its first authority and it's an important _____ in the history of English. The two volumes of Johnson's dictionary linked spoken English to a ______ standard. Now the educated middle-class learnt to ______ like the dictionary and scorned the _____ Cockneys who did not. The dictionary's 40,000 _____ provide the basis of standard English and its influence has ______ to this day.

Section 2

1. What percentage of original Australians were Cockney?_____ 2. Which of the following words were 'borrowed' and which 'adopted'? tree _____ wallaby _____ coolabahs budgerigar boomerang _____ wombat _____ billabong _____ _____kangaroo _____ 3. Some words which are thought of as being Australian English, in fact, originate elsewhere. Where do the following words originate and what do they mean? a)cobber b)wowser c)billy_____ d)corker____ is Australian 4.How English described?_____ 5. Australian English belongs to a family of English languages. What are the other members and why they are so? Cockney and differences are there between 6.What Australian?_____ 7.What unique did "MOJO" step the company take?___ 8.How is confidence in Australian cultural identity shown? 9. How, according to one Australian writer, might Australian and American English be compared?_____

10. What does the Australian expression "A kangaroo loose in the top paddock" mean?_____

III РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

3.1 ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ТЕМ РЕФЕРАТОВ (ПРЕЗЕНТАЦИЙ)

Germanic Languages

- 1. Germanic Languages and their Common Linguistic Features.
- 2. Proto-Germanic Consonant Shift: Grimm's Law and Verner's Law.
- 3. Proto-Germanic Alphabets (Runic, Gothic, Latin)

Old English

- 4. Old English Dialects and Written Records.
- 5. Old English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
- 6. Old English Noun Declensions.
- 7. Old English Pronoun Declensions.
- 8. Old English Adjective Declensions.
- 9. Conjugation of Verbs in Old English.
- 10.Old English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
- 11.Old English Word-Formation and Syntax.
- 12.Old English Vocabulary.

Middle English

- 13.Middle English Dialects and Written Records.
- 14.Middle English Alphabet, Pronunciation and Spelling.
- 15.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Noun.
- 16.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Pronoun.
- 17.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Adjective.
- 18. Conjugation of Verbs in Middle English.
- 19.Middle English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
- 20.Middle English Word-Formation and Syntax.

Modern English

- 21. The Great Vowel Shift and Other Phonetic Changes in Modern English.
- 22. The Development of New Grammatical Forms and Categories in Modern English (Future Tense, Perfect, Continuous Forms, Passive Voice, etc.).
- 23. The Latin, Greek, Scandinavian and French Influence on the English Language.
- 24. Modern British English Dialects

25.Modern American English Dialects

The history of English: Famous People and Famous Books

- 26.Jacob Grimm as a Linguist
- 27.Karl Verner and Verner's Law
- 28.Beowulf the oldest English poem
- 29.Geoffrey Chaucer and his Canterbury Tales
- 30. William Caxton and the Introduction of Printing
- 31. William Shakespeare and his language
- 32. The standardization of the English Language (first grammars, dictionaries, newspapers)

3.2 ТЕСТЫ ПРОМЕЖУТОЧНОГО КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

TECT 1

1. 'Old English' was the language of tribes who invaded Britain from the East. They spoke different dialects of a(n)

- American language
- Russian language
- ^O Germanic language
- 2. The Vikings invaded Britain in 878 AD. Where did they come from?
- [©] Scandinavia
- Scotland
- Italy

3. After the Battle of Hastings in 1066 what language was spoken by the Royal Court and the ruling class?

- ^O Old English
- French
- [©] Portuguese

By about 1200, the Kingdoms of England and France were no longer one unit. Old English came back but had many French words added to it. This language was 'Middle English'...

4. Middle English was used by the poet...

- [©] Shakespeare
- Byron
- Chaucer
- 5. Who was the most famous writer to write in English during the 16th century?
- [©] Shakespeare
- Keats
- Chaucer
- **6.** What was the bestseller in England in 1611?
- ^O Harry Potter
- War and Peace
- ^C The King James Bible

English has been influenced by many different languages and continues to change and develop...

- 7. 'kangaroo' and 'boomerang' are:
- Native American words
- Australian Aboriginal words
- Chinese words
- 8. The words 'juggernaut' and 'turban' come from:
- Russia
- Morocco
- India
- **9.** The word 'potato' comes from:
- Italy
- [©] Canada
- Haiti
- **10.** The word 'ketchup' comes from:
- America
- China
- Sweden
- **11.** The word 'shampoo' comes from:
- Germany
- India
- Egypt
- **12.** How many native speakers of English are there in the world?
- about 3 million
- about 300 million
- about 3 trillion

TECT 2

Question 1

"Time" was once pronounced more like "team", "see" like "say", "now" like "noo" and "so" like "saw": these are all examples of the phonological differences brought about by

- A. the rise of estuary English
- B. the fitting of dentures
- ^C C. the Great Vowel Shift

Question 2

The use, in the USA, of phrases such as "I guess" [for "I think"] and "gotten" are examples of

^O A. the corrupting inaccuracy of American speech

^O B. Americans retaining an earlier English form after its use has largely died out in Britain

C. Verbal depravation

Question 3

"Government", "peasant", "crime", "justice", "fashion", "biscuit" and "leisure" are words loaned from

- A. Greek
- ^O B. Latin
- ^C C. French
- ^C D. German

Question 4

The prescriptive "Short Introduction to English Grammar" [1762] was written by

- ^C A. Bishop Robert Lowth
- [©] B. Doctor Samuel Johnson
- C. Professor Jean Aitchison
- D. William Labov [dude]
- [©] E. Sir J A H Murray

Question 5 The printing press was introduced into England by

- A. William Shakespeare in 1592
- ^C B. Geoffrey Chaucer in 1398
- C. William Caxton in 1476
- ^O D. Rupert Murdoch's great-great grandfather in 1755

Question 6

The words "children", "oxen", "geese", "mice" and "teeth" are among a handful

of now irregular mutated plurals that are a survival from a time when English had a greater number of

- A. inflections
- B. lexical items
- ^C C. Latinate words
- ^O D. bovine ruminant

TECT 3

1 - How many words do you think there are in the English language? a) 70,000 b) 170,000 c) 500,000 d) 2 million+

2 - The following English words come from other languages. Can you guess which language they are borrowed from?a) Tea b) Coffee c) Casserole d) Potato e) Shampoo

3 - The majority of English words fall into a small number of types of words. These are called word classes. Name the word classes in this table. The first one has been done for you.

type of word	word class	example
1. A word which names	1) noun	petal
2. A word which describes	2)	pretty
3. A word which describes an action	3)	push
4. A word which adds information about verbs	4)	smoothly
5. A word which connects parts of speech	5)	and
6. A word which replaces a noun	6)	Ι
7. A word which indicates relationships	7)	before
8. Words which can be used before all common nouns	8)	the

4 - The American English word 'zucchini' means what in Standard English English? a) leek b) courgette c) radish d) spring onion e) yam 5 - After the Battle of Hastings in 1066 what language was spoken by the Royal Court and the ruling class? a) Latin b) German c) English d) French e) Swedish 6 - Approximately how many languages are spoken in the world? b) 1250 c) 2100 d) 2700 e) 3200 a) 1070 7 - Middle English was used by which poet? a) Hardy b) Blake c) Chaucer d) Shakespeare e) Milton 8 - What are the official languages of Israel? a) Hebrew and Arabic b) Hebrew and English c) Arabic and English d) Hebrew and Yiddish 9 - What percentage of the Internet is in English? b) 69% c) 86% d) 92% a) 55% e) 95%

10 - According to the U.S. Census, how many languages are spoken in the United States? a) 457 b) 329 c) 275 d) 203 e) 162

TECT 4

- 1. Which of the following words also indicates England?
- A. Great Britain.
- B. The United Kingdom.
- C. Britain.
- D. Albion.

2. Who gave the name "Britannia" to these islands?

- A. The Angles.
- B. The Romans.
- C. The Britons.
- D. The English.
- E. The Celts.

3. When did Britannia first feature on a coin? (Clue! It was in the reign of Charles the Second!)

A. AD 76.

- B. 1066
- C. 1665
- D. 1707
- E. 1801

4. When James the Sixth of Scotland became James the First of England, he hoped that Scots would be called Northern Britons and English people Southern Britons. True or False?

5. After Ireland became part of the United Kingdom in 1801, some English people called the Irish "West Britons". True or false?

6. Scotland and England joined together in

A. 1745

B. 1801

C. 1707

D. 1314

7. The word "Englishness" was first used in (Clue! It was the same year as the Battle of Trafalgar!)

- A. AD 76
- **B**. 1066
- C. 1805
- D. 1787

8. Before you do this question, make sure you know what the word

"archipelago" means - Some historians describe the British Isles as an "Atlantic Archipelago" because

A. We are islands off the coast of Europe that have also been connected to the Americas for the past 400 years or so.

- B. The English like alliteration.
- C. England has a famous naval history.
- D. Great Britain had a world wide Empire.

9. The first king to be known as the King of the English was

- A. Aethelstan
- B. Alfred
- C. Canute
- D. William the Conqueror
- E. Arthur.

10. The word "England" comes from

A.The Angles

- B. Pope Gregory seeing angels over London
- C. The English Roman Catholic historian, the Venerable Bede.
- D. William Blake seeing angels in trees when he wrote Jerusalem.
- E. Saint Augustine.

11. EXTENSION - (HARD - SKIP IT IF YOU WISH) -

What is the difference between the English State and the English Nation?

12. The English language grew from which of the following languages -

- A. Celtic
- B. French
- C. Latin
- D. Greek
- E. Germanic
- F. Scandinavian.

13. In the Middle Ages, some English kings were more interested in being kings of France rather than kings of England - True or False?

- 14. Two early English writers were
- A. John Wycliffe
- B. Lollards.
- C. William Langland.
- D. Geoffrey Chaucer.

15. Geoffry of Monmouth said in the 12th century that the first Britons came here from Troy after a war with Ancient Greece - True or False?

16. His story (Q15) was believed - True or False?

17. He said (Q15) the leader who escaped here was called Brutus - and that is where the name Britons comes from - True or False?

18. Which of the following monarchs were seen as direct descendants from Brutus?

- A. King Lear
- B. King Arthur
- C. Boudicca
- D. Hercules.

19. Some English kings used Geoffry's book to argue they had the right to take over Scotland, Ireland and Wales, so that there could be a Britain again - True or False?

- **20.** Such a monarch was
- A. Matilda
- B. Edward the First.
- C. William the Conqueror
- D. King Arthur.

21. Wales became joined to England in the 16th century - True or False?

22. Wales was actually taken over by England rather than choosing to join - True or False?

23. The Welsh language has survived because the Bible was translated into Welsh - True or False?

24. England first became a naval power with an Empire under

- A. Elizabeth the First.
- B. Victoria.
- C. Edward the Seventh.
- D. Henry the Second.

25. The key religious factor in the rise of English nationalism was

- A. Protestantism.
- B. Guy Fawkes.

C. The Oxford Book of Hymns.

D. Sir Francis Drake.

26. Samuel Johnson, who wrote the first English dictionary was prejudiced against Scots - True or False? He also said that "Patriotism is the last refuge of the scoundrel" - True or False?

27. The famous 18th century writer, Edmund Burke, called ordinary English people "the swinish multitude". What did he mean by that?

28. When Bonnie Prince Charlie invaded England in 1745, more Scots were against him, than for him - True or False?

29. The well known and warm hearted caricature of England as John Bull was first done by a Scotsman - True or False? Also, try to find an image of John Bull – what does it signify, do you think?

30. "Rule Britannia" was written by a Scot - True or False? In the 18th century - True or False? It is the national anthem - True or False?

31. When Britain gained an Empire in the 19th century, which of the following are true?

A. People used the phrase "The White Man's Burden".

B. Many Scots were very involved in building the Empire.

C. Much of the Industrial Revolution took place in Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland.

D. Many working class leaders in England came from Scotland, Ireland and Wales.

32. Key developments in the growth of English culture in the late 19th and early 20th centuries were

A. The growth of upper class public schools.

- B. The monarchy.
- C. The teaching of English Literature in state schools.
- D. Admiration for nature.
- E. Admiration for the past.
- F. Morris dancing and folk song.

33. What does the word "heritage" mean?

34. What does the word "tradition" mean?

35. The summer of 1940 saw Germany try to take control of the skies of southern England in "The Battle of England". True or False?

36. What do the initials BBC stand for? What did BR stand for? BA? BL? BOAC? BT?

37. What is the significance of the first name in all of the above?

38. What % of the total population is made up by minority ethnic groups - A. 7%.

 $\mathbf{D} = 100/$

B. 10%

C. 20%

D. 4%

E. 28%?

39. Find out what the word "devolution" means.

40. Which of the following has their own national parliament or assembly?

A. N. Ireland.

- B. Wales.
- C. England.
- D. Scotland.
- E. Britain.

41. With which parts of the UK do you associate the following foods?

- A. Porridge.
- B. Lava bread.
- C. Fish and chips.
- D. Soda bread.

42. Cornish people spoke their own language until the 18th century - True or False?

43. List as many reasons as you can as to why there are so many different accents and dialects in England.

44. "Television is destroying English accents and dialects. Soon everyone will sound like East Enders." Do you agree with this statement? Explain your reasoning.

45. What nationality is Tony Blair besides British?

46. What nationality is Gordon Brown, besides British?

47. Do you think devolution strengthens or weakens the UK? Explain your reasoning.

48. It was once said that Britain lost its Empire in the 1950's and 1960's but hadn't yet found a role in the world. Where do you think Britain's future should be?

A. In Europe.

B. Separate from Europe and alone.

C. Allied to the USA.

D. Separate from the USA and alone.

E. In a close arrangement with the British Commonwealth.

F. As a bridge between the USA and Europe.

Choose your sections and justify your choice(s).

49. Who is the Prince of Wales? Why is he the Prince of Wales?

50. Name the 4 regional capitals within the UK.

3.3 ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ ВОПРОСОВ ДЛЯ ПОДГОТОВКИ К ЭКЗАМЕНУ

- 1. The subject, the aim and the main tasks / problems of the history of the English language
- 2. Methods of studying the history of the language. Sources of studying the history of the language
- 3. The connection between the history of the English language and the history of its people
- 4. The periodization of the history of the English language
- 5. Basic phonological features of Proto-Germanic languages
- 6. Basic grammatical features of Proto-Germanic languages
- 7. Word-formation and vocabulary of Proto-Germanic languages
- 8. Grimm's Law and Verner's Law
- 9. Old English Dialects and Written Records.
- 10.Old English Vowel Changes.
- 11.Old English Consonant Changes.
- 12. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Noun.
- 13. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Pronoun.
- 14. Grammatical Categories of the Old English Adjective.
- 15.Grammatical Categories of the Old English Verb. Old English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
- 16.Morphological Classes of Verbs in Old English.
- 17.Old English Syntax.
- 18.Word-Formation in Old English.
- 19.Old English Vocabulary.
- 20. The Latin and Greek Influence on the Old English Language.
- 21. The Celtic and Scandinavian Influence on the English Language.
- 22.Middle English Dialects and Written Records.
- 23.Middle English Vowel Changes.
- 24.Middle English Consonant Changes.
- 25.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Noun.
- 26.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Pronoun.
- 27.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Adjective.
- 28.Grammatical Categories of the Middle English Verb. Middle English Non-Finite Forms of Verbs.
- 29. Morphological Classes of Verbs in Middle English.
- 30.Middle English Syntax.

- 31.Word-Formation in Middle English.
- 32.Middle English Vocabulary. The French Influence on the English Language.
- 33. The Great Vowel Shift and Other Vowel Changes in Early Modern English.
- 34.Early Modern English Consonant Changes.
- 35.The Development of New Grammatical Categories in Early Modern English (Future Tense, Perfect Aspect, Continuous Aspect, Passive Voice, etc.).
- 36.Early Modern English Syntax.
- 37.Word-Formation in Early Modern English.
- 38.Early Modern English Vocabulary.
- 39. The Development of the National Literary English Language.
- 40. The Development of Varieties of the English Language. Modern English Dialects.

IV ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

4.1 УЧЕБНАЯ ПРОГРАММА

Учебная программа по истории английского языка предназначена для студентов III курса специальности 1-21 06 01 «Современные иностранные языки» (по направлениям) факультета социокультурных коммуникаций БГУ и рассчитана на 5-й семестр обучения. Всего на дисциплину по учебному плану предусмотрено 100 часов, из них 34 аудиторных часа. Курс предполагает 20 часов лекционных и 14 часов семинарских занятий. Итоговый контроль представлен в форме экзамена.

Основная цель курса лекций – ознакомить студентов с основными понятиями и закономерностями эволюции языка; этапами развития английского языка, а также состоянием его фонетической, грамматической и лексической систем на каждом из них. Условием для реализации данной цели является обеспечение необходимого уровня профессиональнометодической рефлексии собственного опыта изучения иностранных языков, а также установление и реализация междисциплинарных связей с предметами языкового и культурологического циклов, в частности с общим фонетики, теорией языкознанием, теорией грамматики И лексикологией английского языка.

Программа предусматривает тесную связь теоретического курса с практикой. Семинарские занятия дают возможность ознакомиться с отрывками из наиболее известных памятников письменности на древнеанглийском, среднеанглийском и ранненовоанглийском языках, проанализировать языковые формы и синтаксические конструкции, проследить эволюцию системы правописания. Это должно научить студента самостоятельно работать с историческими текстами на английском языке, а также освоить методику работы с историческими текстами в целом. Учебная программа составлена с учетом общих требований к специалисту специальности ««Современные иностранные языки», который

должен знать: основной терминологический и концептуальный аппарат лингвистики; основные классификации языков мира, в том числе генеалогическую; законы развития индоевропейских языков; основные факты и процессы в истории английского языка и их влияние на современный язык; должен уметь: использовать знания в области сравнительноисторического языкознания для выявления материального сходства и различия изучаемого языка; проводить лингвистический анализ и интерпретировать тексты различных стилей и жанров; владеть методикой анализа текстов на английском языке разных периодов; владеть терминологическим аппаратом истории языка;

должен **иметь опыт:** применения основных законов развития индоевропейских языков; практического анализа текстов на английском языке разных периодов; использования полученных знаний в профессиональных целях обучения иностранным языкам в учебных заведениях различных типов; устного и письменного перевода текстов различных стилей и жанров; анализа исторических текстов.

4.2 ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

1. Теоретические аспекты истории языка

История английского языка, ее предмет и задачи. Эволюция языка. Понятие лингвистических изменений. Генеалогическая классификация языков. Понятие языка-основы (праязыка).

2. Германские языки. Общие черты германских языков

Древнейшие сведения о германцах. Древнегерманские племена и их языки. Виды письменности германцев. Общие черты германских языков. Закон Гримма. Закон Вернера.

3. Происхождение и этапы развития английского языка

Происхождение английского языка. Этапы истории английского языка. Развитие письменности на английском языке.

4. Древнеанглийский язык

Возникновение древнеанглийского языка. Памятники древнеанглийской письменности. Древнеанглийский алфавит и произношение. Фонетика, грамматика и лексика древнеанглийского языка. Словообразование в древнеанглийский период.

5. Среднеанглийский язык

Лингвистическая ситуация в средневековой Англии. Памятники письменности. Развитие национального литературного языка. Изменение в правописании и правилах чтения в среднеанглийский период. Эволюция системы звуков и грамматики с 11 по 18 век. Развитие словарного состава в среднеанглийский период.

6. Формирование современного английского языка

Особенности становления современного английского языка. Ранненовоанглийский язык, его особенности. Великий сдвиг гласных.

7. Чтение и анализ текстов на английском языке разных периодов

Чтение и анализ отрывков из следующих произведений: "The Song of Beowolf"; Chaucer's Prologue to "The Canterbury Tales"; W. Shakespeare's "Hamlet".

R1	Название раздела, темы, занятия; перечень изучаемых вопросов		личество ауд	иторных час				
Номер раздела, темы, занятия			практичес кие (семинарс кие) занятия	лаборатор ные занятия	иное	Количест во часов УСР	Формы контроля знаний	Литер атура
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Некоторые теоретические аспекты истории языка	2					Опрос; тест	[1,3,4]
2	Германские языки. Общие черты германских языков.	2	2				Опрос; реферат	[1,3,4]
3	Происхождение и этапы развития английского языка.	2	2				Опрос; тест	[1,3,4]
4	Фонологическая система древнеанглийского языка	2					Тест	[3,4]
5	Фонологическая система среднеанглийского и новоанглийского языков	2	2				Опрос, тест	[3, 4]
6	Грамматическая система древнеанглийского языка	2	2				Опрос; тест	[3, 4]
7	Грамматическая система среднеанглийского языка	2					Опрос; тест	[2, 5]
8	Грамматическая система новоанглийского языка. Синтаксис древнеанглийского, среднеанглийского,новоанглийского языков	2	2				Опрос; тест	[2, 5]
9	Лексическая система древнеанглийского и среднеанглийского языков	2	2				Опрос; реферат	[2, 5]
10	Лексическая система новоанглийского языка Total:	2 20	14				Тест	[2, 5]

УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ КАРТА УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

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