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Dynamics of Metalanguage System

Electronic didactic and methodical complex for the specialty:
7-06-0231-01 "Linguodidactics"

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Electronic didactic and methodical complex for the course "Dynamics of Metalanguage System" is designed for master's students majoring in 7-06-0231-01 "Linguodidactics" and aims to develop knowledge about the main historical processes and stages of development of the English language.

Electronic didactic and methodical complex contains theoretical material and practical assignments aimed at developing foreign language linguistic and sociocultural competencies in specialists with the "Applied Linguistics" qualification and includes a theoretical part, a practical part, a knowledge assessment part, and a complementary part.

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EXPLANATORY NOTES

Aim of the academic discipline "Dynamics of Metalanguage System" is to develop knowledge about the main historical processes of development and stages of the formation of the English language and the ability to identify similarities and differences in the English language in different periods of its development.

Tasks of the discipline:

1. Covering the general problems and methods of diachronic study of linguistic phenomena.
2. Acquiring knowledge about the systemic structure of the English language.
3. Systematization of the changes in linguistic phenomena in the process of historical development of the language.
4. Interpretation of linguistic phenomena considering general patterns of language development and causal relationships.
5. Using literary sources and specialized dictionaries to observe historical changes in individual subsystems of the English language: phonology, grammar, vocabulary.
6. Revealing language as a reflection of socio-cultural reality, a phenomenon of national and universal civilization.

Place of the academic discipline in the system of training a specialist with higher education.

The academic discipline is part of the module «Language in the Paradigm of Scientific Research» (educational institution component).

This discipline has a continuity with the disciplines «Intercultural and cross-cultural aspects of discourse», «Communicative grammar».

Requirements for competences

Mastering of the academic discipline «Dynamics of metalanguage system» should provide the formation of the following competence:

Deep professional competence:

To adapt modern educational technologies to learning conditions, continuous self-education, self-improvement and self-development.

Specialized competences:

To analyze the retrospective of metalanguage system and to characterize the periods of its development.

As a result of mastering the academic discipline, the master student is expected to:

know:

- the development features of the Germanic languages and the English language in specific historical and linguistic situations;
- the fundamental role and influence of Proto-Germanic and other Germanic languages on the development of the English language;
- the main phonetic, grammatical and lexical changes in the English language in accordance with the accepted periodization;

– the most important similarities and differences of the English language in specific historical periods;

– linguistic methods for analyzing historical phenomena.

be able to:

– navigate the diversity of linguistic phenomena, their origin and evolution;

– analyze the phonetic, grammatical and etymological features of a language within a certain period;

– conduct a comparative analysis of the vocabulary of a language by periods of historical development.

have skills in:

– critical analysis of the main historical processes of development and stages of evolution of the English language;

– using knowledge of the general problems and methods of diachronic study of linguistic phenomena;

– interpreting and systematizing changes in linguistic phenomena and considering the general patterns of language development and causal relationships;

– applying methods and techniques for analyzing historical phenomena in the language system.

Structure of the academic discipline

The discipline is studied in the 2nd semester. In total for the study of the discipline «Dynamics of metalanguage system » is allocated for full-time higher education – 96 hours, including 40 in-class hours: lectures – 16 hours, seminar classes – 24 hours. Out of them:

Lectures – 16 hours, seminar classes – 20 hours, controlled self-study (CSS) – 2 in-class hours + 2 out-of-class hours (DLT).

The labour intensity of the discipline is 3 credit units.

Form of certification – end-of-term test.

Structure of the electronic didactic and methodical complex for the academic discipline "Dynamics of Metalanguage System"

Electronic didactic and methodical complex for the academic discipline "Dynamics of Metalanguage System" is designed for master's students majoring in 7-06-0231-01 "Linguodidactics" and aims to develop knowledge about the main historical processes and stages of the English language development.

This complex is developed in accordance with the BSU Regulation on the electronic educational and methodical complex (EEMC) and consists of the following parts: theoretical, practical, knowledge assessment, and a complementary part.

The theoretical part of the EEMC presents lecture materials reflecting the main concepts of the discipline in the format of short notes, which do not exhaust the full content of the course, but provide a basic understanding of the most significant theoretical issues and trends in the development of the English language at the phonetic, grammatical, syntactic and lexical levels in the diachronic aspect.

The practical part of the EEMC presents multi-level, practice-oriented assignments for seminar classes, containing authentic text, informational, reference,

and video materials, as well as heuristic cognitive-type assignments that require independent preparation, creativity, and group work skills.

The knowledge assessment part contains sample lists of tasks for controlled self-study (CSS), a list of assessment questions.

The supporting part contains links to curriculum materials, methodological recommendations for using the electronic educational and methodical complex for the discipline "Dynamics of Metalanguage System" in the educational process, lists of recommended literature, and electronic educational resources. The appendix provides recommendations for the language support of presentations.

1. THEORETICAL PART

1.1. Lecture plan

Lecture 1. History of language as a linguistic discipline.

Lecture 2. English in the group of Germanic languages.

Lecture 3. Old English alphabet and writing.

Lecture 4. Old English phonology.

Lecture 5. Grammar and syntax of Old English.

Lecture 6. Old English lexical system.

Lecture 7. Spelling and reading rules in Middle English and New English periods.
Phonology and phonetics of Middle English and New English.

Lecture 8. Grammar and syntax of Middle English and New English.

1.2. Lecture notes

1.2.1. History of language as a linguistic discipline

Questions:

1. Subject, aims and sources of the discipline.
2. Sources of language history.
3. Chronological division of the history of English.

(1) The history of any language covers the main events in the historical development of the nation: the history of phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of communities relevant to language history. One of the aims of this course is to provide students with sufficient knowledge of the history of language to understand the main features of its modern state. This will be done during the study of this course using the English language as an example.

Phonetics and spelling. There is no denying that English spelling is somewhat difficult for any learner of English. This is because the written form of the English word is conventional rather than phonetic. Therefore, some phonetic phenomena cannot be explained from the modern point of view without going into the history of the language.

When the Latin alphabet was first used in Britain, writing was phonetic. After the introduction of printing in the 15th century, the written form of the word became fixed, whereas the sounds continued to change. This resulted in a growing discrepancy between letter and sound. Hence, we have such 'difficult' words as *light*, *daughter*, *speak*, *great*, *book* and many others where their pronunciation and spelling differ. Modern spellings show how such words were pronounced in the past.

Another illustration may be drawn from *the vocabulary*. Since English belongs to the Germanic group of languages, it would be natural to expect that it has many words or roots in common with cognate Germanic languages. Instead, we find many more words in ME having exact parallels in the Romance languages: French, Latin, Spanish. *The history of English will say when and how these borrowings were made and will thus account for the composition of the modern vocabulary.*

English *grammar* also presents some phenomena which a learner of English will find misleading. For example, the irregular plural of nouns, or the fact that English modal verbs, unlike the other verbs, take no ending -s in the 3d person singular, and many other similar facts. In this lecture it can only be noted that the history of the language will supply explanations both for the general, regular features of the grammatical structure and for its specific peculiarities and exceptions. It will explain why English has so few inflections; how its "analytical" structure arose – with an abundance of compound forms and a fixed word order; why some nouns add -en or change the root-vowel in the plural instead of adding -s (e.g. *oxen, feet*) and so on and so forth.

Another important aim of this course is of a more theoretical nature. The study of the history of any language is based on applying general principles of linguistics to the particular language. While tracing its evolution through time, you will be confronted with a number of theoretical questions such as the relationship between statics and dynamics in language, the role of linguistic and extralinguistic factors, the interdependence of different processes in language history. To find answers to these questions, you will have to rely on the theory previously studied in other linguistic courses. In this way ties will be established between general principles of linguistics and concrete linguistic facts, in other words, theoretical knowledge will find its application in practice.

One more aim of the course is to provide the students with a wider philological outlook. The history of the English language shows the place of English in the linguistic world; it reveals its ties and contacts with other related and unrelated tongues.

(2) The history of the English language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest extant written texts in English are dated in the 7th c.; the earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or 4th c. A. D. The development of English, however, began a long time before it was first recorded.

Certain information about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers, especially Roman. They contain descriptions of Germanic tribes, personal names and placenames. Some data are also provided by early borrowings from Germanic made by other languages, e.g. the Finnish and the Baltic languages. But the bulk of knowledge comes from scientific study of extant texts.

The pre-written history of English and cognate languages was first studied by methods of comparative linguistics evolved in the 19th c. By applying these methods linguists discovered the kinship of what is now known as the Indo-European (IE)

family of languages and grouped them into Germanic, Slavonic, Romance, Celtic, and others. *It is one of the intentions of this course to show how comparison of existing and reconstructed forms can demonstrate differences and similarities in languages, and how reconstructed forms help to understand later developments.*

Modern linguistics has improved on the methods of comparative linguistic research applied in the 19th c. In addition to external reconstruction, which was based on comparing different languages, the recently formulated method of internal reconstruction studies history from internal sources alone. This method is based on the assumption that every language is a well-organized and well-balanced structure of elements. Hence, if among the productive systems of the language there occur some smaller, non-productive systems one can surmise that they are relics of preceding stages of development. When traced into the past, these systems often appear more numerous and more productive, e.g. modern plural forms like *oxen*, *teeth*, isolated now, were, found in larger groups of nouns at an earlier period. It follows that the past history of a language can also be reconstructed by considering its dialectal varieties, since the dialects often preserve forms, words or pronunciations which have become obsolete in the literary standard.

(3) The commonly accepted, traditional periodization divides English history into three periods: Old English, Middle English, and New English, with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language.

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

The History of the English language can be subdivided into seven periods.

The first – pre-written or pre-historical period, which may be termed Early Old English, lasts from the West Germanic invasion of Britain till the beginning of writing, that is from the 5th to the close of the 7th c. It is the stage of tribal dialects of the West Germanic invaders (Angles, Saxon, Jutes and Frisians).

The second historical period extends from the 8th c. till the end of the 11th. The English language of that time is referred to as Old English or Anglo-Saxon; it can also be called Written OE. The tribal dialects gradually changed into local or regional dialects. Towards the end of the period the differences between the dialects grew and their relative position altered. OE was a typical OG language, with a purely Germanic vocabulary, and few foreign borrowings; it displayed specific phonetic peculiarities.

The third period, known as Early Middle English, starts after 1066, the year of the Norman Conquest, and covers 12, 13, and half of the 14th c. It was the stage of the greatest dialectical divergence caused by the feudal system and by foreign influences – Scandinavian and French. The dialectical division of present-day English owes its origin to this period of history. Under Norman rule the official language in England was French. The local dialects were mainly used for oral communication and were but little employed in writing.

The fourth period – from the later 14th c. till the end of the 15th – embraces the age of Chaucer. We may call it Late or Classical Middle English. It was the time of

the restoration of English to the position of the state and literary language and the time of literary flourishing. The main dialect used in writing and literature was the mixed dialect of London. The phonetic and grammatical structure had incorporated and perpetuated the fundamental changes of the preceding period.

The fifth period – Early New English – lasted from the introduction of printing to the age of Shakespeare, that is from 1475 to c. 1660. The first printed book in English was published by William Caxton in 1475. This period is a sort of transition between two outstanding epochs of literary efflorescence: the age of Chaucer and the age of Shakespeare. The growth of the vocabulary was a natural reflection of the progress of culture in the new, bourgeois society, and of the wider horizons of man's activity. Extensive phonetic changes were transforming the vowel system, which resulted in the growing gap between the written and the spoken forms of the word. The inventory of grammatical forms and syntactical constructions was almost the same as in ME, but their use was different.

The sixth period extends from the mid-17th c. to the close of the 18th c. In the history of the language, it is often called «the age of normalization and correctness». This age witnessed the establishment of «norms». The norms were fixed as rules and prescriptions of correct usage in the numerous dictionaries and grammar-books published at the time and were spread through education and writing. The neo-classical period discouraged variety and free choice in pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. Word usage and grammatical construction were subjected to restriction and normalization. The morphological system, particularly the verb system, acquired a stricter symmetrical pattern. The formation of new verbal grammatical categories was completed.

The English Language of the 19th and 20th c. represents the seventh period in the History of English – Late New English or Modern English. The classical language of literature was strictly distinguished from the local dialects and the dialects of lower social ranks. The dialects were used in oral communication and, as a rule, had no literary tradition. In the 19th and 20th c. the English vocabulary has grown on an unprecedented scale reflecting the rapid progress of technology, science and culture and other multiple changes in all spheres of man's activities. Linguistic changes in phonetics and grammar have been confined to alterations in the relative frequency and distribution of linguistic units, some pronunciations and forms have become old-fashioned or even obsolete, while other forms have gained ground, and have been accepted as common usage.

1.2.2. English in the group of Germanic languages

Questions:

1. Modern status of Germanic languages.
2. Unique linguistic features of Germanic languages.

(1) The Germanic languages are a branch of the Indo-European language family spoken natively by a population of about 515 million people mainly in Europe, Northern America, Oceania, and Southern Africa.

Germanic languages are spoken by close to 470 million people in many parts of the world, but mainly in Europe and the Western Hemisphere. All modern Germanic languages derive from a common ancestor traditionally referred to as *Proto-Germanic, believed to have broken off from other *Proto-Indo-European languages some time before 500 B.C. Although no written documents in Proto-Germanic have survived, the language has been substantially reconstructed by using the oldest existing records. Compared to *Proto-Indo-European, **Proto-Germanic had a relatively simpler nominal morphology. For instance, it dropped the dual number, and reduced the number of cases from eight to four. On the other hand, the verbal morphology of *Proto-Indo-European survived relatively intact in all modern Germanic languages, although there are fewer strong (irregular) verbs today.

50 modern Germanic languages are spoken today. They are usually divided into two groups.

Table 1 – Germanic languages spoken today.

West Germanic		
	Number of speakers	Spoken primarily in
Afrikaans	6.2 million 1st, 10 million 2nd language speakers	South Africa
Dutch (including Flemish)	21 million	Netherlands, Belgium
Zeeuws	220,000	Netherlands
Low Saxon (10 varieties)	995,000	Netherlands, Germany, Canada
English	341 million 1st, over 1 billion 2nd language speakers	British Commonwealth countries, U.S.
Western Frisian	700,000	Netherlands
Eastern Frisian	11,000	Germany
Frisian Northern	10,000	Germany
<u>German</u>	95 million 1st, 28 million 2nd language speakers	Germany
<u>Lower Silesian</u>	no estimate available	Poland
<u>Upper Saxon</u>	2 million	Germany
Luxembourgeois	390,000	Luxembourg
West Germanic		
	Number of speakers	Spoken primarily in
Mainfränkisch	no estimate available	Germany
Pennsylvania	85,000	USA
Pfälzisch	no estimate available	Germany
Limburgisch	1.5 million	Netherlands
Kölsch	250,000	Germany

Continuation of Table 1

Scots	200,000	United Kingdom
Yiddish	under 2 million	Israel, U.S.
North Germanic (Norse, Scandinavian)		
<u>Danish</u>	6 million	Denmark
Faroese	45,000	Faroe Islands (Denmark)
Icelandic	230,000	Iceland
Norwegian	5 million	Norway
Swedish	8.8 million	Sweden
East Germanic		
Gothic	extinct	Crimea, Bulgaria

Norse is another name for the North Germanic, or Scandinavian group of languages. These languages all stem from an earlier, now extinct, language known as Old Norse that was spoken by the Germanic tribes living in Scandinavia before 1000 A.D.

(2) Sound system

All Germanic languages have undergone some common sound changes:

First Germanic Sound Shift (Grimm's Law)

Jacob Grimm found evidence for the unity of all the modern Germanic languages in the phenomenon known as the First Germanic Sound Shift, which set the Germanic branch apart from the other branches of the Indo-European family. This shift occurred before the 7th century when records started to be kept. According to Grimm's Law, the shift occurred when /p, t, k/ in the classical Indo-European languages (Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit) became /f, t, h/ in Germanic languages. For example, Latin *pater* > English *father*, Latin *cornu* > English *horn*.

Second Germanic consonant shift took place probably beginning between the 3rd-5th centuries AD, and was almost complete before the earliest written records in the High German language were made in the 9th century. Here are some examples: classical Indo-European /k, t, p/ became /h, θ, f/ in English. (Latin *frater* > English *brother*). Classical Indo-European /g, d, b/ became /k, t, p/ in English. For example, Latin *decem* > English *ten*.

Vowels

Most modern Germanic languages have 14-16 vowel phonemes. Vowel length typically distinguishes word meaning, and there is a contrast between rounded and unrounded front vowels in many of the Germanic languages.

Consonants

Modern Germanic languages have fairly similar consonant systems consisting of 20-22 phonemes.

Stress

All Germanic languages are characterized by a shift of stress to the root and later to the first syllable of the word. Though English has an irregular stress pattern, native words always have a fixed stress, regardless of what is added to them.

Grammar

All Germanic languages are synthetic, i.e., they add suffixes to roots and stems to express grammatical relations.

Some of the general features of Germanic nouns are listed below:

- 1) All Germanic languages have two numbers: singular and plural.
- 2) The majority of Germanic languages have two genders: masculine and feminine. German, Dutch, and Icelandic have preserved the neuter gender. Dutch has two genders – common (masculine and feminine) and neuter.
- 3) Case inflections have all but disappeared in most Germanic languages, with the exception of German, and Icelandic that have retained four cases: nominative, accusative, dative and genitive.
- 4) All Germanic languages have strong (irregular) and weak (regular) nouns. Strong nouns have a change in the root vowel, e.g., English *foot* (singular) and *feet* (plural).
- 5) All Germanic languages have a definite and indefinite article. The definite article may precede the noun or be suffixed to the noun, e.g., in Icelandic.
- 6) Many Germanic languages form the possessive by the addition of *-s* or *-es*, for example, English *man*, *man's*, German *Mann*, *Mannes*.
- 7) In most Germanic languages, articles and adjectives agree with nouns in gender and case in the singular; there is no gender distinction in the plural.
- 8) In some Germanic languages adjectives have strong and weak endings.
- 9) Personal pronouns have retained some case distinctions even if these were lost in the nouns, e.g., English.

Below are some general features of Germanic verbs:

- 1) All Germanic languages have strong and weak verbs. Strong verbs form the past tense and past participle by changing the root vowel, for example, English *ring*, *rang*, *rung*. Weak verbs add an ending *-d/-ed/-t*, for example, English *talk*, *talked*, *talked*.
- 2) Verbs are conjugated based on person and number.
- 3) Verbs have simple and numerous compound tenses formed with auxiliary verbs such as *have* in English.
- 4) There are three moods: indicative, subjunctive/conditional, and imperative.
- 5) There are two voices: active and passive.

Word order is best described in terms of the position of the verb in Germanic clauses. It occupies final position in subordinate clauses, and first or second position in main clauses. The position of all other sentence constituents is relatively free. This feature is shared by all Germanic languages, except English, which has a Subject-Verb-Object word order.

Vocabulary

Most words in Germanic languages are derived from *Proto-Germanic. Germanic languages have also borrowed from neighboring languages, and especially from Latin and Greek, as well as from each other. Much of its scientific terminology has Greek and Latin roots. The latest source of loanwords is English. Words are frequently formed by compounding, suffixation and prefixation.

Writing

The earliest evidence of Germanic writing comes from names recorded in the 1st century by Tacitus. From roughly the 2nd century AD, certain speakers of early Germanic dialects developed the Elder Futhark (rune converter: <https://www.vikingrune.com/rune-converter/>), an early form of the runic alphabet, some examples of which go back to the 3rd century AD. It is thought that the runes were based on an Etruscan-related alphabet, adapted to represent the sounds of Germanic languages and styled to allow carving on wood, stone, and metal. Each rune not only represents a sound but also has a special meaning frequently connected with Norse mythology. Early runic inscriptions were largely limited to personal names, and difficult to interpret. Later, Christian priests and monks who spoke and read Latin in addition to their native Germanic dialects began writing the Germanic languages with slightly modified Latin letters.

1.2.3. Old English alphabet and writing

Questions:

1. Runic and Latin alphabets. Distinctive features of the OE alphabet.
2. Typical OE letters and their evolution.

(1) OE began to appear in writing during the early 8th century.

The earliest records in OE were made in the *runic* alphabet which is supposed to have been brought to Britain in the 5th century by the Germanic tribes and was used until about the 11th century.

The runic alphabet, called *Futhark* or *Futhorc* (in its Anglo-Saxon version), was named after the sounds of the initial letters. The origins of the runic alphabet are uncertain. One hypothesis speculates on the fact that the runes were derived from a northern Etruscan alphabet used among Italic tribes in the eastern Alps, and that they were developed in the 2nd or 3rd century AD by a Germanic people living in the region of modern Bohemia.

The runic alphabet originally comprised 25 characters. In English versions the number of runes eventually increased to 33. A peculiarity of the runic alphabet is the angular shape of the runes and the absence of horizontal strokes and curved lines; this is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were carved in hard material - stone, bone or wood. As a result, runic inscriptions are mostly found on jewellery, weapons, stones, and other objects. Very few examples of runic writing on manuscripts have survived.

The main use of the runes was to give the name of either the craftsman or the owner of the object, or to make short inscriptions on objects often to put on them some special power or magic (<http://www.omniglot.com/writing/runic.htm>).

The Latin alphabet, introduced by Irish Christian missionaries, began to replace the Anglo-Saxon *Futhorc* from about the 7th century, although the two continued in parallel for some time.

							
f fehu wealth	u ūruz aurochs	þ purisaz giant	a ansuz god	r raipō riding	k kaunaz ulcer	g gebō gift	w wunjō joy
							
h hagalaz hail	n naupiz need/hardship	i isa ice	j jera year/harvest	ī eihwaz yew tree	p perp luck	z algiz sedge (?)	s sōwulō sun
							
t teiwaz the god Tyr	b berkana birch twig	e ehwaz horse	m mannaz man	l laguz water	ng inguz the god Ing	d dagaz day	o ōpila inherited land

Picture 1 – OE runic alphabet.

(2) For Old English the Latin alphabet consisted of 25 letters and was based on the Roman letters with a few innovations. The early writings lacked the characters **j**, **q**, **v** and **w**. In addition, because the Roman alphabet had no letters to correspond with certain Old English sounds, additional characters were introduced: **æ**, called *ash*, **þ** (*thorn*), **ð** (*eth*), **ȝ** (*yogh*), and **ƿ** (*wynn*). The *thorn* (**þ**) and *wynn* (**ƿ**) were provided from the runic alphabet; the *ash* (**æ**) is a ligature of the letters **a** and **e** which was adopted as a letter of its own, though the name of the letter comes from its runic name, *aesc* or *ash*. The letter *eth* (**ð**) was later devised as a modification of *dee* (**D d**), and finally *yogh* (**H h**) was an insular variant "g" in Old English and Irish. Also, the symbol **&** for the conjunction *and*, as well as the Tironian note *et* (**7**) were used. Macrons (**á**) or lines (**ā**) over vowels were rarely used to indicate long vowels.

Some runes were occasionally used not as letters but as symbols for the words which were their names: e.g. **M** for OE *dæz*, **H** for OE *mann* (NE *day*, *man*).

A a	Æ æ	B b	C c	D d	Ð ð	E e	F f	Ȝ ȝ
a	ash	be	ce	de	eth	e	eff	yogh
a	æ	b	c	d	ð	e	f	ȝ (g)
[ɑ]	[æ]	[b]	[k/tʃ]	[d]	[θ/ð]	[e]	[f/v]	[g/y/j/dʒ]
h h	I i	L l	M m	N n	O o	P p	R r	S s
há	i	ell	emm	enn	o	pe	err	ess
h	i	l	m	n	o	p	r	s
[h/ç/x]	[i]	[l]	[m]	[n]	[o]	[p]	[r]	[s/z]
T t	U u	ƿ ƿ	X x	Y y	þ þ			
te	u	wynn	eks	yr	thorn			
t	u	ƿ (w)	x	y	þ			
[t]	[u]	[w]		y	[θ/ð]			

Picture 2 – OE Latin alphabet.

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

A careful study of the OE sound system has revealed that a set of letters, **s**, **f** and **þ** (also shown as **ð**) stood for two sounds each: a voiced and voiceless consonant. And yet OE spelling was far more phonetic and consistent than ME spelling.

The letters could indicate short and long sounds. The length of vowels is shown by a macron: *bát* [ba:t], NE *boat* or by a line above the letter; long consonants are indicated by double letters.

1.2.4. Old English phonology

Questions:

1. OE Pronunciation. The system of OE vowels and consonants.
2. OE Accentuation.
3. Sound changes.

(1) The knowledge about OE pronunciation comes from a number of different sources: the Anglo-Saxons' use of the Roman alphabet to represent sounds in their language that must in some cases have been quite different from the sounds of Latin; the forms that words from Latin and other languages take when they are adopted into OE and the forms that OE words take when they are represented by Latin-speaking or French-speaking scribes; evidence about English and its dialects from later periods; evidence from the cognate languages of other Germanic peoples.

	bilabial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	post-alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
plosive	p b			t d			k g	
affricate					tʃ dʒ			
fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		(x)	h
nasal	m			n			ŋ	
lateral approximant				l				
approximant	w				r	j		

Picture 3 – The inventory of classical OE surface phones.

- [q] is an allophone of [n] occurring before [k] and [g];

- [v], [ð], and [z] are allophones of [f], [θ], and [s] respectively, occurring between vowels or voiced consonants.
- [ʃ], [dʒ], and [ʒ] – arose from [kʰ], [gʰ], and [sk] respectively, due to sound changes in late Old English, if not earlier.

Table 2 – Old English Vowels.

	Monophthongs								Diphthongs			
Short	i	e	(œ)	æ	(ā)	a	o	u	y	(ie)	ea	eo
Long	i:	e:	(œ)	æ:	a:		o:	u:	y:	(ie:)	ea:	eo:

(2) In OE a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words, the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable. Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either.

All OE words, as a rule, are accented on the first syllable, except that words beginning with the prefix *ze-* are accented on the second syllable, and verbs beginning with prefixes (examples of OE verbal prefixes are *ze-*, *ā-*, *ofer-*, *ymb-*, *under-*, *wið-*, *be-*, *on-*, *ūt-*) are accented on the next syllable after the prefix.

Nouns and adjectives with prefixes (except *ze-*) are accented on the prefixes. Thus, the verb *forwēorðan* 'perish' is accented on the second syllable; a noun derived from it, *fōrwyrd* 'destruction', is accented on the prefix.

(3) Some of the sound changes which took place in Proto-Germanic are as important as OE changes for the light they throw upon the pronunciation of English words at the present time, as well as upon the reasons for many changes in the language.

A) Indo-European to Germanic sound changes.

Grimm's Law is an extremely general sound shift applying to all Germanic languages, and very helpful in linking some seemingly unrelated words to their common Indo-European backgrounds. Grimm's Law is a set of statements describing the inherited Indo-European stops as they developed in Proto-Germanic.

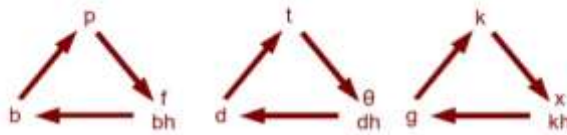
The essence of Grimm's law is that the quality of some sounds (namely plosives) changed in all Germanic languages while the place of their formation remained unchanged. Thus,

(1) voiceless plosives (stops) turned into voiceless fricatives: [p], [t], [k] → [f], [θ], [h]: Lat. *pater* – > Goth *fadar*, OE *fasder*;

(2) voiced plosives (stops) became voiceless plosives: [b], [d], [g] → [p], [t], [k]: Lith. *bala*, Ukr. *болото* -> Old English *pol*; Lat. *granum* – Goth. *kaurn*. OE *corn*;

(3) voiced plosives (stops) lost their aspiration (придыхание) and changed into pure voiced plosives: [bh], [dh], [gh] → [b], [d], [g]: Sanskrit *bhrata* – > Goth *brodar*, OE *brodor* (brother).

Grimm's Law



Picture 4 – Grimm's Law.

Verner's Law spoke of changes in stress. It describes a historical sound change in voiceless fricatives in the Proto-Germanic language in certain environment.

It was noted long ago that in some words of Germanic languages we find consonants which do not fit into Grimm's law.

Compare the Latin words *frater*, *mater*, *pater* with their OE equivalents *broþor*, *modor*, *fæder*. By Grimm's law the sound [t] in all the Latin words should have corresponded to the sound [θ] (written þ) in all the OE words. As it was, only the word *broþor* showed the regular consonant shift [t > θ]. In the two other words we find the voiced stop [d].

The explanation given by the Danish linguist Karl Verner is that the sound quality depended upon the position of the accent in the Indo-European word: after an unstressed vowel the voiceless spirants [f, θ, h] (< [p, t, k]) became finally [b, d, g]. Also [s] > [z] and then in some West and North Germanic languages [z] > [r]. This is known as rotacism: Goth. *hausjan* - OE *hýran*, Germ. *Hören*; Goth. *laisjan* - OE *læran*, Germ. *Lehren*.

In Sanskrit, where the old Indo-European accent was fairly well preserved, the corresponding words are 'bhratar, ma'tar, pi'tar. The word 'bhratar shows that the Indo-European accent was on the vowel immediately preceding the sound [t], therefore the latter was not voiced after changing to [θ] in the Germanic languages, while in the words corresponding to ma'tar and pi'tar the sound [t] following an unstressed vowel was voiced after changing to [θ] and became first [ð] and later [d].

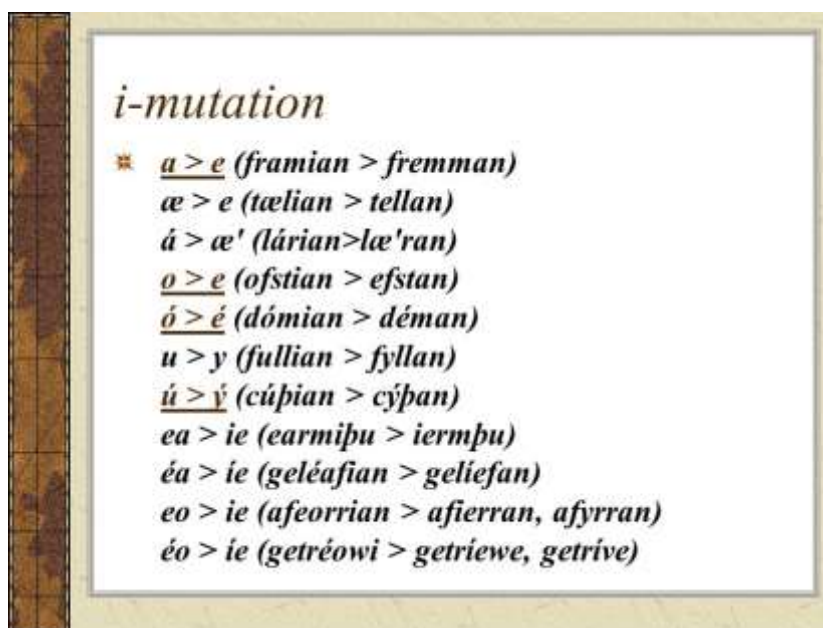
B) Germanic to West Germanic sound changes.

I-mutation (also known as *umlaut*, *front mutation*, *i-umlaut*, *i/j-mutation* or *i/j-umlaut*) is an important type of sound change, which is the way in which the *i-* or *j-* sound in one syllable affects the quality of the vowel in the preceding syllable.

Since the sounds [i] and [j] were common in suffixes and endings, palatal mutation was very frequent.

Due to the reduction of final syllables, the conditions which caused palatal mutation, that is [i] or [j], had disappeared in most words by the age of writing; these sounds were weakened to [e] or were altogether lost.

You may see the circumstances of I-mutation in modern English in such word-pairs as *full-fill*, *blood-bleed*, *mouse-mice*, *long-length*, etc. I-mutation turns up in an adjective formed from a noun by adding -ish in at least one important case: *English* (OE *Englisc*) from the people called *Angles*.



Picture 5 – I-mutation.

C) West Germanic to Old English Sound Changes.

OE breaking is the diphthongization of short vowels before certain sonorant clusters. The process of breaking took place in the 6th century. It affected 2 vowels *æ* and *e* if they were followed by

- 1) **r, l, h + consonant**
- 2) **h** in the final position **then e → eo** или **æ → ea**
 - *ærm – earm (рука);
 - *æld → eald (старый);
 - *æhta → eahta (восемь).

The mechanism of this process: when reaching the hard consonant, it appeared a transitional element between the monophthong and consonant. The resulting vowel was a diphthong. Hence the name breaking which means that a monophthong was broken into a diphthong.

Nasal loss is a description of a phonological development in some dialects of West Germanic, which is attested in OE, Old Frisian, and Old Saxon. By this sound change, nasals disappeared before fricatives and the preceding vowel received compensatory lengthening.

The sequence *vowel + nasal consonant (m/n) + fricative consonant* lost the nasal consonant. In this process the preceding vowel was probably nasalised and lengthened: OHG *fimf* – OE *fif* (NE *five*), OHG *uns* – OE *ūs* (NE *us*).

1.2.5. Old English grammar and syntax

Questions:

1. Parts of speech and grammatical categories.
2. Number, case, gender, declension types of nouns.
3. Pronoun categories.
4. Declension, gender and degrees of comparison of adjectives.
5. Morphological classification and conjugation of verbs, development of impersonal forms.
6. OE syntax: phrases, simple and complex sentences, negation. Word order in OE.

(1) OE was a synthetic or inflected type of language. Inflections showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple (synthetic) grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms OE employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes, and suppletion.

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

Sound interchanges were employed less and were often combined with other form-building means, especially endings. *Vowel interchanges* were more common than interchanges of *consonants*.

The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs. Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives and a couple of verbs.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral (all referred to as *nominal parts of speech* or *nomina*), the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection.

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

There were *five nominal grammatical categories* in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of definiteness/indefiniteness. Each part of speech had its own peculiarities in the inventory of categories and the number of members within the category. The noun had only two grammatical categories: number and case. The adjective had the maximum number of categories – five.

The number of members in the same grammatical categories in different parts of speech did not necessarily coincide. Thus, the noun had four cases, whereas the adjective had five. The personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p., unlike other parts of speech, distinguished three numbers – singular, plural and dual:

sg OE ic (NE I), *dual* wit ‘we two’, *pl* wē (NE we)

OE stān *n* (NE stone) – stānas (stones).

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: tense and mood (proper verbal categories) and number and person, showing agreement between the verb-predicate and the subject of the sentence.

The distinction of categorial forms by the noun and the verb was to a large extent determined by their division into morphological classes: declensions and conjugations.

(2) The OE noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: *number and case*. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category.

The category of number consisted of two members, *singular and plural*. They were well distinguished formally in all the declensions.

The typical plural endings were *-es, -en, -ru*. By the end of the OE period these three endings came to the overall conformity and accepted the form *-es (s)*.

The noun had four cases: *Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative*. In most declensions two, or even three, forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinction of cases was less consistent than that of numbers.

The functions of cases in OE require little explanation for the Russian student, since they are those, which ought to be expected in a language with a well-developed case system.

Morphological Classification of Nouns. Declensions

The total number of declensions, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five. All in all, there were only *ten distinct endings* (plus some phonetic variants of these endings) and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms; yet every morphological class had either its own specific endings or a specific succession of markers. Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: *the gender of nouns, the stem-suffix, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables*.

OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masc., Fem. and Neut. Don't confuse this kind of grammatical gender with biological gender. There is nothing biologically feminine about nouns which are grammatically feminine, etc. It's just that nouns have a fixed feature which we call gender by convention.

Gender in OE was not always associated with the meaning of nouns. Sometimes a derivational suffix referred a noun to a certain gender and placed it into a certain semantic group: **-þu** was a feminine suffix for abstract noun (*lengþu – length, hýþu – height*), **-ere** was a masculine suffix showing the doer of the action (*fiscere – NE fisher*). Very often gender was controversial – the grammatical gender did not always coincide with the natural gender of the person. Sometimes grammatical gender even contradicted real gender: the noun *wifman (wife)* was declined as masculine.

All the above-mentioned features of gender led to the early disappearance of this category as part of the process of simplification in the language and by the end of the OE period “he” or ‘she’ for inanimate objects were replaced by ‘it’.

The stem-suffix. OE nouns show their different cases by inflection: they add additional letters to the end of the basic form of the word. This basic form that does not change throughout a word's inflection is called the **stem**. There are, consequently,

two parts of an Old English word that you must note: the *stem* and the case *ending*. The *stem* contains the meaning of the word and its gender. The *case ending* will tell (1) how the noun is being used in its sentence, and (2) whether the noun is singular or plural. The morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient (IE) grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes which could consist of:

- vowels (vocalic stems, e. g. a-stems, i-stems),
- consonants (consonantal stems, e. g. n-stems),
- sound sequences, e. g. -ja-stems, -nd-stems.

Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a "zero-suffix"; they are usually termed "root-stems" and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e. g. OE *man*, *bōc* (NE man, book).

Watch the OE noun *stān* (stone) as it inflects through its different cases:

Table 3 – Declension of the OE noun *stān* (stone).

<i>Singular</i>	Old English	Approximate English Translation
Nominative	stān	stone
Accusative	stān	stone
Genitive	stānes	of the stone
Dative	stāne	to/for the stone
<i>Plural</i>	Old English	Approximate English Translation
Nominative	stānas	stones
Accusative	stānas	stones
Genitive	stāna	of the stones
Dative	stānum	to/for the stones

The *stem* of the Old English word is clearly visible. It's *stān* to which different endings are being attached. The case endings are:

Table 4 – Case endings of the OE noun *stān* (stone).

	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-	-as
Accusative	-	-as
Genitive	-es	-a
Dative	-e	-um

There are many other nouns in OE which follow this same pattern of case endings when they inflect, in fact some 35% of all OE nouns follow this pattern. This pattern of endings is called the *masculine a-declension*. There are four other common declensional patterns in OE, but a noun will belong to only one of them. Hence, we can say that *stān* is a *masculine a-declension* noun.

Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic;

monosyllables with a long root-syllable (a long vowel + a consonant or a short vowel + two consonants – also called "long-stemmed" nouns) differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable (short-stemmed nouns).

Nouns are divided into two main categories of declension in OE: the so called "Strong" and "Weak" nouns (there are other minor declension groups, as well; but most nouns fall into these two classifications). If a noun belongs to a particular declension group, it can usually only be declined that way.

Table 5 – The common declensions of OE nouns (besides masculine *a*-).

<i>Singular</i>	Neuter a-	Feminine o-	Weak Masculine -n	Weak Feminine -n
% of nouns	25	25	9	5
Nominative	scip "ship"	giefu "gift"	guma "man"	tunge "tongue"
Accusative	scip	giefe	guman	tungan
Genitive	scipes	giefe	guman	tungan
Dative	scipe	giefe	guman	tungan
<i>Plural</i>	Neuter a-	Feminine o-	Weak Masculine -n	Weak Feminine -n
Nominative	scipu	giefa	guman	tungan
Accusative	scipu	giefa	guman	tungan
Genitive	scipa	giefa	gumena	tungena
Dative	scipum	giefum	gumum	tungum

The endings are also clearly visible, and are summarized in the table below:

Table 6 – Case endings of the OE nouns.

<i>Singular</i>	Neuter a-	Feminine o-	Weak Masculine -n	Weak Feminine -n
Nominative	-	-u	-a	-e
Accusative	-	-e	-an	-an
Genitive	-es	-e	-an	-an
Dative	-e	-e	-an	-an
<i>Plural</i>	Neuter a-	Feminine o-	Weak Masculine -n	Weak Feminine -n
Nominative	-u	-a	-an	-an
Accusative	-u	-a	-an	-an
Genitive	-a	-a	-ena	-ena
Dative	-um	-um	-um	-um

Table 7 – Declension of the OE weak nouns.

SINGULAR	<i>Weak Masculine-n "man"</i>	<i>Weak Feminine-n "tongue"</i>	<i>Weak Neuter-n "eye"</i>
NOMINATIVE	guma	tunge	eage
ACCUSATIVE	guman	tungan	eage
GENITIVE	guman	tungan	eagan
SINGULAR	<i>Weak Masculine-n "man"</i>	<i>Weak Feminine-n "tongue"</i>	<i>Weak Neuter-n "eye"</i>
DATIVE	guman	tungan	eagan
PLURAL			
NOMINATIVE	guman	tungan	eagan
ACCUSATIVE	guman	tungan	eagan
GENITIVE	gumena	tungena	eagena
DATIVE	gumum	tungum	eagum

Looking at this table, it can be seen that the inflectional endings for all genders are very similar, generally the singular forms only differ in the *Nominative Singular* case. The Plural forms are the same for **all** genders.

(3) OE pronouns fell roughly under 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 yet and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

OE personal pronouns had 3 persons, 3 numbers in the 1st and 2nd p. (two numbers – in the 3rd) and 3 genders in the 3rd p. *Pronouns were the only part of speech in OE which preserved the dual number in declension*, but only this makes them more archaic than the rest parts of speech. Most of pronouns are declined in number, case and gender, in plural the majority have only one form for all genders.

Table 8 – Declension of OE personal pronouns.

<i>1st person</i>			
	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	ic, íc	wé	wit
G	mín	úre	uncer
D	mé	ús	unc
A	mec, mé	úsic, ús	uncit, unc
<i>2nd person</i>			
N	þú	gé	git
G	þín	éower	incer
D	þé	éow	inc
<i>2nd person</i>			
A	þéc, þé	éowic, éow	incit, inc

<i>3rd person</i>			
N	hé (masc.), héo (fem.), hit (neut.)	híe (masc., neut.), héo (fem.)	
G	his, hire, his	hiera, heora	
D	him, hire, him	him	
A	hine, híe, hit	híe, héo	

Through the last 1500 years *mín* became *mine*, *gé* turned into *you* (*ye* as a colloquial variant). But changes are still significant: the 2nd person singular pronouns disappeared from the language, remaining only in the poetic speech and in some dialects in the north of England. This is really a strange feature: the polite form replaced the colloquial one, maybe due to the English traditional "ladies and gentlemen" customs.

The word for "*she*" was *héo* in OE. The word *she* probably comes from the feminine demonstrative pronoun *séo* (see below), which derives from the Common Germanic **sjó*. But the exact origin of this simple word is unknown, and there is even a version that it came from Celtic languages (Irish *sí* [shee]) or from Scandinavian.

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: *the prototype of NE that*, which distinguished 3 genders in the singular and had one form for all the genders in the pl. *and the prototype of this* with the same subdivisions: *ðes* Masc., *ðeos* Fem., *ðis* Neut. and *ðas* pl. They were declined like adjectives according to a 5-case system:

Table 9 – Declension of OE demonstrative pronouns.

<i>sé (that)</i>				
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
N	sé	séo	þæt	þá
G	þæs	þæ're	þæs	þára
D	þæ'm	þæ're	þæ'm	þám
A	þone	þá	þæt	þá
I	þý, þon	-	þý, þon	-
<i>þes (this)</i>				
N	þes	þéos, þíos	þis	þás
G	þisses	þisse	þisses	þissa
D	þissum, þeossum	þisse	þissum	þissum
A	þisne, þysne	þás	þis	þás
I	þis, þys	-	þýs, þis	-

Both demonstrative pronouns come from the same two Proto-Indo-European stems: **so-* / **sa-* and **to-*. Originally, in Indo-European languages there was a three-grade system of demonstrative pronouns, namely "this, next to me", "this, next to you", and "that, far from both of us". But, as well as many branches of the family, Germanic languages left only two of them, simplifying the structure to just "this" and "that".

All indirect case forms of the pronouns above begin with *þ-* [th]. It traces back to the Indo-European **t-* which became *þ* in Germanic.

Table 10 – Interrogative pronouns.

	Who	What
N	hwá	hwæt
G	hwæs	hwæs
D	hwæ'm	hwæ'm
A	hwone	hwæt
I	-	hwý, hwí

Translation is simple: *hwá* means 'who?', *hwæt* is 'what?'. These pronouns derive from Proto-Indo-European **kwis*, with **kw* becoming *hw* in Germanic languages. Later Germanic languages changed the sound in a different way: in Norwegian it remained as *hv*, in German turned into *w* (as in *wer* 'who', *was* 'what'), in English finally changed into *wh* pronounced in most cases [w].

Interesting that the instrumental of the word *hwæt*, once being a pronoun form, later became the word *why* in English. So 'why?' is originally an instrumental case of the interrogative pronoun.

Other interrogative pronouns, or adverbs, as they are sometimes called, include the following, all beginning with *hw*: *hwilc* 'which?', *hwonne* 'when?', *hwæ'r* 'where?'

Other kinds of pronouns include *definite*, *indefinite*, *negative and relative*, all typical of Indo-European languages. All of them still exist in Modern English:

Definite: *gehwá* (every) – declined the same way as *hwá*, *gehwilc* (each), *ægþer* (either), *æ'lc* (each), *swilc* (such) – all declined like strong adjectives, *sé ylca* (the same) – declined like a weak adjective.

Indefinite: *sum* (some), *æ'nig* (any) – both behave the same way as strong adjectives.

Negative: *nán*, *næ'nig* (no, none) – declined like strong adjectives.

Relative: *þe* (which,that), *séþe* (which, that) – they are not declined.

In Proto-Indo-European no traces of definite or indefinite articles can be found.

It started appearing already when languages of the family existed separately (In Homer's Greek language there was no article, but all classical Greek dialects already have the definite article in wide use). Later the definite article appears in Romance languages (though Latin did not have it at all), Celtic languages, in late Germanic (but not in Gothic nor in OE), and even in several Slavic languages (Macedonian, Bulgarian).

OE did not use the article. It appeared later, coming, as it always happens, for the demonstrative pronoun. But even in this period the texts show us the frequent use of the demonstrative pronoun before nouns in the sentence: *...he heold þæt rice* (...he held the kingdom).

(4) In all historical Indo-European languages adjectives possess practically the same morphological features as the nouns. As well as the noun, the adjective can be declined in case, gender and number. Moreover, the instrumental case was preserved in adjectives much stronger than in nouns. Adjectives must follow sequence with nouns, which they define – that is why the same adjective can be masculine, neuter and feminine and therefore be declined in two different types: one for masculine and neuter, the other for feminine nouns. The declension is more or less simple, it looks much like the nominal system of declension, though there are several important differences.

As in other OG languages, most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: *according to the weak and to the strong declension*. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG: vocalic *a-*, *ō-*, *u-* and *i-* and consonantal *n-*. Therefore, the strong declension of adjectives is sometimes called the "pronominal" declension. As for the weak declension, it uses the same markers as *n-*stems of nouns.

The difference between the strong and the weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined in both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners.

The adjective had a **strong form** when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners, e.g.: *þā menn sindon zōde* ‘the men are good’.

The **weak form** was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns (*þæt weste land* ‘that uninhabited land’) and also when the adjective formed a part of a direct address (*þū lēofa drihten* ‘thou dear Lord’).

Table 11 – Declension of Adjectives.

Singular						
<i>Strong (pure a- and ō-stems)</i>				<i>Weak</i>		
		N	F	M	N	V
<i>Nom.</i>	blind	blind	blind	blinda	blinde	blinde
<i>Gen.</i>	blindes	blindes	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Acc.</i>	blindne	blind	blinde	blindan	blinde	blindan
<i>Instr.</i>	blinde	blinde	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Plural						
				All genders		
<i>Nom.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e	blindan		
<i>Gen.</i>	blindra	biindra	biindra	blindra, -ena		
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindum	blindum		
<i>Acc.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e	blindan		
<i>Instr.</i>	blindum (NE <i>blind</i>)	blindum	blindum	blindum		

Some adjectives, however, did not conform with these rules: a few adjectives were always declined strong, e. g. *eall*, *maniz*, *ōþer* (NE *all*, *many*, *other*), while several others were always weak: adjectives in the superlative and comparative degrees, ordinal numerals, the adjective *ilca* ‘same’. In general, the endings of strong adjectives look the following way, with very few varieties:

Table 12 – The endings of OE strong adjectives.

	Masc.		Fem.		Neut.	
	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N	-	-e	-u	-a	-	-u
G	-es	-ra	-re	-ra	-es	-ra
D	-um	-um	-re	-um	-um	-um
A	-ne	-e	-e	-a	-	-u
I	-e				-e	

If you have a weak noun as a subject, its attributive adjective will be weak as well. *So, a strong adjective for a strong noun, a weak adjective for a weak noun.*

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: *positive*, *comparative* and *superlative*. The suffixes we use in Modern English (*-er* and *-est*) are the direct descendants of the OE ones. At that time, they sounded as *-ra* and *-est/ost*: *earm* (poor) – *earmra* – *earmost*, *blæc* (black) – *blæcra* – *blacost*.

Table 13 – Comparison of Adjectives in Old English.

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Suffixation	soft wēriȝ	softra wēriȝra	softost wēriȝost	<i>soft</i> <i>weary</i>
Suffixation plus vowel interchange	ȝlæd lonȝ eald (Also:	ȝlædra lenȝra ieldra ealdra	ȝladost lenȝest ieldest ealdost, ealdest)	<i>glad</i> <i>long</i> <i>old</i>
Suppletion	ȝōd lȝtel micel	betra læssa māra	bet(e)st læst mæst	<i>good</i> <i>little</i> <i>much</i>

Many adjectives changed the root vowel – another example of the Germanic ablaut: *eald* (*old*) – *ieldra* – *ieldest*, *strong* – *strengra* – *strengest*, *long* – *lengra* – *longest*.

The most widespread and widely used adjectives always had their degrees formed from another stem, which is called "suppletive" in linguistics. Many of them are still seen in today's English: *gód* (good) - *betera* - *betst* (or *sélra* - *sélest*), *ȝfel* (bad) - *wiersa* – *wierest*, *micel* (much) - *māra* – *máest*, *lȝtel* (little) - *læ'ssa* - *læ'st*,

fear (far) - *fierra* - *fierrest*, *fyrrest*, *néah* (near) - *néarra* - *niehst*, *nyhst*
æ'r (early) - *æ'rra* - *æ'rest*, *fore* (before) - *furþra* - *fyrest* (first).

Now you see what the word "first" means - just the superlative degree from the adjective "before, forward". The same is with *niehst* from *néah* (near) which is now "next".

(5) The OE verb was characterised by many peculiar features. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: *number and person*. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense.

Finite forms regularly distinguished between *two* numbers: sg and pl.

The category of Person was made up of *three forms*: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd. Person was consistently shown only in the Pres. Tense of the Ind. Mood. In the Past Tense sg of the Ind. Mood the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. coincided and only the 2nd p. had a distinct form. Person was not distinguished in the plural; nor was it shown in the Subj. Mood.

The category of Mood was constituted by *the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive*. There were a few homonymous forms, which eliminated the distinction between the moods: Subj. did not differ from the Ind. in the 1st p. sg Pres. Tense (*here, deme*) and in the 1st and 3rd p. in the Past. The coincidence of the Imper. and Ind. Moods is seen in the pl – *lociap, demap*.

The use of the Subj. Mood in OE was in many respects different from its use in later ages. Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and hypothetical contexts Subj. was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech.

The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorial forms, *Present and Past*. The tenses were formally distinguished by all the verbs in the Ind. and Subj. Moods.

The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Pres. were used to indicate present and future actions. With verbs of perfective meaning or with adverbs of future time the Pres. acquired the meaning of futurity. Future happenings could also be expressed by verb phrases with modal verbs: *forþæm ge sculon ... wepan* 'therefore you shall weep'.

The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past (including those which are nowadays expressed by the forms of the Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Present Perfect and other analytical forms).

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: *the Infinitive and the Participle*. In many respects they were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verb; their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features, especially at the morphological level. The verbal nature of the Infinitive and the

Participle was revealed in some of their functions and in their syntactic "combinability": like finite forms they could take direct objects and be modified by adverbs.

The forms of the two participles were strictly differentiated. P I was formed from the Present tense stem (the Infinitive without the endings *-an*, *-ian*) with the help of the suffix *-ende*. P II had a stem of its own – in strong verbs it was marked by a certain grade of the root-vowel interchange and by the suffix *-en*; with weak verbs it ended in *-d/-t*. P II was commonly marked by the prefix *ge-*, though it could also occur without it, especially if the verb had other word-building prefixes.

All OE verbs are classified into **four** types: *anomalous*, *preterite-present*, *strong*, and *weak*. The principal difference between the types lies in the formation of the past tense. The key form for an Old English verb is the infinitive, which typically ends in *-an*. The main difference between the strong and weak verbs lay in the means of forming the "stems" of the verb.

The conjugation of verbs shows the means of form-building used in the OE verb system. Most forms were distinguished with the help of inflectional endings or grammatical suffixes; one form (P II) was sometimes marked by a prefix; many verbs made use of vowel interchanges in the root; some verbs used consonant interchanges, and a few had suppletive forms.

There were about three hundred strong verbs in OE. They were native words descending from PG; many of them had a high frequency of occurrence and were basic items of the vocabulary widely used in word derivation and word compounding. The strong verbs in OE (as well as in other OG languages) are usually divided into seven classes.

The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class:

- an* for the Infinitive,
- *no ending* in the Past sg stem,
- on* in the form of Past pl,
- en* for Participle II.

Two of these markers – the zero-ending in the second stem and *-en* in Participle II – are found only in strong verbs and should be noted as their specific characteristics.

Table 14 – Strong Verbs in Old English.

Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Participle II	NE
1	writan	wrāt	writon	writen	<i>write</i>
2	(a) cēosan	cēas	curon	coren	<i>choose</i>
	(b) būzan	bēaz	buzon	bozen	<i>bow</i>
3	(a) fīndan	fand	fundon	funden	<i>find</i>
	(b) helpan	healp	hulpon	holpen	<i>help</i>
	(c) feohtan	feaht	fuhton	fohten	<i>fight</i>

4	beran	bær	bæron	boren	<i>bear</i>
5	(a) cweðan	cwæð	cwædon	cweden	<i>say</i>
	(b) sittan	sæt	sæton	seten	<i>sit</i>
6	scacan	scōc	scōcon	scacen	<i>shake</i>
7	(a) hātan	hēt	hēton	hāten	<i>call, name</i>
		(heht)	(hehton)		
	(b) ʒrōwan	ʒrēow	ʒrēowon	ʒrōwen	<i>grow</i>

The classes of strong verbs – like the morphological classes of nouns – differed in the number of verbs and, consequently, in their role and weight in the language. Classes 1 and 3 were the most numerous of all: about 60 and 80 verbs, respectively; within Class 3 the first group – with a nasal or nasal plus a plosive in the root (*findan, rinnan* – NE *find, run*) included almost 40 verbs, which was about as much as the number of verbs in Class 2; the rest of the classes had from 10 to 15 verbs each. Some classes in OE had similar forms; thus Classes 4 and 5 differed in one form only – the stems of P II; Classes 2, 3b and c and Class 4 had identical vowels in the stem of P II.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help of the dental suffix *-d-* or *-t-* (a specifically Germanic trait), normally they did not change their root vowel, but in some verbs, suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange. The number of weak verbs in OE by far exceeded that of strong verbs. In fact, all the verbs, with the exception of the strong verbs and the minor groups (which make a total of about 320 verbs) were weak. Their number was constantly growing since all new verbs derived from other stems were conjugated weak.

In OE the weak verbs are subdivided into three classes differing in the ending of the Infinitive, the sonority of the suffix, and the sounds preceding the suffix.

Table 15 – Classes of OE the weak verbs.

Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
I	<i>-an/-ian</i>	<i>-de/-ede/-te</i>	<i>-ed/-d/-t</i>	<i>stir</i>
	(a) styrian	styrede	styred	
Principal forms Classes	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
	(b) temman	temede	temed	<i>tame</i>
	(c) dēman	dēmede	dēmed	<i>deem</i>
	(d) cēpan	cēpte	cēped	<i>keep</i>
	(e) tellan	tealde	teald	<i>tell</i>
	(f) pyncan	pūhte	pūht	<i>think</i>
	II	<i>-ian</i>	<i>-ode</i>	<i>-od</i>
lōcian		lōcode	lōcod	

III	-an	-de	-d	<i>live</i> <i>have</i>
	libban habban	lifde hæfde	lifd hæfd	

Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs but were not homogeneous either. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way ("preterite-present" verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous.

The most important group of these verbs was the so-called "preterite-presents" or "past-present" verbs. Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms. Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Most of these verbs had new Past Tense forms built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them did not have a full paradigm and were in this sense "defective".

The verbs were inflected in the Present like the Past tense of strong verbs: the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. sg were identical and had no ending – yet, *unlike strong verbs, they had the same root-vowel in all the persons; the pl had a different grade of ablaut similarly with strong verbs* (which had two distinct stems for the Past: sg and pl). In the Past the preterite-presents were inflected like weak verbs: the dental suffix plus the endings *-e, -est, -e*. The new Infinitives *sculan, cunnan* were derived from the pl form. Before the shift of meaning and time-reference the would-be preterite-presents were strong verbs.

Table 16 – Conjugation of EO verbs *sculan, cunnan*.

Infinitive	<i>cunnan</i> (NE <i>can</i>)	<i>sculan</i> (NE <i>shall, should</i>)
Present tense		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1st	cann	sceal(l)
2nd	canst	scealt
3rd	cann	sceal(l)
Plural	cunnon	sculon
<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cunne	scule, scyle
Plural	cunnen	sculen, scylen
Participle I	–	–
Past tense		
<i>Indicative</i>		
Singular 1st	cūðe	sceolde
2nd	cūðest	sceoldest
3rd	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðon	sceoldon
<i>Subjunctive</i>		
Singular	cūðe	sceolde
Plural	cūðen	sceolden
Participle II	cunnen, cūð	

In OE there were 12 preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in ME: OE *ag*; *cunnan*, *cann*; *dear(r)*, *sculan*, *sceal*; *magan*, *mæg*, *mot* (NE *owe*, *ought*; *can*; *dare*; *shall*; *may*; *must*). Most of the preterite-presents did not indicate actions but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive, which followed the preterite-present. In other words, they were used like modal verbs and eventually developed into modern modal verbs.

Among the verbs of the minor groups there were several anomalous verbs with irregular forms. OE *willan* was an irregular verb with the meaning of volition and desire; it resembled the preterite-presents in meaning and function, as it indicated an attitude to an action and was often followed by an Infinitive.

Willan had a Past tense form *wolde* (built like *sceolde*, the Past tense of the preterite-present *sculan*, *sceal*). Eventually *willan* became a modal verb, like the surviving preterite-presents, and, together with *sculan* developed into an auxiliary (NE *shall*, *will*, *should*, *would*).

Some verbs combined the features of weak and strong verbs. OE *don* formed a weak Past tense with a vowel interchange and a Participle in *-n*: *don* – *dyde* – *gedon* (NE *do*).

Two OE verbs were suppletive. OE *gan*, whose Past tense was built from a different root *gan* – *eode* – *gegan* (NE *go*); and *beon* (NE *be*).

Beon is an ancient (IE) suppletive verb. In many languages – Germanic and non-Germanic – its paradigm is made up of several roots. In OE the Present tense forms were different modifications of the roots **wes-* and **bhu-*, 1st p. sg *eom*, *beo*, 2nd p. *eart*, *bist*. The Past tense was built from the root **wes* on the pattern of strong verbs of Class 5. Though the Infinitive and Participle II do not occur in the texts, the set of forms can be reconstructed as: **wesan* – *wæs* – *wæron* – **weren*.

(6) In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases (also: word groups or patterns). OE noun patterns, adjective patterns and verb patterns had certain specific features.

A noun pattern consisted of a noun as the headword and pronouns, adjectives, numerals and other nouns as determiners and attributes. Most noun modifiers agreed with the noun in gender, number and case:

on þæm oþrum þrim dagum ... 'in those other three days' – Dat. pl Masc.

Nouns, which served as attributes to other nouns, usually had the form of the Gen. case: hwales ban, deora fell 'whale's bone, deer's fell'.

An adjective pattern could include adverbs, nouns or pronouns in one of the oblique cases with or without prepositions, and infinitives:

him *wæs* *manna* *pearf* 'he was in need of men'ю

Verb patterns included a great variety of dependant components: nouns and pronouns in oblique cases with or without prepositions, adverbs, infinitives and participles, e.g.:

bring *pā* *pinz* 'bring those things' (Acc.)

Hē ... *sealde* *hit* *hys* *māder* 'he ... gave it to his mother' (Acc., Dat.)

Isaac *cwæð* *tō* *his* *suna* 'Isaac said to his son' (preposition plus Dat.).

Infinitives and participles were often used in verb phrases with verbs of incomplete predication (some of these phrases were later transformed into analytical forms): *mihstet findan* 'might find' in the last example, *hē wolde fandian* 'he wanted to find out'.

The following example shows the structure of the simple sentence in OE, its principal and secondary parts:

Soðlice sum mann hæfde twegen suna (*mann* – subject, *hæfde* – Simple Predicate) 'truly a certain man had two sons'.

Predicates could also be compound: *modal, verbal and nominal*:

Hwæðre þu meaht singan 'Nevertheless you can sing'.

He was swyðe spedig mann 'He was a very rich man'.

The secondary parts of the sentence are seen in the same examples:

twegen suna 'two sons' – Direct Object with an attribute,

spedig 'rich' – attribute.

The connection between the parts of the sentence was shown by the form of the words as they had formal markers for gender, case, number and person. As compared with later periods agreement and government played an important role in the word phrase and in the sentence. Accordingly, the place of the word in relation to other words was of secondary importance and the order of words was relatively free. The presence of formal markers made it possible to miss out some parts of the sentence which would be obligatory in an English sentence now.

One of the conspicuous features of OE syntax was multiple negation within a single sentence or clause. The most common negative particle was *ne*, which was placed before the verb; it was often accompanied by other negative words, mostly *naht* or *noht* (which had developed from *ne* plus *awiht* 'no thing'). These words reinforced the meaning of negation.

Ne con ic *noht* singan... ic *noht* singan *ne* cuðe 'I cannot sing' (lit. "cannot sing nothing"), 'I could not sing' (*noht* was later shortened to *not*, a new negative particle).

Another peculiarity of OE negation was that the particle *ne* could be attached to some verbs, pronouns and adverbs to form single words:

...hē ne mihte *nān* ping zesēon 'he could not see anything' (*nān* from *ne ān* 'not one')

hit *nā* būton zewinne *næs* 'it was never without war' (*næs* from *ne wæs* 'no was'; NE *none*, *never*, *neither* are traces of such forms).

Compound and complex sentences existed in the English language since the earliest times. Even in the oldest texts we find numerous instances of coordination and subordination and a large inventory of subordinate clauses, subject clauses, object clauses, attributive clauses, adverbial clauses. And yet many constructions, especially in early original prose, look clumsy, loosely connected, disorderly and wanting precision, which is natural in a language whose written form had only begun to grow.

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. Thus, in OE the default word order was verb-second,

which is a typical feature of Germanic languages, with certain differences in it. The main OE word-order patterns are the following: *direct* (Subject-Verb), *indirect* (Verb-Subject), and *transposed / synthetic* (Subject-Object-Verb). Each of these can occur in several different environments, but each is also typical of particular kinds of clause.

The direct (Subject-Verb) word order is the usual order of independent sentences, main clauses, though it also occurs frequently in subordinate clauses. The predicate is followed by its modifiers. When the predicate consists of a preterite-present verb and a verbal, the ordering of elements is a little different. For instance, in subordinate clauses, the two parts of the predicate are usually separated: *the preterite-present verb goes directly after the subject, and the verbal is left for the end of the clause.*

The indirect (Verb-Subject) word order is common in independent clauses introduced by the adverbs *þa* 'then', *þonne* 'then', *þær* 'there', *þanon* 'thence', *þider* 'thither', and the negative adverb *ne*. This word-order is also characteristic of questions whether or not introduced by an interrogative word, compound predicates, containing link-verbs and modal verbs, and also occurs in imperative sentences:

Eart pū Ēsau, min sunu? 'Are you Esau, my son?'

Hwæt sceal ic sinzan? 'What shall I sing?'

The so-called transposed (Subject ... Verb) word order is commonly found in subordinate clauses and clauses introduced by *and/ond* or *ac* 'but', though it does sometimes occur in independent clauses. The subject comes at the beginning of the clause, and the finite verb is delayed until the end.

1.2.6. Old English lexical system

Questions:

1. Etymological characteristics of the vocabulary of OE: native vocabulary, Celtic, Scandinavian, French and Latin borrowings.
2. Basic methods of word formation.

(1) The vocabulary of OE was rich indeed. Thousands of different lexical items are found in OE texts, despite the fact that the majority of OE texts have not survived. The exact volume of the OE word-stock is difficult to be stated as the written records do not represent the total number of words in the OE language. Most likely, many words of everyday usage did not find their way into the books and thus OE dictionaries contain about 30,000 words. According to *Encyclopedia Americana* (Volume 10) OE comprises 50,000-60,000 words.

By far the largest proportion of the OE lexicon was native in origin and of three layers – Indo-European, Germanic or specifically OE. It includes the most essential vocabulary, such as:

- the names of the numbers from 1 to 10,
- kinship terms for the nuclear family,

- pronouns,
- basic terms vital to any language (the names of the parts of the body, seasons, the conventional standards, most important objects, natural phenomena, basic actions, and basic qualitative).

The ratio between Indo-European, Germanic, or specifically Old English is 2 : 1 : 0,5 correspondingly.

Native *OE words* can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main layers in the native OE words are: a) common IE words, 2) common Germanic words, 3) specifically OE words.

Words belonging to the common IE layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. They go back to the days of the IE parent-language before its extension over the wide territories of Europe and Asia and before the appearance of the Germanic group. They were inherited by PG and passed into the Germanic languages of various subgroups, including English.

Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship, etc.; verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of man; adjectives indicate the most essential qualities; this layer includes personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals. In addition to roots, this portion of the OE (and Germanic) heritage includes word-building and form-building elements. OE examples of this layer are: *eolk, mere, mōna, trēow, sōwan, næzl, beard, brōðor, mōdor, sunu, dōn, bēon, niwe, long, ic, min, pæt, twā*, etc. (NE *elk, 'sea', moon, tree, sow, nail, beard, brother, mother, son, do, be, new, long, I, my, that, two*).

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. Being specifically Germanic, these words constitute an important distinctive mark of the Germanic languages at the lexical level. This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common IE words. (The ratio between specifically Germanic and common IE words in the Germanic languages was estimated by 19th c. scholars as 1:2)

Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with the sea and everyday life. Some of the words did not occur in all the OG languages. Their areal distribution reflects the contacts between the Germanic tribes at the beginning of their migrations: West and North Germanic languages (represented here by OE, OHG and O Icel) had many words in common.

The third etymological layer of native words can be defined as specifically OE, that is words which do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words are few, if we include here only the words whose roots have not been found outside English: OE *clipian* 'call', OE *brid* (NE *bird*) and several others. However, they are far more numerous if we include in this layer OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England. For instance, OE *wiftnan* or *wimman* (NE *woman*) consists of two roots which occurred as separate words in other OG languages but formed a compound only in OE (cf. OHG *wib*, O Icel *vif*, NE *wife*;

OE *man*, Gt *mann(a)*, NE *man*). Other well-known examples are – OE *hlāford*, originally made of *hlāf* (NE *loaf*, cf. R *хлеб*) and *weard* 'keeper' (cf. Gt *wards*). This compound word was simplified and was ultimately shortened to NE *lord*. OE *hlāfdize* was a compound consisting of the same first component *hlāf* of the root **dize* which is related to parallels in other OG languages: Gt *digan*, O Icel *deigja* 'knead' – lit. 'bread-kneading', later simplified to NE *lady*. Some compounds denoted posts and institutions in OE kingdoms: OE *scirzerefa* 'chief of the shire' (NE *sheriff*), OE *witenazemōt* 'meeting of the elders, assembly'.

Borrowings

It has been estimated that only about 3 per cent of Old English vocabulary is taken from non-native sources. The loan-words penetrated the vocabulary mostly orally during wars, conquests, trade and cultural relations. After the introduction of

Christianity in the 7th century written borrowings first began to be used. In OE borrowings came from two sources – Latin and Celtic.

The only major foreign influence on OE vocabulary was Latin, an influence beginning in the Common Germanic times. The number of Latin borrowings in the

OE period differs with different authors from 400 to 600.

The first Latin words were borrowed by the ancient Germanic tribes, as well as by the predecessors of Old English when they still lived on the continent (the 3rd - 4th c.). This layer (*Continental borrowings*) mainly contains words that were introduced through wars and close trade relations between the Romans and the ancient Germans. Thus, the Latin borrowings of the period, on the one hand, were connected with military matters, and, on the other hand, they were for trade, different household items, plants, milk products, clothing, and building materials.

During the second period of Latin influence, *the Settlement Period*, new Latin words were borrowed by the Anglo-Saxon tribes from the Romanized Celts on the British Isles. The borrowings dating from this period consist of a small group of terms that have to do mostly with war and architecture.

Words connected with *trade* indicate general concepts, units of measurements and articles of trade unknown to the Teutons before they came into contact with Rome. Units of measurement and containers were adopted with their Latin names: OE *pund* (NE *pound*), OE *ynce* (NE *inch*) from L *pondo* and *uncia*, OE *mynet*, *mynetian* ('coin', 'to coin').

The following words denote articles of trade and agricultural products, introduced by the Romans: OE *wine* (from L *vinum*), OE *butere* (from L *būtȳrum*), OE *plume* (from L *prunus*), OE *pipor* (from L. *piper*), (NE *wine*, *butter*, *plum*, *pepper*).

Roman contribution to building can be perceived in words like OE *cealc*, *tizele*, *coper* (NE *chalk*, *tile*, *copper*).

A group of words relating to domestic life is exemplified by OE *cytel*, *disc*, *cuppe*, *pyle* (NE *kettle*, *dish*, *cup*, *pillow*).

Borrowings pertaining to military affairs are OE *mil* (NE *mile*) from L *millia passuum*, which meant a thousand steps made to measure the distance; OE *weall* (NE *wall*) from L *vallum*; OE *stræt* (NE *street*) from Latin *strata via*.

The third period of Latin influence on Old English vocabulary, *the Christian Period*, starts in the 6th-7th century after the introduction of Christianity. Among the many Latin loans in OE relating to the given period there are words mainly connected with religious practice and learning, as well as some names for objects from domestic life, plants, animals, foods, and medical things.

The new religion introduced a large number of new conceptions which required new names; most of them were adopted from Latin, some of the words go back to Greek prototypes:

Table 17 – Latin and Greek prototypes in OE vocabulary.

<i>OE</i>	apostol	<i>NE</i>	apostle	<i>from L</i>	apostolus	<i>from Gr</i>	apóstolos
	antefn		anthem		antiphōna		antiphona
	biscop		bishop		eptscopus		episcopos
	candel		candle		candēla		
	clerec		clerk		clēricus		klerikós

After the introduction of Christianity many monastic schools were set up. Teaching was conducted in Latin or consisted of learning Latin. The written forms of OE developed in translations of Latin texts. These conditions are reflected in a large number of borrowings connected with education, and also words of a more academic character. Unlike the earlier borrowings scholarly words were largely adopted through books; they were first used in OE translations from Latin.

A great variety of miscellaneous borrowings came from Latin with those who had a fair command of Latin: monks, priests, schoolmasters. Some of these scholarly words became part of everyday vocabulary. They belong to different semantic spheres: names of trees and plants – *elm, lily, plant, pine*; names of illnesses and words pertaining to medical treatment – *cancer, fever, paralysis, plaster*; names of animals – *camel, elephant, tiger*; names of clothes and household articles – *cap, mat, sack, sock*; names of foods – *beet, oyster, radish*; miscellaneous words – *fan, place, spend, turn*.

In addition to direct borrowings, Latin also influenced the OE lexicon by causing the formation of semantic loans, loan translations (or calques) and loan creations. *Loan translations* are those, in which a Latin compound word is translated into OE using morphologically equivalent native elements. *Semantic loans*, when a native word assumes the additional sense of the translated Latin word. *Loan creations* are also numerous. Like loan translations, loan creations translate the Latin word using native elements but with greater morphological freedom.

The earliest instances of translation-loans are names of the days of the week found not only in OE but also in other Old (and modern) Germanic languages. The procedure was to substitute the name of the corresponding Germanic god for the god of the Romans:

OE *Mōnan-dæȝ* (*Monday*) 'day of the moon', L *Lunae dies*;

Tiwes-dæȝ (*Tuesday*) 'day of Tiw', L *Martis dies* (Tiw – a Teutonic God corresponding to Roman Mars).

In late OE, many new terms were coined from native elements according to Latin models as translation-loans: OE *zoldsmip* (NE *goldsmith*) 'worker in gold' (L *aurifex*); OE *tunzoldcræft* 'astronomy', lit. 'the knowledge of stars' (L *astronomos*).

Some grammatical terms are of the same origin: OE *dælnimend* 'participle', lit. 'taker of parts' (L *participiutn*); OE *nemniwendlic* (L *Nominatiuus*), OE *wrezendlic* 'Accusative', lit. 'accusing, denouncing' (L *Accusatiuus*). This way of replenishing the vocabulary may be regarded as a sort of resistance to foreign influence: instead of adopting a foreign word, an equivalent was produced from native resources in accordance with the structure of the term.

Another question which arises in considering borrowings from a foreign language is the extent of their assimilation. Most Latin loanwords were treated in OE texts like native words, which means that they were already completely assimilated.

Judging by their spellings and by later phonetic changes they were naturalised as regards their sound form. Like native English words, early Latin loan-words participated in the sound changes, e.g. in *disc* and *ciese* the consonants [sk] and [k'] were palatalised and eventually changed into [ʃ] and [tʃ] (NE *dish*, *cheese*).

The Celtic influence on OE is relatively limited. Celtic words in OE come from three sources – from the continent (usually words associated with conflict and battle – the Celts were often used as 'armies for hire'), loans taken over after settlement (usually place names and names for landscape), and words from Ireland frequently associated with the Christianization of Britain.

Most of the Celtic elements have been preserved in geographical names. According to the generally accepted data, they constitute some 80% in Cornwall, 32% in Devon, 21% in Suffolk. Apart from placenames, the influence of Celtic on OE is insignificant, and Celtic loans make up about a dozen words, which are landscape or religious terms.

The OE kingdoms *Kent*, *Deira* and *Bernicia* derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. The names of York and perhaps London have been traced to Celtic sources (Celtic *dūn* meant 'hill').

Various Celtic designations of 'river' and 'water' were understood by the Germanic invaders as proper names: *Ouse*, *Exe*, *Esk*, *Usk*, *Avon*, *Evan* go back to Celtic *amhuin* 'river', *uisge* 'water'; *Thames*, *Stour*, *Dover* also come from Celtic.

Some elements frequently occurring in Celtic placenames can help to identify them: *-comb* 'deep valley' in *Batcombe*, *Duncombe*, *Winchcombe*; *-torr* 'high rock' in *Torr*, *Torcross*; *-llan* 'church' in *Llandaff*, *Llanelly*; *-pill* 'creek' in *Pylle*, *Huntspill*. Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids; the Celtic component, combined with a Latin or a Germanic component, make a compound placename: Man-chester, Win-chester, Glou-cestre, Lan-caster (*Celtic plus Latin*); York-shire, Corn-wall, Canter-bury (*Celtic plus Germanic*).

(2) Despite the borrowing of foreign words, OE clearly shows a strong tendency to rely on native resources in order to create new vocabulary. Affixation is by far the most frequent method of deriving new vocabulary in OE. There are a large number of both suffixes and prefixes in the language, many of which are very often used on their own. There was more suffixation than prefixation in OE. The language

possessed a wide array of suffixes which were basically traced with nouns and adjectives. As regards prefixation, it was mostly typical of OE verbs. Only negative prefixes were productive in the formation of nouns and adjectives.

OE is a 'compounding language', frequently making new words by forming compounds from old ones. The most common compounds are nouns and adjectives, both of which have different patterns of joining elements. OE made extensive use of composite words, especially in poetry.

According to their morphological structure OE words (like modern words) fell into three main types:

a) simple words ("root-words") or words with a simple stem, containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes, e.g. *land*, *sinzan*, *zōd* (NE *land*, *sing*, *good*);

b) derived words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more affixes, e.g. *be-zinnan*, *weorp-unz*, *un-scyld-iȝ*, *ze-met-inȝ* (NE *begin*, 'worthiness', 'innocent', *meeting*).

c) compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme, e.g. *mann-cynn*, *norpe-weard*, *fēower-tiene*, *weall-zeat*, *scir-ze-refa* (NE *mankind*, *northward*, *fourteen*, *wall gate*, *sheriff*).

OE employed two ways of word-formation: derivation and word-composition.

Derivation

Derived words in OE were built with the help of affixes: prefixes and suffixes; in addition to these principal means of derivation, words were distinguished with the help of sound interchanges and word stress.

Sound interchanges in the roots of related words were frequent, and nevertheless they were used merely as an additional feature which helped to distinguish between words built from the same root. Sound interchanges were never used alone; they were combined with suffixation as the main word-building means and, in many cases, arose as a result of suffixation. Genetically, sound interchanges went back to various sources and periods. The earliest source of root-vowel interchanges employed in OE word-building was *ablaut or vowel gradation*, inherited from PG and IE.

Vowel gradation was used in OE as a distinctive feature between verbs and nouns and also between verbs derived from a single root. The gradation series were similar to those employed in the strong verbs:

ridan *v* – rād *n* [*i*: ~ *a*:] (like Class 1 of strong verbs), NE *ride*, *raid*

sinzan *v* – sonȝ *n* [*i* ~ *a*] (like Class 3 of strong verbs), NE *sing*, *song*

Many vowel interchanges arose due to *palatal mutation*; the element [i/j] in the derivational suffix caused the mutation of the root-vowel; the same root without the suffix retained the original non-mutated vowel;

a) nouns and verbs: *dōm* – *dēman* from the earlier **dōmjān* (NE *doom* – *deem*); *fōd* – *fēdan* (NE *food* – *feed*);

b) adjectives and verbs; *full* – *fyllan* (NE *full* – *fill*); *hāl* – *hælan* ('healthy' – *heal*);

c) nouns and adjectives: *long* – *lenȝþu* (NE *long*, *length*), *stronȝ* – *strenȝþu* (NE *strong* – *strength*); *brād* – *brædþu* (NE *broad* – *breadth*).

The use of consonant interchanges as a distinctive feature in word-building was far more restricted than the use of vowels. Like most vowel interchanges consonant interchanges arose due to phonetic changes:

rīsan – rēran (NE rise, rear) – *Verner's Law* + *rotacism*

dēaþ – dēad (NE death, dead) – *Verner's Law* + *hardening*

talū – tellan (NE tale, tell) – *germination of consonants*

spræc [k] – spreca[n] [k] (NE speech – speak) – *splitting of velar consonants*.

Word Stress

The role of word accentuation in OE word-building was not great. Like sound interchanges, the shifting of word stress helped to differentiate between some parts of speech being used together with other means. The verb had unaccented prefixes while the corresponding nouns had stressed prefixes, so that the position of stress served as an additional distinctive feature between them, e.g. *ond-'swarian* v – *'ond-swaru* n. In some nouns, however, the prefix was as unaccented as in the verbs.

Prefixation

Prefixation was a productive way of building new words in OE. Genetically, some OE prefixes go back to IE prototypes. Many more prefixes sprang in PG and OE from prepositions and adverbs, e.g. *mis-*, *be-*, *ofer-*. Some of these prepositions and adverbs continued to be used as independent words as well.

Prefixes were widely used with verbs but were far less productive with other parts of speech. We can cite long lists of verbs derived from a single root with the help of different prefixes:

Table 18 – OE prefixes.

zān	'go'	faran	'travel'
ā-zān	'go away'	ā-faran	'travel'
be-zān	'go round'	tō-faran	'disperse'
fore-zān	'precede'	for-faran	'intercept' – 'die'
ofer-zān	'traverse'	forp-faran	
ze-zān	'go', 'go away'	ze-faran	'attack', etc.

The most frequent, and probably the most productive, OE prefixes were: *ā-*, *be-*, *for-*, *fore-*, *ze-*, *ofer-*, *un-*. Of these only *un-* was common with nouns and adjectives, the rest were mainly verb prefixes. The prefix modified the lexical meaning of the word, usually without changing its reference to a part of speech: *ze-boren* – *unzeboren* (adjectivised participle; NE *born* – *unborn*); *spēdiȝ* – *unspēdiȝ* adj 'rich', 'poor'.

A distinct semantic group was constituted by negative prefixes *un-*, *mis-*, *wan-*, *or-* (the two latter were nominal prefixes only), e.g.: *hāl* – *unhāi* or *wan-hāl* (NE 'healthy', 'unhealthy'), *wisdom* – *unwisdōm* (NE 'wisdom' – 'folly'); *lician* – *mislician* (NE 'like' – 'displease'), *limpan* or *zelimpan* – *mislimpan* (NE 'happen' – 'go wrong').

Some prefixes had a very weak or general meaning bordering on grammatical, e.g.: *ze-*, the commonest verb prefix, conveyed the meaning of result or completion

and was therefore often used as a marker of the Past Participle – *sittan* – *ze-sett*, *stelan* – *zestolen* (NE *sit*, *steal*). *ze-* and *ā-* changed the aspective meaning of the verb and turned it from durative into perfective or terminative without affecting its lexical meaning as in *feran* – *zeferan* 'go – reach', *drincan* – *zedrincan* 'drink – drink off', *winnan* – *zewinnan* 'fight – win', *sendan* – *āsendan* 'send – send off'.

Suffixation

Suffixation was by far the most productive means of word derivation in OE. Suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of the word but could refer it to another part of speech. Suffixes were mostly applied in forming nouns and adjectives, seldom – in forming verbs.

Etymologically OE suffixes can be traced to several sources: old stem-suffixes, which had lost their productivity, but could still be distinguished in some words as dead or non-productive suffixes; derivational suffixes inherited from PIE and PG; new suffixes which developed from root-morphemes in Late PG and OE in the course of morphological simplification of the word.

The old stem-suffixes (-i/l, -ō/-ōj, -t) cannot be regarded as means of derivation in OE. They must have been productive at earlier stages of history, probably in PG, and had left their traces in the morphological classes of nouns, verbs and adjectives. Their application in word derivation can be best shown in reconstructed, pre-written forms of weak verbs. Most stem-suffixes had been lost by the age of writing; the surviving suffixes were dead or non-productive, e.g. -t in OE *meaht* (NE *might*).

Suffixes are usually classified according to the part of speech which they can form. In OE there were two large groups of suffixes: *suffixes of nouns* and suffixes of adjectives. Noun suffixes are divided into suffixes of "agent nouns" and those of abstract nouns.

Among the suffixes of "agent nouns" there were some dead, unproductive suffixes: **-a**, as in the Masc. *a*-stem *hunta* (NE *hunter*), **-end**, originally the suffix of the Present Participle, e.g. OE *frēond*, *fiend*, *hāelend* (NE *friend*, *fiend*, *saviour*), **-end** in word-building was later replaced by **-ere**, a suffix of IE descent, whose productivity grew after the adoption of numerous Latin words with the same suffix, e.g. *scōlere*, *sutere* (NE *scholar*, *shoemaker*). OE agent nouns in **-ere** were derived from nouns and verbs: *fiscere*, *leornere*, *bæcere* (NE *fisher*, *learner*, *baker*).

The nouns in **-ere** were Masc.; the corresponding suffix of Fem. nouns **-estre** was less common: *bæcestre*, *spinnestre* ('female baker', 'female spinner'). The suffix **-inz** was used to build patronymics and to show the descent (происхождение) of a person, e.g.: *Æpelwulfinz* – 'son of *Æpelwulf*', *Centinz* 'a man coming from Kent', *cyninz* 'head of clan or tribe' – OE *cynn* 'clan'.

Another productive suffix, **-ung/-ing**, was used to build abstract nouns from verbs (especially weak verbs), e.g. *bodian* – *bodung* ('preach, preaching'), *earnian* – *earnung* (NE *earn*, *earning*), *witnian* – *wilnung* ('desire' v, n).

A most important feature of OE suffixation is the growth of *new suffixes* from root-morphemes. The second components of compound words turned into suffixes and the words were accordingly transformed from compound to derived. To this group belong OE **-dōm**, **-had**, **-lāc**, **-scipe**, **-rāden**. As compared with the same

morphemes used as roots, the suffixes had a different – usually a more general – meaning. Thus, OE *dōm* as a noun meant 'judgement, choice, honour', while as a second affixal component it lost this lexical meaning to a varying extent, e.g.: *frēodōm* 'free choice' (NE *freedom*), *wisdōm* 'wise judgement' (NE *wisdom*), *crīstendōm* 'Christianity', *lācedōm* 'medicine'.

In the derivation of adjectives we find such suffixes as *-iȝ*, *-isc*, *-ede*, *-sum*, *-en*. The most productive suffixes were *-iȝ*, and *-isc*: *mōdiȝ* 'proud' (from *mōd*, NE *mood*), *hālīȝ* (NE *holy*), *bysiȝ* (NE *busy*); *mennisc* 'human' (from *man* with the root-vowel [a]), *Enȝlisc*, *Denisc* (NE *English*, *Danish*).

The productive adjective suffix *-lic* originated from the noun *lic* 'body', but had lost all semantic ties with it. It could derive adjectives from nouns and other adjectives: *sceandlic* 'disgraceful' (from *sceand* 'disgrace'), *woruldlīc* 'worldly' (from *worulđ*, NE *world*), *dēadlic* (NE *deadly*), *frēondlic* (NE *friendly*).

By adding another suffix *-e* the adjective was turned into an adverb: *frēondlic* – *frēotidlice* 'friendly, in a friendly manner', *wundorlic* 'wonderful' – *wundorlice* 'wondrously'; also: *heard* adj – *hearde* adv (NE *hard*), *lanȝ* adj – *lanȝe* adv (NE *long*). The use of *-e* after *-lic* was very common; thus *-lice* became a frequent component of adverbs and began to be applied as a suffix of adverbs, even if they were not derived from adjectives in *-lic*, e.g.: *rot* 'glad' adj *rotlice* adv 'cheerfully'.

OE *full* was an adjective which being attached to the stems of abstract nouns formed derived adjectives (or compounds): *weorðfull* 'illustrious' (lit. "full of worth"), *carfull* (NE *careful*), *synnfull* (NE *sinful*).

The adjective *lēas* 'deprived, bereft of' employed as a suffix retained its meaning: *sāwollēas* 'lifeless, deprived of soul', *hlāfordlēas* 'without a lord', *slāēplēas* (NE *sleepless*).

Word-Composition was a highly productive way of developing the vocabulary in OE. This method of word-formation was common to all IE languages but in none of the groups has it become as widespread as in Germanic. As in other OG languages, word composition in OE was more productive in nominal parts of speech than in verbs. Compounds in OG languages are usually divided into two types: *morphological or primary compounds and syntactic or secondary*.

Morphological compounds were formed by combining two stems, with or without a linking element: OE *mid-niht* and *midd-e-niht* (NE *midnight*).

Syntactic compounds reproduced the pattern of a syntactic group, usually an attributive phrase consisting of a noun in the Gen. case and a head noun: OE *Sunnan-dæȝ* – *Sunnan* – Gen. sg of *sunne* (Fem. *n*-stem); *dæȝ* – the head word, 'Sun's day' (NE *Sunday*); *Enȝlaland* 'land of the Angles' (NE *England*) – *Enȝla Gin.* pl of *Enȝle*.

Compound nouns contained various first components – stems of nouns, adjectives and verbs; their second components were nouns.

Originally *-e* was the ending of the Instr. case of adjectives used in an adverbial function. The loss of *-e* has produced homonymous pairs in ME: *hard* adj – *hard* adv; the suffixes *-tic* and *-lice* were reduced to *-ly*, which is now both an adverb and an adjective suffix: *deadly* adj and *weekly* adv.

The pattern "noun plus noun" was probably the most productive type of all: OE *hēafod-mann* 'leader' (lit. "head-man"), *mann-cynn* (NE *mankind*), *bōc-cræft* 'literature' (lit. "book craft"), *lēop-cræft*, *sonz-cræft* 'poetry' (lit. "song craft, art of singing").

Compound nouns with adjective-stems as the first components were less productive, e.g. *wid-sæ* 'ocean' (lit. "wide sea"), *cwic-seolfor* (NE *quicksilver*). Compound nouns with verb and adverb-stems were rare; *bæc-hūs* 'baking house', *inn-zanz* 'entrance'.

Compound adjectives were formed by joining a noun-stem to an adjective: *dōm-zeorn* (lit. 'eager for glory'), *mōd-ceariȝ* 'sorrowful'; or by joining two adjective stems: *wid-cūp* 'widely known', *fela-mōdiȝ* 'very brave'.

The remarkable capacity of OE for derivation and word-composition is manifested in numerous words formed with the help of several methods: *un-wis-dōm* 'folly': *un* – negative prefix, *wis* – adjective-stem (NE *wise*), *dōm* – noun-stem turning into a suffix; *pēaw-fæst-nes* 'discipline': *pēaw* n. 'custom', *fæst* adj. 'firm' (NE *fast*), *-nes* – suffix.

1.2.7. Spelling and reading rules in Middle English and New English periods. Phonology and phonetics of Middle English and New English.

Questions:

1. Graphic replacements of letters of the OE alphabet with new letters and digraphs. New sound designations of some letters used since the OE period.
2. Features of spelling.
3. Changes in stress.
4. Quantitative and qualitative changes in consonants and vowels. Formation of new diphthongs. The Great Vowel Shift from 1500 to 1700.

(1) In the course of ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling; some of them reflected the sound changes which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters by new letters and digraphs.

1. In ME the runic letters passed out of use:
 - *þ* (Thorn) and *ð, ð* were replaced by the digraph *th*, which retained the same sound value: [θ] and [ð];
 - the rune "**wynn**" was displaced by *w*;
 - the ligatures *æ* and *œ* fell into disuse.
2. The digraphs *ou, ie* were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:].
3. The letters *j, k, v, z, q* were probably first used in imitation of French manuscripts.
4. The two-fold use of *g* and *c*, which has survived today, owes its origin to French: these letters usually stood for [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels and for [g] and

[k] before back vowels; cf. ME *dentil* [dʒen'til], *mercy* [mer'si] and *good* [go:d], *cours* [ku:rs] (NE *gentle, mercy, good, coarse*).

5. The following digraphs were introduced:

- **sh** (also *ssh* and *sch*) to indicate the new sibilant [ʃ]: ME *ship* (from OE *scip*);

- **dg** to indicate [dʒ] alongside *j* and *g* (before front vowels): ME *edge* ['edʒə], *joye* [dʒoiə], *engendren* [en'dʒendrən] (NE *edge, joy, engender*);

- **wh** replaced the OE sequence of letters *hw* as in OE *hwæt*, ME *what* [hwat] (NE *what*);

- **gh** for [x] and [x'] helped to distinguish between the fricatives [x, x'], which were preserved in some positions, and the aspirate [h]: ME *knyght* [knix't] and ME *he* [he:] (NE *knight, he*); in OE both words were spelt with *h*: OE *cnieht*, *hē*;

- **qu** [kw] replaced the OE *cw* even in native words: OE *cwen*, ME *queen*, NE *queen*;

- **ch, tch** [tʃ] were introduced by the French.

6. Long sounds were shown by double letters: ME *book* [bo:k], *sonne* ['sunnə] (NE *book, sun*); though with vowels this practice was not very regular, e.g. long [e:] could be indicated by *ie* and *ee*, and also by *e*: ME *thief* [θe:f], *feet* [fe:t], *meten* ['me:tən] (NE *thief, feet, meet*).

7. **o** was employed not only for [o] but also to indicate short [u] alongside the letter *u*; it happened when *u* stood close to *n*, *m*, or *v*, for they were all made up of down strokes and were hard to distinguish in a hand-written text. That is how OE *munuc* became ME *monk*, though it was pronounced as [munɰk] and OE *lufu* became ME *love* [luvə] (NE *monk, love*).

8. **y** came to be used as an equivalent of *i* and was evidently preferred when *i* could be confused with the surrounding letters *m*, *n* and others. Probably *y* acquired the new sound value [i, i:] when the OE vowels [y, y:] shown by this letter had changed into [i, i:]. Sometimes, however, *y*, as well as *w*, were put at the end of a word for purely ornamental reasons, so as to finish the word with a curve: ME *nyne* ['ni:nə], *very* ['veri], *my* [mi:] (NE *nine, very, my*).

9. **w** was interchangeable with *u* in the digraphs *ou, au* (ME *doun, down* [du:n]) and was often preferred finally: ME *how* [hu:], *now* [nu:], *lawe* ['lauə], *drawen* ['drauən].

(2) The table summarizes the peculiarities of spelling in Late ME. It includes the new letters and digraphs introduced in ME and the new sound values of some letters in use since the OE period (the other letters of the English alphabet were employed in the same way as before.)

Table 19 – Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling.

Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants
Single letters	
<i>a</i> [a]	<i>c</i> [s] or [k]
<i>y</i> , as well as <i>i</i> [j]	<i>f</i> [f]
<i>o</i> [o] or [u]	<i>g</i> [dʒ] or [g]
	<i>j</i> [dʒ]

	<i>k</i> [k]
	<i>s</i> [s] or [z]
Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants
	<i>v</i> (often spelt as <i>u</i>) [v]
	<i>y</i> [j]
Digraphs	
<i>ee</i> [e:] or [e:]	<i>ch, tch</i> [tʃ]
<i>ie</i> [e:]	<i>dg</i> [dʒ]
<i>oo</i> [o:] or [ɔ:]	<i>gh</i> [x] or [x']
<i>ou</i> [u:] or [ou]	<i>qu</i> [kw]
<i>ow</i> [u:] or [ou]	<i>th</i> [θ] or [ð]
	<i>sh, sch, ssh</i> [ʃ]
	<i>wh</i> [hw]

For letters indicating two sounds the rules of reading are as follows:

1. *Y* stands for [j] at the beginning of words, otherwise it is an equivalent of the letter *i*, as in NE, e.g. ME *yet* [jet], *knyght* [knix't], also *veyne* or *veine* ['veinə] (NE *yet, knight, vein*).

2. The letters *th* and *s* indicate voiced sounds between vowels, and voiceless sounds – initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants: ME *worthy* ['wurði], *esy* ['e:zi], *thyng* [θɪŋ], *sorwe* ['sɔrwə] (NE *worthy, easy, thing, sorrow*). Note that in ME – unlike OE – this rule does not apply to the letter *f*: it stands for the voiceless [f] while the voiced [v] is shown by *v* or *u*; cf. ME *feet* [fe:t] and *vayn* [vein] (NE *feet, vain*).

3. As stated above, *o* usually stands for [u] next to letters whose shape resembles the shape of the letter *u*, though sometimes even in the same environment it can indicate [o], cf. ME *some* ['sumə] and *mone* ['mo:ne] (NE *some, moon*).

To determine the sound value of *o* one can look up the origin of the sound in OE or the pronunciation of the word in NE: the sound [u] did not change in the transition from OE to ME (the OE for *some* was *sum*); in NE it changed to [ʌ]. It follows that the letter *o* stood for [u] in those ME words which contain [ʌ] today, otherwise it indicates [o] Cf., e.g. ME *some* ['sumə], *not* [not] (NE *some, not*).

4. The digraphs *ou* and *ow* were interchangeable. Their sound value can be determined either by tracing the words to OE prototypes or by taking into account the modern pronunciation. They indicate [u:] in the words which contained [u:] in OE, since the OE [u:] had not changed, and which have [au] in NE, e.g. OE *hūs* > ME *hous* [hu:s] > NE *house*. If the modern word has [ou], the corresponding ME word should be pronounced with the same diphthong [ou], e.g. ME *snow* [snou], NE *snow*, as ME [ou] has not altered.

5. Long sounds in ME texts are often shown by double letters or digraphs. The length of the vowel can sometimes be inferred from the nature of the syllable; open syllables often contain long vowels, while closed syllables may contain both short and long vowels. The succeeding consonant groups can also serve as indicators: vowels are long before a sonorant plus a plosive consonant and short before other

consonant sequences, e.g. ME *maken* ['ma:kən], *lat* [la:t], *lok* [lɔk], *bihynden* [bi'hi:ndən], *bisetten* [bi'settən] (NE *make*, *late*, *lock*, *behind*, *beset*).

Though there is no spelling consistency in Middle English, it was phonetical rather than conventional. That is authors and scribes wrote what they spoke (and heard), very often introducing a fair confusion into the spelling system of English.

(1) Despite the many changes in the phonology, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary between Old English and Middle English, the stress patterns of native English words changed little; indeed, they remain much the same to the present day. The major stress was on the root syllable, while subsequent syllables received minimal stress. Compound words usually had a major stress on the first element and a secondary stress on the second element.

The word accent acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. These changes were connected with the phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during the ME period.

In addition, there was a great influx of French loanwords with two, three, or more syllables. Newly borrowed loans of this sort normally were stressed on the final or pen-ultimate syllable in accordance with French patterns as in *seson* [se'son] 'season' or *courage* [ku:'ra:dʒe] 'courage' (though there was a general tendency over the years for the stress to migrate toward the front of the word).

(2) The Middle English inventory of consonants looks even more like that of Present-Day English; indeed, it lacks only the phonemic [q] and [ʒ]. The only system-wide change between the consonants of Old English and those of Middle English is the addition of phonemic voiced fricatives (v, z, ð), which did occur in Old English only as allophones of voiceless fricatives, and affricates (tʃ, dʒ), which appeared in the system at the end of Old English.

The vowels of English have always been less stable than its consonants. The Middle English vowel system presents a more complex total picture in comparison with Old English, because various phonological development added new sounds to the ME inventory, as well as caused some losses from the system.

Changes in vowels fall into three groups: (1) qualitative changes, (2) quantitative changes and (3) formation of diphthongs.

Qualitative changes

Five of the OE monophthongs took on a new value, and the diphthongs became simplified to single vowel sounds.

1) unrounding of [y] and [y:], which developed in different ways in different dialects: [e], [e:] in Kentish and confused with [ie] and [ie:] or [i], [i:] in WS: OE *fyllan* – ME *fellen* ['fellən] (Kentish), *fallen* ['fyliən, 'fullən] (West Midland and South Western) – NE *fill*.

2) narrowing of [æ:] to half-open [ɛ:]: OE *ald* – ME *old* [ə:ld] – NE *old*;

3) rounding of [a:] to [ɔ:] in most ME dialects: OE *stān* – Me *stoon*, *stone* ['stɔ:n(ə)] – NE *stone*;

4) lowering of [æ] to [a] in all dialects: OE *earm* – ME *arm* [arm] – NE *arm*;

5) smoothing of all OE diphthongs: a diphthong is changed to a monophthong: [ea:]→[ɛ:] OE *east* – ME *eest* [ɛ:st] – NE *east*; [eo:]→[e:] OE *dēop* – ME *deep* [de:p]- NE *deep*;

6) reduction of unstressed vowels to [ə] or [i]: OE *talu* – ME *tale* ['ta:lə] – NE *tale*; OE *fiskas* – ME *fishes* ['fifəs] or [fifis] – NE *fishes*.

Formation of new diphthongs. One of the most important sound changes of the Early ME period was the loss of OE diphthongs and the growth of new diphthongs, with new qualitative and quantitative distinctions. For example, the diphthongs [eo:, eo] – as well as their dialectal variants [io:, io] – fell together with the monophthongs [e:, e, i:, i].

Six new diphthongs [ei], [ai], [oi], [au], [au+x], [ou] appeared from varied sources in the language due to:

7) vocalization of [j] after front vowels;

8) vocalization of [y] and [w] after back vowels;

9) breaking of back vowels before [x] and [l] and front vowels before [ç];

10) introduction of [oi] because of French loans.

Table 20 – Sound changes in ME.

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE
e + j	ej	weʒ	wey [wei]	<i>way</i>
	ei	ʒrēʒ	grey [grei]	<i>grey</i>
	ai	mæʒ	may [mai]	<i>may</i>
a + γ	au	laʒu	lawe ['lauə]	<i>law</i>
o + γ	ou	boʒa	bowe ['bouə]	<i>bow</i>
a: + w	ou	cnāwan	knownen ['knouən]	<i>know</i>
a: + x	au + x	brāhte	broughte ['brauxtə]	<i>brought</i>

Quantitative changes

11) lengthening in late Old English before consonant clusters of liquids (плавные звуки [r,l]) or nasals with stops [ld, nd, mb]: OE *cild* – ME *child* [tʃi:ld] – NE *child*; OE *feld* – ME *field* [fe:ld] – NE *field*;

12) shortening in early Middle English:

(a) before double consonants and consonant clusters, except those that caused lengthening and (b) in the first syllable of trisyllabic words: OE *fiftiʒ* - ME *fifty* [fifti] – NE *fifty*, OE *fēdde* – ME *fedde* ['feddə] – NE *fed*;

13) lengthening in open syllable of disyllabic words: OE *mete* – ME *mete* ['mɛ:tə] – NE *meat*; OE *nosu* – ME *nose* ['nɔ:zə] – NE *nose*.

Consonant changes

Consonants changed less than vowels between Old English and Middle English. The most important consonant changes are as follows:

14) palatalisation: at the end of OE a new series of 'palatals' [tʃ], [dʒ] and [ʃ] in addition to the existed labials, dentals/alveolars, velars, and the palatal [j] was created. (It was already underway in late OE and continued in ME.);

15) addition of phonemic voiced fricatives, which was contributed by the great influx of French loanwords to a greater extent and some other factors;

16) changes in the distribution of consonants:

a) loss of long consonants;

b) loss of initial [h]/[x] before consonants: ME *honour* [ho'nu:r] > NE *honour*, ME *hit* or *it* > NE *it*, but ME *hope* [hɔ:pə] > NE *hope*;

c) vocalization of [y] into [o] or to the semivowel [w] after [l] and [r];

d) loss of unstressed final consonants;

e) loss of [w] after [s] or [t] and (especially) before rounded vowels;

f) metathesis: the inversion of a consonant (mainly [r]) and a vowel.

The Great Vowel Shift, the major activity concerning all ME long vowels, took on a new value between 1500 and 1700:

<https://www.sutori.com/story/the-history-of-english-language--9mLdEjkGTx6yshXWFyXUPhvi>);

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gLMpTdAsGH0>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zyhZ8NQOZeo>

Table 21 – Sound changes between 1500 and 1700.

Change illustrated			Examples	
ME (Intermediate NE stage)			ME	NE
i:		ai	<i>time</i> ['ti:mə]	<i>time</i>
			<i>finden</i> ['fi:ndən]	<i>find</i>
e:		i:	<i>kepen</i> ['ke:pən]	<i>keep</i>
			<i>field</i> ['fe:ld]	<i>field</i>
ɛ:	e:	i:	<i>street</i> [stre:t]	<i>street</i>
			<i>east</i> [ɛ:st]	<i>east</i>
			<i>stelen</i> ['ste:iən]	<i>steal</i>
a:		ei	<i>maken</i> ['ma:kən]	<i>make</i>
			<i>table</i> ['ta:blə]	<i>table</i>
ɔ:	o:	ou	<i>stone</i> ['stɔ:n]	<i>stone</i>
			<i>open</i> ['ɔ:pən]	<i>open</i>
			<i>soo</i> [sɔ:]	<i>so</i>
o:		u:	<i>moon</i> [mo:n]	<i>moon</i>
			<i>goos</i> [go:s]	<i>goose</i>
u:		au	<i>mous</i> [mu:s]	<i>mouse</i>
			<i>founden</i> ['fu:ndən]	<i>found</i>
			<i>now</i> [nu:]	<i>now</i>
au		ɔ:	<i>cause</i> ['kauz(ə)]	<i>cause</i>
			<i>dramen</i> ['drauən]	<i>draw</i>

18) developments in short vowels:

a) lowering of [o] into [ɔ], [a] into [æ] or under influence of the following [l] or the preceding [w] into [o], unless followed by a velar consonant [g], [k], [h]: ME *that* [θat] > NE *that*; ME *man* [man] > NE *man*, OE *wæs* > ME *was* [was] > NE *was*;

b) unrounding of [u] into [ʌ], unless "protected" by a preceding labial consonant and followed by [l], [ʃ], or [tʃ]: ME *hut* [hut] > NE *hut*, ME *comen* ['kumən] > NE *come*, but ME *putten* ['putən] > NE *put*; ME *pullen* ['pulən] > NE *pull*;

c) apocopation – wholesale (массовая) loss of the final schwa [ə];

19) developments of diphthongs:

a) smoothing of the ME diphthong [au] into [o:] after the Great Vowel Shift. Two voiceless fricatives, [x] and [x'], were vocalised towards the end of the ME period. The glide [u] had probably developed before the velar consonant [x] even before its vocalisation; it is regularly shown in ME spellings, e.g. ME *taughte*, *braughte* ['tauxtə, 'brauxtə]. Later [au] was contracted to [ɔ:] in accordance with regular vowel changes, and [x] was lost, which transformed the words into NE *taught*, *brought*;

b) merging of the ME diphthong [ai] into [ei];

20) compensatory lengthening of vowels due to the loss of the spirants [ç] and [x] Thus, words like *night* have passed through the following stages: [nix't] > [nijt] > [ni:t] > [nait];

21) vocalization of [r], which can cause either lengthening of a preceding short vowel and its lowering or diphthongization of a preceding long vowel. OE *deorc* became Early ME *derk* [derk] due to the contraction of the OE diphthong [eo] to [e], and changed to *dark* [dark] in Late ME (NE *dark*); likewise, OE *clerec*, which after the loss of the unstressed vowel became ME *clerk* [klerk].

Consonant changes

Changes of consonants between Middle English and New English are represented by the addition of new consonants and numerous changes in the distribution of individual consonant phonemes:

22) addition of the phonemic velar nasal [ŋ] and the voiced fricative [ʒ] due to the assibilation (появление свистящих), which also produced palatal fricatives or affricates from the cluster of the consonant and [j]. In Early NE the clusters [sj, zj, tj, dj] – through assimilation in unstressed position – regularly changed into [ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ]. Three of these sounds, [ʃ, tʃ, dʒ], merged with the phonemes already existing in the language, while the fourth, [ʒ], made a new phoneme. Now the four sounds formed a well-balanced system of two correlated pairs: [ʃ, ʒ], [tʃ, dʒ]: Late ME [sj] > NE [ʃ] as in ME *condicioun* [kondi'sju:n] – NE *condition*;

23) the complete loss of the spirants [ç] and [x] or the sporadic substitution of the final [x] by [f];

24) systematic losses of consonants in various phonetic environments:

a) loss of [g] and [k] before [n] in the initial position: ME *knowen* ['knowən], *gnat* [gnat] – NE *know*, *gnat*;

b) loss of [w] before [r] in the initial position;

c) loss of [l] after low back vowels and before labial or velar consonants;

d) tendency to drop [t] and sometimes [d] in consonant clusters involving [s]: OE *hlystan* – ME *listen* ['listən] – NE *listen*. Simplification of final clusters produced words like NE *dumb*, *climb*, in which [mb] lost the final [b];

25) minor change of [d] to [ð], when it followed the major stress and preceded [r];

26) spelling pronunciations influenced by the spelling of loan words or by unhistorical letters which were introduced on the basis of Latin roots.

1.2.8. Grammar and syntax of Middle English and New English

Questions:

1. General characteristic of ME and NE grammatical changes.
2. ME and NE nominal system.
3. ME and NE verbal system.
4. ME and NE syntax.

(1) Through all the periods of history English preserved the distinctions between the following parts of speech: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction, and the interjection. *The only new part of speech was the article, which split from the pronouns in Early ME.*

In OE all the forms which can be included into morphological paradigms were synthetic. In ME and Early NE, grammatical forms could also be built in the analytical way, with the help of auxiliary words.

In the synthetic forms of the ME and Early NE periods the means of form-building were the same as before: inflections, sound interchanges and suppletion; only prefixation, namely the prefix *ȝe-*, which was commonly used in OE to mark Participle II, went out of use in Late ME.

Inflections continued to be used in all the inflected parts of speech but became less varied. The OE period of history has been described as a period of "full endings", ME – as a period of "levelled endings" and NE – as a period of "lost endings". In OE there existed a variety of distinct endings. In ME all the vowels in the endings were reduced to the neutral [ə] and many consonants were levelled under *-n* or dropped. The process of levelling implies replacement of inflections by analogy, e.g. *-(e)s* as a marker of pl forms of nouns displaced the endings *-(e)n* and *-e*. In the transition to NE most of the grammatical endings were dropped.

The *analytical* way of form-building developed in Late OE and ME. Analytical forms developed from free word groups. The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical marker, while the second component retained its lexical meaning and acquired a new grammatical value in the compound form, e. g. the meaning and function of the verb *to have* in OE *hē hæfde pā* 'he had them (the prisoners)', *Hie hine ofslæzene hæfdon* 'they had him killed' or, perhaps, 'they had killed him', *Hie hæfdon oferzān Ēastenȝle* 'they had overspread East Anglian territory'. In the first sentence *have* denotes possession, in the second, the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of *have* in the translation of the sentence into ME.

Analytical form-building was not equally productive in all the parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification. *Some nominal categories were lost – Gender and Case in adjectives, Gender in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced – cases in nouns and noun-pronouns, numbers in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In Late ME the adjective lost the distinction of number and the distinction of weak and strong forms.*

The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process. The decay of inflectional endings affected the verb system, though to a lesser extent than the nominal system. *The simplification and levelling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform; the OE morphological classification of verbs was practically broken up. On the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms and distinctions came into being. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased: the verb acquired the categories of Voice, Time Correlation (or Phase) and Aspect. Within the category of Tense there developed a new form – the Future Tense; in the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive.* These changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle, having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax. The main changes at the syntactical level were *the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and of diverse means of connecting clauses.*

(2) Decay of Noun Declensions in Early Middle English

The decline of the OE declension system lasted over 300 years and revealed considerable dialectal differences. It started in the North of England and gradually spread southwards. The decay of inflectional endings in the Northern dialects began as early as the 10th c. and was virtually completed in the 11th; in the Midlands the process extended over the 12th c, while in the Southern dialects it lasted till the end of the 13th.

In the Midland and Northern dialects, the system of declension was much simpler. In fact, there was only one major type of declension and a few traces of other types. The majority of nouns took the endings of OE Masc. *a*-stems: *-(e)s* in the Gen. sg (from OE *-es*), *-(e)s* in the pl irrespective of case. In Late ME, when the Southern traits were replaced by Central and Northern traits in the dialect of London, this pattern of noun declensions prevailed in literary English.

The declension of nouns in the age of Chaucer was the same as in ME. The simplification of noun morphology was on the whole completed. Most nouns distinguished two forms: the basic form (with the "zero" ending) and the form in *-(e)s*.

Grammatical Categories of the Noun

The OE *Gender*, being a classifying feature, disappeared. In the 11th and 12th c. the gender of nouns lost its main formal support – the endings of adjectives and adjective pronouns ceased to indicate gender. Semantically gender was associated with the differentiation of sex and therefore the formal grouping into genders was smoothly and naturally replaced by a semantic division into inanimate and animate nouns, with a further subdivision of the latter into males and females.

The grammatical category of *Case* was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME. The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four to two in Late ME. The history of the Gen. Case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME the Gen. Case is used only attributively, to modify a noun, but even in this function it has a rival – prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition *of*. The practice to express genitival relations by the *of*-phrase goes back to OE and grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th c. In some texts there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Gen. is preferred with animate nouns, while the *of*-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones.

Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. In Late ME the ending *-es* was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl. In Early NE it extended to more nouns – to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed *-es* as one of the variant endings. The pl ending *-es* underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables. The following examples show the development of the ME pl inflection *-es* in Early NE under different phonetic conditions:

Table 22 – The development of the ME pl inflection *-es* in Early NE.

Phonetic conditions	ME	NE
after a voiced consonant or a vowel	<i>stones</i> ['stɔ:nəs] > ['stounəz] > ['stounz]	<i>stones</i>
	<i>days</i> [dais] > [deiz]	<i>days</i>
after a voiceless consonant	<i>bookes</i> ['bo:kəs] > [bu:ks] > [buks]	<i>books</i>
after sibilants and affricates [s, z, ʃ, tʃ, dʒ]	<i>dishes</i> ['diʃəs] > ['diʃɪz]	<i>dishes</i>

The ME pl ending *-en*, used as a variant marker with some nouns lost its former productivity, so that in Standard ME it is found only in *oxen*, *brethern*, and *children*.

The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number (ME *deer*, *hors*, *thin*) has been further reduced to three "exceptions" in ME: *deer*, *sheep* and *swine*. The group of former root-stems has survived only as exceptions: *man*, *tooth* and the like.

Personal and Possessive Pronouns

In Early ME the OE Fem. pronoun of the 3rd p. sg *hēo* was replaced by a group of variants – *he, ho, see, sho, she*: one of them – *she* – finally prevailed over the others. Out of these variants the language preserved the unambiguous form *she*, probably to avoid a homonymy clash, since the descendant of OE *hēo* – ME *he* coincided with the Masc. pronoun *he*. It should be noted that the replacement was not complete, as the other forms of OE *hēo* were preserved: *hire/her*, used in ME as the Obj. case and as a Poss. pronoun in a form of OE *hēo* but not of its new substitute *she*; *hers* was derived from the form *hire/her*.

The OE pronoun of the 3rd p. pl *hie* was replaced by the Scand. loan-word *they* [θei]. Like the pronoun *she*, it came from the North-Eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. This time the replacement was more complete: *they* ousted the Nom. case, OE *hie*, while *them* and *their* (coming from the same Scand. loan) replaced the oblique case forms: OE *hem* and *heora*.

Beginning with the 15th c. the pl forms of the 2nd p. – *ye, you, your* – were applied more and more generally to individuals. In Shakespeare's time the pl. forms of the 2nd p. were widely used as equivalents of *thou, thee, thine*. Later *thou* became obsolete in Standard English.

Both in ME and in Early NE the pronouns were subjected to extensive grammatical changes. The category of *Number* was brought into conformity with the corresponding categories of nouns and verbs; the forms of the dual number of the 1st and 2nd p. went into disuse in Early ME. The category of *Case* underwent profound changes. The forms of the Dat. and the Acc. cases began to merge in OE, especially in the West Saxon dialect. The syncretism of the Dat. and Acc. took a long time: it began in Early OE in the 1st and 2nd p. pl; in Late OE it extended to the 1st and 2nd p. sg; in Early ME it spread to the 3rd p.; it was completed in Late ME.

The reduction of the pronoun paradigm proceeded at a slower pace than that of nouns, and its geographical direction was different; beginning in the South it spread northwards. The results of this simplification were less drastic than in the noun morphology.

In Early NE the syncretism of cases entered a new phase: the Nom. case began to merge with the Obj. case. In the following quotation from Shakespeare *you*, the Obj. case of *ye*, is used as the subject, while *she*, the Nom. case, is an object: *You have seen Cassio and she together*. Yet the tendency to reduce the case system of personal pronouns was not fully realized. Only two personal pronouns, *you* and *it* lost all case distinctions in NE.

The modern pronoun *you* comes from the ME Obj. case *you* (OE Dat. *ēow*); its Nom. case *ye* has become obsolete.

The pronoun *it* goes back to the ME Nom. case *it*, OE *hit*; the ME Obj. case of *it, him* was identical with the form of the Masc. pronoun *he, him*; *it* was used in the function of object in ME as a variant of *him*, as a substitute of inanimate nouns; eventually it displaced *him*. This replacement reflects the new grouping of nouns into animate and inanimate.

The loss of case distinctions by these two pronouns did not break up the paradigm of personal pronouns, since the other pronouns have preserved the distinction of two cases, Nom. and Obj. (*I – me, she – her*, etc.).

In OE the Gen. Case of personal pronouns was commonly used in the attributive function. Some of these forms were treated like other noun modifiers: they agreed with the head-noun in case and number, while others did not. In ME these pronouns became more homogeneous: they had all lost their forms of agreement and were uninflected. They can be regarded as a separate class of pronouns termed “possessive”.

In Early NE there arose a new possessive pronoun *its* derived from *it*; *its* was built on the analogy of the Gen. case of nouns, of the form *his* or the new variants of other possessive pronouns: *oures, yours*.

Some possessive pronouns had 2 variant forms in ME: *myne/my, our(e)/ours*, etc. They could be used in free variation, but the variants in *-n* were preferred before nouns which began with a vowel. In the 17th and 18th c. the two variants of the possessive pronouns split into two distinct sets of forms differing in syntactic functions; in modern grammars they are called “conjoint” and “absolute”. At the time of Shakespeare both forms could be employed in the attributive function, but only the forms in *-s* or *-ne* were used independently, as absolute pronouns.

The OE oblique case-forms of personal pronouns and the ME possessive pronouns gave rise to one more type of pronouns – *reflexive*. They developed from combinations of some forms of personal pronouns with the adjective *self*. Their origins are obvious from their modern structures.

Demonstrative Pronouns. Development of Articles

In Early ME the OE demonstrative pronouns *sē, sēo, pæt* and *pes, pēos, pis* – lost most of their inflected forms: out of 17 forms each retained only 2.

Table 23 – Paradigm of demonstrative pronouns in Early ME.

Sg	<i>this</i>	Pl	<i>thise/thes(e)</i>	(NE <i>this – these</i>)
	<i>that</i>		<i>tho/thos(e)</i>	(NE <i>that – those</i>)

The other direction of the development of the demonstrative pronouns *sē, sēo, pæt* led to the formation of the definite article.

In OE texts the pronouns *sē, sēo, pæt* were frequently used as noun-determiners with a weakened meaning, approaching that of the modern definite article.

In the course of ME there arose an important formal difference between the demonstrative pronoun and the definite article: as a demonstrative pronoun *that* preserved number distinctions whereas as a definite article it was uninflected. In the 14th c. the article had lost all traces of inflection and became a short, unaccented form-word. The meaning and functions of the definite article became more specific when it came to be opposed to the indefinite article, which had developed from the OE numeral and indefinite pronoun *ān*.

In OE there existed two words, *ān*, a numeral, and *sum*, an indefinite pronoun, which were often used in functions approaching those of the modern indefinite article. *An* seems to have been a more colloquial word, while *sum* tended to have a literary character and soon fell into disuse in this function.

In Early ME the indefinite pronoun *ān* which had a five-case declension in OE lost its inflection. In the 12th c. the inflectional forms of *ān* reveal a state of confusion; in the 13th c. the uninflected *oon/one* and their reduced forms *an/a* are firmly established in all regions.

It is believed that the growth of articles in Early ME was caused by several internal linguistic factors. The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in the declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms. Originally the weak forms of adjectives had a certain demonstrative meaning resembling that of the modern definite article. These forms were commonly used together with the demonstrative pronouns *sē*, *sēo*, *pæt*. In contrast to weak forms, the strong forms of adjectives conveyed the meaning of “indefiniteness” which was later transferred to *ān*, a numeral and indefinite pronoun. In case the nouns were used without adjectives or the weak and strong forms coincided, the form-words *ān* and *pæt* turned out to be the only means of expressing these meanings.

Another factor which may account for the more regular use of articles was the changing function of the word order. Relative freedom in the position of words in the OE sentence made it possible to use word order for communicative purposes. After the loss of inflections, the word order assumed a grammatical function – it showed the grammatical relations between words in the sentence; now the parts of the sentence had their own fixed places. Accordingly, the communicative functions passed to the articles and their use became more regular. The growth of the articles is thus connected both with the changes in syntax and in morphology.

Other Classes of Pronouns (Interrogative, Indefinite)

The other classes of OE pronouns – interrogative and indefinite – were subjected to the same simplifying changes as all nominal parts of speech. The paradigm of the OE interrogative pronoun *hwā* was reduced to two forms – *who*, the Nom. case, and *whom*, the Obj. case.

The Gen. case of OE *hwā*, *hwæt* – *hwæs* – developed into a separate interrogative pronoun – ME and NE *whose*. OE *hwi*, the former Instr. case of the same pronouns continued to be used as a separate pronoun *why*; OE *hwelc*, ME *which*, formerly used only with relation to person widened its application and began to be used with relation to things.

Most indefinite pronouns of the OE period simplified their morphological structure and some pronouns fell out of use. For instance, *man* died out as an indefinite pronoun; OE derived pronouns with the prefixes *ā-*, *ǣȝ-*, *ne-* were replaced by phrases or simplified: OE *ǣȝhwelc*, *āȝhwilc*, *ǣlc* yielded ME *eech*, NE *each*; OE *pyslic*, *puslic*, *pullic*, *swelc* were replaced by *such*; *nān-pinȝ* (from *ne+ān+pinȝ*) became *nothing*, etc. Eventually new types of compound indefinite pronouns came into use – with the component *-thing*, *-body*, *-one*, etc; in NE they developed a two-

case paradigm like nouns: the Comm. and the Poss. or Gen. case: *anybody* – *anybody's*.

The Adjective. Decay of Declensions and Grammatical Categories

In the course of the ME period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison.

By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early ME it was practically lost.

The first category to disappear was Gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. The number of cases shown in the adjective paradigm was reduced. In the 13th c. case could be shown only by some variable adjective endings in the strong declension; towards the end of the century all case distinctions were lost.

The strong and weak forms of adjectives were often confused in Early ME texts. In the 14th c. the difference between the strong and weak form is sometimes shown in the sg with the help of the ending *-e*.

The general tendency towards an uninflected form affected also the distinction of Number. In the 14th c. pl forms were sometimes contrasted to the sg forms with the help of the ending *-e* in the strong declension. Probably this marker was regarded as insufficient; for in the 13th and particularly 14th c. there appeared a new pl ending *-s*.

In the age of Chaucer, the paradigm of the adjective consisted of four forms distinguished by a single vocalic ending *-e*:

Table 24 – The paradigm of OE adjective.

Strong	<i>sg</i> blind	<i>pl</i> blinde
Weak	blinde	blinde

This paradigm can be postulated only for monosyllabic adjectives ending in a consonant, such as ME *bad*, *good*, *long*. Adjectives ending in vowels and polysyllabic adjectives took no endings and could not show the difference between sg and pl forms or strong and weak forms: ME *able*, *swete*, *bisy*, *thredbare* and the like were uninflected.

The distinctions between the sg and pl forms, and the weak and strong forms, could not be preserved for long, as they were not shown by all the adjectives; besides, the reduced ending *-e* [ə] was very unstable even in 14th c. English. The loss of final *-e* in the transition to NE made the adjective an entirely uninflected part of speech.

Degrees of Comparison is the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all historical periods. In OE the forms of the comparative and the superlative degree, like all the grammatical forms, were synthetic: they were built by adding the suffixes *-ra* and *-est/ost*, to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms. In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same

way, only the suffixes had been weakened to *-er*, *-est* and the interchange of the root-vowel was less common than before.

The alternation of root-vowels in Early NE survived in the adjective *old*, *elder*, *eldest*, where the difference in meaning from *older*, *oldest*, made the formal distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternation are found in the pairs *farther* and *further*, in the modern words *near* and *next*, which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the OE adjective *nēah* ‘near’, but have split into separate words.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the ME period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison. The new system of comparisons emerged in ME, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs *mā*, *bet*, *betst*, *swipor* – ‘more’, ‘better’, ‘to a greater degree’ with adjectives. It is noteworthy that in ME, when the phrases with ME *more* and *most* became more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words. The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used in free variation until the 17th and 18th c., when the modern standard usage was established.

Another curious peculiarity observed in Early NE texts is the use of the so-called “double comparatives” and “double superlatives”:

By thenne Syr Trystram waxed *more fressher* than Syr Marhaus. (Malory)

Shakespeare uses the form *worser* which is a double comparative. A “double superlative” is seen in: This was the *most unkindest* cut of all. (Shakespeare)

The wide range of variation acceptable in Shakespeare’s day was condemned in the “Age of Correctness” – the 18th c. Double comparatives were banned as illogical and incorrect by the prescriptive grammars of the normalizing period.

It appears that in the course of history the adjective has lost all the *dependent* grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically *adjectival* category – the comparison. The adjective is the only nominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building.

Development of Nominal Grammatical Categories

The decay of the nominal grammatical categories in Early ME is summarized in the following table. The figures indicate the number of members or categorial forms distinguished within each category. The column Late ME shows the state of nominal categories in the 15th c., which was the same as in ME.

Table 25 – The decay of the nominal grammatical categories in Early ME.

	Gender		Case		Number		Definiteness/ Indefiniteness		Comparison	
	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME	OE	Late ME
Noun	3			2	2	2	–	–	–	–
Adjective	3	–	5	–	2	–	2	–	3	3

Personal pron. 1st and 2nd p. 3d p.	–	–	4	2	3	2	–	–	–	–
	3	3	4	2	2	2	–	–	–	–
Demonstr. pronouns	3	–	5	–	2	2	–	–	–	–

(3) The morphology of the verb displayed 2 distinct tendencies of development: it underwent considerable simplifying changes, which affected the synthetic forms and became far more complicated owing to the growth of new, analytical forms and new grammatical categories.

Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation. Finite Forms

The decay of OE inflections, which transformed the nominal system, is also apparent in the conjugation of the verb – though to a lesser extent. Many markers of the grammatical forms of the verb were reduced, levelled and lost in ME and Early NE.

ME forms of the verb are represented by numerous variants, which reflect dialectal differences and tendencies of potential changes.

The simplifying changes in the verb morphology affected the distinction of the grammatical categories to a varying degree.

Number distinctions were not only preserved in ME but even became more consistent and regular; towards the end of the period – in the 15th c. – they were neutralized in most positions.

In the 13th and 14th c. the ending *-en* turned into the main, almost universal, marker of the pl forms of the verb. In most classes of strong verbs there was an additional distinctive feature between the sg and pl forms in the Past tense of the Indicative mood: the two Past tense stems had different root-vowels. But both ways of indicating pl turned out to be very unstable. The ending *-en* was frequently missed out in the late 14th c. and was dropped in the 15th; the Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged into one form (e. g. *found*, *wrote*). All number distinctions were thus lost with the exception of the 2nd and 3rd p., Pres. Tense Indic. mood: the sg forms were marked by the endings *-est* and *-eth/-es* and were formally opposed to the forms of the pl.

The differences in the forms of **Person** were maintained in ME, though they became more variable. The OE endings of the 3rd p sg – *-p*, *-ep*, *-iap* – merged into a single ending *-(e)th*.

The variant ending of the 3rd p. *-es* was a new marker first recorded in the Northern dialects. It is believed that *-s* was borrowed from the pl forms which commonly ended in *-es* in the North; it spread to the sg and began to be used as a variant in the 2nd and 3rd p., but later was restricted to the 3rd.

In Chaucer's works we still find the old ending *-eth*. Shakespeare uses both forms, but forms in *-s* begin to prevail:

He *rideth* out of halle. (Chaucer)
(‘He rides out of the hall’)

My life... *sinks* down to death. (Shakespeare) but also:

But beauty's waste *hath* in the world an end. (Shakespeare)

In the early 18th c. *-(e)s* was more common in private letters than in official and literary texts, but by the end of the century it was the dominant inflection of the 3rd p. sg in all forms of speech. The use of *-eth* was stylistically restricted to high poetry and religious texts.

The ending *-(e)st* of the 2nd p. sg became obsolete together with the pronoun *thou*. The replacement of *thou* by *you/ye* eliminated the distinction of person in the verb paradigm – with the exception of the 3rd p. of the Present tense.

Owing to the reduction of endings and levelling of forms the formal differences between the moods were also greatly obscured. The Indicative and Subjunctive moods could no longer be distinguished in the pl, when *-en* became the dominant inflection of the Indicative pl in the Present and Past. The reduction and loss of this ending in Early NE took place in all the forms irrespective of mood.

When, in the 15th c. the two Past tense stems of the strong verbs merged, all the forms of the moods in the Past tense fell together with the exception of the verb *to be* which retained a distinct form of the Subjunctive in the Past sg – *were* as opposed to *was*.

The distinction of *tenses* was preserved in the verb paradigm through all historical periods. As before, the Past tense was shown with the help of the dental suffix in the weak verbs, and with the help of the root-vowel interchange – in the strong verbs. The only exception was a small group of verbs which came from OE weak verbs of Class I: in these verbs the dental suffix fused with the last consonant of the root – [t] – and after the loss of the endings the three principal forms coincided: cf. OE *settan* – *sette* – *3e-set(ed)*, ME *seten* – *sette* – *set*, NE *set* – *set* – *set*.

Verbals. The Infinitive and the Participle

The system of verbals in OE consisted of the Infinitive and two Participles. Their nominal features were more pronounced than their verbal features, the Infinitive being a sort of verbal noun, Participles I and II, verbal adjectives. The main trends of their evolution in ME and NE can be defined as gradual loss of most nominal features (except syntactical functions) and growth of verbal features.

The Infinitive lost its inflected form in Early ME. OE *writan* and *tō writanne* appear in ME as *(to) writen*, and in NE as *(to) write*. The preposition *tō*, which was placed in OE before the inflected infinitive to show direction or purpose, lost its prepositional force and changed into a formal sign of the Infinitive. In ME the Infinitive with *to* does not necessarily express purpose. To reinforce the meaning of purpose another preposition, *for*, was sometimes placed before the to-infinitive. Cf.:

... to Caunterbury they wende

The hooly, blisful martir *for to seke*. (Chaucer)

(‘They went to Canterbury to seek the holy blissful martyr.’)

It may have been important to preserve the infinitive marker *to* in order to distinguish the infinitive from other forms built from the Present tense stem, which had lost their endings.

The distinctions between the two participles were preserved in ME and NE: Participle I had an active meaning and expressed a process or quality simultaneous with the events described by the predicate of the sentence. Participle II had an active or passive meaning depending on the transitivity of the verb and expressed a preceding action or its results in the subsequent situation.

The form of Participle I in Early ME is of special interest, as it displayed considerable dialectal differences. The Southern and Midland forms were derived from the present tense stem with the help of *-ing(e)*, while other dialects had forms in *-inde*, *-ende* and *-ande*. The first of these variants – *finding(e)*, *looking(e)* – became the dominant form in the literary language. Participle I coincided with the verbal noun, which was formed in OE with the help of the suffixes *-ung* and *-ing*, but had preserved only one suffix, *-ing*, in ME. The fusion of the Participle with the verbal noun was an important factor of the growth of a new verbal, the Gerund, and played a certain role in the development of the Continuous forms.

The forms of Participle II in ME. In ME the weak verbs built Participle II with the help of the dental suffix *-(e)d*, *-t*, the strong verbs – with the help of vowel gradation and the suffix *-en*. The Past Participle and the Past tense of the weak verbs fell together by the end of ME, when the unstressed [ə] in the ultimate or penultimate syllable was dropped: ME *lookede* and *looked* merged into NE *looked*; the Past Participle of the strong verbs coincided with the Past pl stem in ME in the classes which had the same gradation vowel in both these stems, e. g. OE *riden* and *ridon* became ME *riden*; OE *funden* and *fundon* became ME *founden*. In Early NE there was a strong tendency to eliminate the difference between the Past tense and Participle II in all strong verbs – but it was cut short in the period of normalization, so that over 50 modern non-standard verbs have preserved the distinction.

It is important to note that while the verbals lost their nominal grammatical categories, they retained their nominal syntactic features: the syntactic functions corresponding to those of the noun and adjectives; they also retained their verbal syntactic features – the ability to take an object and an adverbial modifier.

Development of the Gerund

The gerund can be traced to three sources: *the OE verbal noun in -unz and -inz, the Present Participle and the Infinitive*. Their syntactic functions partly overlapped. In ME the Present Participle and the verbal noun became identical: they both ended in *-ing*. This led to the confusion of some of their features: verbal nouns began to take direct objects like participles and infinitives. This verbal feature – a direct object as well as the frequent absence of article before the *-ing*-form functioning as a noun – transformed the verbal noun into a Gerund in the modern understanding of the term. The disappearance of the inflected infinitive contributed to the change, as some of its functions were taken over by the Gerund.

The earliest instances of a verbal noun resembling a Gerund date from the 12th c. Chaucer uses the *-ing*-form in substantival functions in both ways: with a

prepositional object like a verbal noun and with a direct object. In Early NE the *-ing-* form in the function of a noun is commonly used with an adverbial modifier and with a direct object – in case of transitive verbs.

The nominal features, retained from the verbal noun, were its syntactic functions and the ability to be modified by a possessive pronoun or a noun in the Gen. case.

In the course of time the sphere of the usage of the Gerund grew: it replaced the Infinitive and the Participle in many adverbial functions; its great advantage was that it could be used with various prepositions.

Changes in the morphological classes of verbs

The historical changes in the ways of building the principal forms of the verb (“stems”) transformed the morphological classification of the verbs. The OE division into classes of weak and strong verbs was completely re-arranged and broken up. Most verbs have adopted the way of form-building employed by the weak verbs: the dental suffix. The strict classification of the strong verbs, with their regular system of form-building, degenerated.

The seven classes of OE *strong verbs* underwent multiple grammatical and phonetic changes. In ME the final syllables of the stems, like all final syllables, were weakened, in Early NE most of them were lost. Thus, the OE endings *-an*, *-on*, and *-en* were all reduced to ME *-en*; consequently in Classes 6 and 7 these forms fell together; in Classes 1 and 3a it led to the coincidence of the 3rd and 4th principal forms. The final *-n* was lost in the infinitive and the past tense plural, but was sometimes preserved in Participle II, probably to distinguish the participle from other forms. Thus, despite phonetic reduction, *-n* was sometimes retained to show an essential grammatical distinction, cf. NE *stole* – *stolen*, *spoke* – *spoken*, but *bound* – *bound*.

The most important change in the system of strong verbs was the reduction in the number of stems from four to three, by removing the distinction between the two past tense stems. In OE these stems had the same gradation vowels only in Classes 6 and 7, and the vast majority of English verbs – which were weak – had a single stem for all the past forms. These circumstances facilitated analogical levelling, which occurred largely in Late ME and continued in Early NE. It affected the distinction between the new Past tense stem and Participle II. Identical forms of these stems are found not only in the literary texts and private letters but even in books on English grammar: thus Ben Jonson (1640) recommends *beat* and *broke* as correct forms of Participle II; Shakespeare uses *sang* and *spoke* both as Past tense forms and Participle II.

This tendency was severely criticized by the lexicographers and grammarians of the “age of correctness”. Nevertheless, instances of such merging are found in the works of the best 18th c. authors, e. g. *will have stole* (Swift); *some disaster has befell* (Gay) – Participle II does not differ from the Past. It is probable that prescriptive grammars and dictionaries played a certain role in putting an end to this tendency, at least in some verbs.

One of the most important events in the history of the strong verbs was their transition into weak. In ME and Early NE many strong verbs began to form their Past

and Participle II with the help of the dental suffix instead of vowel gradation. Therefore, the number of strong verbs decreased.

In OE there were about 300 strong verbs. Some of them dropped out of use owing to changes in the vocabulary, while most of the remaining verbs became weak. Out of 195 OE strong verbs only 67 have retained strong forms with root-vowel interchanges. 128 verbs acquired weak forms; most of these verbs belong nowadays to “regular” or “standard” verbs.

The evolution of *the weak verbs* in ME and in Early NE reveals a strong tendency towards greater regularity and order. The OE verbs of Class 3, either joined the other classes of weak verbs as, e. g. OE *libban*, ME Class I *liven*, NE *live* or became irregular, e. g. OE *habban*, ME *haven*, NE *have*; OE *seczam*, ME *seyen*, NE *say*. In ME we can distinguish two classes of weak verbs with some rearrangement between the classes as compared with OE.

ME verbs of Class I took the ending *-de* in the past without an intermediate vowel before the dental suffix – and the ending *-ed* in the past Participle. The verbs of Class II, which were marked by *-ode*, *-od* in OE, had weakened these endings to *-ede*, *-ed* in ME. Consequently, the only difference between the two classes of weak verbs in ME was the presence or absence of the element *-e-* before the dental suffix in the Past tense stem. In Late ME the vowel [e] in unstressed medial and final syllables became very unstable and was lost. This change eliminated the differences between the two classes and also the distinctions between the 2nd and 3rd principal forms, thus reducing the number of stems in the weak verbs from three to two. Late ME weak verbs are the immediate source of modern standard (regular) verbs.

The marker of the Past tense and Participle II employed by the weak verbs – the dental suffix *-d/-t* – proved to be very productive in all historical periods. This simple and regular way of form-building, employed by the majority of OE verbs, attracted hundreds of new verbs in ME and NE. The productivity of this device is borne out by the fact that practically all the borrowed verbs and all the newly-formed verbs in ME and NE built their Past tense and Participle II on the model of weak verbs, e. g. *skate*, *die*, *call* (from O Scand), *assist*, *charm* (from Fr), *decorate*, *execute* (from L).

The verbs included in *the minor groups* underwent multiple changes in ME and Early NE: phonetic and analogical changes, which affected their forms, and semantic changes which affected their functions. Several preterite-present verbs died out. The surviving verbs lost some of their old forms and grammatical distinctions but retained many specific peculiarities. They lost the forms of the verbals which had sprung up in OE and the distinctions between the forms of number and mood in the Present tense. In NE their paradigms have been reduced to two forms or even to one.

ME *can* (from OE *cann*) was used not only in the sg but also in the pl by the side of *cunnen*, the descendant of OE pl *cannon*; the latter, as well as the Subj. forms *cunnen*, *cunne* died out by the end of the ME period. The Past tense Ind. and Subj. appear in ME in two variants: *couth(e)* and *coud(e)*. *Couth* became obsolete in NE, but *coud* was preserved. The insertion of *l* in spelling (*could*) may be due to the analogy of *should* and *would* where *l* was etymologically justified. In ME the verb *can*, and especially its Past Participle is still used in the original meaning ‘know’.

However, *can*, *couth/coude* is much more common as a modal verb indicating physical or mental ability; gradually it replaced OE *mæz*, ME *may* and OE *mōt* in these meanings.

ME *may* (from OE *mæz*) was used as the main form of the Present tense and as the only form of the Present in Early NE. Its Infinitive and Participle I went out of use; its Past tense *might* (from OE *meahte*, *mihte*, ME *mighte*) was retained as the Past form. Indicative and Subjunctive. As compared with OE, *may* has narrowed its meaning, for some of its functions, namely indication of physical and mental ability, have passed to the verb *can*.

ME *shall* (OE *sceal*) has lost many of its old forms and has retained only two forms *shall* and *should* (ME *sholde*, *sholde(n)* – Past Ind. and Subj. In ME it was no longer used as a notional verb but was widely used as a modal verb to express necessity, obligation and order. The form *sholde* also occurred in Pres. tense contexts as the Subj. of *shall*; eventually it lost its ties with *shall* and became a separate modal verb with its own sphere of meanings.

A similar shift of time-reference is observed in the history of *must* and *ought*. *Mōste*, *mōstest*, *mōsten* were Past forms of the OE preterite-present *mōt* ‘can’. The Pres. tense forms have been lost while *must* has acquired the meaning of obligation and is now treated as a Pres. tense form. OE *āzte*, *āzton*, *āzten* were Past tense forms of OE *āzan*, which have acquired the meaning of the present and developed into a new modal verb, ME *ought(e)* (the original meaning ‘possess’) is preserved in the other descendant of the OE verb, NE *owe*, and also in *own*, related to the same root.

The OE verb *willan*, though not a preterite-present by origin, has acquired many features typical of the group. In ME it was commonly used as a modal verb expressing volition. In the course of time it formed a system with *shall*, as both verbs, *shall* and *will* (and also *should*, *would*), began to weaken their lexical meanings and change into auxiliaries.

OE *zān* has had a most unusual history. In OE its Past form was built from a different root and had a weak ending: *ēode*; its Part. II ended in *-n*, similarly with strong verbs (*ze*)*zān*. In ME the verb acquired a new Past tense *wente*, which came from an entirely different verb, OE *wendan* (ME *wenden*, NE *wend* – *уѡму*, *уходумь* in ME). Its OE Past form *wente* had entered the paradigm of *goon* (NE *go*, *went*), while *wend* acquired a new past form *wended*. Thus, the verb *go* remained a suppletive verb, though its OE Past was replaced by a new form.

ME *ben* (NE *be*) inherited its suppletive forms from the OE and more remote periods of history. It owes its variety of forms not only to suppletion but also to the dialectal divergence in OE and ME and to the inclusion of various dialectal traits in literary English. The Past tense forms were fairly homogeneous in all the dialects. The forms of the Pres. Tense were derived from different roots and displayed considerable dialectal differences. ME *am* and *are(n)* came from the Midland dialects and replaced the West Saxon *eom*, *sint/sindon*. In OE the forms with the initial *b-* – from *bēon* – were synonymous and interchangeable with the other forms but in Late ME and NE they acquired a new function: they were used as forms of the Subj. and

the Imper. moods or in reference to the future and were thus opposed to the forms of the Pres. Ind.

Table 26 – Conjugation of OE *bēon*, ME *ben*, NE *be*.

	OE		ME	NE
<i>Infinitive</i>	*wesan	bēon	been	be
Pres. Indicative				
1st p. sg	eom/am	bēo/biom	am	am
2nd p. sg	eart	bist/bis	art	–
3rd p. sg	is	bip	is	is
Pl	sint/sindon	bēop	been/	are
	earon/aron	bēon	are(n)	
Pres. Subjunctive				
Sg	sie, sȳ	bēo	be	be
	OE		ME	NE
Pl	sien, sȳn	bēon	been	
<i>Imperative</i>				
Sg	wes	bēo		be
Pl	wesap	bēop	beeth	
Part. I	wesende	bēonde	beyng(e)	being
			beande	
Past Indicative				
1st p. sg	wæs		was	was
2nd p. sg	wære		were	–
3rd p. sg	wæs		was	was
Pl	wæron		weren	were
Past Subjunctive				
Sg	wære		were	were
Pl	wæren		were	
<i>Part. II</i>	–		been	been

The redistribution of suppletive forms in the paradigm of *be* made it possible to preserve some of the grammatical distinctions which were practically lost in other verbs, namely the distinction of number, person and mood.

Development of new grammatical forms and categories of the verb. The evolution of the verb system in the course of history was not confined to the simplification of the conjugation and to growing regularity in building the forms of the verb. OE finite verbs had two verbal grammatical categories proper: Mood and Tense. According to ME grammars the finite verb has five categories – Mood, Tense, Aspect, Time-Correlation and Voice. All the new forms which have been included in the verb paradigm are analytical forms; all the synthetic forms are direct descendants of OE forms.

A genuine analytical verb form must have a stable structural pattern different from the patterns of verb phrases; it must consist of several component parts: an auxiliary verb, sometimes two or three auxiliary verbs, e.g. NE *would have been*

taken – which serve as a grammatical marker, and a non-finite form – Inf. or Part. – which serves as a grammatical marker and expresses the lexical meaning of the form. The analytical form should be idiomatic: its meaning is not equivalent to the sum of meanings of the component parts. The development of these properties is known as the process of “grammatization”. Some verb phrases have been completely grammatised, e.g. the Perfect forms. Some of them have not been fully grammatised to this day and are not regarded as ideal analytical forms in modern grammars (for instance, the Future tense).

In OE there was no form of *the Future tense*. The category of Tense consisted of two members: Past and Present. The Pres. Tense could indicate both present and future actions, depending on the context. Alongside this form there existed other ways of presenting future happenings: modal phrases, consisting of the verbs *sculan*, *willan*, *mazan*, *cannan* and others (NE *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*) and the Infinitive of the notional verb.

In ME the use of modal phrases, especially with the verb *shall*, became increasingly common. *Shall* plus Inf. was now the principal means of indicating future actions in any context. *Shall* could retain its modal meaning of necessity, but often weakened it to such an extent that the phrase denoted “pure” futurity. In Late ME texts *shall* was used both as a modal verb and as a Future tense auxiliary, though discrimination between them is not always possible.

Future happenings were also commonly expressed by ME *willen* with an Inf., but the meaning of volition in *will* must have been more obvious than the modal meaning of *shall*. It has been noticed that the verb *will* was more frequent in popular ballads and in colloquial speech, which testifies to certain stylistic restrictions in the use of *will* in ME.

In 1653 the rule about the regular interchange of *shall* and *will* depending on person was formulated for the first time. The employment of *shall* and *will* as Future tense auxiliaries was supported by the use of their Past tense forms – *should* and *would* – Ind. and Subj. in similar functions. The rules concerning *shall* and *will* were repeated in many grammar books in the 18th and 19th c. and were taught at school as obligatory. Probably, that was the reason why in BrE they were observed throughout the 19th c.; the complementary distribution of the two auxiliaries – *shall* for the 1st p., *will* for the 2nd and 3rd – became a mark of the British Standard.

In OE the forms of the Subj. Mood were synthetic. In the course of ME and Early NE there sprang up several *new analytical forms of the Subj. Mood*. The sources of the new forms as well as the ways of their development are in many respects similar to those of the Future tense. The use of *should* and *would* as mood auxiliaries was supported by the parallel development of *shall* and *will* as the auxiliaries of the Future tense. The rules prescribing the distribution of *shall* and *will* according to person applied also to *should* and *would*.

The Early NE period witnessed the development of a new set of analytical forms which entered the paradigms of the Pres. and Past Tense of the Ind. Mood: *interrogative and negative forms with the auxiliary verb do*.

In ME the verb *don* was commonly used together with an Inf. to express a causative meaning, e. g.:

And *dide* him grete opes *swere* (13th c.)
(‘And made him swear great oaths.’).

In Early NE the causative meaning passed to a similar verb phrase with *make*, while the periphrasis with *do* began to be employed instead of simple, synthetic forms.

At first the do-periphrasis was more frequent in poetry. Then it spread to all kinds of texts. In the 16th and 17th c. the periphrasis with *do* was used in all types of sentences; it freely interchanged with the simple forms, without *do*.

Towards the end of the 17th c. the use of simple forms and the do-periphrasis became more differentiated: *do* was found mainly in negative statements and questions, while the simple forms were preferred in affirmative statements. Thus, the do-periphrasis turned into analytical negative and interrogative forms of simple forms: Pres. and Past.

The growth of new negative and interrogative forms with *do* can be accounted for by syntactic conditions. By that time the word order in the sentence had become fixed: the predicate of the sentence normally followed the subject. The use of *do* made it possible to adhere to this order in questions, for at least the notional part of the predicate could thus preserve its position after the subject. This order of words was already well established in numerous sentences with analytical forms and modal phrases.

In OE the finite verb had no **category of Voice**. The analytical passive forms developed from OE verb phrases consisting of OE *bēon* (NE *be*) and *weorðan* (‘become’) and Part. II of transitive verbs.

OE *bēon* was used as a link-verb with a predicative expressed by Part. II to denote a state resulting from a previous action, while the construction with OE *weorðan* ‘become’ indicated the transition into the state expressed by the participle. The participle, which served as predicative to these verbs, in OE agreed with the subject in number and gender.

In ME *ben* plus Past Part. developed into an analytical form. Now it could express not only a state but also an action.

The new passive forms had a regular means of indicating the doer of the action or the instrument with the help of which it was performed. Out of a variety of prepositions employed in OE two were selected and generalised: *by* and *with*.

The wide use of various passive constructions in the 18th and 19th c. testifies to the high productivity of the Passive Voice. At the same time the Pass. Voice continued to spread to new parts of the verb paradigm: the Gerund and the Continuous forms.

Like other analytical forms of the verb, **the Perfect forms** have developed from OE verb phrases. The main source of the Perf. form was the OE “possessive” construction, consisting of the verb *habban* (NE *have*), a direct object and Part. II of a transitive verb, which served as an attribute to the object. The meaning of the construction was: a person (the subject) possessed a thing (the object), which was

characterised by a certain state resulting from a previous action (the participle). The participle, like other attributes, agreed with the noun-object in Number, Gender and Case.

Originally the verb *habban* was used only with participles of transitive verbs; then it came to be used with verbs taking objects and even with intransitive verbs, which shows that it was developing into a kind of auxiliary.

Towards ME the two verb phrases turned into analytical forms and made up a single set of forms termed “perfect”. The Participles had lost their forms of agreement with the *noun*; the places of the object and the Participle in the construction with *haven* changed: the Participle usually stood close to the verb *have* and was followed by the object which referred now to the analytical form as a whole – instead of being governed by *have*.

In the Perfect form the auxiliary *have* had lost the meaning of possession and was used with all kinds of verbs, without restriction. *Have* was becoming a universal auxiliary, whereas the use of *be* grew more restricted.

By the age of the Literary Renaissance the Perfect forms had spread to all the parts of the verb system, so that ultimately the category of time correlation became the most universal of verbal categories.

The stabilization of the formal pattern of the Perf. and its wide application throughout the verb paradigm were important stages in the formation of a new verbal category, termed nowadays the category of “Time-Correlation” or “Phase”. Yet its final establishment presupposes also the growth of semantic opposition between the members of the category: the Perf. and the non-Perf. forms.

In the beginning the main function of the Perf. forms was to indicate a completed action, to express “perfectivity”, rather than priority of one action to another and relevance for the subsequent situation. For a long time the Perf. forms were used as synonyms of the Simple Past. Towards the age of Shakespeare, the contrast between the Perf. and non-Perf. forms became more obvious. In the main Shakespeare and his contemporaries employ the Perf. forms in the same way as they are employed in present-day English.

Thus, the meaning of “priority and relevance for the subsequent situation” became the domain of the Perf. forms and the meaning of the non-Perf. forms, particularly the Past Indef., was accordingly narrowed. It may be concluded that the category of Time-Correlation was established in the 17th c.

The development of *Aspect* is linked up with the growth of *the Continuous forms*. In the OE verb system there was no category of Aspect; verbal prefixes especially *ze-*, which could express an aspective meaning of perfectivity were primarily word-building prefixes. The growth of Continuous forms was slow and uneven.

Verb phrases consisting of *bēon* (NE *be*) plus Part. I are not frequently found in OE prose. They denoted a quality, or a lasting state, characterising the person or thing indicated by the subject of the sentence. In Early ME *ben* plus Part. I fell into disuse; it occurs occasionally in some dialectal areas.

In the 15th and 16th c. *be* plus Part. I was often confused with a synonymous phrase – *be* plus the preposition *on* (or its reduced form *a*) plus a verbal noun. This prepositional phrase indicated a process, taking place at a certain period of time. It is believed that the meaning of process or an action of limited duration – which the Cont. forms acquired in Early NE – may have come from the prepositional phrase. Yet even in the 17th c. the semantic difference between the Cont. and non-Cont. forms is not always apparent.

It was not until the 18th c. that the Cont. forms acquired a specific meaning of their own. Only at that stage the Cont. and non-Cont. made up a new grammatical category – Aspect.

Growth of Analytical Forms and New Grammatical Categories of the Verbals. Compound forms of the infinitive appeared at a very early date: the Pass. Inf., consisting of *bēon* plus Part. II, is found in OE texts. In ME texts we find different types of compound Inf.: the Pass. Inf., the Perf. Inf. in the Active and Pass. Forms.

In the texts of the 16th and 17th c. we find the same compound forms of the Inf. and also new Cont. and Perf. Cont. forms. Evidently in the 17th c. the Inf. had the same set of forms as it has in present-day English.

The analytical forms of Part I began to develop later than the forms of the Inf. It was not until the 15th c. that the first compound forms are found in the records. In the 17th c. Part. I is already used in all the four forms which it can build today: Perf. and non-Perf., Pass. and Active.

Compound forms of the *-ing*-form used in the functions of a noun, that is the Gerund, were the last to appear. The earliest instances of analytical forms of the Gerund are found in the age of the Literary Renaissance. The formal pattern set by the Part. was repeated in the new forms of the Gerund.

The formal distinctions which had developed in the system of the verbals towards the 17th and 18th c. are practically the same as in ME. The forms of the Inf. and the *-ing*-form (Part. I and Gerund) make up grammatical categories similar to those of the finite verb: Voice, Time-Correlation and Aspect.

The growth of grammatical categories in the verb paradigm in ME and Early NE periods is summarized in the following Table. The figures indicate the number of members distinguished within the categories:

Table 27 – Grammatical categories in the verb paradigm in ME and Early NE.

	Grammatical categories									
	<i>Mood</i>		<i>Tense</i>		<i>Voice</i>		<i>Time correlation</i>		<i>Aspect</i>	
	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE	OE	Late ME or NE
Finite verb	3	3	2	3		2	–	2	–	2
Non-Finite verb:										

Infinitive	–		–		–	2	–	2	–	2
-ing-Form	–		–		–	2		2		

(4) The most obvious difference between OE syntax and the syntax of the ME and NE periods is that the word order became stricter and the use of prepositions more extensive. The structure of the sentence and the word phrase, on the one hand, became more complicated, on the other hand – were stabilized and standardized.

The Phrase. Noun, Adjective and Verb Patterns

In Early ME while the nominal parts of speech were losing most of their grammatical distinctions, the structure of the main word phrases changed considerably.

By Late ME agreement in noun patterns had practically disappeared, except for some instances of agreement in number. Formal markers of number had been preserved in nouns, demonstrative pronouns and some survivals of the strong declension of adjectives; most adjectives and adjectivized participles had lost number inflections.

The last traces of agreement in adjectives were lost in the 15th c. when the inflection *-e* was dropped; only the demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite article and nouns in apposition indicated the number of the headword, like in ME. When the adjective had lost its forms of agreement, its relationships with the noun were shown by its position; it was placed before the noun, or between the noun and its determiners (articles and pronouns). Sometimes in Late ME the adjective stood in post-position, which can be attributed to the influence of French syntax: *Brother dere; cares colde; woundes newe*.

A noun used attributively had the form of the Gen. Case or was joined to the head-noun by a preposition. The use of *-’s-Gen.* was less restricted than in ME, so that inanimate nouns commonly occurred as inflectional Gen. in a noun pattern: *fadres sone* ‘father’s son’, *seintes lore* ‘saint’s lore’. Yet the use of prepositions had certainly become more extensive: *men of armes* ‘men of arms’.

The noun patterns became fixed syntactic frames in which every position had a specific functional significance. The attribute in pre-position was enclosed between the determiner and the headword; hence every word occupying this position was an attribute.

The standardized frame of the noun pattern is also confirmed by the fact that the position of the head noun could not be left vacant – it was at that time that the indefinite pronoun *one* and the demonstrative *that* began to be used as the so-called “prop-words”: A barren-spirited fellow, *one* that feeds On abject orts and imitations (Shakespeare).

In ME and Early NE adjective patterns, as before, included a variety of dependent components. Adjectives were commonly modified by adverbs: He was a *verray* parfit gentil knyght. (Chaucer) (‘He was a very perfect noble knight.’)

Some adjectives, especially the most frequent ones, displayed great vacillation in the choice of prepositions. For instance, in the 14th c. *fair* and *good* occur with the prepositions *of*, *in*, *to*, *at*, *by*.

The adjective freely combined with the Infinitive since the earliest periods. Examples from Chaucer are: *redy for to ryde* ‘ready to ride’; *I am free to wedde* ‘I am free to marry’.

The history of the verb pattern embraced a number of important changes and developments. In some respects, verb patterns became more uniform. In OE the verb could take various objects and adverbial modifiers expressed by the oblique cases of nouns. In ME the oblique cases were replaced by the Comm. case (or the Obj. case of pronouns), with or without prepositions. The use of prepositions in verb patterns grew, and so did the number of transitive verbs that took an object without a preposition.

Some verb phrases merged into single grammatical or lexical units and in this sense were “simplified”. Verb phrases consisting of a finite and a non-finite verb turned into analytical forms, thus passing from the level of syntax to that of morphology. Verb phrases consisting of verbs and adverbs – which modified or specified the meaning of the verb – formed lexical units known as “composite verbs” or “verb-adverb combinations”.

In the course of history the structure of *the simple sentence* in many respects became more orderly and more uniform. Yet, at the same time it grew complicated as the sentence came to include more extended and complex parts: longer attributive groups, diverse subjects and predicates and numerous predicative constructions.

In OE the ties between the words in the sentence were shown mainly by means of government and agreement, with the help of numerous inflections. In ME and Early NE, with most of the inflectional endings levelled or dropped, the relationships between the parts of the sentence were shown by their relative position, environment, semantic ties, prepositions, and by a more rigid syntactic structure.

Every place in the sentence came to be associated with a certain syntactic function: in the new structure of the sentence syntactic functions were determined by position, and no position could remain vacant. This is evidenced by the obligatory use of the subject. For instance, in OE the formal subject, expressed by the pronoun *hit*, was used only in some types of impersonal sentences, namely those indicating weather phenomena. In ME the subject *it* occurs in all types of impersonal sentences.

The use of the verb-substitute *do*, as well as the use of auxiliary and modal verbs without the notional verb proves that the position of the predicate could not be vacant either.

As compared with OE the subject of the sentence became more varied in meaning, as well as in the forms of expression. Due to the growth of new verb forms the subject could now denote not only the agent or a thing characterised by a certain property, but also the recipient of an action or the “passive” subject of a state and feeling.

The predicate had likewise become more varied in form and meaning. The simple predicate could be expressed by compound forms.

Though some types of compound predicates had turned into simple – as the verb phrases developed into analytical forms – the compound predicate could express a variety of meanings with the help of numerous new link-verbs and more extended and complex predicatives. ME witnessed a remarkable growth of link-verbs: about 80 verbs occur as copulas in texts between the 15th and 18th c. The structure of the predicative became more complex: it could include various prepositional phrases and diverse attributes:

One of the peculiar features of the OE sentence was multiple negation. The use of several negative particles and forms continued throughout the ME period:

Ne bryng nat every man into thyn hous. (Chaucer) ('Don't bring every man into your house.'): *-ne-* is a negative particle used with verbs, *nat* – another negative particle.

Gradually double negation went out of use. In the age of Correctness multiple negation was banned as illogical: it was believed that one negation eliminated the other like two minuses in mathematics and the resulting meaning would be affirmative.

In ME and Early NE ***the order of words*** in the sentence underwent noticeable changes; it has become fixed and direct: subject + predicate + object (S+P+O) or subject plus + the notional part of the predicate (the latter type was used mainly in questions).

Stabilization of the word order was a slow process, which took many hundreds of years: from Early ME until the 16th or 17th c. Though the word order in Late ME may appear relatively free, several facts testify to its growing stability. The practice of placing the verb-predicate at the end of a subordinate clause had been abandoned, so was the type of word order with the object placed between the Subject and the Predicate.

In the 17th and 18th c. the order of words in the sentence was generally determined by the same rules as operate in English today. The fixed, direct word order prevailed in statements, unless inversion was required for communicative purposes or for emphasis, e. g.: Now *comes* in the sweetest *morsel* in the night... These numbers *will I tear* and write in prose. (Shakespeare)

In questions the word order was partially inverted – unless the question referred to the subject group. The analytical forms of the verb and the use of the *do*-periphrasis instead of simple forms made it possible to place the notional part of the Predicate after the Subject even with simple Predicate: *Are they good?*... *Can you make* no use of your discontent? ... *Who comes* here? ... *Lady, will you walk* about with your friend? ... *Did he never make* you laugh? (Shakespeare)

The growth of the written forms of English and the advance of literature in Late ME and Early NE manifested itself in the further development of ***the compound and complex sentence***. Differentiation between the two types became more evident, the use of connectives – more precise. The diversity of sentence structures in Late ME and Early NE reveals considerable freedom in the nature and use of clauses.

Many new conjunctions and other connective words appeared during the ME period: *both...and*, *because* (*by* + *cause* 'for the reason'); numerous connectives

developed from adverbs and pronouns – *who, what, which, where, whose, how, why*. These connectives sometimes occurred in combination with *that*, which probably served to show that the former pronouns and adverbs were employed in a new, connective, function.

The structure of the sentence was further perfected in the 18th and 19th c. From the 15th to 18th c. the number of coordinating connectives was almost doubled. As before, most frequent was *and*, a conjunction of a most general meaning; other conjunctions widened their meanings and new connectives arose from various sources to express semantic relationships between clauses and sentences, e. g. *in consequence, in fact, to conclude, neither...nor*.

2. PRACTICAL PART

2.1. Seminar plan

Seminar 1. English in the group of Germanic languages.

Seminar 2. Historical conditions of the development of Old English.

Seminar 3. Old English alphabet and writing.

Seminar 4. Old English phonology.

Seminar 5. Grammar and syntax of Old English.

Seminar 6. Old English lexical system.

Seminar 7. Historical conditions for the development of the English language in the 11th-18th centuries.

Seminar 8. Spelling and reading rules in Middle English and New English periods. Phonology and phonetics of Middle English and New English.

Seminar 9. Grammar and syntax of Middle English and New English.

Seminar 10. Development of the Lexical System in the Middle English and New English Periods.


2.2. Assignments for seminar classes


2.2.1. Seminar 1. English in the group of Germanic languages

Topics for discussion:

1. Classification and current status of the languages of the Germanic group.
2. Common features of the Germanic languages at the levels of phonology, grammar, vocabulary and syntax.

Sources

 Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – §§79-101.

 What Makes the Germanic Languages Unique (English, German, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, and more!). – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1yIHJre3mXY>.

Proto-World and the Origin of Language. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jcc40AowXPQ>

Assignment

Study carefully the theoretical material on the topic presented in the lecture, make use of some additional sources, write an abstract and present a report on one of the topics below:

1. Classification and current status of the languages of the Germanic group.
2. Common features of the Germanic languages at the levels of phonology, grammar, vocabulary and syntax.
3. English as a typical Germanic language.

2.2.2. Seminar 2. Historical conditions for the development of the Old English language

Topics for discussion:

1. Pre-Germanic Britain: the Celts, the Roman Period.
2. Germanic Settlement of Britain.
3. Scandinavian invasion: the Vikings.
4. Linguistic situation and the main dialects in the Old English period.

Sources

 Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – §§79-101.

Bragg, M. The Adventure of English / M. Bragg. – New York : Arcade Publishing, 2011.



The rise and fall of the Celtic warriors. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lmYQMJi30aw&list=LL&index=4&t=29s>

How Did The Romans Change Britain? – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SajyHgJTy3E>

Anglo-Saxons: Invasion of Britain. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=03x8C15SLDU>

Ten Minute English and British History #5 - The Vikings and the Danelaw. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-Y3YSTqjeIA>

Who Was Alfred the Great? – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gAv8I80No80>

Assignment

Open heuristic task of cognitive type:

1. Study carefully a theoretical material on the topic (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).

2. Prepare a research group project on one of the following topics. Number of people in a group – 2-3 students. Project presentation – 15 minutes. The main emphasis should be made on linguistic changes due to the described conquest.

Follow the plan (topics 1-4):

- the time of the conquest;
- culture and peculiarities of the way of life of the conquerors;

- how the conquest influenced the culture and the way of life of the indigenous population;
- what impact the conquest had on the language of the indigenous people (specific examples are necessary);
- personal conclusions and a short summary.

Topics for the projects

1. Celtic migrations and expansion. The “traces” of the Celtic languages in modern English.
2. Roman conquest and Romanization of the British Isles.
3. Germanic settlement of Britain and the beginning of the independent history of the English language.
4. Scandinavian invasion and the ultimate effect of the Scandinavian invasions on the English language.

Assessment

- The projects will be evaluated according to the following criteria:
- compliance of the material with the stated topic;
 - structuredness, meaningfulness and logic of information presentation;
 - quality of the presentation (plan and the language support of the presentation, see the helpful tips (*see Appendix 1. Language guidelines for presentations*));
 - the presence of visual components (pictures, videos, etc.);
 - availability of material presentation;
 - linguistic literacy;
 - presence of personal conclusions.

Summary

Before English: The British Isles were first occupied by prehistoric tribes of megalithic people. They're called “megalithic” because of the complex arrangements of giant stones or megaliths that they created. Stonehenge is the most famous of the megaliths.



Picture 6 – Stonehenge.

Then, between 1500 and 500 BC, Celtic people arrived from continental Europe. These tribes spoke Celtic languages, a branch of the ancient Indo-European family of languages, of which English is also a member.



Picture 7 – The Celts.

The southern Celts were conquered by Latin-speaking invaders from Rome in 43 A.D. Calling their colony “Britannia” (Britain) and its capital “Londinium” (London), the Romans achieved control of the regions now known as England and Wales. By about 400 A.D, they had to give up this territory and withdraw to continental Europe as the Roman Empire collapsed.



Picture 8 – The Romans.

***Old English** grew out of various dialects spoken by Germanic tribes: the Angles (after which England is named), the Saxons, and the Jutes, who started populating the British Isles in the 6th century.*



Picture 9 – The Germans.

These invaders from Denmark and northern Germany drove many Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of England into Wales, Scotland, and Ireland. Celtic languages are still spoken by small minorities in these areas. Basic English grammar and vocabulary derive from the Anglo-Saxon languages, but they were modified by the Celts and by Scandinavian Vikings or Norsemen, who began invading northeast England in the late 8th century



Picture 10 – The Vikings.

The most famous literary work of this period, the epic poem Beowulf, is basically a Norse saga or legend. The Old Norse language seems to have been comprehensible to Old English speakers. Old English would probably be at least partly understandable to today's Icelanders, since Vikings also settled in Iceland, where their isolation prevented the cultural contacts that transformed English.



Picture 11 – Beowulf.

Communication between Celtic, Norse, and Anglo-Saxon people gradually led to a simplification of English. Most European tongues use genders (masculine and feminine) and inflection, changes in word form that show syntax (the grammatical relationships between words), but in English these changes were slowly lost. This process continued during the evolution of Middle English until it became a language whose syntax is indicated almost entirely by word order. Old English survived until shortly after the Norman Conquest of 1066, when Nordic people from Normandy (northern France) took over England.

2.2.3. Seminar 3. Old English alphabet and writing

Topics for discussion:

1. Runic and Latin alphabets.
2. Distinctive features of the Old English alphabet.
3. Typical Old English letters and their evolution.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023.

Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – 352 с.

Baker, P. S. Introduction to Old English. 3rd ed. / P. S. Baker. – Oxford : Wiley–Blackwell, 2012. – 332 p.

Hogg, R. An Introduction to Old English / R. Hogg. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 163 p.



Runes: an Introduction. – Mode of access: https://www.reddit.com/r/anglosaxon/comments/uz4vvi/runes_an_introduction_a_short_video_where_i_talk/

Lost letters of the alphabet: 9 letters we stopped using. – Mode of access: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wJxKyh9e5_A

Rune converter. – Mode of access: <https://einarrsjourney.com/pages/rune-converter>

Assignments

Ex. 1. Identification Task

Identify the Old English letters in this sample text from Beowulf: "Fæder ūre þū þe eart on heofonum." List them with modern equivalents and sounds (e.g., Æ = /æ/). Explain one reason eth (Ð) and thorn (Þ) were interchangeable.

Ex. 2. Transcription Exercise

Transcribe the modern sentence "The thorn and eth represent th sounds" into approximate Old English orthography using insular script features. Note distinctive traits like ligatures or rounded forms you'd include in a manuscript.

Ex. 3. Comparison Table

Fill in the table comparing runic Futhorc and Latin Old English alphabets:

Aspect	Runic Futhorc	Latin OE Alphabet
Number of letters		
Materials used		
Example letter		

Ex. 4. Evolution Analysis

Trace the fate of wynn (ƿ) from Old to Modern English. Provide an example word where it appears (e.g., "wine") and suggest why "w" replaced it.

2.2.4. Seminar 4. Old English Phonology

Topics for discussion:

1. Old English pronunciation.
2. Old English accentuation.
3. Sound changes.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023.

Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – 352 с.

Baker, P. S. Introduction to Old English. 3rd ed. / P. S. Baker. – Oxford : Wiley–Blackwell, 2012. – 332 p.

Hogg, R. An Introduction to Old English / R. Hogg. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 163 p.

Assignments

Ex. 1. Underline the stressed syllable in the words paying attention to their part-of-speech meaning.

- āson₃ (v.) < ā- + son₃
- on₃innan (v.) < on- + 3innan
- forwyrd (*noun*) < for- + wyrd
- ofer₃ān (v.) < ofer- + 3ān
- āstod (v.) < ā- + stōd
- 3esittan (v.) < 3e- + sittan
- on₃in (*noun*) < on- + 3in
- onfindan (v.) < on- + findan
- ymb₃an (v.) < ymb- + 3an
- andswaru (*noun*) < and- + swaru

Ex. 2. Reconstruct the sounds and letters in the blanks by comparing non-Germanic and Germanic parallels.

Indo-European (IE)	Germanic (OE)
<i>Lat.</i> status	sta <u>b</u>
<i>Grk</i> kunos, <i>Lat.</i> canis	<u>u</u> nd
<i>Lat.</i> dentem, <i>Snskr.</i> Dantam	<u>ō</u>
<i>Snskr.</i> gnosco	<u>n</u> āwan
<i>Snskr.</i> bharanam	<u>e</u> ran
<i>Lat.</i> genus	<u>y</u> nd
<i>Lat.</i> sedere	si <u>a</u> n

Ex. 3. Describe how Verner's Law works in the following pairs of words according to the model: Snskr. bhrātā – OE brōþor – [t] > [θ] (*Grimm's Law*) > [ð] (*Verner's Law*)

- Lat.* septem - *OE* seofon 'seven' - _____
- Gth.* raisjan - *OE* rāeran 'rear' - _____
- Gth.* raiþs - *OE* read 'red' - _____
- OE* cweþan - *OE* cweden - _____
- ModE* death - *ModE* dead - _____

Ex. 4. Describe the process of breaking in the following pairs of words by filling the blanks.

- Gth.* herte – *OE* h__rte
- OE* arm – *OE* __rm

- c. *OHG* fehtan – *OE* f__htan
 d. *Gth.* haldan – *OE* h__ldan
 e. *Gth.* alls – *OE* __ll

Ex. 5. Match the words from the two groups and state the difference. The words in the left column illustrate the initial form, while the words in the right column demonstrate the form with mutation. Model: man – men (a → e).


- | | |
|------------|------------|
| 1. man | a) strenzu |
| 2. fōt | b) dēhter |
| 3. rās | c) nemnan |
| 4. stranʒ | d) bēc |
| 5. dōm | e) fēt |
| 6. sæt | f) tryman |
| 7. hāl | g) settan |
| 8. bōc | h) cyssan |
| 9. nama | i) dēman |
| 10. dōhtor | j) hǣlð |
| 11. cuss | k) men |
| 12. trum | l) rǣran |

2.2.5. Seminar 5. Grammar and syntax of Old English

Topics for discussion:

1. Parts of Speech and Grammatical Categories.
2. The Noun.
3. The Pronoun.
4. The Adjective.
5. The Verb.

Sources

 Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023.

Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. . – 352 с.

Baker, P. S. Introduction to Old English. 3rd ed. / P. S. Baker. – Oxford : Wiley–Blackwell, 2012. – 332 p.

Hogg, R. An Introduction to Old English / R. Hogg. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 163 p.



Old English Grammar Byte 3: Weak and Strong Adjectives. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J3pp-6q-XI>

Assignments

Ex. 1. Are the numbers in the table accurate enough? If you find a mistake correct it.

Grammatical Categories of Nomina in OE

Part of speech	Grammatical category				
	Number	Case	Gender	Degrees of Comparison	Determinateness
Nouns	2	5	3	n/a	2
Adjectives	n/a	4	2	3	n/a
Personal pronouns	2	4	n/a	n/a	n/a
Demonstrative pronouns	3	5	3	n/a	2

•n/a – not attested

Ex. 2. Provide the two responses to the statements about the verbal system in Old English:

STATEMENTS	RESPONSE 1	RESPONSE 2
1. Two forms of the Verb according to their ability to show time reference.	finite	non-finite
2. Two grammatical categories the OE Verb shared with the OE Nomina.		
3. Two specifically verbal categories in OE.		
4. Two members of the Number category in OE.		
5. Two tenses in OE.		
6. Two moods used in subordinate clauses in OE.		
7. Two OE ways of indicating future happenings.		
8. Two possible endings of the Infinitive in OE.		
9. Two cases of the Infinitive in OE.		
10. Two major morphological classes of the OE Verb.		
11. Two minor morphological classes of the OE Verb.		
12. Two classes of modern verbs representing the OE strong and weak verbs today.		
13. Two variants of the dental suffix used in the past forms of weak verbs.		
14. Two examples of modern suppletive verbs.		

Ex. 3. Underline the negative words in the following OE sentences.

1. Ne cōm hē. (*Not came he*)
2. Ic ne secze nāht. (*I not say nothing*)
3. Ne þurfan he nōht besorþian. (*Not need ye not worry*)
4. Ne ic ne herihe ne ic ne tæle. (*Not I not praise not I not blame*)
5. Ne hit nǣfre ne ʒewurðe. (*Not it never ne happen*)

6. Næbbe ic nǣniz scipu. (*Not-have I not-any ship*)

2.2.6. Seminar 6. Old English lexical system

Topics for discussion:

1. Etymological survey of the Old English vocabulary: native words and borrowings.
2. Word-Formation in Old English.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023.

Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. . – 352 с.

Baker, P. S. Introduction to Old English. 3rd ed. / P. S. Baker. – Oxford : Wiley–Blackwell, 2012. – 332 p.

Hogg, R. An Introduction to Old English / R. Hogg. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 163 p.

<http://www.etymonline.com/>

Assignments

Ex. 1. Define the origin of the following words. If you're not sure of a particular word, check using <http://www.etymonline.com/>

*The Germanic words will usually be indicated by OE (Old English), PIE (Proto-Indo-European), P.Gmc (Proto-Germanic), ON (Old Norse). The Latinate words will usually be indicated by L (Latin) or O.Fr (Old French).

Model: cradle < OE 'cradol'

Pound <

Green <

Lancaster <

Verse <

Dune <

Avon <

Street <

Son <

Apostle <

Woman <

Ex.2. Tick the appropriate box with statements about the foreign influence on Old English lexicon with the language.

Statement	Latin	Celtic
1. Words of this language started to penetrate the predecessors of Old English on the continent.	✓	✓
2. There exist three periods of the influence of this language on OE vocabulary.		
3. The second period of the influence of this language on		

OE wordstock starts from the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons in England.		
4. The last period of the influence of this language on OE wordstock spans from the time of Christianization up to the arrival of the Normans.		
5. The last period of the influence of this language on OE wordstock is associated with the time of Christianization of England, when missionaries from Ireland started to introduce Christianity.		
6. The borrowings from this language prevail in OE.		
7. The number of borrowings from this language in OE is 450 up to 600 according to different sources.		
8. The influence of this language on OE vocabulary is closely associated with the economic and cultural development of the nation that spoke the language.		
9. The influence of this language is poorly reflected in OE vocabulary because of the social position of the people, the bearer of the language, and, as a result, this language was entrenched firmly at the bottom of Anglo-Saxon society.		
10. The borrowings from this language are connected with warfare and mostly were incorporated by OE during the Continental Period.		
11. The word from this language can be an element of an OE placename.		
12. OE wordhoard was enriched with the words from this language due to trade contacts.		
13. Different geographical terms from this language were introduced in OE.		
14. OE names for fauna and flora were often borrowed from this language.		
15. This language contributed to OE lexicon in the sphere of religion.		
16. It was the language that enriched OE with terms having to do with learning.		

Ex.3. Analyze the morphological structure, guess the meaning and translate the OE words into Modern English.

OE Word	Etymological Glossary	Modern English Word
1. bōcere	noun < OE bōc 'book' + -ere	<i>scholar</i>
2. earnian	verb < OE earn 'earn' + -ian	
3. hlāford	noun < hlāf 'loaf' + weard 'keeper'	
4. hlāfdize	noun < hlāf 'loaf' + dize 'knead' - lit. 'bread-kneading'	
5. halizdæg	adj. halig + noun dæg	
6. frēondlic	adj. < noun frēond 'friend' + -lic	

2.2.7. Seminar 7. Historical conditions for the development of the English language in the 11th-18th centuries.

Topics for discussion:

1. Historical Background from the 11th to 15th c.
2. Linguistic Situation in the 11th to 15th c.
3. Development of the National Literary English Language (16th-19th c.).

Sources

Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А.Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – 352 с.

Bragg, M. The Adventure of English / M. Bragg. – New York : Arcade Publishing, 2011.

Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 2nd ed. / D. Crystal. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 489 p.



1066 and the Norman Conquest. – Mode of access: www.youtube.com/watch?v=3_sCOVe1r_g&t=1s

The History of English - The Norman Conquest/ – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1B8TwBrCIEY>

The Adventure Of English - Episode 2 English Goes Underground. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DG7REAOG1kc>

Viking influence on the English Language. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CDAU3TpunwM>

Chaucer's Canterbury Tales Prologue in Middle English. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GihrWuysnrc>

What Shakespeare's English Sounded Like - and how we know. Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WeW1eV7Oc5A>

Assignment

Open heuristic task of cognitive type:

1. Study carefully a theoretical material on the topic (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).

2. Prepare a *research group project* on one of the following topics. Number of people in a group – 3-4 students. Project presentation – 15 minutes. *The main emphasis should be made on linguistic changes due to the described event or personality.*

Follow your own plan but specific examples, personal conclusions and a short summary are required.

Topics for the projects

1. Norman Conquest and its effect on the English Language. (the time of the conquest; culture and peculiarities of the way of life of the conquerors; how the

conquest influenced the culture and the way of life of the indigenous population; what impact the conquest had on the language of the indigenous people, specific examples are necessary).

2. Geoffrey Chaucer's influence on the English Language. (Why is Chaucer described as the founder of the literary language?)

3. William Caxton and the introduction of printing to England. (Why did Caxton's introduction of printing influence the development of the English Language? In what way?)

Assessment

■ The projects will be evaluated according to the following criteria:

- compliance of the material with the stated topic;
- structuredness, meaningfulness and logic of information presentation;
 - quality of the presentation (plan and the language support of the presentation, see the helpful tips (*see Appendix 1. Language guidelines for presentations*));
- the presence of visual components (pictures, videos, etc.);
- availability of material presentation;
- linguistic literacy;
- presence of personal conclusions.

Summary

The Norman Conquest

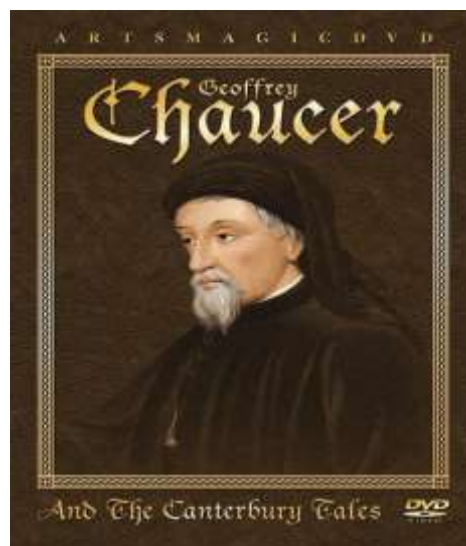
England was successfully invaded by a Norman army from France in 1066. Without William the Conqueror's invasion, English would have retained most of its inflections and preserving a predominantly Germanic vocabulary, the characteristic methods of word formation and incorporating words from other languages much less freely. It would have lacked the greatest part of French words that today make English seem on the side of vocabulary more a Romance than a Germanic language. The Norman conquest changed the whole course of English.



Picture 12 – The Normans.

Geoffrey Chaucer's influence on the English Language

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340-1400) was by far the most outstanding figure of the time. A hundred years later William Caxton, the first English printer, called him "the worshipful father and first founder and embellisher of ornate eloquence in our language. In many books on the history of English literature and the history of English Chaucer is described as the founder of the literary language.



Picture 13 – G. Chaucer.

William Caxton and the introduction of printing to England

William Caxton edited manuscripts so as to bring them into conformity with the London form of English. The written forms of many words perpetuated by Caxton were accepted as standard and have often remained unchanged to the present day in spite of the drastic changes in pronunciation. The effect of printing on the development of the language was so great that the year 1475 – the date of the publication of the first English book – is regarded as a turning point in English linguistic history and the start of a new period – NE.



Picture 14 – W. Caxton.

2.2.8. Seminar 8. Spelling and reading rules in Middle English and New English periods. Phonology and phonetics of Middle English and New English

Topics for discussion:

1. Graphic replacements of letters of the Old English alphabet with new letters and digraphs.
2. New sound designations of some letters used since the Old English period.
3. Features of spelling.
4. Quantitative and qualitative changes in consonants and vowels.
5. Formation of new diphthongs.
6. Changes in stress.
7. The Great Vowel Shift from 1500 to 1700.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023. – 191 с.

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Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 2nd ed. / D. Crystal. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 489 p.



The Great Vowel Shift. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gLMpTdAsGH0>

The Great Vowel Shift. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zyhZ8NQOZe0>

The Great Vowel Shift. – Mode of access: [The Great Vowel Shift | Harvard's Geoffrey Chaucer Website](#)

Assignments

Ex.1. Write an abstract and present a report on one of the topics below.

1. Spelling changes in the Middle English period: internal and external causes.
2. Vowel changes from Old English to Modern English.
3. Historical foundations of English spelling.

Ex.2. Study carefully the theoretical material on the topic presented in the lecture and do the test on the educational platform LMS Moodle (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>)

2.2.9. Seminar 9. Middle English and New English grammar and syntax

Topics for discussion:

1. ME and NE nominal system.
2. ME and NE verbal system.
3. ME and NE syntax.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023. – 191 с.

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Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 2nd ed. / D. Crystal. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 489 p.



Old English and Middle English. – Mode of access: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Hdn-gwLgj80>

Assignments

Ex.1. Complete the chart, indicating the form of the italicized noun (see the supplement on Moodle: <https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).

SENTENCE (The Canterbury Tales by G. Chaucer)	FORM OF THE NOUN (case, number)
1. And smale (little) <i>foweles</i> (birds) maken melodye.	<i>Com., pl.</i>
2. And specially, from every <i>shires</i> (shire's) ende ... they wende (wend).	
3. His <i>hors</i> (steeds) were goode, but he was not gay.	
4. Ful worthy was he in his <i>lordes</i> (lods's) werre (war).	
5. Of twenty <i>yeer</i> (years) of age he was, I gesse (guess).	
6. In hope to stonden (stand) in his <i>lady</i> (lady's) grace.	

Ex.2. In present-day English the forms for the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives generally depend on the number of syllables in the uninflected form and on the weight of the second syllable in two-syllable words. Note the following deviations from current usage in the following lines from Spenser, Marlowe, and Shakespeare and for each example write its number in the table below.

1. So, now it is *more surer* on my head.
2. And I haue learn'd by the *perfect'st* report.
3. Ingratitude, *more strong* then Traitors armes.
4. Much greater grieffe and *shamefuller* regret.
5. Their lims *more large* and of a bigger size.
6. Dispose of her to some *more fitter* place.
7. Silence is the *perfectest* Herauld of joy.
8. To take the basest, and *the most poorest* shape.

Double comparative or superlative	Inflectional <i>-er</i> or <i>-est</i> with words of more than one syllable	<i>More</i> or <i>most</i> with monosyllables
<i>l</i>		

Ex.3. Supply the personal or possessive pronoun in the following ME sentences from Chaucer. Person, number, gender and case have been provided (see the supplement on Moodle: <https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).

1. And in his (3 sg. *m.*) gentil herte (heart) he thoughte anon (immediately).
2. How mighty and how greet a lord is _____ (3 sg. *m. Nom.*)!
3. And he _____ (3 pl. *Obj.*) graunteth (grants) grace, and thus he seyde (said).

4. Though that _____ (3 sg. f. Nom.) were a queene or a prinsesse.
 5. _____ (2 sg.) temple wol _____ (1 sg. Nom.) worshipe everemo (evermore).
 6. _____ (1 sg. Nom.) am, _____ (2 sg. Nom.) woost (know), yet of thy (your) compaignye.

2.2.10. Seminar 10. Development of the Lexical System in the Middle English and New English Periods

Topics for discussion:

1. The growth of the vocabulary of the Middle English language. Expansion of borrowing sources.
2. The results of the influence of numerous borrowings on the lexical system of the English language (synonymy, suppletion). Expansion of borrowing sources in connection with new language contacts in the New English period.
3. The main methods of word formation.

Sources

Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023. – 191 с.

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Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 2nd ed. / D. Crystal. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 489 p.



Is English Really a Germanic Language? – Mode of access: <https://youtu.be/2OynrY8JCDM>

Assignments

Ex.1. Write down the language(s) that correspond(s) to the statement about the foreign influence on English lexicon in ME and NE in the box opposite.

STATEMENT	LANGUAGE(S)
1. Words from <u>these languages</u> appeared in English due to invasions.	<i>Old Norse, Old French</i>
2. The loanwords from <u>this language</u> penetrated into English in Late OE (from the 9th century onwards), but the written evidence of them was obtained during the ME period, especially in the 14 th c.	
3. A great number of loanwords in ME came from <u>these sources</u> .	

4. The words from <u>this language</u> first appeared in Northern and North Eastern England.	
5. <u>This language</u> made the most immense contribution to ME vocabulary.	
6. The process of borrowing words from <u>this language</u> was socially related in ME.	
7. The influx of words from <u>these languages</u> started in OE and continued in ME and NE, though at different rates.	
8. Borrowings from <u>these languages</u> often form synonyms with native words.	
9. <u>These languages</u> provided English with many scholarly words.	
10. Military terms were adopted from <u>these languages</u> .	
11. Borrowings from <u>these languages</u> often pertained to the sphere of arts.	
12. Scientific terms were taken from <u>these languages</u> .	
13. Most of the borrowings from <u>these languages</u> reflect the close commercial contacts between the country and the English.	
14. Musical terms were borrowed from <u>these languages</u> .	
15. English acquired words describing life in America via <u>these languages</u> .	

Ex.2. Consider the spelling of the words and group them into the columns below according to a foreign influence on English vocabulary.

*There are certain characteristic features which are reliable in identifying Scandinavian loans. One of the simplest is the sound sequence *sk*. In Late Old English this had been palatalised at an early stage to [ʃ] (graphically *sc*); in Scandinavian this cluster had been retained in its unpalatalised form as [sk]. A non-palatalised pronunciation of *k* and *g*, especially preceding [i:], [i] and [e] is to be found in other words and is probably due to Scandinavian influence. The specific features of early French borrowings are the letters *j*, *g* [dʒ] or *v* at the beginning of the word (the latter is also found in Latin borrowings), the signs of late French borrowings are the letter combinations and letters *ch* [ʃ], *ou* [u:]; *ps* and *t* at the end of the word. Latin borrowings have specific features by which they can be recognized. To Latin borrowings belong: 1) verbs ending in *-ate*, derived from Latin participles in *-atum*, 2) verbs in *-ute*, derived from Latin participles in *-utum*, 3) adjectives in *-ant*, *-ent*, 4) adjectives in *-ior*, formed from Latin stems of the comparative degree, 5) words with *x*, pronounced [gz], 6) double consonants in polysyllabic words, as a rule, the final consonant of the prefix being assimilated with the initial consonant of the stem. In Greek borrowings *y* can be spelled in the middle of the word, *ph* denotes the sound [f], *ch* denotes the sound [k], and *ps* denotes the sound [s].

a)	antipodes	h)	predicament	o)	get
b)	give	i)	corpus	p)	archaic
c)	ex-president	j)	skirt	q)	vertebra

d)	psyche	k)	affection	r)	kid
e)	character	o)	comfortable	s)	virtue
f)	skin	m)	school		
g)	geography	n)	skill		
Scandinavian Influence		French Influence		Classical (Latin or Greek) Influence	
				<i>a</i>	

Ex.3. Try to figure out which word is native - Old English (OE) - and which is originally a French borrowing (Fr).

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a) ox (OE) – beef (Fr) | h) holy () – saintly () |
| b) pig () – pork () | i) love () – charity () |
| c) infant () – child () | j) meal () – repast () |
| d) judgment () – doom () | k) aroma () – stench () |
| e) freedom () – liberty () | l) wedding () – marriage () |
| f) help () – aid () | m) desire () – wish () |
| g) conceal () – hide () | n) felicity () – happiness () |

Ex.4. Try to figure out which synonym is native – Old English (OE) – and which is a French (Fr.) or a Latin (Lat.) borrowing. While they have the same reference or meaning, the Old English source is more down-to-earth and common than the more polite French-based word, and the more ornate or sophisticated Latin-based one.

- a) kingly (OE) – royal (Fr.) – regal (Lat.)
- b) mount () – rise () – ascend ()
- c) interrogate () – ask () – question ()
- d) firm () – secure () – fast ()
- e) holy () – sacred () – consecrated ()
- f) flame () – conflagration () – fire ()

3. KNOWLEDGE ASSESSMENT PART

3.1. Approximate list of assignments for controlled self-study

Master students' self-work is organized in the following forms: extracurricular preparation (homework) for seminars, preparation and work in guided self-work classes, and their independent search for answers to problematic questions asked by the teacher during classroom work. In all three cases, the effectiveness of master students' self-work is determined by the following methodological factors:

- the teacher organizes and manages the self-work of master students by competently selecting the material and its dosage, calculating the time for students to complete the task;
- the teacher should clearly define the objectives of the proposed tasks for himself and for the master students, and, if necessary, consider ways to complete them in the audience;
- assignments for master students' extracurricular work should be fully or partially written.

Guided self-work (consulting and methodological support and control) should be carried out partly in a remote form and is provided by means of the educational portal of BSU LMS Moodle (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>). To organize master students' self-work in the academic discipline, modern information resources should be used: to place on the educational portal a set of educational and methodological materials (educational and program materials, a textbook for theoretical study of the discipline, materials of ongoing monitoring and current assessment, allowing to determine the compliance of master students' educational activities with the requirements of educational standards higher education and educational and program documentation, including questions for preparing for the test, assignments, tests, etc., a list of recommended literature, information resources, etc.).

Topic 2.5 Old English lexical system (2 h. DLT).

Etymological characteristics of Old English vocabulary: native vocabulary, Celtic, Scandinavian, French and Latin borrowings. Main methods of word formation.

Task: Watch the documentary serial "The Adventure of English" (episodes 1 and 2), filmed by the BBC:

(<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=K1XQx9pGGd0>;
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DG7REAOG1kc>).

Form of control – test on the educational portal of BSU LMS Moodle (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).

Topic 3.4 Development of the Lexical System in the Middle English and New English Periods (2 h.).

The growth of the vocabulary of Middle English. Expansion of sources of borrowing. The results of the influence of numerous borrowings on the lexical system of the English language (synonymy, suppletivism). Expansion of sources of borrowing in connection with new language contacts in the New English period.

Task: Study the theoretical material on the topic, watch the video (<https://youtu.be/2OynrY8JCDM>) and write an essay on one of the recommended topics («The Influence of Borrowings on the Formation of Modern English: From Old English to the Present Day», «The Most Surprising Discovery in the History of the English Language: Personal Impressions and Analysis», «What Surprised and Amazed Me the Most While Studying the History of the English Language», «Is English Really a Germanic Language?»).

Form of control – essay.

Theoretical material on the topic "Middle English and New English Lexical System"

In early Middle English, over 90 per cent of the lexicon was of native English (Anglo-Saxon) origin. By the end of the Middle English period, according to some linguists, as much as 80 percent of Old English lexicon was lost.

Chronologically, the first significant new source of loanwords in ME was Scandinavian. Many of the Scandinavian words that first appear in writing during ME were actually borrowed earlier, but, particularly in a society with a low literacy rate, there is a lag between use in speech and first appearance in writing. Only later did they spread to other areas of England. The largest number of loanwords came into writing during the period 1150-1250, a few score more appeared 1250-1350, and the influx diminished to a trickle in the period 1350-1500.

Most of the Scandinavian words come from semantic areas in which there was significant cultural influence from the Scandinavians, such as seafaring, warfare, social ranks, law, or coins and measures. Many words represent basic concepts (household, farming or family items), either supplanting a corresponding native word or forming a synonym with semantic differentiation in the meaning. In addition to its contributions to the general vocabulary, Norse introduced a number of new place-name elements into English, especially into the areas heavily settled by Scandinavians.

The greatest inundation of loanwords into ME came from French. During this time (1150-1500) over 10,000 French words poured into the English language and about 75 per cent of these are still in use.

For the first hundred years after the Norman Conquest, the rate at which the French loans entered English seems to have been relatively slow (about 900). The number of French words making their first appearance in English texts increased steadily during the thirteenth century, crested during the fourteenth century, and then began to decline toward the end of the fourteenth century. In fact, by 1500, over 40 per cent of all of the words that English has borrowed from French had made a first

appearance in the language, including a very high proportion of those French words which have come to play a central part in the vocabulary of modern English.

Almost every aspect of Anglo-Norman civilization was represented in these words which show a dozen broad semantic areas: crown and nobility, government and administration, court and law, war and combat, authority and control, learning and medicine, religion and morality, fashion and high living, sports and entertainment, art and literature.

Latin was the *lingua franca* of the educated people throughout the Middle Ages. It is, therefore, not astonishing that a great number of Latin words were borrowed, but direct loans from Latin into ME tended to be learned words borrowed through the written translation of Latin texts. These words are mostly professional technical terms from religion, medicine, law. The peak of the most extensive phase of these borrowing seems to have been by 1500, under 20 per cent of the Latin borrowings found in modern English had yet entered the language.

Moreover, the parallel usage of several languages in Medieval England has also resulted in some famous duplicate and triplicate synonym sets, with the same referents, but different social connotations.

A handful of English borrowings from other languages, European and non-European, also appeared in ME.

Loanwords from Celtic into English have always been few. Still, several are recorded for the first time during ME, including *bard*, *clan*, *crag*, *glen*, and *loch*.

During the latter part of the ME period, commerce between England and the Low Countries increased greatly, particularly as a result of the wool trade, and several dozen loans from Dutch entered English as a result of this contact. These words mostly reflect the professional terms of seafaring, trade in general, and the containers in which merchandise was shipped.

More learned Greek words entered through Latin into ME. These are scientific and philosophical terms.

As Europe increased its knowledge of the Levant through the Crusades and the spread of Islam, many Arabic and Persian and some Hebrew words were borrowed into European languages. English, however, almost always acquired these secondhand through French or Medieval Latin. ME also received a small number of Slavic and Hungarian words via French.

Despite the thousands of loanwords that poured into English during ME, the language did not stop creating new words by the older processes of compounding and affixing. Indeed, the loanwords provided new raw material for both processes, and new processes of formation developed during the period.

The loss of inflections made compounding even easier. The most productive types of OE compounds continued in ME, indeed, as in OE, the majority of the many new compounds in ME were nouns or adjectives. ME also saw the beginning of new types of compounds that were eventually to become highly productive in English. Besides, foreign elements entered freely into the new compounds.

Despite the fact, that a few OE affixes were totally lost, affixation continued to be one of the chief ways of creating new words in ME. Other native affixes survived in preexisting words, but lost most or all of their productiveness, while new prefixes

were borrowed from French during ME. Most of them were freely attached to native words and loanwords alike.

The great increase in English vocabulary in the Early ME period also mostly came from borrowing, and most of the loanwords were from Latin. Still, other languages also contributed to the English lexicon during these centuries, and, for the first time, words from non-Indo-European languages entered English in fairly large numbers.

The early modern era is characterised by a large influx of words from classical languages, i.e. from Latin and Greek. The flood of Latin loans into English peaked in the period from approximately 1580 to 1660. By and large, the Latin loans of Early ME tended to be fairly learned words – scientific, technical, religious, and educational terms.

English has thousands of words that are Greek in origin, but the majority of these have come into English by way of Latin, or sometimes French. Most borrowings from Greek are highly specialized, scholarly words: scientific, philosophical, artistic, and literary terms.

Other European languages also contributed hundreds, even thousands, of new vocabulary items to English.

French continues to be the largest single source of new words outside of very specialized vocabulary domains throughout Early NE and into Present-Day English. French loans outnumber those from any other contemporary language and relate to war, politics and diplomatics, high culture, fashion and style, arts and theatre, cuisine and gastronomy.

Contacts between England and Italy increased after the sixteenth century and, not surprisingly, were accompanied by many English loans from Italian. Borrowings were especially heavy in trade, architecture, and the arts, with musical terms being particularly prominent. Popularity of Italian cooking is responsible for a number of food-related words.

Early Spanish borrowings are connected with fighting for domination on the sea and in the world in general, the process which took place in the 16th-17th centuries. Moreover, the Spanish as well as the Portuguese had a long head start on the English in the exploration, establishment of commercial relations, and colonization of the non-European world. Hence, many English terms for the exotic products and life-forms found in the Far East and the New World come directly from one of these two languages.

Geographic proximity and extensive political and commercial relations between England and the Low Countries facilitated the borrowing of scores of Dutch words into English during Early NE. Dutch prominence in seafaring gave nautical words. Their famous school of painting provided professional terms for the artistic sphere ('painterly terms'). The close trade ties supplied English with terms for weaving and clothes, food and beverages.

German loans into English have never been especially heavy. German preeminence in geology and mining provided the eighteenth-century loans. Germany's early supremacy in graduate education led to different educational or intellectual (philosophical) borrowings. German contributions to English vocabulary also include terms for music, food and beverages.

Other European languages (Russian, Polish, Hungarian, Norwegian, Icelandic, Celtic, etc.) have been the source of few loanwords in English. These were chiefly the names of specialized products or topographical features not indigenous to England.

Due to the British expansion on the globe, the English language acquired many new loanwords from non-European languages, such as American Indian, Hindi, Tamil, Bengali, Urdu, Malayan, Arabic, Persian, Japanese, Chinese, and etc. The semantic areas represented by the loans reflect the nature of the contact between the English and the natives; including a number of cultural terms in addition to the predictable names of unfamiliar plants, animals, and artifacts.

Although borrowing greatly increased the size of the English vocabulary during the Early NE period and further, English speakers did not stop forming new words from existing elements. The familiar processes of compounding and affixation continued. With the loss of most inflections in ME, functional shift (also called zero derivation or conversion) became one of the important ways of forming new words in the language. This process accelerated during Early NE, and, aside from borrowing, was perhaps the third most common way of expanding the vocabulary.

Essay Content Requirements.

1. An essay is a prose work with compositional integrity and logical consistency. It should express a personal opinion on a given issue, illustrated with examples.
2. The essay should include the following elements:
 - an introduction, which identifies the topic, explains its relevance, and presents a variety of perspectives on the topic, before transitioning to the main argument;
 - a main body, which contains the author's statements and arguments, evidence, facts, and examples supporting the author's position, as well as an analysis of counterarguments and opposing arguments, with a description of their weaknesses;
 - a conclusion, which reiterates the main argument, summarizes the arguments supporting it, and provides a general conclusion.
3. Citations of references (if necessary) are provided in the form of footnotes with all source information.

3.2. Approximate list of questions for the end-of-term test

1. English as a Germanic language. General characteristics and common features of Germanic languages (groups, status, sound system, grammar, vocabulary, writing).
2. The linguistic situation in the OE period. OE dialects.
3. Old English alphabets, writing, accentuation.
4. General Characteristic of Major sound changes in Old English: Grimm's Law, Verner's Law, I-mutation, breaking, nasal loss.
5. Means of form-building in OE.
6. Grammatical categories of the OE verb. Strong verbs in OE. Weak verbs in OE. Minor groups of verbs in OE.

7. Grammatical categories of the OE noun. Strong and weak OE nouns.
8. Grammatical categories of the OE adjective. Weak and Strong declensions of adjectives in OE. Comparison of adjectives in OE.
9. Grammatical categories of pronouns in OE. OE personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns and the article. Interrogative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative pronouns in OE.
10. The OE vocabulary: etymological survey. Means of word-building in OE.
11. The linguistic situation in the ME period. The Anglo-Saxon Invasion and its influence on the language. The Scandinavian Invasion and its influence on the English language. Scandinavian borrowings. The Norman conquest and its influence on the English language. French borrowings in the English Language. Early Middle English Dialects.
12. Middle English spelling and appearance of new letters. ME rules of reading.
13. Qualitative changes in phonology from OE to ME and NE. Quantitative changes in phonology from OE to ME and NE. Formation of diphthongs in ME and NE. The Great Vowel Shift.
14. Means of form-building in ME and NE.
15. Decay of noun declensions in Early ME. Grammatical categories of the noun.
16. Pronouns in ME: classes and changes in grammar categories. Development of articles.
17. Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation in ME. Development of the analytical verb forms.
18. Foreign borrowings in the epoch of Renaissance (ME-NE).
19. Means of word-building in ME and NE.
20. Chronological division of the history of English.

4. COMPLEMENTARY PART

4.1. Educational and program materials

Dynamics of metalanguage system: the program of the educational institution of the discipline for the speciality: 7-06-0231-01 Linguodidactics / Profilization: Applied Linguistics: <https://elib.bsu.by/handle/123456789/338399>. – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

4.2. Methodological recommendations for the use of an electronic educational and methodical complex for the academic discipline "Dynamics of the metalanguage system" in the educational process

To effectively use the electronic educational and methodical complex, the following workflow is recommended:

1. Review the lecture and seminar topics in the Theoretical and Practical parts.
2. During lectures, complete supporting notes on the topics covered, and, following these notes, do the tests on the relevant topics on the BSU educational portal LMS Moodle (<https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>).
3. When preparing for seminars, it is recommended to use the lecture notes as a basis, supplementing the information in them, if necessary, with the help of the specified literature on the subject. Completing the practical assignments in the seminar plan is a mandatory component of seminar preparation.
4. To prepare for the end-of-term test, familiarize yourself with the list of questions and complete the proposed final test to review the material covered.

4.3. Recommended literature

Basic

1. Олейник, С. Е. Практикум по истории английского языка = History of the English Language : учебное пособие / С. Е. Олейник, М. А. Проволоцкая. – 2-е изд. – Минск : РИВШ, 2023. – 191 с.

Additional

2. Расторгуева, Т. А. История английского языка. Учебник / Т. А. Расторгуева. – М. : ООО «Издательство Астрель»: «Издательство АСТ», 2001. – 352 с.
3. Baker, P. S. Introduction to Old English. 3rd ed. / P. S. Baker. – Oxford : Wiley–Blackwell, 2012. – 332 p.
4. Bragg, M. The Adventure of English / M. Bragg. – New York : Arcade Publishing, 2011. – 295 p.
5. Crystal, D. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. 2nd ed. / D. Crystal. – Cambridge : Cambridge University Press, 2003. – 489 p.

6. Hogg, R. An Introduction to Old English / R. Hogg. – Edinburgh : Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – 163 p.

7. Johnson, D. Language Connections with the Past: A History of the English Language / D. Johnson. – Kennesaw State University: University System of Georgia, 2023. – 275 p.

4.4. Electronic resources

Educational portal of BSU [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: <https://eduphil.bsu.by/course/view.php?id=3487>. – Date of access: 30.03.2026.

The History of English Language [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: <https://www.sutori.com/en/story/the-history-of-english-language--9mLdEjkGTx6yshXWFyXUPhvi>. – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

Pæt Eald-Ænglisc Blog [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: [Lesson 0: Alphabet and Pronunciation | Pæt Eald-Ænglisc Blog](#). – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

Language Connections with the Past: A History of the English Language [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: [Language Connections with the Past: A History of the English Language | OpenALG](#). – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

History of English [Electronic resource]. – Mode of access: [Old English \(c. 500 - c. 1100\) - History of English](#). – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

Online Etymology Dictionary [Electronic resource]. – <http://www.etymonline.com/>. – Date of access: 31.03.2026.

LANGUAGE GUIDELINES FOR PRESENTATIONS

Use the following outline and helpful tips to prepare and present your presentation.

A. MAKING A START

INTRODUCTION

Good morning! Let me start by saying just a few words about...

It's an honour to have the opportunity to address such a distinguished audience...

First name.

Surname.

Position.

Department (Faculty).

Responsibilities.

TITLE / SUBJECT

I'd like to talk today about...

I'm going to present (explain, inform you about) ...

The subject of my paper (presentation) is...

PURPOSE / OBJECTIVE

We are here today to learn about...

The purpose of this talk is to give you the background to...

LENGTH

I'll only take ... minutes of your time to...

I plan to be brief

OUTLINE / MAIN PARTS

I've divided my presentation into (4) parts. They are...

We can break this area down into the following fields:

Firstly / first of all...

Secondly / then / next

Thirdly / and then we come to...

Finally / lastly / last of all

QUESTIONS

I'd be glad to answer any questions at the end of my talk.

If you have any questions, please feel free to interrupt.

Please, interrupt me if you need to clarify anything.

REFERENCE TO THE AUDIENCE

I can see many of you are...

You (don't) look as though you've heard this before.

B. DELIVERY AND STYLE *(useful tips)*

TEMPO: Vary the speed – don't talk at the same pace all the time. And pause from time to time – a few seconds of silence are sometimes just as effective as words.

VOLUME: There is no need to shout. Vary the volume. A quiet part can contrast with the louder one.

EXPRESSIVENESS: Introduce questions into your presentation. This should force you to raise the pitch a little.

ARTICULATION: The sounds would be clearer if you don't rush your words. If you anticipate the difficulty in pronouncing certain key words, practice them beforehand. Usually, the problem is the syllable stress.

SENTENCE LENGTH: Avoid reading your text – this should help keep the sentences fairly short.

STYLE: Make your English sound natural – don't use written English. Decide how formal the language should be for the audience.

LINKERS: Use linking expressions to guide your audience through the presentation. Linkers will also help you vary the pace of your presentation.

EMPHASIZERS/MINIMIZERS: It's always a good idea to exaggerate a little – it will help make your message persuasive.

C. ENDING

SIGNALING THE END

That brings me to the end of my presentation.

That completes my presentation.

Before I stop, let me just say that...

That covers all I wanted to say today.

SUMMARIZING

Let me run over the key points again.

I'll briefly summarize the main issues.

To sum up...

CONCLUDING

As you can see, there are some very good reasons...

In conclusion...

I'd like to leave you with the following thought/idea...

RECOMMENDING

So, I would suggest that we...

I'd like to propose... (more formal)

In my opinion, the only way forward is...

CLOSING

Thank you for your attention.

Thank you for listening.

INVITING QUESTIONS

I would be glad to try and answer your questions.

So, let's throw it open to questions.

Any questions?

CLARIFYING A QUESTION

If I understand you correctly, you are saying...

I didn't quite catch you.

Could you repeat again?

AVOIDING GIVING AN ANSWER

Perhaps we could deal with that later.

I'm afraid that's not my field.

I don't have figures (data) with me.

I'm sure Mr. ... could answer my question.

That is interesting but I would prefer not to answer that today.

CHEKING THE QUESTIONER IS SATISFIED

Does that answer your question?

Is that clear?

May we go on?

D. LANGUAGE FOCUS

Sequencing / Ordering

Firstly... secondly... thirdly

Then... next... finally / lastly

Let's start with...

Let's go on / move to

This brings us to...

Let's get back to...

Giving reasons

Therefore

So

As a result

That's why

Contrasting

But

However

Comparing

Similarly

At the same way

Reference to the Audience

As I'm sure you know...

Contradicting

In fact

Actually

Summarizing

To sum up

In brief

In short

Concluding

To conclude

In conclusion

Giving examples

For example

For instance

Such as

Generalizing

Usually

Generally

As a rule

You may remember...
As I'm sure you'd all agree...

EMPHASIZING

Adverbs can be total, very strong or moderate:

TOTAL	VERY STRONG	MODERATE
absolutely (fantastic)	extremely (good)	fairly
completely (awful)	very (bad)	reasonably
entirely (depressing)		quite

MINIMIZING

Look at the way the following expressions of degree and uncertainty modify or minimize the message:

It seems...

It appears...

It's just a little bit further...

Perhaps we should consider...

I tend to think...

** Intonation is also very important in giving more or less emphasis to what we say.*