NAVOIY DAVLAT PEDAGOGIKA INSTITUTI

CHET TILLAR FAKULTETI

INGLIZ TILI VA ADABIYOTI KAFEDRASI

INGLIZ TILI TARIXI fanidan

MA’RUZA MATNLARI

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LECTURE1: SUBJECT AND AIMS OF THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to be discussed:

1. Subject and aims of the history of the English language.
2. Linguistic change.

Key-words: aspect, the synchronic approach, the diachronic approach, communicative function, expressive function, internal linguistic factor, external linguistic factors;

1. A language can be studied in various aspects: its phonetics, grammar, wordstock, style and so on. In studying Modern English we consider all these aspects synchronically and regard the language as a fixed unchangeable system.

The synchronic approach may be contrasted to the diachronic approach, in which no element of the language is treated as fixed or stable. When considered diachronically, every linguistic fact can be interpreted as a stage or a step in the never ending evolution of the language.

The history of the English language shows the ties of English with the languages of the Germanic group as well as its ties with languages of other groups. The history of the language will show that linguistic alterations may be dependant on or caused by events in the history of the people. Thus the subject of these lectures is bound with that of the history of Britain.

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

Through learning the history of the English language the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical. So, one of the aims is to provide the student with a knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present-day English. For example, through centuries writing and spelling was changing in English. At the time when Latin letters were first used in Britain (7th c.) writing was phonetic: the letters stood for the same sound. After the introduction of printing (15th c.) the written form of the word became fixed, while the sounds continued to change (knight was [knix't]). Another important aim of this course is of a more theoretical nature. While tracing the evolution of the English language through time, the student 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 and so on. These problems may be considered on a theoretical plane within the scope of general linguistics. In describing the evolution of English, they will be discussed in respect of concrete linguistic facts, which will ensure a better understanding of these facts and will demonstrate the application of general principles to language material. One more aim of this course is to provide the student of English with a wider philological outlook. The history of the English language shows the place of English in the linguistic world.

The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. As Engels wrote: "Substance and form of one's language, however, become intelligible only when its origin and gradual evolution are traced, and this cannot be done without taking into account, first, its own extinct forms, and secondly, cognate languages both living and dead".

One of the primary aims of the course is to provide the student with a knowledge of history sufficient to account for the essential feature and some specific peculiarities of Modern English. A few illustrations are given to show how features of MODERN English can be explained in terms of their past development, taken from different spheres, they also show that all levels of the language are apt to change:

1. The scholar of English will say that English spelling is difficult because it is more "conventional" (traditional) than phonetic. The values of Latin letters in English differ from their values in other languages. The connection between letters or their combinations with the sounds they designate often seems arbitrary. Consider a few examples:

Bit(3 letters), (bit)-3 sounds- complete correspondence between Latin letters and English sounds.

Bite (4 letters), (bait)- 3 sounds- the final "e" does not stand for any sound but is used, conventionally, to show that the preceding letter has its alphabetic value.
Night-(5 letters), (nait)- 3sounds- the same goal is achieved by the digraph "gh".
The spelling "night, bite and others accurately show the pronunciation of the 14^{th} or 15^{th} centuries.
2. Another illustration may be drawn from the history of the wordstock. The English language belongs to the group of Germanic languages and is thus closely related to German, Swedish, Dutch and others.
The English wordstock, however, differs makedly from that of cognate languages; it appears to have more roots in common with French and Latin, though the latter belong to another linguistic group.
2. The history of the language can also help us to understand the peculiarities of Modern English grammar, both as regards the rules and the so-called "exceptions". Thus it will be shown below why English nowadays has so few grammatical endings, how verbs have come to be divided into morphological classes, how all kinds of grammatical exceptions arose.

1.2. Language is never static changes are constantly going on at all its levels. The nature of linguistic change is largely determined by the general characteristics of language and its functions in society.
The two main functions of language in society are its communicative function and its expressive function.
The two functions of language determine its basic linguistic properties.
The sound system of a language changes very slowly because it must carefully preserve the contrast between phonemes essential for differentiation between morphemes.
Likewise the grammar structure of the language can only be subject to very slow modification, as it provides general frames and patterns for the other systems.
A language develops together with the community who speaks it and its changes are thus caused by alterations in human society.
Since language is a specific phenomenon with its own, specifically linguistic properties, its changes are caused by internal linguistic factors rather than by external or extralinguistic factors rather than by external or extralinguistic factors. It is here that the systematic character of the language and interdependence between its components play a most important role.
Linguistic changes are interdependent or interrelated in that a minor change may serve as a cause of other changes in the same or different systems and also in that minor changes enter the framework of larger ones.
Interdependence between alterations in different linguistic levels can be exemplified by some facts from the history of English. Due to the phonetic causes the unstressed final syllables of English words were gradually weakened and sometimes dropped. This phonetic development served as one of the factors that brought about the loss of some grammatical endings and thus affected the morphological system of the language.
The causes of the changes in the English language will be considered alongside of the changes themselves, and as far as possible, will be interpreted in the light of the general principles outlined above.

Testing questions:
1. Why linguistic changes are always slow and gradual?
2. What functions of the language and its main properties do you know?
3. How can the evolution of the language be affected by or be dependent upon the history of the people who speak it?
4. What is the discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation?

LECTURE 2. THEME: GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Problems to be discussed:

1. Modern Germanic languages.
2. The Common Germanic period.
3. The ancient Germans.
4. Differentiation of Common Germanic.
5.History of Germanic languages:
5.1.East Germanic.
5.2. North Germanic
5.3. West Germanic.

Key-words: Germanic languages, Teutonic languages, Indo-European dialects, the Goths, the Ostrogoths, the Vandals, the Burgundians, the Franconians, the Saxon, the Anglian, the Frisian;

1. The English language is one of the Germanic or Teutonic languages, a large group belonging to one of the biggest linguistic families: Indo-European.
Germanic languages are spoken in many countries and continents. They are:
German- in Germany, Austria and Switzerland.
English- in Great Britain, the USA, Canada, Australia and some former British colonies and dominions.
Dutch and Frisian- in the Netherlands.
Danish- in Denmark.
Norwegian- in Norway.
Swedish- in Iceland.
Flemish- in Belgium.
Faroese- in the Faroe Islands.
Yiddish – in different countries.
Some of them are national languages, others are local dialects spoken over small areas.
2.The earliest period in the development of the Germanic group dates back to pre-written stages of human history and is therefore more or less hypothetical. The Germanic group of dialects developed their first millennium B.C. On these grounds one can surmise that sometime at the beginning of the first millennium groups of tribes speaking the would be Germanic dialects split from other West Indo-European tribes. This event marks the beginning of Germanic linguistic history. At that time the ancient Germanic tribes must have inhabited a relatively small territory, their spoken dialects were very much alike. This group closely related homogeneous dialects has not been preserved in written form, it has been reconstructed in its essential features from later written sources and is commonly known as the Common Germanic parent-language or simply Common Germanic (or Primative Germanic). The Common Germanic period lasted approximately till the beginning of our era.
Germanic originally belonged to the western area of Indo-European. Yet at the dawn of their separate history the Germanic tribes were close to some East European tribes, whose language later formed the Baltic and the Slavonic groups. Some time later the Germanic tribes must have established closer ties with the ancient Italic tribes living in Southern Europe.
The Germanic tribes were closely connected with the Celtic tribes who inhabited vast areas in Western Europe.
At the end of Common Germanic the ancient Germans again came into closer contact with the Italic group (namely, the Latin language). Thus separation of Germanic dialects from other Indo-European dialects was followed by new blendings or contacts with related tongues.

Towards the beginning of our era the Common Germanic period came to an end. The ancient Germans spread to the neighbouring territories and their dialectal differences grew.
3. During the last few centuries B.C. the Germanic tribes inhabited the western coast of the Baltic Sea and the southern part of the tribes is found in a description of a voyage to the Baltic Sea made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer, in 325 B.C.

At the beginning of our era the graeter part of modern France, Italy and Spain was inhabited by the Celts.
As the Romans tried to extend their territories north-east, they met with the stubborn resistance of barbarian tribes whom they called Germans or Teutons.
In those days the Germans maintained close contacts with the Romanized Celts and the Romans. From Romans they learned the use of money, better agricultural techniques, food processing.
The second and third centuries witnessed a turning point in the history of the Germanic tribes and their dialects: there began the period of the so- called "great migrations". By the 5th century the Teutons had gradually spread over the Celtic and Slavonic territories fighting the Slavs, the Celts and their Roman masters.
4. The Common Germanic parent-language never was a uniform language in the modern sense, it was made up of closely related spoken dialects, whose divergence increased towards the beginning of our era. The migrations of ancient Germans in the 2nd-5th centuries led to the geographical separation of tribal groups and consequently to the independent development of their tongues. Around the beginning of our era Common Germanic differentiated into what is known as "Old Germanic dialects" or "Old Germanic languages".
The initial stages of the history of Old Germanic dialects refer to the pre- written epoch. The earliest inscriptions in some Old Germanic dialects are dated in the 3rd century whereas in other dialects there was no writing prior to the 12th or 13th century..
The Germanic languages of the earliest written records are known as Old English, Old High German, Old Saxon, Old Swedish and etc. From tribal tongues of migrating tribes they gradually changed into local dialects of the age of feudalism. The subsequent stages of their history called New (or Middle and New, as in the history of English and German) witnessed the formation of literary national languages; the consolidation of dialects was linked up with the unification of people into nations under the capitalist system from the 15th century onwards.

The period of Old Germanic dialects, together with the succeeding periods, can be best described for each subgroup of Germanic languages separately.

All Germanic languages, old and new, are traditionally divided into three subgroups: North, East and West. However, it appears that at the early stage of differentiation there were only two major dialectal groups: the northern subgroup, spoken by the tribes in Scandinavia and the southern subgroup spoken in Jutland and south of the Baltic sea. Several tribes from Scandinavia moved across the Baltic sea to the continent. There they formed the eastern subgroup, contrasted to the other southern tribes who, since then, can be referred to as West Germanic. When, several hundred years later, the East Germanic group moved away from the Baltic Sea, the two remaining groups, North and West, were brought closer together. With these reservations the terms North, East and West Germanic will be used here in the commonly accepted meaning.

5.1. Part of the Teutonic tribes who inhabited the Scandinavian Peninsula migrated south (to Northern Germany) in the last centuries before our era. There they represented the eastern subgroup of Germanic languages.

The most numerous and powerful of the East Germanic tribes were the Goths; the names of the other tribes are the Vandals and the Burundians' (Tacitus name for the whole group was "Vindils").
The Goths played a prominent part in the history of the Early Middle Ages. They were the first of the ancient Germans to leave the Baltic coast and start on their great migration. In about A.D. 200 they moved to the south-east and soon settled in the plains north of the Black Sea. Part of them stayed there to be later absorbed by the native population.

The western branch of the Goths travelled west form the coast of the Black Sea and traversed the Balkans. In A.D. 410 the Goths captured Rome. They didn't stop there, but moved on to Southern France and Spain, where they set up the first powerful barbarian kingdom in Medieval Europe; although they, too, were soon linguistically absorbed by the native population, Romanized Celts.

The eastern branch of the Goths, the Ostrogoths, consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the basin of the Dniester in the 4th century, and some hundred years later attacked Rome. Their kingdom in Northern Italy was soon included into the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium.

The other East Germanic tribes are believed to have left the plains near the Baltic Sea at about the same time as the Goths, and consolidated into kingdoms over the territory of France and Spain, their kingdoms soon disintegrated. Their tribal names have survived in the names of Burgundy and Andalusia.

All the East Germanic languages are now dead. Yet the Gothic language is even now being studied by linguists, for it is the earliest written language in the Germanic group.

The Goths were the first of the Old Germanic tribes to be Christianized. In the 4th century Ulfilas, a West Gothic bishop made a translation of the Gospel from Greek into Gothic, using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Fragments of Ulfilas Gospel, in a later copy, have reached us and are preserved now in Uppsala (Sweden). It is a manuscript of about two hundred pages of red parchment with silver and gold letters, commonly referred to as *Codex Argentous* (*Silver Codex)*. It was first published in the late 17th century.

The Gothic language recorded in Ulfilas' Gospel had undergone very few alterations since the Common Germanic period. It has enabled modern philologists to reconstruct the essential features of the Common Germanic parent-language and also to investigate, with greater certainly, the pre-written stages of other Old Germanic dialects. Although the Gothic language is not an ancestor of English, and even belongs to a different subgroup, it bore strong resemblance to the English language of the pre-written period and we shall frequently refer to Gothic in order to account for some features of Old English, and even of the English language to-day.

5.2. The tribes of ancient Germans in Scandinavia remained isolated for several hundred years. Only a small group crossed the Baltic Sea and settled in Jutland.

The differentiation of Scandinavian into separate dialects and dialectal groups proceded very slowly. Up to the 9th century their speech had very slight dialectal variation. Their tongue is know as Old Norse or Old Scandinavian and has survived in runic inscriptions dating from the 3rd to the 9th century of our era. Old Norse retained many archaic traits of the Common Germanic language.

The disintegration of Old Norse began as late as the 9th century when the Scandinavians started on their migrations. In the so-called "Viking Age" they made raids on neigh bouring countries and spread overseas. In the 9th century some Scandinavian sea-rovers, known and North men, settled in France (hence the name "Normandy"); in the same century they began their raids on the British Isles and gradually occupied the greater part of Britain; Scandinavians foundedtheir settlements in the islands of the North Sea, colonized Iceland and Greenland and from there reached North America.

Usually the Scandinavians who settled overseas did not preserve their tongue for long and were assimilated by the native population. In Normandy they soon adopted the language of the French, in Britain their influence was more pronounced, but there, too, their tongue was eventually absorbed by the local idiom. The Scandinavian dialects in some other islands died out too: they were displaced by English in Northern Ireland and in the Shetlands. In some of the new territories, however, were there was no competition with other tongues, the North Germanic dialects survived.

In the Faroe Islands the people (about 26,000) still speak the Faroese language, which is derived from the tongue of the Norwegian settlers. For many hundred years Danish was the only written language in the Islands; it was not until the 18th century that the first Faroese records were made.

In Iceland the dialects brought by the Scandinavian colonists developed eventually into an independent national North Germanic language-Icelandic. The earliest text in Old Icelandic date

in the 12nd century. Due to its geographic isolation Icelandic has suffered few changes in later ages and has preserved many old traits till the present time.

In Scandinavia proper the principal dialectal division (which became more marked after the 9th century) roughly corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance. The relative positions of the languages changes as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbours.

Denmark was the most powerful kingdom for many hundred years: it annexed Southern Sweden, the southern Baltic coast up to the Gulf of Riga and most of the British Isles; by the 14th century Norway fell under Danish rule too. Sweden regained its independence in the 16th century, while Norway remained a backward province politically dependent on Denmark until the early 19th century. In consequence, both Swedish and Norwegian were influence by Danish.

In the Late Middle Ages first Danish and then Swedish developed into national languages, the latter retaining some traces of the Danish influence. The development of Norwegian was considerably handicapped by the political dependence of Norway on Sweden and Denmark. In the 19th century there developed two variants of the Norwegian language: one as a blending of literary Danish with Norwegian town dialects, the other-made up of local, Norwegian, Norwegian, elements and strongly sponsored by Norwegian philologists and writers. At the present time the two variants tend to fuse into a single national literature Norwegian language.

The major modern North Germanic language are Norwegian and Icelandic in the West and Danish and Swedish in the East.

5.3. The West Germanic subgroup is of chief interest to us as the English language belongs here.

Prior to the migrations the Germanic tribes of the western subgroup dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe. They may have retreated west under the pressure of the Goths, who had come from Scandinavia. Later they spread up the Rhine, to the highlands of Germany, and in other directions.

The division of West Germanic tribes into several minor groups must have been quite distinct even at the beginning of our era, for Pliny and Tacitus described them under three different headings.

At the beginning of the migration period there were three principal groups of tribes: (1) the Franconians, (2) the High Germans and (3) the Angles, the Saxons and the Frisians.

In the Early Middle Ages the Franconians were probably the most numerous and powerful group of all the West Germans. Their tribal alliance eventually grew into one of the biggest feudal states of Medieval Europe. Under Charlemagne their Holy Roman Empire extended eastwards as far as Bavaria and Saxony and southwards into almost half of modern Italy. As the Empire lacked economic and ethnic unity, in the 9th century it split in two, the western part to become the basis of France, the eastern, to disintegrate into the numerous feudal kingdoms of Germany. On the territory of France the West Germanic dialects of the Fronconians were soon forgotten, as the bulk of the people, Celtic by origin, spoke dialects of the romance group descending from Latin.

In the lower basin of the Rhine the Franconian dialects (Low Franconian) developed eventually into Dutch, the national language of the Netherlands, and Flemish a dialect in Belgium. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date in the 9th century. The monument of the 12th century record the earliest Old Dutch; the formation of the Dutch literary standard covers a long period in the later Middle Ages: its development is linked up with the growth of the Netherlands into a big colonial power after its liberation from Spain in the 16th century.

Quite recently there developed on e more independent West Germanic language which descended directly from Dutch. It is language of south Africa called “Afrikaans” (also “Boerish”, from the Dutch for “farmer”- *Boer*), brought to South Africa about three hundred years ago by the Dutch settlers. It is now spoken by most South African people irrespective of race.

In the east, the High and Middle Franconian dialects bordered on another major group of Old Germanic dialects belonging to the western subdivision – the High German group called "high" because this group of tribes lived in the highlands of Germany. Like the Franconian group, the tribes speaking High German dialects (Bavarian, Alemanian and others) did not go far in their migrations: they pushed east driving Slavonic tribes from places of their ancient settlement.

The Old High German language is known from written monuments of the 8th century and later; in the 12th -13th centuries Middle High German absorbed some features of the High and Middle Franconian dialects too. The literary High German language developed after the Reformation though no spoken standard existed until the 19th century, as Germany remained politically divided into a number of small kingdoms.

High German, in a slightly modified from, is also the national language of Austria and one of the official languages of Switzerland.

The High German dialects of the Middle Ages became the basis of the language of the Jews, who settled in Germany in the 10th and 11th century. Numerous Jewish communities in Germany adopted the High German dialects and gradually altered them to such an extent that at present their tongue constitutes a separate language of the West Germanic group termed Yiddish or New Jewish. From Germany Yiddish was exported to other countries.

The third group of West Germanic in the Early Middle Ages was made up of the Saxon, the Anglian and the Frisian dialects. The Saxon lived in the lowlands of Germany; they bordered on the Anglo-Frisian tribes who occupied the coast of North Sea between the Elbe and the Rhine. In the 5th century Angles, some of the Saxons and the Jutes (a related tribe from Jutland) began their invasion of the British Isles. They brought to Britain their West Germanic dialects which eventually developed into the English language. The tongue of the Germanic settlers in Britain up to the 12th century (Old English) is preserved in records from the 7th century, which is the earliest date of all the written monuments in the West Germanic dialects. The territory of English was at first confined to part of Great Britain; then it expanded to include Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland as these lands were annexed to Britain. In later ages English was brought to North America, India, Australia, and some parts of Africa – to all the lands which fell under British and American rule in the 18th-20th centuries. Until recently the English language was used as the only official and written language in many British colonies and dominions. Now that many of them have become independent the sphere of English has again narrowed and it is being displaced by the native tongues.

A number of Frisian tribesmen many have participated in the invasion of Britain. However the bulk of the Frisians stayed on the mainland, and their dialects have survived as the dialect of Friesland (in the Netherlands) which has both an oral and a written form.

The tongue of Saxon tribes who stayed on the continent is known from Old Saxon records of the 9th century. The Saxon dialects have always constituted an important dialectal group in Germany. They are now referred to Low German as contrasted to High German which is the literary language of the country ("Platt-deutsch" and "Hochdeutsch").

Thus the modern languages of the West Germanic subgroup are: English with its American variant, German, Dutch, Afrikaans, Yiddish, and also the Frisian, the relations English was originally closest to Frisian. In later history, however, it underwent such considerable alterations that at the present time it differs widely from all the languages of the Germanic group.

Testing questions:

1. What language group does English belong to?
2. What period is the Common Germanic period?
3. What the ancient Germans were during the few centuries B.C?
4. What period was the "period of great migrations"?
5. What subgroups of Germanic languages do you know?
6. when was the Gothic language spoken? Why and from what sources is it being studied?
7. From which Old Germanic dialects have the modern West Germanic languages been formed?

LECTURE 3. PRINCIPAL FEATURES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES: MORPHOLOGY

Problems to be discussed:

1. Some characteristics of the morphological structure of the word
1.1. Simplification of the word structure in Germanic
1.2. Sound alternations in the root-morpheme with special reference to ablaut
2. From-building means
3. Parts of speech and their grammatical categories
3.1. The noun and the adjective
3.2. The grammatical categories of the verb

Key-words: stem, ablaut, sound alternations, noun, weak and strong declension

1 Some characteristics of the morphological structure of the word

In order to understand the peculiar grammatical and lexical features of the Germanic group one must first consider the morphological structure of the word in Common Germanic and some specific properties of the root-morpheme. Both these matters are directly related to the problem of from-building and word-building means.

1.1. Simplification of the Word Structure in Germanic

It appears that in all periods of history, words in Germanic languages could be divided into three types, according to the number and character of their components: simple words, derived words and compound words. Table 1 shows the three types of words in Old Germanic dialects and in modern languages.

The root-morpheme together with the word building affixes and some from-building affixes is termed the stem. The stem may be equal to the root, as in simple words (a), may contain word-building affixes as derived words (b),or may have a more complicates structure: it can contain more than one root-morpheme and word-building affixes besides (c).

Words of different morphological structure

	Old Germanic				Modern Germanic		
	Gr	O.Icel.	OHG	OE	Swedish	German	NE (or translation)
(a) Simple	Fisks Raihts	Fiskr Rettr	Fisc Reht	Fisc Riht	Fisk Ratt	Fish Recht	Fish (n) Right
(b) Derived	Fiskja Raihtaba	Fiskari	Fiscari Unreht	Fiscere Unriht	Fiskare oratt	Fischer unrecht	Fisher ‘wrong” “rightly”
© Compound	Manleika	manlikan	manalihho	manlica			Effigy, lit. The like of man

When words are considered diachronically the distinction between the three main structures is not easy to make, because derived words could change into simple ones by losing their affixes (compare OE *fiscian* and NE *fish v*), while compound words could develop into derived ones, if their second root-morpheme was transformed into a suffix or fused with the root. Consider the simplification in OE *scēap-hydre* “herdsman of sheep”, NE *sheriff.* In their turn compound and derived words could develop from word combinations.

It has been discovered that the Early Common Germanic morphological structure of words was usually more complicated than the word structure of written periods. There must have been fewer simple words, whose stem was equal to the root. In Common Germanic the stem consisted of two basic components, the root-morpheme and the stem-forming suffix, and to these two

elements a third morpheme, the grammatical ending, was added. Thus Common Germanic **fiskaz* (the prototype of the Gothic word *fisks*, OE *fisc*, NE *fish*) consisted of the following morpheme:

Stem		Grammatical endings (Nominative Singular)
root	Stem-suffix	
fisk	-a-	-z

Stem-forming suffixes originally performed a word-building (or sometimes a form-building) function. Thus the Gothic noun *fiskja,* given in the table, was formed from the root **fisk* which showed that the noun denoted a person, doer (a fisherman). The same root with the Germanic stem suffix **-a-** (dropped in Gothic and Old English) meant *fish.*

Stems could be formed by separate vowels or consonants of by their combinations. Stems ending in vowels are referred to as vocalic stems, e.g. **a**-stems, **i**-stems and others. Stems whose suffixes made up the consonants are termed consonantal stems, e.g. **n**-stems, **nd**-stems.

In later Common Germanic and in Old Germanic dialects the morphological structure of the word structure. It fused with the root-morpheme or with the original grammatical ending and the three basic components were thus refused to two. Compare Common Germanic **fisk-a-z* and the Gothic *fisk-s*.

When the stem-suffix blended with the root the latter was modified: thus the Modern English *time* and *tide* descend from the same ancient root ***ti-,** with different elements, **-m-** and **–d-**, added.

The simplification of the word structure affected the grammatical ending more than any other element of the word, as the stem-suffix, due to the weakening of final (JADVAL 55) syllables, most frequently fused with the grammatical affix. As a result of the fusion new grammatical endings were formed.

	Reconstructed common Germanic form	Old Germanic forms				NE
		Gt	O.Icel.	OE	OHG	
Noun a-stem masc. Nominative Sing.	Fisk-a-z	Fisk-s	Fisk-r	Fisc-	Fisc-	fish
Dative sing.	Fisk-a-i	Fisk-a	Fisk-e	Fisc-e	Fisc-e	
Verb infinitive	Mak-oj-an	-	-	Mac-ian	Mahh-on	make

The causes of their simplification are to be looked for in different aspects of the world: phonetic, semantic and morphological. Though originally system-suffixes must have been associated with a difference in meaning, during the Common Germanic period many of them lost their semantic significance; that is why their loss as a distinct morpheme within the word structure did not affect the meaning of the word. On the other hand, as known the from the properties of Germanic stress, the final syllable was phonetically contrasted to the root-morpheme as the weakest and the least distinct element of the word: consequently, the stem-suffix and the grammatical ending easily blended into one morpheme.

4.1.2. Sound Alternations in the Root-morpheme, with Special Reference to Ablaut

Another specific feature of the Germanic group pertaining no less to morphology than to phonology is a property of the root-morpheme witch can be defined as its variability or tendency to variation.

It is easy to notice that the root-morpheme in Common Germanic languages relatively stable as far as consonants are concerned, while its vowels appear to be very changeable; in other words, we commonly find different vowels in the same root-morpheme at one and the same historical period. Sometimes, though more seldom, the consonants in the root vary too, so that a root-morpheme actually functions in the language as a set of variants or allomorphs.

Compare different word-forms with the Common Germanic root **ber-** in Table 3.

The differences between the variants of the root-morpheme must be attributed to vowel alternations, which differentiate between grammatical forms of the word as in Lines 1-4 or different words built from one root as in the other lines.

Historically the alternations shown in Table 3 make a mixed picture of phonetically conditioned or independent sound changes originating at different periods. We shall confine our description here to the earliest instances of sound alternations, whose origin is to be found no later than in Common Germanic they were inherited by all the Old Germanic dialects and can often be found in modern tongues as well, though in an altered form.

	Old Germanic			Modern Germanic		
	Gr	O.icel	OE	swedish	German	English
Forms of the verb "bear"	Bairan Bar Berum Baurans Birit	Bera Bar Barum Borimm ber	Beran Bæron Boren birp	Bara Bar Buro Buren bar	Gebaren Gebar geboren	Bear (v) Bore Born Bears (3rd p. sing
Other words from the same root	Barn Baur "son"	Barn burðr	Bearn Зebyrd	barn	 geburt	Dial. Barn "child" birth

The earliest and the most widely and systematically employed interchange retained in the Germanic group from ancient Indo-European, was vowel interchange termed "ablaut" or "vowel gradation". Being a common Indo-European language too. The principal vowel gradation used in Indo-European languages can be shown is same Russian examples:

e — o **(e** alternates with **o)**

нести – ноша, носит

беру – сбор

This kind of gradation is called "qualitative" ablaut, as only the quality of vowel is changed; the other kind of ablaut, known as "quantitative", is based on a difference in quantity: long vowels alternate with short ones and with the reduced or zero grade, which means that the vowel is neutral or lost.

Prolonged grade (long vowel)	Normal or full grade (short vowel)	Reduced grade, zero grade (neutral vowel or loss of vowels
E Latin legi "elected" Russian o -	E Lego "elect" O сбор	- - - брал

In Germanic both kinds of ablaut and also combinations of the two were used. Due to specifically Germanic vowel changes some Indo-European qualitative gradation series were modified in Common Germanic. The Indo-European gradation series **e – o** was changed **e/i – a** in Germanic, while the quantitative gradation **a – ā** was modified to **a – ō** and was thus transformed into a quantitative-qualitative series. Quantitative ablaut has turned into a most complicated vowel alternation in Germanic owing to the different treatment of the reduced and the zero grade in various environments.

Vowel gradation in Germanic occurs both in the root-morpheme and in the affixes. Due to the alternation of the root-vowel a variety of allomorphs can appear in different forms of the word or in different words built from the same root (see the allomorphs of the root **ber-** in various lines of Table 3 above).

Of all its spheres of application in Germanic, ablaut was most consistently used in building the form of verbs called "strong"; the root-morpheme in each of the principal forms of the verbs was characterized by a different vowel grade.

Most of the gradation series occurring in strong verbs were based on the Indo-European ablaut series **e – o** shown above (reflected as **e/i – a** in Germanic); combined with the succeeding sounds in each particular root, the vowels made up new gradation series in Germanic.

Here are some Gothic strong verbs giving the closest possible approach to the Common Germanic forms and gradation series which passed into all the dialects of the Germanic group. In each class the alternating vowel is combined with a different sound or sound combination: with **i** in Class 1; with **u** in Class 2; with **–nd | ld** or other similar combinations in Class 3, etc.

Vowel Gradation in Some Strong Verbs in Gothic

Indo-European ablaut	E	o	zero	zero	NE
Corresponding common Germanic vowel gradation	e/i	a	zero	zero	
Class 1 Class 2 Class 3 Class 4	Reisan Kuisan Bindan bairan	Rais Kaus Band bar	Risum Kusum Bundum berum	Risans Kusans Bundans baurans	Rise Choose Bind bear
	infinive	Past Sing.	Past plural	Participle II	

The origin of ablaut is not clean; probably at the outset it was caused by some phonetic factors, namely word-accent. In Common Germanic ablaut was already totally independent phonetic conditions and was used as a sort of infix in the root.

Some Common Germanic gradation series in a modified from are still applied to differentiate between words and forms.

Sound alternations in the root-morpheme in Germanic were not confined to gradation inherited from Indo-European. New variations arose in Germanic proper as a result of positional changes of vowels and consonants in part of word-forms some of these developments refer to Common Germanic and consequently have left traces in most languages of the group.

In describing Germanic mutations (see Lecture 3, § 3, 3.1.) it was pointed out that they could sometimes be illustrated by one word: its forms had different root-vowels owing to positional changes caused by the succeeding sound in one of the forms. The changes became a source of new vowel alternations of the root-morpheme. These alternations, however, were soon leveled out on the analogy of the forms.

Vowel Alternation due to Germanic Mutations

	O.Icel	OHG	OE
Infinitive	Hjalpa	Beran, helpan	Beran, helpan
2nd person Singular	Helpr	Biris, hilpis	Birst, hilpst
3rd person Singular	helpr	Birit, hilpit	Birp, hilpp

A few instances of consonant alternations arose in Common Germanic under Verner's Law. These alternations can still be found in some Old Germanic dialects but later they were leveled out too (see the description of Verner's Law and the examples in Lecture 3 and also the forms of the Old English verb *cweðan* in Lecture 8, Table 4 with the consonant alternations [θ] – [ð] modified in Old English to [ð] – [θ] – [d])

Although some of the earlier alternations were lost in later ages new sound alternations appeared in separate Germanic languages. Consequently, variability of the root-morpheme due to sound alternations must be considered in important feature of the Germanic group.

4.2. Form-Building Means

All the Indo-European languages were synthetic, that is they showed the relation between words in a sentence by adding inflection and changing the stem rather that by word order or auxiliary words (which are employed language with a more analytical structure). The Common Germanic language and the Old Germanic dialects were synthetic too.

In Common Germanic various means of from-building were employed, all of them being synthetic means.

As shown above, sound alternation in the root-morpheme could be used as a from building means. Vowel alternation was used more frequently than consonant alternation. Sound alternations were usually employed in combination with other means. In the beginning their application was confined to verbs; later (in the Old Germanic dialects) its spread to other parts of speech. On the whole this means stood second among other from-building means at the Old Germanic stage (see the examples in Tables 3 and 4 above).

Grammatical ending or suffixes were by far the most widely used means of from-building in all parts of speech, both alone and in combination with other means. In Early Common Germanic they must have been fuller and endings, distinctly separate from the preceding stem-suffix. In later Common Germanic and by the time of its disintegration the original endings descending from Indo-European had been weakened and sometimes dropped. A variety endings arose as a result of the fusion of the old endings with different stem-suffixes.

In the early periods of history, while all the Germanic languages were closer to Common Germanic, their grammatical endings were much more alike and showed regular correspondences. Compare, e. g.,some noun endings of a-stems in the Old Germanic dialects:

Singular	Gt	O.Icel	OHG	Old Saxon	OE
Nominative And Accusative	Wulfs	Ulfr, ulf	Wolf	Wulf	Wulf NE. wolf
Genitive	Wulfis	Ulfs	Wolfes	Wulfes	Wulfes
dative	Wulfa	ulfe	wolfe	wulfe	wulfe

Due to the phonetic weakening of final syllables and levelling of endings by analogy, already by the time of the written records many grammatical endings, formerly different, had fallen together. The endings were distinguished on!y in relation to other endings, through their place in the paradigm.

Consider, e. g.,

Gt -an — ending of the Infinitive in some verb classes as contrasted to other verb endings;

-an — ending of the Accusative case, Singular, in the declension of n-stems as contrasted to other case-forms or other noun declensions.

O.Icel -a— ending of the Infinitive and some other verb-forms;

— ending of some case-forms of nouns;

OE -an — ending of the Infinitive of most verbs;

— ending of most case-forms of n-stems in the noun declension, etc.

Homonymy of grammatical endings became a characteristic feature of Germanic from an early date (and is a common feature of the Germanic languages still).

In contrast to endings, grammatical prefixes were hardly ever employed. They were confined to the verb system and in the written periods were sometimes used to mark Participle II or to express a perfective meaning associated with the category of aspect. It may be assumed that they were similarly used in Common Germanic. For example,

Gr	OHG	OE	NE (or translation)
Laisjan	Leren, lernen	Læran, leornian	Learn,teach учить (incomplete action)
Ga-laisjan	Gi-lernen	Зe-læran	Learn, teachб выучить(completed action)
(ga) laisiþs	Gi-lernet	Зe-læred	Learned выученный (participle II)

Another means of form-building, suppletive forms, was inherited by Germanic from Indo-European; as elsewhere it was restricted in Germanic to some personal pronouns, a few verbs and adjectives.

case	Latin	Russian	Gt	O.Icel	OE	NE
Nominative	Ego	Я	Ik	Ek	Ic	I
Genitive	Mei	Меня	Meina	Min	Min	My,
(Possessive)	Meus	Мой				Mime

Dative	Mihi	мне	mis	mer	me	me

Form-Building Means in Common Germanic

Sound alternations in the root	Grammatical endings (suffixes)	Prefixes	Suppletive systems
Vowels more than consonants. Used in combination with other means rather than alone Confined to verb forms	Used alone and in combination with other means, in all inflected parts of speech	Hardly ever used	Confined to a few word-forms/

All these means passed from Common Germanic into the dialects and languages of the group and were preserved in them to a various extent. Later a new kind of forms, analytical forms, developed in addition to synthetic forms. The tendency to analytical form-buildings was very strong. It operated in all the subgroups of Germanic and is an important distinguishing mark o the group. However, it did not yet manifest itself in Common Germanic and was not equally intensive in the later history of separate languages. Nowadays the proportion of synthetic and analytical forms in the languages of the group varies.

4.3. Parts of speech and their grammatical categories

Being a group of the Indo-European family, Germanic languages have approximately the same division of words into parts of speech as other groups.

Throughout history the following parts of speech could be found in the Germanic group: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral (declinable parts of speech, or ‘nomina”) the verb, the adverb, the conjunction and the preposition. All the inflected parts of speech were characterized by certain grammatical categories; in this respect, however, each period and each language have their own peculiarities.

The Noun and the adjective

In Common Germanic the noun, the pronoun, and the adjective had the grammatical categories of gender, number and case.

Like other Indo-European languages Germanic distinguished three genders: Masculine, Feminine and Neuter, which sometimes, though not always, corresponded to 'the natural gender, or sex. The Old Germanic dialects of the early written records preserved that distinction: in later periods some of them, e.g. English have lost or transformed them to a considerable degree.

As far as number is concerned, some of the Old Germanic dialects distinguished three numbers (Singular, Plural and Dual), whereas others had only two. Thus Gothic, Old English and Old Icelandic had some Dual forms of personal pronouns; the Gothic language had also Dual verb-forms that agreed with these pronouns. Probably the Dual number had existed in Common Germanic but was not preserved for long.

It was formerly believed that at an early stage Germanic had lost a number of cases out of the ancient Indo-European hypothetical seven or eight. Recent research has shown that in the West Indo-European subdivision, from which Germanic descended, there had probably never been more than four cases; Common Germanic must have kept the original number of cases while some Old Germanic dialects increased it to five (adding a Vocative or an Instrumental case to the four Principal cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative).

The noun in Germanic was remarkable for the elaborate system of declensions (that is, a large number of paradigms) which rested on the Indo-European division of nouns into stems. As shown above after the blending of the endings with different stem-suffixes and the reduction of final syllables the two components formed new grammatical endings different for every kind of stem. As a result there developed numerous declensions with a variety of case-endings. The division into stems was transformed into a new grammatical division: types of declension

Different noun declensions in Germanic languages are referred to as a – stems, o-stems, u-stems, n-stems, r-stems, though in many types the stem-suffix nouns in written periods. On the whole consonantal stems preserved the stem-forming suffix longer than vocalic stems: thus the element –n- is found in many forms of n-stems as a case-ending:

OE heorte, Nominative sing. NE heart; OE heortan – genitive, Dative and Accusative sing. (the corresponding Gothic forms are : hairto, hairtins and hairtin.

The division into declensions resting on the Indo-European stem division is not peculiar to Germanic alone; yet Germanic differs from other groups in that it preserved the grouping accurately and developed a most complicated system of declensions from it.

Later, the morphological system of the noun in the Germanic languages was considerably simplified so that nowadays only some of the modern languages have retained paradigms showing traces of the old grouping (German and Icelandic are most conservative in this respect).

The peculiar characteristic of the adjective in Germanic that distinguished the group from most, if not all, Indo-European languages was a twofold declension: adjectives were inflected for case, number and gender and in addition they could be declined according to the weak and the strong declension. In the former case they had practically the name endings as n-stems in the noun declension, in the latter - a great variety of endings mostly corresponding to those declension of nouns

The twofold declension was inherited by all the Old Germanic dialects; some modern Germanic languages have retained it too, e.g. german and Swedish

The grammatical categories of the verb

In Germanic history the verb distinguished the following grammatical categories

The finite forms of the verb, besides showing agreement with the subject through the categories of number and person, could show the relation of the action to reality through the contrast of Indicative, imperative and conjunctive (Subjunctive) forms making up the category of mood. Reference of the action to time was shown within the Indicative and the Subjunctive moods by present and past forms which made up the category of tense (there were no future forms in the Old Germanic dialects); aspect distinctions were shown very irregularly, more by lexical than grammatical means; that is why aspect cannot be regarded as a grammatical category of the verb at that stage.

As for voice, it did not exist in Common Germanic in the meaning known today, that is, as active opposed to passive; in Old Germanic dialects the development of voice distinctions proceeded in different directions: Gothic developed forms of "medio-passive", which showed that the subject was not the active doer of the action (cf. Gt *wasfa* —- "I dress" — *wasjada* — "I am dressed"); the North Germanic subgroup developed reflexive forms; in most dialects of the Western subgroup regular voice distinctions developed much later, with the help of analytical forms.

However in the non-finite forms the difference in meaning between Participles I and II can be interpreted as that of voice: while Participle I expressed an active meaning, Participle II was active only when built from intransitive verbs; for transitive verbs it was passive.' Of the non-finite forms, Common Germanic, like the Old Germanic dialects, must have had two: the Infinitive, which was a kind of verbal noun, and Participles I and II, which were verbal adjectives, and accordingly agreed with the noun they modified in case, number and gender.

In later ages, the verb system in Germanic has in many respects become more complicated: me number of grammatical categories of the verb grew, and so did the number of forms making up each category (e. g., the category of tense which originally consisted of past and present forms was supplemented by future forms).

3.3. Strong and Weak Verbs

The most important distinctive feature of Germanic languages in so far as verbs are concerned is the morphological division of verbs into two groups according to the means of form-building used.

All the forms of the verb were built from the principal forms or stems: the Present tense stem; the Past tense stems and Participle II.

Strong verbs built their principal forms by means of vowel gradation; this basic device was combined with grammatical endings characteristic of each form and, sometimes, with alternation of consonants in the root-morpheme as well.

There were seven classes of strong verbs in Common Germanic and in Old Germanic dialects; in each of them a certain gradation series was used. Six of the seven classes of strong verbs can be traced back to the Indo-European ablaut-series e —o and a — a.[1] A consonant alternation occurred if the root ended in a fricative.[3]

The means of form-building used by the strong verbs— vowel gradation — is still employed in Germanic languages, whereas practically all consonant alternations in the former strong verbs have disappeared.

Weak verbs formed their Past tense stem and Participle II by adding the suffix -3- to the stem of the Present tense, practically without any modification of the root-morpheme. This suffix is known in Germanic philology as the "dental suffix" and is regarded as a specifically Germanic grammatical feature not to be found in other languages.

Old Germanic Weak Verbs

	Gt	I.Icel	OE
Infinitive Past tense Participle II	Domjan “deem” Domida domips	Kalla NE call kalla∂a kalla∂r	Deman NE deem Demde demed

The application of the dental suffix eventually spread to many former strong verbs and on the whole has proved to be more productive means than vowel gradation

Grammatical Categories in Common Germanic

Grammatical categories	Noun	Adjective	Verb	
			Finite	Non-finite
Gender	+	+	-	+
Number	+	+	-	+
Case	+	+	-	+
Person	-	-	+	-
Tense	-	-	+	+
Mood	-	-	+	-
Voice	-	-	-	+
Notes	Types of declension according to stems	Weak and strong declension	Vowel gradation (strong verbs) or a dental suffix (weak verbs)	

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. State the main causes of the simplification of the morphological word "structure in Common Germanic.

2. Explain the meaning of the term "sound alternation" and illustrate it by Russian and English examples.
3. What kinds of ablaut were used in Germanic?
4. Why is the Indo-European e — o series reflected in" Germanic as e/i —a; and a — a as a — 0?
5. What means of form- building were used in Common Germanic?
6. Explain how the grouping of nouns by their stems came to be transformed into a division of nouns into types of declension.
7. How are the terms "strong" and "weak" applied when speaking of nouns, adjectives and verbs?
8. What grammatical categories did the finite verbs have?

9. Define the means used to build the principal forms of the following verbs and arrange the verbs into column under the headings: (a) adds a suffix; (b) changes the root-vowel; (c) changes the vowel and adds a suffix: speak, run, ask, keep, sing, tell, write.

LECTURE 4. OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

Problems to be discussed:

1. Chronological division in the history of the English language.
2. Historical background.

2.1. Pre-Germanic Britain.

2.2. Germanic settlement of Britain (beginning of English).

2.3. Early feudalism in Britain. Christianity.

3. Old English dialects. Questions and assignments.

INTRODUCTION. CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISIONS IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The English language has a long and eventful history. Its development began in the 5th century of our era, when groups of West Germanic tribes settled in the British Isles.

During the sixteen hundred years of its history the English language has been undergoing constant change and it is changing still. It is customary to divide the history of the English language into three main periods:

Old English which lasts from the 5th century to the end of the llth; the dates of its end as suggested by various authorities range from 1066, which is the year of the Norman conquest, to 1150.

Middle English — from the 12th to the 15th century; the period is believed to have ended in 1475, the year of the introduction of printing.

New English, which means the English of the last six centuries. Within it, historians usually distinguish the Early New English period — from the 15th century to the 17th, up to the age of Shakespeare.

It must be understood that any kind of a precise chronological division in the history of a language is contrary to the very character of its development and is therefore more or less arbitrary. The transition from one stage another is always slow and gradual.

Nevertheless the division of the history of English into periods, apart from teaching purposes, is based on certain linguistic grounds. It appears that at certain times the evolution of the English language must have gone on more rapidly than usual. Besides, the historical events taken as the dividing lines between the periods are really those that affected the language.

The Old English language is distinctly different from I the English language of later ages. In terms of the general history of Germanic languages Old English represents the stage of Old Germanic dialects in the history I of English, that is the initial period of its separate history, when Common Germanic features still prevailed over its newly-developed individual characteristics.

We propose to describe here the English; language of I the 7th—11th centuries as a more or less stable system | recorded in the Old English manuscripts. The description I of linguistic changes referring to the earlier part of the I Old English period (5th—7th centuries) will enable us Jo I see the specifically Old English trends of evolution that f separate it from other Old Germanic dialects and from Common Germanic

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

2.1. Pre-Germanic Britain

As stated above, the history of the English languag[1] begins with the invasions of the Germanic tribes into Britain in the 5th century. It is essential to have some idea of the historical setting in Britain at the time and also of some preceding events relevant to the history of English.

Prior to the Germanic invasions the British Isles were inhabited: archaeological research has uncovered sever layers of prehistoric population. The earliest inhabitants about whom some linguistic evidence is available are the Celtic tribes; they immediately preceded the Germans.

Celts began to settle in Britain in the 7th century B.C. The largest and the most highly civilized of the Celtic tribes were the Britons (or "Brythons") who had driven their predecessors further west and north, into Ireland, Wales, the Pennines and Scotland. Later a third wave of Celtic settlers, the Belgae, arrived to settle in e part known now as the Home Counties. The tribes spoke

a group of dialects belonging to Celtic linguistic group. However, by the time of Germanic invasion Celtic was not the only language spoken on British territory.

It should be recollected here that for almost four hundred years Celtic Britain was a province of the Roman Empire. The first attempt to occupy Britain , made by Julius Caesar as early as the 1st century B.C. He attacked it as a source of valuable tin ore, and pearls, and also for strategic reasons: rebels Gaul found refuge and support among the Celtic tribes of Britain. Caesar failed to subdue Britain but gradually man traders and colonists began to penetrate into the Island. Some hundred years later, under Emperor Claudius, Romans succeeded in annexing Britain to the Empire.

Distant as the province was, Roman legionaries were •flowed by numerous civilians. The Romans brought to "barbarian" Britain their administration, their way of life and their language. Here, as well as on the continent, the native tribes were influenced by Roman civilization. The Romans founded military settlements, °r camps ("castra" surviving in some place-names: *Manchester, Lancaster,* etc.); they built their famous Roman pads; set up towns for retired soldiers, or "colonies" (surviving as part of place-names: *Colchester, Lincoln).* The growth of towns was very considerable. Among the trading centres of Roman Britain London (Londinium) stood first; from a small settlement of Caesar's day it pd turned into an extensive town. Some wealthy Roman landowners lived in comfortable country estates (villas)

Under Roman occupation the Celts in Britain were Romanized like the Celts on the continent, though to a lesser degree. The influence must have been stronger in the towns than in the countryside. The use of Latin steadily grew. However the Romanization of the island was superficial, and its results were not enduring. When, in the 5th century, Britain was overrun by West Germanic tribes, most traces of the Roman rule, economic as well as linguistic, were destroyed.

The Roman occupation of Britain lasted until the early 5th century. In A.D. 410 the Roman legions ft-ere withdrawn, probably so as to help defend Rome from the barbarians. The temporary withdrawal turned out to be final: the Roman Empire was breaking up.

Thus we see that the Romans had left the British Isles some time before the Germanic tribesmen began to arrive there. Consequently, there has never been any direct contact between the Romans and the Teutons in Britain. If the ancient Germans learnt any elements of the Roman culture or Roman speech on British soil — which they certainly did — they could not have acquired them from the Romans directly but got them at second hand from the Romanized Celts.

It must also be recalled that the ancestors of the Germanic invaders of Britain had already made contacts with the Romans while they lived on the continent, prior to their migration to Britain; furthermore, the ties with Rome and with the Latin language were again strengthened in later ages so that there were many other reasons accounting for the influence of Latin on Old English.

It is seen from the few facts about pre-Germanic Britain mentioned here that on coming to Britain the Germanic invaders could make two kinds of linguistic contacts: with the spoken dialects of the Celtic group, and, indirectly, with the Latin language.

2.2. Germanic Settlement of Britain (Beginning of English)

Germanic raiders began their attacks on the British Isles in the first half of the 5th century. The conquest extended over a long period. It is believed that though for the most part Britain was colonized by the West Germanic tribes before the end of the 5th century, the invasions lasted well into the 6th century.

Reliable evidence of the period is extremely scarce Bede the Venerable (an old English monastic scholar (about 673-735) who wrote the first history of Britain) tells a popular legend about the origin of the English: in A.D. 449 some Germanic tribes were called in by a British king as allies in his struggle against other Celtic tribes, the Scots end the Picts. After assisting the Britons in repulsing their enemies the Germanic tribesmen sent home messengers to invite other warriors to the island.

The newcomers soon dispossessed their hosts and other Germanic tribes followed. They came in multitude, in clans and families, to settle in the occupied areas; like the Celts before them, they migrated as a people and in that the Germanic invasion was different from the Roman occupation.

The invaders came from the western subdivision of the Germanic tribes. To quote Bede, "The newcomers were of the three strongest races of Germany, the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes." It is now believed that some Frisian tribesmen might have taken part in the invasion too.

The Jutes, who must have been the first to arrive, came from Jutland. They occupied the land in the extreme south-east, which became known as West, East, Middle and South Saxons, depending on location; they consolidated into a number of petty kingdoms, the largest of them, and also the most powerful (especially in later Old English) being the kingdom of West Saxons, Wessex. Last came the Angles from the lower basin of the Elbe and Southern Denmark to occupy the districts between the Wash and the Humber, and north of the Humber. Here they settled down into a number of large kingdoms frequently combined or divided again into smaller units (the kingdoms of Mercia) Anglia and the most important of them all, Northumbria which lay to the north of the Humber).

Gildas, a Celtic historian of the day, alluded to the invasion as the "ruin of Britain" and described the horrible devastation of the country. Perhaps some parts of the island were so thinly populated that the invaders simply occupied the country without coming into contact with the aborigines. In most districts, however, they met with the stubborn resistance of the natives; so they pulled down their villages, ruined the Roman and Celtic towns and thus destroyed the civilization that had grown under the Romans. The Germanic invaders drove the Celts westwards and southwards or enslaved •] and exterminated them.

The bulk of the population in England sprang from the newcomers. Later, under feudalism' social differentiation proceeded irrespective of descent. Gradually the conquerors and the surviving Celts blended into one people

The invaders certainly prevailed over the natives, as far as language was concerned. After the settlement, Germanic dialects came to be spoken all over Britain with the exception of Wales, Cornwall and Scotland where the native Celtic tribes had remained intact and Celtic refugees from other parts of the island found shelter.

It is of the greatest consequence for further history -, that as a result of the settlement the West Germanic tribes of the Jutes, the Angles and the Saxons, all together, were completely separated from the Germanic I tribes on the continent. As known, geographical separation of people and their unification are major factors 'in linguistic differentiation and the formation of languages. When the settlers were cut off from related Old Germanic tribes, they gradually developed into a single people, and their dialects eventually formed a separate language of the Germanic group, English. That is why the Germanic settlement of Britain can be regarded as the starting point of the history of the English language or the beginning of English. It is even sometimes I termed the "English settlement", though the name I "English" was not really used until a later date.

. 2.3. **Early Feudalism in Britain. Christianity**

The period from the 5th to the llth century, which is termed "Old English" in the history of the language, constitutes the early stage of feudalism in the history of Britain or the transitional period, when the feudal system emerged from the tribal and the slave-owning systems. The economic and political structure, with its growing feudal features, had a direct bearing on the development of the language.

Under feudalism each district of the country \vas a self-contained economic unit: it grew its own food and carried on some small industries to cover its needs. Its economic ties with the neighbouring districts remained so weak that there was hardly any social intercourse between them. The economic and social isolation pi the people was reflected in their speech.

A most important role in the history of Britain and the English language was played by the introduction of Christianity.

An attempt to convert heathen England to Christianity was made in A.D. 597 by a group of missionaries from Rome led by St. Augustine. The mission made Canterbury their centre. The movement was supported by missionaries from Ireland. In less than a century practically all England was christianized.

Monasteries were established all over the country. with monastic schools attached. In the Early Old English period the famous monastery at Lindisfarne in Northumbria was the greatest centre of monastic learning. It was in the monasteries that Old English writing was first developed and the first records were made.

Northumbrian culture was practically wiped out if[1] the early 9th century. In 787 the Scandinavians, whom the English called "the Danes", made their first raid on Britain. The raid was followed by other plundering attacks, in 793 the church at Lindisfarne was destroyed and this disaster put an end to the flourishing of Northumbrian culture. In the 9th century new hosts of Danes came to Britain, which led to a lengthy struggle and to the political subjugation of the greater part of Britain.

As a result, English culture was largely transferred to the South. The kingdom of Wessex stood at the head of the resistance, and Winchester, the capital of Wessex, became the centre of English ;culture during the reign of King Alfred (849-890); learning and literature made great progress there.

Towards the llth century the tribal structure had broken up: the power of the landlords had grown, while the peasants had been turned into serfs. The transitional period had ended and Britain was a feudal state.

OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS

The tribes who had settled in Britain spoke Old Germanic tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup. Their dialects were so closely related that we can say that they spoke substantially the same tongue with only slight dialectal variation.

Gradually, in the course of the Old English period, the nature of the dialects changed: from tribal dialects employed by the people of a tribe or a clan, that is people tied through blood relationship, they changed into local dialects spoken by the people of a certain locality. The boundaries between the dialects had shifted, so that there was no precise correspondence between the tribal dialects of the invaders and the local dialects of the population of England a few hundred years later.

The economic conditions of the Old English period did not favour the political or social unification of the country. As long as there was little or no intercourse between the districts the dialects did not blend together or develop into a uniform language. Therefore the term "Old English" is not the name of a language in [116] modern sense (implying a national literary standard language like Modern English); it is used to denote a group of homogeneous West Germanic dialects spoken in Britain from the 5th to the llth century and related through their common origin, their joint separation from I other Germanic dialects and their joint evolution in Britain.

At the outset the differences between the dialects were not great. Differentiation must have become sharper in Britain, owing to the considerable isolation of the various parts of the country. Many dialectal features can be observed as gradually appearing in the Old English manuscripts.

Although dialectal differences grew, they were of lesser importance for the history of the language than the common features and tendencies of evolution. The Old English dialects had not only inherited similar traits from Germanic, but had also developed new similar features which distinguished them altogether from other Old Germanic languages and from their ancestor. Common Germanic.

The following four dialects are usually distinguished in Old English:

1. Kentish, spoken in Kent. It had developed from the speech of the Jutes and was preserved records from the 7th century.

2.West Saxon, or the Wessex dialect, the principal dialect of the Saxon group. Its earliest records
date in the 9th century.

3. Mercian, spoken in the kingdom of Mercia; this dialect had developed from the tongue of the Angles.
4. Northumbrian, another Anglian dialect, spoken to the north of the Humber-river. The distinction between Mercian and Northumbrian proves that Old English dialects did not coincide with the original tribal dialects. The earliest records in the Anglian dialects refer to the 7th century. Though none of these dialects became an accepted I standard in

Britain in the Old English period their I position was not equal: first Northumbrian, and then West Saxon was the written language of the-time.

Like most students' of the history of English we shall confine ourselves to the consideration of West Saxon; in describing West Saxon, we shall attempt to show its Old English features (that is the featu$_{re3}$ I shared by most Old English dialects as contrasted to other Old Germanic dialects) rather than its West Saxon features as compared to those of other Old English dialects, Therefore we are fully justified in calling the system of West Saxon we propose to describe the "Old English language".

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Name the three main periods in the history of the English language. What historical events are regarded as their dividing lines?

2. What languages were spoken in Britain before the Germanic tribes arrived there? Are any of their descendants spoken there today?

3. Which West Germanic tribes settled in Britain in the 5th century? Where did they come from?

4. Explain the origin of the following proper names: *Britain, the British Isles, Bretagne* (a French province); *England* (older *Anglia), Angeln* (in Germany); *Wessex, Sussex, Middlesex, Essex* (in modern England); *Saxony* (in Germany).

5. The language of the Old English period is often referred to as "Anglo-Saxon". Why is the name not fully justified?

6. In what sense did the developing feudal system influence the dialectal division in Old English? 7. What dialects did Old English consist of? Show their territories on the map.

LECTURE 5. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS: WORD-STRESS. VOWELS

Problems to be discussed:

1. Word-stress in Old English.

2. System of Old English vowels

3. Changes of stressed vowels in Early Old English.

4. The earliest modifications of Germanic vowels in Old English: splitting of a and a; treatment of vowel combinations.

5. Assimilative vowel changes: breaking, diphthongization, palatal mutation.

6. Changes of unstressed vowels in Early Old English.

Old English is so far removed from Modern English that one may take it for an entirely different language. This is largely due to the peculiarities of its phonetic system..

The sounds of Old English will be described here from a phonological rather than a phonetic viewpoint, as we do not know their precise phonetic features.

Since the Old English language was made up of dialects descending from Common Germanic, we can regard its phonetic system as having developed from the Common Germanic system. The differences between the two should be attributed to the changes that occurred in prewritten or Early Old English. Those changes reveal the origin of the Old English system and the trends of [vowel development.

WORD-STRESS IN OLD ENGLISH

The Old English word-stress, retained from the Common Germanic parent-language, was one of its important marks as an Old Germanic dialect.

In Old English a syllable was made prominent by an increase in the force of articulation (in other words, "dynamic" or "force" stress was employed). In disyllabic and polisyllabic words stress fell on the first or sometimes second syllable. Word-stress was fixed, it remained on the same syllable in different forms of the word; as a rule it did not shift in word-building either.

Polisyilabic words, especially compounds, may have had secondary stresses besides: [‘norθ,monn].

In words, whose root-morpheme was not their first syllable, the position of stress varied: inseparable verb-prefixes were unstressed, while separable prefixes were stressed like independent notional words, e. g. OE *for-weorðan* [for'weorðan] "perish' a verb with an inseparable prefix and OE *inn-3an* ['inn'ga:n] "go in" — a verb with a separable prefix. "The prefixes of nouns, though alsways inseparable, were usually stressed, e. g. OE *for-wyrd* ['forwyrd] "destruction"; however, when noun-were derived from verbs with unstressed prefixes the noun-prefixes bore no stress either, e. g. OE *and-swaru* [and'swarian] *v* and OE *and- swaru* [and'swaru] *n, NE* answer. Several prefixes, e. g. 3e-, very common with verbs and less common with nouns, were never stressed, e. g. OE 3*e-metan* [je'me:tan], NE meet; OE 3e-mot [je'mo:t] "meeting".

It is important to note that affixes (especially suffixes and endings) remained unstressed and thus were phonetically — as well as morphologically and semantically — contrasted to the root-morpheme.

The effect of the Germanic (and Old English) stress on the phonetic and morphological structure of the word was far more apparent in Old English than in the preceding Common Germanic stage, as many tendencies originally caused by Germanic stress and started yet in Common Germanic were realized only in Old English.

3. SYSTEM OF OLD ENGLISH VOWELS

A large number of vowels were distinguished in Old English spelling. The table below shows the Old English vowels as appearing in the texts of king Alfred's age. The letters of the Old English alphabet are used here , instead of transcription symbols (their values can roughly be taken as those of the symbols given by Jones' *English Dictionary).*

Old English Vowels

	monophthongs	Diphthongs
Short	I, e, æ, a, °a, o, u,,y	Ea, eo, io, ie
Long	I, e, æ, a, o, u, y,	Ea, eo, io, ie

The vowels are arranged in two lines as -short and long in accordance with the principal opposition in Old English: vowel phonemes were in the first place contrasted through quantity and within these sets were distinguished through qualitative differences, as monophthongs and diphthongs, open and close, front and back.

The system would look different if it were considered from a phonological aspect, as some of the vowels listed in the first line were merely variants of the same phonemes. Thus æ , **a** and **a** were allophones; perhaps all the short diphthongs were variants of short monophthongs.

If such was the case, the system of vowels was not symmetrical on the phonemic level and the long phonemes in Old English outnumbered the short ones.

The difference between the two presentations results primarily from a different treatment of Old English short diphthongs — phoneme or variant.

CHANGES OF STRESSED VOWELS IN EARLY' OLD ENGLISH

The Old English language displayed a strong tendency to vowel modification from *a* very early date.

Already in Early Old English (prior to the age of writing) the vowels underwent a great number of changes. Vowel modification in the first place depended on the position of the vowel. This dependence is seen in the different treatment of vowels in stressed and unstressed syllables and also in the numerous assimilative changes.

As far as stressed vowels were concerned, Old English carefully preserved the division of vowels into short and long. Most of the changes were qualitative, and the quantity of the vowel was not affected.

The Earliest Modifications of Germanic Vowels in Old English: Splitting of *a* and a. Treatment of Vowel Combinations

The earliest alternations of the Germanic vowels in the history of the English language occurred during the 5th century.

(1) Splitting of Germanic a and a.

The Common Germanic short a and the West Germanic long a (corresponding to the Common Germanic e) underwent similar changes in Old English; [2] they split into a number of vowels clearly differentiated in spelling

The first and principal direction of the changes a> æ and a > æ , is often referred to as the fronting or palatalization of Germanic a, a. The other directions can be interpreted as positional exceptions or restrictions to this general trend: the change in the direction of **o** for the long a and a for the short occurred before a nasal, while the preservation (or restoration) of the short a was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable.

Splitting of a and a

Change illustrated	Examples		NE
G OE	Other Old German dialects	Old English	
a æ	Gt. Þata O.Icel. dagr	Þæt d æg	That day
°a	Gt. man O.Icel. land	Mon lond	Man Land
a	Gt. magan Gt. dagos	ma3an da3as	"may" Days
WG OE A æ	OHG slafan OHG strazza OHG mano OHG manod	Slæpan str æ t mona monaþ	Sleep Street Moon month

(2) Treatment of vowel combinations.

Some Common Germanic vowel combinations or diphthongs developed into long monophthongs or long diphthongs in Old English.

As mentioned before, in Common Germanic a and e regularly occurred in combination with the two closest vowels, u and i, thus forming bi-phonemic combinations or diphthongs; au, eu iu, ai. In Old English, they were single phonemes; au became [æe] spelt ea, as the first clement was fronted to [æ] and the second (unstressed) element was weakened; eu and iu became eo and io, respectively, due to the partial weakening of the second element; ai was modified to a, with the second element lost and the first lengthened, perhaps due to its being more heavily stressed.

Development of Old English Vowels

From Common Germanic Vowel Combinations

Change illustrated	Examples		NE
G OE	Other Old Germanic dialects	OE	
Au- ea	O.Icel austr Gt. Augo Gt. dauþs	East Ea3e dead	East Eye Dead
Eu/iu- eo/io	Gt. kiusan Gt diups	Ceosan deop	Choose Deep
Ai- a	Gt stains	Stan	Stone

	Gt ains	an	one

The vowel changes described above account for the appearance of a number of new vowels in Old English; the allophones a, æ, a (a stood before a nasal, a — before a back vowel in the next syllable, æ — in all other positions); the new long vowels æ and a; the long diphthongs ea and eo, which became independent phonemes and the long o, which coincided with the existing o. Though all these changes are often termed "independent" or "spontaneous" they are really independent only in the sense that the main modification a > æ was not directly caused by the *the* neighbouring sounds. Many of them were certainly interdependent, as one change must have brought about another: the fronting of a, besides giving rise to *is.* also led to the development of the diphthong ea (from au). Some changes were subject to positional restrictions: a> æ except when followed by a nasal. Lastly, many of the changes described, namely those of vowel combinations, were favoured, if not caused, by the heavy Germanic stress. In addition to these causes some of these changes may be regarded as instances of the tendency to acquire or restore a balanced system: thus the new long a filled the position of a in the set of long vowels.

Assimilative Vowel Changes: Breaking, Diphthongization, Palatal Mutation.

Alternation of vowels under the influence of other sounds was most characteristic of Old English since prehistoric times. This kind of changes can be more conveniently described from the point of view of the conditions that caused them.

(1) Breaking and diphthongization. Some Old English vowels changed their quality due to the influence of succeeding or preceeding consonants. When a vowel stood after a palatal consonant or when a front vowel stood before a velar consonant there developed short glides between them, as the organs of speech gradually prepared themselves for the transition from the first sound to the second. The fe'ides, together with the original vowels, formed diphthongs.

Front vowels (more often short than long), that is i, e and the newly developed SB developed into diphthongs with a back glide when they stood before: h, or 1 alone or I plus other consonants, r plus other consonants, e. g. prewritten æll >written OE *eall,* NE *all.*

The resulting diphthongs were short, like the original monophthongs. This change is commonly referred to as Old English *breaking.* It is dated in prewritten Old English, for in the texts we find the process already completed; yet it must be placed later than the vowel changes described above as the new vowel 32 (which appeared in the 5th century) was affected by breaking under the conditions described.

After palatal consonants [k'] spelt c, [sk'] spelt sc, and [j] spelt 3 some vowels turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element; this change occurred when the consonants were followed by e or as, short or long, e. g. *scæmu > OE sceamu,* NE *shame.* In the resulting diphthong the initial I or e must have first been an unstressed glide, but later the stress was shifted to the first element, and it turned into ; nucleus, to conform with the Old

English structure of diphthongs (all of them were falling diphthongs). This process is known as diphthongization after palatal consonants; it also occurred some time in the 6th century.

Breaking and Diphthongization

	conditions	examples		NE
		Other Old Germanic and OE dialects	OE (the Wessex dialects	
Breaking	Before l+ l Or +other consonants	Gt alla Merc. Al talde	Eal tealde	All told
	Before h or h + other Consonants	OHG nah Gt ahtau	Neah eahta	Near eight
	Before r + other consonants	OHG herza O.Icel. armr	Heorte earm	Heart Arm
Diphthong-Ization	After sk’	OHG skild OHG scal Gt skadus	Scield, Scyld Sceal sceadu	Shield Shall Shade
	After k’		Cieres Cyrs ceaster	Cherries Camp
	After j	OHG jar Gt giban	3ear 3iefan	Year give

As seen from the description of the changes and from the examples, the newly developed diphthongs ie, ea, eo (and sometimes ea) arose in certain phonetic positions only. They were always phonetically conditioned and in Early Old English should be regarded as positional variants of respective monophthongs (that is, monophthongs from which they originated: ea — a variant of æ before some velar consonants or after a palatal consonant, eo~a variant of e, etc.). In Later Old English they may have developed into phonemes.

(2) Palatal Mutation.

The Old English tendency to assimilative change was even more manifest in the modification of vowels under the influence of succeeding vowels than in the changes caused by consonants.

A vowel could change its quality due to progressive assimilation with vowels and semivowels in the following syllable as the organs of speech accommodated themselves to the pronunciation of the next syllable. The most frequent case of this kind of assimilation was the fronting and narrowing of vowels brought about by the vowel i or the semivowel j (which was the non-syllabic i) in the following syllable termed palatal mutation or i-umlaut. The vowel was fronted and made narrower so as to approach the articulation of I, that is, it was palatalized.Compare:

OE *an* NE *one* with a back vowel in the root and

OE " æni3, NE *any* built from the same root with the root-vowel mutated to a narrower and more front sound **as** under the influence of i in the suffix: a > æ.

Palatal Mutation

Change illustrated	**examples**		**NE (or translation**
	With a non-mutated vowel (from other Old Germanic dialects or OE)	**With a mutated vowel OE**	
Ae……. **a……..……e** **a°…….**	**(1) Gt mats** **(2) OE sala** **Gt saljan** **(3) Gt sandjan**	**Mete** **Sellan** **sendan**	**Meat** **Sale** **Sell** **send**
a------- æ o……e	**(4) OE lar** **Gt laisjan** **(5) OE an** **(6) OE dohtor**	**l** æran æni3 dehter Dative case	**“teaching”** **“teach”** **One,any** **Daughter**
O: ……..e:	**(7) OE boc** **(8) OE dom** **Gt gadomjan**	**Bec** **deman**	**Book, books** **Doom** **Deem**
U ……..y **U: …….y:**	**(9) OE full** **Gt fulljan** **(10) OE mus**	**Fyllan** **mys**	**Full** **Fill** **Mouse,mice**
Ea …… **Ie** **Eo ……**	**(11) OE eald** **(12) OE feohtan**	**Ieldra** **fieht**	**Old,elder** **Fight, flights (verb)**
Ea…… **Ie** **Eo……**	**(13) OE geleafa** **Gt galaubjan** **(14) OE** þeod	**Geliefan** **El**þiedi3	**“belief”** **“believe”** **“strane”**

Since the sounds i and j often appeared in suffixes and endings, palatal mutation was of very frequent occurrence. Practically *all* vowels, monophthongs as well as diphthongs, except the most close front vowels e and i, could be palatalized in these conditions.

The Old English examples of palatal mutation, given in the table below are supplied with parallels from other Germanic languages so as to show the original, non-mutated vowel, and also the sounds i/j in the following syllable. Related Old English words are given, if they preserved the original vowel in the root (as they had never contained the element **i/j** in the suffix).

Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions that caused palatal mutation, that is the element i j, had often disappeared; these sounds are no) to be found in the column of Old English words showing palatal mutation with the exception of æni3 (5) and *elþiedi3,* (14).

Palatal mutation must have taken place in the 6th century, but somewhat later than all the Old English vowel changes described above. This dating is confirmed by the fact that vowels resulting from other Early Old English changes could be subjected to palatal mutation afterwards, e. g.

OE *eald,* NE *old,* has developed by breaking from *aeld* coming from an earlier *aid* (by splitting of a).

OE *ieldra,* NE *elder,* has developed from *ealdira* by palatal mutation which occurred when the diphthong **ea** had already been formed in the way shown in *eald.*

Under palatal mutation short and long vowels underwent similar qualitative changes. Palatal mutation accounts for the appearance of the new vowels y and y from u and u respectively, so far unaccounted for by other vowel changes; it explains also the appearance of the diphthongs **ie, ie** in many new positions. [1] All the four vowels became phonemes in .Old English since, with the change or loss of i/j in the suffix they were no longer positionally conditioned.

Of all the vowel changes described, palatal mutation was certainly the most comprehensive process, as it could affect most Old English vowels. It has led to the appearance of new phonemes and numerous instances of vowel variations in the root-morpheme; it was no less important for its historical consequences: traces of palatal mutation survived in later periods and can still be found in Modern English.

i-umlaut, or palatal mutation, was by no means a specifically Old English phonetic change; it was shared by all the Old Germanic dialects, except Gothic.

5. CHANGES OF UNSTRESSED VOWELS IN EARLY OLD ENGLISH

The development of vowels in unstressed syllables, final syllables in particular, differed sharply from that of stressed vowels. Whereas in stressed position due to the appearance of new qualitative differences the number of vowels had certainly grown (compare the Common Germanic and the Old English vowel systems), the number of vowels appearing in unstressed position had been considerably reduced.

Any vowel listed in Table 1 could stand in a stressed syllable, e. g., *wisdom,* NE *wisdom; helpleas,* NE *helpless.*

In unstressed syllables, especially in final position, only some of the short monophthongs could occur . The long vowels that stood there originally [bad shortened, and thus the principal contrast of vowels — the opposition of long vowels to short ones was lost. Compare OE *nama,* NE *name* to the earlier *namon.*

The reduction of unstressed vowels did not stop at that. Both the original and the new short vowels (coming from long ones) gradually weakened their qualitative differences, so that instead of the eight short monophthongs distinguished in stressed position we find only five in the unstressed one: i, e, o, a and u. The following examples show how these sounds are used and contrasted in unstressed syllables:

i — æni3 NE *any*

e —*stane* (Dative Singular of OE *stan,* NE *stone)* as contrasted to

a —*stana* (Genetive Plural of the same noun)

o — *bæron* (Past Plural Indicative of OE *beran,* NE *bear)* as contrasted to b*æren* (Past Subjunctive)

u — *talu* (Nominative Singular, NE *tale)* as contrasted t to OE *tale* in the other cases Singular.

These, and other, examples show that e was never contrasted to i, and o was not contrasted to u. Therefore the system of phonemes appearing in unstressed syllables can be shown as follows:

e/i a o/u

This system, compared to the full list of vowel phonemes appearing in stressed syllables testifies to the widely different directions of vowel changes in stressed and unstressed position in Early Old English.

It must also be mentioned that some short vowels had been dropped in final unstressed syllables already in pre-written Old English. After long syllables, that is syllables containing a long vowel or a short vowel followed by more than one consonant, the vowels i and u were regularly dropped in the ending. Compare the Nominative Plural *scipu,* NE *ship* with u after a short syllable and OE *sceap,* NE *sheep* with u dropped after a long syllable. Consider also OE *werian,* NE *wear,* with i retained after a short syllable and OE *deman, NE deem,* without i (the Old English verb *deman* developed from *domjan).*

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

|. Did word-stress in Old English always fall on the root-morpheme? What regular place of word-stress can you point out? Give some similar examples from Modern English.

2. Say in what respects the Old English system , of vowel phonemes was less symmetrical than the Common Germanic system.

3. Account for the appearance of the short vowels a, a, æ , long a, a and o (before nasals) in Old English and also for the long diphthongs " ea and eo.

4. Account for the appearance of short diphthongs.

5. Prove that palatal mutation took place later the other assimilative and independent changes described.

6. Account for the differences in the root-vowels in the following groups of words: (a) OE *talu, NE tale;* OE *tellan* (from t*aeljan},* NE *tell;* OE te*alde* (Past tense NE *told),* (b) OE feallan, NE *fall; O*E *fiellan* (from an earlier *feallian* "cause to fall"), NE *fell;* compare also *fallan* in the Anglian dialects; c) OE *fod,* NE *food;* OE *fedan* (from *fodjan),* NE *feed.*

7. In what respects does the development of vowels in unstressed syllables differ from that in stressed syllables? How did unstressed vowels change both as to their quality and quantity?

LECTURE 6. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS. Consonants

Problems to be discussed:

1. System of Old English consonants.
2. Early Old English consonant changes.
3. Splitting of velar consonants.
4. Some quantitative consonant changes.
5. Effect of Old English phonetic changes on the word structure.

At first sight Old English consonants do not look-as different from Modern English consonants as vowels do.

The table below shows the system of Old English consonants with the help of transcription symbols, which, for the most part, were also letters of the *Old* English alphabet. Unlike the vowels, not all the consonant phonemes and their variants given in the table were distinguished in Old English spelling; in some cases one and the same letter was used to indicate two variants, whose differentiation is important in view of further development or else to indicate independent phonemes.

The system consisted of several correlated sets of consonants. AH the consonants fell into noise consonants and sonorants. The noise consonants were divided into plosives and fricatives; the plosives were further differentiated as voiced and voiceless, the difference being phonemic (the same is in Modem English). The fricative consonants were also subdivided into voiced and voiceless; in this set, however, sonority was merely a difference between positional **variants,** which is shown by stroke in the table; [f. v, θ/d, s/z].

It springs to the eye that the lingual consonants in all lines were arranged in a very complicated pattern: practically every backlingual or velar consonant [k], *[g],ſ* x], [y] had a corresponding palatal consonant [k'], *[g'],ſ* x'], [j'] , [sk'] was a combination of palatal sounds and a separate phoneme. The opposition of velar and palatal consonants was an important feature of the Old English consonant system. Their contrast was or became phonemic during the Old English period and the phonetic difference between them grew.

Old English Consonant Phonemes

				labial	Dental or alveolar	palatal	velar	pharingal
consonants	noise	plosive	Voiceless	p	t	K' sk'	K	
			voiced	b	d	G'	G	
		fricative	Voiceless/voiced	f/v	θ/∂ s/z	X' j	X y	H
	Sonorants			m	n,l,r		ŋ	
semivowels				w		j		

The list of the consonants given in the table is not complete. It is believed that the system of Old English consonant phonemes contained almost twice as many sounds as shown in the table: every consonant could als0 appear as long or doubled; double consonants can be included in the Old English system of phonemes as [pp], [bb], [nn], etc. Thus there was a certain balance in the consonant system, similar to that found in the vowel system: practically every short sound had a corresponding long one.

2. EARLY OLD ENGLISH CONSONANT CHANGES

It may seem that being an Old Germanic dialect, Old English ought to contain all the consonants that arose in Common Germanic under the Common Germanic consonant shift and under Verner's Law. Yet it appears that very few Old English noise consonants go back to precisely the same sounds in Common Germanic and can safely be used to illustrate the shift (they are [p] and [k]; most Common Germanic consonants have altered, at least in some positions.

In the West Germanic subgroup and in Early Old English consonants underwent different kinds of changes: positional or independent, qualitative or quantitative. The same as in the vowel system, positional changes prevailed over independent.

Of all the different sets of consonants the fricatives underwent the greatest number of qualitative alterations in Old English. Lingual consonants of both kinds of articulation {fricative and plosive) were greatly affected too. Most consonants in certain positions underwent quantitative changes: they could become longer.

2.2. Old English Treatment of Common Germanic Fricatives.

(Hardening; Voicing and Devoicing; Rhotacism)

Common Germanic fricative consonants were either voiceless —f, θ, h — going back to the first stage of the Common Germanic consonant shift, or voiced — v, *∂, y* —going back to the same stage, but voiced under Verner's Law, or going back to the third stage of the shift.

In West Germanic and in Early Old English the difference between the two groups was supported by new features: voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives (b'>b; *∂* >d; y >*g),* while voiceless fricatives, being now contrasted to them primarily as fricatives to plosives, acquired new positional variants: voiced fricatives. In case the old voiced

fricatives were not hardened they were treated in the same way as voiceless, that is they could lose or acquire sonority depending on position.

The Common Germanic ∂ was hardened to d in Old English in all positions. (Compare O. Icel *rauðr,* OE *read,* NE *red.)* Germanic b and y were likewise hardened to corresponding plosives (b and g) under some phonetic conditions, namely after nasals and initially.

The Common Germanic set of voiceless fricatives (f, θ, x, s) and those of the voiced that had not been hardened (that is b and y in other positions) remained or became voiced between vowels or between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants but remained or became voiceless in the absence of these conditions (at the beginning or at the end of words or next to voiceless consonants).

The Common Germanic z underwent a slow phonetic evolution through the stage of [3] into [r] and became a sonorant (ultimately it coincided with the Indo-European r). This process is called rhotacism. It is also characteristic of all the other West Germanic dialects and of North Germanic.

Common Germanic Fricatives in Old English

	Change illustrated	**examples**		**NE (or translation**
	G OE	**Other Old Germanic dialects**	**Old English**	
Hardening	∂ **…..d** **b……..b** **y……..g**	**Gt wasida [∂]** **O.Icel faðir** **ot guma [g]** **Or [y]**	**Werede** **f** æder broðor 3uma **[g]**	**“wore” (past of wear)** **Father** **brother**
Voicing or devoicing	**b……..v** **……f** **f…….v** **……..f** **θ…..∂** **……. θ**	**Gt sibun [þ]** **Gt haubiþ [þ]** **OHG weib** **OHG hleib** **Gt wulfos [þ]** **Gt wulfs** **Gt fimf** **Gt siu**þan [θ] Gt sauþ[θ] Gt þata [θ] Gt baurgs Gt reisan **[s]** **Gt rais**	**Seofon [v]** **Heafod [v]** **Wif** **Half** **Wulfas [v]** **Wulf** **Fif** **Seo**þan **[∂]** **sea ∂** [θ] þæt [θ] buruh,burh risan **[z]** **ras [s]**	**Seven** **Head** **Wife** **Loaf** **Wolves** **Wolf** **Five** **Seethe** **Seethe (past)** **That borough** **Rise, v** **Rose (past of rise**
Rhotatism	**z…….r**	**Gt maiza [z]** **Gt huzd**	**Mara** **hord**	**More** **hord**

Irrespective of the varied conditions of the changes described they reveal a general tendency to treat the contrast between plosives and fricatives as a phonemic distinctive feature

and to apply sonority within the set of fricative consonants as a positional difference between variants of phonemes. New distinctive features, besides sonority were added wherever differentiation was felt as essential (not only the development of [*ð]* into [d] but also the change of *[z]* into [r] in a way, testifies to the same tendency).

2.3. Splitting of Velar Consonants

In Old English there existed two opposed sets of lingual consonants: palatal and velar.

The two sets of consonants appeared as a result of some assimilative consonant changes.

In Early Old English the consonants [k], [g], [x], [y] were palatalized before a stressed front vowel and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. The combination [sk] also became palatal: [sk'] without any positional restrictions. In other positions the consonants remained velar and thus two contrasted *sets* arose.

Though the differences within each pair (palatal and velar) were not yet shown in the spelling of the Old English period, the sounds were undoubtedly strictly differentiated. They began to be regularly indicated in the spelling of the Middle English period (by that time they had developed into different sounds: [k], [g] were preserved, while [k']> [tʃ] ; [g']>|d_3]; [sk] > [ʃ].

Splitting of velar Consonants

	OE	NE	OE	NE	OE	NE	OE	NE
Before and after front Vowels	**[k'] Cild spr**æce	**Child Speech**	[**j] d**æ3 3eard	**Day Yard**	**[x'] Niht miht**	**Night Might**	**[sk'] Scip sceap**	**Ship sheep**
In other positions	**[k] Cuppa boc**	**Cup book**	**[y] Da3as Bo3a**	**Days bow**	**[x] Half** þuhte	**Loaf thought**		

The date of palatalization can be fixed with considerable precision in relation to other Old English sound changes: it must have started after the appearance of the Old English æ (referred to the 5th century) but prior to palatal mutation (6th century), as æ**,** being a front vowel, caused the palatalization of consonants, while palatal vowels which arose in the process of palatal mutation did not bring about the palatalization of velar consonants. Obviously these front vowels appeared only when the splitting of velar consonants was already well under way.

2.4. Some Quantitative Consonant Changes (1) Gemination

In Early Old English, as well as in other dialects of the West Germanic subgroup, most consonants could be lengthened before j. The process is known as gemination of consonants in West Germanic or doubling of consonants as it is shown in spelling by means of double letters.

Gemination led to the appearance of many new long consonants in place of short ones.

Gemination of consonants before j occurred only after a short syllable. In the process, or later, j disappeared. Consider, e. g. OE *fyllan,* NE *fill* from an earlier *fuljan* (cf. Gt *fulljan);* OE *settan,* NE *set* from an earlier *sætjan (*cf. Gt *satjan).* Compare these words to words with a long syllable:

OE *deman,* NE deem without gemination from *domjan*

OE *cepan,* NE *keep* without gemination from *kopjan.*

As seen from the examples, before disappearing j had also caused the palatal mutation of the root-vowel in all the words given. The loss of [j] had transformed the positional variants of vowels — palatalized vowel's — into phonemes. Likewise the disappearance of this phonetic condition [j] transformed the new long consonants from phonetically conditioned variants into independent consonant phonemes.

(2) Loss of Consonants

Another process, or rather, group of processes affected considerably not only the consonants but also the neighbouring vowels: it was the loss of consonants and semi-vowels in some conditions.

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was lengthened. Compare:

Gt *fimf* — OE *fif,* NE *five*

OE *þencan* inf. — OE *þohte* (Past tense of the same verb "think", thought")

Gt *kun þa* — OE *cude* (Past tense of OE *can),* NE *can,* NE *could*

Some fricative consonants were lost between vowels and before some plosive consonants; as a result the vowels were lengthened or diphthongs were formed. Compare:

OE *seah* {Past tense of OE *scon)* and the infinitive *seon* without the fricative consonant. Also OE *sec3an inf.,* .NE say, and OE *sæde* or s*æ3de* (Past tense of *se3an),NE said.*

Special mention should be made of the loss of consonants in unstressed (usually final) syllables. As shown, above, j was regularly lost in the suffixes before an unstressed vowel (see OE *deman, fyllan,* etc. in (1) above). Other consonants were commonly weakened and lost in final position in Old English. Compare some Gothic and Old Icelandic words with the endings preserved, to their Old English parallels (with the endings lost):

Gt *dags,* O. Icel *dagr* — OE d*æ3,* NE *day*

Gt *harjis,* O. Icel *herr* ----*OE here* "army",

OE ealu*þ* {Dative case) —OE *ealu,* NE *ale* (Nominative case).

All these changes, just like the reduction and loss of vowels in final syllables, were of the greatest consequence for the formation of grammatical endings in Old English.

3. EFFECT OF OLD ENGLISH PHONETIC CHANGES ON THE WORD STRUCTURE

All the Early Old English sound changes (both vowel and consonant changes) had a direct bearing on the development of the morphological structure of the word; its affixes as well as its root-morpheme.

As was mentioned in the description of the Germanic languages the morphological structure of the word in the Old Germanic dialects was considerably simplified since the Common Germanic period. The stem-suffixes and the old grammatical endings wore greatly changed; the reduction and loss of these elements, among other factors can be attributed to phonetic causes: the effect of the Germanic and Old English word-stress.

Modification of sounds in Early Old English affected the word in one more respect. Already in Common Germanic, due to various sound alternations one and the same root-morpheme functioned as a set of allomorphs differing in the vowels and consonants {and in the gram-matical or lexical meaning as well).

The root-morpheme in Old English was more variable than before. Sound alternations in the root were either due to the alternations inherited from Common Germanic (and sometimes from Indo-European) or else due to the numerous new cases of sound interchange that developed in Old English proper.

Like other Germanic languages, Old English has inherited from the earlier stages of language history vowel alternations due to ablaut (vowel gradation). Many vowel and consonant alternations go back to specifically Germanic processes: changes in the root-vowel under the Germanic vowel mutations, voicing of fricatives under Verner's Law. In Old English new instances of vowel and consonant interchange resulted from numerous assimilative vowel changes: the palatalization of **a** to **æ** a and its positional restrictions; breaking and diphthongization after palatal consonants; palatal mutation. The positional hardening of consonants, the voicing and devoicing of fricatives, the palatalization of some velar consonants, the gemination and loss of consonants had led to a number of sound alternations as well. It must be realized that a sound interchange in a morpheme could appear only due to a positional change, that is a change occuring in part of the word-forms with the given morpheme. If the sound change took place in all the word-forms no interchange in the root could result.

Various sound alternations in the root going back to Indo-European and Common Germanic and modified in Old English can be shown in the principal forms of the Old English verb *cweþan* "say", NE obsolete *quoth.*

Old English Sound Alternations Going back to

Indo-European and Common Germanic

	Infinitive	**Past Singular**	**Past Plural**	**Participle II**
IE	**e**	**o**		
vowels				
Corresponding Germanic	**e/i**	**a**	**E (WG a)**	**e/i**

gradation				
Old English gradation	**E** **cweþan**	**æ** **cw æþ**	**æ** **cw ædon**	**Cweden**
	Consonants			
Old English **Common Germanic (after Verner's Law)**	∂ θ	θ θ	**d** ∂	**d** ∂

Sound Alterations Going Back to Indo-European

And Early Old English

Alternation illustrated	**Old English examples**	**NE**	**Phonetic change accounting for the Alternation**
a-a-ea **l-ll**	**Sala-sellan-sealde**	**Sale,** **Sell,** **sold**	**Germination l>ll** **Palatal mutation æ>e;** **Breaking æ>ea**
j-y	**d æ3-da3as**	**Day,** **days**	**A before a back vowel; palatalization of y after a front vowel**
f-v **ie-ea**	**3iefan-3eaf**	**Give,gave**	**Devoicing of fricatives v > f;** **Diphthongization after palatal consonants of different vowel grades of ablaut** **E > ie, æ > ea**
F -v	**Wulf - wulfas**	**Wolf, wolves**	**Voicing between vowels f > v**
k-k' **e- æ**	**Sprecan - spræce**	**Speak, speech**	**Palatalization of velar consonants after a front vowel not followed by a back vowel k > k' (in the Infinitive the back vowel a prevented palatalization)** **Ablaut e- æ**

It is obvious that for a synchronic cross-section of the language all those sound alternations are alike: they were used alone or together with other devices as form-building or word-building means. Historically, however, they go back to various sources and show that due to specifically English positional sound changes variability of the root-morpheme had considerably grown in Old English.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Did the Old English system of consonants consist of the same sets of sounds as the modern system?

2. What phonetic changes accounted for the appearance of the Old English interchange of voiced and voiceless fricatives?

3. Account for the velar and palatal consonants in Old English. Is the difference between them borne out by their subsequent history?

4. Sum up the development of sounds in the final syllables, to cover both vowel and consonant changes.

5. What enables us to say that the root-morpheme in Old English became more variable 'as compared to the preceding period?

LECTURE 7. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR: INTRODUCTION. THE NOUN, THE PRONOUN, AND THE ADJECTIVE

Problems to be discussed:

1. Nominal grammatical categories
2. Noun declensions.
3. The Pronoun.
4. The Adjective.

Being a group of Old Germanic dialects, Old English shared all the common grammatical characteristics of the Germanic branch.

Old English possessed a well developed morphological system made up of synthetic grammatical forms. The means of form-building employed were as follows: (a) grammatical endings or suffixes, (b) sound alternations in the root-morpheme, (c) prefixes, and (d) suppletive formations.

Endings, just as before, were used unrestrictedly in all the inflected parts of speech, alone and combined with other means, and thus constituted the principal way of form-building. Sound alternations in the root were represented by an interchange of vowels rather than consonants. They were not confined to verbs, but were also used in the form-building of nouns and adjectives. The use of prefixes was confined to verbs. Suppletive forms, being relics of the past, were as restricted as before. It is important to note— for consideration of further history — that no analytical forms existed in Old English. It is believed, however, that towards the end of the period some analytical verb-forms began to develop.

In discussing Old English grammar we shall consider the main inflected parts of speech, characterized by certain grammatical categories: the noun, the pronoun, the adjective and the verb. Alongside of their characteristics in Old English some information about their origin or evolution in Early Old English will be supplied,

NOMINAL GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Like their counterparts in other Indo-European languages the noun, the adjective, the pronoun (and the numeral) in Old English had the categories of gender, number and case. As elsewhere, these categories were independent in the noun, while in the adjective and the pronoun they were dependent, that is, they merely showed agreement with the corresponding noun. Although the grammatical categories were on the whole the same in all the parts of speech mentioned, they differed not only in the formal means used but also in the number or forms distinguished within each category by different parts of speech.

Gender was represented by three distinct groups of nouns: Masculine, Feminine and Neuter, the difference being grammatical rather than semantic.

Compare some Masculine and Feminine nouns denoting males and females respectively with some unjustified gender forms:

Masculine	Feminine
OE *widuwa* "widower"	OE *widowe,* NE *widow*
OE *spinnere* "male spinner"	OE *spintiestre* "female spinner"' NE *spinner*
but:	
OE wif, NE *wife* — Neuter;	

OE *wifman, wimman,* NE *woman* — Masculine, as its second component was Masculine.

In later Old English one can observe some attempts to adjust the gender of nouns to semantics: thus *wimman* began to be treated as Feminine instead of Masculine.

However, there existed another kind of connection between the gender and the meaning of nouns: the word-building suffixes used to build nouns of a certain meaning also referred it to a definite gender; thus many nouns, originally formed with the help of the suffix -an, denoted an agent and belonged to the Masculine gender, e. g., OE *hunta* "hunter". Old English abstract nouns built by means of the suffix - ***þu*** were of the Feminine gender, e. g., OE m *ærð u* "glory"or *len3ðu* (NE *length),* etc.

Apart from some suffixes gender was not shown in the noun by formal means. For instance, OE *talu,* NE *tale,* was Feminine, while OE *sunu,* NE son, belonged to the Masculine gender, though both nouns ended in -u. They differed in other case-forms and belonged to different types of declension. Gender was most regularly shown by the forms of agreement of adjectives and pronouns modifying a noun.

From the point of view of number, the parts of speech discussed here fell into two unequal groups. They all distinguished two numbers, the Singular and the Plural, while the personal

pronouns of the first and second person had also special forms to denote two objects, that is, forms of the Dual number. Compare:

	singular	dual	Plural
noun	**stan**	**-**	**Stanas, NE stone, stones**
Pronoun **1st person** **2nd person**	 **Ic** **þu**	 **Wit** **3it**	**We NE I, "we two", "we"** **3e NE thou, "you two", "you"**

The Dual number was confined to two pronouns and must be regarded as an isolated archaic trait in the grammar system.

The Singular and the Plural in Old English were well distinguished by formal differences in most cases and genders, there being but a small number of homonymous forms.

The category of case was represented by four cases in the noun, the noun-pronoun and some cardinal numerals: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. The adjectives (together with the participle), the adjective-pronouns and the ordinal numerals distinguished five cases, adding the Instrumental case to the four above. Since the forms of adjectives depended on those of nouns, it is thought probable that the noun, too, may have distinguished five cases in the pre-written period, but two of them, the Dative and the Instrumental, had fallen together. In Old English texts nouns in the Dative case were used both with the Instrumental and the Dative cases of adjectives.

The case-forms in all the declinable parts of speech were distinguished throughout the Old English period, although a great many forms were homonymous.

The meaning and use of different case-forms, generally speaking, resembled that of other Indo-European languages. Nominative was primarily the case of the subject; the rest of the case-forms, alone or preceded by prepositions, were used as objects, or adverbial modifiers. The Genitive case was mostly employed when a noun served to modify another noun, e. g. OE *þaes cynin3es broþur* "that king's brother" and could be used as an object as well: OE *he ∂ær bad westanwindes* "he waited there for the western wind".

In addition to these common characteristics each of the three parts of speech had a few other specific features.

3. NOUN DECLENSIONS

The most peculiar feature of Old English nouns was their division into several types of declensions, known as stems.

The names a-stem, o-stem, etc., have purely historical significance and merely point to the origin of the different paradigms, as the stem-suffixes cannot be distinguished in the nouns of written Old English.

The division of nouns into declensions was as follows: the declensions of nouns with vocalic stems known as the strong declensions comprised- a-stems, o-stems, u-stems and i-stems, with some variants within the two former groups (ja- and wa-stems, jo- and wo-stems).

The nouns whose stems originally ended in consonants are divided into n-stems (the weak declension) and steins ending in other consonants: r-stems, nd-stems. Within the minor consonantal declensions, it is important to distinguish a group of nouns called "root-stems" which had never had any stem-suffix and whose root was thus equal to the stem.

The division into stems did not coincide with the division into genders: some sterns were confined to one or two genders only; thus a-stems were only Masculine and Neuter; o-stems were always Feminine; others included nouns of any gender.

The system of declension can be better understood from the following table, showing also the gender of nouns belonging to each type.

Declensions of vocalic stems (Strong declensions)				**Declensions of consonantal stems**		
				Weak declension	**Other consonantal declensions**	
a-stems; variants; ja-stems wa-stems M., N.	**o-stems; variants; jo-stems wo-stems F**	**u-stems M.,F.**	**i-stems M., F.,N.**	**N-stems M., F.,N.**	**Root-stems M., F.**	**Stems Ending in Other Consonants M., F.,N.**

Every declension was characterized by a specific set of case-endings. Within the declensions there were further differences between the endings of different genders so that the system of noun declensions in Old English comprised all in all over twenty paradigms. However, the relative importance of the declensions in the language was not the same, as some of the declensions were represented by large numbers of nouns, whereas others were confined to several words; certain types of declension influenced the other types.

The majority of Old English nouns belonged to the a-stems, o-stems and n-stems; nouns of other stems were **by** far less frequent.

From the historical viewpoint the most interesting types are those which grew or survived in later periods. Of special significance are the paradigms of a-stems, n-stems and root-stems whose traces are found in Modern English.

Declension of Nouns

Strong declensions			
	a-stems		**o- stems**
	masculine	**neuter**	**Feminine**
Singular	**N fisc "fish"** **G fisces** **D fisce** **A fisc**	**Scip "ship" deor "deer"** **Scipes deores** **Scipe deore** **Scip deor**	**Talu "tale"** **Tale** **Tale** **tale**

plural	**N fiscas** **G fiscas** **D fisca** **A fiscum**	**Scipu deor** **Scipu deor** **Scipa deora** **Scipum deorum**	**Tala** **Tala** **Tala** **talum**
	Weak declension	**Root-stems**	**r-stems**
Singular	**N nama M. "name"** **G naman** **D naman** **A naman**	**Fot M. "foot** **Fote** **Fet** **fot**	**Broþor M. "brother"** **Broþor** **Broþer** **broþor**
plural	**N naman** **G naman** **D namena** **A namum**	**Fet** **Fet** **Fota** **fotum**	**Broþor** **Broþru** **Broþra** **broþrum**

As seen from the table most case-forms were distinguished through the endings; sometimes in addition to or instead of the endings sound alternations were used; e. g., see the Dative Singular and also the Nominative and Accusative Plural of *fot, fet* (root-stems); the Dative Singular *breƆr* (r-stems).

Special note should be made of the Plural ending **-as** (a-stems, Masculine, Nominative and Accusative) and the ending **-es** (a-stem, Masculine. Genitive singular). Already in Old English they began to be added to nouns, originally belonging to other declensions. It is noteworthy that unlike Masculine nouns, the Neuter a-stems did not take -as in the Plural: some of them took -u (see *scipu],* while others had dropped the ending in pre-written Old English so that their form did not change for the plural (see *dear)*'

Of special interest is the group of root-stems which employed a vowel interchange as a regular means of form-building. Sound alternations can occasionally be found in other stems too: thus nouns ending in fricatives had a regular alternation between a voiced and t a voiceless consonant depending on whether it stood at If the end of the word or was followed by a vowel.

Compare: OE *wulf* [f] — Nominative Singular and *wulfas, wulfa* [v|— Nominative and Genitive Plural (a-stems, Masculine), NE *wolf—wolves;* also OE *muƆ* [θ] — *muƆas [Ɔ],* NE *mouth — mouths.* The front vowel *æ* alternated with a before a back vowel in the ending, e. g. OE d *æ*g Nominative Singular — *da3as* Nominative Plural NE *day — days.* Those were occasional alternations that arose in specific phonetic conditions that did not affect the general means employed in the paradigm.

In the root-stems the use of vowel alternations, though originally due to phonetic causes too, became a new means of form-building (cf. *fot, fet).* The interchange arose due to palatal mutation[1] in the form which had -i- in the ending. In contrast to other stems the ending was added directly to the root (there being no stem-suffix) and the root-vowel was palatalized. The pre-written *fotiz* (Nominative Plural) and *foti* (Dative Singular) became *fetiz* and *feti* and were

both shortened to *fet* when the ending was dropped. After the loss of the endings the difference in the root-vowel turned out to be the only distinguishing feature between the forms *fot* and *fet.*

From comparing the forms in the table we can see that altogether there were only eight endings employed in the noun paradigms: -a, -e, -u, -an, -as, -es, -um (and the zero inflection).

The types of declensions are distinguished not through the material endings employed but through their succession or relative position in the paradigm. Compare the endings -e and -u expressing different grammatical meanings in different stems;

— Dative Singular of a-stems -u — Nominative and Accusative of u-stems

---all the oblique cases, Singular of 0-stems ---Nominative Singular of some o-stems

----- Nominative Singular of Feminine and Neuter n-stems ---Nominative and Accusative Plural of some Neuter a-stems

Some endings were associated with one case-form only: thus -es was the ending of Masculine a-stems in the Genitive Singular.

It is easy to see that some endings were alike in all the paradigms: -a and -um in the Genitive and Dative Plural. In all the declensions the form of the Nominative Plural coincided with that of the Accusative Plural; in some paradigms, though not all (see 5-stems and n-stems) the Nominative and Accusative forms in the Singular were alike too.

We may conclude that for all its complicated arrangement the system of declensions in Old English in many respects lacked consistency and precision. Numerous homonymous forms occurred systematically or sporadically in all the paradigms. It seems probable that these features have played a certain role in the reconstruction of the declension system in later ages; they have certainly favoured the growth of other means of word connection in the sentence which came to be used instead of former case-forms.

4. THE PRONOUN

Old English pronouns fell under the same classes as Modern English pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, possessive and relative (the two latter classes were as yet not so distinctly separate and so well developed as the former). We shall consider here only the personal and the demonstrative pronouns.

The table below shows all the personal pronouns in the Old English language. The personal pronouns of the 3rd person distinguished between three genders, while in the 1st and 2nd person there were three numbers: Singular, Plural and Dual.

Being noun-pronouns, personal pronouns were declined like nouns, according to a four-case system.

As shown below, the case-forms of personal pronouns were built in a rather peculiar way the forms of the oblique cases differed greatly from the basic, Nominative case-form, as most of the sounds were altered; the ancient ending and the root had fused into one morpheme. Some pronouns, namely the 1st person, had suppletive forms.

Personal Pronouns

number / person	Singular	dual	Plural
1st	**Ic**	**Wit**	**We**
2nd	**þu**	**3it**	**3e**
3rd	**He** **Heo** **hit**	**-**	**Hi (hie, hy)**

Declension of some personal pronouns

1st person singular	**3rd person singular**		
N ic	**m.**	**f.**	**n.**
G min	**he**	**heo**	**hit**
D me	**his**	**hire**	**his**
A mec, me	**him**	**hire**	**him**
	hine	**hie**	**hit**

Some case-forms of the pronouns of the 3rd person were similar to those of the demonstrative pronouns which is certainly due to their origin. Homonymous forms were scarce.

Special attention should be paid to the Genitive case of personal pronouns. Besides being used as forms of the oblique case (as objects), they were used in an attributive function, e. g. OE *his modor*, NE *his mother*, OE *sunu min* "my son" (lit. NE *son mine)* and thus constituted a separate set of pronouns, possessive pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns were declined like adjectives and thus had a five-case system, including the Instrumental case with a special form in the Masculine and Neutar. They took specific pronominal endings in some case-forms; -r in the Genitive Plural, -m in the Dative Singular. The pronoun se, seo, *þ æt,* NE *that*, is of special importance to the reader of Old English texts as it is widely used before nouns with the weakened demonstrative meaning approaching that of the definite article and may help one to determine the case, gender and number of the corresponding noun and adjective.

Declension of se, seo, þæt

Case	singular			Plural
	M	N	F	
N	Se	**þæt**	seo	**þa**
G	**þæs**	**þæs**	**þære**	**þara**
D	**Þæm, þam**	**Þæm, þam**	**þære**	**þam**
A	**þone**	**þæt**	**þa**	**þa**
Instr.	**Þy, þon**	**Þy, þon**	**þære**	

Its paradigm, just like most other nominal paradigms, contains some homonymous forms.

The Adjective.

The adjective in Old English could change for case, number and gender. The adjective agreed with the noun modified in all these categories and had two types of declensions: weak and strong

Declension of Adjectives

	strong		
singular	M	N	F
	N 3od	N 3od	N 3od
	G 3odes	G 3odes	G 3odre
	D 3odum	D 3odum	D 3odre
	A 3odne	A 3od	A 3od
	Instr. 3ode	Instr. 3ode	Instr. 3odre
plural	N 3ode	N 3od	N 3oda
	G 3ode	G 3ode	G 3ode
	D 3odra	D 3odra	D 3odra
	A 3odum	A 3odum	A 3odum
	weak		
singular	M	N	F
	N 3oda	N 3ode	N 3ode
	G 3odan	G 3odan	G 3odan
	D 3odan	D 3odan	D 3odan
	A 3odan	A 3ode	A 3odan
	Instr. 3odan	Instr. 3odan	Instr. 3odan
plural	N 3odan	N 3odan	N 3odan
	G 3odra (3odena)	G 3odra (3odena)	G 3odra (3odena)
	D 3odum	D 3odum	D 3odum
	A 3odan	A 3odan	A 3odan

The formal difference between the two types is similar to that between the corresponding noun declensions: the ending -n is used throughout the weak declension, the same as in the n-stems of the noun declension; some endings employed in the strong declension of adjectives coincide with the endings of the strong declension of nouns (a-stems for the Masculine and Neuter and 0-stems for the Feminine); other endings have come from pronouns (and are termed "pronominal" endings), e. g. -ra Genitive Plural and -re Feminine Genitive and Dative Singular. In addition to the different endings shown in the table, there were some variations due to the number or length of the syllables, e. g. OE bl*acu,* NE *black,* retained -u in the Neuter Plural in the Nominative case while in adjectives with a long syllable -u was dropped: OE *3od,* NE *good;* other variations of endings arose due to the elements -j- or -w- before the stem-suffix.

The position of the adjective declensions in the system of nominal declensions can be seen from the following scheme:

NOUN	PRONOUN
n-stems, a-stems, o-stems	demonstrative
weak	strong
Adjectives	

Unlike the nouns, almost any adjective could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The choice of declension in each particular case depended on many factors: the preceding pronouns which modified the same noun, the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison (seldom the meaning of the adjective). Adjectives in the comparative and "superlative degrees were declined as weak; weak forms were used when the

adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun. Compare some weak forms of adjectives used after a demonstrative pronoun to some strong forms used alone or with other kinds of pronouns.

Weak forms
Þæt **weste** land - neutar Nominative singular “that wasre land”
Þy betstan leo∂e - Neutar Instrumental singular “with the best song”
Strong forms
He wæs spedi3 man- Masculine Nominative singular “he was a rich man”
o∂re hwalas – Masculine Nominative Plural “other whales”
An micel ea- Feminine Nominative Singular “one big river”

The adjective paradigm, like that of the noun, was characterized by a large number of homonymous forms: the Dative and Genitive Plural have the same forms for all genders in both declensions. In most case the Plural, gender was not distinguished at all. Singular forms Masculine and Neuter of the strong declension in the Dative case did not differ from the plural. Most weak forms were alike throughout the paradigm. Thus the system of declension of adjectives was perhaps even less precise and consistent than nouns.

Due to the abundance of homonymous forms I the adjective and in the noun systems the reader of Old English texts is hard put to define the form of an adjective or a noun, unless he considers both forms together and, if possible, takes into account the form of the pronoun in the same word combination.

This was actually done in analysing the forms of the adjectives above: py *betstan leo∂e* "with that best song" was analysed as the Instrumental case of the adjective *betste*, NE *best,* in the weak declension because py is the Instrumental case Neuter or Masculine of OE *se* or p*æt,*

NE *that',* judging by the pronoun the gender of *leo∂e* "song" is either Neuter or Masculine, hence its case is Dative (-e occurs also as the ending of Feminine o-stems in the oblique cases, but then the pronoun could not have had the form *þy*).

Degrees of Comparison

Like the adjectives of other languages, most Old English adjectives could form degrees of comparison. The regular means used in building the Comparative and Superlative degrees were the suffixes -ra and -est/-ost. But quite commonly the root-vowel of the adjective was changed as well.

Degrees of comparison

Form-building means	**Positive**	**comparative**	**superlative**	**NE**
Suffixes	**soft**	**softra**	**softost**	**Soft**
Suffixes plus	**bl**æc	**bl**æcra	**bla**cost	**black**
Vowel alterna-tions	**Lon3**	**Len3ra, lon3ra**	**Len3est** **Lon3est**	**Long**
	eald	**ieldra**	**ieldest**	**Old**
Suppletive	**3od**	**Betera**	**Betst**	**Good**

forms	**micel**	**mara**	**m**æst	**Big Much**

The vowel alternation ***æ*** —a in the adjective *blæc* is similar to the interchange in the noun *dæ3* — *da3as* and is caused by the same reasons ; it is not a regular alternation peculiar to the adjective system. The alternation in lon3 and *eald* is of a different nature: it appears more regularly in the Superlative degree if the suffix is -est and occasionally in the Comparative degree. This alternation was an important mark of the adjective in Old English, although quite commonly an adjective formed its degrees of comparison in both ways: with and without an alternation .

The interchange in the forms of these adjectives goes back to palatal mutation. Some Old English forms of the Comparative and Superlative degrees developed from pre-written forms with the element -i- in the suffix: the Comparative degree *lang-ira* and the Superlative degree *!ang-ist* {later -i- was lost in the former and became e in the latter). The other set of suffixes used to build the forms of the degrees -ora and -ost did not bring about any changes in the root and accounted for the forms without vowel alternations.

The two last adjectives in the table have preserved the old suppletive forms, like their parallels in other languages.

Reference table of noun endings

stems	**a-**	**o-**	**i-**	**u-**	**n-**	**Root stems**	**Other Cons-ts**
genders	**M., N.**	**F.**	**M., N., F.**	**M., F.**	**M., N., F.**	**M., F.**	
	singular						
N	**- -**	**- / -u**	**- /- e-**	**- / - u**	**- a – e –e**	**- / -u**	**-**
G	**- es**	**- e**	**-es -e**	**-a**	**-an**	**- es / - e**	**-es**
D	**- e**	**- e**	**-e**	**- a**	**- an,**	**- /- e**	**- / - e**
A	**-**	**- e**	**- / -e -**	**- / - u**	**-an, - e, - an**	**- - / -u**	**-**
	plural						
N	**-as/ -u**	**- a**	**-e/ -as/ - u -e/ -a**	**-a / -u**	**-an**	**- / -e**	**-as/ -ru**
A							
G	**-a**	**(en) a**	**-a**	**-a**	**-(en) a**	**-a**	**-a, ® a**
D	**-um**	**-um**	**-um**	**-um**	**-um**	**-um**	**-® um**

Note especially the use of a-stems endings with nouns of other stems (Masculine and Neuter) and those of o-stems with Feminine nouns.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Do nouns, adjectives and pronouns have the same number of cases in Old English?

2. Why are we justified to say that personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person Singular have retained more archaic traits in Old English than other parts of speech?

3. Why are the different types of declensions in Old English referred to *as* stems? What is meant by the term "root-stems"?

4. In which declension were sound alternations used in combination with endings or alone?

5. What is there in common and what is there different in the division of nouns and adjectives into types of declension? Can a noun or an adjective be referred to more than one declension?

6. Point out the pronominal case-endings of adjectives. Define the forms of nouns, adjectives and pronouns in some noun combinations (from Ohthere's account:) pa *wildan hranas; se hwæl; p*a *Beormas; on hiora topum.* Give the Nominative Singular of all these nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

LECTURE 8 OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR: THE VERB

THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE VERB

Problems to be discussed:

1.The grammatical categories of the verb.

2. Morphological classification of verbs.

3. Strong verbs.

4. Weak verbs.

The system of verb-forms in Old English was characterized by many peculiar features. While the paradigm of the noun, the adjective and the pronoun was in general more complicated than it is at present, the Old English verb paradigm was in some respects simpler: although the verb had numerous person and number endings it had fewer grammatical categories than in Modern English.

The Categories of Finite Forms. Verb Conjugation

In Old English the agreement of the verb-predicate with the subject was expressed by means of two grammatical categories, number and person. Besides these grammatical categories the finite forms had the specifically verbal categories of mood and tense. Thus in the sentence cited above: *Ohthere s sæde...* — the verb is in the 3rd person Singular, Past Tense, Indicative Mood (NE *Ohthere said). þa be3ite* — 2nd person, Singular, Present Tense, Subjunctive Mood, NE "you get".

The forms making up the categories of finite forms are shown in the table and analysed below:

Finite Forms of the **OE Verb** *macian* NE *make*

tense	**Number**	**person**	**mood**		
			indicative	**subjunctive**	**imperative**

present	**Singular**	**1st** **2nd** **3rd**	**Macie** **Macast** **macað**	**macie**	**maca**
	Plural		**maciað**	**macian**	**maciað**
past	**Singular**	**1st** **2nd** **3rd**	**Macode** **Macodes(t)** **macode**	**macode**	
	Plural		**macodon**	**macoden**	

As seen from the table, the category of number is shown throughout the system by a regular formal contrast: there are no homonymous singular and plural forms.

The category of **person** was made up by the opposition of three forms: 1st, 2nd and 3rd person; yet these forms were distinguished only in the Singular of the Present Tense, Indicative Mood. In the Plural the difference was altogether lost; nor was it shown in the Subjunctive mood; the forms of the 1st and 3rd person of the Past tense, Indicative, were homonymous too.

The category of **tense** consisted of two sets of forms: Present and Past; these forms are distinctly contrasted in two moods (there being no homonymous forms here). It should be noted that the meanings of the Past and Present tense forms must have been far more general than what is nowadays associated with Present Indefinite or Past Indefinite (which have directly descended from the two Old English tense forms). Both in the Indicative and in the Subjunctive moods the Past tense referred the action to the past without differentiating between prior or non-prior actions. Here is an example from the Anglo-Saxon chronicles of the 9th century:

...Qnd 'þæs ofer Eastron 3efor Æ'þered cynin3; qnd he ricsode V (fif) 3ear "And then after Easter king *Æ*thered died and he had reigned five years." The Past tense *3efor* is equivalent to Past Indefinite, while the Past tense form *ricsode* is equivalent to Past Perfect

The Present tense referred the action to any period of time except past: that is, to the present or future. It is probable that with verbs of perfective meaning the Present tense form regularly denoted a future action, while with verbs denoting a non-completed action it could denote both present and future actions.

e. g. *...ðonne ða* in *brin3st, he ytt and bletsa'þ 'þe* "when thou bringst them, he will eat and bless you."

The category of mood, as seen from the table, was constituted by the Imperative, the Indicative and the
Subjunctive moods, which were regularly distinguished in the paradigm; only in some forms of the Past tense the difference between the moods was lost (see *macode).* The Old English Subjunctive must have conveyed a very general meaning of presenting events as unreal or probable and was used for the same purpose as the modern oblique moods. Besides, the Subjunctive mood was often used in indirect speech, to describe events of which the speaker was not absolutely certain. In Ohthere's account of his voyage we find instances of this usage, e. g. *He sæde…….. , 'þæt 'þæt land sie swi'þe lan3* (Present tense, Subjunctive mood) "He said…… that that land is (lit. be) very long".

The tense and mood systems in Old English on the whole faithfully reproduced the Common Germanic system. (with its two tense forms and three moods). New features only began to develop in later Old English, when the first analytical verb-forms appeared.

The Categories of Non-Finite Forms

There were two non-finite forms in the Old English verb system: the Infinitive and the Participle. Their verb characteristics were as yet less pronounced than their nominal characteristics.

The Infinitive had no verbal categories whatsoever. Being a verbal noun, it bad a sort of case system, or rather some isolated case-forms corresponding to the Nominative and the Dative case of-nouns:

Uninflected form (Nominative case)	Inflected form (Dative case)
OE helpan	OE to helpenne, NE help

The latter form was used after the preposition *to.* NE *to,* to denote the direction or purpose of the action as, e. g. in Ælfric's Preface to his translation of the Genesis: *'þæt weorc is swiȝe pleolic me……to under-be3innenne* "that work is very difficult (for) me ……. to undertake"; the former — without prepositions, e. g. OE *'þu meaht sin3an* "you can sing"(lit. "thou might sing").

The Participle, as a verbal adjective, was characterized both by verbal and nominal categories

voice / **tense**	**active**	**Passive**
Present	**Participle I** **Maciende "making"**	**-**
Past	**Participle II** **A3an "gone"**	**Participle II** **(3e) macod "made"**

As seen from Table Participle I was opposed to Participle II through voice and tense differences: Participle I was present and active; Participle II denoted a state resulting from a completed past action and was passive in meaning when built from transitive verbs;

Participle II from intransitive verbs (see a3an*)* had an active meaning.

Like adjectives, Participles I and II could be declined as weak and strong and showed case, number and gender distinctions.

Compare some forms of Participles in the Nominative and the Genitive cases, Singular, in the weak and strong declension to those of adjectives. The endings are identical.

OE macian, NE make

Participle I			**Participle II**		
			strong		
Sing M	**N**	**F**	**M**	**N**	**F**
N. maciende	**- e**	**- u**	**macod**	**-**	**- u**

G. maciendes	**- es**	**- re**	**macodes**	**- es**	**- re**
weak					
Sing M	**N**	**F**	**M**	**N**	**F**
n. macienda	**- e**	**-e**	**macoda**	**-e**	**-e**
G. maciendan	**-**	**-**	**macodan**	**-**	**-**

Like the adjective, the Participle in the sentence was grammatically dependent on the noun. It is noteworthy, however, that when the Participle was used as a predicative, the agreement with the subject does not appear to have been as strictly observed as in the case of adjectives. Alongside of instances of agreement, in Old English texts we commonly find the uninflected Participle used as predicative.

Compare two sentences from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles* describing the battles with the Danes:

…wurdon	**VIII (eahta)**	**Folc3efeoht**	**3efohten…**
were	**Eight**	**battles**	**Fought**
…w ærun	**Ofsl**æ3ene	**IX (nihon)**	**Eorlas**
were	**Slain**	**nine**	**Earls**
and	**An**	**Cynin**	
and	**One**	**king**	

Participle II in the second sentence is inflected to show the Nominative case, Masculine gender, Plural of the strong declension, whereas Participle II in the first sentence is not inflected (the form is Singular, so it does not agree with the subject).

The Problems of Aspect, Voice and Analytical Forms

The existence of the grammatical categories described above is confirmed in Old English by the systematic opposition of form and meaning.

Other verb categories, commonly found in the verb systems of many Indo-European languages {including Modern English) were either altogether absent in Old English or were yet so poorly developed that their inclusion in the list of grammatical categories is highly doubtful. This opinion is divided on the problem of aspect.

Until recently it was believed that in Old English (as well as in other Old Germanic dialects) verbs with the prefix je- had a perfective meaning (i. e. denoted completed actions) while the same verbs without the prefix had an imperfective meaning.

The two sets of verb-forms allegedly constituted the grammatical category of aspect. This assumption has now been rejected by most scholars as the contrast does not appear to be regular

enough; commonly the prefigated verb, besides denoting perfectiveness, had a different lexical meaning; compare OE *beran,* NE *bear* and *OE 3eberan* "to give birth"; on the other hand a verb with 3e-, as well as with other prefixes could sometimes denote a non-completed action while the verb without the prefix could have a perfective meaning. Since there was no systematic contrast of forms and grammatical meaning (devoid of lexical shades) it is hardly possible to regard the pair as making up the grammatical category of aspect.

The category of voice in the Old English verb is also a matter of dispute. The problem of voice is linked up with the problem of analytical verb-forms in Old English.

In Old English written records we find but a few isolated relics of synthetic mediopassive forms, which together with the active forms, might have constituted the category of voice in Common Germanic.

Compare two sentences from Alfred's works with the Old English verb *hatan* "name": *'þæ deor hi hatað hranas* "those deer they named raindeer" with an active meaning ofer *'þæ ea 'þe Araxis* "over the river that was called Araxis" with a meaning that can be defined medial or mediopassive.

Þa deor hi hatað hranas- those deer they named reindeer
Ofer Þaea Þe hatte Araxis- over the river that was called Araxis

However, already in the Old English period new, analytical forms with a passive meaning began to develop free combinations. The syntactical combinations of the OE *beon,* NE *be* and OE *weorðan* "become" with Participle II of transitive verbs were used to denote a state, resulting from a completed action (see the examples the combinations *wurdon 3efohten* and *wæron of slæ3ene in 1.2* above). During the Old English period these combinations gradually acquired the features of analytical forms but it was not until the Middle English period that they began to be systematically contrasted to active forms as forms of the passive voice and could be included in the paradigm.

It must be mentioned here that other would-be analytical forms occurred in Old English texts too. At that time they, too, should rather be regarded as free syntactical combinations than compound verb-forms, therefore they will not be discussed here.

It will suffice to quote a few examples of such kind of combinations from Old English records of the 9th century:

OE Hw*æt sceal ic sin3an* "what must (shall) I sing?" — combination of the Old English verb *sculan* in the form *sceal,* NE *shall* with the Infinitive *sin3an,* NE *sing.*

seðe wið hine sprecende wæs... "the one who was speaking" —the link-verb *wæs,* NE *was, is* used with Participle I *sprecende* which is a predicative.

2. MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

From the point of view of form-building, we shall see that all the verb-forms in Old English were synthetic. Most verb-forms were distinguished through their endings; one form (Participle II) was often marked by the . prefix *3e-*.

Some verbs employed sound alternations to build their forms; a few verbs had suppletive forms.

Just like in Modern English, the forms of the verb were built from a number of principal forms or stems: all the forms of the Present tense of the Indicative and Subjunctive moods, the Imperative mood, and Participle I were built from the first principal form of Present tense stem represented by the Infinitive. The forms of the Past tense in the Indicative and Subjunctive moods were built from the Past tense stems; Participle II had a stem of its own.

As mentioned before the majority of verbs in Germanic languages —including Old English — fell under two large groups according to the way they built their principal forms termed "strong" and "weak". Compare the principal forms of two verbs: the Old English strong verb *helpan,* NE *help,* and the weak verb *macian,* NE *make.*

We see that the strong verb *helpan* has a different root-vowel in each of its four stems; besides, every principal form is characterized by a specific ending, The weak verb *macian* does not change the root-vowel; it adds the suffix -d- (dental suffix) and endings.

Morphological classification of verbs

Present tense (Infinitive)		**Past tense**	**Participle II**
strong	**helpan**	**Healp, hulpon**	**(3e) holpen**
weak	**macian**	**macode**	**(3e) macod**

In addition to the main difference (vowel gradation and dental suffix) the two groups differed in the number of principal forms: three forms for the weak verbs and four for the strong; also, some of their endings were different (note the characteristic ending -en of Participle II of strong verbs and -d in weak verbs; the lack of ending in the Past tense stem, which is the form of the 1st and 3rd person Singular—*healp,* the ending -e in the corresponding form of the weak verb — *macode).*

The 3rd principal form of the strong verb *helpan — hulpon* is the form of the Past tense Plural of the Indicative mood; the 2nd person Singular of the Indicative mood and Past Subjunctive are also built from this stem. The strong verbs had two Past tense stems with a different vowel grade in most classes (see Table 4 below). As for the weak verbs they built all the Past tense forms from one stem which usually did not differ from the stem of Participle II .

Besides the two major groups of verbs there existed some minor groups whose conjugation differed both from the weak and the strong conjugation. Some of them combined the traits of the two groups in a peculiar way, others were altogether anomalous.

Strong Verbs

In the Old English language there must have been over three hundred strong verbs. They showed no tendency to increase their number but constituted a well marked restricted group of verbs mostly descending from Common Germanic.

The strong verbs in Old English are usually divided into seven classes, each marked by a peculiar gradation series; in some classes vowel alternations were accompanied by a consonant interchange (2nd and 5th classes: [z]-[s]-[r]; [∂]-[θ] —[d]).

The vowel alternations in Old English strong verbs were due to vowel gradation, that is, they went back to the Indo-European ablaut: the original sounds had been modified due to Common Germanic and specifically Old English changes. The origin of the seven classes of strong verbs can only be understood if we recall those phonetic changes.

Strong verbs in Old English

	infinitive	**Past singular**	**Past plural**	**Participle II**	**NE**
1	**risan**	**Ras**	**rison**	**Risen**	**rise**
2	**seo∂an**	**sea∂**	**sudon**	**soden**	**seethe**
3	**(a) findan** **(b) helpan** **(c) feohtan**	**Fond** **Healp** **feaht**	**Fundon** **Hulpon** **fuhton**	**Funden** **Holpen** **fohten**	**Find** **Help** **fight**
4	**beran**	**Bær**	**bæron**	**boren**	**bear**
5	**wesan**	**Wæs**	**wæron**	**weren**	**Was, were, "be"**
6	**faran**	**For**	**foron**	**faren**	**"travel", Obs. Fare**
7	**hatan**	**Het (heht)**	**Heton (hehton)**	**haten**	**"call" "name"**

Most Old English gradation series (Class 1 through 5) go back to the Indo-European qualitative ablaut e — o (reflected in Germanic and Old English as e/i — a); this alternation was used in the first two principal forms while the quantitative ablaut —the reduced grade and the prolonged grade — were used in the last two forms as contrasted to the normal grade in the first two. Though the original ablaut series was the same (or nearly the same) in all the five classes, there were five distinct rows of vowel alternations in Old English.

In Class1, which is also called i-class, the gradation vowel was combined with i in the root; in Class 2, u-class, it was combined with u. As a result we find long vowels or diphthongs in the first Iwo forms, and i and u in the zero grade. The development is seen from the following scheme.

Vowel gradation in Strong verbs (classes 1-2)

Principal forms→	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**Notes**
Classes ↓	**e** **e / i**	**o** **a**	**-** **-**	**-** **-**	**IE ablaut** **Corresponding G gradation**
1. i-class	**E / I +I = i**	**A + I = ai**	**I**	**I**	**G gradation**

	i	**A**	**i**	**i**	**(vowels combined with The sounds of the root) OE gradation Reflecting Early OE Vowel changes**
2. u-class	**E / I + u = eu /iu** **eo**	**A + u +au** **ea**	**U** **u**	**O** **o**	**G gradation (vowels combined with The sounds of The root) OE gradation**

In Classes 3 to 5 the gradation vowel was followed by consonants, hence the vowels in the first two forms were short, and did not differ much from the original Germanic series (see Class 4 with a sonorant in the root, and Class 5 with a noise consonant). Only the verbs of Class 3, which contained consonant combinations (sonorant or h plus a plosive), sometimes had diphthongs caused by specifically Old English vowel changes: breaking before these consonant combinations (see *healp, feohtan, feaht* in Table 4); hence we distinguish three variants in Class 3. The modification of the vowel gradation can be shown as follows:

Vowel Gradation in Strong verbs (classes 3-5)

Principal forms→ Classes ↓	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**Notes**
3. sonorant or h plus another consonant in the root	**e** **e / i** **e / I / eo**	**o** **a** **o / ea**	**-** **U** **u**	**-** **U / o** **U / o**	**IE ablaut Corresponding G gradation OE gradation**
4. sonorant in the root	**E / i** **E / i**	**A** æ	**E** æ	**O** **o**	**G** **OE**
5. noise consonant in the root	**E / i** **E / i**	**A** æ	**E** æ	**E** **e**	**G** **OE**

The origin of Classes 6 and 7 is entirely different. The underlying gradation series in Class 6 is the Indo-European quantitative ablaut o —o, modified to a —o in Germanic.

Vowel Gradation in Strong verbs (class6)

Principal forms→ Classes	**I**	**II**	**III**	**IV**	**Notes**

↓					
6.	**O** **a**	**O** **O**	**O** **o**	**O** **a**	**IE ablaut** **Corresponding G and OE gradation**

Most vowel interchanges in Class 7 resulted from the doubling of the root ("reduplication") in the Past tense stems. That is why the Past tense stems have a long monophthong or a long diphthong in the root or sometimes the first consonant of the root appearing twice in the Past tense stems (see the forms *heht, hehton*).

The cause of consonant interchanges in some classes is to be looked for in the voicing of fricatives under Verner's Law in Common Germanic and some subsequent Old English consonant changes. The series ∂ — θ — d— d can be seen in the verb *sea∂an* (Class 2); the series z —s —r— r — in the verb *wesan* (Class 5).

Weak Verbs

The number of weak verbs in Old English by far exceeded that of strong verbs and was obviously growing. Among weak verbs we regularly find formations from noun- and adjective-stems and also from some stems of strong verbs which is a proof of the later appearance of weak verbs. Cf.,

OE tellan and talu n, NE tell, tale;

OE fyllan and ful adj., NE fill, full;

OE fandian "find out" and findan, NE find.

All the weak verbs built their principal forms by adding a dental suffix, -d or –t, to the Present tense stem, but besides this general device, there were some specific peculiarities in the three classes of weak verbs.

Weak verbs in Old English

Principal forms / classes	**Infinitive**	**Past Tense**	**Participle II**	**NE**
I	**-an / -ian**	**-de / -ede / -te**	**-ed / -d / - t**	
	(a) deman **(b) cepan** **(c) weian** **(d) tellan**	**Demde** **Cepte** **Werede** **tealde**	**Demed** **Ceped** **Wered** **teald**	**Deem** **Keep** **Wear** **tell**
II	**- ian**	**-ode**	**-od**	
	Macian **Lufian**	**Macode** **lufode**	**Macod** **lufod**	**Make** **Love**
III	**- an**	**- de**	**- d**	**live**
	Libban	**lifde**	**lifd**	

The verbs of Class I fell into several variants depending on whether they added the suffix directly to the stem or had a vowel before it. Originally the verbs of this class were built with the help of the stem-suffix -i-(therefore they are also called i-stems). The element -i-is still seen

in *werian* as after r it was not dropped. After a long syllable i was lost — *deman, cepan* — and the dental suffix -d became -t if it stood next to a voiceless consonant (compare *demde* and *cepte).* The verb *tellan* represents a subgroup of irregular weak verbs of Class I, as besides the dental suffix it had a vowel alternation. Its root-vowel in the Infinitive was changed by palatal mutation due to the earlier i in the suffix, but obviously in the Past and the Participle forms i was wanting and no palatal mutation occurred (the diphthong in *teald* is due to breaking before Id).

The weak verbs referring to Class II are the easiest to identify; they are known as o-stems, which means that they were originally built with the help of the stem-suffix -o-. Thus *lufian* came from an earlier *luf-o-jan.* The verbs had lost o in the Infinitive but retained its traces in the other principal forms: -ode, -od. Verbs of Class II were the most numerous and also the most regular of all the classes of Old English weak verbs.

There were very few weak verbs which belonged to Class III in Old English, Origimlly they must have had the stem-suffix -a, all traces of which were lost. In Old English they added the dental suffix directly to the last consonant of the root and doubled the consonant in the Infinitive, as seen in the table.

Minor Groups of Verbs: Suppletive, Anomalous, Preterite-Presents

Some minor groups of verbs of diverse origin (mostly Common Germanic) could be referred to neither weak nor strong verbs.

A few anomalous or irregular verbs in Old English combined both ways of form-building— that of strong and of weak verbs. Thus the form *bude* used in the sentence from Alfred's *Orosius* quoted above is the Past tense of the verb *buan* "stay", "live" formed according to the weak conjugation. Participle II of the verb, however, was formed without a dental suffix, 3*e-bun,* and ended in -n like a strong verb. The verbs *don,* NE *do,* and *willan,* NE *will,3an,* NE *go,* and *beon,* NE *be,* had irregular forms as early as the Old English period. The two latter verbs had suppietive forms. Compare the Infinitive and Past tense forms of some anomalous and suppietive verbs:

Anomalous verbs

Infinite	**Past Tense**	**Participle II**	**NE**
Don	**Dyde**	**Don**	**Do**
Willan	**Wolde**		**Will**
3an	**Eode**	**3an**	**Go**
beon	**w æs, wæron**	**ben**	**be**

Note that the forms *wæs, wæron* are regular strong forms of *-wesan — a* strong verb of the 5th class; the Infinitive and Participle II, however, come from a different root.

The most interesting group of anomalous verbs was certainly the so-called preterite-presents (or past-present) verbs.

The verb cunnan "can"

Tense	Number	person	Indicative mood	Subjunctive mood
present	**Singular**	**1st** **2nd** **3rd**	**Can** **Canst** **can**	**cunne**
	Plural		**cunnon**	**cunnen**
past	**Singular**	**1st** **2nd** **3rd**	**cuðe** **cuðest** **cuðe**	**cuðe**
	Plural		**cuðon**	**cuðen**
Infinitive			**Cunnan**	
Participle II			**Cunnen, cuð**	

The Present tense forms of this verb were originally Past tense forms, which have acquired the meaning of the present. They have the same endings as the Past tense forms of strong verbs. OE *cunnan,* like all the strong verbs in the Past tense, has no ending **in** the first and third person Singular and has the ending -on in the Plural. To express the meaning of the past it has developed new, weak Past tense forms *cuð e — cuð on.* Of the two variants of Participle II—*cunnen* and *cuð* — one is strong, the other, a later development, is weak. Some forms are missing and thus the verb is defective. In Old English there were twelve preterite-presents: OE *a3,* NE *own,* "ought"; OE *cunnan, can,* NE *can;* OE *dearr,* NE *dare;* OE *sculan, sceal,* NE *shall;* OE *ma3an,* m*æ3*, NE *may;* OE *mot* "can", NE *must,* which have all survived in Modern English and also OE *witan, wat* "know", OE *du3an, dea3* "be fit"; OE *unnan, ann* "wish"; OE *ðurfan, ðearf* "need"; OE *munan, man* "remember"; and OE 3e*neah* "be enough". Note that the Infinitive and the Present tense, 1st person Singular have different root-vowels; this is accounted for by vowel gradation, the same as in strong verbs.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Did the Old English verb have as many grammatical categories as the Modern English verb? Which categories were wanting?

2. Point out the main differences between the weak and strong verbs.

3. Re-read the Lecture 8 (breaking) and account for the variants in Class 3 of strong verbs.

4. Why are verbs like the OE *cunnan* and *sculan* called "preterite-presents"? Have they retained any of their specific features today?

5. State the class of the verbs in the following fragments of sentences. Give their principal forms: (1) ... *wiciaðFinnas;* (2) *þæ't land læ3e;* (3) *for he;* (4) *bea3 'þ æt land; he bad;* (5) *mette he;* (6) *'þa Beormas spr æcon;* (7) *he erede...*

LECTURE 9. Old English syntax

Recall that the dominant sentence pattern of Germanic has two characteristic traits: V–2 in main clauses and SOV order in subordinate clauses (see 5.2.3). Both are typical of OE as well, as the following sentence shows:

(38)He ofslog þone aldorman [þe him lengest wunode]

he killed the earl that him longest served 'He killed the earl that had served him longest'

The verb ofslogis the second constituent of the main clause, whereas in the subordinate clause (beginning with þe, the general relative pronoun) the verb (wunode) is in final position. In this example, the first constituent of the main clause is the subject (he), but this need not be so – this is why V–2 is not the same as SVO. The following sentence shows this:

(39)Toþæm wife cwæð God

to the woman said God

'To the woman God said...'

Here the first constituent of the clause is the prepositional phrase toþæm wife.

In actual fact, the V–2 rule has never been a very strict one in the documented history of English. Main clauses and coordinated clauses can also be verb-final in OE like subordinate clauses. Another regularity that overrides the basic pattern is that pronouns tend to come earlier in the clause than a functionally equivalent full NP. In the story of the temptation in Genesis, from where we took the previous sentence, the following line begins:

(40)ToAdame he cwæð

to Adam he said

'To Adam he said...'

Here the pronoun hereferring to God is placed before the verb, hence the structure of (39) and (40) is not parallel. Let us consider the following example:

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(41)Ouswold him com to

Oswald him came to

'Oswald came to him'

This sentence shows that a pronoun is preposed in the same manner even if it is the

complement of a preposition.

NPs preposed for topicalisation sometimes trigger the presence of a resumptive pronoun, as in this sentence:

(42)Đara ig½landa ðe man hæt Ciclades ðara sindon ðreo & fiftig½

of those islands that one calls Cyclades of those are fifty-three 'Of the islands that one calls Cyclades there are fifty-three'

Another recurrent feature is that "marked" sentence types, i.e. questions (without a question word), commands and negations often begin with the verb:

(43)Gehyrst þucyning?

hear you king

'Do you hear (this), king?'

Syþin nama g½ehalgod

be your name hallowed

'Hallowed be thy name' (from the Lord's Prayer)

Ne com se cyning

not came the king

'The king did not come'

Finally, another fairly widespread Germanic feature, the clausal brace, is also found in OE with fair consistency. This means that non-finite verbs are placed at the end of the clause, as in:

(44) He ne meahte ong½emong oþrum mannum beon

he not could among other men be 'He could not be among other men'

Eastengle hæfdon þæm cyninge aþas g½eseald.

East Angles had to the king oaths given 'East Angles swore oaths to the king'.

LECTURE 10. OLD ENGLISH WORDSTOCK.

Problems to be discussed:

1. Etymology of words.

2. Word-formation.

3. Semantic and stylistic characteristics of the Old English wordstock.

In considering the Old English wordstock it must be borne in mind that its full extent is not known. Written records of the Old English period that have been preserved obviously include only part of the words. A large part of the Old English vocabulary may not have been recorded at all or have been lost.

Therefore, the estimate of 30,000 words suggested by some authorities for the size of the Old English word-stock can be accepted only with the reservation that it does not represent the total number of words in the Old English language.

ETYMOLOGY

In the Old English svordstock we can singie out two groups of words, different in size and importance: (1) native words and (2) borrowings.

The bulk of the Old English wordstock was made up of native words, the oldest part of the vocabulary going back to the West Germanic dialects brought to Britain in the 5th-6fh centuries. Loan-words, or borrowings, constituted but a small part of the vocabulary.

Below we shall consider each of these groups separately.

Native Words

Native words in the Old English wordsfock are not homogeneous in their origin. Several etymological layers can be singled out dating back to different stages in the development of the Germanic languages on the continent and, later, in Britain. Arranged chronologically, they are as follows:

(1) Common Indo-European words.

This is the most ancient part of the Old English wordstock comprising a considerable portion of the Old English vocabulary. The words of this layer refer to various semantic spheres and denote the most important notions and things indispensable in everyday life.

Common Indo-European words in Old English

OE	**NE**	**Other Old Germanic dialects**		**Non_germanic languages**	
		Gt	**OHG**	**Latin**	**Russian**

Broþor	**Brother**	**Broþar**	**Bruodar**	**Frater**	**Брат**
Heorte	**Heart**	**Hairto**	**Herza**	**Cor,cordis**	**Сердце**
Sittan	**Sit**	**Sitan**	**Sizzan**	**Sedere**	**Сидеть**
twa	**two**	**twos**	**Zwa,zwo**	**duo**	**два**

(1) Specifically Germanic words. This is a large layer in the Old English wordstock as well. The words of this group go back to the Common Gernnnic period when the ancient Germanic tribes had broken away from the other Indo-European tribes and formed an independent linguistic group. Similarly to .the wcrds of the above group they denote the most important objects and notions referring to the sea, nature and everyday life, colours, measures and various processes.

Specifically Germanic words in Old English

OE	**NE**	**Other Old Germanic dialects**		
		Gt	**O.Icel**	**OHG**
Hand	**Hand**	**Hundus**	**Hond**	**Hant**
Deop	**Deep**	**Diups**	**Djupr**	**Tiuf**
Sin3an	**sing**	**siggwan**	**syngva**	**singan**

3. West Germanic words. These words have parallels only in the West Germanic languages, sometimes only in one of them. They are, evidently, of later origin, going back to the period of the differentiation of Common Germanic and the isolation of certain linguistic subgroups within it.

West Germanic words in Old English

OE	**NE**	**Other West Germanic dialects**		
		OHG	**O.Saxon**	**O.Frisian**
3reat	**Great**	**Groz**	**Grot**	**Grat**
Sceap	**Sheep**	**Scaf**	**Scap**	**Skep**
Macian	**Make**	**Mahhon**	**Makon**	**Makia**
Fox	**Fox**	**Fuhs**	**Vuhs**	**-**

Cæ3	**key**	**-**	**-**	**Kay, kei**

(2) Specifically Old English words. These words do not occur in any other known languages. They are not numerous and do not form a clear-cut semantic group.

Specifically Old English Words

I			**II**
OE	**NE**	**OE**	**NE**
Brid **3erefa** **Swaþian** **wimman**	**Bird** **Reeve** **Swathe** **woman**	**Scir-3e-refa** **Hlaford** **Hlæfdi3e** **Half-mæsse**	**Sheriff** **Lord** **Lady** **lammas**

Some of these words are compounds (Column II) formed from the elements found also in other related languages. But the specific combinations of these elements are found in Old English alone. For example:

OE: hl*æfdi3e, NE lady* - *a* compound of OE *hlaf,* NE *loaf* + *di3e* "bread-kneading" (cf. Gt *hlaifs,* O. Icel *hleifr,* OHG h*laiba* "bread" and Gt *di3an* "knead").

OE *hlaford,* NE *lord —a* compound of OE *half* + *QE weard* "guard", NE *ward.* (Cf. Gt *(daura) wards,* O. Icel vor*∂r,* OHG *warta).*

The words of this group refer to the latest chronological layer of the native wordstock, that is, to the Old English period proper; they must have appeared in the language after the settlement of the West Germanic tribes in the British Isles. It should be noted, however, that it is not always possible to speak with absolute certainty of their specifically English character, due to the scarcity of written documents in other Old Germanic dialects.

Borrowings.

Words borrowed from other languages constitute a very small portion of the Old English wordstock. Thus, it has been estimated, that the number of Latin loan-words in the Old English vocabulary,—which was the most numerous foreign element, — did not exceed six hundred. Besides, there were several words borrowed from Celtic.

The majority of loan-words were adopted into the Old English language through personal intercourse, due fc to the close contact of the peoples speaking different languages. Some of them entered the language

through writing. Most loan-words became widely used shortly after their adoption since they denoted things of everyday life or other important notions; therefore they were relatively quickly assimilated by the language.

Latin Borrowings

It is common to distinguish three chronological layers of Latin words in Old English.

(1) The adoption of Latin words had begun long before the first Germanic tribes came to Britain. As a result of a close and lengthy intercourse between the Romans and the ancient Germans on the mainland a considerable number of Latin words were borrowed already in Late Common Germanic. About 50 of these words must have existed in the dialects of the ancestors of the English when they came to Britain. They constitute the earliest layer of the Latin element in the Old English wordstock.

It should be pointed out, however, that it is sometimes difficult to determine exactly whether a given Latin loan-word had entered the dialects of Germanic tribes still on the continent or much later as a result of the contacts of the Germanic settlers with the Romanized Celts in Britain. Nevertheless quite a number of Latin borrowings can be referred to the earliest (continental) layer .

(2) To the Latin loan-words of the second (later) period we can refer but a very small group of words that came into English through the dialects of the Celtic tribes inhabiting Britain. These are mostly names of Roman settlements and defensive works left by the Romans during their occupation of Britain. Many of them have survived as place-names or their parts.

Borrowings from Lattin page 182

Semanitic spheres	**Latin**	**OE**	**NE**	**Other Old Germanic dialects**		
				OHG	**Gt**	**O.Icel**
Words con Nected with trade	**Pondo** **Cauponari** **uncia**	**Pund** **Ceapian** **“buy”** **ynce**	**Pound** **inch**	**Pfunt** **koufon** **unza**	**Pund** **Kaupon** **unkja**	**Pund** **kaupa**
Names of Articles Dealt with	**Vinum** **Piper** **prunus**	**Win** **Pipor** **plume**	**Wine** **Pepper** **plum**	**Win** **Pfeffer** **pfruma**	**wein**	**Vin** **Piparr** **Ploma**

In trade						
Names of Household articles	**Catillus Discus cuppa**	**Cytel Disc cuppe**	**Kettle Dish cup**	**Kezzil Tisc kopf**	**Katils - -**	**Ketill Diskr -**

OE str *æt, NE street (Lat. Strata);*

OE weall, NE wall (Lat. Vallum);

OE ceaster " a military camp" (Lat. Castra)

The latter word was often applied to the original Roman encampments in Britain: it has survived as part of place-names in: *Lancaster, Leicester, Manchester, Worcester, Winchester,*

Likewise OE *port,* NE *port* (Lat. *portus)* has survived in the names of towns: *Bridport, Devonport, Portsmouth.*

(3) The third layer of Latin words entered the Old English language in the 6th and 7th centuries when the population of Britain was converted to Christianity. Since Latin was the language of the church it was natural that numerous Latin words (about 500 in all) connected with religion and learning were adopted. Many of them, however, are ultimately of Greek origin (Table 6). Latin influence is also seen in the so-called "translation loan-words", i. e. new words made from the material of the nali've language on the pattern of the source words.

Semantic spheres	**OE**	**NE**	**Latin**
Religious terms	**Antefn** **Biscop** **Cleric** **"a clergyman"** **deofol**	**Anthem** **Bishop** **Clerc** **devil**	**Antiphona (from Greek " *avriφwva")*** **Episcopus** **Clericus** **diabolus**
Terms of learning	**Scol** **Scolere**	**School** **Scholar**	**Schola** **Scholaris**

	Ma3ister	**master**	**magister**

The earliest translation-loans may have been adopted s far back as the continental period, since they are -jmmon. to all Germanic dialects. Consider the names of the days of the week in Table.

Translation - Loan from Latin

Latin	**OE**	**NE**	**Other Old Germanic dialects**	
			OHG	**O.Icel**
Lunae dies. Lit. "the day of the moon"	**Monandæ3**	**Monday**	**Manatag**	**Manadagr**
Martis dies, lit. "the day of Mars"	**Tiwesdæ3**	**Tuesday**	**Zies-tag**	**Tysdagr**
Mercuri dies, lit. "the day of Mercurius"	**Wodnesdæ3**	**Wednesday**		**oðinsdagr**
Lovis dies, lit. "the day of lov (Jupiter)"	**þunresd æ3**	**Thursday**	**Donnerstag**	**þorsdagr**
Veneris dies, lit. "the day of Venus"	**Fri3edæ3**	**Friday**	**Fria-tag**	**Frjadagr**
Solis dies, lit. "the day of the sun"	**Sunnandæ3**	**Sunday**	**Sunnun-tag**	

Other translation-loans are mostly connected with religion and learning, e. g. OE *eor- þbi3en3a* "inhabitant of the earth" (Lat, *terricola);* OE h*æþen*, NE *heathen (Lai. paganus);* OE *tun3olcræft* "astronomy", lit. "knowledge of stars" (Lat. *astronomos),* OE *dælnimend* "participle", lit. "taker of parts" (Lat, *parficipium);* OE *wre3endlic* "Accusative", lit. *accusing* (Lat. *Accusativus).*

Among Latin words borrowed at different periods into Germanic dialects, there was a considerable number of derivatives formed with the suffix -arius denoting nomina agent is. In the course of time this suffix was singled out and came to be used in building up new derivatives in Old Germanic dialects. In English it became one of the most productive suffixes.

This process is illustrated in the following Table . Alongside of the Latin loan-words in the Old English wordstock containing the suffix some hybrids are shown built up from an English stem and the borrowed suffix.

Latin borrowings	**New derivatives**
OE tolnere (from Lat. Tolonarius "tax-gatherer")	**Fiscere, NE fisher**
OE sutere (from Lat. Sutor "shoemaker")	
OE scolere (from Lat. Scholaris), NE scholar	**Leornere "pupil"**
	Fu3elere, NE fowler
	Writere, NE writer
	Bæcere, NE baker

Celtic Borrowings

After their migration to Britain the Germanic tribes came into contact with the Celtic tribes inhabiting the island. The Celtic element in the Old English wordstock very small. The borrowed words do not exceed a dozen Among the words which may be regarded as Celtic loan words are the following:

Celtic Borrowings

OE dun, NE down "hill" (O.Irishdun)
OE binn, NE bin (Gael. Benn, Welsh ben)
OE cumb, NE dial. Comb " a small valley" (Welsh cwm)

The word *cumb* is also found in some place-names *Duncombe, Batcombe, Eastcomb, and others.*

Some Celtic words have survived in the names of rivers, mountains and towns:

NE *Avon,* the name of a river; also *Stratford-on- Avon,* the birthplace of Shakespeare. (Gael. Amhuin "river");

NE dial. *Loch* (usually as part of a proper name: Loch Lomond – Gael. Loch "lake").

2..WORD-FORMATION

The Morphological Structure of the Word in Old English

All words in the Old English wordstock fall into: (1) simple; (2) derived and (3) compound.

It must be remembered, however, that many of the Old English simple words when traced into the past appear to have been derived or even compound, having later undergone the process of simplification of their morphological structure. Quite a number of them were simplified already in Common Germanic.

Many original compounds must have been simplified in Old English proper. Thus, OE *hlaford,* NE *lord,* a compound of *hlaf* and *weard,* appears to be simple already in Old English, having lost its connection with the component parts, both in form and meaning.

Word Derivation

In Old English derivation was represented by affixation and by means of sound alternations.

Sound alternations in the root-morpheme as a means of word-building or word differentiation are found in a great number of Old English words. Etymologically they go back to different sources: they can either be traced to Common Indo-European, or to Common Germanic or else to specifically Old English sound changes.

The majority of sound alternations found in Old English were vowel alternations going back either to Indo-European ablaut (gradation) or to Old English umlaut (palatal mutation).

It should be understood, however, that the two kinds of alternations, though commonly used to differentiate words in Old English, are widely different from a historical viewpoint. Vowel gradation, though usually found in combination with suffixation, was a separate word-bmlding means, for it was not a phonetically conditioned change. Strictly speaking, sound alternations due to palatal mutation were consequences of another word-building means applied, namely suffixation (accompanied by certain positional sound changes in Early Old English). With this reservation we can regard both kinds of vowel alternations in Old English as a means of word-building or word differentiation.

Word-formation by means of vowel gradation was no longer productive in Old English, the majority of words with this kind of sound alternations being inherited from the Common Germanic period. It was most frequently used in differentiating verbs and nouns of the same root together with a suffix. Compare:

OE beran, NE bear – OE bær, NE bier

OE sprecan, NE speak- OE spræce, NE speech

It was also found in differentiating verbs, the derived ones often being the so-called "causative verbs", e. g.

OE drincan, NE drink and OE drencan, NE drench

OE risan, NE rise - OE ræran, NE rear

OE sittan, NE sit –OE settan, NE set

Vowel alternations due to palatal mutation are always found in combination with suffixation, for as explained above, they arose as a result of positional changes of the root vowel caused by the element -i- or -j- contained in the suffix.

Sound alternations of this type served to differentiate various parts of speech coming from the same root:

(a) nouns and verbs:

OE dom, NE doom- OE deman, NE deem

Oe blod, NE blood- OE bledan, NE bleed

OE talu, NE tale – OE tellan, NE tell

(b) adjectives and verbs:

OE full, NE full- OE fyllan, NE fill

OE hal, NE whole – OE hælan, NE heal

c) nouns and adjectives:

OE lon3, NE long _ OE len3þu, NE length

OE brad, NE broad – OE br ædu "breadth"

d) nouns of the same root:

OE 3od, NE god _ OE 3yden, "goddess"

e) adjectives of the same root:

OE weorþ, NE worth – OE wyrþi3, NE worthy

The main means of word-formation from one root was affixation subdivided into suffixation and pref i xa t i on.

Prefixation in Old English as in all the Old Germanic languages was most typical of verb-formation. A considerable number of derivatives formed with the help of prefixes were also found among nominal parts of speech but they were mostly secondary formations. Only negative prefixes were productive in the

formation of nouns and adjectives, some of them even being confined to these parts of speech alone, e. g. wan-, or-.

The main function of prefixation was to modify the lexical meaning of a stem without changing the part of speech to which it belonged.

Among the most productive Old English prefixes we can mention:

a-	**OE a-faran "depart"**
Be-	**OE be-settan , NE beset**
For-	**OE for-don "destroy"**
fore	**OE fore-sec3an "predict"**
3e-	**OE 3e-rinnan "run together"**
Mis-	**OE mis-cweþan "speak incorrectly**
Un-	**OE un-wis-dom, NE unwisdom**

It should be pointed out that often one and the same meaning could be imparted to the stem by different prefixes. Thus several synonymous prefixes were used in Old English to make the meaning of a stem negative or contrary to what it expressed. They were u**n-, mis**-, **wan-, or-.** Compare:

OE un-hal, wan-hal "unhealthy" – hal "healthy"
OE un-mæte, or- mæte "immense" - mæte "small"

Many prefixes lost their original concrete meaning and developed a very general meaning. Practically in such cases the meaning of words with or without a prefix did not differ, e. g. OE 3i*tan* — *be-3itan* "get"; OE *cwellan* — *a-cwellan* "kill"; OE *brecan* — *for-brecan* "break".

Some prefixes (a-, 3e-) were sometimes employed to impart a perfective meaning to verbs, e. g. *writan, NE write* — *a-writan* "write down"; *faran* "go" — 3e-*faran* "arrive".

In conclusion it should be mentioned that already in Old English the system of prefixation was becoming less orderly and accurate which was evidenced by the development of a very vague meaning of most prefixes, their function being mostly to intensify the meaning of a verb or to impart the meaning of perfectiveness. This must have been one of the reasons for the later destruction and rearrangement of the system.

Suffixation in Old English as in all the Old Germanic languages was most productive in nouns and adjectives.

Suffixes were used not only to modify the lexical meaning of the stem, but also to transform the word into another part of speech.

Old English suffixes used to build nouns fell under two groups: (1) suffixes of concrete nouns, (2) suffixes of abstract nouns.

Suffixes of concrete nouns were not numerous, most of them being used to build nomina agentis. One of the most productive suffixes of this group was -ere, borrowed from Latin, e. g. OE *domere* "judge". This suffix gradually ousted the native suffix -nd: OE *demend* "judge"; OE *freond,* NE *friend.* Other suffixes of nomina agentis were used to build up Feminine nouns: -estre (OE b*æcestre* "woman-baker"); -en (OE m*æ3den,* NE *maiden).*

Suffixes of abstract nouns were added either to a verb-stem to form nouns denoting actions, e. g. –un3: OE *huntun3,* NE *hunting;* -a*þ* ", -o*þ* ": OE *hunto*þ "hunting", or to an adjective-stem forming abstract nouns denoting some quality or property, e. g. -nes, -nis: OE *blindnes,* NE *blindness;* - *þ* : OE *lengþu,* NE *length',* -u: OE *hætu,* NE *heat.*

Derivation of adjectives by means of suffixes was likewise widely used in Old English. About half the adjectives known to us are built up with the help of suffixes: -ede: OE *hocede* "curved"; -en: OE *wyllen,* NE *woolen;* -i3: OE *mihli3,* NE *mighty;* OE *wyrþi3,,* NE *worthy;* -isc: OE *cildisc,* NE *childish;* OE *denisc,* NE *Danish;* -sum: OE *friþsum* "peaceful".

A characteristic feature of Old English suffixation was the existence of a number of synonymous suffixes. A large number of synonyms were formed by adding different suffixes to the same root. Compare: OE l*engu — lengþu,* NE *length;* OE *heahþu — heahnes* "height"; OE *huntoþ— huntun3,,* NE *hunting;* OE *stanen — stBni3* "stony".

Besides the ancient suffixes almost all of which had parallels in other Germanic languages, new suffixes were developing in Old English from the second root-morphemes of compound words. These root-morphemes, namely OE -dom, -had, -scipe, -full, -leas, -lie, gradually grew isolated in meaning (and often in form) from the corresponding independent words and eventually turned into suffixes, e. g. OE *dom* used as an independent word had the following meanings: "judgement", "law"; "free will"; "choice"; "honour"; "dignity".

When used in some compounds as a root-morpheme it preserved its original meanings, e. g. OE *dom-boc* "a book of laws".

In the course of time it developed a very general meaning displaying the tendency to become a suffix denoting quality, state or condition; compare OE *wis-dom,* NE *wisdom;* OE *freo-dom,* NE *freedom.*

Sometimes the shortening of the vowel in the second component showed that the connection of the latter with the independent word had become very loose as regards the form, which together with the semantic isolation testifies to the appearance of a word-building element. This can be observed in the case of OE -lic.

Compare: -OE lic "a body" and OE *d æ3 -lic,* NE *daily;* OE *freond-lic,* NE *friendly;* OE *luf-lic,* NE *lovely,* where the vowel i is short.

Word Composition

Word composition was another very important means of word-formation in Old English.

Old English compound words were made up either by combining two roots or stems with or without a connecting vowel or by combining two words after the pattern of a free word combination. Accordingly, they fall into two groups: (A) primary compounds and (B) secondary compounds,

Both types were represented by a number of patterns in noun-, verb- and adjective-formation. The second components of compound words were usually, though not always, expressed by respective parts of speech (e. g. a noun in a compound noun), while the first components varied.

The two types of word composition will be considered below separately.

A. Primary Compounds

Primary compounds are those built by combining two or more stems. This type of composition was especially productive in nouns and adjectives. In most of these compound words the first component part served as an attribute to the second.

Within every part of speech primary compounds can be classified according to their structural pattern:

/. *Compound Nouns*

(1) Nouns formed after the pattern noun-stem + noun- stem. This was the main pattern in nominal compounds: OE *winter-tid,* NE *winter-tide;* OE g*od-sunu,* NE *godson.*

(2) adjective-stem + noun-stem: OE *mid-niht,* NE *midnight;* OE *neah-bur,* NE *neighbour.*

(3) verb-stem + noun-stem: OE *bæc-hus* "bakery"; OE *writ-bred* "writing-table".

Nominal compounds of type (3) are found only in the West Germanic languages and are evidently of later development.

//. *Compound Adjectives*

Adjectives were built by combining:

(1) noun-stem + adjective-stem: OE *ar-fæst* "merciful"; OE *mylen-scearp* "sharp".

(2) adjective-stem + adjective-stem: OE *wid-3al* "wandering".

Among compound adjectives it is customary to distinguish compounds of the type "bahuvrihi", very widely used in Old English poetry. These compounds have noun-stems as their second element but the whole formation serves as an adjective, e. g.

bær-fot "bare-footed", lit. "bare foot"; *þri-fete* "three-footed", lit. "three feet"; *an-ea3e* "one-eyed", lit. "one eye".

Compound verbs were not numerous in Old English which may be accounted for by a highly developed system of verb prefixes. Prefixation was certainly the chief means of verb-formation.

Moreover, it should be remembered that if the first elements of compound verbs were originally adverbs or prepositions, they were easily transformed into prefixes, and compound verbs were thus changed into derived ones. However, later verb compounds grew both in number and in structural types though they never became as numerous and diverse as nominal compounds. The following structural types of verb compounds in Old English could be singled out:

(1) noun-stem + verb-stem: OE *d æl-niman* "take part".

(2) adjective-stem + verb-stem: OE *ful-fyllan,* NE *fulfill.*

In primary compounds the first component very often preserved its stem-suffix used in a new function—as a connecting vowel, e. g.

OE *ende-laf* "the last remnant" where *ende* — was an i-stem (the stem-suffix i > **e).**

OE ma3o- *þ*e3n "servant" where *ma3o* — belonged to u-stems (u >a).

But alongside of the compounds in which the old stem-suffix was preserved, in many Old English compounds there appeared a connecting vowel which cannot be related to any stem-suffix. This vowel acted as a formal element combining two stems into a compound word.

Various vowels found in the bridge of compounds in Early Old English were in the course of time generalized into one vowel—e, which became a purely formal connecting element. Compare:

OE *searocræft* "intrigue" where *searo-* is a wa-stem (w became u and then o);

OE *searecræft* where -e- is a generalized connecting vowel.

Quite commonly we find parallel compound formations with and without a connecting vowel:

OE *folc-firen* "folk-crime", f*olc-3etrum* "a host of people" and *folce-firen, folce-3etrum* where -e- is a connecting vowel.

B. Secondary Compounds

Secondary compounds are chronologically a latectde-velopment and are relatively rare in Old English. They go back to free syntactical combinations which grew morphologically and semantically isolated. They were usually built after the pattern: "noun-stem modified by another noun in the Genitive case, e. g.

OE *rædes-man* "councillor", lit, "man of advice": *rædes* (Gen. Sing, of *rad* "advice")-] + man, NE *man.*

OE *bo3en – stren3,* lit. "string of a bow", NE *bowstring:* bo3en (Gen. Sing, of bo3a, NE *bow)+ stren3,* NE string.

OE *nunnan- mynster* "nunnery", lit. "monastery for nuns": *nunnan* (Gen. Pl. of *nunne,* NE *nun)* + *mynster* , NE *minster.*

It should be understood that no hard and East line can be drawn between the two principal means of word-formation: composition and derivation. First of all, it must be remembered that there took place a constant transition from one type to the other. Secondly, the close interconnection between the two means is revealed in the formation of derivational compounds, i. e. words built up by simultaneous application of two word-building means: suffixation and composition, e. g. in OE *an-hyrned "one –horned".*

SEMANTIC AND STYLISTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OLD ENGLISH WORDSTOCK

The Old English wordstock, as far as we know, was not homogeneous either stylistically or semantically. We can single out at least three distinct spheres of usage in Old English according to which all Old English words can be roughly classified into the following, groups: (1) stylistically neutral words, (2) poetic words, (3) learned words.

Words of each sphere differ in stability, semantic significance and specific relations with the other words. They are more or less homogeneous etymologically.

Stylistically Neutral Words

The bulk of the Old English wordstock consisted of words widely and commonly used and neutral in their stylistic colouring. They denoted the most important notions and objects of everyday life, referring to various semantic spheres.

It is noteworthy that most words of the common wordstock were characterized by great stability, the majority of them being preserved in Modern English.

In all periods of the history of English, since Old English times, these words served as the basis for building up the vocabulary, as they were used to fonfc. new derivatives and compounds as well as phraseological units. Consider, for example, the following: OE *wæter,* NE *water:*

OE *wæter-buk* "pitcher"; OE *wæter-cla þ* "towel"; OE w*æterian* (verb) "water"; OE *wæteri3,* NE *watery;* OE w*æter-leas,* NE *waterless;* OE w*æter-we3,* NE *water way;* OE *wæter-will* "spring of water".

It is also significant that many words of this group were polysemantic. In that they differed from words of other spheres of application. For example, OE *word* could mean: (1) a word; (2) a saying, a sentence; (3) a language, a style; (4) a verb. OE *wæter* had the following meanings: (1) water, (2) rain, (3) a stream, (4) a lake.

In conclusion it should be pointed out that the bulk of common words were of native origin and a considerable number of them had parallels in other Germanic languages.

Poetic Words

Characteristic of Old English was the existence of a special poetic vocabulary restricted in its use to poetic words. Compare, for example, the following Old English poetic words and their synonyms commonly used in prose works.

Poetic words

poetic	**common**	**NE**
Wer, 3uma	**Man**	**Man**
3amal	**Eald**	**Old**
Leode, firas	**Folc**	**Folk**
Eoh	**Hors**	**Horse**
Tid, mæl	**Tima**	**Time**
Wine	**Freond**	**Friend**
Hild	**Feoht**	**Fight**
Maþelian	**Sprecan**	**Speak**
breotan	**brecan**	**break**

As can be seen from further history, poetic words, as a rule, lacked stability and most of them went out of use already in Middle English. Note that all the poetic words given above are obsolete now.

Among Old English poetic words a special place is occupied by **kennings**. The term "kenning" denotes a special circumlocution used in place of an ordinary noun. Kennings were very widely employed in Old English poetry, e. g.

OE *aesc-ple3a* "battle", lit. "the play of spears" *ban-cofa* "body", lit. "the dwelling of bones"

Breost-hord “thought”, lit. “the treasure of the breast”

On the whole, the Old English poetic vocabulary is characterized by an astonishing wealth of synonyms through which it attained a remarkable flexibility. Very often to express a certain notion, especially notions of frequent occurrence in Old English poetry, such as “battle”, “warrior”, “sea”, “ship”, “shield”, "sword" and a large number of words available, sometimes as many as 30 words for one idea.

Thus, there were 37 words denoting a warrior only in *Beowulf.* Among them:

Special poetic terms: *beorn, rinc, sec3, þe3n;*

Kennings: 3u þ-3elaca, lit. “comrade in war”, hilde-wulf, lit. “ a war-wolf’; 3u –wi3a, lit. “fighting man”, 3ar-wi3a, lit. “spear-fighter”; 3ar-berend, lit. “a spear-bearer”.

Sometimes common words were used in poetry in a figurative sense, e. g, OE *sund* "power of swimming" was used in poetic works in the meaning of "sea". OE *wudu, HE wood* is found in poetry in a special, figurative meaning "ship".

Learned Words

A considerable number of Old English words were used neither in everyday speech, nor in poetry. These are mostly words connected with religion and learning. They are usually referred to as learned words. For example;

Learned words

OE	**NE (or translation)**
Pistol	**Letter**
Ma3ister	**Master**
Fers	**Verse**
Declinian	**Decline**
Declinun3	**Declension**
Nemni3endlic	**Nominative case**

Lecture 11. Historical Background from the 12th to the 14th century. Middle English dialects and written records.

Problems to be discussed:

1. Economic and social conditions.

2. The Scandinavian invasion.

3. England under the Normans.

3.1. The Norman Conquest.

3.2. The struggle between English and French.

4. Middle English dialects. The earliest records.

5.The London dialect and flourishing of literature in the late 14th century

6. Changes in the alphabet and spelling.

Key words: The Scandinavian invasion, The Norman Conquest, Wessex, the *Ormulum;*

1.ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS

The Old English period in the history of the language corresponds to the transition stage from the tribal and the slave-owning systems to the feudal system in the history of Britain. In the 11th century feudalism was already well established in Britain. Most freemen had lost their personal freedom and had turned into villains bound to their lord and land; the feudal lord had become a semi-independent cognate.

Under natural economy most of the things needed for the life of the lord and the peasant were produced on the estate. The feudal holdings were cut off from their neighbours by tolls, taxes, and various regulations concerning settlement, travelling, and employment. Consequently, there was little intercourse between the various regions of the country. Due to the economic and social isolation of the districts the differences between the local dialects, prevalent in Old English persisted and were even intensified in Middle English.

Besides the economics and social factors the disunity of the language must have been accentuated by certain political events in the history of Britain. These events, namely the foreign invasions, influenced the language in other respects as well, and therefore deserve special consideration.

2. THE SCANDINAVIAN INVASIONS

We may recall here that since the year 787 England had been ravaged by Scandinavian invaders.

The earliest raids of the Scandinavians (or the Danes) on peaceful English coastal towns were simply predatory, such as the notorious destruction of the monastery at Lindisfarne. In spite of the resistance of the English the attacks continued with short intermissions, and by the end of the 9th century the Danes had succeeded in obtaining a permanent footing in England. Many Scandinavian settlements were set up in North East England.

After a few decisive victories over the Danes under King Alfred, England was divided into two parts by the Peace Treaty of Wedmore (878): the lands of the Anglo-Saxons united

under Wessex and the territory ruled by the Danes known as Danelaw. In the following hundred years Danelaw was gradually reconquered. Its Scandinavian character, however, was maintained, as many Scandinavians had crossed the North Sea to make their permanent home in Britain.

The Scandinavians and the English lived close together and did not differ either in social rank or in the level of culture. Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed by the natives intermixed the more easily as they were very much alike in language, their dialects belonging to the same linguistic group.

The Scandinavian raids were renewed in the late 10th century under Sweyne, king of Denmark and Norway; king Canute, Sweyne's successor, managed to draw Britain into the Danish Empire, although no economic or cultural unity was ever achieved. The Anglo-Saxon lords had the actual control of Britain and after Canute's death (1042) his Empire broke up.

The lengthy contacts with the Old Scandinavian language and the intermixture of languages in the regions of Scandinavian settlement had a considerable effect on the English language, which becomes apparent in Middle English records. The Scandinavian influence increased the differences between the local dialects: we find the largest admixture of Scandinavian words in Middle English records coming from the North Eastern regions, whereas the early records from other parts of the country are devoid of Scandinavian features. Later, the Scandinavian element was incorporated in the language of other regions as well.

Of all the linguistic levels the wordstock was most of all affected by the Scandinavian influence; yet the other levels bear some of its traces too *.

3. ENGLAND UNDER THE NORMANS

3.1. The Norman Conquest

Soon after Canute's death the old Anglo-Saxon line was restored, but their reign was short-lived. The new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042-1066), who had been brought up in France at the Norman court, brought over many Norman nobles and monks and distributed among them English lands and wealth. He not only spoke French himself but insisted on its being spoken by the nobles at his court. William, Duke of Normandy, visited his court and it was rumoured that Edward appointed him his successor. However, the government of the country was still in the hands of Anglo-Saxon feudal lords, the most powerful, of them being earl Godwin of Wessex.

In 1066, upon Edward's death, the Elders (OE Witan) proclaimed Harold, son of Earl Godwin, king of England. As soon as the news reached Williams of Normandy, he mustered a big army by the promise of land and plunder, and, with a support of the Pope, landed in Britain. In the famous battle of Hastings, fought in October 1066, Harold was killed, and the English were defeated. This date of commonly known as the date of the Norman Conquest of Britain, though the real occupation of the country was not completed until a few years later. After the battle of Hastings William bypassed London cutting it off from the North and made the Witan of London and the bishops at Westminster Abbey crown him king. William and his barons laid waste many lands in England burning down villages and estates; they devastated and almost depopulated Mercia and Northumbria which tried to rise against the conquerors. Scores of

Norman castles – still to be seen in Britain – were erected by William and his followers all over the country.

The Norman Conquest provided the political super structure corresponding to the feudal system which had already been evolved in Britain. Most of the lands of the Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of the Norman nobles and the king himself – William's own possessions comprised about one third of the country. The Normans occupied all the important posts in the country.

Immigration from France was easy, since the new British kings retained Normandy and about a hundred years later took possession of the whole western half of France, thus bringing England into still closer contact with the continent. French monks, tradesmen, and craftsmen flooded the south-western towns of England, so that not only the higher nobility but also much of the middle class was French.

3.2. The Struggle between English and French

The Norman Conquest was not only a great event in British political history but it was also the greatest single event in the history of the English language.

The conquerors had originally come from Scandinavia (compare "Norman" and "Northmen"). About one hundred and fifty years before their Conquest of Britain they seized the valley of the Seine and settled in what was henceforth known as Normandy. In the course of time they were assimilated by the French and in the 11th century came to Britain as French speakers and as bearers of French culture. They spoke the Northern dialect of the French language, in some minor points differing from Central French. Their tongue in England is usually referred to as Anglo-Norman; for the present purpose we shall call it "French".

One of the most significant consequences of the Norman domination in Britain is to be seen in the use of the French language in many spheres of British political and social life. For almost three hundred years French was the official language of the king's court, the language of the law courts, the church and the castle. It was the everyday language of most nobles and of many townspeople in the south-east. The intellectual life and education were in the hands of French-speaking people, and boys at school were taught to translate their Latin into French instead of English.

The lower classes and especially the country, who made up the bulk of the population, held fast to their own tongue. Thus the two languages coexisted and gradually permeated each other. The Norman barons and the French town-dwellers had to pick up English words to make themselves understood, while the English people began to use French words in current speech. A writer of the 12th century, John Salisbury, remarked disapprovingly that it had become modish to sprinkle one's speech with French. Translators of French books used a large number of French words in their translations and imitated the sentence structure of the original, unable to find good English equivalents.

In the course of the 14th century the English language gradually took the place of French as the language of literature and the official language of the government and ousted French from all social spheres. English was bound to win in the struggle, for it was the living language of the

people, while French in Britain was cut off from the living speech of France and was socially and geographically restricted.

Two hundred years after the Normans Conquest, I 1258, Henry III issued a *Proclamation* to the counselors elected to sit in Parliament from all parts of England, in three official languages: French, Latin and English. This was the first official document after the conquest to be written in English in 1349 it was ruled that English should be used in schools. In 1362 Edward III gave his consent to an act of Parliament ordaining that English should be used in the law courts, since "French has become much unknown in the realm". In the same year Parliament, for the first time, was opened with a speech in English.

Thus in the late 14th century English was re-established as the official language of the country. Its revival as a literary language dates from the 14th century as well (see paragraphs 4 and 5 below).

The three hundred years of domination of the French language in many spheres of life affected the English language more than any other single foreign influence before or after. The greater French influence in the South and in the higher ranks of society led to greater dialectal differences both regional and social. The impact of French on the vocabulary can hardly be exaggerated: the borrowings reflect the spheres of Norma influence on English life.

A more specific influence was exercised on the alphabet and spelling. Even the phonetic structure of the language, especially word accentuation, was indirectly affected by the tremendous number of French borrowings adopted by the English language. It is, however, a matter of controversy whether the influence of French could have affected the grammatical structure of the language: some authors maintain that the close contact with a foreign language may have played a role in the general decay of the inflections and the compensatory growth of analytical forms.

4. MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS.

THE EARLIEST RECORDS

As mentioned before, the language of the Middle English period was made up a number of local dialects. The disunity inherited from the Old English times had considerable increased due to the isolation of districts in the feudal state and to the two foreign influences.

Table 1 shows the main dialects groups in Middle English and their Old English sources; it also shows the origin of the mixed dialect of London which shifted from the South Western to the East Midland type in the course of the Middle English period. The names of the more important dialects within the groups are given in parentheses.

Middle English Dialects

OE	ME
Northumbrian	NORTHERN (Northern, Lowland Scottish)
Mercian	MIDLAND (West Midland, East Midland, South-West Midland)

	LONDON
West Saxon Kentish	SOUTHERN (South-Western) KENTISH

The earliest records of the Middle English period are written in the local dialects, for no literary standard was yet in existence. We shall mention here but a few of the early records dating from the time before the English language was re-established as the language of literature and before the London dialect became the prevalent literary from.

We ought to keep in mind that for some time after the Norman conquest literature in the English language was practically nonexistent. In some dialects this gap covers a period of almost two hundred years.

Most of the texts of the 12th and the 13th centuries treat of religious matter, They are homilies and sermons in prose and verse, rules for monastic life, fragments from the Bible, psalms and players. Many of them are translations from French or Latin originals.

One of the early works, the *Ormulum*, is of particular interest for the history of English sounds and spelling. It is a metrical paraphrase of the Bible written in about 1200 by a monk, Orm, in the East Midland dialect. The author made an attempt to introduce some new consisted principles into English spelling: he regularly used double letters to indicate consonants standing after short vowels or to indicate long consonants. Here are some lines from the *Ormulum* where the author recommends that the copyist should follow his rules:

By the side of religious works there sprang up a new king of secular literature, romances of chivalry, at first in imitation or as translations of French originals. The earliest and also the most popular was Layamon's *Brut*, a poem composed in the late 12th century in the West Midland dialect. Layamon translated the popular Anglo-Norman romance *Brut*, which in its turn was a versified rendering of the Latin *Historia Regum Britanniya.* ** We should also mention some original English romances which deal with more recent events or distinctly English themes: episodes from the Crusades of the Scandinavian invasions, e.g. *Havelok the Dane* and *King Horn* composed in the East Midland dialect. The best examples of this kind of literature, however, date from the late 14th century which witnessed the flourishing of many genres and the formation of a literary language.

5. THE LONDON DIALECT AND THE FLOURISHING OF LITERATURE IN THE LATE 14TH CENTURY

In the 14th century, when English revived as the official and the written language, the four main dialects, Northern, Southern, West Midland and East Midland, were struggling for supremacy by none of them was destined to predominate.

Literary English originated from the language of the 14th century London, which had development from several local dialects. The history of the London dialect reveals to us the sources of the literary language in the Late Middle English period (as well as the main sources of the national English language, both in its written and spoken forms).

It is common knowledge that the history of London reaches back to roman and even pre-Roman days. Already in Old English times London was by far the biggest town in Britain, although the capital of Wessex – the main Old English kingdom – was Winchester. It may be interesting to recall that in 1018 one eight of the Danegeld collected from all over the country came from London. The capital was transferred to London a few years before the Norman Conquest.

The Early Middle English records made in London – beginning with the London *Proclamation* of 1258 – show that the dialect of London came from as East Saxon dialect, or, in terms of the Middle English division, from the south-western variety of the Southern dialect group. Later records show that be speech of London becomes more mixed, with East Midland features gradually prevailing over the Southern features. The most likely explanation for the change of the dialect type and for the mixed character of London speech in Middle English lies in the history of the London population.

In the 12th and 13th centuries the inhabitants of London came from the neighbouring south-western districts. In the middle of the 14th century London was practically depopulated during the Black Death (1348-1349) and later outbreaks of bubonic plague. It has been estimated that about one third of the population of Britain died in the epidemics, the highest proportion of death falling to London. The depopulation was speedily made good, and in 1377 London had already 35,000 inhabitants.

Most of the new arrivals came from the East Midlands: Norfolk, Suffolk, and other populous and wealthy counties of Medieval England, - although not bordering immediately on the capital. Consequently, in the late 14th century the speech of the Londoners was brought much closer to the East Midland dialect. From the 14th century onwards a large number of official and literary papers produced in London show obvious East Midland dialectal features. The London dialect becomes largely East Midland in character.

The flourishing of literature in the second half of the 14th century, apart from its cultural significance, testifies to the establishment of the London dialect as the library language. Some authors wrote in their local dialect (other than London); others represent various combinations of London and regional traits. Towards the close of the century more and more works were written in the London dialect, which became the most common form of language used in literature.

One of the prominent authors of the time was John de Trevisa of Cornwall. In 1392 he completed the translation of seven books on world history, *Polychronicon* by Ranulf Higden, from Latin into the South-Western dialect of English. Among other information he inserted there some curious remarks commenting on Higden's observations about the English language. Here is a fragment from their dialogue literally rendered in Modern English: "Ranulf Higden: It seems a great wonder how Englishmen and their own language and tongue is so diverse in sound in this one island and the language of Normandy coming from another land has one manner (of) sound among all men that speak it right in England. Trevisa: Nevertheless there as many diverse manners of French in the realm of France as diverse manners of English in the realm of England. Ranulf Higden: Men of the East with men of the West, as it were under the same part of heaven, accord more in the sound of their speech than men of the North with men of the South; therefore the Mercians, who lived in Central England, as they are neighbours of the ends of England,

understand the language of those ends, northern and southern, better than people from the North and from the South understand each other.

Of greatest linguistic consequence was the activity of John Wyclif, the forerunner of the English Reformation. His most important contribution to English prose was his (and his pupils) translation of the Bible completed in 1384. he also wrote and distributed pamphlets protesting against the corruption of the Church. Wyclif's Bible was often copied in manuscript and was read by many people. Written in the London dialect it played an important role in the spreading of this form of English.

The famous poem of William Langland the *Vision Concerning Piers the Plowman* was written in a dialect combining West Midland and London features. It is an allegory and a satire attacking the vices and weaknesses of various social classes and sympathizing with the wretchedness of the poor. Langland's poem is believed to be that last poem written in Old English alliterative verse. His contemporaries employed the end-rhyme and the regular rhythm which laid the basis of the syllabo-tonic verse.

John Gower, another outstanding poet of the time, was born in Kent, but there are not many Kentisms in his London dialect. His first poems were written in Anglo-Norman and in Latin. His longest English poem is *Confessio Amantis,* a composition of 40,000 octo-syllabic lines. It contains a collection of stories taken from various sources and for a time was almost as popular as the *Canterbury Tales,* the greatest poem of Geoffrey Chaucer.

Many more names might be mentioned but all of them were certainly overshadowed by that of Geoffrey Chaucer, the greatest English writer before the age of Shakespeare. A hundred years later William Caxton, the first printer, called him "the worshipful father and first founder and embelisher of ornate eloquence in our language". In many modern manuals on the history of the English literature or the English language Chaucer is described as the founder of the English literary language.

Chaucer was born about the year 1340 and had the most varied experience as student, courtier, soldier, ambassador, official, and member of Parliament. He mixed freely with all sorts and conditions of men and in his works gave true and vivid picture of contemporary England. Chaucer's the most important work in his *Cantenbury Tales,* a series of stories told by a number of pilgrims on their way to Canterbury. In the Prologue to the poem he presents in the pilgrims a gallery of life-like portraits taken from all walks of life.

Chaucer wrote in a dialect which in the main coincided with that used in documents produced in London shortly before his time and for a long while after. Although he did not "create" the literary language, as a poet of outstanding talent he made better use of it than his contemporaries and set up a pattern of the literary language to be followed in the 14^{th} and 15^{th} centuries. His poems were copied so many times that over sixty manuscripts of the *Canterbury Tales* have survived today. His books were among the first to be printed in England, hundred years after their composition.

Chaucer's literary language based on the mixed (largely East Midland) dialect of London is known as classical Middle English; in the 15^{th} and 16^{th} centuries it became the basis of the national standard form of the written language.

An extract from Chaucer's main work, the *Canterbury Tales*, is given in the next

Letters indicating vowels	Letters indicating consonants

paragraph.

6. CHANGES IN THE ALPHABET AND SPELLING

During the 13th and 14th centuries many charges were made in the English alphabet and the graphic system. They pertain to the number of letters used by the scribes, the shapes of letters and their sound values. These innovations bring the written from of the word much closer to what we are accustomed to in Modern English. Since for quite a long time practically all writing in England was in the hands of Anglo-Norman scribes, many of the charges – though not all – appeared due to French influence.

Several Old English symbols were discarded: the two runes "thorn" and "wen" as well as the letter "yogh" fell into disuse and gave place to the digraph **th**, the doubled letter **u (w "**double u") and g respectively. The ligature ae went out of use, as did the diacritics indicating the length of vowels. A number of new letter and especially digraphs were added to indicate the old sounds or the new sounds arising in Middle English: **k, v, q,** (in the digraph **qu), j,** the digraph **gp,** etc. Some of the letters and digraph were borrowed directly from French: **ou** to denote [u:]**, ch** for [tj]; others appear to have been introduced in order to avoid confusion: thus **o** with the value [u] came to be used instead of the former **u** when it stood next to the letters **n, m,** or **v,** as they were all made up of down strokes difficult to distinguish (thus OE *munuc* became ME *monk* [mungk], NE *monk;* OE *lufu* became ME *love* [luve], NE *love*). A few alterations must have been purely ornamental; thus the use of the letters **y** and **w** at the end of words with the same sound values as **i** and **u** can be attributed to the desire of the scribes to finish the word with a curve. Campare ME *mine* ['mi:ne], NE *mine* and ME *my* [mi:], NE *my*.

The table can be used for reference while reading Middle English texts as it lists the features usually preserved in modern editions. It should be noted that in Middle English records the length of vowels is not marked, unless it is shown by double letters or digraphs as indicated in the table. Single letters could stand for short sounds, e.g. ME *every* ['everi], NE *every*, and also for long ones, e.g. ME *swete* ['swe:te], *he* [he:], NE *sweet, he.* The quantity of the vowel often depended on phonetic conditions, such as the nature of the syllable and the succeeding consonants . In the transcribed extract below the length of vowels is marked in the usual way.

Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling

Single letters	
o [ ] [o] or [u] y as well as i [i]	c [s] or [k] g [d3] or [g] v often spelt as u [v] j [d3] k [k]
Digraphs	
ee [e:] or [ε:] ie [e:] oo [o:] [ ] ou [u:] or [ou] ow [u:] [ou]	ch, tch [tʃ] dg [d3] gh [x] [x'] qu [kw] th [θ] [∂] sh, sch, ssh [ʃ] wh [hw]

Read the opening stanza of the famous Prologue to Chaucer's *Cantenbury Tales* pronouncing the words as transcribed under the lines; the stresses are shown as required by the iambic meter of the poem and are therefore marked both in polysyllabic and monosyllabic words.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. In what respects did the feudal system affect the development of the language?
2. Name the Middle English dialects and a written record in each of them.

LECTURE 12. THE FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Problems to be discussed:

1. Historical background from the 15th to the 17th century.

2. Growth of capitalist relations.

3. Centralisation of the country. Foreign contacts.

4. Conditions for linguistic unity.

5. The formation of the national literary language. Some effects of the Renaissance. The introduction of printing and the fixation of the written standard.

6. Growth of literature in the Early New English language.

7. The formation of the spoken standard.

8. New sources of information about language history in the 15th and 16th centuries.

9. The normalizing tendencies in the 17th and 18th centuries. Attempts to improve the language. The early prescriptive grammars.

10. The great lexicographers of the 18th century.

11 Geographical expansion of English.

Key words: John Gower, Renaissance, William Caxton, Geoffrey Chaucer;

1.Historical background from the 15th to the 17th century

The formation of the national English language, or Standard English, is considered to date from the period between the 15th and the 17th centuries. After that time the language continued to change, yet henceforth one can speak of the evolution of Standard English instead of tracing the similar or different trends in the history of its dialects.

We must mention at least two of the external factors that led to this development: the unification of the country and the progress of culture. Other historical events, such as the increased foreign contacts, produced a more specific kind of influence on the language: they affected the wordstock.

2. Growth of Capitalist Relations

Already between the 12th and 14th centuries, within the feudal system, new economic relations began to take shape. The villain was superseded by the copy-holder, and ultimately, by the rent-paying tenant. With the increased interest in commercial profits, feudal oppression grew and the conditions of the peasants deteriorated. Social discontent showed itself in the famous peasants revolts of the 14th and 15th centuries (incidentally the uprising under Wat Tyler in 1381 was the subject of the most outstanding poem of John Gower, *Vox Clamantis*, written in Latin).

The village artisans and craftsmen travelled about the country looking for a greater market for their produce. They settled in the old towns and founded new ones near the big monasteries, on the rivers and at the cross-roads. The crafts became separated from agriculture, and new social groups came into being: the poor townspeople (apprentices and artisans), the town middle class and the rich merchants, owners of workshops, and money- lenders.

The 15th and the 16th centuries saw other striking changes in the life of the country. Trade had extended beyond the local boundaries and apart from farming and cattle-breeding an important wool trade an industry was carried on in the country-side. As the demand for wool and cloth rose, Britain began to export woolen cloth produced by the first big enterprises, the “manufactures”. The landowners evicted the peasants and enclosed their land with ditches and fences, turning it to into vast pastures.

The new nobility, who traded in wool, fused with the rich townspeople to form a new class, the bourgeoisie, while the evicted farmers, the poor artisans and monastic servants turned into farm labourers and wage workers or remained unemployed and joined the ranks of paupers, vagrants and highway robbers.

The charges in the economic and social conditions were accompanied by the intermixture of people coming from different regions, the growth of towns with a mixed population, and the strengthening of social ties between the various regions. All these processes played an important role in the unification of the English language.

3. Centralisation of the Country. Foreign Contacts

Towards the end of the 15th century the period of feudal disunity in Britain came to an end, and Britain became a centralized state.

After the end of the Hundred Years War (1337-1453) the feudal lords and their hired armies came home from France, and life in Britain became more turbulent than ever. The baronial families at the king's court fought for power, and soon a civil war, known in history as the Wars of the Roses, broke out. It ended in 1485 with the establishment of a stronger royal power under Henry VII, founder of the Tudor dynasty and of a new kind of monarchy based of new relations between classes.

Henry VII reduced the power of the old nobility and created new nobles out of the bourgeoisie and the mid die class who ardently supported him. The royal power grew still stronger and the power of the church weaker when his successor, Henry VIII, broke with the Pope and declared himself head of the English Church (1534).

The Tudors encouraged the development of trade inside and outside the country. The great geographical discoveries gave a new impetus to the progress of foreign trade. English traders set forth on daring journeys in search of gold and treasures. Sea pirates and slave-traders were patronised by Queen Elizabeth as readily as traders in wool, for they made large contributions lo her treasury. Under the later Tudors England became one of the biggest trade and sea powers. Ousting her rivals from many markets she became involved in the political struggle of the European countries for supremacy. Most complicated were her relations with France and Portugal. In 1588 England defeated the Spanish fleet, the Invincible Armada, thus dealing a final blow to Spain, her main rival in overseas trade and in colonial expansion. In the late 16th century England founded its first colonies abroad.

Thus the contacts of England with other nations — although not necessarily friendly — became closer, and new contacts were made in distant lands. These new ties could not but influence the development of the language.

4. Conditions For Linguistic Unity

Language is the most important means of human intercourse. Unity of language and its unimpeded development form one of the most important conditions for genuinely free and extensive commercial intercourse appropriate to modern capital ism, for a free and broad grouping of the population in all its separate classes and, lastly, for the establishment of close connection between the market and each and every proprietor, big or little, seller or buyer."*

These conditions were formed in Britain in the 15th and 16th centuries. England needed a uniform standard language, for linguistic disunity stood in the way of further progress. The making of the English nation went hand in hand with the formation of the national English language.

5. The formation of the national literary English language. Some Effects of the Renaissance.

The 15th and I6th centuries are marked by a renewed interest in classical art and literature and by a general efflorescence of culture in Western Europe. The rise of a new vigorous social class — the bourgeoisie — proved an enormous stimulus to the progress of learning, science, literature and art.

The universities at Oxford and Cambridge (founded as early as the 12th century) became the centres of new learning in England. Henry VII assembled at his court a group of brilliant scholars and artists. Education ceased to be the privilege of the clergy; it spread to laymen and people of lower social ranks: the lower nobility, merchants and artisans. After the Reformation (1534) teachers and tutors could be laymen as well as clergymen.

The main subject in schools was Latin; the English language labelled as "a rude and barren tongue" merely served as an instrument in teaching Latin. Scientific and philosophical treatises all over Europe were written in Latin, which had become an international language. The influence of classical languages on English grew and was soon reflected in the enrichment of the vocabulary.

Of all the outstanding achievements of this great age the invention of printing had the most immediate effect on the development of the language, its written form in particular.

The art of "artificial writing", as printing was then called, was invented in Germany in 1438; the first book in the English language was printed in the year 1476 by the first English printer William Caxton.

William Caxton was born in Kent, in 1422. In 1441 he moved to Bruges (in Flanders) where he spent over three decades of his life. During a visit to Cologne he learned the method of printing and in 1473 opened up his own printing press in Bruges. A few years later he brought it over to England and set it up in Westminster not far outside the city of London.

The first English book Caxton issued from his printing press while still in Bruges was his own translation of the story of Troy, *Re-cuyell of the Histories* of *Troy*. This book was followed by many others. All in all about one hundred books were issued by his press and about a score of them were either translated or edited by Caxton himself. The total circulation of the books is believed to have been about 10,000.

Among the earliest publications were the poems of Geoffrey Chaucer, still the most popular poet in England, the poems of John Gower, Chaucer's contemporary, the works of John Lydgate, the most prominent poet of the 15th century, Trevisa's *Polychronicon,* and others. Both Caxton and his associates seemed to take a greater interest in the works of medieval literature

than in the classical works of ancient authors or the theological, philosophical and scientific treatises published by the printers on the continent. About one quarter of his publications were translations from French, e.g. *Recuyell of the Histories of Troy,* mentioned above, and the famous knightly romance *Morte d'Arthur* ("The death of Arthur") by Thomas Malory.

In preparing the manuscripts for publication William Caxton and his successors edited them so as to bring them into conformity with the London form of English used by their contemporaries. In doing this they sometimes distorted the manuscripts considerably. Their corrections enable us to see the linguistic changes that had occurred in the meantime. Here are some substitutions made by Caxton in Trevisa's *Polychronicon* (written a hundred years before):

Trevisa: *i-cleped, ich, steihe, as me trowep, chepinge*

Caxton: *called, I, ascended, as men supposed, market*

It is difficult to overestimate the influence of the first printers in fixing and spreading the written form of English. The language they used was the London literary English established since the age of Chaucer and modified in accordance with the linguistic changes that had taken place during the past hundred years. With cheap printed books becoming available to a greater number of readers all over England, the London form of speech was carried to other regions and was imitated in the written words produced there. In the ensuing century the form of the language used by the printers became the standard form of literary English recognised throughout the country.

Thus from the geographical viewpoint we may say that the countrywide standard form of written English was derived from the speech of London. Socially, it originated from the speech of educated laymen and clergymen of various ranks; as education spread to the middle classes to embrace increasing numbers of people, (he social basis of the written standard became "lower".

It is natural that the greatest influence exerted by the printers was that on the written form of the word. Caxton's spelling, for all its irregularities and inconsistencies, was far more normalised than the chaotic spelling of the manuscripts. The written form of words perpetuated by Caxton was accepted as standard and has in many cases remained unchanged even to the present day (in spite of the drastic changes in pronunciation). It should be noted that Caxton's spelling faithfully reproduced the spelling of the preceding century and was consequently less phonetic and more conservative than the spelling of Chaucer's times.

In conclusion it should be recalled that so great was the effect of printing on the development of the language that the year 1476 — the date of the publication of the first English book — is regarded by many as a turning point in English linguistic history and the start of a *new* period — New English.

6. Growth of Literature in the Early New English Language

No attempt will be made here to describe the development of English literature from the 15th to the 17th centuries. The literary productions are so numerous and varied in character that even a list of the most important works could not be given in these lectures. We shall mention

only some of the more influential authors commonly alluded to in manuals on the history of the language.

The most prominent writers of the 15th century were the disciples and imitators of Geoffrey Chaucer: Thomas Hoccleve (c. 1370 — c. 1450) and John Lydgate (c. 1370 — c. 1450). The language of Chaucer's successors is believed to have drawn farther away from everyday speech. The style used and advocated by the writers is known as the "aureate language", which was highly affected in character, abounding in abstract words and strongly influenced by Latin rhetoric.

In the 16th century the most important prose writers were certainly Thomas More (1478—1535), who wrote both in Latin and in English, and William Tyndale, the famous translator of the Bible. His translation of the New Testament was first published in Worms in 1525.

It is believed that Tyndale's English exerted a great influence not only on the language of the church (i. e. sermons) but also on the literary and spoken language. All the later versions of the Bible in English and first of all the *Authorized Version* of 1611 *or* King James' Bible, which was officially approved and spread, were largely based on Tyndale's translation.

The, progress of literature and especially the flourishing of the drama in the late 16th and early 17th centuries are linked up with an unparalleled enrichment of the language. William Shakespeare (1564—1616) and his contemporaries (Edmund Spencer, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Jonson, Francis Bacon, Philip Sidney, Francis Beaumont, John Fletcher and others) wrote in what is known now as the Early New English literary language. Early New English was represented by a wide variety of literary styles and was characterised by meanings, and versatility of grammatical construction. In all these qualities the language of Shakespeare certainly excelled that of his contemporaries.

7. The Formation of the Spoken Standard

The written form of the English language became standardised earlier than its spoken form. As shown above, the literary form of English came into existence in the age of Chaucer, was fixed and spread with the introduction of printing and was further developed as the national English literary language during the rise of literature in the 16th and 17th centuries.

The question of sources and dating for the standard superdialect form of spoken English or the spoken literary language appears to be more problematic. Its formation was predetermined by the same historical conditions that favoured linguistic unity in the sphere of writing. Yet it is commonly believed that no spoken standard existed in England a long time after the written standard had come into use all over the country. The earliest date suggested as the time of the formation of the spoken standard is the end of the 17th century; some authorities refer it to the period of "fixing the pronunciation" (the 18th century), yet others believe that the process is not over to this day. The latter opinion would be justified if by the "spoken standard" we meant an absolute uniformity of the spoken language throughout the country (which can never be achieved). But if we merely imply a recognised spoken standard, distinct from the local dialect, used by the educated people and taught at school we can safely adhere to the earlier dates— the later 17th and the 18th century.

Naturally we possess no direct evidence of the existence of a spoker standard, since all the evidence comes from written sources. Valuable information is furnished by the language of private letters (compared to the language of professional writers), the speech of various characters in the Early New English drama, and also by some direct references of contemporary writers to different types of speech.

The first references to a form of speech superior to other forms are found in the works of the earliest phoneticians: John Hart (16th century) says that at the King's court and in London "the flower of the English tongue is used". In the 17th century the type of speech used in London and in the Universities was unanimously proclaimed the best type of English. The phoneticians and grammarians recommend it as a model of correct English.

During the 17th century, the gap between the written language and the spoken language of increasing numbers of people became narrower. With the spread of education more people learned to speak "correctly", in the way prescribed by grammars and textbooks. The use of standard speech as distinguished from local dialect is insisted upon in the grammars and dictionaries of the 18th century.

The geographical and social origins of the spoken standard were in the main the same as those of the written standard some two hundred years before. However, by the 17th century the tongue of London (which was the basis of the spoken standard) had absorbed many new features of the local dialects, for, as the country had become more unified, the ties between its regions had strengthened, and the population of London had become still more mixed. The tongue of the middle class of London — which is regarded as the source of the spoken standard in the social sense — had become closer to the tongue of the common people. In the turbulent 17th century — the age of the English Revolution — the upper and middle classes were replenished by people of lower ranks and consequently their speech assumed many of the features of the lower varieties of English.

However, it should be borne in mind that the spoken form of the literary language, even when standardised, could never be as stable and fixed as the written standard. It has always been, and still is, a variable, changing under the influence of non-standard forms of the language far more easily than the written standard. New features coming from the language of the people (be it professional jargon, social dialects or local dialects at home and abroad) enter the spoken standard and through its medium pass into the written standard. In its turn the latter tends to restrict the colloquial innovations labelling them as non-literary and vulgar and is itself enriched by elements coming from various functional styles of the written language (the style of scientific prose, official documents, etc.). Between all these conflicting tendencies the national literary language, written and spoken, continued to change during the entire New English period, and is changing still. Alongside the superdialect national form of New English, it is common to distinguish regional and social varieties of the language, The regional dialects of the modern times can be traced to the dialects of the Middle English period. They are usually grouped under the following general headings: the Southern dialects divided into South-Eastern and South-Western; the Midland dialects subdivided into East, Central, and West Midland; the Northern dialects with some minor subdivisions and the Scottish dialects which distinguish the Northern and the Southern variety. Probably in comparison to Middle English the borders between the dialects have shifted and many differences have been obliterated (under the influence of the

standard form of English and due to close social and cultural contacts); and yet the initial sources of dialectal divergencies largely go back to the Middle English and even Old English times.

8. New Sources of Information about Language History in the 15th and I6th Centuries

The spread of education in the Early New English period gave rise to new kinds of written evidence pertaining to the history of the language: private letters and works concerned with language.

In addition to the writings of a literary, scientific or official character, produced, copied or printed by professionals, beginning with the fifteenth century we find more and more private letters written by those who could barely read and write. The significance of this evidence for the history of the language is obvious: the writers were not guided by written tradition and recorded the words, forms and pronunciations in current use, reflecting all kinds of dialectal and colloquial variants. The fullest collections of letters preserved in family archives are the Paston letters written between 1430 and 1470 by members of the Paston family in Norfolk (i. e. the East Midland dialect) and the Cely letters written in the same dialect.

The spread of education and the renewed interest in living languages in the 16th and 17th centuries — which came to be regarded as more important for practical purposes than the classical ones — led to the appearance of one more kind of written records: books of instructions for pupils, dictionaries and various compositions dealing with the English language.

A large number of the works concerned with the English language treat of "correct writing", in other words, the relation between spelling and pronunciation. The current ways of indicating the sounds of speech seemed inconsistent to many scholars and teachers of the 16th century. Scholars and school-masters attempted to improve and regulate the graphic system of the language by designing better alphabets or by proposing rules for more consistent spelling.

Thus in the early 16th century John Cheke, a scholar, of Cambridge and a pioneer among spelling reformers, proposed that all letters should be consistently doubled to indicate length — a practice very irregularly employed before his time; his associate Thomas Smith in his *Dialogue Concerning the Correct and Emended Writing of the English Language* (1568) set out a new alphabet of 34 letters to the same object.

The greatest English phonetician of the 16th century (in the opinion of modern philologists) was John Hart, who produced a number of works, especially *An Orthographie* (1569). Being a keen observer, he noticed the changing values of the letters brought about by the change in the sounds. His proposed reforms of the English spelling, however, were as unsuccessful as those of his contemporaries.

Other prominent scholars made no attempt to reform the spelling but tried to make it more consistent, or to correct the pronunciation in accordance with the spelling. Thus Richard Mulcaster *(The Elementarie*, 1582) admitted that no spelling could record the changing sounds. He suggested that traditional spelling should be employed as before, but wherever possible, should be made more consistent: words pronounced alike should be spelt in the same manner, through analogy.

For all their limitations and failures, the works of the early school-masters, spelling reformers and phoneticians are important sources of information for a modern linguist. The extensive lists of transcribed words contained in their books help us to reconstruct the history of English sounds.

9. The normalizing tendencies in the 17th and 18 th centuries. Attempts to Improve the Language. The Early Prescriptive Grammars

The Elizabethan age, which enriched the language in many ways and was characterised by great linguistic "freedom", was followed by the so-called neo-classical period, which demanded correctness and simplicity of expression.

The tendency to regularise and correct the language is seen in the early prescriptive grammars of the 16th and 17th centuries as well as in the works of the great lexicographers of the 17th and I8th centuries.

Like many descriptions of other European languages the earliest books dealing with the grammar of the English language were modelled on Latin grammars. Thus one of the guides used in teaching English at the time in the 16th century was an *Eton Latin Grammar,* written by William Lily; it was supplied with English translations and equivalents of Latin forms. The title of another English grammar published in the late 16th century indicates the same approach: *A perfect Survey of the English Tongue taken according to the Use and Analogie of the Latine.*

A new approach is postulated in the *English Grammar* composed by Ben Jonson "for the benefit of all strangers out of his observation of the English language now spoken and in use" (1640). In spite of this sub-title, in presenting the material he followed in the main the traditional pattern of Latin grammars: however he paid special attention, to word order as an important feature of the grammatical structure and described the article as a separate part of speech.

The first grammarian to break with the Latin tradition was John Wallis, the most famous of all the 17th century grammarians and phoneticians. His *Grammatica Linguae Anglicana* (1653), written in Latin, went into six editions and was translated into English. He won European fame and was praised both by his contemporaries and by later linguists. His treatment of many problems was quite original. He protested against "reducing the English language too much to the Latin norm" and, as a result, giving too many rules about cases, declensions, genders and conjugations (one should note that by that time the grammatical structure of the English language was on the whole similar to that of Modern English). Wallis did not recognize the category of case in the English noun and defined the Genitive case of nouns as "possessive adjectives". As a phonetician Wallis recorded many current pronunciations and attempted — with many errors — to draw up a symmetrical system of English sounds.

In the late 17th and the early 18th centuries the interest in language problems was stirred up again. Correct usage became the major problem. The great English poet John Milton (1608—1674) deplored "the corrupt pronunciation of the lower- classes". In 1664 the Royal Society appointed a special committee for "improving the English tongue". In the early 18th century the problems of correct usage formed the subject of many an article in the first English newspapers,

The Tatler and *The Spectator* (issued from 1708). In 1712 Jonathan Swift, the great prose-writer, drew up a detailed proposal for *Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue* by setting up a body of well informed persons who would fix the obligatory rules of usage. He expressed his concern about contemporary writings which might become incomprehensible a hundred years hence, if the changes in the language were allowed to continue at the same speed.

Many new grammars were compiled. The grammarians deplored the illiteracy of people in all ranks and prescribed rules for correct usage. Their grammar books — besides being influenced by Latin grammars — were guided by principles of logic. They attempted to represent the grammatical system of the language as a strictly logical system (incidentally, it was at that time that many logical terms, such as subject and predicate, entered English grammatical terminology).

The most important of prescriptive grammars in the second half of the 18th century was *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1758) written by Robert Lowth, a theologian, bishop and professor of poetry at Oxford. In the preface he agreed with Jonathan Swift's charge that "our language is extremely imperfect", that "it offends against every part of grammar" and also said that most of the best authors commit "many gross improprieties, which... ought to be corrected". On logical grounds he condemned the current use of double negation as equivalent to an affirmative, and double comparatives, objected to the confusion of *who* and *whom, whose* and *which,* adjectives and adverbs. He believed in a universal logical grammar, and thought that English was reducible to a system of logical rules; thus natural usage was abandoned in favour of order, analogy and system.

We ought to mention one more book on grammar in the same trend, dating from the end of the 18th century, Lindley Murray's *English Grammar Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners* (1795), which was still popular in the 19th century. He adhered to the same principles, although in some points was more tolerant than his predecessors .

The works of the early grammarians, just as the works of the phoneticians and lexicographers, played an important role in the formation of Standard English in the New English period.

10. The Great Lexicographers of the 18th Century

Other kinds of publications dealing with language were the earliest lists of words and dictionaries. The swift development of international trade created a demand for dictionaries; bilingual dictionaries of classical and contemporary languages were produced in increasing numbers in the 16th and 17th centuries.

The earliest dictionaries of the English language were selective lists of words difficult to spell or to understand. In those days the most common English words were difficult to write, whereas the learned ones, usually Latin borrowings which had abounded in the written language since the Renaissance, were not only hard to write but also hard to understand. To cope with this difficulty, lists of "hard" words and the first English-English dictionaries were compiled.

Robert Cawdrey's *Table Alphabetical! conteyning and teaching the true writing, and understanding of hard usual English words, borrowed from the Hebrew, Greek, Latin or French,*

etc. issued in 1604, is one of many publications of this kind. In 1658 Edward Philips produced an English-English dictionary giving among other information the etymology of words; it was entitled the *New World of Words* and contained 10,000 items. It was sharply criticised by another learned lexicographer, Thomas Blount, who referred to this composition as "a world of errors".

English lexicography made great progress in the I8th century. In 1721 Nathaniel Bailey compiled a *Dictionarum Britannicum, a more compleat universal etymological English dictionary than any extant.* The dictionary contained about 48,000 items, which is more than Samuel Johnson included in his famous work, and through Johnson, it influenced all subsequent lexicographical practice.

The publication of Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language* in 1755 is regarded as the most important linguistic event of the 18th century. The weight of his authority was so great that later writers did not dare to deviate from the spellings prescribed by Doctor Johnson, and even today some authors blame him for fixing the English spelling and thus making it conservative. His well-known statement on pronunciation runs as follows: "For pronunciation the best general rule is to consider those the most elegant speakers who deviate least from written words", He regulated the current usage by defining the meaning of words; his definitions are on the whole very precise and the principal meanings of the words are distinctly differentiated; the words are supplied with etymologies and quotations illustrating the usage in different meanings, and sometimes with stylistic comments.

The 18th century authors were lexicographical pioneers. They laid the foundations of English lexicography and paved the way for the great dictionaries of the modern times: Noah Webster's dictionary in America, the *New English*

11. Geographical expansion of English

Some of the historical events of the last three hundred years relevant to the history of the language are so well reflected in the lexical changes that they will be self-evident when those changes are considered; they are the foreign contacts and the further growth of culture. There is, however, one aspect of the external history of the . English language, particularly obvious in the new period, which deserves special consideration: it is the spread of the English language to new geographical areas beyond the boundaries of the British isles.

We must recall that in the Old English period the English dialects were confined to part of the British Isles only: they were spoken in what is known as England proper, that is on the territory of Great Britain with the exception of Wales, Scotland and Cornwall. From the 11th to the 16th century the English language spread to the whole of the British Isles.

Wales, Scotland and Ireland were not subjugated during the Germanic invasion of Britain in the 5th and 6th centuries. The attempts of the Norman rulers to conquer Wales met with the stubborn resistance of the Welsh, who managed to keep some of their lands until the 16th century, when the annexation was completed.

Both during the wars and after the final occupation the English language penetrated into Wales and gradually replaced the local dialect. The Welsh language (belonging to the Celtic

linguistic group) is still the mother tongue of nearly 1,000,000 of the native population in Wales. A Celtic dialect, spoken in Cornwall up to the 17th century, disappeared in the 18th century.

Scotland began to fall under English linguistic influence from the 11th century, when England made her first attempts to conquer the territory. The wars with Scotland lasted for many hundred years. The mixed population of Scotland: the native Scots and Picts, the Britons (who had fled from the Germanic invasion), the Scandinavians (who had stayed on after the Scandinavian settlement) and lastly the English, who had gradually moved to the north from the neighbouring regions, — was not homogeneous in language. The Scotch-Gaelic dialect (Erse — the Celtic tongue of the aborigines) was driven to the Highlands, while in Lowland Scotland the Northern English dialect gave rise to an independent, new language of the Germanic group, Scottish. The Scottish tongue flourished for a short while as a literary language — as long as Scotland retained its sovereignty — but after the unification with England under the Stuarts in 1603, and the loss of the last remains of self-government, it was reduced to dialectal status. English became both the official and the literary language in Scotland. In the subsequent ages the standard form of spoken English came into use among the educated people, Scotch-Gaelic surviving as a dialect in the highlands.

The history of the English language in Ireland is very much similar. The native Celtic dialect gradually gave way before the English language imposed by the conquerors (the struggle began in the late 12th century and lasted into the 20th). Nowadays English is the official and literary language not only in Northern Ireland (Ulster), which has become part of the United Kingdom, but also in Eire. Thus toward the 17th century practically all of the British Isles became the domain of the English language.

The colonial expansion of England beginning in the late 16th century was accompanied by another extension of English-speaking areas.

At the end of the l6th century England founded her first colonies abroad: Newfoundland was captured in 1583. The conquest of the West Indies begun about the same time extended over a hundred years. The 17th century saw the English colonisation of the New World (North America). It began with the famous voyage of the *Mayflower in* 1620, which carried the first settlers to Massachusetts. The early settlers came from the counties around London, while later immigrants came from different parts of the British Isles; many colonists arrived from Ireland and Scotland. The English dialects of all these areas formed the basis of American English, which has now become a second standard form of English.

In the 18th century the main issues in the colonial struggle were India and America. The British conquest of India had been prepared by the East Indian Trading Company which was founded as early as the 17th century and had monopolised the trade with India. In the late 18th century the British secured partial control over the administration of many provinces in India. Under the Treaty of Paris after the Seven Years' War (1763) England got many disputed territories from France: Canada became an English dominion, Senegal was transferred to England, England's position in India was further strengthened.

Australia was the last continent to be discovered and colonised by the Europeans. Beginning with 1786 English convicts began to be sent to Australia and other settlers came as well.

In all these lands (and many others, which fell under British rule in the age of capitalism and imperialism) the English language began to be employed as the official language and the language of learning, It is still used there although many countries have now become independent.

Thus in the New period the boundaries of English have extended far beyond the British Isles to embrace both hemispheres and all the inhabited continents. In every area English has developed some specific features differing from those of Standard English in Britain which are due either to the original dialect of the settlers or to the new developments in the areas concerned (sometimes under the influence' of the native tongues).

Questions and assignments:

1. Compare the development of the written and spoken standards in the history of English.
2. When and where were the first English books printed? Which books were among the first publications?
3. How many people speak English as their native tongue?

LECTURE 13. HISTORICAL PHONETICS: WORD-STRESS, VOWEL CHANCES

Problems to be discussed:

1. Evolution of word-stress in Middle English and Early New English.

2. Changes of unstressed vowels in Middle English and Early New English.

3. Changes of stressed vowels.

4. Quantitative changes of stressed vowels in Early Middle English.

5. Changes- in vowel quantity in Early New English.

6. Quantitative vowel changes.

Key words: word-stress, the recessive tendency, assimilative changes, great vowel shift, qualitative and quantitative vowel changes;

The English sounds have changed very considerably in the nine hundred years that have elapsed since the Old English period. The changes have affected not only the pronunciation of separate words but even more so the entire system of phonemes and the system of word-stress.

The dating of these changes, as well as their interpretation, has been the subject of much research and discussion. On the whole, the relative chronology of phonetic changes is more reliable than the absolute dates. It may also be noted that all the changes began a long time before they were first reflected in writing. Probably, the changes started in one or several dialect areas and gradually spread to others.

As was shown in the two preceding lectures the New English language did not descend directly from the Old English as represented by the West Saxon dialect: the London dialect, on which the national literary language is based, partly goes back to the South-Western dialect of Middle English, which has developed from West and East Saxon, but for the greater part goes back to the East Midland dialect, which is Anglian by origin; besides, the national English language has incorporated certain dialectal traits of other minor dialects. Therefore we cannot account for the formation of the modern phonetic system from the Old English one by describing the historical changes of the West Saxon system alone; we shall have to mention some phonetic features of other Old English or Middle English dialects which contributed to Standard English.

1.Evolution of word-stress in Middle English and Early new English

In order to consider the changes in word-stress in Middle English one must recall the Old English system of word-stress. In Old English, stress usually fell on the first syllable of the word and rarely — on its second syllable. Its position was determined by phonetic, morphological and semantic factors: in verbs with prefixes stress fell on the root-morpheme, although it was not the first syllable of the word, — which means that morphological factors prevailed over phonetic ones. In some polysyllabic words, e. g. nouns, the first syllable was stressed irrespective of whether it was the root or the prefix, — in other words, here phonetic factors appeared to be more important. Word-stress was fixed, since it was never moved in inflection and rarely — in derivation.

In the Middle and Early New English periods — roughly between the 13th and 16th centuries — the system of word-stress in English was considerably altered. In Middle English texts stress is no longer the exclusive property of the root-morpheme or the first syllable; on the contrary, its position seems to be free, as we come across a great variety of differently stressed words, e. g. ME *shortly* [ʃortli] NE *shortly;* ME *vertu* [ver'ty:] or [ver'tju:], NE *virtue;* ME *nature* [na'ty:r] or [na'tju:r], NE *nature;* ME *condicioun* [kondisi'u:n] or |kondi'sju:n], NE *condition.* The main innovation of the Middle English period was that in contrast to Old English, stress could fall not only on the first syllable of the word or the root-morpheme but also on the syllables following the root-morpheme or on the second syllable of the root. Only the grammatical inflections remained unstressed the same as before.

It is apparent that the new positions of stress are found in loanwords (adopted from the French language or, in later periods, from classical or other contemporary languages). In the beginning, these loan-words retained the original position of the stress, but gradually, in the course of phonetic assimilation, the stress was moved.

Several historical tendencies account for these changes and for the ultimate formation of the modern regularities in word-stress.

As the loan-words were assimilated by the English language **the stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word; this shift is usually termed "the recessive tendency"**. Thus, in disyllabic words stress was shifted from the second to the first syllable so that the resulting pattern conformed to the pattern of native words, e.g. ME *vertu* [ver'tju:] ;> NE *virtue*[və:tʃə] similar to the native ME *shortly*. The shift can be shown as follows: (x'x > 'xx).

In words of three and more syllables the changes proceeded in different ways due to the recessive tendency, and also due to the rhythmic tendency which required a regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Thus stress could be shifted to the syllable immediately preceding in line with the recessive tendency, as in ME *condicioun*[kondi'sju:n] ;> NE *condition* [kən'diʃn] which can be shown as *(xx'x ~> x'xx).* Due to the rhythmic tendency, a secondary stress arose at a distance of *one* syllable from the original stress. This new stress has either been preserved as a secondary stress in New English, or has acquired the same strength as the original stress; sometimes the original strong stress was so much weakened that the new stress became the only or the principal stress of the word. The operation of the rhythmic tendency can be seen in the following examples:

(xx'xx > xx'x) ME recommenden [reko'mendən] > NE [,rekəmend]

(xx'xx > xx'x) ME disobeie [dizo'beiə] > NE disobey [diso'bei]

(xx'xx > xx'x) ME comfortable [komfor'tablə] > NE comfortable [kʌmfətəbl];

ME consecrate [konse'kra:tə] > NE consecrate [konsəkreit]

Words with the stress falling on the third syllable from the end are common in Modern English (NE *comfortable, concentrate, ability, evident,* etc.). Etymologically they are borrowed words of the given type with stress re-adjusted due to the rhythmic tendency.

In many polysyllabic words both historical tendencies, the recessive and the rhythmic one, operated together and brought about several shifts of the stress. For instance, in NE *consolation* we find a shift of the stress from the final syllable on to the adjoining syllable [lei] due to the recessive tendency, and a secondary stress on the first syllable [kon] owing to rhythm; in NE *possibility* the rhythmic tendency accounts for both the primary and secondary stresses which have developed so as to alternate stressed and unstressed syllables, the original stress falling on the final [ti].

Some alterations in the position of stress are associated not only with the phonetic tendencies but also with certain morphological factors. Thus stress was not shifted to the prefixes of many verbs borrowed or built in Middle and Early New English in spite of the recessive tendency — which conforms to the native Old English morphological regularity in the word-stress (to keep verb prefixes unstressed), e. g. NE *imprison, recover, engender, mistake.*

With the increased freedom in the position of stress (and also due to loss of suffixes) the load of word-stress as a distinctive feature in New English has grown. The position of stress can sometimes serve as a distinctive feature differentiating between verbs and nouns, together with other differences or alone. Thus, ME *discord (n.), discorden (v.)* differed in the suffix, but not in stress; their New English descendants *discord (n.)* ['disko:d] and *discord (v.)* (dis'kord] are distinguished through stress alone; similar regularities are found in NE *record (n.)* and *record (v.)\ export (n.)* and *export (v.),* etc.

Thus in the course of historical evolution, dje to native English tendencies continuously applied to borrowed words, the entire system of word-stress has altered. The position of stress has become relatively free and its phonological application has widened.

2. Changes of unstressed vowels in Middle English and Early new English.

The historical modification of the English vowels is one of the most remarkable features of English linguistic history. The changes of stressed vowels are basically different from those of unstressed vowels; that is why we shall consider the two sets separately. It should be borne in mind, however, that the boundaries between the sets were not stable: in the course of time a vowel could lose or acquire stress, as stress in many words was shifted; consequently, it would pass into the other group of vowels and be subjected to the processes at work there.

In the Middle and New English periods the main character and directions of the evolution of unstressed vowels were the same as before; already in the pre-written period the unstressed vowels had lost many of their former distinctions, — their differences in quantity as well as some of their differences in quality were neutralised. This tendency operated in all the subsequent periods of the history of English and became especially strong in Middle English and Early New English in respect of unstressed vowels in final syllables.

In the Middle English period the pronunciation of unstressed syllables became increasingly indistinct. As compared to Old English, which distinguished five short vowels in unstressed position (representing three phonemes [e/i], [a] and [o/u]), Middle English reduced them to [e/i] or rather [a/i], the first variant being a neutral sound. Compare:

OE	fiscas fisces	ME	fishes [‘fiʃəs]
OE	rison risen	ME	Risen [rizən]
OE	bodi	ME	Body [bodi]
OE	talu	ME	Tale [ta:lə]

The occurrence of only two vowels [i] and [ə] in unstressed final syllables is regarded as an important mark of the Middle English language distinguishing it on the one hand, from Old English with its greater variety of unstressed vowels, and on the other hand, from the New English, when this final [ə] was altogether lost,

However, while the Old English unstressed vowels were thus reduced and lost, other unstressed vowels developed from stressed ones, as a result of the shifting of word-stress in Middle and New English and other phonetic changes. Some of the new unstressed vowels were not reduced to the same degree as the Old English vowels and have retained their quantitative and qualitative differences, e. g. NE *consecrate* [ei], *disobey* [o] .

These examples, as well as modern polysyllabic words like *adversely,* with the unstressed [æ], *alternant* with [o] and [o:] , *fidelity, direct* with [ai] and [i] and others, show that a variety of vowels can occur in unstressed position, although the most frequent vowels are [i] and

[a|, the latter confined to unstressed position alone, — being the result of phonetic reduction of various vowels.

These developments show that the gap between the set of stressed and unstressed vowels has narrowed, so that in Middle and New English we need no longer strictly subdivide the system of vowels into two sub-systems — that of stressed and unstressed vowels (as was done for Old English), — even though the changes of the vowels in the two positions were widely different and the phonetic contrast between the stressed and unstressed syllables remained very strong.

3. CHANGES OF STRESSED VOWELS. The Main Trends of Vowel Changes

No other part of the English phonetic system has undergone such considerable changes as the stressed vowels. They changed both in quality and quantity, under the influence of the environment and independently, alone or together with the surrounding sounds. Not a single Old English long vowel or diphthong has remained unaltered in the course of history; only a few short vowels have not altered at all (unless in certain positions they were at some time lengthened and then shared the fate of long vowels).

Strictly speaking, we can observe all these kinds of vowel changes at every historical period. And yet some prevailing trends of vowel alteration can be roughly assigned to certain periods.

We must recall that the prevailing type of changes of stressed vowels in Old English were assimilative changes affecting the quality of the vowel. Towards the end of the Old English period and especially in Early Middle English quantitative vowel changes appear to have assumed greater importance; these were positional changes, which affected many vowels and led to an alteration in the phonological load of vowel quantity. The Middle English period saw the beginnings of a new important series of qualitative changes largely belonging to the Early New English period.

The regular qualitative changes of all the long vowels between the 14th and the 17th centuries are known in the history of the English language as the G r e a t vowel shift. The Great vowel shift was a series of consistent changes of long vowels accounting for many features of the Modern English vowel system and also of the modern spelling system.

It should be borne in mind that in all historical periods along with prevailing and more important kinds of changes other kinds of phonetic changes could take place affecting a smaller number of sounds and words.

4. Quantitative Changes of Stressed Vowels in Early Middle English

Towards the end of the Old English period and in the succeeding centuries vowels in stressed position underwent a number of important quantitative changes which considerably altered the status and functioning of short and long vowels in the language.

It should be recalled that in Old English length or quantity was the main basis of correlation in the vowel system: short vowels were opposed to long ones, roughly identical in quality. Vowel length was an inherited feature: Old English short vowels had developed from

short vowels, while long ones usually went back to Common Germanic long vowels or vowel combinations.

In later Old English and in Early Middle English many vowels became long or short depending on phonetic conditions and irrespective of their origin.

The earliest of the positional quantitative changes was the readjustment of quantity before some consonant clusters:

(1) A sequence of two homorganic consonants, a sonorant and a plosive, brought about a lengthening of the preceding vowel; consequently, all vowels occurring in this position remained or became long, e. g. OE *wild*> ME *wild* [wi:ld], NE *wild.*

(2) All other sequences of two or more consonants produced the reverse effect; they made the preceding long vowels short, and thus all vowels in this position became or remained short, e. g.

OE *cepte>ME kepte* [keptə], NE *kept*

OE *bewildrian* > ME *bewildren* [be'wildr ə n], NE *bewilder*

In consequence of these changes the length of vowels before sequences of consonants was entirely determined by phonetic conditions, namely the nature of the sequence.

Another decisive alteration in the treatment of vowel quantity took place some time later: about the 13th century,

(3) The short vowels [ei], [a] and [o] (that is, the more open ones of the short vowels) became long in open syllables, e. g. OE *nama* >• ME *name* ['namə], NE *name.*

In spite of some restrictions (no lengthening occurred in polysyllabic words and before some suffixes, e. g. in OE *bodi3* > ME *body* ['bodi], NE *body* [o] remained short in Middle English before the suffix -y, the alteration affected many words and had a result similar to that of other quantitative positional changes: in open syllables some vowels [ɛ:], [a:] and [o:] were always long and hence could not be contrasted through quantity to short ones.

Phonetic conditions	Change illustrated	Examples		
		OE	ME	NE
Before consonant sequences: sonorant plus plosive ld, nd, mb, ŋg, rd	All short vowels become long	Cild Findan Climban Cald Feld fundon	Child [tʃi:ld] finden [fi:ndən] climben[‘kli:mbən] cold [ko:ld] field [fe:ld] founden[fu:ndən]	Child Find Climb Cold Field Found (past of find
Before other consonant sequences	All vowels become short	Cepte bl æst wisdom	Kepte [‘keptə] Blast [blast] Wisdom [wizdəm]	Kept Blast wisdom
In open syllables	E > ɛ: A > a:	Mete Stelan	Mete [‘mɛ:tə] Stelen [stɛ:lən]	Meat Steal

	O > o:	Macian Talu Open stolen	Maken [ma:kən] Tale ['ta:lə] Open [o:pən] stolen [sto:lən]	Make Tale Open stolen

The changes of vowel quantity diminished the number of positions in which the opposition of long vowels to short ones could be used for contrast. Indeed, before any consonant cluster vowel quantity was now predetermined by the nature of the cluster, while in open syllables three vowels [e:], [a:] and [o:] were always long. It follows that the opposition through quantity could be found only when these phonetic conditions were lacking: in closed syllables, in polysyllabic words, or with the vowels[i], [u] in open syllables. Such is the contrast, e. g. in ME *risen* infinitive, NE *rise*, and ME *risen* Participle II, NE *risen.* The limitations in the application of vowel length as a distinctive feature undermined the role of quantity in the vowel system.

The quantitative vowel changes described above have given rise to a number of interpretations which, apart from specifying the phonetic conditions of every particular change, treat of the more general motivation of the redistribution of vowel quantity in Middle English.

All the changes in vowel quantity described above can be interpreted as manifestations of a sort of rhythmic tendency — to achieve a certain average uniformity in the length of the syllable — either by shortening a vowel before a consonant cluster or else by lengthening the consonant after a short vowel. In this case length becomes a property of a syllable rather than that of a sound. This theory accounts for the shortening before consonant clusters but fails to explain the causes of lengthening before homorganic groups. As to the lengthening in open syllables, it can be accounted for in the light of the same rhythmic tendency: a syllable consisting of a short consonant and a short vowel being too short naturally tended to become longer. The latter process can also be explained as caused by rhythmic factors affecting two syllables in disyllabic words: while the second unstressed syllable became weaker, the first syllable in compensation as it were acquired greater prominence and the vowel longer,

e. g. OE *talu* > ME *tale* [ta:lə] , NE *tale.*

5. Changes In Vowel Quantity In Early New English

At no other time in the later history of the English language were the changes in vowel quantity as important as in Early Middle English, as no other quantitative changes affected the principles of phonemic opposition or the functional load of vowel quantity to such an extent. Yet certain quantitative changes occurring in later periods, namely in Early New English, together with other processes, accounted for the appearance of several new phonemes. It is interesting to note that the phonetic conditions that caused these changes were in a way similar to those of the Early Middle English period;

(1) Certain consonant clusters in Early New English brought about the lengthening of the preceding vowel. These clusters, however, were different from those which caused the lengthening of vowels in the transition to Middle English; they were [ss], [st], [ft], [nt] and

mainly affected the vowel [a] . The appearance of the long [a:] from the short [a] in these conditions filled the place of the long [a:] in the system (the Middle English long [a:] having by that time disappeared), e. g.

ME *blast* [blast] , NE *blast*

ME *plant* [plant] , NE *plant*

ME *after* ('after], NE *after*

(2)The reverse quantitative change — shortening of vowels — occurred before certain dental or alveolar consonants and before [k] . By these changes words like ME *breeth* [brɛ:θ] and *dead* [dɛ:d] became respectively NE *breath* [breθ] and *dead* [ded], and words with a long [u:] reduced it to [u], e. g. ENE *book* (bu:k] > NE *book* (buk].

Quantitative Vowel Changes

	Late OE or Early ME	Early NE
Lengthening	Before ld, nd, mb, rd, etc. in open syllables	Before ss, st, nt, ft
Shortening	Before other consonant clusters	Before θ, d, t,k

Questions and assignments:

1. What was the position of word stress in Old English?
2. What is the basic difference between the development of vowels in stressed and unstressed syllables?
3. Find some Middle English and New English examples with new positions of the stress which could not have existed in Old English?

Lecture 14

HISTORICAL PHONETICS: DEVELOPMENT OF CONSONANTS AND ASSOCIATED VOWEL CHANGES

Problems to be discussed:

1 .Development of sibilants and affricates.

2. Old English sources of sibilants and affricates.

3. Growth of sibilants and affricates in Early New English.

4. Treatment of fricative consonants in Middle and Early New English.

5. The vocalisation and loss of consonants.

6. Development of Old English [j], *[y],* \x'\ and [x] with special reference to the origin of Middle English diphthongs.

7. Development of [r] and associated vowel changes.

8. Loss of long consonants and simplification of some consonant clusters

Key words: sibilants, affricates, fricative consonants, vocalization, loss of long consonants;

In the history of the English language the consonants were far more stable than the vowels. A large number of consonants have remained unchanged since the Old English period. As we are not in a position to say what were the precise phonetic characteristics of most Old English sounds, we can assume that such consonants as [t], [d], [n], [l], [m], [k] and others, which are shown in Old English words in the same positions as nowadays, have not been subjected to any alteration.

One of the most important consonant changes in the history of English was the appearance of affricates and sibilants, lacking in the Old English period. Sets of these sounds appeared in the language at various periods due to different assimilative changes and the phonologisation of positional variants. Another important development was the voicing of fricatives in Early New English and the new treatment of fricatives from the phonological viewpoint. As a result of these changes a number of new consonant phonemes were added to the system.

On the other hand, at different historical periods we can observe the loss of consonants and instances of consonant vocalisation, significant both for their effect on the consonant system and on the vowel system: owing to the vocalisation of consonants there developed a number of new diphthongs and long vowels. Although the consonants on the whole were more stable than vowels, it is noteworthy, that like vowels, they could be weakened and lost in unstressed syl-lables; many consonant changes were in some way associated with stress.

1. DEVELOPMENT OF SIBILANTS AND AFFRICATES

Old English Sources of Sibilants and Affricates

As was shown in Part One the Old English system of consonants contained neither sibilants except [s/z], nor affricates. The earliest distinct set of these sounds appeared towards the close of the Old English period and was regularly shown in the spelling in Middle English manuscripts.

The new type of consonants arose from the Old English palatal plosives [k'], [g'], (which in their turn had developed from the positional variants of corresponding velar plosives) and also from the palatal [sk']. All the three sounds had developed into independent phonemes already in Old English. Probably their pronunciation became still softer in Middle English and they began to be indicated by special digraphs: ch or tch, dg, sh or ssh respectively.

Development of Sibilants and Affricates in Early Middle English

Change illustrated		Examples		
OE	ME	OE	ME	NE

k’	tʃ	cild tæcan	Child [tʃi:ld] Techen [‘t ɛ:tʃən]	Child teach
g’	dʒ	ec3e bryc3e	Edge [‘ed3ə] Bridge [‘brid3ə]	Edge bridge
sk’	ʃ	Fisc sceap	Fish [fiʃ] Sheep [ʃɛ:p]	Fish sheep

It should be added that [ts] and [d_3] could also enter the Middle English language through a different source; they occurred in many words borrowed from French in the Middle English period, e. g.

ME *charme* [tʃ arm] from OF *charme,* NE *charm*

ME *gentil* l'$d_3$entil] from OF *gentil,* NE *gentle*

2. **Growth of Sibilants and Affricates in Early New English**

Another development accounting for the appearance of new sibilants and affricates in the English language dates from the Early New English period and is connected primarily with the phonetic assimilation of borrowings.

Many loan-words of Romance origin, adopted in the Middle and Early New English periods bore the stress on the last or the last but one syllable. As described above, due to the recessive and rhythmic tendencies, the stress was gradually shifted closer to the beginning of the word. The syllables which thus became unstressed or weakly stressed underwent other phonetic alterations as well: the vowels were reduced and sometimes dropped, and the sequences of sounds making up the syllable generally became less distinct. Assimilation of sounds was intensified and some clusters of two consonants fusedinto a single consonant.

Thus it happened that the clusters [sj], [zj] , [tj] and [dj] — due to reciprocal assimilation in unstressed position — regularly fused into [ʃ] [ʒ] [tʃ] and [d_3] . Three of these sounds [ʃ] [tʃ] and [d_3] merged with the phonemes already existing in the language (due to the process described above), while the fourth [$_3$] made a new phoneme. Thus the four sounds formed a balanced system of two correlated pairs.

Development of Sibilants and Affricates in Early New English

Change illustrated		Examples	
ME	NE	ME	NE
Sj	[ʃ]	Condicioun [kondi’sju:n]	Condition
		Commissioun [komi’sju:n]	Commission
Zj	[ʒ]	Pleasure [ple’zju:r]	Pleasure
		Visioun [vi’zju:n]	Vision
Tj	[tʃ]	Nature [na’tju:rə]	Nature
		Culture kul’tju:rə]	Culture
Dj	[dʒ]	Souldier [soul’djər]	Soldier
		Procedure [prose’dju:r]	procedure

Compare these words to NE *suit, brasier, mature, duty,* where the same consonant clusters were preserved in stressed syllables. In some Modern English words, however, we still

find the sequences with [j] in unstressed position: [sj], [zj] and others; usually they are secondary variants in British English or American variants of pronunciation, e. g. British issue ['iʃju:] despite the change of [s] to [ʃ] has preserved [j] which means that the assimilation in this word was not complete, in the American variant ['isju:] no assimilative changes have taken place; among the variants of British pronunciation we find such pairs as NE *associate* [ə'souʃieit] and [ə'sousieit], NE *verdure* ['vɛ:d3ə] and ['və:djə]; they may be due to Early New English dialectal differences or else to the fact that assimilation * of this kind has not been completed and is still going on in Modern English.

3. TREATMENT OF FRICATIVE CONSONANTS IN MIDDLE AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH

In order to understand the character of the changes in the system of fricative consonants in Middle English and in Early New English we must recall some facts from their earlier history. In Old English the pairs of fricative consonants [f] and [v], [θ] and [∂] , [s] and [z] were treated as positional variants or allophones; their use depended on phonetic conditions — in intervocal position they appeared as voiced fricatives, otherwise they were voiceless. In Middle English and in Early New English these allophones became independent phonemes.

The phonologisation of the voiced and voiceless fricative consonants was a slow process that lasted through the Middle English and the Early New English periods. The first pair to change into phonemes was [f] and [v]. They occurred in similar positions already in Middle English and could be used for contrast as phonemes. Compare, e. g. ME *veyne* ['veinə], NE *vein* and ME *feine* ['feinə], NE *feign.* The two other pairs [θ], [∂] and [s], [z] so far functioned as allophones.

A new, and most important change took place in the 15th or 16th century. The fricatives were once again subjected to voicing under certain conditions. Henceforth they were pronounced as voiced if they were preceded by an unstressed vowel and — though not necessarily — followed by a stressed one, e. g. in ENE *possess* the medial voiceless [s] before a stressed vowel and after an unstressed one became [z], while the final fricative [s] preceded by a stressed vowel remained voiceless. In ENE *fishes* the final [s] preceded by the unstressed [a] became voiced. The latter example shows that one of the phonetic conditions mentioned — a following stressed vowel — was not obligatory for the voicing, whereas a preceding unstressed vowel was more essential.

The Early New English voicing affected a number of monosyllabic words: the fricatives became voiced in many form words which bore no sentence stress,

e. g. ME *the* [θ e] > NE *the;* ME *this* [θ is] > NE *this* (in the latter word only the initial sound became voiced).

It should be pointed out, however, that the process of voicing did not affect all the words with fricatives occurring in the phonetic conditionsdescribed.

Voicing of consonants in Early New English

Change illustrated	Examples

ME	NE	Late ME	NE
S	z	Resemblen [re'sembləп]	Resemble
		Foxes ['foksəs]	Foxes
		Was [was]	Was
		Is [is]	Is
		His [his]	His
F	v	Pensif ['pensif]	Pensive
		Of [of]	Of
θ	∂	There [θɛ:rə]	There
		They [θei]	They
		That [θat]	That
		With [wiθ]	With
ks	gz	Anxietie [aŋ'ksi:ti]	Anxiety
		Luxurious [lu'ksjuriu:s]	Luxurious
tʃ	d3	Knowleche ['knouletʃ]	Knowledge
		Greenwich ['gre:nwitʃ]	Greenwich

On the whole it was rather irregular. Thus, e. g. in NE assemble we find a voiceless [s] in precisely the same conditions as the voiced *[z]* in *possess* or *resemble.* On the other hand, it is noteworthy that the voicing often affected consonant sequences containing fricatives, namely [ks], and also affricates .

The voicing of fricatives in Early New English had important consequences in the history of the English language. Although it was a positional change caused by certain phonetic conditions, these conditions were rather vague and contradictory, and the voicing had many exceptions. Therefore, strange as it may seem, as a result o[these positional changes the voiced and voiceless fricatives began to occur in similar positions and could be used for phonological purposes to distinguish between the morphemes, in other words, they turned into phonemes. Compare e. g. NE *thy* [θ ai], and *thigh* [θai], NE *ice* [ais] and *eyes* [aiz].

It is also significant that the final [s] in unstressed syllables has now become voiced. The sound [s] often formed a part of grammatical endings in the Middle English period, e. g. in the plural forms of nouns, the form of the possessive case, the form of the 3rd person singular of the verbs in the present tense indicative mood. Due to the Early New English voicing all these endings became voiced; later, after the loss of the preceding [ə], the voiced fricative [z], was devoiced again if if stood next to a voiceless consonant.

5. THE VOCALISATION AND *LOSS* OF CONSONANTS

Development of Old English [j], [y], [x'], [x] with Special Reference to the Origin of Middle English Diphthongs.

No less important, however, are the joint changes of both sets of sounds; they affected the vowel system as well as the consonant system, and led to the loss and the appearance of many phonemes. The vocalisation of the Old English velar and palatal fricatives [j], [y], [x'], [x] dates from different periods of history but displays much similarity in its effect on the vowel system.

In the transition period from Old English to Middle English the voiced consonants [j] and [y] between and after vowels developed into [i], and [u], respectively. They fused with the preceding stressed vowels into diphthongs or made the preceding short vowels long,

e. g. OE d æ g > ME *day* [dai], NE *day;*

OE *fu3ol* > ME *fowel* ['fu: əl], NE *fowl*

(but in OE *bodi3* > ME *body* [bodi], NE *body* the unstressed [i] is not lengthened).

The other two consonants, [x'], [x] were not vocalised until Late Middle English, when they underwent similar changes; turning into [i]and [u] respectively, they formed glides of diphthongs or lengthened the preceding vowel,

e. g. *OE niht > ME night* [nix't] > Late ME [ni:t] NE *night.*

These changes were less regular than the Early Middle English vocalisation and the results are not uniform; thus in some words the glide [u] must have appeared before [x] was vocalised.

e. g. ME *taughte* was probably pronounced as ['tauxt ə]; in other words, especially in final position, [x] changed to [f], e. g. ME r*ough* [ru:x] > NE r*ough.*

Voicing of Consonants in Early New English.

Change illustrated			Examples		
OE	ME	NE	OE	ME	NE
ij	I:	Ai	*Ni3on*	*Nine*[ni:n]	*Nine*
ej	Ei	*Ei*	*We3*	*Wey*[wei]	*Way*
æ :j	Ei		*3r* æ3	*Grey*[grei]	*Grey*
æj	Ai	*Ei*	*d* æ3	*Day*[dai]	*Day*
	Ix'(ij > i:)	*Ai*	*miht*	*might*[mix't]	*might*
Uy	*U:*	*Au*	*Fu3ol*	*Fowel* [fu:əl]	*Fowl*
Ay	*Au*	*O:*	*La3u*	*Lawe*[lau ə]	*Law*
oy	*Ou*	*Ou*	*Bo3a*	*Bowe*[bouə]	*Bow*[bou]
	U:x	*Au*	*Dru3op*	*Droght*[druxt]	*Drought*
	A:x ux (u:) (aux)	*O:*	*tahte*	*taughte*['tauxtə]	*taught*

As seen from Table 4, in the course of the vocalisation there developed a number of diphthongs with [i]-glides, namely the Middle English diphthongs [ei] and [ai] (which later fell together into NE [ei]) and a number of diphthongs with [u]-glides, namely the Middle English and Early New English diphthongs [ou] and [an].

The formation of new diphthongs in Middle English was an important event in the history of the language. By that time the Old English diphthongs had been contracted into monophthongs; the newly formed Middle English diphthongs differed from the Old English ones in structure: they had an open nucleus and a closer glide; they were arranged in a system consisting of two sets (with [i]-glides and [u]-glides) and were soon supplemented by similar

sounds from other sources: in Foreign borrowings of the Middle English times we find another new diphthong with the [i]-glide — [DI], e.g. ME joy [dʒoi], NE joy.

Most of the Middle English diphthongs have survived in New English; only the diphthongs [ei] and [ai] ultimately fell together into [ai] and the diphthong [au] was contracted to [o:] as in *law* and *pause.**

Another important consequence of the vocalisation was the loss of velar and palatal fricatives; all the consonants subjected to this change have disappeared leaving certain traces in the vowel system and many traces in New English spelling. The only exception is the sound [j], which has survived in other positions, e. g. NE yes, *curious, duty.*

Development of [r) and Associated Vowel Changes

The historical changes of the sonorant [r] in English is of twofold interest: similar to the evolution of the group of fricatives described in the preceding 'paragraph, these changes pertain not only to the history of consonants but also to the history of vowels. From the descriptions of the Early New English phoneticians (as well as from other sources), it can be assumed that the sonorant[r] in Old and Middle English was a rolled sound, more like the Russian [P] than the Modern English fricative [r].

The sonorant [r] began to influence the preceding vowels already in Late Middle English, before it showed any tendency to vocalisation. One of its early effects on the vowels was that it made the preceding vowel more open and retracted: the cluster [er] changed to [ar] toward the close of the Middle English period. Thus OE *deorc,* which first became ME *derk* [derkJ due to the contraction of the Old English diphthong [eo] , soon changed to Late ME or ENE *dark* [dark] , NE *dark;* likewise OE *clerec,* which after ihe loss of the unstressed vowel became ME *clerk* [klerk] , was changed to ENE [klark], NE *clerk;* OE *heorte* developed into ME *herte* ['hert ə] by the contraction of diphthongs, and passing through the stage of [hart] became NE *Heart.* The three examples are also interesting in that they show different reflections of one and the same change in the written form of the word: in NE *dark* the change of [er] to [ar] was accurately shown in the spelling; in NE *clerk* the spelling points to the preceding stage, when the sequence still sounded [er], and the spelling of the NE *heart* seems to bear traces of both stages, or rather to show another attempt to record the transition of [e] into [a] by indicating its more open quality with the help of the digraph ea. We may note that although the change of [er] to [ar] was fairly common, it did not affect all the words with the given sounds: it may have been restricted to certain areas or prevented for some other reasons. Compare the examples given above to ME *serven* ['servan] , NE *serve;* ME *person* ['person], NE *person,* where [er] survived until the vocalisation of [r] .

The vocalisation of [r] came about later and was a more universal process. Like some of the more recent linguistic changes it was noticed and commented upon by the contemporaries. In the early 17th century Ben Jonson remarked that [r] began to sound "firm in the beginning of words and more liquid in the middle and ends".

In Early New English the sonorant [r] was vocalised in the position after vowels, either finally or when followed by another consonant. Losing its consonantal character, [r] changed into the neutral sound [a], which was added to the preceding vowel as a glide thus forming a

diphthong; e.g. ME *there*[θɛ:r ə] > NE *there.* Sometimes the only trace left by [r] was the compensatory lengthening of the preceding vowel, e.g. ME *port* [port] ;> NE *port* [po:t]; when the neutral [ə] resulting from the vocalisation of [r] was preceded by a diphthong, it was added to the diphthong to form a combination of vowels referred to as "triphthongs", e.g. ME *shour* [Ju:r] > NE *shower.* If [r] stood in the final unstressed syllable after [ə], which was dropped in Late Middle English, the vocalisation of [r] to [ə] resulted in the survival of the ending, e. g. ME *rider (e)* ['ri:d ə r] > NE *rider* ['raid ə] .

The formation of monophthongs, diphthongs and triphthongs in the course of the vocalisation of [r] was a very complicated process, for [r] could occur practically after any vowel, and the vowels themselves underwent great alterations in the Early New English period. The influence of [r] could sometimes slow down or prevent the changes of long vowels under the Great vowel shift, for [r] tended to make the vowel more open while the shift made it closer; sometimes the vowel changed into the nucleus of a diphthong with the [a]-glide (from [r] at an intermediate stage of the shift.

Vocalisailon of [r] and Associated Vowel Changes

Changes illustrated		Examples	
Position	ME NE	ME	NE
After short vowels	Or o:	For [for]	For
		Thorn [θo rn]	Thorn
	Ar a:	Bar [bar]	Bar
		Derk, dark [dark]	Dark
	Ir ə:	First [first]	First
	Er ə:	Serven [serv ə n]	Serve
	Ur ə:	Turnen [turn ə n]	Turn
	ər ə:	Brother [bruð ə r]	Brother
After long vowels	I:r a::	Shire [ʃ i:r ə]	Shire
	E:r iə	Beer [be: r]	Beer
	ɛ:r i ə	Ere [e:r ə]	Ear
	ɛ:r ɛ ə	There [θ e: r( )]	There
	a:r ɛ ə	Hare [ha:r ə]	Hare
	o:r o:	Floor [flo:r]	Floor
	u:r au	Flour [flu:r]	Flower
	u:r uə	Poure [pu:r ə]	poor

As a result of the vocalisation of [r] the vowel system was\ enriched: there developed an entirely new set of diphthongs, [ə] -glides; the new monophthong [ə :] , and also the long [o:] (which took the vacant place of the Middle English long [o:] that had been diphthongised in the vowel shift); the long [a:], which similarly occupied a vacant position,— together with [a:] resulting from quantitative vowel changes,— and a number of complex vowel combinations or triphthongs.

After the vocalisation, the consonant [r] in New English was preserved only initially, after consonants and sometimes in intervocal position. But in the written forms of words the letter r is still used, where it indicated the sound [r] in Middle English. Compare NE read, *dry, errand* and *jar, fort,* etc.

7. Loss of Long Consonants and Simplification of Some Consonant Clusters

In the course of history, English consonants were considerably simplified as far as consonant clusters are concerned, and also as a system, correlated through certain principles.

(I) It is believed that during the Middle English period the consonants lost their quantitative distinctions, as the long or double consonants disappeared. The number of consonant phonemes in the language was thus reduced and one of their principal phonemic distinctive features — opposition through quantity — was lost, e. g.

OE *settan,* ME *setten* [sett ə n], later [set ə n], NE *set*

OE *tellan,* ME *tellen* [tell ə n], later [tel ə n] , NE *tell*

(2) Another kind of simplification of consonants is to be found in consonant sequences. Some consonant clusters, common to the Old English language, were simplified in Middle English, while others, occurring both in Old and Middle English have been simplified in Early New English. One of the consonants, usually the first, was dropped.

Simplification of Consonant Clusters

Change illustrated	Examples		
OE ME NE	OE	ME	NE
xl l	hl æne	Leene [lɛ:n ə]	Lean
kn n	Cnawan	Knowen[‘knouən]	Know
gn n	gn æt	Gnat [gnat]	Gnat
hw w	hwonn ə	When [hwen]	when

Questions and assignments:

1. Prove that the rise of new consonants in Middle English and Early New English was due to assimilative changes.
2. Explain the origin of the Middle English diphthongs.

Lectures 15-16

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR: INTRODUCTION CHANGES IN THE NOMINAL SYSTEM

Problems to be discussed:

1. Form-building means.

2. The noun. Changes in the grammatical categories.

3. Declension types in Middle English. Development of more uniform markers for case and number.

4. The Pronouns. Changes in the personal pronouns and their categories. Development of possessive pronouns.

5. Other classes of pronouns (with special reference to the demonstrative

pronouns and the development of the article)

6. The adjective. Decay of grammatical categories and declensions.

7. Degrees of comparison,

1. INTRODUCTION. FORM-BUILDING MEANS

The historical changes in the grammatical structure of the English language from the Old English period to the present time are no less striking than the changes in the sounds. We may say that since the Old English period the very grammatical type of the language has changed: from what could be termed a largely synthetic or inflected language, English has developed into a language of the analytical type, with analytical means of word connection prevailing over the synthetic ones. The syntax of the word group and of the sentence came to play a more important role in the language than the morphology of the word.

The division of the words into parts of speech, being a most general characteristic of the language, has in the main remained the same. The only new part of speech was the article, which split from the numerals and the pronouns in Early Middle English . Before discussing the specific changes of the main parts of speech we shall make a brief survey of the alterations in the form-building means, for these alterations are equally important for all the parts of speech.

We shall also point out the general directions in the evolution of the nominal and the verbal systems in the two periods under discussion.

Between the 1Jth and the 16th centuries (that is from Late Old English to Early New English) the ways of building up the grammatical forms of the word underwent great alterations. In Old English all the grammatical forms were built synthetically. In Middle and New English there appeared many forms built in the analytical way: with the help of auxiliary words. The proportion of the synthetic forms in the language became very small, since in the meantime many of the old synthetic forms had been lost and no new synthetic forms had developed.

In the synthetic forms of the Middle English and the Early New English periods — few as those forms were — the means of form-building employed were the same as before: inflections, sound interchanges, and suppletive forms; only the prefixes, which were irregularly used in Old English to mark Participle II, practically went out of use in Middle English.

Suppletive form-building, as before, was confined to a few words, mostly surviving from the Old English (and still earlier) period. Sound alternations were not productive from the historical viewpoint: although they still occurred in many verbs, and some adjectives and nouns {and even though a number of new sound alternations appeared in the verb system in the Middle English period) their application in the language was generally reduced.

Inflections, or grammatical suffixes and endings, continued to be used in all the inflected (or "changeable") parts of speech. It is notable, however, that as compared to the Old English period they had become far less varied. In the history of the English language the Old English period has been described as a period of full endings, Middle English, as a period of levelled endings and New English, as a period of lost endings . These definitions give a rough idea of the changes.

In Old English there existed a variety of distinct endings differing in consonants as well as-in vowels ("full" endings). In Middle English all the vowels in the grammatical endings were reduced to the neutral [ə] and many consonants were levelled to [n] or lost. The process of levelling besides phonetic weakening also implies numerous replacements of different endings by one and the same ending by analogy {hence the term "levelled" endings). In the Early New English period most of the old endings were dropped. Compare, e. g. OE *scacan, locian* to their descendants ME *shaken,loken* with the ending [ən] and NE *shake, look,* where [n] has been dropped. The replacement of an ending can be exemplified by ME *fishes* with [s] which came from OE *fiscas,* Nominative and Accusative cases plural, but which had also replaced the forms of the Genitive case plural OE *fisca,* ME *fishes.*

As a result of these changes scarcity and homonymy of grammatical inflections has become a most important feature of the grammatical system (recall, e. g. the ending -s which marks nowadays not only the plural of nouns, but also the possessive case and the third person singular of verbs).

As far as the new analytical ways of form-building are concerned, we must make a special point of the fact that they were not equally productive in ail the parts of speech. Compound forms built with the help of auxiliary words were very numerous in the verb system (embracing both finite and non-finite forms), whereas in the nominal system they were confined to the adjective.

In this respect, as well as in many others, the nominal and the verbal systems developed in widely different ways. The morphology of the noun, the adjective and the pronoun has on the whole become simpler: many grammatical categories were lost (e. g. gender in adjectives and nouns, case in adjectives); the number of forms within the surviving grammatical categories diminished (e. g. the number of cases); the morphological division into stems or types of declension disappeared. It should be mentioned that practically all these changes took place in the Early Middle English period, so that by the age of Chaucer — and certainly by the time of Caxton — the nominal system was very much like the modern.

As to the verbal system, its grammatical evolution was less uniform and cannot be described in terms of one general trend: alongside many simplifying changes in the verb conjugation, such as the loss of some person and number distinctions or the loss of the declension of participles, many developments testify to the enrichment of the morphological system and the growth of new grammatical distinctions. The number of grammatical categories grew, as did the number of categorial forms within the existing categories (e. g. the new category of aspect, or the future tense forms within the category of tense). The changes involved the non-finite forms too, for the infinitive and the participle developed verbal features; the gerund, which arose in the Late Middle English period as a new type of Verbal, has also developed verbal distinctions: passive and perfect forms. It is noteworthy that unlike the changes in the nominal system, the new developments in the verbal system date not only from Middle English but also from the Early New English period. Even as late as the 17th century the verbal system was still in some respects poorer than in Modern English, and many important changes were still under way.

2. THE NOUN. Changes in the Grammatical Categories

The nouns in Old English had the grammatical categories of gender, number and case, and were grouped into an elaborate system of declensions based on an earlier division into stems, and correlated with gender. We must recall that these distinctions were not always explicit: many forms were homonymous; the difference between the genders was formally expressed by the endings of adjectives (or pronouns acting as noun-modifiers) rather than by the nouns themselves; out of the eight forms, that ought to make up a paradigm of four cases and two numbers, the nouns distinguished from three to six.

The simplifying changes in the morphology of the noun began already in the pre-written periods. They continued during the Old English period and were intensified in Early Middle English. The changes of the I2th and 13th centuries transformed the entire noun system, affecting all the grammatical categories and the markers of the surviving forms.

Corresponding OE endings			ME declensions	NE
Number	Strong declension			
Sing.	a-stems Masculine N----- A----- D -e G -es	Common case G	 Fish Fishes	 Fish Fish's
Plural	N }es A D -um G -a	 Common case G	 Fishes fishes	 Fishes Fishes'
	Weak declension			
Sing.	n-stems feminine N –e A –an D –an G - ..n	 Common case G	 Herte Herte, hertes	 Heart Heart's
plural	N –an A D –um G - ena	 Common case G	 Herten, hertes Herten, hertes	 Hearts Hearts'
	Root-stems			
sing	Masculine N--------- A-------- D change in the root-vowel G -es	 Common case G	 Foot foots	 Foot -
plural	N }change in the A root-vowel	 Common case	 Feet	 Feet

	D –um G -a	G	feetes	----

In the Early Middle English period the noun lost the grammatical category of g e n d e r, It must be recalled that already in Old English nouns of different genders were often similar in form. In the 11th and 12th centuries, when the adjectives and the adjective pronouns ceased to show the gender of nouns (losing their forms of agreement), the gender of nouns was deprived of its main formal support. In Chaucer's time gender is a lexical category, like in Modern English: nouns are referred to as "he" or "she" if' they denote human beings and as "it" if they denote animals or inanimate things, e. g.

She wolde wepe, if that she saw a mous.

Caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde. (Chaucer)

"She would weep if she saw a mouse,

Caught in a trap, if it were dead or (if it) bled."

The two other categories of the noun, case and number, were preserved in a modified shape.

The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four (distinguished in Old English) to two in Middle English. The syncretism of cases was a slow process that took many hundred years. As a matter of fact, already in Old English the forms of the Nominative and the Accusative cases were not distinguished in the plural, and in some stems they coincided also in the singular. These case-forms ceased to be distinguished altogether in Early Middle English, while a distinct form of the Dative — with -e — can still be found in the tests of the 11th and 12th centuries. Soon it fell together with the former Nominative-Accusative into what can be termed the Common case (the same as in Modern English). Only the Genitive case was kept distinctly separate from the other cases. The gradual reduction in the number of cases can be seen from the following diagram, showing the intermediate stage in brackets.

Old English	Intermediate stage	Middle English	New English
Nominative	Common case	Common case	Common case
Accusative			
Dative	Dative		
Genitive	Genitive	Genitive	Genitive or possessive

The Genitive case of nouns was formally distinguished from other cases in all the periods of history. However, its sphere of application has gradually narrowed: in contrast to Old English, the Genitive case in Middle English was no longer used as an object, its only syntactical function being that of an attribute:

And specially, from every shires ende,

Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende. (Chaucer)

"And-especially, from the end of every shire,

Of England they went to Canterbury."

The example may also serve to show that in Middle English the use of the Genitive case was as yet not restricted to nouns of certain meanings. This latter restriction set in largely during the New English period.

It would be wrong to conclude, however, that the Common case of the Middle English or New English periods has assumed all the functions of the former Nominative, Accusative and Dative, and also, partly, the functions of the Genitive case.

The Common case has acquired a very general meaning, which was made more specific by the context: prepositions, the meaning of the verb-predicate, the word order. Only with the help of these specifications could it express the various meanings formerly belonging to the different case-forms of the noun. The following passages taken from different translations' of the Bible show how the case-forms used in Old English were replaced by prepositional phrases in Middle English and Early New English, —with the noun in the Common case:

Old English translation of the Gospels (10^{th} c.)	Wyklif's translation (14^{th} c)	King James's Bible (1611)
Eadi3e synd ∂a 3astlican pearfan, for∂am hyra ys **heofena** rice (Genitive)	Blessed be the pore in spirit, for the kingdom **in heuenes** is heren	Blessed are the poor in spirit for theirs is the kingdom **of heaven**
∂ æt hit onlihte **eallum ∂am** ∂e on ∂am **huse** synd. (dative)	That it 3eue li3t **to all** that ben **in the hous**	And it giueth light **unto all that** are **in the house**

The category of n u m b e r proved to be the most stable of the grammatical categories of the noun. The noun has preserved the distinction of two numbers (in countable nouns) through all the historical periods. Only the formal means of building up plural forms have changed. The development of more universal markers for case and number will be considered in the next section dealing with the fate of the old declension system.

3.Declension Types in Middle English Development of More Uniform Markers for Case and Number

The development of more universal means of building case and number forms is linked up with the rearrangement and break up of the Old English declension system. Already in Old English the position of different types of declension in the noun paradigm was not the same: certain types, namely a-stems, O-stems and n-stems comprised larger numbers of nouns and were more influential than the other types: their endings spread to other types of nouns.

In Middle English the declension system was gradually rearranged and became more regular and uniform, The most influential types of declensions attracted the other types; in the Southern dialects the declensions were rearranged in accordance with gender and largely under the influence of n-stems, while in the North and in the Midlands gender distinctions were soon forgotten and played no part in the simplification of the system . The most frequent endings in the Northern and Midland dialects were the endings of the former a-stems,— as shown in the table; nouns of other stems built the surviving case-forms and the plural forms like former a-stems (e. g. ME *herte*, NE *heart*, also ME *name, sunne, eye,* NE *name, sun, eye* — all coming from the n-stems; ME *ook, book, cow,* NE *oak, book, cow* — coming from the root-stems, etc.). In the literary Middle English language of the 14th century the bulk of the nouns took the ending

-es in the plural. The Genitive case of all nouns was marked by -es, both in the singular and in the plural.

The plural forms of nouns in Middle English and — to a lesser degree — in New English have retained traces of the Old English morphological division: stems or types of declension.

As mentioned above, the Middle English plural ending -es [ə s] goes back to the plural ending -as of a-stems (see Table 1). In. Early New English it underwent a number of phonetic changes due to the voicing of fricatives and the loss of [ə] in unstressed final syllables.

Consider the development of the plural ending in Early New English after various sounds:

ME *wolves* [‘wulv ə s] > ['wulv ə z] > [wulvz], NE *wolves* (after a voiced consonant or a vowel)

ME *bookes* ['bo : k ə s] > ['bu : k ə z] > [buks], NE *books* (after a voiceless consonant)

ME *dishes* ['diʃ ə s] > ['diʃ ə z] > ['diʃis] , NE *dishes* (after [ʃ], [s], etc.)

The Middle English plural ending -en, as in ME *horsen* and *oxen,* goes back to the Old English plural ending -an of n-stems. Later it has been preserved only in NE *oxen, brethren* and *children,* although the two latter words originally belonged to other consonantal stems and acquired -en by analogy of former n-stems in Early Middle English.

The formation of the plural by means of a root vowel alternation, as in ME and NE *foot, feet* comes from the former root-stems (OE *fot, fet)*\ in Middle English and New English the number of words which built their plural in this way has been reduced, so that in present-day English only a few nouns belong to this group.

We may also mention that some Middle English nouns, such as ME *sheep, deer, hors, thing* did not change for the plural, which is accounted for by their origin: they came from the Neuter a-stems with a long root-syllable, which added no plural ending in Old English; the number of such words in Modern English has been reduced to three — *deer, sheep* and *swine.*

4. THE PRONOUN Changes in the Personal Pronouns and Their Categories

Development of Possessive Pronouns

Since personal pronouns are noun-pronouns, it might have been expected that their historical evolution was similar to that of nouns; in reality it was different in many respects and was marked by specific peculiarities. In the Old English period personal pronouns had three genders (in the 3rd person), four cases like nouns, but unlike nouns, had three numbers in the 1st and 2nd persons.

In the Middle English and the Early New English periods personal pronouns, similarly to nouns, underwent some simplifying changes. Before discussing the grammatical changes we must point out some lexical replacements in the personal pronouns. The Old English feminine pronoun of the 3rd person singular *heo* (related to OE *he,* NE *he)* was replaced by the ME *sho* or *site,* which was first recorded in the North-Eastern regions and gradually spread to other districts. However, the oblique case form of OE *heo,* ME *hir,* NE *her* has been retained to the present day. About the same time the pronoun of the 3rd person plural OE *hie* was replaced by the Scandinavian

borrowing *they* (pronounced in Middle English as [θei] , In the latter case the replacement was more complete, for the form of the oblique case ME *them,* NE *them,* and the possessive *their* ousted the earlier native English *hem* and *heora* (built from OE *hie).* The two sets of forms — coming from *they* and *hie* — occur side by side in some Middle English texts,

e. g.

*That **hem** hath holpen, whan that **they** were seeke. (Chaucer)*

"Who has helped them when they were sick."

One more replacement was made in the New English period: the form of the 2nd person plural, *ye* and *you,* was generalised both as singular and plural, while ME *thou* still widely used in Shakespeare's time, became obsolete. Compare the similar use of *thou* and *you.* in Shakespeare's sonnets:

But if thou live, remember'd not to be,

Die single, and thine image dies with thee.

Or I shall live your epitaph to make,

Or you survive when I in earth am rotten.

Development of Personal Pronouns in Middle English and New English

person	**singular**			**plural**		
	OE	**ME**	**NE**	**OE**	**ME**	**NE**
1st	N ic A mec, me D me G min	Ich, I Me Me Mine,my	I Me Me My, mine	We Usic,us Us ure	We Us Us our	We Us Us Our,ours
2nd	N pu A pec, pe D pe G pin	Thou Thee Thee Thine, thy	obs	3e 3eowic Eow Eow eower	Ye You You your	You You You Your, yours
3rd	N. he, heo, hit A.hine, hie, hit D.him, hire, him G.his, hire, his	He, she, it Him,hir,him Him,hir,him His,hir,his	He,she,it Him,her,it Him,hir,him His,her,its His,hers,its	Hie Hie Him Hie Him hiera	They Them,hem Them,hem their	They Them Them Their theirs

Both in Middle English and in Early New English the pronouns were subjected to grammatical changes. The category of number was brought into conformity with the corresponding category of nouns: the forms of the dual number of the 1st and 2nd persons went into disuse and the singular forms were directly opposed to the plural ones.

The category of c a s *e* underwent noticeable changes. The forms of the Dative and the Accusative cases, which were sometimes mixed up already in Old English, fell together into one form of pronouns, used as an object; therefore we are justified in calling it the Objective -case in Middle English, like in Modern English. Compare, by way of illustration, the Old English Dative and Accusative cases of pronouns used as objects after the verbs *sellan* "give" and *nemnian* "call" with similar phrases with the verbs ME *given,* NE *give* and ME *callen,* NE *call* with the pronouns in the Objective case:

Æ lfric (10th c)	Chaucer (14th c)
… heo sealed **him** pone mete (dative)	…that yaf **hym** wherewith to scoleye (Objective)
She gave him that food	Who gave him (the means) to study
Alfred (9th c)	
…and **hine** be his naman nemde (Accusative).	I noot how men **hym** calle (objective)
And him by his name called	I don't know how men call him

The Nominative case so far was not confused with the Objective case, but in Early New English we find more and more instances of such confusion: both case-forms are used indiscriminately, e. g.

You have seen Cassio and she together. (Shakespeare) *{you,* the Objective case of *ye,* is used as the subject, while *she,* a Nominative, stands for an object). Two personal pronouns *it* and *you* have ultimately lost all case distinctions. *You* is a former Objective case (in Old English — Dative), while it goes back to the Old English Nominative and Accusative case-forms (the Old English Dative *him,* which did not differ from the Dative of the Masculine pronoun *he,* was still used in Middle English as the Objective case of *it,* but later fell into disuse). Since the other pronouns have preserved the distinction of two cases — the Nominative and the Objective,-- the two-case system is now regarded as embracing all the personal pronouns, *it* and *you* having homonymous forms.

The forms of the Genitive case of personal pronouns had a peculiar history: they split from the personal pronouns into a separate group of pronouns called possessive. Like the Genitive case of nouns, the Genitive case of pronouns was used in the objective and in the attributive functions in Old English, whereas in Middle English it could be used only as an attribute. When used as attributes in Old English the pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons agreed with the noun they modified in case, number and gender — like other attributes —and thus developed certain specific features which distinguished them from other personal pronouns. In Middle English, having lost the function of the object and having retained the attributive function, the forms of the Genitive case split from the personal pronouns altogether. The Middle English *my* and *mine, thy, thyne, his, her,* etc. like other attributes no longer agree with the noun they modify. As seen from the table one new pronoun was added to the set of possessive pronouns: the possessive pronoun its corresponding to *it,* formed on the analogy of other possessive pronouns, replaced the Old English Neuter *his,* homonymous with the Masculine, e. g. Chaucer has: *He moste han knowen love and* ***his*** *seroyse.* "He must have known love and his (its) service."

In later ages the possessive pronouns split into two sets depending on function — conjoint and absolute — and developed certain formal differences: some pronouns took the ending -s in the absolute form like nouns in the Genitive case, e. g. *yours, ours;* in other

pronouns the existing variants were used for the new purpose. Thus *my* and *mine* were variants depending on the succeeding sound {like the Modern English variants of the article *a* and *an;* e. g. *accepts my bileve* and *be **myn** advocat* (Chaucer) "accept my belief", "be my advocate".

5. Other Classes of Pronouns (with Special Reference to the Demonstrative Pronouns and the Development of the Article)

As compared to the Old English period, the pronouns in Middle English can be divided into a greater number of classes. At least two new classes had sprung into being since the Old English period. We have seen that the possessive pronouns had split from the personal pronouns and formed a separate group. On the basis of the oblique case-forms of the Old English personal pronouns (or the Middle English Objective case and the possessive pronouns) there developed one more class of pronouns, reflexive. Their origin becomes self-evident, if we consider their forms in New English. For instance, the pronoun *myself* combines a possessive pronoun, ME and NE *my* with *self;* the pronoun *themselves* is a combination of the Objective case *them* with the plural of *self, selves.*

The other classes of pronouns, interrogative, relative, indefinite and demonstrative, displayed great changes too.

All the inflected pronouns, in line with the general simplification of the nominal system, lost some grammatical distinctions: grammatical categories and categorial forms. The paradigm of the interrogative pronouns had reduced from five to two case-forms as OE *hwa,* ME *who* and *whom;* OE *hweet,* ME *what* had become unchangeable. Of greatest historical significance was the evolution of demonstrative and indefinite pronouns, since it accounts for the formation of the articles.

In Late Middle English the adjective-pronouns no longer agreed with the head-noun in case and gender, and very few of them agreed in number. These developments can well be seen in the history of the demonstrative pronouns. Out of a paradigm of nineteen forms in Old English (representing five cases, three genders and two numbers) the demonstrative pronouns retained only number distinctions and had two forms each: the singular forms — *that* and *this,* NE *that, this*—had developed from the Middle English Nominative and Accusative forms of the Neuter gender, singular of respective Old English pronouns (OE *pæt, pes);* the plural forms — ME *those* and *thes,* NE *those, these* — had descended from the Old English plural forms of demonstrative pronouns. The two pronouns in Middle English made up a balanced system opposed through number. They have been preserved in Modern English and are an archaic trait in the grammatical system, for no other noun modifier — whether it be an adjective or pronoun — has retained the ability of indicating number.

The other direction in the development of the Old English demonstrative pronoun *se, seo, pset* "that" led to the formation of the definite article. This development is associated with a change in form as well as in meaning.

In Old English this pronoun was used as a noun modifier, and frequently had a weakened demonstrative meaning. In the manuscripts of the 11th and 12lh centuries this use of the demonstrative pronoun became more and more common and its meanings grew similar to those of the modern definite article.

In Middle English there had arisen-a formal difference between *that* used as a demonstrative pronoun and retaining number distinctions and *the* used as the definite article and having no number distinctions. Bearing no sentence stress the newly-formed article had weakened its form to *the* (pronounced as [θ ə] in Middle English).

It should be mentioned that some time later, through a similar process of desemantisation and phonetic weakening, the indefinite article developed from the numeral and indefinite pronoun OE *an,* ME *oon*$_t$ NE *one.* In Middle English the indefinite article had the forms *a* and *an* and together with the definite article was used as a regular means of indicating the meanings of "definiteness" and "indefiniteness" of the noun (which were formerly expressed by pronouns, by the adjective declensions, by word order, or were not expressed at all).

e. g. Chaucer has: *all the night* "all the night"; *engendred is the flour (lit),* "engendered is the flower" ("flowering began'); *A Knyght ther was and that a worthy man* "there was a knight and (he) was a worthy man".

6. THE ADJECTIVE

Decay of Grammatical Categories and Declensions

Of all the parts of speech the adjective has undergone the most profound grammatical changes. In the course of time it has lost all its grammatical categories except the degrees of comparison.

We must recall that in Old English the adjective was declined to show the gender, number and case of the noun it modified; it had a five-case system and two types of declension, weak and strong, often serving, together with the preceding pronoun or alone, to present a thing as "definite" or "indefinite".

Towards the close of the Old English period the agreement of the adjective with the noun became looser and in the course of the (2th century it was almost lost. Although the grammatical categories of the adjective were dependent on those of the noun, some of them disappeared even before the noun had lost the respective distinctions. Moreover, the adjective has ultimately lost more grammatical distinctions than the noun, namely the category of number, which the noun has retained.

Table 3 shows the paradigm of the adjective in Late Middle English. If we compare it to the Old English paradigm, we shall see that the endings have reduced to -e (the neutral [a]) or levelled out on the analogy of this one ending. In fact the only difference between the forms in Middle English was the inflection -e, which was added to build the plural in the strong declension and to mark the weak forms of both numbers.

Declention of Adjectives in Middle English

number	ME		NE
	strong	Weak	
Singular	Good	Goode	good
plural	goode	Goode	

However since many Middle English adjectives had the ending -e or other vowel endings in their basic or initial form, they could not show cither the difference in number or the difference between the weak and strong declensions, e. g. ME *able, swete, bisy, frosty,* NE *able, sweet, busy, frosty* had only one form.

The least stable of the grammatical categories of the adjective were gender and case: they had disappeared already by the end of the 12th century. The category of number and the distinction between the weak and strong declensions, as shown in the table, were maintained in some adjectives until the close of the Middle English period.

In the texts of the 14th century the weak forms were sometimes used attributively with the possessive and demonstrative pronouns and with the definite article.

Thus Chaucer has: *this **ilke** worthy knight* "this same worthy knight";

*my **deere** herte* "my dear heart", which are weak forms, the strong forms in the singular having no ending.

The following example shows that both forms could be used indiscriminately:

*A **trewe** swynkere and a **good** was he. (Chaucer)*

"A true labourer and a good (one) was he."

Similarly, the plural and singular forms were often confused in the strong declension.

e. g.

*A sheet of pecok-arwes, **bright** and **kene**,*

Under his belt he bar ful thriftily. (Chaucer)

*"A sheaf of peacock-arrows, **bright** and **keen***

Under his belt he carried very thriftily."

On the whole, homever, number distinctions in Early Middle English were preserved more regularly than the difference between the weak and strong forms; adjectives modifying nouns in the plural often took ending –e, as seen in the last quotation.

The distinctions between the singular and plural forms and also 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 was very unstable already in Middle English. In the 15th century it was dropped, and the adjective lost the last traces of agreement with the noun.

7. Degrees of Comparison

The degrees of comparison are the only set of forms which the adjective has preserved through all the historical periods. However, the formal means employed to build up the forms of the degrees of comparison have considerably altered.

In Old English 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 esf/ost to the form of the positive degree. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an alternation of the root vowel; a few adjectives had suppletive forms.

In Middle English the same form-building devices could be used; the suffixes had been weakened to -er and -est and the alternation of the root-vowel became far less frequent than before; besides, all the adjectives with the sound alternation had parallel forms without it, so that soon the forms with a vowel alternation fell into disuse. Compare: ME *long, longer, lengest* and *long, longer, longest* (the latter set replacing the former). The alternation of root-vowels in Early New English survived in the adjective *old, elder, eldest,* where the difference in meaning from the forms *older, oldest,* makes the formal distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternation are found in the pairs *farther* and *further* and also in the modern words *nigh, near* and *next,* which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the Old English adjective *neah* "near", but have split into separate words.

The most important innovation in the adjective system in the Middle English period was the growth of analytical forms of the degrees of comparison.

The new system of comparisons emerged in Middle English, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the Old English adverbs *ma, bet, betst, swipor* "more", "better"', "to a greater degree", with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in Middle English, when the phrases with ME *more* and *most* became more and more common, they were preferred with monosyllabic or disyllabic adjectives (contrary to the modern usage). Thus Chaucer has: *more swete, yt were better worthy,* Gower has: *more hard* for *"sweeter", "worthier"* and *"harder".* The two sets of forms, synthetic and analytical, were used indiscriminately until the 17th and ISth centuries, when the modern standard Usage established itself and was recommended as correct.

e. g.

*The **merkiest** den,*

*The **most opportune** place, the **strong'st** suggestion,*

*Our **worser** (worse) Genius can, shall never melt*

My honour into lust. (Shakespeare)

It may be concluded that in the course of history the adjective has thus lost all the grammatical categories directly dependent *on* the noun (i. e. all the grammatical forms of agreement). It has preserved only its specifically adjectival category — the comparison — and has developed some new formal means of distinction within this category.

Questions and assignments:

1. Have the pronouns retained the same two cases as the nouns?
2. Say whether any of the nominal parts of speech have developed analytical forms.

Lecture 17.

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR: SIMPLIFYING CHANGES IN THE VERB SYSTEM

Problems to be discussed:

1. Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation: number, person and mood

2. Changes in the morphological classes of verbs.

3. History of the strong verbs.

4. History of the weak verbs.

5. Origins of some groups of modern non-standard verbs.

6. Decay of the old grammatical distinctions in the infinitive and the parti-

7. On the causes of the reduction and loss of inflections.

Key words: verb conjugation, strong verbs, synthetic forms, non-standard verbs,reduction, loss of inflections;

1. SIMPLIFYING CHANGES IN THE VERB CONJUGATION: NUMBER, PERSON AND MOOD DISTINCTIONS

Unlike the morphology of the nouns and adjectives which in the course of history has become much simpler, the morphology of the verb on the whole has been greatly enriched. In some respects, however, the verb conjugation has become regular and uniform. The simplification affected the synthetic forms of the verb inherited from the Old English period and led to important alterations in the distinction of number, person and mood. Similarly to the nouns the verbs have lost some of the markers differentiating between the forms; the number of distinct forms has been reduced and numerous homonymous forms have developed.

Changes in the Verb Conjugation in Middle English and Early New English

ME **loken,** NE **look**

Corresponding OE endings					ME		NE
			indicative	subjunctive	indicative	subjunctive	
Present	Sing.	1st	-ie	-ie	loke	loke	look
		2nd	-ast	Ie	Lokest		
		3rd	a∂	Ie	Loketh,lokes		looks
	plural		ia∂	ien	Loketh,loken,lokes	loken	Look
past	Sing.	1st	-ode	-ode	Lokede		

		2nd	-odest	Ode	Lokedest	lokede	looked
		3rd	-ode	-ode	Lokede		
	plural		-odon	-oden	lokeden	lokeden	

It is seen from the table that most of the Old English distinctions were as yet preserved in the Middle English period, and some of them disappeared only in the transition to New English. In Middle English the inflections were reduced or levelled out by analogy and in New English many of them were dropped.

In the Middle English paradigm, just like in the Old English one, the verb had different forms for the two n u m be r s, both in the present and past of the indicative and subjunctive moods. The three different endings in the Middle English plural form of the present tense indicative mood given in the table, show the dialectal variations of the time. The East Midland form in **-en** was homonymous with the subjunctive and the infinitive, and was the most frequent mark of the indicative plural in Chaucer's time In Early New English the inflection -en was dropped both in the plural indicative and plural subjunctive l (as well as the infinitive). The plural forms fell together with the singular forms in the past tense and in the present tense (except the 3rd person of the indicative mood). Compare the plural forms in Chaucer and Shakespeare showing the loss, of the ending -en.

Thanne **longen** *folk to go on pilgrimages. (*Chaucer)

"Then long folks to go on pilgrimages." My spirit(e)s grow(e) dark. (Shakespeare)

The differences in the forms of person were maintained but had become less varied in Middle English. The Old English ending-ad of the 3rd person singular used in Class 2 of weak verbs, in Middle English was reduced to -eth. All the verbs now added -eth, -th irrespective of class.

The second ending of the 3rd person -es shown in the table was a new marker, first recorded in the Northern dialects. Some scholars believe that it was borrowed from the plural form which commonly ended in -es in the Northern dialects of Middle English. Its use with the singular form steadily grew in Early New English, and Shakespeare uses the form in -es along with the older form in -eth indiscriminately. Compare:

Chaucer: He *rideth out of halle* "he rides out of the hall".

Shakespeare: *My life... sinks down to death,* (But also: *When his youthful morn hath travelled on to age's sleepy night.)*

In the 18th century there arose a stylistic difference between the endings -es and -eth: the former was more common in private letters than in literary texts, and may have been more colloquial; gradually -es became the dominant form in Standard English, -eth being confined to religious and highly poetic forms of discourse.

As we know from Modern English, the ending -(e)s has survived as the only inflection in the verb paradigm, showing person and number. The loss of -est, the mark of the 2nd person singular in the past and in the present, must be attributed to the obsolescence of the pronoun *thou* (if *thou* is used in present-day speech, it is accompanied by the ending-est just as before).

It follows from what has been said, that the formal difference between moods was also greatly obscured. In Old English some of the forms of the indicative and subjunctive moods both in the past and present tense coincided; in Middle English more forms became homonymous. This was an important event in the evolution of the subjunctive mood, as it may have stimulated the growth of new forms.

It is important to note that in spite of all these simplifying changes, the formal differences between the tenses — past and present — were well preserved in all the morphological classes.

2. CHANGES IN THE MORPHOLOGICAL CLASSES OF VERBS

History of the Strong Verbs

The historical changes in the ways of building the principal forms (or the stems) of the verb led to greater uniformity and regularity. The old morphological division into classes of strong and weak verbs has been completely rearranged during the Middle English and Early New English periods.

We must recall that the Old English strong verbs built their principal forms by means of a vowel alternation in the root, termed vowel gradation; the vowel gradation — different in each of the seven classes of strong verbs — was sometimes accompanied by an interchange of consonants. The use of grammatical suffixes or endings was the same in all the classes.

The seven classes of strong verbs underwent multiple changes in the Middle and New English periods due to the phonetic modification of vowels — both quantitative and qualitative.

The grammatical changes of the strong verbs were very considerable. It can be seen from the table that the final syllables of the principal forms of strong verbs, like all final syllables, were weakened in Middle English and some of them were lost in New English. Thus in Middle English the endings -an, -on, and -en (of the 1st, 3rd and 4th principal forms) were all levelled to -en; consequently, inClasses 6 and 7 the infinitive fell together with Participle II; in Class 3 it led to the coincidence of the 3rd and 4th principal forms. In the ensuing period, when the final -n was lost in the infinitive and the past tense plural it was preserved in Participle II of some verbs, probably to distinguish the form of Participle II from other forms.

Due to the phonetic changes of the Early Middle English period the vowel gradation became less consistent and regular than in Old English: thus due to lengthening before [nd] some verbs of Class 3 had a long [i:] like Class 1, whereas other verbs of Class 3 (e. g. ME *drinken)* had retained a short vowel.

The same root-vowel in the infinitive — *finden* and *risen* [i:] corresponded to different vowels in the other forms, which appears to be entirely unjustified from the point of view of Middle English. In many past participles — those with [o] and [a] — the vowel in the root was lengthened, while in others, e. g. ME *risen,* it was not, as the vowel [i] remained short in open syllables.

These and other phonetic processes made the classes of strong verbs less regular than in Old English. No wonder .that the strong verbs were easily influenced by analogy. Due to

analogy, the strong verbs at an early date lost their consonant alternations (see ME *chesen*, Class 2).

The borders between the classes became indistinct, and the classes were often confused — this is shown in the table in the ME *speken*, originally belonging to Class 5, which began to build its Participle II like the verbs of Class 4 — *spoken.*

Principal forms	OE	ME	NE
	Class 1		
Inf	Risan	Risen [i:]	rise
Past sg.	Ras	Rose [o:]	rose
Past pl.	Rison	Risen [i]	
Part.II	Risen	Risen [i]	risen
	Class 2		
Inf	Ceosan	Chesen [e:]	Choose
Past sg.	Ceas	Chees [ɛ:]	Chose
Past pl.	Cuson	Chosen [o:]	
Part.II	Coren	Chosen [o:]	Chosen
	Class 3		
Inf	Findan	Finden [i:]	Find
Past sg.	Fond	Fand [a] or [a:]	Found
Past pl.	Fundon	Founden [u:]	
Part.II	Funden	Founden [u:]	Found
Inf	Drincan	Drinken [i]	Drink
Past sg.	Dronc	Drank [a]	Drank
Past pl.	Druncon	Drunken[u]	
Part.II	Druncen	drunken[u]	Drunk
	Class 4		
Inf	Beran	Beren [ɛ:]	Bear
Past sg.	Baer	Bar [a]	Bore
Past pl.	Baeron	Beren [ɛ:]	
Part.II	Boren	Boren [o:]	Born
	Class 5		
Inf	Sp(r)ecan	Speken [ɛ:]	Speak
Past sg.	Sp(r)aek	Spak [a]	Spoke
Past pl.	Spraecon	Speken [ɛ:]	
Part.II	Specen	Speken [ɛ:] Spoken [o:]	Spoken
	Class 6		
Inf	Scacan	Shaken [a:]	Shake
Past sg.	Scoc	Shook [o:]	Shook
Past pl.	Scocon	Shoken [o:]	
Part.II	Scacen	Shaken [a:]	Shaken
	Class 7		
Inf	Cnawan	Knowen [ou]	Know
Past sg.	Cneow	Knew [eu]	Knew
Past pl.	Cneowon	Knewen [eu]	

Part.II	Cnawen	Knowen [ou]	known

A most important grammatical event in the decay of the old system of strong verbs was the loss of one of their past tense stems in the transition to New English. The first of the two past tense stems was the form of the 1st and 3rd person singular; the second — called here for convenience's sake past plural — served to build the plural of the indicative mood, all the forms of the subjunctive mood and also some of the singular forms (the 2nd person of the indicative mood). The existence of two past tense stems in the Old English strong verbs was one of the important features distinguishing them from the weak verbs (in addition to vowel gradation and some endings).

As can be seen from Table 2, already in Old English the distinction of root-vowels in the four stems was not maintained in all the classes of strong verbs: Classes 6 and 7 distinguished but two root-vowels. Class 1, Class 5 and some subdivisions of Class 3 used a series of three vowels. In Middle English more and more verbs lost the differences in the root-vowels between the four stems, e. g. the verb *chesen* in Class 2. This lack of regularity in differentiating between the four stems led to the levelling of stems by analogy and the ultimate reduction in the number of principal forms in the strong verb. The number of stems was reduced from four to three during the transition to New English: the two past tense stems were replaced by one. The new principal form used to build all the past forms of the indicative and subjunctive moods originated either from the singular or from the plural past tense stem. Both these sources are shown in Table 2, e. g. in ME *risen* the past tense singular *rose* was generalised as the past tense stem, while *risen,* the past plural was lost (NE *rise,rose),* in ME *finden,* the past plural form *founden* gave rise to the New English past tense *found* while the singular form *fund* died out. With some verbs, e. g. *finden,* the changes were carried even further: the verb retained but two distinct forms for the three stems. Sometimes only the ending -en was preserved to show the difference between the past tense and Participle II, e. g. *spoke, spoken.*

Apart from the phonetic and the grammatical changes described above, the strong verbs were subjected to one more change: their number was greatly reduced.

In Old English there were over three hundred strong verbs; in Middle English some verbs died out, while others began to build new, weak forms by adding the dental suffix on an analogy with the overwhelming majority of English verbs.

Among the verbs that began to build the past tense or Participle II with the help of the dental suffix, like weak verbs, were, e. g.

Class 1		Class 2		Class 3		Class 7	
ME	NE	ME	NE	ME	NE	ME	NE
gripen	Grip	seethen	Seethe	helpen	Help	wepen	Weep
gliden	Glide	lien	Lie	climben	Climb	slepen	Sleep
writhen	writhe	bowen	Bow	sterven	starve	folden	fold

Altogether about 70 Old English strong verbs passed into weak ones and only 66 have remained in this group, that is, they still build their principal forms by a change in the root-vowel (termed non-standard vocalic verbs in modern grammars).

3. History of the Weak Verbs

The development of weak verbs in Middle English and in Early New English shows that they displayed a strong tendency towards regularity and system;'

Table 3 shows the'rnain changes in the principal forms of the regular weak verbs in Middle English and Early New English. (The variations of Class 1, which were or became irregular are shown in 2.3.)

Table 3

Changes in the Principal Forms of weak verbs in Middle English and Early New English

Principal forms	OE	ME	NE
	Class 1		
Inf.	Deman	Demen	Deem
Past	Demde	Deemed	Deemed
Part.II	Demed	demed	Deemed
	Class 2		
Inf.	Styrian	Stiren	Stir
Past	Styrede	Stirede	Stirred
Part.II	Styred	stired	Stirred
	Class 3		
Inf.	Locian	Looken	Look
Past	Locoed	Lookede	Looked
Part.II	Locod	looked	looked

As seen from the table the two classes of weak verbs can still be distinguished in Middle English with some rearrangements between the classes. The verbs of the Old English Class 1 with a long syllable and without a vowel before the dental suffix in the past like *demun* retained this peculiarity in Middle English: they added -de in the past tense, without the intermediate e and had -ed in Participle II.

The verbs of Class 2 marked by the endings-ode,-od in Old English, weakened them to -ede, -ed in Middle English. Since a few verbs of Class 1 already in Old English had -ede, -ed (see *styrian)* they can be joined to Middle English Class 2 and thus the classes must be somewhat rearranged. Class I in Middle English (corresponding to part of Old English Class 1) has the endings -de, -ed for the past tense and Participle II, while Class 2 corresponding to Old English Class 2 and several verbs of Class 1 has -ede, -ed respectively.

It is apparent that the differences between the classes in Middle English were very slight; furthermore, in Late Middle English the vowel Is] in final syllables became unstable and was soon lost. This change not only eliminated the differences between the two classes but also eliminated the distinctions between the 2nd and 3rd principal forms within the classes, thus reducing the number of principal forms in the weak verbs from three to two.

Consider the development of the Middle English inflection -ed in Early New English, showing the rise of the modern variants in past tense forms and Participle II of standard verbs:

ME *deemed* [de:md ə] | > [di:md], NE *deemed* (after a voiced consonant or a vowel)

ME *lookede* [lo:k ə d] > [lukt], NE *looked* (after a voiceless consonant)

ME wantede [want ə d ə] > [wontid], NE *wanted* (after [t] or [d].

This simple and regular way of form-building, going back to the weak verbs of Class 2 and the regular verbs of Class 1, attracted hundreds of verbs in Middle English and New English. As was mentioned above, many former strong verbs began to build weak forms alongside strong ones, the strong forms ultimately failing into disuse. The productivity of this form-building device is further borne out by the fact that practically all the borrowed verbs and all the newly-formed verbs in Middle and New English built (heir Past tense and Participle II on the model of weak verbs, e. g. *die, call* (from Scandinavian), *assist, charm* (from French), *decorate, execute* (from Latin).

It should be mentioned, however, that during the Middle English period the reverse processes sometimes took place as well: some weak verbs built strong forms and entered the classes of strong verbs. These changes account for the forms of NE *wear* which was formerly a weak verb of Class 1, OE *werian* like OE *styrian,* but was changed on an analogy with *bear* or *tear,* entering Class 4 of strong verbs, and NE *hide* which has fallen under the influence of *rise, ride* — Class 1 of strong verbs and also *dig* and *string.* There exist only a few i[isolated instances of borrowed verbs developing strong forms, e. g. NE *take* (from Scandinavian), *strive* (from French).

4. Origins of Some Groups of Modern Non-Standard Verbs

As we have seen the proportion of strong and weak verbs in the language has considerably altered in the course of history. The old strong verbs, reduced by over two thirds, constitute an insignificant group in the modern verb system.

It is well known, however, that in Modern English we find many more irregular or non-standard verbs than the sixty-six strong verbs surviving from Old and Middle English. To these verbs, which are referred to as irregular in Modern English, over a hundred verbs were added from other sources. We shall mention some of the sources accounting for groups of non-standard verbs, weak in origin.

Several groups of modern non-standard verbs have developed from the weak verbs of Class 1. Nowadays they employ various form-building devices: the dental suffix and vowel or consonant alternations.

A number of verbs in Class 1 showed certain irregularities already in Old English: (1) verbs like OE *sellan, tellan* had an interchange in the root-vowel accounted for by palatal mutation in the infinitive and its lack in the other forms {past tense *salde, talde);* in Middle English and New English they preserved both the vowel alternation and the dental suffix (ME *tellen, tolde,* NE *tell, told).* (2) verbs like OE *settan,* with the root ending in a dental consonant, had no vowel before the dental suffix in the past tense, OE *sette);* all distinctions between the present and past tense stems were lost when the inflections -e and -en were reduced to [ə] and dropped in Late Middle English: NE *set, set* (the same process accounts for NE *put, cut* and the like, as in all these verbs the final -t of the root has absorbed the dental suffix).

Another group of verbs became irregular as late as in Middle English due to the phonetic changes taking place in the language. Verbs like OE *fedan* or ce*pan* have developed a root-vowel alternation due to the shortening of the root-vowel in the past tense and Participle II (OE *cepte* > ME *kepte* ['kept ə], NE *kept)* and a change o[the long vowel in the infinitive by the Great vowel shift. This group has attracted a number of verbs from other classes — *sleep, weep* (formerly strong verbs of Class 7).

We may conclude that although the relative number of non-standard verbs in Modern English is not large, they constitute an important feature of the language. The tendency to simplify the verb system to two principal stems (which was carried out to the end in standard verbs and several non-standard verbs) was not realised in most of the former strong verbs. Therefore in modern grammars all the forms of the verbs are based on three principal forms, on the model of non-standard verbs, strong by origin, although these verbs are relatively few in number, while the bulk of verbs in English do not distinguish between the past tense stem and the stem of Participle II.

5. DECAY OF THE OLD GRAMMATICAL DISTINCTIONS IN THE INFINITIVE AND THE PARTICIPLES

The system of verbals in Old English consisted of the infinitive and two participles. Their nominal characteristics were more pronounced than their verb characteristics, the infinitive being an old verbal noun and the participles — verbal adjectives.

The simplification they underwent in the Middle English period is therefore much closer connected with the respective changes in the nominal system than with the changes in the verb. The connections with the verb system are more apparent in the other aspects of their history: the growth of new verbal grammatical categories and analytical forms . We can define the general trend of their evolution as gradual loss of nominal features and acquisition of verbal features.

The infinitive had lost its inflected form by the Middle English period: the Old English *writan* and *to writanne* both appear in Middle English as *writen* and with the subsequent loss of [n], | become NE *write*. The preposition *to,* which was placed in Old English before the inflected infinitive to show the meaning of direction or purpose, lost its prepositional force and changed "into the formal sign of the infinitive. In Middle English we commonly find the infinitive with *to* which does not express purpose. To reinforce the meaning of purpose another preposition— *for* —*was* placed before the to-infinitive.

Compare:

To lyven in delit was evere his wone. (Chaucer)

"To live in delight was always his habit."

,.. to Caunterbury they wende,

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

".,. to Canterbury they went in order to seek the holy blissful martyr.

Later, *for to* lost the meaning of purpose, as did *to* in period, and the phrase with *for* fell into disuse.

The two participles lost their case, gender and number distinctions and also the weak and strong declensions in the same way as the adjective, though at an earlier date they were usually uninflected already in Early Middle English.

The form of Participle I in Middle English is of special interest, as it shows considerable dialectal variations. As shown in the map, the Southern and Midland form was built from the present tense stem with the help of-**ing(e)**, while in the other dialects we find forms in **-inde** and **-ende,** the former became the dominant form in the literary language. The Middle English Participle 1 in -ing *sleeping(e)* coincided in form with the verbal noun which was formed in Old English with the help of the suffixes -un3 and -in3, but in Middle English had retained only one suffix: -ing *(sleeping).* The homonymy of the participle with the verbal noun turned out to be an important factor in the formation of a new verbal, the gerund, and also in the development of the continuous forms.

The form of Participle II in Middle English, being one of the principal forms of the verb, was built differently by the weak and strong verbs. In the weak verbs the form of Participle II had a dental suffix and usually did not differ from the Past tense stem, e. g. ME *bathed* — Past tense and Participle II. In the strong verbs it was marked by the ending **-en** and by a specific gradation vowel in each class; this ending was preserved by many verbs in Modern English, e. g. *shaken, forgotten, born,* etc.

In Middle English texts Participle II is sometimes marked by the prefix i-, e. g. ME *i-runne, y-fallen,* NE *run, fallen* which is a continuation of the Old English prefix **3e-**, phonetically weakened to ill. The prefix was not obligatory in Middle English and was completely lost in New English.

7. THE CAUSES OF THE REDUCTION AND LOSS OF INFLECTIONS

All the inflected parts of speech underwent extensive changes between the 11th and the 16th centuries. The causes of these great changes (as well as the entire problem of the transition of English to a more analytical grammatical structure) have given rise to many theories.

(1) In the 19th century the simplification of English morphology was attributed to the effect of phonetic changes, namely the reduction of sounds in unstressed final syllables (originally caused by the heavy fixed stress). Due to the phonetic weakening it became difficult to differentiate between the grammatical forms, and new, analytical ways of word connection sprang into being: prepositions and a fixed word order. This theory ignores the fact that prepositional phrases were widely used a long time before the grammatical endings were lost; besides, it concentrates on the phonetic changes (and phonetic causes) alone and does not take into account the historical tendencies in the grammatical level proper.

(2) Some scholars account for the changes in English grammar by the effect of foreign contacts, the Scandinavian influence in particular. They maintain that when, after the Scandinavian invasion the English and the Scandinavian dialects intermixed, the distinct

pronunciation of roots was more essential for mutual understanding than the pronunciation of the endings; consequently, the endings were easily reduced and dropped. In the first place, this theory is not correct from the chronological viewpoint: the weakening of endings took place already in Old English (and even in Common Germanic) that is a long time before the Scandinavians came to Britain. Secondly, it should be noted that a foreign influence as a rule docs not effect any of the linguistic spheres, except the wordstock. However, the mixture of languages may have brought about a general unsettling of the grammatical rules observed in the language, for it had led to a break in the written tradition.

(3) We should also mention the so-called "theory of progress" proposed by 0. Jespersen, which, despite its obvious weakness, gained certain popularity. O. Jespersen tried to present the history of the English language as the only way to a "superior" kind of language, best appropriate to the needs of human communication and the advance of thought. He asserted that an analytical grammatical system was more progressive than a synthetic one and that it would be attained by other languages in the future, as it has already been attained by English. This theory should certainly be rejected, for it would be wrong to classify languages into "superior" and "inferior", especially on the ground of the form-building means employed. We may recall that in the history of other well developed languages reverse processes have been recorded, when analytical forms were replaced by synthetic ones.

(4) Another theory attempts to attribute the loss of endings to "functional" causes, that is to the loss of grammatical significance or of the grammatical "load" by the endings in the changed conditions. Thus the endings of nouns seem unnecessary when their function has been taken over by prepositions; the endings of adjectives showing gender become meaningless when the nouns have no gender; therefore they can easily be dispensed with, or dropped.

We must say that with the exception of the theory of progress all the views mentioned above may be regarded as partly correct; they are all one-sided, as they lay great emphasis on one of the factors, while in reality the grammatical transformation came about as a result of an interplay of various factors. Both the phonetic reduction and the growth of analytical means contributed to" the change since an early date; even the linguistic intermixture may have somewhat accelerated the process. But first and foremost among the causes was the internal tendency of the grammatical level to work out more uniform and general formal means for the most essential grammatical distinctions and to dispense with those that were treated as unessential (the latter include not only the redundant forms such as a case-form expressing the-same meaning as a preposition, but also some grammatical categories which died out altogether, e. g. gender). It is notable that even the so-called phonetic loss of inflections was carried out on a selective principle: if the inflection was regarded as essential, it was preserved, as was the case with the inflection -en in the plural of nouns and Participle II. The replacement of the variety of formal means used in Old English by the more universal form markers (seen in changes by analogy) was caused by the internal tendency to greater generalisation and abstraction inherent in the grammatical system. Thus the use of two means — a prepositional phrase and an oblique case-form without prepositions — to express the same meaning may have become unnecessary as this meaning could well be expressed by one general means: the prepositional phrase. Likewise, the meaning of the plural in nouns instead of a variety of endings could be shown by the almost universal ending-es; the person of the verb could be shown by placing the personal

pronoun before the verb, which was a more general device than the ending (hence only the most phonetically stable ending **-es** was preserved), etc.

All the languages of the Germanic group displayed a tendency to simplify their morphological structure and to employ analytical means; but in no other language was the tendency carried so "far as means; but in no other language was the tendency carried so "far in English. It proved to be especially strong due to the joint operation of all the factors: the drastic phonetic changes, the internal trends of the grammatical system and the external historical conditions.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Trace the origin of the modern verb inflections -es and -ed and their variants.

2. Prove that the verb-forms in Middle English and Early New English grew increasingly homonymous.

3. What is the difference between the terms "weak" and "strong" and "regular" and "irregular"? Give examples of former strong verbs becoming standard and of former weak verbs becoming non-standard.

4. Why can modern English verbs of the type *sleep, show* be called mixed?

5. Give a critical review of the theories explaining the general trends of grammatical changes in English.

Lecture 18

HISTORICAL GRAMMAR: DEVELOPMENT OF NEW GRAMMATICAL FORMS AND CATEGORIES OF THE VERB

Problems to be discussed:

1.Growth of new forms within the existing grammatical categories. The Future tense

2. New forms of oblique moods.

3. The interrogative and negative forms with do

4. Development of new grammatical categories of the finite verb.

5. The passive forms (the category of voice)

6. The perfect forms (the category of time-correlation).

7. The continuous forms (the category of aspect).

8. Development of verbal categories in the non-finite forms.

The evolution of the verb system in the course of history has by no means been confined to the tendency to greater simplification and regularity. Apart from the simplifying changes in the synthetic forms, the verb system was greatly enriched by the development of analytical forms and new grammatical categories.

As is well known, analytical forms are compound forms consisting of two or more words: auxiliary verbs devoid of lexical meaning and showing the grammatical meaning, and verbals expressing both the lexical and grammatical meanings. An analytical form functions as a single unit being a grammatical form of one word. Historically, however, the analytical verb forms have developed from free groups of words where each word had its own grammatical and lexical meaning. The transformation of free word groups into analytical verb forms signified a change in their interrelations, meanings and functions. These processes partly belong to morphology and partly to syntax, as they are cases of historical transition from the syntactical into the morphological level of the language.

The tendency to develop analytical forms manifested itself since an early period of history. Already in Old English some verb-groups consisting of a finite and a non-finite form became stereotyped phrases and developed into analytical forms. However, their final establishment as analytical verb-forms and their inclusion in the verb-system date from a later period — Middle English, and for some forms — Early New English. We can regard them as part of the verb system only when they have become regular sets opposed to other sets am; used to express uniform grammatical meanings.

It is noteworthy, that once an analytical form or a set of forms appeared in one sub-system of the verb, it penetrated into other sub systems. Thus the perfect forms first arose from free syntactical groups in the active voice of the Present or Past tense indicative and later spread to the passive forms, the future tense, the oblique moods and the non-finite forms. This amounts to saying that numerous analytical forms were built on an analogy with the forms that arose from the free verb-groups. The mutual attraction and penetration of the new types of forms can be regarded as a sure sign of their inclusion in the verb system.

The dating of these developments is problematic; therefore, the description below does not claim to be chronological.

1. GROWTH OF NEW FORMS WITHIN THE EXISTING GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

The Future Tense

The old English language had no separate form for the future tense. The category of tense consisted of two members, the present and the past. The present tense form could denote both a present and a future action. Alongside this device there existed another way of expressing future happenings, namely periphrases with verbs of modal meaning followed by an infinitive. In the phrases with OE *sculan,* NE *shall;* OE *ma3an,* NE *may;* OE *willan,* NE *wilt;* OE *mot,* NE *must* the modal meanings of obligation and volition were associated with the idea of futurity.

In Middle English the use of" the phrases with *shall* and *wilt* became increasingly common. It is believed that the modal meaning of obligation in *shall* grew weaker, when the

meaning of volition in *wilt* was still quite pronounced; one must realise, however, that a precise definition of their meanings in Middle English is hardly possible.

Compare two passages with ME *shall* and *will* from Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales:*

...I ***wol seye*** *as I can... A tale* ***wol*** *I* ***telle****.*

"I will say as I can ... A tale will I tell"

(perhaps: "I want to say as I can ... A tale I wish to tell)

...If I ***shall tellen*** *al tliarray,*

Thanne wolde it occupy a someres day.

"If I tell you all about the dress,

It would occupy a summer's day."

(perhaps: "if I must tell you")

The verb *will* was frequent in popular ballads which may point to its more colloquial character. With these reservations we may regard the periphrase with *shall* and *will* as a more or less standard way of denoting future events in Late Middle English. The existence of the analytical form with *shall* and *will* is further confirmed by the evidence of the grammars in the 17th century. In 1653 John Wallis formulated a rule about the regular interchange of *shall* and *will* depending on person.

It should be mentioned, however, that the Old English practice of using the present tense form to denote a future action was not abandoned although gradually it became more restricted. In the age of Chaucer, as well as in the age of Shakespeare, this usage was more common than today, e. g. *When* ***are*** *you* ***married****, Madame?* (Shakespeare) for "When will you be married?" Compare: *When forty winters* ***shall besiege*** *thy brow* (Sonnet 2), where we see another deviation from the modern usage: the future tense is used in an adverbial clause

2. New Forms of the Oblique Moods

The analytical forms of the oblique moods go back to the same sources as the future tense: combinations of modal verbs with the infinitive. Their appearance is peculiar in that the forms did not denote any new meanings but merely provided new formal devices to express some of the meanings of the Old English subjunctive mood.

We must recall that the Old English subjunctive had a wider sphere of application than the oblique moods today. It was used to present unreal or problematic actions (like the modern oblique moods) and also to present actions in indirect speech.

As was shown in the preceding lecture, in Middle English the synthetic forms of the subjunctive mood became practically homonymous with the forms of the indicative mood. The homonymy of the forms may have stimulated the more extensive use of other means, to denote imaginary and problematic actions.

Already in Old English the modal verbs *sculan, willan* and *ma3an* (NE *shall, will, may)* were not infrequently used in the form of the subjunctive mood — *sceolde, wolde, mihte* — with a following infinitive, to express these meanings. In Middle English many more phrases of similar character came into use:

ME *bid, deign, let, grant, have lever, ben lever,* with various infinitives; they occur in the poems of Chaucer and his contemporaries along with the synthetic forms, e. g.

In al the parisshe wif ne was ther noon

That to the oftrynge before hir **sholde goon**. (Chaucer)

"In all the parish there was not one wife

That should go before her to the offering."

Ful **looth were** hym to cursen for hise tithes;

But rather **wolde** he **yeven** out of doute

Unto his poure parisshens aboute. (Chaucer)

"It would be loathsome for him to curse for (not paying)

the tithes;

It is doubtless that he would rather give (alms)

To his poor parishioners around."

It has been estimated that in the 15th century the ratio between the synthetic forms and these phrases was almost 9 to 1. It is notable," however, that even as late as the 16th and I7th centuries the spheres of the synthetic forms and the new analytical forms were not yet differentiated: the forms were used in similar contexts in Shakespeare's works.

e. g.

In food, in sport, and life-preserving rest

To be disturbed **would mad** a man or beast

Ten times thyself **were happier** than thou art,

If ten of thine ten times **refigured** thee. (Sonnet 6)

The modern distribution of analytical and synthetic forms was not fixed until the 18th century. Another change in the subjunctive mood was connected with the altered relations between the two tense forms of the Old English subjunctive. In Middle English and Early New English the present and past tense forms acquired a modal difference predominating over their temporal difference: the form of the present came to denote probable actions while the past tense began to denote unreal events referred to the present or subsequent period.

Thus Shakespeare

*And never **come** mischance between us twaine.*

(the old present tense of the subjunctive mood denotes a probable action)

*Ten times thyself **were happier** than thou art.*

(the old past tense forms denote an imaginary action referred to the present)

The perfect forms denoting imaginary actions of a prior time period are seen in the following example:

*Yet this disposition of mind **had cost** him dear if god **had** not **been** gracious.* (Thomas More)

Similarly to the perfect forms in the set of synthetic moods there appeared a set of new perfect forms to denote the priority of an action, correlating with the analytical forms with *should* and *would.*

e. g.

*And if an angel **should have come** to me*

And told me Hubert should put out mine eyes

*I **would not have believed** him.* (Shakespeare)

Development of the Oblique Mood Forms

Sources OE subjunctive forms	Modern English Oblique mood forms	Sources OE and ME Modal phrases
Present tense →be,know Past tense →were, knew, should be, would know		←OE sculan + inf. ←OE willan + inf

3. The Interrogative and Negative Forms with "do"

The Early New English period saw the establishment of *one* more analytical form which was not associated with any new grammatical meanings: the interrogative and negative forms of the present and past tenses of the indicative mood built with the help of the auxiliary verb *do.*

In Middle English the verb *do* was commonly used to express a causative meaning (e, g. *And **dide** him grete opes **swere*** (Havelok — 13th c.) "and made him swear great oaths"). The use of *do* steadily increased in Early New English, but the causative meaning passed to the phrase with *make,* while *do* did not seem to affect the meaning of the sentence at all, and occurred in negative, affirmative and interrogative sentences; it was particularly frequent in poetry. Read a few examples with *do* from Shakespeare's plays and sonnets.

(1) I **doe beleeue** you sweete, what now you speak,

But what we **doe** determine oft we break.

(2)Or whether doth my mind, being crowned with you

Drink up the monarch's plague, this flattery?

Compare to a question without *do:*

*But wherefore **says** she not she is unjust?*

*And wherefore **say** not I that I am old?*

It has been suggested that the use of *do* in poetry is to be attributed to rhythm: the poet chooses the periphrase with *do* when an extra syllable is needed in the line. It seems more difficult to account for the spreading of *do* in prose and in the spoken language. The use of *do* in questions may be explained by the following factors: in the 16th and 17th centuries the order of words in the sentence was becoming fixed, and the subject was placed before the verb-predicate. The use of *do* made it possible to adhere to this order in a question, as with *do* preceding the subject the notional verb preserved its place after the subject. It is highly probable that the numerous analytical forms which had established themselves in the language by that time indirectly supported the use of the periphrase with *do:* verb-forms without an auxiliary were now in the minority, and the interrogative construction with modal phrases or analytical forms was built by means of partial inversion, e. g. Shakespeare has: *Will you go with me?* The use of *do* with verbs in the simple forms (present and past indefinite) made it possible to build a question on the same pattern.

Likewise, the place of the particle *not* in negative statements with modal phrases and analytical forms set up a pattern for the use of the periphrase with *do.* Compare*: I will not let him stir* and *if I do not wonder how thou darest venture.* The construction with *do* better conformed to the new pattern than the earlier one (also found in Shakespeare: / *know not which is which),* Only in affirmative statements, where the use of do made no great alteration in the construction — as the predicate would stand after the subject anyway — the periphrase with *do* fell into disuse (except when used for greater emphasis).

4. DEVELOPMENT OF NEW GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF THE FINITE VERB

The Passive Forms (the Category of Voice)

In the Old English period the category of voice could hardly be included in the list of verbal grammatical categories: there existed no systematic opposition of verb-forms showing the relation of the action to the grammatical subject. Only the two participles of transitive verbs, Participles I and II, were contrasted as having an active and a passive meaning.

The passive form developed from the combination of the Old English verbs *beon* (NE *be)* and *weorðan* (NE *become)* with Participle II of transitive verbs: *beon* with Participle I denoted a state resulting from a previous action, while *weorðan* showed the transition of the subject into the state expressed by the participle. The latter verb was still fairly common in Early Middle English (e. g. in *Ormulum),* but not nearly as common as the verb *ben;* soon *wer/hen* was replacedby numerous new link-verbs which had developed from notional verbs (ME *becomen, geten, semen,* etc., NE *become, get, seem).* No instances of *werthen* are found in Chaucer.

In Old English the participle, which served as predicative to these verbs, sometimes agreed with the subject in number and gender, although the agreement with participles was looser than with adjectives. The last instances of this agreement are found in Early Middle English texts: *fewe beop icorene (Poetna Morale*— 13th c.) "few were chosen" (compare it with a line from Chaucer showing no such agreement: *And wet we weren esed atte beste "we were well accommodated:').*

In Middle English *ben* with Participle II of transitive verbs was transformed into an integral verb-form capable of expressing an action (as well as a state) and used in different tense forms, e. g. *With many a tempest hadde his berde been shake* (Chaucer) "*his beard had been shaken by many tempests*". Furthermore, begin ring with Middle English, *be* with Participle II is more regularly accompanied by a prepositional phrase denoting the doer of the action; oul of the great variety of prepositions used in these phrases in Old English and Middle English — *from, mid, with, by,* etc. — the two latter prepositions gradually became the established norm (the use of *with* is shown in the last example).

In Late Middle English and in Early New English we find more and more instances of the passive voice built from intransitive verbs associated with an object ("objective" verbs). In other words, the Early New English period saw the growth of various passive constructions with the subject corresponding to various non-prepositional objects of the active construction as well as to prepositional objects. Compare:

..-of muchel speking yvel — avysed, ...

Comth muchel harm, thus **was me told** and **taught.** (Chaucer)

"Of much ill advised speaking comes much harm, thus was I taught and told"

and

At mete wel **y-taught** was she with-alle. (Chaucer)

"At table she was well taught" (she had table manners)

The type *me is told* passed into / *am told.* A short time later the constructions like *to a man in defense is permitted to hurt another* (Caxton — 15th c.) developed into passive constructions with the subject corresponding to the prepositional object of the verb in the active voice *(A man is permitted.,.).* *

It should also be mentioned that from an early date the passive voice was used in impersonal sentences with the subject *it,* in sentences like the following: *...Hit was acorded,*

granted and swore, bytwene pe King of Fraunce and pe King of Engelond bar he shulde haue agen al his landes (Brut — 13th c.) *"it was accorded, granted and sworn between the King of France and the King of England that he should again have all his lands".*

From the present and past tenses the passive voice spread to other sub-systems of the verb, including the newly-formed perfect, the analytical forms of the oblique moods and — later and to a lesser extent — the continuous forms.

6. The Perfect Forms (the Category of Time-Correlation)

Like other analytical forms, the perfect forms originally developed from free verb-groups. The main source of the perfect forms was the Old English construction consisting of the verb *habban,* NE *have,* a direct object and Participle II of a transitive verb, which served as an attribute to the object, e. g. *Hfefde se 3oda cempan3ecorene* (Beowulf), *lit.* "*had that brave (man) warrior chosen*". The meaning of the construction was that a person (the subject) possessed a thing (the object) characterised by a certain stale resulting from a previous 'action (the participle); the participle commonly — though not always — agreed with the object in number, gender and case.

Another source of the perfect forms ,was the phrase consisting of the link-verb *beon* with Participle II of a few intransitive Old English verbs.

e. g. .. ,*hwaenne mine da3as a3ane beop (*ALFRIC— 10th c.) "*when my days are gone (when I die)*"; in this phrase the participle agreed with the subject.

By the Middle English time the participle in both these constructions had lost its forms of agreement with the noun (subject or object) and — in the construction with *have* Participle II — was moved closer to the finite verb. These changes prove that [lie participle was now more closely connected with the finite verb. Compare the example from *Beowulf* cited above wilh a Middle English example found in the first lines of the *Canterbury Tales:*

The hooly blisful martyr for to seke,

That hem **hath holpen** whan that they were seake.

"To seek the holy blissful martyr

Who has helped them when they were sick."

Gradually the verb *have* came to be used not only with the participles of transitive verbs (and some intransitive verbs of perfective meaning, *s* few instances of which are found as early as Old English), but also with numerous intransitive verbs.

e. g. And thryes **hadde** she **been** at Jerusalem

She **hadde passed** many a straunge streem. (Chaucer)

"And three times she had been in Jerusalem,

She had passed many a strange stream."

Alongside the verb *have,* the verb be continued to be used in Middle English (and also in Early New English) with a limited number of intransitive verbs. One of the late instances illustrating the old interchange of auxiliary verbs is found in the late 17th century in Samuel Pepy's diary:

My Lord Chesterfield ***had killed*** *another gentleman and was fled*.

It should be realised that the formation of the perfect forms in Middle English does not mean that a new grammatical category had at once come into existence (the category of time-correlation, nowadays built by the contrast of perfect and non-perfect forms). This was but the first stage in the formation of the new category: for a long time the perfect forms were more or less synonymous with the simple past forms and denoted merely a past action . Gradually their meanings were differentiated: the perfect forms came to indicate prior actions, while the non-perfect forms did not imply the idea of priority and referred an event directly to a time period. At the same time the perfect forms embraced all the sub-systems of the verb, both finite and non-finite.

Development of Passive and Perfect Forms

Sources **Phrases with *be***	**Modern Forms**	**Sources** **Phrases with *have***
OE *beon*+Participle II of intransitive verbs	Modern English perfect Forms (*have* replacing *be* with all verbs)	OE *habben*+object+Participle II of transitive verbs
OE *beon*+ParticipleII of transitive verbs	Modern English passive forms	OE *habben*+Participle II Of several perfective Intransitive verbs

7. The Continuous Forms (the Category of Aspect)

The development of the grammatical category of aspect in the English verb is linked up with the growth of the continuous forms. In Old English there existed no category of aspect in the verb system (the verbal prefixes which could add an aspective meaning of perfectivity to Old English verbs, in the opinion of most scholars, were word-building prefixes, that also changed the lexical meaning of the verb).

The continuous forms established themselves in the language later than any of the analytical forms described above. The combination of the verb *beon,* NE *be,* with Participle I was sometimes used in the Old English manuscripts to denote a quality or an action qualifying the subject. In Middle English these constructions are very rare; they occur mostly in the North; thus only a few cases of continuous forms have been discovered in Chaucer's works:

Syngynge *he was or* ***floytynge*** *al the day.*

"He was singing or playing the flute all day long."

In Middle English the continuous forms often denoted habitual actions or a permanent characteristic of the subject (as in the example cited); in other words, they were often synonymous to the non-continuous, or simple forms. Very slowly in Early New English they ac-

quired a stylistic difference and later, a more apparent semantic difference from the indefinite forms.

The category of aspect (like the category of time-correlation) became a part of the verb system much later than the first continuous forms appeared in the language — probably in Early New English. In the 17th and I81h centuries the continuous forms partly lost their stylistic restrictions (the emotional and colloquial character) and spread to different styles of speech.

The origin of the continuous forms can be better understood if we consider it together with the development of the non-finite forms: Participle I, the gerund and the verbal noun. The meaning of action, which the construction *be* + Participle I acquired in Late Middle English in place of the meaning of quality (which it usually had in Old English), was reinforced by the use of another, closely resembling phrase: the verb *be* with a preposition and a verbal noun,

e. g. ME *he was on huntyng, this chirch was in bylding* "he was hunting", "the church was under construction" *(lit.* "in building"). It is believed that the confusion of these phrases with the combination of *be* with Participle I gave rise to the continuous forms. The confusion was facilitated by the resemblance between the two constructions when the preposition before the noun was weakened to a- and sometimes dropped.

Compare: *she was* ***a wakyng*** *or a slepe* (Csxlon) "she was awake or asleep" and / *was writing of this very line* (Pepy's diary — 17th c).

The appearance of perfect and passive forms in the continuous aspect date from a still later period. Although the first instances of perfect continuous are found in Middle English: *We* ***han ben waltynge*** *al this fourtenyght* (Chaucer) "we have been waiting all this fortnight", the forms remain rare till the 17th and 18th centuries. The passive form in the continuous aspect was not stabilised until the 19th century (the common confusion of the constructions *the house is being built* and *the house is building* was mentioned and commented upon by the grammarians in the last two centuries).

8. DEVELOPMENT OF VERBAL CATEGORIES IN THE NON-FINITE FORMS

The development of analytical forms and new grammatical categories has transformed not only the finite verb-system but also the non-finite forms. As shown in Lecture 19, toward the Middle English period the infinitive and the participles had lost many nominal features (namely, their nominal grammatical categories). In Middle English and Early New English the system of verbals was transformed due to the addition of analytical forms, the strengthening of verbal features and the growth of an entirely new non-finite form, the gerund. It is notable that most of the compound forms of the verbals did not develop directly from free verb-groups but arose under the influence of respective finite forms in accordance with the established patterns of analytical forms with the auxiliary verbs *have* and *be* and the required form of the participle. The growth of analytical forms of verbals is a proof of the fact that these patterns had really become productive grammatical forms associated with a distinct grammatical meaning.

Among the earliest compound forms was the passive infinitive which occurs already in Late Old English. In Middle English the passive and perfect infinitives are rather common, e. g.

pey pep ***to be blamed*** *eft parfore. (Robert Mannynge c. 1300)*

"They are to be blamed for that."

He moste **han knowen** love and his servyse

And been a feestlych man as freesh as May. (Chaucer)

"He must have known love and its service

and been a jolly man as fresh as May."

The compound participles do not make their appearance in the language until the 15th and 16th centuries.

e. g,

The seid Duke of Suffolk being most trostid with you... (Paston Letters — 15th c.)

"The said Duke of Suffolk being most trusted by you...",

and remain relatively rare in the succeeding centuries.

The growth of the gerund took place essentially in the Middle English and Early New English periods. The gerund goes back to three sources: in the first place, to the Old English verbal noun, which had the suffix -un3 or –in3, and also to Participle I and the infinitive, which in Old English was a kind of verbal noun.

The syntactical functions of the verbal noun, the infinitive and the participle overlapped, as they could all stand after a verb as part of a verb pattern. In addition, the verbal noun and Participle I in Middle English coincided in form. The formal confusion of the forms led to the use of the direct object with the verbal noun. This purely verbal feature — the direct object — as well as the subsequent loss of the article transformed the former verbal noun into the gerund in the modern meaning of the term. The loss of the Old English inflected infinitive may have contributed to the change, as it widened the sphere of the gerund.

The earliest instances of the gerund date from the 12th century. Chaucer uses the -ing-form both ways: with a prepositional object like a noun and with a direct object like a verbal.

e. g. in *getynge of your richnesse and in usinge hem"* in getting- your riches and using them".

In Early New English it acquired new verbal features: like Participle 1 it began to distinguish voice and time-correlation.

e. g.

To let him spend his time no more at home.

Which would be great impeachment to his age

*in **having known** no travel in his youth. (Shakespeare)*

Thus, having acquired many verbal features and retained some nominal features (the syntactical functions and the ability to be modified by a possessive pronoun or the possessive case of nouns) the gerund became a new unit of the verb-system in the New English period.

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. Describe the development of analytical verb-forms from modal phrases.

2. In what way is the rise of *do* as an auxiliary verb connected with the changes in the syntax and growth of analytical forms?

3. Trace the different directions (and results) of the evolution of the Old English verb group *beon* plus Participles I and II.

4. What semantic and , ji'jihological alterations account for the appearance of the perfect forms out of the phrase with *have?*

5. Give an account of the history of Participle I showing its role in the formation of the continuous forms and the gerund.

Lecture 19.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE VOCABULARY IN MIDDLE AND NEW ENGLISH

Problems to be discussed:

1. Internal means of the growth of the English wordstock.

2. The history of word derivation.

3. Prefixation. Old English prefixes in Middle and New English.

4. Prefixation. New prefixes borrowed in Middle and New English.

5. Prefixation. New prefixes developed from prepositions and adverbs.

6. Development of verb-adverb combinations.

7. Suffixation. New suffixes borrowed in Middle and New English.

8. Suffixation. New suffixes developed from second components of

9. The history of conversion.

10. The history of word composition.

11. Word composition. Asynlactic compounds.

12. Word composition. Syntactic compounds.

13. Word composition. Derivational compounds.

INTERNAL MEANS OF THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH WORDSTOCK

As mentioned previously, the replenishment of the English vocabulary was carried out not only by external, but also by internal means, that is by various processes of word formation and change of meaning.

In every period of the history of the English language the principal word-building means were word derivation and word composition. It should be noted, however, that though word derivation and word composition were preserved throughout the whole history of the English language, considerable changes took place within their systems. It is important to stress that these changes appeared as a result of long and gradual processes and, therefore, it would be impossible to refer them to any particular time. Thus, for example, the beginnings of the destruction of the Old English system of prefixation can be observed already in the Old English period. By the end of the Middle English period most of the Old English prefixes had lost their productivity, but occasional new derivatives were still formed even in the New English period. Therefore, we may roughly say that the Old English system of prefixation was destroyed in the Middle English period.

It will be now our task to consider the history of changes in the system of word formation in the English language since the Old English period.

THE HISTORY OF WORD DERIVATION

Word derivation in the Old English period was represented by affixation and sound alternations.

Sound alternations as a word-building means had become nonproductive by the age of writing — all the derivatives showing sound alternations were formed in the pre-written period of the English language or go back to Common Germanic* Therefore, the function of sound alternations was restricted to word differentiation already in the written period of Old English and has remained the same ever since: no new words were coined with the help of sound alternations either in Middle or New English.

Affixation as a word-building means has not only been preserved throughout the history of English, but the application and the function of both prefixation and suffixation have remained in the main unchanged. As in Old English, prefixation has been most productive in the formation of verbs, whereas suffixation has been more characteristic of nominal parts of speech. Prefixes were used mostly to build new words belonging to the same part of speech, but with a new meaning, whereas suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of a word, but could also convert it into a different part of speech.

Since the Old English period the system of affixation has suffered considerable changes. First of all, some Old English affixes (especially prefixes) in the course of time became non-productive or disappeared from the language altogether. At the same time the system of affixation was replenished by a considerable number of new affixes which either developed on the basis of native root-morphemes or were borrowed from foreign languages (French, Latin or Greek).

Prefixation. Old English Prefixes in Middle and New English

In Middle English the number of new verbs built by means of prefixation considerably decreased due to the general decay of the system of prefixatjon which had begun already in Old English.

As far back as the Old English period some English prefixes developed very general vague meanings and were used mostly to intensify the meaning of a verb so that in many cases the meaning of simple words and derivatives did not differ. In Middle English such prefixes gradually lost their productivity and were no longer used to form new words. By the end of the Middle English period almost all verbs containing such prefixes had gone out of use being replaced by simple words of the same root or by borrowings. For example, OE *brecan, forbrecan, to-brecan* in Middle English were used interchangeably in the meaning "break", "break to pieces". Towards the beginning of the New English period two of these verbs had become obsolete being completely replaced by the simple verb: NE *break.*

The old prefixes remained, however, in those words which distinctly differed in meaning from words without prefixes. Thus, OE *cuman* and *be-cuman* were synonyms used in the meaning "arrive". In Middle English *becumen* developed a new meaning "agree" or "accord with, suit" and lost its old meaning. Thus, by the New English period the simple and the derived verbs were no longer synonymous, which accounts for the preservation of both verbs in the language.

In a number of verbs the prefix not only lost its independent meaning but was also reduced so much in form that it was no longer distinguished; consequently, formerly derived words turned into simple ones. Compare, for example, OE *and-swaru,* a derived word consisting of the prefix *and-* "against" and *swara* "affirmation", "swearing" related to OE *swearian,* NE *swear.* Already in Middle English the form of the word was simplified: ME *answere.* This simplification was facilitated by the fact that the prefix and- grew non-productive already in Old English.

Though most of the Old English prefixes were no longer productive by the end of the Middle English period, some of them were still employed in Middle English, which can be illustrated by a number of derivatives formed from borrowed words. Compare, for example. Late OE *tacan,* NE *take* (Scand.) and ME *a-taken* 'lake", *of-taken* "overtake"; ME *riven.* NE *rive* (Scand.) and ME *to-riven* "break up"; ME *Mien,* NE *toil* (Fr.) and ME *to-toilen* "break to pieces"; ME *tasten,* NE *taste* (Fr.) and ME *a-tastin* "taste".

However, like the earlier derivatives these words went out of use by the New English period.

Of all the Old English prefixes only the negative prefixes mis-and un-, and also the prefix be- were most frequently used throughout Middle English forming new words both from native and borrowed stems. These prefixes have remained productive in New English as well. Consider some derivatives formed with the help of these prefixes in Table 1.

Prefixes	ME		NE	
	Words derived	Words derived	Words derived	Words derived

	from native stems	from borrowed stems	from native stems	from borrowed stems
Be-	Befreeze Besmoke Beseech Bestow Bewitch	Becharm Befool Betake begrudge	Befriend Bewreathe Bewater Befeather Belittle besilver	Beflower Bejewel Belace Becircle bewig
Mis-	Misbelieve Misdeem Misplay Misunderstand	Misadvise Misinform Mistake misuse	Misname Missee Misfire Mislearn misspelling	Misfortune Misjudge Mispronounce Misappreciate Misapprehend mismanagement
un	Unable Unfetter Unknown Unrest	Unfit Uncertain Unbutton Unplace unreasonable	Unfreeze Unhook Unload Unrope unselfish	Uncommon Unfamiliar Unreal Undress Unconscious Undemocratic undescriptive

Prefixation. New Prefixes Borrowed in Middle and New English

The loss of many of the native prefixes did not lead to the complete decay of the system of prefixation as a word-building means, for many new prefixes appeared between the 14th and 17th centuries in English. Most of them were borrowed from foreign languages, while others developed from the first components of compound words.

Among French and Latin loan-words there were numerous derivatives built up by prefixation. As is usual in case of loan-words, their morphological structure was not-understood at the time of borrowing, and even much later many of them still functioned as simple words. Compare, for example, the following words in which the prefixes could hardly be discerned: ME *committee,* NE *commit* (Lat. *commiitere* derived from the verb *mittere* "send" by means of the prefix com-"together"}; ENE *previous* (Lat. *praevius* derived from *via* "way"with the help of the prefix prae- "before").

When the number of borrowed words with the same prefix was large enough to make their morphological structure transparent, the foreign prefix was isolated and began to be employed for the formation of new words from native and borrowed stems. The adoption of the corresponding simple word as well as other derived words with the same stem but different prefixes, naturally contributed to the process of the isolation of foreign prefixes. The beginning of this process is usually referred to the 14th century, although it did not gain much ground until the Early New English period. Table 2 below illustrates the adoption of the French prefix dis- in the English language.

Borrowed words with	Borrowed words with	Derivatives with	Derivatives with the

the same prefix	the same stem and different prefixes	native prefixes from the same stems	borrowed prefix dis-
Disclose Disprove Disallow Discover Disguise Disobey display	Declose Inclose Improve Reprove	Beclose Foreclose Unclose Unprove misprove	Disbelieve Dislike Disown Disconnect Disroot distrust

Other prefixes borrowed in Middle English are: en-/em-, in-/im-, non- and re-. They first found their way into English as parts of French or Latin loan-words. The earliest derivatives formed in the English language with the help of these prefixes were recorded at the end of the Middle English period, though they were not very numerous and were formed mostly from borrowed (Romanic) stems. Since the 16th century, however, the productivity of the borrowed prefixes (especially that of en-/em- and re-) increased, and they gave rise to a great number of derivatives both from native and borrowed stems.

Some of the borrowed prefixes turned out synonymous to the native ones. Thus, the borrowed prefixes dis-/des-, iiWim- and non- were synonymous to the native negative prefixes mis- and un- and some-times'appeared to be interchangeable. Consider, for example, the following pairs of synonyms with the native and borrowed prefixes which coexisted in the language for some centuries: *unable* (14th c.) *obs. disable* (15th c.) — *obs. non-able* (16th c); *unlike* (13th c.) — *obs. dislike* (16th c), *adj.; mislike* (OE) — *dislike* (16th c), *v.; misbelief* (13th c.) — *disbelief* (17th c); misuse (14th c.) — *disuse* (14th c); *unpleasant* (16th c.) — *obs. displeasant* (15th c); *obs. unpossible* (14th c.) — *impossible* (14th c). In the course of the time only one word"of the pair remained in the language, the other synonym falling out of use, unless one or both of them developed different shades of meaning. Thus, *unable, unlike, unpleasant* — with the native prefix un-have survived, whereas the synonyms with the borrowed prefix (dis-or non-) have become obsolete. On the other hand, *mislike,* with the native prefix, has been crowded out into dialectal use, while its synonym *dislike,* with the borrowed prefix, is now in common use. Like-wise, *impossible,* with the borrowed prefix, has survived in Modern English, whereas *unpossible* has gone out of use.

prefix	origin	ME		NE	
		Words derived from native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems	Words derived from native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems
En-/em- In-/im	Fr. Lat.	Inbreathe Enhunger enwrap	Enable Enclose En(in)act entail	Embody Endear Embitter Enfetter Embank Embrown En(in)fold	Encamp Endanger Encircle Impocket enlist
Non-	Lat.	Non-being	Non-payment Non-ability	Obs. Non-wit Obs. Non-will	Non-descript Non-

			Non-residence	Non-worker	resistance Non-usage Non-efficient Non-essential Non-existent
Re-	Fr.	Renew recross	Reassemble Redeliver repack	Rebuild Relive Reset Rewrite Reopen Reread rewind	Reconsider Review Reboil Reconstruct Reoccupy repaint

In the other pairs both words have been preserved, but with different shades of meaning. Compare NE *misuse* "use wrongly" — *disuse* "cease to use"; NE *disbelief* "lack of faith" — NE *misbelief* "false opinion".

In Early New English some more prefixes were borrowed from Greek and Latin. The use of Latin and Greek prefixes was restricted to scientific and political terminology, but within these spheres most of the prefixes proved to be highly productive and have retained their productivity in present-day English. They were used to form new words chiefly from foreign stems, but some of them were also combined with native stems. Consider a few derivatives formed with the help of these prefixes since the Early New English period.

prefix	Origin	Words derived from native stems	Words derived from foreign stems
Anti- Co- Ex- Extra- Post- Pre- Super- Trans- ultra	Gr. Lat. Gr. Lat. Lat. Lat. Lat. Lat. Lat.	Antibody Co-tidal - - - Pre-doom Superheat Superman Transship Ultra-short	Anticlimax Anticyclone Coexist Cotenant Copartner Ex-bishop Ex-president Extra-natural Extra-curricular Post-graduate Post-position Pre-classical Pre-elect Super-natural Super-sensible Transatlantic Transplant Ultra-violet Ultra-fashionable

It is noteworthy that most prefixes of this group are international and have been employed in the formation of new words in many European languages. Compare, for example, the following derivatives of the 19th century:

English	German	french	Russian

Transatlantic ultraviolet	Transatlantisch Ultraviolet	Transatlantique ultraviolet	Трансатлантический ультрафиолетовый

Prefixation. New Prefixes Developed from Prepositions and Adverbs.

Another group of new prefixes developed from native prepositions and adverbs. In Old English the prepositions or adverbs ofer-, ut-, upp-, under- (NE over-, out-, up-, under-) were used in making new words (mostly verbs and nouns);

OE ofer-: *oferseon* "observe", "survey"; *ofer-fleon* "fly over"

OE ut-: *ut-land* "foreign country"; *ut-la3ian* "outlaw"

OE up-: *up-bre3dan,* NE *upbraid; up-land* "up-country"

OE under-: *under-lic3an* "submit", "yield"; *under-lecan* "support".

Already in Old English the first element of such compounds sometimes lost its adverbial force (local meaning), thus approaching or even assuming the nature of a prefix. However, these prefixes did not gain much strength until the end of the Middle English period. Most productive among them were out-, over- and under-, their productivity increasing with each century, so that in Modern English they belong to the most productive prefixes. Words derived by means of these prefixes may be found actually among all principal parts of speech, e. g. *overcoat (n.), overfull (adj.), overflow (v.).*

Consider below some derivatives formed in different periods of history both from native and borrowed stems:

	ME		NE	
prefix	Words derived native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems	Words derived from native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems
out	outburst outcome outdo	outcast outcry out pass	outline outtalk outlook outspoken outspread	outbalance outvote outbloom outclass outfit
over-	overgrow overbear overthrow	overcast overcarry Overtake	overheat overload Overshoeoverloo	over-production overboil overestimate

		Overcharge overpraise	k overcreep	overdose overdress
under-	undercreep underwrite underwood	undercut undi rlake undermine	Underground underfoot underbreath underbrush underflow underwear	Undercharge underrate undervalue underdose underestimate underskirt

Development of Verb-Adverb Combinations

In Old English, as well as in all the other Germanic languages, there were numerous verbs built by what is often called "separable prefixes", i. e. elements which in certain forms (the infinitive, the participle, finite forms in subordinate clauses) preceded the stem of Ihe verb and in the other forms were separated and placed after the verb. These Old English "separable prefixes" go back to locative adverbs (OE *in, upp, at, Purh)* and their main function was to specify the direction of the action expressed by the verb, e. g. OE 3a*n* "go" — *uta3an* "go out". As a result of a long and gradual development these locative "prefixes" came to be placed after the verb in all its forms. The new tendency was already evident in Old English and was constantly gaining strength. In the 13th century the prefix was still often found before the verb, but by the 15th century this state of things had largely disappeared and the former "separable prefixes" regularly followed the verb. Consider the following examples dating from the 15th and 16th centuries:

...much lesse it yeldeth any overplus, that may dayly ***be layde up*** *the relyefe of old age. (Th. More — I6th c.)*

"...much less did they (wages) yield any surplus which could be laid up for old age."

In this tyme the Lolardis set up scrowis at Westminster and Poules. (John Capgrave— 15th c.)

"At this time the Lolards provided scrolls at Westminster and St. Paul's."

It should be noted here that not only Old English "separable prefixes" turned into post-positional adverbs, but also some adverbs which had never been used as "separable prefixes" (e. g. *away, down, forth).* For example:

And panne come Pees into parlement and ***put forth*** *a bille. (Lang-land — late 14th c.)*

"And then came Piers into the Parliament and presented a bill."

During the Middle English period the new verb-adverb combinations frequently replaced the old verbs built with the help of prefixes.

Compare: OE *a-findan,* ME *a-finden,* NE *obs. an*d NE *find out;*

OE *a-drifan,* ME *a-driven,* NE *obs.* and NE *drive away;* ME *belocen,* NE *obs.* and NE *look up.*

As to the causes that brought about the appearance of the new structural pattern verb-adverb combinations, most scholars believe that it was connected with the position of the Germanic stress on the first, or root syllable. The locative prefixes, when used in their primary meaning, were strongly stressed, which must have contradicted the general law of the stress and, therefore, the stressed prefixes were separated and placed in the new position after the verb.

It is also believed that the Scandinavian influence might have promoted the development of the new structural type, for in the Scandinavian dialects the combination of a verb[1] with a locative adverb was very common.

Suffixation. Old English Suffixes in Middle and New English

The process of the "ageing" of suffixes which started in the Old English period, resulted in the loss of some of the old native suffixes. Thus, the Old English suffixes of concrete nouns -nd, -en and some suffixes of abstract nouns -ap/-op, -p, -t, -u were no longer employed in Middle English for the formation of new words.

Many of the earlier derivatives containing these suffixes were replaced in the Middle English period by synonyms of native or foreign origin

e. g. OE *huntop,* ME *hunteth,* NE *obs.* —ME *huntinge,* NE *hunting;*

OE *yldu,* ME *elde,* NE *obs.* — ME *age,* NE *age* (Fr.);

OE *wtencu,* ME *wlaunke,* NE *obs.*

Late OE *pryde,* ME *pride* NE *pride.*

Others underwent morphological simplification either due to the phonetic reduction of the unstressed syllable (e.> g. OE *haetu, ME heat,* NE *heat;,OE wrseppu,* ME *wrathe,* NE *wrath)* or because the suffix in them was no longer distinguished, being found in isolated words (e. g. OE *freond,* ME *friend,* NE *friend;* OE *dru3op,* ME *droghte,* NE *drought).*

Other Old English suffixes remained productive throughout the Middle English period and preserved their productivity up to modern times forming new words both from native and borrowed stems as shown in Table 7.

	suffix	ME		NE	
		Words derived from	Words derived from	Words derived from	Words derived from borrowed

		native stems	borrowed stems	native stems	stems
nouns	-er	Drawer Hunter Rider Singer Seller Speaker worker	Foreigner Roaster Prompter Publisher farmer	Listener Smoker Fresher Washer follower	Employer Lecturer Rectifier Manager Producer Igniter Revolver scooper
	-ing	Beginning Feeling Selling Shipping Greeting heading	Departing Spelling Recording preaching	Firing Smoking Frosting Floating Browning shopping	Signing Proceding Manoeuvring Blanking Collecting Spacing racing
	-ness	darkness Hardness Quickness Sickness	Closeness Quietness Richness Tenderness clearness	meanness Narrowness Prettiness Shyness willingness	Politeness Rigidness Seriousness Callousness conscious
adjectives	-ed	Silvered Starred wrinkled	Coloured Covered crusted Crooked Diseased talented	Bearded Combed Corned Fleeced Widowed frosted	Coated Jacketed Skilled Chimneyed Detailed flavoured
	-ish	Greenish Reddish Sheepish smallish	foolish	Bookish Boyish Coldish Babyish Cleanish Narrowish prettyish	Monkish Roundish Clearish Frankish Gayish Largish vulgarish
	-y	Crafty Crispy Fiery Rosy sleepy	Faulty Flowery rocky rooty	Drowsy Fishy Healthy Lanky Lengthy Snabby shaky	Dirty Greasy Lucky Plumpy Catchy Risky sketchy

It should be pointed out that the Old English suffixes that are still productive in the present-day English language have undergone considerable changes either in the range of their application or

in their lexical meaning or sometimes in both. For example, OE -isc was originally used in forming adjectives from nouns (e. g. OE *cildisc,* NE *childish).* But already in Middle English its application widened and it was combined with adjective-stems, especially those denoting colour, e. g. ME *redische,* NE *reddish;* ME *blewysch,* NE *bluish;* ME *grenyssh,* NE *greenish.* One of the most productive suffixes -er was used in Old English for the formation of new words from noun- and verb-stems. In later ages it was also combined with adjective-stems, e. g. *foreigner* (15th c), *fresher* (19th c).

Some suffixes developed new meanings and became polysemantic or even homonymous. For example, the suffix -er in Old and Middle English was used to form nomina agentis, whereas in the Early New English period it developed a new meaning — that of an instrument or an implement. Compare: *boiler* "one who boils" (16th c.) and *boiler* "a vessel in which any liquid is boiled" (18th c); *converter* "one who converts others to any faith" (16th c.) and *converter* "apparatus for converting one thing to another" (19th c).

Sometimes a new meaning appeared when the suffix was combined with the stems of other parts of speech. For example, OE -isc, NE -ish, when combined with noun-stems, had the meaning "characteristic of" (ME *folisch,* NE *foolish;* ENE *feverish);* but when it came to be combined with adjective-stems it began to denote a weakened degree of the quality indicated by the stem (ME *jetowissche,* NE *yellowish;* ME b*lakysh,* NE *blackish;* ENE *warmish).*

A similar process can be observed in the history of the Old English suffix-i3, NE-y. Since the Old English period this suffix has been added to noun-stems with the meaning "having the quality of, full of", e. g. OE isi3, NE *icy:* ME *fiery,* NE *fiery;* ENE *leafy.* As early as the 13th century it began to be used with verb-stems as well to express the meaning "inclined to do something", e. g. ME *sleepy;* ENE *drowsy;* NE *shaky.*

Suffixation. New Suffixes Borrowed in Middle and New English

Since the end of the Middle English period extensive use has been made of foreign suffixes borrowed from French, Latin and Greek. It should be understood, however, that, as in cage of foreign prefixes, before foreign suffixes could be used in forming new words a consi-derable number of foreign words with the same suffix must have accumulated in the language to make their morphological structure transparent. The adoption of the corresponding simple word or clusters of words having the same stem but different suffixes, facilitated the process.

Borrowed words with the same suffix	Borrowed words with the same stem but different suffixes	Derivatives with the borrowed suffix –able
agreeable	Agreeable Agreement	
notable	Notable Denotement	Drinkable Eatable
Charitable		

Innumerable Reasonable Variable		Lovable understandable

Some of the borrowed suffixes were employed for word-building already in Middle English, but most of them grew productive only in the Early New English period. For example, derivatives with the French suffix -ess are found already in Middle English, e. g. ME *hunteresse,* NE *huntress;* ME *nei3boresse,* NE *neighbouress;* those with the suffix -ic, since the beginning of the 17th"century, e. g. ENE *atomic;* whereas the verb-suffix -ate came to be used as a productive word-building element only as late as the 19th century, though occasional formations are found earlier, e. g. *formulate,* first recorded in I860, *vaccinate,* 1803.

Almost all of the borrowed suffixes were used for the formation of new words from foreign and native stems, though it is interesting to note that some of them have been employed almost exclusively in deriving words from the stems of borrowed words.

Consider some examples of derivatives formed by means of the borrowed suffixes from native and borrowed stems in different periods of history in Table 9 which shows the growing productivity of borrowed suffixes since the Early New English period and the prevalence of derivatives formed from borrowed stems.

It must be said that many of the borrowed suffixes — the same as prefixes — from the very beginning were restricted in use to scientific and technical terminology.

e. g.-ist, -ism, -ate and some others.

Similar to prefixes, some of the borrowed suffixes turned out synonymous to native or other foreign suffixes, which necessitated some differentiation in their use. For example, the suffixes -ness (native) and -(i)ty (Fr.) had essentially the same meaning of some quality (compare, for example, NE *sensitiveness* and NE *sensitivity),* but they differed in their use. In the first place, the application of the borrowed suffix was restricted by scientific and technical terminology, whereas the native suffix had a wide range of application. Secondly, -(i)ty could be combined only with adjective-stems of Latin and French origin, while the native suffix -ness was not restricted in this respect. Compare, for example, ME *slaunes, sloghnes,* NE *slowness* (cf. OE *slaw)* and ME *seryousness,* NE *seriousness* (cf. O. Fr. *serious).* However, the use of -ness with adjective-stems was more restricted in that it could not, contrary to -(i)ty, be combined with stems already containing such suffixes as -al -an -ar and some others. Abstract nouns from these stems were formed with the help of -(i)ty, e. g. ME *sensuality,* ENE *regularity.*

	Suffix	Origin	ME		NE	
Nouns			Words derived from Native	Words derived from borrowed stems	Words derived from Native stems	words derived borrowed stems

-ee	Fr.	—	grantee	drawee beatee goatee	Challenge Addressee Consignee employee
-ance/-ence	Fr.	Furtherance Hindrance	avoidance	Bearance showancc	Dependence Clearance Endurance remittance
-ess	Fr.	Goddess Huntress Neighbouress	authoress butcheress Captainess saintess	Fisheress Fostress priestess fighteress gloveress rideress	butleress conductress editress heiress lectures manageress
-age	Fr.	Lighterage stowage groundage	Leakage Peerage butlerage	Leafage Fosterage Shippage Breakage fallage shortage	Anchorage Package Fruitage Clearage Linkage sewerage
-(i)ty	Fr.	-	movability	-	capability vulgarity cordiality visualty productivity responsibility

	-(a)tion	Fr. Lat.	-	-	Starvation floatation	Realization Granulation Civilization Militarization Motivation
	-ist	Gr.	-	-		Economist Imperialist Columnist Scientist scenarist
	-ism	Gr.	-	-	-	Catholism Calvanism Vulgarism Classicism Realism Chartism
	-ment	Fr.	-	Eggment attainment	fulfilment	Engagement Employment Basement Excitement Measurement
Adjectives	-able/-ible	Fr.	Eatable Understandable Lovable Markable	Movable Cuttable Admittable seasonable	Breakable Drinkable Readable Cleanable Shakable Shiftable	Reliable Valuable Presentable Adaptable Fissionable Endurable

	-al	Lat.	-	Occasional comical	-	Energetical Lyrical Economical Seasonal Coastal Financial
	-ic	Gr.	-	-	-	Atomic Cabalistic Sonic Basic climatic
	-ous	Fr.	-	beauteous	Thunderous glimmerous	Lustrous Mutinous Flavorous Gruellous
	-ate	Lat.	-	-	-	Capacitate Granulate Formulate Vaccinate
	-fy	Lat.	-	-	Speechify Cockneyfy Prettify Russify	Frenchify Classify Intensify Codify
verbs	-ise	Fr.	-	-	Womanise silverise	Economise Realize Memorise Militarise

						Normalize televise

	Suffix	ME		NE	
		Words derived from native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems	Words derived from native stems	Words derived from borrowed stems
adjectives	-ful	harmful hateful wilful ruthful	doubtful joyful masterful skilful cheerful	dreamful hopeful truthful meaningful	fruitful successful tasteful fanciful purposeful
	-less	food less helpless sleepless starless salt less	doubtless joyless heirless shapeless	dreamless heartless tearless fold less shadiless	motionless cashless ray less
	-ly	fatherly manly homely godly shapely	masterly lowly beastly[J] courtly	elderly neighbourly lonely queenly	hourly cowardly saintly

		sickly		bowly	
nouns	-dom	sheriff dom	dukedom thraldom	priestdom queen dom thiefdom cookneydom	Chiefdom Heirdom Chuchdom Princedom Fooldom Saintdom soldierdom
	-hood	brotherhood neighbourhood likelihood	mastehood princehood	motherhood heavenhood bookhood girled ladlhood fo terhood	sainthood citizenhood invalidhood orphanhood merchanthood
	-ship	hardship ladyship neighbourship workmanship	fellowship heirship mastership protectorship	godship ownership queenship leadership seamanship	courtship membership partnership editorship relationship

Suffixation. New Suffixes Developed from Second Components of Compound Words

In Old English new suffixes were developing from the second components of compound words. This process continued in Middle English and resulted in the appearance of new suffixes: -dom, -hood, -ship (noun-building suffixes); -ful, -less, -ly {adjective-building suffixes). These suffixes became highly productive in Middle English and were used to form derivatives both from native and foreign stems. Consider some examples of such derivatives in Table 10.

In the New English period all the adjective-building suffixes were likewise frequently used in the making of new words, but the noun-building suffixes -hood and -ship became less productive and their usage more restricted. Thus, -ship which originally could be combined both with noun- and adjective-stems, since the New English period has been employed for the formation of new words only from noun-stems. The suffix -hood which in Middle English was sometimes combined with adjective-stems was also restricted in its use to noun-stems. *

It is noteworthy in this connection that alongside abstract nouns derived with the help of these suffixes from adjective-stems other derivatives were formed in different periods representing productive patterns, which eventually replaced most of the other synonymous derivatives. Compare, for example, ME *madship,* NE *obs.* and ME *madness,* NE *madness;* ME *grenesshipe,* NE *obs.* and OE *grennis,* NE *greenness.*

In Modern English these two suffixes are living but not productive.

The History of Conversion

Alongside the two major means of word derivation — prefixation and suffixation — which, incidentally, are characteristic of all languages of the Indo-European family, the English language has developed a peculiar means of word formation generally known as conversion. Conversion implies the formation from a word belonging to one part of speech of a new word belonging to a different part of speech without any changes in the initial form of the word, but through a change in its paradigm.

It is usually assumed that the levelling of forms which resulted from the general decay of the Old English inflectional system gave rise to this new means of word derivation. After the loss of the final unstressed syllables the initial forms of the verb (the infinitive) and that of the noun coincided in a great number of words containing the same root. Compare: OE *andswarian (v), ME answere,* NE *answer* and OE *andswaru* (n), ME *answere,* NE *answer;* OE *lufian (v.),* ME *luve,* NE *love* and OE *lufu (n.),* ME *lave,* NE *love;* OE *smocian (v.),* ME smoke, NE smoke and OE smoca *(n.),* ME *smoke,* NE *smoke.*

Some scholars believe that the development of conversion was to a certain extent promoted by the influence of foreign languages.*

It must be mentioned here that some scholars hold the view that conversion dates from the Old English period on the grounds that already in Old English the relations between words in such pairs as OE *lufu — luifian* were similar to those of modern English conversion pairs. Different views on the time of the origin of conversion reflect different approaches to the definition of the initial form of the verb in Old English on the morphological level. In other words, they are connected with the question, whether the element -(i)an in the initial form of the verb was a word-building or a form-building affix. If-(i)an is regarded as a form-building affix as some linguists maintain, the two words of each pair differ only through their paradigms, which is then the sole word-building means and the two words may be regarded as a conversion pair. But if the affix -(i)an is qualified as a word-building affix, the two words cannot be regarded as a conversion pair and the assumption that conversion as a word-building means existed already in Old English becomes groundless.

In the present work conversion is treated as a word-building means and not as a type of relations between words of identical stems.

As a word-building means conversion made itself evident since the end of the 13th century, rapidly growing numerically towards the close of the 14th century. Since that time conversion has become one of the major means of forming new words in English.

In all times conversion was employed mostly for the formation of verbs from nouns and nouns from verbs, the number of conversion-verbs considerably exceeding that of nouns. Consider by way of illustration some verbs formed by means of conversion in Middle English:

Nouns			Verbs		
OE	ME	NE	OE	ME	NE
fvr sculdor tim a praed	fyre shuldre tymc thrcd	shoulder thread	—	fyre shuldre tyme thred	fire shoulder time thread

New verbs were formed not only from nouns of native origin but also from borrowed ones, e. g.

ME (1325) *age (O.* Fr. *aage, eage),* NE *age (n.)* — ME (1398) *age,* NE *age (v.)*

ME (1200) *fyne* (O. Fr. *fin),* NE /me *(n.)* — ME (1297) fyne, NE *fine (v.)*

ME (1300) *voys* (O. Fr. vois), NE *voice (n.)* — ME (1453) *voys,* NE voice

The use of conversion for the formation of nouns from verbs seems to have been somewhat less extensive in Middle English and was generally confined to the North and East Midlands. Consider a few nouns formed in Middle English.

Table 12

Verbs			Nouns		
OE	ME	NE	OE	ME	KE
brecan	breke	Break	_	breke	break
	falle			Falle	fall
	loke	Look		loke	
cnocian	knoke	Knock		knoke	knock

As in case of verbs, but also from bo

nouns were formed not only from native, ut also from borrowed verbs, e. g.

Late OE *hyttan* (0. Scand. *hitta),* ME *hitte,* NE *hit (v.)* - ME (1450) *hitt,* NE *hit (n.)*

Since Early New English new patterns o[conversion pairs appeared. Thus, verbs were formed by conversion not only from nouns, but occasionally from other parts of speech as well, e. g.

OE *xmetis*, ME *emit, empti*, NE *empty {adj.)* — ENE *empty (v.);*

ENE (1530) *dirty*, NE *dirty (adj.)* —ENE (1591) *dirty*, NE *dirty(v.)*

Nouns			Verbs		
OE or foreign source-word	ME	NE	OE or foreign	ME	NE
OE hand	Hand	hand			hand
OE lad	Lode	load			load
0. Fr. carpite	Carpete	carpet	-	-	carpel
0. Fr. poeple		people		_	people
			OE findan	fynden	
		sell			sell
		crowd			crowd
		catch	0. Fr. cachier		catch
		people	0. Fr. guencir O. Fr. *wenur	wyncen	wince

But as in Middle English, the prevailing use of conversion was made in the formation of verbs from nouns and nouns from verbs.

THE HISTORY OF WORD COMPOSITION

Word composition has been the second in importance means of word formation in all periods of history of the English language.

Compound words in Old English were formed either by combining two or more stems after a definite structural pattern without any connecting sound (primary compounds) or appeared as a result of semantic and structural isolation of free syntactical phrases (secondary compounds).* It was also mentioned that in a small group of compound words the stems were joined by a connecting element. These ways of word compounding have been preserved through the history of the English language though their structural patterns have been constantly changing. While some less productive types of Old English compounds were no longer employed already in Middle English, new structural types emerged in Middle English steadily

gaining ground in the subsequent period. Those Old English patterns of word compounding that continued to be employed both in Middle and New English did not remain unchanged: some of them in the course of time grew less productive, while others, on the contrary, became extensively used.

It should also be mentioned here that the Old English type of compound words with a connecting element (Late OE -e-) did not prove productive and only occasional compounds were formed in Middle English: ME *henne-hearted* "cowardly" (cf. OE *henn);* ME *penne-knyfe,* NE'*pen-knife* (cf. OE *penn),* However, in the New English period some other sounds came to serve as connecting elements: -s-, -o-, -i-, though this type of word compounding has never gained much ground.

While considering the development of various means of word compounding in the English language, it should be borne in mind that many of the compound words that at one time or another appeared in English underwent radical changes in their morphological structure turning into simple words, e. g. OE *ber-ern, lit.* "house for barley", NE *barn;* OE *d&aes-gaje, lit.* "the eye of the day", NE *daisy;* OE *eln-boja, lit.* "arm bending", NE *elbow;* OE *sclr-se-refa, lit.* "chief of a county", NE *sheriff;* OE *stij-rap, lit.* "rope for climbing", NE *stirrup.*

Word Composition. Asyntactic Compounds

Asyntactic compounds in Middle and New English, as well as in Old English, were mostly nouns and adjectives, compound verbs being much less numerous.

Compound nouns were built after certain structural patterns, some of which had been preserved since the Old English period and others represented a new development. Not all the earliest types remained productive throughout the history of the English language. Thus, the Old English type "verb-stem + noun-stem" (OE *bsec-hus* "bakery"), which was not very common in Old English, gradually gave way to the new type "verbal noun-stem + noun-stem". Compare: OE *writ-bred* and later compounds ME *wrytynge borde,* NE *writing-board* and ENE *writing-table* which had the same meaning and replaced the Old English word. Only occasional compounds were formed in Middle and New English after the Old English pattern, e. g. ME *lepe yere,* NE *leap-year;* ENE *catch-word;* NE *draw-net.* Compounds of the new type date from theJWiddle English period and have been commonly formed since that ^ime, e. g. ME *dwellynge-place,* NE *dwelling-place;* ENE *dining-room;* NE *dressing-room.*

Another development of the Middle English period was the emergence of compounds built after the pattern "noun-stem -f verb-stem" (simple or derived), e. g. ME *huswerminge,* NE *house-warming;* ME *howskepare,* ME *house-keeper;* ME *coke fyghtynge,* NE *cock-fighting.* In the New English period the number of such compounds was steadily increasing, e. g. ENE *house-keeping, book-keeper;* NE *prise-fighter.*

The only type that was productive in alt periods of the English language was the one built after the pattern "noun-stem -f noun-stem" (OE *winter-tide,* NE *winter-tide),* e. g. ME *sprynge-flood,* NE *spring-flood;* ENE *bedroom;* NE *rainfall.*

Compound adjectives of the asyntactic type were built in Middle English after various patterns which go back to Old English, but not all of them have been preserved in New English.

For example, the Old English pattern "adjective-stem + adjective-stem" (OE *wtd-sal* "wandering") did not gain much productivity and most of the compounds of this type are not older than Late Middle English, e. g. *red-hot* (1375), *worldly-wise* (1400), though occasional compounds are of later origin: *blue-black* (1853), *green-blind* (1881).

Another pattern of compound adjectives "noun-stem -f- participle-stem", found is early as Old English (OE *frum-sceapen* "first formed") was not freely used until the New English period, but has become highly productive since the 19th century, e. g. ENE *heart-broken,* NE *poverty-stricken.*

Only the pattern "noun-stem -f- adjective-stem" (OE *is-calde,* NE *ice-cold)* was commonly used in all periods and became especially productive in New English, e. g. ME *colblake,* NE *coal-black;* ENE *cock-sure;* NE *navy-blue.*

	Productive pattern	ME	ENE	NE
Nouns	noun-stem + noun-stem .	dinner-time night-gown table-cloth football mousetrap shop-window	bread-basket workshop . sand-glass snowdrop puppet-show	banknote ice-cream steamship doorbel1 lipstick cowboy masterpiece cocktail
	verbal noun-stem	dwelling-house frying-pan fasting-day working-day burying-place	landing-place looking-glass drawing-room curling-iron fishing-rod	living-room living-wage printing-office
	stem (+suffix)	householder standard-bearer landholder	ring- leader Fortune-teller Rope-dancer	hand-seller icebreaker baby-sitter

				shopkeeper
adjectives	noun-stem + par-ticiple-stem	moss-grown moth-eaten ship-broken	hand-made tongue-tied icebound heart-broken frost-bitten	airborne water-washed heartfelt
	noun-stem+ adjective+stem	blood-red threadbare water-tight lily-white headstrong	clay-cold skin-deep world-wide silk-soft sea-green sea-sick	skin-tight age-long colour-blind stone-deaf

Word Composition. Syntactic Compounds

Syntactic compounds were mostly nouns. As has already been mentioned, the order of component parts in such compounds followed the word order of free syntactical combinations characteristic of the given period.

In Old English this type of compounding was represented by the principal pattern "noun-in-the-Genitive-case + noun" (OE *landes-nian,* NE *landsman).* Quite a few compounds were built after this pattern in Middle English, e. g. ME *craftisman,* NE *craftsman;* ME *domesman,* NE *doomsman.* The -s- element in these compounds represents the Genitive case inflection of nouns. In the course of time -s- lost its grammatical meaning and came to be regarded as a connecting element, though it isimpossible to tell exactly when the process was completed. Consider, for example, the following New English formations: *spokesman, sportsman, tradesman.*

Thus, the old pattern of syntactic compounds has given rise to a new one which, properly speaking, has passed into the asyntactic type, for the order of stems in such compounds has ceased to conform to the rules of syntax of the English language.

Compound nouns with an adjective-stem as the first component (adjective-stem -|- noun-stem) were but few in number in Old English, nor did they grow numerous in Middle English. However, since Early New English the productivity of this pattern considerably increased.

Consider, for example, such New English compounds as ENE *blue-bottle,* NE *bluebird, night-shift,* etc.

In the Middle English period a new structural pattern of syntactic compounds developed: "verb-stem -f- noun-stem". The first words built after this pattern were recorded as early as the beginning of the 14th century and there has been an uninterrupted flow of compounds of this type ever since, e. g. ME *drawbridge,* ENE *pickpocket,* NE *turn-table.*

Table 15

Productive pattern	ME	ENE	NE
adjective-stem + Noun+stem	Highday stronghold	hotbed shorthand sweetbread	madhouse red-tape
verb-stem + noun-stem	Lickpot Breakfast Cutpurse	catchfly telltale makeshift sing-song	breakwater keepsake kill-joy lay-day
verb-stem +adverb-stem		draw-back cast-away	break down layout Runner-up lake-up shut-down

The development of verb—adverb combinations in Middle English gave rise to another new pattern of compound nouns of syntactic type: "verb-stem -[- adverb-stem", though verb compounding after this pattern did not grow very productive until the 19th century. Since that time, however, the number of compounds has been growing steadily, e. g. ME and NE *sit-up,* ENE *runaway;* NE *take-off-*

Word Composition. Derivational Compounds

A large number of compound words in all periods of the English language were formed by simultaneous application of two word-building means — derivation and composition. The first derivational compounds go back to the Old English period; they were built after the pattern "adjective-stem (or numeral-stem) +noun-stem" (OE *blaec-fexed* "black-haired"; OE *an-ea3ed,*

NE *one-eyed).* In Old English compounds of this type were not numerous for the adjective-(numeral-) and noun-stems were commonly joined without suffixation to form compound adjectives (bahuvrihi-type). The two types produced a number of synonyms, e. g. OE *an-ea3e,* NE *obs.* and OE *an-ea3ed,* NE *one-eyed.* Since the Middle English period compound adjectives of the bahuvrihi-type were formed but occasionally, whereas the number of derivational compounds increased enormously. Consider, for example, the following Middle English derivational compounds; ME *li3t-herted,* NE *light-hearted;* ME *grayhared,* NE *grey-haired;* ME *fowrecorneryd,* NE *four-cornered,* etc.

In the course of time derivational compounds replaced most of the bahuvrihi-type adjectives. Compare, for example, ME *light foot,* NE *obs.* and ME *light-footed,* NE *light-footed;* ENE *three-foot,* NE *obs.* and LOE *pre-fotede,* NE *three-footed;* ENE *raw-bone,* NE *obs.* and ENE *raw-boned,* NE *raw-boned,* etc.

In the New English period derivational compounds were formed in ever increasing numbers, e. g. 16th century: *bear-headed, good-natured, long-legged, sweet-scented;* 17th century: *able-bodied, blue-eyed, cold-hearted;* 18th century: *red-nosed; long-sighted, cool-headed, cross-eyed;* 19th century: *absent-minded, thin-walled. ,*

QUESTIONS AND ASSIGNMENTS

1. What changes did the Old English system of prefixation undergo during the Middle and New English periods?

2. From what sources did the new prefixes come?

3. What changes took place in the system of English prefixation during the Middle and New English periods?

4. From what sources did the new suffixes arise?

5. Sum up the main changes in the system of English word composition during the Middle and New English periods.

TASDIQLAYMAN:

Kafedra mudiri _____ _____

«____» _____ _____ y.

DASTUR BAJARILISHINING KALENDAR REJASI

(ma'ruza, laboratoriya, seminar, amaliy mashg'ulotlari, kurs ishlari)

Fakultet: **Chet tillar** kurs 2 Akademik guruh:

Fanning nomi **:** **Ingliz tili tarixi**

Ma'ruza o'qiydi : **G'afurova D.J.**

Maslahat va amaliy mashg'ulotlarni olib boradi : **G'afurova D.J.**

T/P	Mashg' ulot turi	Mavzu nomi va nazoratlar turi	Ajratil-gan soat	Bajarilganligi haqida ma'lumot			O'qitu vchi imzosi
				Reja asosida oy va kun	Soatlar soni	Bajari lgan sana	
1	2	3	4	5	6		7
1	Ma'ruza	Subject and aims of History of English.	2		2		
2	Ma'ruza	Germanic languages.	2		2		
3.	Ma'ruza	Principal features of Germanic languages. Morphology	2		2		
4.	Ma'ruza	Old English Period.	2		2		
5.	Ma'ruza	Old English Phonetics. Vowels	2		2		
6.	Ma'ruza	Old English Phonetics. Consonants	2		2		
7.	Ma'ruza	Old English Grammar. The Noun. The Pronoun. The Adjective	2		2		
8.	Ma'ruza	Old English grammar. The Verb	2		2		
9.	Ma'ruza	Old English syntax	2		2		
10	Ma'ruza	Old English Word-stock	2		2		
11	Ma'ruza	Historical Background from the12th to the 14th century. Middle English Dialects and written records	2		2		

12	Ma’ruza	The formation of the national literary English language.	2		2		
13	Ma’ruza	Middle English Historical Phonetics: Word stress, vowel changes	2		2		
14	Ma’ruza	Historical phonetics: Development of Consonants and associated Vowel changes	2		2		
15	Ma’ruza	Historical Grammar: Changes in the Nominal system	2		2		
16	Ma’ruza	Historical Grammar: Changes in the Nominal system	2		2		
17	Ma’ruza	ME Historical grammar: Simplifying changes in the verb system	2		2		
18	Ma’ruza	ME Grammar: development of new grammatical forms and categories of the verb	2		2		
19	Ma'ruza	Development of the vocabulary in Middle and New English	2		2		

Yetakchi professor (dotsent imzosi) _____

(imzo)

TASDIQLAYMAN:

Kafedra mudiri _____ _____

«____» _____ _____ y.

DASTUR BAJARILISHINING KALENDAR
REJASI
(ma'ruza, laboratoriya, seminar, amaliy mashg'ulotlari, kurs ishlari)

Fakultet: **Chet tillar** kurs 2 Akademik guruh:

Fanning nomi **:** **Ingliz tili tarixi**

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Maslahat va amaliy mashg'ulotlarni olib boradi : **G'afurova D.J.**

T/P	Mashg' ulot turi	Mavzu nomi va nazoratlar turi	Ajratil ann soat	Bajarilganligi haqida ma'lumot			O'qituvc hi imzosi
				Reja asosida oy va kun	Soat lar soni	Bajarilg an sanasi	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	seminar	Principal features of Germanic languages. Phonetics.	2		2		
2	seminar	Germanic tribes. Linguistic features of Germanic languages. Verner's and Grimm's laws. Breaking	2		2		
3.	seminar	Principal features of Germanic Word stock	2		2		
4.	seminar	Old English Written records	2		2		
5.	seminar	The OE Noun and its grammatical categories.	2		2		
6.	seminar	Old English grammar. Declension of adjectives	2		2		
7.	seminar	OE Pronouns and their grammatical categories.	2		2		
8.	seminar	Old English grammar. The Verb	2		2		

9.	seminar	The OE verb and its grammatical categories	2		2		
10	seminar	ME Historical Phonetics: Qualitative changes of stressed vowels. Great Vowel Shift	2		2		
11	seminar	Development of New grammatical categories of the Finite Verb	2		2		
12	seminar	Development of the vocabulary in ME and NE	2		2		
13	pract.	Germanic tribes. Linguistic features of Germanic languages. Verner's and Grimm's laws. Breaking	2		2		
14	pract.	Old English Origin and Pronunciation	2		2		
15	pract.	Old English Morphology	2		2		
16	pract.	Old English Vocabulary	2		2		
17	pract.	Old English Syntax	2		2		
18	pract.	ME Grammar: Syntactical changes in Middle English and New English.	2		2		
19	pract.	Loan-words in New English	2		2		

Yetakchi professor (dotsent imzosi) _____

(imzo)