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ОГЛАВЛЕНИЕ

ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Курс лекций по истории английского языка является составной частью учебно-методического комплекса «История английского языка» и предназначен для аудиторной и самостоятельной работы студентов 3 курса факультета иностранных языков, обучающихся по специальностям 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий)», 1-21 06 01-01 «Современные иностранные (англ., нем.) языки (преподавание)» со специализацией 1-21 06 01-01 03 «Компьютерная лингвистика дневной формы получения высшего образования».

История языка является одной из первых теоретических дисциплин по английскому языку, изучаемых студентами факультета иностранных языков, и, как показывает практика, вызывает определенные сложности в восприятии материала: во-первых, студенты не в достаточной степени владеют терминологическим аппаратом; во-вторых, сложность восприятия содержания связана с существенными отличиями языка предшествующих (древнеанглийского, среднеанглийского, ранненовоанглийского) периодов от языка в его современном состоянии.

Цель данного курса лекций заключается в том, чтобы обеспечить студентов материалом, который поможет почувствовать логику цельносистемных исторических преобразований английского языка и подготовит к восприятию информации во время аудиторного занятия. Кроме того, курс лекций ориентирован на организацию самостоятельной работы по поиску новой значимой для практической профессиональной деятельности лингвиста информации, а также исследовательской работы студентов.

Предлагаемый курс лекций основан на материале известных учебников по истории английского языка В. Д. Аракина, Б. А. Ильиша, С. М. Мезенина, Т. А. Расторгуевой, А. И. Смирницкого, И. А. Шапошниковой, а также на работах зарубежных ученых: A. Baugh и Th. Cable, N. Blake, D. Crystal, D. Freeborn, M. Hogg Richard, R. Lass. Кроме того, использованы материалы по истории английского языка из электронных ресурсов.

Материал организован как на исторически-хронологическом принципе и излагается по периодам – древнеанглийский, среднеанглийский и новоанглийский, так и на диахроническом принципе, когда все явления рассматриваются во взаимосвязи и эволюционном развитии, с учетом межпредметных связей со смежными дисциплинами: страноведение, практическая и теоретическая грамматика, практическая и теоретическая фонетика, лексикология, зарубежная литература.

Приведенные в табличной форме иллюстративные материалы предназначены для активизации работы студентов на лекциях, а также для использования в качестве схемы усвоения теоретического материала. Самостоятельная работа студентов с представленными материалами обеспечивает подготовку к анализу исторических текстов, что является программным требованием.

В курсе лекций рассматриваются три основных аспекта английского языка: фонетическая, грамматическая и лексическая системы. Курс начинается с обобщения сведений о германских языках и их основных характеристик (лекция 1). Далее представлена периодизация истории английского языка и описаны внешние факторы, повлиявшие на лингвистическую ситуацию в разные периоды эволюции английской языковой системы (лекции 2 и 3). В лекции 4 приведены примеры наиболее значимых изменений фонетической системы английского языка, а также обозначены причины, которые к ним привели. Кроме того, здесь выявлены особенности английской системы правописания, демонстрирующие ее эволюцию. В лекциях 5–9 представлено описание грамматической системы, раскрывающее существенные изменения в структуре языка, которые постепенно способствовали превращению английского языка из чисто синтетического типа в аналитический. Лекция 10 посвящена аспектам развития английского лексикона.

Кроме основного лекционного материала в приложении представлен блок дополнительной информации для самостоятельного изучения.

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

1. Английский язык в группе германских языков. Германская группа языков: классификация современных германских языков; области их распространения.

Общегерманский период, древнегерманские племена и диалекты. Особенности фонетической структуры древнегерманской группы языков в сопоставлении с другими индоевропейскими языками.

Грамматика, морфология, структура слова и средства формообразования в общегерманском языке.

Этимологическая характеристика и основные хронологические пласты общегерманской лексики.

2. Периодизация истории английского языка. Проблема периодизации истории английского языка. Общая характеристика основных периодов развития: древнеанглийского, среднеанглийского и новоанглийского.

3. Исторические условия развития английского языка и лингвистическая ситуация. Древнеанглийский (ДА) период: диалекты, роль Уэссекса и уэссекского диалекта, памятники древнеанглийской письменности.

Среднеанглийский (СА) период: усиление диалектальной раздробленности в период развитого феодализма, борьба английского языка с французским в отдельных сферах общественной жизни и в литературе. Изменения в системе английской графики. Ранние памятники на отдельных среднеанглийских диалектах.

Новоанглийский (НА) период: формирование английского национального литературного языка, роль Лондонского диалекта, введение книгопечатания. Распространение английского языка за пределы Англии. Современные географические варианты английского языка и диалекты. Функциональная универсальность современного английского языка.

4. Эволюционные процессы в английской фонетике. ДА период: словесное ударение, древнеанглийский вокализм: независимые изменения гласных в дописьменную эпоху; ассимилятивные изменения качества гласных; система гласных фонем. Древнеанглийский консонантизм: основные изменения согласных в дописьменную эпоху.

СА период: качественные и количественные изменения гласных. СА консонантизм: становление новых согласных фонем; вокализация щелевых и образование новых дифтонгов.

НА период: формирование новых закономерностей системы словесного ударения; великий сдвиг гласных; изменения кратких гласных и дифтонгов; образование новых гласных фонем; развитие безударного вокализма. НА фонологизация щелевых согласных; образование шипящих и аффрикат в заимствованных словах; вокализация согласных и возникновение новых долгих гласных и дифтонгов. Историческое объяснение основных особенностей современной английской орфографии.

5. *Эволюция грамматического строя английского языка. Существительное.* Структура слова в древнеанглийском языке. Средства формообразования. Части речи и их грамматические категории.

ДА период: распределение существительных по типам склонения, общая характеристика парадигм. СА период: изменения в системе средств формообразования; развитие аналитических форм; унификация типов склонения существительных. НА период: причины перестройки английской морфологической системы; становление современных форм падежа и числа существительных.

6. *Грамматический строй языка. Местоимение.* ДА период: разряды и грамматические категории местоимений. СА период: развитие личных и указательных местоимений и становление артикля. НА период: оформление современной системы местоимений.

7. *Грамматический строй языка. Прилагательное и наречие.* ДА период: сильное и слабое склонение прилагательных; образование степеней сравнения. СА период: упрощение морфологической системы прилагательных. НА период: грамматические категории прилагательного в современном английском языке.
Эволюция наречия: ДА – СА – НА.

8. *Грамматический строй языка. Глагол.* ДА период: личные и неличные формы глагола, их грамматические категории. Морфологическая классификация глаголов.

СА период: грамматические категории глагола, развитие новых глагольных форм и категорий. Изменение в морфологических классах глаголов. Утрата именных свойств причастием и инфинитивом. Формирование герундия.

НА период: формирование грамматических категорий глагола (наклонение, время, предшествование, вид, залог); парадигматизация аналитических форм; формирование современных стандартных глаголов и основных групп нестандартных глаголов; образование современной

системы модальных глаголов; дальнейшее развитие глагольных свойств у неличных форм глагола.

9. Развитие синтаксической системы языка. ДА синтаксис: структура простого предложения; порядок слов в предложении; общая характеристика сложного предложения.

СА период: изменения в структуре именных и глагольных сочетаний в связи с изменениями в морфологии; развитие предложных оборотов.

НА период: стабилизация состава членов предложения и порядка слов в утвердительном, отрицательном и вопросительном предложении; дальнейшее развитие сложного предложения: уточнение средств связи.

10. Этимологичекий состав лексики. Заимствования и словобразование. Словарный состав ДА языка и пути его развития: этимологическая характеристика словарного состава; слои исконной и заимствованной лексики.

СА период: основные пути роста словарного состава; изменения в системе словопроизводства; скандинавские заимствования; французские заимствования; грамматическая, фонетическая и лексическая ассимиляция заимствований.

Обогащение словарного состава в ранненовоанглийский период: продуктивность различных средств словопроизводства; развитие конверсии. Заимствования из классических и современных языков. Этимологические основы словарного состава современного английского языка.

Примерный тематический план

№ п/п	Название раздела, темы	Количество аудиторных часов		
		итого	лекции	практ. занятия
1	Английский язык в группе германских языков	2	2	–
2	Хронологическое деление английского языка на периоды и описание внешней истории языка	4	2	2
3	Исторические условия развития английского языка и лингвистическая ситуация	4	2	2
4	Эволюционные процессы в фонетике. Система гласных и согласных	4	2	2
5	Эволюция грамматического строя английского языка. Существительное	4	2	2
6	Грамматический строй языка. Местоимение	4	2	2
7	Грамматический строй языка. Прилагательное и наречие	2	2	–
8	Грамматический строй языка. Глагол	4	2	2
9	Развитие синтаксической системы языка	4	2	2
10	Этимологичекий состав лексики. Заимствования и словобразование	2	2	–
	Всего	34	20	14

THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AS A LINGUISTIC DISCIPLINE. THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

OUTLINE
1. The importance of Studying the History of the English Language
2. Modern Germanic Languages
3. Old Germanic Branches of Languages. Language of the Teutons
4. Common Features of the Germanic Languages
      4.1. Phonetic System
      4.2. Grammatical System
      4.3. Germanic Vocabulary

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF STUDYING THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Language is a fundamental human faculty used for creative expression, face-to-face communication, scientific inquiry, and many other purposes. Most humans are born with the ability to acquire language automatically and effortlessly if provided the right input by their environment. It is estimated that there are 6,000 to 7,000 languages in the world. The number of languages is decreasing rapidly as some languages disappear and a few others – English, Spanish, Chinese, Arabic, and Hindi – are becoming more widespread as a result of globalization.

English has achieved a genuinely global status. Its role is most evident in countries where large numbers of the people speak the language as a mother tongue – the UK, the USA, Canada, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, several Caribbean countries and other territories. Moreover, English is made a priority in many other countries' foreign language-teaching, even though it has no official status. It has become the language which children are most likely to be taught at school and the one most available to adults.

For all learners of English the History of the Language is of great importance, it shows the ties of English with the languages of the Germanic group, as well as its ties with the languages of other groups, such as French and Latin. The History of English also shows that linguistic alterations may be dependent or caused by the events in the history of the people, for example, the influence of one language on another, the appearance of new words to name new objects. A study of the phonetic, grammatical, and lexical evolution of the language enables us to see the general trends in the development of English and their interdependence. One of the *primary aims* of the course of the history of

English is to provide with the knowledge of history sufficient to account for the essential features and some specific peculiarities of Modern English.

During the 15 hundred years or so of its recorded history English has changed so greatly, that its earliest form is unintelligible to Modern English speakers. Present day English reflects these centuries of development in a great number of specific features and peculiarities, which can be accounted for only with the help of the knowledge of the History of English.

The *object* of the History of the English Language is the English Language itself, its phonetic, grammatical and lexical aspects.

The *subject* of the History of English is a systematic study of the development of English from the time of its origin to the present day. It analyses main changes in the phonetic structure and spelling of the language at different stages of its development; the evolution of the grammatical system; the growth and development of the vocabulary. All these changes are considered against the background of the main historical events that took place in the country.

The *aim* of the History of the English Language is to study the changes mentioned above.

The History of the English Language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest written texts in English are dated in the 7th century. The earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3-4th centuries AD.

The English language is constantly changing, at different speed and at different linguistic levels (phonetics, grammar, lexicon). The linguistic history explains many features of present-day English both synchronically and diachronically. These two types of studying a language are closely interconnected and create a full picture of the development of a language.

The History of the English Language is interconnected with other linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines:

1. *General Linguistics* – provides us with general linguistic laws and rules valid for and language.

2. *History* – historical events that take place in a country influence to a great extent the language of this country.

3. *Theoretical Phonetics* – provides us with main phonetic notions and helps to explain phonetic phenomena.

4. *Theoretical Grammar* – provides us with main grammatical notions and helps to explain grammatical phenomena.

5. *Lexicology* – provides us with main lexicological notions and helps to explain lexical phenomena.

6. *Cultural Studies* – helps to understand better the connection between the culture and the language of the country and their mutual influence.

7. *Literature* – gives us examples of the languages of this or that historical period and these works of literature serve as the material for the language research.

2. MODERN GERMANIC LANGUAGES

To understand the place of the English language among the other languages of the world it is important to discuss its genealogical relations. According to the genealogical approach languages can be divided into "families", each family containing only languages that are supposed to have originated from one proto-language.

Indo-European is just one of the language families, or proto-languages, from which the world's modern languages are descended. It is by far the largest family, accounting for the languages of almost half of the modern world's population, including those of most of Europe, North and South America, Australasia, the Iranian plateau and much of South Asia. Within Europe, only Basque, Finnish, Estonian, Hungarian, Turkish and a few of the smaller Russian languages are not descended from the Indo-European family.

It is supposed that the homeland of the Indo-European proto-language more than 6,000 years ago was in the Transcaucasus, in eastern Anatolia. The landscape described by the proto-language as now resolved must lie around the southern shores of the Black Sea, south from the Balkan Peninsula, east across ancient Anatolia (today the non-European territories of Turkey) and north to the Caucasus Mountains. Here the agricultural revolution created the food surplus that impelled the Indo-Europeans to found villages and city-states from which, about 6,000 years ago, they began their migrations over the Eurasian continent and into history.

Some daughter languages must have differentiated in the course of migrations that took them first to the East and later to the West. Some spread west to Anatolia and Greece, others southwest to Iran and India (Sanskrit). Most Western languages stem from an Eastern branch that rounded the Caspian Sea. Contact with Semitic languages in Mesopotamia and with Kartvelian languages in the Caucasus led to the adoption of many foreign words.

The family tree of **Indo-European languages** can be presented as follows:

1. The Albanian language, the language of ancient Illyria. The oldest monuments belong to the 17th century.

2. The Armenian language, the oldest monuments of which belong to the 5th century AD.

3. The Baltic group, embracing (a) Old Prussian, which became extinct in the 17th century, (b) Lithuanian, (c) Lettic (the oldest records of Lithuanian and Lettic belong to the 16th century).

4. The Celtic group, consisting of: (a) Gaulish known by Keltic names and words quoted by Latin and Greek authors, and inscriptions on coins; (b) Britannic, including Cymricor Welsh, Cornish, and Bas-Breton or

Armorican; the oldest records date back to the 8th or 9th century; (c) Gaelic, including Irish-Gaelic, Scotch-Gaelic, and Manx. The oldest monuments are the old Gaelic inscriptions, which date back to about AD 500.

5. The Germanic group, consisting of:

5.1. East Germanic – Gothic. Almost the only source of the Gothic language is the fragments of the biblical translation made in the 4th century by Ulfilas, the Bishop of the West Goths.

5.2. North Germanic or Scandinavian – (a) called Old Norse until about the middle of the 11th century; (b) East Scandinavian*,* including Swedish, Danish and Faroese; (c) West Scandinavian, including Norwegian and Icelandic. The oldest records of this branch are the runic inscriptions, some of which date as far back as the 3rd or 4th century.

5.3. West Germanic, which is composed of the following languages: German, English, Dutch, Frisian, Afrikaans, Yiddish, Luxemburgian.

6. The Greek language, with its numerous dialects.

7. The Indic group, including the language of the Vedas, classical Sanskrit and the Prakrit dialects.

8. The Iranian group, including (a) West Iranian (Old Persian dating from about 520–350 BC); (b) East Iranian (Avesta and Old Bactrian).

9. The Italic group, consisting of Latin and the Umbrian-Samnitic dialects. From the popular form of Latin developed the Romance languages: Portuguese, Spanish, Catalan, French, Italian.

10. Slavonic, embracing: (a) the South-Eastern group, including Russian*,* Belarusian, Bulgarian, and Illyrian (Servian*,* Croatian*,* Slovenian); (b) the Western group, including Czech (Bohemian), Sorabian, Polish and Polabian.

Extinct Groups and Languages:

11. Hittite died out in the 2-1 millennium BC; spoken on the territory of modern Turkey and Northern Syria. The Hittite language is very important for Indo-European reconstruction.

12. Tocharian died out after the 8th century AD; spoken in oases of Eastern Turkestan Tocharian, now extinct, represented by texts discovered in Chinese Turkestan, which are thought to be anterior to the tenth century AD.

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

English belongs to the Germanic group of languages representing the Indo-European family of languages.

Modern Germanic languages currently spoken fall into two major groups: *North Germanic* (or Scandinavian) and *West Germanic*. The former group comprises: Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, Icelandic, and Faroese; the latter:

English (in all its varieties), German (in all its varieties, including Yiddish and Pennsylvania German), Dutch (including Afrikaans and Flemish) and Frisian.

The varieties of English are particularly extensive and include not just the dialectal and regional variants of the British Isles, North America, Australasia, India and Africa, but also numerous English-based pidgins and creoles of the Atlantic (e. g. Jamaican Creole and Pidgin Krio) and the Pacific (e. g. Hawaiian Pidgin). The geographical distribution of the Germanic languages is more extensive than that of any other group of languages. In every continent there are countries in which a modern Germanic language (primarily English) is extensively used or has some official status (as a national or regional language). Demographically there are at least 450 million speakers of Germanic languages in the world today, divided as follows:

North Germanic, over 18 million (Danish over 5 million, Norwegian over 4 million, Swedish approximately 9 million, Icelandic 260,000 and Faroese 47,000);

West Germanic apart from English, approximately 125 million (90 million for German in European countries in which it has official status, German worldwide perhaps 100 million, Dutch and Afrikaans 25 million, Frisian over 400,000); English worldwide, 320–380 million first language users, plus 300–500 million users in countries like India and Singapore in which English has official status.

East Germanic is a third group of languages within the Germanic family that needs to be recognised, though all of its members are now extinct. These were the languages of the Goths, the Burgundians, the Vandals, the Gepids and other tribes originating in Scandinavia that migrated south occupying numerous regions in western and eastern Europe (and even North Africa) in the early centuries of the present era.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many entries is one of two languages in a bilingual community, e. g. in Canada. The estimates for English range from 250 to 300 million people who have it as their mother tongue. The total number of people speaking Germanic languages approaches 440 million. To this rough estimate we could add an indefinite number of bilingual people in the countries where English is used as an official language (over 50 countries).

3. OLD GERMANIC BRANCHES OF LANGUAGES.
LANGUAGE OF THE TEUTONS

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of the Proto-Germanic (PG) language (also called Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic and simply Germanic). PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related Indo-European (IE) tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th century BC. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community. As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans (or Teutons) moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe.

PG is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in the written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons.

The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th century BC, in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. In the 1st century BC in *Commentaries on the Gallic War (Commentarii De Bello Gallico)* Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes who boarded on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. The tribal names *Germans* and *Teutons*, at first referred to as separate tribes, were later extended to the entire group.

In the 1st century AD Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in *Natural History (Naturalis Historia)* made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons *De Situ Mokibus Et Populis Germaniae*; in this work he reproduced Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. The tri-partite division of the Germanic languages was proposed by 19th century philologists with a few adjustments to Pliny's grouping of the Old Teutonic tribes. According to this division PG split into three branches: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic. In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.

East Germanic subgroup

This group was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. They were among the first Teutons to leave the coast of the Baltic Sea and start on their great migrations. Around 200 AD they moved south-east and some time later reached the lower basin of the Danube, where they made attacks on the Eastern Roman Empire, Byzantium. Their western branch, the Visigotae, invaded Roman territory, participated in the assaults on Rome and moved on to southern Gaul, to found once of the first barbarian kingdoms of Medieval Europe, the Toulouse kingdom. The kingdom lasted until the 8th century though linguistically the western Goths were soon absorbed by the native population, the Romanized Celts. The eastern Goths, Ostrogotae consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance in the lower basin of the Dniester, were subjugated by the Hunsunder Attila, traversed the Balkans and set up a kingdom in Northern Italy, with Ravenna as its capital. The short-lived flourishing of Ostrogothic culture in the 5–6th century under Theodoric came to an end with the fall of the kingdom.

The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the 4–6th century. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian. In the 4th century Ulfilas, a West-Gothic bishop, made a translation of the Gospels from Greek into Gothic using a modified form of the Greek alphabet. Parts of Ulfilas' Gospels – a manuscript of about two hundred pages, probably made in the 5th or 6th century – have been preserved and are kept now in Uppsala, Sweden. It is written on red parchment with silver and golden letters and is known as the *Silver Codex*. Ulfilas' Gospels were first published in the 17th century and have been thoroughly studied by 19th and 20th century philologists. The *Silver Codex* is one of the earliest texts in the languages of the Germanic group; it represents a form of language very close to PG and therefore throws light on the pre-written stages of history of all the languages of the Germanic group, including English.

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have left no written traces.

North Germanic subgroup

The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The North Germanic tribes lived on the southern coast of the Scandinavian Peninsula and in Northern Denmark (since the 4th century). They did not participate in the migrations and were relatively isolated, though they may have come into closer contacts with the western tribes after the Goths left the coast of the Baltic Sea. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the 9th century

and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. It has come down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the 3rd to the 9th century. Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material in an original Germanic alphabet known as *the runic alphabet* or the runes. The runes were used by North and West Germanic tribes.

The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the 9th century, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages. The famous Viking Age, from about 800 to 1050 AD, is the legendary age of Scandinavian raids and expansion overseas.

The principal linguistic differentiation in Scandinavia corresponded to the political division into Sweden, Denmark and Norway. The three kingdoms constantly fought for dominance and the relative position of the three languages altered, as one or another of the powers prevailed over its neighbours. For several hundred years Denmark was the most powerful of the Scandinavian kingdoms: it embraced southern Sweden, the greater part of the British Isles, the southern coast of the Baltic Sea up to the Gulf of Riga; by the 14th century Norway fell under Danish rule, too. Sweden regained its independence in the 16th century, while Norway remained a backward Danish colony up to the early 19th century. Consequently, both Swedish and Norwegian were influenced by Danish.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian, and Old Swedish date from the 13th century. In the late Middle Ages, with the growth of capitalist relations and the unification of the countries, Danish, and then Swedish developed into national literary languages. Nowadays Swedish is spoken not only by the population of Sweden; the language has extended over Finnish territory and is the second state language in Finland.

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Beginning with the 8th century the Scandinavian sea-rovers and merchants undertook distant sea voyages and settled in many territories: Northern France, Russia, English coastal areas, the Shetlands, the Orkneys, Ireland, the Faroe Islands, Iceland, Greenland and North America.

Linguistically, in most areas of their expansion, the Scandinavian settlers were assimilated by the native population: in France they adopted the French language; in Northern England, in Ireland and other islands around the British Isles sooner or later the Scandinavian dialects were displaced by English. In the Faroe Islands the Norwegian dialects brought by the Scandinavians developed into a separate language called Faroese. Faroese is spoken nowadays by about 30,000 people. For many centuries all writing was done in Danish; it was not until the 18th century that the first Faroese records were made.

Iceland was practically uninhabited at the time of the first Scandinavian settlements in the 9th century. Their West Scandinavian dialects grew into an independent language, Icelandic. Modern Icelandic is very much like Old Icelandic and Old Norse, for it has not participated in the linguistic changes which took place in the other Scandinavian languages, probably because of its geographic isolation. At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200,000 people.

West Germanic subgroup

Around the beginning of our era the would-be West Germanic tribes dwelt in the lowlands between the Oder and the Elbe bordering on the Slavonian tribes in the East and the Celtic tribes in the South. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was probably quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names. On the eve of their *great migrations* of the 4th and 5th century the West Germans included several tribes. The Franconians (or Franks) occupied the lower basin of the Rhine; from there they spread up the Rhine and are accordingly subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the Modern Netherlands, Germany and the southern part of Denmark. A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of Germany.

In the Early Middle Ages the Franks consolidated into a powerful tribal alliance. Towards the 8th century their kingdom grew into one of the largest states in Western Europe. Under Charlemagne (768–814) the Holy Roman Empire of the Franks embraced France and half of Italy, and stretched northwards up to the North and Baltic Sea. The empire lacked ethnic and economic unity and in the 9th century broke up into parts. Its western part eventually became the basis of France. Though the names France, French are derived from the tribal names of the Franks, the Franconian dialects were not spoken there. The population, the Romanized Celts of Gaul, spoke a local variety of Latin, which developed into one of the most extensive Romance languages, French.

The eastern part, the East Franconian Empire, comprised several kingdoms: Swabia or Alemania, Bavaria, East Franconia and Saxony; to these where soon added two more kingdoms – Lorraine and Friesland. As seen from the name of the kingdoms, the East Franconian state had a mixed population consisting of several West Germanic tribes. The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch – the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and Flemish – the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the 10th century; 12th century records represent the earliest Old Dutch. The formation of the Dutch language stretches over a long period; it is linked up

with the growth of the Netherlands into an independent bourgeois state after its liberation from Spain in the 16th century. The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called Dutch, and its variant in Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single language, Netherlandish. It is spoken by almost 20 million people; its northern variety, used in the Netherlands has a more standardized literary form.

About three hundred years ago the Dutch language was brought to South Africa by colonists from Southern Holland. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. Afrikaans has incorporated elements from the speech of English and German colonists in Africa and from the tongues of the natives. Writing in Afrikaans began as late as the end of the 19th century. Today Afrikaans is the mother-tongue of over four million Afrikaans and one of the state languages in the South African Republic (alongside English).

The High German group of tribes did not go far in their migrations. Together with the Saxons the Alabamians, Bavarians and Thuringians expanded east, driving the Slavonic tribes from places of their early settlement. The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written record in OHG date from the 8th and 9th century (glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems). Towards the 12th century High German (known as Middle High German) had intermixed with neighbouring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the literary German language. The Written Standard of New High German was established after the Reformation (16th century), though no Spoken Standard existed until the 19th century as Germany remained politically divided into a number of kingdoms and dukedoms. To this day German is remarkable for great dialectal diversity of speech.

The High German language in a somewhat modified form is the national language of Austria, the language of Liechtenstein and one of the languages in Luxemburg and Switzerland. It is also spoken in Alsace and Lorraine in France. The total number of German-speaking people approaches 100 million.

Another offshoot of High German is Yiddish. It grew from the High German dialects which were adopted by numerous Jewish communities scattered over Germany in the 11th and 12th century. These dialects blended with elements of Hebrew and Slavonic and developed into a separate West Germanic language with a spoken and literary form. Yiddish was exported from Germany to many other countries: Russia, Poland, the Baltic States and America.

At the later stage of the great migration period – in the 5th century – a group of West Germanic tribes started out on their invasion of the British Isles. The invaders came from the lowlands near the North Sea: the Angles, part of the Saxons and Frisians, and probably the Jutes. Their dialects in the British Isles

developed into the *English language*. The territory of English was at first confined to what is now known as England proper. From the 13th to the 17th century it extended to other parts of the British Isles. In the succeeding centuries English spread overseas to other continents. The first English written records have come down from the 7th century, which is the *earliest date in the history of writing* in the West Germanic subgroup.

Language of the Teutons

Runic Alphabet. The Teutons had a high level written language. The oldest written signs are called **runes**. Originally "runes" meant "secret, mystery" and was used to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. Later the word "runes" was applied to the signs of letters used to make these inscriptions. The runes were employed by many Romanic tribes, especially in Scandinavia. They were used as letters in an alphabet, each to denote a separate sound, besides a rune could also denote a word beginning with that sound and it was called by that word.

		OE	NE
e. g.	þ [θ] ~ [ð]	þorn	thorn
	[w]	wynn	joy

In some inscriptions the runes were found arranged in a fixed order which made up a sort of alphabetical order. After the first six letters this alphabet is now commonly known as "futhork" (runic alphabet).

The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet not to be found in other languages. The letters are angular, straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided. This is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in stone, bone, or wood. The shapes of some letters resemble those of the ancient Greek or Latin alphabets. Others have not been traced to any known alphabet. The order of the runes in the alphabet was original. The number of runes varied in different Old Germanic dialects. There were 28 runes in the Old English alphabet. 16 or sometimes 24 were found on the continent and it reached a maximum of 33 in Northumbria (8th century).

The runes were never used for everyday writing or for putting down poetry or prose works. Their only function was to make short inscriptions on objects: rings, coins, amulets. Only the priests could read them.

When and where the runic alphabet was created is not known. It is supposed that it originated at some time in the 2nd and 3rd century A. D., somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube, where Germanic tribes came into contact with Roman culture. The earliest runic inscriptions belong to this time. The runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes. Eventually the runic alphabet underwent many changes: new letters were added, some of the original ones were dropped.

There were two more alphabets used by Germanic tribes: Gothic and Latin. *Ulfila's Gothic alphabet* (4th century) is the alphabet of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible, a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet, with some mixture of Latin and Runic letters. In modern editions of the Gothic text a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet is used.

The latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes is *the Latin alphabet*. It superseded both the Runic and the Gothic alphabet when a new technique of writing was introduced, namely that of spreading some colour or paint on a surface instead of cutting or engraving the letters. The material used for writing was either parchment or papyrus. Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religious texts.

The Latin alphabet was certainly not adequate to represent all sounds of Germanic languages.

4. COMMON FEATURES OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

As any other branch of the Indo-European (IE) languages, the Germanic languages have their own peculiarities in ***phonetics, grammar and word-stock***. All the Germanic languages of the past and of the present have common linguistic features; some of these features are shared by other groups in the IE family, others are specifically Germanic. It is very important to know their peculiarities in order to be able to compare certain phenomena of Germanic languages with the correspondent phenomena of other IE languages. Such a comparison helps to understand the relationship of a Germanic language to an IE language of another branch and give a deeper explanation of different related phenomena.

4.1. PHONETIC SYSTEM

Word Stress. It is believed that at the beginning of the Common Germanic period word-stress was free and movable, as in most other IE languages, which means that it could fall on any syllable of the word. But some time later, still in Common Germanic, the stress became ***fixed on the first syllable***, usually on the root vowel. Its position in the word became stable. The root-morpheme bore the heaviest stress while the other syllables, namely the suffixes and endings, remained unstressed or weakly stressed.

These features of the Common Germanic stress were inherited by all the Common Germanic dialects and despite later alterations the traces are still observed in the Modern Germanic languages. The fixed word-stress played an important role in the development of the Germanic languages, and especially in phonetic and morphological changes: the stressed and unstressed syllables underwent widely different changes: stressed syllables were pronounced with

great distinctness, while unstressed became less distinct and were phonetically weakened. The differences between the sounds in stressed position were preserved and emphasized, whereas the contrasts between the unstressed sounds were weakened and lost. The weakening and loss of sounds mainly affected the suffixes and grammatical endings. Many endings merged with the suffixes, were weakened and dropped.

The System of Proto-Germanic Vowels. From an early date the treatment of vowels was determined by the nature of word-stress.

1. We observe a tendency of a gradual *reduction* of vowels in an unstressed position. In stressed syllables the oppositions between vowels were maintained; in unstressed positions the original contrasts between vowels were weakened or lost. So, by the age of writing the long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped.

2. Strict *differentiation of long and short vowels* is commonly regarded as an important characteristic feature of the Germanic group, which distinguishes them from other IE languages.

3. *Mutation of Vowels* in Germanic languages. Mutation is a kind of regressive assimilation. The pronunciation of vowels was modified under the influence of the following or preceding consonants and even more so under the influence of succeeding vowels. Eventually, the modified vowel coincided with a vowel which was a different phoneme. At other times it could develop into a new phoneme. The earliest manifestation of this principle has been termed *fracture* or *breaking*.

Fracture concerns two pairs of vowels: a) *e* and *i*; b) *u* and *o*. For example, an IE *e* in the root syllable finds its counterpart in Germanic *i*, if it is followed by *i, j* or the cluster *nasal + consonant*. Otherwise the Germanic languages have in the corresponding words an *e*.

4. *Vowel Gradation or Ablaut.* Ablaut is a regular alternation of root vowels (e. g. *write – wrote – written*). In IE languages there is a special kind of vowel alternation, usually called gradation or ablaut. Vowel gradation did not reflect any phonetic changes, but was used as a special independent device to differentiate between words and grammatical forms built from the same root. Ablaut was inherited by Germanic from ancient IE. The principal gradation series used in the IE languages **[e – o]** was shown above in Russian *нести – ноша*. This kind of ablaut is called qualitative, as the vowels differ only in quality. Alternation of short and long vowels, and also alternation with a "zero" (i. e. lack of vowels) represent quantitative ablaut.

The Germanic languages employed both types of ablaut. Of all its spheres of application in Germanic languages, ablaut was mostly used in building the principal forms of the verbs called strong (irregular). Each form was

characterized by a certain grade. The system of gradation in Germanic languages is best seen in the strong verbs of the Gothic language; there exist 7 classes of strong verbs. Of all its spheres of application in Germanic languages, ablaut was mostly used in building the principal forms of the verbs called strong (irregular). Each form was characterized by a certain grade.

The System of Consonants in Common Germanic. The consonants in Germanic languages are characterised by a number of specific features. At first sight it may appear that Germanic consonants are similar to those of other IE languages. Like other IE languages, the Germanic languages have noise consonants and sonorants, plosives and fricatives, voiced and voiceless consonants. Yet, comparison of Germanic and non-Germanic consonants does not correspond to the same comparison in other languages. It has been found that during the Germanic period all the consonants were altered. The most important of all those alterations is commonly known as the *Common Germanic consonant shift* or ***Grimm's Law***.

The phenomena stated in the law of the first consonant shift were found out and first formulated by Jacob Grimm, a German linguist of the early 19th century. Accordingly, the law is also often called Grimm's Law. It expresses regular correspondences between consonants of Germanic and those of other IE languages.

Grimm divided this shift into three parts, which he called acts. They took place at different times.

Act I: IE voiceless plosives are shifted to corresponding voiceless fricatives in Germanic.

IE p, t, k	Germanic f, Þ [θ], h
Lat. *pes, pedis* Russ. *пена*	OE *fot*; NE *foot (p – f)*; OE *fām*; NE *foam (p – f)*
Lat. *tres*; Russ. *три*; Mold. *trei*	OE *Þreo*; NE *three (t – Þ)*
Lat. *Cor, cordis*; Fr. *coeur* Russ. *кров*	OE *heort*; NE *heart (k – n)* OE *hrof*; NE *roof (k – h)*

Act II: IE voiced plosives are shifted to voiceless plosives in Germanic languages.

IE b, d, g	Germanic p, t, k
Russ. *болото*	OE *pōl*; NE *pool (b – p)*
Russ. *слабеть*	OE *slēpan*; NE *sleep (b – p)*
Russ. *два*; Rom. *doi*	OE *twā*; NE *two (d – t)*
Lat. *genu*; Fr. *genou*	OE *cnēo*; NE *knee (g – k)*

Act III: IE voiced aspirated plosives are reflected in Germanic as voiced plosives.

IE bh, dh, gh	Germanic b, d, g
OInd. *Bhrata;* Goth. *brōÞar*	OE *brōÞor*; NE *brother (bh – b)*
OInd. *rudhira*; Russ. *рдеть*	OE *read*; NE *red (dh – d)*
Lat. *hostis (enemy)*	Goth. *Gasts (guest) (gh – g)*

Note: Not all the correspondences in Grimm's Law are quite clear (e. g. *gh – g* was not found in Sanskrit).

Summing up, we can say that the Germanic sounds are the result of a development of the original IE sounds, as they existed in the IE ancestor language.

Voicing of Fricatives in PG (Verner's Law). Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19th century by a Danish scholar, Carl Verner. They are known as Verner's Law. Verner's Law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. It was observed that in some words, where according to Grimm's Law Act I, one should expect to find a voiceless fricative, one found a voiced fricative or a voiced plosive instead. Carl Verner later suggested that in early PG, at the time of the free word stress, fricative consonants became voiced, depending on the position of the stress.

Verner's Law can be formulated as follows: All the common Germanic voiceless fricatives became voiced between vowels (in intervocalic position), if the preceding vowel was unstressed and the immediately following vowel was stressed. In the absence of these conditions fricative consonants remained voiceless. In West and North Germanic languages later on such a voiced fricative changed into the corresponding voiced plosive.

IE	Grimm's Law, Act I	Verner's Law	North and West German
P	F	v	b
T *pa'ter*	Þ [θ] *fa'θar > fa'ðar*	Ð *faðar*	d *fæder*
K	H	Γ	g

Rhotacism. This vocalization also affected the fricative **s**: *s – z*.

In West and North Germanic languages **z** developed into **r**: *s – z – r*. This is clearly shown by comparing:

Goth. *hausjan (hear)* – OE *hieran* – Germ. *horen*
Goth. *laisjan (teach)* – OE *læran* – Germ. *lehren*

West Germanic Lengthening of Consonants

West Germanic languages show peculiar phenomenon in the sphere of consonants, which has been called *West Germanic lengthening of consonants.* Its essence is this: every consonant (with the single exception of r) is lengthened if it is preceded by a short vowel and followed by the consonant j.

e. g.   OE   *sætian – settan (set)*
          stæpian – steppan (step)
          tælian – tellan (tell) etc.

In writing the long consonants are represented by doubling the consonant letter, therefore the process is also sometimes called *West-Germanic doubling of consonants.*

The Second Consonant Shift. The Germanic consonant shift is called the first, to distinguish it from a second consonant shift, which occurred in High German Dialects (in Southern Germany).

The PG voiced **d** corresponds to HG voiceless **t**:
          OE *bedd (bed)*   HG *bett*
          OE *don (do)*   HG *tun*

The PG voiceless **p** corresponds to HG voiceless **f**:
          OE *pol (pool)*   HG *pfuhl*
          OE *hopian (hope)*   HG *hoffen*

The voiceless **k** corresponds to the voiceless fricative **ch** [x] after a vowel:
          OE *macian (make)*   HG *machen*
          OE *storc (stork)*   HG *storch*

However, all these changes penetrated into the literary German language. Most of the changes remained confined to the most Southern German dialects (Bavaria, Austria). The second consonant shift occurred between the 5th and 7th century AD, spreading from South to North. A few hundred years later, between the 8th and 12th century one more change took place, which gave the German consonant system its present shape. As we see, thePG **d** developed into **t** in HG; as a result the German consonant system had no **d**-sound. Now a new **d** appeared, coming from the PG:
          OE *Þrie (three)*   HG *drei*
          OE *Þu (thou)*   HG *du*
          OE *broðer (brother)*   HG *bruder*
          OE *muÞ (mouth)*   HG *mund*

In this way the gap left in the HG consonant system by the change of **d** into **t** in the II consonant shift was filled. Modern literary German again has a complete system: ***p/b, t/d, k/g.***

4.2. GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

Throughout history the following parts of speech could be found in the Germanic group: the Noun, the Adjective, the Pronoun, the Numeral, the Verb, the Adverb, the Conjunction, and the Preposition. In Common Germanic the Noun, the Pronoun, the Adjective had the grammatical categories of gender, number, case.

Noun

The original structure of a noun in Germanic, as well as in other IE languages, presents itself as follows: a noun consists of three elements:

1) *the root* (the meaning of the root is clear: it is the lexical meaning of the noun);

2) *a case inflexion* (the meaning of the case inflexion is also clear: it expresses the relation between the thing denote by the substantive and other things or actions and also the category of number);

3) *a stem-building suffix.*

The meaning of the stem-building suffix is much more difficult to define. From the point of view of the period to which the texts of Old Germanic belong, this suffix no longer has any meaning at all. It would appear that originally stem-building suffixes were a means of classifying the nouns according to their meaning. What the principle of classification was, is hard to tell, there is only one type of noun in Gothic which is characterized by a distinct semantic feature. These are nouns denoting relationship and derived by means of the:

1) stem-forming suffix **r** (e. g. *faðar, broðar, swistar*, etc.);

2) vocalic stems (declension of these nouns – strong declension);

3) n-stems (this declension is called weak);

4) root-stems (a peculiar type – these nouns never had a stem-building suffix, so that their stem had always coincided with their root).

Later the stem-building suffix lost its own meaning and merged with the case inflexion. As a result the stem of the noun consisted of the root alone.

Adjective

Declension of Adjectives in Old Germanic languages is complicated in a way which finds no parallel in other IE languages. The adjectives could be declined according to the strong and weak declension. Weak declension forms are used when the adjective is preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the definite article; they are associated with the meaning of definiteness. In all other contexts forms of the strong declension are used.

Verb

The bulk of the verbs in PG and in OG languages fall into two large groups called strong and weak. These terms were proposed by J. Grimm. He called the verbs strong because they had preserved the richness of form since the age of the parent-language and in this sense could be contrasted to weak verbs lacking such variety of form. From the verbs the terms were extended to noun and adjective declensions. The main difference between these groups lies in the means of building the principal forms: the Present Tense, the Past Tense, and Participle II.

The strong verbs built their principal forms with the help of root vowel interchanges plus certain grammatical endings (made use of IE ablaut with certain modifications).

The weak verbs are a specifically Germanic innovation, for the device used in building their principal forms is not found outside the Germanic group. They built the Past Tense and Participle II by inserting a special suffix between the root and the ending:

	Infinitive	Past Tense	Participle II	NE
OIcel.	*kalla*	*kallaða*	*kallaðr*	*call (called)*
OE	*macian*	*macode*	*macod*	*make (made)*

4.3. GERMANIC VOCABULARY

Until recently it was believed that the Germanic languages had a large proportion of words, which have no parallels in other groups of the IE family. Recent research however, has revealed that Germanic has inherited and preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words (roots) shared by most IE languages. In addition to roots the common IE element includes word-building affixes and grammatical inflexions.

Words, which occur in Germanic alone and have no parallels outside the group, constitute the specific features of the Germanic languages. They appeared in PG or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Semantically, they belong to basic spheres of life: nature, sea, home, life, etc.

Like IE layer the specifically Germanic layer includes not only roots but also affixes and word-building patterns. Here are some examples whose roots have not been found outside the group, and some word-building patterns which arose in Late PG.

Old Germanic Languages			**Modern Germanic Languages**		
Gt	OHG	OE	Sw	G	NE
hus	*hus*	*hus*	*hus*	*haus*	*house*
drinkan	*trinkan*	*drincan*	*drincka*	*trinken*	*drink*

These are instances of transition from compound words into derived words; they show the development of new suffixes – from root morphemes – at the time when many old derivational stem-suffixes had lost their productivity and ceased to be distinguished of the word structure. The new suffixes made up for the loss of stem-suffixes. In addition to native words the OG languages share some borrowings. The earliest are to be found in most languages of the group. Probably they were made at the time when the Germanic tribes lived closer together as a single speech community that is in late PG.

It is known that the name of the metal *iron* was borrowed from the Celtic languages in late PG. (Cf. Celt. *isarno*, Gt *eisarn*, OIcel. *sarn*, OE *isen, iren*). The Teutons may have learned the processing of iron from the Celts.

A large number of words must have been borrowed from Latin prior to the migration of West-Germanic tribes to Britain. These words reflect the contacts of the Germanic tribes with Rome and the influence of the Roman civilization on their life; they mostly refer to trade and warfare:

L. *pondo*	Gt. *pund*	OE *pund*	NE *pound*
L. *prunus*		OE *plume*	NE *plum*
L. *strata via*	OHG *strāza*	OE *stræt*	NE *street*

CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISION OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH AND ITS MAIN PHASES

OUTLINE
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1. APPROACHES TO CHRONOLOGICAL DIVISION OF THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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

According **to purely linguistic** data, researchers take into account the characteristics that may be found in the language itself, its phonetics, lexicon and grammar. The traditionally accepted division of the history of the English language was formulated by Henry Sweet (1845–1912). The division into Old English, Middle English and New English reflects important points of difference in the phonetic system, morphology and vocabulary.

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

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

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

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

The approach which is based on *the blend of historical and linguistic facts* suggests the same type of division: Old English, Middle English and New English. The transition from Old English to Middle English is usually associated with the date of the Norman Conquest (1066); the transition from Middle English to New English is often connected with the consolidation of the monarchy, the end of the Wars of the Roses 1455–1485 or with the introduction of printing in the country. The New English period is traditionally defined as starting with the 15th century and lasting till now. Within it scholars specify the Early New English period (16th, 17th centuries till the Epoch of Restoration) and the Late New English period.

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

It is not by chance that some scholars relegate the border between Old English and Middle English to a later period.

A. I. Smirnitsky is of opinion that 1075 should be considered as the date separating Old English and Middle English. B. A. Ilyish insists on 1100; A. Baugh and T. Cable put up this border as late as to 1150. M. Schlauch, though recognizing 1066 (the year of the Norman Conquest) as the conventional border between Old English and Middle English, still marks that in the Middle English language some principal features of Late Old English remained up to 1200. J. Fisiak introduces intermediate sub-periods into A. Baugh and T. Cable's classification:1150–1250 is regarded as a transitional sub-period between Old English and Middle English and 1450–1500 as a transitional sub-period between Middle English and New English.

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

- Early Old English (450–700), the prewritten period of tribal dialects;
- Written Old English (700–1066), when the tribal dialects were transformed into local, or regional, dialects, the period signified by the rise of the kingdom of Wessex (King Alfred) and the supremacy of the West Saxon dialect;
- Early Middle English (1066–1350), the period beginning with the Norman Conquest and marked with the dialectal divergence caused by the

feudal system and by foreign influences – the Scandinavian and Norman French languages (Anglo-Norman);

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

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

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

• Late New English (1800 – the present time). The Received Standard of English appears. Within the latter period T. A. Rastorguyeva specifies Contemporary English – from 1945 to the present time.

2. MAIN PHASES IN THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

2.1. BEFORE ENGLISH (PREHISTORY – 500 AD)

The Iberians. Britain was part of the continent of Europe until the end of the last Ice Age (6000 BC). It became an island when the lower-lying land under the present-day English Channel was flooded. The island was covered by dense woods full of wild animals and birds. The early inhabitants of Britain were small groups of hunters, gatherers, and fishermen.

About 3000 BC tribes of dark-haired people called *Iberians* began to arrive from the territory of *present-day Spain* around. They were initially hunters and then also shepherds. Iberians were skilled riders and each tribe had a chivalry unit. Their main weapons were the bow and the arrows, the shield, the helmet and the large spear. The Iberians put up buildings of stone and wood and built the first roads. They built the burial chambers and huge temples (henges).

The earliest structures at *Stonehenge* were built about 3050 BC by the Iberian people, though there is still controversy as to who constructed the megalithic tombs (long barrows). The main structure of *Stonehenge* may date

from the end of the Neolithic or the beginning of the Bronze Age. *Stonehenge* was probably a place of worship and a celestial calendar made of giant stones.

The Celts. The earliest inhabitants of Britain about which anything is known are the Celts (the name from the Greek *keltoi* meaning *"barbarian"*), also known as Britons, who probably started to move into the area after 800 BC. By around 300 BC the Celts had become the most widespread branch of Indo-Europeans in Iron Age Europe, inhabiting much of modern-day Spain, Italy, France, Germany, Austria, the Balkans, Eastern Europe and also Britain.

Parts of Scotland were also inhabited from an early time by the Picts, whose Pictish language was completely separate from Celtic and probably not an Indo-European language at all. The Pictish language and culture was completely wiped out during the Viking raids of the 9th century AD, and the remaining Picts merged with the Scots. Further waves of Celtic immigration into Britain, particularly between 500 BC and 400 BC but continuing at least until the Roman occupation, greatly increased the Celtic population in Britain, and established a vibrant Celtic culture throughout the land.

But the Celts themselves were later marginalized and displaced, and Celtic was not the basis for what is now the English language. Despite their dominance in Britain at an early formative stage of its development, the Celts actually had very little impact on the English language, leaving only a few little-used words such as *brock* (an old word for *a badger*), and a handful of geographical terms like *coombe* (a word for *a valley*) and *crag* and *tor* (both words for *a rocky peak*). Many British place names have Celtic origins, including Kent, York, London, Dover, Thames, Avon, Trent, Severn, Cornwall and many more. There is some speculation that Celtic had some influence over the grammatical development of English, such as the use of the continuous tense (e. g. *"is walking"* rather than *"walks"*), which is not used in other Germanic languages. The Celtic language survives today only in the Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland, the Welsh of Wales, and the Breton language of Brittany.

The Romans first entered Britain in 55 BC under Julius Caesar, although they did not begin a permanent occupation until 43 AD, when Emperor Claudius sent a much better prepared force to subjugate the fierce British Celts. Despite a series of uprisings by the natives (including that of Queen Boudicca, or Boadicea in 61 AD), Britain remained part of the Roman Empire for almost 400 years, and there was a substantial amount of interbreeding between the two peoples, although the Romans never succeeded in penetrating into the mountainous regions of Wales and Scotland.

Although this first invasion had a profound effect on the culture, religion, geography, architecture and social behaviour of Britain, the linguistic legacy of the Romans' time in Britain was, like that of the Celts, surprisingly limited. This legacy takes the form of less than 200 "loanwords" coined by Roman merchants

and soldiers, such as *win* (wine), *butere* (butter), *caese* (cheese), *piper* (pepper), *candel* (candle), *cetel* (kettle), *disc* (dish), *cycene* (kitchen), *ancor* (anchor), *belt* (belt), *sacc* (sack), *catte* (cat), *plante* (plant), *rosa* (rose), *cest* (chest), *pund* (pound), *munt* (mountain), *straet* (street), *wic* (village), *mil* (mile), *port* (harbour), *weall* (wall), etc. However, Latin would, at a later time come to have a substantial influence on the language.

Latin did not replace the Celtic language in Britain as it had done in Gaul, and the use of Latin by native Britons during the period of Roman rule was probably confined to members of the upper classes and the inhabitants of the cities and towns. The Romans, under attack at home from Visigoths, Ostrogoths and Vandals, abandoned Britain to the Celts in 410 AD, completing their withdrawal by 436 AD. Within a remarkably short time after this withdrawal, the Roman influence on Britain, in language as in many other walks of life, was all but lost, as Britain settled in to the so-called Dark Ages.

2.2. OLD ENGLISH (500–1100)

The Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. More important than the Celts and the Romans for the development of the English language was the succession of invasions from continental Europe after the Roman withdrawal. No longer protected by the Roman military against the constant threat from the Picts and Scots of the North, the Celts felt themselves increasingly vulnerable to attack. Around 430 AD, the ambitious Celtic warlord Vortigern invited the Jutish brothers Hengest and Horsa (from Jutland in modern-day Denmark), to settle on the east coast of Britain to form a bulwark against sea raids by the Picts, in return for which they were "allowed" to settle in the southern areas of Kent, Hampshire and the Isle of Wight.

But the Jutes were not the only newcomers to Britain during this period. Other Germanic tribes soon began to make the short journey across the North Sea. The Angles (from a region called Angeln, the spur of land which connects modern Denmark with Germany) gradually began to settle in increasing numbers on the east coast of Britain, particularly in the north and East Anglia. The Frisian people, from the marshes and islands of northern Holland and western Germany, also began to encroach on the British mainland from about 450 AD onwards. Still later, from the 470s, the war-like Saxons (from the Lower Saxony area of north-western Germany) made an increasing number of incursions into the southern part of the British mainland. Over time, these Germanic tribes began to establish permanent bases and to gradually displace the native Celts.

All these peoples spoke variations of a West Germanic tongue, similar to modern Frisian. The local dialect in Angeln is, at times, even today recognizably

similar to English, and it has even more in common with the English of 1,000 years ago.

The influx of Germanic people was more of a gradual encroachment over several generations than an invasion proper, but these tribes between them gradually colonized most of the island, with the exception of the more remote areas, which remained strongholds of the original Celtic people of Britain. Originally sea-farers, they began to settle down as farmers, exploiting the rich English farmland. The rather primitive newcomers were if anything less cultured and civilized than the local Celts, who had held onto at least some parts of Roman culture. The Celts referred to the European invaders as *"barbarians"* (as they had previously been labelled themselves); the invaders referred to the Celts as *weales* (slaves or foreigners), the origin of the name Wales.

Despite continued resistance (the legends and folklore of King Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table date from this time), the Celts were pushed further and further back by the invaders into the wilds of Scotland, Wales, Cornwall and Ireland, although some chose to flee to the Brittany region of northern France (where they maintained a thriving culture for several centuries) and even further into mainland Europe.

The Germanic tribes settled in seven smaller kingdoms, known as the Heptarchy: the Saxons in Essex, Wessex and Sussex; the Angles in East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria; and the Jutes in Kent. Evidence of the extent of their settlement can be found in the number of place names throughout England ending with the Anglo-Saxon *"-ing"* meaning people of (e. g. Worthing, Reading, Hastings), *"-ton"* meaning enclosure or village (e. g. Taunton, Burton, Luton), *"-ford"* meaning a river crossing (e. g. Ashford, Bradford, Watford) *"-ham"* meaning farm (e. g. Nottingham, Birmingham, Grantham) and *"-stead"* meaning a site (e. g. Hampstead).

Although the various different kingdoms waxed and waned in their power and influence over time, it was the war-like and pagan Saxons that gradually became the dominant group. The new Anglo-Saxon nation, once known in antiquity as Albion and then Britannia under the Romans, nevertheless became known as Anglaland or Englaland (the Land of the Angles), later shortened to England, and its emerging language as Englisc (now referred to as Old English or Anglo-Saxon, or sometimes Anglo-Frisian). It is impossible to say just when English became a separate language, rather than just a German dialect, although it seems that the language began to develop its own distinctive features in isolation from the continental Germanic languages, by around 600 AD. Over time, four major dialects of Old English gradually emerged: Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the southeast.

The Coming of Christianity and Literacy. Although many of the Romano-Celts in the north of England had already been Christianized, St. Augustine and his 40 missionaries from Rome brought Christianity to the pagan Anglo-Saxons of the rest of England in 597 AD. After the conversion of the influential King Ethelbert of Kent, it spread rapidly through the land, carrying literacy and European culture in its wake. Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 601 AD and several great monasteries and centres of learning were established particularly in Northumbria (e. g. Jarrow, Lindisfarne).

The Celts and the early Anglo-Saxons used an alphabet of runes, angular characters originally developed for scratching onto wood or stone. The first known written English sentence, which reads "This she-wolf is a reward to my kinsman", is an Anglo-Saxon runic inscription on a gold medallion found in Suffolk, and has been dated to about 450–480 AD. The early Christian missionaries introduced the more rounded Roman alphabet (much as we use today), which was easier to read and more suited for writing on vellum or parchment. The Anglo-Saxons quite rapidly adopted the new Roman alphabet, but with the addition of letters such as ᚹ ("wynn"), Þ ("thorn") and others.

The Latin language the missionaries brought was still only used by the educated ruling classes and Church functionaries, and Latin was only a minor influence on the English language at this time, being largely restricted to the naming of Church dignitaries and ceremonies (priest, vicar, altar, mass, church, bishop, pope, nun, angel, verse, baptism, monk, eucharist, candle, temple and presbyter came into the language this way). However, other more domestic words (such as fork, spade, chest, spider, school, tower, plant, rose, lily, circle, paper, sock, mat, cook, etc) also came into English from Latin during this time.

Old English literature flowered remarkably quickly after Augustine's arrival. This was especially notable in the north-eastern kingdom of Northumbria, which provided England with its first great poet (Caedmon in the 7th century), its first great historian (the Venerable Bede in the 7–8th century) and its first great scholar (Alcuin of York in the 8th century), although the latter two wrote mainly in Latin. The oldest surviving text of Old English literature is usually considered to be *Cædmon's Hymn*, composed between 658 and 680. Northumbrian culture and language dominated England in the 7th and 8th centuries, until the coming of the Vikings, after which only Wessex, under Alfred the Great, remained as an independent kingdom. By the 10th century the West Saxon dialect had become the dominant, and effectively the official, language of Britain. The different dialects often had their own preferred spellings as well as distinctive vocabulary (e. g. the word *evil* was spelled *efel* in the south-east, and *yfel* elsewhere; *land* would be *land* in West Saxon and Kentish, but *lond* further north; etc).

About 400 Anglo-Saxon texts have survived from this era, including many beautiful poems, telling tales of wild battles and heroic journeys. The oldest surviving text of Old English literature is *Cædmon's Hymn*, and the longest was the ongoing *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*. But by far the best known is the long epic poem *Beowulf*.

The Vikings. By the late 8th century the Vikings (or Norsemen) began to make sporadic raids on the east cost of Britain. They came from Denmark, Norway and Sweden, although it was the Danes who came with the greatest force. Notorious for their ferocity, ruthlessness and callousness, the Vikings pillaged and plundered the towns and monasteries of northern England – in the year 793 they sacked and looted the wealthy monastery at Lindisfarne in Northumbria – before turning their attentions further south. By about 850 the raiders had started to over-winter in southern England and, in 865 there followed a full-scale invasion and on-going battles for the possession of the country.

Viking expansion was finally checked by Alfred the Great and in 878 a treaty between the Anglo-Saxons and the Vikings established the Danelaw, splitting the country along a line roughly from London to Chester, giving the Norsemen control over the north and east and the Anglo-Saxons the south and west. Although the Danelaw lasted less than a century, its influence can be seen today in the number of place names of Norse origin in northern England (over 1500), including many place names ending in *"-by", "-gate", "-stoke", "kirk", "-thorpe", "-thwaite", "-toft"* and other suffixes (e. g. Whitby, Grimsby, Ormskirk, Scunthorpe, Stoke Newington, Huthwaite, Lowestoft, etc), as well as the *"-son"* ending on family names (e. g. Johnson, Harrison, Gibson, Stevenson) as opposed to the Anglo-Saxon equivalent *"-ing"* (e. g. Manning, Harding, etc).

The Vikings spoke Old Norse, an early North Germanic language not that dissimilar to Anglo-Saxon and roughly similar to modern Icelandic (the word *viking* actually means "a pirate raid" in Old Norse). Accents and pronunciations in northern England even today are heavily influenced by Old Norse, to the extent that they are largely intelligible in Iceland.

Over time Old Norse was gradually merged into the English language, and many Scandinavian terms were introduced. In fact, only around 150 Norse words appeared in Old English manuscripts of the period, but many more became assimilated into the language and gradually began to appear in texts over the next few centuries. All in all, up to 1,000 Norse words were permanently added to the English lexicon, among them, some of the most common and fundamental in the language, including *skin, leg, neck, freckle, sister, husband, fellow, wing, bull, score, seat, root, bloom, bag, gap, knife, dirt, kid*, etc.

Old Norse often provided direct alternatives or synonyms for Anglo-Saxon words, both of which have been carried on (e. g. Anglo-Saxon *craft* and

Norse *skill*, *wish* and *want*, *sick* and *ill*, etc). Unusually for language development, English also adopted some Norse grammatical forms, such as the pronouns *they, them and their*, although these words did not enter the dialects of London and southern England until as late as the 15th century. Under the influence of the Danes, Anglo-Saxon word endings and inflections started to fall away during the time of the Danelaw, and prepositions like *to, with, by,* etc became more important to make meanings clear, although many inflections continued into Middle English, particularly in the south and west (the areas furthest from Viking influence).

Old English after the Vikings. By the time Alfred the Great came to the throne in 871, most of the great monasteries of Northumbria and Mercia lay in ruins and only Wessex remained as an independent kingdom. But Alfred, from his capital town of Winchester, set about rebuilding and fostering the revival of learning, law and religion. Crucially, he believed in educating the people in the vernacular English language, not Latin, and he himself made several translations of important works into English, include Bede's *Ecclesiastical History of the English People*. He also began the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which recounted the history of England from the time of Caesar's invasion, and which continued until 1154.

He is revered as having saved English from the destruction of the Vikings, and by the time of his death in 899 he had raised the prestige and scope of English to a level higher than that of any other vernacular language in Europe. The West Saxon dialect of Wessex became the standard English of the day (although the other dialects continued nonetheless), and for this reason the great bulk of the surviving documents from the Anglo-Saxon period are written in the dialect of Wessex.

2.3. MIDDLE ENGLISH (1100–1500)

Norman Conquest. The event that began the transition from Old English to Middle English was the Norman Conquest of 1066, when William the Conqueror (Duke of Normandy and, later, William I of England) invaded the island of Britain from his home base in northern France, and settled in his new acquisition along with his nobles and court. William crushed the opposition with a brutal hand and deprived the Anglo-Saxon earls of their property, distributing it to Normans (and some English) who supported him.

The conquering Normans descended from Vikings who had settled in northern France about 200 years before (the very word *Norman* comes originally from *Norseman*). However, they had completely abandoned their Old Norse language and wholeheartedly adopted French (which is a so-called Romance

language, derived originally from the Latin, not Germanic, branch of Indo-European), to the extent that not a single Norse word survived in Normandy.

However, the Normans spoke a rural dialect of French with considerable Germanic influences, usually called Anglo-Norman or Norman French, which was quite different from the standard French of Paris of the period, which is known as Francien. The differences between these dialects became even more marked after the Norman invasion of Britain, particularly after King John and England lost the French part of Normandy to the King of France in 1204 and England became even more isolated from continental Europe.

Anglo-Norman French became the language of the kings and nobility of England for more than 300 years (Henry IV, who came to the English throne in 1399, was the first monarch since before the Conquest to have English as his mother tongue). While Anglo-Norman was the verbal language of the court, administration and culture, though, Latin was mostly used for written language, especially by the Church and in official records. For example, the *Domesday Book*, in which William the Conqueror took stock of his new kingdom, was written in Latin to emphasize its legal authority.

However, the peasantry and lower classes (the vast majority of the population, an estimated 95 %) continued to speak English – considered by the Normans a low-class, vulgar tongue – and the two languages developed in parallel, only gradually merging as Normans and Anglo-Saxons began to intermarry. It is this mixture of Old English and Anglo-Norman that is usually referred to as Middle English.

Normans bequeathed over 10,000 words to English about three-quarters of which are still in use today.

Resurgence of English. It is estimated that up to 85 % of Anglo-Saxon words were lost as a result of the Viking and particularly the Norman invasions, and at one point the very existence of the English language looked to be in dire peril. In 1154 even the venerable *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which for centuries had recorded the history of the English people, recorded its last entry. But, despite the shake-up the Normans had given English, it showed its resilience once again, and, two hundred years after the Norman Conquest, it was English not French that emerged as the language of England.

There were a number of contributing factors. The English, of necessity, had become "Normanized", but, over time, the Normans also became "Anglicized", particularly after 1204 when King John's ineptness lost the French part of Normandy to the King of France and the Norman nobles were forced to look more to their English properties. Increasingly out of touch with their properties in France and with the French court and culture in general, they soon began to look on themselves as English. Norman French began gradually

to degenerate and atrophy. While some in England spoke French and some spoke Latin (and a few spoke both), everyone, from the highest to the lowest, spoke English, and it gradually became the *lingua franca* of the nation once again.

The Hundred Year War against France (1337–1453) had the effect of branding French as the language of the enemy and the status of English rose as a consequence. The Black Death of 1349–1350 killed about a third of the English population (which was around 4 million at that time), including a disproportionate number of the Latin-speaking clergy. After the plague, the English-speaking labouring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance and, within the short period of a decade, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. The Statute of Pleading, which made English the official language of the courts and Parliament (although, paradoxically, it was written in French), was adopted in 1362, and in that same year Edward III became the first king to address Parliament in English, a crucial psychological turning point. By 1385 English had become the language of instruction in schools.

Chaucer and the Birth of English Literature. Texts in Middle English (as opposed to French or Latin) begin as a trickle in the 13th century, with works such as the debate poem *The Owl and the Nightingale* (probably composed around 1200) and the long historical poem known as Layamon's *Brut* (from around the same period). Most of Middle English literature, at least up until the flurry of literary activity in the later part of the 14th century, is of unknown authorship.

Geoffrey Chaucer began writing his famous *Canterbury Tales* in the early 1380s, and he wrote it in English. Other important works were written in English around the same time, if not earlier, including William Langland's *Piers Plowman* and the anonymous *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight*. But the *Canterbury Tales* is usually considered the first great work of English literature, and the first demonstration of the artistic legitimacy of vernacular Middle English, as opposed to French or Latin.

In the 858 lines of the Prologue to the *Canterbury Tales*, almost 500 different French loanwords occur, and about 20–25 % of Chaucer's vocabulary is French in origin. However, the overall sense of his work is very much of a reformed English, a complete, flexible and confident language, more than adequate to produce great literature. Chaucer introduced many new words into the language, up to 2,000 – these were almost certainly words in everyday use in 14th century London, but first attested in Chaucer's written works.

In 1384 John Wycliffe (Wyclif) produced his translation of *The Bible* in vernacular English. This challenge to Latin as the language of God was

considered a revolutionary act of daring at the time, and the translation was banned by the Church (however, it continued to circulate unofficially). Although perhaps not of the same literary calibre as Chaucer (in general, he awkwardly retained the original Latin word order, for instance), Wycliffe's *Bible* was nevertheless a landmark in the English language. Over 1,000 English words were first recorded in it, most of them Latin-based, often via French.

2.4. EARLY NEW ENGLISH (1500–1800)

The English Renaissance. The next wave of innovation in English came with the revival of classical scholarship known as the Renaissance. The English Renaissance roughly covers the 16th and early 17th century (the European Renaissance had begun in Italy as early as the 14th century), and is often referred to as the "Elizabethan Era" or the "Age of Shakespeare" after the most important monarch and most famous writer of the period. The additions to English vocabulary during this period were deliberate borrowings, and not the result of any invasion or influx of new nationalities or any top-down decrees.

Latin (and to a lesser extent Greek and French) was still very much considered the language of education and scholarship at this time, and the great enthusiasm for the classical languages during the English Renaissance brought thousands of new words into the language, peaking around 1600. A huge number of classical works were being translated into English during the 16th century, and many new terms were introduced where a satisfactory English equivalent did not exist.

By the end of the 16th century English had finally become widely accepted as a language of learning, equal if not superior to the classical languages. Vernacular language, once scorned as suitable for popular literature and little else – and still criticized throughout much of Europe as crude, limited and immature – had become recognized for its inherent qualities.

Printing Press and Standardization. The final major factor in the development of New English was the advent of the printing press, one of the world's great technological innovations, introduced into England by William Caxton in 1476 (Johann Gutenberg had originally invented the printing press in Germany around 1450). The first book printed in the English language was Caxton's own translation, *The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*, actually printed in Bruges in 1473 or early 1474. Up to 20,000 books were printed in the following 150 years, ranging from mythic tales and popular stories to poems, phrasebooks, devotional pieces and grammars, and Caxton himself became quite rich from his printing business (among his best sellers were Chaucer's *Canterbury*

Tales and Thomas Malory's *Tales of King Arthur*). As mass-produced books became cheaper and more commonly available, literacy mushroomed, and soon works in English became even more popular than books in Latin.

At the time of the introduction of printing there were five major dialect divisions within England – Northern, West Midlands, East Midlands (a region which extended down to include London), Southern and Kentish – and even within these demarcations, there was a huge variety of different spellings.

The Chancery of Westminster made some efforts from the 1430s onwards to set standard spellings for official documents, specifying *I* instead of *ich* and various other common variants of the first person pronoun, *land* instead of *lond*, all of which previously appeared in many variants. Chancery Standard contributed significantly to the development of a Standard English, and the political, commercial and cultural dominance of the "East Midlands triangle" (London – Oxford – Cambridge) was well established long before the 15th century, but it was the printing press that was really responsible for carrying through the standardization process. With the advent of mass printing, the dialect and spelling of the East Midlands (and, more specifically, that of the national capital, London, where most publishing houses were located) became the de facto standard and, over time, spelling and grammar gradually became more and more fixed.

Some of the decisions made by the early publishers had long-lasting repercussions for the language. One such example is the use of the northern English *they*, *their* and *them* in preference to the London equivalents *hi*, *hir* and *hem* (which were more easily confused with singular pronouns like *he*, *her* and *him*). Caxton himself complained about the difficulties of finding forms which would be understood throughout the country, a difficult task even for simple little words like *eggs*. But his own work was far from consistent and his use of double letters and the final "e" was haphazard at best (e. g. *had/hadd/hadde*, *dog/dogg/dogge)*.

Many of his successors were just as inconsistent, particularly as many of them were Europeans and not native English speakers. Sometimes different spellings were used for purely practical reasons, such as adding or omitting letters merely to help the layout or justification of printed lines.

A good part of the reason for many of the vagaries and inconsistencies of English spelling has been attributed to the fact that words were fixed on the printed page before any orthographic consensus had emerged among teachers and writers. Printing also directly gave rise to another strange quirk: the word *the* had been written for centuries as *þe,* using the "thorn" character of Old English, but, as no runic characters were available on the European printing presses, the letter "y" was used instead (being closest to the handwritten thorn character of the period), resulting in the word *ye*, which should therefore technically still be pronounced as "the". It is only since the archaic spelling was

revived for store signs (e. g. Ye Olde Pubbe) that the "modern" pronunciation of *ye* has been used.

Standardization was well under way by around 1650, but it was a slow and halting process and names in particular were often rendered in a variety of ways. For example, more than 80 different spellings of Shakespeare's name have been recorded, and he himself spelled it differently in each of his six known signatures, including two different versions in his own will.

Dictionaries and Grammars. The first English dictionary, *A Table Alphabeticall*, was published by English schoolteacher Robert Cawdrey in 1604 (8 years before the first Italian dictionary, and 35 years before the first French dictionary, although admittedly some 800 years after the first Arabic dictionary and nearly 1,000 after the first Sanskrit dictionary). Cawdrey's little book contained 2,543 of what he called "hard words", especially those borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin and French, although it was not actually a very reliable resource.

Several other dictionaries, as well as grammar, pronunciation and spelling guides, followed during the 17th and 18th century. The first attempt to list ALL the words in the English language was *An Universall Etymological English Dictionary*, compiled by Nathaniel Bailey in 1721 (the 1736 edition contained about 60,000 entries).

But the first dictionary considered anything like reliable was Samuel Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*, published in 1755, over 150 years after Cawdrey's. An impressive academic achievement in its own right, Johnson's 43,000 word dictionary remained the pre-eminent English dictionary until the much more comprehensive *Oxford English Dictionary* 150 more years later, although it was actually riddled with inconsistencies in both spelling and definitions.

In addition to dictionaries, many English grammars started to appear in the 18th century, the best-known and most influential of which were Robert Lowth's *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762) and Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1794). In fact, some 200 works on grammar and rhetoric were published between 1750 and 1800, and no less than 800 during the 19th century. Most of these works, Lowth's in particular, were extremely prescriptive, stating in no uncertain terms the "correct" way of using English. Lowth was the main source of such "correct" grammar rules as a double negative always yields a positive, never end a sentence with a preposition and never split an infinitive. A refreshing exception to such prescriptivism was the *Rudiments of English Grammar* by the scientist and polymath Joseph Priestley, which was unusual in expressing the view that grammar is defined by common usage and not prescribed by self-styled grammarians.

The first English newspaper was the *Courante* or *Weekly News* (actually published in Amsterdam, due to the strict printing controls in force in England at that time) arrived in 1622, and the first professional newspaper of public record was the *London Gazette*, which began publishing in 1665. The first daily, *The Daily Courant*, followed in 1702, and *The Times* of London published its first edition in 1790, around the same time as the influential periodicals *The Tatler* and *The Spectator*, which between them did much to establish the style of English in this period.

William Shakespeare. Whatever the merits of the other contributions to the golden age of English literature (the 16th to 18th century), it is clear that one man, William Shakespeare, single-handedly changed the English language to a significant extent in the late 16th and early 17th century. Shakespeare took advantage of the relative freedom and flexibility of English at the time, and played freely and easily with the already liberal grammatical rules.

He had a vast vocabulary (34,000 words by some counts) and he personally coined an estimated 2,000 neologisms or new words in his many works. By some counts, almost one in ten of the words used by Shakespeare were his own invention, a truly remarkable achievement. However, not all of these were necessarily personally invented by Shakespeare himself: they merely appear for the first time in his published works, and he was more than happy to make use of other people's neologisms and local dialect words, and to mine the latest fashions and fads for new ideas.

International trade. While all these important developments were underway, British naval superiority was also growing. In the 16th and 17th century international trade expanded immensely, and loanwords were absorbed from the languages of many other countries throughout the world, including those of other trading and imperial nations such as Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands. Among these are: French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, German, Dutch, Basque, Norwegian, Icelandic, Finnish, Arabic, Turkish, Russian, Japanese, Chinese, Polynesian and others.

2.5. LATE NEW ENGLISH (1800 – PRESENT)

Industrial and Scientific Revolution. The dates may be rather arbitrary, but the main distinction between Early New and Late New English (or just New English as it is sometimes referred to) lies in its vocabulary – grammar and spelling remained largely unchanged. Late New English accumulated many more words as a result of two main historical factors: the Industrial Revolution, which necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously

existed; and the rise of the British Empire, during which time English adopted many foreign words and made them its own. No single one of the socio-cultural developments of the 19th century could have established English as a world language, but together they did just that.

Most of the innovations of the Industrial Revolution of the late 18th and early 19th century were of British origin, including the harnessing of steam to drive heavy machinery, the development of new materials, techniques and equipment in a range of manufacturing industries, and the emergence of new means of transportation (e. g. steamships, railways). At least half of the influential scientific and technological output between 1750 and 1900 was written in English. Another English speaking country, the USA, continued the English language dominance of new technology and innovation with inventions like electricity, the telegraph, the telephone, the phonograph, the sewing machine, the computer, etc.

The British Empire. British colonialism began as early as in the 16th century, but gathered speed between the 18th and 20th century. At the end of the 16th century, mother-tongue English speakers numbered just 5–7 million, almost all of them in the British Isles; over the next 350 years, this increased almost 50-fold, 80 % of them living outside of Britain. At the height of the British Empire (in the late 19th and early 20th century), Britain ruled almost one quarter of the earth's surface, from Canada to Australia, to India, to the Caribbean, to Egypt, to South Africa, to Singapore.

Although the English language had barely penetrated into Wales, Ireland and the Scottish Highlands by the time of Shakespeare, just two hundred years later, in 1780 John Adams was confident enough to be able to claim that English was "destined to be in the next and succeeding centuries more generally the language of the world than Latin was in the last or French is in the present age". In 1852 the German linguist Jacob Grimm called English "the language of the world" and predicted it was "destined to reign in future with still more extensive sway over all parts of the globe".

It was taken very much for granted by the British colonial mentality of the time that extending the English language and culture to the undeveloped and backward countries of Africa and Asia was a desirable thing. The profit motive may have been foremost, but there was a certain amount of altruistic motivation as well, and many saw it as a way of bringing order and political unity to these chaotic and internecine regions (as well as binding them ever more strongly to the Empire). To some extent, it is true that the colonies were happy to learn the language in order to profit from British industrial and technological advances.

The rise of so-called "New Englishes" (modern variants or dialects of the language, such as Australian English, South African English, Caribbean English,

South Asian English, etc) raised the spectrum of the possible fragmentation of the English language into mutually unintelligible languages, much as occurred when Latin gave rise to the various Romance languages (French, Spanish, Italian, etc) centuries ago. As early as in 1789, for example, Noah Webster predicted "a language in North America as different from the future language of England as the modern Dutch, Danish and Swedish are from the German or from one another".

Present day. The language continues to change and develop and to grow apace, expanding to incorporate new jargons, slangs, technologies, toys, foods and gadgets. In the current digital age, English is going through a new linguistic peak in terms of word acquisition, as it peaked before during Shakespeare's time, and then again during the Industrial Revolution, and at the height of the British Empire. According to one recent estimate, it is expanding by over 8,500 words a year (other estimates are significantly higher), compared to an estimated annual increase of around 1,000 words at the beginning of the 20th century, and has almost doubled in size in the last century.

In recent years, there has been an increasing trend towards using an existing words as a different part of speech, especially the "verbification" of nouns (e. g. to *thumb*, to *parrot*, to *email*, to *text*, to *google*, etc), although some modern-sounding verbs have surprisingly been in the language for centuries (e. g. to *author*, to *impact*, to *parent*, to *channel*, to *monetize*, to *mentor*, etc). "Nounification" also occurs, particularly in business contexts (e. g. an *ask*, a *build*, a *solve*, a *fail*, etc). The meanings of words also continue to change, part of a process that has been going on almost as long as the language itself.

In our Internet-informed, digital age, there are even word trends that appear to be custom-designed to be short-lived and ephemeral, words and phrases that are considered no longer trendy once they reach anything close to mainstream usage. Resources like the *Urban Dictionary* exist for those of us who keep track of such fleeting phenomena.

OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND, DIALECTS, ALPHABETS, WRITTEN DOCUMENTS

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1. OLD ENGLISH

1.1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF OLD ENGLISH

English appeared in Britain in the 5th century AD on the basis of the dialects of Germanic tribes – Angles, Saxons and Jutes.

These events in the history of Britain are well described by Bede the Venerable in his "Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum".

In the middle of the 5th century (as early as 449 AD), as Bede narrates, Britain was conquered by Angles, Saxons and Jutes. Those were Germanic tribes belonging to the Ingvaeone group. According to Bede, in 449 AD the Germanic tribes headed by the chieftains Hengist and Hors landed on the island of Tanet in the Thames estuary. The transmigration of these tribes lasted for 150 years and ended in their occupation of most English territory. The territory of Britain was divided as follows:

– the Saxons and the Angles who came from the European coast of the North Sea occupied the territories south and north off the Thames;

– the Jutes who came from the Juteland Peninsula in Europe settled on the Peninsula of Kent and the Isle of White. The Britons fought against the conquerors till about 600. It is to this epoch that the legendary figure of the British king Arthur belongs. The Celtic tribes retreated to the north and to the west – to Cornwall and Wales.

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

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

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th century originally had no state unity and permanently waged wars. In the 6th century there were nine small kingdoms in Britain: Deira, Bernicia (Angles), East Anglia (Angles), Mercia (Angles in the north, Saxons in the south), Essex, Middlesex, Sussex, Wessex (Saxons), and Kent (inhabited by Jutes).

Later Deira and Bernicia were united and named Northumbria. There was no concord among the kings, and no peace among the kingdoms. Each ruler desired to gain the supreme power and subordinate the others.

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

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

At the beginning of the 9th century the dominating position passed over to Wessex. This kingdom dominated and united nearly all the territory of Britain, its capital Winchester becoming the capital of Britain. The Wessex king Alfred the Great (849–901), the enlightened monarch, played an important role in the strengthening of the Wessex position, as he increased the fleet, strengthened the army, built new fortresses and forts, set up the England's first school for feudal lords, invited scholars and writers to England and himself translated from Latin.

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

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

The king of Wessex Alfred the Great (849–899) is renowned for his defence of England against the Danes and for his encouragement of learning. The Danish invasion of Wessex in 871 ended in inconclusive peace, and in 876 the Danes struck again. Based at Athelney, Alfred harassed the enemy until winning, in 878, the great victory at Edington. It is to this period that the probably apocryphal story (told in the 12th century *Chronicle of St. Neot's*) of Alfred burning the cakes relates. The subsequent peace with the Danish leader Guthrum gave the Danes control over much of eastern England (*Danelag*), but by 890 Alfred's authority was acknowledged over all the remainder of England.

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

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

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

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

In 1042, when the power of the Anglo-Saxon nobility was restored, Æthelred's son Edward the Confessor (called so because he grew in a monastery

and cared more for quiet, learned life) was summoned from Normandy and became the new King of England. Edward the Confessor remained the ruler of the country for about a quarter of a century – until his death in 1066. The year of Edward's death was to appear a turning point in the English history. 1066 has entered the annals as the year of the Norman Conquest, which for the history of the English language was the event marking the transition to a new period – Middle English.

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

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

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

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

1.2. OLD ENGLISH DIALECTS

Kingdom	Kent	Wessex	Mercia	Northumbria
Dialect	Kentish	West Saxon	Mercian	Northumbrian
Spoken	in Kent, Surrey, the Isle of Wight	along the Thames and the Bristol Channel	between the Thames and the Humber	between the Humber and the Forth
Origin	from the tongues of Jutes/ Frisians	a Saxon dialect	a dialect of north Angles	a dialect of south Angles
Remarks		9th century – Wessex was the centre of the English culture and politics. West Saxon – the bookish type of language		8th century – Northumbria was the centre of the English culture

As it is seen from the table above the main dialects of the Old English language were: **Wessex, Northumbrian, Mercian** and **Kentish.** These four dialects consisted of smaller dialectal variants of the Old English language.

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

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

The Northumbrian and Mercian dialects had many features in common and are sometimes collectively referred to as the **Angle** dialect.

The most important surviving documents in the Old English language were written in the Wessex dialect, that is why it is the main source of our

knowledge of Old English. But it would be a mistake to think that the modern English language has developed from the Wessex dialect. J. L. Brook proves that the basic form for contemporary English was a species of the Mercian dialect, though individual words were taken from other dialects as well.

The modern verb *to hear*, for example, originates from the Mercian form *heran*.

Mercian (or Northumbrian) forms developed into the modern adjectives *old* and *cold*; in the Mercian dialect they were *ald* and *cald*, while in the Wessex dialect they had the forms *eald* and *ceald* and according to well-known phonetic laws they should have developed into something like *eald* [i:ld] and *cheald*.

Actually there were not many language features that would be characteristic only for one of the Old English dialects and would not be found in others. The reason is that various forms could easily pass from one dialect to another. The difference between the dialects was mainly of quantitative character, i. e. it generally depended on the frequency of this or that group of forms.

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

On the basis of the Wessex dialect there developed *koine*, the transdialectal literary language of the Old English period. The development of the *koine* on the basis of the Wessex dialect was possible due to the political and cultural progress which the Kingdom of Wessex achieved in the 10th century.

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

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

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

1.3. OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET AND PRONUNCIATION

OE scribes used two kinds of letters: the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet. The bulk of the OE manuscripts is written in the Latin script. The use of Latin letters in English differed in some points from their use in Latin, for the scribes made certain modifications and additions in order to indicate OE sounds.

Depending on the size and shape of the letters modern philologists distinguish between several scripts which superseded one another during the Middle Ages. Throughout the Roman period and in the Early Middle Ages capitals and uncial letters were used reaching almost an inch in height, so that only a few letters could find place on a large page; in the 5–7th century the uncial became smaller and the cursive script began to replace it in everyday life, while in book-making a still smaller script, minuscule, was employed. The variety used in Britain is known as the Irish, or insular, minuscule. Out of the altered shapes of letters used in this script *b, f, g* and others only a peculiar shape of *g* − *ʒ* is preserved in modern publications. In the OE variety of the Latin alphabet *i* and *j* were not distinguished; nor were *u* and *v*; the letters *k, q, x, w* were not used until many years later. A new letter was devised by putting a stroke through *d* − *đ* or *ð*, also the capital letter − *Ð* to indicate the voiceless and the voiced interdental *[θ]* and *[ð]*. The letter *a* was used either alone or as part of a ligature made up of *a* and *e* − *æ*; likewise in the earlier texts we find the ligature *œ* (*o* plus *e*), later it was replaced by *e*.

The most interesting peculiarity of OE writing was the use of some runic characters, in the first place, the rune called "thorn" *þ* − *Þ* which was employed alongside the crossed *d, ð* to indicate *[θ]* and *[ð]* − it is usually preserved in modern publications as a distinctive feature of the OE script. In the manuscripts one more rune was regularly used − *Ƿ ƿ* "wynn" for the sound *[w]*. In modern publications it is replaced by *w*.

Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. This principle, however, was not always observed, even at the earliest stages of phonetic spelling. Some OE letters indicated two or more sounds, even distinct phonemes, e. g. *ʒ* stood for four different phonemes; some letters, indicating distinct sounds stood for positional variants of phonemes − *a* and *æ*. A careful study of the OE sound system has revealed that a set of letters, *s, f,* and *þ* (also shown as *ð* stood for two sounds each: a voiced and voiceless consonant. And yet, on the whole, OE spelling was far more phonetic and consistent than ME spelling. The letters of the OE alphabet below are supplied with transcription symbols, if their sound values in OE differ from the sound values normally attached to them in Latin and other languages.

Old English Alphabet

a	**n** [n], [ŋ]
æ	**o**
b	**p**
c [k] or [k']	**r**
d	**s** [s] or [z]
e	**t**
f [f] or [v]	**Þ, ð** [θ] or [ð]
ȝ [g], [g'], [γ] or [j]	**u**
h [x], [x'] or [h]	**w**
i	**x**
l	**y**
m	

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

In reading OE texts one should observe the following rules for letters indicating more than one sound. The letters *f, s* and *Þ, ð* stand for voiced fricatives between vowels and also between a vowel and a voiced consonant; otherwise they indicate corresponding voiceless fricatives:

	OE	NE	OE	NE
f	ofer [over]	over	feohtan [feoxtan]	fight
	selfa [selva]	self	oft [oft]	often
s	rīsan [ri:zan]	rise	rās [ra:s]	rose
			ȝāst [ga:st]	ghost
Þ, ð	ōðer [oðer]	other	ðæt [θæt]	that
	wyrÞe [wyrðe]	worthy	lēoÞ [leo:θ]	song

The letter *ȝ* stands for *g* initially before back vowels, for *j* before and after front vowels, for *γ* between back vowels and for *g'* mostly when preceded by *c*:

OE *ȝān* [g], *ȝēar* [j], *dæȝ* [j], *daȝas* [γ], *secȝan* [g'] (NE go, year, day, days, say).

The letter *h* stands for *x* between a back vowel and a consonant and also initially before consonants and for *x'* next to front vowels; the distribution of *h* is uncertain:

OE *hlǣne* [x], *tāhte* [x], *niht* [x'], *hē* [x] or *h* (NE lean, taught, night, he).

The letter *n* stands for *n* in all positions except when followed by *k* or *g* in this case it indicates [g]: OE *sinȝan* (NE *sing*).

1.4. OLD ENGLISH WRITTEN RECORDS

A great deal about Old English culture is known from Old English recipes, charms, riddles, descriptions of saints' lives, and epics such as *Beowulf*. Most remaining texts in Old English are religious, legal, medical, or literary in nature.

Old English texts are divided along geographic lines into Northumbrian, Mercian, West-Saxon, and Kentish; they can also be categorized in terms of whether they were written in early or late Old English and whether they are poetry or prose. Most evidence of older Old English comes from northern poetic texts such as *Cædmons Hymn*. Most evidence of later Old English comes from southern prose texts such as Alfred's *Orosius* or the works of Ælfric.

For some manuscripts – *Beowulf*, for example – a dialect and date of composition cannot be firmly established. These factors make it hard to compare dialect, genre, and age.

Here is a list of some works in Old English:

Beowulf. Mixed dialect Northumbrian / West Saxon; manuscript from c. 1000 but based on earlier version.

Lindisfarne Gospels. Northumbrian interlinear gloss; c. 950.

Rushworth Glosses. Interlinear gloss; c. 970. Matthew is Mercian; Mark, Luke and John are Northumbrian.

The Junius Manuscript. Written between the 7th and 10th centuries; compiled towards the late 10th; contains *Genesis, Exodus, Christ and Satan.*

The Exeter Book. Early poetry; contains *Riddles, Wulf and Eadwacer, The Wanderer, and the Seafarer.*

Gregory's Pastoral Care. Early West Saxon, late 9th century, ascribed to King Alfred.

Boethius and *Orosius.* Early West-Saxon, ascribed to King Alfred.

Homilies, by Ælfric. West Saxon, c. 1000.

Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. Many versions, one composed in Peterborough that continues to 1154.

The scribes who copied and illustrated the manuscripts worked mainly in monasteries. The manuscripts are often exquisite works of art. The originals were written on *vellum*, very expensive thin leather. Books were therefore owned by a monastery, a church, or a wealthy person and were typically versions of the Bible, prayer books, school books, manuals of various kinds, and music.

Facsimile editions enable us to see what the text looked like. This is important since these works are often modernized by editors when they appear in anthologies and scholarly editions.

General characteristics of Old English written records

a) Old English Manuscripts

Most of the Old English manuscripts were written in Latin characters. The Latin Alphabet was modified by the scribes to suit the English language.

The Old English manuscripts that give us the examples of the language of that period are:
- personal documents containing names and place names;
- legal documents (charters);
- glosses to the Gospels and other religious texts (Latin-English vocabularies for those who did not know Latin good enough to understand the texts);
- textual insertions (pieces of poetry).

b) Old English Poetry

Among the earliest textual insertions in Old English are the pieces of Old English poetry. They are to be found in *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* written in Latin in the 8th century by Bede the Venerable, an English monk. These two pieces are:
- 5 lines known as Bede's *Death Song*;
- 9 lines of a religious poem *Cædmon's Hymn*.

All in all we have about 30,000 lines of OE verse from many poets, but most of them are anonymous. The two best known Old English poets are Northumbrian authors Cædmon and Cynewulf.

The topics of Old English poetry:
- *heroic epic* (*Beowulf*, the oldest in the Germanic literature, 7th century, was written in Mercian or Northumbrian but has come down to us only in a 10th century West Saxon copy. It is based on old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons and features the adventures and fights of the legendary heroes);
- *lyrical poems* (*The Wanderer, The Seafarer*, etc. Most of the poems are ascribed to Cynewulf);
- *religious poems* (*Fate of the Apostles* (probably Cædmon), *Dream of the Rood*, etc.).

The peculiarities of Old English poetry:
- written in Old Germanic alliterative verse;
- the lines are not rhymed;
- the number of the syllables in a line is free;
- the number of stressed syllables in a line is fixed;
- the line is usually divided into two halves, each half starts with one and the same sound; this sound may be repeated also in the middle of each half;

● a great number of synonyms and metaphorical phrases or compounds describing the qualities or functions of a thing (e. g. *hronrād* "whale-road" (for "sea"); *bānhūs* "bone-house" (for "a person's body"); *hēaþu-swāt* "war-sweat" (for "blood")).

2. MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

2.1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND LINGUISTIC SITUATION

The Scandinavian Conquest. The Scandinavian Conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Scandinavian inroads into England began as early as the 8th century. The Anglo-Saxons offered the invaders a stubborn resistance, which is seen in the narrations of the *Chronicle*. In the late 9th century the Scandinavians occupied the whole of English territory north of the Thames. In 878, King Alfred made peace with the invaders (the so-called Wedmore peace). The territory occupied by the Scandinavians was to remain in their power; it was henceforward called Danelaw (literally ***Danish law***). The Scandinavians, in their turn, recognized the nominal supremacy of the king of England.

Scandinavians most thickly settled the northern and eastern parts of England; there were fewer of them in the central territories. About this very time, the Scandinavians invaded Ireland and occupied some of its coastal regions. In the late 10th century war in England was resumed, and in 1013, the whole country fell to the invaders. King Ethelred fled to Normandy. In 1016, the Danish king Knut (or Canute) became ruler of England. England became part of a vast Scandinavian empire in Northern Europe.

Scandinavian power in England lasted until 1042, when it was over thrown, and the power of Old English nobility was restored under King Edward the Confessor. The Scandinavian Conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English language. The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structure was similar to that of Old English. They had the same morphological categories; strong and weak declension of nouns falling into several types according to the stem vowel; strong and weak declension of adjectives; seven classes of strong and three classes of weak verbs.

Close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible. On the other hand, mass settlement off Scandinavians in Northern and Eastern England gave their

language a great influence in these regions. The relation between the two languages corresponded to that between Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians: they were spoken by the same social layers and had equal rights. The result was a blending of Scandinavian and English dialects, this process was especially intensive in the North and East. Influence of Scandinavian dialects was felt in two spheres: vocabulary and morphology.

The Norman Conquest. The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved a turning point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe. In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on both sides of the Seine estuary. Under a treaty concluded in 912 with the Norman chief Rollo, the French king Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans this stretch of the coast, which since then came to be called Normandy. During the century and a half between the Normans' settlement in France and their invasion of England, they had undergone a powerful influence of French culture. Mixing with the local population, they adopted the French language and in the mid-eleventh century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language.

In 1066 king Edward the Confessor died. William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, assembled an army with the help of Norman barons, landed in England, and rooted the English troops under King Harold near Hastings on October 14, 1066. In the course of a few years, putting down revolts in various parts of the country, the Normans became masters of England. The ruling class of Anglo-Saxons nobility vanished almost completely: some of them perished in battles and uprisings, others were executed, and the remainder emigrated. Norman barons, who spoke French, namely, its Norman dialect, replaced this nobility. Thus, because of the conquest England came to be ruled by a foreign ruling class.

William confiscated the estates of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. All posts in the church, from abbots upwards, were given to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. Among them were merchants, soldiers, teachers, seeking for a new field of activity. During the reign of William the Conqueror (1066–1087) about 200,000 Frenchmen settled in England. This influx lasted for about two centuries. The civil war in the reign of King Stephen (1135–1154) and the anarchy caused by it favoured the influx of Norman barons, who seized English estates. When King John Lackland lost his possessions in Normandy (1203), a great number of Normans who did not care to stay in their country under the new conditions started arriving in England.

During several centuries, the ruling language in England was French. It was the language of the court, the government, the courts of law, and the church; the English language was reduced to a lower social sphere: the main mass of peasantry and towns people. The relation between French and English was, thus, different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the dominating position of the West Saxon literary language. In the 12th and 13th centuries all English dialects were on an equal footing and independent of each other. In some of them, especially in the north, Scandinavian influence on, the vocabulary became more pronounced. Under such circumstances, with two languages spoken in the country, they were bound to struggle with each other, and to influence each other. This process lasted for three centuries – the 12th, 13th, and 14th. The results were twofold: (1) the struggle for supremacy between French and English ended in favour of English, but (2) the English language emerged from this struggle in a considerably changed condition: its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words, while its grammatical structure underwent material changes.

Struggle between English and French. After the Norman conquest of 1066 the situation in England, as far as language is concerned, was as follows:

1) The country is divided into two layers: the feudal upper class, the government, the court speak Anglo-Norman, while the main balks of the population the peasantry and the townspeople – stick to English.

2) None of the territorial dialects enjoys any privilege as compared with the others.

3) There is a considerable layer of bilingual population, speaking both languages.

Such a state of things was bound to result in conflicts, whose outcome depended on the relative power of the various social layers in medieval England. Struggle between the two languages for supremacy lasted all through three centuries; towards the end of this period a path for the formation of an English national language began to emerge. The situation was still more complicated by the fact that alongside the two languages a third language existed, namely Latin as an international language of the church and medieval church science (within the boundaries of Western Europe).

In the latter half of the 14th century victory of English became evident: French lost one position after another. Only in the 15th century did it finally disappear from English social life. In the struggle between the two languages, there are some important dates, marking its successive stages.

The first English kings after the conquest did not know the English language. Henry IV (1399–1413) was the first king whose mother tongue was English. After the conquest Anglo-Saxon, laws were translated into Latin, then into French. French was also the language teachers used in schools. Official and private letters, agreements and other documents were written in Latin in the first centuries after the conquest. In the 13th century letters written in French appeared; isolated letters in French are found as late as 1440. Courts of law also used French in their procedures; parliamentary business was conducted in French. A symptom of the rise of English came in 1258, when Henry III addressed the population of the country in a Proclamation written in English (the London dialect).

In mid-14th century the influence of English rose. In 1362 (under king Edward III) Parliament, acting on a petition of the city of London, ruled that courts of law should conduct their business in English, as *French was too little known*, in the same year English was first used in Parliament itself. About this very time, English as the language in which teaching was conducted in schools replaced French. Thus, by the end of the 14th century supremacy of Anglo-Norman came to an end, though some scattered remains of it stayed on till a much later time, and isolated French formulas have survived until the present, such as the motto on the British coat-of-arms: *Dieu et mon droit (God and my right)*. The victory of English was due to the rise of social layers that spoke it – the gentry and the town bourgeoisie, which took the upper hand in the struggle against the feudal top layer of society.

2.2. MIDDLE ENGLISH DIALECTS

Middle English dialects may be considered in a way as the development of those in Old English. But according to a tradition now firmly established, they are given new names. The Northumbrian dialect is now called Northern, Mercian is called Midland, and West Saxon and Kentish are united under the name of Southern. The boundary between Midland and Northern runs along the Humber that between Midland and Southern is close to the Thames. The midland dialect is subdivided into West Midland and East Midland. In spite of this connection the character of Middle English dialects is different: while the dialects in Old English were *tribal*, those in the Middle English language were *territorial.*

Northern Dialects. The Northern dialects were situated to the North of the Humber river and had the following phonetic and morphological features:
– the long **[a:]** in the Northern dialects did not change into the long **[o:]**;

– the Old English vowels **[y]** and **[y:]** correspondingly changed into **[i]** and **[i:]**;

– in some cases **[k]** did not change into **[t]**;

– the Old English cluster **sc [sk]** in unstressed syllables changed not into **sh [ʃ]** but into **[s]**, e. g.: **engelisc > inglis** 'English';

– the noun in the form of the plural number in the Northern dialects had the inflection **-s**;

– the form of the present tense of the verb had the inflection **-s, -es**;

– Participle I ended in **-and**.

Among the literary documents written in the Northern dialects the following should be mentioned first of all: works by Richard Rolle de Hampole, Thomas Castleford, the Chronicles of the first half of the 14th century and mysteries (miracle plays) of the 14th – the early 15th centuries.

Central Dialects. The territory where the Central dialects were used was roughly limited by the Humber river in the North and the Thames in the South. They were further subdivided into the East-Central and West-Central dialects.

The Central dialects had the following characteristic features:

– the vowels **[y]** and **[y:]** in the East-Central dialect changed into **[i]** and **[i:]** and the West-Central dialect into **[u]** and **[u:]**;

– the Old English vowel **[æ]** changed into **[e]** in the West-Central dialect;

– the long Old English **[æ:]** both in the West-Central and East-Central dialects changed into the narrow long **[e:]**;

– the Old English diphthong **[eo]** changed into the vowel **[o]** which survived up to the 14th century.

Among the main literary documents which were written in the Central dialects there are such as: the translation of fragments of the Holy Bible (Genesis and Exodus), the so called *Peterborough Chronicle*. The outstanding poetic piece of medieval English literature *Sir Gavayn and Green Knight* also belongs to the Central dialect literary monuments.

Southern Dialects. The Southern dialects were spoken to the South of the Thames. They were further subdivided into the South-West dialect and the Kentish dialect.

The characteristic features of the Southern dialects are as follows:

– at the beginning of the word the consonant **[f]** was frequently voiced, that is changed into **[v]**;

– the vowel **[æ]** changed into **[e]** which was later replaced by the vowel **[a]**;

– the diphthong **[ea]** changed into **[e]**, e. g.: **eald > eld** 'old';

– the short vowel **[a]** before nasal consonants changed into **[o]**, e. g.: **man > mon** 'man', **land > lond** 'land';

– in the South-West dialect the long **[y:]** was shortened to **[y]**;

– in the Kentish dialect **[y:] > [e:]** and **[y] > [e]**;

– the form of the plural number of the noun often had the ending **-en**;

– Participle I ended in **-inde**;

– Participle II retained the prefix **y-** (from the Old English **ʒe-**) but lost the ending **-n**, e. g.: **y-founde** 'found';

– the Southern dialects are easy to recognize by the characteristic forms of personal pronouns: **ha, a** 'he, she, they'; **hare** 'her, them'; **ham** 'them'.

Among the literary documents in the Southern dialects the following works should be mentioned: Layamon's poem *Brut* (the early 13th century), Dan Michel's *Ayenbyte of Inwyt* (1340), *The Status of Nuns, Polychronicon Ranulphi Higden* translated from Latin by John de Trevisa (1387).

The London Dialect and the Rise of the National English Language.

The dialect division which evolved in Early ME was on the whole preserved in later periods. In the 14th and 15th centuries we find the same grouping of local dialects: the Southern group, including Kentish and the South-Western dialects (the South-Western group was a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects, i. e. Wessex, Sussex and Essex), the Midland or Central (corresponding to the OE Mercian dialect – is divided into West Central and East Central as two main areas) and the Northern group (had developed from OE Northumbrian). And yet the relations between them were changing.

The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the London dialect as the prevalent written form of language. The history of the London dialect reveals the sources of the literary language in Late ME and also the main source and basis of the Literary Standard, both in its written and spoken forms. During the 13–14th centuries the active process of formation of the English nation took place. Alongside with this process the formation of the national literary language on the basis of the London dialect was happening.

The very notion of the London dialect is complex. It includes the dialect of the City, Westminster and Middlesex dialects. It was not by chance that the London dialect appeared as the basis of the all-national language. After the Norman Conquest London became the capital of England and the political, economical and cultural centre of the country.

The London dialect originally united the features of the Central and Southern dialects. The Early ME written records made in London – beginning with the King Henry III's Proclamation of 1258 – show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon (Essex). Later records indicate that the speech of London was becoming more fixed, with East Central features gradually prevailing over the Southern features.

One of the interesting documents written in the London dialect is Proclamation by King Henry III. Another important literary document in the London dialect was the Holy Bible translated by John Wycliff. It was in the London dialect that Geoffrey Chaucer, the founder of the humanistic tradition in English literature, wrote his works.

Features of the London Dialect:
- the basis of the London Dialect was the East Saxon Dialect;
- the East Saxon Dialect mixed with the East Midland Dialect and formed the London Dialect;
- thus the London Dialect became more Anglican than Saxon in character.

2.3. MIDDLE ENGLISH LITERARY WORKS

ME literature is extremely rich and varied. We find here the most different kinds and genres represented, both in verse and in prose.

In verse, there is in the 13th century the ***religious poem*** *Ormulum*, named after its author the monk Orm, who at great length retells in popular style events of Bible and Gospel history, addressing his narration to his brother, also a monk.

About the same time another monk, Layamon, composed a long poem, *Brut*, on the early history of Britain. This was partly a translation, or paraphrase, of Wace's Anglo-Norman poem *Brut*, and Layamon used some other sources. The origins of the Britons are traced back to Troy and the flight of some Trojans after its fall.

The anonymous poems of *King Horn and Havelok* tell the stories of young Scandinavian princes, who are deprived of their rights by their enemies but eventually, regain their throne and reign happily.

Then we must mention a series of ***moralistic poems***, such as *Handlyng Synne (Manual of Sins)*, by Robert Mannyng of Brunne, a paraphrase of the French original; *Ayenbyt Of Invyt (Remorse of Conscience)* by Dan Michel, also adaptation of a French original; *The Prick Of Conscience* by Richard Rolle de Hampole, and others.

Next comes a series of *Romances* – the stories about knights and their heroic deeds. These are very numerous, all of them anonymous, and some of first class artistic value, notably the famous stories of *Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight*; *Sir Fyrumbras, the Destruction of Troy*, etc.

There are several ***historical chronicles***, such as Robert of Gloucester's *Rhymed Chronicle*, Barbour's *Bruce,* etc.

Invaluable documents of the spoken language of the time are the various collections of *Miracle Plays*, such as the *Towneley Plays*, the *York Plays*, and the *Chester Plays*.

In addition, of course the famous *Vision Concerning Piers the Plowman* by William Langland must be mentioned, a 14th century picture of the social conditions in the country, invaluable as a historical document. And we close this enumeration by the two great names of John Gower, author of the long poem *Confessio Amantis* (besides Latin and French works), and the greatest of all, Geoffrey Chaucer, author of *Troilus and Criseide*, *The Canterbury Tales*, and a number of other poems.

As far as **the prose** goes, there is perhaps less variety and no prose fiction in the true sense of the word. The two prose pieces of *The Canterbury Tales* are not really stories but rather religious or philosophical treatises. As an important prose document, we must note Ranulphus Higden's *Polychronicon*, translated by John Trevisa with added passages from other sources. This is a history book containing much useful information about the England of his time, with a most valuable passage on the dialects of the 14th century.

In the 15th century, towards the end of the ME period, we come across the first prose fiction in English. Here we have Sir Thomas Malory's *Morte d'Arthur*, a long prose work summing up a number of legends about king Arthur and his Knights of the Round Table, and at about the same time prose translations made by William Caxton, the first English printer, from the French. Owing to this great variety, we are able to obtain a much more complete idea of various speech styles of the ME period than we could of OE. In particular, both Chaucer and Gower's works and the *Miracle Plays* contain much colloquial language, which seems to reproduce with great exactness the actual colloquial speech of the time. However, much of the material presented by these texts has not been properly made use of. Much remains to be done in this field to obtain a more complete picture of both the written and the colloquial language of those centuries.

Geoffrey Chaucer and His Contribution. Geoffrey Chaucer was one of the most prominent authors of the Middle English Period and he set up a language pattern to be followed. He is considered to be the founder of the literary language of that period. Most authors of the Middle English Period tried to follow this standard.

Features of Chaucer's Language:
- Chaucer's Language was the basis for the national literary language.
- New spelling rules (digraphs) and new rules of reading (1 letter = several sounds) appeared as compared to the Old English.
- New grammatical forms appeared (Perfect forms, Passive forms, "to" Infinitive constructions, etc.).

- Chaucer tried to minimize the number of the French loans in the English Language.
- Chaucer introduced rhyme to the poetry.

2.4. MIDDLE ENGLISH ALPHABET AND THE RULES OF READING

Middle English Alphabet. The Middle English Alphabet resembled the Old English Alphabet but some changes were introduced:

th replaced *ð/þ/Ð/đ*

w replaced *Ᵽ*

æ, **œ** disappeared

New digraphs appeared (came from French):

th for [θ] and [ð]

tch/ch for [tʃ]

sch/ssh/sh for [ʃ]

dg for [dʒ]

wh replaced *hw* but was pronounced still as [hw]

gh for [h]

qu for [kw]

ow/ou for [u:] and [ou]

ie for [e:]

Rules of Reading. They resemble the modern rules, with several exceptions though:

1. double vowels stood for long sounds, e. g. oo = [o:]; ee = [e:]
2. g = [dʒ]
   c = [s] <u>before front</u> vowels ([i, e])
   g = [g]
   c = [k] <u>before back</u> vowels ([a, o, u])
3. y = [j] – at the beginning of the word
   = [i] – in the cases when *i* stood close together with *r*, *n*, *m* and could be confused with one of these letters or could be lost among them, it was replaced with *y*, sometimes also for decorative purpose (e. g. *nyne* ['ni:nə], *very* ['veri])
4. th = [ð]
   s = [z] between vowels
5. o = [o] – in most cases
   = [u] – in the words that have [ʌ] sound in Modern English (e. g. *some, love*)
6. j = [dʒ]

3. NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

3.1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND LINGUISTIC SITUATION

The Wars of the Roses. In 1453 England was defeated by France in the Hundred Years' War. England lost practically all the territories in France. But the peace was not long. In two years England was involved into a civil war which is known under the poetic name of *The Wars of the Roses*. It lasted for thirty years from 1455 to 1485 and finally brought the period to a close and completed the self-destruction of the nobles as a ruling class.

The Wars of the Roses were actually a dynastic struggle between the noble family of Lancaster, represented by a red rose, and the noble family of York, represented by a white rose, to make their man king of England.

The first open battle between the parties that had rival claims for the throne took place on May 22, 1455, at St. Albans. In this battle King Henry VI of Lancaster was wounded and Edmund Beaufort, Duke of Somerset killed. In 1460 Edward, Prince of Wales, was disinherited and York was recognized as Henry's heir. But very shortly afterwards, in 1461, York was killed in a battle and his son Edward who won a victory at Mortimer's Cross was crowned as King Edward IV. Edward IV severely suppressed the opposition of the Lancastrians. In 1464 Edward secretly married Elizabeth Woodville. His support of the Woodville family caused the hostility on the part of his brother George, Duke of Clarence, and his supporter Warwick. They managed to restore Henry VI of York to the throne and Edward fled to the Low Countries. In 1471 Edward returned and again destroyed the Lancastrians. Henry VI was taken to the Tower of London where he was soon killed.

In 1483 after Edward's death war was resumed. His brother Richard, Duke of Gloucester, seized the throne as Richard III, so colourfully depicted by Shakespeare in his famous drama. In 1485 Richard III was killed by Henry Tudor of Lancaster, Earl of Richmond, in the battle of Bosworth. The dynasty of Tudor succeeded to the throne.

Henry Tudor, crowned as Henry VII founder of the new monarchy was a symbolic figure. He managed to consolidate his kingdom, developed industries and avoided wars as he well understood that wars demanded money.

The stability and unity of the country caused further spread of the London literary norm which gradually replaced the territorial dialects and acquired the features of the national language.

The Introduction of Printing. Guttenberg's press was an invention that had the greatest impact on the development of culture. In the middle of the 15th century the first book by way of printing from movable type was made in Germany.

The first English printer was William Caxton. He was born in 1422 in Kent. As a young man Caxton was an apprentice in a mercer's shop in London. Later, in 1446, he started his own business at Bruges. In 1465 William Caxton was appointed a governor of the Merchants Adventurers. His duty was negotiating commercial treaties. In early 1470s at Cologne he met Johann Guttenberg from whom he learned the art of printing. In 1476 Caxton returned to London and founded a *press* at Westminster.

Unlike J. Guttenberg whose first printed book was the Holy Bible (now known as *Guttenberg's Bible*), Caxton started with producing books for entertainment. His first books printed in 1477 were *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers* and *Histories of Troye.* Later Caxton printed Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* and Chaucer's poems.

Though being a native of Kent, William Caxton mainly reflected the features of the London dialect in his books.

The introduction of printing caused the establishment of the spelling standards. Caxton used the spelling forms which were obsolete even for his time, they corresponded to the pronunciation norms that existed in the earlier epoch and did not take into consideration the phonetic changes of the 14th and 15th centuries. So the normalised English orthography was archaic from the very beginning of its existence. Later further considerable development took place in the English phonetic system but the spelling remained practically unchanged. As a result there appeared a gap between what is pronounced and what is written in English.

It took long to come to complete uniformity in spelling. It is only in the 16th century that the existence of the language standard becomes more or less evident. The literary language becomes an example which was to be followed in everyday speech. Yet for a long time there remained variants in pronunciation and spelling. E. g., there were such forms as *bisie* 'busy' (in the East Central dialect) and *besie* (fromtheKentish dialect, *than* and *then*, *geve* and *give*, *fader* and *father, moder* and *mother, service* and *sarvice, derk* and *dark,* etc.

In morphology such variant forms of the plural number coexisted as *houses* and *housen, shoes* and *shoon,* etc.

Contribution of Printing:

– the works of the authors of that time were edited and brought into conformity with the London Dialect and as far as all the book were written in this dialect, it spread quickly and became the true standard of the English language;

– as far as printing allowed to multiply books in great number, they were sold and thus the literacy of the population grew;

– before the introduction of printing different scribes could spell the same words differently; with the introduction of printing the spelling became fixed and it hasn't changed since that time though the pronunciation has changed greatly (this fact explains the difficulties of the English spelling).

3.2. NORMALIZATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Normalization is the fixing of the norms and standards of a language to protect it from corruption and change.

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

The normalization of the English language started in the 17–18th centuries. In 1710 Jonathan Swift published in his journal *The Tatler* an article titled *A Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue*. J. Swift was a purist (struggled for the purity of the language) and suggested that a body of scholars should gather to fix the rules of the language usage.

Type of Standard	Written Standard	Spoken Standard
Time Limits	by the **17th c.**	by end of the **18th c.**
Sources	language of Chaucer (the London Dialect)	• private letters • speech of characters in drama • references to speech be scholars
Peculiarities	1. less stabilised than at later stage 2. wide range of variation (spelling, grammar forms, syntactical patterns, choice of words, etc.) 3. rivalry with Latin in the field of science, philosophy, didactics	1. as spoken standard the scholars considered the speech of educated people taught at school as "correct English". This was the speech of London and that of Cambridge and Oxford Universities

The Normalization of the English language included publishing:

1. Grammars of English:

– John Wallis *Grammatica Lingæ Anglicanæ* (prescriptive/normative grammar);

– Robert Lowth *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (Lowth distinguished 9 parts of speech; made consistent description of letters, syllables, words and sentences; rules of no-double negation (*I don't want no dinner* – incorrect!) and no-double comparison (*more better* – incorrect!) appeared, etc.).

2. Dictionaries (18th century):

– E. Coles *Dictionary of Hard Words* (gave explanations of hard words and phrases);

– Samuel Johnson – one of the best-known English lexicographers. As well as J. Swift, he was a purist and believed that the English language should be purified and corrected. He was the first to compile a dictionary that resembles the present-day dictionaries. His *Dictionary of the English Language* is the finest example of his hard and productive work. The dictionary is organised as follows:

– entry;

– pronunciation;

– definition;

– illustrations (not self-invented examples but quotations from recognised authors that contain the word in question);

– notes on usage of the word;

– etymology of the word;

– stylistic comments.

The dictionary also contained a grammatical section describing the grammatical structure of the language.

3.3. FUNCTIONAL UNIVERSALITY OF NEW ENGLISH

In the process of turning into the national language English underwent certain qualitative changes. It gradually acquired functional universality, i. e. began to be used in different communicative spheres. English superseded Latin and French in religious, philosophical and scientific fields and developed genres and styles. Thus, in the 15th and mainly 16th centuries arose the problem of spreading English to all kinds of literary practice, i. e.: fiction, scientific, philosophical and didactic. In the previous centuries in these spheres predominated Latin as the international language of science in Europe of the Middle Age, and a little earlier, the French language which became the ground for creating splendid Anglo-Norman fixation after the conquest of England by Normans. In the 16th century the situation changed sharply. In contrast with the Middle English period, in this time the territorial dialects (with the exception of

Scottish) disappeared from the sphere of literature and the remained documents of that epoch demonstrate a certain uniformity of literary language based on the language of London.

At that time there appeared what is called *linguistic policy*, i. e. the will to influence and direct the development of the language. Anyway, attempts of evaluation of the properties and qualities of the language were quite frequent. The problem of evaluation of English which was used as a literary language arose before three categories of men of letters:

1) translators from other, and first and foremost, classic languages who aimed at authenticity of their translation;

2) poets, theorists and critics of poetry who sought for new poetical forms which in a certain way imitated genres of the French and classical poetry;

3) writers working in the field of serious (scientific, didactic, philosophical) prose, i. e. of that kind of literature which up to the 16th century had been completely the domain of Latin;

4) the creators of the English Bible. The Holy Bible occupies a very special place in the spiritual life of English people. Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, who was responsible for the two *Books of Common Prayer*, wrote in his preface to the 1540 Bible that "it is convenient and good the Scripture to be read of all sorts and conditions of people".

In 1380 the famous church reformer John Wycliffe supervised the translation of the Bible which subsequently bore his name into English.

In 1526 appeared William Tyndale's version of the New Testament. It was the first version translated from Greek (whereas the previous versions were translated from the Latin texts). Tyndale's translation served as a ground for the *Great Bible* of Coverdale (1539) which according to the King's order was used in all the churches of the realm.

In Early New English there remained phonetic and grammatical variants but in the process of the development of the literary language a kind of selection took place which resulted in the survival of one of the variants as a fixed standard form. The elements ousted from the literary use could yet survive as colloquial or slang forms.

3.4. EXPANSION OF ENGLISH

In 1492 Christopher Columbus discovered America. Five years later, in 1497, King Henry VII engaged the Genoese John Cabot to find a northerly way to India. As a result Cabot discovered North America. At that period Britain was behind the other European countries in the colonization of the New World. Spain had conquered the Caribbean, Mexico and Peru and got up the Mississippi as far as present-day Memphis. France had got American Louisiana and reached Quebec. As for Britain her interests were concentrated in the East. In 1555 Muscovy Company was established and English ships dropped anchors at Archangel.

Only in 1584 Sir Walter Raleigh undertook the first voyage to America where he made contact with friendly Indians. This led to the establishment of the Roanoke Colony in Virginia. But the colony did not exist long: only by 1586. In 1587 John White founded a new colony which did not exist long either. And only in 1607 a group of 143 colonists established themselves at Jamestown. In two years, in 1609, the population of the colony was already over 700 people.

The early colonists who settled in America had brought the English language to their new country. It was English spoken by Shakespeare and his contemporaries.

The following object of British expansion was Canada. France had conquered Canadian territories before the English colonists came to Virginia. By the early 17th century the English were competing for a stake in the valuable fur trade, and in 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company was formed. By 1763 Britain was supreme in Canada, securing the Hudson's Bay territories, Newfoundland and Nova Scotia by the treaty of Utrecht (1713) and Quebec, Prince Edward Island and Cape Breton Island by the treaty of Paris (1763).

In the 17th century the British Empire took roots in India. By the end of the century England had acquired at least three important positions in India: the territory where the present-day Madras developed, Bengal which later became the city of Calcutta and Bombay obtained by Charles II as dowry of his Portuguese bride. Though the British never mixed with the Indian society, in the course of centuries the country was westernized and underwent strong influence of the English culture and the English language. Higher education was in English and English in India developed as a well perceived variant.

In the 18th century the colonization of Australia started. Originally that colony was used as a place of punishment, criminals were transported there from England. It lasted so up to 1868, when the transportation of criminals was replaced by voluntary organized emigration.

In 1839 the colonization of New Zealand began after the treaty of Waitangi between England and the chiefs of the Maori people inhabiting the island.

Africa was another part of the world which attracted the attention of England. The first British colony in Africa was Sierra Leone. Competing with France and some other states Britain established its rule in Gambia, the Gold Coast and Lagos. The Cape Colony became the basis of the British Expansion in South Africa.

Centuries have passed. The British Empire gave up its place to the Commonwealth of Independent Sovereignties. But English remains the official language in many big and small countries. More than that, in the course of development in more or less isolated conditions it has acquired specific features and nowadays we can easily tell an American or an Australian speaking English from the inhabitant of the United Kingdom. It means that the English language exists today as a multitude *local variants.*

PHONETIC STRUCTURE OF OLD ENGLISH AND ITS DEVELOPMENT IN MIDDLE ENGLISH AND NEW ENGLISH

OUTLINE
1. Old English Phonetic System
    1.1. Old English Word Stress
    1.2. Phonetic Changes of the Old English Period
2. Evolution of Phonetic System in Middle English
    2.1. Development of Vowel System in Middle English
    2.2. Development of Consonant System in Middle English
3. Phonetic Changes in New English
    3.1. Changes in the System of Vowels
    3.2. Changes in the System of Consonants

1. OLD ENGLISH PHONETIC SYSTEM

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

[a]   **[æ]**   **[e]**   **[i]**   **[o]**   **[u]**   **[y]**   **[a/o]**
[a:] **[æ:]** **[e:]** **[i:]** **[o:]** **[u:]** **[y:]**

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

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

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

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

The system of **consonants** included the following sounds:

labial **[p], [b], [m], [f], [v]**

front-lingual **[t], [d], [þ], [n], [s], [r], [l]**

velar **[k], [g], [h], [ɣ], [ɣ'], [x]**

The signs **þ (thorn)** and **ð (eth)** denoted the voiceless or voiced interdental sound (like in New English **'thing'** or **'this'**). The letter ʒ (yogh) had several meanings; it denoted the hard **[g]** (like in Modern English '**good'**, the palatalized **[g']** (like in Russian **гиря**), the velar fricative **[gh]** (like the Ukrainian **[г]**), and finally **[j]** (like in New English **'yes'**).

1.1. OLD ENGLISH WORD STRESS

The survey of OE phonetics deals with word accentuation, the systems of vowels and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the PG system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE.

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE. In OE a syllable was made prominent by an increase in the force of articulation; in other words, a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable. Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either. Cf. the forms of the Dative case of the nouns *hlāforde* ['xla:vorde], *cyninʒe* ['kyniŋge] and the Nominative case of the same nouns: *hlāford* ['xla:vord], *cyninʒ* ['kyniŋg]. Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, e. g. the compound noun received the chief stress upon its first component and the secondary stress on the second component; the grammatical ending **-a** (Gen. pl.) was unaccented. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix. Cf.:

ā-'risan,   mis-'faran   – v. (NE arise, 'go astray');

tō-weard,   'or-eald   – adj. (NE toward, 'very old');

'mis-dæd,   'uð-ʒenʒ   – n. (NE misdeed, 'escape').

If the words were derived from the same root, word stress, together with other means, served to distinguish the noun from the verb, cf.:

'and-swaru n. – and-'swarian v. (NE answer, answer)

'on-ʒin   n. – on-'ʒinnan   v. (NE beginning, begin)

'forwyrd   n. – for-'weorÞan v. ('destruction', 'perish')
The system is well preserved in New English) – '*present* – pre'*sent*.

1.2. PHONETIC CHANGES OF THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD

The phonetic system never remained unchanged during the Old English period. There were several main phonetic changes in the Old English language:
– Old English fracture,
– diphthongization of the monophthongs under the influence of the preceding palatal consonants,
– umlaut,
– lengthening of vowels under certain conditions,
– voicing and unvoicing of fricatives,
– palatalization of consonants and development of sibilants,
– assimilation of consonants,
– doubling and falling out of consonants.

Vowel Changes

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

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

[æ:] > [ea:], [u] > [io] (in the 9th century [io] > [eo])
[e] > [ie], [u:] > [io:] (in the 9th century [io:] > [eo:])

As a result of this change new words with diphthongs appeared in the Old English language; e. g.: *scacan > sceacan* 'to shake', *scawian > sceawian* 'to see', *scamu > sceamu* or *sceomu* 'shame', *gæf > geaf* 'gave', *gær > gear* 'year', *sceld > scield* 'shield', *ge > gie* 'you', *scort > sceort* 'short', *scop > sceop* 'created', *ʒunʒ > ʒiong > ʒeonʒ* 'young', *ʒutan > ʒiotan > ʒeotan* 'to pour'.

3. I-mutation or i-umlaut

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

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

[a]> [e]	*sandian > sendan*	'to send'
[a] > [æ]	*larian > læran*	'to teach'
[æ] > [e]	*tælian > tellan*	'to tell'
[o] > [e]	*ofstian > efstan*	'to hurry'
[o] > [e]	*wopian > wepan*	'to weep'
[u] > [y]	*fullian > fyllan*	'to fill'
[u] > [y]	*ontunian > ontynan*	'to open'
[ea] > [ie]	*hleahian > hliehhan*	'to laugh'
[ea] > [ie]	*hearian > hieran*	'to hear'
[eo] > [ie]	*afeorian > afierran*	'to move'
[eo] > [ie]	*ʒetreowi >ʒetriewe*	'true'

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

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

[a] > [ea]	*saru > searu*	'armour'
[e] > [eo]	*hefon > heofon*	'heaven'

[i] > [io]   *sifon > siofon* 'seven'

The phonetic changes before the consonant /h/ are characterized, as some scholars notice, by certain ambiguity. As a result of this change the Old English word *nœht*, for instance, develops the following variants: *neaht, nieht, niht, nyht;* the past form of *maʒ* (may) – *meahte – miehte, mihte, myhte.*

Traces of i-Umlaut in New English:

1. irregular Plural of nouns

   man – men; tooth – teeth

2. irregular verbs and adjectives

   told – tell; sold – sell; old – elder

3. word-formation with sound interchange

   long – length; blood – bleed

4. Lengthening of Vowels:

a) before the homorganic clusters (гоморганные согласные, образующиеся одним и тем же произносительным органом) **nd, ld, mb** took place in the 9th century. The cause of this phenomenon is not clear enough. The scholars write about its unusual, even enigmatic character. Such words as *bindan* 'bind', *bunden* 'bound', *cild* 'child' began to be pronounced as [bi:ndan], [bu:nden], [ci:ld]. But in case there was a third consonant after **nd, ld** or **mb** no lengthening took place, e. g., in the plural form *cildru* 'children' the short **[i]** remains.

Vowels were also lengthened when certain consonants following them dropped out:

b) when **m, n** dropped out before **f, s, þ** and **n** dropped out before **h** (*fimf > fi:f, uns > u:s, onþer > o:ðer*),

c) **g** before **d, n** (*sægde > sæ:de; frignan > fri:nan*),

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

[a] + [h] + vowel > [ea]	*slahan > slea:n* 'to kill'
[e] + [h] + vowel > [eo]	*sehan > seo:n* 'to see'
[i] + [h] + vowel > [eo]	*tihan > teo:n* 'to accuse'
[o] + [h] + vowel > [o]	*fohan > fo:n* 'to catch'

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

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

Consonant Changes

5. Voicing of fricatives

The voicing of fricatives */f – v, þ – ð, s – z/* **in the intervocalic position** consists in following: in the final position voiceless consonants are fixed, and in the position between **two** vowels (the intervocalic position) – voiced ones. For example, in the word *wif* 'woman' the final consonants is voiceless, but in the same word in the form of the genitive case the letter **f** expresses the voiced sound **[v]** **(wifes)**. Similarly in the infinitive form of the verb *weorðan* 'to become' the letter **ð** denotes the voiced sound **[ð]**, while in the past tense form *wearð* the same letter denotes the voiceless sound **[þ]**. Likewise the letter **s** in the infinitive form of the verb *ceosan* 'to choose' is read as the voiced **[z]**, and in the form of the past tense *ceas* – as the voiceless [**s**].

6. Palatalization of consonants and development of sibilants (assibilation) could be observed already in the earliest stage of the Old English language.

The consonant **[k']** – in spelling **cg** – in the position before or after the front-lingual vowel changes into the affricate **[tʃ]**.

The combination **[sk']** in spelling **sc** changes into the sibilant **[ʃ]** in any position. In the intervocalic position after a short vowel **[sk']** changes into the long sibilant **[ʃʃ]**, in other situations – into the usual **[ʃ]**.

The consonant **[g']** – in spelling **ʒ** – in the position before or after a front-lingual vowel changes into the affricate **[dʒ]**.

In spelling these phonetic changes found expression only in the Middle English language: *cild > child* 'child', *scip > ship* 'ship', *brycg > bridge* 'bridge'.

7. Assimilation of consonants, i. e. full or partial likening of the consonant to the next consonant in the word is observed in the Old English language rather frequently. Full assimilation can be observed, for instance, in the words *wiste > wisse* 'knew', *wifman > wimman* 'woman'. Partial assimilation takes place in the following words: *stefn > stemn* 'voice', *efn > emn* 'level'.

8. The lengthening and doubling of consonants; the falling out of consonants:

a) the lengthening and doubling of consonants is connected with i-mutation: the stem-building **i** or **j** fell out and the consonant doubled *(tælian > tællan)*,

b) the falling out of consonants is connected with the lengthening of vowels *(sæʒde [j] > sæ:de)*.

9. Rhotacism (a process when **[z]** turns into **[r]**), e. g. *maiza* (Gothic) – *māra* (OE) (more).

10. Gemination – a process of doubling a consonant – after a short vowel, usually happened as a result of palatal mutation, e. g. *fullan* (OE) (fill), *settan* (OE) (set), etc.

11. Loss of Consonants:
- sonorants before fricatives, e. g. *fimf* (Gothic) – *fīf* (OE) (five);
- fricatives between vowels and some plosives, e. g. *sǣȝde* (early OE) – *sǣde* (late OE) (said);
- loss of [j] – as a result of palatal mutation (see examples above);
- loss of [w], e. g. case-forms of nouns: *sǣ* (Nominative) – *sǣwe* (Dative) (OE sea).

2. EVOLUTION OF PHONETIC SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

2.1. DEVELOPMENT OF VOWEL SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

Word Stress/Accent

In ME and NE word stress acquired greater positions freedom and greater role in word derivation.

Recessive tendency – stress in loan-words moved closer to the beginning of the word (e. g. in French words the stress is usually placed on the ultimate or pen-ultimate syllable, but the stress in the words of the French origin that penetrated into English has moved to the beginning of the word).

E. g. ME *vertu* [ver'tju:] – NE *virtue* ['vɜ:tʃə]

Rhythmic tendency – regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables (3 or more) that creates rhythm and has led to the appearance of the secondary stress.

E. g. ME *diso'beien* – NE ˌdiso'bei

System of Monophthongs

In the Middle English language the following changes in the system of vowel monophthongs took place:
1) shortening of vowels in the closed syllable;
2) lengthening of vowels in the open syllable;
3) further development, or transformation, of the short **a** and long **a**;
4) further development of the short **æ** and long **æ**;
5) further development of short **y** and long **y**;
6) reduction of the unstressed vowels.

1) *Shortening of vowels in the closed syllable* is connected with a new phonetic regularity that begins to develop in the Middle English language: the length or shortness of the vowel becomes dependent on the type of the syllable in which that sound was used. In the Old English language there was no

dependence of that kind, i. e. both in the open and the closed syllable there might be either a long or a short vowel:

Short vowel - - - - - - - - - - - - - - → **closed syllable**
Long vowel - - - - - - - - - - - - → **open syllable**

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

Short vowel - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - **closed syllable**
Long vowel - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - **open syllable**

As a result of this dependence all the vowels which were followed by two consonants shortened, e. g.: OE *wīsdōm* **>** ME *wisdom*.

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

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

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

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

2) *Lengthening of vowels in the open syllable* is the other side of the phenomenon described above. The lengthening of vowels in the open syllable is dated by the 13th century.

In this change the vowels **a, e, o** were involved, e. g.:
OE *hōpa* 'hope' > ME *hōpe*
OE *talu* 'tale' > ME *tale*
OE *macian* 'to make' > ME *maken*
OE *nama* 'name' > ME *nāme*
OE *sprecan* 'to speak' > ME *spēken*
The short vowels *I* and *u* were not lengthened as a rule, e. g.:
OE *risan* 'to rise' > ME risen
OE *cuman* 'to come' > ME cumen

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

OE *hām* 'home' > ME *hom*

OE *stān* 'stone' > ME *ston*

OE *hāt* 'hot' > ME *hot*

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

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

OE *æppel* 'apple' > ME *appel*

OE *glæd* 'glad' > ME *glad*

OE *wæs* 'was' > ME *was*

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

The Old English long ***æ*** which appeared as a result of *the break of **ā*** in all the dialects except Kentish also changed into the long open ***e***, e. g.:

OE *dæ:l* 'part' > ME *de:l*

OE *sæ:* 'sea' > ME *se:*

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

Old English **hyll**
hill (Northern, East-Central)
hell (Kentish)
hyll > hull (West-Central, South-Western)
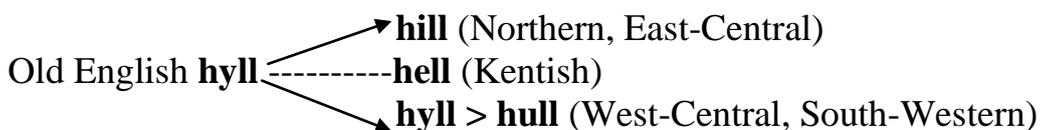
The development of the Old English long **y** was similar. Cf.:

OE **fy:r** 'fire' → **fīr** (Northern, East-Central)

------------ **fēr** (Kentish)

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

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

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

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

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

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

OE *writan* 'to write' > ME writen

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

OE *writen* 'written' > ME writen

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

System of Diphthongs

In the Old English language there were four pairs of diphthongs:

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

A characteristic feature of the Old English diphthongs was that their second element was more open than the first. In the Middle English language all the Old English diphthongs changed into monophthongs.

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

eald 'old' > *æld* > *ald*

earm 'poor' > *ærm* > *arm*

healf 'half' > *hælf* > *half*

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

The long diphthong *ea:* changed into the long open monophthong *e:*, e. g.:

OE *bea:m* 'tree' > ME *bẹ:m*

OE *brea:d* 'bread' > ME *brẹ:d*

OE *dea:d* 'dead' > ME *dẹ:d*

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

2. The diphthong *eo* changed into the monophthong *e* through the intermediate stage *o*, e. g.:

heorte 'heart' > *horte* > *herte*

steorra 'star' > *storre* > *sterre*

steorfan 'to die' > *storven* > *sterven*

The long diphthong *eo:* changed into the long closed monophthong *e:*, e. g. *OE ceosan* 'to choose' > *ME chesen*

OE deop 'deep' > *ME dep or deep*

OE deor 'deer' > *ME der or deer*

3. The diphthong *ie*, both short and long, had changed into the monophthong *i* in the end of the Old English period:

OE ʒietan 'to get' > *ME yiten*

OE ʒieldan 'to pay' > *ME yilden*

OE ʒiefan 'to give' > *ME yiven*

OE cie:se 'cheese' > *ME chese [i:]*

OE hie:ran 'hear' > *ME heren [i:]*

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

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

The new diphthongs in the Middle English language appeared from three sources:

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

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

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

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

æʒ > ai or **ay**; e. g.: *dæʒ* 'day' > *dai* or *day*

eʒ > ei or **ey**; e. g.: *weʒ* 'way' > *wei* or *wey*

e:ʒ > ei or **ey**; e. g.: *he:ʒ* 'hay' > *hei* or *hey*

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

Second: the short vowel *[a]* remains unchanged, while the long *[a:]* changes into the long open *[o:]*. The consonant *[γ]* changes into the semivowel *[w]* which undergoes further vocalization and changes into the vowel *[u]*. As a result the following diphthongs are produced:

aʒ > au or **aw;** e. g.: *draʒan* 'to draw' >*drawen*

a:ʒ >o:u or **o:w;** e. g.: *a:ʒen* 'own' > *owen*

Later the diphthong *[ou]* lost its length.

Third: ah, a:h >au, aw; e. g. *da:ʒ, da:h* 'dough' >*dough* [dou]. But: *oxt > out*; e. g. *thought, bought, sought, wrought, nought*. But: *ox > of*; e. g. *trough, cough.*

2.2. DEVELOPMENT OF CONSONANT SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

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

1) completion of the palatalization of consonants and *the appearance of sibilants*;

2) vocalization and omission of the consonant *[v]* before other consonants;

3) omission of the consonant *[h]* before *[r], [l]* and *[n]* at the beginning of the word;

4) change of the back-lingual fricative *[γ]* into the bilabial *[w]* after **[r]** and **[l]**;

5) formation of the consonant *[x]* in the position of *'h'* after vowels.

1) Palatalization of consonants and the appearance of sibilants began in the Old English language. In the Middle English language the process was completed. The palatalized consonant **[k']** which stood next to front-lingual vowels changed into the affricate **[tʃ]**, which was expressed in spelling by the letter combination **ch**. E. g.:

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

OE *cirice* 'church > ME *chirche*

OE *tæ:can* 'to teach' > ME *te:chen*

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

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

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

Let us consider, for example, the change of the Old English word *nafogar* ['navogar] 'awl' (шило). Firstly, as a result of the fall of the unstressed **[o]** there appeared the form *navgar*, in which the consonant **[v]** stood in the position before the consonant **[g]**. In the process of vocalization **[v]** changed into **[u]** and the word acquired the form *nauger*. Later, the initial **n** in the word passed to the indefinite article, hence the later form of this word: *a nauger > an auger*.

The fall of the consonant **[v]** may be observed, for example, in the word *hlæfdiᵹe* (*hlaf* 'bread' + *dig(an)* 'to mix')'lady': *hlæfdige > lavdi > lady*.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

OE *morʒen* 'morning' > ME *morwen*

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

OE *ʒalʒe* 'gallows' > ME *galwe*

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. PHONETIC CHANGES
IN NEW ENGLISH

3.1. CHANGES IN THE SYSTEM OF VOWELS

The changes in the system of vowels in New English were various and complex. We can mention at least sixteen groups of changes and individual vowel changes:

1) *the Great Vowel Shift;*
2) *the variant of the Great Vowel Shift before **-r**;*
3) *the changes of the diphthongs;*
4) *the development of the long **[a:]**;*
5) *the change **[al] > [aul]**;*
6) *the monophthongization of **[au]** and the development of the long open **[o:]**;*
7) *the development of the long vowel **[ɜ:]** before **-r**;*
8) *the change **[er] > [ar]**;*
9) *the change **[a] > [æ]**;*
10) *the labialization of **[a]** after **[w]** resulting in [wo];*

11) *the delabialization of the short vowel **[u]**;*
12) *the shortening of the long open **[e:]**;*
13) *the loss of the unstressed neutral vowel **[з]**;*
14) *the loss of the vowel in the central syllable in longer words.*

The most important process in the evolution of English vowel system was ***The Great Vowel Shift (GVS).*** This is a change which involved all the long vowels of the Middle English period. The chronological limits of this change are not quite clear. According to O. Jespersen the process probably started in the 15th century and completed at the beginning of the 18th century. The general tendency of the shift was that the vowels were narrowed and the narrowest ones (**[i:]** and **[u:]**) were diphthongized.

The process of the GVS can be presented by the following table.

Change	Character of Change	Example	Middle English Pronunciation	New English Pronunciation
[i:] > [ai]	diphthongization	*time*	[ti:me]	[taim]
[e:] closed > [i:]	narrowing	*sleep*	[sle:p]	[sli:p]
[e:] open > [e:] > [i:]	narrowing	*clean*	[kle:n]	[kle:n] > [kli:n]
[a:] > [ei]	diphthongization	*name*	['na:me]	[neim]
[o:] open > [ou]	diphthongization	*boat*	[bo:t]	[bout]
[o:] closed > [u:]	narrowing	*moon*	[mo:n]	[mu:n]
[u:] > [au]	diphthongization	*house*	[hu:s]	[haus]

As it can be seen from the table above in the process of the GVS *seven* Middle English long monophthongs (**[i:], [e:], [e:], [a:], [o:], [o:], [u:]**) turned into *two* monophthongs (**[i:]** and **[u:]**) and *four* diphthongs (**[ai], [ei], [ou], [au]**). It should be marked that the close **[e:]** and the open **[e:]** finally merged in one vowel –**[i:].** That is why in New English there are nowadays such *homophones* as **see** and **sea**, **heel** and **heal**, etc.

Phonemic Interpretation of the Great Vowel Shift

There are several hypotheses concerning the GVS. A. Baugh and Th. Cable's discussion is purely lexical and diachronic. They assume that each vowel represents an underlying phonological unit and the diphthongs came about only because there was no higher place for the high vowels to rise to.

N. Chomsky and M. Halle provide a different analysis. They explain the GVS in terms of several synchronic rules which were introduced into the grammar of New English.

H. Pilch argues that Middle English did not have contrastive vowel length. Rather, vowel length was conditioned by syllable and word structure. However, there were eight long vowels (long i, long u, long y, long a, long open e, long closed e, long open o, long closed o) and only five short vowels (a, o, u, e, i), with typically a two-to-two correspondence between them. By the time of late Middle English, many words had alternating forms with long and short vowels, but the environmental triggers for the distinction had been lost, e. g. the present and past forms of *read*. Contrastive vowel length thus entered the language, but its use was unstable. Starting in London in the 14th century, the contrast of high vowels *i, u, – i:, u:* was reinterpreted as a contrast with diphthongs *i, u – ai, au*. This accounts for the shift of the long high vowels to diphthongs. The other long vowels then shifted to fill the gap left by the long high vowels.

D. Diensberg proposes that the GVS was prompted by the 'massive intake of Romance loanwords in Middle English and Early New English'. He cites evidence that alternations in Middle English stressed vowels match alternations in French loanwords.

A. Bertacca refutes D. Diensberg's theory, pointing to the loss of inflectional morphology and various other factors as causes for the GVS.

3.2. CHANGES IN THE SYSTEM OF CONSONANTS

The changes in the system of consonants which took place in the New English period were as follows:
1)   *The vocalization of [r];*
2)   *the change of the consonant [x] into [f] in the final position in the word;*
3)   *the loss of the consonant [x] before [t];*
4)   *the loss of the consonant [l] before [d], [f], [v], [k], [m];*
5)   *the appearance of the bilabial semi-consonant [w] before a vowel at the beginning of the word;*
6)   *the loss of the semi-consonant [w] in the unstressed syllable after a consonant;*
7)   *the voicing of the consonant [s];*
8)   *the voicing of the cluster of consonants [ks];*
9)   *the voicing of the consonant [f] in the preposition 'of';*
10)   *the voicing of the consonant [t] in some words;*
11)   *the shortening of consonant clusters;*

12) *the change of the consonants [d] and [t] into the interdental [Ɵ] and [ð] before [r];*

13) *the amalgamation of [j] with the preceding consonant;*

14) *the loss of the consonants [g] and [k] before [n] at the beginning of the word;*

15) *the split of the cluster wh (in pronunciation [hw]) into [w] and [h];*

16) *the loss of [h] in unstressed syllables.*

One of the most significant changes was the ***Vocalization of [r]***. This change in New English, which began in the 16th century, accompanied the changes of vowels in combination with **r**, such as *-or, -ar, -er, -ir, -yr, -ur*, and the modification of the GVS "vowel + r + vowel": *-ire, -eer (-ere), -ear (-ere), -are, -oar (-ore), -oor (-ure), -ower (-our)*. Vocalization implied that the consonant **r** merged with the preceding vowel. According to the Czech linguist Vahec, **r** belongs to peripheral phonemes, not very well fitting in the system, and its functional use was gradually reduced.

If it was a closed syllable finishing with **r**, then the resulting sounds were [o:], [a:] and [ə:], e. g. *sport, ford, bar, star, her, stir, myrth, hurt*. In the sound cluster *wor* **-r** was also vocalized: *world, worm, worse*. The sound cluster *-ure* in words of French origin underwent reduction and vocalization of **-r**: *nature – ['neitjur] > ['neitʃə]*.

If it was an open syllable with the sound clusters "vowel + r + vowel": *-ire, -eer (-ere), -ear (-ere), -are, -oar (-ore), -oor (-ure), -ower (-our)*, then between the first vowel and r there appeared the neutral sound [ə], and the diphthongs appeared: *here* [heər], *poor* [poər]. Then, because of the GVS, the vowel underwent a change: *here* [hiər], *poor* [puər]. The final drop of **r** happened not earlier than the 18th century. That is why it is still preserved in the form of the retroflexive **r** in the American English variant of the English language, which was developing slightly differently from the British variant. Linguists are still not agreed on whether to consider the resulting clusters biphonemic or monophonemic. The results of the vocalization are as follows:

ME [e:] > [i:] > [iə] – *here, steer, dear, fierce*

ME [ɛ:] > [e:] > [ɛə], [iə] – *bear, wear, clear, spear*

ME [a:] > [ei] > [ɛə] – *care, dare, share*

ME [o:] > [u:] > [uə] – *poor, moor*

ME [ɛ:] developed in a double way, because the change according to the GVS [ɛ:] > [e:] > [i:] was somewhat separate from vocalization, and in some cases it remained [ɛ:]: e. g. [iə] clear, spear, but [ɛə] pear, learn.

The triphthongs [aiə] and [auə] preserved the reflex [a] in their structure, while **r** dropped off.

tire	[ti:r]	[taie®]
power	[pu:er]	[paue®]

DEVELOPMENT OF GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM. EVOLUTION OF THE NOUN (OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE
1. Grammatical System in Old English – Middle English – New English: General Characteristics
      1.1. Old English Grammatical System
      1.2. Middle English Grammatical System
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2. Evolution of the Noun (Old English – Middle English – New English)
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1. GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM IN OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH: GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

1.1. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

To make a short account of the Grammatical Categories of all the three periods in the development of the English language it is essential to begin with a characterization of the grammatical structure of OE.

OE possessed a well-developed morphological system made up of synthetic grammatical forms. OE was a synthetic language. It showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple grammatical forms. The means of grammatical form building were as follows:
    – grammatical endings,
    – sound alternation in root-morphemes,
    – prefixes,
    – suppletive formation.
    1. Grammatical endings (or inflexions) were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all the parts of speech that could change their form; they were usually used alone but could also occur in combinations with other means.

2. Sound alternations (or interchanges) were employed on a more limited scale and were often combined with other form building means, especially endings. Vowel interchanges were more common than interchanges of consonants. Sound alternations were not confined to verbs, but were also used in the form-buildings of nouns and adjectives.

3. The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs.

4. Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives and a couple of verbs.

It is important to note that no analytical form existed in OE. The grammatical system was of a synthetic (inflected) type. In discussing OE grammar, we will consider the main inflected parts of speech, characterized by certain grammatical categories the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the adverb and the verb.

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

There were 5 nominal grammatical categories in OE:

1. Number.
2. Case.
3. Gender.
4. Degrees of comparison.
5. Category of definiteness/indefiniteness.

The noun, the adjective, the pronoun and the numeral in OE had the categories of gender, number and case. These categories were independent in the noun, while in the adjective and the pronoun they were dependent, i. e. they showed agreement with the corresponding noun.

Gender was represented by three distinct groups of nouns: masculine, feminine, neuter.

From the point of view of number, the parts of speech fell into two groups, they all distinguished two numbers; the singular and the plural. While the personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person had also special forms to denote two objects, i. e. forms of dual number.

The category of case was represented by four cases: in the noun, adjective, pronoun and some cardinal numerals.

1. Nominative.
2. Genitive.
3. Dative.
4. Accusative (sometimes the Instrumental case for the adjective).

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous:

1. Tense.

2. Mood.

3. Number.

4. Person (showing agreement between the verb-predicate and the subject).

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

1.2. MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

As it was said, the grammatical system of OE was of a synthetic type. But in OE a general tendency towards the levelling, simplification and sometimes disappearing of some inflected forms may be observed. Thus, the survival of the inflected forms of the Instrumental Case in some OE adjectives (and some pronouns) indicate that at an earlier period of time there must have been an Instrumental Case in the declension of Nouns.

The nouns had lost almost all their specific inflexions by the end of the OE period. This process of weakening and disappearing of inflective forms is accelerated in the ME period. In the course of 400 years of the ME period most of the inflected forms of nouns, adjectives and verbs were gradually reduced and many of them disappeared. The disappearing inflected forms were gradually replaced by new so-called analytical forms, such as form words, prepositions and auxiliary verbs instead of inflexions.

Analytical forms developed from free word groups (phrases, syntactical constructions). The first component of these phrases gradually weakened or even lost its lexical meaning and turned into a grammatical value in the compound form. Cf., e. g. the meaning and function of the verb *to have* in OE:

he hæfde Þa – "he had them" (the prisoners);

Hie hive ofslæʒene hæfdon –"they had him killed" or, perhaps, "they had killed him",

Hie hæfdon oferʒan fastenʒle –"they had overspread East Anglican territory".

In the first sentence have denotes possession, in the second the meaning of possession is weakened, in the third it is probably lost and does not differ from the meaning of *have* in the translation of the sentence into New English. The auxiliary verb *have* and the form of Participle II are the grammatical markers of the Perfect; the lexical meaning is conveyed by the root-morpheme of the participle.

The growth of analytical grammatical forms from free word phrases belongs partly to historical morphology and partly to syntax, for they are instances of transition from the syntactical to the morphological level.

By the end of the ME period (15th century) the grammatical system of English is rather close to that of New English. The line of development of the grammatical system, i. e. from the predominance of inflected forms to analytical forms is typical of Germanic Languages.

The process of levelling and weakening the inflexions is closely connected with the phonetic process of the reduction of vowels in unstressed endings. But still it is difficult to determine the inner relations of these two processes. The ME weakening of inflexions and the reduction of final vowels began first and developed faster in the Northern and Midland dialects, because these dialects were influenced by Scandinavian dialects (10–12th centuries). In the Southern dialects the process was slower.

1.3. NEW ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL SYSTEM

The levelling and the simplification of the morphological system, the loss of inflexions and the development of analytical forms brought the English grammatical system very close to the present-day condition by the beginning of the NE period. But in early NE there were many survivals of earlier periods. Generally, analytical form-building was not equally productive in all parts of speech: it has transformed the morphology of the verb but has not affected the noun.

The main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological simplification. Simplifying changes began in PG times. They continued at a slow rate during the OE period and were intensified in Early NE. The period between 1000 and 1300 has been called the age of great changes for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English Grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost – Gender and Case in Adjectives, Gender in Nouns. Morphological division into types of declension practically disappeared. In late ME the adjective lost the last vestiges of the old paradigm: the distinction of number and distinction of weak and strong forms.

Already at the time of Chaucer, and certainly by the age of Caxton the English nominal system was very much like modern, not only in its general pattern, but also in minor details. The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process; it cannot be described in terms of one general trend. The simplification and levelling of forms made the verb conjugation more regular and uniform. The OE morphological classification of the verb was

practically broken up. But on the other hand, the paradigm of the verb grew, as new grammatical forms came into being.

The number of verbal grammatical categories increased. The verb acquired the categories of voice, time correlation and aspect. Within the category of tense there developed a new form: the Future Tense. In the category of Mood there arose new forms of the Subjunctive.

The Infinitive and the Participle lost many nominal features and developed verbal features; the acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb. It should be mentioned that new changes in the verb system extended from Late OE till Late NE.

Other important events in the history of English grammar were the changes in syntax. The main of them were: the rise of new syntactic patterns of the word phrase and the sentence; the growth of predicative constructions; the development of the complex sentences and means of connecting clauses. Syntax changes are mostly observed in late ME and in NE.

2. EVOLUTION OF THE NOUN

2.1. OLD ENGLISH NOUN

Grammatical Categories. Use of Cases

The OE Noun had two grammatical and morphological categories: number and case. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category. It was merely a classifying feature, accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes.

The category of Number consisted of two members: singular and plural. They will be clearly seen in all declensions.

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

The Nominative Case can be defined as the case of the active agent, for it was the case of the subject used with the verbs, denoting activity; the Nominative case could also indicate the subject, characterised by a certain quality or state; the Nominative case could serve as a predicative and as the case of address.

The Genitive Case was the case of nouns and pronouns serving as attributes to other nouns.

e. g. *hiora scipu* (their ships)

The Dative Case was the chief case used with prepositions: *on moʒenne* (in the morning) alongside with the Accusative, Dative could indicate the passive subject of a state.

The Accusative Case was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. Being a direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action and other meanings.

e. g. *hive na-nes Þinʒes ne lyste* (nothing pleased him)

It should be noted that one and the same verb could be construed with different cases without any noticeable change of meaning. The vague meaning of cases was of great consequence for the subsequent changes of the case system.

Morphological Classification of Nouns. Declension

The most peculiar feature of OE nouns was their division into several types of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The term declension is also known as stem. The stem is the root together with the stem-suffix.

The Indo-European noun consisted of three morphemes:

	Root	Stem-Forming	Case Ending Suffix
Russ.	*чит*	*ал*	*а*
Lat.	*lup*	*u*	*s*

The division of nouns into declensions was as follows:

I. Nouns with vowel-stems (vocalic stems / strong declension):

     a-stems (masc., neutr.) and wa-stems, ja-stems

     o-stems (fem.) and wo-stems, jo-stems

     u-stems (masc., fem.)

     i-stems (masc., fem., neutr.)

II. Nouns with n-stems (the weak declension). Nouns of all genders belong here.

II. Nouns with consonant-stems:

     r-stems

     s-stems

     nd-stems

     Nouns of all genders belong here.

IV. Nouns with root-stems. The nouns of masc. and fem. belong here.

The division into stems does not coincide with the division into genders. Some stems were confined to one or two genders only, thus a-stems were only masc. or neutr., o-stems were always fem. and others included all genders.

Strong Declension (Vocalic Stems)
A-stems

	Masc: *stan (stone)*		**Neutr.** *scip (ship)/*	
	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N.	*stan*	*stanas*	*scip/ban*	*scipu/ban*
G.	*stanes*	*stana*	*scipes/banes*	*scipa/bana*
D.	*stane*	*stanu*	*scipe/bane*	*scipum/banum*
Acc.	*stan*	*stanas*	*scip/ban*	*scipu/ban*

The difference between the two genders is only seen in the Nominative plural. In the Nominative gender the ending depends on two factors:
− on the number of syllables;
− on the quantity of the root-syllable (shortness/length).
In monosyllabic words with a short root-syllable, the Nominative and Accusative plural have the ending **u**.
In monosyllabic words with long, root-syllable these cases have no ending at all. In disyllabic words with a short root-syllable, these cases have no ending. In disyllabic words with a long root-syllable, they have the ending **u**. These differences depend on rhythmical causes. The words, having the vowel ǽ in the singular change it into a in the plural.
In words, ending in *f, Ѳ* these consonants become voiced *v, ð* before a case ending.
There are two variants of a-stem: *wa-, ja-stems*. They have the elements of **j** and **w** in their paradigm. As far as **ja-stems** are concerned, their root vowel undergoes mutation under the influence of an original **j** in the stem.

O-stems
Germanic **o-stems** are sometimes called **a-stems**, because their **o** corresponds to the Indo-European **a**. **O-stems** are all feminine. The form of the Nominative depends on two factors: the number of syllables and the shortness/length of the root-syllable. Monosyllabic words with a short root-syllable take in this case the ending **u.** Monosyllabic ones with a long root-syllable and disyllabic ones have no ending at all.

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	*carru (care)*	*far (journey)*	*cara*	*fora*
G.	*care*	*fore*	*cara*	*fora*
D.	*care*	*fore*	*carum*	*forum*
Acc.	*care*	*fore*	*cara*	*fora*

There are two variants: ***wo-stems and jo-stems***. As to **jo-stems**, their root-vowel underwent mutation, induced by an original *j* in the stem. **A-stems and o-stems** are the most common stems in OE.

I-stems

Among **i-stems** there are nouns of all three genders: masc., fem. and neuter. The masc. and neuter i-stems do not differ much in their declensions from the a-stems; and the feminine ones do not differ much from the o-stems. The root vowel had undergone mutation.

U-stems

Among **u-stems** there are nouns of two genders: masc., and fem. The form of the Nominative and Accusative Sg. depends on the length or shortness of their root syllable.

Nouns having a short root-syllable have in the Nominative and Accusative Sg. the ending **u.** Those with a long one have no ending at all.

Masculine

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	*sunu (son)*	*feld (field)*	*suna*	*felda*
G.	*suna*	*felda*	*sung*	*felda*
D.	*suna*	*felda*	*sunum*	*feldum*
Acc.	*sunu*	*feld*	*suna*	*felda*

Feminine

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	*duru (door)*	*hand (hand)*	*dura*	*handa*
G.	*dura*	*handa*	*dura*	*handa*
D.	*dura*	*handa*	*durum*	*handum*
Acc.	*duru*	*hand*	*dura*	*handa*

Weak Declension (Consonantal Stem)

N-stems correspond to Russian nouns like имя. Nouns of all genders belong here:

Singular

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N.	*nama (name)*	*cwene (woman)*	*eare (ear)*
G.	*naman*	*cwenan*	*earan*
D.	*naman*	*cwenan*	*earan*
Acc.	*naman*	*cwenan*	*eare*

Plural

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N.	*naman*	*cwenan*	*earan*
G.	*namena*	*cwenena*	*earena*
D.	*namum*	*cwenum*	*earum*
Acc.	*naman*	*cwenan*	*earan*

R-stems are represented by a few Masculine and Feminine nouns, denoting relationship. They are:

fæder (father)   *modor (mother)*
dohter (daughter)   *broþar (brother)*
sweester (sister)

The Dative Sg. of these nouns usually had mutation.

Masculine				
	Sg.		**Pl.**	
N.	*fæder*	*broþor*	*fædras*	*broþor*
G.	*fæder, -es*	*broþor*	*fædera*	*broþra*
D.	*fæder*	*breðer*	*fæderum*	*broþrum*
Acc.	*fæder*	*broþor*	*fæderas*	*broþor*
Feminine				
N.	*mador*	*dohtor*	*madru(a)*	*dohtor (tra, tru)*
G.	*modor*	*dohtor*	*modra*	*dohtra*
D.	*meder*	*dehter*	*modrum*	*dohtrum*
Acc.	*modor*	*dohtor*	*modru(a)*	*dohtor (tra, tru)*

R-stems correspond to the Russian nouns мать, дочь.

S-stems

A few neuter nouns preserved in OE a system of declension showing in all case of the Plural an R-element. This **r** comes from the Indo-European stem-building suffix **s** (rhotacism).

	Sg.		**Pl.**	
N.	*lamb (lamb)*	*cild (child)*	*lambru*	*cild (cildru)*
G.	*lambes*	*cildes*	*lambra*	*cilda (cildra)*
D.	*lambe*	*cilde*	*lambrum*	*cildum*
Acc.	*lamb*	*cild*	*lambru*	*cild (cildru)*

The noun *cild* mostly has its Pl. forms derived without **r**, according to the system of neuter a-stems, with a long root syllable.

Occasionally, however, it has r in the N., G., and Acc. Plural. S-stems correspond to the Russian nouns *небо – небеса, чудо – чудеса.*

Root-stems

The words of this type never had any stem-forming suffix, so the case endings were added immediately to the root. This type of stem is represented in various Indo-Europeans languages. Masculine root-stems are declined in the following way:

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	*mann (man)*	*fōt (foot)*	*menn*	*fet*
G.	*mannes*	*fates*	*manna*	*fota*
D.	*menn*	*fet*	*mannum*	*fotum*
Acc.	*mann*	*fot*	*menn*	*fet*

In 3 case-forms in the D. Sg. and in the N. and Acc. Pl. there is a result of mutation.

Feminine

	Sg.		Pl.	
N.	*hnutu (nut)*	*boc (book)*	*hnyte*	*boc*
G.	*hnute*	*boce*	*hnuta*	*boca*
D.	*hnyte*	*bec*	*hnutum*	*bocum*
Acc.	*hnutu*	*boc*	*hnyte*	*bec*

Altogether, there were only 8 endings employed in the noun paradigms: ***a, e, u, as, es, um*** and the ***0 (zero)*** inflexion.

2.2. MIDDLE ENGLISH NOUN

The OE system of declension of nouns according to their stems is gradually weakened and finally disintegrates.

1. The paradigms of different stems of the strong declension are gradually levelled and confused. The specific inflexions of OE cases become unified and simplified, weakened and phonetically reduced. Many such inflexions gradually disappear.

2. The inflexion of the weak declension ***en*** (from OE ***an***) also gradually disappears.

3. In early ME there are still a variety of paradigms of noun declension. But by the end of the 14th century, the entire system of OE noun declension is already reduced to a very simple paradigm.

Together with the disintegration of the old system of the declension of nouns grammatical gender disappears, because it was closely connected with the system of stem-declension.

In the Northern and Midland dialects, grammatical gender already disappeared in the 11th and 12th centuries. In the Southern dialects, it disappeared later on.

Paradigms of ME Declension of Nouns in the 14th century

	Sg.	Pl.	Sg.	Pl.
N.	ston	stones	dor	dore, dores
G.	stones	stones	dores	dore, dores
D.	ston	stones	dor	dore, dores
Acc.	ston	stones	dor	dore, dores

The inflexions of nouns, as we see, were reduced to their present day status in the literary language of the 14th century. Namely, two OE inflexions remained in the language. They were extended to all types of Nouns and are still widely used in New English:

1. The inflexion of the Plural of the NE **(e)s** – ME **es** – OE **as**. Number proved to be the most stable of all the nominal categories. The noun preserved the formal distinction of two numbers through all the historical periods. Increased variation in Early ME did not obliterate number distinctions. On the contrary, it showed that more uniform markers of the pl. spread by analogy to different morphological classes of nouns, and thus strengthened the formal differentiation of number.

In Late ME the ending **-es** was the prevalent marker of nouns in the pl. In Early NE, it extended to more nouns – to the new words of the growing English vocabulary and to many words, which built their plural in a different way in ME or employed **-es** as one of the variant endings. The pl. ending **-es** (as well as the ending **-es** of the Genitive Case) underwent several phonetic changes: the voicing of fricatives and the loss of unstressed vowels in final syllables.

2. The inflexion of the Possessive Case **s**, which is a survival of the ME Genitive case ending -**es**. It is from OE Genitive inflexion of Masculine and Neuter a-stem nouns. The history of the Genitive Case requires special consideration. Though it survived as a distinct form, its use became more limited: unlike OE, it could not be employed in the function of an object to a verb or to an adjective. In ME, the Genitive Case is used only attributively, to

modify a noun, but even in this function, it has a rival – prepositional phrases, above all the phrases with the preposition **of**. The practice to express genitival relations by the **of-phrase** goes back to OE. It is not uncommon in the 10th century writings, but its regular use instead of the inflexional Genitive does not become established until the 12th century. The use of the of-phrase grew rapidly in the 13th and 14th century. In some texts, there appears a certain differentiation between the synonyms: the inflectional Genitive is preferred with animate nouns, while the of-phrase is more widely used with inanimate ones.

The Survivals of OE Plural Forms

The survivals of OE and ME plural forms of nouns are usually classified in Modern English Grammar as exceptions *(feet, deer, teeth)*. They are remnants of old forms, such as:

1. The NE plural forms *men, feet, teeth, geese,* etc., which were nouns of the root declensions in OE. They had no inflections in the plural, but a mutation.

e. g. OE *mān – men*
ME *man – men*
OE *fōt – fet*
ME *foot – feet*

2. The Modern plural forms *deer, sheep, swine* were OE neuter nouns, which had no inflexions in the plural.

e. g. OE   ME
    sceap   shep
    deor   der
    swin(e)   swine

3. Some OE nouns of the weak declension kept an -en inflexion from OE an in the plural.

e. g. *ox – oxen*

4. This -en suffix was also added to the plural forms of some r-stem nouns: e. g. *broker – brethren*

5. The -en suffix was also added to the plural forms of two nouns, belonging to s-stems in OE.

e. g. OE *cild – cildru*
ME *child – children*

OE Dative Case of the Infinitive and the Particle *to*

The OE Dative of the infinitive, which expressed direction or purpose, loses its **e** inflexion and its syntactical meaning. Moreover, the preposition **to**becomes a particle before the infinitive, deprived of any semantic value as in New English.

Prepositional Phrases

Together with the disintegration of the inflected forms of nouns, the development of prepositional phrases takes place. Thus, the ***of-phrase*** develops and performs the function of the Genitive Case.

The Dative inflected case is supplanted by the ***to-phrase***. The original meaning of the preposition ***of*** was from and to indicated direction.

The original meanings of the prepositions ***of*** and ***to*** are weakened and show only grammatical relations.

2.3. NEW ENGLISH NOUN

By the beginning of the NE period grammatical gender and the declension of nouns were completely lost. The only inflexions that remained are as follows:

1. The inflexion of the Modern Possessive Case **-'s-** which has two sources:

a) the inflexion of the OE Genitive Case Sg. Masculine and Neuter, ***a-stem > es***;

b) the possessive pronoun *his*, which in the 14–16th centuries was often placed after nouns to indicate possession.

2. The inflexions of the Plural of Nouns, of which there are several types:

a) the regular inflexion of nouns in the plural (e. g. (e)s [s, z, iz]);

b) a survival of the OE n-stems (weak declension), i. e. the OE inflexion **-an/-en** (ME reduced), which remained in the plural of the noun (e. g. *ox – oxen)* and was transferred to *child – children*, which belonged to s-stems; and *brother – brothren* (r-stems);

c) the OE plural forms of the certain nouns with root-stems, which underwent mutation, but in which no inflexions remained in NE:

e. g. *men, feet, geese, teeth, mice, lice*;

d) some OE neuter nouns without inflexions in the plural, which have kept their plural forms (e. g. *deer, sheep, swine)*;

e) some nouns with a final *f, Θ* which have kept the OE vocalization in the intervocalic position in the plural (e. g. *lives, wives, wolves, baths, paths*), but in some words vocalization disappeared (e. g. *roofs, beliefs*).

<div align="right">**LECTURE 6**</div>

EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH PRONOUN

OUTLINE
1. Old English Pronoun
2. Middle English Pronoun
3. New English Pronoun

1. OLD ENGLISH PRONOUN

There were several types of pronouns OE: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, possessive, negative, relative, definite and indefinite. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to those of nouns (in "noun – pronoun") or corresponded to those of adjectives (in "adjective – pronoun"). Some features of pronouns were peculiar to them alone.

Personal Pronouns
In OE, as in Gothic there is besides Sg. and Pl. personal pronouns also a *dual* number for the 1st and 2nd persons.

Singular

	I person	II person	III person
N.	*ic*	*Þu*	*he, heo, hio, hit*
G.	*min*	*Þin*	*his, hire, hiere, his*
D.	*me*	*Þe*	*him, hire, hiere, him*
Acc.	*mec, me*	*Þec, Þe*	*hire, hie, hi, hy, hit*

Dual

	I person	II person	III person
N.	*wit*	*ȝit*	
G.	*uncer*	*incer*	
D.	*unc*	*inc*	
Acc.	*unc, unit*	*inc, incit*	

Plural

	I person	II person	III person
N.	*we*	*ʒe*	*hie, hi, hy, heo*
G.	*ure, user*	*eower*	*hira, heora, hiera, hyra*
D.	*us*	*eow*	*him, heom*
Acc.	*usic, us*	*eowinc, eow*	*hie, hi, hy, heo*

Personal pronouns were declined like nouns according to a 4-case system. The forms of the oblique cases differed greatly from the basic Noun-case form, as most of the sounds were altered. The ancient ending and the root had fused into one morpheme. Some pronouns, namely in the 1st person, had suppletive forms.

Some case forms of the pronouns of the 3rd person were similar to those of the demonstrative pronouns. Special attention should be paid to the Genitive case of the personal pronouns. Besides, being used as forms of the oblique case (objects), they were used in an attributive function.

e. g.   his modar – his mother

sunu min – my son

Demonstrative Pronouns

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: ***se, Þes***.

Se – the prototype of *that,* which distinguished three genders in the Sg. and had one form for all the genders in the Pl.:

Singular: ***se*** (Masc.) – ***seo*** (Fem.) – ***Þæt*** (Neuter)

Plural: ***Þa***

Þes – the prototype of *this*, with the same subdivisions:

Singular: ***Þes*** (Masc.) – ***Þeos*** (Fem.) – ***Þis*** (Neuter)

Plural: ***Þas***

Demonstrative pronouns were declined like adjectives and thus had a five-case system. They took specific pronominal endings in some case forms that are endings, which are not found in the noun declension: **r** in the Genitive Pl., **m** in the Dative Sg.

The pronoun **se, (seo, Þæt)** *(that)* was widely used before nouns with the weakened demonstrative meaning, approaching that of the definite article and might help one determine the case, gender and number of the corresponding noun.

There were no articles in OE. The definite article developed from this pronoun in ME.

The Declension of the Demonstrative Pronouns *se (seo , Þæt)*

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Plural
N.	*se, se*	*þæt*	*seo*	*þa*
G.	*þæs*	*þæs*	*þære*	*þara, þæra*
D.	*þæm, þam*	*þæm, þam*	*þære*	*þam, þæm*
Acc.	*þone, þa*	*þæt*	*þa*	*þa*
Instr.	*þy, þon* *þæm, þam*	*þy, þon*	*þæ*	*þare*

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

Possessive Pronouns

These pronouns are derived from the Genitive case of the personal pronouns of all persons and numbers. They are: ***Þin, min, incer, uncer, ure, eower*** – they are declined as strong adjectives. The possessive pronouns ***his, hire, hiera*** are unchanged. There is the reflective possessive pronoun – sin, which is also declined as a strong adjective.

Interrogative Pronouns

The interrogative pronouns ***hwa, hwæt*** have only singular forms:

N.	*hwa*	*hwæt*
G.	*hwæs*	*hwæs*
D.	*hwæm*	*hwæm*
Acc.	*hwone*	*hwæt*
Instr.	*hwy*	*hwi*

The interrogative pronoun ***hwilc*** (**which**) is declined according to the strong declension of adjectives.

Relative Pronouns

The most usual OE relative pronoun is ***Þe.***

e. g. *Þa beoraʒs, Þe, man hæt Alpis – the mountains, which are called the Alps.*

The pronoun ***seÞe*** is also used, consisting of the demonstrative pronoun *se* and the relative pronoun ***Þe.*** The pronoun *se* can also be used as a relative pronoun without ***Þe***, but *se* is inflected, according to gender, number, case, while ***Þe*** remains unchanged.

Indefinite Pronouns

Sum (some) and *æniȝ* (any) are indefinite pronouns. They are declined as strong adjectives.

Definite Pronouns

The pronouns *ȝehwa* (every) is declined as *hwa*. The Pronoun *ȝehwilc* (each), *ælc* (each), *æȝÞer* (either) and *swilc* (such) are declined as strong adjectives. The pronoun *se ilca* (the same) – as weak adjectives.

Negative Pronouns

The negative pronouns *nan* and *næniȝ* (no and none) are also declined as strong adjectives.

2. MIDDLE ENGLISH PRONOUN

Personal Pronouns had the following forms in ME:

	I person	II person	III person
Singular			
N.	*I, ich*	*thou*	*he, she, hit, it*
Obj.	*me*	*the*	*him, hir, her, hit, it*
Plural			
N.	*we*	*ye*	*hi, they*
Obj.	*us*	*you*	*hem, them*

Peculiarities

1. In ME most of the personal pronouns underwent some changes in pronunciation and spelling.

2. Dual number of pronouns disappeared.

3. Genitive case forms no longer existed as the case, but there existed possessive pronouns.

4. The Dative and Accusative merged into one Objective Case.

5. The 3rd person plural pronoun *hi* was gradually superseded by the pronoun *they* (of Scandinavian origin). The objective case is represented both by *hem* (of OE origin) and *them* (Scandinavian).

6. Initial *h-* of the Neuter pronoun *hit* was often lost. This is due probably to its usually unstressed position.

7. The origin of the Feminine pronoun *she* is not quite clear. It may have developed from the OE Feminine demonstrative pronoun *seo*. Occasionally the pronoun *ye* was used in addressing one person. This use is frequent in Chaucer's works.

Possessive Pronouns

The Genitive Case of personal pronouns was singled out and became an independent category of Possessive pronouns. This process began in OE. Possessive pronouns had the following forms in ME:

Singular		
I person	II person	III person
min, mi	*thin, thi*	*his, hir, her, his*
Plural		
our	*your*	*hire, their*

The forms *min, thin* are used if the following word begins with a vowel or with *h*.

The forms *my (mi), thy (thi)* are found before a word with an initial consonant.

Alongside of these, forms in *s* have been derived on the analogy of the genitive of nouns in such phrases, as *the body is the husbondes = the body is her husband's*. In the 14th century expressions of this type are used: *Þis land sale be youres = this land shall be yours.*

Demonstrative Pronouns and the Definite Article

The OE demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, Þæt* developed in ME *into Þe, Þeo, Þat.* (with *th* M. F. N). Later on because of the disappearance of grammatical gender these forms were differentiated in their function and meaning. The former masculine *Þe* became the definite article *the* and the former Neuter *Þat* became the demonstrative pronoun *that*.

In OE, there were no articles as a special part of speech. The demonstrative pronoun *se* (all genders and forms) was weakened and played the part of the definite article. In ME, the form *the (Þe)* became an independent part of speech – the definite article as such. In OE, demonstrative pronoun *Þes (Þeos, Þis)* was declined and had three genders even in ME period. However, with the disappearance of grammatical gender *this (Þis)* remained the singular for all forms. The ME plural was *these, thise; (Þat) that* – plural *tho, thos*.

The Indefinite Article

In OE the numeral **an** (stressed) was often weakened in its meaning to the function of the indefinite article, in which case was unstressed. OE **an** (stressed) – ME **on** – NE **one**.

First **one** was pronounced: [O:n] > [won] > [wu:n] > [wun] > [wʌn].

OE **an** (unstressed) – ME **an.**

In OE **an** in unstressed position in ME was shortened and therefore did not change into *'on'* but developed into **ăn**. After the differentiation of the two forms **ăn** became the indefinite article. Before consonants **ăn** lost the final **n** and became **a**.

Interrogative Pronouns

In ME forms of the interrogative pronouns developed from OE. The OE instrumental form **hwy** developed into an adverb **why**.

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
N.	*who*	*who*	*what*
G.	*who*	*whos*	*whos*
Obj.	*whom*	*whom*	*what*

Reflexive Pronouns

In ME the groups objective case of personal pronouns + *self* develop into reflexive pronouns **himself, herself, themselves**. In some cases (e. g. **herself**) -**self** was interpreted as a substantive modified by a possessive pronoun; on this pattern new reflexive pronouns were derived: **myself, ourselves, yourself**.

Relative Pronouns

From OE form **Þæt**, this was the Nom. and Acc. Neuter of the demonstrative and relative pronoun, the ME **that** developed, which was used as a relative pronoun without distinction of gender and number. In the 14th century new relative pronouns appeared from interrogative ones: **which, who**.

Other Pronouns

The OE defining pronouns **ȝehwa** (every) and **ȝehwilc** (each) disappeared in ME. The pronouns **æȝÞer** (either), **ælc** (each), **swilc** (such) and **se ilca** (the same); the indefinite ones **sum** (some) and **æniȝ** (any), the negative **nan** (no), (none) are preserved as **either, ech, swich, that, ilke, som, any, noon** and become invariable.

3. NEW ENGLISH PRONOUN

Personal and Possessive Pronouns

The ME forms of personal pronouns underwent little change in the NE period. The tendency to use the pronoun *ye* in addressing one person arose in ME already. In Shakespeare's works, both *ye* and *thou* are found with stylistic differentiation between them. Eventually *thou* completely vanished from ordinary literary language and was preserved in elevated, poetic, religious style.

In the 16th century the distinction between the Nominative *ye* and Objective *you* began to disappear. In the 17th century *ye* finally became archaic. In the Neuter personal pronouns, vacillation between *hit* and *it* continued during the 16th century. By the end of the century *hit* disappeared.

The Neuter possessive pronoun was *hit* until the 17th century. The new form *its* seems to have appeared in the early 17th century. Shakespeare used *it* in a few cases only.

In the course of the 17th century neuter *his* was finally superseded by *its*. In the Feminine possessive pronouns there was some tiny vacillation between *hir* and *her*, which may be due to weakening of the vowel in an unstressed position. The forms *mine* and *thine* were used in two cases only in Early New English:

1) as a non-attributive part of the sentence, e. g. *This island is mine;*

2) as an attribute before a word with initial vowel, e. g. *mine eyes, mine enemies, thine eyes.*

Reflexive Pronouns

They developed in NE from the corresponding ME forms without any particular changes.

Demonstrative Pronouns

In NE, the demonstrative pronouns acquired the following forms:

1) *this* (ME *this*, OE Neuter form *Þis*) and plural *these* (ME *thise, these*, derived from *this*);

2) *that* ME *that*, OE neuter form *Þæt*) and plural *those* (ME *thos*, OE *Þas*).

Interrogative Pronouns

NE interrogative pronouns developed from ME in the following way:

1) *who* (ME *who* – OE *hwa*), objective *whom* (ME *whom, OE hwæm*);

2) *whose* (ME *whos*, OE *hwa*);

3) *what* (ME *what,* OE *hwæt*);

4) *which* (ME *which,* OE *hwilc*).

Other Pronouns

ME *ilke (that)* did not survive in NE.

The pronouns *each, such, some, any, none* were preserved in NE.

Besides, the compound pronouns *somebody, nobody* are formed, which develop a two-case system, and also *something, anything, nothing*.

EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH ADJECTIVE
AND ADVERB

OUTLINE
1. Evolution of the English Adjective
      1.1. Old English Adjective
      1.2. Middle English Adjective
      1.3. New English Adjective
2. Evolution of the English Adverb
      2.1. Old English Adverb
      2.2. Middle English Adverb
      2.3. New English Adverb

1. EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

1.1. OLD ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

Declension
The forms of all OE adjectives express the categories of gender, number and case. Every adjective could be declined according to the weak and strong declensions.

The Strong Declension of adjectives differs to some extent from the strong declension of nouns. Some case-forms of the adjectives correspond to those of the pronouns. The strong declension of the adjectives as a whole is a combination of nominal and pronominal forms. Most adjectives are declined as a-stems for Masculine and Neuter and as o-stems for the Feminine.

The Weak Declension does not differ from that of nouns, except in the Genitive Plural of all genders, which often takes the ending *-ra*, taken over from the strong declension.

Degrees of Comparison
Like the adjectives in other languages most of OE adjectives could form degrees of comparison. The regular means used in the building of the Comparative and Superlative degrees were the suffixes *-ra* and *-est/-ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root vowel. Many adjectives had mutation.

The comparatives are declined as strong adjectives. The superlatives take the forms of the strong declensions very rarely and mostly follow the weak declension.

e. g. ***blæc – blæcra – blacost***

In some adjectives the vowel undergoes mutation in the comparative and superlative degrees. Some adjectives have suppletive forms of the comparative and superlative degrees:

ʒod (good) – betera – betst
yfel (bad) – wiersa – wierest
micel (large, much) – mara – mæst
lytel (little) – læssa – læst

1.2. MIDDLE ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

The declension of adjectives underwent substantial changes in ME. Declension of adjectives had always been determined by agreement with nouns in Number, Gender and Case. In Germanic languages the use of strong and weak adjective declension depended on whether the adjective was preceded by the definite article or a similar word or not. But the disappearance of grammatical genders in ME nouns and the reduction of case endings led to a considerable change in adjective declension. Besides, the characteristic weak declension ending ***-en*** was dropped.

The only case ending in adjectives came to be ***-e*** and the highly developed OE paradigm was reduced to the following system:

	Strong		Weak
N., G., D., Acc.	*god*	Singular	*gode*
N., G., D., Acc.	*gode*	Plural	*gode*

In the Northern dialects declension of adjectives was completely lost. The only surviving case ending ***-e*** was dropped, the adjective became invariable.

The degrees of comparison had the following suffixes:

	Comparative	Superlative
OE	*-ra*	*-ost, -est*
ME	*-er*	*-est*

e. g. glad – gladder – gladdest

Some adjectives keep a mutated vowel in comparative and superlative degrees:

e. g. old – elder – eldest
long – lenger – longest

Several adjectives preserve suppletive degrees of comparison:

e. g. god – bettre – best

evil – werse – werst

Alongside such degrees of comparison analytical forms of degrees of comparison like *more* and *most* appear.

1.3. NEW ENGLISH ADJECTIVE

In ME adjectives dropped the ending *-e*, which had signalled the plural and the weak declension in ME. Thus, ME adjectives no longer agree with their nouns in number. This was essential for the syntactic structure of the language.

Degrees of Comparison

As it was mentioned, alongside synthetic degrees of comparison, phrases consisting of *more* and *most* + *adjective* appear in ME. In ME the two mentioned above types were differentiated:

1) suffixes of the degrees of comparison are used with monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives;

2) the phrases with *more* and *most* are limited to the other disyllabic and polysyllabic ones. In the 15th century mutation, which had survived in ME in the comparative and superlative of some adjectives is eliminated. The only remnant of mutation in degrees of comparison is seen in *elder – eldest* from *old* (alongside with *older – oldest*).

2. EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH ADVERB

2.1. OLD ENGLISH ADVERB

There are three different groups of adverbs in OE:

a) pronominal adverbs, such as **Þa** (than), **Þonne** (then), **Þær** (there), **her** (here), **nu** (now), **hwonne** (when), **hwær** (where), **heonan** (hence). Here also belong the adverbs **sona** (soon), **oft** (often), **eft** (again), **swa** (so).

These are called primary adverbs, that is, they have not been derived from any other part of speech. There are also secondary adverbs, derived from some other part of speech. They are much more numerous:

b) derivative adverbs, formed from other parts of speech by means of suffixes. The most common adverb-suffixes are: **-lice (-ly)** and **-e** (or **-lic**), e. g. mann (man) + **lice(-ly) –** mann**lice** (manly), wid (wide) + **-e** = wid**e** (wide);

c) adverbs derived from various case-forms of nouns and adjectives. A large number of OE adverbs consist of the various cases of nouns and adjectives used adverbially, e. g. **hwilum** (sometimes) – from the Dative plural of the noun **hwil** (while, time) **dæȝes** (in day time) – from the Genitive of the noun **dæȝ** (day).

Degrees of Comparison

Adverbs form their degrees of comparison by means of the suffix **-or** (for the comparative) and **-ost (-est)** (for superlative).

e. g. *wide – widor – widost*

Some adverbs derive their comparative without any suffix, by means of mutation of the root vowel: lonȝ (long) – lenȝ; feorr (far) – f**ie**ry; softe (softly) – s**e**ft; eape (easily) – **ie**p.

The mutation is due to the fact, that originally the comparative was derived by means of the suffix **-r**, preceded by the vowel **-i**. This vowel caused mutation and disappeared, the **-r** disappeared, too. A few adverbs, corresponding to adjectives with suppletive degrees of comparison, also derive their degrees of comparison by the suppletive method:

e. g. **wel** (well) – **betre** – **best**

yfele (badly) – **wiers, wyrs** – **wierst, wyrst**

micele (much) – **mare** – **mæst**

lytle (little) – **læsse** – **læst**

2.2. MIDDLE ENGLISH ADVERB

In ME some adverbs derived in OE from adjectives by means of the suffix **-e** are still in use, e. g. *fast – faste*

If the adjective ended in **-e**, the adverbs did not differ from it, e. g. *newe – newe*

At the same time a new way of deriving adverbs, which had arisen in OE, by means of the suffix **-ly**, developed, e. g. *special – special**ly***

Degrees of Comparison

Degrees of comparison of adverbs were derived by the same suffixes that were used for adjectives:

e. g. gretly – grett**er** – gret**est**

In a few adverbs mutation is preserved:

e. g. longo – l**e**ng**er** – long**est**

A few adverbs preserve suppletive degrees of comparison:

e. g. *much – mo, more – most*

litel – lasse – lest

wel – bet, bettre – best

evile – wers – werst

In ME phrases of the type **"more, most + adverb"** appear. In ME the morpheme **-s** was joined to other adverbs from OE:

    e. g.   OE heonan – ME hennes, hens – NE hence

           OE sippan – ME sithens, sins – NE since

OE ealne weʒ (*all the way/time)* – ME alway, always – NE always

           OE twiwa – ME twies – NE twice, etc.

2.3. NEW ENGLISH ADVERB

In NE the suffix **-ly** became the only productive adverb-forming suffix. This suffix could be joined to the stem of any adjective, whose meaning admits of adverb formation. In ME adverbs with the **-e** suffix, inherited from OE, lost their **-e** and thus became undistinguishable from the corresponding adjectives. A few adverbs of this type have been preserved in NE:

    e. g. *fast, loud, hard*

The other old adverbs, which coincided with their adjectives, were replaced by new adverbs, derived by means of the **-ly** suffix. In the formation of the degrees of comparison no change occurred in NE.

EVOLUTION OF THE ENGLISH VERB

OUTLINE
1. Verbs in the Common Indo-European and Germanic Languages
2. Middle English Verb System
3. New English Verb System

1. VERBS IN THE COMMON INDO-EUROPEAN AND GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Common Indo-European had a complicated and multiform verbal system. There were numerous classes of verbs, each having:

– active, middle and passive voices;

– indicative (for statements), imperative (for commands), subjunctive (for unreal statements) and optative (for wishes) moods;

– present, imperfect, perfect and future tense-aspects, with dual number distinct in all these forms.

The IE verbal system, especially aspect, tense and conjugation was rather complicated (Sanskrit, Greek, Latin). The Germanic verbal system, on the contrary, was greatly simplified.

1) The outstanding feature of the Germanic verb is that it had two tenses: a Present and a Past (Preterite), the first of which was used for all present and future time, and the second – for all past time. No Future proper existed in Germanic verbal system.

2) Another important peculiarity of the Germanic verbal system is its development of the two main classes of the verb into the so-called strong and weak verbs according to the way they built their principal forma.

3) The next peculiarity of the semantic verb, closely connected with the previous one, is the regular use of gradation (ablaut) to express tense relation in the strong verbs.

4) And the last, but not least characteristic of the Germanic verbal system is the dental preterite of the weak verbs – the formation of the past tense with a dental suffix **-d, -t** in the so-called weak verbs.

The OE verb was characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form building means. All the forms of the verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear. The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

Verbal Categories in OE

Being a typical Germanic language, OE has two principal classes of verbs: **strong** and **weak**.

The **strong verbs** form their preterite *(past,* originally *perfect)* by means of ablaut *(vowel gradation)*: e. g. ridan (to ride) – rad (rode).

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Participle
*he*l*pan*	*hea*l*p*	*hu*l*pon*	*ho*l*pen*

The verb **helpan** (to help) has a different root-vowel in each of its four forms stems. Each form is characterized by a specific ending: **-an, -on, -en**.

The weak verbs form their preterite by adding a dental suffix, containing a dental **-d, -t**:

e. g. (to hear): hieran – hier**ed**

(to make): macian – mac**od**e – mac**od** (weak verb)

The weak verb **macian** does not change the root vowel. It has the dental suffix **-od** in the endings.

These two groups (strong and weak) differ in the number of principal forms:

3 forms for the weak verbs,

4 forms for the strong verbs.

Besides these two major groups of verbs there existed some minor groups. Their conjugation differed both from the weak and the strong conjugation. These are minor classes of irregular verbs, such as:

a) Preterite-Present Verbs,

b) Suppletive Verbs,

c) Anomalous Verbs, which are characterized by certain morphological and semantic peculiarities of their own. The OE verb has the following independent forms, expressed synthetically (by means of inflexions, suffixes or sound interchange):

- one voice (active)
- two numbers (sg. and pl.)
- three persons
- two tenses (present and preterite), no future
- three moods (Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative)
- two aspects (perfective and imperfective)

There is no Gerund, nor are there any analytical verbal forms and auxiliary verbs. The simple future was generally expressed by the present tense as in the oldest periods of other Germanic languages. But already in OE the

present forms of ***beon (be), scullan (shall), willan (will)*** with the infinitive began to be used to express the future (usually with some modal connection).

The meaning of the Perfect in OE could be denoted by free syntactic combinations consisting:

a) of the forms of the verb ***habban (to have)*** + the past participle (with transitive and intransitive verbs);

b) of the **forms of the verb beon, wesan (to be)** with intransitive verbs only.

Strong Verbs

Strong verbs (the term was first used by J. Grimm) are verbs with gradation (*ablaut*). Ablaut is to be found in all IE languages and by means of it different grammatical forms or different words can be formed.

e. g. Russian: в**е**зу – в**о**з – взял

The principal IE gradation is **e – o – reduction**. But a peculiarity of Germanic languages is the regular use of gradation to express tense relation in the strong verb.

In Teutonic languages the principal IE gradation acquires the form **i/e – a – reduction**. In OE this series of gradation is used to build up main forms of strong verbs. There must have been over 300 strong verbs in OE. These are very old verbs. Many of them are commonly used words, denoting simple vital actions, such as: *slepan (to sleep), drincan (to drink), etan (to eat).*

They are primary (not derived) verbs and belong to ancient words. But this class was unproductive already in OE and their number decreased (there are about 190 of them in New English, some being archaic). All newly built or borrowed verbs acquired the conjugation system of weak verbs (**-ed**).

OE ablaut is a qualitative gradation. But there also was quantitative gradation (in IE too, e. g. an interchange of long and short vowels: Latin: ed**o** – ed**i**). It was also reflected in Germanic languages (especially in strong verbs, class VI).

Like Teutonic OE had **7 classes** of strong verbs. Each of these classes is characterized by its own ablaut series, with four different vowels. Consequently OE strong verbs had four principal forms:

1. Infinitive (had the root vowel **i/e**, e. g. *ridan*).
2. Preterite Sg. (1st and 3rd persons) (had the root vowel **a**, e. g. *rad*).
3. Preterite Pl. (had a reduction of the root vowel, e. g. *ridon*).
4. Past Participle (had also a reduction, e. g. *(ʒe)riden*, i. e. $i - a - i - i$).

However, this simple gradation was complicated by sonorants, which usually followed the root vowel in Germanic languages.

Five classes of strong verbs had a qualitative gradation; the 6th class had a quantitative gradation; the 7th class had no regular gradation at all. It included

verbs, which had developed from ancient verbs with reduplication. The classes of strong verbs and their ablaut in OE may be illustrated by the following examples:

Class I (i-class)
The formula of this class: i/e – a – reduction – i

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
i/e	**a**	**reduction**	**i**
risan (to rise)	*ras*	*rison*	*risen*
ridan (to ride)	*rad*	*ridon*	*ridden*
scino (to shine)	*scan*	*scinon*	*scinen*
bitan (to bite)	*bat*	*biton*	*biten*

Class II (u-class)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
eo	**ea**	**u**	**o**
beodan	*bead*	*budon*	*boden*
sceotan	*sceat*	*scuton*	*scoten*
ceosan	*ceas*	*curon*	*coren*

Class III. Formula: i/e – a – reduction + sonor. + cons. (plosive)
This class is subdivided into three subclasses:
a) i/e – a – reduction +nasal + consonant (plosive)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
i	**a(o)**	**u**	**u**
findan	*fand*	*fundon*	*funden*
sinʒan	*sanʒ*	*sunʒon*	*sunʒen*
bindan	*band*	*bundon*	*bunden*
drincan	*dranc*	*druncon*	*drunken*

b) i/e – a – reduction + 1 + consonant (plosive)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
e	**ea**	**u**	**o**
helpan	*healp*	*hulpon*	*holpen*

c) i/e – a – reduction + r or h + consonant (plosive)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
eo	**ea**	**u**	**o**
weorÞan	*wearÞ*	*wurÞon*	*worÞen*

Class IV. Formula: i/e – a – reduction + sonorant alone (l, m, r)

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
e	**æ**	**æ**	**o**
stelan	*stæl*	*stælon*	*stolen*
beran	*bær*	*bæron*	*boren*

Class V is characterized by **a noise consonant in the root (it is also rather small)**

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
e	**æ**	**æ**	**e**
cnedan	*cnæd*	*cnædon*	*cneden*
etan	*æt*	*æton*	*eten*
sprecan	*spræc*	*spræcon*	*sprecen*

Class VI. Formula: i/e – a – reduction + quantitative ablaut

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
a	**o**	**o**	**a**
bacan	*boc*	*bocon*	*bacen*
faran	*for*	*foron*	*faren*
standan	*stod*	*stodon*	*standen*

Class VII. Formula: i/e – a – reduction + no regular ablaut

Most vowel interchanges in class VII resulted from the doubling of the root (reduplication) in the Past Tense-stems. (As Russian: дать – дадим (Future). That is why the Past Tense-stems have a long monophthong or a long diphthong in the root.

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
blendan	*blend*	*blendon*	*blenden*
beatan	*beot*	*beoton*	*beaten*
cnawan	*cneow*	*cneowon*	*cnawen*

Weak Verbs

The number of weak verbs in OE exceeded that of strong verbs and was obviously growing. Among weak verbs we regularly find formations from noun and adjective atoms or also from some stems of strong verbs, which is a proof of the later appearance of weak verbs.

All weak verbs built their principal forms by adding a dental suffix to Present Tense stems. There are three classes of weak verbs in OE. Every weak verb is characterized by three forms: **Infinitive, Preterite (Past) and Past Participle**.

Class I
Regular Verbs of class I always have mutation in their root vowel due to the original i-element in the suffix.

Infinitive	Preterite	Past Participle
-an/-ian	**-de/-ede/-te**	**-ed/-d/-t**
deman	*demde*	*demed*
nerian	*nerede*	*nered*
cepan	*cepte*	*cept, ceped*

Irregular Verbs. These verbs had element **-i**, which produced mutation in the Infinitive only. In the Preterite there was no **-i** and so these form had no mutation. As a result the vowel of the Preterite and Past Participle differs from that of the Infinitive:

e. g. tellan – tealde – teald

sellan – sealde – seald

Class II
These verbs originally had the suffix **-oi** in the Infinitive and **-o** in the other forms. The infinitive suffix **-oi** was reduced to **-i**. The Infinitive of these verbs ends in **-ian**. In OE **-o** was preserved in the Preterite and Past Participle.

Infinitive	Preterite	Past Participle
-ian	**-ode**	**-od**
macian	*macode*	*macod*
lufian	*lufode*	*lufod*

The absence of mutation in the infinitive is due to the fact that the **i-element** appeared at the time, when the prowess of mutation was already over.

Class III
Many verbs originally belonging to Class III have changed into Class I or Class II. Thus, class III was in OE in the process of disintegration, i. e. it was dying out in OE. The Infinitive of these verbs originally had the stem suffix **-i**, which produced germination. Only three verbs have survived: *to have, to live, to say.*

Infinitive	Preterite	Past Participle
-an	**-da**	**-d**
habban	*hæfde*	*hæfd*
libban	*lifde*	*lifd*
seǽn	*sæ3de*	*sæ3d*

So, as it was said, the class of weak verbs has been the only productive class of verbs throughout the history of English. As to the origin of the dental suffix and how it came into use in Germanic little is certainly known.

1. Some scholars are inclined to regard it as developed from the root of the verb **don (to do)** – IE root **-dhe**, which stands in ablaut relation to the OE **-don**. On this theory such a form as OE **lufode (loved)** was supposed to be equivalent to: **lufe + dyde – lova + did**.

2. But other scholars think it also probable that the dental suffix in OE weak past participle goes back to the IE suffix **-t** (IE **-t** – Germ. **-d**, according to Verner's law) as in the **-t** of such Latin Participles **lectus**, **amatus**, or Russian Participles.

Conjugation of Strong and Weak Verbs

It greatly differs in OE from the Modern English paradigm. Verbs had fairly distinct personal endings in OE though their system was already disintegrating.

The conjugation of the following verbs will show the personal endings of strong and weak verbs:

Strong Verb, class I: *ridan*

Principal forms: Infinitive – *ridan*
Preterite Sg. – *rad*
Preterite Pl. – *ridon*
Past Participle – *(ȝe)riden*
Present Participle – *ridende*

Indicative
Present   *Past*

	Sg.	Pl.		Sg.	Pl.
I	*ride*	*ridath*	I	*rad*	*ridon*
II	*ridest*	*ridath*	II	*ride*	*ridon*
III	*rideth*	*ridath*	III	*rad*	*ridon*

Subjunctive
Present   *Past*

	Sg.	Pl.		Sg.	Pl.
I		*riden*	I	*ride*	*riden*
II	*ride*	*riden*	II	*ride*	*riden*
III		*riden*	III	*ride*	*ridden*

Imperative
Sg.   *rid*
Pl.   *ridath*

Weak Verb, class I: *hieran* (to hear)
Main Forms: Infinitive – *hieran*
                     Preterite Sg. – *hierde*
                     Past Participle – *(ʒe)hierod*
                     Present Participle – *hierde*

Indicative

Present				*Past*	
	Sg.	Pl.		Sg.	Pl.
I	*hiere*	*hierath*	I	*hierde*	*hierdon*
II	*hierest*	*hierath*	II	*hieidest*	*hierdon*
III	*hier(e)th*	*hierath*	III	*hierde*	*hierdon*

Subjunctive			**Imperative**	
Present				
I	*hiere*	*hieren*	Sg.	*hier*
II	*hiere*	*hieren*	Pl.	*hierath*
III	*hiere*	*hieren*		

Past		
I	*hierdea*	*hierden*
II	*hierde*	*hierden*
III	*hierde*	*hierden*

Singular: personal endings: I person – **e**
                                    II person – **st**
                                    III person – **th**

Plural: the forms of the plural of the 1st and 2nd persons had disappeared already in the oldest periods of the language, their place having been taken by the form of the 3rd person.

Minor Groups of Verbs

Some minor groups of verbs of diverse origin could be referred to neither weak nor strong verbs. A few anomalous or irregular verbs in OE combined both ways of form building, i. e. of strong and weak verbs. The following classes were observed:

1. Preterite-Present Verbs.
2. Suppletive Verbs.
3. Anomalous Verbs.

The most interesting group was the so-called Preterite-Present Verbs.

Preterite-Present Verbs

These are very old verbs. Originally they were strong verbs. Their old past tense had become the present tense. It acquired the meaning of the Present. Therefore a new Past Tense was formed according to the paradigm of weak verbs. They are inflected in the present like the preterite of strong verbs and have no ending in the 3rd pers. Sg. *he cann (he can).* That is why the NE modal verbs *can, may, must, shall*, which descend from them have no **s-ending** in the 3rd pers. Sg. in the Present Tense.

Most of the Preterite-Present verbs are characterized by a modal meaning and are usually followed by a nominative infinitive or another verb, e. g. *is **cann** singan*. Dative infinitive with the preposition **to** is not used after them. Therefore in NE modal verbs are followed by the infinitive without the particle "to". Some of the Preterite-Present verbs lack past participle and infinitives.

There were 12 verbs of this kind in OE.

	OE	ME
1.	cunnan	can
2.	aӡan	ought
3.	maӡan	may
4.	mot	must
5.	dearr	dare
6.	sculan	shall
7.	munan	remember
8.	ðeorfan	need
9.	unnan	wish
10.	witan	know
11.	ӡeneah	to be enough
12.	duӡan	to be fit

Infinitive	Present Sg.	Past Sg.	Past Part.
cunnan	*can(n)*	*cuthe*	*cuþ, cunnen*
sculan	*sceal*	*sceolde*	
aӡan	*aӡ, ah*	*ahte*	*aӡen*
maӡan	*mæӡ*	*meahte*	
	mot	*most*	

Suppletive Verbs

There were two suppletive verbs in OE: *wesan, beon (to be)* and *ӡan (to go)*. These verbs differ from other verbs. Their forms are derived from different roots, their system is based on suppletivity.

The forms of the verb **be** are derived from three roots **-wes, -es, -be**. Similar phenomena are found in other IE languages, e. g. Russian *быть – есть*, etc. The suppletive system of these verbs seems to be due to the fact, that its elements originally had different meanings, which were more concrete than the abstract meaning ***be***. One of these roots had the meaning ***grow***.

The verb ***go*** is also suppletive in many IE languages, e. g. Russian *иду – шел*. The process seems to be similar to that of the verb **be**. The system of this verb seems to have developed from different roots, which originally had more concrete meanings than the abstract **"go"**. They denoted more concrete kinds of movement.

The Verb *wesan, beon*

Indicative: **Present**

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*eom, beo*	*sint, sindon, earon*
II	*eart, bist*	*aron, beoÞ*
III	*ia, biÞ*	

Past

I	*wæs*	*wæron, wæren*
II	*wære*	
III	*wæs*	

Subjunctive: **Present**

I, II, III	*si, sie, sy, beo*	*sin, sien, syn, beon*

Past

	wære	*wæren*
Imperative:	*wes, beo*	*wesaÞ, beoÞ*

Present Participle: *weaende, beonde*. The forms of this verb often coalesce with the negative particle **"ne"**.

e. g. *ne is = nis   ne wæron = næron   ne wæs = næs*

The forms ***wesan, wæs, wæron*** are derived according to Class V strong verbs. The forms derived from the root ***be*** are often used with the future meaning.

The Verb *ʒan (go)*

Infinitive: *ʒan; ʒanʒan*

Indicative: **Present**

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*ʒa*	
II	*ʒæst*	*ʒaÞ*
III	*ʒæÞ*	

Past

I	*eode*	
II	*eodes*	*eodon*
III	*eode*	

Imperative: *ʒa*   *ʒap*

Subjunctive: **Present**

ʒa   *ʒan*

Past

eode   *eoden*

Participle I: *ʒande, ʒanʒende*
Participle II: *ʒe, ʒan*
This verb has mutation in the 1st and 2nd persons Sg. Present Indicative.

The Verbs *don* and *willan*

These two verbs have some individual peculiarities. The verb **don (do)**, like the verb **ʒan**, always has mutation in the 2nd and 3rd persons Sg. Pres. Ind. Its past tense is derived according to the weak conjugation. The alternation **o/y** is not clear.

The forms of the verb **willan** like the verb **beon** often coalesce with the negative particle **ne:** *ne wille – nylle, nelle; ne wolde – nolde*, etc. Indicative forms have been influenced by Subjunctive.

General Characteristics of the Old English Verb System

Aspects
The perfective aspect was expressed by the prefix **ʒe-**, sometimes by the prefixes **a-, be-, for-**

e. g. *seffan – ʒeseffan (ставить)*
        risan – arisan (вставать)
        ʒiefan – forʒiefan (давать)

Tenses
There were only two tenses, expressed by synthetic means in OE: the Present and the Past. The Future, if necessary, was expressed by lexical means.

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb

There are two non-finite forms of the verb in OE: the Infinitive and the Participle: Participle I and Participle II. Gerund didn't exist in OE.

The OE Present Participle has an active meaning and is formed with the help of the suffix **-ende:** *ridende – riding, maciende – making.*

The Past Participle of the strong verbs is formed with the help of ablaut and the suffix **-en:** *findan – funden*.

The Past Participle of the weak verbs is formed with the help of dental suffixes **-d, -t**: *macod, cept.*

The Past Participle (Part. II) often has the prefix **ʒe-**, which strengthens the meaning of perfectivity: *ʒemacod, ʒefunden*.

Both participles agree in number, gender and case with nouns they modify and are declined like adjectives.

Moods

OE, just as other Germanic languages had three moods: Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative.

The Indicative was used to express an action as real.

The Imperative expressed order or request to a 2nd person. Occasionally, the Imperative expressed wish.

The Subjunctive expressed an action that was merely supposed. It was widely used in OE both in main and in subordinate clauses. In the main clauses the Subjunctive was used to express a wish. In Subordinate clauses was used more widely especially in conditional clauses. It was also used in the clauses of concession and temporal clauses, having the meaning of supposition. It was also used in Indirect Speech, including indirect questions.

Analytical Formations

During the OE period the system of the verb acquired some analytical formations.

e. g. **habban + Part. II**

Originally these formations meant that the subject owned a thing, having a certain feature as a result of an action performed upon it. Then they acquired the meaning of the result of an action.

e. g. *ic* **habbe** *Þa boc* **ʒewrittan** *(I have this book written).*

Other formations:

beon + Part. II

e. g.: **is** his eaforda nu heard her **cumen** his son, the brave one, **is** now **come** here

sceal + infinitive; wille + infinitive (approach the meaning of future)

sceolde + infinitive; wolde + infinitive (acquire a modal meaning)

2. MIDDLE ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

All types of verbs existing in OE (strong, weak, preterite-present, irregular) were preserved in ME. In each of these types we find some changes, due to the phonetic phenomena of the ME period, and changes, due to analogy. Besides, some verbs changed from the strong conjugation to the weak and some others from the weak to the strong.

Strong Verbs

a) The inflexions of verb conjugations were also levelled and reduced in ME. Thus the OE ending of the Infinitive **-an** and the ending of the past plural **-on** were both reduced and levelled to **-en**.

OE *writtan, writon* – ME *written*

b) The OE perfective prefix **ȝe** changed into **-i** and disappeared.

c) Grammatical alternation of consonants completely abandoned.

d) The four forms of the OE strong verbs were gradually reduced to three forms, because of the levelling of inflexions. In the 2nd and 3rd classes of strong verbs the 3rd form (Past Pl.) was levelled to the 4th form (Past Part.).

Class I

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
OE *ridan*	*rad*	*ridon*	*riden*
ME *riden*	*rod*	*riden*	*riden*
ME *writen*	*wrot*	*writen*	*writen*

Class II

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
chesen	*ches*	*chosen*	*chosen*

Class III

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
drinken	*drank*	*drunken*	*drunken*
helpen	*halp*	*holpen*	*holpen*
kerven (carve)	*carf*	*corven*	*corven*

Class IV

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
beren (bear)	*bar*	*beren*	*boren*

Class V

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
meten	*mat*	*maten*	*meten*

Some strong verbs of Class V passed over to class IV, e. g. **speken** was of class V and it passed over to class IV:

e. g. *speken – spak – speken – spoken*

Class VI

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
shaken	*shok*	*shoken*	*shaken*

Class VII

Infinitive	Past Sg.	Past Pl.	Past Part.
fallen	*fell*	*fellen*	*fallen*

Weak Verbs

There existed three classes of weak verbs in OE.

Peculiarities:

1. The inflexion **-ian** of class II *(macian -ode, -od)* and of some verbs of class I lost the element **-i**.

OE	ME
locian	*looken*
lufian	*loven*
styrian	*sturen*

2. The OE suffixes of the Past Tense and Past Participle of Class II **-ode, -od** were weakened to **-ede, -ed**:

OE	ME
macode	*makede*
macod	*maked*
lufode	*lovede*
lufod	*leved*

3. Class III lost its germination of consonants in the Infinitive:

OE	ME
habban	*haven*

4. However irregular weak verbs of Class I retained the vowel change in the Infinitive, Past Tense and Past Participle. This was due to the fact that in OE mutation occurred only in the Infinitive of these verbs:

e. g.   OE   Þenkan – Þohte – Þoht

ME   thenken – thoughte – thought

The change of vowels remains in WE verbs such as ***to buy, to think, to teach, to tell,*** etc.

5. In some weak verbs with a stem ending in -**l, -n, -f, -v** the Past suffix **-d** changes into **-t**; verbs with a stain in **-rd, -nd, -ld** formed their past in **-rte, -nte, -lte** and their 2nd Participle in **-rt, -nt, -lt**.

> e. g: sendan – sende – send (OE)
> sendun – sente – sent (ME)

Verb Conjugation

Verb Conjugation underwent considerable changes in ME. As a result of levelling of unstressed vowels the difference between the endings **-an, -on, -en** was lost. It proved stable only in some Participles II, where it has been preserved down to the NE period.

Furthermore differences between the 2nd and 3rd persons, e. g. in Present Indicative and in other Present Tense Forms due to mutation disappeared in ME.

In ME verb conjugation some OE inflexions still remained, while the others were modified.

The paradigms of conjugation varied according to dialects. The conjugation of the present tense of a strong verb in the 14th century Midland Dialects was as follows:

Present Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*binde*	*binden*
II	*bindest* (Northern **-es**)	*binden* (Northern **bindes**)
III	*bindeth* (Northern **-es**)	*binden* (Southern **bindeth**)

Preterite-Present Verbs

OE Preterite-Present Verbs were preserved in ME, except the verb **ȝeneah** (to be enough), which was lost. Their forms underwent changes due to the general tendencies of the period.

The Verbs **ben** and **gon** (Suppletive Verbs). These two verbs inherited the OE system.

The Verb *ben*

Present Indicative

	Sg.		Pl.
I	*am*		
II	*art*	*ben*	(Nrth. ***am***, South. ***beth***)
III	*is*		

Past Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*was*	
II	*were*	*weren*
III	*was*	

The Verb *gon*
Present indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*go (ga)* Northern forms	
II	*gost (gast)*	*gon (gas)* (South., Goth)
III	*goth (gas)*	

Past Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*yede, wente*	
II	*yedest, wenteat*	*geden, wenten*
III	*yede, wente*	

Forms of these **The Verbs *don* and *willen*** developed from OE.

The Verb *don*
Present Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*do*	
II	*dost* (North. *dos*)	*don*
III	*doth* (North. *dos*)	

Past Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*dide, dude, dede*	
II	*didest*	*diden*
III	*dide*	

The Verb *willen*
Present Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*wil, wol*	
II	*wilt, wolt*	*wollen* (North. *willes*; South. *willeth*)
III	*wil, wol*	

Past Indicative

	Sg.	Pl.
I	*wolde*	
II	*woldest*	*wolden*
III	*wolde*	

General Characteristics of the Middle English Verb System

Aspects

The prefix *ʒe-*, which was sometimes used in OE to express completion of an action became *y-* in ME. Its use grows more and more irregular and then it disappears altogether (in Chaucer's works: *y-falle, y-come*), so it is only the context that shows whether the action was completed or not.

Tenses
Perfect Tenses

Perfect forms, which arose in OE, are widely used in ME. In Chaucer's works there are many sentences with Present and Past Perfect. The Perfect Tenses developed from the following free syntactical constructions: the verbs *habban, beon, wesan* with a direct object, followed by the Past Participle as an attribute to it.

e. g.   *He hæþ þa boc ʒewriten.* (He has this book written.)
        He is cumen. (He has come.)

In such constructions the agreement of the Past Participle with the direct object or the subject disappeared in ME. The Past Participle was placed directly after the verbs **to have** + **to be** and formed together with it a simple predicate.

So, in ME there are two auxiliary verbs, used in the Perfect Tenses: *haven* and *ben*. *Haven* was used with transitive verbs and *ben* – with intransitive ones. In NE *to have* supplanted the verb *to be* with intransitive verbs as well.

Some survivals of the OE and ME forms may be seen in NE in such construction as: *he was gone, the food was gone* etc.

Continuous Tenses

In ME the first examples of the Continuous Aspect appeared, consisting of the verb **be(n)** and Participle I. But they were very rare. Thus, in Chaucer's works only 6 examples of such forms have been found. Here is one of them:
Sigynge he was. (He was singing.)

The origin of these formations hasn't been quite cleared up. There are two possible sources:

1) OE phrases, consisting of the verb *beon* and the Participle I in *-ende*;

2) OE phrases, consisting of the verb *beon*, the preposition *on* and the verbal noun in *-in*.

Future Tenses

In OE there was no future tense. The OE free combinations *sculan (shall)* with the infinitive of another verb expressed obligation, and a combination of

willan expressed volition. In OE some of these constructions had already been weakened in meaning. In ME they developed into the analytical Future Tense.

The original meaning of the verbs ***sculan*** and ***willan*** comes to the fore in NE sometimes.

e. g.   *I will come. – I wish to come.*
I will do. – I wish to do.
I shall come. – I must come.
I shall go there. – I must go there.

Development of Analytical Tenses

Professor Smirnitsky asserts that there were no analytical tense-forms in OE, but there were a number of compound syntactical constructions (compound predicates) which developed into analytical tenses in ME. Professor Ilyish calls these constructions "analytical formations" and he shows that in some cases they approached very close to analytical tenses (simple predicates).

Non-Finite Forms of the Verb (Present Participle, Gerund)

In OE the verbal noun had the suffixes ***-ing, -ung***. The ***-ing*** gradually developed some verbal functions and became the Gerund.

In OE the Present Participle had the suffixes *-ande, -ende, -inde*. By the end of the ME period ***-inde*** changed into ***-inge***, by analogy with the inflexion of the Gerund ***-in***.

It is also possible that this new form of the Present Participle developed partly under the influence of the use of the Gerund with the prepositions ***in*** and ***an*** reduced to ***-a***. In such phrases as:

He is a huntinge. (He is on hunting).

Moods

The three OE moods were preserved in ME. The Subjunctive Mood preserved in ME many features it had in OE. It was often used in temporal and concessional clauses. In conditional clauses the Present Subjunctive is used to denote a possible action. An unreal condition referring to the present is expressed by the Past Subjunctive.

Voice. Passive Voice

In OE the passive constructions of the type *He was ofslæȝen (He was killed)* were not simple, but compound predicates, where the Past Participle was a predicate which agreed with the subject.

Sometimes, however, this agreement was lost and highly probable that the whole construction was already felt to be a simple predicate in OE.

The Passive Voice is widely developed in ME. In ME the analytical Passive Voice is completely formed and widely developed.

As the verb *weorþan* disappeared, the only auxiliary for the passive was the verb *ben*. The verb *ben* + *Past Participle* could express both a state and an action, and only the context could show which of the two was meant in each particular case. In ME the sphere of the Passive Voice grew as compared with OE. The subject of the Passive construction could be a word, which is in a corresponding active construction would have been an indirect object.

3. NEW ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

Personal Endings
Important changes occurred in conjugation.

Since the ending *-e* of the 1st person Sg., of the Pl. Present Indicative and of the Infinitive was lost, these forms now had no ending at all.

Another change affected the 3rd person Sg. Present Indicative. The ending *-eth* was replaced by *-a*, which in ME had been a characteristic feature of the Northern dialect, in the 15th century the *s*-form gradually penetrated, through the medium of Midland dialects, into the literary language. In Shakespeare's works the *s*-form is used alongside with *-eth*, apparently without any stylistic differentiation.

In the 17th cent, the ending *-eth* was finally superseded by *-a* and was only preserved in elevated style. But even in this sphere *-th-* forms are only used sparingly.

The 2nd person form in *-st*, connected with the personal pronoun **thou**, was gradually ousted during the 17th century from the normal literary language. The difference between forms in *-st* (or in *-t*) and forms without ending when addressing one person is not quite definite. What seems certain, however, is that forms in *-(s)t* can only be used when there is some degree of intimacy between the speaker and the person addressed.

Thus, the category of number in the 2nd person of verbs is on the point of vanishing.

Strong Verbs
In formation of strong verbs forms an important change also took place in this period.

In OE and ME every strong verb was characterized by four basic forms: Infinitive; 1st and 3rd person Sg., Past Indicative; Plural Past Indicative with

2nd person Sg. and Past Subjunctive; Participle II. In NE these four forms were reduced to three: Infinitive; Past Tense; Participle II.

ME forms				NE forms		
Infin.	Past sg.	Past pl.	Part. II	Infin.	Past	Part. II
Class I						
written	*wrot*	*written*	*written*	*write*	*wrote*	*written*
risen	*ros*	*risen*	*risen*	*rise*	*rose*	*risen*
riden	*rod*	*riden*	*ridden*	*ride*	*rode*	*ridden*
Class II						
chesen	*ches*	*chosen*	*chosen*	*choose*	*chose*	*chosen*
fresen	*fres*	*frosen*	*frozen*	*freeze*	*froze*	*frozen*
Class III						
finden	*fond*	*founden*	*founden*	*find*	*found*	*found*
drinken	*drank*	*drunken*	*drunken*	*drink*	*drank*	*drunk*
singen	*sang*	*sungen*	*sungen*	*sing*	*sang*	*sung*
Class IV						
stelen	*stal*	*stelen*	*stolen*	*steal*	*stole*	*stolen*
teren	*tar*	*teren*	*toren*	*tear*	*tore*	*torn*
Class V						
sitten	*sat*	*seten*	*seten*	*sit*	*sat*	*sat*
geten	*gat*	*geten*	*geten*	*get*	*got*	*got (gotten)*
Class VI						
taken	*tok*	*token*	*taken*	*take*	*took*	*taken*
shaken	*shok*	*shoken*	*shaken*	*shake*	*shook*	*shaken*
Class VII						
fallen	*fell*	*fellen*	*fallen*	*fall*	*fell*	*fallen*
knowen	*knew*	*knewen*	*knowen*	*know*	*knew*	*known*

In several verbs the Past Singular form superseded that of the Participle II: Class I – *abide, shine, strike*, Class V – *sit*, Class VI – *wake*, *stand*, Class VII – *hold*.

In the past tense of the verb *strike* the long **[o:]** developed into **[U: > U > A]** *(struck)*, in the same way as in the words *brother, blood*, etc.

The ME verb *bidden, beden* developed in NE the forms *bid, bade, bidden.*

The starting point of the whole process appears to have been Class VI and Class VII verbs, whose Past Sg. and Past Pl. vowels had coincided since the oldest times. In these verbs when the plural ending was dropped, all difference between numbers in the Past Tense disappeared, e. g. *shok, tok, knew, fell.*

Their influence was corroborated by that of weak verbs which had also lost any differentiation between numbers in the past tense.

Participle II

The **-en** ending of the Participle II requires special discussion. It proved strong enough in many verbs to withstand the general tendency to drop unstressed endings. With some verbs which had been dropping the ending in ME it was later restored and is now obligatory. Thus, in the verb *fall*, as in a number of other verbs, the **-en** of the second participle was liable to be lost in ME. In NE the only admissible form of the participle is *fallen*.

In a few verbs, a second participle is found both with the **-en** ending and without it. Thus the verb *bid* has a second participle *bidden* or *bid*; the verb *bite*- the participle *bitten* or *bit*.

Weak Verbs

Classification of weak verbs into I and II classes is no longer applicable in NE. In ME it was still possible to draw a distinction between the two classes according as the past tense had or had not an *-e-* before the **-d** of the past suffix; in NE, when the unstressed *-e-* disappeared in all cases, this distinction can no longer be upheld. The ME Class I verb *demen – demde – demed* and the ME Class II verb *hopen – hopede – hoped* have quite similar forms in NE: *deem – deemed – deemed*; *hope – hoped – hoped*.

The unstressed vowel has been preserved after **-d** and **-t** only: *end – ended – ended, want – wanted – wanted.* This difference, due to purely phonetic causes, cannot be sufficient reason for establishing a special grammatical class of verbs.

Strong Verbs Becoming Weak and Vice Versa

A number of strong verbs became weak in the NE period. Some of these verbs have preserved some strong forms alongside of the weak ones. e. g. The verb *climb* sometimes has a strong past form *clomb*, the verb *melt* – a second participle *molten*.

A few verbs preserving strong forms occasionally have new weak forms. Thus, the verb *abide*, whose past tense and second participle are usually *abode*, occasionally has the form *abided* in both cases. The verb *wake* or *awake* has, alongside of weak forms, a strong past tense awoke and a strong second participle *(a)woke* or *(a)woken*.

The process of strong verbs becoming weak is still continuing, though at a much slower rate.

In a few cases the opposite process occurred: weak verbs became strong. The OE weak verb *hydan – hydde – hyded* (hide), ME *hiden – hidde – hidd* became a Class I strong verb. The vowels of the infinitive, on the one hand, and of the past tense and second participle, on the other, which in this verb were the result of a long vowel shortened before two consonants, had coincided with the vowels of Class I strong verbs of the type *bite – bit – bitten*, where the past tense had followed

the vowel of the past plural; as a result, a new strong second participle hidden was formed on the analogy of Class I strong verbs, alongside of *hid*.

In a few cases weak verbs underwent the influence of strong ones only partially. They preserved the weak form of the past tense, but acquired a weak second participle.

Irregular Weak Verbs Becoming Regular

A few irregular weak verbs became regular. The ME verb *strecchen – straughte – straught* became NE *strecch – stretched – stretched*. The original second participle of this verb has survived as the adjective *straight*.

Rise of Invariable Verbs

In NE a group of invariable verbs came into existence. Most verbs of this group stem from weak verbs with a root ending in *-d* or *-t*; a few of them come from strong verbs of different classes.

The ME verbs *cutten – cutte – cutt, shutten – shutte – shut, setten – sette – sett,* etc. became invariable as a result of the disappearance of unstressed endings: *cut, shut, set,* etc. Strong verbs becoming invariable were: Class III verb *bresten – brast – brosten – brosten*, *NE burst* and Class VII verb *leten – let – leten – leten*, which developed a weak past tense *lette* already in ME.

Preterite-Present Verbs

1. The verb **can** has been preserved. The absence of ending in the 3rd person singular present (**he can**) testifies to the verb originally belonging to the preterite – present type. The form **could** may be used to mean the Past Indicative or the Present Subjunctive.

2. The verb **shall** has been preserved in NE mainly as an auxiliary of the Future Tense. The form **should** has preserved its meaning of Past Tense only in the future in the past; in all other uses it has acquired a modal meaning instead of a temporal and has become an auxiliary of the conditional mood; besides, it has acquired a meaning close to that of **ought**. In most cases **should** no longer is apast tense of the verb shall, but a separate verb.

3. The verb **may** (past tense **might**) has been preserved in NE. The form **might** is hardly used as a past tense (except indirect speech). Owing to the modal meaning of the verb the form acquired a meaning of present conditional. The absence of an *s-*ending in the 3rd person singular present indicative characterizes the verb as preterite – present.

4. The ME verb **mot**, **moste**. The form **mote** is sometimes found in Early NE as an archaism. The form **moste** had sometimes been used in a present meaning in ME already. This use and the change of the meaning **can** into **must** started from a use of the conditional form: ME *þou moste (you might)* came to

mean *"you must"*. In NE **must** is used as a present tense. Some verbs of this group disappeared.

The Verbs *Be, Go, Do, Will*

The verb *be* did not change much since the ME period. The main change was the penetration of the Northern form *are* into the present plural indicative instead of *be*. For the 2nd person singular past indicative we find a vacillation between the variants *wert* and *wast*. The former was derived by adding the *t*-ending to the ME form *were*; the latter was derived by adding the same ending to the form *was*. In the past tense, the distinction between the indicative *(I) was, (he) was* and the subjunctive *(I) were, (he) were* has been preserved; however, in colloquial style there is a tendency to use *(I) was, (he) was* instead of *(I) were, (he) were*.

The verb *be* is the only English verb to have retained the difference between Past Singular and Past Plural. Such forms as *(we) was, (you) was, (they) was* are felt as vulgarisms and are not admitted into the literary and colloquial styles.

The verb *do* has undergone changes common to weak verbs; besides, in the forms *dost, does, doth, done* the vowel has been shortened. The form *did* no longer divides into two morphemes in NE.

In the verb *go* the past form went has been preserved, while the form *yede* disappeared.

The verb *will, would* have preserved there forms in NE mostly as auxiliary verbs. The form *will* is used as an auxiliary of the future tense, and *would* as an auxiliary of the future in the past and the conditional mood. In NE *would*, in some cases of its use, can no longer be considered a form of *will*, but has become a separate verb.

Tenses and Aspects. The Perfect

The system of perfect forms, which had arisen in OE and developed in ME, goes on unfolding in the modern period. In Shakespeare's works there is a fully developed system of perfect forms, e. g.: … *if I have too austerely punished you...*

Aspect

The category of aspect seems to have risen only in the NE period. In OE differences in the way an action proceeds in time were expressed by the prefix **e-** in an unsystematic way, and in any case they did not amount to a grammatical category of aspect. In ME even this distinction was lost.

In NE a continuous aspect was gradually formed, expressed by a verb obvious morphological pattern (**be + first participle**). Verbal forms lacking this

pattern became a system of common aspect. It is hard to state a definite point at which the category of aspect came into being, as the process developed slowly, and even as late as the 19th century it was still possible to use forms of the common aspect to denote an action unfolding at a definite moment.

Continuous forms are found in Shakespeare's texts more frequently than in Chaucer's, but on the whole they are not numerous. The present continuous is used, for example, in this sentence in *The Merchant of Venice*:

Your mind is tossing on the ocean.

A continuous infinitive is found in *Much Ado about Nothing:*

I wonder that you will still be talking.

Beatrice is teasing Benedict: *He is always talking, though nobody cares to listen to him.*

However, in most cases where an action occurring at a given moment in the present or in the past is meant, the non-continuous form is used.

e. g.   OLIVER: *Now, sir, what make you here?*

ORLANDO: *Nothing, I am not taught to make anything*.

Use of continuous forms is still rather limited in the 17th and 18th centuries.

Sometimes the present and the past perfect continuous are used. In the 19th century continuous forms are used more widely. But in the early 19th century they were considered a feature of the colloquial style and were not admitted in poetry. Eventually, however, continuous forms penetrated far deeper into all styles of the language.

In the 19th century passive continuous forms appear. They express an action taking place at a given time in the present or past more clearly, distinguishing it from the result of an action. But the system of passive continuous forms has been limited to the present and to the past; neither a future continuous passive nor any perfect continuous passive forms have been developed so far.

Henry Sweet gives a full system of verb forms, including such forms as *hehas been being seen* and *he will have been being seen*. He adds the remark: "Some of the longer forms are seldom or never used". From the point of view of modern linguistics this means that H. Sweet points out structural possibilities which may be developed in the future.

Mood

The mood system developed in NE mainly towards creating more precise means of expressing modal meanings and, in this connection, towards the grow of analytical verb forms.

Thus, in the sphere of the subjunctive, the use of the pattern **should/would + infinitive** gradually grew in main clauses of a conditional sentence.

In Shakespeare's time both the synthetic subjunctive, inherited from OE, and analytical forms were used in such cases.

Syntactical subjunctive forms of the 1st and 3rd persons were also used to express appeal or wish, as in ***sit we down, judge me the world***. In the main clause of a conditional sentence analytical conditional forms gradually superseded the synthetic ones.

Use of Auxiliary Do

In Early NE the verb **do** was widely used as an auxiliary. Owing to its lexical meaning, which corresponds to the grammatical meaning of any verb as a part of speech, it easily lends itself to auxiliary use.

In the 16th and 17th centuries forms of the present and past are often derived by means of the auxiliary ***do***. In Shakespeare's texts we can find the following examples: *Why do you not perceive the jest?* However, forms without **do** are also used in such sentences: *Now, sir! What make you here?*

Thus, in Shakespeare's time the use of the auxiliary ***do*** both in affirmative, interrogative and negative sentences was optional.

In the 17th century there was considerable hesitation in this sphere. Thus, in John Milton's prose works ***do*** is hardly ever used at all, while in Samuel Pepys's Diary (1660–1669) it is used very widely, and in John Evelyn's Diary ***no do*** is found in affirmative sentences. In negative sentences the use of ***do*** gradually grew during the 17th century.

In Shakespeare's works ***do*** is found in approximately 30 % of all negative sentences. In philosophic and scientific prose hesitations in this sphere last for a much longer time.

The Gerund

The Gerund, which came into being in ME, developed further in NE. It was gradually more and more clearly separated from the verbal substantive ending in ***-ing***.

While the boundary between the verbal substantive and the Gerund was indistinct, so was that between word-building and derivation. As they became more clearly differentiated, the boundary, too, became clearer. However, the fact that ***-ing*** was a word-building as well as a derivational suffix, made the distinction less definite than it is in other languages.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SYNTACTIC SYSTEM
(OLD ENGLISH – MIDDLE ENGLISH – NEW ENGLISH)

OUTLINE
1. Old English Syntax
2. Middle English Syntax
3. Early New English Syntax
4. Modern English Syntax

1. OLD ENGLISH SYNTAX

The most significant change between Old and New English is the shift from many to a few endings and the introduction of prepositions. As mentioned, Old English can be described as synthetic, whereas New English is analytic.

Word order

The word order in OE is relatively free. There are a few rules. Usually pronouns occur near the beginning of the sentence:

1) *he Ǣlfrede cyninʒe aðas swor andʒislas sealde.*
2) *þæt ðec dryhtʒuma deaþ oferswiþeþ.*

The verb often occurs at the end, especially in subordinate or embedded sentences. Note that (1) contains two sentences and two verbs *(swor* and *sealde).* The verb can also occur in second position, as in (3). This occurs mostly in main clauses:

3) *þy ilcan ʒeare for se here ofer sa*
   and the same year went the army over sea

The way to calculate what is called *verb-second* is to ignore the initial 'and', and not to count actual words but the constituents or phrases. In (3), *þy ilcan ʒeare* 'in the same year' forms a unit and is therefore counted as one position. Once one takes that into account, the verb *for* is in second position. Old English is, in this respect, very similar to German and Dutch.

Questions

There are two kinds of questions: *yes/no* and *wh-questions*. Respective examples are given in (4) with the verb first and in (5) with the verb following the question-word:

4) *ʒehyrest þu Eadwacer*
   hear you Eadwacer – 'Do you hear, Eadwacer?'
5) *hwat ʒehyrest þu*
   what hear you – 'What do you hear?'

Subject pronouns are somewhat more optional in Old than in New English. Examples are provided in (6) and (7). Examples of left-out subjects continue to appear up to the Early Middle English period:

6) *þeah ðe hordwelan heolde lanʒe*

   though that treasure held long – 'though he held the treasure long'

7) *swylc her r ær beforan sæde*

   which here previously before said – 'which he had said here before'

Grammatical Subjects

Grammatical subjects, such as ***there*** and ***it***, are frequent in New English but do not occur in Old English. There is also a construction that is called impersonal since there need not be a nominative subject. This is shown in (8):

8) *Hu lompeowon lade, leofa Biowulf*

   how happened you on trip, dear Beowulf – 'How was your trip, dear Beowulf'?

Auxiliary verbs

As you can see from (4) and (5), the auxiliary verb ***do*** is not used in questions (or with negation). The auxiliaries ***be*** and ***have*** occur but are infrequent. (9) provides an example where New English would have an auxiliary ***have*** (note also the lack of the preposition ***of***):

9) *we ... þrym ʒefrunon*

   we ... glory heard – 'We have heard of the glory'

Past action is indicated through affixes, such as the ***-on*** suffix for the past plural, and also through the prefix ***ʒe-***, as in (9). This ***ʒe-***prefix still occurs in languages such as Dutch and German, but disappears gradually throughout the Middle English period (going from ***ʒe-*** to ***i/y*** to nothing).

Ways of Joining Sentences

Sentences can be connected in a number of ways. Old English often uses no connection or coordination with ***and***. Modern English might use subordination in such sentences instead: 'when he was killed, she took the throne'.

Adverbs in Old English, as in present-day English, can be used to express the mood of the speaker and are then considered discourse markers. Examples of such discourse markers, also known as mood particles, are provided in (10) and (11):

10) *achi þah ledað todeðeon ende*

   but they though lead to death in end – 'but they lead to death, however, in the end'

11) *Swaeac nu mæg ealcmondeofel ofercumen*

   So also now may every man devil overcome – 'This way everyone can overcome the devil'

These are often hard to translate into New English since some are replaced by forms such as *well, however,* and *fortunately* placed at the beginning or the end of the sentence (and receive 'comma intonation').

Negation

Another point about Old English grammar is that the **negative adverb** often immediately precedes the verb, as in (12), and is sometimes weakened to a prefix. In addition, multiple negatives occur, as in (13), from King Alfred's *Pastoral Care.* Note that *nan wuht* means 'no creature/thing' and grammaticalizes to *not* in later periods:

12) *hleoþre **ne** miþe*
     sound not conceal – 'I don't conceal sound'
13) *forþæmþe hie hiora**nan wuht** onʒietan**ne** meahton*
     because they of-them no thing understand not could – 'because they couldn't understand anything of them'

General Characteristics of OE Syntax:
– omission of subject pronoun, prepositions, and articles;
– relatively free word order (even though the verb and pronoun have more fixed positions);
– limited use of auxiliaries: *He ar com* 'He had come before';
– adverbs with *-e* or *-lic* endings;
– frequent use of coordination;
– negation before the verb: *Ic ne dyde* 'I did not'; or multiple negative words.

2. MIDDLE ENGLISH SYNTAX

Word Order
The word order in Middle English is still relatively free, compared to New English. However, with the grammaticalization of prepositions, demonstratives, and some verbs – which become indicators of case, definiteness, and tense – a stricter order is established. For instance, articles can only occur before nouns and auxiliaries before verbs. Here are a few sentences that are technically from Late Old English, but their syntax really makes them Early Middle English. Both are taken from the *Peterborough Chronicle*:

1) *þis ʒare for **þe king Stephne** ofer sæ to Normandi*
    this year went the king Stephen over sea to Normandy – 'In this year King Stephen went over the sea to Normandy'
2) *Hi hadden **him manred** maked and **athes** sworen*
    they had him homage made and oaths sworn – 'They had done homage to him and sworn oaths'

In (1), the verb *for* 'went' comes after the adverbial *þis ȝare* and before the subject *þe king Stephne.* This means that the finite verb is in second position, as it generally was in Old English; in Modern English that order is reversed and the subject has to precede the verb. In (2), the finite verb *hadden* occurs in second position, but the objects *him, manred* 'homage', and *athes* 'oaths' precede the non-finite verbs *maked* and *sworen.* This OV order combined with having the verb in second position remains possible until Late Middle English.

There are a few other points to note about these sentences. Since (1) and (2) are from Late Old/Early Middle English, there are no articles before *sæ* (even though there is an 'extra' one before *king).* The third person plural is still *hi* in (2), rather than *they*, but the plural ending on the noun *athes* is already *-es,* rather than the Old English *-as.* The past participles in (2) lack the prefix *ȝe-.*

The word order in the noun phrase might indicate French influence. French often places the adjective after the noun and marks it for number. This order is shown in (3):

    3) *in othere places delitables*
       'in other delightful places'

Questions

The word order in wh-questions is very similar to that of Old English and differs from Modern English only in that full (finite) verbs can be fronted, as in (4):

    4) Who looketh lightly now but palamoun?

Yes/no questions are occasionally introduced by *whether*, reduced to *wher* in (5), a remnant of Old English. Most of the time, the word order is like New English except that the main verb can be in sentence-initial position, as in (6), rather than just the auxiliary:

    5) ***Wher*** *is nat this the sone of a smyth, or carpenter?*
       'Is this not the son of a smith or carpenter?'
    6) ***Wostow*** *nat wel the olde clerkes sawe*
       'Know-you not well the old scholar's saying?'

In Early Middle English, subject pronouns are not yet obligatory, as (7) shows:

    7) *þeos meiden lette lutel of þ he seide. ant smirkinde smeðeliche*
       'This maiden thought little of what he said and smiling smoothly'
       ȝef him þullich onswere. al ich iseo þine sahen sottliche isette.
       'gave him a smooth answer. I see all your savings are foolishly put out'
       cleopest þeoþing godes þe nowder sturien ne mahen
    'Call **[you]** those things good that neither stir nor have power.'

Later, probably a little after 1250, they became obligatory.

Grammatical Subjects

Grammatical subjects become more common as well, as in (8) from Chaucer. This shows the language is in a more analytic stage. *There* is grammaticalizing from a locative adverb to a placeholder for the subject:

8) *With hym **ther** was his sone, a yong squire.*

In Early Middle English, the grammatical subject is still optional, however, as in (9). The New English gloss would include the grammatical 'there':

9) *An preost wes on leoden; Laʒamon wes ihoten*
    A priest was among people, Layamon was named – 'There was a priest around, whose name was Layamon'

Auxiliaries and Sentence Connectors

In Old and Middle English, auxiliaries are less frequent than in New English, as (10) shows. New English would have an additional auxiliary here, 'What **are** you doing':

10) What, how! What do ye, maister Nicholay?
     How may ye slepen al the longe day?

New English tense and aspect are expressed through auxiliaries such as *be* and *have.* In (11), the auxiliary *be* and the *-ing* on the main verb express that the action is (or was) in progress; *have* indicates that the action started sometime in the past and continues up to now:

11) We have been practicing.

Even though they are not as frequent, there are Middle English constructions, such as (12) where an auxiliary and the preposition *on/an* express that the action is ongoing. The first auxiliary *do* appears around 1400, namely in Chaucer's (13):

12) *þa cheorles wenden to þan wuden. and warliche heom hudden.*
     alle bute tweien. toward þan kinge heo weoren beien.
     *and iuunden þene king. þar he wes **an slæting***

'The freemen went into the wood and took cover warily except for two [who] went towards the king where he was on hunting'

13) *His yonge sone, that three yeer was of age*
     *Un-to him seyde, fader, why **do** ye wepe?*

The changes in the use of *do* are interesting. In (13), *do* is used as in New English, for support in questions (and negatives). In Middle and Early New English *do* was also more often used in regular affirmatives (e. g. *I did see him*) and might have expressed progressive aspect.

Related to the change in the status of verbs – many grammaticalize to become auxiliaries – is the change in the status of the infinitive marker *to.* Many

linguists consider this *to* a non-finite auxiliary, indicating that the action of the verb following it is in the future or is unreal. When it becomes an actual non-finite marker (in addition to a preposition), it becomes more independent, and split infinitives start to appear in Early Middle English, as in (14) to (16):

14) **fo[r] to** *londes* **seche**
for to countries seek – 'to seek countries'

15) **for to** *hine* **finde**
for to him find – 'in order to find him'

16) *Blessid beþou lord offhevyn ... Synfull men*
for to *þus* **lede** *in paradice*
'Blessed are you, heavenly lord, to thus lead sinful men in paradise'

There are also examples of split infinitives in Later Middle English, as in (17) and (18):

17) *Y say to ʒou,* **to** *nat* **swere** *on al manere*
'I say to you to not curse in all ways'

18) *Poul seiþ, þu þat prechist* **to** *not* **steyl***, stelist*
'Paul says, you that preach to not steal steals'

In Later Middle English, e. g. Chaucer, sequences of auxiliaries, as in (19), start to appear; the end of the 14th century marks a significant increase in auxiliaries:

19) If I so ofte **myghte have ywedded bee**

In Early Middle English, the connection between sentences is similar to that of Old English: sentences are less frequently embedded in each other than in New English. For instance, the already quoted (9) is from the beginning of Layamon; New English would have (b) or (c):

a. *An preost wes on leoden; Laʒamon wes ihoten*

b. *A priest was living among the people and his name was Layamon*

c. *A priest, who was named Layamon, was living among the people*

In (a), there is no connection between the two sentences; in (b), *and* connects the sentences through coordination; and in (c), one of the sentences is embedded into the other by means of a relative pronoun *who*, also called subordination.

A real increase in sentence complementizers such as *till* and *for* can be seen in the last part of the *Peterborough Chronicle*. Roughly after 1130, examples such as (20) and (21) appear:

20) **for** *þæt ilc gær warth þe king ded*
'because that same year was the king dead'

21) *þar he nam þe biscop Roger of Sereberi and Alexander biscop of Lincol and te Canceler Roger hise neues. and dide alle in prisun.* **til** *hi iafen up here castles*

'There he [= king Stephen] took bishop Roger of Salisbury and bishop Alexander of Lincoln and chancellor Roger, his nephew, and put them all in prison till they gave up their castles'

Negation

As a last syntactic point we will explore the changes in **negative adverbs**. The Old English negative adverb *ne* reduces to a weaker word and is reinforced by a strong negative, starting in Old English. In Middle English, reinforcement by a post-verbal adverb such as *nawiht* ('no creature') is frequent, as shown in Middle English (22). Subsequently, the post-verbal negative becomes the regular negative *not* or *nat*, especially in late Middle English, as in (23):

22) *for of al his strengðe **ne** drede we **nawiht***
   because of all his strength not dread we nothing
   for nis his strengðe noht wurd bute hwer-se he i-findeð edeliche
   because not-is his strength not worth except where he finds frailty
   'Because we do not dread his strength since it is only relevant where he finds frailty'

23) *He may **nat** wepe, althogh hym soore smerte*
   'He may not weep, although he hurts sorely'

Multiple negatives, as in (22), are lost in Late ME, but the negative *not* starts to contract with an auxiliary, e. g. *cannot*, as early as 1380. The negative weakens and a second negative is introduced again in many varieties of English. This is known as Jespersen's Cycle after the Danish linguist who first discussed it. It occurs in many languages: in French *ne pas* is losing *ne* in colloquial French.

With this knowledge about the sounds and grammar of Middle English, we can examine the beginning lines of *Gawain (*NW Midlands – Mid 14th century), provided in (24):

24) *SIÞEN þe sege and pe assaut watz sesed at Troye*
   Since the siege and the assault were ceased at Troy
   Þe borȝ brittened and brent to brondeȝ and askez,
   The battlements broken and burnet to brends and ashes
   Þe tulk þat þe trammes of tresoun þer wroȝt
   the men that the plots treason there made/framed
   Watz tried for his tricherie, þe treweston erþe
   was tried for his treachery, the truest on earth.
   His watz Ennias þe athel, and his highe kynde,
   It was Aenias the noble and his high kin
   Þat siþen depreced prouinces, and patrounes bicome
   That afterwards conquered provinces and masters became.

The word order is modern, especially in the main clause: the subject *þesege and þe assaut* precedes the auxiliary *watz* and the verb *sesed*, which in turn precede the adverbial *at Troye* in the first line. In the second line, *brent* precedes *to brondeʒ and askez*, and *tried* precedes *for his tricherie* in line 4. In contrast, in the relative clause in line 3 the verb *wroʒt* follows the object *þe trammes of tresoun*, a remnant of the older order. The verb *bicome* also follows its object in line 6 since it is part of a relative clause.

Definite articles are frequent and reduced to an invariant form *þe*. The endings on the nouns are restricted to plural *-ej, -ez,* or *es*, but there may be a dative *-e* on *erþe*. The relative pronoun in line 3 is the Middle English *þat*.

The spelling shows much evidence of this being a (Late) Middle English text: *þ* and *j* occur, but *æ* and *ð* do not. The *ʒ* in *borʒ* may show palatalization and the pronunciation of *sege* and *sesed* includes the pre-GVS [e]. There are many loans from French: *sege, assaut, tresoun, tricherie, depreced,* and *patrounes* are all introduced from French in the Middle English period roughly with the spelling that occurs in *Gawain*. Later, alternations are made – etymological respellings by inserting the *l* in *assault* around 1530. The word *try* in its modern, legal sense is based on French, but this particular sense developed in Anglo-French. *Tulk* 'man' and *trammes* 'plots' in line 3 are Northernisms, possibly from Scandinavian.

General Characteristics of Middle English Syntax:
– word order changes to SVO (Subject – Verb – Object);
– subject pronouns are needed;
– grammatical subjects are introduced (= grammaticalization);
– auxiliaries and articles are introduced (= grammaticalization);
– embeddings increase (= grammaticalization);
– multiple negatives occur.

3. EARLY NEW ENGLISH SYNTAX

The transformation of English into an analytic language continues in the Early New English period. As mentioned earlier, in syntactic terms, this transformation leads to an increasingly fixed word order and the introduction of grammatical words. An example of a grammatical word being formed is the directional *to* becoming a Dative case marker. In Middle English, the number of prepositions and determiners increases as prepositions replace cases. Starting in the Early New English period, the grammatical words introduced are mainly auxiliaries. The trend towards more embedded sentences that started in Middle English also continues in Early New English.

The ***word order*** is fairly similar to that of New English, as shown in (1), addressed by Queen Elizabeth to her bishops:

1) Elizabeth I – 1599

Our realm and subjects have been long wanderers, walking astray, whilst they were under the tuition of Romish pastors, who advised them to own a wolf for their head (in lieu of a careful shepherd) whose inventions, heresies and schisms be so numerous, that the flock of Christ have fed on poisonous shrubs for want of wholesome pastures. And whereas you hit us and our subjects in the teeth that the Romish Church first planted the Catholic within our realm, the records and chronicles of our realm testify the contrary; and your own Romish idolatry maketh you liars.

Wh-***questions*** are mostly as in New English, while some Yes/No questions continue to be formed as in (2):

2) *Whether hadst thou rather be a Faulconbridge, ...*

'Had you rather be a Faulconbridge?'

Subjects are only left out in a few cases (3) and (4):

3) *Nor do we find him forward to be sounded, But with a crafty madness keeps aloof*

4) *This is my Son belov'd, in him am pleas'd*

There are still some dative subjects, mostly in archaic expressions such as *me thinks.*

Auxiliaries are introduced or expanded, but neither simple auxiliaries nor sequences of auxiliaries are as elaborate as in New English. The expression of tense, mood, and aspect is perhaps still the most important difference between Early New and New English. For instance, New English would have the progressives *am going* and *are saying* in (5) and (6) and the present perfect form with *have* in (7), as shown in the gloss:

5) Whither go you?

6) What say you, Scarlet and John?

7) I saw him not these many years – 'I haven't seen him for many years.'

As in French, German, Italian, and Dutch, there is still a difference in Early New English between *have* and *be: I have spoke* but *We are come to you* (both from the same play). *Have* is used with transitive verbs and *be* with certain intransitive verbs (e. g. of motion). This difference continues up to the 19th century, but ceases to be relevant in New English.

The end of the Middle English period is also when auxiliaries start to be contracted, expected when they grammaticalize to auxiliaries (8):

8) *and so **myght Ya** done syn I come into Calles.*

'and so might I have done since I came to Calais'

In questions and negative sentences, *do* is not obligatory. Shakespeare, for instance, uses both (9) and (10):

9) ***Do*** *you **not heare** him?*

10) *A heauie heart **beares not** a humble tongue.*

In Old and Middle English, **negation** can be expressed by one or two negatives. This is changing in Early New English where *not* or *nothing* typically appear alone in a clause. There are, however, a few cases where single negation is expressed using multiple negative words: *nothing neither,* as in (11):

11) *Nor go neither: ...and yet say **nothing neither**.*

The use of relatives varies by author and D. Hope (1994) uses this to differentiate between the works of Shakespeare, Marlowe, Johnson, and others. D. Foster also uses relatives when trying to expand the Shakespeare canon. The main difference between Early New and New English is in the choice of relative pronouns. In (12) *which* is used for a person, and in (13) *who* is used for a non-human. These are ungrammatical in Modern English, mainly due to prescriptive rules. In (14) *that* is used as a marker of a non-restrictive relative clause, something that is no longer 'permitted':

12) *Shall I of surety bear a childe, **which** am old.*

13) *I met a Lyon, **Who** glaz'd upon me.*

14) *Let {Fame}, **that** all hunt after in their liues.*

Hope also shows that there is, in this period, a clear preference for the relative *that* over *who* and *which*, but that the latter spread in more formal writings. Shakespeare starts using the formal forms more in later works. We will see that this trend perseveres in present-day English.

Preposition stranding, which occurs when a preposition is left behind after its object moves in a question, as in (15), or a relative clause, is common in Early New English. When the object takes the preposition along, as in (16), we have a case of pied piping:

15) *Who did you talk **about**?*

16) ***About** who(m) did you talk?*

Punctuation and capitalization in Old and Early Middle English are fairly rare. They become more common in Late Middle English, but remain somewhat arbitrary, as the first paragraph in (17) from *The Sceptical Chymist* shows:

17) The Sceptical Chymist – 1661 – Robert Boyle

I am (sayes Carneades) so unwilling to deny Eleutheriu any thing, that though, before the rest of the Company I am resolv'd to make good the part I have undertaken of a Sceptick; yet I shall readily, since you will have it so, lay aside for a while the Person of an Adversary to the Peripateticks and Chymists; and before I acquaint you with my Objections, against their Opinions, acknowledge to you what may be (whether truly or not) tollerably enough added, in favour of a certain number of Principles of mixt Bodies, to that grans and known Argument from the Analysis of compound Bodies, which I may possibly hereafter be able to confute.

In the 17th century, syntactic punctuation is introduced, especially through the work of Ben Jonson. It is one of the changes modern editors make when editing Early New English texts for a present-day audience.

When the language gets a strict(er) word order, it is natural for writers to punctuate according to grammatical function, as in New English. In New English, the subject, verb, and object form a core and cannot be separated from each other as in the ungrammatical (18):

(18) *Yesterday, she saw him, unfortunately.*

Note that Modern English can have a word or words surrounded by commas such as *however* in the core.

General Characteristics of Early New English Syntax:
– word order becomes fixed and subjects become obligatory;
– auxiliaries are used more (=grammaticalization) and are contracted;
– *do* is becoming obligatory in questions and negatives;
– multiple negation is reduced;
– punctuation is becoming syntactically motivated.

4. MODERN ENGLISH SYNTAX

The **word order** of New English is SVO, with Verb-fronting in questions. Subjects are obligatory, except in the phenomenon of *topic-drop*, typical for e-mail and letters and demonstrated in (1). In topic-drop typically a first person pronoun is left out:

1) *Would like to see you soon.*

The number of auxiliaries, prepositions, and determiners has increased since the Early New English period.

Through grammaticalization, many new modal and future forms are introduced in the New English period. *Gonna* is used as a future auxiliary, even though the Old English Dictionary (OED) says it is "colloq. or vulgar pronunciation of *going to"*. The OED's first listing is 1913. M. Krug provides historical background and modern instances of *gonna, gotta, hafte,* and *wanna.* The OED's first use of *going to* as a future auxiliary is 1482, but *gonna* is not used until much later.

Currently, only *have* is used as a perfect auxiliary; however, *be* is still used as a present perfect auxiliary with motion verbs in the Early New English period, and this still occurs in the 19th century, as (2) shows:

2) *But before I **am** run away with by my feelings...*

Before 1800, it is also possible to say *I have seen it yesterday*, as it is in a number of other languages and varieties; later this changes and currently only *I saw it yesterday* is used.

The **progressive** use of *be* and *-ing* is introduced relatively late; sentences such as *as I say now* continue until 1800. Before that, grammars and dictionaries do not mention *be + ing* as a separate form. When the progressive appears, often a preposition *(on* reduced to *a-)* precedes the participle, as in (3):

3) *I think my wits are a **wool**-gathering.*

Progressives are also combined with other auxiliaries; for example, in (4) the progressive is combined with a passive. In earlier English, a progressive passive is expressed as in (5):

4) *The house was **being built**.*

5) *The house was **building**.*

The regular passive is constructed with the auxiliary *be*, as in (6), but a newer form using *get* also arises, as in (7):

6) *She **was hit** by a wave of familiarity.*

7) *Then he **got knocked** out.*

According to the OED, the get-passive is first used in 1652.

Analytic languages make use of grammatical words derived from lexical verbs or prepositions. We saw that *to* comes to mark the indirect object and also that a clause is non-finite. Another case of grammaticalization is the preposition *like* becoming a complementizer: it goes from introducing a noun to introducing a sentence:

8) *Winston tastes good **like** a good cigarette should.*

Consistent with this is the use of *like* to introduce quotes, as in (8). This is called a quotative.

Like (and *sort of, kind of,* and *all)* is also used to soften requests or to hedge something. These are then called discourse markers or mood markers, since they tell you a lot about the speaker's attitudes.

Relatives also undergo change in New English and, the preference of speakers for *that* over *who/whom/which* is expected in an analytic language. Relative pronouns show much variation throughout the history of English; the changes they undergo are stopped in two ways by language-external, prescriptive forces: these prescriptive forces dictate the choice of the relative and impose restriction on stranding prepositions.

In New English restrictive relatives are formed by using *that* or a wh-pronoun, as in (9); the relatively infrequent, non-restrictive relatives are formed by using a wh- pronoun, as in (10):

9) *The person **that/who** I met.*

10) *Jane Austen, **whose** sentences were used above, was a Modern English writer.*

The wh-pronoun shows case and is therefore more synthetic: *who, whose,* and *whom* are nominative, genitive, and accusative/dative, respectively. In New English, there is a strong tendency to use *that* (and *as*), rather than *wh*-pronouns, or to have no marker at all. This is so because the wh-pronoun shows case and the language learner does not have much evidence for assuming case distinctions are relevant in English.

The preference for *that* can be shown using a corpus of spoken English. Differences between spoken and written varieties always indicate that prescriptive rules are at work; such rules are typically followed only in the written, more formal variety. In the 2-million Corpus of Spoken Professional American English, or CSE, *that* is much more frequent than the wh-form.

In Early New English **punctuation** was seen to perform several functions. In New English, punctuation is used to indicate the main players in the sentence: subject, verb, and object. Many times, adverbs or relative clauses, if they are out of place or provide background information and are indicated by commas. In the (non-politically correct) (11), the difference in comma placement makes a difference in the meaning (the commas are left out, but experiment a little):

11) *Woman without her man is like a fish on a bicycle.*

General Characteristics of New English Syntax:
– word order is fixed and subjects are obligatory;
– auxiliaries such as *get* are introduced;
– multiple negation is used only in non-standard sentences;
– relatives show a preference for *that*;
– punctuation is grammatical.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY AND WORD-BUILDING

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2. Middle English Lexicon and Word-Building
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1. OLD ENGLISH LEXICON

1.1. CLASSIFICATION OF THE OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

It is impossible to say how many words there are in the language. The matter is new words appear in the language actually every day. Oxford Dictionary published in 1928 included about half a million words. But only in five years its compilers had to publish an amendment to the dictionary as the process of the creation of new word never stopped. In the spring of 1985 a new amendment was completed. It included the words which appeared in the English language in the second half of the 20th century. The total number of those newest English words exceeds 60,000.

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

The study of the lexicon of any language starts with its classification. The principles of classification may be different. But for the word-stock of the

Old English language it is expedient to use classification according to three principles: morphological, stylistic and etymological.

The morphological classification is based on the study of the structure of the word. From this point of view words are divided into **simple**, or non-derivative, words, which consist only of the root, **derivative** words, which have in their structure a morphological affix, and **compound** words, which contain two or more roots.

Thus, the words *fisc* 'fish', *mycel* 'big', *heafod* 'head' are simple ones. The word *fisc-ere* 'fisherman' is a derivative one: in its morphological structure there is a suffix with a meaning of the doer of action *-er(e)*. The word *mycel-heafd-ed-e* 'big-headed' is compound as two roots are connected in its structure.

The stylistic classification is based on the division of words into **stylistically neutral** and **stylistically marked**. Stylistically marked vocabulary includes learned words, words the use of which is limited by a definite sphere, for instance, church words or military terms, poetic words, etc. Thus, the words *mann* 'man', *dæʒ* 'day', *land* 'land', *faran* 'to travel', *seon* 'to see', *drincan* 'to drink', *sceort* 'short' are stylistically neutral.

The words *fers* 'verse', *circul* 'circle', *declinian* 'to decline' belong to the learned words (it may be noticed that all of them are borrowed words).

The words *biscop* 'bishop', *cleric* 'clergyman', *deofol* 'devil' belong to the church sphere. The poetic vocabulary is richly presented in the poem 'Beowulf', e. g.: *beado-rinc* 'hero-warrior', *helm-berend* 'bearing a helmet', *gleo-beam* 'tree of joy, harp' etc.

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

Examples of words belonging to different etymological groups:

Indo-European Words: *fæder* 'father', *modor* 'mother', *neowe* 'new', *sittan* 'to sit'.

Germanic Words: *eorthe* 'earth', *land* 'land', *earm* 'poor', *findan* 'to find'.

Specific English Words: *clipian* 'to call', *brid* 'nestling'.

Borrowed Words: *stræt* 'road', *weall* 'wall', *myln* 'mill', *biscop* 'bishop'.

1.2. INDO-EUROPEAN VOCABULARY IN THE OLD ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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

It is only natural that the words ascending to the same Indo-European root for an inexperienced person are not easy to identify. Compare, for example, the New English word *first* and Lithuanian *pirmas*, or English *sleep* and Russian *слабый*. The outward similarity of those words may be not very evident but still their relation is an established fact. To judge about the belonging of these or those words to the Indo-European vocabulary, one has to trace the history of the words taking into account all the changes that took place in different periods of the language evolution. To find the scientific grounds of the genetic relation of words linguists use the **comparative-historic method.** This method which was worked out in the 19th century is a reliable insurance against various errors that may happen for the simple reason that words in different languages have external similarity.

Several examples of words belonging to the Indo-European vocabulary in the Old English language are discussed below.

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

To the same category we can refer the word *modor*. In Latin its correspondence is the word *mater*, in Greek *meter*, in Sanskrit *mata* (the stem of the oblique cases is *matar-*). We can notice that the Russian word *мать* is closer to the phonetic structure of the corresponding words in other Indo-European languages in the forms of the oblique cases too: *матери, матерью*, etc.

The Old English adjective *ful* 'full' and the verb derived from the latter *fyllan* 'to fill' has relation with the Latin adjective *plenus*, Greek *pleos* and also with the Russian *полный* (here, like in case with the word *fæder*, we can observe the effect of Grimm's law).

The word *steorra* 'star' also belongs to the Indo-European vocabulary. In Latin its correspondence is *stella*, in Greek *aster*.

1.3. WORDS OF THE GERMANIC VOCABULARY AND SPECIFIC OLD ENGLISH WORDS

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

Common Germanic Vocabulary

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

Words belonging to the specific Old English vocabulary, i. e. words having no etymological parallels either in Germanic or in other Indo-European languages, are not numerous. As examples we may consider the verb *clipian* 'to call' which went out of use in the Middle English period and the noun *brid* 'nestling' from which the modern word *bird* developed. Thus, the word *wifman* 'woman' (*wimman* being the later form of it) was formed of the Germanic roots *wif* 'wife' and *mann*. The word *hlaford* 'lord', which developed into the contemporary *lord*, includes the Indo-European root *hlaf* 'bread' and the Germanic root ascending to the verb *weardan* 'to keep'. The word *hlæfdige* 'lady' has a similar origin. In its morphological structure we can distinguish the root *hlaf* mentioned above and acquiring the form *hlæf* as a result of umlaut and the Germanic verbal stem *dig(an)* 'to mix bread'. Besides the linguistic interest, which the origin of the words *lord* and *lady* presents, it is very interesting to consider the oldest social background which may be discovered in studying the etymology of those words.

1.4. BORROWED WORDS

The main source of borrowed word for the Old English language was Latin. The ways of English and Latin often crossed in various historic circumstances. For the Old English period three moments were sufficient. Firstly, the tribes of Angles, Saxons and Jutes had different relations with the Romans who spoke Latin before their invasion into Britain in the 5th century. Secondly, after they had conquered Britain, Angles, Saxons and Jutes communicated with the Celtic population who, as you are sure to remember, had been influenced by the Roman culture and the Latin language. Thirdly, since the end of the 6th century Britain has been a Christian country, and Latin was language of church and theology in Western Europe.

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

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

First of all those were names of objects of material culture and names of goods that the Germanic people bought from Romans on the Continent. From the Latin expression *strata via* 'cobbled road' the first element was borrowed, and the word *stræt* acquired the meaning 'road' (of any kind). We can notice that in New English the word *street* which developed from the Old English *stræt* has changed its meaning.

The Latin *vallum* 'fortress wall' gave birth to the Old English *weall* 'wall'. The Latin *coquina* 'kitchen' was borrowed in the Old English form *cycene* (with the same meaning). The Latin *molinum* 'mill' was transformed in Old English as *myln*.

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

Latin	Old English
vinum	*win* 'wine'
piper	*pipor* 'pepper'
ceresia	*cyrse* 'cherry'
sinapi	*senep* 'mustard'
caseus	*cyse* 'cheese'
caulis	*cawl* 'cabbage'

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

Latin	Old English
discus	*disc 'dish'*
uppa	*cuppe 'cup'*
catillus	*cytel 'pot, kettle'*
saccus	*sæc 'sack'*
cista	*ciste 'chest, box'*

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

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

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

Greek	Latin	O. E.
aggelos 'messenger'	*angelus* 'angel'	*angel* 'angel'
diabolos 'devil'	*diabolus* 'devil'	*deofol* 'devil'
episkopos 'bishop'	*episcopus* 'bishop'	*biscop* 'bishop'

A special group of borrowings includes the so called loan translations, or calques. Calques are words and word-combinations that preserve the structure of the original but the elements of which were translated into the Old English language. In this respect it is interesting to consider the Old English names of the days of the week. The Latin names of the days of the week were devoted to the Sun, the Moon or the gods of the Græco-Roman Olympus. The word consisted of the name of the god in the Genitive case and the word **dies** 'day'. In

the Old English language the same pattern was used, with the exclusion that the names of Roman gods were replaced by the names of god of the Germanic mythology, as can be seen in the table below:

Names of the Days of the Week

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

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

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

The modern adverb *down* is also of Celtic origin. The Old English word *dun* 'hill, dune' was borrowed from the Celtic language. The expression *of dune* had the meaning 'down the hill, downwards'. Later this expression developed into the contemporary adverb.

1.5. WORD-BUILDING

Derivative Words

In the Old English language two main means of word-building may be distinguished:

(1) affixation word-building, i. e. the formation of words from the roots existing in the language with help of suffixes and/or prefixes;

(2) formation of new words by merging two or more roots (stem-combination).

Words produced by the first means are called **derivative**. Words formed by the second means are called **compound**.

The main suffixes of nouns in the Old English language

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

The suffix **-dōm** was used in the structure of some nouns of abstract semantics denoting state, e. g.: *wisdōm* 'wisdom', *freodōm* 'freedom'.

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

The main suffixes of adjectives

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

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

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

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

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

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

The suffix **-full** denoted the completeness of the quality, e. g.: *synnfull* 'sinful' from the noun *synn* 'sin', *carfull* 'careful' from the noun *caru* 'care'.

The suffix -**leas** had negative meaning, e. g.: *slæpleas* 'sleepless'.

With the help of the suffix **-lic** it was possible to produce various adjectives from substantive stems, e. g.: *freondlic* 'friendly', *luflic* 'lovely'.

The suffix **-weard** denoted direction, e. g.: *hamweard* 'directed to or facing the house'.

The suffixes of verbs

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

The suffix **-sian** had causative meaning, e. g.: *clænsian* 'to clean' from the adjective *clæne* 'clean'.

The semantics of the suffix **-læcan** was vague. Here is an example with this suffix: *neālæcan* 'to approach' from the word *neāh* 'near'.

The suffix **-ettan** was used to denote the repeated character of the action, e. g.: *bliccettan* 'to sparkle', *sporettan* 'to spur', *cohhettan* 'to cough', *ceahhettan* 'to caw'.

The prefixes in the Old English language

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

The prefix **a-**, homonymous to the latter, was used with adverbial stems and had collective meaning, e. g.: *ahwær* 'everywhere' from the word *hwær* 'where'.

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

The prefix **ȝe-** denoted the collective character of the action *ȝefera* 'fellow traveller'.

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

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

The prefix **mis-** expressed negation, e. g.: *mislician* 'to dislike'.

The prefix **of-** intensified the meaning of the verb, e. g.: *ofslean* 'to murder' from the word *slean* 'to kill'.

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

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

The prefix **un-** expressed negation, e. g.: *uncūð* 'unknown'. The prefix **wan-** also had negative meaning, e. g.: *wanhal* 'unhealthy'.

Compound Words

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

1) **Noun stem + noun stem > noun.** For example, as a result of combination of the substantive stems *boc-* 'book' and *cræft* 'art' there appeared

the word *boc-cræft* 'literature'. The complex word *eorth-cræft* 'geography' has a similar structure, its first element *eorth-* having the meaning 'earth'. The word *gar-wiga* 'lance-carrier' is composed of the stems *gar-* 'lance' and *wiga* 'warrior'. Complex words of this type are numerous: *gimm-stan* 'precious stone', *guð-gewinn* 'competition of warriors', *guð-rinc* 'warrior', *guð-wine* 'companion', *heafod-mann* 'chief', *hyrn-wiga* 'warrior', *leoð-cræft* 'poetry'.

2) **Noun stem with a case inflection + noun stem > noun.** As the first component of the complex words of this type a case form of the noun (mainly the Genitive case singular or plural) was used. Thus, in the name of the city *birmingaham* 'Birmingham' (which literally means 'home of Birmings') the first element *birminga-* is the form of the Genitive case plural. In the word *dæʒes-eaʒe* 'daisy' the component *dæʒes-* is the form of the Genitive case singular of the noun *dæʒ* 'day'. So the literal meaning of the name of this flower is 'the eye of the day'.

3) **Noun stem + adjective stem > adjective.** Thus, the complex word *cild-ʒeonʒ* 'childish' consists of the substantive stem *cild-* 'child' and the adjective stem *ʒeonʒ* 'young'. In the word *dom-ʒeoru* 'ambitious' it is easy to differentiate the substantive element *dom-* 'dignity, honour' and the adjective element *ʒeoru* 'wishing, eager'. The word *ʒold-fah* 'shot with gold' consists of the stem *ʒold-* 'gold' and *fah* 'parti-colored'. Here are some examples that are clear enough: *ham-ʒyme* 'one who returned home', *is-ceald* 'ice-cold', *mod-cfeariʒ* 'sad'.

4) **Adjective stem + noun stem > noun.** As examples of the words produced in this pattern we can consider the nouns *cwic-seolfor* 'quicksilver, mercury', *ʒod-dæd* 'feat, deed' (literally: 'good doing'), *halig-dæʒ* 'holiday' (literally: 'holy day'). This group also includes such words as *neah-ʒebur* 'neighbour' (literally: 'living nearby') and *wid-sæ* 'open sea, ocean' (literally; 'wide sea').

5) **Adjective stem + noun stem > adjective.** Alongside with the nouns formed from adjective and substantive stems there were adjectives produced in the same pattern in Old English. Thus, from the stems *fami-* 'foamy' and *heals* 'neck' the complex adjective *fami-heals* 'foaming the waters' (literally: 'with foam around the neck') was produced. From the adjective stem *mild-* 'mild' and the substantive stem *heort* 'heart' the complex adjective *mild-heort* 'mild-hearted' was formed. As a result of connection of the stems *stið-* 'strong' and *mod* 'character' there appeared the word *stið-mod* 'brave'.

6) **Adjective stem + noun stem + suffix -ede > adjective.** This pattern is different from the ones described above as the connection of the adjective and substantive stems is produced with the help of the suffix -ede. The complex adjectives of this pattern are usually denoted by the Sanskrit term *bahuvrihi*. As an example of the *bahuvrihi* pattern we can consider the word *micel-heafdede*

'big-headed' in which the adjective stem *micel-* 'big' is connected with the substantive stem *heaf(o)d* 'head'. The word *an-hyrnede* 'one-horned' is formed in a similar way. We can notice that the bahuvrihi pattern exists in the New English language as well (cf. *big-headed, one-eyed,* etc.).

7) **Noun stem + participle stem > noun.** For example, the connection of the substantive stem of Latin origin *ceaster-* 'castle' and the participle *buend* 'living' the word *ceaster-buend* 'inhabitant of the castle' was formed. The complex word made of the substantive stem *flett-* 'home' and the participle *sittend – flett sittend –* had the meaning 'guest'. The word *gar-berend* had the meaning 'lance-carrier' (it was based on the stems *gar-*'lance' and *berend* 'carrying'. Similarly such words were produced as *lind-hæbbend* 'shield-carrier' and *sæ-lið* 'mariner' (literally: 'traveling on seas').

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

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

10) **Adjective stem + adjective stem > adjective.** Among the words of this pattern there are such adjectives as *wid-cuð* 'widely known' and *fela-modig* 'brave'.

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

Preposition + noun stem > adverb. Among the words of this pattern we can consider, for example, *onweʒ* 'away' based on the preposition *on* 'in' and the substantive stem *weʒ* 'way'; *to-eacan* 'in addition' based on the preposition *to* 'to' and the stem *eac* 'addition'.

2. MIDDLE ENGLISH LEXICON AND WORD-BUILDING

2.1. BORROWINGS

Words of the Scandinavian Origin
Scandinavian invasions had a great impact for the course of the English history and the development of the English language. Scandinavian raids into the territory of Britain started in the 8th century. By the second half of the 9th century the Scandinavians had conquered a considerable part of England to

the North of the Thames and according to the conditions of the Wedmore treaty of 878 that territory was passed to the invaders. The part of the country occupied by the Scandinavians acquired a special status and was called *Danelag* (the "Territory of the Danish Law). The treaty obliged the Scandinavians to recognize the sovereignty of the English king. But the peace between England and the Scandinavians was not stable. In the end of the 10th century the war resumed and at the beginning of the 11th century all England was conquered by the Scandinavians. England became a part of the vast Scandinavian Empire and was ruled by the Danish king Cnut (or Canut). The Scandinavian reign in England lasted up to 1042 when the restoration of the Anglo-Saxon dynasty took place in the country.

The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders were well understood by the inhabitants of England. The influence of the Scandinavian dialects, especially in the lexicon, was considerable already in the Old English period. It is natural that the lexical influence was stronger in the North of the country, in the "Territory of the Danish Law".

The fact that the English population and the Scandinavian invaders could understand each other comparatively easily is explained by the close relation of their languages: both English and Old Scandinavian belong to the same West Germanic subgroup of the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages. Besides, the English population and the invaders were approximately on the same level of social, economic and cultural development.

Many words in English and in Scandinavian had no distinctions above the structural phonetic and morphological characteristics of the two languages. Cf.:

OE *fisc* 'fish' – vs. – OScan *fiskr*

OE *sunu* 'son' – vs. – OScan *sunr*

The above mentioned close relation of Old English and Old Scandinavian caused the specific mechanism of the penetration of Scandinavian words into the English lexicon. There was *interaction* between English and Scandinavian dialect variants which were perceived *as regular variants of one and the same word.* As a result of this interaction in the language there appeared *a third variant* which combined the features of both the dialectal variants – English and Scandinavian.

The Scandinavian words borrowed by the English language on the verge of the Old English and Middle English periods were mainly words of everyday life. The Scandinavian borrowings enriched the Middle English lexicon with synonyms.

Thus, from the Old Scandinavian word *angr* 'grief' the Middle English *anger* 'grief; anger' was originated. The derivative adjective *angry* 'angry, irritated' came into use as a synonym of the original adjective *wrooth* 'angry, cross'.

The Scandinavian word *skye* 'sky' came into use alongside with original *heven* 'sky, heaven'. Later these synonyms developed as stylistically differentiated words.

The word *skile* 'skill' of the Scandinavian origin replaced a more bulky Old English word *orthanc* 'art, skill'.

The Scandinavian verb *taka* 'to take' was borrowed in the Middle English language in the form *taken* 'to take' and gradually replaced the original verb *niman* having the same meaning.

Among the Scandinavian borrowings there is such a word as *sister* 'sister'. This word was phonetically close to the original word with the same meaning. The Old English noun *sweostor* through the intermediate form *swustor* by the 14th century had passed into the form *suster*. But the form *suster* replaced by the Scandinavian form *syster* which later changed into *sister*.

Alongside with the frequent words of everyday use some military terms were borrowed from the Scandinavian language, e. g.: *fylcian* 'to form up the troops', *lith* 'fleet'. Later these words were replaced by French borrowings.

Other words that have come from the Scandinavian language are as follows: *lagu* 'law'; *wrang* 'injustice'; *husbonda* 'host'; *casten* 'to cast'; *callen* 'to call'; *feolaga* 'companion, fellow-traveller'; *egg* 'egg'; *fitten* 'to fit'; *fro* 'back'; *hap* 'chance, luck'; *hitten* 'to hit'; *leg* 'leg'; *low* 'low'; *meek* 'meek'; *scathe* 'harm, damage'; *swayn* 'boy, young man'; *til* 'before, till, until'; *thwert* 'across'; *want* 'need, want', etc.

It is remarkable that even the system of pronouns underwent the Scandinavian influence.

The Scandinavian form of the personal pronoun of the 3rd person plural **thei** or **they** (from the Scandinavian form **their**) replaced the original pronoun **hie**. From the Scandinavian form of the Genitive case **theirra** and the Dative case **theim** the Middle English forms **their** and **them** were produced.

According to V. Arakin's evaluation the Middle English lexicon was enriched by 650 words of the Scandinavian origin.

Words of the French Origin

After the Norman Conquest of 1066 the situation bilinguism, or *diglossy*, developed in England. Diglossy is the coexistence of two languages in any society or historic formation – from a primitive community to a national state.

The cause of the development of diglossy is quite understandable.

The Norman aristocracy was unable to exist under the conditions of complete linguistic isolation from the English speaking lower strata of the society. That is why a certain part of the population – officials, servants, tax collectors, etc. – had to know the two languages: French for the communication with the aristocracy and English for the communication with common people.

Thus, there appeared a large group of *bilingual* population in England, i. e. people who spoke two languages. It may be expected that it was in the speech of the *bilinguals* that the French words penetrated into English lexicon most intensively and were assimilated in the lexical system of the English language.

Alongside with English bilinguals who had to learn the language of the conquerors another group of people contributed the English language with the French elements – that were the Norman immigrants who learned the tongue of the conquered country and introduced elements of their native language into it.

The words that came into Middle English from the French language of the Norman conquerors are divided into two groups. The first group includes the words that denoted things and phenomena which were new for English. These were the words of abstract meaning and lexical elements expressing realia of medieval France. The second group includes the word which did not express new notions yet masses of such words entered the English language causing not only quantitative but also qualitative changes in its semantics and structure.

B. Ilyish distinguishes the following semantic classes of French borrowings in the Middle English language:

1) state, government and court;
2) army and military life;
3) notions or religion and church;
4) names of town trades;
5) notions from the field of art;
6) entertainment and feasts;
7) a great number of everyday word which are not connected with any particular semantic sphere.

The sphere **“*state, government and court*”** includes the following words:

prince 'prince' < OF prince
baron or baroun 'baron' < OF ber, baron
noble 'noble' < OF noble
royal 'royal' < OF royal
court 'court' < OF curt, cort
justice 'justice' < OF justice
coroune 'crown' < OF corone, coroune
countee 'county' < OF conte
duk 'duke' < OF duc
emperesse 'empress' < OF emperice

The sphere **“*army and military life*”** includes the following words:

werre 'war' < OF werre
army 'army' < OF arme
bataille 'battle' < OF bataille
array 'array' < OF arrai

chyvalerie 'chivalry' < OF chevalerie
conqueste 'conquest' < OE conqueste
degree 'rank' < OF degret
regiment 'regiment' < OF regiment
banner 'banner' < OF banner
siege 'siege' < OF siege

The sphere *"notions of religion and church"* includes such words as:

religion 'religion' < OF religioun
saint 'saint' < OF saint
frere 'monk' < OF fraire
preyen 'to pray' < OF preirer
sermon 'sermon' < OF sermon
conscience 'conscience' < OF conscience
cloistre 'cloister' < OF cloistre
chapel 'chapel' < OF chapel
pilgrimage 'pilgrimage' < OF pilgrimage

The sphere *"names of town trades"* includes the following words:

carpenter 'carpenter' < OF carpentier
bocher 'butcher' < OF bocher
tailor 'tailor' < OF tailour
peintre 'painter' < OF peintre

Among the *"notions of the field of art"* we can find the following words:

art 'art' < OF arte
colour 'colour' < OF colour
figure 'figure' < OF figure
image 'image' < OF image
column 'column' < OF colomn
ornament 'ornament' < OF ornament
fantasye 'fantasy' < OF fantasie
soun 'musical sound' < OF soun
sounen 'to sound' < OF suner
dauncen 'to dance' < OF dancer

The sphere *"entertainment and feasts"* includes the following:

apareil 'dress' < OF apareil
plesir 'pleasure' < OF plesir
leysir 'leisure' < OF leisir
ese 'satisfaction' < OF ese
feste 'feast' < OF feste
dinner 'dinner' < OF diner
soper 'supper' < OF soper
rosten 'to roast' < OF roster

daintee 'dainty' < OF dainte
corteis 'courteous, polite' < OF curteis
Among the words of **everyday life** there were such as:
face 'face' < OF face
gay 'gay, merry' < OF gai
hour 'hour' < OF heur
ink 'ink' < OF ink
letter 'letter' < OF letter
place 'place' < OF place
table 'table' < OF table
air 'air' < OF ær
river 'river' < OF riviere
chambre 'chamber' < OF chambre

The formation of a great number of synonyms occasionally caused excess in the lexical system of the Middle English language and there appeared a kind of competition among the synonyms.

In many instances a French word replaced the original (Old English) one. For example the word *mountain* replaced the Old English word *beorg* of the same meaning, the French word *paix* 'peace' replaced the original *frith*.

In other cases the French word failed to survive for this or that reason and after being used in English for some period gave up its place to the original English word. It happened so, for example, to the word *amity* 'friendship' which was replaced by the original *friendship* and the word *moiety* 'half' which finally lost in the competition with the original *halh*.

Of special interest are the instances when both the French and the original English words survived in the language. The condition for such coexistence is the semantic or stylistic differentiation of the synonyms. Thus, the meaning 'autumn' was expressed in Old English by the word *hærfest*. In the Middle English language the borrowed word *autumn* (from the Old French *automne*) began to compete with it. Finally the word *autumn* fixed its position in the English lexicon while the word *harvest* also survived due to the fact that it had acquired a new meaning – 'the time of the year when crops are gathered in'.

Alongside with the original verb *beginnen* 'to begin' in the Middle English language there was a verb of French origin of the same meaning *commencen*. The coexistence of these two verbs was possible due to their stylistic differentiation: *beginnen* fixed as a word of everyday use while *commencen* became a stylistically marked word mainly used in the official sphere.

Borrowings from the Old French language had one more important consequence for the further development of English. They stimulated conversion in the English language. The matter is many parallel borrowings from the same stem took place which joined different paradigms in the system of the English

language and thus formed pairs of words characterized by the relations of conversion. E. g.:

honour 'honour' // honouren 'to honour' < OF honur

labour 'labour' // labouren 'to labour' < OF labour

note 'note' // noten 'to make a note' < OF note

poison 'poison' // poisonen 'to poison' < OF poison

2.2. DEVELOPMENT OF ORIGINAL WORDS

Alongside with the active process of borrowing foreign words in the structure of the Middle English language changes connected with the semantic development of the original lexicon took place.

The directions of the development of the original words were different. Some words considerably changed their meaning, the semantic structure of others became broader or – vice versa – narrower.

For instance, the word **cniht** in the Old English language had the meaning 'boy, servant, young warrior'. In the Middle English language a new meaning developed – 'man given the rank of knighthood by the British monarch in recognition of merit'.

The Old English verb **sellan** had the meaning 'to hand in, to give'. In Middle English the verb **sellen** acquired the meaning 'to sell' and lost old meanings.

The Old English word **gebed** 'prayer' went out of use as its meaning was expressed by the borrowed word **preire**. The trace of the word is seen in the word **beads** as running one's fingers over the beads was connected with prayer.

The narrowing of semantics is seen in the words **kyn, seek, quene**.

The Old English **cyn** had the meanings 'sort, kind; tribe, people; family, kinship, generation'. The meaning of the Middle English **kyn** was narrowed to 'kin, kinship, family, relation'.

The Old English **seoc** had the meaning 'unhealthy; weak'. In the Middle English **seek** only the meaning 'unhealthy' remained.

The Old English **cwene** had the meanings 'woman; wife'. The meaning of the Middle English **quene** was reduced to 'queen' (i. e. 'king's wife').

In the Middle English words **fast** (from OE **fæst**), **mood** (from OE **mod**), **rede** (from OE **ræde**) the meanings were broadened.

The Old English **fæst** meant 'firm, strong'. A new meaning which the word acquired in Middle English was 'fast, speedy'.

The Old English **mod** had a number of meanings: 'wit, spirit, character, mood; courage; pride'. In the semantic structure of the Middle English **mood** there appears a new meaning – 'anger'.

The Old English **ræde** had a narrow meaning 'prepared for riding'. The Middle English **rede** acquired the meaning 'ready' (in broad sense).

2.3. WORD-BUILDING. DERIVATIVE AND COMPLEX WORDS

In the Middle English language, like in Old English, two main means of word-building may be distinguished:

1) affixation, i. e. the formation of words from the roots existing in the language with the help of suffixes and/or prefixes;

2) stem-composition, i. e. the formation of new words by means of combination of two or more roots.

Many suffixes with the help of which noun in Old English were formed disappeared. Yet a number of old suffixes survived in the Middle English language; they remained productive and as a rule became polysemantic. This group includes first of all the suffixes **-er, -ing, -ness**.

By the end of the Middle English period a considerable increase of suffixes of French and Latin origin had taken place. In the course of further development of the English language borrowed word-building elements grew very widespread and more numerous than the original ones.

The suffixes borrowed from French are as follows: **-age, -ance, -ence, -ard, -ee, -ess, -et, -ty, -ity, -tion, -ation, -ment**.

The suffixes borrowed from Latin are: **-ism, -ist**.

In the Middle English language the suffixes produced from the nominal stems (**-dom, -hood, -ship**) were completely fixed as word-building morphemes.

Of the adjective-forming suffixes of the Old English origin **-ish, -y, -ed** remain *productive*. They enlarge their semantics and combinability with types of stems with which they could not be combined in the Old English language.

The adjective-forming suffixes **-able, -ible, -ous** were borrowed from French.

The suffixes **-ful, -less, -ly** produced from the adjective stems are finally fixed as word-building morphemes.

Important changes took place in the class of adverbs. In the Middle English language the word-building patterns with the suffixes **-inge, -inga, -e** disappeared. By the end of the Middle English period the suffix **-ly** had become the most productive adverb-forming suffix.

The number of verb-forming suffixes also enlarged. The suffixes **-ish, -ize** were borrowed from French, **-ify** from Latin.

Most Frequently Used Suffixes of the Middle English Language

Suffix	Origin	Examples	Suffix	Origin	Examples
-able	Old French	*beleevable* 'believable'	**-hod, -hode**	Old English	*knighthode* 'knighthood'
-acie	Old French	*conspiracie* 'conspiracy'	**-i, -y**	Old English	*hungri* 'hungry'

-age	Old French	*baronage* 'barony'	**-ing**	Old English	*meting, meeting* 'meeting'
-al, -aile	Old French	*arrival, arrivaile* 'arrival'	**-ish, -isch**	Old English	*childish* 'childish'
-al	Latin	*misikal* 'musical'	**-ite, -itee**	Old French	*Abilitee* 'ability'
-ance, -aunce	Old French	*accordance* 'accordance'	**-les, -less**	Old English	*endeless* 'endless'
-acioun, -ation	Old French	*creacioun* 'creation'	**-ling**	Old English	*nestling* 'nestling'
-dom	Old English	*kingdom* 'kingdom'	**-li, -ly**	Old English	*manli* 'manly'
-ed	Old English	*Forked* 'forked'	**-ment**	Old French	*jugement* 'judgement'
-en	Old English	*stonen* 'stone'	**-nesse**	Old English	*bitternesse* 'bitterness'
-end	Old English	*demend* 'judge'	**-ous, -us**	Old French	*famous, famus* 'famous'
-er, -ere	Old English	*baker, bakere* 'baker'	**-schipe, -shipe**	Old English	*hardschipe* 'hardship'
-erie, -rie	Old French	*husbondrie* 'husbandry'	**-som, -sum**	Old English	*frendsom* 'friendly'
-ess, -esse	Old French	*frendesse* 'girl-friend'	**-ward**	Old English	*bacward* backward

The use of prefixes in word-building in the Middle English languages considerably decreased. Only the prefixes **be-, mis-, un-** remain productive being mainly combined with verb stems. Beginning with 14th century a great number of French prefixes were borrowed in English. Those were: **de-, dis-, en-, em-, in-, im-, non-, re-**.

Most Frequently Used Prefixes of the Middle English Language

Prefix	*Origin*	*Examples*	*Prefix*	*Origin*	*Examples*
a-	Old English	*aforthen* 'to introduce'	**in-, im-**	Old French	*inconstant* 'inconstant'
bi-, be-	Old English	*biliggen* 'to besiege'	**i-**	Old English	*icumen* 'to come'
de-	Old French	*depriven* 'to deprive'	**mis-**	Old English	*miswune* 'bad habit'

dis-, des-	Old French	*disarmen, desarmen* 'to disarm'	**of-**	Old English	*ofsitten* 'to besiege'
ed-	Old English	*edwit* 'admonition'	**re-**	Old French	*replien* 'to reply'
en-, em-	Old French	*enprisonen, emprisonen* 'to captivate'	**sub-**	Latin	*submitten* 'to submit'
for-	Old English	*fordemen* 'to condemn'	**un-**	Old English	*unmovable* 'unmovable'
fore-	Old English	*forefader* 'ancestor'			

The main types of complex words could be produced in the Middle English language according to the following patterns:

1) *noun stem + noun stem > noun*, e. g.: *handax* 'hand ax', *deth-dai* 'the day of death';

2) *verb stem + suffix -ing + noun stem > noun*, e. g.: *burying-place* 'burial ground', *fasting-dai* 'fasting day';

3) *noun stem + verb stem + suffix -er > noun*, e. g.: *housholdere* 'householder', *land-holder* 'landowner';

4) *adjective stem + noun stem > noun*, e. g.: *courtmantle* 'short cloak';

5) *verb stem + adverb stem > noun*, e. g.: *go-ahed* 'movement forward', *set-back* 'retreat', *sit-in* 'sitting';

6) *verb stem + noun stem > noun*, e. g.: *pickepurse* 'pickpocket', *hangeman* 'hangman';

7) *adverb stem + verb stem > noun*, e. g.: *downfall* 'downfall', *outbrek* 'outbreak';

8) *adjective stem + adjective stem > adjective*, e. g.: *redhot* 'red hot', *wordly-wise* 'very wise';

9) *noun stem + adjective stem > adjective*, e. g.: *blodred* 'blood red', *colblak* 'coal-black';

10) *noun stem + participle stem > adjective*, e. g.: *hert-broken* 'heart-broken', *hert-rendering* 'captivating';

11) *adjective stem + participle stem > adjective*, e. g.: *clean-shaven* 'cleanly shaven', *still-born* 'still-born';

12) *adjective stem + noun stem + suffix -ed > adjective*, e. g.: *blue-eyed* 'blue-eyed', *yellow-faced* 'yellow-faced';

13) *adverb stem + adverb stem > adverb*, e. g.: *here-hence* 'from here', *southeast* 'south-east';

14) *adverb stem + preposition stem > adverb*, e. g.: *hereunto* 'from here', *whereof* 'whereof';

15) *preposition stem + noun stem > adverb*, e. g.: *inside* 'inside', *outside* 'outside', *overhead* 'overhead';

16) *numeral stem + noun stem > noun*, e. g.: *fiflef* 'five-leaves'.

The weakening of the morphological system of the Middle English language caused the development of such a way of word-building as *conversion.* In case of conversion one and the same stem is used in the paradigms of different parts of speech. In the mechanism of conversion predominantly verb and noun stems are used.

3. ENRICHMENT OF LEXICON
IN THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

There are three ways of enriching the lexicon of the language:
– new words can be invented,
– they can be borrowed from another language,
– they can be formed by those morphological processes which happen to be active within a speech community at any particular time.

In the New English language it is composition and derivation that have found further intensive development.

New words which have been produced by means of **affixation** are quite numerous. For example, the prefix *inter-* which entered the English language in a number of Latin words, like *interconfessional, intercontinental, interdenominational,* etc., gained ''independence' and is today easily combined with other stems forming hybrid word like *intercounty, interstate, interfamily, intergroup, interfaith* and others.

An active English prefix today is *mini-*. Historically it appeared as an abbreviation of the Italian word *miniature*. It is found in the words *mini-bus, mini-cab, mini-car, mini-cam, mini-budget* and, of course, *mini-skirt.* The popularity of the latter word brought to life other derivatives which were constructed in the same way: *maxi-skirts* and *midi-skirts.*

A very active means of enrichment of the New English vocabulary is **abbreviation**. There are two kinds of abbreviations: *alphabetisms* and *acronyms.* If an initial-letter series, like CBW (chemical and biological warfare) and FBI (Federal Bureau of Investigation), is unpronounceable, we call it an *alphabetism.* If, like ANZAC (the Australian and New Zealand Army Corps) and NATO (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), the series is pronounceable, we call it an *acronym.* Abbreviations in writing and other forms of recorded speech are as old as language itself. They have always proved useful as time and space savers. To communicate efficiently, to make the other person understand

perfectly, you need not 'tell all'. Abbreviations began with Sumerian, the first recorded language on earth. The Romans wrote AUC for *Anno urbis conditæ*, counting time from the foundation of their city in the year 753 before the birth of Christ. They wrote SPQR for *Senatus populusque Romanus* 'Roman senate and people', therein expressing their democratic conception of the State. At the end of a friendly letter they put SVBEEV *Si vales, bene est, ego valeo* which might be loosely paraphrased 'I'm quite well, and I do so hope that you are too'. The use of abbreviations seems to be common nowadays in different languages to briefly denote various institutions.

An interesting way of forming new word in English is **back-formation**, or **negative derivation**. Thus the noun *editor* was borrowed from French in the 17th century. But only in the 18th century the verb *to edit* was produced by means of back-formation. Many people speaking English may be unaware of the fact that the noun *greed* was produced from the adjective *greedy*, and the adjective *difficult* from the noun *difficulty*. In the following examples you will find some verbs which were produced by back-formation from other parts of speech.

Verb	Backformed from
to hawk	*hawker*
to partake	*part taker*
to grovel	*grovelling*
to locate	*location*
to donate	*donation*
to reminisce	*reminiscence*
to housekeep	*housekeeper*
to orate	*oration*
to diagnose	*diagnosis*
to burgle	*burglar*
to liaise	*liaison*
to sculpt	*sculptor*
to bulldoze	*bulldozer*
to televise	*television*
to escalate	*escalation*

Borrowings from French

The French language has been an important source for the enrichment of the vocabulary of the New English period.

In the 15th century such words were borrowed from French as *adverb, aid, axiom, blond, bracelet, brave, category, chronic, coronet, crew*, etc.

The grammatical term *adverb* from French *adverbe* (or *averbe*) ascends to Latin *adverbum* which in its turn is a rendering of Greek *epirhema* (where *epi-* denotes 'addition' and *-rhema* 'word').

The word *bracelet* and *coronet* were used in French as diminutive form *bracel* 'ornamental ring for arm' and *corone* 'crown'. The suffix *-et* grew so active in English later that in the 16th century there appeared such diminutive forms as *hillet* 'small hill' and *smilet* 'little smile'. The word *coronet* is used in Shakespeare's *King Lear*.

Among the French borrowings of the 16th century we see such words as *absurd, apology, apron, arsenal, artist, atom, calibre, camp, cash,* etc.

The word *apron* appeared as a result of misdivision of noun *napron* (from French *naperon*) and the indefinite article: *a napron > an apron.*

Words that were borrowed from French were not necessarily original French words: very often they might be loan-words in French itself. Such, for instance, was *atom* that originally was a Greek word. Its way to English was rather long: Greek *atomos* >Latin *atomus* > French *atome* > English *atom.*

The 17th century was characterized by further considerable growth of the English vocabulary due to borrowing of words from various languages, French among them. These were: *acid, adapt, archives, attitude, ballet, belle, belles-lettre, bouquet, brigade, brilliant, buffet, cadet, caprice, chateau, intrigue, trait, trousseau,* etc.

While the French borrowings of the 15–16th centuries were fully assimilated, i. e. acquired all the phonetic features of the English language, the 17th century loan-words often keep the peculiarities of French pronunciation; thus in words *ballet, bouquet, buffet, trait* the final **t** is not pronounced; in the words *bouquet, brigade, buffet, cadet, caprice, intrigue* the stress remains on the last syllable; the letter combination **eau** is read as **[ou]**.

In the 18th century such words were borrowed from French as *arcade, bateau, beau, boudoir, colibri, colonnade, connoisseur, debouch.*

The 19th century enriched the English vocabulary with *acrobat, æroplane, altruism, ambulance, aviation, baccara, baroque, blouse, cinematograph* and other words.

French borrowings were so numerous that in some cases there appeared homonyms. Thus the word *auto* which came from French in the 18th century was short for *auto-da-fe* (originally Portuguese), while the word *auto* borrowed in the 19th century was short for *automobile.*

In the 20th century such words came from the French language as *chauffeur, gaga, detente.*

Borrowings from Latin

Latin, though a "dead" language, also remained an important source for the enrichment of the New English lexicon.

In the 15th century such words as *accidence, athlete* and *concave* were borrowed from Latin.

The noun *accidence* 'part of grammar dealing with inflections (morphology)' comes from Latin *accidentia*, which is the translation of the Greek *parepomeia* 'accompanying things'.

A single use of the word *athlete* was registered in the 15th century; it was only in the 18th century that the word began to be used frequently. This word also takes root in Greek: English *athlete* < Latin *athleta* < Greek *athletes.*

The adjective *concave* 'hollow' was formed from Latin *concavus*. This word and the adjective *convex* which appeared in English later formed a pair of antonyms.

In the 16th century such words came from the Latin language as *abdicate, abbreviate, aggravate, alleviate, adult, Anno Domini, circus, configuration, contrast* and others.

The verbs ending in **-ate** were derived from the Latin form of the past participle of the verbs of the 1st conjugation: *abbreviare, aggravare*, etc.

While many Latin words underwent assimilation – acquired the form characteristic for English words – the expression *Anno Domini* 'in the year of the Lord' keeps its original form and in writing is used as *AD*.

The word *configuration* (of Latin *configuratio*) in the 16th century was used as an astronomic term denoting relative position of planets and only in the 17th century acquired the meaning 'conformation, outline'.

In the 17th century *accident, adequate, adjutant, affusion, agenda, agriculture, album, anecdote, antenna, appreciate, arena, arrogant, evident, incident* came into English.

The adjectives ending in **-ant/-ent**, like *arrogant, evident*, and also nouns having these endings, like *accident, adjutant, incident*, were derived from the Latin present participle of the verbs of the 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th conjugation.

The word *agriculture* 'cultivation of the soil' comes from Latin *agriculture* 'tillage of the land'.

The word *album* 'blank book for the insertion of collected items' comes from Latin *album* 'white tablet on which records or notices were inscribed, register, list'.

In the 18th century such words as *alibi* and *congress* were borrowed from Latin.

Alibi 'plea of having been elsewhere' appeared as a legal term from Latin *alibi* (*alius* 'other' + *ibi* 'there').

Congress (from Latin *congressus < congredi* 'go together, meet') was used to name the legislative body of the United States.

The Latin borrowings of the 19th century were restricted by scientific, often biological or medical, terms, e. g.: *agamous* 'non-sexual', *amoeba* 'microscopic animalcule of the class Protozoa', *aphasia* 'loss of speech', *bacillus* 'rod-shaped vegetable organism', etc.

An example of a word based on Latin which was introduced in the 20th century is the word *insulin* (from Latin *insula* 'island') which denotes a medicine for diabetes extracted from the islands of Langerhans in the pancreas of animals. The word came into use in 1921.

An interesting phenomenon of the New English lexicon is the appearance of the *Latin-French etymological doublets*. In short it is described in the following way: when a word was borrowed from Latin, it would occasionally happen that the same word had been earlier, in the 13th or 14th century, borrowed from French, often with a different meaning. In such cases pairs of doublets would appear in English.

Some examples of French-Latin Etymological Doublets

Latin Words	Old French Words	English from Old French	English from Latin
factum	fait	feat	fact
fragilum	fraile	frail	fragile
securum	seure	sure	secure
traditio	traison	treason	tradition
defectum	defait	defeat	defect
maior	maire	mayor	major
radius	rai	ray	radius
abbreviare	abreger	abridge	abbreviate
allocare	allouer	allow	allocate
appretiare	apreiser	appraise	appreciate
balsamum	basme	balm	balsam
collocare	coucher	couch	collocate

Borrowings from Greek

A great number of Greek words came into the English language not directly but through Latin, French and occasionally other languages. Nevertheless some words may be regarded as immediate Greek borrowings.

In the end of the 15th century there appeared in English such words of Greek origin as *enema, eunuch, hermaphrodite, paradigm*, etc. *Enema* 'injection' was taken from Greek *enema < eniemai* (from *en-* 'in' + *hienai* 'send'). *Eunuch* 'castrated male person' originates from the Greek noun

eunoukhos (from *eune* 'bed' + *ekhein* 'keep'; thus etymologically the meaning of the word was 'bedchamber guard'). *Hermaphrodite* 'human being or animal combining characteristics of both sexes' comes from the Greek name *Hermaphroditos*; that was the name of the mythical son of *Hermes* and *Aphrodite*, who grew together with the nymph *Salmacis* while bathing in her fountain and so combined male and female characters.

Paradigm is known as a linguistic term denoting a set of morphological (or other) forms. It comes from the Greek noun *paradeigma* 'example' (from *para-* 'by the side of' + *deiknunai* 'show').

The Greek borrowings of the 16th century were numerous. Among them we might mention such words as *abracadabra, aorist, ephemeral, epic, epicedium, epigram, epithet, exarch, exotic, geography* and others.

Abracadabra is a peculiar word which seems to be international nowadays. It is a cabalistic word supposed, when written in the form of triangle and worn, to cure argues, etc. In everyday use it means just 'rubbish'.

The adjective *ephemeral* 'existing only for a day or very short time' (from the Greek word *ephemeros* < *epi* + *hemera* 'day') was originally said of a fever but later its meaning was grew broader.

Exarch is a historic term denoting governor of a province under the Byzantine emperors and, later, metropolitan in the Eastern Church. It comes from *exarkhos* 'leader, chief'.

In the 17th century such word were borrowed from the Greek language as *autonomy, cyclopædia, eparch, epiphany, episode, hypnotic, litotes, oxymoron,* etc.

Autonomy 'right of self-government' was formed from the Greek word *autonomia* (from *autos* 'self' + *nomos* 'law'). It is noticeable that the corresponding adjective *autonomous* came into use only in the 19th century.

Cyclopædia (clipped form of *encyclopædia*) originally meant 'circle of learning'.

Eparch (from *eparkhos*) originally denoted governor of the province but late was reestablished as an ecclesiastic term (metropolitan). Another ecclesiastic word was *epiphany* 'manifestation of a supernatural being'(from *epiphania* < *epiphainein* 'manifest').

In the 18th century the English language was enriched by such Greek words as *eczema* and *graphite.*

Further penetration of the Greek element into English in the 19th century was specific. Greek roots were used to build up new terms and to express new notions. Among the Greek borrowings of the 19th century we can see the following words: *accordion* 'musical instrument having bellows', *baritone* 'voice between tenor and bass', *ecology* 'branch of biology dealing with environment', *epistemology* 'theory of the method of knowledge', *ethnic* 'pertaining to race, ethnological', *eugenics* 'science of fine offspring

production', *hedonism* 'doctrine that pleasure is chief good', *macron* 'mark of length placed over a vowel', *marathon* 'a race of abnormal length'. Even the word *helicopter* (from Greek *helixikos* 'screw' + *pteron* 'wing') appeared as early as in the 19th century.

In the 20th century a number of scientific terms based on the Greek element were introduced into English; they mainly belong to the so called international words, e. g.: *allergy, ionosphere, isotope, pediatrician,* etc.

Borrowings from Italian

It has been emphasized by many linguists that word of Italian origin in English mainly belong to the sphere of arts (*finale, fresco, violin, cornice, umbrella, balcony, grotto*), though occasionally we words from other fields were borrowed from Italian.

Thus in the end of the 15th century the noun *cauliflower* 'variety of cabbage, the inflorescence of which forms a white head' came into use in English. This word is a remake of the Italian *cavolflore* (of the same meaning).

In the 16th century Italian enriched the English language with the words *bankrupt, carnival* and *zebra.*

The word *bankrupt* originates from the Italian expression *banca rotta* 'bench or table broken', which was a symbol of a money-changer's insolvency. Later this form in English was influenced by the French *banqueroute*, and further by the Latin *ruptus* 'broken'. The derivative *bankruptcy* appeared in English about 1700.

The word *carnival* originally denoted the festivities in Catholic countries just before Lent (Mardi Gras) and mid-Lent (mi-Careme); now it denotes any public festivity, usually with processions, dancing and sideshows. It originates from the Italian *carnevale* or *carnovale.*

Zebra 'South African equine quadruped', borrowed from Italian (or perhaps Portuguese), originally comes from the Congolese language. In the 20th century the word *zebra* acquired a very specific meaning in the expression *zebra crossing*: a broad band of alternative black and white stripes painted across the road, indicating that pedestrians have absolute priority over drivers.

Among the borrowings of the 17th century such words should be mentioned as *balcony, broccoli, contadino, gambado, gazette, gusto, penseroso.*

Broccoli 'kind of cauliflower' in Italian is the plural form of *broccolo* 'cabbage head', which, in its turn, is a diminutive form of *brocco* 'shoot'.

Contadino 'Italian peasant' is a kind of exotic word in English. It originates from the Italian noun *contado* 'county'.

In the 18th century the Italian language enriched English with such words as *ballerina* 'female ballet-dancer', *cicerone* 'guide explaining antiquities',

condottiere 'leader of mercenaries', *influenza* 'infectious febrile disorder', *libretto* 'words of an opera', *zecchin* 'gold coin' and others.

In the 19th century English borrowed Italian words *legato* 'smooth and connected (musical term) and *confetti* 'small sweets used as missiles at a carnival, or small disks of paper used so at weddings'.

Borrowings from Spanish

In the 16th century such words were borrowed from the Spanish language as *bastinado, batata, potato, breeze, cacique, escalade, hammock, hurricane, iguana, Negro, renegade,* etc.

Bastinado denoted a kind of corporal punishment, beating with a stick (especially on the soles of the feet. It comes from the Spanish word *bastonada* derived from *baston* 'stick'.

Potato and *batata* are twin words of the same origin, the former denoting a plant widely cultivated for food, the latter the so called Spanish sweet potato. Originally the Spanish word *patata* (or *batata*) was used only in the second meaning. The transference of sense took place due to the likeness of the two plants.

The word *breeze* (from Spanish *briza, brisa*) originally denoted north or north-west wind. Now the meaning of this word is 'light wind'. It is noticeable that in modern English the noun *breeze* of Spanish origin has two homonyms (though not so frequent in use): *breeze* 'gad-fly' (of Old English origin) and *breeze* 'small cinders' (of French origin).

The noun *cacique* 'chief in West Indies' comes from the Spanish *cacique* or *cazique* (of Carib origin).

Other words of Carib origin which came into English through Spanish are *hammock* 'hanging bed suspended by cords', *hurricane* 'violent wind-storm of the West Indies', and *iguana* 'large arboreal lizard'.

The word *Negro* 'black man, blackamoor' comes from Spanish *negro* 'black'. It was used to denote black Americans but now has gone out of use as "politically incorrect".

Renegade (from Spanish *renegado*) in the 16th century had the meaning 'apostate' (in the religious sense; since the 17th century it denotes any deserter of a cause, etc.

Among the Spanish borrowings of the 17th century such words may be mentioned as *cargo* 'ship-load', *chicha* 'fermented liquor of South America' (American Spanish), *gallinazo* 'American vulture', *malaga* 'white wine exported from *Malaga*, a seaport in the South of Spain'.

In the 18th century the word *cocoa* came into English which denoted seed of a tropical American tree, powder produced by grinding the seed, and beverage made from this. The form *cocoa* replaced an older form *cacao* which had existed in English since the 16th century.

In the 19th century Spanish enriched the English language with *bronco* 'half-tamed horse' (used in California and New Mexico), *caballero* 'Spanish gentleman', *guano* 'natural manure found on islands about Peru', *guerilla*, usually used in the word-combination *guerilla war* which denotes irregular war waged by small bodies acting independently.

An important borrowing of the 20th century is *cafeteria* 'restaurant in which customers fetch what they want from the counters'.

Borrowings from Arab

Arab borrowings in English are not sufficiently enough described in literature on the history of the English language. Nevertheless it is difficult to imagine today's lexicon of English without words that have come from Arab.

Arab borrowings seem to have appeared in English not before the 16th century. Among the earliest words of Arab origin in English the following may be mentioned: *cadi* (or *kazi*), *Caffre* (or *Caffer*), *cafila, kabaya, kantar, kaimakam, kali,* etc. All these words appear as exotic, marked by certain oriental flavour, denoting various realia of the East.

In the 17th century the following Arab borrowings were added: *cabob, abuna, hadji, jinn, khilat, harem, Moslem, khamsin,* etc.

Cabob 'Oriental meat-dish' comes from the Arab *kabab.*

Hadji 'pilgrim to the tomb of Mohammed' comes from the Arab *hadji* 'pilgrim'. It is added to the name of the person who has undertaken this pilgrimage (cf.: *Hadji-Mourat*).

The word *jinn* in Mohammedan demonology denotes one of an order of spirits. It comes from the Arab *jinn* (the plural form of *jinni*). In the 19th century the form *jinnee* came into use.

Khilat 'dress of honour presented by a king' comes from the Arab *khil'at* 'reward'.

Harem 'women's part of a Mohammedan dwelling-house, or its occupants' originates from the Arab *haram* 'that which is prohibited'.

Moslem (also *Muslim*) 'Mohammedan' comes from the Arab *muslim.*

Khamsin 'hot wind in Egypt lasting about 50 days' comes from the Arab *khamsin* (or *khamsun*) 'fifty'.

In the 18th century English acquired such Arab words as *koran* and *khalifa.*

Koran 'sacred book of Islam' comes from the Arab *quran* 'recitation'.

Khalifa (also *caliph, calif, khalif*) 'Mahommedan chief ruler' comes from the Arab *khalifa.* The word is believed to have penetrated into Europe as a result of the Crusades.

The Arab borrowings of the 19th century are as follows: *aba* (or *abba*), *Islam, kanoon, Mecca, Kaffir, kavass, kef, keffiyeh, kourbash, Kabyle,* etc.

Islam 'Mohammedanism' originates from the Arab *islam* (from *aslama* 'he resigned himself').

Kanoon 'species of dulcimer, harp' comes from the Arab *qanun*.

Mecca is the name of Mohammed's birth-place, which is a place of Muslim pilgrimage (from Arab *Makka*). Nowadays this word is broadly used in figurative meaning (e. g.: *tourists' Mecca* about any place often visited by tourists).

Kef (also *keif, kief*) 'drowsiness, dreamy intoxication, enjoyment of idleness' comes from Arab *kaif, kef* 'well-being, enjoyment (compared in Russian: *кайф, кейф, кайфовать*).

Borrowings from German

In the 16th century the following words were borrowed from German: *ballast, kaiser, clown, Pole, prattle, slag, tram.*

Ballast 'material placed in a ship's hold to give stability' comes from Low German. Today it is an international word used both as a term and metaphorically (compare *балласт*in Russian).

Kaiser 'emperor' originates from the German word *Kaiser*, which is an adoption of Latin *Cæsar* through Greek *kaisar*. The alliterative formula *king and (or) kaiser* was common in the 16-17th centuries.

Clown 'rustic, ill-bred man; fool or buffoon, especially on the stage' comes from the Low German word *kloun* 'clumsy fellow'. The figure of a clown is quite common in Shakespeare's plays.

Pole (from the German word *Pole*) in the 16th century was the name of the country Poland. In the 17th century its meaning changed: it denoted a native of this country. The adjective *Polish* appeared in the 18th century.

The verb *to prattle* 'talk childishly or artlessly' comes from the Middle Low German *pratelen*, which was a derivative of the earlier *praten* (see above). The noun *prattle* has the meaning 'childish chatter, small talk'.

Tram 'shaft of a barrow or cart' (in coal-mining) comes from the Middle Low German word *trame* 'balk, beam, rung of a ladder'.

In the 18th century such German borrowings as *pietism* and *proviant* were added to the English lexicon.

Pietism (movement for the revival of devotion to religious duties in the Lutheran communion) originates from the German *pietismus*, which in its turn is of Latin origin.

Proviant 'provision, commissariat' (from German *Proviant*) was introduced by soldiers who served in the Thirty Years War in 1618–1648.

The borrowings of the 18th century are *waltz, pitchblende, post.*

Waltz 'dance performed to music in triple time' originates from German *walzer.*

Pitchblende 'native oxide of uranium' come from German *pechblende.*

Post, another very special word, denotes a pile of hand-made paper fresh from the mould. It comes from the German word *posten* 'parcel, batch, lot'.

Among the borrowings of the 19th century there such words as *ablaut, umlaut, kindergarten, plankton, polka, poltergeist.*

Ablaut 'vowel-gradation' and *umlaut* 'change in the sound of a vowel due to partial assimilation to an adjacent sound' are philological terms which were introduced in German by Jacob Grimm and later borrowed in English.

Kindergarten originally denoted the school for the instruction of young children according to Froebel's method. It originates from the German words *kind* 'child' + *garten* 'garden'.

Plankton 'floating or drifting organic life', now an international word, comes from the German *plankton* which takes roots in Greek.

Polka 'lively dance of Bohemian origin' which came to English from German ascends to the Czech *pulka* 'half-step'.

Poltergeist 'noisy mischievous ghost' originates from the German words *poltern* 'make a noise, create a disturbance' + *geist* 'ghost'.

Borrowings from Russian

Contacts between England and Russia began in the 16th century and probably at that time first words from Russian were borrowed in the English language. Anyway, in the 16th century such words appeared in English as *Cossack* (from казак), *czar* (from царь), *telega* (from телега), *kvass* (from квас), *shuba* (from шуба).

In the 17th century to the list of Russian borrowings *steppe* (from степь) was added.

The Russian borrowings of the 18th century are as follows: *astrakhan* 'skin of young lambs from Astrakhan in Russia, with wool like fur', *balalaika* 'triangular guitar-like musical instrument, popular in Slav countries', *knout* (from кнут), *mammoth* 'large extinct elephant' (from мамонт), *beluga* 1. 'great sturgeon', 2. 'white whale' (from белуга), *ukase* (from указ).

In the 19th century the following Russian words entered the English language: *samovar, zemstvo, borzoi, nihilism.*

As for the latter word – *nihilism*, it is very special: though based on the Latin word *nihil* 'nothing', it was invented in Russian literature to denote to denote extreme revolutionary principle involving destruction of existing institutions (нигилизм).

Among the borrowings of the 20th century such may be mentioned as *cadet, Bolshevik, Cheka, Soviet, kolkhoz, perestroika, sputnik.*

Bolshevik is a typical 'Sovietism', that is a word which was borrowed from Russian after 1917. In "The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current

English" *Bolshevik* is interpreted as "advocate of proletarian dictatorship in Russia by soviets".

Cheka (from the Russian abbreviation ЧК, of Чрезвычайная комиссия) is another Sovietism, which is now rather a historic notion.

Soviet (from совет) has entered practically all the languages due to the fact that it was a part of the official name of the state – the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (Союз Советских Социалистических Республик).

Kolkhoz (from колхоз < коллективное хозяйство) denoting a collective farm in the USSR was borrowed in the thirties.

Perestroika is one of the newest borrowings from Russian which appeared in 1985.

Sputnik is a word which is known in many languages. It is an old Russian word meaning 'travelling companion' from *s-* 'with', *put* 'way', and *-nik*, an agent suffix. This agent suffix *-nik* also lives in Yiddish, as in *kibbutznik*, a member of a *kibbutz* 'gathering, community dwelling'. In the early sixties this suffix gave rise to *beatnik*, a member of the *beat* or *beaten* generation (also addicted to *beat* or rhythmic music). Then in America it produced *peacenik* and *straightnik* and many other playful formations in *-nik* – perhaps only a passing fashion.

In addition to what has already been discussed it is possible to add *tundra*, *tarantass*, *troika*, *borscht*, *vodka*, *duma*, *Kremlin*.

Borrowings from Dutch

Among the Dutch borrowings of the end of the 15th century it is possible to mention such words as *bung, burgher, cope, cramp*.

Bung (from Middle Dutch *bohghe*) denotes a stopper, especially a large cork stopping hole in cast.

Burgher (from Dutch *burger*) denotes a freeman of a burgh or borough; in South Africa the word *burgher* later acquired a special meaning: 'citizen of European descent, wherever resident.

Cope (from Middle Dutch *kopen*) means 'to exchange, to barter, to buy', the latter meaning now obsolete.

Cramp (from Middle Dutch *krampe*) denotes a metal bar with bent ends.

In the 16th century there appeared in English such borrowings from Dutch as *bandoleer, galleon, linden, bully, bumboat, bumpkin, cashier, cracknel.*

Bandoleer (from Dutch *bandelier*) denotes a broad belt worn over one shoulder and across the breast.

Galleon (from Middle Dutch *galjoen*) 'large ship' is an example of sea terms by which Dutch enriched European languages.

Linden (from Dutch *lindeboom* or *lindenboom*) denotes a lime-tree. It is a common Germanic word (compare German *Lindenbaum*).

The word *bully* (from Middle Dutch *boele*) meant 'sweetheart'. In the 18th century it acquired the meaning 'hired ruffian'.

Bumboat (from Dutch *bomschuit*) denoted a scavenger's boat, later any boat for the carriage of small merchandise.

Bumpkin (from Dutch *bommekijn* 'little barrel') had the meaning 'country lout'. The transformation of meaning is metaphoric.

Cashier 'one who pays out and receives money is also of Dutch origin, though *cash* comes from French *casse.*

The word *cracknel* or *crackling* (from Middle Dutch *krakelinc* < *kraken* 'crack') denoted light crisp biscuit.

In the 17th century the English language borrowed from Dutch the following: *brandy* 'strong spirit distilled from wine', *easel* 'wooden frame to support picture', *gas* 'any form or completely elastic fluid', *manikin* 'little man, dwarf; artist's lay figure', *Bruin* (personifying name for a bear), *commodore* 'naval officer above captain'.

Among the Dutch borrowing of the 18th century *coehorn* and *crawl* may be mentioned.

Coehorn or *cohorn* denotes a small mortar invented by a Dutch engineer, *Baron van Menno Coehorn.*

Crawl (from Dutch *kraal*) denotes pen or reservoir for fish.

In the 19th century Dutch enriched the English with the words *boss, cockatiel, cockatoo, coper.*

Boss 'master, employer' (mainly used in American English but understood all over the world) originates from the Dutch word *baas.*

Cockatiel 'crested grass parrakeet of South Australia' comes from the Dutch word *kaketielje.*

Cockatoo 'large bird of the parrot kind' originates from the Dutch *kakatoe.* The first element of the word was evidently influenced by the word *cock* (compare *Kakadu* in German).

Borrowings from Turkish

A number of borrowed words from Turkish entered the English lexicon in the 16th century.

Kiosk, which may have come into English through French, originally denoted an open pavilion or summer-house; later it acquired a new meaning – 'light structure for sale of newspapers, etc.' It originates from Turkish *kiushk* 'pavilion'.

Minaret 'tall slender tower of a mosque' may have come into the English language through French or Spanish. The Turkish word *minaret* is a corruption of the Arab *manarat.*

Mulla 'Mohammedan theologian' comes from the Turkish word *mulla* ascending to the Arab form *maula.* Nowadays it is an international word used in the Muslim world (compare **мулла** in Russian).

Odalisque 'female slave, concubine' comes from the Turkish word *odaliq* (from *odah* 'chamber in a harem' + *-liq*, suffix expressing function). The word must have entered English through French.

A few words were borrowed from Turkish in the 18th century, among them *vali* and *nizam.*

Vali denotes a civil governor in Turkey (from Turkish *vali* ascending to Arab *wali*). Later, in the 19th century, the relative word *vilayet* 'province rulled by a *vali*' appeared in English.

Nizam was the title of the rulers of Hyderabad in 1713–1748. Later, in the 19th century the meaning of the word was different: it denoted the Turkish regular army. Originally the Turkish form *nizam* comes from the Arab *nidam* 'order, arrangement'.

A few words were borrowed in the 19th century, such as: *bashi-bazouk* 'mercenary of Turkish irregulars', *kismet* 'destiny, fate, lot', *narghile* 'hookah (device for smoking)'.

Words from the Languages of American Indians and Other Borrowings

The pioneers in America came across plants and animals in their new country that they had never seen before. There being no English names for them, the first settlers had to learn the Indian words, which were strange for their ear, so had fitted them to the norms of the English phonetics. In 1608 Captain John Smith described in his report a strange animal about the size of a cat living in American forests. He transliterated the Indian name as *rahaugcum.* Later, in 1672, the word acquired the assimilated English form *raccon* (the colloquial shortened form *'coon'*) by which it's known today.

Wood chuck, chipmunk, moose, opossum, and *skunk* were made from some other Indian names for animals the pioneers had never seen before. *Hickory, pecan, squash,* and *succotash* were Indian names for plants and vegetables that were not known in England. As there were no English words to describe those things, the pioneers used the Indian names for them. Continuing to work and live together with the Indians, the pioneers learned much about Indian life, customs, and beliefs. They borrowed words denoting tools, clothing, and dwelling places. *Moccasins, wigwams, tepees, totems, tomahawks,* and *canoes* were new notions for the settlers, and these words entered the English language.

In the English lexicon there are loan-words from so many languages that it would be difficult even to enumerate all of them.

It is possible to come across words which have been borrowed from the Afrikaans language spoken in South Africa. E. g.: *aasvogel* 'South African vulture' (from *aas* 'carrion' + *volel* 'bird'; *aardvark* 'South African insectivorous quadruped' (from *aarde* 'earth' + *varken* 'pig'; *eland* 'South African antelope'; *kraal* 'village; cattle enclosure'; *kratz* 'wall of rock'.

A number of words have been borrowed from the Portuguese language. E. g.: *buffalo* 'species of ox'; *mango* 'tropical fruit'; *lingo* 'unintelligible foreign language' (from *lingoa* 'tongue'); *auto-da-fe* 'sentence of the Inquisition' (literally: 'act of the faith'); *port* 'red wine of Portugal' (from *O Porto*, the chief port of shipment for Portuguese wines).

At the times of the British colonization of America many words came into the English language from the tongues of American Indians. E. g.: *curare* 'poisonous substance' (from the Macuchi language); *puma* 'feline quadruped' (from the Quechua language); *caiman* 'American alligator' (from the Carib word *acayuman*); *caoutchouc* 'rubber' (from the Carib word *caluchu*); *tapir* 'American swine-like animal' (from the Tupi language).

The conquest of India was followed by borrowing words from Urdu, Hindi, and other languages. Among the loan-words from Urdu it is possible to mention the following: *chabouk* 'whip' (from *chabuk* 'horse-whip'); *mahal* 'summer palace'; *jaconet* 'Indian cotton fabric' (from *jaganathi*); *khaki* 'dull-brownish yellow fabric' (compare with хаки in Russian); *khidmutgar* or *kitmudhgar* 'male servant at table'.

Examples of words borrowed from Hindi are as follows: *dhoti* or *dhootie* 'loin-cloth worn by Hindus'; *dhoby* 'native Indian washerman' (from *dhob* 'washing'); *cutchery* or *cutcherry* 'business office' (from *katchachri, kacheri*); *langur* 'Indian long-tailed monkey'; *gooroo* or *guru* 'Hindu spiritual teacher'.

Borrowings from the Hebrew language were mainly connected with the translation and interpretation of the Old Testament. E. g.: *ephah* 'dry measure' (from *e'phah*); *homer* 'measure of capacity' (from *xomer* 'heap'); *kosher* 'prepared according to law' (from *kasher* 'right'); *shekel* 'silver coin of the Hebrews' (from *saqal* 'weight'); *cherub* 'angel of the second order'; *seraph* 'angel of the highest order'.

Borrowings from the Irish language are as follows: *gallograss* 'retainer of an Irish chief' (now a historic word); *hubbub* 'confused noise, as of shouting'; *gab* 'talking, talk' (from *gob* 'beak, mouth'); *galore* 'in abundance' (from *go* 'to' + *leor* 'sufficiency'). Of special interest the word *Tory*, which denoted one of the dispossessed Irish who became outlaws, in 1679–1680 it was applied to anti-exclusioners; since 1689 it has denoted a member of the two great political parties of Great Britain (from *toraighe* 'pursuer').

Persian loan-words in English keep their exotic flavour, oriental spirit. E. g.: *jasmine* or *jessamine* 'climbing shrub with white or yellow flowers (from *yasmin*,

yasman); *houri* 'nymph of the Mohammedan paradise (from *huri*); *caravan* 'company travelling through the desert' (later its meaning got broadened: 'fleet of ships', 'covered carriage or cart'); *shah* 'king of Persia'; *markhor* 'large wild goat' (literally 'serpent-eater', from *mar* 'serpent' + *khor* 'eating').

Among the loan-words from the Chinese language the following may be taken as an illustration: *sampan* 'small Chinese boat' (from *san* 'three' + *pan* 'board', so it actually means 'a boat made of three boards); *pekoe* 'superior black tea' (from *pek* 'white' + *ho* 'hair'); *ketchup* 'sauce made from mushrooms, tomatoes, etc.' (from *ke tsiap* 'brine of fish'); *typhoon* 'cyclonic storm in the China seas (from *ta* 'big' + *feng* 'wind; compare **тайфун** in Russian); *kotow* or *kow-tow* 'Chinese gesture of respect by touching the ground with the forehead'.

The Japanese borrowings in English are mainly connected with the realia of Japan. E. g.: *mikado*, now a historic word, 'title of emperor of Japan' (from *mi* 'August' + *kado* 'door'); *kimono* 'long Japanese robe with sleeves' (in European use, a form of dressing-gown); *jinricksha* 'light two-wheeled man-drawn vehicle' (from *jin* 'man' + *riki* 'strength' + *sha* 'vehicle'); *ju-jitsu* or *ju-jutsu* 'system of wrestling and physical training (originally the word is Chinese); *samurai* 'military retainer of daimios, member of military caste (historic), army officer'.

The colonization of New Zealand resulted in the enrichment of English with very exotic words – mainly names of plants and animals unknown in Europe. E. g.: *kiwi* 'New Zealand bird'; *kea* 'parrot of New Zealand' (the word is an evident imitation of the bird's cry); *kie-kie* 'New Zealand climbing plant'; *rata* 'large forest tree of New Zealand'.

In the English lexicon there are borrowings even from such a language as Malay. E. g.: *gambia* 'astringent extract from plants'; *gecko* 'house-lizard', *gong* 'disk producing musical notes'; *kapok* 'fine cotton wool'.

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SUPPLEMENT

1. ENGLISH TODAY

Who Speaks English Today? English is the second or third most popular mother tongue in the world, with an estimated 350–400 million native speakers. But, crucially, it is also the common tongue for many non-English speakers the world over, and almost a quarter of the globe's population – maybe 1½ – 2 billion people – can understand it and have at least some basic competence in its use, whether written or spoken.

It should be noted here that statistics on the numbers around the world who speak English are unreliable at best. It is notoriously difficult to define quite what is meant by "English speaker", let alone the definitions of first language, second language, mother tongue, native speaker, etc. What level of competency counts? Does a thick creole (English-based, but completely incomprehensible to a native English speaker) count? Just to add to the confusion, there are at least 40 million people in the nominally English-speaking United States who do NOT speak English. In addition, the figures, of necessity, combine statistics from different sources, different dates, etc. You may well see large variations on any statistics quoted here.
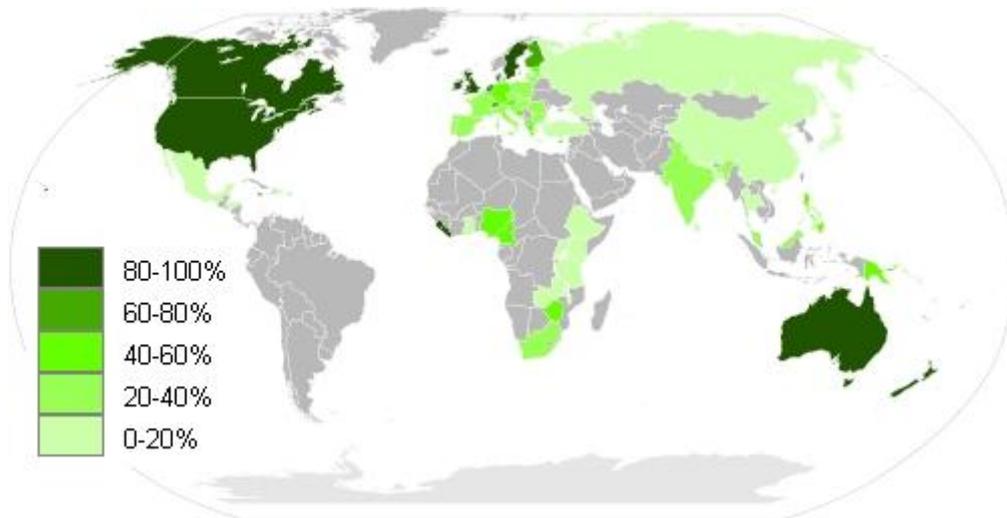
World map coloured according to percentage of English speakers by country (from Wikipedia)

But best recent estimates of first languages suggest that Mandarin Chinese has around 800–850 million native speakers, while English and Spanish both have about 330–350 million each. Following on, Hindi speakers number 180–200 million (around 240 million, or possibly much more, when combined with Urdu), Bengali 170–180 million, Arabic 150–220 million, Portuguese

150–180 million, Russian 140–160 million and Japanese roughly 120 million. If second-language speakers are included, Mandarin increases to around 1 billion, English to over 500 million, Spanish to 420–500 million, Hindi/Urdu to around 480 million, and so on, although some estimates for English as a first or second language rise to over a billion. In fact, among English speakers, non-native speakers may now outnumber native speakers by as much as three to one.

In terms of total population, in a world approaching 7 billion, the top three countries by population are China (1.3 billion), India (1.2 billion) and USA (about 310 million), followed by Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Russia and Japan. Thus, the USA is by far the most populous English-speaking country and accounts for almost 70 % of native English speakers (Britain, by comparison has a population of just over 60 million, and ranks 22nd in the world). India represents the third largest group of English speakers after the USA and UK, even though only 4–5 % of its population speaks English (4 % of over 1.2 billion is still almost 50 million). However, by some counts as many as 23 % of Indians speak English, which would put it firmly in second place, well above Britain. Even Nigeria may have more English speakers than Britain according to some estimates.

English is the native mother-tongue of only Britain, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and a handful of Caribbean countries. But in 57 countries (including Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Singapore, Philippines, Fiji, Vanuatu, etc), English is either as its "official language" or a majority of its inhabitants speak it as a first language. These are largely ex-colonial countries which have thoroughly integrated English into its chief institutions. The next most popular official language is French (which applies in some 31 countries), followed by Spanish (25), Arabic (25), Portuguese (13) and Russian (10).

Although falling short of official status, English is also an important language in at least twenty other countries, including several former British colonies and protectorates, such as Bahrain, Bangladesh, Brunei, Cyprus, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates. It is the most commonly used unofficial language in Israel and an increasing number of other countries such as Switzerland, the Netherlands, Norway and Germany. Within Europe, an estimated 85 % of Swedes can comfortably converse in English, 83 % of Danes, 79 % of Dutch, 66 % in Luxembourg and over 50 % in countries such as Finland, Slovenia, Austria, Belgium, and Germany.

In the diagram below you can see three circles representing the spheres of the English language usage. If the "inner circle" of a language is native first-language speakers and the "outer circle" is second-language speakers and official language countries, there is a third, "expanding circle" of countries which recognize the importance of English as an international language and

teach it in schools as their foreign language of choice. English is the most widely taught foreign language in schools across the globe, with over 100 countries – from China to Russia to Israel, Germany, Spain, Egypt, Brazil, etc, etc. – teaching it to at least a working level. Over 1 billion people throughout the world are currently learning English, and there are estimated to be more students of English in China alone than there are inhabitants of the USA. A 2006 report by the British Council suggests that the number of people learning English is likely to continue to increase over the next 10–15 years, peaking at around 2 billion, after which a decline is predicted.

Expanding Circle
(learned as a foreign language)

Outer Circle
(second language)

Inner Circle
(native language)
(e.g. UK, USA, Australia)
~380 million

(e.g. India, Nigeria, Philippines)
~150-300 million

(e.g. Gemany, Japan, China, Russia, Brazil)
~100-1,000 million
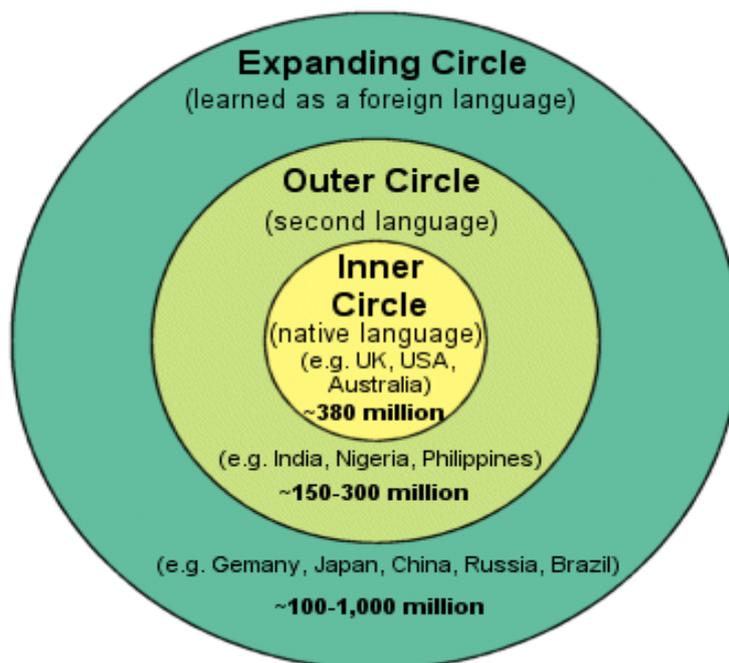
English as a Lingua Franca. Any number of other statistics may be quoted, none of them definitive, but all shining some light on the situation. However, absolute numbers aside, it is incontrovertible that English has become the lingua franca of the world in the fields of business, science, aviation, computing, education, politics and entertainment (and arguably many others).

Over 90 % of international airlines use English as their language of choice (known as "Airspeak"), and an Italian pilot flying an Italian plane into an Italian airport, for example, contacts ground control in English. The same applies in international maritime communications ("Seaspeak"). Two-thirds of all scientific papers are published in English, and the Science Citation Index reports that as many as 95 % of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries. Up to half of all business deals throughout the world are conducted in English. Popular music worldwide is overwhelmingly dominated by English (estimates of up to 95%

have been suggested), and American television is available almost everywhere. Half of the world newspapers are in English, and some 75 % of the world mail correspondence is in English (the USA alone accounts for 50 %). At least 35 % of Internet users are English speakers, and estimated 70–80 % of the content on the Internet is in English (although reliable figures on this are hard to establish).

Many international joint business ventures use English as their working language, even if none of the members are officially English-speaking. For example, it is the working language of the Asian trade group ASEAN and the oil exporting organization OPEC, and it is the official language of the European Central Bank, even though the bank is located in Germany and Britain is not even a member of the Eurozone. Switzerland has three official languages (German, French and Italian and also, in some limited circumstances, Romansh), but it routinely markets itself in English in order to avoid arguments between different areas. Wherever one travels in the word, one sees English signs and advertisements.

Reverse Loanwords. Although a huge number of words have been imported into English from other languages over the history of its development, many English words have been incorporated (particularly in the last century) into foreign languages in a kind of reverse adoption process. Anglicisms such as *stop*, *sport*, *tennis*, *golf*, *weekend*, *jeans*, *bar*, *airport*, *hotel*, etc, are among the most universally used in the world.

But a more amusing exercise is to piece together the English derivations of foreign words where phonetic spelling is used. To give a few random examples, *herkot* is Ukrainian for "haircut"; *muving pikceris* is Lithuanian for "movie" or "moving pictures"; *ajskrym* is Polish for "ice-cream"; *schiacchenze* is Italian for "shake hands"; etc. Japanese has as many as 20,000 anglicisms in regular use ("Japlish"), including *apputodeito* (up-to-date), *erebata* (elevator), *raiba intenshibu* (labour-intensive), *nekutai* (neck-tie), *biiru* (beer), *isukrimu* (ice-cream), *esukareta* (escalator), *remon* (lemon), *mai-kaa* (my car) and *shyanpu setto* (shampoo and set), the meanings of which are difficult to fathom until spoken out phonetically. "Russlish" uses phonetic spellings such as *seksapil* (sex appeal), *jeansi* (jeans), *striptiz* (strip-tease), *kompyuter* (computer), *champion* (champion) and *shuzi* (shoes), as well as many exact spellings like *rockmusic*, *discjockey*, *hooligan*, *supermarket*, etc. German has invented, by analogy, anglicisms that do not even exist in English, such as *Pullunder* (from *pullover*), *Twens* (from *teens*), *Dressman* (a word for a male model) and *handy* (a word for a cellphone).

After many centuries of one-way traffic of words from French to English, the flow finally reversed in the middle of the 20th century, and now anywhere between 1 % and 5 % of French words are anglicisms, according to some recent estimates. *Rosbif* (roast beef) has been in the French language for over

350 years, and *oust* (west) for 700 years, but popular recent "Franglais" adoptions like *le gadget*, *le weekend*, *le blue-jeans*, *le self-service*, *le cash-flow*, *le sandwich*, *le babysitter*, *le meeting*, *le basketball*, *le manager*, *le parking*, *le shopping*, *le snaque-barre*, *le sweat*, *le marketing*, *cool*, etc, are now firmly engrained in the language.

There is a strong movement within France, under the stern leadership of the venerable Académie Française, to reclaim French from this onslaught of anglicisms, and the country has even passed laws to discourage the use of anglicisms and to protect its own language and culture. New French replacements for English words are being encouraged, such as *le logiciel* instead of *le soft* (software), *le disc audio-numérique* instead of *le compact disc* (CD), *le baladeur* instead of *le walkman* (portable music player), etc. In Québec, the neologism *le clavardage* (a portmanteau word combining *clavier* – keyboard – and *bavardage* – verbal chat) is becoming popular as a replacement for the common anglicism *le chat* (in the sense of online chat rooms). Norway and Brazil have recently adopted similar measure to keep English out, and this kind of lexical invasion in the form of loanwords is seen by some as the thin end of the wedge, to be strenuously avoided in the interests of national pride and cultural independence.

Modern English Vocabulary. After centuries of acquisition, borrowing and adaptation, English has ended up with a vocabulary second to none in its richness and breadth, allowing for the most diverse and subtle shadings of meaning. No other language has so many words to say the same thing (consider the multiplicity of synonyms for *big* which are in daily use, for example). It is often considered to have the largest vocabulary of any language, although such comparisons are notoriously difficult (as an example, it is impossible to compare with Chinese, because of fundamental differences in language structure).

Just how many words there currently are in the English language is open to conjecture. The Global Language Monitor (a Texas-based company that analyzes and tracks worldwide language trends) claims that the English language now boasts over a million words, but in reality it is almost impossible to count the number of words in a language, not least because it is so hard to decide what actually counts as a word. For instance, how are we to treat abbreviations, hyphenated words, compound words, compound words with spaces, etc? The latest full revision of the *"Oxford English Dictionary"*, published in 1989 and considered the premier dictionary of the English language, contains about 615,000 word entries, listed under about 300,000 main entries. This includes some scientific terms, dialect words and slang, but does not include more specialized scientific and technical terms, nor the large number of more recent neologisms coined each passing year. *"Webster's Third New International Dictionary"*, published in 1961, lists 475,000 main headwords.

The working vocabulary of the average English speaker, though, is notoriously difficult to assess (it is hard enough to count the words used in written works – estimates of the number of words in the *"King James Bible"* range from 7,000 to over 10,000, and estimates of Shakespeare's vocabulary range from 16,000 to over 30,000). An average educated English speaker has perhaps 15,000 to 20,000 words at his or her disposal, although often only around 10 % of these are used in an average week's conversation (typically, we "know" at least 25 % more words than we ever actually use). Some studies suggest that just 43 words account for fully half of the words in common use, and just 9 (*and*, *be*, *have*, *it*, *of*, *the*, *to*, *will*, *you*) account for a quarter of the words in any random sample of spoken English.

The English lexicon includes words borrowed from an estimated 120 different languages. Attempts have been made to put in context the various influences and sources of modern English vocabulary, although this is necessarily an inexact science. Some studies have put Germanic, French and Latin sources more or less equal at between 26–29 % each, with the balance made up of Greek, words derived from proper names, words with no clear etymology and words from other languages. Other studies put the French input higher, the Latin lower and suggest that other languages have contributed as much as 10% of the vocabulary.

As we have seen, English has throughout its history accumulated words from different sources which act as synonyms or near synonyms to native or traditional words, a process which started with the early invasions by Vikings and Normans, and continued with the embracing of the classical languages during the Renaissance and the adoption of foreign words though trading and colonial connections. Many of these developed different social connotations over time. For example, introduced Norman French words tended to be, and often still tend to be, considered classier and more refined than existing Anglo-Saxon words (e. g. the Norman *desire* compared to the Anglo-Saxon *wish*, *odour* compared to *smell*, *chamber* to *room*, *dine* to *eat*, etc). It has also been suggested that many English words have three synonyms appropriate to the different levels of culture (popular/literary/scholarly), often corresponding to Old English/French/Latin roots, as illustrated by groups of words like *rise/mount/ascend*, *fear/terror/trepidation*, *think/ponder/cogitate*, *kingly/royal/regal*, *holy/sacred/consecrated*, *ask/question/ interrogate*, etc (sometimes referred to as "lexical triplets").

The sheer number of English synonyms can make for a rather unwieldy and untidy language at times, though, and its embarrassment of riches can sometime seem a little gratuitous and unnecessary. This is particularly evident in the large number of redundant phrases (composed of two or more synonyms) which are in everyday use, e. g. *beck* and *call*, *law* and *order*, *null* and *void*, *safe*

and *sound*, *first* and *foremost*, *trials* and *tribulations*, *kith* and *kin*, *hale* and *hearty*, *peace* and *quiet*, *cease* and *desist*, *rack* and *ruin*, etc.

Also despite the sheer volume of words in the language, there are still some curious gaps, which have arisen through quirks in its development over the centuries, such as the unused positive forms of common negative words like *inept*, *ineffable*, *dishevelled*, *disgruntled*, *incorrigible*, *ruthless*, *disastrous*, *incessant* and *unkempt*, most of which used to exist but have died out for unknown reasons.

Perhaps even stranger, given the generous availability of words, is English's tendency to load single words with multiple meanings. For example: *fine* has at least 14 definitions as an adjective, 6 as a noun, 2 as a verb and 2 as an adverb; *round* has 12 uses as an adjective, 19 as a noun, 12 as a verb, 1 as an adverb and 2 as a preposition; *set* has an incredible 58 uses as a noun, 126 as a verb and 10 as an adjective (the *"Oxford English Dictionary"* takes about 60,000 words – the length of a short novel – to describe them all).

As in any language, meanings have shifted over time, sometimes many times, but in some cases the same word can has even ended up with two contradictory meanings (contronyms), examples being *sanction* (which has conflicting meanings of permission to do something, or prevention from doing something), *cleave* (to cut in half, or to stick together), *sanguine* (hot-headed and bloodthirsty, or calm and cheerful), *ravish* (to rape, or to enrapture), *fast* (stuck firm, or moving quickly), etc.

2. ENGLISH LITERATURE IN OLD ENGLISH AND MIDDLE ENGLISH

Old English Poetry

The Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who invaded Britain in the 5th and 6th centuries brought with them the common Germanic metre; but of their earliest oral poetry, probably used for panegyric, magic and short narrative, little or none survives. For nearly a century after the conversion of King Aethelberht of Kent to Christianity about 600, there is no evidence that the English wrote poetry in their own language. But St. Bede the Venerable in his Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum ("Ecclesiastical History of the English People"), wrote that in the late 7th century Caedmon, an illiterate Northumbrian cowherd, was inspired in a dream to compose a short hymn in praise of the creation. Caedmon later composed verses based on Scripture, which was expounded for him by monks at Streaneshalch (now called Whitby), but only the "Hymn of Creation" survives. Caedmon legitimized the native verse form by adapting it to Christian themes. Others, following his example, gave England a body of vernacular poetry unparalleled in Europe before the end of the 1st millennium.

Alliterative Verse

Virtually all Old English poetry is written in a single metre, a four-stress line with a syntactical break, or caesura, between the second and third stresses, and with alliteration linking the two halves of the line; this pattern is occasionally varied by six-stress lines. The poetry is formulaic, drawing on a common set of stock phrases and phrase patterns, applying standard epithets to various classes of characters, and depicting scenery with such recurring images as the eagle and the wolf, which wait during battles to feast on carrion, and ice and snow, which appear in the landscape to signal sorrow. In the best poems such formulas, far from being tedious, give a strong impression of the richness of the cultural fund from which poets could draw. Other standard devices of this poetry are the kenning, a figurative name for a thing, usually expressed in a compound noun (e. g., *swan-road* used to name the sea); and variation, the repeating of a single idea in different words, with each repetition adding a new level of meaning. That these verse techniques changed little during 400 years of literary production suggests the extreme conservatism of Anglo-Saxon culture.

The major manuscripts

Most Old English poetry is preserved in four manuscripts of the late 10th and early 11th centuries. The Beowulf manuscript (British Library) contains *Beowulf, Judith*, and three prose tracts; the Exeter Book (Exeter Cathedral) is a miscellaneous gathering of lyrics, riddles, didactic poems, and religious narratives; the Junius Manuscript (Bodleian Library, Oxford) – also called the Caedmon Manuscript, even though its contents are no longer attributed to

Caedmon – contains biblical paraphrases; and the Vercelli Book (found in the cathedral library in Vercelli, Italy) contains saints' lives, several short religious poems, and prose homilies. In addition to the poems in these books are historical poems in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle; poetic renderings of Psalms 51–150; the 31 "Metres" included in King Alfred the Great's translation of Boethius's *De consolatione philosophiae* (*Consolation of Philosophy*); magical, didactic, elegiac, and heroic poems; and others, miscellaneously interspersed with prose, jotted in margins, and even worked in stone or metal.

Problem of Dating

Few poems can be dated as closely as Caedmon's *Hymn*. King Alfred's composition sfall into the late 9th century, and Bede composed his *Death Song* within 50 days of his death on May 25, 735. Historical poems such as *The Battle of Brunanburh* (after 937) and *The Battle of Maldon* (after 991) are fixed by the dates of the events they commemorate. A translation of one of Aldhelm's riddles is found not only in the Exeter Book but also in an early 9th-century manuscript at Leiden, Neth. And at least a part of *The Dream of the Rood* can be dated by an excerpt carved on the 8th-century Ruthwell cross (in Dumfriesshire, Scotland.). But in the absence of such indications, Old English poems are hard to date, and the scholarly consensus that most were composed in the Midlands and the North in the 8th and 9th centuries gave way to uncertainty during the last two decades of the 20th century. Many now hold that *The Wanderer, Beowulf* and other poems once assumed to have been written in the 8th century are of the 9th century or later. For most poems, there is no scholarly consensus beyond the belief that they were written between the 8th and the 11th centuries.

Religious Verse

If few poems can be dated accurately, still fewer can be attributed to particular poets. The most important author from whom a considerable body of work survives is Cynewulf, who wove his runic signature into the epilogues of four poems. Aside from his name, little is known of him; he probably lived in the 9th century in Mercia or Northumbria. His works include *The Fates of the Apostles*, a short martyrology; *The Ascension* (also called *Christ II*), a homily and biblical narrative; *Juliana,* a saint's passion set in the reign of the Roman emperor Maximian (late 3rd century AD); and *Elene*, perhaps the best of his poems, which describes the mission of St. Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine, to recover Christ's cross. Cynewulf's work is lucid and technically elegant; his theme is the continuing evangelical mission from the time of Christ to the triumph of Christianity under Constantine. Several poems not by Cynewulf are associated with him because of their subject matter. These include two lives of St. Guthlac and Andreas; the latter, the apocryphal story of how St. Andrew fell into the hands of the cannibalistic (and presumably mythical) Mermedonians, has stylistic affinities with *Beowulf.* Also in the "Cynewulf

group" are several poems with Christ as their subject, of which the most important is *The Dream of the Rood*, in which the cross speaks of itself as Christ's loyal thane and yet the instrument of his death. This tragic paradox echoes a recurring theme of secular poetry and at the same time movingly expresses the religious paradoxes of Christ's triumph in death and humankind's redemption from sin.

Several poems of the Junius Manuscript are based on the Old Testament narratives Genesis, Exodus and Daniel. Of these, *Exodus* is remarkable for its intricate diction and bold imagery. The fragmentary *Judith* of the Beowulf Manuscript stirringly embellishes the story from the Apocrypha of the heroine who led the Jews to victory over the Assyrians.

Elegiac and heroic verse

The term *elegy* is used of Old English poems that lament the loss of worldly goods, glory, or human companionship. *The Wanderer* is narrated by a man, deprived of lord and kinsmen, whose journeys lead him to the realization that there is stability only in heaven. *The Seafarer* is similar, but its journey motif more explicitly symbolizes the speaker's spiritual yearnings. Several others have similar themes, and three elegies – *The Husband's Message, The Wife's Lament*, and *Wulf and Eadwacer* – describe what appears to be a conventional situation: the separation of husband and wife by the husband's exile.

Deor bridges the gap between the elegy and the heroic poem, for in it a poet laments the loss of his position at court by alluding to sorrowful stories from Germanic legend.

Beowulf itself narrates the battles of Beowulf, a prince of the Geats (a tribe in what is now southern Sweden), against the monstrous Grendel, Grendel's mother, and a fire-breathing dragon. The account contains some of the best elegiac verse in the language, and, by setting marvelous tales against a historical background in which victory is always temporary and strife is always renewed, the poet gives the whole an elegiac cast. *Beowulf* also is one of the best religious poems, not only because of its explicitly Christian passages but also because Beowulf's monstrous foes are depicted as God's enemies and Beowulf himself as God's champion. Other heroic narratives are fragmentary. Of *The Battle of Finnsburh* and *Waldere* only enough remains to indicate that, when whole, they must have been fast-paced and stirring.

Of several poems dealing with English history and preserved in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, the most notable is *The Battle of Brunanburh*, a panegyric on the occasion of King Athelstan's victory over a coalition of Norsemen and Scots in 937. But the best historical poem is not from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. *The Battle of Maldon*, which describes the defeat of Aldorman Byrhtnoth and much of his army at the hands of Viking invaders in 991, discovers in defeat an occasion to celebrate the heroic ideal, contrasting the

determination of many of Byrhtnoth's thanes to avenge his death or die in the attempt with the cowardice of others who left the field. Minor poetic genres include catalogs (two sets of *Maxims* and *Widsith*, a list of rulers, tribes, and notables in the heroic age),dialogues, metrical prefaces and epilogues to prose works of the Alfredian period, and liturgical poems associated with the Benedictine Office.

Old English Prose

The earliest English prose work, the law code of King Aethelberht I of Kent, was written within a few years of the arrival in England (597) of St. Augustine of Canterbury. Other 7th and 8th century prose, similarly practical in character, includes more laws, wills, and charters. According to Cuthbert, who was a monk at Jarrow, Bede at the time of his death had just finished a translation of the Gospel of St. John, though this does not survive. Two medical tracts, *Herbarium* and *Medicina de quadrupedibus*, very likely date from the 8th century.

Early Middle English Poetry

The Norman Conquest worked no immediate transformation on either the language or the literature of the English. Older poetry continued to be copied during the last half of the 11th century; two poems of the early 12th century – *Durham*, which praises that city's cathedral and its relics, and *Instructions for Christians*, a didactic piece – show that correct alliterative verse could be composed well after 1066. But even before the conquest, rhyme had begun to supplant rather than supplement alliteration in some poems, which continued to use the older four-stress line, although their rhythms varied from the set types used in classical Old English verse. A post conquest example is *The Grave*, which contains several rhyming lines; a poem from the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle on the death of William the Conqueror, lamenting his cruelty and greed, has more rhyme than alliteration.

Influence of French poetry. By the end of the 12th century, English poetry had been so heavily influenced by French models that such a work as the long epic *Brut* (*c.* 1200) by Lawamon, a Worcestershire priest, seems archaic for mixing alliterative lines with rhyming couplets while generally eschewing French vocabulary. The *Brut* draws mainly upon Anglo-Norman *Roman de Brut* (1155), but in Lawamon's hands the Arthurian story takes on a Germanic and heroic flavor. The *Brut* exists in two manuscripts, one written shortly after 1200 and the other some 50 years later. That the later version has been extensively modernized and somewhat abridged suggests the speed with which the English language and literary tastes were changing in this period.

The Proverbs of Alfred was written somewhat earlier, in the late 12th century; these proverbs deliver conventional wisdom in a mixture of rhymed

couplets and alliterative lines, and it is hardly likely that any of the material they contain actually originated with the king whose wisdom they celebrate.

The early 13th-century *Bestiary* mixes alliterative lines, three- and four-stress couplets, and septenary (heptameter) lines, but the logic behind this mix is more obvious than in the *Brut* and the *Proverbs*, for the poet was imitating the varied metres of his Latin source.

By far the most brilliant poem of this period is *The Owl and the Nightingale* (written after 1189), an example of the popular debate genre. The two birds argue topics ranging from their hygienic habits, looks, and songs to marriage, prognostication, and the proper modes of worship. The nightingale stands for the joyous aspects of life, the owl for the sombre; there is no clear winner, but the debate ends as the birds go off to state their cases to one Nicholas of Guildford, a wise man. The poem is learned in the clerical tradition but wears its learning lightly as the disputants speak in colloquia land sometimes earthy language. *The Owl and the Nightingale* is metrically regular, but it uses the French metre with an assurance unusual in so early a poem.

Didactic poetry. The 13th century saw a rise in the popularity of long didactic poems presenting biblical narrative, saints' lives, or moral instruction for those untutored in Latin or French. The most idiosyncratic of these is the *Ormulum* by Orm, an Augustinian canon in the north of England. Written in some 20,000 lines arranged in unrhymed but metrically rigid couplets, the work is interesting mainly in that the manuscript that preserves it is Orm's autograph and shows his somewhat fussy efforts to reform and regularize English spelling. Other biblical paraphrases are *Genesis and Exodus*, *Jacob and Joseph*, and the vast *Cursor mundi*, whose subject, as its title suggests, is the history of the world. An especially popular work was the *South English Legendary*, which began as a miscellaneous collection of saints' lives but was expanded by later redactors and rearranged in the order of the church calendar. The didactic tradition continued into the 14th century with Robert Mannyng's *Handling Sin*, a confessional manual whose expected dryness is relieved by the insertion of lively narratives, and the *Prick of Conscience*, a popular summary of theology sometimes attributed to the mystic Richard Rolle.

Verse romance. The earliest examples of verse romance, a genre that would remain popular through the Middle Ages, appeared in the 13th century. *King Horn* and *Floris and Blauncheflour* both are preserved in a manuscript of about 1250. *King Horn*, oddly written in short two- and three-stress lines, is a vigorous tale of a kingdom lost and regained, with a subplot concerning Horn's love for Princess Rymenhild. *Floris and Blauncheflour* is more exotic, being the tale of a pair of royal lovers who become separated and, after various adventures in eastern lands, reunited. Not much later than these is *The Lay of Havelok the*

Dane, a tale of princely love and adventure similar to *King Horn* but more competently executed.

Many more such romances were produced in the 14th century. Popular subgenres were "the matter of Britain" (Arthurian romances such as *Of Arthour and of Merlin* and *Ywain and Gawain*), "the matter of Troy" (tales of antiquity such as *The Siege of Troy* and *King Alisaunder*), and the English Breton lays (stories of otherworldly magic, such as *Lai le Freine* and *Sir Orfeo*, modeled after those of professional Breton storytellers). These relatively unsophisticated works were written for a bourgeois audience, and the manuscripts that preserve them are early examples of commercial book production.

The humorous beast epic makes its first appearance in Britain in the 13th century with *The Fox and the Wolf*, taken indirectly from the Old French *Roman de Renart*. In the same manuscript with this work is *Dame Sirith*, the earliest English fabliau. Another sort of humour is found in *The Land of Cockaygne*, which depicts a utopia better than heaven, where rivers run with milk, honey, and wine, geese fly about already roasted, and monks hunt with hawks and dance with nuns.

The lyric was virtually unknown to Old English poets. Poems such as "Deor" and "Wulf and Eadwacer," which have been called lyrics, are thematically different from those that began to circulate orally in the 12th century and to be written down in great numbers in the 13th; these Old English poems also have a stronger narrative component than the later productions. The most frequent topics in the Middle English secular lyric are springtime and romantic love; many rework such themes tediously, but some, such as *Foweles in the frith* (13th century) and *Ich am of Irlaunde* (14th century), convey strong emotions in a few lines. Two lyrics of the early 13th century, *Mirie it is while sumer ilast* and *Sumer is icumen in*, are preserved with musical settings, and probably most of the others were meant to be sung. The dominant mood of the religious lyrics is passionate: the poets sorrow for Christ on the cross and for the Virgin Mary, celebrate the "five joys" of Mary, and import language from love poetry to express religious devotion.

The religious lyrics also are of high quality; but the most remarkable of the Harley Lyrics, *The Man in the Moon*, far from being about love or religion, imagines the man in the Moon as a simple peasant, sympathizes with his hard life, and offers him some useful advice on how to best the village hayward (a local officer in charge of a town's common herd of cattle).

A poem such as *The Man in the Moon* serves as a reminder that, although the poetry of the early Middle English period was increasingly influenced by the Anglo-Norman literature produced for the courts, it is seldom "courtly." Most English poets, whether writing about kings or peasants, looked at life from a

bourgeois perspective. If their work sometimes lacks sophistication, it nevertheless has a vitality that comes from preoccupation with daily affairs.

Early Middle English Prose

Old English prose texts were copied for more than a century after the Norman Conquest; the homilies of Aelfric were especially popular, and King Alfred's translations of Boethius and Augustine survive only in 12th-century manuscripts. In the early 13th century an anonymous worker at Worcester supplied glosses to certain words in a number of Old English manuscripts, which demonstrates that by this time the older language was beginning to pose difficulties for readers.

The composition of English prose also continued without interruption. Two manuscripts of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle exhibit very strong prose for years after the conquest, and one of these, the Peterborough Chronicle, continues to 1154. Two manuscripts of about 1200 contain 12th-century sermons, and another has the workman like compilation *Vices and Virtues*, composed about 1200. But the English language faced stiff competition from both Anglo-Norman and Latin, a language intelligible to speakers of both English and French. It was inevitable, then, that the production of English prose should decline in quantity, if not in quality. The great prose works of this period were composed mainly for those who could read only English – women especially.

Further removed from the Old English prose tradition, though often associated with the Katherine Group, is the *Ancrene Wisse* ("Guide for Anchoresses," also known as the *Ancrene Riwle,* or "Rule for Anchoresses"), a manual for the guidance of women recluses outside the regular orders. This anonymous work, which was translated into French and Latin and remained popular until the 16th century, is notable for its humanity, practicality, and insight into human nature but even more for its brilliant style. Like the other prose of its time, it uses alliteration as ornament, but it is more indebted to new fashions in preaching, which had originated in the universities, than to native traditions.

Little noteworthy prose was written in the late 13th century. In the early 14th century Dan Michel of Northgate produced in Kentish the *Ayenbite of Inwit* ("Prick of Conscience"), a translation from French. But the best prose of this time is by the mystic Richard Rolle, the hermit of Hampole, whose English tracts include *The Commandment*, *Meditations on the Passion*, and *The Form of Perfect Living*, among others. His intense and stylized prose was among the most popular of the 14th century and inspired such later works as Walter Hilton's *Scale of Perfection*, Julian of Norwich's *Sixteen Revelations of Divine Love*, and the anonymous *Cloud of Unknowing*.

Late Middle English and Early Renaissance Literature

One of the most important factors in the nature and development of English literature between about 1350 and 1550 was the peculiar linguistic situation in England at the beginning of the period. Among the small minority of the population that could be regarded as literate, bilingualism and even trilingualism were common. In so far as it was considered a serious literary medium at all, English was obliged to compete on uneven terms with Latin and with the Anglo-Norman dialect of French widely used in England at the time. Moreover, extreme dialectal diversity within English itself made it difficult for vernacular writings, irrespective of their literary pretensions, to circulate very far outside their immediate areas of composition, a disadvantage not suffered by writings in Anglo-Norman and Latin. Literary culture managed to survive and in fact to flourish in the face of such potentially crushing factors as the catastrophic mortality of the Black Death (1347–1351), chronic external and internal military conflicts in the form of the Hundred Years' War and the Wars of the Roses, and serious social, political, and religious unrest, as evinced in the Peasants' Revolt (1381) and the rise of Lollardism (centred on the religious teachings of John Wycliffe). All the more remarkable, then, was the literary and linguistic revolution that took place in England between about 1350 and 1400 and that was slowly and soberly consolidated over the subsequent 150 years.

The revival of alliterative poetry. The most puzzling episode in the development of later Middle English literature is the apparently sudden reappearance of unrhymed alliterative poetry in the mid-14th century. Debate continues as to whether the group of long, serious, and sometimes learned poems written between about 1350 and the first decade of the 15th century should be regarded as an "alliterative revival" or rather as the late flowering of a largely lost native tradition stretching back to the Old English period. The earliest examples of the phenomenon, *William of Palerne* and *Winner and Waster*, are both datable to the 1350s, but neither poem exhibits to the full all the characteristics of the slightly later poems central to the movement. *William of Palerne*, condescendingly commissioned by a nobleman for the benefit of "them that know no French," is a homely paraphrase of a courtly Continental romance, the only poem in the group to take love as its central theme. The poet's technical competence in handling the difficult syntax and diction of the alliterative style is not, however, to be compared with that of *Winner and Waster*'s author, who exhibits full mastery of the form, particularly in descriptions of setting and spectacle. This poem's topical concern with social satire links it primarily with another, less formal body of alliterative verse, of which William Langland's *Piers Plowman* was the principal representative and exemplar. Indeed, *Winner and Waster*, with its sense of social commitment and occasional apocalyptic gesture, may well have served as a source of inspiration for Langland himself.

The term *alliterative revival* should not be taken to imply a return to the principles of classical Old English versification. The authors of the later 14th-century alliterative poems either inherited or developed their own conventions, which resemble those of the Old English tradition in only the most general way. The syntax and particularly the diction of later Middle English alliterative verse were also distinctive, and the search for alliterating phrases and constructions led to the extensive use of archaic, technical, and dialectal words. Hunts, feasts, battles, storms, and landscapes were described with a brilliant concretion of detail rarely paralleled since, while the abler poets also contrived subtle modulations of the staple verse-paragraph to accommodate dialogue, discourse, and argument. Among the poems central to the movement were three pieces dealing with the life and legends of Alexander the Great, the massive *Destruction of Troy*, and the *Siege of Jerusalem*. The fact that all of these derived from various Latin sources suggests that the anonymous poets were likely to have been clerics with a strong, if bookish, historical sense of their romance "matters."

The "matter of Britain" was represented by an outstanding composition, the alliterative *Morte Arthure*, an epic portrayal of King Arthur's conquests in Europe and his eventual fall, which combined a strong narrative thrust with considerable density and subtlety of diction. A gathering sense of inevitable transitoriness gradually tempers the virile realization of heroic idealism, and it is not surprising to find that the poem was later used by Sir Thomas Malory as a source for his prose account of the Arthurian legend, *Le Morte D'Arthur* (completed c. 1470).

The alliterative movement was primarily confined to poets writing in northern and northwestern England, who showed little regard for courtly, London-based literary developments. It is likely that alliterative poetry, under aristocratic patronage, filled a gap in the literary life of the provinces caused by the decline of Anglo-Norman in the latter half of the 14th century. Alliterative poetry was not unknown in London and the southeast, but it penetrated those areas in a modified form and in poems that dealt with different subject matter.

William Langland's long alliterative poem *Piers Plowman* begins with a vision of the world seen from the Malvern Hills in Worcestershire, where, tradition has it, the poet was born and brought up and where he would have been open to the influence of the alliterative movement. If what he tells about himself in the poem is true (and there is no other source of information), he later lived obscurely in London as an unbeneficed cleric. Langland wrote in the unrhymed alliterative mode, but he modified it in such a way as to make it more accessible to a wider audience by treating the metre more loosely and avoiding the arcane diction of the provincial poets. His poem exists in at least three and possibly four versions:

A – *Piers Plowman* in its short early form, dating from the 1360s;

B – a major revision and extension of A made in the late 1370s;

C (1380s) – a less "literary" version of B, apparently intended to bring its doctrinal issues into clearer focus;

D – a conjectured version that calls into question the dating for A, B, and C. The poem takes the form of a series of dream visions dealing with the social and spiritual predicament of late 14th-century England against a sombre apocalyptic backdrop. Realistic and allegorical elements are mingled in a phantasmagoric way, and both the poetic medium and the structure are frequently subverted by the writer's spiritual and didactic impulses.

Courtly poetry. Apart from a few late and minor reappearances in Scotland and the northwest of England, the alliterative movement was over before the first quarter of the 15th century had passed. The other major strand in the development of English poetry from roughly 1350 proved much more durable. The cultivation and refinement of human sentiment with respect to love, already present in earlier 14th-century writings such as the Harley Lyrics, took firm root in English court culture during the reign of Richard II (1377–1399). English began to displace Anglo-Norman as the language spoken at court and in aristocratic circles, and signs of royal and noble patronage for English vernacular writers became evident. These processes undoubtedly created some of the conditions in which a writer of Chaucer's interests and temperament might flourish, but they were encouraged and given direction by his genius in establishing English as a literary language.

Chaucer and Gower. Geoffrey Chaucer, a Londoner of bourgeois origins, was at various times a courtier, a diplomat, and a civil servant. His poetry frequently reflects the views and values associated with the term *courtly*. It is in some ways not easy to account for his decision to write in English, and it is not surprising that his earliest substantial poems, the *Book of the Duchess* (c. 1370) and the *House of Fame* (1370s), were heavily indebted to the fashionable French courtly love poetry of the time. Also of French origin was the octosyllabic couplet used in these poems. Chaucer's abandonment of this engaging but ultimately jejune metre in favour of a 10-syllable line (specifically, iambic pentameter) was a portentous moment for English poetry. His mastery of it was first revealed in stanzaic form, notably the seven-line stanza (rhyme royal) of the *Parliament of Fowls* (c. 1382) and *Troilus and Criseyde* (c. 1385), and later was extended in the decasyllabic couplets of the prologue to the *Legend of Good Women* (1380s) and large parts of *The Canterbury Tales* (c. 1387-1400).

Though Chaucer wrote a number of moral and amatory lyrics, which were imitated by his 15th-century followers, his major achievements were in the field of narrative poetry. The early influence of French courtly love poetry (notably the *Roman de la Rose*, which he translated) gave way to an interest in Italian literature. Chaucer was acquainted with Dante's writings and took a story from

Petrarch for the substance of *The Clerk's Tale*. Two of his major poems, *Troilus and Criseyde* and *The Knight's Tale*, were based, respectively, on the *Filostrato* and the *Teseida* of Boccaccio. The *Troilus*, Chaucer's single most ambitious poem, is a moving story of love gained and betrayed set against the background of the Trojan War. As well as being a poem of profound human sympathy and insight, it also has a marked philosophical dimension derived from Chaucer's reading of Boethius's *De consolatione philosophiae*, a work that he also translated in prose.

His consummate skill in narrative art, however, was most fully displayed in *The Canterbury Tales*, an unfinished series of stories purporting to be told by a group of pilgrims journeying from London to the shrine of St. Thomas Becket and back. The illusion that the individual pilgrims (rather than Chaucer himself) tell their tales gave him an unprecedented freedom of authorial stance, which enabled him to explore the rich fictive potentialities of a number of genres: pious legend(in *The Man of Law's Tale* and *The Prioress's Tale*), fabliau(*The Shipman's Tale*, *The Miller's Tale*, and *The Reeve's Tale*), chivalric romance (*The Knight's Tale*), popular romance (parodied in Chaucer's *Tale of Sir Thopas*), beast fable(*The Nun's Priest's Tale* and *The Manciple's Tale*), and more – what the poet John Dryden later summed up as "God's plenty."

A dramatization of the opening lines of Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, first heard in Chaucer's language, Middle English, and then in a modern translation.

Popular and secular verse. The art that conceals art was also characteristic of the best popular and secular verse of the period, outside the courtly mode. Some of the shorter verse romances, usually in a form called tail rhyme, were far from negligible: *Ywain and Gawain*, from the *Yvain* of Chrétien de Troyes; *Sir Launfal*, after Marie de France's *Lanval*; and *Sir Degrevant*. Humorous and lewd songs, versified tales, folk songs, ballads, and others form a lively body of compositions. Oral transmission was probably common, and the survival of much of what is extant is fortuitous. The manuscript known as the Percy Folio, a 17th-century antiquarian collection of such material, may be a fair sampling of the repertoire of the late medieval itinerant entertainer. In addition to a number of popular romances of the type satirized long before by Chaucer in *Sir Thopas*, the Percy manuscript also contains a number of impressive ballads very much like those collected from oral sources in the 18th and 19th centuries. The extent of medieval origin of the poems collected in Francis J. Child's *English and Scottish Popular Ballads* (1882–1898) is debatable. Several of the Robin Hood ballads undoubtedly were known in the 15th century, and the characteristic laconically repetitious and incremental style of the ballads is also to be seen in the enigmatic *Corpus Christi Carol*, preserved in an early 16th-century London grocer's commonplace book.

3. TIMELINE

BEFORE ENGLISH

c. 6000 BC   Britain cut off from continental Europe by English Channel

c. 5000 BC   Proto-Indo-Europeans living in Eastern Europe and Central Asia

c. 1000 BC   Germanic Indo-European tribes living in parts of modern-day Germany

c. 500 BC   Celts inhabit much of Europe, and beginning to colonize the British Isles

55 BC   First Roman raids on Britain under Julius Caesar

43 AD   Roman occupation of Britain under Emperor Claudius (beginning of Roman rule of Britain)

410–436   Roman withdrawal from Britain

OLD ENGLISH

c. 450   Anglo-Saxon settlement (Angles, Frisians, Saxons, Jutes) of Britain begins

450–480   Earliest Old English inscriptions

597   St. Augustine arrives in Britain (beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons)

c. 600   Anglo-Saxon language covers most of modern-day England

c. 660   *Cædmon's Hymn* composed in Old English

731   The Venerable Bede writes *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People* (in Latin)

792   Viking raids of Britain begin

c. 800   Old English epic poem *Beowulf* composed

865   The Danes launch full-scale invasion and occupy Northumbria

871   Alfred the Great becomes king of Wessex, encourages English prose and translation of Latin works

871   *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* is begun

878	Danelaw established, dividing Britain into Anglo-Saxon south and Danish north

MIDDLE ENGLISH

1066	The Norman conquest under William the Conqueror
1086	*Domesday Book* compiled
c. 1100	London becomes de facto capital of England
c. 1150	The oldest surviving manuscripts in Middle English date from this period
1154	*The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* discontinued
1167	Oxford University established
c. 1180	The *Ormulum* text of the monk Orm completed
1204	King John loses the province of Normandy to France
1209	Cambridge University established
1349–1350	The Black Death kills one third of the British population
1362	The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law (although records continue to be kept in Latin)
1362	English is used in English Parliament for the first time
c. 1370	William Langland writes *Piers Plowman*
1384	John Wycliffe publishes his English translation of *The Bible*
1385	English replaces Latin as main language in schools (except Universities of Oxford and Cambridge)
c. 1388	Chaucer begins *The Canterbury Tales*
1399	Henry IV becomes first English-speaking monarch since before the Conquest

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

c. 1450	The Great Vowel Shift begins
1476	William Caxton establishes the first English printing press
c. 1500	Start of English Renaissance

1539	*The Great Bible* published
c. 1590	William Shakespeare writes his first plays
1607	Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established
1611	The Authorized, or King James Version, of *The Bible* is published
1616	Death of William Shakespeare
1622	Publication of the first English-language newspaper, the *Courante* or *Weekly News*

LATE MODERN ENGLISH

1755	Samuel Johnson publishes his *Dictionary of the English Language*
1763	Britain wrests control of Canada from the French
1788	British penal colony established in Australia
1788	First publication of *The Times* newspaper in London
1788	Noah Webster publishes *The American Spelling Book*
1795	First English settlement at the Cape of Good Hope, South Africa
1828	Noah Webster publishes his *The American Dictionary of the English Language*
1834	Abolition of slavery in the British Empire
1840	British colony established in New Zealand
1865	United States ends slavery after Civil War
1922	British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) founded
1928	First edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary* is published
1947	India and Pakistan gain independence from Britain
1989	Second edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary* is published

4. WHO'S WHO IN THE BRITISH HISTORY

Ælfric (c. 955 – c. 1010). Writer and ecclesiastic, called Grammaticus. A monk at Winchester and later abbot of Cerne and the Eynsham, Ælfric was the finest prose stylist of late Anglo-Saxon England. His works include the *Catholic Homilies* (two sets of sermons), *Lives of the Saints* and a Latin Grammar.

Æthelred (II) the Unready (c. 968 – 1016). King of England (978–1013, 1014–1016). Æthelred was crowned after his mother, Ælfthryth (or Elfrida), murdered his half-brother Edward the Martyr. Æthelred's blunders earned him the nickname Unready (deriving from the Old English *Redeless*, devoid of counsel) and the weakness of England during his reign encouraged the renewal of the Danish invasions. At least five times he bought off the Danes with tributes of silver (*danegeld*) and on St. Brice's day 1002 he ordered the massacre of all Danes in his realms. In 1013 Sweyn I Forkbeard of Denmark seized the English throne, but Æthelred was restored after Swayn's death (1014).

Alfred the Great (849–899). King of Wessex (871 – 99), renowned for his defence of England against the Danes and for his encouragement of learning. The Danish invasion of Wessex in 871 ended in inconclusive peace, and in 876 the Danes struck again. Based at Athelney, Alfred harassed the enemy until winning, in 878, the great victory at Edington. It is to this period that the probably apocryphal story (told in the 12th-century *Chronicle of St. Neot's*) of Alfred burning the cakes relates. The subsequent peace with the Danish leader Guthrum gave the Danes control over much of eastern England (*Danelag*), but by 890 Alfred's authority was acknowledged over all the remainder of England.

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

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

Alfred's own written works were translations, though he often added new material to his sources. Their order is uncertain, but those that survive are: (1) his translation of Gregory the Great's *Cura Pastoralis*, a manual of instruction for the clergy to which Alfred added a preface describing the contemporary decline in learning and outlining his intention to make education more readily available; (2) a translation of the *Historia Adversus Paganos* by Paulus Orosius, a textbook of universal history to which Alfred added accounts of his experiences of contemporary travellers; (3) a version of Boethius' *De Consolatione Philosophiæ*, originally written entirely in prose but with verse renderings of Boethius' metrical passages added later; (4) a translation of Augustine's *Soliloquia*, which was probably Alfred's final work. The last two include much additional material, and his authorship of the last has been

questioned, though now it seems likely that he did not write it. Alfred probably had a hand in translating a shortened version of Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*, at one time attributed wholly to him but written largely in a dialect not his own. He may have been instrumental in planning the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, begun during his reign, but there is nothing to suggest that he was involved in writing it.

A great deal of information about Alfred is given in *De Rebus Gestis Ælfredi Magni* by Asser, a Welsh monk who became his friend and teacher. Written in Latin, it chronicles Alfred's life from his birth in 887. The account of national events is largely the same as in *Anglo-Saxon Chronicles*, but Asser added a great deal about Alfred's character and actions. This is at times naive, subjective and fulsome in its praise of the king, but nevertheless remains an invaluable source.

Allen, William, Cardinal (1532–1594). Scholar and polemicist, in exile from 1565. In 1568 he founded a seminary at Douai to train Englishmen as priests. The he directed the translation of the Rein-Douai Bible. He arranged the first Jesuit mission to England in 1580. A champion of the cause of Philip II of Spain, he hoped, if Philip's armada succeeded, to become archbishop of Canterbury. He was elected cardinal in 1587.

Bede (673–735). Anglo-Saxon historian and scholar, born in Northumbria, who spent most of his life in the monastery at Jarrow. A student of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, he was renowned for his scholarship and was known after his death as the Venerable Bede. *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*, which Bede completed in 731, is the most important history written in England before the 16th century. Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* is not only interesting, it is not only an important historic work, it is a great piece of belles-lettres art, and in this respect Bede may be justly considered as the founder of English literature. King Alfred supervised its translation into Old English. Bede popularized the method of dating *anno domini* and wrote on a variety of subjects, including physical science, rhetoric, and astronomy.

Cabot, John (c. 1450 – c. 1499). Explorer and navigator. Born in Genoa, he settled in England in 1484. Under Henry VII's patronage he sailed from Bristol in 1497, with his son Sebastian Cabot (c. 1476 – 1557). They landed at a place that may have been in southern Labrador, Newfoundland, or Cape Breton Island (the coasts of which Sebastian mapped); the Cabots, however, themselves to be in Asia. John died at sea during a second expedition. Sebastian became cartographer to Henry VIII and, later, governor to Merchants Adventurers.

Cædmon, St. (7th century). Author of the earliest surviving poem in Old English. This work, a nine-line fragment, is known from its transcription by Bede in his *Ecclesiastical History*. Cædmon (according to Bede) was an oxherd

on the estates of Whitby abbey who, after miraculously receiving the gift of song, was received as a monk and wrote many poems on religious themes.

Cæsar, Julius (102–44 BC). Roman general and statesman. In 55 BC in the course of his conquest of Gaul, Cæsar made his first expedition to Britain but was forced to leave after a few weeks when bad weather damaged his exposed fleet on the Kent coast. The following year he invaded with more troops and, after heavy fighting, defeated the British leader Cassivellaunus, who agreed to pay tribute. A storm ones more wrecked most of Cæsar's fleet and he returned to Gaul with great difficulty.

Canute *see* **Cnut.**

Caxton, William (?1422 – 1497). The first English printer. Born in Kent, he served as a mercer's apprentice before establishing himself in business in Bruges in about 1446. In 1465 he was appointed a governor at the Merchants Adventurers, negotiating commercial treaties on their behalf. He learned the art of printing at Cologne in the early 1470s and in 1476 returned to England. In 1477 the first book was issued from his press at Westminster, Earl Rivers' *Dictes and Sayenges of the Phylosophers.* Between then and his death Caxton produced about 80 complete volumes, including Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*, and also found time to work on translations. On his death the press was taken over by his chief assistant, Wynkyn de Worde.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (?1340–1400). Poet. Son of a London vintner, he entered royal service in 1357. His familiarity with French and Italian literature was acquired on travel abroad on royal business, and while visiting Genoa and Florence (1372–1373) he may have met Boccaccio and Petrarch. In 1374 he became comptroller of customs, a post he held until 1386, and from 1389 to 1391 he was clerk of the king's works. He received a pension from Henry IV in 1399. *The Canterbury Tales* (begun about 1387), his best-known work, is a collection of 23 stories related by members of a group of pilgrims on their way to Becket's shrine at Canterbury. The real triumph and achievement of *The Canterbury Tales* is in its astonishing stylistic variety. It is the last work of a writer who had absorbed everything the English, French and Italian traditions could teach him and who was now demonstrating its mastery of narrative. Not only do the *Tales* offer examples of every kind of story told in the Middle Ages – romances, saints' lives, moral tales, stories of sexual trickery or *fabliaux* – but within each of these categories Chaucer rings changes and tests limits. His three *fabliaux*, the *Miller's Tale*, the *Reeve's Tale*, and the *Merchant's Tale*, all show a husband cuckolded by a younger man; yet they are all utterly different in mood and implication.

Clarence, George (1449–1478). Brother of Edward IV. He was lord lieutenant of Ireland from 1462 to 1469, when he married Isabel, eldest daughter of Warwick the kingmaker. Clarence and Warwick twice (1469, 1470) invaded

England, but after the restoration of Henry VI Clarence gave his support to Edward, whom he helped to regain the throne (1471). Quarrels between the brothers culminated in Clarence's attainder for plotting by necromancy Edward's death. Clarence was executed by drowning according to rumour.

Cnut (or **Canute**) (c. 994 – 1035). King of Denmark and England. He accompanied his brother Sweyn Forkbeard on his invasion of England (1013) and was chosen king of Denmark (1014) on Sweyn's death. A protracted struggle with Edmund Ironside, king of Wessex, for control of England ended with Edmund's murder in 1016, and Cnute was crowned in 1017. In the same year he married Emma, the widow of Æthelred II, and by the early 1020s was depending on English more than Danish advisers. His reign was marked by legal and military reforms and, apart from an expedition to Scotland in 1027, internal peace. The famous story of how Cnut demonstrated to flatterers the limitation of his powers, by failing to make the waves recede, was told by Henry the Huntingdon.

Coverdale, Miles (?1488–1569). Translator of the Bible. A zealous Protestant, Coverdale was briefly bishop of Exeter (1551–1553). His translation of the Bible, published in Zurich 1535, was the first complete printed English Bible.

Cranmer, Thomas (1489–1556). Archbishop of Canterbury (1533–1556). In 1529, at the request of Henry VIII, he prepared a treatise justifying the invalidity of the king's marriage to Catherine of Aragon. After becoming archbishop he declared it void and then pronounced that the marriage of Henry and Anne Boleyn was valid. He exerted an enormous influence on the English Reformation. After the accession of Edward VI he was largely responsible for the two *Books of Common Prayer* (1549, 1552) and 42 articles (1553). After the succession of Mary he was burned at the stake.

Ecgbert *see* **Egbert.**

Edward II (1284–1327). King of England (1307–1327), son of Edward I and Eleanor of Castile. Born in Cærnarfon, he was the first English prince of Wales (1301–1307). In 1308 he married Isabel of France. Initially England rejoiced at the accession of the handsome young king, but his extravagance and foolishness made his reign a troubled one. His infatuation with Piers Gaveston angered the barons, who in 1308 forced the king to banish his favourite to Ireland. Gaveston's return in 1309 was one of the provocations that led to the appointment of the *lords ordainers*, who forced the king to accept the limitations on royal power contained in the *Ordinances* (1311). Gaveston was again banished, and his return together with Edward's attempts to evade the Ordinances led to civil war (1312). Gaveston was executed and the disastrous Scottish campaign, notably the defeat at Bannockburn (1314), so weakened Edward's position that yielded his authority to his chief opponent and cousin, Thomas, earl of Lancaster. By 1316, however, the king had regained much of

his power from the incompetent Thomas and in 1318 found a new favourite, the young Hugh le Despenser. Renewed baronial complaints led to the banishment of Despenser and his father (1321). In 1322 the king recalled them and successfully renewed the war against the barons, capturing and beheading Thomas of Lancaster. Edward was now able to revoke the Ordinances, only to encounter opposition from his wife. In 1325 Queen Isabel, furious at the loss of her estates and humiliated by the king's love for the young Despenser, went to France. There she fell in love with Roger de Mortimer, a bitter enemy of the Despensers. In 1326 Isabel and Mortimer invaded England and 1327 deposed Edward, who died, probably murdered, in Berkeley castle in Gloucestershire. He was succeeded by his son Edward III.

Edward III (1312–1377). King of England (1327 – 77), son of Edward II and Isabel of France; he married Philippa of Hainault in 1328. He became king after his mother and her lover, Roger de Mortimer, forced his father to abdicate, but assumed personal control of the administration only in 1330, when he had Mortimer executed. Edward did much to revive the prestige of the English monarchy after his father's disastrous reign. He conciliated the barons, pursued an enlightened commercial policy, and reorganized the navy. His reign, however, was dominated by his wars with Scotland and France. He sought to undermine Scottish independence, supporting the coronation of Edward Balliol in 1332 and twice defeating Edward's rival David II – at Halidon Hill (1333) and at Neville's Cross (1336), when David was taken prisoner.

In 1337 Edward led England into the Hundred Years' War against France, claiming not only full sovereignty over Aquitaine but also the French throne, taking (1340) the title *King of France.* He was initially successful, winning notable victories at Sluys, at sea (1340), and Crecy (1346) and conquering Calais (1347). In 1355 he resumed hostilities against France to protect his French domains, and at the great victory at Poitiers (1356) King John II of France was captured. His next campaign (1359–1360) failed and by the treaty of Bretigny (1360) he renounced his claim to the French throne in exchange for recognition of his full sovereignty over his French domains. In the last years of his reign he became increasingly senile and fell under the influence of his mistress Alice Perrers, while government was largely in the hands of his fourth son, John of Gaunt.

Edward the Confessor, St. (1003–1066). King of England (1042–1066). Son of Æthelred the Unready and Emma, daughter of Richard II, duke of Normandy, during Cnut's reign Edward lived in exile in Normandy. He was crowned in 1043 and in 1045 married Edith, daughter of Earl Godwine. Thereafter Godwine's family dominated royal policy. Edward lost popularity by placing Normans in high offices in an attempt to counterbalance Godwine's influence. Tension between the two parties led to Godwine's brief exile (1051),

but he quickly re-established supremacy. In his last years Edward increasingly turned from secular affairs, control of the country being left to the great earls, such as Godwine's son Harold. Famed for his asceticism and piety, Edward was buried in Westminster abbey (which he founded). He was canonized in 1161.

Edwin (died in 632). King of Northumbria (617–632). Son of Ælle, king of Deira, he defeated Æthelric, king of neighbouring Bernicia to become king of a united Northumbria. He was ultimately acknowledged as *bretwalda* (overlord) of all England except Kent. In 625 he married Æthelburh, Christian daughter of Æthelbert of Kent, and was converted to Christianity (627) by Paulinus, whom he appointed archbishop of York. He died in the battle against Penda of Mercia.

Egbert (or **Ecgbert**) (died in 839). King of Wessex (802–839). Son of vassal king of Kent, Egbert was forced into exile (789) by Offa and lived at the court of Charlemagne until 802, when he was elected king of Wessex. In 825 he defeated Beornwulf of Mercia at the battle of Ellendun, and 828 he temporarily annexed Mercia. Northumbria recognized his lordship and he was styled *bretwalda* (overlord) in 829. However, Wiglaf re-established Mercian independence in 830, and thereafter Egbert was effective ruler only of Wessex and its dependent kingdoms of Surrey, Sussex, Kent, and Essex.

Elizabeth Woodville (c. 1437 – 1492). Queen consort of Edward IV, the daughter of Richard Woodville, Earl Rivers. She secretly married Edward IV in 1464 and was crowned the following year. The influence she used in securing favours for her family connections made her enemies and following Edward's death she sought sanctuary at Westminster. She died in Bermondsey abbey.

Gregory I, St. (c. 540 – 604). Pope (590–604). A monk, theologian, and one of the greatest of medieval popes, Gregory sent Augustine as missionary to Kent in 596. Feast day: 12 March.

Harold II (?1020–1066). King of England (Jan. – Oct. 1066). Second son of Earl Godwine, Harold was exiled in the anti-Godwine reaction in 1051 but was restored, after invading England, in 1052. In 1053 he succeeded Godwine as earl of Wessex and thereafter dominated the court and English politics. While at the court of William, duke of Normandy (1064), he swore to aid his accession to the English throne, but on the death of Edward the Confessor he himself became king. He was defeated and killed by William at the battle of Hasings.

Henry III (1207–1272). King of England (1216–1272). The son of King John and Isabella of Angouleme, he married Eleanor of Provence in 1236. They had three children: Edward (I), Edmund, and Beatrice. Nine years old at his first accession, during the first Barons' War, the leading figures in his minority were successively, William Marshal, 1st earl of Pembroke (until his death in 1219) and Hubert de Burgh. In 1227 he declared himself of age. His ineffectual government, financial mismanagement, and dependence on foreign favourites (Poitevins) provoked baronial opposition. The Marshal rebellion (1233–1234)

forced him to dismiss Peter des Roches and Peter des Rivaux, but the Savoyard relations of his wife Eleanor of Provence (whom he married in 1236) aroused further anger. When Henry demanded an exorbitant sum to fulfill a promise to finance papal wars in Sicily in return for the Sicilian crown for his son Edmund the conflict came to a head. The barons issued the *Provisions of Oxford* limiting the king's power, and Henry's renunciation of these led to the outbreak of the second Barons' War (1264). In May of that year the baronial leader Simon de Montfort captured the king and his son Edwardat the battle of Lewes and ruled England until his death at Evesham in Aug. 1265. In the years of his reign Henry played little part in government, which was largely in the hands of Edward.

Henry V (1387–1422). King of England (1413–1422), son of Henry IV and Mary de Bohun. He was created prince of Wales in 1399 and spent many years fighting the Welsh, notably Owain Glyndwr. In 1415 he resumed the Hundred Years' war against France, demanding the restoration of English domains in France and claiming the French throne. His first campaign led to the capture of Harfleur and the great English victory at Agincourt (1415). His alliance with Burgundy and with the emperor Sigismund greatly strengthened his hand in negotiating the treaty of Troyes (1420), by which the French king Charles VI made Henry his heir and regent of France and betrothed him to his daughter Catherine of Valois. Henry died of dysentery two months before the death of Charles, leaving his infant son Henry VI, as heir to his claims in France.

Henry VI (1421–1471). King of England (1422–1461, 1470–1471). Only son of Henry V and Catherine of Valois, Henry succeeded to the throne while still an infant and a council of regency, headed by his uncles John of Lancaster, Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, governed during his minority (1422–1437). Henry was crowned at Westminster in 1429 and in Paris, as king of France, in 1430. He had no military or administrative skills and suffered recurrent bouts of insanity, which encouraged the feud between leading magnates that dominated his reign. The conflict between Gloucester and Henry Beaufort, bishop of Winchester, gave way after their deaths (1447) to the power struggle between the king's chief minister Edmund Beaufort, duke of Somerset, and Richard, duke of York. In 1453–1454, during a phase of Henry's mental illness, York obtained the protectorship, but after the king's recovery Beaufort was again in the ascendant. In 1455 the conflict between their two houses, Lancaster and York, erupted in the Wars of the Roses, during which Henry was dominated by his wife Margaret of Anjou, whom he married in 1445. After the Yorkist victories of 1461 the king was deposed by York's son Edward (IV) and fled to Scotland. Returning in 1464, he was captured in the following year and imprisoned. In October 1470, however, Warwick the king-maker secured Henry's restoration, which lasted until April 1471, when Edward returned to

reclaim the throne. Henry was imprisoned in the Tower, where, after Tewkesbury, he was murdered.

Henry VII (145 –1509). The first Tudor king of England (1485–1509), son of Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, and Margaret Beaufort. Born during the Wars of Roses, he went into exile in Brittany after the collapse of the Lancastrian cause in 1471. In 1485 he invaded England, landing at Milford Haven in Wales, and Defeated and killed Richard III at Bosworth Field on the 22 August. In October he was crowned and in January 1486 he married Elizabeth of York, thus uniting the houses of Lancaster and York. However, Yorkist plots, notably those of Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbeck, continued to threaten his position for most of his reign. In 1489 Henry negotiated the treaty of Medina del Campo with Spain, which arranged for the marriage of his elder son Arthur to Catherine of Aragon, and in 1496 and 1506 respectively, the *intercursus magnus* and *intercursus malus* with the Netherlands. He also established peace with Scotland (1499), subsequently (1503) marrying his daughter Margaret to James IV. Henry introduced few innovations in government but his shrewd and resolute rule restored order after the Wars of Roses. His efficient, although sometimes unscrupulous, management of finances left a healthy surplus to his successor, his second son Henry VIII.

James VI of Scots and I of England (1566–1625). King of Scots (1567–1625) and of England and Ireland (1603–1625). James, the first Stuart king of England, was the son of Mary Queen of Scotland her second husband, Henry, Lord Darnley. When James succeeded to the Scottish throne in 1567, following his mother's enforced abdication, he was only 13 months old. His long and troubled minority saw a succession of regents. Religious and aristocratic factions made various attempts to secure the king's person, and civil war raged until 1573 when the earl of Morton took control of Scotland. In 1586 by the treaty of Berwick James was awarded an English pension; and his cousin Elizabeth I promised not to oppose his claims to the English succession unless he provoked her by his actions in Scotland. This sufficed to ensure James' acquiescence to his mother's execution in 1587 and his neutrality when the Spanish armada sailed against England in the following year. In 1592 James consented to an act of parliament establishing Presbyterianism of Scotland; with the support of Presbytarians he was finally able to subdue the Roman Catholic earls of the north. James did much to improve the system of civil government in Scotland and took the first step towards initiating a regular system of taxation. He married Anne of Denmark in 1589.

When James succeeded to the English throne in 1603, he made it clear that there would be no fundamental alteration to the Elizabethan church settlement and that he believed the Anglican church and the monarchy to be independent. His slogan was "no bishop, no king". One manifestation of the

frustration of the religious minorities was the Roman Catholic inspired gunpowder plot of 1604.

James' experience in Scotland failed to prepare him adequately for the English throne. He was soon in conflict with his parliaments (1604–1611, the 1614 Addled Parliament, and 1621–1622) on the question of the extent of his sovereignty and its refusal to grant what he considered adequate revenue. On occasion he sought financial independence by means of extra parliamentary levies. His liking for attractive young men, notably such court favourites as Robert Carr and George Villiers (duke of Buckingham), alienated many Englishmen. Soon after his accession James made peace with Spain, realizing England could no longer afford the crippling costs of war. He aspired to the role of the peacemaker of Europe, acceptable to both Catholics and Protestants. His efforts were ruined both by the strength of Protestant opinion in Britain and by the reluctance of Spain to form an alliance with him. After the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War (1618) on the Continent, James had to settle for a treaty with the Dutch and a French marriage alliance for his heir Charles.

Offa (died in 796). King of Mercia (757–796), Crowned after seizing power in the civil war that followed the death of his cousin Æthelbald. Offa consolidated Mercian power over the southern England as well as extending Mercian influence to the north. His daughters married the kings of Wessex and Northumbria, and Offa's special power in England was recognized by Pope Adrian I. Adrian referred to him as the "king of the English" and agreed to the creation of an archbishop at Lichfield, which freed the Mercian church from the control of Canterbury in Kent. Offa negotiated a commercial treaty with the future emperor Charlemagne on equal terms. He may have built *Offa's dyke* and struck a new coinage, issuing the silver penny, which bore his name and title.

Raleigh, Sir Walter (?1552–1618). Courtier and explorer. In 1580s he organized several voyages of discovery along the Atlantic seaboard of North America, but an attempt to colonize a region named Virginia (in honour of Queen Elizabeth, the Virgin Queen) was unsuccessful. In 1592 Raleigh fell out of favour with the queen after marrying Elizabeth Throgmorton, one of her ladies in waiting, and in 1595 set off on a fruitless search for the legendary Eldorado supposedly to be found in Guyana. On his return he played a distinguished part in the Cadiz expedition (1596) and also fought the Spanish in the Azores (1597). In 1603, however, Raleigh was accused of conspiring against James I and was imprisoned in the Tower. There he remained until 1616, when he was released for the purpose of undertaking a second voyage in search of Eldorado. The expedition ended in the English destruction of a Spanish settlement, and on his return to England Raleigh was executed. His literary works include *The Discovery of the Empire of Guyana* (1596), the *History of the World* (1614), and poetry.

Shakespeare, William (1564–1616). Dramatist and poet regarded as the greatest writer in English literature. He was born and educated in Stratford-upon-Avon, had joined the Lord Chamberlain's Men as an actor and playwright by 1592, and became one of the landlords of the new Globe theatre in 1598. Shakespeare's chief English history plays, for which Holinshed is the main source, are *Henry VI*, parts 1–3, *Richard III* (1589–1592), *Richard II*, *Henry IV*, parts 1–2 (1594–1597), *Henry V* (1599), *Macbeth* (1599), and *Henry VIII* (1612–1613).

Between the record of his baptism in Stratford on the 26 April 1564 and the record of his burial in Stratford on 25 April 1616, some forty documents name Shakespeare, and many other name his parents, his children, and his grandchildren. More facts are known about William Shakespeare than about any other playwright of the period except Ben Jonson. The facts should, however, be distinguished from the legends. The latter, inevitably more engaging and better known, tell us that the Stratford boy killed a calf in high style, poached deer and rabbits, and was forced to flee to London, where he held horses outside a playhouse. These traditions are only traditions; they may be true, but no evidence supports them, and it is well to stick to the facts.

Mary Arden, the dramatist's mother, was the daughter of a substantial landowner; about 1557 she married John Shakespeare, who was a glove-maker and trader in various farm commodities. In 1557 John Shakespeare was a member of the Council (the governing body of Stratford), in 1558 a constable of the borough, in 1561 on of the two chamberlains, in 1565 an alderman (entitling him to the appellation "Mr."), in 1568 high bailiff – the town's highest political office, equivalent to mayor. After 1577, for an unknown reason he drops out of local politics. The birthday of William Shakespeare, the eldest son of this locally prominent man, is unrecorded; but the Stratford parish register records that the infant was baptized on 26 April 1564. (It is quite possible that he was born on 23 April, but this date has probably been assigned by tradition because it is the date on which, fifty-two years later, he died.) The attendance records of the Stratford grammar school are not extant, but it reasonable to assume that the son of a local official attended the school and received substantial training in Latin. The masters of the school from Shakespeare's seventh to fifteenth years held Oxford degrees; the Elizabethan curriculum excluded mathematics and the natural sciences but taught a good deal of Latin rhetoric, logic, and literature. On 27 November 1582 a marriage license was issued to Shakespeare and Anne Hathaway, eight years his senior.

Several years later Shakespeare went to London. It is not known how he broke into the London theatres as a dramatist and actor. By 1594 Shakespeare was a member of the company of actors known as the Lord Chamberlain's Men. After the accession of James I, in 1603, the company would have the sovereign for their patron and would be known as the King's Men. During the period of its

greatest prosperity, this company would have as its principal theatres the Globe and the Blackfriars. Shakespeare was both an actor and a shareholder in the company. Tradition has assigned him such acting roles as Adam in *As You Like It* and the Ghost in *Hamlet*, a modest place on the stage that suggests he may have had other duties in the management of the company. Such conclusions, however, are based on surmise.

What is known well is that his plays were popular and that he was highly successful in his vocation. His first play may have been *The Comedy of Errors*, acted perhaps in 1591. The three parts of *Henry VI* were acted sometime between 1590 and 1592. *Richard III* probably dates from 1593. From this time onward, Shakespeare's plays followed on the stage in rapid succession: *Titus Andronicus, The Taming of the Shrew, The Two Gentlemen of Verona, Love's Labour's Lost, Romeo and Juliet, Richard II, A Midsummer Night's Dream, King John, The Merchant of Venice, Henry IV (Parts 1 and 2), Much Ado About Nothing, Henry V, Julius Cæsar, As You Like It, Twelfth Night, Hamlet, The Merry Wives of Windsor, All's Well That Ends Well, Measure for Measure, Othello, King Lear*, and nine others that followed before Shakespeare retired completely, about 1613.

William (I) the Conqueror (1028–1087). The first Norman king of England (1066–1087). Illegitimate son of Robert, duke of Normandy, he married his cousin Matilda of Flanders in 1053. They had four children: Robert, William, Henry, and Adela. William succeeded his father as duke of Normandy in 1035 but was not able to exert full control over his territories until 1047. He visited Edward the Confessor of England in 1051, when he was almost certainly promised the English throne. In 1066, with the backing of the papacy, William claimed his right and landed an invasion force at Pevensey, Sussex. He defeated and killed his rival, King Harold, at Hastings in October and then formally accepted the kingdom at Berkhamsted before being crowned in Westminster Abbey at Christmas Day. The Norman conquest was not, however, complete. William faced a number of English revolts during the years 1067 to 1071, which he effectively, if ruthlessly, crushed. Furthermore, the subjection of the new kingdom involved the introduction of Norman personnel and social organization (feudalism), as well as administrative and legal practices. The effect of the conquest on English culture was considerable. William's reign witnessed reforms in the church under his trusted adviser Lanfranc, who became archbishop of Canterbury in 1070, and, most notably, the compilation of the *Domesday Book* (1086). William spent most of the last 15 years of his life in Normandy and died of an injury received while campaigning against Philip I of France. He was buried in St. Stephen's church at Caen.

Wulfstan, St. (c. 1009 – 1095). Bishop of Worcester from 1062. Educated at Avesham and Peterborough. Wulfstan was the last of the Anglo-

Saxon bishops. A supporter of William I, who allowed him to retain the bishopric, Wulfstan, although unlearned, was an excellent administrator and was also noted for his pastoral activities. He rebuilt Worcester cathedral and brought an end to the slave traffic at Bristol. Feast day: 19 Jan.

Wycliffe (or **Wyclif**)**, John** (c. 1330 – 1384). Church reformer, who inspired the Lollards. Born in Yorkshire, he was educated in Oxford and became master of Balliol College in about 1360. In 1374 he was made rector of Lutterworth. In *De dominio divino* and *De dominio civil* (c. 1376) he argued that the church should not interfere in temporal affairs nor have temporal possessions. After the development of the great schism in the western church he attacked the claims to authority of the papacy and denied the doctrine of transubsantiation. He is best remembered for supervising the translation of the Bible into English.

5. GLOSSARY OF TERMS

Alliteration: the repetition of the initial consonant or vowel of words in sequence. Old English and Old Germanic poetry was alliterative in structure: the metricality of the poetic line was determined not by the number of syllables, rhyme, or classical metre, but by the number of alliterative words in stressed positions.

Analogy: the process by which certain grammatically or morphologically different words or expressions come to share the same form or pronunciation.

Analytic language: a language in which grammatical relationships among words in a sentence are determined by the order of the words in that sentence.

Anaphora: a term used in rhetoric to describe the repetition of a word or phrase, usually at the beginning of successive sentences or clauses.

Anglo-Saxons: the Germanic peoples who settled the British Isles beginning in the 5th and 6th centuries AD and who spoke Old English. Conquered by the Normans in 1066, they were gradually absorbed into the Norman French-speaking population.

Argot: a distinctive way of writing or speaking, often characterized by a unique vocabulary used by a particular class, profession, or social group.

Articulatory phonetics: the study of how sounds are produced in the mouth, and the technique of accurately describing those sounds by using special symbols.

Aureate diction: use of an elaborate Latinate vocabulary used by English writers of the 15th and 16th centuries to evoke a highly "educated" tone in their language.

Back vowels: continuous sounds produced at the back of the mouth (see front vowels, high vowels).

Calque: a bit-by-bit, or morpheme-by-morpheme, translation of one word in one language into another word in another language, often used to avoid bringing new or loan words into the translating language.

Chancery English: the form of the English language developed in written documents of the 15th century in Chancery (the official writing centre of royal administration). Many grammatical forms and spelling conventions of Chancery English have become part of standard written English.

Cognate: two or more words from two or more different but related languages that share a common root or original.

Comparative philology: the study of different but related languages in their historical contexts, traditionally with the goal of reconstructing earlier, lost forms of words and sounds in the Indo-European languages.

Creole: a new language that develops out of the sustained contact among two or more languages. Often, creoles develop when the language of a colonizing or economically dominant group is imposed upon a subordinate or

colonized group. Thus, many creoles have elements of both European and non-European languages. Creoles may emerge over time from pidgins. The basic difference is that creoles are perceived by the language speakers as the natural or native language, whereas pidgins are perceived as artificial or ad hoc arrangements for communication (see pidgin).

Deep structure: in the linguistic theory of Noam Chomsky and his followers, the mental or genetically encoded pattern of language communication in human beings (see surface structure; transformational-generative grammar).

Descriptivism: the belief that the study of language should describe the linguistic behaviour of a group of speakers or writers at a given moment and should not be pressed into the service of prescribing how people should write or speak (see prescriptivism).

Determinative compounding: the process by which new nouns are created in a language by yoking together two normally independent nouns (e. g., earring). A key feature of the Germanic languages, especially Old English, it is the process by which many poetic compounds were formed in literature (e. g., Old English banlocan, is bone locker, or body).

Dialect: a variant form of a language, usually defined by region, class, or socioeconomic group and distinguished by its pronunciation, vocabulary, and on occasion, morphology.

Dialectology: the study of different regional variations of a given language, spoken or written at a given time.

Diphthongs: vowel sounds that are made up of two distinct sounds joined together.

Etymology: the systematic study of word origins, roots and changes. The etymology of a given word is its history, traced back through its various pronunciations and semantic shifts, until its earliest recorded or reconstructed root. A root is also known as an etymon.

Extension in function: the increase in the range of grammatical functions that a given word carries over time.

Extension in lexis: the increase in the range of meanings, often figurative, that a given word carries over time.

Eye dialect: a way of representing in writing regional or dialect variations by spelling words in nonstandard ways. Spellings such as *sez* or *wanna* are eye dialect forms; they do not actually record distinctions of speech but, rather, evoke the flavour of nonstandard language.

Front vowels: continuous sounds produced at the front of the mouth (see back vowels, high vowels).

Grammar: generally used to refer to the system of establishing verbal relationships in a given language; often confused with standards of "good usage" or "educated" speech.

Grammatical gender: the system by which nouns in a language carry special endings or require distinctive pronoun, adjective, and article forms. Described as masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Great Vowel Shift: the systematic shift in the pronunciation of stressed, long vowels in English, which occurred from the middle of the 15th century to the middle of the 16th century in England and permanently changed the pronunciation of the English language. It effectively marks the shift from Middle English to Modern English.

Grimm's Law: a set of relationships among the consonants of the Germanic and non-Germanic Indo-European languages, first codified and published by Jakob Grimm in 1822.

High vowels: continuous sounds produced at the top of the mouth (see front vowels, back vowels).

Homonymy: the state in which two or more words of different origin and meaning come to be pronounced in the same way.

Indo-European: the term used to describe the related languages of Europe, India, and Iran, which are believed to have descended from a common tongue spoken in roughly the 3rd millennium B. C. by an agricultural peoples originating in southeastern Europe. English is a member of the Germanic branch of the Indo-European languages.

Inkhorn terms: words from Latin or Romance languages, often polysyllabic and of arcane scientific or aesthetic resonance, coined and introduced into English in the 16th and 17th centuries.

Lexicography: the practice of making dictionaries.

Lexis: the vocabulary resources of a given language.

Metathesis: the reversing of two sounds in a sequence, occasionally a case of mispronunciation but also occasionally a historical change in pronunciation.

Middle English: the language, in its various dialects, spoken by the inhabitants of England from roughly the period following the Norman Conquest (the late 11th century) until roughly the period of completion of the Great Vowel Shift (the early 16th century).

Modern English: the language, in its various dialects, that emerged after the end of the Great Vowel Shift, roughly in the middle of the 16th century.

Monophthongs: vowel sounds that are made up of only one continuously produced sound (e. g., the sound in the Modern English word feet).

Morpheme: a set of one or more sounds in a language that, taken together, make up a unique, meaningful part of a word (e. g., "-ly" is the morpheme indicating manner of action, as in quickly or slowly; "-s" is a morpheme indicating plurality, as in dogs).

Morphology: the study of the forms of words that determine relationships of meaning in a sentence in a given language. Includes such issues as case endings in nouns, formation of tenses in verbs, and so on.

Old English: the language, or group of related dialects, spoken by the Anglo-Saxon people in England from the earliest recorded documents (late 7th century) until roughly the end of the 11th century.

Periphrastic: a term that refers to a roundabout way of doing something; used in grammar to describe a phrase or idiom that uses new words or more words than necessary to express grammatical relationship.

Philology: the study of language generally but now often restricted to the historical study of changes in phonology, morphology, grammar, and lexis. Comparative philology is the term used to describe the method of comparing surviving forms of words from related languages to reconstruct older, lost forms.

Phoneme: an individual sound that, in contrast with other sounds, contributes to the set of meaningful sounds in a given language. A phoneme is not simply a sound but, rather, a sound that is meaningful (e. g., "b" and "p" are phonemes in English because their difference determines two different meaningful words: *bit* and *pit*, for example).

Phonetics: the study of the pronunciation of sounds of a given language by speakers of that language.

Phonology: the study of the system of sounds of a given language.

Pidgin: a language that develops to allow two mutually unintelligible groups of speakers to communicate. Pidgins are often ad hoc forms of communication, and they are perceived as artificial by both sets of speakers. Over time, a pidgin may develop into a creole (see creole).

Polysemy: the state in which one word comes to connote several, often very different, meanings.

Prescriptivism: the belief that the study of language should lead to certain prescriptions or rules of advice for speaking and writing (see descriptivism).

Regionalism: an expression in a given language that is unique to a given geographical area and is not characteristic of the language as a whole.

Semantic change: the change in the meaning of a word over time.

Slang: a colloquial form of expression in a language, usually relying on words or phrases drawn from popular culture, particular professions, or the idioms of particular groups (defined, for example, by age or class).

Sociolinguistics: the study of the place of language in society, often centering on distinctions of class, regional dialect, race, and gender in communities of speakers and writers.

Strong verb: in the Germanic languages, a verb that indicates change in tense by changing the root vowel: e. g., *think, thought; drink, drank, drunk; bring, brought; run, ran* (see weak verb).

Structural linguistics: the discipline of studying language in America in the first half of the 20th century, characterized by close attention to the sounds of languages, by a rigorous empirical methodology, and by awareness of the marked differences in the structures of languages. The term is often used to characterize the work of Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield.

Surface structure: in the linguistic theory of Noam Chomsky and his followers, the actual forms of a given language, uttered by speakers of that language, that are produced by the rules of that language and are generated out of the deep structures innate in the minds of humans.

Syntax: the way in which a language arranges its words to make well-formed or grammatical utterances.

Synthetic language: a language in which grammatical relationships among words in a sentence are determined by the inflections (for example, case endings) added to the words.

Transformational-generative grammar: the theory of language developed by Noam Chomsky and his followers which argues that all human beings have the ability to speak a language and that deep-structure patterns of communication are transformed, or generated, into surface structures of a given language by a set of rules unique to each language. Presumes that language ability is an innate idea in humans (see deep structure, surface structure).

Weak verb: in the Germanic languages, a verb that indicates change in tense by adding a suffix, usually in "-ed": e. g., *walk, walked; love, loved*.