ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА
МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ
ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАХОН ТИЛЛАРИ
УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

100 та

А. ҚЎЛДОШЕВ

ИНГЛИЗ ТИЛИ ТАРИХИ

(ўкув кўлланма)

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Мазкур ўкув кўлланма бакалавриатуранинг 5220100 - Филология (инглиз тили) таълим йўналиши бўйича ихтисослашаётган талабаларга "Инглиз тили тарихи" назарий курсидан маърузалар матнини ўз ичи га олган.

Данное учебное пособие содержит курс лекций по курсу «История английского языка» для студентов бакалавриата по специальности 5220100 – Филология (английский язык)

LECTURE 1. The Subject of History of English.

Problems for discussion.

1. The subject-matter of History of English.
2. The connection of History of English with other aspects of the language.
3. Intra and extralinguistic factors in the development of languages.
4. Diachronic and sinchronic approaches to the study of language History.
5. Sources of language History.

1. This outline history covers the main events in the historical development of the English language: the history of its phonetic structure and spelling, the evolution of its grammatical system, the growth of its vocabulary, and also the changing historical conditions of English speaking communities relevant to language history.

Through learning the history of the English language the student achieves a variety of aims, both theoretical and practical. The history of the language is of considerable interest to all students of English, since the English language of today reflects many centuries of development.

This is no less true of a foreign language. Therefore one of the aims of this course is to provide the student with a knowledge of linguistic history sufficient to account for the principal features of present day English. In studing the English language of to-day, we are faced with a number of peculiarities which appear unintelligible from the modern point of view. These are found both in the vocabulary and in the phonetic and grammatical structure of the language. Let us mention a few of them..

In the sphere of vocabulary there is considerable likeness between English and German. Thus, for examlce: the German for Summer is Sommer, foot, is Fu□,or for long is lang. On the other hand, in certain cases English has something in common with French, as the following examples will show: English outumn-French automne,rever-riviere, change-changer.

Similar facts are also found in the phonetic structure of the language, or, more precisely, in the relation between pronunciation and spelling. Here, too, we are faced with a series of phenomena which cannot be explained from the modern point of view. Why, for instance does the spelling of the words light, daughter, know, gnaw contain letters which do not indicate any sound? Why does the spelling ea indicate different sounds in the words speak,great,bear,heard,heart? Why is the sound [□] spelt u in sun, cut, butter, but o in love, son, brother ?

The History of English sounds and spelling accounts for these and similar peculiarities. Without going into details it will suffice to say that at the time when Latin characters were first used in Britain (7 th c) writing was phonetic : the letters stood, roughly, for the same sounds as in Latin. Later, especially after the introduction of printing in the 15 th c, the written form of the word became fixed, while the sounds continued to change. This resulted in a growing discrepancy (несоответствие, различие) between letter and sound and in the modern peculiar use of Latin letters in English Finally let us turn to grammar. Why do the nouns man, food, mouse as against most Modern English Nouns form their plural by change of the root vowel? Why do the verbs can, may, will take no s in the 3 rd person singular present indicative? All these phenomena are traced back to a distant past and they can not be accounted for without a study of language history.

Thus, the purpose of our subject is a systematic study of the language's development from the earliest times to the present day. Such study enables the student to acquire a more profound understanding of the language of today. Besides, history of English is an important subsidiary discipline for history of England and of English literature.

More over, one more aim of this course is to provide the student of English with a wider philological outlook. The history of English language show the place of English in the linguistic world, it reveals its ties and contacts with other related and unrelated languages.

2. History of the English language is connected with the other disciplines. It is based on the History of England, studying the development of the language in connection with the concrete conditions in which the English people lived in the several periods of their history. It is also connected with the disciplines studying present day English, viz, theoretical phonetics, theoretical grammar, and lexicology. It shows phonetic, grammatical, and lexical phenomena as they developed, and states the origins of the present day system.

3. In studying the history of a language we are faced with a number of problems concerning the driving forces or causes of changes in the langusge. These causes can appearantly be of two kinds: external and internal. In the first case, language is influenced by factors lying outside it, or extralinguistic factors. Such historic events as ... ... ges, ...s, ...qu... ... g...ie...c.k...l c...t.cts, and the like ca: ha:dly fail to influence a language, more expecially its vocabulary . On other hand, many changes occur in the history of language which cannot be traced to any extralinguistic causes: the driving power in such cases is within the language itself. Most changes in the phonetic structure of a language, and also in its grammatical structure, are due to ternal causes. These aspects of external and internal history determine the linguistic situation and affect the evolution of the language.

4. A language can be considered from different angles. In studying Modern English (Mod E) we regard the language as fixed in time and describe each linguistic level-phonetics, grammar or lexis-synchronically, to no account of the origin of present day features or their tendencies to changes. The synchronic approach can be contrasted to the diachronic. When considered diachronically, every linguistic fact is interpreted as a stage or step in the never ending evolution of language. We concern with our lecture on this way.

5. Every living language changes through time. It is natural that no records of linguistic changes have ever been kept, as most changes pass unnoticed by contemporaries.

The History of the English language has been reconstructed on the basis of written records of differerent periods. The earliest extant written texts in English are dated in the 7th c, the earliest records in other Germanic Languages go back to the 3rd or 4th c. A.D.

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

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LECTURE 2. GERMANIC LANGUAGES.
PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Modern Germanic Languages.

2. Ancient Germanic tribes and their classification.

The English language is one of the Germanic or Teutonic languages, a large group belonging to one of the biggest lingustic families: Indo- European (IE). Germanic languages are spoken in many countries and continents. They are:

English - in Great Britain, Ireland, The USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic and many other former British colonies and dominions.

German - in the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, part of Switzerland.

Netherlandish - in the Netherlands and Flanders (Belgium).

Afrikaans - in the South African Republic.

Danish - in Denmark.

Swedish - in Sweden and Finland.

Norwegian - in Norway.

Icelandic - in Iceland.

Frisian - in some regions of the Netherlands and the Republic of Germany.

Faroese - фарьерский in the Faroe.

Jiddish - in different countries.

Some of them are national literary languages, others are local dialects spoken over small areas.

It is difficult to estimate the number of people speaking Germanic languages, especially on account of English, which in many countries 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 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).

Germanic languages are classified into three groups: (1) East Germanic, (2) North Germanic, (3) West Germanic. East Germanic languages have been dead for many centuries. Of the old East Germanic languages only one is well known. Gothic: a vast written document has come down to us in this language, namely, a translation of Bible made in the 4th century A. D. by the Gothic bishop Ulfilas from the Greek.

All the North Germanic and West Germanic languages have survived until our own times.

Now let us turn to the question of the tribes who spoke old Germanic Languages. Old Germanic tribes in the first centuries of our era were passing through the stage of development which is signalized by the term "barbarism" or great migrations. Friedrich Engels, in his work On the History of Ancient Tentons, which was first published in the

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original German and in Russian in 1935, and also in Chapters 7 and 8 of his work The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State gave a detailed characteristic of the social structure of the ancient Teutons, and of the emergence of Old Germanic states.

Our knowledge of the ancient Teutons is based on testimonies by Greek and Roman writers, who for some reason or other were interested in them. The earliest of these was the Greek traveller and astronomer Pytheas (Пифей), from Massilia (Массилияние Марсель), who lived in the 4th century BC. He sailed from his native town through the straits of Gibraltar, along the West coast of Gaul (France), along the Channel, and he may even have reached the Baltic. Pytheas's work has not come down to us; only a few fragments have been preserved by the Greek geographer Strabo (Страбон), the author of a large work "Geography" (63 B.C. -20 A.D.) and by the Roman writer Pliny the Elder (23 - 79 AD).

Next comes the Roman General, Statesman, and writer Julius Caesar (Юлий Цезарь) (100-44 B.C.). In his Comentaries on the War in Gaul. Caesar gives several chapters to the Germans. Ceasar's statement that the Germans lived in tribes and tribal unions is of particulary great value for the historians. It also follows from Caesar's account that the Teutons were nomads in his time.

About a century later, Pliny the Elder wrote about the Teutons in his great work "Natural Histoty". Pliny gave a classification of Germanic tribes, which has been basically accepted by modern historians.

According to Pliny, Germanic tribes in the 1st century A.D consisted of the following groups:

1. The Vindili. Among them were Goths and the Burgundians (бургунды). They inhabited the eastern part of Germanic territory.

2. The Ingvaeons(ингевонг). These inhabited the north - western part of Germanic territory the shores of the Northern Sea, including what is now the Netherlands.

3. The Iscaevons: these inhabited the western Part of Germanic territory, on the Rhine. Among them were the Franks, who eventually conquered Gaul.

4. The Hermiones. These inhabited the southern part of Germanic territory, i.e. what is now southern Germany.

5. The Peucini (Певкины) and Bastarnae. These lived clouse to the Dacians, clouse to what is now Rumania.

6. The Hilleviones, who inhabited Scandinavia. If we include Pliny's group 5 in to group 1 we obtain the following five groups and its corresponding Germanic languages.

Germanic Tribes languages.

Vindili	Eastern Germanic
Ingvaeones	
Istiaevones	Western Germanic
Herminones	
Hilleviones	Northern Germanic.
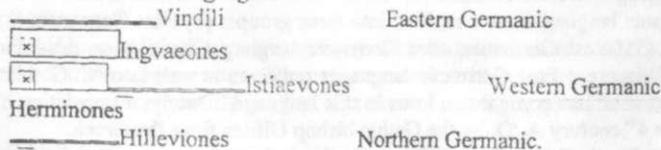
Next after Pliny comes the Great Roman historian Cornelius Tacitus (born ab.55. died ab. 120 A.D). In his short work "Germania". Tacitus characterized the social structure of the Old Germanic tribes around 100 AD.

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LECTURE 3. PHONETIC peculiarities OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES. PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.
1. The First Consonant shift (Grimm's Law).
2. Verner's Law.
3. Stress in Germanic Languages.
4. Germanic alphabets.
5. Old Germanic Written Records.

An essential feature of Germanic languages is their consonantal system, namely the result of the so called first consonant shift.

The phenomena stated in the law of the first consonant shift were found out by comparative linguistics early in the 19th century. Two famous names are to be mentioned in this connection: the Danish scholar Rasmus Christian Rask (1787 -1832) and the great German Linguist and fairy-tales collector Jacob Ludwig Grimm (1785 - 1863). The earliest statement of the shift was given in the second edition of Grimm's work German Grammar (Deutsche Grammatik), which was published in 1822. Accordingly the law is also often called Grimm's Law. It expresses regular correspondences between consonant of Germanic and those of other Indo- European languages.

When we compare words of Germanic languages with the corresponding words of other Indo- European (IE) languages (mainly Latin, Greek, Sanskrit and Russian), we find correspondences between them, which can be represented by the following ways and they may be grouped under three categories or acts.

I. act Indo-European voiceless plosive (глухие взрывные) p, t, k correspond to Germanic voiceless frecative consonants f, Þ, h (x) (глухие шелевые- жу7ысы43ы) .For ex. IE Germanic

p> f Latin. pater, Greek. pater, Sanskr. pitar, Russian полный.

Goth. fadar, OE.fæder, NE full.

t > Þ Latin. tres, Greek. tries Russ.три.

Goth. Þreis, OE. Þreo; Þusend;

k > h(x) Latin cor, noctem, acto, Greek. octo. Russ кровь.

OE. heorte, Goth. nahts, ahtou, Gem. acht. OE. hrof.

II. act Indo-European voiced plosive consonants (звонкие смолные) b, d, g correspond to Germanic voiceless plosive p, t, k.

Forex: IE Germanic

b > p Russ. слабый 'weak/ Goth. slepan' sleep'

d > t Lat. duo, Greek. deka' OE twi, Eng. ten

g > k Lat. granum 'grain' - Goth. kqurn Eng. corn.

III. act. Indo- European voiced plosive aspirated consonants bh, dh, gh correspond to Germanic voiced plosive consonants without aspiration. b, d, g.

Forex: IE Germanic.

bh > b sanskr. bhratar' brother', Lat. frater, Greek phrator, Russ. брат. Goth. broþar. NE. brother, German.bruder. Russ. брат.

dh > d Sansk. madhu, Russ. med, Lat. medius. OE. medu'mead', Goth. midjis.

gh >g Lat. hostis'enemy'/ Goth. gasts, OE.lic3an'lie

Russian 'гость'/ Germ. gast. OE giest.

The oldest Germanic texts were, as we have pointed out, Runic inscriptions, which may date from the 2 nd or 3 rd century. These are, however, short texts which do not yield much information on the structure of old Germanic languages. The earlist longer document is Ulfilas's Gothic Bible (4 th century). It has been preserved in several MSS, the most famous being the so - called Silver Code (Codex Argenteus) of the 6 th centuty, no in the University Library at Uppsala (Sweden).

Verner's Law.

Another important series of consonant changes in Germanic Languages was discovered in the late 19th century by the 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.

According to Verner's Law all the early Germanic voiceless fricatives [f, □, x] which arose under Grimm's Law, and [S] inherited from Indo- European became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed *pa'ter>fa'□ ar > fa'□ar >'fæder (OE) (G. *fa□ar) in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless. The voicing occurred in early Proto Germanic at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root morpheme Verner's Law accounts the appearance of voiced fricative or its later modifications [d] in the place of the voiceless [□] which ought to be expected under Grimm's Law. In late Germanic, the Phonetic conditions that caused the voicing had disappeard: the stress had shifted to the first syllable.

The first act will read as follows: Indo- European p, t, k// Germanic f>v, □ >□, x> g, s> z .

Let's give some examples.

IE Germanic.

P > f (b)> v Lat. caput. Goth.haubiþ, OE. héafod [v].
                 septem Goth.sibun, OE seofon

t> □ > □, d Lat. pater. Goth. fader OE fæder NE father.

k> h,x > g. cunctari OE. han3ian
             OE. swe3er

s > z Lat. auris, Goth. auso, OE eare.

Verner's Law, stating connection between the consonant system of Germanic languages and the conditions of stress, gives rise to another question, which is fundamental for the problem of the origin of Germanic languages.

In all extant Old Germanic texts the stress falls on the initial syllable (the root syllable) of each word. This is clear, on the one hand, from the treatment of unstressed vowels of endings, and on the other, from alliteration.

However, Verner's law, based on a comparison of Germanic words with their Greek, Sanskrit, and Slavonic counterparts, shows that in some cases the root vowel in Germanic languages was originally unstressed. This leads to the inevitable conclusion that originally stress in Germanic languages had been free, that is, in different words different syllables could be stressed - a system which was preserved in Slavonic

languages, in Greek (with some limitations) and in Sanskrit well into the period of extant literary texts. In the earliest Germanic texts we find a system of fixed stress (on the first syllable), which was the result of a change of the original free- stress system, which was superseded by a fixed-stress system. This discovery by Verner had, as we shall presently see, important consequences. Germanic tribes used three different alphabets for their writings. These alphabets partly succeeded each other in time. The earliest of these was the Runic alphabet, each separate letter being called a Rune. Runes have a very peculiar look for eyes accustomed to Modern European alphabets. Thus, the Rune denoting the vowel [e] was M, the rune denoting the consonant [f] was, etc. The question of the origin of the Runic alphabet has been discussed by scholars for a long time. The view now prevailing is that it was derived either from the Latin alphabet, or from some other Italic alphabet close to the Latin. Namely writing at the time did not mean putting a colour or paint on some surface: it meant cutting letters into wood or engraving them on stone, bone or metal. In Runic horizontal lines would be tilted upwards or townwards and curves would be replaced by broken lines. In accordance with these principles, Latin E becomes M, H becomes, S becomes etc. Latin letter D yielded the Runic letter, which was used to denote a dental fricative [□] in mnE think, thought.

Just when and where the Runic alphabet was created is not known. It is supposed that it originated at some time in the 2 nd and 3 rd century AD., somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube, where Germanic tribes came into contact with the Roman culture. The earliest Runic inscriptions appear to belong to this time.

The Runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes: Goths, Anglo- Saxons, and Scandinavians. Numerous Runic inscriptions survive on rocks in different parts of Scandinavia. There are also Runic inscriptions on movable objects: a spear a helment, a ring etc.

Next comes Ulfila's Gothic alphabet (4 th century). This alphabets of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible, a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet, with some admixture Latin and Runic letters. In modern editions of the Gothic text a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet in used.

The Latest alphabet to be used by Germanic tribes in the Latin alphabet. It superseded both the Runic and 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.

Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and of Latin language Christian religions texts. The Latin alphabet was certainly not adequate to represent all sounds of Germanic languages. So it was adapted to the peculiar needs of separate languages. Thus, to denote the dental fricative [□] the Runic letter   , which had once been derived from Latin D, was used.

The oldest Germanic texts were, as we have pointed out Runic inscriptions, which may date from the 2nd or 3rd century. These are, however, short texts which do not yield much information on the structure of old Germanic languages.

The earlist longer document is Ulfilas's Gothic Bible (4th century). It has been preserved in several MSS, the most famous being the so-called *Silver Code (Codex Argenteus)* of the 6th century, now in the University Library at Uppasala (Sweden).

Next comes the Old High German *Song of Hildebrandt*, a fragment of an epic, 8th century, and the *Beowulf,* an OE epic, probably written in the 8 th century and preserved

in a single 10th-century MS. Then come Old Icelandic epic texts collected in the so-called *Older Edda* comprising songs written down in the 13th century.

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LECTURE 4. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF OLD ENGLISH.
PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Problems of Periodization.
2. The Roman Conguest.
3. The Anglo-Saxon Conguest.
4. Formation of Germanic States in Britain.

The English Language has a long and eventful history. Its development began in the 5th century of our era, when groups of West Germanic tribes settled in the British Isles. During the sixteen hundred years of its history the English language has been undergoing constant change and it is changing still. It is customary to divide the history of the English Language in to three main periods:

Old English which last from the 5th century to the end of the 11th, the dates of its end as suggested by various authorities range from 1066, which is the year of the Norman Conguest, to 1150.

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

New English , which means the English of the last six centures. With in it, historians usually distinguish the Early New English period from the 15th century to the 17th up to the age of Shakespeare, from which as called Late New English from the 17th till our times.

It is easy to see that the approximate dates fixing the boundaries between the periods are very close to important events in the social and political life of the country; 1100 follows close upon 1066, the year of the Norman conguest, and 1500 is close to 1485 the year, when the Wars of the Rases came to an end, which marked the decay of feudalism and rise of the capitalism in England. The end of the 15th century is also the time when the English nation arises.

The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845-1912) the author of a number of works on the English Language an on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English according to the state of unstressed endings:1st period, Old English -the period of full endings: This that any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending for example, the word sin3an 'sing' has the vowel [a] in its unstressed ending, while the word "sunu" 'son' has the vowel "u" in a similar position.

2nd period, Middle English - the period of levelled endings. This means that vowels of unstressed endings have been levelled under a neutral vowel (something like [□]), represented by the letter. -e. Thus Old English, sin3an yields Middle English singeu, sunu- sune.

3rd period, Modern English - the period of last endings. This means that the ending is last altogether. Thus Middle English singen become Modern English 'sing'. Middle English sone become Made E. 'son'.

This division is based on a feature both phonetic (weakening and loss of unstressed vowel sounds) and morpological (weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes). But one of the historian of English Language Rastorguyeva T. A. gives an other criteria of periodisation of the History of English. She synchronically divides traditional periodization (three periods) also into sub-divisions according to their historical events afficting the language and purposes of teaching and research. OE period begins with the Germanic of Britain (1) (5th c. 450-700 pre-written OE) or (2) with the beginning of writing (7th c.700-1066 written OE) ME period being with the Norman Conguest (3) Early ME (1066-1350) and ends on the introdaction of printing (4) classical ME (1350 - 1475).

NE period beging from (1476-1660) Early New English, (5) the Age of Chaucer and the Age of Shakes peare, (6) to the age of normalisation ande correctness (1660-1800). The English language of the XIX th and XX th c represents the seventh period (7) in the history of English - Late New English and Modern English. By the XIX th century English had acrieved the relative stability typical of an age of literary and had acquired all the properties of a national language, with its functional stratification and recognised standards.

Prof. Arakin's and Ilyish's divisions into four periods (or three) is based on the social and political development of the era.(British Isles).

I. Early English Period (1-7th centuries, from ancient English tribes to English Peopleness).

II. Old English Period (7-11th, period of formation of English People).

III. Middle English Period (11-15th, period of from English Peopleness - to the formation of English nationality.

IV. New English Period (16-20 centuries, a) Early New English - Period of Formation English National language, b) Late New English - English National Language.

The English Language originated from Anglo- Frisian dialects, which made part of the West Germanic Language group. The Germanic tribes which conguered Britain in the fifth century belonged, as Ancient historians say, to three tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. These tribes occupied the bollowing territories on the continent: the Aples lived in Southern Sleswic, north of the Schleiriver; the Saxons lived south of the Angles, in Nothern Sleswic, which in now part of Denmark. Closely connected with these tribes were the Frisians, who occupied the coast of German ocean between the Rhine and the Ems, and the Hauks, who lived between the Ems and the Elbe. About the 4th century A. D. these tribes spread westwards; the Saxons appeard on the northern cost of Gaul (modern France), and some of their troops even ponetrated as far the as mouth of the llllll, on the Atlantic coast.

The earliest mention of the British Isles is in the 4th century B. C, when the Greek explorer Pytheas, of Massilia (now Marseilles), sailing round Europe, land in Kent. At this time Britain was inhabited by Celtic tribes (Britons and Gaels), who spoke various Celtic languages.

The 55 B. C. the Romans under Julias Caesar first landed in Britain. This first appearance of the Romans had no further consequences : after a brief stay the Romans

went back to Gaul. In the year 54 Caesar landed in Britain for a second time, he routed the Britons and advanced as far as the Thames. But this stay was also a short one.

Permanent conquest of Britain began in 43 A. O, under the emperor Claudius. The Romans subdued the Britons, and colonized the country, establishing a great number of military camps, which eventually developed in to English cities. About 80 A. D, under the emperor Domitian, the Romans reached the river Glotta (the Clyde) and the river Bodotria (the Forth). Thus, they occupied a territory including the modern cities of Edinburgh and Glasgow.

In this period Britain became a Roman province. This colonization had a profound affect on the country. Roman civilization - paved roads, powerful walls of military camps - completely transformed the aspects of the country. The Latin language superseded the Celtic dialects in townships and probably also spread over the country - side. In the fourth century, when christianity was introduced in the Roman empire, it also spread among Britons.

The Romans ruled Britain for almost four hundred years, up to the early 5 th century. In 410 Roman legions were recalled from Britain to defend Italy from advancing Goths. So the Britons had to rely on their own forces in the coming struggle with Germanic tribes.

It was about mid - 5th century that Britain was conquered by Germanic tribes. An old saying names the year 449 as the year of the conquest, and Hengest and Horsa as the two leaders of the invaders.

The Britons fought against the conquerors for about a century and a half - till about the year 600. It is to this epoch that the legendary figure of the British King Arthur belongs.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the Following way. The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth, the Saxons, the territory south of the Thames and some stretches north of it; the Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight.

Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken, and in its further development it went its own ways. It is at this time, the 5th century, that the history of the English language begins. Its original territory was England except Cornwall, Wales, and Strathclyde. These western regions the Britons succeeded in holding, and they were conquered much later. Cornwall in the 9th, Strath clyde in the 11th, and the Wales in the 13 century.

The Scottish Highlands, where neither Romans nor Teutons had penetrated, were in habited by Picts and Scots. The Scots language, belonging to the Celtic group, has survived in the Highlands up to our own days.

Ireland also remained Celtic; the first attempts at conquering it were made in the 12 th century.

The Germanic tribes which conquered Britain formed seven separate Kingdoms, which during four centuries struggled with one another for supremacy: Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Mercia, East Anglia and Northumbria, which consisted of two regions, Bernicia and Deira. In this prolonged struggle it was sometimes Northumbria, and sometimes Mercia, that would take the upper hand. In 828 the struggle came to an end with the decisive victory of Wessex Ecgberht, king of Wessex, subdued Mercia and Northumbria. Since then Kings of Wessex became Kings of England, and the capital of Wessex, Winchester became capital of England.

Down to the end of the 6th century Anglo- Saxon, Britain was almost enterely isolated from Europe, and particularly, from Rome. In 597 Pope Gregory I sent a mission to England in order to spread Christianity among the Germanic conquerors and to include England into the sphere of his political influence. Christianity also ponetrated into England from Ireland, which had not been invaded by Germanic tribes. Irish monks had great influence in Northumbria under king Oswine (642-670). In the seventh century Christianity spread all over England. The Latin language was at the time an international language of the church and of church science in Western Europe. As a result of new ties with Rome the Latin language was introduced in England as the language of church. This development had and important consequence for the English language: it adopted a considerable number of Latin words which were directly or indirectly connected with religious and church notions.

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LECTURE 5. OLD ENGLISH WRITTEN RECORDS AND PHONETICS.
PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. **Old English Dialects and Written Records.**
2. **Old English Alphabet and Pronunciation.**
3. **Old English Vowel System.**
4. **Old English Consonant System.**

In OE two alphabets were used: The Runic and the Latin . A few Runic documents have come down to us. We shall mention the two most widely known ones.

One is the Ruthwell Cross, a religious poem engraved on a tall stone cross near the village of Ruthwell in South-East Scotland.

The other is the Runic Casket, made of whalebone, and found in France near the town Clermont-Ferrand, now in the British Museum in London. The Runic text is a short poem about whalebone. Both these texts are probably of the 9th century.

After the Anglo-Saxons came into contact with Roman culture the Runic alphabet was superseded by the Latin. As the OE sound system differed materially from the Latin, the Latin alphabet proved insufficient to denote all OE sounds. To fill this gap Anglo-Saxon Scribers borrowed some letters from the Runic alphabet. For ex: the letter 3 (Latin g, now c) ,Þ [Ɔ ,ð] and w.

Since the very earliest times there were four dialects in OE:

Nourthumbrian (1) , spoken by Angles living north of the Humber. Mercian West-Saxon(2), spoken by Angles between the Humber and Thames. (3), the language of the Saxons south of the Thames, Kentish, the language of the Jutes and Frisians. The West dialect is represented by the works of kind Alfred (lived 849-900), both original compositions of translations of Latin texts, also by the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle (till 891), works of the abbot Aelfric (10 century) and sermons of Wultstan (early 11th century).

The Northhumbrian dialect: The Runic texts of the Ruthwell Cross and Frank's Casket (Runic), translation of the gospels, Caedmon's Humn and Bede's Dying Song

The Mercian dialect: Translation of the Psalter (9th c.) and hymns.

The Kentish dialect: Translations of Psalms L-LXX and old charters .(псалма, псалтырь, религиозные песни, исполняемые хором, гимни, грамота).

The superiority of the West - Saxon dialect both in quantity and importance of the documents using it confirms its dominating position as the literary language of the period.

The epic poems of the OE period: Beowulf, Genesis, Exodus, Judith, and poems by the monk Gynewulf: Eleng Andreas, Juliana and other were written in Anglian dialect but have been kept in West-Saxon dialect. Our knowledge of the English language comes mainly from manuscripts written in Latin charachters. Like elsewhere in Western Europe Latin in England was the language of the chruch and also the language of writing and edication. The monks were practically the only literate people; they read and wrote Latin and therefore began to use Latin letters to write down English words.

All over the country in the Kingdoms of England, all kinds of legal documents were written and copied. At first they were made in Latin, with English names and place names spelt by means of Latin letters, later they were also written in the local dialects.

There is a great variety of prose texts, part of them translations from the Latin. Among the prose works we should first of all note the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, (VII-IX centuries), the year book of the events in English history, starting at 787, written later in West- Saxon.

Then there are a number of texts associated, in one way or another, with the name of King Alfred. The work usually colled King Alfred's Orosius is a long text based on the Historia adversus paganos (a History against the Heathens by the Spanish monk Paulus Orosius, 5th century).

Another translation made either by Alfred himself or on his orders is that of Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People. We mention among Alfred's translations that of the Pastoral Care by Pope Gregory I.(ab.540-604) and others. As we know OE scribes used two kinds of letters: the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet. The Buck of the OE Material - 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 modification and additions in order to indicate OE sounds.

Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. Some of OE letters indicated two or more sounds, according to their positional variants in the word.

OLD ENGLISH ALPHABET.

a, æ, b, c [k] or [k'], d, e, f [f] or [v], 3 [g], [g'], [ ]or [j] h [x] [x'] or [h], i, l, m, n, [n], [ ], o, p, r, s [s] or [z] t, Þ, [ð], or [□] u, w, x,y [y] (Ü).

The letters could indicate short or long sounds. The lenght of vowels is shown by a macron: bat [ba:t] NE boat. 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:

Examples: OE

f[v] ofer [over] over feohtan ['feoxtan] fight
selfa [selva] self oft [oft] often
s [z] risan [ri:zan] rize ras [ra:s] rose

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þ, ð [ð] oðer ['o:ðer]
wyrþe [wyrðe]

3ast [ga:st] ghost
ðæt [□æt] that
leop [leo:□] song.

Old English alphabet

A ɪ Æ a Bb I, D ɔ Đ ð Ɛ e Ff Ꝺᵹ Ih Iɪ Kl Ll
a   æ   b   c   d   ð   e   f   ᵹ(g)   h   i   k   l

Ⰳ m N ɲ O o P p R p S ſ ᵹ T - Ʋ u Þ ꝵ X x Y ɣ Þ þ
m   n   o   p   r   s   t   u   w   x   y   þ

Old English pronunciation

OE 3an [g] go, 3ear [j], da3as [ ], year, days, sec3an [g'] say.
OE hlæne [x], tahte [x], miht {x'], he [x, h].

The passage from World History (West - Saxon dialect, 9th c.) incerted by King Alfred in his translation of Orosius.

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde Alfrede cynin3e
['o:xthere 'sæ de his 'xla:vorde 'ælfre:de 'kyni ge]
Ohthere said (to) his lord Alfred King.
þæt he ealra Norðmanna norþmest bude.
[□æt he 'ealra 'nor□,manna nor□,mest 'bu:de]
that he (of) all Northmen to the North lived (had lived .. pa for he 3iet norpryhte)
[□a: fo:r he: jiet 'nor□,ryx'te]
Then sailed yet (farther) northwards
Swa feor swa: he: meahte on pæm
[Swa: feor swa: he: meaxte on □æ:m]
as far as might (could) in the

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oprum prim da3um 3e si3lan.

['o:ðrum ri:m 'da um je'si lan]

other three days sail.

Old English vowel system consisted of seven short and long simple phonemes and (long and short dipthongs).

short vowels i, e, u, o, a, æ, y.

long i, e, u, o, a, æ, y.

Short dipthongs ea, eo, io, ie

ea, eo, io, ie.

In 6th century labialized phonemes y,y arised. Sound changes, particularly vowel changes, took place in English at every period of history.

The important changes in Vowels are:

1. Breaking (преломление) and dipthongization.

2. Palatal mutation or i-umlaat (передиеязычная перегласовка).

3. Lengthenin of Vowels. (удлинение гласных).

OE Breaking is dipthongization of short vowels before certain consonant clusters. (l, r, h + consonants). It is the vowels æ (a), e that underge breaking.

æ(a) > ea   r + consonant * ærm > earm' arm'

         l + consonant * æld > eald 'old'

         h + consonant * æhta > eahta 'eight'.

e > eo   r + consonant * herte > heorte 'heart'

         l + consonant * melcan > medcan 'milc'

         h + consonant * feh > feoh 'cattle'.

Breaking is not consistently carried out in the West Saxon dialect. In other dialects , such as Mercian, Breaking in many cases does not occur; then the vowel æ becames a, and the resulting forms are arm, ald, ahta, sah. OE vowels also change under the influence of initial palatal consonants 3, c and the cluster sc, 3 and c influence only front vowels, wlule sc influences all vowels. As a resalt of palatalization the vowel is dipthongized.

e > ie 3fav > 3iefan 'give' 3eldan >3ieldan'pay'

æ > ea 3ef > 3eaf 'gave' cæter > ceaster' camp'

æ > ea 3efon > 3eafon'gave'(plural).

a > ae scacan > sceacan 'shake'

o > eo scort > sceort 'short'.

The most important type of mutation is that caused by an i(ori) of the following syllable. This type is usually referred to as mutation. Mutation brings about a complete change in vowel quality: one phoneme replaced by another. In Old English i - mutation (or i -Umlaut, palatal mutation) affects practically all vowels, besides e and i.

It we take forexample, the changes * fulliat > fyllan 'fill', the essence of the process is this. The vowel u is articulated by raising the back of the tongue and simultaneously rounding the lips; the sound i (j) requires raising the front of the tongue. When the speaker begins to articulate the u, he at the same time anticipates the articulation needed for i, and raises the front of the tongue instead of its back. The lip - rounding, meanwhile, is preserved. The result is the vowel y.

Examples:

æ > e -* sætian > settan 'sit'

a > e - * namian > nemnan 'name'

a > æ - * larian > læran 'learn'

o > e - * ofstian > efstan 'hurry'

o > e - * wopian > wepan 'weep'

u > y - * fullian > fyllan 'fill'

u > y - * cupian > cypan 'announce ' 'intorm'

ea > ie - * ealdira > ieldre 'older', 'elder'

ea > ie - * hearian > hieran 'hear' (hyran)

eo > ie - * feohtip > fieht 'fight'

eo > ie - * ceosip > ciesp 'choose'.

In the 9th century vowels were lengthened before the clusters nd, ed, mb, bindan > bindan 'bind'

bunden > bunden 'bound; cild > cild 'child,'

climban > climban 'climb'. It, however, the cluster was followed by another consonant, lengthening did not take place, as in cildru 'children'.

Vowels were lengthened when consonants m, n, before f, s, þ, h, 3 before d, n, drapped off.

* fimf > fif 'five'

* ims > us 'us'

* ponhte > pohte 'thought'

* sæ3de > sæ3de 'said'.

Old English Consonant system kept up labials as p, b, m, f, v: forelinguals (dental): t, d, p, ð, n, s, r, l, mediolingual (palatal): g', k', j', x' and back linguals (velar): g, k, x; The letter x changed cs.

In all West Germanic languages, at an early stage of their independent history, most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [j]. This process is known as WG gemination or doubling of consonants, as the resulting long consonants are indicated by means of double letters, e.g. * fuljan > OE fyllan'fill' * satjan > OE settan 'set'.

At a very early time the consonant c before a front vowel, as in cild 'child', and accasionally in other conditions as well, become palatalized and approached the affricate [ts]. In a similar way, the cluster sc, as in scip 'ship', became palatalized and approached [S]. An analogous development affected 3 and s3 before a front vowel and when final becoming palatalized, they approached and may have reached [d3] as in bryc3' bridge', wec3 'wedge', ec3 'edge'.

Comparision with other OG languages, especially Gothic and OI cel, has revaled certain instances of the loss of consonants in WG and Early OE.

n was lost before the fricatives h, f, s, p. The preceding vowel became lengthened and nazalised, but the nazalisation eventually vanished.

n was lost before h in other Germanic languages as well.

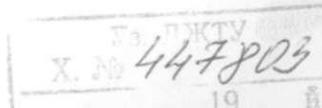Examples: * bronhte > brohte 'brought'

* sonfte > softe 'soft'

* munp > mup 'mouth'

* finf > fif ' five', uns > us 'us'.

h is lost between vowels: * tihan > teon 'accuse'

* fonhan > fohan > foan > fon 'catch'

* sehan > seon (Goth saihan) * slahan > slean 'slay'.

Palatal 3 is occasionally dropped before d and n, the preceding vowel is lengthened. mæ3den > mæden 'maiden', sæ3de > sæde 'said' fri3nan >frinan 'ask'.

The cluster fn often become mn by assimilation. This is especially frequent in late OE texts. Examples:efn > emn'even', stetn, stenn 'voice'. A similar change fm > mm occurred in the word wifman > wimman 'woman'.

Stress in OE mostly falls on the first syllable of a word: 'Eoforwicceaster. 'York' 'eadi3ra, 'norpeweardum 'northward'. However, words beginning with a prefix have their stress on the root syllable: of 'dune 'down' under'fon' undertake' 3e'peode 'language', on'3innan 'begin'.

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LECTURE 6. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR
PROBLEMS FOR DISCUSSION.

1. Noun history
2. Adjective history
3. Pronoun history
4. Verb history
5. Old English Syntax.

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

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. Inflected parts of speech possessed certain grammatical categories displayed in formal and semantic correlations and oppositions of grammatical forms.

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

We shall assume that there were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of difiniteness/ indefiniteness. Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: tense and mood - verbal categories proper - and number and person, showing agreement between the verb predicate and subject of the sentence. The distinction of categorial forms by the noun and the verb was to a large extend determined by their division into morphological classes: declension and conjugations.

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

The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural. As will be seen below, they were well distinguished formally in all the declensions, there being very few homonymons forms.

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

Every noun belonged to one of the several declension types which made up the noun system in OE. In historic times the choice of the nouns belonging to these types was not determined by any visible cause, it was fixed. However, in prehistoric times all OE nouns had a suffix (stem - suffix) between the root and the inflexional ending, which made up clearly defined groups. The part of the word comprising root and stem suffix is called the stem. In prehistoric English there existed the following stems:

a - stem and its variations / ja/ and / wa/ - masculine and neutral nouns.

o - stem and its variations / jo/ and /wo/ feminine nouns.

i - stem - all three genders.

u - stem - masculine and feminine.

n - stem - all three genders.

r - stem - masculine and feminine

es - stem - neuter.

A special type was the so called root - stem which formed some cases not by an inflexional ending, but by change of the root vowel due to mutation.

The stem - vowels had disappeard by the time of the earliest OE writings, they had merged with the ending proper. Nouns which had belonged to stems containing [j] or [i] always had a mutated root vowel: in other respects the in flexions of stems in - a, (- ja, - wa) had practically merged. The main variation consists in the presence of final e or its absence in the Nom. and ACC. Sg; in wa - and wo - stems w appears before the case - ending, except the Nom. and ACC. Sg; in ja - stems j - may appear in the same cases. (Nom. Sg. here - Gen. heri 3es).

The presence or absence of - e in masculine nouns, as well as that of - u in feminine and plural of neuter nouns depends upon the quantity (length or shortness) of the root syllable.

The patterns of declension types are given in such a way as to show the resemblance of different types as mentioned above; with that puprose one ending is given for several stems.

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Types of Noun Declension. Singular:

	Masc. a,	Masc. ja,	Masc. wa-	Masc. j- stems.
Nom.	stan	ende	bearu	hyll
Gen.	stanes	endes	bearwes	hylles
Dat.	stane	ende	bearwe	hylle
Acc.	stan	ende	bearu	hyll
	'stone'	'end'	'wood'	'hill'

Plural

	(a-)	(ja-)	(wa-)	(i-) stems
Nom.	stanas	endas	bearwas	hyllas
Gen.	stana	enda	bearwa	hylla
Dat.	stanum	endum	bearwum	hyllum
Acc.	stanas	endas	bearwas	hyllas.

Singular

	Neut. a-,	Neut. ja-,	Neut. wa-,	Neut. i -stems
Nom.	deor	rice	bealu	hilt
Gen	deores	rices	bealwes	hiltes
Dat.	deore	rice	bealwe	hilte
	' deer'	' kingdom'	'evil'	'hilt'

Plural

Nom.	deor	ricu	bealu	hilt
Gen.	deora	rica	bealwa	hilta
Dat.	deorum	ricum	bealwum	hiltum
Acc.	deor	rica	bealu	hilt

Singular

	Fem. o-,	Fem. jo-,	Fem. wo-,	Fem. i- stems
Nom.	talu	brycz	sceadu	cwen
Gen.	tale	brycze	sceadwe	cwene
Dat.	tale	bryc3e	sceadwe	cwene
Acc.	tale	bryc3e	sceadwe	cwene
	'tale'	'bridge'	'shade'	'woman'

Plural

Nom.	tale	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwene
Gen.	tala	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwena
Dat.	talum	bryc3um	sceadwum	cwenum
Acc.	tala	bryc3a	sceadwa	cwena.

Singular

Masc. u-, Fem. u- stems		Plural Masc. u-, Fem. u-	
Nom. sunu 'son'	hand 'hand'	suna	handa
Gen. suna	handa	suna	handa
Dat. suna	handa	sunum	handum
Acc. sunu	hand	suna	handa

The Weak Declension. (n-stems)
Singular

	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
Nom.	nama 'name'	eare 'ear'	tun3e 'tongue'
Gen.	naman	earan	tun3an

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Dat.	naman	earan	tun3an
Acc.	naman	earan	tun3an

Plural

Nom.	naman	earan	tun3an
Gen.	namena	earena	tun3ena
Dat.	namum	earum	tun3um
Acc.	naman	earan	tunan

Root-stems
Singular

	Masculine		Feminine	
Nom.	mann 'man'	fot 'foot'	boc 'book'	mus 'mouse'
Gen.	mannes	fotes	boce	muse
Dat.	menn	fet	bec	mys
Acc.	mann	fot	boc	

Plural

Nom.	menn	fet	bec	mys
Gen.	manna	fota	boca	musa
Dat.	mannum	fotum	bocum	musum
Acc.	menn	fet	bec	mys

The stems in -r, e.g. "broþor" have no endings in the singular but are mutated in Dat. Sg,: (breper). in the plural they are declined as a-stems except the declinable Nom, Acc. The stems in -es are declined as N. a-stems; lamb(-es,-e) lamb, in the plural the stemsuffix r (<* Z < OE [S]) appears between root and ending: lamb -lambru..(lambra, lambrum)lambru.

There are two types of adjective declension, called strong and weak. Every adjective may be declined according to either pattern.

Adjectives have 5 cases in the masculine and neuter. The fifth is the instrumental case.

The Strong Declension.

Most adjectives are declined as a - stems for the masculine and neuter gender and as o-stems for the feminine.

	Masculine		Neuter		Feminine	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
nom.	god	gode	god	god	god	goda
Gen	godes	godra	godes	godra	godre	godra
Dat.	godum	godum	godum	godum	godre	godum
Acc.	godne	gode	god	god	gode	goda
Instr.	gode	-	gode	-	-	-

The Weak Declension.

The weak declension of adjectives has the same endings as the weak declension of substantives. The only difference is found in the Genitive plural, where the adjectives have -ra.

	Masculine Sg /Pl.		Neuter Sg/Pl.		Feminine Sg/ Pl.	
Nom.	blaca	blasan	blace	blacan	blace	blacan
Gen.	blacan	blæcra	blacan	blæcra	blæcan	blæcra
Dat.	blacan	blacum	blacan	blacum	blacan	blacum
Acc.	blacan	blacan	blace	blacan	blacan	blacan.

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'black'.

Degrees of Comparision.

The comparative degree has the suffix-ra for the masculine gender, -re for the feminine and neuter; the superlative ends in-ost: heard-heardra-heardost. The earlier form of the suffives was *-oza, *-iza for the comparative, -*osts,*- ists for the superlative. If the suffix contained [i], the root-vowel was mutated:

eald (old) - yldra, ieldra - yldest, ieldest

feor (for) - fyrra, fierre - fyrrest, fierrest

3eon3 (young) - 3in3ra - 3ingest, sceort (short) - scyrtra - scyrtest.

great (great) - grytra, gryttra - grytest.

heah (high) - hierra, hyrra - huhst, hyhst.

lang (lang) - lengra - lengest, strang (strong) - strengra - strengest.

There are some suppletive forms of comparision.

god (good) - betra - betst, ybel (wicked) -wyrsa - wyrrest, wyrst;

micel, mycel (large) - mara- mæst, lytel (little)- læssa - læst;

The comparative degree forms are declined according to the weak type, the superlatives are declined in both ways.

Adverbs are formed from adjectives by addition of the suffix -e, heard - e 'hard'. Adverbs from their degrees of comparision by adding the suffixes - ra, -ora, -ost:

hearde - heardra - heardost.

Pronouns.

There are several types opf pronouns in OE: personal, possessive,demonstrative, interrogative, definite, indefinite,, negative and relative.

Declension of personal pronouns.

	Singular.	Masc .	Fem.	Neut.	Plural.	
Nom.	ic 'я'	pu 'ты'	he 'он'	heo 'она'	hit	hie 'они' hi, hy
Gen.	min	pin	his	hire	his	hiera 'их' hyra, hiora
Dat.	me	pe	him	here	him	him 'им'
Acc.	me	pe	hine	hie	hit	hie, hy, hi ' их'.

In OE, sa in Gothic, there are besides singular and plural personal, also dual pronouns for the 1 st and 2 nd pronouns.

	Dual		Plural	
Nom.	wit 'мы двое'	3it 'вы двое'	we 'мы'	3e 'вы'
Gen.	uncer 'нас двоих'	incer 'вас двоих'	ure 'наш'	eower 'ваш'
Dat.	unc 'нам двоим'	inc 'вам двоим'	us 'нам'	eow 'вам'
Acc.	unc, uncit	inc, incit	us 'usic'нас'eow, eowic 'вас'	

There are two demonstrative pronouns in OE: Se 'that' and pes 'this', which have gender, number and case forms.

se 'тот', seo 'та' pæt 'то' , pes 'этот', peos 'эта', pis 'этот'

	masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Plural.
Nom.	se	seo	pæt	pa 'эти' 'те'
Gen.	pæs	pære	pæs	para 'этих' 'тех'
Dat.	pæm	pære	pæm	pæm 'этим' 'тем'
Acc.	pone	pa	pæt	pa 'этих, тех'

The OE Verb was characterised by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a 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 comman with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

The verbs are divided in two main groups: strong and weak. Strong verbs form their preterite and participle II by changing of the root-vowel; weak verbs form their preterite and participle II by addition of a dental suffix. The weak verbs are a productive type: the strong group are a survival of Indo-European gradation, which was a regular change of vowel (e-o-zero) conveying grammatical and lexical distinctions.

The OE system of finite verbs forms includes to tenses-present and Preterite; three moods-Indicative, Subjunctive and Imperative. The Category of Person is represented only in the Indicative singular and the Imperative; there is no indication of person in the Indicative plural or in any of the subjunctive forms.

The strong verbs are subdivided in 7 classes, each class with its own type of vowel-change. Class 7 is the eeast regular one; it forms a number of small groups, and many verbs belonging to this class have weak forms besides the strong ones.

The stems given below are distributed in the following manner:

I grade	II grade	III grade	
Present Indicative,	1 and 3 person	Plural and 2 person	Part II
Present subjuntive	Sg. Preterite	Singular Preterite	
Infinitive, Participle	(Past)	Subjunctive Preterite	
		(Past)	

I

	(i)	(a)	(i)	(i)
1 st class		wrat	writon	writen
writan'write	(ea)		(u)	(o)
	(eo)	ceas	curon	coren
2 nd cl.	a(o)		(u)	(u)
ceosan'choose'		dranc	druncon	druncen
	(i)	(ea)	(u)	(o)
3 rd cl.		healp	hulpon	hulpen
drincan'drink'	(ea)		(u)	
	(i)	stearf	sturfon	sturfen
helpan'help'		feaht	fuhton	fohten
	(eo)	(æ)	(æ)	(o)
steorfan'die'		stæl	stælon	stolen
feohtan'fight'		bær	bæron	boren
	(e)	(æ)	(æ)	(e)
4 th class		cwæp	cwædon	cweden
stelan'steal'		træd	trædon	treden
beran'bear'				
	(e)			
5 th class cwepan'				
say'				
(ed,ep) tredan'tread'				
	(a).	(o)	o	a
6 th class faran 'go'		for	foron	faren
(-ar, -al)				
a+согл				

7 th class hatan	(e)	(e)	(a/æ/ea)
'call'	het	heton	haten
feallan 'fall'	feol	feollon	feallen
cneawan 'know'	cneow	cneowon	cneawen
flowan 'flow'	fleow	fleowon	fleawen
slæpan 'sleep'	slep	slepon	slæpen

The weak verbs

The weak verbs are subdivided in 3 groups, according to the stem-vowel joining the endings to the root. They are:

1) The 1 st class formerly with [-ja] in the present and [i] in the past. It s root-vowel is mutated; the dental suffix was joined to the root by [i] which had disappeared after long syllables (deman-demde) and was weakened to /e/ after short syllables (fremman-fremede).

2) The 2 nd class has -ian in the infinitive (≤ ojan) and /o/ in the preterite. The vowel is not mutated.

3) The 3 rd class includes very few verbs: the dental suffix is joined immediately to the root, in the present there was /j/, but the 2 nd and 3 rd persons sg. show no trace of /j/.

Infinitive	Preterite	Participle II
1 st class deman	Demade	demed
2 nd cl. macian	macode	macod
3 rd cl. sec3an	sæ3de	sæ3d

Conjugation of Verbs. Strong Verbs.

Indicative Present (I grade)	Preterite (2 and 3 grade)	Subjunctive Present Preterite (I grade) (3 grade)

1. bind- e	band	
Singular 2. -est	bund- e	bind- e bund- e
3. -eþ	band	
Plural -aþ	bund-on	bind- en bund- en

Weak Verbs

	Indicative			Subjunctive		
	Present	Preterite		Present	Preterite	
Plural	dĕm- e baþ- ie	dĕm- de	baþ-o-de		dĕm-de	
Singular	-est -ast	-dest	o-dest dĕm-e	baþ-ie baþ-ode	
	-eþ -aþ	-de	o-de		dĕm-den	
Plural	-aþ -iaþ	-don	o-don dĕm-en	baþ-ien baþ-oden	

Imperative

Singular bind	dĕm	baþ-a	
Plural -aþ	-aþ	-iaþ	

The Ist class of weak verbs includes a group of irregular verbs which have a mutated vowel in the present- tense stem and no mutation in the preterite and participle II.

bycgan	"to buy"	bohte	3eboht
bringan	"to bring"	bröhte	3ebröht
pencan	"to think"	pohte	3eþöht
pyncan	"to think"	pühte	3eþüht

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	"to suppose"	●	
secan	"to seek"	söhte	3esöht
wyrcan	"to work"	worhte	3eworht
sellan	"to give"	sealde	3eseald

The Non- Finite Forms

The non- Finite forms are: the infinitive and the two Participles.

The non- finite forms in OE are more loosely connected with the finite system than in Modern English, for two reasons: 1) there are no analytic forms in OE, although their prototypes exist as varios combinations of link-verb and predicative; 2) the non-finite forms themselves possess fewer verbal features. Their subsequent development binds them more closely with the finite verb. Still since every OE verb can form verbals (non- finite forms), we must consider these as part of the verb paradigm.

1. The Infinitive. There are two infinitive forms; one of them is called the Dative Infinitive (the Indo- European infinitive had been a declinable noun). This infinitive is mainly used to denote purpose, but it is quite safe to say that it generally function as an independent member of the sentence: it could function as subject and predicative. The infinitive with the ending -an functioned, as a rule, in combination with preterite-present verbs and in other verbal collocations. The second infinitive is preceded by "to" and has the ending "anne"; it is used in independent syntactic positions, mainly as adverbial modifier of purpose, but also as subject and predicative.

1. bindan dĕman baþian

2. to bindanne to dĕmanne to baþianne

2. Participle I. Participle I has the ending -ende and is declined as a weak adjective. It is used attributively (in pre- and post- position) and predicatively: m.n. bindend-e, fem-u m.n. baþiende, fem. -u

3. Participle II. Participle II has the ending -n or -ed, -od, according to the type of verb (strong or weak). It is declined as an adjective (according both to the strong and weak pattern) and is use mainly as attribute and predicative.

Preterite- Present Verbs

The so- called preterite- present verbs are a small group (12 verbs) of verbs which have vowel- gradation in their present- tense form, corresponding to vowel- gradation in the preterite of strong verbs. Their preterite is formed on the weak pattern. The verbs have a marked modal meaning; most of them exist in MnE as modal verbs.

	Present	Preterite		Participle II
1st class	witan	-wät witon	-wiste	
2nd class	du3an	dea3 du3on	dohte	
3rd class	cunnan	cann cunnn	cüöe	
	unnan	ann unnon	üöe	
	durran	dear durrn	dorste	
	þurfan	þeat þurfn	þorfte	
4th class	sculan	scel sculn	sceolde,scolde	
	munan	man munn	munde,gemunen	
5th class	ma3an	mæ3 ma3n	meahte, mihte	
6th class	·	möt mötn	möste	
7th class (probably)	ä3an	ä3e ä3on	ähte	

The Substantive Verb

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The substantive verb (i.e. the verb with the meaning of "to be, to exist") represented in OE by three roots; only two of them have infinitives.

	No Infinitive		beon
	Present		Present
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
I.eom		I.beo	
Sing 2. cart	Sing. sУ	Sing. 2. bist	Sing. bĕo
3. is		3.biþ	
Pur.sind,sindon	Plur. sУn	Plur. bĕoþ	Plur.bĕon
	wesan(5th sr)		
	Preterite		Imperative
I. wæs		Sing. bĕo	wes
Sing. 2. wære	Sing. wære	Plur. bĕoþ	wesaþ
3. wæs			

Participle I
bĕonde wesende

| Plur. wæron | Plur. wæren | No Participle II |

Irregular Verbs
Gŭn

Present		Preterite	
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive
Igŭ		I. ĕode	
Sing. 2. gŭĕst	Sing. gŭ	Sing. 2. ĕodect	Sing. ĕode
3. gæþ		3. ĕode	
Plur. gŭþ	Plur. gŭn	Plur. ĕodon	Plur. ĕoden
Imperative		Participle I —	
Sing. gŭ		Participle II 3egŭn	
Plur. gŭþ			

Don

Present		Preterite		Imperative
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	Sing. dŏ
I. dŏ		I. dy- de		Plur. dŏþ
Sing. 2. dĕst	Sing. dŏ	Sing. 2. -dest	Sing. dyde	Participle I
3. dĕþ		3. -de		dŏnde
Plur. dŏþ	Plur. dŏn	Plur. -don	Plur. dyden	Participle II
				gedŏn

Willan

Present		Preterite		
Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	Participle I
I. wille		wol- de		willende
Sing. 2. wilt	Sing. wille	- dest	Sing. wol- de	
3. wile, wille		-de		
Plur. willaþ	Plur. willen	-don	Plur. -den	

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Lecture 7Old English Vocabulary.
Problems for Discussion.
1. Word stock of old English Vocabblary.
2. Ways of DevelopingThe Vocabulary.
3. Suffixes, Prefixes.
4. Word- Composition.
5. Loan Words.

Composition of OE vocabulary. The OE vocabulary is mainly homogeneous. Loan- words are an insignificant part of it. Among native words we can distinguish the following layers:

1. Common Indo- European words, which were inherited from the Indo- European parent language. For example:

(a) substantives: fæder 'father', modor 'mother', nama 'name', tun3e 'tongue', fot 'foot', niht 'night', heorte 'heart'.

(b) adjectives: neowe 'new', 3eon3 'young', riht 'right', lon3 'long'.

(c) verbs: sittan 'sit', lic3an 'kie', beran 'bear', teran 'tear'.

2. Common Germanic words.

(a) substantives: eorþe 'earth', land 'land', sæ 'sea', heall 'hall', sand 'sand', earm 'arm'.

(b) adjectives: earm 'poor', 3rene 'green'.

(c)verbs: findan, 'find', sin3an 'sing', steorfan 'die'.

3. Specifically English words, not found in any other language. These are very few. The verb clipian 'call' in one of them.

2. Ways of developing the vocabulary.

The OE vocabulary, like that of any other language, develops in two ways: (1) by forming new words from elements existing in the language, (2) by taking over words from other languages. In OE the first of these is by far more important.

Word- building. There are three main types of word- building in OE:

1. Morphological word- building, that is, creating new words by means of morphological elements.

2. Syntactical word- building, that is building new words from syntactical groups.

3. Semantic word- building, that is building new words by using existing words in new meanings.

Morphological. Morphological word- building is subdivided into two types: affixation and composition. The difference between the two types, as we shall see, is not an absolute one.

Affixation.

Suffixes. Suffixes play a rather important part in OE. We shall consider OE suffixes, grouping them according to the parts of speech which they derive.

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Substantive Suffixes. Here we find a group of suffixes which are added to substantive or verb stems to derive names of the doer. Each of them is connected with a grammatical gender.

Thus, the suffix -ere is used to derive masculine substantives: *fiscere* 'fisherman',, *fu3elere* 'fowler', *writere* 'writer', 'scribe', also *prōwere* 'sufferer'. The suffix corresponds to the Gothic suffix -areis in *laisareis* 'teacher', *bōkareis* 'bookman', and Russan -арь in пахарь, вратарь.

The suffix is productive.

The suffix -estre is used to derive feminine suvctantives: *spinnestre* 'spinner' *bæcestre* 'woman baker', also *wite3estre* 'prophetess'.

The suffix end (connected with the participle suffix -ende) is used to derive masculine substantives: *frēond* 'friend', *fēond* 'hater', 'enemy', *hælend* 'saviour', *dēmend* 'judge', *wealdend* 'ruler'.

The suffix -in3 is use to derive patronymics: *æ𝛿elin3* 'son of a nobleman', 'prince, *cynin3* 'king', *Æ𝛿elwulfin3* 'son of Æthelwulf', etc. It is aalso used to derive substantives from adjectives, as in *lÿtlin3* 'baby', *earmin3* 'poor fellow'. The suffix is productive. An enlarged variant of this suffix, -lin3, serves to derive substantives with some emontional colouring (sepending on the meaning of the stem): *3öslin3* 'gosling', *dēorlin3* 'darling', *hÿrlin3* 'hireling. It is also productive.

The suffix -en is used to derive feminine substantives from masculine stens, As its original shape was -in, it is always accompanied by mutation: *3yden* 'gooddess' (<*3ydin), cf. *3od* 'god', *fyxen* 'vixen' (<* fuxin), cf. *fox* 'fox'.

The suffix -nis, nes is used to derive abstract substantives from adjective stems: *3ödnis* 'goodness', *þrēnes* 'trinity. It is productive.

The suffix -þ, -uþ, -oþ is user to derive abstract substantives; somtimes it is accompanied by mutation: *trēowþ* 'truth' from *trēow* 'true', *þiefþ* 'theft' from *þēof* 'thief', *3eo3uþ* 'youth' (cf. *3eon3* 'young'), *fiscoþ* 'fishing', cf. *fisc* 'fish', *huntoþ* 'hunting', cf. *hunta* 'hunter'.

The suffix un3, in3 derives feminine verbal substantives: *leornun3, leornin3* 'learning', *monun3* 'admonishing', *rædin3* 'reading'. It is productive.

Some suffixes originated from substantives. Thus, from the substantive *dōm* 'doom' came the suffix *dōm*, as in *wisdōm* 'wisdom', *frēodōm* 'freedom

The substantive *hād* 'title', 'rank' yielded the suffix -hād, as in *cildhād* 'childhood', *mæ3þad* 'virginity'.

The substantive *lāc* 'gift' yielded the suffix -lāc, as in *rēoflāc* 'robbery' from the stem of the verb *rēafian* 'bereave', *wedlāc* 'wedlock', *scīnlāc* 'fantasy.

The substantive *ræden* 'arrengement', 'agreement' yielded the suffix -ræden, as in *frēondræden* 'friendship' *sibbræden* 'relationship', *mannræden* 'faithfulness'.

The suffix -scipe (cf. the verb *scieppan* ,'create') is found in the substantives *frēondshipe* 'frindship', *weorþscipe* 'honour', *3ebēorscipe* 'feast' (from *bēor* 'beer').

There is another phenomenon which must be mentioned in connection with suffixation. Some abstract substantives are derived from adjective stems without any suffix; they differ from the adjectives by their paradigm (as feminine 𝛿 stems) and by mutation of the root vowel, due to the original suffix -in, e.g.*len3u* 'length' from *lon3* 'long', *stren3u* 'strength' from *stron3* 'strong', *brædu* 'breadth' from *brād* 'broad', *hætu* 'heat' from *hāt* 'hot', *hælu* 'salvation' from *hāl* whole', *ieldu* 'old age' from *eald* 'old', *wræþþu* 'wrath' from *wrāþ* 'wroth'.

Adjective suffixes. The suffix -ede derives adjectives from the group "adjective stem + substantive stem". as in in *micelhēafdede* 'largeheaded', sometimes from a single substantive stem: *hōcede* 'hooked', *healede* 'broken'. It is productive.

The suffix -ihte derives adjectives from substantive stems, usually accompanied by mutation: *stænihte* 'stony' from *stan* 'stone', *öyrnihte* 'thorny' from *𝛿orn* 'thorn' (<* 𝛿urn).

The suffix -i3 also derives adjectives from substantive stems, sometimes accompanied by mutation: *häli3* 'holy' (from *häl* 'whole'), *mödi3* 'proud' (from *möd* 'feeling'), *misti3* 'misty' (from mist 'mist'), *īsi3* 'icy' (from *īs* 'ice'), *bysi3* 'busy', *dysi3* 'foolish'. It is productive.

The suffix -en (from -in) accompanied by mutation derives adjectives from substantives: *3ylden* 'golden' from *3old* 'gold' (<*3uld), *wyllen* 'woollen' (from *wulle* 'wool'), *stænen* made of stone (from *stän* 'stone'), *līnen* 'flaxen' (from *lin* 'flax').

The suffix -isc, usaully accompanied by mutation derives adjectives, mostly denoting nationally: *En3lisc* 'English', *Frencisc* 'French', *Welisc* 'Welsh', *mennisc* 'human', *folcisc* 'popular'. A productive suffix.

The suffix -sum derives adjectives from substantive, adjective, and verb stems: *sibbsum* 'peaceful' (from *sibb* 'peace'), *lan3sum* 'dreary' (from *lan3* 'long'), *hiersum* 'obedient' (from *hieran* 'hear', 'obey'). A productive suffix.

The suffix -feald (cf. the verb *fealdan* 'fold') derives adjectives from numeral and adjective stems: *þriefeald* 'threefold', *seofonfeald* 'sevenfold', *mani3feald* 'manifold'.

The suffix -full (from the adjective *full* 'full') derives adjectives from abstract substantive stems: *sor3full* 'sorrowful', *synnfull* 'sinful', *carfull* 'full od care'.

The suffix -lēas (from the adjective *lēas* 'deprived') derives adjectives from verb and substantive stems: *slæplēas* 'sleepless', *3elēaflēas* 'unbelieving', *ärlēas* 'deprived of honour', *reccelēas* 'reckless'.

The suffix -līc (from the substantive *līc* 'body') derives adjectives from substantive and adjective stems: *eorþllīc* 'earthly', *frēondlīc* 'friendly', *luflīc* 'full of love', *3ēarlic* 'yearly', *3ödlīc* 'pleasant', *dēadlīc* 'deadly', *ænlic* 'uique'.

The suffix -weard derives adjectives from substantive, adjective, and adverb stems: *hämweard* 'homeward', *middeweard* 'middle', *inneweard* 'internal'.

Verb suffixes. The suffix -s- accompanied by mutation derives verbs from substantive and adjective stems: *blētsian* 'bless'< *blēdsian (from *blöd* 'blood'; the original meaning was 'sprinkle with blood'); *clænsian* 'cleanse' (from *clæne* 'clean'), *mærsian* 'announce' (from *mære* 'famous'); *3rimsian* 'rage'.

The suffix -læc- (with mutation from -lāc-) also derives verbs: *nēålæcan* 'approach', *3erihtlæcan* 'acquit'.

The suffix -ett- derives verbs: *bliccettan* 'sparkle', *sporettan* 'spur', *cohhettan* 'cough', *ceahhettan* 'croak'.

Prefixes. The prefix ä- meaning 'out of', 'from' is found, for instance, in the verbs *ärīsan* 'arise', *äwacan* 'awake', *äberan* 'sustain', *äbys3ian* 'occupy'. A productive prefix.

A different prefix ä- (connected with the adverb ä 'always') derives generalizing pronouns and adverbs from interrogative ones, e.g.: *ähwær* 'everywhere' (from *hwær* 'where'), *ähwæþer* 'either' (from *hwæþer* 'which of the two').

The same prefix followed by the prefix ʒi- yields *äʒi- > äʒ- (with mutation). äʒ-, like ä-, derives generalizing pronouns and adverbs from interrogative ones: æʒhwæþer 'either', æʒhwilc 'every', æʒhwæær 'anywhere'.

The prefix be- (cf. the adverb bi 'near' and the preposition bi 'by') is added to substantives and verbs. Sometimes it preserves its original meaning 'around', sometimes its meaning is weakened. E.g.: beʒän 'go around', 'adore', behön 'hang with', besettan 'besiege', bewēpan 'lament', beþencan 'think over', beniman 'deprive', behēafdian 'behead'.

The prefix for- expresses destruction or loss: fordön 'destroy', forweorþan 'perish'.

The prefix ʒe- expresses either collectivity or perfection of an action: ʒefēra 'fellow- traveller', ʒefylc 'troop' (cf. folc 'people'), ʒemynd 'mind', ʒesēon 'see'.

The prefix mis- means negation or bad quality: mislician 'displease', misdæd 'misdeed'.

The prefix of- has a reinforcing meaning: ofslēan 'kill', oftēon 'take away'.

The prefix on- (corresponding to German ent-, emp-, as in entlassen, empfangen) means change or separation: onbindan 'unbind', onlūcan 'unlock'. In some cases its meaning is weakened, as in onfön 'accept', ondrædan 'dread'.

The prefix tö- expresses destruction: töbrecan 'break', töteran 'tear'.

The prefix un- has a negative meaning: uncuþ 'unknown'. Sometimes it means 'bad': undæd 'misdeed'. A productive prefix.

The prefix wan- also has a negative meaning: wanhäl 'unwell'.

Composition. Composition is widely used in OE. There are compound substantives, adjectives, and, in lesser number, verbs.

Compound substantives may be formed by joining:
(1) "substantive + substantive": æfentīd 'evening time', ʒoldsmiþ 'goldsmith';
(2) "adjective + substantive": cwicseolfor 'quicksilver'.

Compound adjectives may be formed by joining:
(1) "substantive + adjective": wīn- sæd 'satiated with wine';
(2) "adjective + adjective": wid- cüþ 'widely known';
(3) "adjective + substantive": bliþ- heort 'happy- hearted', ʒlæd- mod 'glad-minded'.

Sometimes the first component takes the from of the genitive case, as Mönandæʒ (literally 'Moon's day') 'Monday'. Tiwesdæʒ (literally 'Tiw's, the war god's, day') 'Tuesday', Wednesday 'Woden's day', 'Wednesday', þunresdæʒ (Thunor's, the god of thunder's, day) 'Thursday', Friʒedæʒ (Friya's day) 'Friday', Sæternesdæʒ ('Saturn's day') 'Saturday', Sunnandæʒ ('Sun's day') 'Sunday', Enʒlaland ('Angles' land') 'England', Francnaland ('Franks' land') "France', witena3emöt ('wise man's assembly') 'State council', Snotinʒahäm ('home of Snot's descendants') 'Nottingham', Oenaford ('oxen's ford') 'Oxford', dæʒesēaʒe ('day's eye') 'daisy'.

Compound verbs are rare. An example is efenþröwian 'sympathize' (literally: 'suffer together').

Loan-Words. Old English has only words from two sources- from Latin and Celtic languages. Some words taken over from Latin had been borrowed by Latin from Greek.

Latin. These may be classified into two layers: (1) the oldest layer words taken over either directly from the Romans before the Anglo- Saxons settled in Britain, or from the Celtic inhabitants of Britain, (2) the second layer: words concerning religion and the church, taken over after the introduction of Christianity, which began in 597; these words belong to the 7th century.

First Layer. Here belong, on the one hand of objects of material culture, and on the other, names of products which the Anglo- Saxons bought from Roman merchants. The first group is represented by the words: stræt 'street', from Latin strata (via) 'paved road'; weall 'wall' from Latin vallum; cycene 'kitchen' from Latin coquina; myln 'mill' from Latin molinum; pipor 'pepper' from Latin piper; win 'wine' from Latin vinum. The Latin substantive castra 'camp' made part of number of names of cities, which were camps in the Roman epoch: Chester, Manchester, Worcester, Leicester; Latin colonia has been preserved in the place names Lincoln, Colchester; Latin portus 'port' in Portsmouth, Bridport, Latin strāta in Stratford; Latin fossa 'moat' in Fossway, Fosbroke.

Second Layer. The second layer consists of words which directly or indirectly belong to the sphere of religion and church. When Christianity was introduced in England (see 888), the Latin language came to be used as language of the church. At this time a cetain number of Latin words were taken over into English: biscop 'bishop' from Latin episcopus, Greek episkopos; cleric 'church man' from Latin clericus, Greek klērikòs; apostol 'apostle' from Latin apostolus, Geek apòstolos; deofol 'devil' from Latin diabolus, Greek diàbolos; mæsse 'mass' from Latin missa, munuc 'monk' from Latin monachus, Greek monachòs; mäʒister 'teacher' from Latin magister, scrifan from Latin scribere. Some Latin loan- words yielded derivatives: biscophäd 'prescribe' from Latin scribere. Some Latin loan- words yielded derivatives: biscophäd 'bishopric', biscepunʒ 'becoming a bishop', scrift 'shrift'.

Under Latin influence some native English words acquired new meanings: thus, the substantive ēastron, which originally denoted a heathen spring holiday, acquired the meaning 'Easter'. Some new terms were created on the pattern of Latin words, e.g. ʒòdspell 'gospel' (literally 'good news'), þrēnes 'Trinity'.

Celtic. Celtic language had but a marginal influence on the English vocabulary. Among Celtic loan- words we may mention dün (MnE down) 'dune', dün 'dun', binn 'bin'. Some Celtic elements have been preserved in geographical names: Gaelic amhuin 'river' in Avon, Evan; Gealic cothair 'fortress' in Carnarvon, Gealic uisge 'water' in Exe, Usk, Esk; dun, dum 'hill' in Dumbarton, Dumfries, Dunedin; llan ;church' in Llandaff, Llandovery, Llandudno; coil 'forest' in Kilbrook, Killiemore; kil 'church' in Kilbride, Kilmacolm; Ceann 'cape' in Kebadre, Kingussie; inis 'island' in Innisfail; inbher 'mountain' in Inverness, Inverurie; bail 'house' in Ballyshannon.

On the whole, the percentage of loan- words in OE was very insignificant, as compared with later periods.

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Lecture 8. Middle English Historical Background.
Problems for discussion.

1. The Scandinavian Conquest.

2. The Norman Conquest.

3. Struggle between English and French.

4. Rise the London dialect.

5. Middle English dialects and Written Documents.

The Scandiavian Conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Scandinavian inroads into England had begun 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 had 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 Danela3 (literally: "Danish law"). The Scandinavians, in their turn, recognized the nominal supremacy of the king of England.

The northern and eastern parts of England were most thickly settled by Scandinavians; 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 Alfred 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 overthrown, and the power of the 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 the Old English. They had the same morphological categories; strong and weak declension of substantives, the strong substantives falling into several types, according to the stem vowel; 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 of 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 being especially intensive in the North and East.

Influence of Scandinavian dialects , made itself felt in two spheres: vocabulary and morphology.

The Norman Conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be a turning- point in English history and had a considerable influence on the Enlgish language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe (Norman< Norþman). In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occuupied the territory on both shores 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 Englian throne, assembled an army with the help of Norman barons, landed in England, and routed 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- Saxon nobility was replaced by Norman barons, who spoke French, namely, its Norman dialect. Thus, as a result of the conquest England came to be 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 200000 Frenchmen settled in England. This influx lasted for about two centuries. The civil war in the reign of kind 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 townspeople. The relation between French and English was, thus, different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class.

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 balk 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 later half of the 14th century victory of English became evident: French lost one position after another. But only in the 15th century did it finaly 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 first 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 latters written in French appear; 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 II) 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 French was replaced by English as the language in which teaching was conducted in schools. Thus, by the end of the 14th century supremacy of Anglo-Norman came to an end, though some scattered remians 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 . . . . top layer of society.

Hand in hand with this process there developed another, viz., the rise of a national language based on the London dialect. Its cause was the great shifts in social structure characterizing the English of the 14th century.

It was the time when new elements made themselves felt inside the feudal society- the town merchants, bearers of the new social structure which was to replace feudalism. Growth of commerce and industry, development of money circulation-these were the manifestations of social changes. They marked the end of feudal scattered economy and formation of wider economic ties between various parts of the country.

These economic and political acts exercised a decisive influence on the language situation in England. Under the new social structure which was asserting itself the existence of many separate dialects whose speakers did not understand one another could not last. New social relations created the need for a unified national language standing above dialects and equally intelligible in all parts of the country. But they did not merely create the need: they also created the conditions for its realization. The problem of a united national language became urgent. Such was the other aspect of linguistic changes in this epoch.

A special position among the dialects belonged to the dialect of London, which after the Norman conquest became the capital of England. London is situated on the Thames, thus, it lies on the boundary line between the Midland and the Southern dialects. In the 13th century it already showed a mixture od Midland and Southern elements, with the letter prevailing. As time passed, Midland elements grew at the expense of Southern ones.

Towards the end of the 14th century London dialect became influential in other parts of the country. This was due to the growth of its importance as an economic an political centre.

London's geographical position was extremely favourable for a quick growth of its political importance and its role as the birthplace of a national language. Many roads along which England's internal trade was conducted crossed in London. Owing to the great depth of the Thames, sea ships could easily reach London, and it became a centre of the country's trade with the continent. London's role as a trade centre attracted many people from different parts of the country and paved the way for elements of other dialects to penetrate into London English.

Thus, the London dialect, which became the base of the national English language, was a complex formation, reflecting various influences connected with the social and political life of the period. It contained, anongside East Midland, also south-Eastern (Kentish) and partly South- Western elements.

The London dialect of those centuries is represented by several important documents: Henry III's Proclamation of 1258, poems by Adam Davy (early 14th century), the works of Geoffrey Chaucer (1340- 1400), John Gower (1325- 1408), and John Wycliffe (1320- 1384). Analysis of these documents shows that East Midland elements gradually rose at the expense of South - Eastern ones.

Thus, in the course of the 14th century the ending -eth of the present indicative plural was superseded by the ending -en, typical of Midland dialects. The nominative case of the 3rd person plural personal pronoun hii was superseded by they (of the Midland dialects; the form is of Scandinavian origin , see ё 298); the prefix -y from OE 3e- of the second participle was gradually dropped, etc. Towards the end of the century the London dialect had arisen as a type of language essentially corresponding to the Midland dialects. It became the base of the national language.

Some 19th century scholars were inclined to ascribe a very great role in the formation of the national language to Chaucer. They thought that Chaucer had for the first time united various elements and laid the foundations of the national language. This view, as was shown by later investigations, was very much exaggerated. Chaucer's merit is that of having made a masterly use of the London dialect, not of having created it. "The dialect of London would, in any case, have become, nay, it was already becoming, the chief from of English used in writings of very kind, and that from the pressure of political, economic, and social factors; but there can be no doubt that the process was greatly hastened, so far as pure literature is concerned, by the popularity of Chaucer- as shown by the number of MSS of his writings in existence, and, afterwards, by the number of printed editions, as well as by frequent expressions of reverence for him scattered through literature, and by the irresistible impulse among poets to imitate his style, his turns of phrase, and his actual grammatical forms." In the period following the Norman conquest the same dialects continue to develope which existed in OE. But according to a tradition now firmly established, they are given new names (cf. 272). The Northumbrian dialect is now called Northern, Merician is called Midland, and West Saxon and Kentish are united under the name of Southern. The boundary between Northern and Midland 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.

The dialect of London combines East Midland and Southern features.

We shall first give a short list of the main ME documents classified according to dialects, and then we shall give a brief characteristic of me ME writings.

The main ME documents belong to the following dialects.

Kent The chief document is Dan Michel, Ayenbite of Inwit ("Remorse of Conscience"), a religious treaty, translated from the French (1340). William of Shoreham, Poems (early 14th cntury). Poema Morale (anonymous, early 13th century).

South- West. Layamon, Brut (a verse history of Britain, imitated from an Anglo-... ... ... by W... ... ... S... ... ... with Midland admixtures). Ancren Riwle ("Statute for Nuns"), early 13th century, probably adaptation of a Midland original. Robert of Gloucester, Rhymed Chronicle (ab. 1300). John Trevisa, translation of the monk Ranulphus Higden's Latin Polychronicon (1387).

West Midland. Legends of Catherine, Margaret, and Juliana (13th century). William of Palerne (romance, early 13th century). Sir Gawayne and the Green Knight and other poems by the same (anonymous) author (latter half of the 14th century).

East Midland. King Horn (romance, 13th century). Havelok the Dane (13th century), Orm, Ormulum (religious poem, early 13th century). Robert Mannyng of Brunne, Handlyng Synne ("Manual of Sins", verse translation from the French, ab. 1300). Genesis and Exodus (13th century). Debate of Body and Soul (13th century). Peterborough Chronicle (sequel to the Anglo- Saxon Chronicle, for the years 1132-1154).

London. Proclamation by Henry III (1258), the earliest official document in English since the conquest. Adam Davy, Poems (early 14th century). Works by Chaucer and Gower. Richard Rolle de Hampole, The Prick of Conscience (religious poem, former half of 14th century). Towneley Plays (14th century), York Plays (former half of 15th century).

Barbour, Bruce (porm about Bruce's struggle for the freedom of Scotland, ab. 1375, cf. below, 460). James I, The Kingis Quhair ("The King's Book"), collection of poems, early 15th century.

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 form Ormulum, named after its author the monk Orm, who at great length retells in a popular style events of Bible and Gospel history, addressing his narration to his brother, aslo a monk. About the same time another monk, Layamon, composed a long pocm, Brut, on the early history of Britain. This was partly a translation, or paraphrase, of Wace's Anglo- Norman poem Brut (see 314), and Layamon also 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 a French original; Ayenbyt of Inwyt ("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", that is, 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 story of Sir Gawayne and the Green Kinght; also 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.

And of course we must mention the famous Vision Concerning Piers the Plowman by Wiliam Langland (or Langley), a 14th century picture of the social conditions in the county, invaluable also as a historical document.

And we close this enumeration by the two great names of John Gower, author of the poem Confessio Amantis (besides Latin and French works), and the greatest of all, Geoffrey Chaucer, author of Troilus and Criseyde, The Ganterbury Tales, and a number of other poems. As far as prose goes, there is perhaps less variety, and no prose fiction in the true sense of 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 passeges 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.

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Lecture 9 Middle English Phonetic Changes.
Problems for discussion.
1. Middle English Vowel Chfnges.
2. Middle English Consonant Changes.
3. Rise of New Dipthongs and Related Phenomena.
4. More Phonetic Changes. French Sounds.
5. Letters and Sound Vowels in Middle English.

Middle English Vowel Changes. In the ME period a great change affected the entire system of vowel phonemes. To fully understand the importance of this change, we must briefly summarize the essential characteristics of the OE vowel system.

OE had both short and long vowel phonemes, and each these could occur in any phonetic environment, that is they were absolutely independent phonemic units.

As a result of important changes coming into the vowel system in the 10th- 12th centuries, the ME vowel system was basically different. While, in OE, quantity (that is langth/ shortness) was a distinctive phonemic feature, in ME (by the 13th century) this is no longer so. Quantity of vowels becomes dependent on their environment- to be exact, on what follows. With a few exceptions (see below, 319) the situation in ME is

briefly this: in other phonetic environments only short vowels can appear, while in other phonetic environments only long vowels can appear. The quantity (length/ shortness) of a vowel is with those few exceptions still to be considered unambiguously predetermined by the environment. Thus quantity ceases being a phonemically relevant feature and becomes a merely phonetic peculiarity of a vowel sound.

Now we will consider the various items of this development, which come under separate headings.

Shortening and Lengthening of Vowels. A long vowel occurring two consonants (including a doubled, i.e. long, consonant) is shortened. Compare the following examples:

	OE		ME
cēpan	(Infinitive)	'keep'	kĕpen
cēpte	(Past Tense)	'kept'	kepte
fēdan	(Infinitive)	'feed'	fĕden
fēdde	(Past Tense)		fedde
wis	'wise'		wis
wisdōm	'wisdom'		wisdom

The vowels are shortened before two consonants, but remain long in other environments.

However, long vowels remain long before the "lengthening" consonant groups ld, ... (these were lengthened in Late OE, cf. ē107), e.g.) e.g.

wēnan	(Infinitive)	'think'	wĕnen
wēnde	(Past Tense)		wĕnde
hēran	(Infinitive)	'hear'	hĕren
hērde	(Past Tense)		hĕrde

Long consonants also remained long before such consonant clusters as belonged to the following syllable. This mainly affects the group st as in the words

OE	ME
læsta 'least'	lęst
ēastan 'from the East'	ęsten
mǣsta, mǟsta 'largest' mōst, māst

From such forms as these the long vowel could also penetrate into forms with final -st: -mēst, māst, lēst, lāst.

On the other hand, in the words brēst >brēst 'breast', blǣst>blast 'blast', fūst> fūst, dūst>dust the vowel was shortened, that is, the from without ending took the upper hand.

A long vowel is also shortened before one consonant in some three- syllable words: lāferce> laferce> larke 'lark', hǟl3dœ3> haliday 'holiday', sūperne> superne 'southern'.

Lengthening. In the 13th century short vowels were lengthened in open syllables. This was another item of the development which deprived quantity (length/ shortness) of its status as a phonemic feature.

Lengthening affected the short vowels a, e, o. In the Northern dialects it started in the 12th century, and in the 13th it spread all over England. The long vowels ē and ō which resulted from this change were open vowels; thus, the ē from e coincided with ǟ from æ and ēǟ; the ōfrom o with ō from ā (in Midland and Southern dialects). For

example: cāru> care 'care', talu> tale 'tale', macian> māken 'make', werian> weren 'wear', stelan> stelen 'steal', specan> speken 'speak', hopian> hōpen 'hope', smocian> smōken 'smoke'.

The narrow vowels i and u remained as a rule unaffected by this change, and thus the difference between short i and long and also that between short u and ū retained its quality as a phonemically relevant feature. In a few words, however, the narrow vowels were also lengthened in open syllables, and the narrow vowels were widened in the process, thus, i>ē, u>ō, as in wikes> wēkes 'weeks', yfel> ifel> evel 'evil', dures> dōres 'doors'. This change mainly occurred in the Northern dialect; it partly also affected the East Midland dialect.

Development of other vowels. OE e, ē, i, ī, o were unchanged in ME: cf. bettre, tellan> tellen , 'tell', cēpan> kĕpen 'keep', tēp> tēth 'teeth', sin3an> singen 'sing', wille> will, writan> writen 'write', tima> time 'time', folc> folk 'folk'.

OE long ō mostly remained unchanged: fōt 'foot', bōc> bōk 'book'. However, in the Northern dialects the long ō began in the 13th century to develop into {ō>ü}. This vowel rhymes with French {ü}; it is denoted by the letter u or by the digraph ui, as in gud 'good', buk 'book', fut 'foot'.

OE short u and long ū remained unchanged in ME: sunu> sone {sun1}'son, hū> how {hū}, tūn> town {tu:n}, ūt> out {u:t}.

Monophthongization of OE Diphthongs. All OE diphthongs were monophthongixed in ME. OE short ea became a passing through the stage of æ, as in eald>ald 'old', healf> half, earm> arm 'poor'.

OE ea before ld yielded different results in different dialects.

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Lekture 10 Middle English Grammar

Problems for Discussion.

1. Noun History.
2. The Development articles
3. Adjective and Adverb History
4. Verb History.
5.Chanqes in Syntax.

Middle English Grammar. Middle English is the period of the levelling of endings. For this reason, many distinctions disappear; the productive types absorb the more archaic ones and those which are less productive. New forms appear, e.g. analytical verb forms.

The Noun. Only two numerous groups exist in ME, distinguished mainly by their plural forms. The one is the former a-declension which has absorbed the lesser types; the other is the n- declension, which cinsists of former feminine nouns (the weak

declension). There are few survivals of unchangeable neuters; the root-declension has lost some words, but it continues to exist.

The noun has two cases- the common case and the possessive. The weak declension has no case forms at all.

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
C. lof	lofes	care	caren	fot	fet
G. Lofes	lofes	care	caren	fotes	fetes

Adjective. The adjective has lost its case-system altogether. There remain only a few traces of the number distinction and the distinction between the strong and weak declension.

	Strong	Weak
Singular	hard	hard-e
Plural	- e	-e

The comparative and the superlative degrees are formed with the siffixes -er, - est respectively. The mutated forms still occur, but the vowel may already be levelled on the pattern of the positive form. The suppletive forms of comparison remain the same, with corresponding phonetic changes.

Adverb. The suffix -e may alredy have disappeared, and so the "flat" adverbs come into existence (hard). At the same time, the siffix -lic, often fprming adverbs with -e (cornostlice - cornestly) comes, by metanalysis, to denote adverbs rather than adjectives: largely, busily.

Verb. The strong verbs have levelled the vowel of the preterite singular and there is a tendency towards merging of the preterite singular in the 4th and 5th classes; sometimes the vowel of preterite plural is analogical to that of participle II.

Present	Preterite		
	Singular	Plural	Participle II
1. riden	rod	ride(n)	riden
2. chosen	ches	chose (n)	chosen
3. binden	band, bond	bounde (n)	bounde (n)
helpen	halp	holpen	holpen
4. beren	bar	beren, bar	beren
5. geten	gat	geten	geten
6. faren	for	foren	faren
7. leten	let	leten	leten
fallen	fel	fellen	fallen

The productive weak type is formed by the merging of the 2nd and some veros of the 1st class; the endings are -ed - de. The irregular verbs verbs still form a group apart.

Conjugation (the 14th century)

		Present		
	Indicative		Subjunctive	
	1. bind (e)	dem (e)		
Sing.	2. bindest, bint	-est	Sing. bind(e)	dem(e)
	3. -eth	- eth		
Plur.	- en	- en	Plur. bind(en)	dem(en)
			Preterite	

Indicative			Subjunctive	
Sing. hand	• dem-de -dest - de		Sing. bound(e)	dem-de
Plur. hounde(n)	-den		Plur. bound(en)	dem-den

Participle I	Infinitive
bindinge	to bind(en)
deminde	to dem(en)

The preterite-present verbs are grouped in the same way, as in OE except that schal, scholde may fuunction as auxiliaries of the future tense and junctive forms respectively.

Substantive Verb. The sippletive forms of the substantive verb show a slightly different distribution: the present subjunctive is represented only by - be - forms.

		Present		
	Indicative		Subjunctive	
Sing.	1. am	bwe	be	
	2. art	bi ist		
	3. is	bith		
Plur.	are(n)	been, beth	ben	

		Preterite		
	Indicative	Subjunctive	Participle II	
Sing.	was	were	ben	
	were, wast			
	was			
Plur.	weren	were(n)		

Phrase. Noun, Adjective and Verb Patterns. In Early Me while the nominal parts of speech were losing most of their grammatical distinctions, the stucture of the main word phrases - with noouns, adjectives, and verbs as head- words -was considerably altered.

In OE the dependent components of noun patterns agreed with the noun in case, number and gender, if they were expressed by adjectives, adjective - pronouns or participles. If expressed by nouns, they either agreed with the head-noun in case and number (nouns in apposition) or had the form of the Gen. case.

By Late ME agreement in noun patterns had practically disapperared, except for some instances of agreement in number. Formal markers of number had been preserved in nouns, demonstrative pronouns and some survivals of the strong declension of adjectives; most adjectives and adjectivised participles had lost number inflections by the age of Chaucer; cf. a few phrases from Chaucer:

sg: ... this holy mayeden ... that requeste

pl: These wodes eek recoveren grene. ('These woods become green again.')

as this clerkes seyn('as these learned men say')

A good man was ther of religioun. ('There was a good man, a priest.');

Goode men, herkneth everych on! ('Good men, listen!') but far more often there was no agreement in number:

... his woundes newe, the same ship, strange place straunge strondes, ets. ('his new wounds,' 'the same ship,' 'strange place', 'strange strnds.')

The last traces of agreement in adjectives were lost in the 15th c. when the inflection - e was dropped; only the demonstrative pronouns, the undefinite article and nouns in apposition indicated the indefinite article and nouns in apposition indicated the number of the head - word, like in Mod E. When the noun were shown by its determiners (articles and pronouns). Sometimes in Late ME the adjective stood in post-position, which can be attributed to the influence of French syntas (in French the adjective was placed after the niun), e.g.: *Brother dere, cares colde, woundes newe* (Chaucer) (Relics of this practice are now found as some modern set phrases such as *court martial , time immemorial*)

A noun used attributively had from of the Gen. case or was joined to the head-noun by a preposition. In Chaucer's time the use of - 's- Gen was less restricted than in Mod E, so that inanimate nouns commonly occurred as inflectional Gen. in noun pattern: *fadres sone* 'father's son', *seintes lore* 'saint's lore', *every shires ende* 'end of every shire.' Yet the use of prepositions had certainly become more extensive: *the sergeaunts of the toun of Rome* 'the officials of the town of Rome,' *men of armes* 'men of arms', etc. (see also 433-434 for the history of the Gen. case).

In the age of the literary Renasissance, the noun patterns became fixed syntactic frames in which every position had a specific functionnal significance. The atttibute in pre-position was enclosed between the determiner and the head-word; hence every word occupying this position was an attribute. This is evidenced by wide use of nouns as attributes in noun patterns at the time of Shakespeare, an age famous for its unconventional handling of parts of speech, e.g: Jog on, jog on, the *footpath* way; the *darling* buds of May; the *master* mistress of my passion; *rascal* counters. (Shakespeare) The standardised frame of the noun pattern is also confirmed by the fact that the position of the head noun coul not be left vacant - it was at that time rhat the indefinite pronoun *one* and the demonstrative *that* began to be used as the so-called "prop-words", e. g.:

A barren-spirited fellow, one that feeds
On abject orts and imitations.. (Shakespeare)

With the growth of the written language noun patterns became more varied and more extended. Attributes to nouns could contain prepositional phrases with other attributes:

For drunkennesse is verray sepulture
*Of mannes wit and his discrecioun. (*Chaucer*)

('For drunkenness is the burying (lit. "sepulture") of man's wit and his discretion.')

In Early NE noun patterns began to include syntactic complexes:predicative constructions with the Gerund and the Infinitive (see ё 54 ff) . In ME and Early NE adjective patterns, as before, included a variety of dependent components. Adjectives were commonly modified by adverbs, e. g:

He was a *verray* parfit gentil knyght. (Chaucer)
('He was a very perfect noble knight.')

The main difference from the preceding ages lay in the ways of connection between the adjective and the nouns or noun-pronouns used as dependent components of the pattern. In OE an adjective could take an objects In the Dat.or gen. case In ME these abjects were replaced by the Comm. case usually preceded by a preposition,. e.g: *with face pale of hewe, so harde of his herte; amyable of port; unlyk to my dede; ..*

*discreet in alle his wordes and dedes, so patient unto a man. (*Chaucer*) ('with a pale face; hard-hearted; amiable in behaviour, unlike my deed; discreet in all his words and deeds; so patient to a man').

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

The adjective freely combined with the Infinitive since the earliest periods. Examples from Chaucer are: *redy for to ryde* 'ready to ride;' *I am free to wedde* 'I am free to marry'; *A manly man, to been an abbot able* 'a manly man, able to be an abbot'.

The use of adjectives with the *-ing* -from was more restricted; in later periods it increased steadily as the gerund and gerundial complexes began to replace the Infinitive in adjective phrases, e.g.;

measurable *in loking* and *in berunge* (Chaucer)

('moderate in appearance and behaviour'(lit. "looking and bearing") But yet her portion is *worth your taking* notice, Master Aimwell. (Shirley, early 17th c.)

The history of the verb pattern embraced a number of important changes and developments.

In some respects verb patterns became more uniform. In OE the verb could take various objects and adverbial modifiers expressed by the oblique cases of nouns. In ME the oblique cases were replaced by the Comm. case (or the Obj. case of pronouns), with-.. .. . . Even though the Inflectional -'s-Gen. survived, it was no longer used in verb patterns (it occurred in attributive function only). The use of prepositions in verb patterns grew, and so did the number of transitive verbs which took an object without a preposition. The following quotations from Chaucer's poems show the replacement of the oblique cases: by the Comm. case of nouns and the Obj. case of pronouns:

That *hem* hath holpen whan that they were seeke
('Who has helped them when they ill -OE *helpan* took an object in the Dat. case')
And first *to Cecilie*, as I understonde,
He yaf *that one*
('And first he gave that one (rose) to Cecily'- the object correspond to the OE Dat. and Acc. cases.)
After her deeth ful ofte may she wayte.
('She often waited for death'- the corresponding OE verb *bidan* governed the Gen. case.)
At nyght were come into that hostelrye
Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignye...
('At night came into that inn a company of twenty-nine' the respective OE form was *nihtes* - the Gen. case in an adverbial function.)
In a tabard he rood *upon* a mere.
('He rode upon a mare in a long coat'- OE *mearum ridan* 'ride a horse' with a nounin that Dat. case; see also ё 432)

Throughout ME and Early NE the use of prepositions displayed great fluctuation. Many verbs were used with a variety of prepositions until the age of prescriptive grammars and dictionaries, and some verbs a long time after. During the NE period the size and complexity of verb patterns grew, as the verbs came to be extended by noun

patterns of more complicated structure, by Infin. phrases and predicative constructions with diverse components (see & 541 ff.)

Some verb phrases merged into single grammatical or lexical units and in this sense were "simplified". As shown in the preceding paragraphs verb phrases consisting of a finite and a non-finite verb turned into analytical forms, thus passing from the level of syntax to that of morphology. Verb phrases consisting of verbs and adverbs - which modified or specified the meaning of the verb - formed lexical units known as "composite verbs" or "verb-adverb combinations" (this process msde up for the loss of many OE verb OE verb prefixes). Likewise, many verb phrases became inseparable "group-verbs" or phraseological units, e.g. *maken melodie* ('sing') in Chaucer and *have mind upon your health, have war, have business,* etc. in Shakespeare.

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

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

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

For *it* reynyd almoste euery othir day. (Brut)
('For it rained almost every other day.')
Of his falshede *it* dilleth me to ryme. (Chaucer)
('Of his falsehood it annoys me to speak.')

The use of the verb-substitute *do* , as well as the use of auxiliary and modal verbs without the notional verb proves that the position of the predicate could not be vacant either. This is evident in short answers and other statements with the notional verb left out, e.g.:

Helpeth me now, as I *dyde* yow whileer. (Chaucer)
('Help me now as I did (help) you formerly.')

Stand! So I *do* against my will ... Is Guilliams with the packet gone? He is, my lord, an hour ago. (Shakespeare)

As compared with OE the subject of the sentence became more varied in meaning, as well as in the forms of expression. We have already mentioned the increased use of the formal subject *it* . Due to the growth of new verb forms the subject could now denote not only the agent or thing characterised by a certain property, but also the recipient of an action or the "subject of a state and feeling.

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

meanings and subtle semantic distinctions, lacking in OE verb forms or expressed formerly by contextual means.

Though some types of compound predicates had turned into simple - as the verb phrases developed into analytical forms- the verb phrases developed into analytical forms - the compound predicate could express a variety of meanings with the help of numerous new link-verbs and more extended and complex predicatives. ME witnessed a remarkable growth of link-verbs: about 80 verbs occur copulas in texts between the 15th and 18th c.In a way the new link-verbs made up for the loss of some OE prefixes and compound verbs which denoted the growth of a quality or the transition into a state, e. g.:

And tho it *drewe* nere Cristenesse. (Brut)
('And though it drew near Christmas', 'Christmas was coming')
Cecilie cam, whan it *was woxen* night...
('Cecily came when it was night ...')
as me best thinketh (Chaucer)
('as it seems best to me ')
It *fallep profyte* to summe men to be bounde to a stake. (Wyklif)
('It appears good for some men to be bound to a stake.')
A murd'rous guilt shows not itself more soon
Than love that would *seem* hid ...
The rose *looks* fair ... (Shakespeare).

The structure of the predicative became more complex: it could include various prepositional phrases and diverse attributes, e.g.:

Of *twenty yeer of age* he was, I gesse. (Chaucer)
('He was twenty years old, I guess.')
That's a *depp story of deeper love;*
For he was *more than over shoes in love.* (Shakespeare)

The compound verbal predicate in ME was characterised by a wider use of modal phrases and verbs of aspective meaning, e.g.:

Of *twenty yeeer of age* he was, I gesse. (Chaucer)
('He was twenty years old, I guess.')
That's a *deep srory of a deeper love:*
For he was *more than over shoes in love (Shakespeare)*

The compound verbal predicate in ME was characterised by a wider use of modal phrases and verbs of aspective meaning, e.g.:

No though I seye, I *nam* nat *lief to gabble* (Chaucer)
('No though I say I am not inclined to gabble.')

Most frequent in Chaucer's works was a verb phrase of aspective meaning *gan* plus Inf. (NE *begin*):

He stired the coles til *relente gan* the wex.
('He was stired the coales till the wax began to melt.')

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

Ne bryng nat every man into thyn hours. (Chaucer)
('Don't bring every man into your house.')
(-ne- is a nigative particle used with verbs, *nat* -another negative particle, for its origin see 219)

No berd hadde he *ne nevere* sholde have. (Chaucer)
('He had no beard , and never would have one')

See also the example: No *though I seye, I man nat lief to gabble* above where *nam is* made up of the negative particle *ne* and *am* . In Shakespeare's time the use of negations is variable: the sentence could contain one or more means of expressing negation. Cf.:

So is it *not* with me as with that Muse...
Good madam, hear me speak.
And let no quarrel, *nor no* brawl to come .
Taint the condition of this present hour ... (Shakespeare)

Gradually double negation went out of use. In the age of Correcteness - the normalising 18th c. - when the scholars tried to improve and perfect the language, multiple negation was banned as illogical: it was believed that one negation eliminated the other like two minuses in mathematics and the resulting meaning would

be affirmative. These logical restrictions on the use of negations became a strict rule of English grammar.

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

Stabilisation of the word order was a slow process, which took many hundreds of years: from Early ME until the 16th or 17thc. The fixation of the word order proceeded together with reduction and loss of inflectional endings, the two developments being interwined; though syntactic changes were less intensive and less rapid. They may have been delayed by the break in the written tradition after the Norman conquest and by the general unsettling of the grammatical system during the Early ME dialectal divergence, whereas morphological changes may have been intensified for these very reasons.

Though the word order in Late ME may appear relatively free, several facts testify to its growing stability. The practice of placing the verb-predicate at the end of a subordinate clause had been abandoned, so was the type of word order with the object placed between the Subject and the Predicate belonged to the Subject, and the Predicate (see OE examples in ё224) The place before the Predicate belonged to the Subject, which is confirmed by the prevalence of this word order in prosaic , texts and also, indirectly, by the transition of the "impersonal" constructions into "personal": as shown above, in the pattern *the mann(e) liketh* the noun was understood as the Subject, though originally it was an Object in the Dat . case (cf. *him liketh, see* ё 533)

In the 17th and 18th c. the order of words in the sentence was generally determined by the same rules as operate in English today. The fixed, direct word order prevailed in statements, unless inversion was required for communicative purposes or for emphasis, e.g.:

Now *comes* in the sweetest *morsel* in the night ... These numbers *will I tear* and write in prose. (Shakespeare)

The order of the Subject and Predicate remained direct in sentences beginning with an adverbial modifier:

theb *the two bears will not bite* one another when they meet. (In OE an initial adverbial requiredan inverted word order - P+S-see ё225)

In questions the word order was partially inverted - unless the question referred to the subject group. The analytical forms of the verb and the use of the do -periphrasis instead of simple forms made it possible to place the notional part of the Predicate after the Subject even with simple Predicate. Cf.:

Are they *good* ? ... *Can* you *make* n use of your discontent? *comes* here? ... Lady, *will* you *walk* about with your friend ? never *make* you laugh? (Shakespeare)

Occasionally we find simple verb forms in questions placed before the Subject: Which way *looks* he? ... How *came* you to this? Full inversion in questions is more common with Shakespeare than with later authors (see also ё 508 for the history of forms with *do*).

Predicative Constructions. One of the most important developments in Late ME and Early NE syntax was the growth of predicative constructions. Predicative constructions date from the OE period, when Dat. Absolute was used in translations from Lation and the Acc. with the Inf.- in original English texts; the latter construction occurred only with verbs of physical perception (see ё 216); a short time later a new type of construction appeared after verbs of physical perception: the Acc. with Part I .

In Late ME and in Early NE the Acc. with the Inf. and the Acc. with the Part. came to be used with an increasing number of verbs of various meanings. New types of predicative constructions appeared in Late ME and Early NE texts: the Nom. with the Inf. and with Participles I, II (also known as Subjective predicative constructions) , the Nom. Absolute construction and the Absolute construction with prepositions, and , finally, the *for* - phrase with the Inf. and the Gerundial construction.

The following quotations from Early NE texts exemplify various predicative constructions:

Objective Predicative Constructions ("Complex Object")
I would desire *you to draw* your knife and grave your name (Dekker)
When the Noble Caesar saw *him stab:* .. and bid *then speak* for me: ... mothers shall but smile when they behold

Their infants quarter'd with the hands of war. (Shakespeare)
Subjective predicative construction ("Complex Subject")
Although *he* were adjudged , in the court of Rome *to have forfeeted,* all the right wich he had to his Kingdome ... (Holinshed)
He was reported to be a very uncontended person. (Puttenham)
Absolute constructions
My flesh being troubled, my heart doth hear the spear. (Wyatt)
.. and, after that dede done, *ther* was no more money yoven us. (Paston Letters)
... and with hym mette a shippe callyd Nicolas of the Towre *with other shippis wayting on him.* (Paston Letters)
(The Absolute construction could at first be intorduced by various prepositions: later *with* was standardised.)
Gerundial complexes
... the very next day after his *coming home* departed out of this world to receive his reward in the Spiritual court of Heaven. (Dekker) (See also 474.)
For-phrase with the Infinitive
The descriptions whereof were too long *for mee to write,* and you to read (Dekker)

The advantage of the for-phrase and the Gerundial construction over other predicative constructions was that they were less restricted syntactically: they could be employed in various syntactic funnctions. All predicative constructions wre formed according to a single patter: they consisted of a nominal element indiccating the agent or subject of an action or state and a non-finite from denoting this action. When relationships between the component parts of predicative constructions were firmly established , the second element began to be expressed by nominal parts of speech without the help of verbals, e.g. adjectives and nouns:

.. and you shall not sin

If you do say we think *him over - proud* and *under - honest* (Shakespeare)

... Came the Emperor ... from hunting, the *Dolphin on his right hand, the Duke of Orleans on the lyfft.* (Fabian)

Though all predicative constructions are based on a uniform underlying pattern, they have developed from different sources; from verb patterns with direct and prepositional objects followed by an infinitive or a participle, noun patterns with participles used as attributes, verbal nouns modified by possessive pronouns or nouns, elliptical infinitive sentence. Some scholars believe that predicative constructions in English arose under the influence of Lation and that they should be regarded as direct borrowings from Latin (M. Callaway). Though predicative constructions were frequently used in translations from Latin at all historical periods, there seems to be no doubt of their native origin.The earliest instances of the Acc. with the Inf. are found in BEOWULF, an original OE epic; as mentioned above they were first used after verbs if physical perception and were soon extended to other verbs while the Inf. began to alternate with Part. I.

In Late ME and Early NE predicative constructions of different types were commonly used both in translation and in original texts, In the age of the Literary Renalissance many works were translated from Latin into English - it has been found that predicative constructions, especially the Objective precddicative and the Absolute construction were more frequent in translations from Latin into English - it has been found that predicative constructions, especially the Objective predicative and the Absolute construction were frequent in translations from Latinthan in original prose, Since their frequency continued to grow in later ages it seems probable that the literal translation of Latin constructions played a certain role in their further growth: it is also probable that some of the more complicated patterns - with the passive forms of the verbals - appeared as direct replicas of Latin constructions. With the exception of these aspects, neither the origin of the constructions nor their growth in NE can be attributed to foreign influence. Their growing productivity in the NE period is part of the development towards morecomplicated syntactic structures in the written forms of the language in the ages of Literary efflorescence.

Compound and Complex Sentences. The growth of the written forms of English, and the advance of literature in Late ME and Early NE manifested itself, among other changes in the further development of the compound and complex sentence . Differentiation between the two types became more evident , the use of connectives - more precise. The diversity of sentence structures in Late ME and Early NE reveals considerable freedom in the nature and use of clauses. The flexibility of patterns and the variable use of connectives were subjected to new constraints and regulations in the period of normalisation.

The complicated hierarchical structure of the sentence in Late ME and also correlation of connectives inherited from OE is illustrated by the opening stanza of Chaucer's CANTERBURY TALES (see the text in 361).

The poem begins with an adverbial clause of time introduced by *whan that:* the interrogative adverb whan ('when') is accompanied by the conjunction *that,* the two words together being used as a conjunction: another adveribal clause of time whan Zephirus ... goes on for two and a half lines then two temporal clauses are joined by *and ,*and two more clauses are inserted - an attributive clause beginnig with *That slepen* ... and a parenthetical clause: then, finally, the principal clause begins with the adverb *thanne* which correlates with *whan that* and whan in the first and fifth lines.

Many new conjunctions and other connective words appeared during the ME period: both ... and, a coordinating conjunction , was made up of a borrowed Scandinavian dual adjective *bath* and the native *and- be cause, a* subordinating conjunction, was a hybrid consis ting of the native English preposition *by* and a borrowed Latin noun, *cause (by + cause* 'for the reason'): numerous connectives developed from adverbs and pronouns -*who, what, which, where, whose, how, why.* These connectives sometimes occurred in combination with *that* (like *whan that* in the above quotation from Chaucer), which probably served to show that the former pronouns and adverbs were employed in a new , connective, function.

The following examples from Chaucer's works illustrate various types of subordinate clauses in ME and some of the connectives used to join the clauses, especially the polyfuntional *that*

Subject and abject clauses:

And notified is thurghout the toun

That every wight, with greet devocioun,

Sholde preyen Crist *that* he this mariage

Receyve in gree, and spede this viage.

('And it is notified throughout the town that every man should pray to Christ with great devotion that he receive this marriage favourably and make the voyage successful.')

An attributive clause joined by *that* and *which* correlated with *thilke* ('such'):

A knyght ther was and that a worthy man

That fro the type that he first bigan

To riden out, he loved chivalrie ...

('There was a knight and he was a worthy man , that loved chivalry. from the time he first began to ride out (as a knight.')

That oon of hem was blynd and myghte nat see,

But it were with *thilke* eyen of his mynde

With whiche men seen, *after that* they been blynde.

('That one them was blind and could not see except with such eyes of his mind, with which men see after they get blind.')

An adveribal clause of result joined by so ... *that:*

And so ferforth she gan oure lay declare

That she the constable, er *that* it was eve

Converted, and on Crist made hym bileve.

('And she began to declare ("preach")our creed to such a degree that she converted the governor and made him belive in Christ , before evening came.)

The last two quotations conttation also *adverival clauses of time* introduced by *after that, er that*

An *adveribal clause of manner* introduced by as:

And for to kepe his lordes hir degre -
As it is ryght and skylfyl that they be
Enhaunsed and honoured, ...

('And to maintain the rank of his lords , as it is right and reasonable that they should be promoted and honoured, ...)

Adverival clauses of condition joined by *if that* and if:

What wot I, *if that* Crist have hider ysent
My wyf by see ...

('What do I know *if* Christ has hither sent my wife by sea.')

And if so be that thou me fynde fals, Another day do hange me by the hals

('And if it be so that you find me false, the next day hang me by the neck.')

Adveribal clauses of conession joined by *wher -so* and *though that:*

But forth she moot, *wher- so* she wepe or singe.

('But she must (go) forth, whtcher she weeps or sings')

For I ne can nat fynde
A man , *though that* I walked in-to Ynde
Neither in citee nor in no village.

('For I cannot a man, though I walked to India, either in a city or in a village.')*An adverial clause of cause* joined with the help of *by way of reason and by cause that* Than seye they ther-in swich difficultee

By way of resoun, for to speak al playn,
By cause that ther was swich diversitee
Bitwene her bothe lawes ...

('Then they saw there such difficulty in it for the reason, to speak plainly, because there was so much difference between their two laws ... ')

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Lecture 11. Development of Middle English Vocabulary
Problems for discussion.

1. Scandinavian Influence.
2. French Influence.
3. Middle English Word- Formation.
4. French Derivational Affixes in English.

Scandinavian Influence. Vocabulary developed in the ME period both by internal processes and by borrowing words an'blast', d word- building morphemes from other languages.

In the sphere of internal development we may note such facts as deriving new words by means of affixation (e,g, brotherhood, redynesse, herty 'hearty'), and development of meaning in accordance with developments in social life: for example, the OE substantive cniht, which meant 'boy', servant', acquired in ME (spelt knight) the meaning 'knight'l the OE verb sellan 'give' had its meaning narrowed to 'sell', that is 'give for money', in ME.

Scandinavian influence. A considerable part of the vocabulary was common to English and to Scandinavian dialects. In many words the root was the same, while endings were different. In the following list we show the OE words and their Scandinavian counterparts.

OE	Scandinavian	OE	Scandinavian
dŏm 'judgement', 'sentence'	dŏmr	sunu 'son'	sunr
fisc 'fish'	fiskr	heorte 'heart'	hiarta
cynin3 'king'	konongr	tima 'time'	time
stăn 'stone'	steinn	oxa 'ox'	oxe, uxe
ăþ 'oath'	eiþr	fŏt, 'foot'	fŏtr
hlăford 'lord'	lăvarde	fæder 'father'	fader
wind 'wind'	vindr	mŏdor 'mother'	mŏder
dæ3 'day'	dagr	sĕoc 'sick'	siukr
hĕafod 'head'	hofod	cŭŏ 'known'	kuŏr
trĕo 'tree'	trĕ	bitan 'bite'	bita
cynn ;kin'	kyn	flĕotan'fleet'	fliota
wis 'wise'	viss	sĕoŏan 'seethe'	sioŏ
sŏŏ 'true'	saŏr	bindan 'bind'	binda
hăl 'whole'	heill	weorŏan 'become'	verŏa
lўtel 'little'	litell	beran 'bear'	bera
micel, mycel 'large'	mikell	stelan 'steal'	stela
3earu 'ready'	gerr	cweŏan 'say'	kueŏa
ŏd 'good'	gŏdr	sittan 'sit'	sitia
ic 'I'	ek	faran 'go'	fara
bidan 'wait'	bida	hebban 'lift'	hefia
3ripan 'catch'	gripa	standan 'stand'	standa
æ3 egg'	egg	hătan 'call'	heita
3iefu 'gift'	giof	feallan 'fall'	falla

Another part of Scandinavian vocabulary did not correspond to English. It is in this sphere that Scandinavian dialects influenced English. This influence covered a counsiderable semantic field, incliding both political terms and everyday words.

Among these words were; lagu (MnE take), fĕologa (MnE fellow), skye (MnE sky) 'cloud', 'sky'.

Even the 3rd person plural personal pronoun was taken over from Scandinavian into English. The Scandinavian pronoun þeir penetrated into English and, superseding the OE pronoun hie, became ME they. In a similar way the genitive of the Scandinavian pronoun, þeirra, superseded the native hira and became ME their, and the dative þeim

superseded the native him and became Methem. This process was prepa by the OE forms of the demonstrative pronoun þæs, þæm, þå, etc.

In ME documents we sometimes find the preposition at preceding the infinitive, as in Scandinavian. The only trace of this usage is the substantive ado (<* at do).

Among scandinavian loan words there were some military terms, such as fylcian (v) 'from' (a military unit), liþ 'navy', but they did not survive, and were in thier turn superseded, mostly by French words .

Scandinavian elements became part of many geographical names, e.g. by 'village' in Kirkby (now also a surname). Whitby, derby; toft 'grassy spot', 'hill' in Langtoft; beck 'rivulet' in Troutbeck; ness 'cape' in Inverness, Caithness, etc.

In the regions inhabited by Scandinavians, where the two languages were mixed, there occurred blending of entire lexical layres. As we saw, in many cases a Scandinavian word differed from its English counterpart only in small details. When two such variants met, they might easily blend, It is there sometimes impossible to decide what it was that actually happened: whether the English word was superseded by the Scandinavian influence. For example, the OE verb 3iefan 'give' corresponded to the Scandinavian gefa (with a velar consonant). In Late ME, that is, in the 15th century, we find the form give. This velar g could be the Scandinavian variant. We maysuppose, eitjer that the English word as a whole was superseded by the Scandinavian, or else that it was changed under Scandinavian influence. The same applies to OE 3ietan 'recieve', Scandinavian geta and ME geten.

Compare also the words for 'sister': OE sweostor, Scandinavian systir, and ME sister.

In some cases Scandinavian words penetrated into London English at a late date, in the 14th or 15th century, that is, at a time when Scandinavian dialects were no longer spoken in England. Obviously, these words must have been taken over by Northern dialects at an earlier date, and when they were adopted into London English, they were no longer Scandinavian words in the strict sense, but Northern dialect words of Scandinavian origin.

French influence. Penetration of French words into English did not start immediately after the Norman conquest. It only started in the 12th century, and reached its climax in the 13th and 14th.

After the conquest French was introduced as the language of the law courts; debates in Parliament, which was inaugurated in 1265, were also counducted in French. Under such circumstances considerable layers of the population became bilingual. This bilingualism created preconditions for a mass entry of French words into the English language.

Many words adopted at the time denoted things and notions connected with the life of the Norman aristocracy. Alongside these, many everyday words penetrated into English, which denoted ideas already having names in English. As a result of borrowing, pairs of synonyms appeared in English, and a struggle betwenthe synonyms ensul. The outcome of the would be different in different cases. We may state three main possibilities:

1. The struggle ends in favour of the French word; its native English synonym disappears.

2. It is the native word that gets the upper hand; the French word, after existing in English for some time, is ousted again.

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3. Both words survive, but a difference in meaning develops between them, which may be either purely semantic, or stylistic.

Many French words, as was stated above, were connected with the life of the ruling class, the French nobility. We can state here several main semantic spheres of French words:

(1) Government, the court, and jurisdiction: prince, baron, noble, governen, government, royal, court, justice. judge, condemnen, acquiten (MnE acquit), sentence. However, the words king and queen survived and were not replaced by their French synonyms.

(2) Army and military life: werre (MnE war), army, bataille (MnE battle), regiment, lance, mail, castle, banner, harness, siege, victory, defeat.

(3) Religion and church: religion, saint, frere (MnE friar), preyen (MnE pray), sermon, conscience, cloistre, chapel.

(4) Town professions: bocher (MnE butcher), peintre (MnE painter), tailor. However, words of OE origin are used to denote country professions: miller, shoemaker, shepherd, smith.

(5) Art notions: art, clour, figure, image, column, ornament.

(6) Amusements: plesir (MnE pleasure), leysir (MnE Leisure), ese (MnE ease), feste (MnE feast), dinner, soper (MnE supper), rosten (MnE dainty).

Many other words were also taken over, which were not connected with any specific semantic sphere, such as: air, place, coveren, river, large, change, and a number of others.

Some words taken over in that period did not survive in the living language; thus, the substantive amity, which is still found in Shakespeare (about 1600), gave way to the native English word friendship; the substantive moiety (also found in Shakespeare) gave way to the native word half, etc.

When both the native and the French word were preserved in English, there arose a differentiation of their eanings. A wellknown example of such differentiation

is quoted in the first chapter of Walter Scott's novel Ivanhoe. This concerns names of animals. The native word is used to denote the living animal, while the Frensh word denotes the dish made of its flesh: ox- beef, calf- veal, sheep- mutton, pig- pork. The living animal was denoted by a term from the language of the Anglo- Saxon shepherd who took care of it, while the dish was denoted by a word from the language of the French nobility who used it at their dinners.

Another type of differentiation may be found in the pair of synonyms: beginnen-commencen. The native verb beginnen has stayed on as a colloquial word, while the French commencen is an official term and is mainly used in documents, and the like. In a number of cases the naitve word has acquired a more concrete character, while the French one is more abstract; compare: work- labour, life- existence.

A stylistic difference developed in many cases when both words survived. Here is a well-known example from Shakespeare's comedy As You like It where Touchstone the jester makes fun of Wiliam the peasant:

"Therefore, you clown, abandon, - which is in vulgar leave, - the society,- which in the boorish is company,- of this female,- which in the common is, woman; which together is, abandon the society of this female, or, clown, thou perishest; or, to thy better understanding, diest ."

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In all cases except one (society- company) the translation into "boorish" means replacing the French word by one of native English origin; the verb *die* was probably borrowed from Scandinavian.

In some cases French words supplanted even the most everyday words of the English vocabulary. Thus, the French word *rivière* supplanted the native word ёa 'river', the French word *montagne* supplanted the native *beor3* 'mountain', and the French *paix* the native *friþ* "peace". In some individual cases there could be special conditions favouring the introduction of the foreign word; for example, the OE word ёa 'river' became ē, in ME and was thus phonetically much weaker than the French *rivière*. Its phonetical weakness might thus have promoted its disappearance from the language. In other cases other factors may also have been at work.

Sometimes the intruding French word forced its native synonym into a different sphere of meaning. For instance, the OE substantive *hæfest*, meaning 'autumn', was superseded by the French word *autumn*, but survived in the English language with the meaning 'harvest'. The semantic tie between 'autumn' and 'harvest' is of course clear enough.

In a similar way, the OE substantive 3ebed 'prayer' was supervived with the meaning 'beads', which had developed from the original mening 'prayers' owing to the intermediate meaning 'rosary'; the number of prayers said was counted on the 'beads' or rosary; thus, in certain circumstance, for example, five beads could mean the same as five prayers.

French words penetrating into English were of different origin. Most of them had been inherited by French from Vulgar Latin, and these words show all the phonetic changes characteristic of the rise of French from Latin: loss of post- stress and intermediate syllables, change of shops to constructives, etc. (so-called popular words-mots populaires). E.g. Lat. dёsїderảre> Ofr. dèsirer free> ME desiren 'desire'; Lat. frảter>OFr. frere>ME frere 'brother', 'friar'; Lat. cathedra>OFr. chaiere>ME chair; Lat camera> Ofr. chambre>ME chambre 'room', etc. Besides these, ME also adopted a certain number of words borrowed from Latin into Old French by way of books in the 9th- 14th centuries and not showing any results of phonetic changes which had occurred in French before that time (so- called learned words, mots savants), e.g. Lat. *dignitatem*>OFr. dignete>ME dignitee, Lat. positionem>OFr. position>ME position, etc.

Among these words there are some which had been borrowed by Latin from Greek, mainly in the sphere of science and politics, e.g. *physique* 'medicine', 'physics', *monarque* 'monarch'.

There are also a few words of Celtic origin, e.g. Celt. petti>Lat. petia>OFr. piece>ME piece; Celt. garris>OFr. gartier>ME garter.

Finally, among French words taken over into ME, there are some which had been borrowed into French from Germanic dialects. These were Germanic words which penetrated into English in a Frenchified shape. Among them are: ME *werre* 'war', which stems from Ofr. *werre*, itself derived from Germanic *werra* (compare German Wirre 'trouble'); ME *garden* from Ofr. *gardin*<Germanic *garto*; ME *waiten* 'wait' from Ofr. *waitier*< Germanic *wahten* 'guard'.

Penetration of Germanic words into the French language is connected with events of French history. In the earliest times Gaul was inhabited by Celts, who spoke their Gallic language. Between 58 and 51 B.C. the country was subdued by Julius Caesar,

underwent Romanization, and the native tongue was superseded by Latin. The Vulgar Latin language spoken by inhabitants of Gaul acquired several Germanic words, e.g. *werra*>Fr. *werre, guerre* 'war', *kausjan*>Fr. choisir 'choose'. In the 5th century A.D. Gaul was invaded by Germanic tribes. The Westgoths seized Aquitania (in the South-West), the Burgundians a territory in the East, which came to be known as Burgundy, the Salic Franks occupied Northern territories, and Ripurian Franks, the Eastern ones. In 486 Chlodwig, chief of the Franks, routed the troops of the Roman governor Siagrius and in 493 he occupied Paris. From the name of the Franks the whole country came to be called Francia. However, the Gallo- Roman population, whose cultural level was much above that of the Germanic invaders, subdued the German tribes in the cultural and linguistic sphere. The conquerors abandoned their Germanic tongue and adopted Latin, from which the French language developed. In the process, a considerable number of Germanic words, substantives, adjectives, and verbs, penetrated into the language.

These words can be classified according to some semantic spheres:

1. Military terms: *guarde* 'guard'< Germanic *warda; waitier, guaitier* 'lie in wiat' < Germanic *wahten;* mareschal 'marshal'< Germanic *marahskalk* 'stable man'; halberc 'helmet '< Germanic *halsberg; gant* 'glove'< Germanic *wantu; gonfanon* 'banner'< Germanic *gunpano.*

2. Political and juridical terms: *wage, gage* 'gage' < Germanic *wadja; harengue* 'harangue'< Germanic *hring* 'ring', 'meeting; *ordel* 'sentence'< Germanic *ordial* (compare MnE *ordeal*, German *Urteil*); *bannir* 'banish'< Germanic *bannen*

3. Eveyday things, furniture, etc.: faldestuel 'armchair'< Germanic *faldistol; banc* 'bench'< Germanic *bank.*

4. Nature: *gardin, jardin* 'garden'< Germanic *gardin;* crevise 'crayfish'< Germanic *krebis;* esturgeon 'stureon'< Germanic *sturjo.*

5. Proper names: *Charles*<Germanic *Karl; Geoffrey*< Germanic *Gaufrid; Louis*< Germanic *Hlodwig; Richard*< Germanic *Rikhard; Henri*< Germanic *Heinrik; Willaume, Guillaume* <Germanic *Wilihelm; Rogier*< Germanic *Hropgair; Roland, Rolland*< Germanic *Hropland.*

Anumber of words of Germanic origin penetrated from French into English.

French Derivational Affixes in English. Alongside words, English also adopted some French derivational affixes (both suffixes and prefixes). This was the way it happened. If English had adopted a certain number of words containing the same affix, the affix could now be used to derive new words from French (and occasionally Scandinavian) stems.

A few examples of French derivational affixes used in English to derive new words are already found in ME: *husbandry , goddess*. However, a wider spread of the procedure is a fact of the MnE period.

Suffixes. A number of French substantives were derived by means of the suffix -ance, -ence: *ignorance, arrogance, entrance, repentance, innocence, excellence, dependence,* etc. The meaning of the suffix became clear to English speakers, and this made possible derivation of new substantives from native English stems, such as *hindrance* from the stem of the native English verb *hinder*.

In a similar way, the suffix -ment, which had penetrated into English as part of such substantives as *government, treatment, agreement*,was used to derive new substantives from native stems: *fulfilment, bereavement, amazement, bewilderment.*

The suffix -ess (ultimately of Greek origin), used to derive names of female beings, penetrated into English as part of the substantives *princess, countess, baroness.* It was added to native stems to derive the new substantives *shepherdess, goddess, murderess.*

A number of French substantives contained the diminutive suffix -et, such as *coronet* 'small crown', *cabinet.* In some words the final consonant of the stem was -l, as in *islet circlet.* It is from words of this type that the suffix -let was formed, which was eventually joined on to native stems to derive the substantives *streamlet, ringlet, leaflet, booklet.*

The suffix age, which became familiar from as *courage, carriage, marriage,* was joined on to Scandinavian stems in English to derive the substantives *luggage* and *leakage.* ●

The French suffix -è, used to derive the past participle of French group I verbs (from Latin -atum), penetrated into English as a part of some substantives denoting a person taking a passive part in some action or agreement, such as *lessee, employee.* Eventually the suffix was joined on to a Scandinavian stem to derive the substantive *trustee.*

The suffix -ard (of German origin) penetrated into English as a part of the substantives *coward, bastard.* Joined on to native English stems it yielded the substantives *wizard* (from the stem of the adjective *wis*), *drunkard, dullard;* joined on to a Scandinavian stem, it yielded the substantive *niggard.*

The suffix -al (from French -aille), used to derive abstract substantives from verb stems, penetrated into English as part of the substantives *funeral, refusal, arrival, proposal.* Eventually it was joined on to an English stem to derive the substantive *burial.*

The suffix -able, -ible, deriving adjectives which mean 'capable of undergoing the action denoted by the verb stem', came into English as part of the adjectives *admirable, tolerable, legible, flexible.* Eventually it was joined on to native stems to derive the adjectives *readable, unbearable, understandable,* etc.

Prefixes. Some French prefixes also became productive in English. Thus, the prefix dis-, des-, with a negative meaning, came into English as part of the French verbs *disappoint, disdain, disagree* and was eventually used to derive verbs from native stems: *disown, disburden,* and from a Scandinavian stem: *distrust.*

The French prefix en- (from Latin in-), familiar from such words as *encage, encircle, ecompass,* was joined on to native stems to derive the verbs *endear, embed (enb- > emb-).*

In Southern dialects *eald> ēald> ẹld,* as in *healden. hẹlden* 'hold', *eald>ẹld* 'old', *tealde> tẹlde* 'told'.

In Midland dialects as a (without breaking) corresponded to Southern ea. Before ld this a was lengthened into ā, and the ā (as any long ā) changed into long open ȯ: *ald> āld>ȯld, haldan> hālden> hȯlden, talde> tālde>tȯlde.*

In Northern dialects there had been no breaking either: a before ld was lengthened and preserved its quality: ald> āld, haldan> hālden, ttalde> tālde.

Variants with breaking, typical of OE West Saxon dialect, are not reflected in the ME London dialect, which became the decisive dialect for the later periods. Variants typical of London English (including Chaucer's language) proceed from the OE Mercian dialect, where breaking occurred much more seldom than in West Saxon. Thus,

for example, in OE the West Saxon variant *eald* corresponded to Mercian *ald.* For the further development of the English language it was this variant without breaking that became decisive: this variant yielded ME *ald> old* and finally MnE *old* {ould}.

The result of i mutation of OE ea before ld,, etc. was also different in different dialects. In West Saxon (South- Western) ie>y, in West Midland into æ, and in Northern, East Midland, and Kentish into e.

In the change into ME, West Saxon (South- Western) y is preserved as {ü}, as in *ieldra, yldra> ulder* 'elder', *fiellan, fyllan> fullen* 'fell'.

In West Midland ü>a: *alder, fallen.*

In Northern, East Midland, and Kentish e is preserved: *elder, fellen*

OE ea before h and the cluster "h + consonant" also yielded different result in different dialects. In Southern dialects eah> eh, eih, as in *seah> seh, seigh* 'saw', *eahta> eighte* 'eight'. In Northern and Midland eah>ah, auh: saugh, aghte, aughte. As a result of i- mutation OE ea before h and the cluster "h + consonant" yielded in West Saxon ie, i as in *mieht, might* 'might', in the other dialects e, which toward the end of the OE period also changed into i: *meht, miht* ME has *might* in all dialects, whence MnE *might* {mait}.

OE long ēa changed into long open ẹ, as in *bēam> bẹm, strēam> strẹm, hlēapan> lẹpen* 'leap', *ēast>ẹst, lēaf> lẹf, fēawe> fẹwe* 'few', *dēap> dẹth* 'death', *brēad> brẹd.*

In the Ketish dialect OE ēa developed into ye, ya, as in *dēad> dyed,, dyad* However the phonetic value of this ye, ya remains somewhat obscure.

OE short eo changed first into the vowel ȯ, which survived in West Midland and South- Western dialects until 14th century (the spelling being eo). In the other dialects this ȯ changed into e in the 12th century. E.g. *heorte> hȯrte, herte* 'heart', *steorra> stȯrre, sterre* 'star', *steorfan> stȯrven, sterven* 'die'.

OE eo as influenced by i- mutation yielded ie>i,y in West Saxon, io>eo in Kent and the southern Midlands, io>i in the North and the northern Midlands; the eo eventually developed into ȯ>e. Thus *fyrre> fürre, firre, ferre* 'father', *yrre>ürre, irre, erre* 'angry'.

The diphthong eo which originated in OE from velar mutation, undergoes in ME the same- changes as eo procedding from fracture, as in *seofon> söven, seven, heofon> höven, heven* 'heaven'.

The group eoht had developed into iht in OE already; ight predominates in ME as well: *knight, fighten;* MnE *knight* {nait}, *fight* {fait}.

OE long ēo changed into long closed ē, often spelt ee, as in: *dēop> dēp, dēor>dēr, deer, cēosan> chēsen* 'choose', *sēoc> sēk, seek* 'sick'.

OE io, developing from i under velar mutation, had changed into eo in OE already; this eo, like any other eo, develops into ȯ>e, as in *siolfor> seolfor> selver* 'selver'.

OE West Saxon ie, i, y after a palatal consonant yielded in ME South- Western dialects an i or ü: *3ietan> yiten, yüten* 'receive', *3ieldan> yilden, yülden* 'pay'; in the other dialects OE e without diphthongization is preserved: *yeten, yelden.* Only the verb *yiven, given* 'give' (compare ē300) is found with its i outside the South- Western dialect.

Diphthongs developed from back vowels influenced by a preceding palatal consonant are monophthongized in ME: *sceacan*> *shäken* 'shake', *sceolde*> *sholde* 'should'.

Levelling of Unstressed Vowels. An important change characteristic of the ME period affected the unstressed vowels. All unstressed vowels were as a rule weakened and reduced to a neutral vowel something like [l],which was denoted by the letter e. Thus, for example, the infinitive suffix -an was reduced to -en, as in *bindan*> *binden*, *tellan*> *tellen*, etc.; in a similar way, *sunu*> *sune*, *sone* 'son' (compare ē 289), the nominative plural ending -as became -es, as in *stānas*> *stönes*, and the like. This weakening of unstressed vowels is closely connected with developments in declension and conjugation.

From the 13th century onwards, some dialects showed certain vacillation in spelling unstressed vowels, which probably reflected peculiarities of pronunciation hus, in Northern dialects the unstressed vowel was often spelt *i* or *y*: *askid, bundin;* in West Midland dialects a u- spelling appears, as in *fadur, st—mus.*

From the phonemic viewpoint this change indicates a decided separation of the unstressed vowel phoneme system from that of the stressed vowels. Whereas the stressed position allows a distinction of many vowel phonemes, the number of unstressed vowel phonemes is very greatly reduced. Thus, while in OE there was no difference between the number of vowel phonemes in stressed and in unstressed syllables, in ME there arises a very significant dirrerence in this respect, and the way is paved for the state of things typical of MnE.

Consonants. OE palatal c, which occurred initially before front vowels except those which were a result of mutation, medially before i, and finally after i, developed into the affricate [ts], as in *cild*> *child, wrecca*> *wrecche* 'wretch', *hwilc*> *which, ælc*> *ech, bisēcan*> *bisēchen* 'beseech', *tæcan*> *tęchen* 'teach', *streccan*> *strecchen* 'stretch', *læccan*> *lacchen* 'catch', *ræcan*> *ręchen* 'reach out', *cirice*> *chirche* 'church', *ic*> *ich* 'I', *cycen*> *kichen* 'kitchen', *swilc*> *swich such* (compareē338).

In the Northern dialects and in the northern part of the Midlands variants are also found with a [k]- sound. Thses are presumably due to Scandinavian influence in those areas. For example: *kirk* 'church', *mikel* 'large', *birk* 'brich', *ik* 'I'.

The preservation of the [k]- sound in the verbs *sēken* 'seek', *thinken* 'seem', *thenken* 'think', *rekken* 'reck', *wriken* act' (OE *sēc(e)an, þync(e)an, þenc(e)an, recc(e)an, wyrc(e)an*) may also be due to the influence of the short froms of 2nd and 3rd persons singular prsent indicative: *sēcst, sēcþ, þencst, þyncþ, etc.*, where the consonant was followed by another consonant (s or þ).

The OE cluster [sc] changed into [s]: *scip*> ship, *sceal*> shal, *scinan*> shinen.

In a few cases ME has variants with [k] and [ts], [sk] and [s], e.g. *sēken- bisēpicken* 'pick'- *pitchen* 'throw', *bank* 'hill', 'river bank'- *bench, scateren- shateren.* An analogous pair *skirt- shirt,*and also *scrēchen- shrēken* is probably due to Scandinavian origin of sk -variants.

The OE long consonant denoted by the spelling c3 developed into the voiced affricate [d3], as in *bryc3*> *bridge, hryc3*> *ridge* 'back', *myc3*> *midge, sec3an*> *seggen* 'say', *lec3an*>*leggen* 'lay', *byc3an*> *biggen* 'buy',. A [d3] also developed in the words *sen3ean*> *sengen, singen* 'singe', and *hen3e*> *hinge..*

Alongside of *seggen. leggen* the forms *seien, sayen, leyen, layen* are also found. These are due to the analogy of the past tense froms *seide, saide (<sæ3de). leide, laide (<læ3de)*

In the Southern dialects initial f- became voiced, as in *fæder*> *vader* 'father', *fæt*> *vat, fox*>*vox, flæsc*> *vlęsh 'meat', frēond*> *vrēnd, fyrst*> *vürst, verst, for*>*vor, fin3er*> *vinger, fęla*> *vęle* 'many'.

In Kent initial s- in words of OE origin was also voiced, as in *synne*> *zenne* 'sin', *sec3an*> *ziggen* 'say', *swerian*> *zwęrien* 'swear', *seolfor*> *zelver* 'silver', *seofon*> *zeven* 'seven'.

In a few words the consonant v when followed by another consonant changed into u, as in *hafoc*, gen. sing. *hafces*> *havkes*> *haukes* and on the analogy of the denitive *haukes* anew nominative *hauk* was derived; *nafo3ār*> *navgar*> *nauger* 'auger'.

Rise of new diphthongs and related phenimena. New diphthongs arise in ME, basically different in type from the OE diphthongs, which as we have seen (ē326), were monophthongized in ME. The new diphthongs originate from groups consisting of a vowel and either a palatal or a velar fricative.

The palatal fricative 3 [j] and the velar spirant 3 [y] are vocalized combine with the preceding vowel, and yield diphthongs of a new type.

The palatal consonant yields diphthongs in -i, and the velar one, which seems to have possessed a labial element in its articulation from the outset, yields diphthongs in - w.

The following changes took place accordingly:

1. Rise of diphthongs in -i:
æ3> ai, ay, e.g. dæ3> dai, day, wæ3> mai, may.

        læ3> lai, lay, fæ3er> fair, fayr.

e3> ei, ey, e.g. we3> wei, wey, se3l> seil, re3n> rein.

ē3> ei, ey, e.g. 3rē3> grei, grey, hē3> hei, hey.

2. Rise of diphthongs in -w:
a3> aw, e.g. dra3an> drawen, 3na3an> gnawen

        sa3u> sawe 'saw', 'legend'.

ā3> Qw except in the Nothern dialect, e.g. : ā3en> Qwen 'own'.

The new diphthongs contained a second narrow element, as distinct from OE diphthongs, whose second element was always either as wide or even wider than the first.

The fricatives 3 [j] and 3 [--] were also vocalized in some other words where no diphthongs resulted from the process. Here we have to distinguish between two cases: (1) the fricative is preceded by a narrow vowel, which combines with the consonant into a long monophthong, (2) it is preceded by l or r, which does not undergo any change in the process.

3. Rise of long front vowels
i + 3> i, e.g. *i3el*> *il* 'hedgehog', *ti3ele*> *tile* 'brick', *si3þe*> *sithe*   'scythe'.
i + 3> i, e.g. *sti3en*> *stien* 'ascend'.
y + 3> i in Northern and East Midland dialects, e.g. *ry3e*> *rie* 'rye', *by3eþ*> *bieth* 'buys'; in West Midland and South- Western dialects y + 3> üi: *rüle, büieth;* in Kentish y + 3> ei: *reye, beieth.*
ȳ + 3>i (in Northern and East Midland dialects), e.g. *drȳ3e*> *drie* 'dry'

in West Midland and Sout- Western dialects y + 3> üi, ü:

drüie, drüe; in Kentish ȳ + 3>ei: dreie.

ěa + h> eih, ih, e.g. hěah> hein>hegh, něah> neih> nigh.

ěo + 3, h> ei> i, e.g. lěo3an> leien> lien 'lie'; þěoh> thigh.

4. Rise of long back labialized vowels:

u + 3> û (spelt ou, ow), e.g. fu3ol> foul 'bird'.

û + 3> û (spelt ou, ow), e.g. bū3an> bowen 'bow'.

The velar spirant 3 also changes into w after the liquids l and r:

l3> lw, e.g. 3al3e> galwe 'gallows'.

r3>rw, e.g. mor3cn> morwen 'morning', bor3ian> borwen 'borrow', fol3ian> folwen 'follow'.

More phonetic changes.

When a vowel was followed by the voiceless spirant h, a glide developed between them and a diphthong arose:

a + h>, augh, naht (< năwiht)> naught; rahte> raughte 'reached out'.

ă+ h> (in Midland and Southern dialects), e.g. dăh> dough; in Northern dialects ă+ h> agh: dagh.

o + h> ough, e.g. brohte > broughte, troh> trough.

ŏ + h> ough, ûgh, e.g. plŏh > plough, bŏh> bough, 3enŏh> inough 'enough'.

In dialects where OE y [ü] was preserved as such, that is, in the West Midland and in the South- West, the [ü] changed in the 13th century into u before [ts], [ſts], [d3], [nts], [s]. Thus, for instance, OE mycel 'large' became ['müts1l]> ['muts1l], OE swylc 'such' became [swülts] > [swults]> [swut-], OE cycene 'kitchen' became [küts1n]> ['kuts1n]; clyccan 'clutch'> [clüts1n], crycc 'crutch'> crücche> crucche; cyc3el 'cudgel'> cüȳȳel>cuggel; blyscan 'blush'> blüshen> blushen; rysce 'rush'> rüsh> rush; þrȳsce 'thrush'>thrüshe> thrushe. In the 15th century some of these variants, e.g. much, such, crutch, thrush penetrated into the national language.

French sounds. Several Old French sounds had no counterpart in ME. When a word containing one of these sounds was borrowed by the English language, the sound had to be substituted by some other sound or sound cluster which was nearest to it.

French words containing the [ü]- vowel were probably pronounced in different ways. Those who could speak French would articulate the [ü] in more or less the French way. Others would substitute either [iu] or [eu] for it. Thus, for example, the word nature might be pronounced [na'tür], [na'tiur] or [na'teur]. The diphthong [eu] also occured in native English words, were it had originated from the OE group ěow, and it was splet eu . After French words were taken over, the popular substitute for French [ü] merged with this diphthong, and their eventual development was indentical. Accordingly, the spellings ew and u (e) came to denote the same sound, and in several words the spelling ew was replaced by ue. For example, the ME substantive hewe 'hew', (OE hěow, hïw) came to be spelt hue on the analogy of such French words as due; in a similar way, the ME words trewe (OE trěowe) and trewthe (OE trěowþ) came to be spelt true, truth The substantive clewe (OE clïwe, clěowe) was split into two separate words: the spelling clew was retained for the word meaning 'ball of thread', while the spelling clue was adopted for the word meaning 'something that helps to silve a problem' (this developed from the meaning 'ball of thread' owing to the word being used in the sense of 'the thread of Ariadne'). The verb rewen (OE hrěowan) came to be

spelt ruen, and its derivative reuthe came to be spelt ruth (compare the adjective ruthless).

On the other hand, some words borrowed from French came to be spelt with the digraph ew. For example, the ME substantive crue (its original meaning was 'tise, accretion, later 'crew of a ship', originating from a participle of the Old French verbs croister, croitre 'grow') was respelt mew. The ME substantive mue (from French mue) was respelt mew; the ME pue (from French pui) was respelt pew. The ME substantive nuell (from French newel) was respelt newel .

The Old French vowel [ö] (spelt oe) was substituted byy [e] in ME. Thus, the French substantive boeuf [böf] 'ox', 'beef' was borrowed into ME as beef [be:f]. In the substantive people (pronounced [pe:pl]) in ME the spelling eo seems to have denoted the sound [ö].

Special mention must be made of the French nasal vowels [ĩ], [ũ], [ã], [õ], [ü]. The spelling an represented in Old French the pronunciation [ãn]: a nasal vowel was followed by a nasal consonant, which was eventually dropped. The same can be said about the groups [ĩn], [ĕn], [õn], [ün]. As there were no nasal vowels in English, nasal vowels were substituted by oral ones, while the following consonant remained unchanged.

French [ĩn], [ĩm] was substituted by in, im, as in the words instance, simple.

French [ɛn], [ɛm] appears as en, em, e.g. offence, assent, mention, sense, entren, member, tempest, resemblen.

French [ãn] appears as an or aun: abandon mansion, chaunce, chaunge, commaunden, dauncen, graunten; French [ãm] as am, aum: lampe, chaumbre.

French [õn] appears as [u:n], spelt oun, own:, round, fount, noun, renown, sound, count, counsel. Narrow pronunciation of nasal o was characteristic of the Anglo-Norman language.

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Lection 12. Formation of the National English Language.
Problems for discussion.

1. Spreat of London Dialect in the 15th centry
2. Development of the Literary Language.
3. Introduction of Printing
4. The Restoration.
5. The Renaissance
6. William Shakespeare.
7. Expansion of English

Spread of London Dialect in the 15th centry. In the course of the 15th the century London literary language gradually spread all over the country, superseding local dialects. Spoken English in various parts of Britan gradually appro aches the literary norm, and differences between the norm and popular speech tend to become obliterated.

This prjcess has been carefully studied by the eminent British scholar Henry Cecyl Wyld According to his classification, written documents of the 15th centyre can be classified into three: (1) those written in the London literary language (2) those written in a more or less pure local dialect, (3) those written basically in the London literary language but bearing some traces of local dialects. This classificationcuts right across another classification that according to the kind of documents: (1) official documents (2) literary texts, (3) private letters.

London documents of the former half of the 15th century are poems by Thomas Occleve (Hoccleve), official London papers, and also official documents from other towns. The literary language is also found in letters written by kings, queens, ministers, and other officials.

Local dialect speech is found, for instance, in poems by Osbern Bokenam, botn 1393, whose *Legends of the Saints* appeared about 1440, representing the Suffolk dialect (East Midland): letters by Margaret Paston (1400-1470), also in the Suffolk dialect, and letters of the Cely family in Essex dialect (also East Midland).

In some texts written basically in London English occasional influence of local dialects is found. These are poems by John Lydgate (1370 - 1451), showing East Midland influence, prose works by Sir John Fortescue, with slight traces of South - Western dialects; prose works by Lohn Capgrave (1393-1464) with elements of East Midland dialects. In the private letters of John Shilingford, Mayor of Exeter in Devoshire, written in 1447-1450, there are only slight traces of the local South-Western dialect. The fact that a Devonshire man, writing private letters to his friends also living in Devonshire, does not use the local dialect but the London literary language, is eloquent proof of the authoritative position London English had acquired by the mid - 15th century.

The formation of a national language was greatly fostered by two events of the late 15th century.

_ The most significant event of the period was the Wars of the Roses (1455-1485), which marked the decay of decay of feudalism and the birth of a new soical order. They came to an end in the battle of Bosworth, when Richard III was defeated by Henry Tudor, who became king of England as Henry VII. The political result of this prolonged struggle was the rise of an absolute monarchy. This meant a high degree of political centralization and thus contributed to centralization in language as well. that is, to a predominance of the national language over local dialects.

Another great event was the introduction of printing. Printing was invented in Mayence (Germany) by Johann Gutenberg in 1438. From Mayence printing spread ot Strasburg, then to Italy and to the Netherlands. In the town of Bruges, in Flanders, the Englishman William Caxton (1422-1491) became acquainted with this art. He published the first English printed book, *The Recuyeil of the Histories of Troy*, in Bruges. Returning to England, he founded the first English printing office in London in 1476, and in 1477 appeared the fitst book to be printed in England , namely, *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers* The spread of printed books was bound to foster the normalization of spelling and also of grammatical forms.

As the language of printed books was a first-rate factor in fixing spellings and grammar, the question arises how MSS were edited before printing and what motives guided Caxton in choosing this or that variant.

Caxton was a native of Kent , but he had acquired the London dialect. In spelling , he stuck to the tradition of the scribes. There are hardly any specific Kenticisms in Caxton's language ; thus, the typical Kentish feature of the Old English y appearing as e (for london i) is not more frequent in his texts than in those of purely London authors of the time.

As far as grammatical forms go, there is reason to believe that Caxton made a conscious choice from among compting variants. In his preface to the *Histories of Troy* he says that having completed the translation he submitted it to princess Margaret, sister of King Edward IV (reigned 1461 - 1483), and "anon she found a default in my English which she commanded me to amend." However, Caxton does not say what it was that the princess commanded him to amend: whether style, dialect features or something else

Introduction of printing greatly helped normalization of spelling Norms adopted by the first printers have basically survived up to our own days . Phonetic changes which have occurred since then have hardly been reflected in the spelling. As a result vowel letters in English acquired meanings different from those they have in French, German, Italian, and other European languages; besides each vowel letter acquired different sound values depending on its environment . Thus the letter a denotes different vowel sounds in the words *make, cat, watch, watch, any*

Development of the Literary Language. The 17th and 18th centuries witnessed some great social and political upheavals, which influenced the language as well. The most outstanding events of the time were the bourgeois revolution of the 17th century, the Restoration of 1660 , and the industrial revolution in the 18th century. But eyen before these events an important development took place in the history of the language .

Untial the early 17th century the English language was only spoken in the British Isles. In the 17th century it crossed the borders. With the first English settlers in America the language entered the New World. A first attempt at founding an English colony in American was made in 1584, but this brought about no results: most began again. It was caused now by acute political struggle in the 16th-century Reformation was persecuting the Puritans. Political and religious persecution made them seek a way out in emigration. First a group of Puritans crossed into the Netherlands, and in 1620 the famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America, in the region which is now the state of Massachusetts/ This was the start of English colonies in America, which eventually separated from the metropolis and became the United States of America. This was also the beginning of history of English of the New World.

Meanwhile political struggle in Britain became more and more acute and led to civil war, which ended with a puritan victory and proclamation of a Commonwelth in 1649.

The language of the Commonwealth belongs to the Early Modern English period, which lasted till about 1660.

The literary language of the time bears a strong imprint of puritan ideology.

However, puritan influence had made itself felt even before the revolution. It is very tangible in a famous Bible translation published in 1611, the authorized version, also often called the king James' Bible. This was the work of a commisson appointed by the king for the purpose. The translators set themselves the task of achieving a clear, simple, and easily intelligible language. But they also strove for a solemn and grand style and would therefore often use archaic expressions.

As for Milton, the greatest poet and writer of the epoch (1608-1674), he created a peculiar individual style coloured by Greek and biblical influences, and he cannot be considered to be typical of the literary language of the time.

The language of John Bunyan (1628-1688), whose allegory

The Pilgrim's Progress was published in two instalments in 1678 and 1684, shows a strong influence of biblical tradition, on the one hand , and of the popular language, on the other. Bunyan avoided using words of French and Latin origin.

The restoration of the Stuarts under Charles II in 1660 reinstated to some extent the influence of the nobility and along with is that of the aristocratic language culture which had been overthrow by the Revolution. Charles II and his court returning from France, favoured French influence in all spheresn of social life including language. Colloquial speech of Restoration comedies (Wycherley, Congreve, Vanbrough, Farquhar. etc) is full of French words and phrases . At this very time a purist movement arose which found its literary expression in a book by Thomas Sprat, *History of the Royal Society.* Sprat protested against the wide use of artificial phrases and metaphors and demanded a return to a simple, clear, and natural way of speaking . He preferred the speech of artisans, preferred the speech of artisanse, peasants, and merchants to that of scholars and wits . This experessed the view of a bourgeois democratic oppposition to the nobility's speech culture. Most new French loanwords were connected with the life of the nobility (see 494).

An interesting document of late 17th-centure English is Sammuel Pepys 's *Diary* (Pepys lived 1633-1703; the diary covers the year s 1660-1669)

About the same time an interest arose in the study of living dialects. The first step in this direction was made by John Ray, who published in 1674 a book entitled *Collection of English Words Not Generally Used.*

Since the mid-17th century a trend makes itself felt against the somewhat entangled syntactic structures of the preceding period in favour of shorter and simpler syntactic formations. This trend is represented by John Evelyn (1620 - 1706) , who expressed such views in a letter in 1665 . He was followed by John Dryden (1631-1700) and Richard Bentley (1662 -1742).

Joseph Addison (1672 -1719) and Richard Steele (1672 1729), publishers of the magazine *The Spectator* (1711- 1714), al so shared this view, typical of Late Modern English . Considerable space in the magazine was given to papers on language: the authors followed a definite line, commenting on various questions of syntax and use of words.

A paper entitled *The Humble Petition of Which,* published in issue No. 78 on 30 May 1711, become widely popular. The two pronouns undersigned say here : "We are descended of ancient families , and kept up our dignity and honour many years, till the jacksprat *that* supplanted us"

In this locular style Addison and Steele protested against growing use of the relative pronoun *that* which they thought an element of low colloquial style. It is curious that, historically speaking the argument about the ancient descent of *who* and *which* is quite mistaken; In Old English it was *pat,* neuter gender from of the pronoun *se* which functioned as relative pronoun (alongside pe); *who* and *which* appeared as relative pronouns in the Middle English period only.

The author of a paper published in issue No. 135 of *The Spectator* on 4 August 1711 under the title *On the Conciseness of the English in Common Discourse* protested

against the wide use of colloquial abbreviations, such as *mob* (from Lat. *mobile*), *incog* (from *incognito*), etc.

A paper published in issue No. 285, on 26 January 1712, speaking about Milton's language, says: 'If clearness and perspicuity were only to be consulted , the poet would have nothing else to do but to clothe his thoughts in the most plain and natural expressions. But since it often happens, that the most obvious phrases, and those which are used in ordinary conversation, become too familiar to the ear, and contract a kind of meanness by passing through the mouths of the vulgar , a poet should take particular care to guard himself against idiomatic ways of speaking .'

From the viewpoint of this new trend , the language of the 16th and early 17th century was bound to appear wild and clumsy . Publications of Shakespeare's works appearing in the 18th century are full of arbitrary changes designed to make Shakespeate's text conform to the "correctness" of the 18th century. The greatest poet of the time Alexander Pope (1688-1744), who edited Shakespeare's works in 1725, entirely failed to understand the forms in Shakespeare's texts.

In the 17th and 18th century a great number of grammarians and orthoepists appeared, who set as their task the establishing of correct language forms. In 1621 Alexander Gill's book, *Logonomia Anglica* (that is, English Word -law) was published. Gill stuck to conservative views in the sphere of pronunciation and condemned new tendencies in this field. However, his work is not devoid of interest; he quotes in a peculiar system of transcription the variants of pronunciation which he disapproves of, and in this way gives some valuable information about the pronounciation of his time.

(Next came Charles Butler, author of *English Grammar,* which appeared in 1634. Butler proposed a modernized and rationalized spelling system. Mentioning some vacilations in spelling, he declares: "We have in our language many syllables which having gotten *nu* pronounciation, doo yet retain their old orthography, so that their letters doo not rightly express their sound ... the which errour if we will correct ... the question will be whether we should conform our writing to the *nu* sound , or reform our sound and return to the old."At the time of the Commonwelth there appeared John Wallis's *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* (1653). Wallis was able to make abjective observations of pronunciation and he was not limited conservative views of the language.

The most serious of the orthoepists was Christopher Cooper, author of *Grammatica Anglicana,* published in 1685. Cooper was fully aware of the difference between sounds and letters and gave a list of homonyms resulting from phonetic change . He testifies that the following words were pronounced alike: *heart - hart: a notion- an ocean; are-air- heir , etc.*

In the early 18th century we find a valuable source of information about the pronounciation of the time in Jones's book *Practical Phonographer* (1701.) Jones states it as his task to describe "English speech ... as it is commonly used in England, particularly in London, the Universities or at Court,"

William Baker's book , *Rules for True Spelling and Writing English,* appeared in 1724. Baker noted divergencies between pronuncition and spelling and gave lists of words showing such divergencies.

. Flourishing of Literature in Early New English (Literary Renaissance). The growth of the national literary language and especially the fixation of its Written

Standard is inseparable from the flourishing of literature known as the English Literary Renaissance.

The beginnings of the literary efforescence go back to the 16th c. After a fallow period of dependence on Chaucer, literary activity gained momentum in the course of the 16th c. and by the and of it attained such an importance as it had never known before. This age of Literary Renaissance (also the "Elizabethan age" for it coincided roughly with the reign of Elizabeth). The most notable forerunners of the literary Renaissance in the first half of the 16th c. were the great English humanist Thomas More (1478-1535) and William Tyndale, the translator of the Bible . The chief work of Thomas More, UTOPIA was finished in 1516; it was written in Latin and was first translated into Englishin 1551.

In UTOPIA Th. More expressed his opposition to the way of life in contemporary Engliand, which he defined as "a conspirracy of the rich against the poor" and drew a picture of an ideal imaginary society in which equality, freedom and well-being were enjoyed by all. More's other works were written in English; most intersting are his pamphlets issued during a controversy with W. Tyndale over the translation of the Bible.

William Tyndale was a student at Oxford and Cambridge and a piest in the church. In 1526 he completed a new English translation of the Bible. Both in his translations and original works Ttyndale showed himself one of the first masters of English prose. He exerted a great influence not only on the language of the Church but also on literary prose and on the spoken language. The later versions of the Bible, and first of all the Authorised Version - KING JAMES' BIBLE (produced by a body of translators and officially approved in 1611) was in no small measure based on Tyndale's translation.

As elsewhere, the Renaissance in England was a period of rapid progress of culture and a time of great men . The literature of Shakespeare's generation proved exceptionally wealthy in writers of the first order.

William Shakespeare (1564-1616) was the chief of the Elizabethan dramatists as well as genius whose writings have influenced every age and every ciuntry. Shakespeare's plays were greatly admired in the theatres less than half of them were printed in his lifetime. The first collected edition of his plays was the Folio of 1623.

It is universally recognised that Shakespeare autclassed all his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies and sonnets) and surpassed them all in his mastery of the English tongue. His works give an ideal representation of the literary language of his day. His vast vocabulary (amounting to over 20,000 words), freedom in creating new meanings, versatility of gammatical construction reflect the fundamental properties of the language of the period.

Geographical Expansion of the English Language from the 17th to 19th c. English Outside Great Britain. In the last three hundred years the English language has extended to all the continents of the world and the number of English speakers has miltiplied. We may recall that in OE and Warly ME period s the English dialects were confined to part of the British Isles: they were spoken in what is known as England proper; from the 13th to the 17th c. the English language extended to the whole of the British Isles with the exception some mountainous regions in Wales, Nothern Scotland and some parts of Ireland.

The number of English speaking people grew: at the end of the 11th c. it is estimated at one and a half or two millions; by 1700 English had over eight million

speakers. In the course of two centuries of British expansion overseas, colonisation and emigration to other continens the number of English speakers increased at such a high rate that by 1900 it had reached one hundred and twenty three million.

England's colonial to the New World began in the late 16th c. when her first colonies were set up in Newfoundland (1583). But the real start came later: in 1607 the first permanent settlements were founded in Jamestown and in 1620 the famous ship "May flower" brought a group of English settlers to what became known as New England. These Puritives from the Stuart absolutism came from the London area, from East Anglia and Yorkshire; later colonists came from other regions, including Scotland and Ireland. Immigrants to the Southern areas were of a higher class origin : they received vast streches of land from the kings of England and gave rise to the Sputhern "aristtocratic" slave - owning plantators. Many immigrants from Great Britain settled in the West Indies, which become a part of the British Empire in the 17th c.

The colonists spoke different dialects of English . In North America those dialects gradually blended into a new type of the language. American English: contacts with other languages, especially Spanish in the South and Frensh in Canada, have played a certain role in its development.

American English was first proclaimed to be an independentlanguage by Noah Webster (1758-1843), a schoolmaster from Connecticut. In his DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (1828) the fiest in the world - famous series of "Websters", he showed the differences in vocabulary and pronunciation between the English of Britain and the English of the new indeppenet state (after the War for Independence which ended in 1783); Am E, in his opinion , was pure uncorrupt descendant of Chaucer and Shakespeare , while Br E had been spoiled by li nguistic change. He admitted , though, that the two types of English were basically identical.

The expansion of English to Asia is mainly connected with the occupation of India. India was one of the main issues in the colonial struggle of European powers in the 18th c. The conquest of India had been prepared by the activities of the East Indian trade company founded in the 17th c. In the late 18th c. Britain secured partial control over the administration in some of the Indian provinces . In the first half of the 19th c. Indian became a British colony and Britain acquired oher possessions in Asia , turning them into colonies, dominions or protectorates. Thus the English language extended to many areas in Asia, as the language of the state and writing.

Australia was a place of deporation of British convicts since the late 18th c. A flow of immigrants were attracted to Australia, at first by the free grants of land, later - by the discovery of gold. The bulk of the population in Australia as well as in New Zealand , came from Great Britain: ther language is regarded by some linguists as an independent geographical variant of English though its difference from Br E is not great: it is confined to some peculiarities of pronunciation and specific words.

British penetration into Africa was a lengthy affair that extended over the 19th c. In consequence of financial dependence on British capital, Sudan and Egypt fell under British political control. Tropical Africa and South Africa were raided by the British navy, as sources of slavel labour for America and the West Indies. Trade companies were supported by opten warfare, and in a long series of wars many African territories fell under British rule. Cecil Rhodes and H. Kitchener undertook to extend British territories, so as to connect Cairo and the Cape colony by a stretch of British land. Numerous conflicts with the Dutch settlers in South Africa led to the Anglo -Boer war

of 1899-1902, which established the supremacy of the British. All these events were accompanied by the spread of English to new ares.

In the course of the 20th c. use of the English language was reduced. We should distinguish between countries with an English speaking population (or with a large proportion of English speakers) and countries in which English is only as the State language the main language of the press, radio and literature. The distinction, however, is not always possible, for in both groups of countries part of the population is bilingual, and the proportion of English speakers cannot be precisely estimated. The list of countries with an English-speaking population outside the Isles includes the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand , Canada and the South African Republik

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Lecture 13. Language changes in Eatly new English
Problems for London Dialect discussion.

1. Phonotic changes in Vowelard Consonant Systems
2. The Great Vowel Shift
3. Grammatical Changes
4. Development of the Vocabulary.
5. Contemprory Dialects

Phonetic Changes. At the outset of the MnE period the vowel {1}of unstressed endings was lost. This vowel had been on the verge of loss in the 14th century already. The rhythm of Chaucer's verse shows that in many cases it was no longer pronounced. In the 15th century it finally disappeared.

Loss of {1}started in the Northern dialects: in Scotland this process was already completed by the late 14th century, as may be seen from the rhythm of Barbour's poem *Bruce (ab. 1375)*.

The vowel {I}was lost when it was final and also when it was followed by a consonant, as in the plural forms of substantives, e.g. *tables, hats, books,* in the 3rd person singular present indicative e.g. *likes, sits, shines, seems, needs,* and in the past tense and second participle in -ed, *liveed, filled, stopped, walked*

However, the [1] was preserved, and later changed into [i] in the groups [s1z], [z1z][jz1z], [t] in *asses, houses, washes, watches, judges, wanted, loaded.*

The volwel [I] was also preserved and eventually developed into[i] in some and adjectivezed participles in -ed, e.g. *learned wicked, ragged, crooked, rugged, dogged, blessed.*

Loss of Vowels in Intermediate Syllables. In some three-syllable and four-syllable words the vowel of a middle syllable was lost, e.g. *chapiter> chapter, courtesy> curtsey, curtsy (but courtesy* 'politeness' has retained its intermediate vowel*), phantasie> fancy (*but also *phantasy, fantasy), medicine* ['medsin'], *colonel* [k l n>'k:nl] *business ['biznis],* but also *busyness ['bizinis], paralysie >palsy damise I>*

damsel, crimesin>crimson, dirige> dirge (from Latin *dirige,* the first word of the hymn), *copice>copse.*

The Change [er] > [ar]. At the same time [er]changed into [ar]. This change began in the 14th century, but was completed only in the late 15th. Spelling in most cases reflected the change, and the spelling ar appeared in these cases; in few words the combined spelling ear was adopted; and in some words the spelling er was preserved.

This change occurred, for example, in the following words; *ferr>far, sterre >star, werre>war, merren>mar, ter>tar, herte>heart* [hart], *herthe>hearth* [har5], *herken>hark, heark, ferm>farm, dernen>darn, ber>barn, sterven>starve, hervest>harvest, ferthing>farthing, kerven>carve, merveil>marvel, dwergh>dwarf.* In the words *clerk, sergeant,* and in the proper names *Derby, Berkeley, Berkshire, Hertford* the change [er]>[ar] was not reflected in the spelling

Development of [x]. We must distinguish two variants of the development of [x](1) before t (2) in final position.

(1)[x] before t is lost, and the preceding short vowel is lengthened. For example: *light [lix>*li:t*] bright* [brixt> bri:t] *night* [nixt > ni;t], *brought* [br:t], *caught* [kauxt]

Long [i]: arising from this change took part in the vowel shift: [li:t>lait]. Spelling did not reflect this change , and these words are spelt with gh up to the present time. After the digraph gh had become silent, it was introduced into the word *delight* (from Fr. *delit*), on the analogy of the word *light.* In a similar way, the word *sprightly* is an arbitrary variant of the word *sprite (spirit)* In forms like *brought, fought* the [ou] developed into [:]

In Northern dialects the [x] before t has been preserved to our days.

(2) [x] final mostly changes into [f], as in *rough, enough, cough, laugh, tough, slough, trough, trough* also in *draught; cf. draft.* The word *dwergh* came to be spelt *dwarf.* In all other cases the spelling remained unchanged, so that the digraph gh came to denote the consonant [f].

In a few words final [x] was lost, as in *bough, dough, though, through.*

On the other hand, the word *laughter* is pronounced with [f], which is probably due to influence of the word *laugh.*

Loss of [i] before [k, m, f, v]. [1] was lost before [k] and the labial consonants [m, f, v]. Thus the words *talk, walk, yolk, palm, calm, calf* (plural *calves*), *half* (plural halves) came to be pronounced ['tl:k, wl:k, tjl:k, jouk, fouk, pa:m, kam, ka:f, ka:vz, ha:vz, ha:f, ha:vz .]

However [1] before [v] was preserved in words of Latin origin, as in *dissolve, resolve, valve.*

[1] was also lost before [d] in *should* and *would,* which were usually unstressed.

At the time when [1] was in the process of dropping and a word could be pronounced both with [1] and without it, an [1] appeared in words which had not had it in ME. This often happened in words of French origin; introduction of [1] might be supported by influence of the Latin prototype of the word and by imitation of French latinizing spelling of the 14th and 15th centuries. Here belong factors the words *fault* (ME *faute<*Old French *faute <*Latin *falta* from *fallo* 'deceive'), *falcon* (ME *faucoun<*Old Fr. *faucon < *Lat . *falco*), realm (ME *reaume <*Old Fr. *reaume < Lat. *regalimen*). It may be assumed that the letter first appeared as an etymologizing spelling, and then, under influence of various, the sound [1] appeared in these words.

The Vowel Shift. The most significant phonetic change of this period was the Great Vowel Shift, beginning in the 15th century. It left its imprint on the entire vowel system of the MnE period.

The essence of the shift was the narrowing of all ME long vowels, and diphthongization of the narrowest long ones: [i>al] [u:>au].

The shift can be represented by the following diagram:

```
ai -i:   i:    i:            u:       u: — au
      e:    e    ei    ou  o:
         □:       a:     l'
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The chronological frame of the shift remains somewhat doubtful. The well-known English scholar Henry Sweet (1845 - 1912) and the Danish scholar O. Jespersen (1860 - 1943) thought that the shift was only completed in the 18th century and that the pronunciaytion of the 16th and 17th centuries was something intermediate between the ME and the modern pronunciation. O. Jespersen represented this view in the following manner:

Spelling	Chaucer's pronunciation	Shakespeare's pronunciation	Present-day pronunciation
abate	[a'ba:t]	[1bæt]	[1'beit]
foul	[fu:l]	[foul]	[faul]
bite	[bi:t]	[beit]	[bait]

Investigation undertaken by Prof. H. C. Wyld led to a different result. H. C. Wyld studied all sorts of documents of the 15th and 16th century: private letters, diaries, etc., and reached the conclusion that the shift was completed by the late 16th century and that the pronunciation of Shakespeare's time basically coincided with present-day pronounciation.

The separate itams of the shift may be presented in the folowing way:

a:>ei   l:>ou
□:>e:>i>i   o>u:
e:>i   u>au
e:>i:
i:>ar

In the 16th century the vowel [e:] from ME [□:] differend from the vowel [i:] from ME [e:] and the words speak, beat, mean did not thyme with the words meek, meet, keen In the late 17th century [e:] changed into [i:] and the difference between the vowels ·disappered.

Spelling	Middle English pronunciation	Modern English pronunciation
1. take	['ta:kl]	[teik]
name	['na:ml]	[neim]
grave	['gra:vl]	[greiv]
2. beat	[b□ :t]	[be:t]> [bi:t]
clean	[kl□ :n]	[kle:n]>[kli:n]
3. meet	[me:t]	[mi:t]
sleep	[sle:p]	[sli:p]
keen	[ke:n]	[ki:n]
4. like	['li:kl]	[laik]
time	['ti:ml]	[taim]

rise	['ri:zl]	[raiz]
5. boat	[b1:t]	[bout]
load	[11:d]	[loud]
moan	[m1:n]	[moun]
go	[g1:]	[gou]
6. tool	[to:l]	[tu:l]
moon	[mo:n]	[mu:n]
food	[fo:d]	[fu:d]
do	[do:]	[du:]
house	[hu:s]	[haus]
noun	[nu:n]	[naun]
how	[hu:]	[hau]
down	[du:n]	[daun]

As will be seen, the ME long [□:] (from OE [æ]) or [ea] changed into long close [e:] To denote this vowel the spelling ea was introduced, this was to distinguish this sound from another vowel-the long close [e:], which according to the vowel shift changed into [i:] and was denoted by the spelling ee. However, when in the 17th century the former vowel also changed into [i:] , the difference between the two spellings lost its phonetic value (the two phonemes were merged into one), and since then the spellings ea and ee became hieroglyphic, i.e. they serve to distinguish between two words pronounced in the same way e.g. sea and see, heal and heel, meat and meet, leak and leek, etc. In a few words ME [e:], which in the vowel shift become [i:], is denoted by the spelling ie e.g. field, fiend, chief, occasionally also ei, as in deceive, seize.

ME long [1] became [ou] in the vowel shift. This sound has been denoted by the spelling oa since 16 century.

ME long [o:] became [u:] and is denoted by the spelling oo.

All these changes show, as has alredy been stated, one general tendency: narrowing of long vowels and diphthongization of the narrowest of them. Thus, all items of the shift appear as elements of a single process affecting all ME long vowels.

Among words containing long [o:], which in the vowel shift became [u:], there were some which in OE had the vowel [a:]hwa 'who', an 'one', strac 'struk' (past tense of strike); ME who. on strok. In these words long open [1:] changed into long close [o:], which developed into [u:] in the shift; in the words on and strok it developed further into [u:>u]

It goes without saving that all these changes occurred gradually, without being noticed by the speakers. It is therefore necessary to make some additional remarks about some of them.

To clarify the phonetic meaning of the change [a:>e] we must bear in mind that [a] may be both a back, a medium, and a front vowel. ME long [a:] must have been rather front and, in any case, not a back vowel. This is confirmed by several considerations. On the one hand, it mostly arose OE [a] [æ] in poen syllabesi.e. from a rather front vowel. On the other hand, its very development into [ei] in the shift [rather than into [1]] also points to it having been a front vowel.

On its way from [a:] to [ei] the vowel must have passed through a number of intermediate stages, something like [a:>æ:>□: >e> ei]. Diphthongization seems to have come at a rather late stage of development.

In a similar way, the changes of [i:>ai] and of [u:> au:] must have taken place through intermediate stages approximately [i:> ii>ei<□i>æi>ai] and [u:> ou>ou>1u>au]

If we compare system of long vowels which exised before the shift with that which arose from the shift, we can state that there appeared no new sounds, that is, no sounds that had not existed in ME. This will be made clear by the following table:

Middle English		Modern English	
Sound	Example	Sound	Example
[ei]	wey	[ei]	make
[i:]	time	[i:]	see

However, the vowel shift is an important event in the history of the English sound system, as the distribution of long vowels was completely changed. Thus, for instance, long [i:] appears in MnE in the word see, which in ME had the vowel [e:], and it does not appearin the word *time*, which was pronounced with an [f:] in ME. had the voel [e:] and it does not appear in the word time, which was pronounced with an [f:] in ME

The causes of the shift (as well as many other problems in the history of sound systems) have not yet been clarified. In the last few decedes various attempts have been made to approach the problem from different angles. We will cast a look at some of them.

The Berlin scholars Wilhelm Horn and Martin Lehnert have treated this problem in their book *Sound and Life*. They aim at explainning the narrowing and diphthongization of long vowels starting from intonation conditions: they out that pronunciation of a vowel with a high tone (in emotional speech) contributes to narrwing of with its articulation, and they confirm this statement by observation of similar phoncmes in Modern English speech. This approach, interesting as it is, does not seem to give an adequate explanation of all the phenonmena involved.

A completely different view is found in works by scholars studying phonemics. Among these, again , there are several varieties of explanation.

For example the French scholar Andre Martinet seeks the causes of the vowel shift in some phonemic events of the centures preceding it. He points out that in the OE period quantity (that is, length and shortness) of vowels were phonemic signals , that is, a long and the corresponding short vowel were different phonemes. In ME, as a result of lengthening and shortening of vowels in specified environments (cf. 319 ff.), length and shortness lost their phonemic status: a long and the corresponding short vowel became mere allo phones of one and the same phoneme. As , however, lengthening in open syllables had not affected the short [i] and short [u], short [i] and long [i:]. short [u] and long [u:] remained different phonemes, which contradicted the entire vowel system of the ME period. Hence arose the need to reinforce the length of [i:] and [u:] by additional features: their ariculation was emphasized and resulted in diphthongization. This , according to Martinet, was the start of the whole vowel shift. It is difficult to give an assessment of this theory at present, but there is no doubt that it deserves serious attention.

Other variants of a phonemic explanation of the vowel shift were proposed by Bohumil Trnka , V. Y. Plotkin, and V. A. Kviatkovsky. Each of them tries to find the driving power which set the system of long vowels in motion.

V. Y. Plotkin connects the shift with the loss of unstressed [1] . He notes that as a result of this loss there arose a great number of monosyllabic words which differed from

each other by length shortness of the vowel alone: "A very great number of dissyllabic words become monosyllabic: in this process words having the syllabic structure *tatte,tate* and *tat* (here t stands for any consonant, and a for any vowel. - *B. f*) merge into one type *tat* " and words having the syllabic structure *tate* and *tat* are reduced to the type *tat*. Under such circumstances the difference between long and short vowels was bound to acquire a phonemic relevance once again: but this contradicted the age-old tendency to discard phonemic relevance of vowel quantity. As a result of this contradiction, there came a change in the quality of long vowels, which accordingly were now distinguished from the short ones not by quantity alone. Four diphthongs resulted from this development: [ai, ei, ou, au].

This theory also deserves serious appreciation. Future development will show to what explains the causes of the vowel shift .

V. A. Kviatkovsy, author of the most recent inquiry into the phonemic problems posed by the vowel shift, thinks that the main result of the shift is the rise of a new binary phonemic opposition that between monophthongs and diphthongs.

All these views certainly require and deserve a detailed further analysis.

Phrases. MnE is characterized by further growth of the pattern "substantive +substantive", the first item acting as attribute and indicating some feature of the thing denoted by the second item. Among the first components of such phrases we find substantives of very different meanings, for example, *your ryestraw hats midnight mushrooms, midnight hags.*

Alongside of this type the "substantive genitive + substantive" remains in use , and it can be illustrated by such examples from Shakespeare: *this man's life, his nurse's tears, the people's mouths the dead man's knell, the tyrant's head, my country's love (= love for my country).*

Angreement in MnE goes on decreasing. Very few cases of agreement survived. Loss of adjective inflection made agreement of adjectives with substantives impossible. Only the two pronouns *this and that* still agree in nuber with their head word which is quite an isolated phenomenon in MnE.

Government. Little has remained of government, too. Practically only the personal pronouns and the interrogative and relative pronoun *who are gaverend when they depend on averb or a preposition their* from is bound to be the objective, not the nominative case. But even here developments set in which tendency to do away with this rule is found. On the hand , the pronoun *it* has no distinction of cases , the pronoun *yelyou* tends lose distinction, and as to the other personol pronouns, difference of cases also tends to disappear . The phrase *between you and I* is found in Shakespeare more than once.

Joining. As agreement and government decline, the role of joining naturally grows. In such phrases as *old wrinkles a neat's tongue dried , a heart unfortifed,* etc. the adjective (or particple) is connected with its head word by joining.

The same applies to the phrase to the phrase verb+substantive" and " verb+ pronoun"(except the pronouns mentioned above)

Closure. Closure plays a considerable part in MnE , Practically any word or phrase enclosed between, say, an article and a substantive becomes by this very fect an attribute to the substantive A few examples from Shakespeare will show this: *the always - wind -obeying deep; the ne'er -yet-beaten horse of Parthia: a ten-times - barredup chest; a world-without-end bargain.*

Closure is also possible for an adverbial modifier, which comes inside the predicate, if the latter is expressed either by an analytical verb from or by the phrase "link verb+substantive or adjective ". Closure is typical of adverbial modifiers characterizing the duration or frequency of an action, as in: *I should be still plucking the grass to know where sits the wind; you have often begun to tell me what I am ; the merit of service is seldom attributed to the true and exact performer.*

Here is quite an exceptional case of closure: between the components of an analytical verb from (the predicate) we find the subject and four adverbial modifiers: *Therefore our sometime sister, now our queen, the imperial jointress of this war-like state have we as 'twere with a defeated joy , with one auspicious and one dropping eye, with mirth in funeral and with dirge in marriage, in equal scale weighing delight and dole, taken to wife.*

The Sentence. No material change can be found in the structure of the simple sentence in Early MnE as compared with ME. The means of expressing the subject, the object, and other parts of the sentence remain basically the same.

The freedom of word order become gradually still more restricted than it had alredy been in ME. However, structures remain possible which were eventually discarded from normal Late MnE literary style. For example, we find in *Hamlet* the following sentence: *Mother, you have father much offended,* where the direct object *my father* comes in between the two components of the predicate verb: its auxiliary *have* and the second participle. Of course no misunderstanding can arise here about the syntactical function of each element, but such sentence structure is no longer possible in present- day English.

Infinitive and Infinitive Constructions. The phrase "*for to*+infinitive" which arose in ME, is sometimes found in Shakespeare as well. Such an infinitive expresses sometimes purpose, as in *which for to prevent, I have thus set it down: that these pirates ... had not o'erboard thrown me for to seek my mother:* sometimes, again there is no meaning of purpose, as in : *forbid the sea for to obey the moon ; here lacks but your mother for to say amen.* Eventually this use of *for to* became obsolete.

In the 15th and 16th centuries use of the "objectiv+infinitive" continues to grow. Thus, in Regionald Pecock's *The Reperession of Over Much Blaming of the Clergy (1457)* the following examples are found: *allawith ech of thilke weies to be grounded, but for that he knowith me admytte and allowe the writings of Doctoures, therefore he makith agens me this assaut: he presupposith the gouernauncis ... to be before knowen of the same men: and trustist thi self to be a leder of blynd men.*

In the 17th and 18 th centuries the construction spread still wider. A number of verbs begin to combine with it, as in Jonathan Swift's sentences: *and the Emperor was so much delighted that he ordered this entertainment to be repeated several days; of destroying the Bing-Endian exiles, and compelling that people to break the smaller end of their aggs;* in Samuel Richardson: *was she so persecuted in favour of a very disagreeable man, one Solmes, as to induce her to throw herself into my protection?*

In the 19th and 20th centuries the construction spread still further and become a typical feature of contemporary English.

Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in new English. The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was not restriced to Latin and Greek The influx of *French* words continued and reached new peaks in the late 15th and in the late 17th c.

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French borrowings of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art and fashions French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years: Paris led the fashion in dress, food and in social life and to a certain extent in art and literature; finally, the political events in France in the 18th-19th c. were of world - wide significance. All these external conditions are reflected in French loans. Examples of doplomatic terms are attache, communique, dossier; the words *ball, beau, cortege, cafe, coquette, hotel, picnic, restaurant* refer to social life; *ballet, ensemble, essay, genre* pertain to art; military terms are *brigade, corps, manoeuvre, marine, police, reconnaissance;* fashions in dress and food are illustrated by words like *blouse chemise, corsage, cravat, champagne, menu, soup.* Words of miscellaneous character are; *comrade, detail, entrance, essay, machine, moustache, progress, ticket.*

As seen from the lists, later French borrowing differ widely from the loan-words adopted in ME Most of them have not been completely assimilated and have retained a foreign appearance to the present day- note their spellings, the sounds and the position of the stress. Words like *genre* and *restaurant* have nasalised vowels and a French spelling: *police, fatigue, marine* receive the stress on the last syllable and are pronuonced with long [i:] indicated by the letter i like French words; the digraph *ch* stands for in *machine,* in *beau* the letters *eau* have also retained the sound value of the French prototype [o:].

In addition to the three main sources - Greek, Latin and French, English speakers of the NE period borrowed freely from many other languages. It has been estimated that even in the 17th c. the English vocabulary contained words derived from no less than fifty foreign tongues. We shall mention only the most important ones.

The main contributors to the vocabulary were Italian, Dutch, Spanish, German, Portuguese and Russian. A number of words were adopted from languages of other countries and continents, which came into contact with English: Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

Next to French, Latin and Scandinavian, English owes the greatest nuber of foreign words to *Italian* though many of them like Latin loan - words, entered the English language through French . A few early borrowings pertain to commercial and military affairs while the vast majority of words are related to art, music and literature, which is a natural consequence of the fact that Italy was the birthplace of the Renaissance movement and of the revival of interest in art .

In the 14th c. English imported the Italian words *ducato, million, florin* (from the name of Flarence, where the coin was minted), *pistol, cartridge alarm* (probably borrowed from French but traced to Italian all' are all to arms). Italian words relating to art are well known to speakers of all European languages. Examples of musical terms adopted in English are: *aria, bass, cello* (genetically, a diminutive siffix in *violonello*), *concerto, duet, finale, piano, solo, sonata, soprano, tenor, violin.*

The Italian loan-words *blacony, cameo, corridor, cupola, design, fresco, gallery, granite, parapet, pedestal, studio* reveal the priority of the Italians in certain spheres of culture. The loans *replica, sonnet, stanza* indicate new concepts in literature.

As seen from the examples some loan-words retained their Italian appearance, others were Gallicised (i.e assumed a French shape); probably they had entered the English language through French, e.g. *artisan, campaign, intrigue.* Many words in general use do not differ from English words either in sounds or spelling and cannot be

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distinguished from native words without a special study:*barrack cash, canteen escort, gallop, laundry, manage, medal, pants pilot, these* borrowings were probably imported at an earlier date and have lost their foreign flavour.

Borrowings from *Spanish* came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial and political fields, due to the rivalry of England and Spain in foreign trade and colonial expansion. This is apparent from the nature of Spanish borrowings in English made in the 16th and 17th c., e.g.: *armada, barricade cargo, embargo, escapade* Many loan-words indicated new objects and concepts encountered in the colonies: *banana, canoe, choclate cocoa, tomato*

Borrowings from *Germanic languages* are of special interest as English is a Germanic language too. The infuence of Scandinavian in Early ME has certainly remained unsurpassed and the unique conditions of close language contacts were never repeated. By the 15th 16th c. c. Germanical languages had diriven far apart; their linguistic affinities were disguised by the changes of the intervening periods. Therefore loan-words from related Germanic tongues were no less foreign to English speakers than those from other linguistic groups. Yet their sound from was somewhat closer to English and their assimilation progressed rapidly. Dutch words and some of the German words do not differ in appearance from native English words.

Dutch made abundant contributian to English, particulary in the 15th and 16th c , when commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were ot their peak. Dutch artisans came to England to practise their trade, and sell their goods . They specialised in wool weaving and brewing, which is reflected in the Dutch loan-words: *pack, scour, spool, stripe* (terms of weaving); *hops, tub, scum* Extensive borrowing is found in nautical terminology: *bowline, buoy, cruise, deck dock, freight, keel, skipper* The flourishing of art in the Netherlands accounts for some Dutch loan-words relating to art: *easel, landsape, sketch.*

Loan-words from German reflect the scientific and cultura achievements of Germany at diferent dates of the New period Mineralogical terms are connected with the employment of German specialists in the English mining industry, e.g.: *cobalt, nickel, zinc* The adveance of philosophy in the 18th and 19th c. accounts for philosophical terms, e.g. *transcendental, dynamics (*going back to classical roots*)* Some borrowings do not belong to a particalar semantic sphere and can only be classified as miscellaneous: kindergarten, halt, stroll, plunder, poodle, waltz.

The Russian element in the English vocablary is of particular interliest Russian loan-words entered the English language as far back as the 16th c., when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company) established the first trade relations with Russia. English borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th c., indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia, observed by the English · *astrakhan beluga , boyar, copeck, intelligentsia, muzhik, rouble samovar, troika, tsar, verst vodka*

The loan-words adopted after 1917 reflect the new social relations and political instutions in the USSR: *bolshevir Komsomol, Sovet* Some of the new words are translation-loas: *collective farm, Five-Year-Plan, wall newspaper* In the recent decades many technical terms came from Russian indicating the achievements in diffrtent branches of science: *sputnik, cosmonaut (*in prefernce of the American *astronaut), synchrophasotron*

Contemporary Dialects. In the course of the MnE period local dialects were, as we saw , gradually superseded by the literary languase. However, they have not disappeared and they still are a means of communication in the respective territories.

Modern dialects are divided into six groups. The modern Scottish and Northern dialects correspond to the ME Northern, the modern Western, Central and Eastern to the ME Midland. The Southern dialects are a more unified group.

Each group has its peculiarities in the sphere of phonetics and vocabulary. We will note the main phonetic peculiarities of each group.

(1)Peculiarities of dialedts in the phonetic sphere. ME long [u:] has not undergone the shift. Thus, the words *house, out, down, mouth, crowd, now* are pronounced [hu:s, u:t, du:5, kru:d, nu:].

(2) ME long[a:] was preserved in ME and became [ei]in the vowel shift. The literary *stone, bone, whole, road* correspond to Scottish *stane, bane, hail, raid.*

(3) Words like *dane, glance, chance,* etc. are usually pronounced with long [ɔ:]: da:ns, gla:nstja:ns etc.

(4) The consonant [r] has been preserved, with a roll of the tip of the tongue.

(5) Many Scottish dialects have preserved the guuttural spirant [x] which is denoted by gh, as in *naught, sought, brought.*

Northern. (1) In most Northern dialects ME long [u:]has been preserved as such, that is it, has not undergone the vowel shift: in a few dialects it has become [ou] ar [au].

(2) OE long [a:] was preserved in ME and developed into [ei] in the vowel shift, (as in Scottish).

(3) ME long open [ɔ:], which had changed into long closed [o:in the vowel shift, was not narrowed into into [i:]. The literary pronunciation of *speak heal, deal* [spi:k, hi:l, di:l] corresponds te Northern [spe:k, he:l, de:l].

(4) Long [æ:] developed only before [m] and [f], as in *calm, plam, calf, half* in all other cases Northen dialects have long [æ:]e.g. in *dance, chance, ask, past.*

(5) In Northumberland, Durham, Lancashire, and Yorkshire short [u] did not change into [ɔ]. The corresponding words are pronounced with [u] or a vowel intermediate between [u] and [o].

(6) ME short [a] was not changed into [æ]. Thus, words like *hat cat, hand,* etc. are pronounced [hat, kat, hand].

(7) In Northern Northumberland a uvular [r] is pronounced.

(8) Inital [h] has mostly been dropped.

(9) There is a tendency to drop final [l] and [l] before dental consonants. Western.

(1) ME long open [æ:], which became long closed [e:] in the vowel shift, has not been narrowed to [i:] (as in the Northern dialects).

(2) ME short [a] has not developed into [æ] (as in Northern dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] is dropped. Central

(1) ME long open [ɔ:] became long closed [e:], has not developed into [i:] (as in Northern and Western dialects).

(2) ME short [a] has not developed into [æ:] (as in Nothern and Western dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] has been dropped (as in Western dialects). Eastern.

(1) ME short [a] has not developed into [æ] (as in Northern, Western, and Central dialects).

(2) Initial [h-] is often dropped; on the other hand it is some times added to words where it has no historical origin.

Southern. ME long [ɔ], which developed into long closed [e:] in the vowel shift, has not changed into [i:] (as in Northern, Western, and Central dialects).

(3) Initial [h-] often drops; on the other hand , it sometimes appears in wods where it has no historical origin (as in Eastern dialects).

(4) In some Southern dialects initial [s-], [f-], [ʃ-] in words of Germanic origin have been voiced, i.e. become [z-], [v-], [l] respectively; initial thr- has changed into dr-

The consonant [ŋ] in unstressed syllabes has changed into [n].

In the sphere of vocabulary dialects also have characteristic peculiarities. Thus, the following words are found in dialects , which are not used in literary English: *ingle* 'fire in the hearth', Look out ' '*synd*' 'draught'*lownd* 'softly,' *elding* 'fuel', *fuddle* 'drinking bout', *game* 'bold', *yuckel* 'woodpecker'.

In English literature of the 17th-19th centuries there are many examples of dialect speech used for the sake of local colouring .

Thus , many of the poems by the Scottish poet Robert Burns (1759-1796) are in the Scottish dialect.

Some Southern dialect features are found in Squire Western's speech in the novel *Tom Jones* by Henry Fielding (1707-1754).

Sir Pitt Crawley in *Vanity Fair* by William Makepeace Thackeray (1811-1863) also speaks Southern dialect.

The poet Alfred Tennyson (1809 - 1892) wrote several poems in the Northern dialect, representing the life of Northern peasants and artisans (*Northern, Farmer, The Northern Cobbler, Owd Roa*).

Some elements of Southern dialect speech are to be found in the novels of Thomas Hardy (1840-1928).

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5. Henry Sweet. The student's Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.
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