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**O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL  
NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI**  
**Ingliz tili tarixi**



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**O'RGANILAYOTGAN TIL NAZARIY ASPEKTLARI: O'quv qo'llanma.**  
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Mazkur o'quv qo'llanma OO'MTV tomonidan tasdiqlangan dastur asosida tuzilgan bo'lib unga O'rganilayotgan til nazariy aspektlari fanining O'rganilayotgan til tarixi moduli o'quv materiallari aks ettirilgan. O'quv qo'llanmadagi har bir mavzu til faktlarini mustaqil tahlil qilishga mo'ljallangan savol va topshiriqlar, tayanch so'zlar, mashqlar bilan ta'minlangan. Shuningdek, muayyan mavzuni chuqurroq o'rganishni hohlaganlar uchun har bir mavzuga oid adabiyotlar ro'yxati keltiriladi.

Ushbu o'quv qo'llanma oliy ta'lim muassasalarining Filologiya va tillarni o'qitish (ingliz) hamda Xorijiy til va adabiyoti (ingliz) ta'lim yo'nalishlari bo'yicha tahsil oluvchi bakalavr bosqichi talabalari uchun mo'ljallangan.

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O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 2020 yil 14 avgustdagi 418-sonli buyrug'iga asosan nashr etishga ruxsat berildi. O'quv adabiyotining nashr ruxsatnomasini ro'yxatga olish raqami №418-113.

# 1. INTRODUCTION

## ***Key words:***

**Diversity of cultures, Roman Christianizing, Scandinavian invasion, Norman Conquest, living and dead languages, alteration, change of meaning, family of languages, parent tongue, consonant correspondences.**

## ***Discussion points:***

- 1.1. The History of the English Language as a Cultural Subject
- 1.2. Influences at Work on Language
- 1.3. Growth and Decay
- 1.4. Principles of the Indo-European Family
- 1.5. Discovery of Sanskrit
- 1.6. Grimm's Law

## ***Literature:***

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The remarkable twelfth-century chronicler Henry of Huntington observed that an interest in the past was one of the distinguishing characteristics of humans as compared with the other animals. The medium by which speakers of a language

communicate their thoughts and feelings to others, the tool with which they conduct their business or the government of million people, the vehicle by which has been transmitted the science, the philosophy, the poetry of the culture is surely worthy of study. It is not to be expected that everyone should be a philologist or should master the technicalities of linguistic science. But it is reasonable to assume that a liberally educated person should know something of the structure of his or her language, its position in the world and its relation to other tongues, the wealth of its vocabulary together with the sources from which that vocabulary has been and is being enriched, and the complex relationships among the many different varieties of speech that are gathered under the single name of the English language. The diversity of cultures that find expression in it is a reminder that the history of English is a story of cultures in contact during the past 1500 years. It understates matters to say that political, social, and cultural forces influence a language.

The English language of today reflects many centuries of development. The political and social events that have in the course of English history so profoundly affected the English people in their national life have generally had a recognizable effect on their language. **The Roman Christianizing** of Britain in 597 brought England into contact with Latin civilization and made significant addition to English vocabulary. **The Scandinavian** invasion resulted in a considerable mixture of the two peoples and their languages. **The Norman Conquest** made English for two centuries the language mainly of the lower classes while the nobles and those associated with them used French on almost all occasions. And when English once more regained supremacy as the language of all elements of the population, it was an English greatly changed in both form and vocabulary from what it had been in 1066.

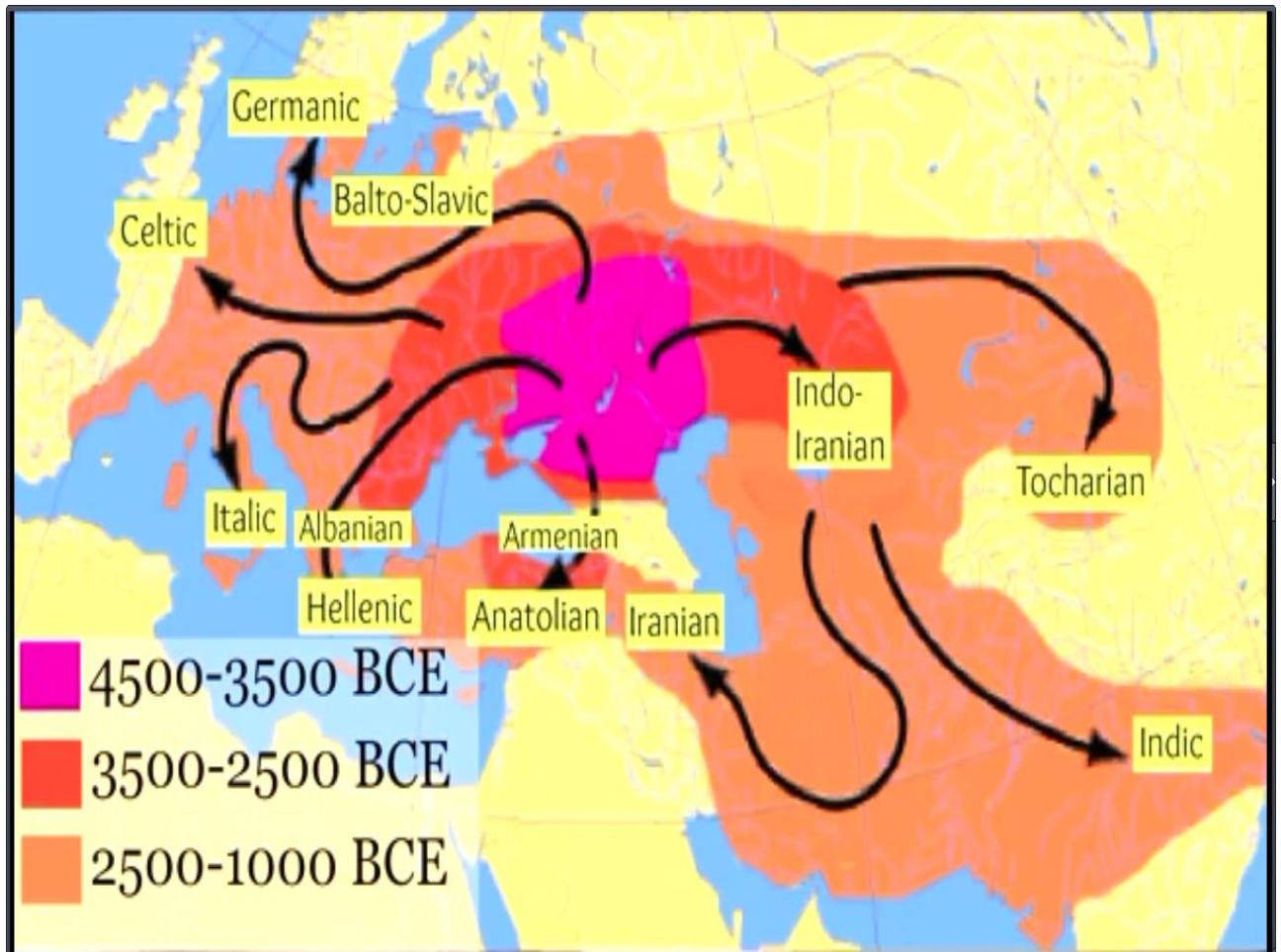
Moreover, English like all other languages, is subject to that constant growth and decay that characterize all forms of life. It is a convenient figure of speech to speak of languages as living and as dead. When a language ceases to change, we call it a dead language. Classical Latin is a dead language because it has not changed for nearly 2000 years. The change that is constantly going on in a living

language can be most easily seen in the vocabulary. Old words die out, new words are added, and existing words change their meaning. Much of the vocabulary of Old English has been lost, and the development of new words to meet new conditions is one of the most familiar phenomena of our language. Change of meaning can be seen in the following examples: *nice* in Shakespeare's day meant "foolish"; *rheumatism* signified "a cold in the head".

Less familiar but no less real is the change of pronunciation. A slow but steady alteration, especially in the vowel sounds, has characterized English throughout its history. OE *stān* has become *stone*; *cū* has become *cow*. Most of these changes are so regular as to be capable of classification under what are called "sound laws". Thus, it is the task of the Course of the History of English to trace the influences that are constantly at work, tending to alter a language from age to age as spoken and written, and that have brought about such an extensive alteration in English as to make the English language of 1000 quite unintelligible to English speakers of 2000.

The languages brought into relationship by descent or progressive differentiation from a parent speech are conveniently called a family of languages. Various names have been used to designate the family to what the English language belong. In books written a century ago, the term **Aryan** was commonly employed. It has now been generally abandoned and when found today is used in a more restricted sense to designate the languages of the family located in India and the plateau of Iran. A more common term is **Indo-Germanic**, which is the most usual designation among German philologists, but it is open to the objection of giving undue emphasis to the Germanic languages. The term now most widely employed is **Indo-European**, suggesting more clearly the geographical extent of the family. The parent tongue from which the Indo-European languages have sprung had already become divided and scattered before the dawn of history. The various peoples, by whom these languages are spoken, have lost all knowledge of their former association. Consequently, we have no written record of the common Indo-European language. By a comparison of its descendants, however, it is

possible to form a fair idea of it and to make plausible reconstructions of its lexicon and inflections. The surviving languages show various degrees of similarity to one another. They accordingly fall into eleven principal groups: Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Hellenic, Albanian, Italic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic (to which English belongs, according to its common features with the other languages of the group), Celtic, Hittite, and Tocharian. These are the branches of the Indo-European family tree.



In the latter part of the 18<sup>th</sup> c. it was suggested that Sanskrit, a language of ancient India, was one of the languages of the group. This important discovery was fully established by the beginning of the 19<sup>th</sup>. The extensive literature of India, reaching back further than that of any of the European languages, preserves features of the common language much older than most of those of Greek or Latin or German. It is easier, for example, to see the resemblance between the English word *brother* and the Sanskrit *bhrātar-* than between *brother* and *frāter*. However,

what is even more important, Sanskrit preserves an unusually full system of declensions and conjugations by which it became clear that the inflections of these languages could likewise be traced to a common origin. Compare the following forms of the verb *to be* :

<u>Old English</u>	<u>Gothic</u>	<u>Latin</u>	<u>Greek</u>	<u>Sanskrit</u>
eom ( <i>am</i> )	im	sum	eimi	asmi
eart ( <i>are</i> )	is	es	ei	asi
is ( <i>is</i> )	ist	est	esti	asti
sindon ( <i>are</i> )	sijum	sumus	esmen	smas
sindon ( <i>are</i> )	sijup	estis	este	stha
sindon ( <i>are</i> )	sind	sunt	eisi	santi

The material offered by Sanskrit for comparison with the other languages of the group, both in matters of vocabulary and inflection, was thus of the greatest importance. When we add that Hindu grammarians had already gone far in the analysis of the language, had recognized the roots, classified the formative elements and worked out the rules according to which certain sound-changes occurred, we shall appreciate the extent to which the discovery of Sanskrit contributed to the recognition and determination of the relation that exists among the languages to which it was allied.

A further important step was taken when in 1822 a German philologist, **Jacob Grimm**, following up a suggestion of a Danish contemporary, **Rasmus Rask**, formulated an explanation that systematically accounted for the correspondences between certain consonants in the Germanic languages and those found, for example, in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin. His explanation, although subsequently modified and in some of the details of its operation still a subject of dispute, is easily illustrated. According to Grimm, a *p* in Indo-European, preserved as such in Latin and Greek, was changed to an *f* in the Germanic languages. Thus we should look for the English equivalent of Latin *piscis* or *pēs* to begin with an *f*, and this is what we actually find in *fish* and *foot* respectively. What is true of *p* is true also of *t* and *k* : in other words, the original voiceless stops (*p, t, k*) were changed to fricatives (*f, þ, h*). So Latin *trēs* =English *three*, Latin *centum* =English

*hundred*. A similar correspondence can be shown for certain other groups of consonants and the formulation of these correspondences is known as **Grimm's Law**.

Certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law were subsequently explained by **Karl Verner** and others. It was noted that between such a pair of words as Latin *centum* and English *hundred* the correspondence between the *c* & *h* was according to rule, but that between the *t* & *d* was not. The *d* in the English word should have been a voiceless fricative, that is, a *þ*. In 1875, Verner showed that when the Indo-European accent was not on the vowel immediately preceding, such voiceless fricatives became voiced in Germanic. In West Germanic the resulting *ð* became a *d* and the word *hundred* is therefore quite regular in its correspondence with *centum*. The formulation of this explanation is known as **Verner's Law**, and it was of great significance in vindicating the claim of regularity for the sound-changes that Grimm's Law had attempted to define.

***Self-control questions:***

1. What is the task of the course of the History of English?
2. What political and social events affected the evolution of the English language?
3. Name the eleven principle groups in the Indo-European family. What features bring the languages into relationship?
4. What is Sanskrit? Why is it important in the reconstruction of Indo-Europeans?
5. How do you prove that English indirectly must have originated from Sanskrit?
6. When did the sound change described by the Grimm's Law occur? In what year did Grimm formulate the law?
7. Explain why Grimm's Law is important in historical discussions of the English language.
8. To what group of Indo-European does English belong?

## **TASKS**

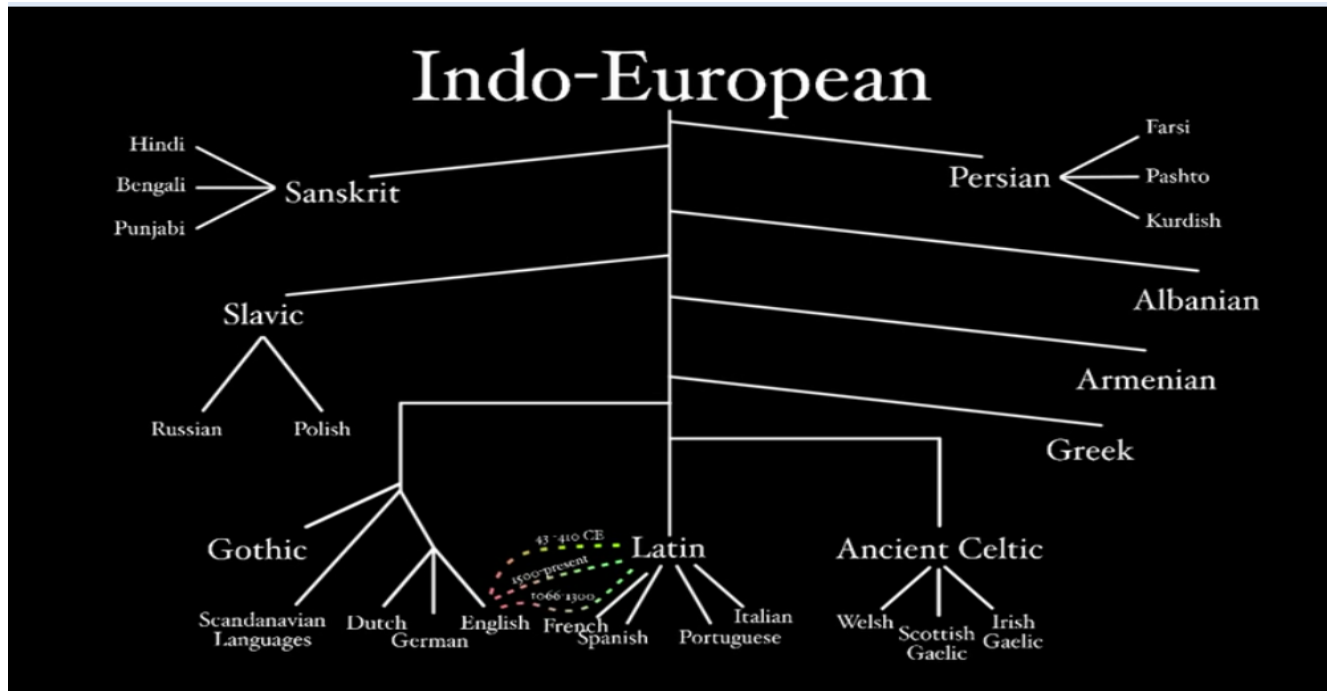
**Task 1.** Explain sound (vowel/consonant) correspondences in the following examples of the Old Germanic languages.

I.

1. Goth. *mēna* “луна” — O.I. *māni* — O.G. *māno* — O.E. *mōna*
2. Goth. *akrs* “поле” — O.E. *æcer*
3. Goth. *hlaiw* “могила, курган” — O.E. *hlāw*
4. Goth. *diups* “глубокий” — O.E. *dēop*
5. O.E. *nædl* “иголка” — O.G. *nādela* — дек. *nāl* — Goth. *nēþla*
6. O.E. *strēam* “поток, течение” — G. *Strom* — дек. *straumr*.
7. O.E. *werian* “одеваться, надевать” — дек. *verja* — Goth. *wasjan*

II.

1. Goth. *bugjan* “покупать” — O.E. *byczan*
2. O.E. *cyninȝ* “король” — O.G. *kuning*
3. Goth. *anstis* (из \* *anstiz*) “милость” — O.E. *ēst*
4. Goth. *badi* “постель, ложе” — O.E. *bedd*
5. O.E. *mennisc* “человеческий” — Goth. *mannisks*
6. Goth. *hauhs* “высокий” — O.E. *hēah*, но Goth. *hauhiþa* “высота” — O.E. *hīehþu*
7. O.E. *byrne* “латы, кольчуга” — Goth. *brunjō*
8. O.E. *cyrstel* “юбка, платье; куртка” — G. *kurz* (из L. *curtus* “короткий”)

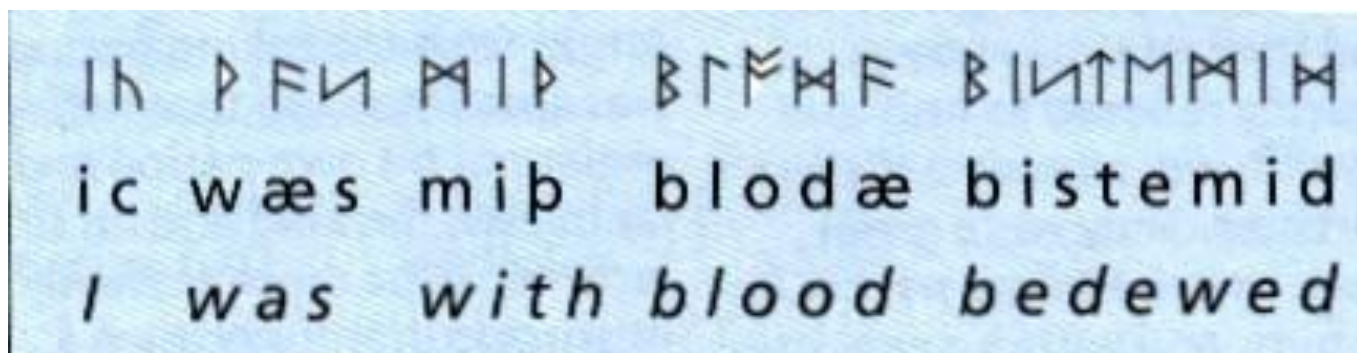


III.

1. O.E. *feohtan* “сражаться” —дви. *fehtan*
2. O.E. *weorðan* “становиться”—O.G. *werdan*— Goth. *wairþan*
3. Goth. *haldan* “держать” — O.E. *healdan*
4. Goth. *halp* (прош. вр. от гл. *hilpan*) — O.E. *healp* (прош. вр. от гл. *helpan*)
5. O.E. *Seaxe* “саксы” — G. *Sachsen* (L. *Saxones*)

#### IV.

1. O.E. *dēad* “мертвый” — Goth. *daups*— O.I. *dauðr*
2. O.E. *eahta* “восемь” — Goth. *ahtau*— O.G. *ahto* (L. *octo*).
3. O.E. *heorte* “сердце”—O.G. *herza*— Goth. *hairto*.
4. O.E. *mōd* “разум, дух, настроение, мужество” — G. *Mut* - дек. *moðr*— Goth. *mōps* “гнев”
5. O.E. *slæp* “сон” — O.G. *slāf*— Goth. *slēps*.
6. O.E. *fīf* “пять”— Goth. *fiinf*.
7. Goth. *anþar* “другой” —O.E. *ōðer*.
8. O.E. *mūþ* “рот” = Goth. *munþs*— O.G. *mund*.



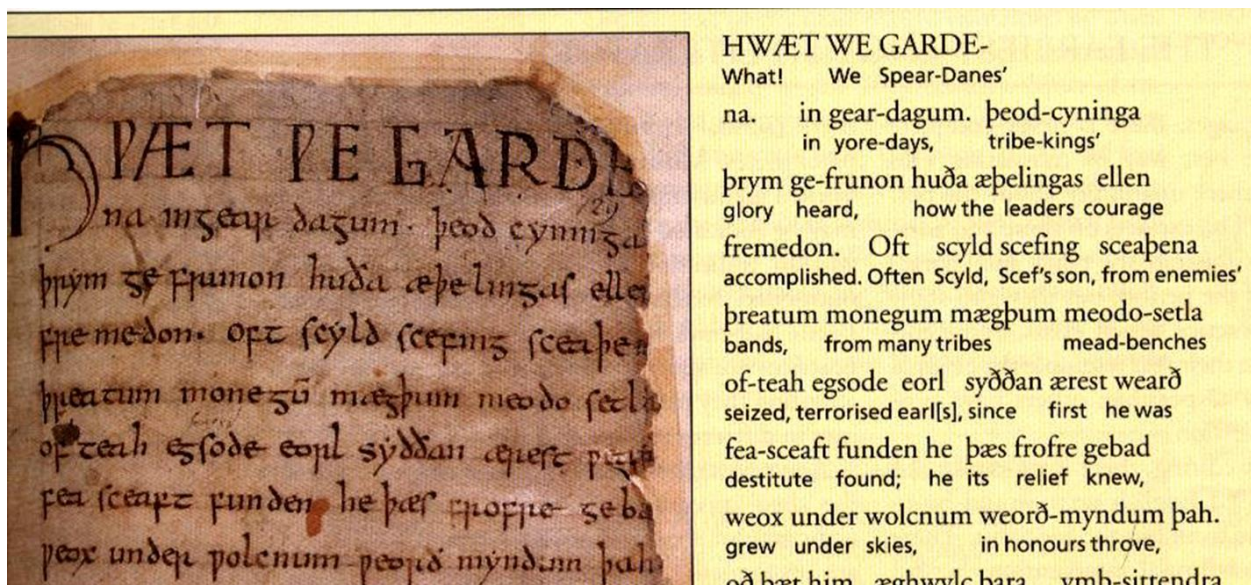
Old English Texts

**Task 2.** Explain the sound correspondences: a) between the words of the certain Germanic languages. b) between the words of the Old Germanic languages and the other IE languages.

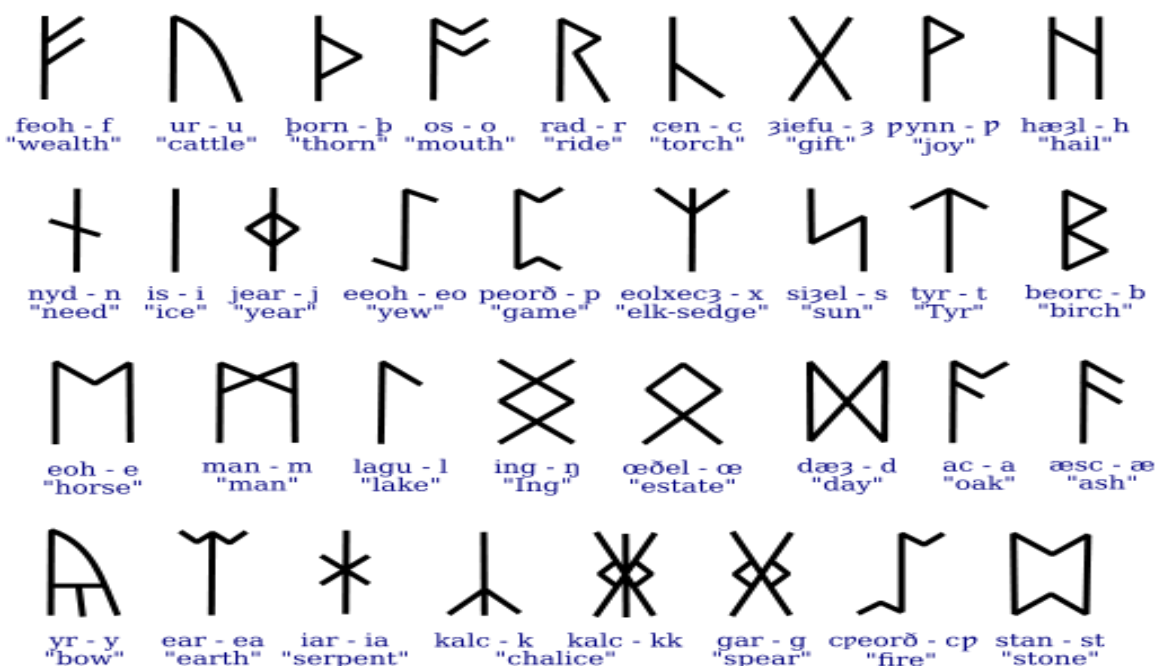
#### Vowels

- 1) OE. *ān* ‘один’, Goth. *ains*— L. *unus*.
- 2) OE. *balu*, *bealu* ‘бедствие, зло’ — R. *боль*.
- 3) OE. *beard* ‘борода’, G. *Bart* — R. *борода*.
- 4) OE. *dælan* ‘делить, разделять’, G. *teilen*, Goth. *dailjan*— R. *делить - дѣлить*.
- 5) OE. *hāl* ‘здоровый, крепкий’, G. *heil*, Goth. *hails*— R. *дельный - ц'ль*.
- 6) OE. *мазан* ‘быть в состоянии’ Goth. *magan*— R. *мочь (могу, может)*.

- 7) OE. mære ‘известный’, ‘чистый’ Goth. mērs ‘известный’— L. merus ‘чистый, без примесей’.
- 8) OE. mere ‘озеро, пруд; море’, Goth. marei— R. море, L. mare.
- 9) OE. mōna ‘луна’, OG.māno, Goth. mēna—R. месяц - месяц.
- 10) OE. Munuc ‘монах’ — L.monachus.
- 11) OE.sealt‘соль’, G.Salz — R.соль, L.Sa
- 12) OE. stān ‘камень’, Goth. stains — R. стена — стена



Old English Writing



Runic letters

## 2. ORIGINS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND PERIODIZATION IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

### *Key words:*

**Celts, Roman Conquest, OE, ME, ModE, Germanic Conquest, Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, Danish peninsula, Low West Germanic branch of Indo-European**

### *Discussion points:*

- 2.1. Languages in Britain before English
- 2.2. Periods in the History of English
- 2.3. Germanic Conquest
- 2.4. The Names “English” and “England”
- 2.5. The Origin and Position of English

### *Literature:*

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We are so accustomed to thinking of English as an inseparable adjunct to the English people that we are likely to forget that it has been the language of England for a comparatively short period in the world's history. Since its introduction into the island about the middle of the 5th c. it has had a career extending through only

1500 years. Yet this part of the world had been inhabited by humans for thousands of years. During this long stretch of time, the presence of a number of cultures can be detected and each of these cultures had a language. The first people in England about whose language we had definite knowledge are the **Celts**. The Celtic languages are divided into 2 branches: the **Gaellic** (or **Goidelic**) branch and the **Brythonic** branch. Celtic was probably the first Indo-European tongue to be spoken in Britain. One other language, Latin was spoken rather extensively for a period of about 4 centuries before the coming of English. Latin was introduced when Britain became a province of the Roman Empire.

In the summer of 55 B.C., Caesar, having completed the conquest of Gaul, decided upon an invasion of England. The expedition that year almost ended disastrously, and his return the following year was not a great success. This time he succeeded in establishing himself in the southeast. However, after a few encounters with the Celts, in which he was moderately successful, he exacted tribute from them and again returned to Gaul. He had perhaps succeeded in his purpose, but he had by no means struck terror into the hearts of the Celts and Britain was not again troubled by Roman legions of nearly a hundred years.

It was in A.D. 43 that the Emperor Claudius decided to undertake the actual conquest of the island. Accordingly, an army of 40,000 was sent to Britain and within three years had subjugated the peoples of central and southeastern regions. The Romans never penetrated far into the mountains of Wales and Scotland. The territory occupied by the Romans was under Roman rule for more than 300 years.

It was inevitable that the military conquest of Britain should have been followed by the Romanization of the province. A score of small cities and more than a hundred towns, with their Roman houses and baths, temples, and occasional theatres, testify to the introduction of Roman habits of life. Among the other evidences of Romanization must be included the use of inscriptions have been found, all of them in Latin. Latin did not replace the Celtic language in Britain as it did in Gaul. Its use by native Britons was probably confined to the members of the upper classes and some inhabitants of the cities and towns. On the whole, there

were certainly many people in Roman Britain who habitually spoke Latin or upon occasion could use it. But its use was not sufficiently widespread to cause it to survive, as the Celtic language survived the upheaval of the Germanic invasions. Its use probably began to decline after 410, the approximate date at which the last of the Roman legions were officially withdrawn from the island.

Before speaking about the origins of the English language and the Germanic conquest, which followed after the withdrawn of Roman legions, it makes sense to point out the periods in the history of English. The evolution of in the 1500 years of its existence in England has been an unbroken one. Within this development, however, it is possible to recognize three main periods. Like all divisions in history, the periods of the English language are matters of convenience and the dividing lines between them purely arbitrary. But within each of the periods it is possible to recognize certain broad characteristics and certain special developments that take place. The period from **450 to 1150** is known as **Old English (OE)**. It is sometimes described as the *period of full inflections*, because during most of this period the endings of the noun, the adjective and the verb are preserved more or less unimpaired. From **1150 to 1500**, the language is known as **Middle English (ME)**. During this period the inflections, which had begun to break down toward the end of the O.E. period, become greatly reduced and it is consequently known as the *period of leveled inflections*. The language **since 1500** is called **Modern English (ModE)**. By the time, we reach this stage in the development a large part of the original inflectional system has disappeared entirely, and we therefore speak of it as the *period of lost inflections*. The progressive decay of inflections is only one of the developments that mark the evolution of English in its various stages.

### Periodization of the history of English

<i>I</i>	<i>Early (pre-written) Old English</i>	<i>450-700</i>	<i>OLD ENGLISH</i>
<i>II</i>	<i>Written Old English</i>	<i>700-1066</i>	<i>OLD ENGLISH</i>
<i>III</i>	<i>Early Middle English</i>	<i>1066-1350</i>	<i>MIDDLE ENGLISH</i>
<i>IV</i>	<i>Classical Middle English</i>	<i>1350-1475</i>	<i>MIDDLE ENGLISH</i>
<i>V</i>	<i>Early New English</i>	<i>1475-1660</i>	<i>NEW ENGLISH</i>
<i>VI</i>	<i>Period of normalization and correctness</i>	<i>1660-1800</i>	<i>NEW ENGLISH</i>
<i>VII</i>	<i>Late New English or Modern English</i>	<i>1800-till today</i>	<i>NEW ENGLISH</i>

About the year 449 an event occurred that profoundly affected the course of history. In that year, as traditionally stated, began the invasion of Britain by certain Germanic tribes, the founders of the English nation. The traditional account of the Germanic invasions goes back to **Bede** and the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. Bede in his *Ecclesiastical History of the English people*, completed in 731, tells us that the Germanic tribes that conquered England were the **Jutes, Saxons and Angles**. From what he says and from other indications, it seems possible that the Jutes and Angles had their home in the Danish peninsula, the Jutes in the northern half and the Angles in the South, in Schleswig-Holstein and perhaps a small area at the base. The Saxons were settled to the south and west of the Angles, roughly between the Elbe and the Ems, possible as far as the Rhine.



A fourth tribe, the **Frisians**, some of whom almost certainly came to England, occupied a narrow strip along the coast from the Weser to the Rhine together with the islands opposite. But by the time of the invasions the Jutes had apparently moved down to the coastal area near the mouth of the Weser and possibly also round the Zuyder Zee and the lower Rhine, thus being in contact with both the Frisians and Saxons. The Jutes having recognized the weakness of the Britons began making a forcible settlement in the southeast, in Kent. The example of the Jutes was soon followed by the migration of other continental tribes. According to Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, some of the Saxons landed on the south coast and established themselves in Sussex. Further bands of Saxons settled a little to the west, in Wessex. Finally, the Angles occupied the east coast and in 547 established an Anglian kingdom north of the Humber. In a general way, a succession of settlement extending over more than a century completely changed the character of the island of Britain.



The Celts called their Germanic conquerors **Saxons** indiscriminately, probably because they had had their first contact with the Germanic people through the Saxon raids on the coast. Early Latin writers following Celtic usage generally call the Germanic inhabitants of England **Saxones** and land **Saxonia**. But soon the term **Angli** and **Anglia** occur beside **Saxones** and refer not to the Angles individually but to the West Germanic tribes generally. Æthelbert, king of Kent is styled **rex Anglorum** by Pope Gregory in 601 and a century later Bede called his history the *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum*. In time, **Angli** and **Anglia** became the usual terms in Latin texts. From the beginning, however, writers in the vernacular never call their language anything but **Englisc** (English). The word is derived from the name of the Angles (OE **Engle**) but is used without distinction for the language of all the invading tribes. In like manner, the land and its people are early called **Angelcynn** (Angle-kin or race of the Angles). From about the year 1000 **Englaland** (land of the Angles) begins to take its place. The name **English** is thus older than the name **England**.

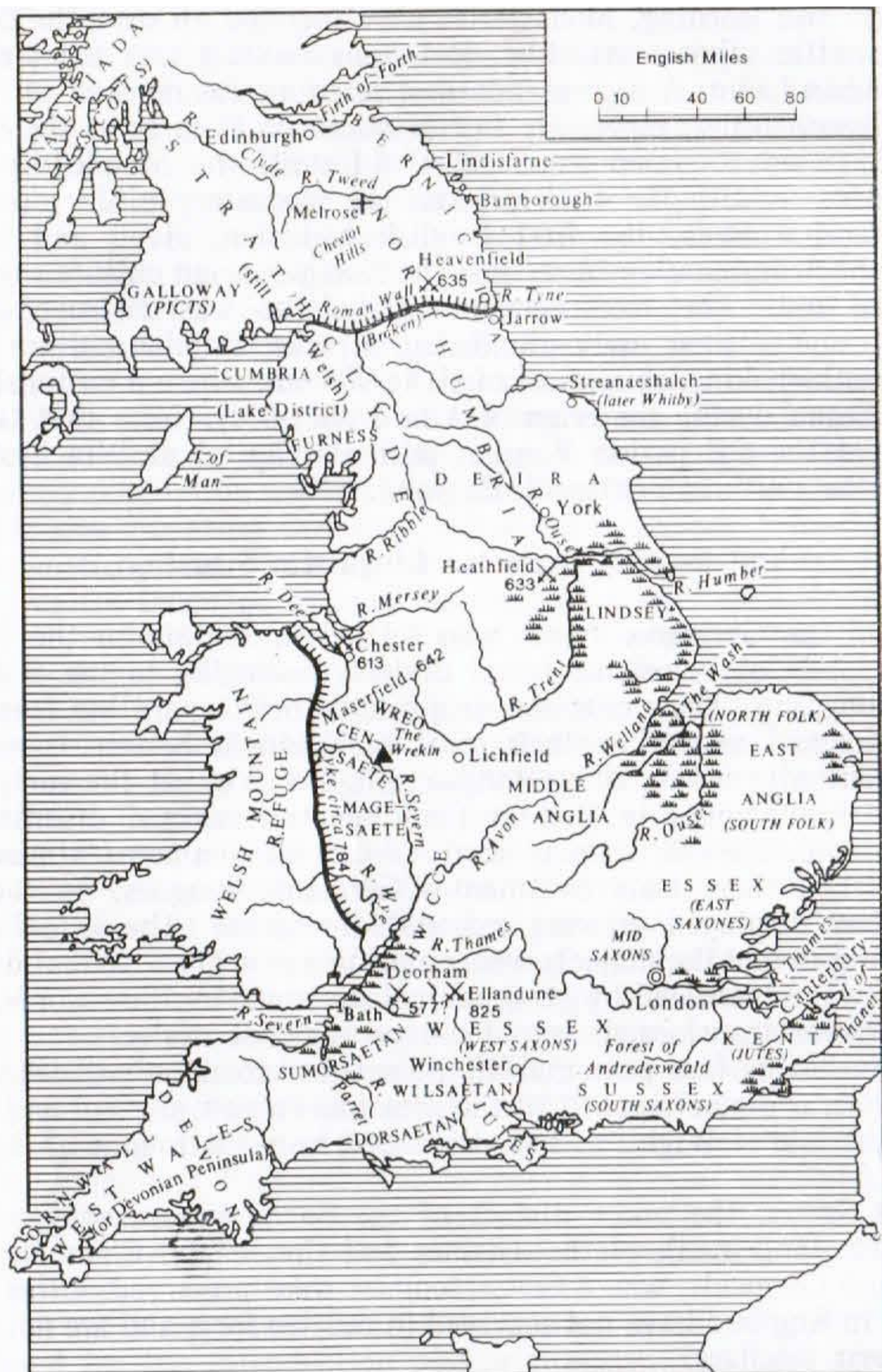
The English language of today is the language that has resulted from the history of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes who came to England in the manner described. It is impossible to say how much the speech of the Angles

differed from that of the Saxons or that of the Jutes. The differences were certainly slight. Even after these dialects had been subjected to several centuries of geographical and political separation in England, the differences were not great. Thus, English belongs to the Low West Germanic branch of the Indo-European family. This means in the first place that it shares certain characteristics common to all the Germanic languages. For example, it shows the shifting of certain consonants, that is Grimm's Law. It possesses a *weak* as well as a *strong* declension of the adjective and a distinctive type of conjugation of the verb – the so called *weak* or regular verbs such as *fill, filled, filled* which form their past tense and p.p by adding *-ed* or some analogous sound to the stem of the present. And it shows the adoption of a strong stress accent on the first or the root syllable of most words, a feature of great importance in all the Germanic languages because it is chiefly responsible for the progressive decay of inflections in these languages. In the second place, it means that English belongs with German and certain other languages because of features it has in common with them and that enable us to distinguish a West Germanic group as contrasted with the Scandinavian languages and Gothic. Moreover, it means that English along with the other languages of northern Germany and the Low Countries, did not take part in the further modification of certain consonants, known as the Second or High German Sound-Shift. In other words, it belongs with the dialects of the lowlands in the West Germanic area.

***Self-control questions:***

1. Explain why the following people and events are important in historical discussions of the English language:  
Celts  
Roman Conquest  
Emperor Claudius  
Julius Caesar  
Venerable Bede  
Anglo-Saxon Conquest  
Æthelbert, king of Kent

2. Who were the first people in Britain about whose language we have definite knowledge?
3. When did the Romans Conquer Britain, and when did they withdraw?
4. How could Latin influence the English language if English had not been in use in Britain till the V century?
5. At approximately what date did the invasion of Britain by the Germanic tribes begin?
6. Where were the homes of the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes?
7. Where does the name *English* come from?
8. What century and in what way did the name *English* begin to be applied for the people who lived in Britain?
9. What characteristics does English share with other Germanic languages?
10. To which branch of Germanic does English belong?
11. What are the dates of Old English, Middle English, and Modern English?
12. Define or explain briefly: *The dividing lines between the periods in the history of English are purely arbitrary.*



## Great Britain in Old English Period

# TASKS

## Consonants

### Old English Consonants

Place of articulation Manner of articulation		Labial, labiodental	Forelingual (dental)	Mediolin- gual (palatal)	Back lingual (velar)
Noise conso- nants	plosive    voiceless voiced	p    p: b    b:	t    t: d    d:	k'    k': g':	k    k: g    g:
	fricative    voiceless voiced	f    f: v	θ θ: s s: ð    z	x'    x': γ'    (j)	x x: (h) γ
Sonorants		m    m: w	n    n: r    l	j	(ŋ)

**Task 1.** Explain the sound correspondences: a) between the words of the certain Germanic languages. b) between the words of the Old Germanic languages and the other IE languages.

## Consonants

- 1) OE. *āð* 'клятва', Goth. *aiþs* — R. (об)ъть
- 2) OE. *beran* 'нести, рождать' — R. *братъ, беру*, L. *ferre*, Sansc. *bharanam* 'несение'
- 3) OE. *bītan* 'кусать', Goth. *beitan* — Sansc. *bhēdāmi*, L. *findō*
- 4) OE. *būan* 'жить, пребывать' — R. *быть*, L. *futūrus* 'будущий'.
- 5) OE. *cēosan* 'выбирать, предпочитать' — L. *gustāre* 'пробовать, отведывать'
- 6) OE. *cin* 'подбородок' — L. *gena* 'щека',
- 7) OE. *dihtan* 'диктовать' — L. *dictāre*.
- 8) OE. *etan* 'есть', G. *essen*, Goth. *itan* — R. *еда*.
- 9) OE. *fām* 'пена', G. *Feim* — R. *пена*, Sansc. *phēna*.

- 10) OE. feoh ‘скот’, Goth. faihu — L. pecus.
- 11) OE. flōd ‘поток, река’, G. Flut — Greek. plōtos ‘плавучий’.
- 12) OE. frēond ‘друг’, Goth. frijōnds — R. Приятель.
- 13) OE. zuma ‘мужчина, муж’ — L. Homo.
- 14) OE. holt ‘дерево, лес, роща’, G. Holz ‘дерево’ — R. колода.
- 15) OE. lēoht ‘свет, огонь’, Goth. liuhap — L. lux, Greek. lūx ‘белый, светлый’.
- 16) OE. nasod ‘нагой’, G. nackt — R. нагой.
- 17) OE. riht ‘правый, прямой’ — L. rectus ‘прямой’.
- 18) OE. slæp ‘сон’, Goth. slēps — R. Слабый
- 19) OE. tam ‘ручной’, Goth. gatanjan ‘укрощать’ — L. domāre ‘укрощать’.
- 20) OE. wezan ‘нести, двигаться’ — L. vehere ‘двигаться’.
- 21) OE. witan ‘наблюдать, знать, понимать’ — R. видеть, ведать, L. vidēre ‘видеть’

**Task 2.** Explain the sound correspondences: a) between the words of the certain Germanic languages. b) between the words of the Old Germanic languages and the other IE languages.

### *Vowels and consonants*

- 1) OE. dǣd ‘действие, поступок, подвиг’, G. Tat — R. дело -дъло.
- 2) OE. ēacan ‘увеличивать’, Goth. aukān — L. augēre.
- 3) OE. ēare ‘ухо’, дек. eura, Goth. ausō — R. ухо, L. auris.
- 4) OE. hēah ‘высокий’, Goth. hauhs — R. куча.
- 5) OE. sǣd ‘сытый, утомленный’ — L. satis ‘довольно’.
- 6) OE. ceald ‘холодный’, G. kalt — L. gelu ‘холод, мороз’.
- 7) OE. secz ‘воин, муж’ — L. Socius ‘последователь’.

- 8) OE. *tēon* (прош. ед. ч. *tcah*), Goth. *Tiuhan* ‘тащить, вести’ — L. *dūcere* ‘вести’.
- 9) OE. *weorðan* ‘становиться’, Goth. *wairþan* — L. *vertere* ‘поворачивать’, R. *вертеть*.
- 10) OE. *trēo* ‘дерево’, Goth. *triu* — R. *дерево - дръво*.

**Task 3.** The given following words relating to one of the common Germanic origin, write out in two columns (OE and Gothic) pointing in each case the phonetic peculiarities, due to which some of the words belong to OE, the other to the Gothic (OE words are given in the form of West Saxon,): *harda* — *heard*; *mete* — *metis*; *fairra* — *feor*; *baug* — *bēaȝ*; *slēan* - *slahan*; *feallan* — *fallan*; *bandi* - *bend*; *maht* — *meaht*; *liugan* — *lēoȝan*; *lēas* — *laus*; *itan* — *etan*; *stōp* — *stōd*.

**Task 4.** The same procedure is required for the next task:  
*siuk* — *sēoc*; *dauf* — *dēaf*; *weorpan* — *wairpan*; *wōpjan* — *wēpan*; *haims* — *hām*;  
*healp* — *halp*; *wisan* — *wesan*; *las* — *læs*; *augo* — *eaze*; *lēof* — *liuf*; *hēah* — *hauh*;  
*lidon* — *liþum*; *kusum* — *curon*; *stilan* — *stelan*; *bar* — *bær*; *eāre* — *auso*.

### 3. OLD ENGLISH PERIOD:

#### SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF OLD ENGLISH

***Key words:***

**Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish; differences of pronunciation, strange appearance, synthetic and analytic languages, inflection.**

***Discussion points:***

- 3.1. The Dialects of OE
- 3.2. Spelling and Pronunciation
- 3.3. The Lexicon
- 3.4. The Grammar

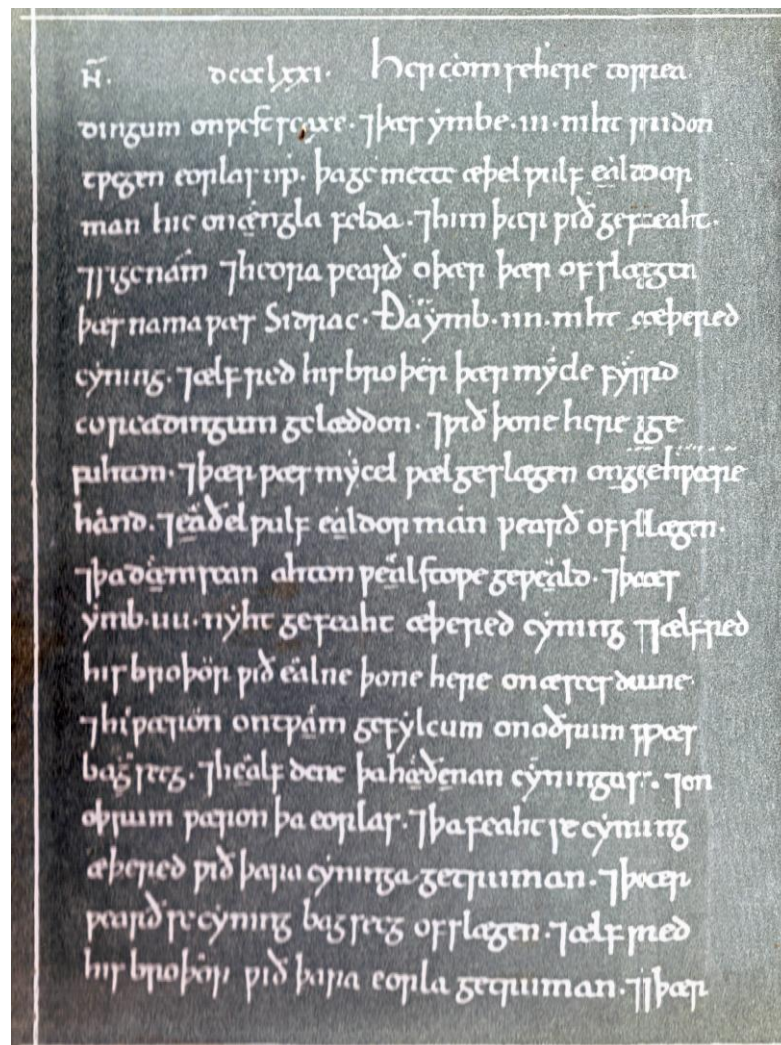
***Literature:***

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2. *Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П.* История английского языка. М.: Высшая школа, 1976.
3. *Алексеева Л.С.* Древнеанглийский язык. М., 1964.
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8. *Baugh A.C., Cable Th.* A History of the English Language. New Jersey, 1993.
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10. *Rastorguyeva T.A.* History of the English Language. A course of lectures, М., v. I-II, 1969-1972.
11. *Rastorguyeva T.A.* A History of the English. М., 1983.

Old English was not an entirely uniform language. Besides the differences between the language of the earliest written records (about A.D. 700) and that of the later literary texts, the language differed somewhat from one locality to another. We can distinguish four dialects in OE times: **Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish.** Of these Northumbrian and Mercian are found in the

region north of the Thames settled by the Angels. They possess certain features in common and are sometimes known collectively as Anglian. But Northumbrian, spoken north of the Humber, and Mercian, between the Humber and the Thames, each possess certain distinctive features as well. Unfortunately we know less about them than we should like since they are preserved mainly in charters, runic inscriptions, a few brief fragments of verse, and some interlinear translations of portions of the Bible. Kentish is known from still scantier remains and is the dialect of the Jutes in the southeast. The only dialect in which there is an extensive collection of texts is West Saxon, which was the dialect of the West Saxon Kingdom in the southwest. Nearly all of OE literature is preserved in manuscripts transcribed in this region. With the ascendancy of the West Saxon kingdom, the West Saxon dialect attained something of the position of a literary standard, and both for this reason and because of the abundance of the materials, it is made the basic of the study of OE. Such a start as it had made toward becoming the standard speech of England was cut short by the Norman Conquest, which, as we shall see, reduced all dialects to a common level of unimportance. And when in the late ME period a standard English once more began to arise, it was on the basis of a different dialect, that of the East Midlands.

The English language has undergone such change in the course of time that one cannot read OE without special study. In fact, a page of OE is likely at first to present a look of greater strangeness, than a page of French or Italian because of the employment of certain characters that no longer form a part of our alphabet. In general, the differences that one notices between Old and Modern English concern *spelling* and *pronunciation*, *the lexicon*, and *the grammar*.



A page from Old English text

The **pronunciation** of OE words commonly differs somewhat from that of their modern equivalents. The long vowels in particular have undergone considerable modification. Thus the OE word *stān* is the same word as Mn.E. *stone*, but the vowel is different. A similar correspondence is apparent in *hālig* – *holy*, *gān* – *go*, *bān* – *bone*, *rāp* – *rope*. Other vowels have likewise undergone changes in *fōt* – *foot*, *cēne* – *keen*, *metan* – *mete*, *fȳr* – *fire*, *riht* – *right*, *hū* – *how*, but identity of these words with their modern descendants is still readily apparent. Words like *hēafod* – *head*, *fæger* – *fair*, or *sāwol* – *soul* show forms that have been contracted in later English. All these cases represent genuine differences of pronunciation. However, some of the first look of strangeness that OE has to the modern reader is due simply to differences of **spelling**. OE made use of two characters to represent the sound of *th* : *þ* and *ð*, respectively as in the word *wip*

(with) or *ðǣ* (then), which we no longer employ. It also expressed the sound of *a* [æ] by a digraph *æ*. Likewise OE represented the sound of *sh* by *sc*, as in *scēap* – *sheep* or *scēotan* – *shoot* and the sound of *k* by *c* as in *cynn* – *kin* or *nacod* – *naked*; *c* was also used for the affricate now spelled *ch*, as in *spræc* – *speech*. Consequently, a number of words that were in all probability pronounced by King Alfred almost as they are by us present a strange appearance in the written or printed text. Such words as *ecg* – *edge*, *scip* – *ship*, *bæc* – *back*, *benc* – *bench*, *þorn* – *thorn*, *þæt* – *that* are examples.

A second feature of OE that would quickly become apparent to a modern reader is the rarity of those words derived from Latin and the absence of those from French, which form so large a part of our present **vocabulary**. Such words make up more than half of the words now in common use. The vocabulary of OE is almost purely Germanic. A large part of this vocabulary, moreover, has disappeared from the language. When the Norman Conquest brought French into England as the language of the higher classes, much of the OE vocabulary appropriate to literature and learning died out and was replaced later by words borrowed from French and Latin. An examination of the words in an OE dictionary shows that about **85** percent of them are no longer in use. Those that survive, to be sure, are basic elements of our vocabulary and by the frequency with which they recur make up a large part of any English sentence. Apart from pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, and the like, they express fundamental concepts like *mann* – *man*, *wīf* – *wife*, *woman*, *cild* – *child*, *hūs* – *house*, *weall* – *wall*, *mete* – *meat*, *food*, *gōd* – *good*, *hēah* – *high*, *strang* – *strong*, *eaton* – *eat*, *drincan* – *drink*, *slæpan* – *sleep*, *libban* – *live*. But the fact remains that a considerable part of the vocabulary of O.E. is unfamiliar to the modern reader.

The third and most fundamental feature that distinguishes OE from the language of today is its **grammar**. Inflectional languages fall into two classes: *synthetic* and *analytic*. A synthetic language is the one that indicates the relation of words in a sentence largely by means of inflections. In the case of the Indo-European languages, these most commonly take the form of endings on the noun

and pronoun, the adjective and the verb. A Latin single verb form like *laudaverunt* (they have praised) conveys the idea of person number and tense along with the meaning of the root, a conception that we require three words for in English. The Russian or Uzbek sentences “Учитель вошёл класс – Укитувчи синфга кирди” would mean the same thing if the words were arranged in any other order, because every word has its grammatical inflection or forms which denote its function in the sentence. In ModE, however, the subject and the object do not have distinctive forms, nor do we have except in the possessive case and in pronouns, inflectional endings to indicate other relations marked by case endings in Russian or in Uzbek. Instead, English makes use of a fixed word order. It makes a great deal of difference in English whether we say *The instructor entered the room* or *The room entered the instructor*. Languages that make extensive use of prepositions and auxiliary verbs and depend upon word order to show other relationships are known as analytic languages. ModE is an analytic, OE a synthetic language. In its grammar, OE resembles modern German. Theoretically, the noun and adjective are inflected for four cases in singular and four in the plural, although the forms are not always distinctive and in addition, the adjective has separate forms for each of the three genders. The inflection of the verb is less elaborate than that of the Latin verb, but there are distinctive endings for the different persons, numbers, tenses and moods. We shall see the nature of the OE inflection in the next lecture.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. What are the OE dialects?
2. Explain the geographical position of each dialect.
3. Which of the dialects was of the Angles?
4. What about the Saxons and Jutes?
5. Why is it considered that the West Saxon dialect attained something of the position of a literary standard in OE?
6. Due to what differences one cannot read a text in OE?
7. What characters of OE do not form Modern English alphabet?
8. About what percentage of the OE vocabulary is no longer in use?
9. Is OE grammar synthetic or analytic according to its inflections?
10. What kinds of inflections do the OE noun and adjective have?

11. What distinctive inflections does the OE verb have?

## TASKS

**Task 1.** Define the sounds by which following letters are pronounced: *f, n, s, þ, y, c* in the following OE words.

Is ‘я’

зeþiode ‘язык’

Anȝelcynn ‘Англия’

cūþon ‘знали’

enȝlisc ‘английский’

bysȝu ‘занятие, дело’

cynepisce ‘королевство’

sizlan ‘плыть’

zesizlan ‘проплыт’

reah ‘хотя’

bōc ‘книга’

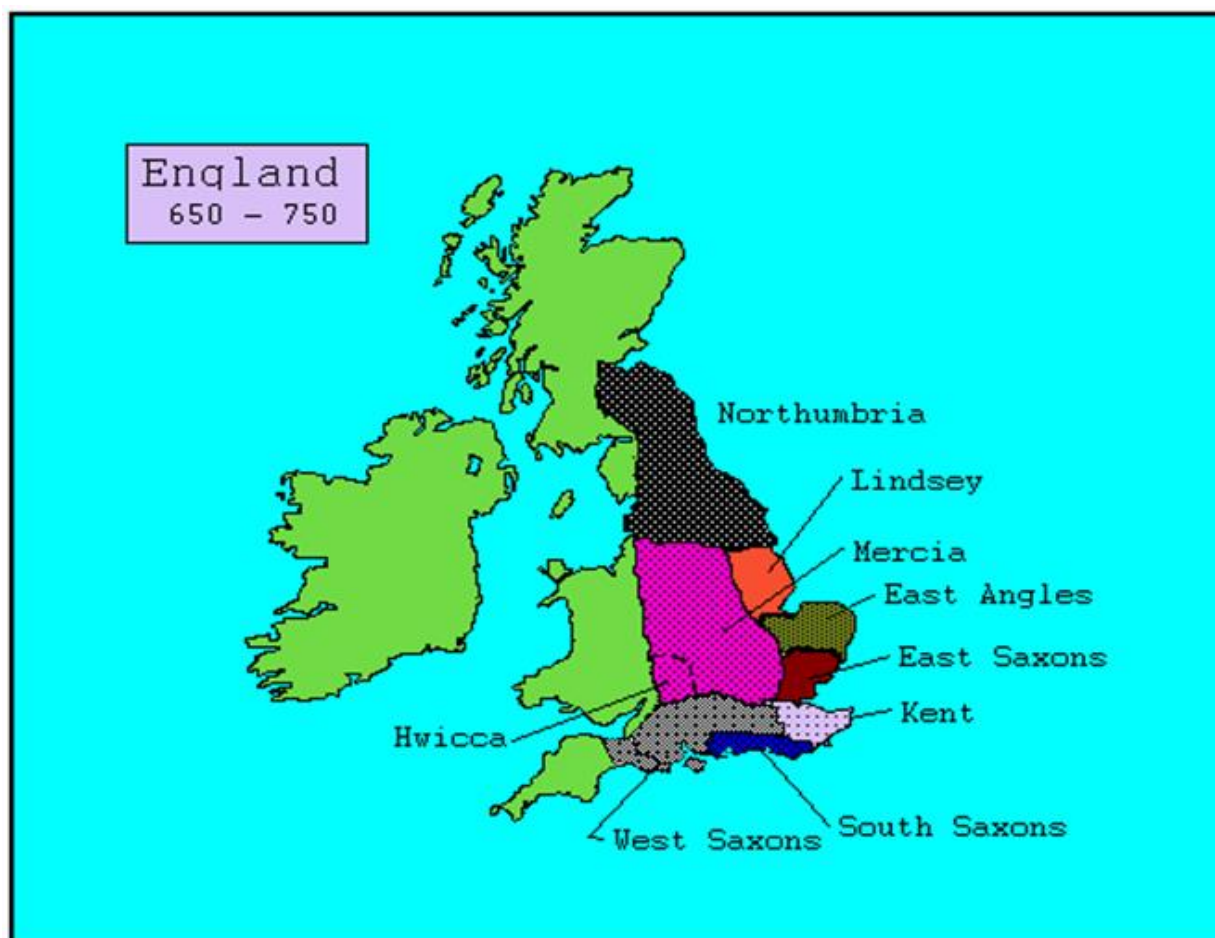
hæfde ‘имел’

faran ‘ехать’

ofer ‘через’

zefoht ‘сражене’

uard ‘сторож’



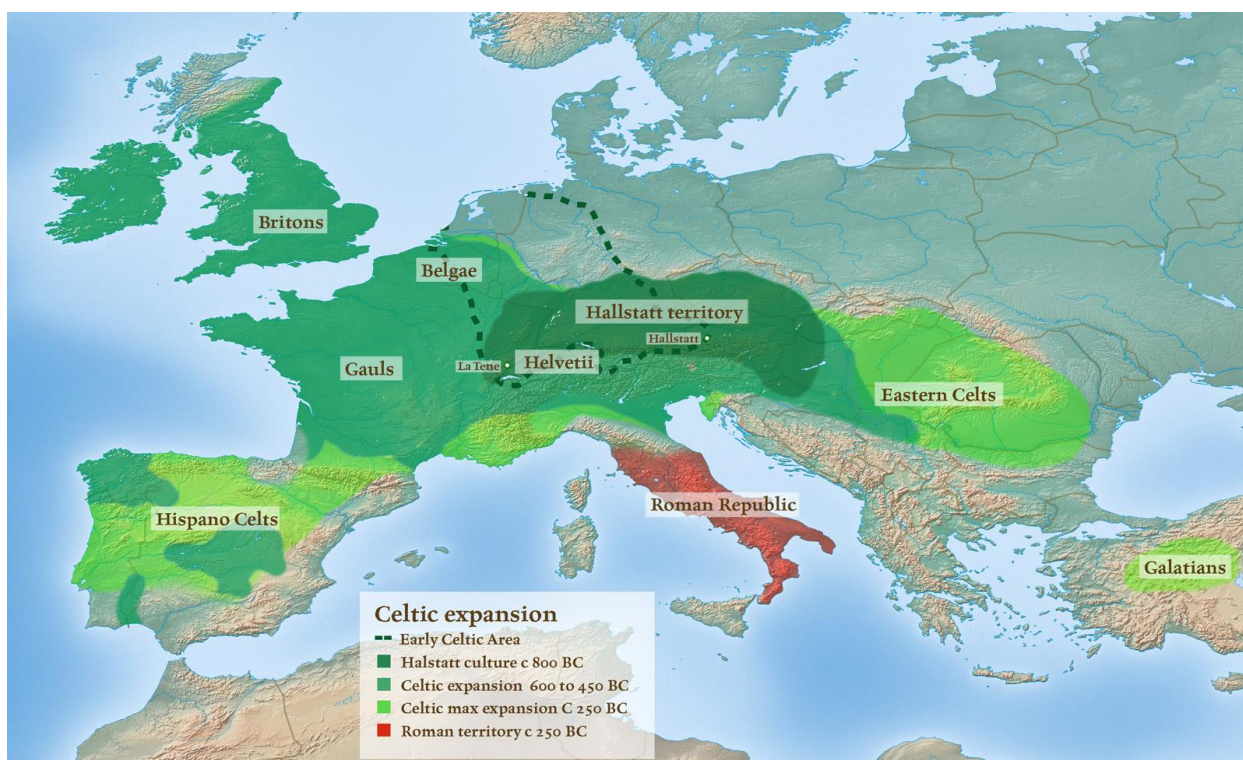
**Task 2.** Considering the peculiarities of the OF graphics and orthography define the spelling of following ME in OE. (In the spelling of ME words the characteristic changes of ME in the orthography are reflected. OE words are to be given according to the West Saxon dialect).

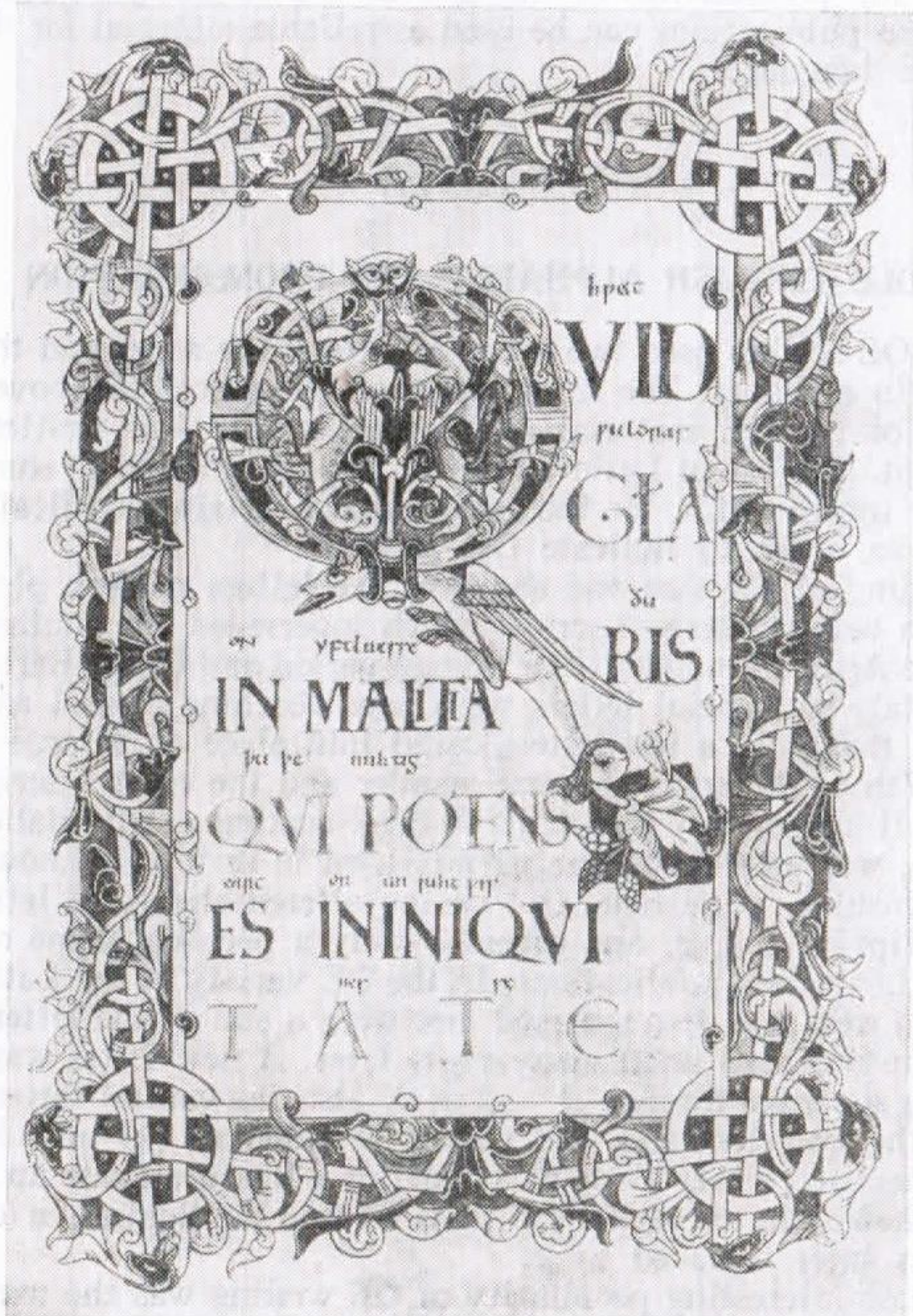
a) above, kepen (Mod. E. to keep), evil, yvel (Mod E. evil), book (Mod. E. book), given (Mod.E. to give), love (Mod.E. love), doun (Mod.E. down), kow (Mod.E. cow), son (Mod.E. son), sone (Mod.E. soon).

b) eie, æie, eze, (Mod. E. eye), always (Mod.E. always), barn (совр. шотл. bairn), besy, bisi (Mod.E. busy), child (Mod.E. child), day (Mod.E. day), first (Mod. E. first), derling (Mod. E. darling), drawen (Mod.E. to draw), stōn (Mod.E. stone), bēm (Mod.E. beam), seilen (Mod.E. to sail), frenche (Mod.E. French), yer (Mod.E. year), lihht (Mod.E. light), on (Mod.E. one).

**Task 3.** How do you explain the differences between the vowels in the roots of the following OE words: dōm ‘суд’—dēman ‘судить’; lanȝ ‘длинный’ — lenȝra (сравни́т, степень); eald ‘старый’—yldra (сравни́т, степень).

The same words to be explained in Gothic: dōms ‘суд, суждение’ — dōmjan ‘судить’; lang ‘длинный’— langiza (сравни́т, степень); alpeis ‘старый’—alpiza (сравни́т.степень).





A page from the Gospels in Latin with  
interlinear Old English glosses

**Task 4.** Explain the difference of the vowel stem in various forms of the same word:

beran ‘нести’ — bireþ ‘он несет’; helpan ‘помогать’ — hilpþ ‘он помогает’;  
etan ‘есть’ — it ‘он ест’; seolh ‘тюлень’ (ед. ч.) — sēolas (мн. ч.); þyncan  
‘казаться’ — þūhte (прош. вр.).

**Task 5.** Explain the modern pronunciation and the writing of the initial sound in the words England, English (OE.- Englilond, Englisc), if it is known that the general Germanic root of this word contained the sound of *a*? (Compare Russian English, borrowed from Latin.) Compare with pronunciation and writing in modern English the words France, French (OE. Francia, Frencisc).

#### A BOOKMOTH

Moððe word fræt; mē þæt pūhte\*  
wrætlicu wyrd, þa ic þæt wundor zefræzn,  
þæt sē wurm forswearl̥z wera zied\* sumes,  
þēof in þȳstro, þrymfæstne cwide  
ond þæs stranzan stapol. Stælziest\* ne wæs  
winte þȳ zlēawra þe hē þām wordum sweal̥z.\*

#### Translation

A moth ate words; that seemed to me  
a curious event, when I that wonder learnt,  
that the worm swallowed up the word (tale) of someone of men, —  
a thief in darkness, — glorious speech (words)  
and its strong foundation. The thievish guest was not  
at all cleverer (when) he those words swallowed.

*From Old English poetry*

## 4. MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF OLD ENGLISH

### *Key words:*

**Grammatical categories of number, case, gender, tense, mood; twofold declension: vowel and consonant declensions; dual number, complete system of inflections, classes of verbs, conjugation of verbs.**

### *Discussion points:*

- 4.1. The Noun
- 4.2. Grammatical Gender
- 4.3. The Adjective
- 4.4. The Definite Article
- 4.5. The Personal Pronoun
- 4.6. The Verb

### *Literature:*

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10. *Rastorguyeva T.A.* A History of the English. М., 1983.

The inflection of the OE noun indicates distinctions of **number** (sing. or pl.) and **case**. The case system is somewhat simpler than that of Russian and some of the other Indo-European languages. There is no ablative (творительный, ўрин-

пайт), and generally no locative or instrumental case, these having been merged with the dative (дательный, жўналиш). In the some way, the vocative of direct address is generally identical with the nominative form. Thus, OE noun has only four cases – nominative, genitive, dative, accusative. Ex :

Singular		Plural	
N.	<i>stān</i> (stone)	N.	<i>stān-as</i> (stones)
G.	<i>stān-es</i> (of stone)	G.	<i>stān-a</i> (of stones)
D.	<i>stān-e</i> (to, on, from stone)	D.	<i>stān-um</i> (to, on, from stones)
A.	<i>stān</i> (stone, object)	A.	<i>stān-as</i> (stones, object)

The endings of these cases vary with different nouns, but they fall into certain broad categories or declensions. There is a vowel declension and a consonant declension, also called **the strong and weak declensions**, according to whether the item ended in Germanic in a vowel or a consonant and within each of these types, there are certain subdivisions. The stems of nouns belonging to the vowel declension ended in one of four vowels in Germanic (although these have disappeared in OE): **a**, **ō**, **i** or **u** and the inflection varies accordingly. Their nature may be gathered from two examples of the strong declension and one of the weak: *stān* (stone) – a masculine, **a - stem** (given above)

*giefu* (gift) – a feminine, **ō - stem**

*hunta* (hunter ) – a masculine, **consonant - stem**

Forms are given for the four cases:

Strong declension (fem.)		Weak declension (masc.)	
Singular			
N.	<i>gief-u</i>		<i>hunt-a</i>
G.	<i>gief-e</i>		<i>hunt-an</i>
D.	<i>gief-e</i>		<i>hunt-an</i>
A.	<i>gief-e</i>		<i>hunt-an</i>

### Plural

N.	<i>gief-a</i>	<i>hunt-an</i>
G.	<i>gief-a</i>	<i>hunt-ena</i>
D.	<i>gief-um</i>	<i>hunt-um</i>
A.	<i>gief-a</i>	<i>hunt-an</i>

It is apparent from the examples that the inflection of the noun was much more elaborate in OE than it is today. Even these few paradigms illustrate clearly the marked synthetic character of English in its earliest stage

The **gender** of OE nouns is not dependent upon consideration of sex although nouns designating males are often masculine and those indicating females feminine, those indicating neuter objects are not necessarily neuter. *Stān* is masculine, *mōna* (moon) is masculine, but *sunne* (sun) is feminine, as in German. Often the gender of OE nouns is quite illogical. Words like *mægdan* (girl), *wīf* (wife), *bearn* (child, son) and *cild* (child) which we should expect to be feminine or masculine are in fact neuter. The simplicity of ModE gender is one of the chief assets of the language. How so desirable a change was brought about is the question of the lectures on the ME period.

An important feature of the Germanic languages is the development of a twofold declension of the **adjective**: one, the strong declension, used with nouns when not accompanied by a definite article or similar word (such as demonstrative or possessive pronoun), the other, the weak declension, used when the noun is preceded by such a word. Thus we have in OE *gōd mann* (good man) but *sē gōda mann* (the good man) with the suffix *-a*. The forms are those of nominative singular masculine in the strong and weak declensions respectively, as illustrated below :

Strong declension			Weak declension		
Singular					
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. <i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd-es</i>	<i>gōd-a</i>	<i>gōd-e</i>	<i>gōd-e</i>
G. <i>gōd –es</i>	<i>gōd -re</i>	<i>gōd-es</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>
D. <i>gōd-um</i>	<i>gōd-re</i>	<i>gōd-um</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>
A. <i>gōd-ne</i>	<i>gōd-e</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>	<i>gōd-e</i>
I. <i>gōd-e</i>		<i>gōd-e</i>			
Plural					
N. <i>gōd-e</i>	<i>gōd-a</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>		
G. <i>gōd-ra</i>	<i>gōd-ra</i>	<i>gōd-ra</i>	<i>gōd-ena</i> or <i>gōd-ra</i>		
D. <i>gōd-um</i>	<i>gōd-um</i>	<i>gōd-um</i>	<i>gōd-um</i>		
A. <i>gōd-e</i>	<i>gōd-a</i>	<i>gōd</i>	<i>gōd-an</i>		

This elaboration of inflection in the OE adjective contracts in the most striking way with the complete absence of inflection from the adjective in ModE. Such complexity is quite unnecessary, as the English language demonstrates every day by getting along without it. Its elimination has resulted in a second great advantage that English possesses over some other languages.

We have spoken of the inflections of OE in some detail primarily with the object of making more concrete what is meant when we call the language in this stage synthetic. Like German, its sister language of today, OE possessed a fully inflected **definite article**. How complete the declension of this word was can be seen from the following forms:

	Singular			Plural
	<u>Masc.</u>	<u>Fem.</u>	<u>Neut.</u>	<u>All Genders</u>
N.	<i>sē</i>	<i>sēo</i>	<i>þæt</i>	<i>þā</i>
G.	<i>þæs</i>	<i>þære</i>	<i>þæs</i>	<i>þāra</i>
D.	<i>þæm</i>	<i>þære</i>	<i>þæm</i>	<i>þæm</i>
A.	<i>þone</i>	<i>þā</i>	<i>þæt</i>	<i>þā</i>
I.	<i>þȳ, þon</i>		<i>þȳ, þon</i>	

While the ordinary meaning of *sē, sēo þæt* is “the”, the word is really a demonstrative pronoun and survives in the Modern English demonstrative “that”. Its pronominal character appears also in its not infrequent use as a relative pronoun (=who, which, that) and as a personal pronoun (=he, she, it). The regular personal pronoun however, is shown in the next item.

From the frequency of its use and the necessity for specific reference when used, the **personal pronoun** in all languages is likely to preserve a fairly complete system of inflections. OE shows this tendency not only in having distinctive forms for practically all genders, persons, and cases but also in preserving in addition to the ordinary two numbers, singular and plural, a set of forms for two people or two things – the dual number. Indo-European had separate forms for the dual number in the verb as well, and these appear in Greek and to a certain extent in Gothic. They are not found however in OE, and the plural was disappearing even from the pronoun in OE. The dual forms are shown, however in the following table of the OE personal pronoun.

#### Singular

N.	<i>ic</i>	<i>þū</i>	<i>hē, hēo, hit</i>
G.	<i>mīn</i>	<i>þīn</i>	<i>his, hiere, his</i>
D.	<i>mē</i>	<i>þē</i>	<i>him, hiere, him</i>
A.	<i>mē(mec)</i>	<i>þē (þēc)</i>	<i>hine, hīe, hit</i>

#### Dual

N.	<i>wit</i>	<i>gīt</i>
G.	<i>uncer</i>	<i>incer</i>
D.	<i>unc</i>	<i>inc</i>
A.	<i>unc</i>	<i>inc</i>

Plural			
N.	<i>we</i>	<i>gē</i>	<i>hīe</i>
G.	<i>ūs (ūre)</i>	<i>ēower</i>	<i>hīera</i>
D.	<i>ūs</i>	<i>ēow</i>	<i>him</i>
A.	<i>ūs (ūsic)</i>	<i>ēow (ēowic)</i>	<i>hīe</i>

Unlike the **verb** system of Modern English OE distinguished only two simple tenses by inflection, a present and a past. It had no inflectional forms for the passive as in Latin or Greek. It recognized the indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods and had the usual two numbers and three persons.

A peculiar feature of the Germanic languages was the division of the verb into two great classes, the weak and the strong. The strong verbs, like *rīsan – rās – rison – risen* (to rise) which represent the basic Indo–European type, are so called because they have the power of indicating change of tense by a modification of their root vowel. In the weak verbs, such as *cēpan – cēpte – cēped* (to keep) this change is effected by the addition of a “dental”, sometimes of an extra syllable.

The apparent irregularity of the strong verbs is due to the fact that verbs of this type are much less numerous than weak verbs. In OE if we exclude compounds, there were only a few over 300 of them and even this small number falls into several classes. Within these classes, however, a perfectly regular sequence can be observed in the vowel changes of the root. Nowadays these verbs, generally speaking, have different vowels in the present tense, the past tense and the past participle. In some verbs the vowels of the past tense and p.p. are identical as in *break, broke, broken*, and in some all three forms have become alike in modern times (*bid, bid, bid*). In OE the vowel of the past tense often differs in the singular and the plural; or, to be more accurate, the first and third person singular have one vowel while the second person singular and all persons of the plural have another. In the principal parts of OE strong verbs, therefore, we have four forms: the infinitive, the preterite singular (I and III person), the preterite plural, and the

p.p. In OE strong verbs can be grouped in seven general classes. While there are variations within each class, they may be illustrated by the following seven verbs:

Class	Infinitive	Preterite sing.	Preterite pl.	Past.P
I	<i>drīfan</i> (drive)	<i>drāf</i>	<i>drifon</i>	<i>(ge)drifen</i>
II	<i>cēosan</i> (choose)	<i>cēas</i>	<i>curon</i>	<i>coren</i>
III	<i>helpan</i> (help)	<i>healp</i>	<i>hulpon</i>	<i>holpen</i>
IV	<i>beran</i> (bear)	<i>bær</i>	<i>bæron</i>	<i>boren</i>
V	<i>sprecan</i> (speak)	<i>spræc</i>	<i>spræcon</i>	<i>sprecen</i>
VI	<i>faran</i> (fare, go)	<i>fōr</i>	<i>fōron</i>	<i>faren</i>
VII	<i>feallan</i> (fall)	<i>fēoll</i>	<i>fēollon</i>	<i>feallen</i>

The origin of the dental suffixes by which weak verbs form their past tense and p.p. is strongly debated. It was formerly customary to explain these as part of the verb **do**, as though **I worked** was originally **I work – did** (i.e. **I did work**). More recently, an attempt has been made to trace these forms to a type of verb that formed its stem by adding **-to-** to the root. The origin of so important feature of the Germanic languages as the weak conjugation is naturally a question to which we should like very much to find the answer. Fortunately, it is not of prime importance to our present purpose of describing the structure of OE. Here it is sufficient to note that a large and important group of verbs in OE form their past tense by adding **-ede**, **-ode**, **-de** to the present stem and their p.p.s by adding **-ed**, **-od**, **-d**. Thus *fremman* (to perform) has a preterite *fremede* and a p.p. *gefremed* ;

*lufian* (to love) - *lufode* - *gelufod*

*libban* (to live) - *lifde* - *gelifd*

The personal endings except in the preterite singular are similar to those of the strong verbs and need not to be repeated. It is to be noted, however, that the weak conjugation has come to be dominant one in English. Many strong verbs have passed to this conjugation, and practically all new verbs added to our language are inflected in accordance with it.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. How do the nouns of OE illustrate the marked synthetic character of English in its earliest stage?
2. According to what features are the certain stems of vowel declension in nouns united into the division? Why are the different types of declensions in OE referred to as stems?
3. How was the gender of OE nouns defined?
4. Explain the difference between strong and weak declensions of adjectives.
5. What is there in common and what is there different in the division of nouns and adjectives into types of declension?
6. How does the Old English definite article differ from the definite article of Modern English?
7. What is the only part of speech, which have retained more archaic traits in ModE than other parts of speech? Why?
8. Did nouns, adjectives, and pronouns have the same number of cases in Old English?
9. Explain the difference between weak and strong verbs.
10. How many classes of strong verbs were there in OE?
11. Did the OE verb have as many grammatical categories as the ModE verb?

## **TASKS**

**Task 1.** Explain the absence of the umlaut action in words such as *haliz* 'holy', *māniȝ*, *lufiȝan*? (Compare *ān*-*aeniȝ*.)

**Task 2.** How can be explained the confusion of spelling through *y* and *i* in words such as OE *fyrst*, *fyllan*, etc., observed in Elfric, but absent from Alfred? Why does Elfric write through *y* and such words that Alfred used to write through *i*, for example, *hys* and *his*, *ys* and *is*?

**Task 3.** What general Germanic phonetic law explains the preservation in the Old English strong verb *sēon* 'see' (- \* *sehan*) of the consonant root in the form of the past tense of the plural: *sāwon* (*sǣȝon*) and its loss in the form of the infinitive *sēon* (from *seohan*- \* *sehan*)?

**Task 4.** Explain the difference in the pronunciation in modern English of those sounds that were denoted by the letter *ȝ* in the Old English language, in the following words

Old English	modern English
ȝaderian ‘собираться’	to gather
ȝealla ‘желчь’, ‘злоба’ (нем. Galle, дек. galli)	gall [gɔ:l]
ȝear ‘год’ (нем. Jahr, гот. jēr)	year
ȝearwe ‘снаряжение, доспехи’	gear ‘механизм приспособление’
ȝeong, ȝunȝ ‘молодой’ (нем. jung, гот. jugs)	young
ȝufan ‘давать’ (нем. geben, гот. giba, ск. gefa)	give
ȝuld ‘возмещение, подать’	yield
ȝyldan, но ȝylden ‘золотой’ (нем. golden)	gild [‘gild], golden
ȝylt ‘вина’	guilt
ȝurnan (ȝiernan, ȝeo-) ‘стремиться, желат’ (гот. gairnjan)	yearn ‘стремиться, желать’

**Task 5.** Explain as the sound *[k]* is retained in the words kin ‘родня’, keen ‘острый’, king ‘король’ (др.-англ. cynn, cuni, cēne, cyning -\*-cuning), to keep ‘держат’, if in other words before the vowel of the front row, the sound *[k]* goes into the affricate *[tʃ]*? (comp. child, chill, etc.)

### Declension of Adjective

Singular						
Strong (pure <i>a</i> - and <i>ō</i> -stems) <sup>1</sup>				Weak		
	M	N	F	M	N	F
<i>Nom.</i>	blind	blind	blind	blinda	blinde	blinde
<i>Gen.</i>	blindes	blindes	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>Acc.</i>	blindne	blind	blinde	blindan	blinde	blindan
<i>Instr.</i>	blinde	blinde	blindre	blindan	blindan	blindan
Plural						
<i>Nom.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e	All genders blindan blindra, -ena blindum blindan blindum		
<i>Gen.</i>	blindra	blindra	blindra			
<i>Dat.</i>	blindum	blindum	blindum			
<i>Acc.</i>	blinde	blind	blinda, -e			
<i>Instr.</i>	blindum (NE <i>blind</i> )	blindum	blindum			
<sup>1</sup> <i>Blind</i> is a long-stemmed adjective; short-stemmed adjectives had the same forms except <i>Nom. sg Fem.</i> , which took <i>-u</i> or <i>-o</i> , e. g. <i>blacu</i> , <i>ʒladu</i> .						

**Task 6.** How is the form of participle II, which is still found in dialects and in poetry, from the verb to freeze-froren?

**Task 7.** Explain the difference in sound changes in the root of the same words of Old English, Gothic and Old High German: Got. Brinnan ‘гореть’, OE. beornan; OG. hros ‘конь’, OE. hors; OG. Forohta ‘испуг’, OE. fryhtu

**Task 8.** How is the lack of refraction in those verbs like berstan ‘разрывать’, berscan ‘молотить’?

**Task 9.** Explain the differences in the root of etymologically related words: lose-lost; forlorn-lorn.

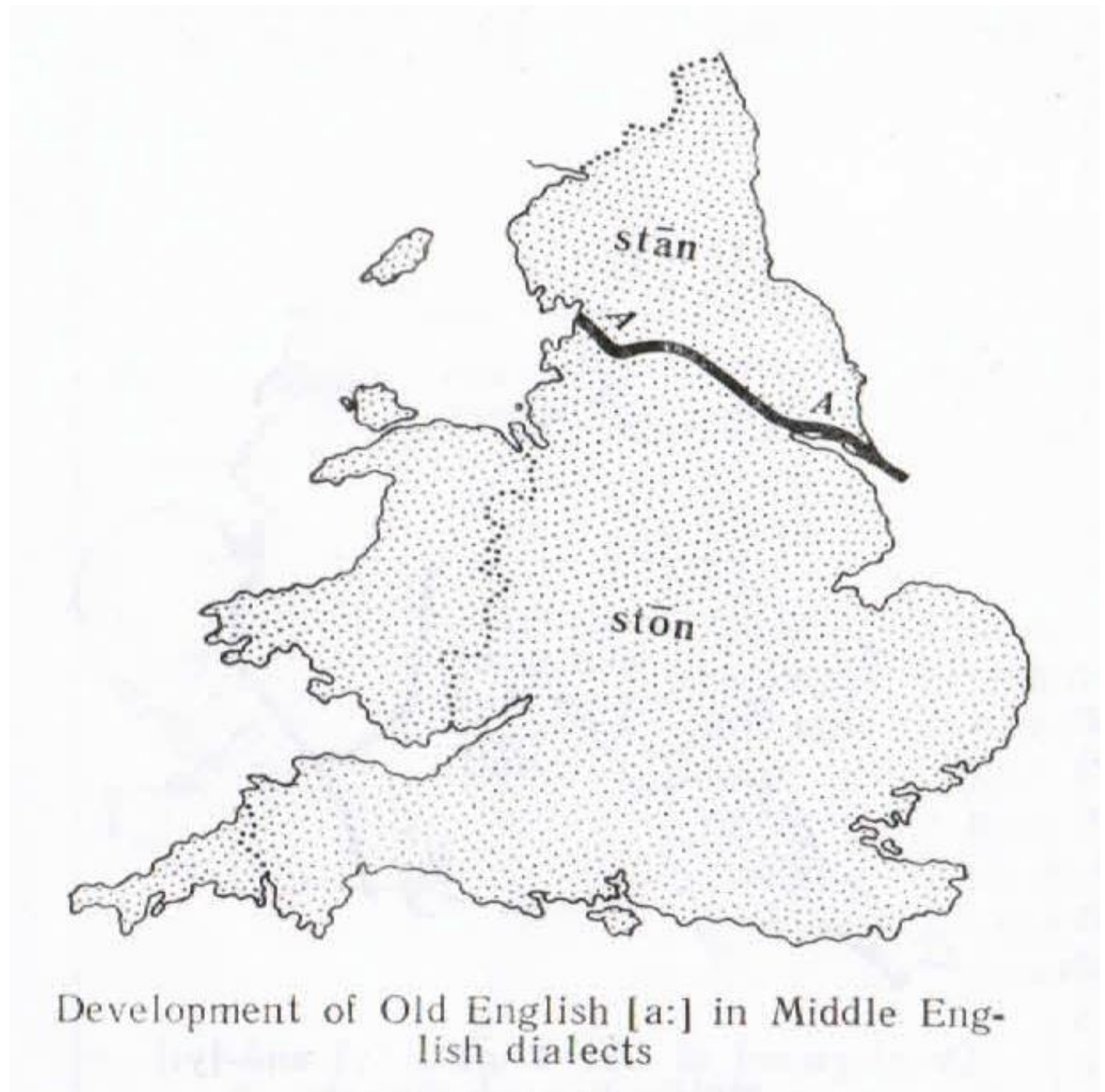
**Task 10.** How different spelling and pronunciation of vowels can be explained in the following words of the Old English language: eald-ald; wearm-warm; heofon-hefun; steorre-sterre.

**Task 11.** Indicate the stages in the development of the sounds of the following words of modern English: key [ki:], clay, grey(OE. ues. cǣʒ, clǣʒ, ʒrǣʒ; ang. ʒrēʒ).

**Task 12.** How is the presence in the modern language of the forms of fall, cold, calf, old, all, told in the Old English (Wessex dialect) feallan, ceald, cealf, eald, eall, tealde?

**Task 13.** Explain the pronunciation of the word eye [ai] in modern English, if it is known that the ancient English form of this word is the basis (the Old English diphthong 6a is usually reflected in modern English as a sound [i:] rather than [ai]).

**Task 14.** What explains the existence of two variants of the borrowed Latin word castra, which is included in a number of geographical names as Chester, and in some others as caster? Track the map of England geographic distribution of these names.



## Conjugation of Verbs in Old English

	<b>Strong</b>		<b>Weak</b>	
<b>Infinitive</b>	findan ( <i>find</i> )	beran ( <i>bear</i> )	dēman ( <i>deem</i> )	lōcian ( <i>look</i> )
<b>Present tense</b>				
<b>Indicative</b>				
<b>Singular</b> <b>1<sup>st</sup></b>	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
<b>2<sup>nd</sup></b>	fintst	bir(e)st	dēmst	lōcast
<b>3<sup>rd</sup></b>	fint	bir(e)þ	dēmþ	lōcaþ
<b>Plural</b>	findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<b>Subjunctive</b>				
<b>Singular</b>	finde	bere	dēme	lōcie
<b>Plural</b>	finden	beren	dēmen	lōcien
<b>Imperative</b>				
<b>Singular</b>	find	ber	dēm	lōca
<b>Plural</b>	findaþ	beraþ	dēmaþ	lōciaþ
<b>Participle I</b>	findende	berende	dēmende	lōciende
<b>Past tense</b>				
<b>Indicative</b>				
<b>Singular</b> <b>1<sup>st</sup></b>	fond	bær	dēmde	lōcode
<b>2<sup>nd</sup></b>	funde	bære	dēmdest	lōcodeſt
<b>3<sup>rd</sup></b>	fond	bære	dēmde	lōcode
<b>Plural</b>	fundon	bæron	dēmdon	lōcodon
<b>Subjunctive</b>				
<b>Singular</b>	funde	bære	dēmde	lōcode
<b>Plural</b>	funden	bæren	dēmden	lōcoden
<b>Participle II</b>	(3e)fundon	(3e)boren	(3e) dēmded	(3e) lōcod

## Activities

**Activity 1.** Examine the italicized Old English nouns for case, number and function. Refer to the paradigm above for help in determining case and number, and lists the grammatical functions of the various cases.

1. *Onð þā ʒefeahrt sē cyninʒ Æperēd wiþ þāra cyninʒʒa ʒetruman.*

*Sē cyninʒ:*

Case\_\_\_N\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Sg\_\_\_Function\_\_\_subject\_\_\_

*þara cyninʒʒa:*

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

2. Norphymbre ond Ēastenʒle hæfdon Ælfrēde cyninʒe āpas ʒeseald.

Northumbrians and East-Angles had Alfred king oaths given.

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

3. Hē mid ʒāre stanʒ wlancne wīcīng þe him þā wunde forʒeaf.

He with spear stabbled bold viking who him the wound gave.

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

4. Hē mid ʒāre stanʒ wlancne wīcīnʒ þe him þā wunde forʒeaf.

Warriors fell (by) wound exhausted.

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

5. Ic bōhte ān ʒetýme oxena.

I bought a team (of) oxen

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

6. Ðā ʒenam Abimelech oxan and scēþ.

Then took Abimelech oxen and sheep.

Oxan:

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

Scep (=sceap):

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

7. And þa scēaþ ʒehýrað his stefne.

And the sheep hear his voice.

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

8. ʒē ne synt of mīnum scēapum.

Ye not are among you who my sheep.

Case\_\_\_Number\_\_\_Function\_\_\_

9. Hwylc man is of ēow þe hæfd hund scēpa?

Which one is among you who has a hundred sheep?

- Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_
10. And on scyþ stīȝende hī fōron onsundran on wēste stōwe.  
And on ship moving they went privately to barren place.

- Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_
11. þa men of Lundenbyriȝ ȝefetodon þā sciþu.  
Those men of London fetched the ships.

- Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_
12. Ond þær forweaþ cxx sciþa æt Swānawīc.  
And there perished 120 ships at Swanage.

- Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_
13. Céalde ȝeþrungeon wæron mīne fēt.  
By cold pinched were my sheet.

- Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_
14. Stincende āttor sinȝallīce of  
dām tōswollenum fōtum flēow.  
Stinking posioncontinuosly from the swollen feet flowed.  
Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_

15. Odðe ȝyf hē bit æȝ, seȝst þu ræcð hē him scorpionem?  
Or if he requests egg, say'st thou he gives him scorpion?  
Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_

16. Selle mon uuēȝe cæsa, ond fisses, ond butran, ond æġera.  
Give one a weight of cheeses, and fish, and butter, and eggs  
Case\_\_\_\_\_Number\_\_\_\_\_Function\_\_\_\_\_

**Activity 2.** Old English adjectives took the weak inflectional endings if a definite article or possessive pronoun preceded and the strong inflectional endings if no such word was present. The adjectives in the following sentences are marked for case, number and gender. (The abbreviation **gpm** stands for genitive plural masculine; **nsn** for nominative singular neuter, etc.). The full paradigms for the

strong and weak declensions are given in the text of the lecture. Circle Strong or Weak, and supply the appropriate ending if an ending is needed. (Two of the adjectives will not require an ending.)

1. Þa stōð sē earminȝ ætforan þām ārlēas-\_\_\_\_\_ (dsm) dēofle.

Then stood the wretch before the cruel devil.

Strong

Weak

2. Hēo ne rōhte his worda for þæra wōdlic -\_\_\_\_\_ (dsf) ontendnysse.

She did not care about his words because of the mad passion.

Strong

weak

3. Byrhtnōþ madelode, bord hafenoXe, wand wāc-\_\_\_\_\_ (asm) æsc.

Byrhtnoth spoke, shield raised, waved slender spear.

Strong

Weak

4. Hēo on flet ȝecronȝ – sweord wæsswātiȝ-\_\_\_\_\_ (nsn)

She on floor died- sword was bloody.

Strong

Weak

5. Wēan oft ȝehēt earm-\_\_\_\_\_ (dsf) teohhe ondlonȝ-\_\_\_\_\_

(asf) night.

Woe often (he) vowed (to) wretched band entire night.

Strong

Weak

6. Ōswold oferwann þone wælhrēow-\_\_\_\_\_ (asm) cynincg.

Oswold defeated the cruel king.

Strong

Weak

7. Þā bær man þām cyninȝe cynelić- \_\_\_\_\_ (apm) þēnunȝa on ānum sylfrenan disce.

Then bore one (to) the king royal services on a of food silver dish.

Strong

Weak

8. Hāma ætwæȝ tō þære byrht-\_\_\_\_\_ (dsf) byriȝ Brōsinȝa mene.

Hama carried off the bright city Brosings' necklace.

Strong

Weak

9. Onȝann céallian þa ofer céald-\_\_\_\_\_ (dsn) wæter

Byrthelmes bearn.

Began to call then over cold water Byrthelm's son.

Strong

Weak

10. Hē hine ætbræð flæsclic-\_\_\_\_\_ (dmp) lustum.

He himself refrained from the fleshy desires.

Strong

Weak

11. Ond þær wearþ Hēahmund bisceop ofslæȝen, ond fela ȝōd-\_\_\_\_\_

(gpm)

And there was Heahmund bishop slain, and many good monna. men.

Strong

Weak

12. Ac hine sē hālȝa wer ȝyrde ȝræȝ-\_\_\_\_\_ (isn) sweorde.

But himself the holy man girded (with) gray sword.

Strong

Weak

13. Þū ēode hē furxður oð hē ȝemette ða ȝram-\_\_\_\_\_ (apf) m

Ʒydena.

Then went he further until he found the angry goodnesses.

Strong

Weak

14. þū eart mæƷenes stranƷ-\_\_\_\_\_ (nsm), ond on mōde frōd.

Thou art of might strong,

and in mind wise.

Strong

Weak

**Activity 3.** Besides each Old English personal pronoun, write the Modern English pronoun, if any, that has derived from it. If the Old English pronoun has not survived into Modern English – either because a loanword or an analogical form has replaced it or because a grammatical distinction was lost – write “0”. You can check the Old English forms of your proposed Modern English words in a collegiate dictionary.

Singular	M				F				N	
	N. iċ		ðū		hē		hēo		hit	
	G.mīn		ðīn		his		hiere		his	
	D. mē		ðē		him		hiere		him	
	A. mē		ðē		hine		hīe		hit	

## **5. MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD: SUBJECTION OF ENGLISH AND ITS REESTABLISHMENT**

### ***Key words:***

**Admixture, domination, recognition; Northern, East Midland, West Midland, Southern dialects; London dialect, tendency, standard English**

### ***Discussion points:***

- 5.1. Effect of the Scandinavian Invasions
- 5.2. The Norman Conquest and Its Effect on the Linguistic Situation
- 5.3. The Reestablishment of English as the Language of the State and Literature
- 5.4. Dialects in ME. The London Dialect
- 5.5. Spread of the London Standard

### ***Literature:***

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The OE period in the history of the language corresponds to the transitional stage from the slave-owning and tribal system to the feudal system in the history of Britain. In the 11<sup>th</sup> century feudalism was already well established. According to a survey made in the late 11<sup>th</sup> century, slaves and freemen were declining classes. The majority of the agricultural population were bound to their lord and land. These historical conditions produced a certain influence on the development of the language.

In Early ME the differences between the regional dialects grew. The main dialectal division in England, which survived in later ages with some slight modification of boundaries and considerable dialect mixture, goes back to the feudal stage of British history. In addition to economic, geographical and social conditions, dialectal differences in Early ME were accentuated by some historical events, namely the Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest.

Since the 8<sup>th</sup> century the British Isles were ravaged by sea rovers from Scandinavia, first by Danes, later – by Norwegians. By the end of the 9<sup>th</sup> century the Danes had succeeded in obtaining in permanent footing in England; more than half of England was yielded to the invaders and recognized as Danish territory – “Danelaw”. In the areas of the heaviest settlement, the Scandinavians outnumbered the Anglo-Saxon population, which is attested by geographical names. In Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, Northumberland, Cumberland – up to 75 percent of the place-names are Danish or Norwegian. Altogether more than 1400 English villages and towns bear names of Scandinavian origin (*Woodthorp*: ‘thorp’ – village; or *Brimtoft*, *Lowestoft*: ‘toft’ – a piece of land). Eventually the Scandinavians were absorbed into the local population both ethnically and linguistically. They merged with the society around them, but the impact on the linguistic situation and on the further development of the English language was quite noticeable. We find a large admixture of Scandinavian words in Early ME records coming from the North East. In later ages the Scandinavian element passed into other regions. Neither in

the South nor in Standard English did the Scandinavian element ever assume such proportions as in the North Eastern ME dialects.

The new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042-1066), who had been reared in France, brought over many Norman advisors and favourites. William, Duke of Normandy visited his court and it was rumoured that Edward appointed him his successor. In many respects, Edward paved the way for Norman infiltration long before the Norman Conquest. However, the government of the country was still in the hands of Anglo-Saxon feudal lords, headed by the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex.

In 1066 upon Edward's death, the Elders of England (Witan) proclaimed Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy, he mustered a big army by promise of land and plunder and with the support of the Pope, landed in Britain. In the battle of Hastings, fought in October 1066, Harold was killed and the English were defeated. This date is commonly known as the date of Norman Conquest, though the military occupation of the country was completed a few years later. The Normans occupied all the important posts in the church, in the government and in the army. Following the conquest hundreds of people from France crossed the Channel to make their home in Britain.

This event, occurred toward the close of the OE period, had a great effect on the English language than any other in the course of its history. What the language would have been like if William the Conqueror had not succeeded in making good his claim to the English throne can only be a matter of conjecture. It would probably have pursued much the same course as the other Germanic languages, retaining perhaps more of its inflections and preserving a predominantly Germanic vocabulary, adding to its word-stock by the characteristic methods of word formation and incorporating words from other languages much less freely. In particular, it would have lacked the greater part of that enormous number of French words that today make English seem, on the side of vocabulary, almost as much a Romance as a Germanic language. The Norman Conquest changed the whole

course of the English language. For almost 300 years French was the official language of administration; it was the language of the king's court, the law courts, the church, the army and the castle. It was also the everyday language of many nobles, of the higher clergy and of many townspeople in the South. The intellectual life, literature and education were in the hands of French speaking people; French, alongside Latin, was the language of writing. The lower classes in the towns and especially in the country-side, those who lived in the Midlands and up north, continued to speak English and looked upon French as foreign and hostile.

The early French borrowings reflect accurately the spheres of Norman influence upon English life; later borrowings can be attributed to the continued cultural, economic and political contacts between the countries. New words coming from French could not be adopted simultaneously by all the speakers of English; they were first used in some varieties of the language, namely in the regional dialects of Southern England. This led to growing dialectal differences, regional and social.

The difficult question of the extent to which English and French were used in England after the Norman Conquest is not easily answered. The evidence on which we can base a conclusion is scattered, must be carefully appraised, and is not always easy to harmonize. From time to time writers of the period tell that such a one spoke both French and English or that he was ignorant of one or the other language. At times incidents in the chronicles enable us to draw a pretty safe inference. Books and treatises, such as the *Ancrene Riwe* and the various 13<sup>th</sup> century works on husbandry, when we know the individuals whom they were written, or the social class, at least, to which they belong, shed some light on the problem. From the 13<sup>th</sup> century on, something can be gleaned from the proceedings of the courts, where the language in which a man testifies is occasionally noted. The appearance of manuals from about 1250 for the teaching of French is significant. In the 14<sup>th</sup> century poets and writers often preface their works with an explanation of the language employed and incidentally indulge from time to time in valuable observations of a more general linguistic nature. In the 15<sup>th</sup> century the

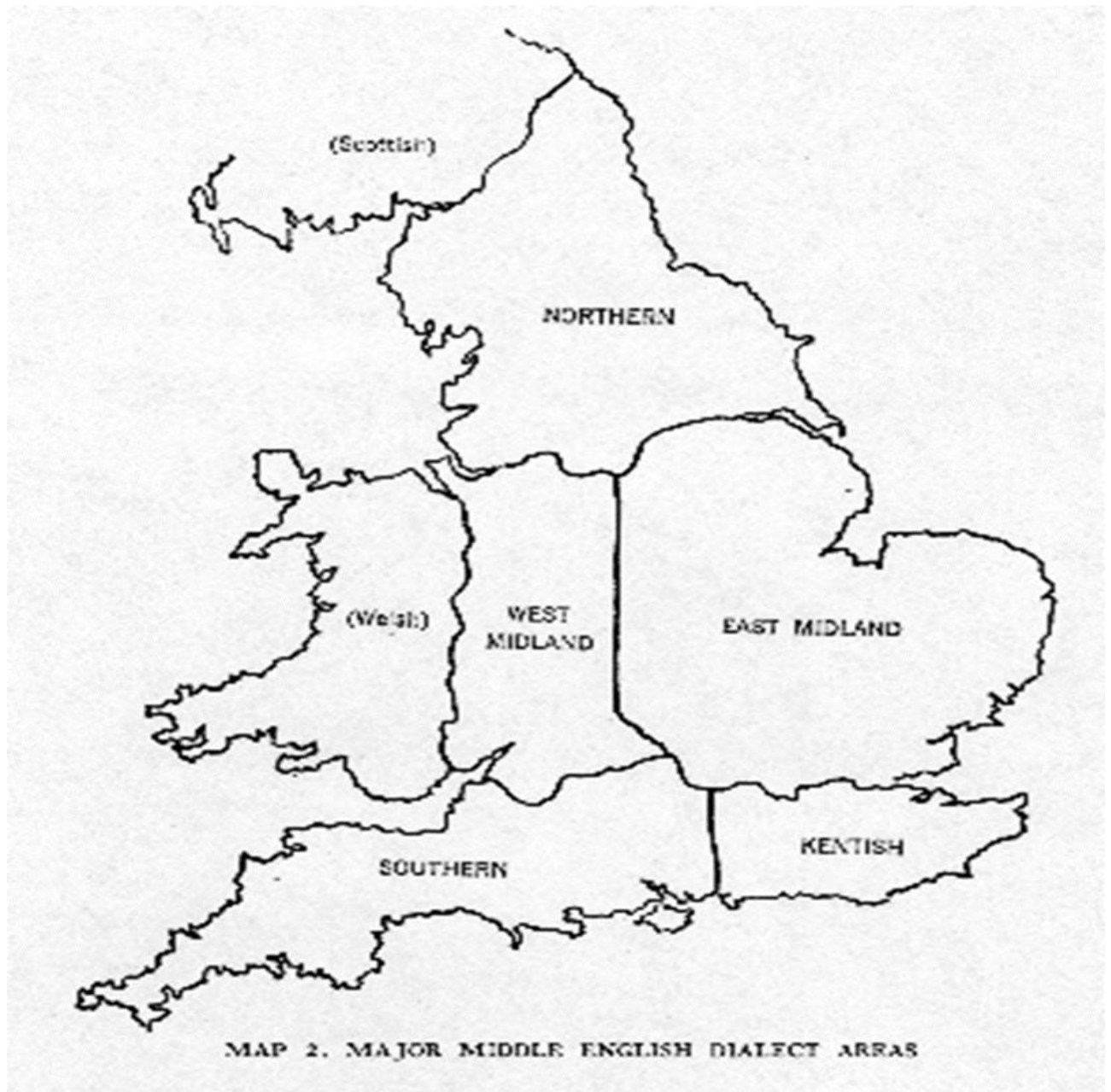
evidence becomes fairly abundant – letters public and private, the act and records of town, guilds, and the central government, and a variety incidental allusion. From all of this accumulated testimony the situation can be easily enough stated in general terms: French was the language of the court and the upper classes, English the speech of the mass of the people.

The domination of the French language in England came to an end in the course of the 14<sup>th</sup> century. The victory of English was predetermined and prepared for by several events and historical conditions. Towards the end of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, the English language had taken the place of French as the language of literature and administration. English was once more the dominant speech of all social classes in all regions. It had ousted French since it had always remained the mother tongue and the only spoken language of the bulk of the population.

In **1362** Edward III gave his consent to an act of Parliament ordaining that English should be used in the law courts, since “French has become much unknown in the realm”. This reform, however, was not carried out for years to come: French, as well as Latin, continued to be used by lawyers alongside English until the 16<sup>th</sup> century. Yet many legal documents, which have survived from the late 14<sup>th</sup> and 15<sup>th</sup> centuries, are written in English: wills, municipal acts, petitions. In **1363**, for the first time in history, Parliament was opened by the king’s chancellor with an address in English. In **1399** King Henry IV used English in his official speech when accepting the throne. In **1404** English diplomats refused to conduct negotiations with France in French, claiming that the language was unknown to them. All these events testify to the recognition of English as the state language. Slowly and inevitably English regained supremacy in the field of education. One might have expected that the triumph of English would lead to the weakening of the French influence upon English. In reality, however the impact of French became more apparent. As with other influences, the impact of French is to be found, first and foremost, in the vocabulary. The layers and the semantic sphere of the French borrowings reflect the relations between the Norman rulers and the English population, the dominance of the French language in literature and the

contact with French culture. The prevalence of French as the language of writing led to numerous changes in English spelling.

The language differed almost from country to country and noticeable variations are sometimes observable between different parts of the same country. In a rough way, however, it is customary to distinguish four principle dialects of ME: **Northern**, **East Midland**, **West Midland** and **Southern**.



The **Northern** dialect had developed from OE Northumbrian. And it extends as far as the Humber. **East Midland** and **West Midland** together cover the area between the Humber and the Thames. **Southern** occupies the district south of the

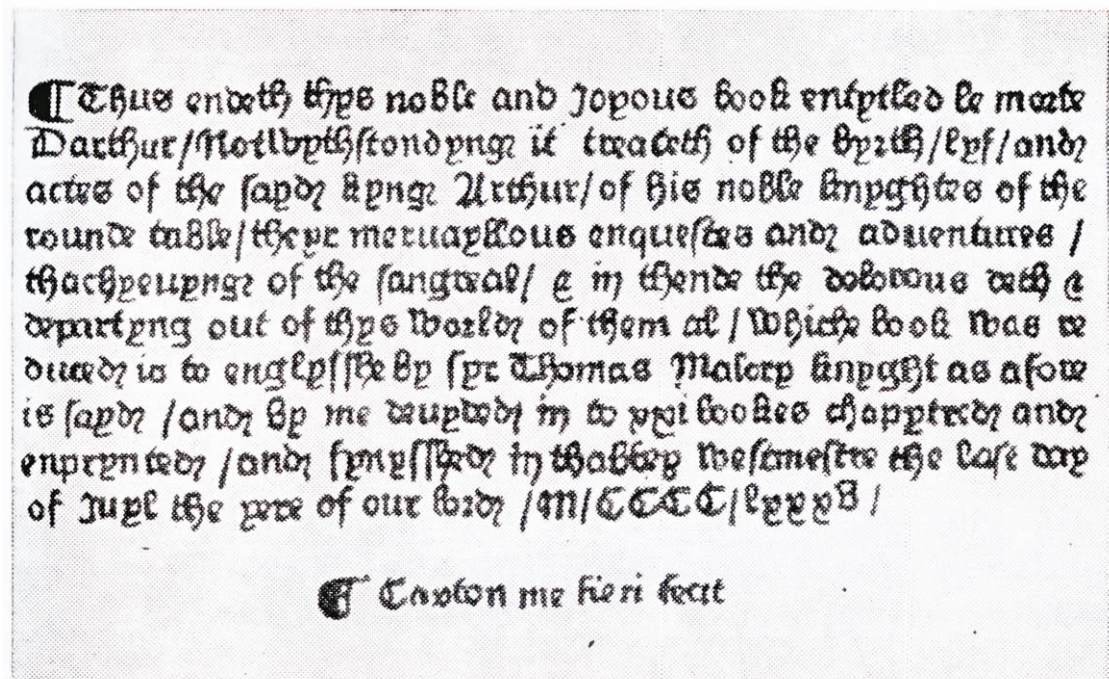
Thames, together with Gloucestershire and parts of the counties of Worcester and Hereford, thus taking the West Saxon and Kentish Districts of OE.

The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the **London dialect** as the prevalent written form of language. The Early ME records made in London – beginning with the PROCLAMATION of 1258 – show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon, in terms of the ME division it belonged to the South-Western dialect group. Later indicate that the speech of London was becoming more mixed with East Midland features gradually prevailing over the Southern features.

The official and literary papers produced in London in the late 14<sup>th</sup> century display obvious East Midland features. The London dialect became more Anglian than Saxon in character. This mixed dialect of London ousted French from official spheres and from the sphere of writing. In the later part of 15<sup>th</sup> century, the London standard had been accepted, at least in writing, in most part of the country. Its prestige may possibly be reflected in the fact that Mak, the sheep-stealer in the *Towneley Plays* attempts to impose upon the Yorkshire shepherds by masquerading as a person of some importance and affect a “Southern tooth”. Considerable diversity still existed in the spoken dialects. But in literary works after 1450, it becomes almost impossible, except in distinctly northern texts, to determine with any precision to the region in which a given work was written. And in correspondence and local records, there is a widespread tendency to conform in matters of language to the London standard. This influence emanating from London can be seen in the variety of English used in documents of the national bureaucracy as written by the clerks of Chancery. By the middle of the century, a fairly consistent variety of written English in both spelling and grammar had developed, and as the language of official use, it was likely to have influence in similar situations elsewhere.

With the introduction of printing in 1476, a new influence of great importance in the dissemination of London English came into play. From the beginning, London has been the center of book publishing in England. **Caxton**, the

first English printer, used the current speech of London in his numerous translations, and the books that issued from his press and from the presses of his successors gave a currency to London English that assured more than anything else its rapid adoption.



The last page of MORTE D'ARTHUR as printed by William Caxton

In the 16<sup>th</sup> century the use of London English had become a matter of precept as well as practice. The author of *The Arte of English Poesie* advises the poet: “ye shall therefore take the usuall speech of the Court, and that of London and the shires lying about London written lx. myles, and not much above”.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. What dialects were mostly influenced by the Scandinavian invasions?
2. What level of the language was considerably affected because of the Scandinavian languages?
3. Explain why the following people are important in historical discussions of the English language:  
Edward the Confessor  
Harold Godwin  
William, duke of Normandy  
Edward III  
Henry IV

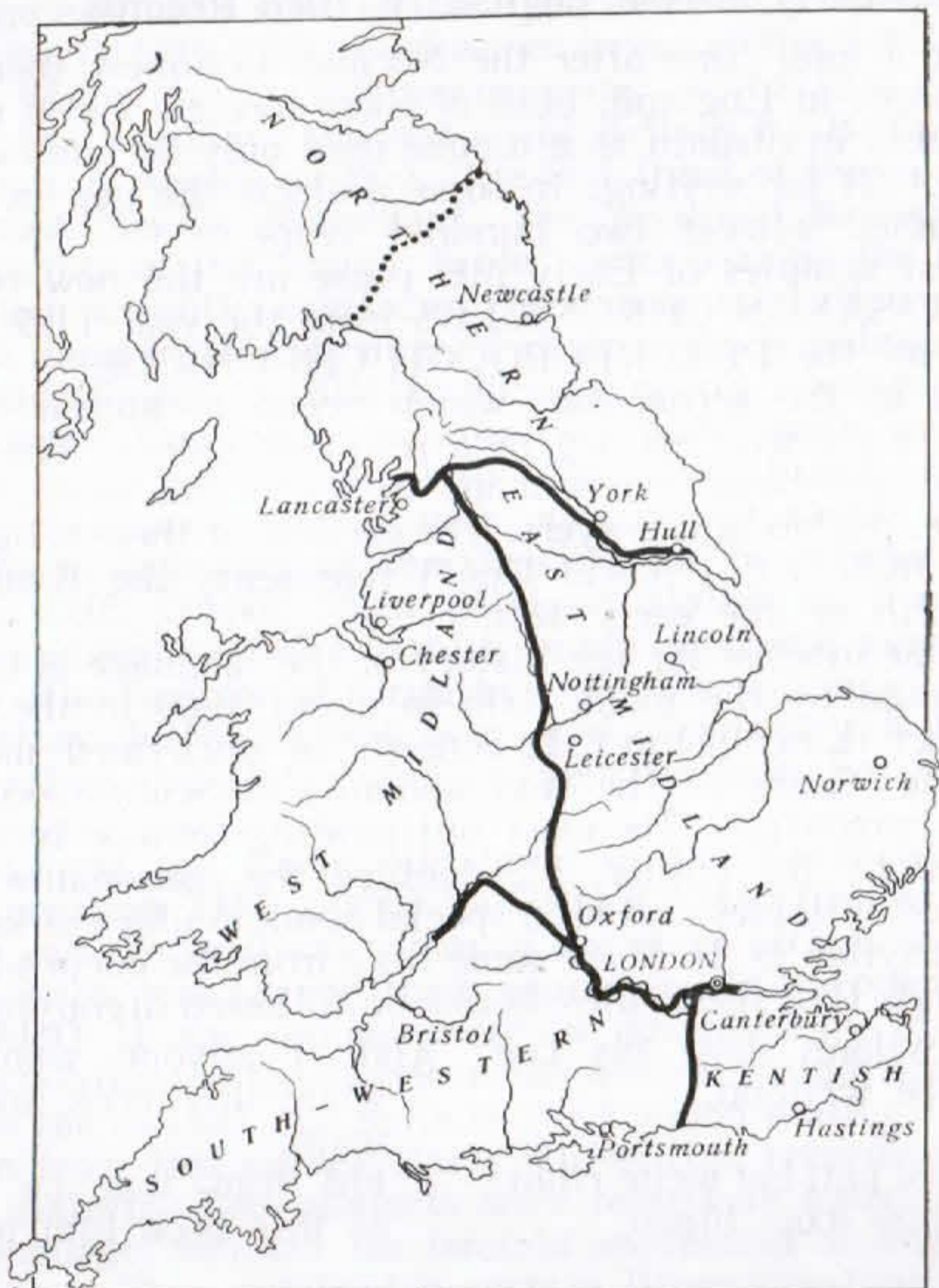
Caxton

4. What was the historical event that profoundly affected the course of the development of the English language history, because of which English from a synthetic language altered to analytic?
5. How would the English language probably have been different if the Norman Conquest had never occurred?
6. Why did William consider that he had a claim on the English throne?
7. What kind of position did the English language have during the Norman domination in Britain?
8. For how long after the Norman Conquest did French remain the principal language of the upper classes in England?
9. In general, which parts of the population spoke English, and which French?
10. Compare the position of the Old Scandinavian and Anglo-Norman (French) in Early ME (comment on the geographical, social, and linguistic differences).
11. What events and historical conditions predetermined and prepared the victory of English?
12. What four principle dialects of ME are customarily distinguished?
13. What is the importance of London dialect in the English language history?
14. What is the basis (origin) of the London dialect?
15. What was an influence of great importance in the dissemination of London English?

### THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD. XII-XIII centuries.



Vikngs in Britian



A map of Middle English dialects

## TASKS

**Task 1.** Specify which sounds are transmitted by the letters æ, sc, u, þ, g, sch, ssh in the following words of the Middle English

zære (XI в.) ‘год’

over ‘через’

sæ ‘море’

æt ‘в’

dæi ‘день’

scip (XI в.) ‘корабль’

suilc ‘такой’

comen ‘приходить’

long ‘длинный’

sculen ‘долженствовать’

zong ‘юный’

hunger ‘голод’

love ‘любовь’

bussel ‘бушель’

pore ‘бедный’

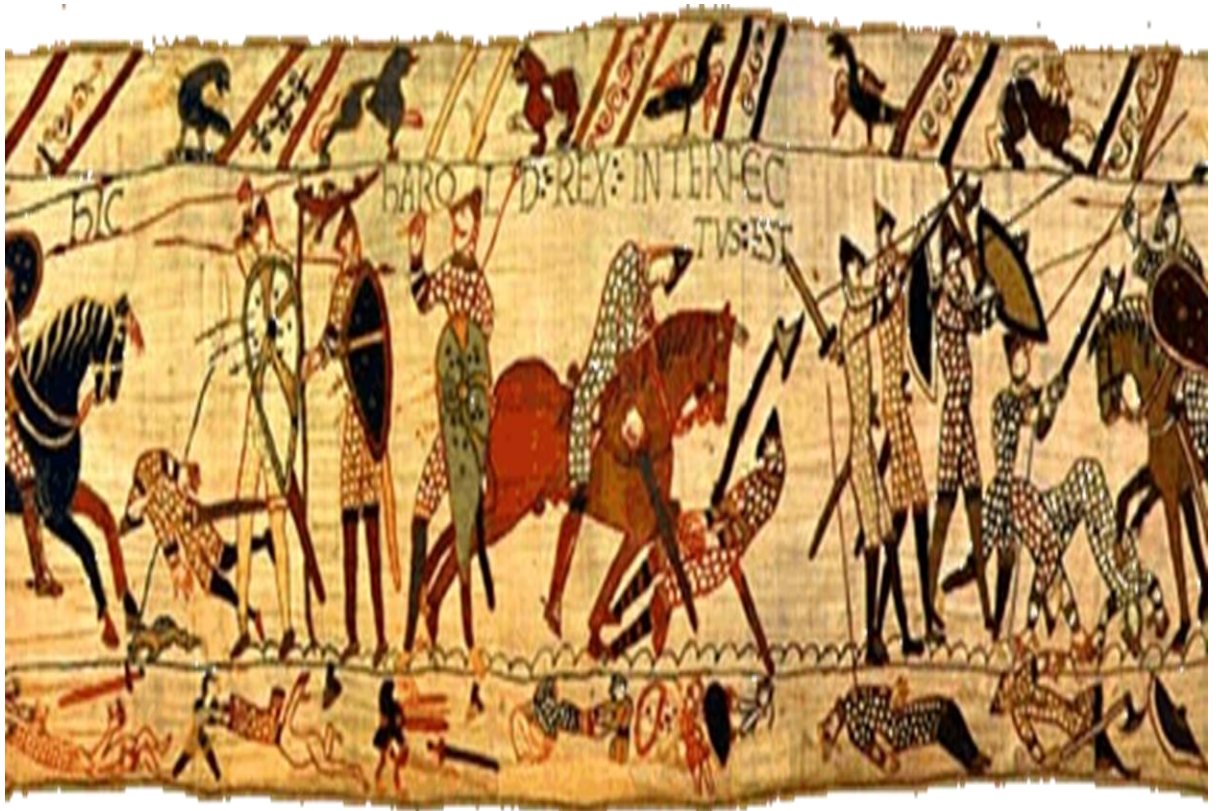
gift ‘дар’

ozene (XI в.) ‘собственный’

riȝt ‘правильный’

flezen ‘летать’

### Battle of Hastings



**Task 2.** Indicate what sounds are transmitted by the letters y, eo, e, a, i, ea in Middle English words. XII-XIII centuries.

Englelond ‘Англия’	bed ‘постель’
hundred ‘сто’	eadmod ‘покорный, мягкий’
breade ‘ширина’	deore ‘глубокий’
þreo ‘три’	fend ‘враг’
schire ‘графство’	gos ‘гусь’
byscoperiche ‘епископство’	monk ‘монах’
all ‘весь, всякий’	oft ‘часто’
martir ‘мученик’	somer ‘лето’
fyva ‘пять’	tem ‘компания’
assh ‘ясень’	
benden ‘связывать’	
beaten ‘бить’	
der ‘дикий’	
glad ‘радостный’	
meos ‘скромный’	
nonne ‘монахиня’	
open ‘открытый’	
token ‘знак’	
myle ‘миля’	
steoren ‘направлять, руководить’	
leod ‘люди’	
lawe ‘закон’	
leven ‘покидать’	
people ‘народ’	
seolk ‘шелк’	
maken ‘делать’	
forbeden ‘запрещать’	

**Task 3.** What external conditions are related to the language of the disappearance of the letter *þ* and its replacement by a combination of *th* in the Middle English language?

**Task 4.** Indicate the pronunciation and possible writing of the following Old English words in the early Middle English and late Middle English periods:

æt, wæs, ʒiefan, dæʒ, sunu, cild, scipu, niht, bōc, hūs, ūt, cū, hū, nū, būʒan, boʒa, sēon, riht, cēpan, ādrīfan, bān, tæcan, blētsunʒ, blōd, tūn, cniht, cūð, dēað, dēoplic, draʒan, fȳr, ʒeard, heofon, hlāford, hwā, laʒu, sǣ, morʒen, rūh, seʒl, sorʒian, sum, secʒan, þyncan, þrida, þū.

**Task 5.** Specify the phonetic changes that occurred in the following words of the Old English until the end of the Middle English period:

OE. rād ‘путь’ — ME. rod

OE. ʒōs ‘гусь’ — ME. gos

OE. hlāf ‘хлеб’ — ME. loaf

OE. bēam ‘дерево, балка’ — ME. bem

OE. heofon ‘небо’ — ME. hevyn

OE. hrēod ‘тростник’ — ME. rede

OE. sēcan ‘искать’ — ME. seken

OE. clæne ‘чистый’ — ME. clene

OE. læʒde (прош. вр. От lecʒan) — ME. laide

OE. hyll ‘холм’ — ME. hyll

OE. fȳr ‘огонь’ — ME. fir

OE. plōh ‘плуг’ — ME. plough

OE. lufian ‘любить’ — ME. loven

OE. wicu ‘неделя’ — ME. wike

**Task 6.** Indicate how the following words of modern English sounded in Middle English:

a) slow; snow; low; row; now; down; sound.cow;

b) cow; crow; blow; draw (OE. draʒan); bound.

- c) gnaw (OE. gnaȝan); flow, claw (OE. clawe-косв. падеж от clēa); straw (OE. strawes — род. Падеж от straw).
- d) bow [bou]; flown (прич. II—OE. floȝan); sought (прош. вр. — OE. sēcان).
- e) taught(прош. вр,—OE. tæcan); four (OE. fēower); how; few (OE. fēawe); newe (OE. nēowe).
- f) brought(прош. время— OE. brinȝan); dew (OE. dēaw); spew (OE. speowian); brown.
- g) saw (прош. время— OE. sēon ‘видеть’); saw (OE. sagu ‘пила’); saw ‘поговорка’ (OE. saȝu ‘речь’); sow ‘сеять’ (OE. sāwan); sow [sau] ‘свинья (матка)’ (OE. suȝu); soul (OE. sāwol)

## **6. PHONETIC AND MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF MIDDLE ENGLISH**

### ***Key words:***

**New sets of sounds, affricates, sibilants; new phonological treatment of fricatives; general reduction of inflections; universal sign of the plural.**

### ***Discussion points:***

- 6.1. Middle English a Period of Great Changes
- 6.2. Changes in the Vowels
- 6.3. Formation of New Diphthongs
- 6.4. Consonants in the Middle English Period
- 6.5. Decay of Inflectional Endings
- 6.6. The Noun
- 6.7. The Adjective

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11. *Rastorguyeva T.A.* A History of the English. М., 1983.

The Middle English period was marked by momentous changes in the English language, changes more extensive and fundamental than those that have taken place at any time before or since. Some of them were the result of the Norman Conquest and the conditions, which followed in the wake of that event. Others were a continuation of the tendencies that had begun to manifest themselves in Old English. These would have gone on even without the Conquest, but they took place more rapidly because the Norman Invasion removed from English those conservative influences that are always felt when a language is extensively used in books and is spoken by influential educated class. The changes of this period affected English in both its grammar and its vocabulary. They were so extensive in each department that it is difficult to say which group is more significant. Those in grammar reduced English from a highly inflected language to an extremely analytic one. Those in vocabulary involved the loss of a large part of the Old English word-stock and the addition of thousands of words from French and Latin. At the beginning of the period, English is a language that must be learned like a foreign tongue; at the end it is Modern English.

In the phonological development from OE to ModE, five of the OE simple vowels changed in quality, and the four OE diphthongs became simplified to monophthongs.

<u>Sounds</u>		<u>Examples</u>		
OE	ME	OE	ME	
1. [ɑ:]	> [o]	<i>bān</i>	> <i>bōn</i>	“bone”
2. [æ]	> [α]	<i>þæt</i>	> <i>that</i>	“that”
3. [æ:]	> [ɛ:]	<i>sǣ</i>	> <i>sē</i>	“sea”
4. [y]	> [i]	<i>synn</i>	> <i>sinne</i>	“sin”
5. [y:]	> [i:]	<i>hȳdan</i>	> <i>hīden</i>	“hide”
6. [æə]	> [a:]	<i>hearm</i>	> <i>harm</i>	“harm”
7. [æ:ə]	> [ɛ:]	<i>strēam</i>	> <i>strēme</i>	“stream”
8. [eo]	> [ɛ]	<i>heofon</i>	> <i>heven</i>	“heaven”
9. [e:o]	> [e:]	<i>bēon</i>	> <i>bēn</i>	“to be”

In addition to the changes in the OE vowels, six new diphthongs appeared in the language. The full history of these diphthongs is complex because of the varied sources from which a single diphthong could derive. Different phonological contexts in OE resulted in ME [au], for example, and that diphthong entered ME directly from Old French and Old Norse. The representative sources that are given below for five of the six diphthongs are all of the same phonological type: two separate elements in OE, which merged to produce a single diphthong in ME. This is the most important of the contexts that produced the new diphthongs. The sixth diphthong is one that came from French, [oi], a sound that English still has in “choice, royal, annoy”.

	Source	New Diphthong	OE	ME	
1.	a + w	[au]	<i>clawu</i> [klawu]	<i>clawe</i> [klauə]	“claw”
	a + y	[au]	<i>laȝu</i> [layu]	<i>lawe</i> [lauə]	“law”
2.	æ + j	[ɛi]	<i>dæȝ</i> [dæj]	<i>dai</i> [dɛi]	“day”
	ε + j	[ɛi]	<i>wæȝ</i> [wɛj]	<i>wei</i> [wɛi]	“way”
3.	ε: + w	[ɛu]	<i>fēawe</i> [fɛ:wə]	<i>fewe</i> [fɛuə]	“few”
4.	i: + w	[iu]	<i>stiweard</i> [sti:wærd]	<i>steward</i> [stiuard]	“steward”
5.	o: + w	[ou]	<i>growan</i> [gro:wan]	<i>growen</i> [grouən]	“grow”
	o + g'	[ou]	<i>boȝa</i> [bog'a]	<i>bowe</i> [bouə]	“bow”
	a: + g'	[ou]	<i>āȝan</i> [a:g'an]	<i>owen</i> [ouən]	“to proress”
6.	From Old French	[oi]	OF <i>joie</i>	ME <i>joie</i>	“joy”

English consonants were on the whole far more stable than vowels. A large number of consonants have probably remained unchanged through all historical periods. Thus we can assume that the sonorants [m, n, l], the plosives [p, b, t, d] and also [k, g] in most positions have not been subjected to any noticeable

changes. They are found in many words descending from OE though their correlations in the system of phonemes have altered to a varying degree.

The most important developments in the history of English consonants were the growth of new sets of sounds – affricates and sibilants – and the new phonological treatment of fricatives. Both changes added a number of consonant phonemes to the system. On the other hand, some consonants were lost or vocalized, which affected both the consonant and the vowel system.

<u>OE</u>	<u>ME</u>	<u>OE</u>	<u>ME</u>	<u>ModE</u>
[kʰ]	[tʃ]	<i>cild</i>	<i>child</i> [tʃi:ld]	child
		<i>tæcan</i>	<i>techen</i> [ˈtɛtʃən]	teach
[gʰ]	[dʒ]	<i>ecʒe</i>	<i>edge</i> [ˈɛdʒə]	edge
		<i>brycʒe</i>	<i>bridge</i> [ˈbrɪdʒə]	bridge
[skʰ]	[ʃ]	<i>fisc</i>	<i>fish</i> [fɪʃ]	fish
		<i>scēap</i>	<i>sheep</i> [ʃi:p]	sheep

The changes in English grammar may be described as a general reduction of inflections. Endings of the noun and adjective marking distinctions of number and case and often of gender were so altered in pronunciation as to lose their distinctive form and hence their usefulness. To some extent, the same thing is true for the verb. This leveling of inflectional endings was due partly to phonetic changes, partly to the operation of analogy. The phonetic changes were simple but far-reaching. The leveling is somewhat obscured in the written language by the tendency of scribes to preserve the traditional spelling, and in some places the final *-n* was retained even in the spoken language, especially as a sign of the plural. The effect of these changes on the inflection, of the noun and the adjective, and the further simplification that was brought about by the operation of analogy, may be readily shown.

In Early ME only two methods of indicating the plural remained fairly distinctive: the *-s*, or *-es* from the strong declension and the *-en* (*oxen*) from the

weak. And for a time, at least in southern England, it have been difficult to predict that the *-s* would become the almost universal sign of the plural that it has become. Until the 13<sup>th</sup> century the *-en* plural enjoyed great favour in the south, being often added to nouns which had not belonged to the weak declension in OE. But in the rest of England the *-s* plural (and genitive singular) of the old first declension (masculine) was apparently felt to be so distinctive that it spread rapidly. Its extension took place most quickly in the north. Even in OE many nouns originally of other declensions had gone over this declension in the Northumbrian dialect. By 1200 *-s* was the standard plural ending in the north and north Midland areas; other forms were exceptional. Fifty years later, it had conquered the rest of the Midlands, and in the course of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, it had definitely been accepted all over England as the normal sign of the plural in English nouns. Its spread may have been helped by the early extension of *-s* throughout the plural in Anglo-Norman, but in general, it may be considered as an example of the survival of the fittest in language.

A glance at the few examples of common noun declensions in OE will show how seriously the inflectional endings were distributed. For example, in the London English of Chaucer the forms *stān*, *stānes*, *stān*, *stān* in the singular and *stānas*, *stāna*, *stānum*, *stānas* in the plural, were reduced to three: *stān*, *stānes* and *stāne*. The dative, nominative and accusative have the same form in the singular and contrast with genitive; in the plural all four cases are the same. The only distinctive termination was the “-s” of the possessive genitive singular and of the nominative and accusative plural. Because these two cases of the plural were those most frequently used, the “-s” came to be thought of as the sign of the plural and was extended to all plural forms. We get thus an inflection of the noun identical with that which we have today. Other declensions as it was described above, suffered even more, so that in many words ( *giefu*, *sunu* etc.) the distinctions of case and even of number were completely obliterated.

In the adjective, the leveling of forms had even greater consequences. Partly as a result of the sound-changes already described, partly through the extensive

working of analogy, the form of the nominative singular was early extended to all cases of the singular, and that of the nominative plural to all cases of the plural, both in the strong and weak declensions between the singular and the plural: both ended in *-e* (*blinda* > *blinde* and *blindan* > *blinde*). This was also true of those adjectives under the strong declension whose singular ended in *-e*. By about 1250 the strong declensions had distinctive forms for the singular and plural only in certain monosyllabic adjectives which ended in a consonant in OE (sing. *glad*, pl. *glade*). Under the circumstances, the only ending, which remained to the adjective, was often without distinctive grammatical meaning and its use was not governed by any strong sense adjectival inflection. Although it is clear that the *-e* ending of the weak and plural forms was available for use in poetry in both the East and West Midlands until the end of the 14<sup>th</sup> century, it is impossible to know the most usual status of the form in the spoken language.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. How did the vocabulary of ME change?
2. What kind of qualitative changes occur in the vowel system?
3. What kind of quantitative changes occur in the vowel system?
4. What sources did the diphthongs [au] and [oi] come from?
5. Which phonetic system yielded to the alteration more: vowels or consonants?
6. Did strong or weak declension in OE have suffix *-n* (that was retained until the 13<sup>th</sup> century, especially as a sign of the plural)?
7. To what level were the four cases of OE noun reduced in ME?
8. What consequences did the leveling of the forms of adjectives bring?
9. When did the adjectival inflections come to an end?

## **TASKS**

**Task 1.** Explain the discrepancy in the spelling of etymologically related words: draught [draʃt] ‘сквозняк’ (OE. *drazan* ‘тащить, тянуть’) и draft [dra:ft] ‘проект’, ‘набросок’, ‘сток’ (OE. *draft* ‘тяга воздуха’). Сравните также написание и

произношение слов: bow [bou] ‘лук’, bow [bau] ‘поклон’, bough [bau] ‘ветка’ (OE. boza; būzan; bōh ‘изгиб’).

**Task 2.** Specify the number of vowels in the following words in Middle English: ME. strem— Mod. E. stream; ME. herte — Mod.E. heart; ME.ston— Mod. E. stone; ME.se — Mod. E. sea; ME. book— Mod. E. book; ME. hous— Mod. E. house; ME.now— Mod. E. now, ME. time— Mod. E time; ME.son—Mod. E. son; ME.soon— Mod. E. soon; ME. fyrst— Mod. E. first; ME. may— Mod. E. may.

**Task 3.** Explain the confusion of writing through ae and ea in the language of the early Middle English period in words like OE. þæt (ME. thæt, theat); OE. Wess. healf (ME. hælf, healf); OE. æppel (ME. æppel, eappel); OE. bæc (ME, bæc,; beak). How can you explain that in the Middle English language these words are also written through a: that, half, appel, bak?

**Task 4.** How do you explain the presence of variants in the writing of the following words in the Middle English period in accordance with Old English?

OE. eald — ME. eld, ald, old

OE. healf— ME. hælf, half

OE. wearm—ME. wærm, warm, worm

OE. ēare— ME. ere, eare

OE. bēam — ME. bem, beom

OE. ȝear— ME. ger, yer, ȝær

OE. heorte— ME. hurte, herte

OE.steorre— ME. sturre, sterre

OE.seolf— ME. sulf, self

OE.dēop— ME. dep, deep

**Task 5.** How can you explain the spelling of the following Middle English words (compare with their Old English writing): copper ‘медь’ (OE. copor), fetter‘оковы’ (OE. feter)?

**Task 6.** Explain historically the modern pronunciation of nouns of hope (OE. hopa), throat (OE. þrote), nose (OE. nosu), coal (OE. col, plural colu), and

participles broken, stolen (OE. ȝebrocen , ȝestolen), where in Old English there was a short vowel. Compare with forgoetting

**Task 7.** Explain the difference in the pronunciation of modern English words: good (OE. ȝōd) and gospel (from OE. ȝōdspell— ME. godspell), where historically the root of the first element of the compound word is the same.

**Task 8.** Considering the fact that in Modern English the Old English sounds, and  $\bar{y}$ ,  $\bar{u}$ ,  $\bar{æ}$ ,  $i$ ,  $\bar{eo}$  are respectively reflected as [ai], [au], [i:], [ai], [i:], explain the sound of vowels :

fist (OE. fȳst), dust (dūst), leave —left (OE. lǣfan — lǣfde), lead — led (OE. lǣdan — lǣdde), five — fifth (OE. fīf —fīfte), foul — filth (OE. fūl — fȳlþu), friend — friendship (OE. frēond — frēondscipe).

**Task 9.** Explain the modern pronunciation of the adjective late, tame, if it is known that in the Old English language they sounded læt, tæm, and the Old English sound ae usually gives in modern English [æ]. Comp. þæt - that, æt - at, and so on.

**Task 10.** Explain the origin of etymological doublets of modern English: staff ‘палка, древко’; stave ‘перекладина, бочарная доска’.

**Task 11.** Explain the difference in pronunciation of the words dear [dɪə] and darling. In Old English, these words had the same root:

OE.dēor и dēorlinȝ.

**Task 12.** Explain the difference between pronouncing the word woman in single and plural forms in modern English: ['wumən] and [' wɪmɪn]. The Old English forms of this word: wīfman, later wimman and wimmen (from wīfmenn).

**Task 13.** Explain the difference in pronunciation in words that contain the same root:

neighbour— nigh (OE. nēah-ȝe-būr, ME. neighebour; OE. nēah - ME. neigh, nygh).

**Task 14.** Explain the presence of different spirants [f |, [v]; [θ], [ð] in words having the same root, but referring to different parts of speech:

to live [liv] — life [laɪf]; bathe [beɪð] — bath [ba: θ].

**Task 15.** How is the presence in some words of modern English language of the initial voiced spirant in place of the Old English Wessex voiceless?

For example: vat ‘бочка’ (OE. *fæt*), vixen ‘лисица’ (OE. *fyxen*), and in the southern dialects of modern English language and form [zɛlf] instead of [self] - self, [vɑ:də] instead of [ˈfɑ:ðə] - father?

**Task 16.** What common phenomenon for spirants is the feature of the pronunciation of the root sound [s] in the plural form in the word *house* [haus]? Why does not this singularity manifest in the singular form? How is the presence of a voiceless [s] in the words *horse*, *glass* in the form of plural, number?

**Task 17.** What is the reason for keeping the voiceless [s] in the words *once* (OE *ānes*), *else* (OE *elles*), *hence* (OE *hennes*), if in other words with the ending -es there was a voiced:

James [dʒeɪmz], Charles [tʃɑ:lz], eaves [i:vz] ‘карниз’, (OE. *efes*), alms (OE. *ælmesse*), riches (фр. *richesse*), houses [-z]?

**Task 18.** Explain historically the lack of voicing of spirants in the forms of the Possessive Case, if it is known that the norm is their voicing in the intervocal situation, for example:

Sing. wife— pl. wives, but wife’s [waɪfs], calf’s [kɑ:fs], thief’s [θi:fs] etc.

**Task 19.** The explanation of the retention in the modern English language [ts] in words: hats (plural of hat), cats (pl from cat), faults (pl from fault), if it is known that in the Middle English period the combination of *ts* is usually simplified (compare OE, *bletsian* 'bless' - ME. *blessien*, OE. *betsta* 'best' - ME. *best*)?

## Activities

**Activity 1.** The continued use of the historical singular and plural forms for the second person pronoun allowed Renaissance English certain stylistic possibilities that present-day English has lost. The *th*-forms of the singular (thou, three, thy, thine) were regularly used by persons of higher rank addressing an inferior, by parents speaking to a child and by lovers or spouses in situations

of intimacy. The singular form was also used by strangers regardless of rank to express anger or contempt. The y-forms (you, ye, your, yours) were used by persons of lower rank to a superior and by children to a parent. The emotionally more neutral y- forms could appropriately replace the th- forms in many situations, although the reverse was not true. As with French tu and vous, the plural form was safer one in situations of uncertainty. Even the plural, however, could be emotionally charged when a person of higher rank addressed an inferior contemptuously, especially with an ironic sir. Explain briefly why the choice of pronoun is singular or plural in the following examples from Shakespeare.

(The first meeting between Romeo and Juliet, at the ball. )

Juliet.     Good Pilgrime,  
          You do wrong your hand too much,  
          Which mannerly deutionshewes in this,  
          For Saints haue hands, that Pilgrims hands do tuch,  
          And palme to palme, is holy Palmers kisse.  
Romeo.    Haue not Saints lips, and holy Palmers too ?  
Juliet.     I pilgrim, lips that they must vse in prayer.  
Romeo.    O then deare Saint, let lips do what hands do,  
          They pray (grant thou) least faith turne to dispaire.  
Juliet.     Saints do not moue,  
          Though grant for prayers sake.  
Romeo .    Then moue not while my prayers effect I take:  
          Thus from my lips, by thine my sin is purg'd.  
Juliet.     Then haue my lips the sin that they hauetooke,  
Romeo.    Sin from my lips ? O trespasse sweetly vrg'd:  
          Giue me my sin againe.  
Juliet.     You kisseby'ty'booke.

(Romeo and Juliet 1.5)

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(The second meeting between Romeo and Juliet, at balcony. )

Juliet.     O Romeo, Romeo, Wherefore art thou Romeo?  
Denie thy Father and refuse thy name:  
          Or if thou wilt not, be but sworne my Loue,  
          And Ile no longer be a Capulet.  
Romeo.     Shall I hear more, or shall I speake at this?

Juliet. 'this but thy name that is my Enemy:  
 Thou are thy selfe, though not a Mountague.....  
 Romeo, doffe thy name  
 And for thy name which is no part of three,  
 Take all my selfe.

Romeo. I take thee at thy word:  
 Call me but Love, and I'll be new baptiz'd,  
 Henceforth I never will be Romeo.

Juliet. What man art thou, that thus bescreen'd in night  
 So stumblest on my counsel?

Romeo. By a name,  
 I know not how to tell thee who I am:  
 My name dear Saint, is hateful to my selfe  
 Because it is an Enemy to thee,  
 Had I it written, I would tear the word.

Juliet. My ears have yet not drunk a hundred words  
 Of thy tongue's uttering, yet I know the sound.  
 Art thou not Romeo, and a Montague?

(Romeo and Juliet 2.2)

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(Talbot and his son John before a battle. )

Talbot. Upon my Blessing I command thee goe.

John. To fight I will, but not to flye the Foe.

Talbot. Part of thy Father may be saved in thee.

John. No part of him, but will be shame in mee.

Talbot. Thou never hadst Renowne, nor canst not lose it.

John. Yes, your Renowned Name: shall fight abuse it ?

Talbot. Thy Fathers charge shall cleare thee from y' staine.

John. You cannot witness for me, being slaine.

(1 Henry VI 4.5)

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(The Duke of Clarence in prison and two men sent to murder him.)

Clarence. Where art Thou Keeper? Give me a cup of wine.

2<sup>nd</sup> murd. You shall have Wine enough my Lord anon.

Clarence. In Gods name, what art thou?

1<sup>st</sup> murd. A man, as you are.

Clarence. But not as I am Royall.

1<sup>st</sup> murd. Nor you as we are, Royall.

Clarence. Thy voice is Thunder, but thy looks are humble....  
 1<sup>st</sup>murder. What we will do, we do vpon command.  
 2<sup>nd</sup>murder. And he that hath commanded, is our King.  
 Clarence. Erroneous Vassals, the great King of Kings  
 Hath in the Table of his Law commanded  
 Spurne at his Edict, and fulfill a Mans?  
 Take heed: for he holds Vengeance in his hand,  
 To hurtle vpon their heads that breake his Law.  
 2<sup>nd</sup>murder. And that same Vengeance doth he hurle on thee,  
 For false Forswearing, and for murther too:  
 Thou did'st receiue the Sacrament, to fight  
 In quarrell of the House of Lancaster.  
 1<sup>st</sup>murder. And like a Traitor to the name of God,  
 Did'st breake that Vow, and with thy treacherous blade,  
 Vnrip'st the Bowels of thy Sou'raignes Sonne.  
 2<sup>nd</sup>murder. Whom thou wasn't sworn to cherish and defend.  
 1<sup>st</sup>murder. How canst thou vrge Gods dreadfull Law to vs,  
 When Thou hast broke it in such deere degree?  
 (Richard III 1.4)

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(Two enemies on battlefield, Prince Hal and Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur.)

Hotspur. If I mistake not, thou art Harry Monmouth.  
 Prince. Thou speak'st as if I would deny my name.  
 Hotspur. My name is HarriePercie.  
 Prince. Why then I see a very valiant rebel of that name.  
 I am the Prince of Wales, and thinke not Percy,  
 To share with me in glory any more:  
 Two StarresKeepe not their motion in one Sphere,  
 Nor can one England brooke a double reigne,  
 Of Harry Percy, and The Prince of Wales.  
 Hotspur. Nor shall it Harry, for the houre is come  
 To end the one of vs and would to heauen,  
 Thy name in Armes, were now as great as mine.  
 Prince. Ile make it greater, ere I part from thee,  
 And all the budding Honors on thy Crreft,  
 Ile crop, to make a Garland for my head.  
 Hotspur. I can no longer brooke thy Vanities. Fight  
 ( 1 Henry IV 5.4)

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(Othello and Desdemona, immediately before her death.)

Desdemona. Who's there ?Otello?

Othello. I Desdemona.

Desdemona. Will you come to bed, my Lord?

Othello. Haue you pray'd to night, Desdemon?

Desdemona. I my Lord.

Othello. If you Bethinke your selfe of any Crime  
Vnreconcil'd as yet to Heauen, and Grace,  
Solicite for it straight.

Desdemona. Alacke, my Lord,  
What may you meane by that ?

Othello. Well,do it, and be breefe, I will walke by:  
I would not kill thy vnprepared Spirit,  
No, Heauens fore-fend! I would not kill thy Soule.

Desdemona. Talke you of killing?

Othello. I,I do.

Desdemona. Then Heauenhaue mercy on mee.

Othello. Amen, with all my heart.

Desdemona. If you say, I hope you will not kill me.

Othello. Humh.

Desdemona. And yet I feare you: for you'refatall then  
When your eyes rowle so.  
Why I should feare, I know not,  
Since guiltinesse I know not: But yet I feele I feare.

Othello. Thinke on thy sinnes.

Desdemona. They are Loues I beare to you.

Othello. I, and for that thou dy'st.

(Othello 5.2)

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(Two tribunes, Flavius and Murellus, and "certaine Commoners ouer the stage.")

Flavus. Hence: home you idle Creatures, get your home:  
Is this a Holiday? What, know you not  
(Being Mechanicall) you ought not walke  
Vpon a laboring day, without the signe  
Of your Profession? Speake, what Trader art thou?

Carpenter. Why Sir, a Carpenter.

Murellus. Where is thy Leather Apron, and thy Rule?  
What dost thou with thy best Apparrell on?  
You sir, what Trade are you?

## 7. HISTORICAL GRAMMAR: SIMPLIFYING CHANGES IN THE VERB SYSTEM

### *Key words:*

**New sets of sounds, affricates, sibilants; new phonological treatment of fricatives; general reduction of inflections; universal sign of the plural.**

### *Discussion points:*

7.1. Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation: number, person and mood distinctions,

7.2. Changes in the morphological classes of verbs. History of the strong verbs. History of the weak verbs. Origins of some groups of modern non-standard verbs.

7.3. Decay of the old grammatical distinctions in the infinitive and the participles.

7.4. On the causes of the reduction and loss of inflections.

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**Simplifying changes in the verb conjugation: number, person and mood distinctions.** Unlike the morphology of the nouns and adjectives which in the course of history has become much simpler, the morphology of the verb on the whole has been greatly enriched. In some respects, however, the verb conjugation has become regular and uniform. The simplification affected the synthetic forms of the verb inherited from the Old English period and led to important alterations in the distinction of number, person and mood.

Similarly to the nouns, the verbs have lost some of the markers differentiating between the forms; the number of distinct forms has been reduced and numerous homonymous forms have developed. The changes in the old synthetic forms are shown in Table and endings of the plural of verbs discussed below (present tense indicative mood) in ME dialects.



Endings of the 3rd person sing. (Pr. T. Ind.Mood) in ME dialects

## Changes in the Verb Conjugation in Middle English and Early New English

ME *loken*, NE *look*

Corresponding OE ending					ME		NE
Present	Sing	1	Indicative <b>-ie</b>	Subjunctive <b>-ie</b>	Indicative <i>loke</i>	Subjunctive <i>loke</i>	look
		2	<b>-ast</b>	<b>-ie</b>	<i>lokest</i>	<i>loke</i>	look
		3	<b>-að</b>	<b>-ie</b>	<i>loketh, lokes</i>	<i>loke</i>	looks
	Plural		<b>-iað</b>	<b>-ien</b>	<i>loketh, loken, lokes</i>	<i>loken</i>	look
Past	Sing	1	<b>-ode</b>	<b>-ode</b>	<i>lokede</i>	<i>lokede</i>	<i>looked</i>
		2	<b>-odest</b>	<b>-ode</b>	<i>lokedest</i>	<i>lokede</i>	
		3	<b>-ode</b>	<b>-ode</b>	<i>lokede</i>	<i>lokede</i>	
	Plural		<b>-odon</b>	<b>-oden</b>	<i>lokoden</i>	<i>lokeden</i>	

It is seen from the table that most of the Old English distinctions were as yet preserved in the Middle English period, and some of them disappeared only in the transition to New English. In Middle English the inflections were reduced or levelled out by analogy and in New English many of them were dropped.

In the Middle English paradigm, just like in the Old English one, the verb had different forms for the two numbers, both in the present and past of the indicative and subjunctive moods. The three different endings in the Middle English plural form of the present tense indicative mood given in the table, show the dialectal variations of the time (see also map). The East Midland form in **-en** was homonymous with the subjunctive and the infinitive, and was the most frequent mark of the indicative plural in Chaucer's time.

In Early New English the inflection **-en** was dropped both in the plural indicative and plural subjunctive (as well as in the infinitive). The plural forms fell together with the singular forms in the past tense and in the present tense (except the 3rd person of the indicative mood). Compare the plural forms in Chaucer and Shakespeare showing the loss of the ending **-en**.

Thanne **longen** folk to go on pilgrimages. (Chaucer)

“Then long folks to go on pilgrimages.”

My spirit(e)s **grow(e)** dark. (Shakespeare)

The differences in the forms of person were maintained but had become less varied in Middle English. The Old English ending **-ad** of the 3rd person singular used in Class 2 of weak verbs, in Middle English was reduced to **-eth**. All the verbs now added **-eth**, **-th** irrespective of class.<sup>1</sup> The second ending of the 3rd person **-es** shown in the table was a new marker, first recorded in the Northern dialects (see also map on p. 94). Some scholars believe that it was borrowed from the plural form which commonly ended in **-es** in the Northern dialects of Middle English. Its use with the singular form steadily grew in Early New English, and Shakespeare uses the form in **-es** along with the older form in **-eth** indiscriminately. Compare:

Chaucer: He *rideth out of halle* “he rides out of the hall”.

Shakespeare: *My life ... sinks down to death*. (But also: *When his youthful morn hath travelled on to age's steepy night*.)

In the 18th century there arose a stylistic difference between the endings **-es** and **-eth**: the former was more common in private letters than in literary texts, and may have been more colloquial; gradually **-es** became the dominant form in Standard English, **-eth** being confined to religious and highly poetic forms of discourse.

As we know from Modern English, the ending **-(e)s** has survived as the only inflection in the verb paradigm, showing person and number.<sup>2</sup> The loss of **-est**, the mark of the 2nd person singular in the past and in the present, must be attributed to the obsolescence of the pronoun *thou* (if *thou* is used in present-day speech, it is accompanied by the ending **-est** just as before).

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<sup>1</sup> In Old English verbs of other morphological classes added **-ed** or **-d** in the 3rd person singular, which corresponds to **-(e)th** in Middle English.

<sup>2</sup> The later history of the verb ending **-es** is similar to the history of the noun ending **-es**,

It follows from what has been said, that the formal difference between moods was also greatly obscured. In Old English some of the forms of the indicative and subjunctive moods both in the past and present tense coincided; in Middle English more forms be- homonymous. This was an important event in the evolution of the subjunctive mood, as it may have stimulated the growth of new forms (analytical, see next lecture).

It is important to note that in spite of all these simplifying changes, the formal differences between the tenses — past and present — were well preserved in all the morphological classes.

**Changes in the morphological classes of verbs. *History of the Strong Verbs.*** The historical changes in the ways of building the principal forms (or the stems) of the verb led to greater uniformity and regularity. The old morphological division into classes of strong and weak verbs has been completely rearranged during the Middle English and Early New English periods.

We must recall that the Old English strong verbs built their principal forms by means of a vowel alternation in the root, termed vowel gradation; the vowel gradation — different in each of the seven classes of strong verbs — was sometimes accompanied by an interchange of consonants. The use of grammatical suffixes or endings was the same in all the classes.

The seven classes of strong verbs underwent multiple changes in the Middle and New English periods due to the phonetic modification of vowels — both quantitative and qualitative. The phonetic changes in the gradation series in various classes can be seen from comparing the root-vowels in the forms of different periods given in Table 2: the Old English forms, where the vowel is clear from the spelling, the Middle English forms with the vowel indicated in brackets, and the New English forms. These changes have been described in Lectures 16 and 17 and will be mentioned below only in so far as they have grammatical significance.

The grammatical changes of the strong verbs were very considerable. It can be seen from the table that the final syllables of the principal forms of strong verbs, like all final syllables, were weakened in Middle English and some of them were

lost in New English. Thus in Middle English the endings **-an**, **-on**, and **-en** (of the 1st, 3rd and 4th principal forms) were all levelled to **-en**; consequently, in Classes 6 and 7 the infinitive fell together with Participle II; in Class 3 it led to the coincidence of the 3rd and 4th principal forms. In the ensuing period, when the final **-n** was lost in the infinitive and the past tense plural it was preserved in Participle II of some verbs, probably to distinguish the form of Participle II from other forms.

Due to the phonetic changes of the Early Middle English period the vowel gradation became less consistent and regular than in Old English: thus due to lengthening before [nd] some verbs of Class 3 had a long [i:] like Class 1, whereas other verbs of Class 3 (e. g. ME *drinken*) had retained a short vowel.

Principal forms	OE	ME	NE	OE	ME	NE
<b>Class 1</b>			<b>Class 2</b>			
Inf.	<i>risan</i>	<i>risen</i> [i:]	<i>rise</i>	<i>ceosan</i>	<i>chesen</i> [e:]	<i>choose</i>
Past sg.	<i>ras</i>	<i>rose</i> [o:]	<i>rose</i>	<i>cēas</i>	<i>chees</i> [ε:]	<i>chose</i>
Past pl.	<i>rison</i>	<i>risen</i> [ɪ]		<i>curon</i>	<i>chosen</i> [ɔ:]	
Part II	<i>risen</i>	<i>risen</i> [ɪ]	<i>risen</i>	<i>coren</i>	<i>chosen</i> [ɔ:]	<i>chosen</i>
<b>Class 3</b>						
Inf.	<i>findan</i>	<i>finden</i> [i:]	<i>find</i>	<i>drincan</i>	<i>drinken</i> [ɪ]	<i>drink</i>
Past sg	<i>fōnd</i>	<i>fand</i> [a] or [a:]	<i>found</i>	<i>drōnc</i>	<i>drank</i> [a]	<i>drank</i>
Past pl	<i>fundon</i>	<i>founden</i> [u:]		<i>druncon</i>	<i>drunken</i> [u]	
Part. II	<i>funden</i>	<i>founden</i> [u:]	<i>found</i>	<i>druncen</i>	<i>drunken</i> [u]	<i>drunk</i>
<b>Class 4</b>			<b>Class 5</b>			
Inf.	<i>beran</i>	<i>beren</i> [ε:]	<i>bear</i>	<i>sp(r)ecan</i>	<i>specen</i> [ε:]	<i>speak</i>
Past sg	<i>baer</i>	<i>bar</i> [a]	<i>bore</i>	<i>sp(r)æc</i>	<i>spak</i> [a]	<i>spoke</i>
Past pl	<i>bæron</i>	<i>beren</i> [ε:]		<i>spæcon</i>	<i>speken</i> [ε:]	
Part. II	<i>boren</i>	<i>boren</i> [ɔ:]	<i>born</i>	<i>specen</i>	<i>speken</i> [e:], <i>spoken</i> [ɔ:]	<i>spoken</i>
<b>Class 6</b>			<b>Class 7</b>			
Inf.	<i>scacan</i>	<i>shaken</i> [a:]	<i>shake</i>	<i>cnawan</i>	<i>knownen</i> [ou]	<i>know</i>
Past sg	<i>scōc</i>	<i>shook</i> [ɔ:]	<i>shook</i>	<i>cnēow</i>	<i>knew</i> [eu]	<i>knew</i>
Past pl	<i>scōcon</i>	<i>shoken</i> [ɔ:]		<i>cnēowon</i>	<i>knewen</i> [eu]	
Part. II	<i>scacen</i>	<i>shaken</i> [a:]	<i>shake</i>	<i>cnawen</i>	<i>knownen</i> [ou]	<i>known</i>

The same root-vowel in the infinitive — *finden* and *risen* [i:] corresponded to different vowels in the other forms, which appears to be entirely unjustified from the point of view of Middle English. In many past participles — those with [o] and [a] — the vowel in the root was lengthened, while in others, e. g. ME *risen*, it was not, as the vowel [i] remained short in open syllables. These and other phonetic processes made the classes of strong verbs less regular than in Old English. No wonder that the strong verbs were easily influenced by analogy. Due to analogy, the strong verbs at an early date lost their consonant alternations (see ME *chesen*, Class 2).

The borders between the classes became indistinct, and the classes were often confused — this is shown in the table in the ME *speken*, originally belonging to Class 5, which began to build its Participle II like the verbs of Class 4 — *spoken*.<sup>3</sup>

***Changes in the Principal Forms of Strong Verbs in Middle English and Early New English.*** A most important grammatical event in the decay of the old system of strong verbs was the loss of one of their past tense stems in the transition to New English. The first of the two past tense stems was the form of the 1st and 3rd person singular; the second — called here for convenience's sake past plural — served to build the plural of the indicative mood, all the forms of the subjunctive mood and also some of the singular forms (the 2nd person of the indicative mood). The existence of two past tense stems in the Old English strong verbs was one of the important features distinguishing them from the weak verbs (in addition to vowel gradation and some endings).

As can be seen from Table 2, already in Old English the distinction of root-vowels in the four stems was not maintained in all the classes of strong verbs: Classes 6 and 7 distinguished but two root-vowels, Class 1, Class 5 and some subdivisions of Class 3 used a series of three vowels. In Middle English more and

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<sup>3</sup> The same is true of the modern *weave* and *tread* — *woven*, *trodden* — which originally belonged to Class 5 but were influenced by Class 4

more verbs lost the differences in the root-vowels between the four stems, e. g. the verb *chesen* in Class 2. This lack of regularity in differentiating between the four stems led to the levelling of stems by analogy and the ultimate reduction in the number of principal forms in the strong verb. \* The number of stems was reduced from four to three during the transition to New English: the two past tense stems were replaced by one. The new principal form used to build all the past forms of the indicative and subjunctive moods originated either from the singular or from the plural past tense stem. Both these sources are shown in Table 2, e. g. in ME *risen* the past tense singular *rose* was generalised as the past tense stem, while *risen*, the past plural was lost (NE *rise, rose*), in ME *finden*, the past plural form *founden* gave rise to the New English past tense *found* while the singular form *fund* died out. With some verbs, e. g. *finden*, the changes were carried even further: the verb retained but two distinct forms for the three stems. Sometimes only the ending -en was preserved to show the difference between the past tense and Participle II, e. g. *spoke, spoken*.<sup>45</sup>

Apart from the phonetic and the grammatical changes described above, the strong verbs were subjected to one more change: their number was greatly reduced. In Old English there were over three hundred strong verbs; in Middle English some verbs died out, while others began to build new, weak forms by adding the dental suffix on an analogy with the overwhelming majority of English verbs. Among the verbs that began to build the past tense or Participle II with the help of the dental suffix, like weak verbs, were, e. g. strong verbs and also *dig* and *string*. There exist only a few isolated instances of borrowed verbs developing strong forms, e. g. NE *take* (from Scandinavian), *strive* (from French).

***Origins of Some Groups of Modern Non-Standard Verbs.*** As we have seen the proportion of strong and weak verbs in the language has considerably altered in the course of history. The old strong verbs, reduced by over two thirds, constitute

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<sup>4</sup>This development may have been facilitated by the fact that weak verbs, which made up the majority of verbs in the language, had but three or two principal forms.

<sup>5</sup>In the language of the 17th and 18th centuries we sometimes find two principal forms with verbs which have preserved the distinction of three forms in Modern English, e. g. *will have stole* (Swift); *some disaster has befell* (Gay) — the past tense stems do not differ from Participle II,

an insignificant group in the modern verb system.

It is well known, however, that in Modern English we find many more irregular or non-standard verbs than the sixty-six strong verbs surviving from Old and Middle English. To these verbs, which are referred to as irregular in Modern English, over a hundred verbs were added from other sources. We shall mention some of the sources accounting for groups of non-standard verbs, weak in origin.

Several groups of modern non-standard verbs have developed from the weak verbs of Class 1. Nowadays they employ various form-build- ing devices: the dental suffix and vowel or consonant alternations.

A number of verbs in Class 1 showed certain irregularities already in Old English: (1) verbs like OE *sellan*, *tellan* had an interchange in the root-vowel accounted for by palatal mutation in the infinitive and its lack in the other forms (past tense *salde*, *talde*)\ in Middle English and New English they preserved both the vowel alternation and the dental suffix (ME *tellen*, *tolde*, NE *tell*, *told*). (2) verbs like OE *settan*, with the root ending in a dental consonant, had no vowel before the dental suffix in the past tense, OE *sette*) all distinctions between the present and past tense stems were lost when the inflections **-e** and **-en** were reduced to [a] and dropped in Late Middle English: NE *set*, *set* (the same process accounts for NE *put*, *cut* and the like, as in all these verbs the final **-t** of the root has absorbed the dental suffix). Another group of verbs became irregular as late as in Middle English due to the phonetic changes taking place in the language. Verbs like OE *fedan* or *cepan* have developed a root-vowel alternation due to the shortening of the root-vowel in the past tense and Participle II (OE *cepte* > ME *kepte* ['kepta], NE *kept*) and a change of the long vowel in the infinitive by the Great vowel shift. This group has attracted a number of verbs from other classes — *sleep*, *weep* (formerly strong verbs of Class 7). We may conclude that although the relative number of non-standard verbs in Modern English is not large, they constitute an important feature of the language. The tendency to simplify the verb system to two principal stems (which was carried out to the end in standard verbs and several non-standard verbs) was not realised in most of the former strong

verbs. Therefore in modern grammars all the forms of the verbs are based on three principal forms, on the model of non-standard verbs, strong by origin, although these verbs are relatively few in number, while the bulk of verbs in English do not distinguish between the past tense stem and the stem of Participle II.

**Decay of the old grammatical distinctions in the infinitive and the participles.** The system of verbals in Old English consisted of the infinitive and two participles. Their nominal characteristics were more pronounced than their verb characteristics, the infinitive being an old verbal noun and the participles — verbal adjectives.

The simplification they underwent in the Middle English period is therefore much closer connected with the respective changes in the nominal system than with the changes in the verb. The connections with the verb system are more apparent in the other aspects of their history: the growth of new verbal grammatical categories and analytical forms (see next lecture). We can define the general trend of their evolution as gradual loss of nominal features and acquisition of verbal features.

The infinitive had lost its inflected form by the Middle English period: the Old English *wrltan* and *to writanne* both appear in Middle English as *writen* and with the subsequent loss of [an] become NE *write*. The preposition *to*, which was placed in Old English before the inflected infinitive to show the meaning of direction or purpose, lost its prepositional force and changed into the formal sign of the infinitive. In Middle English we commonly find the infinitive with *to* which does not express purpose. To reinforce the meaning of purpose another preposition — *for* — was placed before the /o-infinitive. Compare:

***To liven indelit was evere his wone.*** (Chaucer)

*“To live in delight was always his habit.”*

*... to Caunterbury they wende,*

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

*to Canterbury they went in order to seek the holy blissful martyr.”*

Later, *for to* lost the meaning of purpose, as did *to* in an earlier period, and the phrase with *for* fell into disuse.<sup>6</sup>

The two participles lost their case, gender and number distinctions and also the weak and strong declensions in the same way as the adjective, though at an earlier date: they were usually uninflected already in Early Middle English.

The form of Participle I in Middle English is of special interest, as it shows considerable dialectal variations. As shown in the map, the Southern and Midland form was built from the present tense stem with the help of -ing(e), while in the other dialects we find forms in -inde and -ende; the former became the dominant form in the literary language. The Middle English Participle I in -ingsleeping(e) coincided in form with the verbal noun, which was formed in Old English with the help of the suffixes -ian and -mian, but in Middle English had retained only one suffix: -ing (*sleeping*). The homonymy of the participle V with the verbal noun turned out to be an important factor in the formation of a new verbal, the gerund, and also in the development of the continuous forms. The form of Participle in Middle English, being one of the principal forms of the verb, was built differently by the weak and strong verbs. In the weak verbs the form of Participle II had a dental suffix and usually did not differ from the Past tense stem, e. g. ME *bathed* — Past tense Forms of Participle I in ME dialects and Participle II. In the strong verbs it was marked by the ending -en and by a specific gradation vowel in each class (see Table 1 in 2.1 of this lecture and the comments on the history of the classes); this ending was preserved by many verbs in Modern English, e. g. *shaken*, *forgotten*, *born*, etc. In Middle English texts Participle II is sometimes marked by the prefix i-, e. g. ME *i-runne*, *y-fallen*, NE *run*, *fallen* which is a continuation of the Old English prefix *æ-*, phonetically weakened to [i]. The prefix was not obligatory in Middle English and was completely lost in New English.

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<sup>6</sup>the preservation of *to* as a marker of the infinitive may have been essential in view of the homonymy of the infinitive with many finite forms in Middle English (namely the plural, ending in -en), and later with all the present forms except the third person singular

**On the causes of the reduction and loss of inflections.** As we have seen, all the inflected parts of speech underwent extensive changes between the 11th and the 16th centuries. The causes of these great changes (as well as the entire problem of the transition of English to a more analytical grammatical structure) have given rise to many theories.

In the 19th century the simplification of English morphology was attributed to the effect of phonetic changes, namely the reduction of sounds in unstressed final syllables (originally caused by the heavy fixed stress). Due to the phonetic weakening it became difficult to differentiate between the grammatical forms, and new, analytical ways of word connection sprang into being: prepositions and a fixed word order. \* This theory ignores the fact that prepositional phrases were widely used a long time before the grammatical endings were lost; besides, it concentrates on the phonetic changes (and phonetic causes) alone and does not take into account the historical tendencies in the grammatical level proper.

Some scholars account for the changes in English grammar by the effect of foreign contacts, the Scandinavian influence in particular. They maintain that when, after the Scandinavian invasion the English and the Scandinavian dialects intermixed, the- distinct pronunciation of roots was more essential for mutual understanding than the pronunciation of the endings; consequently, the endings were easily reduced and dropped. In the first place, this theory is not correct from the chronological viewpoint: the weakening of endings took place already in Old English (and even in Common Germanic) that is a long time before the Scandinavians came to Britain. Secondly, it should be noted that a foreign influence as a rule does not effect any of the linguistic spheres, except the wordstock. \*\*\* However, the mixture of languages may have brought about a general unsettling of the grammatical rules observed in the language, for it had led to a break in the written tradition.

We should also mention the so-called “theory of progress” proposed by O. Jespersen, which, despite its obvious weakness, gained certain popularity. O. Jespersen tried to present the history of the English language as the only way to a “superior” kind of

language, best appropriate to the needs of human communication and the advance of thought. He asserted that an analytical grammatical system was more progressive than a synthetic one and that it would be attained by other languages in the future, as it has already been attained by English.<sup>7</sup> This theory should certainly be rejected, for it would be wrong to classify languages into “superior” and “inferior”, especially on the ground of the form-building means employed. We may recall that in the history of other well developed languages (e. g. Russian) reverse processes have been recorded, when analytical forms were replaced by synthetic ones. Another theory attempts to attribute the loss of endings to “functional” causes, that is to the loss of grammatical significance or of the grammatical “load” by the endings in the changed conditions. Thus the endings of nouns seem unnecessary when their function has been taken over by prepositions; the endings of adjectives showing gender become meaningless when the nouns have no gender; therefore they can easily be dispensed with, or dropped.

We must say that with the exception of the theory of progress all the views mentioned above may be regarded as partly correct; they are all one-sided, as they lay great emphasis on one of the factors, while in reality the grammatical transformation came about as a result of an interplay of various factors. Both the phonetic reduction and the growth of analytical means contributed to the change since an early date;\*\* even the linguistic intermixture may have somewhat accelerated the process. But first and foremost among the causes was the internal tendency of the grammatical level to work out more uniform and general formal means for the most essential grammatical distinctions and to dispense with those that were treated as unessential (the latter include not only the redundant forms such as a case-form expressing the same meaning as a preposition, but also some grammatical categories which died out altogether, e. g. gender). It is notable that

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<sup>7</sup>See, e. g.: *Stuart Robertson*. Development of Modern English. Leningrad, 1946; also the views of A. Meillet criticised by *Zhirmunsky* in: «Ученые записки ЛГУ», Серия филологических наук, вып. V, 1947.

even the so-called phonetic loss of inflections was carried out on a selective principle: if the inflection was regarded as essential, it was preserved, as was the case with the inflection **-en** in the plural of nouns and Participle II. The replacement of the variety of formal means used in Old English by the more universal form markers (seen in changes by analogy) was caused by the internal tendency to greater generalisation and abstraction inherent in the grammatical system. Thus the use of two means — a prepositional phrase and an oblique case-form without prepositions — to express the same meaning may have become unnecessary as this meaning could well be expressed by one general means: the prepositional phrase. Likewise, the meaning of the plural in nouns instead of a variety of endings could be shown by the almost universal ending **-es**; the person of the verb could be shown by placing the personal pronoun before the verb, which was a more general device than the ending (hence only the most phonetically stable ending **-es** was preserved), etc.

All the languages of the Germanic group displayed a tendency to simplify their morphological structure and to employ analytical means; but in no other language was the tendency carried so far as in English. It proved to be especially strong due to the joint operation of all the factors: the drastic phonetic changes, the internal trends of the grammatical system and the external historical conditions.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. Trace the origin of the modern verb inflections **-es** and **-ed** and their variants.
2. Prove that the verb-forms in Middle English and Early New English grew increasingly homonymous.
3. What is the difference between the terms “weak” and “strong” and “regular” and “irregular”? Give examples of former strong verbs becoming standard and of former weak verbs becoming non-standard.
4. Why can modern English verbs of the type *sleep*, *show* be called mixed?
5. Give a critical review of the theories explaining the general trends of grammatical changes in English.

## TASKS

**Task 1.** Explain whether the conditions for the loss of consonant in the word hlǣfdige (Mod.E. lady) and in the word hēafod (Mod E. head) are the same.

**Task 2.** Given that the sound of [b] in the words thumb 'thumb', limb 'finiteness', crumb 'cock', numb 'numb' (participle II from the OE verb niman) appeared, according to Brunner's explanation, "as a result of the bow after the nose in the Middle English period, "explain the relative chronology of its loss in words such as climb (OE. climbian), dumb (OE. dumb), lamb (OE. lamb), womb (OE. wamb), plumb (Latin plumbum)

**Task 3.** Explain the appearance of the sound [b] in the word slumber (OE. Slūma), if it is known that the word nimble 'agile' originated from niman 'select' + cyficc-el. Compare thimble (OE. Þymel), as well as the form hambres (Mod.E. hammer 'malleus') and the form of embers 'hot ash' (from OE. Æmerges + s) found in the Middle English period. Analogously, the origin of the sound [d] in the words thunder (OE. Þunor), spindle (OE. Spinel, spinnan; Mod. E. to spin) is similarly explained.

**Task 4.** Specify the reasons why the double writing in the modern language of the following forms became possible, given that historically these different forms trace back to one of them: wrapped-wrapt, cursed-curst, dropped-dropt.

**Task 5.** Explain the writing of the words build and fruit in modern English (OE, byldan, ME, fruit -fr., Fruit-lat. Fructus). It is known that in the modern English language in the place of the Old English y in the writing occurs most often the letter i. Compare:

OE. fȳre - Mod.E. fire; OE. fyllan- Mod. E. to fill.

**Task 6.** Explain historically the spelling of the words busy, burn. It is known that in the Old English period (Wess.), These words had the form of *bysie*, *byrnan*, and in modern English, in other words, in place of the Old English, for the most part is written *i*

OE.styrian -Mod. E. stir, OE. synne-Mod. E. sin, OE. nyht-Mod. E night.

### Conjugation of Verbs in Middle English and Early New English<sup>1</sup>

	Strong		Weak	
	ME	Early NE	ME	Early NE
<i>Infinitive</i>	finde(n)	find	looke(n)	look
<b>Present tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1st	finde	find	looke	look
2nd	findest/finde	findest	lookest	lookest
3rd	findeth/finde	finds /findeth	/lookes looketh	looks /looketh
Pl	finde(n)/findeth /finde	find	looke(n) /looketh /lookes	look
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	finde	find	looke	look
Pl	finde(n)		looke(n)	
<i>Imperative</i>	find(e) findeth/finde		look(e) looketh /looke	
<i>Participle I</i>	finding(e)/-ende /findind(e) /findand(e)	finding	looking(e) /-ende/-ind(e) /-ande	looking
<b>Past tense</b>				
<i>Indicative</i>				
Sg 1st	fand <sup>2</sup>	found	looked(e)	looked
2nd	founde/fand /fandes		lookedest	
3rd	fand		looked(e)	
Pl	founde(n)		looked(en)	
<i>Subjunctive</i>				
Sg	founde	found	looked(e)	looked
Pl	founde(n)		looked(en)	
<i>Participle II</i>	founden	found	looked	looked

<sup>1</sup> In the lists of variants the London form comes first.

<sup>2</sup> By the end of the 15th c. the two stems of the Past tense of strong verbs fell together: *fand* and *founde(n)* was replaced by *found*, see strong verbs, §478.

## Activities

**Activity 1.** The Middle English tendency for strong verbs to become weak continued during the Renaissance. A number of verbs which had been strong in Old English and which are now weak fluctuated between the two forms. A few weak verbs developed strong forms, but most of these, like all new verbs entering the language, are now exclusively weak, with –edendlings pronounced [d], [t], or [ɪd].

The italicized verbs are all in the past tense. Identify the forms as strong ( S ) or weak ( W ).

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Three times to day I hope him to his horse (2 Henry VI 5.3.8)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The first was I that help'd thee to the Crowne (Richard III 5.3.167)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. The frame and huge foundation of the Earth Shak'd like a Coward  
(1 Henry IV 3.1.16-17)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Oh, then the Earth shooke to see the Heauens on fire (1 Henry IV  
3.1.25)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. When the Sun shyned on the wyndowes there upon  
(Kyd.Housholders Philosophie,1408)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. I:the most peerelesspeece of Earth, I thinke,  
That ere the Sunne shone bright on (Winter's Tale 5.1.94-  
95)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Beheld them when they lighted, how they clung  
In their Embracement (Henry VIII 1.1.9-10)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. He on the suddainecling'd her so about (Marlowe, Hero and  
Leander2.314)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. As to a stomackserv'd, whose insides meete,  
Meate comes, it came; and swole our sailes (Donne, Storme20-21)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. And Sidnusswell'daboue the Bankes (Cymbeline 2.4.71)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Many devout persons came and sticked in the dowy Image pretious  
stone

(Gage, West Ind.[1648], in OED)

\_\_\_\_\_ 12. He stucke them vp before the fulsome Ewes (Merchant of Venice 1.3.87)

\_\_\_\_\_ 13. Outward necessities.....drived many to seek to Christ  
(Baxter, Paraphrase N. T., John 4.46  
in OED)

\_\_\_\_\_ 14. A troubled mind draue me to walke abroad (Romeo andf Juliet 1.1.127)

\_\_\_\_\_ 15. To behold he clomb up to the bancke (Spenser, Faerie Queene 2.7.57.1)

\_\_\_\_\_ 16. Make warre with him that climb'dvnto their nest (3 Henry VI 2.2.31)

**Activity 2.** The verbs in the sentences above had the following principal parts in Old English. Examine the vowels and endings of the principal parts to determine whether the Old English verbs were strong or weak, and write S or W in the first column. Then, from the sentences above, determine whether the verbs in Renaissance English were strong, weak, or variable and write S, W, or S/W in the second column to indicate that verbs are strong, weak, or variable in current usage.

Old English				
helpan	'help'	healp	hulpon	holpen
scacan	'shake'	scoc	scocon	scacen
scinan	'shine'	scan	scinon	scinen
clingan	'cling'	clang	clungon	clungen
swellan	'swell'	sweal	swullon	swollen

stician	‘stick’	sticode		sticod
drifan	‘drive’	draf	drifon	drifen
climban	‘climb’	clamb	clumbon	clumben

	Old English	Renaissance English	Present-Day English
	S	S/W	W
help			
shake			
shine			
cling			
swell			
stick			
drive			
climb			

## 8. MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD (XVI – XX cc.)

### *Key words:*

**Literary norm, popular speech, formation of a national language, normalization of spelling and grammatical forms, the Great Vowel Shift diphthongization.**

### *Discussion points:*

- 7.1. Important Historic Events of the Period
- 7.2. Development of Literary Language
- 7.3. From Middle to Modern
- 7.4. The Great Vowel Shift

### *Literature:*

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In the course of the 15<sup>th</sup> century, the London literary language gradually spread all over the country, superseding local dialects. Spoken English in various parts of Britain gradually approaches the literary norm and differences between the norm and popular speech tend to become obliterated. The formation of a national

language was greatly fostered by two events of the late 15<sup>th</sup> century. The most significant event of the period was the **Wars of the Roses** (1455 – 1485), which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. The political result was the rise of an absolute monarchy. A high degree of political centralization 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**. Having acquainted with this art, the Englishman William Caxton (1422–1491) published the first English printed book, “THE RECUYELL OF THE HISTORIES OF TROY” (Сборник Рассказов о Трое) in Bruges, in 1475. The spread of printed books was bound to faster the normalization of spelling and also of grammatical forms. 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 most notable forerunners of the literary Renaissance in the first half of the 16<sup>th</sup> century were the great English humanist Thomas More (1478 – 1535), translator of *Utopia* and William Tyndale, the translator of the Bible. The end of the 16<sup>th</sup> century (the 80s and 90s) witnesses the rise of a great number of dramatists. The greatest of these was William Shakespeare (1564 – 1616).

The language of the 16<sup>th</sup> and early 17<sup>th</sup> century was bound to appear wild and clumsy. Publications of Shakespeare’s works appearing in the 18<sup>th</sup> century are full of arbitrary changes designed to make Shakespeare’s text conform to the “correctness” of the 18<sup>th</sup> century. In the 17<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> century a great number of grammarians and orthoepists appeared, who set as their task the establishing of correct language forms. About the middle of the 18<sup>th</sup> century, there appears a tendency to limit the freedom of phonetic and grammatical variants within the national language. The idea of a strict norm in language was expressed with yet greater clarity in a preface appended by Samuel Johnson (1709–1784) to his famous “*Dictionary of the English Language*” (1755). Dr. Johnson preferred the “regular and solemn” pronunciation to the “cursory and colloquial”. This view is most characteristic of the mid 18<sup>th</sup> century.

When we come to the vowel changes that English words underwent in passing from Middle to Modern English, we see the importance of the factors that determined the length of vowel in ME. All ME long vowels underwent extensive alteration in passing into ModE, but the short vowels, in accented syllables, remained comparatively stable. If we compare Chaucer's pronunciation of the short vowels with ours, we note only two changes of importance those of *a* and *u*. By Shakespeare's day (at the close of the 16<sup>th</sup> century) Chaucer's *a* had become [æ] in pronunciation (*cat, thank, flax*). In some cases this ME *a* represented an OE *æ* (*at, apple, back*), and the new pronunciation was therefore a return to approximately the form that the word had had in OE. It is the usual pronunciation in America and a considerable part of the Southern England today. The change the *u* underwent was what is known as unrounding. In Chaucer's pronunciation this vowel was sounded as [u] in "full". By the 16<sup>th</sup> century it seems to have become in most words the sound [ʌ] that we have in "but" (e.g., *cut, sun*). So far as the short vowels are concerned, it is clear that a person today would have little difficulty in understanding the English of any period of the language.

The most significant phonetic change of this period was the Great Vowel Shift, beginning in the 15<sup>th</sup> century. It left its imprint on the entire vowel system of the ModE period. The essence of the shift was the **narrowing of all ME long vowels and diphthongization of the narrowest long ones.**

The separate items of the shift may be presented in the following way:

- |                 |  |
|-----------------|--|
| 1. i: > ai      | <i>time</i> [t:mə] time; <i>fīv</i> [fi:f] five          |
| 2. e: > i:      | <i>kepen</i> [ke:pen] keep; <i>mēde</i> [me:də] meed     |
| 3. ɛ: > e: > i: | <i>street</i> [stre:t] street; <i>clēn</i> [klɛ:n] clean |
| 4. a: > ei      | <i>maken</i> [ma:ken] make; <i>nāme</i> [nɑ:mə] name     |
| 5. o: > u:      | <i>mōn</i> [mo:n] moon; <i>rōte</i> [ro:tə] root         |
| 6. o: > ou      | <i>stone</i> [sto:n] stone; <i>gōte</i> [go:tə] goat     |
| 7. u: > au      | <i>mous</i> [mu:s] mouse; <i>dūn</i> [du:n] down         |

It should be obvious from the table that the Great Vowel Shift did not add any new sound to the vowel system; in fact, every vowel, which developed under the shift, can be found in Late ME. And nevertheless, the Great Vowel Shift was the most profound and comprehensive change in the history of English vowels: every long vowel, as well as some diphthongs, were “shifted” and the pronunciation of all the words with these sounds were altered. It is important to note that the Great Vowel Shift, unlike most of the earlier phonetic changes, was not followed by any regular spelling changes.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. What new forces began to affect the English language in the Modern English period?
2. In what way could the Wars of the Roses affect the development of English?
3. What is the characteristic feature of the English language in 16-17<sup>th</sup> centuries?
4. Why did the literary works of Shakespeare appear with the arbitrary changes in the 18<sup>th</sup> century?
5. When and by whom was “*Dictionary of the English Language*” published? How does the author define the English language of the 18<sup>th</sup> century?
6. When did the Great Vowel Shift occur?
7. What is its essence?
8. Why is the Great Vowel Shift responsible for the anomalous use of the vowel symbols in English spelling?

## **TASKS**

**Task 1.** Explain writing in modern English a layer much (OE. Mycel, ME. Muchel); shut (OE. scyttan); church (OE. cyrice) such (OE. swilc, swylc, ME. such, soch) if it is known that the Old English sound y in modern English language is most often reflected as [ɪ], denoted by the letter *i*?

**Task 2.** Explain historically the pronunciation in modern English of the word bury [ˈberi], if it is known that in the Wessex dialect of the Old English language in this word in the root syllable was the sound of (OE. Byrian).

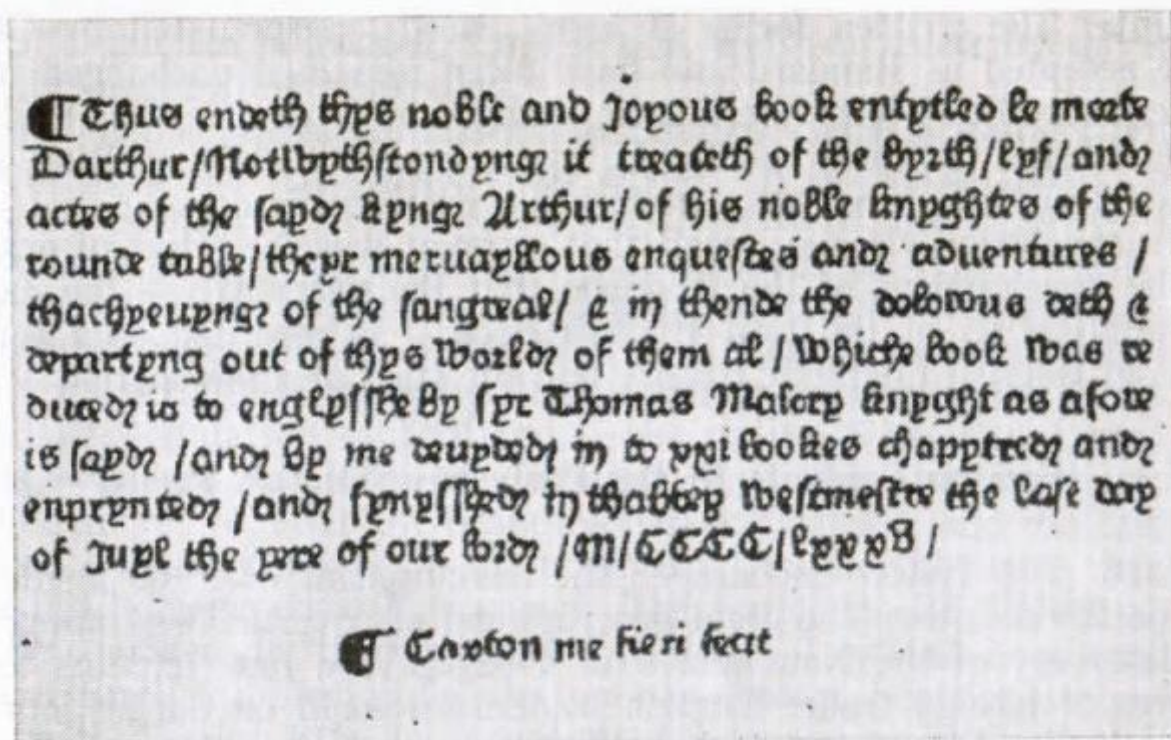
**Task 3.** Explain the variations in the writing of stressed vowels (in the Middle English and early New England periods) in the following words:

ferst, furst, first ‘первый’; girdle, girdle ‘пояс’; mirth, myrth ‘веселье’; thirst, therst, thyrst (OE þyrstan) ‘жажда’.

**Task 4.** How can the modern pronunciation of vowels in the words two (OE. Twā), who (OE. hwā) be explained? It is known that OE. ā is reflected in modern language as a diphthong [ou].

**Task 5.** Explain the deviation from the regular transition of ē to [i:] in words:

friar ‘монах’ (ст. фр. frere, ME. frēre), briar ‘шиповник’ (OE. brāer, ME. brēr), choir [ˈkwaɪə] ‘хор’ (ст.-фр. cuer), contrive ‘ухитриться’ (ME. contrēve).



The last page of MORTE D'ARTHUR as printed by William Caxton

**Task 6.** Explain the modern pronunciation of the long [i:] in the word degree and the pronunciation of the combination [wa] in the word choir [ˈkwaɪə] 'chorus'?

**Task 7.** What extralinguistic reasons explained the originality of the pronunciation of the initial *ch* in the Chicago city name [ʃiˈkɑ: gou], if in other words (for example, chicken, child, etc.) the initial *ch* usually transmits the sound [tʃ]?

**Task 8.** Explain the difference in pronunciation between the words: фр. Guerre ‘война’, war ‘война’; 2) ward и guard ‘сторож’, if it is known that each pair of reduced words goes back to the same source. To which source it was based?

**Task 9.** Explain the change compared to the Old English writing of words like guess (ME. Gessen from scand.), Tongue (OE. Tunze). Compare it with the previous examples from Task 62.

- Half French/half English words
  1. French root/Native ending:
    - *faint/faintness*
    - *court/courtship*
    - *duke/dukedom*
  2. Native root/French ending:
    - *shepherd/shepherdess*
    - *mile/mileage*
    - *drink/drinkable*

#### Hybrids

**Task 9.** Explain the difference in writing the words deer and dear, which in modern English are pronounced equally - [diə]. When is this differentiation formed in writing?

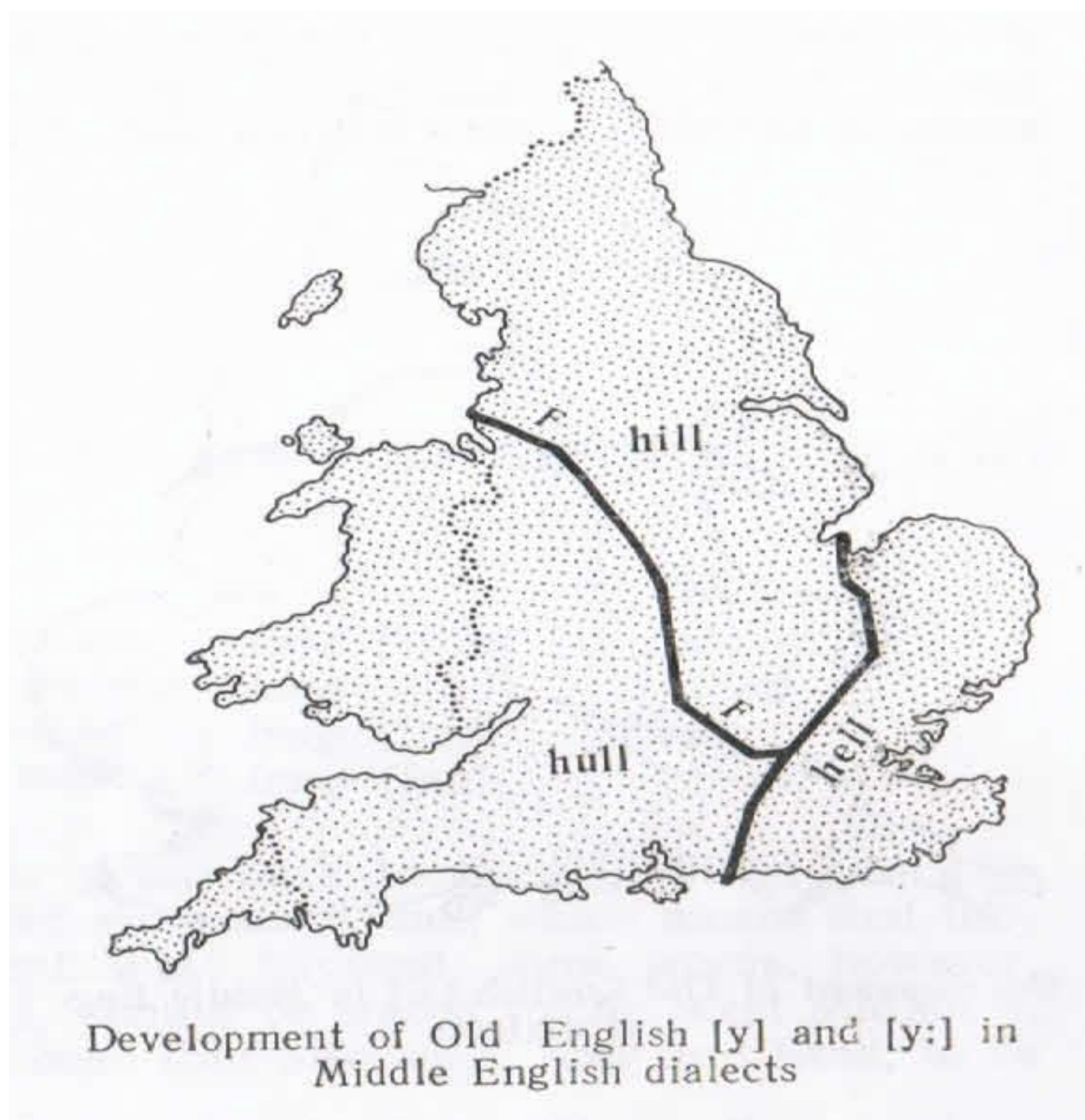
**Task 10.** Explain the presence of two forms of pronunciation and writing the word staff in the plural (depending on the value): staff-staves [steivz] and staff-staffs [sta: fs].

**Task 11.** Explain the difference in the pronunciation of the following words in modern English:

dearth (OE. deōre) ‘недостаток съестных продуктов’, heard ‘слышал’ (OE. hērde) и hear (OE. hēran), year (OE. ȝēr).

**Task 12.** Explain the introduction of writing *gh* to the words *delit* (Mod.E. delight-old-fr. Delit) and the rhyming of this word with the words might 'power', knight 'knight'. Which is earlier, the possibility of rhyming or changing the spelling?

**Task 13.** Explain the occurrence of sound [t] in words against (from OE. On-*zēanes*), amongst (from OE. Onman*z*es), whilst. Compare with the occurrence of [t] in the word hoist 'raise flag' (as a result of constant use in combination *hoist* the flag 'поднимать флаг').



## MODERN ENGLISH PERIOD



A map of Modern English dialects

**Task 14** Explain the absence of diphthongization in the words: room (OE. *rūm*), loop, stoop (OE. *stūpian*), tomb (ME. *tumb*), droop, if it is known that in the 15th century, *ū* sounded here, which usually turns into diphthong [au].

**Task 15.** Explain that there is no shift in the vowels in words: redeem(fr *redimer*), esteem(fr *estimer*), canteen(fr *cantine*), breeze(esp *brisa*), genteel(fr *gentil*),

shagreen (french chagrin ), as well as in the words tour, routine, rouge, soup, machine.

## 9. DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH TO THE PRESENT TIME

### *Key words:*

**Phonemes, borrowings, derivations, new acquisitions, native and foreign sources, grammatical and lexical means, extra-linguistic relations, progress, regress, elaborate declension system, “simplification”, transformation.**

### *Discussion points:*

- 8.1. Phonetic Sphere
- 8.2. Vocabulary
- 8.3. Sphere of Grammar. Adjectives
- 8.4. Development of the Verbal System

### *Literature:*

1. *Аракин В.Д.* История английского языка. М.: Просвещение, 1985.
2. *Бруннер К.* История английского языка. Пер. с нем. М.: Иностранная литература, т. I-II, 1955-1956.
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4. *Baugh A.C., Cable Th.* A History of the English Language. New Jersey, 1993.
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It's plain to everyone that the English language of to-day is very different from that of, say, the 8<sup>th</sup> century, as represented in “Beowulf”, so much that an inexperienced observer would hesitate to recognize that the two are two phrases in

the development of the same language, that is of the same dynamic system, which, step by step, arrived at its present state after having for some time been what it was at the time of the “Beowulf”.

To arrive at a strict, scientifically founded appreciation of language development, we must get rid of all those one-sided, incompatible prejudices, and assess language development on truly objective grounds, free from preconceived ideas, and measuring the pros and cons of every case, being ready to accept any conclusion that may impose itself on the ground of observation of facts. Taking all these considerations into account, we can make an objective conclusion of history of the English language development in the course of its more than 1000-year-long history, in the various spheres of its structure.

In the phonetic sphere, it is obvious that the number of phonemes has grown considerably during the 1000 years of the history of the language. Though the number of vowel phonemes in OE may be arguable, it is clear that even if we suppose the OE language to have had the maximum possible number of phonemes, their number has grown. While it would be premature to assert that this growth of the number of vowel phonemes has been an advantage, it seems possible to suppose that it has, to some extent, increased the possibilities of the English vocabulary in ModE as compared to OE. In the consonant sphere the development seems to be less clear. On the one hand, new phonemes have appeared, such [v, z, ð, ʒ] which certainly did not exist as separate phonemes in OE. On the other, however some OE phonemes dropped in the history of the language. On the whole, anyway, the number of consonant phonemes appears to have grown, too, and the possibilities of the language to have increased.

In the sphere of vocabulary, the changes have been very great, and not easy to assess. Owing to specific conditions in which the English language developed during the centuries (conquests, cultural contacts), the vocabulary of 20<sup>th</sup> – century English is very different from that of, say, 9<sup>th</sup> century English. A number of other words, some borrowed from different languages, others derived from OE sources, have made their appearance. It would appear, however, that the ModE vocabulary

is richer than was the OE, so that the losses sustained during the history of the language have been made up for by new acquisitions from both native and foreign sources.

The sphere of grammar has always been a favourite field of contention between partisans of different views of language development.

As we know, the four cases found in OE (as in other Old Germanic languages) have been reduced to two, and even the existence of these two in Present – Day English is doubtful. A number of meanings, which were expressed by case endings in OE, came to be expressed by prepositions, that is, as we see it, grammatical means of expression have been superseded by lexical means. This in itself cannot be considered as either progress or its opposite. The possibilities the English language has of expressing certain extra-linguistic relations between objects, actions, etc. do not seem to have changed (either increased or diminished) in connection with these developments. Thus it will probably be safe to say that the notion of progress or regress cannot be applied to the development of the case system and prepositional phrases in English. Turning to the adjectives we find what was perhaps the greatest change of all: the disappearance of an elaborate declension system and the adjective becoming an invariable part of speech (except degrees of comparison). It would be futile to deny that a “simplification” did occur here. It is especially the disappearance of the distinction between strong and weak adjective declension. However, replacement of agreement by joining is also connected with a certain limitation in the freedom of word order in English. As long as there was adjective declension, and, therefore, agreement of adjective attributes with their head words, the adjectival attribute need not stand close to its head word. This free order could not survive in ModE.

Probably the most serious problems are posed by development of the verbal system. It is doubtful whether talk of “simplification” has any meaning here or not. In a way, it might certainly be argued that the present-day system, with its 16 tenses, is more complicated than the OE system which had only 2 tenses. On the other hand, disappearance of personal endings, such as *-e*, *-est*, *-ep*, *-ap*, *-on*, *-en*

and of the infinitive ending *-an* and the participle prefix *þe-*, does deserve the name of simplification. There is one more question to be considered here. The continuous aspect of the English verb has only developed properly since about the 17<sup>th</sup> century. The present tense, common aspect, would often be used to denote an action, which in present-day English would be denoted by the present continuous.

As it is seen in the different parts of speech in the course of ME and ModE the grammatical system of the language underwent profound alteration. Since the OE period, the very grammatical type of the language has changed; from what can be defined as a synthetic or inflected language, with a well-developed morphology English has been transformed into a language of the analytical type, with analytical forms and ways of word connection prevailing over synthetic ones.

### ***Self-control questions:***

1. What new phonemes (consonants, vowels) appeared in ModE as compared to the OE period?
2. Due to what accounts does the development in the consonant sphere seem to be less clear?
3. In what ways was the vocabulary of the English language enriched through its historical development?
4. Define: grammatical means of expression have been superseded by lexical means.
5. Why cannot the notion of progress or regress be applied to the development of the case system and prepositional phrases in English?
6. Which part of speech has lost the greatest number of grammatical categories?
7. How can “simplification” be applied to the development of adjectives through their historical development?
8. Which part of speech has acquired new categories?

## **TASKS**

**Task 1.** Explain the writing of the anglicized forms of esteem, canteen (the French forms of these words are estime, cantine).

**Task 2.** Explain the modern spelling of the word heart (OE.heorte- ME. Herte), if it is known that eo-e, and e + r in most cases is reflected in the New England as **ar** [ɑ:] (which is fixed in writing: sterre - star).

**Task 3.** Explain the difference in pronunciation of the words stone and more, road and oar, if in the Old English language everywhere was ā: stān, mārā, rād, ār. Compare also foot and floor, where there was a long closed sound ō.

**Task 4.** How to explain the difference in the pronunciation of vowels in the suffix *-hood* (childhood) and in the word *road*, if it is known that historically had they one vowel ā?

**Task 5.** Explain the difference in the pronunciation of vowels in words with the same spelling in modern English:

(1) dread, bread, head; (2) speak, feat, meat, beam, to read, to lead.

**Task 6.** Explain the difference in pronunciation of vowels in words: *flood*, *blood*, *glove* (OE *zlōf*) and *book*, *cook*, *look*, *hook*, *took*. It is known that all these words in Old English and Middle English had a long closed sound ō.

**Task 7.** Explain the same pronunciation in the modern language of the words to *meet* and *meat*, if it is known that in Old English they were pronounced differently (OE. mētan and mete).

**Task 8.** Explain the difference of the following words in writing which pronounced in modern English the same way: *to meet*-*meat*-*mete* ('border, border sign').

**Task 9.** Explain that there is no shift of the vowels in the word sheriff (OE. scīr-zerēfa).

**Task 10.** Indicate which phonetic processes explain the unequal pronunciation of etymologically the same sound in the roots of the following correlated words and forms of words:

child—children, wild—wilderness, wise— wisdom, keep— kept, meet— met, feed— fed, house— husband.

**Task 11.** Explain the pronunciation of the initial sound in the numeral one, if it is known that in Old English this word was represented by the form ān, and the sound

ā usually gives the diphthong [ou] in modern language. Name the self-root words of modern English, where the development of sound ā in the diphthong [ou] would be represented in the root ān.

**Task 12.** Explain how did arise types of homophones: tail 'tail', tale 'story'; ail 'sick', ale 'beer'; to 'bait' to 'argue', debate 'to argue'.

**Task 13.** Explain the spelling and pronunciation of the borrowed words lemon (limon), declension (fr declinaison), if it is known that in the XVI and XVII centuries. such words as children (plural from child), dinner, dish, indifferent could be written through e (cheldren, denner, desh, indeffererit). See also the modern sheriff (OE. scīr-zerēfa, ME. shirreve).

**Task 14.** Explain the change in spelling and pronunciation of the following words, borrowed from the French language in the XVI century: bankrupt (French banqueroute), verdict (french verdict), and also writing the words: victuals [vitlɪz] (fr. vitailles), indict [in'daɪt] (f enditer ), schism [sɪzəm] 'split' (fr schisme), schedule ['ʃedju:l] (french cedula).

**Task 15.** Indicate how the introduction of the letter l (and, in some cases, the pronunciation of the sound [l]) in the following words borrowed from the French, explains the introduction of the new spelling: assault 'attack, attack' (French assault ), fault 'error' (faute), cauldron 'boiler' (chaudron), soldier (soldier, soudeour), falcon 'falcon' [fɔ:lkn] (French faucon).

**Task 16.** Explain the sonorous pronunciation of the consonant in the modern suffix -ive (in Middle English there was a voiceless consonant f): actif, passif, pensif 'brooding', plaintiff 'plaintive', etc.)

**Task 17.** Explain the change of writing words such as ME. licour in the New England period (art.-fr.licour) -Mod. E. liquor; ME. langage (old fr.langage) -Mod. E. language

**Task 18.** Explain the difference in pronunciation and writing of modern English words *parson* 'priest' and *person* 'person', if it is known that both of them go back to the Latin word *persona*. (Compare ME .parfit and Mod.E. perfect.)

**Task 19.** Explain the possibility of a double spelling in the words *show-shew* (OE. Scēawian), *plow-plow* (OE. plōh).

**Task 20.** What caused the different spelling of words like *shagreen* [ʃæ'gri: n] 'shagreen skin' and *chagrin* ['ʃægrin] 'rope', *shammy* ['ʃæmi] 'suede' and *chamois* ['ʃæmwɑ:] 'chamois (from the French chamois'serva)'? Why was it possible to double spelling?

**Task 21.** Explain the difference in writing unstressed vowels in doublets: *travel* 'путешествовать' — *travail* 'трудиться'.

**Task 22.** Explain the pronunciation of the word *quean* 'girl', a long e is attested, while in the word of the same root the *queen* 'queen' in this period sounds a long i. (According to the rules of reading, the digraph ea already in the XVIII century transmits a long sound i.)

**Task 23.** Explain the modern pronunciation of [ə:] in the words *word*, *world*, if in other words the combination or is commonly pronounced as [ɜ:]: *cord* [kɔ:d], *lord* [lɔ:d] etc.

**Task 24.** Explain the same pronunciation and writing of vowels in words such as *field* and *grief*, in which the composition of the vowel roots was not the same (OE. *Feld*, old french *griver*).

**Task 25.** Explain the change in the spelling of words like *gray* (ME. *Gray*), *faith* (ME. *Feið*), *way* (ME. *Wey*).

**Task 26.** What conclusions can be drawn about the development of sound [h] from the comparison of the modern pronunciation of the following words:

*eight* (OE. *eahta*), *night* (OE. *niht*), *bright* (OE. *briht*), *tough* [tʌf] 'жесткий' (OE. *tōh*), *enough* (OE. *ʒe-nōh*), *draught* [drɔ:ft] 'сквозняк' (ME. *draught*), OE. *though* [ðou] (OE. *þūh*), *dough* [dou] 'тесто' (OE. *dūh*), *bought* (OE. *bōhte*), *sought* (OE. *sōhte*), *slaughter* ['sl :tə] (ME. *sloughter*), новдиалектах: *slaughter* ['sl ɔftə], *bought* [b ɔft], *thought* [θɔft], *though* [ð ɔf], *through* [θruf]?

**Task 27.** How you explain the historically use of various digraphs (ee and ea) for designating the same sound [i:] in modern English in words like: *keep-meat*, *sea-see*, *lead-deed*, *weak-seek*, *read-reed*?

**Task 28.** Explain the absence of the transition of the sound [u] to [ʌ] in the words full, bull, pull, push, wolf, wool, wood, pulpit, pudding, butcher, bushel, ambush, bush, bullet; bulwark. Is it necessary to save [u] in this type of words? (Compare bulk, bulb, pulp, etc.)

**Task 29.** Explain the variation in pronunciation - [tʃ] and [dʒ] in words such as ostrich 'ostrich', Norwich

**Task 30.** Explain the modern spelling of the words, if it is known that in the Old English language (Wessex dialect) these words had æ: strfæ̃t, slæ̃pan, æ̃l, spræ̃c, næ̃dla, græ̃diȝ . (Compare OE. Sæ-Mod. E. sea, OE. Lædan-Mod. E. to lead.)

**Task 31.** Determine which of the following words in modern English are borrowed and indicate from which language they are borrowed. Note the phonetic characteristics by which the given word is defined as borrowed or as originally English:

skill, skin, skirt, sky, shirt, give, kid, kill, keg, get, supreme, cravat, chandelier, chaise, charade, machine, avalanche, blindage, massage, prestige, regime, rouge, coup, chateau, debris, ragout, trait, ballet, squire, sceptic, symbol, scheme, school, phrase, phenomenon, physic, philanthropic, leg, log, act, actual, agriculture, application, shield, ship, child, bridge, chic, yet, joy, boy, autumn, August.

**Task 32.** The effect of a phonetic phenomenon is reflected in the sometimes pronounced pronunciation of such combinations of sounds as [haudʒə 'du:] how do you do ?; [aɪl 'mi:tʃ jə] I'll meet you; ['bleʃə] bless you, etc. Specify examples of words where these phonetic phenomena are observed continuously.

**Task 33.** Explain which phonetic phenomenon is reflected in the speech of the following words:

duke [dʒu:k], tune [tʃu:n], dew [dʒu:], assume ' [a'ʃu:m], pursue [pə:'ʃju:]?

**Task 34.** How does the appearance of the sounds [b], [d] in the words cobweb (OE.Coppe-webb), card (carte), diamond (diamant) be explained?

**Task 35.** How can the dialect replacement of voiceless [t], [p] with voiced [d], [b] in words little, kettle, nettle, apple, supper?

**Task 36.** Explain the origin of the deaf [t] in the word *rent* (the root word is the verb *to rend* from OE. *hrendan* 'tear').

**Task 37.** Explain why historically the same letter *a* denotes different sounds in the following words:

*half* [ɑ:], *calf* [ɑ:], *blank* [æ], *grand*[æ], *walk*[ɔ:], *all*[ɔ:] *dance*[ɑ:], *branch*[ɑ: ], *danger* [eɪ], *safe* [eɪ] (фр. *sauf*), *chamber* [eɪ],

**Task 38.** Explain historically the pronunciation of the vowel in the modern words *chew*, *truth*, *shrew*, in which in the Middle English period there was a diphthong *eu*, *iu* - OE. *ēo*, *ēa* (OE. *cēowan*, *trēowþ scrēawa*).

**Task 39.** Explain historically the presence of the sound [ɔ:] in the past tense of verbs: *bought*, *thought*, *sought*, *ought*, *nought* (according to the rules of reading, the digraph *ou* replaces the modern diphthong [au]).

**Task 40.** Explain the same pronunciation of the vowel with the difference in writing in modern English in such words as *straw*, *taught*, 'slaughter', *fall*, *wall*, *talk*. Compare also:

*tail*, *bait*, *take*; *care*, *fair*, *stair*, *pair*, *hair*.

**Task 41.** Explain historically the origin of contemporary forms of participle II in the words *to show* (*shown*), *to strew* (*strewn*), given that in the Old English language these verbs went in a series of weak.

**Task 42.** Explain the appearance of the letter *l* in the graphical form of the past tense of the verb *san-could*, where *l* was previously absent (OE. *Cūðe*, ME. *Coude*).

**Task 43.** Explain the preservation of the pronunciation of the sound [l] in the word *almost* (OE. *Æl-mæst*). It is known that in analogous conditions in other words the old sound *l* is not pronounced, for example:

*calm* 'тихий', *balm* 'бальзам', *palm* 'ладонь', *alms* 'милостыня', *almond* 'миндаль' (но *almanac* ['ɔ:lmənæk]).

## The Great Vowel Shift

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

**Task 44.** Explain the appearance of the initial sound [n] in the word nickname (ME. Eke-name). Match it with newt 'file' (ME. Ewte). Explain also the loss of the initial [n] in the words adder 'viper' (OE. Nædre), apron (cf. -freeron). Match it with the expression for the nonce (from ME .for then ones).

**Task 45.** What is the root of the commonly used word in modern English, you can restore it in the geographic name Fingest (in Berkshire), if you pay attention to the

features of the dialect pronunciation of such words as nothing, mouth, which in Cockney sound accordingly ['nufin] [mouf]?

**Task 46.** Using the etymological dictionary, explain the distribution of the pronunciation of sonorous and deaf spirants [s] and [z], denoted by a letter s, in the words:

crisis ['kraɪsɪs], palsy ['pɑ:lzɪ], basis['beɪsɪs], venison ['venzn] thesis['θi:sis], damsel ['dæmzl], curiosity [kjuəri'ɒsɪtɪ], animosity [æni'mɒsɪtɪ].

**Task 47.** Explain the presence of two graphic versions of the suffix -ice / -ise and its distribution in different words:

office, justice, no merchandise, exercise.

**Task 48.** Explain the deaf pronunciation of the sound [s] in the words assault, assemble, descend, deceive, society, concise, if it is known that the deaf intervocal [s], even where it is denoted by two letters - ss or sc-, is voiced at the beginning of the syllable (compare also assume, dissemble, disciple, receive, pre-cise, research, necessity, absurd.)

**Task 49.** Explain historically why one and the same letter x denotes different sounds and in words

exhibit [ɪg'zɪbɪt] — exhibition [ˌɛksɪ'bɪʃn]; exact [ɪg'zækt] — oxen ['ɒksən]; example [ɪg'zɑ:pl] — axes ['æksɪz]; executor [ɪg'zekjʊtə] — execute ['eksɪkjʊ:t].

**Task 50.** Give possible explanations for deviations from reading rules in words great [greɪt], break [breɪk], steak [steɪk], broad [brɔ:d] (OE. *grēat*, *brecan*, *brād*).

**Task 51.** Explain which sound processes cause a change in the composition of consonants in borrowed words: pilgrim 'пилигрим' (ст.-фр. *pelerin*, лат. *peregrinus*); mushroom 'гриб' (ст.-фр. *mousseron*); ransom 'выкуп' (ст.-фр. *rançon*, ME. *raunsoun*); random 'бесцельный' (ст.-фр. *randon*, ME. *raundoun*); venom 'яд' (ст.-фр. *venin*, ME. *venim*).

**Task 52.** Explain the presence of the sound [l] in the spoken English pronoun *whilk* (which) in the northern dialects of modern English.

**Task 53.** Explain the different reflection of the Old English sound and in the following words of modern English:

long (OE. *lanȝ*), mongrel (OE, *ȝemanȝ* ‘смесь’), hang (OE. *hanȝian*), wrong (OE. *wranȝ*).

### Peculiarities of Middle English Spelling

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

## TASKS FOR REPETITION OF PHONETRIC, ORPHOGRAPHIC AND GRAPHIC PHENOMENA ALL PERIODS OF DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

**Task 1.** On the basis of historical alternations in the roots of the words of modern English and the comparison of these words with related words of the Gothic language, explain how they were pronounced in the Old English language:

full — to fill (гот. fulls — fulljan); gold — to gild (гот. gulþ ); food — to feed (гот. fōdeins — fōdjan); blood — to bleed (гот. blōþ); man — men (гот. manna — mannas); foot — feet (гот. fōtus); goose — geese; tale — to tell, told (гот. taljan); sale — to sell (гот. saljan); sold — sell (гот. saljan); tooth — teeth (гот. tunþus); long—length; strong — strength; mouse—mice; louse—lice; brother — brethren (гот. broþar); cow— kine; old —elder — eldest (гот. alds); broad — breadth (гот. braiþs); sat — to set (гот. sitan — satjan); fall — to fell.

**Task 2.** Explain historically the difference in the basics sounds and the difference in writing the following words and forms of modern English words:

- 1) doom— to deem (гот. dōmjan ‘судить’).
- 2) to see- saw (др.-англ. инф. sēon, прош. вр. ед. ч. seah, прош. вр. мн. ч. sāwon; восстановленная общегерманская форма инфинитива \*sehan ‘видеть’; нем. sehen — sah — gesehen).
- 3) can -could (др.-англ. инф. cunnan, 1 л. can, прош. вр. cūðe).
- 4) to think — thought (др.-англ. инф. þyncan ‘казаться’, прош. вр. ед. ч. þūhte; др.-англ. инф. þencan ‘думать’, прош. вр. ед. ч. þōhte).
- 5) to seek —sought (др.-англ. инф. sēcan, прош. вр. sōhte; гот. sōkjan).
- 6) to sell —sold (др.-англ. инф. sellan, прош. вр. sealde; гот. saljan)

**Task 3.** Explain historically the so-called "exceptions" from the great vowel shift in the following words:

group, route, wound, police, vase, charade, bread, dead, head (OE. heafod), red (OE. r ēod, rēad), breath (OE. bræð).

**Task 4.** Compare the spelling of the words below in Old English and in modern English, explain what phonetic changes are reflected in the change in their spelling; specify which phonetic changes in the spelling are not reflected.

OE. mete — Mod. E. meat

OE. etan — Mod. E. eat

OE. brōhte (OE. brinzan) — Mod. E. brought

OE. r ūh — Mod. E. rough

OE. hlāf — Mod. E. loaf

OE. hring — Mod. E. ring

OE. hwæðer — Mod. E. whether

OE. hwæt — Mod. E. what

OE. dæg — Mod. E. day

OE. weg — Mod. E. way

OE. bāt — Mod. E. boat

OE. mæzden — Mod. E. maiden

OE. seȝl — Mod. E. sail

OE. sprecan, specan — Mod. E. speak

**Task 5.** Explain the origin of the following etymological doublets or series of etymologically related words in modern English (it is necessary to explain the differences in both pronunciation and spelling):

1) beech ‘бук’ (OE. bēce) — book ‘книга’ (OE. bōc ‘буковое дерево’, ‘книга’).

2) belch ‘изрыгать, рыгать’ (OE. bealcian) — belly ‘живот, брюхо’ (OE. belȝ, belȝ ‘мешок, сумка’) — bellows ‘кузнечные мехи’ (OE. belȝas, мн. ч. от belȝ) — budget ‘сумка’, ‘бюджет’ (ст.-фр. bougette, лат. Bulga ‘мешок’).

3) borough [ˈb ʌrə] ‘небольшой город’ (OE. burh, burȝ ‘замок, крепость’) — burgh [ˈb ʌrə] ‘шотландский город’ (OE. burh, burȝ ) — burrow [ˈb ʌrou] ‘нора’ (OE. burȝ, burh) — to bury [ˈberɪ] ‘хоронить,

зарывать' (OE. *byrgan*) — borrow [ 'bɔrou] 'занимать' (OE. *borzian* 'отдавать в залог, сохранить' от *borz* 'крепость, защищенное место').

4) break 'ломать, разрушать' (OE. *brecan*) — breach 'пролом, нарушение' (OE. *brece*).

5) broad 'широкий' (OE. *brād*) — breadth 'ширина' (OE. *brædu*).

6) cadence ['keidəns] 'ритм, такт, понижение голоса' (ср.-фр. *cadence*, итал. *cadenza*, лат. *cadens*, -tis от гл. *cadere* 'падать') — case 'случай', 'падеж' (ср.-фр. *cas*, лат. *cāsus* 'случай, падение') — chance 'случай' (ст.-фр. *cheance*) — accident 'случай' (лат. *accidere*) — occasion 'случай' (лат. *occludere*, ст.-фр. *occasion*).

7) camera 'камера', 'фотографический аппарат' (лат. *camera*) — chamber ['tʃemibə] 'комната' (ст.-фр. *chambre*) — chimney 'труба' (ст.-фр. *cheminée* 'комната с камином', лат. *camīnus* 'очаг, печь, отапливаемая комната').

8) can (OE. *cunnan*) — uncouth 'странный, неотесанный, грубый' (OE. *uncūð* 'неизвестный')—cunning 'хитрый' (OE. *cunnan*).

9) care 'забота' (OE. *caru*, *searu*)—chary ['tʃɛəri] 'осторожный' (OE. *seariz*).

10) ceiling 'потолок' (ст.-фр. *ciel*, лат. *caelum*) — celestial 'небесный' (ст.-фр. *celestiel*, лат. *caelestis*).

11) chair 'стул' (ст.-фр. *chaire*) — chaise [ʃeiz] 'фаэтон, карета' (ср.-фр. *chaeze*, центр, диалект, лат. *cathedra* из греч.).

12) chief 'глава, руководитель' (ст.-фр. *chef*, лат. *caput*)— achieve 'достигать' (ст.-фр. *achever*, *achiever* из *a+* *chef*, *chief*)—cap 'кепка' (OE. *sæppe*, лат. *sappa*, *caput*)—captain 'капитан' (вульг. лат. *capitāneus* из *caput*) — chapter 'глава книги' (ср.-фр. *chapitre*, лат. *capitulum*) — head 'голова' (OE. *hēafold*, лат. *caput*).

13) chill 'холод' (OE. *cele*, *cyle*) — cool 'прохладный' (OE. *cōl*) — cold 'холодный' (OE. *seald*) — jelly 'желе, студень' (ст.-фр. *gelée*, лат. *gelāta*)— glacier 'ледник' (ст.-фр. *glacer*, лат. *glaciāre*).

- 14) churl ‘грубый человек’ (OE. ceorl) — Carl (лат. Carolus из гот. Karl) — Charles (фр. Charles из двн, Karl).
- 15) deep ‘глубокий’ (OE. dēop) — depth ‘глубина’ (OE. dēop+суфф.-th).
- 16) delicate ‘тонкий’ (лат. dēlicātus) — delight ‘восхищение’ (ст.-фр., ср.-фр delit) — lace ‘шнур’ (ст. фр., ср.-фр. lacier, лат. laqueus) — lash ‘бич, плеть’ (ст.-фр., ср.-фр. диал. lachier) — latch ‘щеколда, задвижка’ (ст.-фр., ср.-фр. lachier).
- 17) dish ‘блюдо’ (OE. disc) — disk ‘диск’ (лат. discus) — desk ‘конторка, письменный столик’ (итал. desca).
- 18) down ‘вниз’ (OE. dūne) — dune ‘дюна’ (OE. dūn).
- 19) drink ‘пить’ (OE. drincan) — drunkard (OE. drincan) — drown [draun] ‘тонуть’ (OE. druncnian) — drench ‘смачивать, орошать’ (OE. drencan, гот. drankjan).
- 20) duke [dju:k] ‘герцог’ (лат. dūcere; дух, ст.-фр. dus. дух, вин. пад.duc) — duchess [ˈd ʌ tʃɪs] (ст.-фр. duchesse) — adduce ‘приводить в качестве доказательства’ (лат. abdūcere) — deduction ‘вывод’ (лат. dēductus, прич. прош. вр. от dedūcere).
- 21) fact ‘факт, событие’ (лат. factum) — facile ‘легкий для исполнения’ (ср.-фр. facile, лат. facilis) — fashion ‘мода’ (лат. factiō, ст.-фр. Façon, fasson) — feat ‘подвиг’ (лат. factum, ст.-фр. fait).
- 22) fail ‘обмануть, подвести’ (лат fallere, ст.-фр. faillir) — fallacious ‘ошибочный, ложный’ (лат fallāciōsus) — false ‘ложный’ (лат. falsus, прич. прош. вр. от fallere, ст.-фр. fals) — fault ‘ошибка’ (ст.-фр. faulte, ME. faute)
- 23) faith ‘вера’ (ст.-фр. fei, лат. fidēs) — fidelity ‘верность’ (лат. fidēlitās) — confide ‘доверять’ (лат. conf īdere)— confidence ‘доверие’ (лат. confidentia).
- 24) flange ‘фланец, кромка’ (ст.-фр. flangir)—flank ‘бок, сторона’ (ст.-фр. flanc) — flinch ‘уклоняться, отступать’ (ст.-фр. flenchir).

- 25) float ‘плавать’ (OE. flotian) — fleet ‘флот’ (OE. flēot) — flow ‘течь, литься’ (OE. flōwan) — flutter ‘развеваться, волноваться’ (OE. floterian).
- 26) flora ‘флора’ (лат. flōs, flōris) — flower [ˈflaʊə] ‘цветок’ (ст.-фр. flour) — flour [ˈflaʊə] ‘мука’ (ст.-фр. flour).
- 27) foot ‘нога’ (OE. fōt) — fetter ‘путы, оковы’ (OE. feter) — pedal ‘педаль’ (лат. pēs, pēdis) — tripod ‘треножник’ (лат. pēs, pēdis).
- 28) foul ‘грязный, отвратительный’ (OE. fūl) — filth ‘грязь’ (OE. fȳlþ).
- 29) gold ‘золото’ (OE. zold) — to gild ‘золотить’ (OE. zyldan) — gall [ɡɔ:l] ‘желчь’ (OE. zeala) — yellow ‘желтый’ (OE. zeolu) — yolk ‘желток’ (OE. zeoleca).
- 30) haw [hɔ:] ‘ягода боярышника’ (OE. haza) — hag ‘ведьма, карга’ (OE. hæztesse ‘ведьма, женщина из леса’) — hedge ‘живая изгородь’ (OE. hezz, hecz).
- 31) hall ‘зал’ (OE. heal, heal1) — hell ‘ад’ (OE. helle, гот. halja, OE. Helan ‘прятать’) — hole ‘дыра’ (OE. hol) — hollow ‘пустота’ (OE. holh) — hull ‘корпус корабля’ (OE. hulu) — cell ‘тюремная камера’ (ст.-фр. celle, лат. celāre, concelāre, Mod. E. conceal).
- 32) heave ‘поднимать’ (OE. hebban) — hawk [hɔ:k] ‘ястреб’ (OE. hafoc) — heavy ‘тяжелый’ (OE. hefīz) — heft ‘вес’ (OE. hebban).
- 33) lie ‘лежать’ (OE. liczan) — lay ‘класть’ (OE. leczan) — law ‘закон’ (OE. lazu) — log ‘колода, чурбан’ (OE. lozze) — low ‘низкий’ (ME. low).
- 34) light ‘свет, освещение’ (OE. lēoht) — lux [lʌks] ‘люкс’ (лат. lūx) — lucid [ˈlu:sɪd] ‘ясный, прозрачный’ (лат. lūcidus) — leukemia ‘белокровие’ (греч. leukōma) — lynx [lɪŋks] ‘рысь’ (лат. lynx).
- 35) night ‘ночь’ (OE. niht) — nocturne [ˈnɒktə:n] ‘ноктюрн’ (лат. nox, noctis; nocturnus).
- 36) nine ‘девять’ (OE. nigon) - November (лат. novem) — noon ‘полдень’ (OE. nōn, лат. nōna).

37) one [wʌn] ‘один’- alone [ə'loun] ‘один, одинокий’ (OE. all + ān) — lonely ['lounli] ‘одинокий’ (OE. all+ ānlīc) — none [nʌn] ‘никто, ничто’ (OE. ne+ ān – nān) — once [wʌns] ‘однажды’ (OE. ānes) — any ['eni] ‘какой-либо’ (OE. æniz) — atonement [ə'tounmənt] | ‘искупление, возмещение’ (ME. at on – attone) — union ['ju:njən] ‘союз, единение’ (лат. ūniō, ūniōnis)— ounce [auns] ‘унция’ (лат. uncia) — inch ‘дюйм’ (OE. unce - лат. uncia) — onion ['ʌnjən] ‘луковица’ (ср.-фр. oignon, лат. ūniō, ūniōnis) .

38) appendix ‘обавление, отросток’[ ə'pendɪks] (лат. ad+ pendere) — pension ‘пенсия’ (лат. pēnsiō; pēnsus, прич. прош. вр. от pendere ‘платить’) — ponder ‘размышлять, обдумывать’ (лат. ponderāre ‘взвешивать’).

39) people ‘народ, нация’ (ст.-фр. pople, pueple) — popular (лат. populus, populāris) — public ‘общественный’ (лат. pūblicus).

40) peregrine ‘чужеземный’ (лат. peregrīnus) — pelerine ‘пелерина’ (ст.-фр. pelerin) — pilgrim ‘пилигрим’ (ст.-фр. pelegrin).

41) to pick ‘выбирать, подбирать’ (ст.-фр. pic) — pike ‘пика, копье’ (ст.-фр. pic) — peak ‘вершина, пик’ (ст.-фр. pic) — to peck ‘долбить, клевать’ (снн. pecken) — pie ‘пирог’ (лат. pīsa).

42) pierce [piəs] ‘пронзать’ (OE. percer) — parch ‘слегка поджаривать’ (ст.-фр., сев. диал. parchier, perchier – ст.-фр. percier, percer)

43) rock ‘оспина’ (OE. roce) — rox ‘оспа’ (OE. rossas, мн. ч.) — rocket ‘карман’ (ст.-фр. rochette, сев. диал. rokete) — roke ‘мешок’ (ст.-фр., сев. диал. roque) — roach ‘варить яйцо в кипятке’ (ст.-фр. rocher)— rouch [rautʃ] ‘сумка, мешочек’ (ст.-фр. roche).

44) poor ‘бедный’ (ст.-фр. poure, povre) — poverty ['pɒvəti] ‘бедность’ (ст.-фр. poverté) — pauper ['pɔ:pə] ‘бедняк, нищий’ (лат. pauper).

45) proud ‘гордый’ (OE. prūd) — pride ‘гордость’ (OE. prȳte).

- 46) raise [reiz] ‘поднимать’ (ME. reisen, др.-сев. reisa) — rise ‘подниматься, восходить’ (OE. rīsan) — rear [riə] ‘поднимать, воздвигать’ (OE. nāēran).
- 47) range [reɪndʒ] ‘выстраиваться в ряд’ (ст.-фр. ranger) — rank ‘ряд, шеренга’ (ст.-фр. renc) — ring ‘кольцо’ (OE. hring) — ranch ‘ранчо’ (исп. rancho).
- 48) regal [ˈri: gəl] ‘королевский’ (ст.-фр. regal, лат. rēx, rēgis, rēgalis) — regime [reiˈzi:m] ‘режим’ (ср.-фр. régime, лат. regimen) — real ‘действительный, настоящий’ (ст.-фр. reial) realm [relm] ‘королевский’ (ст.-фр. realme) — rule ‘правило’ (ст.-фр. reule) — right ‘прямой, правильный’ (OE. riht) — reign [rein] ‘царствование’ (ст.-фр. regne, reigne) — director ‘руководитель’ (лат. dirēctor) — corrigible [ˈkɔridʒəbl] ‘исправимый’ (ст.-фр. corrigible) — rich ‘богатый’ (OE. rīce).
- 49) ride ‘ехать верхом’ (OE. rīdan) — raid [raid] ‘налет, набег’ (ME. rade, OE. rād, шотл. вариант raid) — road ‘дорога, путь’ (OE. rād).
- 50) ripe ‘спелый’ (OE. rīpe) — reap ‘жать, снимать урожай’ (OE. rīpan)
- 51) scabby [ˈskæbi] ‘покрытый струпьями’ (ст.-фр. scab, scabbe) — shabby [ˈʃæbi] ‘потертый, запущенный’ (OE. sceabb, scebb) — shave ‘брить(ся), скоблить’ (OE. scafan, sceafan, лат. scabere).
- 52) scatter [ˈskætə] ‘разбрасывать, рассыпать’ (ME. scateren) — shatter [ˈʃætə] ‘разбить(ся) вдребезги, расстраивать’ (ME. schateren).
- 53) screech [skri:ʃ] ‘пронзительно кричать’ (ME. skrichen) — shriek [ˈʃri:k] ‘кричать, вопить’ (ME. schriken, OE. serīc) — scream [skri:m] ‘пронзительно кричать’ (ME. skremen).
- 54) scribe ‘писец, переписчик’ (лат. scriba, ср.-фр. scribe) — script ‘почерк, рукопись’ (лат. scriptus) — shrift ‘исповедь’ (OE. scrift, scrīfan).
- 55) share [ʃɛə] ‘доля, часть’ (OE. scaru, scearu) — shear [ʃiə] ‘стричь, резать’ (OE. sceran, scieran, scyran) — score [skɔ:] ‘метка, зарубка’ (ME. skor, др.-сев. skera) — short ‘короткий’ (OE. scort, sceort) — shirt [ʃɜ:t]

‘рубашка’ (OE. *scyrte*) — *skirt* [skə:t ] ‘юбка’ (ME. *skyrt*, др.-сев. *skyrta*) — *sharp* ‘острый’ (OE. *scearp*).

56) *sheep* [fi:p] ‘овца’ (OE. *seep*) — *shepherd* [ˈʃepəd] ‘па-стух’ (OE. *scSphyrde*).

57) *shoot* [ʃu:t] ‘стрелять’ (OE. *scēotan*, *scōtian*) — *shot* [ʃɒt] ‘ядро, выстрел’ (OE. *scot*) — *sheet* ‘простыня, лист’ (OE. *scēte*) — *shutter* ‘ставень, затвор’ (OE. *scyt- tan - scēotan*) — *skit* ‘шутка, пародия’ (др.-сев. *skytta*) — *skitter* ‘нестись, плескаясь по воде’ (др.-сев. *skytta*) — *scoot* [sku:t] ‘бежать, удирать’ (др.-сев. *skjōta*).

58) *shove* [ʃʌv] ‘толкать, совать’ (OE. *scūfan*) — *shuffle* ‘волочить’ (OE. *scūfan*, нижненем. *schuffeln*) — *scoff* [skɒf] ‘насмешка’ (др.-сев. *skop*).

59) *shrub* [ʃrʌb] ‘куст, кустарник’ (OE. *scrybb*) — *scrub* [skrʌb] ‘кустарник, поросль’ (дат. *skrub*).

60) *to sit* ‘сидеть’ (OE. *sittan*) — *to set* ‘ставить, класть’ (OE. *settan*) — *seat* ‘место, сиденье’ (др.-сев. *sæti*) — *sedative* [ˈsedətɪv] ‘успокаивающее средство’ (лат. *se- dēre*, *sedātus*) — *presidence* (лат. *praesidēre*, ср.-фр. *presidence*).

61) *to slay* ‘убивать’ (OE. *slēan*) — *slaughter* [ˈslɔ:tə] ‘резня, избиение’ (OE. *sleah*) — *sledge* ‘тяжелый молоток’ (OE. *slec3*).

62) *sole* ‘подошва’ (OE. *sole*; лат. *solum*) — *soil* ‘почва’ (ср.-фр. *soil*).

63) *south* [sauθ] ‘юг’ (OE. *sūð*) — *Suffolk* [sʌfək] ‘Суффольк’ (OE. *sūþfolc*) — *Sussex* [ˈsʌsɪks] ‘Суссекс’ (OE. *sū þseaxe*).

64) *spur* ‘шпора’ (OE. *spura*, *spora*) — *spoor* ‘след зверя’ (OE. *spor*, *spyrian*) — *to spurn* ‘отвергать, отталкивать’ (OE. *spurnan*).

65) *stall* [stɔ:l] ‘стойло’, ‘кресло в партере’ (OE. *stall*) — *stalemate* [ˈsteɪlmeɪt] ‘мертвая точка’ (ст.-фр. *stale*) — *still* ‘тихий, неподвижный’ (OE. *stille*) — *stool* ‘табуретка’ (OE. *stōl*) — *apostle* [əˈpɒsl] ‘апостол’ (лат. *apostolus*, ст.-фр. *apostle*) — *stolid* ‘флегматичный, бесстрастный’ (лат. *stolidus*).

- 66) star ‘звезда’ (OE. *steorra*) — sterling ['stə:liŋ] ‘полновесный, полноценный’ (ME. *sterling*)— asteroid ['æstərɔɪd] ‘астероид’ (греч. *astēr, asteroeidēs*) — astronomy (греч. *astron*).
- 67) stoop ‘наклоняться’ (OE. *stūpian*) — steep ‘крутой’ (OE. *stēap*).
- 68) strike ‘ударять’ (OE. *strīcan*) — stroke ‘удар, взмах’ (OE. *strācian*)  
strickle ['strikl] ‘гребок, оселок’ (OE. *stricel*) — streak ‘полоска, черта’ (OE. *strica*).
- 69) supper ‘ужин’ (ст.-фр. *soper, super*) –seep ‘протекать, капать’ (OE. *syrian, sipian*) sip ‘потягивать, прихлебывать’ (OE. *syrian*) –sop ‘кусочек хлеба, обмакнутый в подливку’ (OE. *sopp*) — soup [su:p] ‘суп’ (ср.-фр. *supe, soper, soupe*) — sob ‘рыдать’, ‘рыдание’ (ME. *sōbe*, др.-сев. *sūpa*).
- 70) tell ‘рассказывать’ (OE. *tellan*) — tale ‘рассказ, повесть’ (OE. *talū*) — talk ‘разговор’ (ME. *talken*).
- 71) thief ‘вор’ (OE. *þeof, þīof*) — theft ‘кража’ (OE. *þēofþ, þiefþ*).
- 72) thing ‘вещь, дело’ (OE. *þing*)— storting ['stɔ:tiŋ] ‘стортинг, парламент в Норвегии’ (др.-сев. *stōrþing*).
- 73) tooth ‘зуб’ (OE. *tōþ*) — dental ‘зубной’ (лат. *dēns*) — mastodon ['mæstədɒn] ‘мастодонт’.
- 74) tradition ‘традиция’ (лат. *trādere, trāditio*) — treason [tri:zn] ‘измена’ (ст.-фр. *traison*) — traitor ['treitə] ‘предатель’ (лат. *trāditor*, ст.-фр. *traitre*, вин. пад. *traitor*) — betray [bi'treɪ] ‘предавать’ (лат. *trādere*, ст.-фр. *trair*).
- 75) tread [tred] ‘ступать’ (OE. *tredan*) - trade ‘профессия, торговля’ (сни. *trade*) — trot ‘шагать’ (двн. *trottōn*).
- 76) trick ‘хитрость, обман’ (ст.-фр., сев. диал. *trikier*, сущ. *trike*) — treachery ['tretʃəri] ‘предательство, вероломство’ (ст.-фр. *trecherie* из *trechier*).
- 77) turbulence [tə:bjuləns] ‘бурность’ (лат. *turba, turbu-lentis*) trouble ‘беспокойство, тревога, волнение’ (ст.-фр. *trubler*).

78) two [tu: | 'два' (OE. *twā*, *twēzen*, *tū*) — twelve | *twelv*] 'двенадцать' (OE. *twelf*) — twilight ['*twailait*] 'сумерки' (ME. *twilight*) — tweed [*twi:d*] 'твид' (OE. *twili*, Mod. E. *twill*, шотл. вар. *tweel*, народно-этимологическое образование *tweed* по ассоциации с названием реки Tweed) twist[ *twistl* 'крутить, сучить' (OE. *twist*) — betwixt [*bɪ'twɪkst*] 'между' (OE. *betweox* *betweoh*) — double 'двойной' (ст.-фр. *doubler*).

79) vacant ['*veikənt*] 'свободный, незанятый' (ст.-фр. *vacant*) void [*vɔɪd*] 'пустой, свободный' (лат. *vacuāre*, ст.-фр. *vuide*, *voide*) vain [*veɪn*] 'тщетный, напрасный' (лат. *vānus*, ст.-фр. *vain*) — wane [*weɪn*] 'убывать' (OE. *wanian*) wanton ['*wɒntən*] 'резвый, распутный' (ME. *wantowen*, OE. *tēon*, *tozen*).

80) veil [*veɪl*] 'покрывало, вуаль' (ст.-фр., сев. диал. *veile*) — reveal[*ri'vi: 1*] 'открывать, обнаруживать' (лат. *revēlare*, ст.-фр. *reveler*) — voile [*vwa : 1*] (ст.-фр. *voile*) — velar ['*vi:lə*] 'велярный' (лаг. *vēlāris*).

81) via ['*vaɪə*] 'через, путем' (лат. *via*, вин. пад. *viā*) — voyage [*vɔɪdʒ*] 'морское путешествие' (ср.-фр. *veage*, *voiage*) — vehicle ['*vi: ɪkl*] 'экипаж, повозка' (лат. *vehere*) — convey [*kən'veɪ*] 'перевозить, передавать' (ст.-фр. *conveier*, *convoier*) — wag [*wæg*] 'махать, качаться' (OE. *wazian*) — waggon ['*wægən*] 'коляска, вагон' (ср.-нидерл. *wagen*, днн. *wagon*) — wain [*weɪn*] 'телега' (OE. *wæzen*, *wæn*) — way 'путь, дорога' (OE. *weʒ*) — always ['*ɔ:lwəz*] 'всегда' (OE. *ealwezes*, ME. *allesweies*) — weight [*weɪt*] 'вес, тяжесть' (OE. *zewiht*, *wiht*).

82) view [*vju:*] 'осмотр, вид' (лат. *vidēre*, ст.-фр., ср.-фр. *veoir*, *veeir*, прич. прош. вр. *veii*, *veiie*) — visage ['*vɪzɪdʒ*] 'лицо, выражение лица' (лат. *visus*, ст.-фр. *vis*) — evidence ['*evidəns*] 'очевидность' (лат. *vidēre*, ср.-фр. *evidence*) — wit 'ум' (OE. *wit*, лат. *vidēre*) — wisdom ['*wɪzdəm*] 'мудрость' — guide [*gaɪd*] 'проводник' (ст.-фр. *guider*).

83) volition [*vou'liʃn*] 'волевой акт, хотение' (лат. *volitiō*, вин. пад. *volitiōnem*, фр. *volition*) will 'воля' (OE. *willa*) William ['*wɪljəm*] (свн.

Willehelm) well ‘хорошо’ (OE. wel) — wealth [welθ] ‘богатство’ (OE. weola, ME. welthe).

84) ward [wɔ:d] ‘опека’ (OE. weard) — guard [gɑ:d] ‘охранять, защищать’ (ст.-фр. guarder) — regard [rɪ' gɑ:d] ‘смотреть на кого-либо, что-либо’ (ст.-фр. reguarder).

85) water ‘вода’ (OE. wæter)— wet ‘мокрый’ (OE. wæt)— winter ‘зима’ (OE. winter) – vodka ['vɒdkə] (русск. водка-вода).

86) weave ‘ткать, плести’ (OE. wefan) — web ‘ткань, паутина’ (OE. webb) — weft ‘ткань’ (OE. wefta) — wafer ['weɪfə] ‘облатка, вафля’ (ст.-фр., сев. диал. waufre).

87) Wednesday ['wenzdɪ] ‘среда’ (OE. wōdnes dæɜ) — wood [wud] ‘лес, чаща’ (OE. wudu).

88) white ‘белый’ (OE. hwīt) — wheat [wi:t] ‘пшеница’ (OE. hwæte).

89) whole [houl] ‘целый, весь’ (OE. hāl) — hail [heɪl] ‘приветствие’ (др.-сев. heill) — heal [hi: l ] ‘излечивать, исцелять’ (OE. hǣlan) — health [helθ] ‘здоровье’ (OE. hǣlþ).

90) yield [ji:ld] ‘производить’, ‘уступать’ (OE. zieldan) — gild [gɪld] ‘золотить, украшать’ (др.-сев. gildi).

# England



# TESTS ON THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

1. What group of languages does English belong to?
  - a) Roman
  - b) Germanic
  - c) Celtic
  - d) Balto-Slavic
2. HISTORIA ECCLESIASTICA GENTIS ANGLORUM is written by...
  - a) Geoffrey Chaucer
  - b) Venerable Bede
  - c) Ulfilas
  - d) Thomas More
3. Old English begins with...
  - a) the Germanic settlement of Britain
  - b) the Norman Conquest
  - c) the introduction of printing
  - d) the Scandinavian Invasions
4. Mark the line in which the OE dialects are given in a proper way.
  - a) Kentish, West Saxon, Mercian, Northumbrian
  - b) Northern, Midland, Southern
  - c) Kentish, Essex, Wessex, Sussex, Northern
  - d) London, East Anglia, Mercian, Kentish
5. What languages were spoken in the British Isles prior to the Germanic Invasion?
  - a) Celtic, Old English, Scandinavian
  - b) Celtic, Latin
  - c) Gothic, French
  - d) Anglian, Saxonian, Jutish, Frisian
6. Mark the line in which the OE monophthongs are given in a proper way.
  - a) i, ī, e, ē, a, ā, o, ō, u, ū, γ, ð, æ, é
  - b) a, e, i, o, u,
  - c) i, e, ē, a, ā, o, ō, u, γ, ð, æ, é
  - d) i, ī, e, ē, a, o, ō, u, ū, γ, æ, é

7. Which of the following parallels could go back to an OE prototype with palatal mutation?
- man – men
  - good – best
  - child – children
  - go –went
8. What case did not OE noun employ?
- Nominative
  - Genitive
  - Dative
  - Instrumental
9. Choose the wrong definition for the Nominative case
- can be loosely defined as the case of agent, for it was the case of the subject mainly used with the verbs denoting activity
  - could also indicate the subject characterised by a certain quality or state
  - could serve as a predicative and as the case of address, there being no special Vocative case
  - was the chief case used with prepositions
10. Choose the case to which the following definition regards:  
Being a direct object it denoted the recipient of an action, the result of the action. It was the form that indicated a relationship to a verb. It could be used in some adverbial meanings, e.g. to indicate time or distance.
- Genitive
  - Dative
  - Accusative
  - Nominative
11. In what case form of OE are the underlined words employed?  
*sē wulf nimb and tōdǣlþ þā scēap* (the wolf takes and scatters the sheep)  
*hine nānes þinges ne lyste* (nothing pleased him)
- Genitive
  - Dative
  - Accusative
  - Nominative
12. The total number of declensions in OE nouns, including both the major and minor types, exceeded ...
- 10
  - 15
  - 20
  - 25

13. Mark the wrong statement for the OE nouns
- a) Though originally a semantic division gender in OE was not always associated with the meaning of nouns
  - b) In most declensions two, or even three, case forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinction of cases was consistent than that of numbers.
  - c) The morphological classification of OE nouns rested upon the most ancient grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes, which consisted of vowels, consonants, sound sequences
  - d) Strong declension of nouns included a-stems, *ō*-stems, i-stems, u-stems, n-stems.
14. Choose the grammatical categories of the demonstrative pronoun *þæt* in OE.
- a) Acc. Case, feminine, sing.
  - b) Dat. Case, neuter, sing.
  - c) Acc. Case, neuter, sing.
  - d) Nom. Case, plural
15. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns, they had one more case: It is...
- a) genitive
  - b) instrumental
  - c) dative
  - d) accusative
16. Choose the way of form building in degrees of comparison that OE did not employ.
- a) suffixation
  - b) suffixation plus vowel interchange
  - c) suppletion
  - d) analytical way: by means of auxiliary words
17. Mark the wrong statement for the OE verbs:
- a) The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person.
  - b) All the forms of verb were synthetic, as analytical forms were only beginning to appear.
  - c) In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and Participle.
  - d) The category of tense in OE consisted of three categorical forms: Present, Past, Perfect.

18. Which of the following definitions is not true for the strong verbs of OE?
- a) They had a strong agreement with all parts of speech in the sentence, that is why the verbs are called strong.
  - b) They built their past forms by means of vowel gradation and by repeating the root-morpheme.
  - c) They had seven classes with different gradation series.
  - d) The classes differ in series of root-vowels used to distinguish the four stems: Infinitive, P.sing., P.pl., Participle II.
19. In ... William of Normandy conquered Britain, which was not only a great event in British political history but also the greatest single event in the history of the English language.
- a) 980
  - b) 1066
  - c) 1460
  - d) 1266
20. The earliest samples of early ME prose are the new entries made in the... from the year 1122 to the year 1154, known as PETERBOROUGH CHRONICLE
- a) ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLES
  - b) POEMA MORALE
  - c) ANCRENE RIWLE
  - d) KING HORN
21. What part of speech in OE do the following words belong: *ic*, *wit*, *uncer*, *pū*, *ēower*, *mē*?
- a) pronoun
  - b) adjective
  - c) verb
  - d) noun
22. What class of OE pronoun do the following words belong: *sē*, *pæt*, *sēo*, *pa*?
- a) personal
  - b) demonstrative
  - c) interrogative
  - d) indefinite
23. Which of the following parts of speech had strong and weak declensions in OE?
- a) adjective
  - b) pronoun
  - c) verb
  - d) adverb

24. What form of adjective is employed in the underlined adjective of the following phrase: þā menn sindon ƶōde (the men are good)?
- comparative
  - superlative
  - weak
  - strong
25. What form of adjective is employed in the underlined adjective of the following phrase:  
 Þæt wēste land (that uninhabited land)?
- comparative
  - superlative
  - weak
  - strong
26. Mark the true statement for OE verbs.
- The OE verbs had Present and Past tense only.
  - The OE verbs had eight grammatical categories.
  - The verb-predicate agreed with the subject and object of the sentence.
  - Finite forms regularly distinguished between three numbers: sg, pl and dual.
27. The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the ... dialect as a prevalent written form of language in Late ME.
- Northumbrian
  - Mercian
  - London
  - West Saxon
27. Mark the line, which best indicates ME dialects.
- Southern, Midland, Northern
  - Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, Kentish
  - Kentish, South Western, East Saxon, West Saxon
  - Scottish, Northern, East Midland, West Midland
28. Mark the proper definition for the Middle English period.
- a period of full inflections
  - a period of levelled inflections
  - a period of lost inflections
  - a period of stressed endings

29. Mark the historical event that had occurred till the Anglo-Saxon Conquest.
- a) Roman Conquest
  - b) Norman Conquest
  - c) Scandinavian Invasion
  - d) War of Roses
30. Mark the consonant shift in the following examples, which does not change according to Grimm's Law.
- a) L. *piscus* – OE. *fisc*
  - b) R. *яблоко* – ModE. *apple*
  - c) CG. *macian* – HG. *machen*
  - d) L. *cordis* – ModE. *heart*
31. What period did the Great Vowel Shift occur?
- a) Early Modern English, between the 14<sup>th</sup> and the 18<sup>th</sup> c.
  - b) Transitional period between the Old and Middle English periods
  - c) In the Old English period, in the 9<sup>th</sup> c.
  - d) After Norman Conquest, in 1066.
32. How was digraph *wh* pronounced in ME?
- a) [wh]
  - b) [hw]
  - c) [w]
  - d) [h]
33. What sound have monophthong [e:] in ME *kepen*, *field* developed into after the Great Vowel Shift?
- a) [i]
  - b) [e]
  - c) [i:]
  - d) [ɛ:]
34. What names had been applied for the family of languages to which English belongs?
- a) Aryan, Indo-Germanic
  - b) Roman, Italic
  - c) Iranian, Persian
  - d) Germanic, West Germanic
35. Choose the wrong statement:
- a) The Romans have never conquered England.
  - b) After the Roman Conquest the Romans made the English people speak Latin. Consequently, there are a lot of Latin borrowings in the English language.

- c) The name “English” is older than the name “England”.
- d) The English language of today is the language that has resulted from the history of the dialects spoken by the Germanic tribes.

36. This dialect is known from still scantier remains and is the dialect of the Jutes in the southeast. Which of OE dialect is it spoken of?

- a) Northumbrian
- b) Mercian
- c) West Saxon
- d) Kentish

37. The only dialect in which there is an extensive collection of texts is in the southwest. Nearly all of OE literature is preserved in manuscripts transcribed in this region. With the ascendancy of the West Saxon kingdom it attained something of the position of a literary standard, and both for this reason and because of the abundance of the materials it is made the basis of the study of OE. Which of OE dialect it is spoken of?

- a) Northumbrian
- b) Mercian
- c) West Saxon
- d) Kentish

38. An examination of the words in an OE dictionary shows that about... percent of them are no longer in use.

- a) 40
- b) 50
- c) 75
- d) 85

39. What grammatical categories has OE verb “finde”?

- a) Mood, tense, number, person and two debatable categories: Aspect and Voice
- b) Tense, number, person
- c) Mood, tense, number
- d) Tense only

40. Which of the following lines reflect the case system of OE nouns?

- a) Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative
- b) Nominative, Genitive, Ablative, Locative, Accusative
- c) Nominative, Vocative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative
- d) Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Instrumental

41. What period of the English language history is the following definition about?

It lasts from the 5<sup>th</sup> century to the end of the 11<sup>th</sup>; the dates of its end as suggested by various authorities range from 1066, which is the year of Norman Conquest, to 1150.

- a) the Old English period
- b) the Middle English period
- c) the Modern English period
- d) the Early Middle English period

42. What period of the English language history is the following definition about?

It lasts from the 12<sup>th</sup> century to the 15<sup>th</sup>; the period is believed to have ended in 1475, the year of introduction of printing.

- a) the Old English period
- b) the Middle English period
- c) the Modern English period
- d) the Early Middle English period

43. What period of the English language history is the following definition about?

This period means the English of the last 6 centuries. Within it, historians usually distinguish the Early New English period from the 15<sup>th</sup> century to the 17<sup>th</sup>, up to the age of Shakespeare.

- a) the Old English period
- b) the Middle English period
- c) the Modern English period
- d) the Early Middle English period

44. Celts began to settle in Britain in ...

- a) the 7<sup>th</sup> century BC
- b) the 4<sup>th</sup> century BC
- c) the middle of the 5<sup>th</sup> century AD
- d) the 1<sup>st</sup> century AD

45. Which of the following parallels is not an example for the Great Vowel Shift?

- a) i: > ai
- b) e: > i:
- c) a: > o:
- d) o: > ou

46. Which in the following parallels is not an example for the Great Vowel Shift?
- a) o: > u:
  - b) o: > ou
  - c) u: > au
  - d) æ: > a
47. Mark the line which definitely indicates the OE diphthongs.
- a) ea, ēa, eo, ēo, īo, io, ie, īe
  - b) ei, ai, oi, au
  - c) au, ou, eu, iu
  - d) ea, ae, iu, ui, ei, ūe, ōi, īe, oæ
48. Mark the line, which shows all the diphthongs, introduced in Middle English period.
- a) [au], [ɛi], [ɛu], [iu], [ou], [oi]
  - b) [au], [ɛi], [ɛu], [iu]
  - c) [au], [ɛi], [ɛu], [iu], [ou], [oi], [iə]
  - d) [iə], [oə], [ɛu], [iu], [ou], [oi]
49. What dialects of ME does the London dialect have roots from?
- a) West Saxon and East Midland
  - b) Kentish and East Midland
  - c) Southern and West Midland
  - d) Northern and Midland
50. What period and century do the works of Chaucer in the history of the English language belong?
- a) 14 c. – Middle English
  - b) Old English and there is no definite date of his creative period
  - c) 13 c. – Old English
  - d) 15 c. – Modern English

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