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INTRODUCTION

History of the English language is one of the fundamental courses forming the linguistic background of a specialist in philology. It studies the rise and development of English, its structure and peculiarities in the old days, its similarity to other languages of the same family and its unique, specific features.

The subject matter of the course is changing nature of the language through more than 15 hundred years of its existence. It starts with a close view at the beginnings of the language, originally the dialects of a comparatively small number of related tribes that migrated from the continent to the British Isles, the dialects of the Indo-European family — synthetic, inflected language with a well-developed system of noun forms, a rather poorly represented system of verbal categories, with free word order and vocabulary that consisted almost entirely of words of native origin. The phonological system of the language was also much simpler, with a strict subdivision of vowels into long and short, comparatively few diphthongs and underdeveloped system of consonants.

Great factors influenced this language, converting it into the prevalently analytical language of today, with scarcity of nominal forms and a verbal system that much outweighs the systems of many other European languages in its segmentation of the verbal component. Its vowel system is rich, its vocabulary is enormous. It has many more borrowings than the majority of tongues and is magnificently flexible in adjusting to any need to express a new notion.

Now the English language is the native language of the population of many countries — Great Britain, the USA, Australia, New Zealand, partly Canada.

The main goal of the book is to represent the main features of historical development of the English language. Also the Bologna system of education which pays great attention to the individual work of students demands textbooks which can be used by students in class-work and self-study. Being a supplementary manual, the textbook “History of the English Language” is designed for the individual work of students to master their skills in the History of English through studying theoretical material and doing practical exercises and tests.

The key features of the book:

- practical straightforward coverage of the diachronic development of all language sub-systems;
- helps to get deeper insight into the most essential aspects of the history of English;
- based on the extensive linguistic data;
- clear and concise recital of the material;
- possibility to use by those with a different level of knowledge of English;
- suggests tests which cover basic aspects of the course;
- contains a comprehensive, student-friendly answer key;
- designed for self-study as well as for class-work;
- develops creative skills and enhances the quality of knowledge.

It is hoped that students who have worked their way through the book will have acquired a clear understanding of the structure of the various stages of early English.

TOPIC 1. INTRODUCTORY

GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

List of principal questions:

1. The aim of the study of the subject
2. Inner and outer history of the language
3. Chief characteristics of the Germanic languages
 - 3.1. Phonetics
 - 3.2. Grammar
 - 3.3. Alphabet

1. The aim of the study of the subject.

The aims set before a student of the history of the English language are as follows:

1. To speak of the characteristics of the language at the earlier stages of its development.
2. To trace the language from the Old English period up to modern times.
3. To explain the principal features in the development of modern language historically.

To achieve those aims a student will have to know the theoretical basis of the subject and to work with the text to apply the theoretical knowledge to the practical analysis of English texts at different periods of the language development.

Thus the main purpose of studying the history of the English language is to account for the present-day stage of the language to enable a student of English to read books and speak the language with understanding and due knowledge of the intricate and complicated “mechanism” they use [9; 10; 11].

The history of any language is an unbroken chain of changes more or less rapid. But though the linguistic tradition is unbroken it is impossible to study the language of over 15 centuries long without subdividing it into smaller periods. Thus the history of the English language is generally subdivided conventionally into:

— Old English (5th—11th century);

— Middle English (11th—15th century);

— New English (15th century—till now).

2. Inner and outer history of the language

The outer history of the language is the events in the life (history) of the people speaking this language affecting the language, i.e. the history of the people reflected in their language. The inner history of the language is the description of the changes in the language itself, its grammar, phonetics, vocabulary or spelling.

It is well known that the English language belongs to the Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages. The direct and indirect evidence that we have concerning old Germanic Bribes and dialects is approximately twenty centuries old. We know that at the beginning of AD Germanic tribes occupied vast territories in western, central and northern Europe. The tribes and the dialects they spoke at the time were generally very much alike, but the degree of similarity varied. It is common to speak about the East Germanic group of dialects — mainly spoken in central Europe — Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian; North Germanic group of dialects — Old Norwegian, Old Danish, Old Swedish, Old Icelandic; and the West Germanic group of dialects — the dialects of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians and others, originally spoken in western Europe. The first knowledge of these tribes comes from the Greek and Roman authors which, together with archeological data, allows to obtain information on the structure of their society, habits, customs and languages.

The principal East Germanic language is Gothic. At the beginning of our era the Goths lived on a territory from the Vistula to the shores of the Black Sea. For a time the Goths played a prominent part in European history, making extensive conquests in Italy and Spain. In these districts, however, their language soon gave place to Latin, and even elsewhere it seems not to have maintained a very tenacious existence. Gothic survived longest in the Crimea, where vestiges of it were noted down in the sixteenth century [11; 15].

North Germanic is found in Scandinavia and Denmark. Runic inscriptions from the third century preserve our earliest traces of the language. In its

earlier form the common Scandinavian language is conveniently spoken of as Old Norse. From about the eleventh century on, dialectal differences become noticeable. The Scandinavian languages fall into two groups: an eastern group including Swedish and Danish, and a western group including Norwegian and Icelandic. Of the early Scandinavian languages Old Icelandic is much the most important. Iceland was colonized by settlers from Norway about A.D. 874 and preserved a body of early heroic literature unsurpassed among the Germanic peoples.

West Germanic is of chief interest to us as the group to which English belongs. It is divided into two branches, High and Low German, by the operation of a Second (or High German) Sound-Shift analogous to that described below as Grimm's Law. This change, by which West Germanic p, t, k, d, etc. were changed into other sounds, occurred about A.D. 600 in the southern or mountainous part of the Germanic area, but did not take place in the lowlands to the north. Accordingly in early times we distinguish as Low German tongues Old Saxon, Old Low Franconian, Old Frisian, and Old English. The last two are closely related and constitute a special or Anglo-Frisian subgroup.

Old Saxon has become the essential constituent of modern Low German or Plattdeutsch; Old Low Franconian, with some mixture of Frisian and Saxon elements, is the basis of modern Dutch in Holland and Flemish in northern Belgium; and Frisian survives in the Dutch province of Friesland, in a small part of Schleswig, in the islands along the coast, etc. High German comprises a number of dialects and is divided chronologically into Old High German (before 1100), Middle High German (1100—1500), and Modern High German (since 1500). High German, especially as spoken in the midlands and used in the imperial chancery, was popularized by Luther's translation of the Bible into it (1522—1532), and since the sixteenth century has gradually established itself as the literary language of Germany [1; 9; 11].

3. Chief characteristics of the Germanic languages

The barbarian tribes — Goths, Vandals, Lombards, Franks, Frisians,

Teutons, Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Scandinavians — lived on the fringes of the Roman Empire. All these spoke Germanic languages, which had distinctive characteristics of structure and pronunciation which are reflected in its descendants.

3.1. Phonetics

One of the most important common features of all Germanic languages is its strong dynamic stress falling on the first root syllable. The fixed stress emphasised the syllable bearing the most important semantic element and to a certain degree later contributed to the reduction of unstressed syllables, changing the grammatical system of the languages [2; 11; 21].

The most important feature of the system of Germanic vowels is the so-called Ablaut, or gradation, which is a spontaneous, positionally independent alteration of vowels inhabited by the Germanic languages from the Common Indo-European period. This ancient phenomenon consisted in alteration of vowels in the root, suffix or ending depending on the grammatical form or meaning of the word.

There are two types of Ablaut: quantitative and qualitative. The qualitative Ablaut is the alteration of different vowels, mainly the vowels [e] / [a] or [e] / [o]

Old Icelandic bera (to give birth) — barn (baby)

Old High German stelan (to steal) — stal (stole)

Cf.: Russian бреду (I stroll, I wade) — брод (ford, wade)

Latin tego (to cover, to cloth) — toga (clothes)

Quantitative Ablaut means the change in length of qualitatively one and the same vowel: normal, lengthened and reduced. A classic example of the Indo-European Ablaut is the declension of the Greek word "pater" (father):

[e:]	[e]	[—]
patēr	patēr	patros
(nominative case,	(vocative case,	(genitive case,

Ablaut in Germanic languages is a further development of Indo-European alterations. Here we often find cases with both the quantitative and qualitative ablaut. It should be also mentioned that in the zero stage before sonorants an extra-short vowel [u] was added:

quantitative ablaut

Goth *qiman* (to come) — *qums* (the arrival)

qualitative ablaut

OHG *Stelan* (to steal) — *Stal* (stole)

quantitative*qualitative ablaut

OE *findan* (to find) — *fand* (found, — *fundan* (found,
past tense) past part.)

Ablaut as a kind of an internal flexion functioned in Old Germanic languages both in form- and word-building, but it was the most extensive and systematic in the conjugation of strong verbs [6; 9; 11].

Another phenomenon common for all Germanic languages was the tendency of phonetic assimilation of the root vowel to the vowel of the ending, the so-called Umlaut, or types of mutation, but the most important one was palatal mutation, or i-Umlaut, when under the influence of the sounds [i] or [j] in the suffix or ending the root vowels became more front and more closed. This process must have taken place in the 5th—6th centuries and can be illustrated by comparing words from the language of the Gothic bible (4th century) showing no palatal mutation with corresponding words in other Germanic languages of a later period:

Goth *harjis* OE *here* (army);

Goth *domjan* OE *deman* (deem);

Goth *kuni* OE *cynn* (kin).

Traces of this tendency can be seen both in word-building and form-building as a kind of an internal flexion:

OHG *gast* (guest) — *gesti* (guests)

man (man) — *mennisco* (human)

Speaking about Germanic consonants, we should first of all speak of the correspondence between Indo-European and Germanic languages which was presented as a system of interconnected facts by the German linguist Jacob Grimm in 1822. This phenomenon is called the First Consonant Shift, or Grimm's law.

The table below shows a scheme of Grimm's law with the examples from

Germanic and other Indo-European languages.

However, there are some instances where Grimm's law seems not to apply. These cases were explained by a Dutch linguist Karl Verner, and the seeming exceptions from Grimm's law have come to be known as Verner's law.

Table 1-1. Grimm's law

<i>Indo-European</i>		<i>Germanic</i>	
1	<i>voiceless stops</i> p t k	<i>voiceless fricatives</i> f þ h	
<i>Lat</i>	pater	<i>OE</i>	fæder (father)
<i>Lat</i>	trēs	<i>Goth</i>	þreis (three)
<i>Gk</i>	kardia	<i>OHG</i>	herza (heart)
2	<i>voiced stops</i> b d g	<i>voiceless stops</i> p t k	
<i>Rus</i>	болото	<i>OE</i>	pōl (pool)
<i>Lat</i>	duo	<i>Goth</i>	twai (two)
<i>Gk</i>	egon	<i>Olcl</i>	ek (I)
3	<i>voiced aspirated stops¹</i> bh dh gh	<i>voiced non-aspirated stops</i> b d g	
<i>Snsk</i>	bhratar	<i>OE</i>	brōðor
<i>Lat</i>	frāter, Rus брат	<i>OE</i>	medu (mead)
<i>Snsk</i>	madhu	<i>OE</i>	
<i>Rus</i>	мед	<i>Olcl</i>	syngva (sing)
<i>*Snsk</i>	songha		
<i>Gk</i>	omphe (voice)		

Verner's law explains the changes in the Germanic voiceless fricatives *f b h* resulting from the first consonant shift and the voiceless fricatives depending upon the position of the stress in the original Indo-European word namely:

Table 1-2. Verner's law

<i>Indo-European</i>	<i>Germanic</i>
n t k s	h ð/d ʒ z/r

According to Verner's law, the above change occurred if the consonant in

question was found after an unstressed vowel. It is especially evident in the forms of Germanic strong verbs, except the Gothic ones, which allows to conclude that at some time the stress in the first two verbal stems fell on the root, and in the last two — on the suffix:

<i>OE</i>	<i>tēon</i>	<i>tēah</i>	<i>tuʒon</i>	<i>toʒen</i> (to tug)
<i>OSx</i>	<i>tiohan</i>	<i>tōh</i>	<i>tugun</i>	<i>gitogan</i>
<i>Goth</i>	<i>tiuhan</i>	<i>tauḥ</i>	<i>tauhum</i>	<i>tauḥans</i>
<i>OE</i>	<i>cēosan</i>	<i>cēas</i>	<i>curon</i>	<i>coren</i> (to choose)
<i>Old</i>	<i>kiōsa</i>	<i>kaus</i>	<i>kørom</i>	<i>kørenn</i>
<i>Goth</i>	<i>kiusan</i>	<i>kaus</i>	<i>kusum</i>	<i>kusans</i>

3.2. Grammar

One of the main processes in the development of the Germanic morphological system was the change in the word structure. The common Indo-European notional word consisted of three elements: the root, expressing the lexical meaning, the inflexion or ending, showing the grammatical form, and the so-called stem-forming suffix, a formal indicator of the stem type. However, in Germanic languages the stem-forming suffix fuses with the ending and is often no longer visible, thus making the word structure a two-element one. Nevertheless, it should be taken into account when explaining the differences in the categorial forms of words originally having different stem-forming suffixes.

It should also be mentioned that Germanic languages belonged to the synthetic type of form-building, which means that they expressed the grammatical meanings by changing the forms of the word itself resorting to any auxiliary words [5; 8; 11].

The Germanic nouns had a well-developed case system with four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative) and two number forms (singular and plural). They also had the category of gender (feminine, masculine and neuter). The means of form-building were the endings added to the root/stem of the noun.

The Germanic adjectives had two types of declension, conventionally called strong and weak. Most adjectives could be declined both in accordance with the strong and weak type. Agreeing with the noun in gender, case and number, the

adjective by its type of declension expressed the idea of definiteness (weak declension) or indefiniteness (strong declension), the meaning which was later to become expressed by a grammatical class of words unknown in Common Germanic — the article.

The adjective also had degrees of comparison, the forms of which were in most instances formed with the help of suffixes -iz/oz and -ist/-ost, but there were also instances of suppletivism, i.e. use of different roots for different forms — a means common for many Indo-European languages:

Goth *leitils*—*minniza*—*minnists* (little—less—least)

Rus *хороший*—*лучше*—*лучший*

The Germanic verbs are divided into two principal groups: strong and weak verbs, depending on the way they formed their past tense forms.

The past tense (or preterite) of strong verbs was formed with the help of Ablaut qualitative or quantitative [4; 9; 11].

Weak verbs expressed preterite with the help of the dental suffix -d/-t. They also had stem-forming suffixes, depending on which they fell into separate classes.

There was also a small group of highly frequent suppletive verbs forming their forms from different roots, the same as in other Indo-European languages:

Goth *im* (/I/am) Rus *есть*

was (/I/ was) *был*

The Germanic verb had a well-developed system of categories, including the category of person (first, second, third), number (singular and plural), tense (past and present, the latter also used for expressing future actions), mood (indicative, imperative and optative) and voice (only in Gothic—active and mediopassive). The categorial forms employed synthetic means of form-building.

3.3. Alphabet

The people of the Germanic tribes were mostly illiterate but some of the Germanic nations had their own mode of writing. They had a distinctive alphabet called runic and each letter of which was called a rune. We know that runes were

used to record early stages of Gothic, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, English, Frisian, Frankish, etc.

F N T F R < X P N T I > C J Y S T B M M I O M X
f u t h a r k g w h n i j p e r s t b e m l n g d o

The earliest known runic alphabet had twenty-four letters arranged in a peculiar order, which, from the values of its first letters, is known as the futhark. (фюторк). In early times texts could be written not only from left to right, but from right to left equally well. Some texts could even be written with alternate lines in opposite directions. Even in left-to-right texts an individual letter could be reversed at whim, and occasionally a letter might be inverted. There was no distinction between capital and lowercase letters.

We do not know where and when runes were invented. The obvious similarities with the Roman alphabet brought early scholars to the belief that the script first appeared among Germanic peoples living close to the Roman empire, and that the runes were an adaptation of the more prestige alphabet. Early finds of rune-inscribed objects in eastern Europe (in Rumania, in central Germany and in the Ukraine) suggest that runes may have been invented by Goths on the Danube or beside the Vistula. This is further supported by the similarity of occasional runes to letters of one or other of the Greek alphabets.

Runes soon were spread over the Germanic world, and by 500 AD they are found not only in Denmark, Sweden, Norway, England, but also in Poland, Russia and Hungary.

Runes were used for many centuries and in many lands, gradually changing in their passage through time and space.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What are the aims of the study of the subject “The History of the English language”?

2. What is meant by the outer and inner history of the language?
3. What Germanic groups of dialects do you know?
4. What is the main feature of the system of Germanic vowels?
5. What is the First Consonant Shift or Grimm's Law?
6. What is Verner's Law?
7. What are the main characteristics of grammar of Germanic languages?
8. What alphabet did some Germanic tribes have?

TOPIC 2. OLD ENGLISH. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history

1.1. Principal written records

1.2. Dialectal classification

1.2.1. The dialects in Old English

1.2.2. Old English written records

2. Inner history

2.1. Phonetics

2.2. Spelling

2.3. Grammar

2.4. Vocabulary

1. Outer history

The English nation belonged to the western subdivision of old Germanic tribes, and the dialects they spoke later lay the foundation of the English national language.

The history of the English language begins in the fifth century AD when the ruthless and barbaric Germanic tribes of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians, who up to that time had lived in western Europe between the Elbe and the Rhine, started their invasion of the British Isles.

At the time of the invasion Britain was inhabited by the so-called "romanised Celts". It means that Celts who had lived under the Roman rule for over four centuries and who had acquired Roman culture and ways of life and whose language had undergone certain changes mainly in the form of borrowings from the Latin language.

The Celtic tribes, whose languages, the same as Germanic, also belonged to the Indo-European family, were at one time among its most numerous

representatives. At the beginning of our era the Celts could be found on the territories of the present-day Spain, Great Britain, western Germany and northern Italy. Before that they had been known to reach even Greece and Asia Minor. But under the steady attacks of Italic and Germanic tribes the Celts had to retreat, so that in the areas where they were once dominant they have left but the scantiest trace of their presence [2; 5; 12].

The Celts who first came to Britain gradually spread to Ireland, Scotland and the Isle of Man. Their languages are represented in modern times by Irish, Scottish Gaelic and Manx. A later wave of Celtic tribes was in turn driven westwards by Germanic invaders, and their modern language representatives are Welsh, Cornish and Breton.

The Romans invaded Britannia as it was then called in 55— 54 BC when the troops of Julius Caesar and others conquered the isles. No centralized government was formed, instead there existed petty principalities under the control of local landlords. In 407 AD, with the departure of the last Roman emissary Constantine hostilities among the native tribes in England began anew. To normalize the situation the local chieftains appealed to influential Germanic tribes who lived on the continent inviting them to come to their assistance, and in 449 the Germanic troops led by Hengest and Horsa landed in Britain.

The Roman occupation of England left little mark on its future. The invaders, or Barbarians, as they were generally called, who came to the Isles were representatives of a by far inferior civilization than the Romans. A bulk of the invaders came from the most backward and primitive of the Germanic tribes.

We have very little indirect evidence about the beginning of the Old English period — 5th—7th centuries. The first written records were dated as far back as the beginning of the 8-th century, that is why the 5th—7th centuries are generally referred to as “the pre-written period” of the English language.

1.1. Principal written records of the Old English period

The principal written records that came to us through the centuries date from

as far back as the 8th century. They were written with the help of the so-called “Runic Alphabet”. This was an alphabet of some 26 letters, the shape of which is quite peculiar:



We have already said that it is assumed the Runic alphabet was composed by Germanic scribes in the II—III centuries AD.

The word “rune” meant “mystery”, and those letters were originally considered to be magic signs known to very few people, mainly monks, and not understood by the vast majority of the illiterate population. Among the first Old English runic inscriptions we generally mention two: the inscription on the so-called “Franks’ casket” — a small box made of whalebone containing a poem about it’, and the inscription on the “Ruthwell cross” — a religious poem engraved on a stone cross found in Scotland.

Rune	Anglo-Saxon	Name	Meaning
F	f	feoh	cattle, wealth
U	u	ur	bison (aurochs)
Þ	þ	þorn	thorn
Ð	o	ōs	god/mouth
R	r	rād	journey/riding
C	c	cen	torch
G	g [ɣ]	giefu	gift
W	w	wyn	joy
H	h	hægl	hail
N	n	nied	necessity/trouble
I	i	is	ice
J	j	gear	year
P	p	peor	[unknown]
X	x	colh	[unknown]
S	s	sigel	sun
T	t	tiw/tir	Tiw (name of a god)
B	b	beorc	birch
E	e	eoh	horse
M	m	man	man
L	l	lagu	water/sea
Ing	ng	ing	Ing (name of a hero)
Æ	æ	ehel	land/estate

In the 7th century the Christian faith was introduced and with it there came many Latin-speaking monks who brought with them their own Latin alphabet.

The Latin alphabet was used by the majority of the people who could read

and write. It ousted the Runic alphabet. But the Latin alphabet could not denote all the sounds in the English

language, for example, the sounds [w], [θ]. For that purpose some runes were preserved — w, þ, F, or some Latin letters were slightly altered — ð to denote the sounds [θ], [ð] together with the rune þ.

This alphabet that is a combination of the Latin alphabet with runes and some other innovations is called “insular writing” (островной), i.e. the alphabet typical of the Isles. The majority of Old English records are written in this insular alphabet.

1.2. Dialectal classification of Old English written records

1.2.1. The dialects in Old English

As we have already said, the onset of invasion by the members of the four principal Germanic tribes: Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians — began about the middle of the fourth century and their conquest of England was completed within the next century and a half. By about AD 600 they established their separate kingdoms, the principal among them being:

— those formed by **the Angles**. Northumbria (north of the river Humber), Mercia (in the centre of England) and East Anglia — central eastern part of the country;

— those formed **by the Saxons** — mainly to the south of the river Thames: Wessex, Sussex and Essex;

— the one formed **by the Jutes** — Kent.

Only the Frisians did not form a separate kingdom, but intermarried with the population belonging to different tribes.

The prevailing importance of these seven kingdoms gave to the next two centuries the title of Heptarchy. Gradually three of the seven — Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria — began to establish some sort of domination over their smaller neighbours. It was an important step towards the achieving the eventual unity of England. Another vital factor contributing to the unity was the appearance of Christianity in England in AD 597.

The Old English dialects are generally named after the names of the kingdoms on the territory of which the given dialect was spoken — the Northumbrian dialect, the Mercian dialect, the Wessex dialect, etc.

Though the differences between the three types were later to assume considerable importance, they were at first slight, and records of the 8th and 9th centuries reveal that Englisc, as it was collectively called, had by that time emerged as an independent language.

Among the principal Old English dialects the most important for us is the Wessex dialect, as the majority of Old English written records that we have can be traced back to that dialect [11; 16; 22].

As is known, efforts to unite England failed for a very long period of time, because as soon as one kingdom became great it was in the interests of the rest to pull it down. Some historians say that the reason for that was the lack of the strongest possible motive towards any union, namely, the presence of a foreign foe.

Such enemy appeared in the second half of the 8th century, when the Northmen, particularly the Danes, began their devastating raids on the isles. At the beginning of the 9th century, when the Danish invaders destroyed in turn the ‘dynasties of Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia, Wessex was left as the sole survivor, and its leaders became the leaders of the emerging nation.

The most famous of all English kings, Alfred of Wessex, which would later come to be called Alfred the Great, came to the throne in 871 and is reputed to have been one of the best kings ever to rule mankind. He successfully fought with the Danes who by that time had conquered most of Eastern England and were moving southwards towards Wessex. Alfred managed to stop the Danes, although temporarily, and in 878 signed a treaty with the Danish king dividing England between them.

But Alfred’s true greatness lay not in his military, but peacetime activity. He set aside a half of the revenue to be spent on educational needs, established schools where the sons of the nobility could be taught to read and write, brought in foreign scholars and craftsmen, restored monasteries and convents, published a collection

of laws and enforced them. He also mastered Latin and translated many books into Anglo-Saxon and ordered the compilation of the first history book, the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, which was continued for more than two centuries after his death. All this allows to say that even had Alfred never fought a battle, he would still deserve a place among the greatest rulers of history.

King Alfred formulated his aims as follows: “Desire for and possession of earthly power never pleased me overmuch, and I did not unduly desire this earthly rule... I desired to live worthily as long as I lived, and to leave after my life, to the men who should come after me, the memory of me in good works.”

However, after the death of Alfred the Great in 901 the supremacy of Wessex gradually began to decline, and for a time, from 1017 till 1042, the throne was occupied by Danish kings.

1.2.2. Old English written records

Old English written records which are rather numerous are generally classified either in accordance with the alphabet used or in accordance with the dialect of the scribe who wrote the record.

If we speak about the first criterion — the alphabet (runic or insular) — the first group is rather scarcely represented (Frank’s casket, Ruthwell cross), the other group having many written records. But generally the records are classified in accordance with their dialect: Northumbrian (Franks’ gasket, Ruthwell cross, Caedmon’s hymns), Mercian (translation of the Psalter), Kentish (psalms), West Saxon (The Anglo-Saxon chronicle, the translation of a philosophical treatise **Cura Pastoralis**. King Alfred’s **Orosius** — a book on history).

There were also many translations from other dialects, an example of which is Bede’s Ecclesiastical History of the English People (731 AD). Bede, a learned monk at Jarrow, is said to have assimilated all the learning of his time. He wrote on language, science and chronology and composed numerous commentaries on the Old and New Testament [5; 11; 20]

With the rise of Wessex to the dominant position among the Old English kingdoms in the 9th and 10th centuries, and thanks to the powerful influence of their learned King Alfred, the West Saxon dialect became the chief vehicle of literature. All the works of literary importance that have survived, both prose and poetry, are written in West Saxon, with only occasional traces of other dialects, and in this sense it may be regarded as typical of the Old English period.

2. Inner history

During the period the language was developing very slowly.

2.1. Phonetics

The phonetics of the Old English period was characterized by a system of dynamic stress. The fixed stress fell on the first root syllable:

agāne (*gone*); **3esēon** (*see*); **3aderian** (*gather*)

The vowels had the following characteristic features:

- The quantity and the quality of the vowel depended upon its position in the word. Under stress any vowel could be found, but in unstressed position there were no diphthongs or long monophthongs, but only short vowels [a], [e], [i], [o], [u].
- The length of the stressed vowels (monophthongs and diphthongs) was phonemic, which means that there could be two words differing only in the length of the vowel:

metan (*to mete, to measure*) — **mētan** (*to meet*)
pīn (*pin*) — **pīn** (*pain*)
god (*god*) — **gōd** (*good*)
ful (*full*) — **fūl** (*foul*)

- there was an exact parallelism of long and short vowels:

Short: a o e u i æ y ea eo

Long: ā ō ē ū ī æ ŷ ēa ēo

The consonants were few. Some of the modern sounds were non-existent ([ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]).

The quality of the consonant very much depended on its position in the word, especially the resonance (voiced and voiceless sounds: hlāf [f] (*loaf*) — hlāford [v] (*lord, "bread-keeper"*) and articulation (palatal and velar sounds: climban [k] (*to climb*) — cild [k'] (*child*)), etc.

2.2. Spelling

The Old English spelling was mainly phonetic, i.e. each letter as a rule denoted one sound in every environment. Note should be taken that the letters **f**, **s**, **þ**, **ð** could denote voiced consonants in intervocal positions or voiceless otherwise; the letter **c** was used to denote the sound [k] (palatal or velar); the letter **y** denoted the sound [ȳ] (similar to German [ü] in the word "Gemüt" or Russian [ю] in the word "бюро").

The letter **3** could denote three different sounds:

[j] — before or after front vowels [æ], [e], [i] :

3iefan (*give*), 3ēar (*year*), dæ3 (*day*)

[ɣ] — after back vowels [a], [o], [u] and consonants [l] and [r]:

da3as (*days*), fol3ian (*follow*)

[g] — before consonants and before back vowels [a], [o], [u]:

3ōd (*good*), 3lēo (*glee*)

2.3. Grammar

Old English was a synthetic language (the lexical and grammatical notions of the word were contained in one unit). It was highly inflected, with many various affixes. The principal grammatical means were suffixation, vowel interchange and suppletion.

Suffixation:

Ic cēpe (*I keep*) — þu cēpst (*you keep*) — he cēpð (*he keeps*)

beon (*to be*) — Ic eom (*I am*)

bu eart (*you are*) ■ he is (*he is*)

There was no fixed word-order in Old English, the order of the words in the sentence being relatively free.

2.4. Vocabulary

Almost all of it was composed of native words, there were very few borrowings.

Borrowings were mainly from Latin:

a) The forefathers of English, when on the Continent, had contacts with the Roman empire and borrowed words connected mainly with trade:

cīese (cheese), wīn (wine), æppel (apple)

b) They borrowed Latin words from the Romanized Celts:

straet (street), weall (wall), myln (mill)

Some borrowings were due to the introduction of Christianity:

biscop (bishop), deofol (devil), munc (monk) New words appeared as a result of two processes:

a) word derivation:

fisc+ere = fiscere (*fish — fisher*)
wulle+en = wyllen (*wool — woolen*)
clæne+s+ian = clænsian (*clean — to cleanse*)

b) word composition:

sunne + dæg = Sunnandæg (*sun + day = Sunday*)
mōna + dæg = Mōnandæg (*moon + day = Monday*).

QUESTIONS FOR SELF - CONTROL

1. What were the main events of outer history in the Old English period?
2. What principal written records of the Old English period do you know?
3. What is dialectal classification of the Old English written records?
4. What are the main features of the Old English phonetics?
5. What are the main features of the Old English grammar?
6. What are the main features of the Old English vocabulary?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topic “The Old English. General Characteristics” p.p.18-22 (Вербі Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою))

TOPIC 3. OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS

List of principal questions:

1. Old English vowels

1.1. Origin of Old English vowel phonemes

1.2. Changes in Old English vowel phonemes

1.2.1. Breaking

1.2.2. Palatal mutation

1.2.3. Effect of palatal mutation upon grammar and word-stock

2. Old English consonants

2.1. Dependence of the quality of the consonant phoneme upon its environment in the word

2.2. Grimm's law, Verner's law

1. Old English vowels

1.0. There were the following vowel phonemes in Old English

<i>monophthongs</i>	<i>diphthongs</i>
a æ e i o u y	ea eo
ā æ ē ī ō ū ŷ	ēa ēo

As we see in Old English there existed an exact parallelism between long vowels and the corresponding short vowels. Not only monophthongs but even diphthongs found their counterparts which differed from them not only in quality but also in quantity. Thus we may say that in the system of vowels both the quality and the quantity of the vowel was phonemic. All the diphthongs were falling diphthongs with the first element stronger than the second, the second element being more open than the first. Examples:

monophthongs

\bar{a}	— a:	stān	— daȝas
		(stone)	(days)
$\bar{æ}$	— æ:	dæd	— dæȝ
		(dead)	(day)
\bar{o}	— o:	ȝōd	— ȝod
		(god)	(good)
\bar{i}	— i:	wītan	— wīten
		(write)	(written)

diphthongs

\bar{eo}	— eo:	cēosan	— heorte
		(choose)	(heart)
\bar{ea}	— ea:	cēas	— eald
		(chose)	(old)

1.1. Origin of Old English vowel phonemes

All Old English vowel phonemes can be traced back to Common Germanic vowel phonemes. Old English monophthongs are, as a rule, a further development of some Common Germanic monophthongs. For example:

Old English

[æ]
dæȝ (day)
[i]
bindan (bind)
[o]
coren (chosen)

from Common Germanic

[a]
dags
[i]
bindan
[u]
cusans, etc.

Some Old English monophthongs developed from Common Germanic diphthongs:

Old English

[ā]
rās (wrote)

from Common Germanic

[ai]
rais

Old English long diphthongs are a result of some further development of Common Germanic diphthongs, though in the course of history the quality of the diphthong may have undergone a change:

Old English short diphthongs originated from monophthongs:

Old English	from Common Germanic
eald (old)	ald
heorte (heart)	herte

1. Changes in Old English vowel phonemes

1.2. **The changes** that took place in the prehistoric period of the development of the English language and which explain the difference between Old English and Common Germanic vowels were of two types: assimilative changes and independent (non-assimilative) changes [2; 5; 11; 18].

Independent changes do not depend upon the environment in which the given sound was found. They cannot be explained, but they are merely stated.

Common Germanic

ai >
a >

Old English

ā
æ, etc.

Assimilative changes are explained by the phonetic position of the sound in the word and the change can and must be explained. Among the many phonetic assimilative changes which took place in the prehistoric period of the development of the English language and which account for the discrepancy between the Old English and the Common Germanic vowel system the most important are breaking and palatal mutation.

1. 2. 1. Breaking

The process of breaking took place in the 6th century. It affected two vowels. — [æ] and [e] when they were followed by the consonants [r], [l], [h] generally followed by another consonant.

The resulting vowel was a diphthong (hence the name “breaking” — a monophthong “was broken” into a diphthong), consequently the process may be summed up as diphthongization of short vowels [æ] and [e] before certain consonant clusters.

For example:

æ > ea	before	r+consonant	ærm > earm (<i>arm</i>)
		l+consonant	æld > eald (<i>old</i>)
		h+consonant	æhta > eahta (<i>eight</i>)
		h final	sæh > seah (<i>saw</i>)
e > ea	before	r+consonant	herte > heorte (<i>heart</i>)
		lc+consonant	melcan > meolcan (<i>to milk</i>)
		lh+consonant	selh > seolh (<i>seal</i>)
		h final	feh > feoh (<i>cattle</i>)

1.2.2. Palatal mutation

The qualitative change of Old English vowels that experts call palatal mutation, or i-mutation, occurred somewhere during the 6th—7th centuries. The process affected Germanic words where a vowel in a stressed syllable was immediately followed by the sound [i] or [j] in the next syllable. Almost all vowels, both diphthongs and monophthongs, in the context described above became further forward and higher, or more palatal and more narrow, with the exception of [e] and [i] which could go no further. This may be described as a kind of vowel harmony — a natural process affecting many modern languages: the vowels mutate, the change being caused by their partial assimilation to the following vowel (or semi-vowel).

Monophthongs

a > e	*strangiþu > strengþu ¹ (<i>strength</i>)
æ > e	*tælian > tellan (<i>to tell</i>)
ā > ē	*hālian > hēlan (<i>to heal</i>)
o > e	*ofstian > efstan (<i>to hurry</i>)
ō > ē	*dōmian > dēman (<i>to deem</i>)
u > y	*fullian > fyllan (<i>to fill</i>)
ū > y	*cūþian > cȳþan (<i>to announce</i>)

As a result of palatal mutation new phonemes entered the vowel-system in Old English — the vowel phoneme [y] and the vowel phoneme [ȳ], the result of the mutation of [u] and [ū], respectively.

Diphthongs

ea > ie	*ealdira > ieldra (<i>elder</i>)
ēa > iē	*ȝelēafian > ȝeliēfan (<i>to believe</i>)
eo > ie	*afeorrian > afierran (<i>to remove</i>)
ēo > iē	*ȝetrēowi > ȝetrīewe (<i>true</i>)

1.2.3. Effect of palatal mutation upon grammar and word-stock

Though palatal mutation was a phonetic process it left traces in Old English grammar and word-stock.

Grammar: As a result of the process of palatal mutation there appeared vowel gradation in the system of the declension of nouns (root-stem declension). In the system of adjectives we have vowel gradation in the degrees of comparison, in the system of verbs vowel gradation is found in Old English irregular weak verbs.

Word-stock: Palatal mutation resulted in vowel interchange as a word building means:

Adjective	Verb
ful (<i>full</i>)	fyllan (<i>fill</i>)
Noun	Verb
dōm (<i>doom</i>)	dēman (<i>deem</i>)
Verb	Verb
sittan (<i>sit</i>)	settan (<i>set</i>)

2. Old English consonants

2.0. The Old English consonant system consisted of some 14 consonant phonemes denoted by the letters

p, b, m, f, t, d, n, s, r, l, þ (ð), c, ȝ, h.

The consonant system in Old English manifested the following peculiarities.

1. The relatively small number of consonant phonemes — only 14 phonemes.
2. The absence of affricates and fricative consonants which we now find in

the language such as **[tʃ], [dʒ], [ʃ], [ʒ]**

3. Dependence of the quality of the phoneme upon its environment in the word.

If the first two points require no particular explanation, the last point calls for a special comment.

2.1. Dependence of the quality of the consonant phoneme upon its environment in the word

Among the 14 consonant phonemes that existed in Old English there were at least 5 that gave us positional variants which stand rather wide apart.

1. The phonemes denoted by the letters **f, þ, ð** or **s** are voiced or voiceless depending upon their phonetic position. They are generally voiced in the so-called “intervocal position” that is between vowels and voiceless otherwise.

For example:

hlāf [f] — **hlāford** [v]
(*bread*) (lord, originally *hlāfweard* — *bread-keeper*)

ȝōs [s] — **ȝōses** [z]
(*goose, Nom. Sing.*) (*Gen. Sing.*)
tōð [θ] — **tōðes** [ð]
(*tooth, Nom. Sing.*) (*Gen. Sing.*)

2. The phoneme denoted by the letter **c** also gave at least two variants — palatal [kʰ] and velar [k]. In the majority of cases it was a velar consonant and palatal generally before the vowel **i**. Compare:

Cild (child) , **scip** (ship)

where **c** denotes the palatal consonant [kʰ] and such words as

can (can), **climban** (to climb)

when the letter **c** denotes the corresponding velar variant of the phoneme [k].

3. Similar remarks can be made about the phoneme denoted by the letter **ȝ**: we have the voiced velar plosive variant [g] of it at the beginning of the word before back vowels or consonants or in the middle of the word after **n**:

ȝōd (*good*), **ȝrētan** (*to greet, to address*), **ȝanȝan** (*to go*),

the voiced velar fricative variant [ɣ] in the middle of the word between back vowels:

daȝas (*days*),

the voice palatal fricative variant [j] before and after front vowels:

dæȝ (*day*), **ȝēar** (*year*).

The system of consonant phonemes that we observe in Old English involves certain peculiarities that are typical of the majority of Germanic dialects which set them (those Germanic dialects and Old English among them) apart from the majority of the Indo-European languages. Those peculiarities were mainly accounted for by two linguists — Jacob Grimm and Karl Verner, hence they are

generally referred to as "Grimm's law" (or the first Germanic consonant shift) and "Verner's law".

2.2. Grimm's law & Verner's law

Grimm's law explains the correspondence between certain groups of Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. Those correspondences involve three sets of Germanic consonants, consequently they generally speak of three stages of Grimm's law. But we shall speak here about only one stage which is the simplest to explain and the most consistent — the Germanic consonants [f], [θ], [h] and the corresponding consonants [p], [t], [k] we find in similar phonetic environment.

The essence of this stage of the first Germanic consonant shift is the following:

The voiceless plosive consonants [p], [t], [k] of Indo-European languages other than Germanic shifted in Germanic languages into the voiceless fricative consonants [f], [θ], [h]. It was a non-assimilative change which presumably affected Germanic languages at the beginning of the first millennium AD. Examples:

<i>Russian</i>	<i>Greek</i>	<i>Old English</i>
пена		fāma (<i>foam</i>)
пять		fīv (<i>five</i>)
три		θrīe (<i>three</i>)
ты		þū (<i>thou</i>)
кров, кровля		hrōf (<i>roof</i>)
	kardia	heorte (<i>heart</i>)
	octo	eahta (<i>eight</i>)

It should be noted, however, that these correspondences are not absolutely clear in all the cases. Some more complicated phenomena were formulated in the so-called Verner's law [3; 11; 19].

A careful analysis of Germanic words and the corresponding Indo-European words other than Germanic shows, however, that there are certain words or word-forms in Germanic languages where instead of the expected voiceless fricative consonants we find in Germanic languages voiced plosive consonants. These

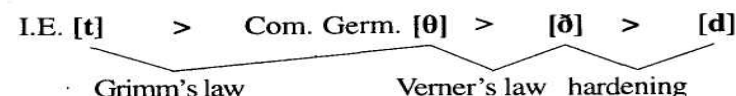
seeming "exceptions" to the rule are a result of the further development of the fricative consonants which appeared in Germanic languages after the first consonant shift.

The essence of this change was explained by Karl Verner — hence its name: Verner's law.

The Germanic voiceless fricative consonants [f], [θ], [h] which appeared due to Grimm's law later became voiced if they were found after unstressed vowels. Compare:

<i>Latin</i>	<i>Old English</i>
pater	fæder (<i>father</i>)

t>θ in accordance with Grimm's law, but as the stress in the word "fæder" in the prehistoric period was on the **second** syllable the voiceless fricative consonant [θ] became voiced [ð]; later the voiced fricative consonant [ð] underwent "hardening" and became [d]. Consequently the whole process of the change may be presented in the following way:



The change referred to as "Verner's law" also affected a fourth consonant — [s] in addition to the three consonants which appeared in the language under Grimm's law, i.e. [f], [θ], [h]. The [s] was also voiced after unstressed vowels — [s] > [z], later the resulting

consonant [z] became [r] — the change [z] > [r] is called rhotacism. Verner's law explains the appearance of "consonant gradation" in some strong verbs. For instance:

I	II	III	IV	
cweðan	cwæð	cwædon	cweden	(say, Strong V)
cēosan	cēas	curon	coren	(choose, Strong II), etc.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF - CONTROL

1. What English vowels were there in Old English?
2. What is the origin of Old English vowels?
3. What changes were there in Old English vowel phonemes?
4. What is breaking? Give examples.
5. What is palatal mutation? Give examples.
6. What was effect of palatal mutation upon grammar and word-stock in Old English?
7. Explain dependence of the quality of the consonant phoneme upon its environment in the word. Give examples.
8. What is Grimm's law & Verner's law? Give examples.

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topics "Old English Phonology", p. 30-38. (Верба Л. Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 4. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR. THE NOMINAL SYSTEM

List of principal questions:

1. General survey of the nominal system
2. The noun
 - 2.1. Gender
 - 2.2. Number
 - 2.3. Case
 - 2.4. Homonymity of forms in Old English and its influence on the further development of noun forms
3. The pronoun
 - 3.1. Personal pronouns
 - 3.2. Other pronouns
4. The adjective
 - 4.1. Declension of adjectives
 - 4.2. Degrees of comparison of adjectives

Old English grammar

The Old English language was a synthetic language which means that all the principal grammatical notions were expressed by a change of the form of the word in the narrow meaning of the term. Old English was a highly inflected language.

The grammatical means that the English language used were primarily:

a) suffixation, b) vowel gradation and c) use of suppletive forms.

1. General survey of the nominal system

1.0. There were five declinable parts of speech in Old English: the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral, the participle. The nominal paradigm in Old English was characterised by the following grammatical categories (see Table 6.1).

Table 6-/.Grammatical categories of declinable parts of speech

Categories Part of speech	Gender	Number	Case
Noun	+	+	+
Pronoun	+	+	+
Adjective	+	+	+
Numeral	+	+	+

As we can see, the paradigms of different parts of speech had the same number of grammatical categories but these parts of speech were different in the number of categorial forms composing a given grammatical category. Hence the system of forms of each part of speech requires special consideration.

2. The noun

2.0. The Old English noun paradigm was composed by the following grammatical categories: **gender, number, case**.

2.1. Gender

The category of gender was formed by the opposition of three gender-forms: masculine, feminine and neuter. All nouns, no matter whether they denoted living beings, inanimate things or abstract notions belonged to one of the three genders.

The subdivision of Old English nouns in accordance with their grammatical gender is traditional, the correspondence between the meaning of the word and its grammatical gender being hard to trace [4; 5; 11; 16].

Some nouns denoting animals were also treated as neuter, such as **cicen** (chicken), **hors** (horse), etc.

The grammatical gender did not always coincide with the natural gender of the person and sometimes even contradicted it (thus, for instance, the noun **wifman** (woman) was declined as masculine).

Compare **stān** (stone, masculine), **bān** (bone, neuter), **cwen** (queen, feminine) which belong to different genders but have similar forms.

More examples:

Masculine

<u>Male beings</u>	<u>Lifeless things</u>	<u>Abstract notions</u>
fæder (father)	hlāf (bread)	stenc (stench)
sunu (son)	stān (stone)	fær (fear)
cynig (king)	hrōf (roof)	nama (name)
		dōm (doom)

Feminine

<u>Female beings</u>	<u>Lifeless things</u>	<u>Abstract notions</u>
mōdor (mother)	tunge (tongue)	trywōu (truth)
dohter (daughter)	meolc (milk)	huntings (hunting)
cwēn (queen)		lufu (love)
3ōs (goose)		

Neuter

<u>Living beings</u>	<u>Lifeless things</u>	<u>Abstract notions</u>
cicen (chicken)	ēaze (eye)	mōd (mood)
hors (horse)	scip (ship)	riht (right)
mæ3den (maiden)		

2.2. Number

The grammatical category of number was formed by the opposition of two categorial forms: the singular and the plural.

Nominative Singular Nominative Plural

fisc (fish)	fiscas
ēaze (eye)	ēazan
tōð (tooth)	tēð

2.3. Case

The Old English noun formed its paradigm by the opposition of three genders, two numbers and four cases. Thus, presumably, the noun had twenty-four

word-forms.

As a result of that fusion nouns that are known to have had different stem-suffixes originally in Old English acquired materially different endings in the same case, for example:

<i>Nominative plural</i>			
<u>a-stem</u>	<u>ō-stem</u>	<u>n-stem</u>	
stān-as (<i>stones</i>)	car-a (<i>cares</i>)	nam-an (<i>names</i>), etc.	

The original stem suffixes were formed both by vowels and by consonants. Thus there were two respective principal groups of declensions in Old English: the vowel declension ("strong" declension) and the consonant declension ("weak" declension).

The vowel (strong) declension comprises four principal paradigms: the **a-stem**, the **ō-stem**, the **u-stem** and the **i-stem** paradigm.

The consonant declension comprises nouns with the stem originally ending in **-n**, **-r**, **-s** and some other consonants [11; 14; 17].

In rare cases, however, the new form is constructed by adding the ending directly to the root. It is these words that formed the so-called root-stem declension.

Table 6-2. Declensions in Old English

Declension Case and number	Vowel (strong) stems				Consonant (weak) stem			Root stems
	a	ō	u	i	n	r	s	
Nom. Sing.	stān (stone)	caru (care)	sunu (son)	wine (wine)	nama (name)	fæder (father)	lamb (lamb)	fōt (foot)
Nom. Plur.	stānas	cara	sunu	wine	naman	fæderos	lamb	fēt

Vowel-Stems. Declension of a-stem nouns

This type of declension consists of the masculine and the neuter genders of Old English nouns. As a rule those are common everyday words that formed the very core of the word-stock, such as:

Table 6-3. Declension of a-stem nouns

Case Gender		Masculine	Neuter
Singular	Nominative	fisc (fish)	scip (ship)
	Genitive	fisc <u>es</u>	scip <u>es</u>
	Dative	fisc <u>e</u>	scip <u>e</u>
	Accusative	fisc	scip
Plural	Nominative	fisc <u>as</u>	scip <u>u</u>
	Genitive	fisc <u>al</u>	scip <u>a</u>
	Dative	fisc <u>um</u>	scip <u>um</u>
	Accusative	fisc <u>as</u>	scip <u>u</u>

As is seen from Table 6-3 below, the paradigm of the a-stem nouns is characterised by the homonymity of the Nominative and Accusative case-forms. The rest of the forms retain their endings. The difference between the genders of the nouns is clearly seen from the different endings in the Nominative and the Accusative plural, i.e. -as for the masculine and -u for the neuter.

Consonant stems. Declension of n-stem nouns

The consonant declensions consisted of nouns with the stem originally ending in -n, -r, -s and other consonants.

Table 6-4. Declension of n-stem nouns

Gender Case		Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular	Nominative	nama (<i>name</i>)	tunge (<i>tongue</i>)	eaze (<i>eye</i>)
	Genitive	nam <u>an</u>	tung <u>an</u>	eaz <u>an</u>
	Dative	nam <u>an</u>	tung <u>an</u>	eaz <u>an</u>

The n-stem was the most important among all the consonant stem declensions. This class of nouns was composed of common words. The group was very extensive in Old English and like the a-stem declension it exhibited a tendency to spread its forms over other declensions.

Declension of root-stem nouns

Root-stems require special consideration. This class was not extensive and stood apart among other Old English nouns due to peculiarities of form-building which was partly retained in Modern English.

Unlike other classes the root-stem nouns such as **man** (man, masculine), **mus** (mouse, feminine) originally had no stem-suffix and the grammatical ending was added directly to the root. As a result of that in the Dative Singular and the Nominative and the Accusative Plural the root-vowel had undergone palatal mutation due to the [i]-sound in the grammatical ending of these forms. Later the ending was dropped and vowel interchange remained the only means of differentiating the given forms in the paradigm. The endings of the rest of the forms are built up on analogy with those of the a-stems, hence the difference between genders can be observed only in the Genitive Singular — **-es** for the masculine, **-e** for the feminine.

Table 6-5. Declension of root-stem nouns

Gender		Masculine	Feminine
Case			
ngular	Nominative	man (<i>man</i>)	mūs (<i>mouse</i>)
	Genitive	mannes	mūse
	Dative	man	mūe

2.4. Homonymity of forms in Old English and its influence on the further development of noun forms

In the prehistoric period of the development of the English language each case had an ending typical of its uninflected form. In the course of the development of the English language, however, due to various semantic and phonetic changes different cases began to develop similar endings within one and the same paradigm; this phenomenon gave rise to the well-marked homonymity of case-forms in English. The reference table given below shows the principal noun suffixes in Old English. The table serves to prove that the twenty-four word-forms which built up the noun paradigm had but nine materially different endings.

The most distinct among them are:

- es** — genitive singular, masculine and neuter
- a/ena** — genitive plural, all genders
- um** — dative plural, all genders
- as** — nominative and accusative plural, masculine.

As for the rest of the forms their mutual homonymity is considerable. For example, nouns with the stem originally ending in **-a** show gender differences only in the plural, all the forms in the singular but the nominative being homonymous, irrespective of gender and case differences [6; 11; 13; 21].

The existence of different endings of nouns grammatically alike and homonymous endings of nouns grammatically different testifies to a certain inadequacy of the morphological devices of the Old English noun to show the relation of the noun to other words in the sentence and a need for the development of new means to denote the grammatical meanings formerly denoted morphologically.

Table 6-6. Reference table of the principal grammatical noun suffixes in Old English

Gender Stem Case		Masculine				Feminine				Neuter		
		a	i	u	n	ō	i	u	n	a	i	n
Singular	Nominative	—	e	u/o	a	u	—	u/o	e	—	-/e	e
	Genitive	es	es	a	an	e	e	a	an	es	es	an
	Dative	e	e	a	an	e	e	a	an	e	e	an
	Accusative	—	e	a	an	e	-/e	a	an	—	e	e
Plural	Nominative	as	e/es	a	ana	e	a	a	n	u/o	u	an
	Genitive	a	a	a	ena	a	a	a	ena	a	a	ena
	Dative	um	um	um	um	um	um	um	um	um	um	um
	Accusative	as	e/as	a	an	a	e	a	an	u/o/-	u	an

3. The pronoun

0. The following classes of pronouns were to be observed in Old English: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative and indefinite pronouns.

3.1. The personal pronoun

The Old English personal pronoun similar to the Old English noun had the grammatical categories of **gender, number and case**.

Gender

Three genders could be distinguished in the pronominal paradigm: masculine, feminine and neuter, but different forms for different genders were found only in the third person singular, the rest of the forms being indifferent to gender.

Number

The category of number differs from that of the noun as in the first and

second person we find three categorial forms: singular, dual and plural, for instance:

<i>Singular</i>	<i>Dual</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Ic (<i>I</i>)	wit (<i>two of us</i>)	wē (<i>we</i>)

Case

The category of case is built up by the opposition of four categorial forms, similar to those of the noun: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative.

The table below may serve as an example of the declension of personal pronouns.

Unlike the Old English noun, the paradigm of which was composed of forms that mainly differed in the ending, the paradigm of the Old English personal pronouns is built up by suppletive forms and the homonymity of pronominal forms is not great. We find it only in the Dative and the Accusative cases.

Table 6-7. Declension of the personal pronoun **Ic**

Number Case	Singular	Dual	Plural
Nominative	ic	wit	wē
Genitive	mīn	uncer	ūser, ūre
Dative	mē	unc	ūs
Accusative	mec, mē	unc	ūsic, ūs

3.2. Other pronouns

All Old English pronouns with the exception of personal pronouns were declined almost alike. They expressed the grammatical categories of gender (three forms: masculine, feminine and neuter), number (two forms: singular and plural) and case, which was built up by five categorial forms: the Nominative, the Accusative, the Dative, the Genitive and the Instrumental, different from the Dative only in the Singular. See the declension of the demonstrative pronoun **se**.

If we compare the paradigms of these pronouns with those of the noun and the personal pronoun we cannot but take notice that they differed in the number of the categorial forms composing the categories of case and number [3; 5; 11; 16].

The personal pronoun unlike the rest of the pronouns and the noun possessed three categorial forms composing the category of number.

All the other pronouns unlike the personal pronoun and the noun had five cases.

Table 6-8. Declension of the demonstrative pronoun *sē*

Gender, number Case	Masculine Singular	Feminine Singular	Neuter Singular	Plural
Nominative	<i>sē (that)</i>	<i>sēo (that)</i>	<i>þæt (that)</i>	<i>þa (those)</i>
Genitive	<i>þæs</i>	<i>þære</i>	<i>þæs</i>	<i>þāra</i>
Dative	<i>þæm</i>	<i>þære</i>	<i>þæm</i>	<i>þæm</i>
Accusative	<i>þone</i>	<i>þā</i>	<i>þæt</i>	<i>þā</i>
Instrumental	<i>þȳ, þon</i>			<i>þȳ</i>

4. The adjective

4.1. Declension of adjectives

The paradigm of the adjective is similar to that of the noun and the pronoun, i.e. it comprises Gender, Number, Case.

The grammatical category of case was built up by five forms: the Nominative, the Accusative, the Dative, the Genitive and the Instrumental.

There were two ways of declining Adjectives — the Definite and the Indefinite declension. The adjective followed the Definite declension mainly if the noun if modified had another attribute — a demonstrative pronoun, and they were declined as Indefinite otherwise.

The grammatical suffixes — forms of cases mainly coincided with those of nouns with the stem originally ending in a vowel or -n, yet in some cases we find pronominal suffixes. For example, in the Genitive Plural, in the Dative singular, etc.

Table 6-9. Declension of adjectives

Declension Case	Indefinite (Strong)	Definite (Weak)
Nominative	<i>zōd (good)</i>	<i>zōda</i>
Genitive	<i>zōdes</i>	
Dative	<i>zōdum</i>	
Accusative	<i>zōdne</i>	<i>zōdan</i>
Instrumental	<i>zōde</i>	
Nominative	<i>zōde</i>	<i>zōdan</i>
Genitive	<i>zōdra</i>	<i>zōdra</i>
Dative	<i>zōdum</i>	<i>zōdum</i>
Accusative	<i>zōde</i>	<i>zōdan</i>

4.2. Degrees of comparison

The Adjective in Old English changed its forms not only to show the relation of the given adjective to other words in the sentence which was expressed by the gender, number and case of the adjective, but also to show the degree of the quality denoted by the adjective, i.e., the forms of the adjective in Old English could express degrees of comparison.

The degrees of comparison were expressed, the same as all other grammatical notions, synthetically, namely:

a) by means of *suffixation*:

heard — heardra — heardost (hard)

b) by means of *vowel gradation plus suffixation*:

eald — ieldra — ieldest (old)

c) by means of *suppletive forms*

zōd — bettra — betst (good)

the first means being unquestionably the most common.

Both suffixation and the use of suppletive forms in the formation of the degrees of comparison are original means that can be traced back to Common Germanic. But the use of vowel interchange is a feature which is typical of the

English language only and was acquired by the language in the prehistoric period of its development.

The origin of vowel gradation in the forms

eald — ieldra — ieldest

is a result of the process of palatal mutation which the root-vowel **ea** underwent under the influence of the original stem-forming suffix **-i**, i.e.

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
degree	degree	degree
eald	ieldra	ieldest
	*ealdira	*ealdist
	ealdira > ieldra	ealdist > ieldest

A similar case is observed with **strong** (strong), **long** (long), etc.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF - CONTROL

1. What grammatical means were used in Old English?
2. What grammatical categories were used to characterise the nominal paradigm in Old English?
3. What grammatical categories composed the Old English noun paradigm?
4. What are the features of declension of a-stem nouns in Old English?
5. What are the features of declension of n-stem nouns Old English?
6. What are the features of declension of root-stem nouns Old English?
7. What forms of homonymity were there in Old English? What Influence did they have on the further development of noun?
8. What classes of pronouns were there in Old English? What grammatical categories did they have?
9. What was the paradigm of the adjective in Old English? Tell about declension of adjectives and degrees of comparison of adjectives in Old English.

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topic “Old English Morphology” pp. 38-58. ((Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 5. OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR. THE VERBAL SYSTEM

List of principal questions:

1. General survey of finite and non-finite forms of the verb
2. Grammatical categories of the finite forms of the verb
 - 2.1. Person
 - 2.2. Number
 - 2.3. Tense
 - 2.4. Mood
3. Morphological classification of verbs
 - 3.1. Strong verbs
 - 3.2. Weak verbs
 - 3.3. Irregular verbs

1. General survey of finite and non-finite forms of the verb

The verb-system in Old English was represented by two sets of forms: the finite forms of the verb and the non-finite forms of the verb, or verbals (Infinitive, Participle). Those two types of forms — the finite and the non-finite — differed more than they do today from the point of view of their respective grammatical categories, as the verbals at that historical period were **not conjugated** like the verb proper, but were **declined** like nouns or adjectives. Thus the infinitive could have two case-forms which may conventionally be called the "Common" case and the "Dative" case.

Common case

Dative case

The so-called Common case form of the Infinitive was widely used in different syntactical functions, the Dative case was used on a limited scale and

mainly when the Infinitive functioned as an adverbial modifier of purpose, i.e.

Ic a to drincenne (I go to drink)

The participle had a well-developed system of forms, the declension of the Participle resembling greatly the declension of adjectives. The one typically "verbal" grammatical category of the participle was the category of tense, for example:

<i>Present tense</i>	<i>Past tense</i>
writende	writen
cēpende	cēpt
drincende	druncen

2. Grammatical categories of the finite forms of the verb

As we have already said the system of conjugation mainly embraced the finite forms of the verb as the non-finite forms were not conjugated but declined. The system of conjugation of the Old English verb was built up by four grammatical categories, those of person, number, tense and mood [2; 11; 17].

2.1. Person

There were three person forms in Old English: first, second and third. For example:

First person	—	Ic wīte
Second person	—	þu writes
Third person	—	hē witeð

But we have distinct person forms only in the Indicative mood, the Imperative and the Oblique mood forms reflecting no person differences and even the Indicative mood forms changing for person only in the Singular, the plural forms being the same irrespective of person, for example:

2.2. Number

The grammatical category of number was built up by the opposition of two number forms — Singular and Plural

Ic wīte (singular)
wē wītað (plural)

2.3. Tense

The grammatical category of tense was represented by two forms: Present tense and Past tense, for example:

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Ic wīte</i>	<i>Ic wrāt</i>
<i>Oblique</i>	<i>Ic wīte</i>	<i>Ic write</i>

There was no Future tense in Old English, future events were expressed with the help of a present tense verb + an adverb denoting futurity or by a combination of a modal verb (generally *sculan* (shall) or *willan* (will) + an Infinitive, for example:

Wille ic āseczan mærum þeodne min ærende
(I want to tell the glorious prince my mission)

2.4. Mood

There were three mood forms in Old English: Indicative, Imperative and Oblique, for example:

<i>Indicative</i>	<i>Imperative</i>	<i>Oblique</i>
<i>þu cepst</i>	<i>cēp</i>	<i>cēpe</i>

The Indicative Mood and the Imperative Mood were used in cases similar to those in which they are used now but the Oblique mood in Old English differed greatly from the corresponding mood in New English. There was only one mood form in Old English that was used both to express events that are thought of as unreal or as problematic — today there are two mood forms to denote those two different kinds of events, conventionally called the Subjunctive and the Conjunctive [1; 3; 11; 18].

The forms of the Oblique Mood were also sometimes used in contexts for

which now the Indicative mood would be more suitable — to present events in the so-called "Indirect speech":

Hē sǣde þæt þæt land sie swiþe lanȝ.
(He said that that land is very long/large).

3. Morphological classification of verbs

All Old English verbs may be subdivided into a number of groups in accordance with the grammatical means with the help of which they built their principal stems.

There were two principal means for forming verb-stems in Old English: (1) by means of vowel interchange of the root vowel and (2) by means of suffixation.

In accordance with these two methods of the formation of the verb-stems all the verbs in Old English formed two main groups — the strong verbs and the weak verbs. There were other means of the formation of verb-stems in Old English as well, but the number of verbs belonging to those groups was not large [2; 6; 11].

A.I. Smiritsky suggested the following morphological classification of verbs in Old English.

Table 7-1. Morphological classification of Old English verbs

Strong verbs	Weak verbs	Other verbs
I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII classes	I, II, III classes	suppletive irregular (anomalous) preterite-present verbs

3.1. Strong verbs

The strong verbs are verbs which use vowel-interchange as the principal means of expressing different grammatical categories. They differ from weak ones not only in the manner of the building of their forms but also in the number of these principal forms. The strong verbs have four principal forms, the weak ones — three principal forms.

These terms “strong” and “weak” were introduced into the science of

philology by the famous German linguist Jacob Grimm who considered strong verbs to be of “a more noble nature” as compared with weak verbs, because strong verbs conjugated by means of vowel interchange better reflected the prehistoric “golden age” of the language [3; 5; 11].

This vowel interchange, or “ablaut”, which was the principal grammatical means in the conjugation of the Old English strong verbs was of two kinds: qualitative and quantitative.

The first five classes are mainly based on the qualitative ablaut; the sixth class — on the quantitative ablaut; verbs of the seventh class originally formed their principal forms by means of the so-called reduplication of the root syllable, but in the course of the development of the language that means was obliterated.

The Old English qualitative ablaut is akin to the Common Germanic ablaut and even Indo-European ablaut — its essence, as we remember, is the use of the gradation series consisting of a front vowel, back vowel and zero.

e — o — Ø
i — a — Ø

In Russian, for instance, they use two grades of the series: e/zero to form the category of tense:

Present tense **Past tense**
e — бepy Ø — бpaл

Classes of the strong verbs

There were seven principal gradation series in Old English and there were seven classes of the strong verbs — from I to VII.

Table 7-2. Classes of the strong verbs

Stems Class	I stem <i>Infinitive, Present tense, Imperative</i>	II stem <i>Past tense singular</i>	III stem <i>Past tense plural</i>	IV stem <i>Past Participle (Part. II)</i>
I	rīsan (<i>rise</i>)	rās	rison	risen
II	cēosan (<i>choose</i>)	cēas	curon	coren
III	bindan (<i>bind</i>)	band	bundon	bunden
IV	teran (<i>tear</i>)	tær	tæron	toren
V	etan (<i>eat</i>)	æt	æton	eten
VI	scacan (<i>shake</i>)	scōc	scōcon	scacen
VII	hātan (<i>~call</i>)	hēt	hēton	hāten

As we have already said, the seventh class of the strong verbs stands apart from the rest of the classes, because it was the only class formed by verbs which originally used reduplication of the root-vowel as their principal grammatical means; the sixth class of the strong verbs shows a peculiarity that is also typical only of one class within the system of the strong verbs — original quantitative gradation; the rest of the classes — from I to VII — are characterised by a certain similarity in their original grammatical means as all of them originally used the same type of qualitative ablaut, i.e. the interchange of a front vowel — back vowel — zero in the form of

i — a — Ø.

The difference in the gradation series of each of the classes within the first five was mainly due to the splitting of that one gradation into variants under the influence of the vowel or the consonant of the stem that followed the vowel of gradation.

Thus in the first class of the strong verbs the vowel of gradation was followed by the vowel -i, in the second — by the vowel -u, in the third, fourth and fifth — by a sonorous consonant + another consonant, by one sonorous consonant or by a noise consonant, respectively [4; 6; 11].

The root of the verbs of the sixth class consisted only of consonants, and the purely quantitative vowel interchange of prehistoric times developed into a quantitative and qualitative one. The verbs of the seventh class show traces of the

original reduplication (addition of an extra syllable including the initial consonant of the infinitive and having the vowels -e- or -eo- in the past singular and plural).

The original structure of the verb is still quite clear in the Gothic language.

In table 7-3 below the bold type vowel in the Gothic verb is the vowel of gradation. As is seen from the examples, in the third and second forms of the verb there was no vowel of gradation — the zero grade of gradation.

Table 7-3. Old English and Gothic strong verbs

Class, language \ Forms		I	II	III	IV
I	Old English	rīsan	rās	rison	risen
	Gothic	reisan	rais	risum	risans
II	Old English	cēosan	cēas	curon	coren
	Gothic	kīusan	kaus	kusum	kusans
III	Old English	bindan	band	bundon	bunden
	Gothic	bindan	band	bundum	bundans

In the following table there is given the paradigm of some types of strong verbs.

Table 7-4. Conjugation of Old English strong verbs

3.2. Weak verbs

The Old English weak verbs are relatively younger than the strong verbs. They reflect a later stage in the development of Germanic languages.

They were an open class in Old English, as new verbs that entered the language generally formed their forms on analogy with the weak verbs.

Whereas the strong verbs used vowel-interchange as a means of differentiation among principal verb stems, the weak verbs used for that purpose suffixation, namely, suffixes -t or -d. For example:

The strong verbs, as we remember, were "root-stem" verbs, i.e. they did not have any stem-forming suffix following the root, but they added their grammatical

endings to the root directly. The weak verbs, however, had a stem-forming suffix that followed the root and preceded the grammatical ending.

Table 7-4. Conjugation of Old English strong verbs

Classes \ Forms	Class I gradation vowel + i	Class III gradation vowel + sonorant + any consonant	Class IV gradation vowel + sonorant
<i>Infinitive</i>	writan (<i>write</i>)	bindan (<i>bind</i>)	niman (<i>take</i>)
<i>Present Ind.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i> 1	write	binde	nime
2	writest, writst	bindest, binst	nimst
3	writeþ, writ	bindeþ, bint	nim(e)þ
<i>Plur.</i>	writaþ	bindaþ	nimaþ
<i>Present Subj.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	write	binde	nime
<i>Plur.</i>	writen	binden	nimen
<i>Imperative</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	writ	bind	nim
<i>Plur.</i>	writaþ	bindaþ	nimaþ
<i>Participle I</i>	writende	bindende	nimende
<i>Past Ind.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i> 1	wrāt	band, bond	nam
2	wrote	bunde	name
3	wrāt	band, bond	nam
<i>Plur.</i>	writon	bundon	namon
<i>Past Subj.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	wrote	bunde	name
<i>Plur.</i>	writen	bunden	namen
<i>Participle II</i>			

By way of an example we may use a Gothic verb where that original stem-forming suffix is better preserved than in English.

	Infinitive	Past tense Singular	Past Participle
I class	haus-j-an (hear)	haus-i-d-a	haus-i-ps

Classes of the weak verbs

In accordance with the character of the stem-suffix the weak verbs are subdivided into three classes.

If the English strong verbs had four principal forms, the English weak verbs had three principal forms [1; 3; 11; 15].

We may draw the following table of the English weak verbs.

Table 7-5. Classes of the weak verbs

Classes	Stem suffix	Infinitive	Past tense Singular	Past Participle
I	i	dēman (<i>deem</i>) fyllan (<i>fill</i>)	dēmde fyllde	dēmed fyllled
II ¹	oi	lufian (<i>love</i>) lōcian (<i>look</i>)	lufode lōcode	lufod lōcod

Class I - the stem-suffix -i

The class includes many verbs formed from other nouns, adjectives or verbs. All of them have a front root vowel — the result of the palatal mutation due to the -i- element of the stem-suffix.

e.g. deman ← dōm
 fyllan ← ful

In the course of time this palatal stem-suffix was as a rule lost. It was preserved only in some participles in the form of -e (after sonorous consonants):

Class II - the stem-suffix -oi

The o-element of the suffix is preserved in the past tense and in the Past Participle.

If the first class of the weak verbs reflected the palatal mutation of the root-vowel due to the i-element of the stem-suffix, the root vowel of the weak verbs belonging to the second class remained unchanged (because of the preceding ō).

luf-ōian → lufēian → lufēan → lufian

The following table shows the paradigm of weak verbs.

Table 7-6. Conjugation of Old English weak verbs

Classes Forms	Class I stem suffix -i-	Class II stem suffix -oi-	Class III
<i>Infinitive</i>	cēpan (<i>keep</i>)	lōcian (<i>look</i>)	habban (<i>have</i>)
<i>Present Ind.</i> <i>Sing.</i> 1 2 3 <i>Plur.</i>	cēpe cēpst cēpþ cēpaþ	lōcie lōcast lōcaþ lōciaþ	hæbbe hafast, hæfst hafaþ, hæfþ habbaþ
<i>Present Subj.</i> <i>Sing.</i> <i>Plur.</i>	cēpe cēpen	lōcie lōcien	hæbbe hæbben
<i>Imperative</i> <i>Sing.</i> <i>Plur.</i>	cēp cēpaþ	lōca lōciaþ	hafa habbaþ
<i>Participle I</i>	cēpende	lōciende	hæbbende
<i>Past Ind.</i> <i>Sing.</i> 1 2 3 <i>Plur.</i>	cēpte cēptes(t) cēpte cēpton	lōcode lōcodes(t) lōcode lōcodon	hæfde hæfdest hæfde hæfdon
<i>Past Subj.</i>			

3.3. Irregular verbs

Regularity means conformity with some unique principle or pattern. It does

not require any exact material marker. That is why it is said that most verbs in Old English were regular in their conjugation; they followed one of the patterns typical of this or that class of strong or weak verbs. However, there were also a few irregular verbs, conjugated in some specific way.

Irregular weak verbs

The majority of the weak verbs belonging to the 1st and 2nd classes were regular. The weak verbs of the 3rd class are considered to be irregular, because the class consists of only three verbs, following their own individual patterns of form-building. However, among the 1st class there were also some irregular verbs. This irregularity was inherent, but it was manifested in pre-historic times and in Old English differently. Here we may speak of such verbs as

tellan — talde — tald (to tell) sellan — salde — said (to sell)

The sign of irregularity of the weak verbs in Old English was vowel interchange, a feature not typical of this group of verbs. The cause of it was the original absence of the stem-forming suffix **-i-** in Past Singular and Past Participle:

talian — talde — tald

Under the influence of **-i-** only the form of the infinitive could change during the process of palatal mutation:

talian > tellan;

the other two remaining unchanged, and as a result the verb acquired vowel interchange.

Irregular strong verbs

There was a group of strong verbs which in the pre-written period lost some of their forms and preserved the others, changing their lexical and grammatical meaning. Forms historically past changed so as to become present in meaning. These verbs are called preterite-present, for in the written period they build their present tense forms from the original past (preterite) ones. The new past tense forms of these verbs in Old English are built with the help of dental suffixation, like weak verbs. The majority of preterite-present verbs are defective verbs — they do

not have all the forms of regular verbs, which lost their connection with the other forms and were dropped.

The group of Old English preterite-present verbs includes, among others, the following:

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Present Singular</i>	<i>Present Plural</i>	<i>Past Singular</i>	<i>Participle II</i>
āzan	āz	āzon	āhte	āzen
cunnan	cann	cunnon	cuðe	cunnen
sculan	sceal	sculon	scolde	—
mazan	mæz	mazon	meahte	—
—	mōt	mōton	mōste	—

The Old English forms of preterite-present verbs correspond to the following pre-written forms of the verb:

<i>Pre-written</i>	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural		Participle II
	↓	↓	↓		↓
<i>Written</i>	Infinitive	Present Singular	Present Plural	Past Singular	Participle II

Preterite-present verbs were further to develop in a number of different ways.

The verb **āzan** later developed into several words:

— the infinitive **āzan** as a result of phonetic changes gave the New English verb **owe** with the past tense/participle II form **owed** built according to the pattern of weak verbs;

— the past participle **āzen** gave the New English adjective **own** from which there was later formed the regular verb **own** — **owned** — **owned**;

— the past tense singular **āhte** developed into the modern modal verb **ought**.

The verb **cunnan** lost its infinitive. The form **cann** began to be used for the present, the past tense form acquired the dental suffix **-d**, in Middle English began to be spelled with **-ou-** instead of **-u-**, and later acquired the letter **-l-** on analogy with such verbs as **should** and **would**.

The verb *sculan*, similar to other verbs of this group, lost its infinitive, using the form *sceal* for the present, and the former *sceolde* was to develop into *should*, both verbs nowadays being used as modal or auxiliary.

Suppletive verbs

Suppletion, as we know, is one of the oldest means of form-building. All Indo-European languages, and English among them, have suppletive verbs — those building different forms from different roots. Each of them is a class in itself. Among such verbs we may mention the following:

bēon	—	wesan	(be)
zān	—	eode	(go)
don	—	dyde	(do)

The first verb of each of the pairs above is the root for the Present tense forms, the second — for the past.

A similar phenomenon is observed in German: *sein* — *war* — *ich bin*, Russian: *быть* — *есть*, *иду* — *шел*, Latin: *sum* — *fui*. In fact, the forms of the verb corresponding to the present-day *be* are derived from three different roots: *wes-*, *es-* and *be-* (for a complete paradigm of the

verbs *bēon/wesan* and *zān/eode* see table 7-7 on the next page).

Table 7-7. Conjugation of *bēon/wesan* and *zān/eode*

Infinitive	wesān/bēon		zān/eode
<i>Present Ind.</i>			
<i>Sing. 1</i>	eom	bēo	zā
<i>2</i>	eart	bist	zæst
<i>3</i>	is	biþ	zæþ
<i>Plur.</i>	sint, sindon	bēoþ	zāþ
<i>Present Subj.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	sy, sī	bēo	zā
<i>Plur.</i>	syȝ, sīȝ	bēon	zān
<i>Imperative</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	wæs	bēo	zā
<i>Plur.</i>	wæsaþ	bēoþ	zāþ
<i>Participle I</i>			
	wesende	bēonde	zānde, zānzende
<i>Past Ind.</i>			
<i>Sing. 1</i>	wæs		eode
<i>2</i>	wære		eodest
<i>3</i>	wæs		eode
<i>Plur.</i>	wæron		eodon
<i>Past Subj.</i>			
<i>Sing.</i>	wære		eode
<i>Plur.</i>	wæren		eoden
<i>Participle II</i>			(3e)zān

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What forms of the verb were there in Old English?
2. What grammatical categories of the finite forms of the verb in Old English do you know?
3. What morphological classification of verbs existed in Old English?
4. What are the main features of strong verbs in Old English?
5. What are the main features of weak verbs in Old English?
6. What are the main features of irregular verbs in Old English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topic "The verb in Old English" p.p.61-101. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 6. MIDDLE ENGLISH. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history

1.1. Scandinavian Invasion

1.2. Norman Conquest

1.3. Formation of the English national language

2. Inner history

2.1. Phonetics

2.2. Grammar

2.3. Word-stock

1. Outer history

1.1. Scandinavian Invasion

The end of the Old English period and the beginning of Middle English is marked by two outstanding political events — the Scandinavian invasion and the Norman conquest.

It is impossible to state the exact date of the Scandinavian invasion but the first inroads of the Scandinavian Vikings began at the end of the 8th century. The part of England which suffered more from the invasion was the North-Eastern part of the country. From that part the invaders trying to conquer the whole of the country gradually proceeded to the South-West.

The kingdom that was the strongest among many existing in Britain at that time was the Wessex kingdom, especially under the rule of King Alfred the Great. King Alfred the Great was so powerful and successful in his struggle against the invaders that hostilities ceased for a time and a peace treaty was concluded — the Treaty of Wedmore, in accordance with which the territory of the country was subdivided into two parts: the south-western part remained English under the rule of King Alfred and the north-eastern part was to be Scandinavian. That part was referred to as Danelaw or Danelaw, i.e. the territory which was under the rule of Scandinavians, or “Danes” [5; 7; 11; 20].

The Scandinavians in England remained very strong through centuries, and

at the beginning of the 11th century, in the period between 1016 and 1042 the whole of England came under the Scandinavian rule — the conquest was completed and the Danish king was seated on the English throne. Although in 1042 England was back under English power, the English king who came to the throne — Edward the Confessor — was to be the last English king for more than three centuries.

The Scandinavian invasion brought many changes in different spheres of the English language: word-stock, grammar and phonetics. The influence of Scandinavian dialects was especially felt in the North and East parts of England, where mass settlement of the invaders and intermarriages with the local population were especially common. The relative ease of the mutual penetration of the languages was conditioned by the circumstances of the Anglo-Scandinavian contacts, i.e.:

a) there existed no political or social barriers between the English and the Scandinavians, the latter not having formed the ruling class of the society but living on an equal footing with the English;

b) there were no cultural barriers between the two people as they were approximately the same in their culture, habits and customs due to their common origin, both of the nations being Germanic.

c) The language difference was not so strong as their speech developed from the same source — Common Germanic, and the words composing the basic word-stock of both the languages were the same, and the grammar systems similar in essence.

1.2. Norman Conquest

The Norman Conquest began in 1066. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe. Two centuries back they began their inroads on the Northern part of France and finally occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine. The French King Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans the territory occupied by them, which came to be called Normandy. The Normans adopted the French

language and culture, and when they came to Britain they brought with them the French language.

In 1066 King Edward the Confessor died, and the Norman Duke William invaded England. He assembled an army, landed in England and in a battle of Hastings on October 14, 1066 managed to defeat King Harold and proclaimed himself King of England.

The Norman conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English people and the English language [3; 11; 16; 23].

The English nobility perished through different reasons and was replaced by the Norman barons. The new king William confiscated the estates of the Anglo-Saxons nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. The Norman conquerors occupied all positions of prominence in the country, be it in court, Parliament, Church or school.

The heritage of the Norman Conquest was manifold. It united England to Western Europe, opening the gates to European culture and institutions, theology, philosophy and science. The Conquest in effect meant a social revolution in England. The lands of the Saxon aristocracy were divided up among the Normans, who by 1087 composed almost 10% of the total population. Each landlord, in return for his land, had to take an oath of allegiance to the king and provide him with military services if and when required.

The Saxon machinery of government was immensely reinforced, with a Norman monarch and his officials as effective centralised controllers. The 13th century witnessed the appearance of the first Parliament, or a council of barons, which later was changed to a national Parliament, representing the nobility, clergy, knights of the shires and major cities.

The Norman conquerors, though Germanic by origin, were French by their language, habits and customs. They spoke French and addressed people in French. They taught their children French — the only language they could speak, which is noticed by many writers and scholars. And for more than two centuries after the conquest the English country was ruled by French-speaking Kings and nobility, and

the French language was the state language of the country.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the West Saxon literary language. But eventually after a prolonged struggle the English language became the state language of the country. Its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words and its grammatical structure underwent material changes [1; 4; 5; 11].

They generally mention the following decisive steps in the way upward of the English language after the Norman conquest:

- a) 1258 — Proclamation of King Henry III was published besides French also in English;
- b) 1362 — the English language became the language of Parliament, courts of law; later, at the end of the century — the language of teaching;
- c) the rule of King Henry IV (1399—1413) — the first king after the conquest whose native tongue was English.

The end of the 14th century also saw the first "English" translation of the Bible, and Chaucer was writing his "English" masterpieces. The new merchant class and the spread of lay learning were building a national civilisation, and by the end of the century French had probably died out as a spoken language.

1.3. Formation of the English national language

We can speak about the English national language as beginning with late Middle English — Early New English. They generally say that the end of the Middle English period and the beginning of New English is marked by the following events in the life of the English people:

1. The end of the war between the White and the Red Rose — 1485 and the establishment of an absolute monarchy on the British soil with Henry Tudor as the first absolute monarch — the political expression of the English nation. The War of the Roses (1455—1485) was the most important event of the 15th century which marked the decay of feudalism and the birth of a new social order. It signified the rise of an absolute monarchy in England and a political centralisation, and consequently a linguistic centralisation leading to a predominance of the national

language over local dialects.

2. The introduction of printing — 1477 by William Caxton (1422— 1490).

Printing was invented in Germany by Johann Gutenberg in 1438. The first English printing office was founded in 1476 by William Caxton, and in 1477 there appeared the first book to be printed in England called *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers*. The appearance of a considerable number of printed books contributed to the normalisation of spelling and grammar forms fostering the choice of a single variant over others. William Caxton established a printing-press at Westminster and many of them were translated from Latin and French by himself.

Since that time — the end of the 15th century the English language began its development, as the language of the English nation. Thus, the English national language was formed on the base-of the London dialect which was uppermost among Middle English dialects due to the political, geographical, economic and "linguistic" position of London which became the capital of England already in the 11th century — before the Norman conquest. The geographical position of London as a large port and city in the centre of the country helped to spread the London dialect all over the country [4; 5; 11; 18].

The importance of the London dialect as the foundation of the English national language grew also because of the fact that many of the best writers of the 14th—15th centuries, and Geoffrey Chaucer among them, whose poetry achieved tremendous contemporary prestige and popularity, were Londoners or used the London dialect in their writings. But the literary norm of the language was established later, already in Early New English, many English authors of the forthcoming centuries contributing to it, among them such as Edmund Spenser, Christopher Marlowe, Ben Johnson and, finally, William Shakespeare.

2. Inner history

The Middle English period was a time of unprecedentedly rapid development of the language. For the first three centuries English was only a spoken language, and as such had no norm and could develop without any restraint. All the elements

of the language changed fundamentally.

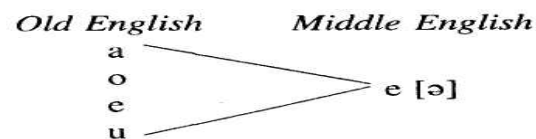
2.1. Phonetics

The stress is dynamic and fixed in the native words. But in the borrowed French words the stress was on the last syllable: *licour* [li'ku:r], *nature* [na'tu:r], etc. New consonant sounds developed in native words:

	[ʃ]	ship	[tʃ]	child	[dʒ]	bridge
OE		scip		cild		bryc3

The resonance of the consonant does not depend so much on the position of the consonant, and voiced consonants can appear not only in intervocal, but also in initial and other positions.

Vowels in unstressed position were reduced:



These sounds were in the end of the word, and it neutralised the difference between the suffixes — the main grammar means. Compare:

	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
Genitive Singular	fisc <u>es</u>	fishes
Nominative Plural	fisc <u>as</u>	fishes

Vowels under stress underwent mainly quantitative changes. In Middle English we observe a rhythmic tendency, the aim of which is to obliterate overlong and overshort sequences. The tendency is to have in the word one long vowel + one consonant or one short vowel + two consonants.

2.2. Grammar

The grammar system in Middle English gradually but very quickly changed fundamentally: the Old English was a synthetic language, the Middle English at the end of the period — an analytical language. The principal grammatical means of the Old English were preserved, but were no longer principal. At the end of the Middle English period the analytical means, which began developing in Middle English, are predominant. They are:

1. analytical verb-forms (Chaucer: perfect — hath holpen (has helped); passive — engendered is (is born));
2. the use of prepositions for grammatical purposes (Chaucer: drouht of March);
3. a fixed word-order began to develop.

2.3. Word-stock

In Middle English it underwent fundamental changes and became almost new. If in Old English the word-stock was almost completely native, in Middle English there were many borrowings. The principal sources of them were:

1. Scandinavian (those who came in the end of the Old English period) — over 500 words (take, give, sky, wrong, etc.);
2. French (the language of the Norman conquerors) — over 3500 words (government, army, battle, etc.).

Though the number of the French words is greater, all the Scandinavian words — common, colloquial, everyday, indispensable — entered the very core of the language, and their influence is very great. The French words are generally terms indispensable only in certain official spheres, but not colloquial. The Scandinavian borrowings are intensive, the French borrowings — extensive:

1. the Scandinavians and the English were linguistically similar (both Germanic), the English and the French — different (Germanic and Romance languages);
2. the English and the Scandinavians were similar socially (neither of the nations formed the upper class); the French and the English were different socially (the French-speaking people forming the ruling class, the English-speaking — the lower class);
3. the English and the Scandinavians had similar culture, habits, customs, traditions; the French and the English — different; that is why the assimilation of the French words could not proceed so quickly and intensively as that of Scandinavian.

The principal means of enriching vocabulary were thus outer means, i.e. borrowings.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF – CONTROL

1. What do you know about Scandinavian Invasion?
2. What do know about Norman Conquest?
3. What was the process of formation of the English national language?
4. What main changes were there in phonetics in Middle English?
5. What main changes were there in grammar in Middle English?
6. How was the word-stock changed in Middle English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topic “Middle English” p.p.102-108. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 7.CHANGES IN THE PHONETIC SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. Changes in the phonetic system in Middle English
 - 1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position
 - 1.2. Vowels under stress
 - 1.2.1. Qualitative changes
 - 1.2.2. Quantitative changes
 - 1.3. Consonants

1. Changes in the phonetic system in Middle English

1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position

All vowels in the unstressed position underwent a qualitative change and became the vowel of the type of [ə] or [e] unstressed. This phonetic change had a far-reaching effect upon the system of the grammatical endings of the English words which now due to the process of reduction became homonymous. For example:

— *forms of strong verbs*

Old English **writan** — **wrāt** — **writon** — **writen** with the suffixes **-an**, **-on**, **-en** different only in the vowel component became homonymous in Middle English:

writen — wrȳt — writen — writen

—forms of nouns

Old English Nominative Plural a-stem	fiscas
Genitive Singular	fisces
Middle English for both the forms is	fisces;
or	
Old English Dative Singular	fisce
Genitive Plural	fisca
Middle English form in both cases is	fisce.

1.2. Vowels under stress

1.2.1. Qualitative changes

— Changes of monophthongs

Three long monophthongs underwent changes in Middle English:

Table H-I. Long Monophthongs

Periods Sounds	Old English	Middle English	(New English)
$\bar{a} > \bar{o}$	stān bāt	stōn bōt	stone boat
$\bar{æ} > \bar{e}$	slæpan	slēpen	sleep
$\bar{y} > \bar{i}$	fȳr	fīr	fire

the rest of the monophthongs presenting their original quality, for example:

Old English		Middle English	
ē [ē]	tēþ	teeth	<i>(though the spelling devices may be different)</i>
ō [ō]	tōþ	tooth	
ū	ūt	out	
ī	tīma	time	

Out of the seven principal Old English *short monophthongs*:
 , e, o, i, u, æ, y — two changed their quality in Middle English,
 hus [æ] became [a] and [y] became [i], the rest of the
 nonophthongs remaining unchanged, for example:

	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
	þæt	that
	wæs	was
	fyrst	first
but:	tellan	tellen

— Changes of diphthongs

All Old English diphthongs were contracted (became monophthongs) at the

end of the Old English period.

Table 8-2. Diphthongs

Periods Sounds	Old English	Middle English
ēo > ē	dēop	deep
ēa > ē	brēad	bread
eo > e	seofon	seven
ea > a	eald	ald

But instead of the former diphthongs that had undergone contraction at the end of the Old English period there appeared in Middle English new diphthongs. The new diphthongs sprang into being due to the vocalization of the consonant [j] after the front vowels [e] or [æ] or due to the vocalization of the consonant [ɣ] or the semi-vowel [w] after the back vowels [o] and [a]. For instance:

<i>Old English</i>		<i>Middle English</i>	<i>(New English)</i>
dæʒ	> daʒ	> dai	day
weʒ	> weʒ	> wei	way
grēʒ	> greʒ	> grei	grey
draʒan	> drawen	> drauen	draw
āʒan	> 8wen	> ouen	own
boʒa	> bowe	> boue	bow

Thus in Middle English there appeared four new diphthongs: [ai], [ei], [au], [ou].

1.2.2. Quantitative changes

Besides qualitative changes mentioned above vowels under stress underwent certain changes in quantity.

— Lengthening of vowels

The first lengthening of vowels took place as early as late Old English (IX century). All vowels which occurred before the combinations of consonants such as mb, nd, ld became long.

Old English	Middle English	(New English)	
[i] > [i:]	climban	climben	climb

	findan	finden	find
	cild	cild	child
[u] > [u:]	hund	hound	hound

The second lengthening of vowels took place in Middle English (XII—XIII century). The vowels [a], [o] and [e] were affected by the process. This change can be observed when the given vowels are found in an open syllable.

	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>(New English)</i>
a > ā	talū	tale	tale
e > ē	sprecan	speken	speak
o > ō	hopian	hopen	hope

— Shortening of vowels

All long vowels were shortened in Middle English if they are found before two consonants (XI century).

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>(New English)</i>
cēpte	cepte	keep
wīsdōm	wisdom	wisdom

Through phonetic processes the lengthening and the shortening of vowels mentioned above left traces in grammar and wordstock [3; 7; 11].

Due to it vowel interchange developed in many cases between:

- different forms of the same word;
- different words formed from the same root. For instance:

Middle English	[i:]	— [i]	child	children
	[e:]	— [e]	kepen	but kept
	[i:]	— [i]	wis	wisdom

1.3. Consonants

The most important change in the consonant system that can be observed if we compare the Old English and the Middle English consonant system will be the development of the fricative consonant [ʃ] and the affricates [tʃ] and [dʒ] from Old English palatal consonants or consonant combinations. Thus:

	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>
[k'] > [tʃ]	cild	child
	benc	bench
	cin	chin
	cicen	chicken
[sk'] > [ʃ]	scip	ship
	sceal	shall
[g'] > [dʒ]	bryc3	bridge

Thus we can notice that variants of some Old English consonant phonemes developed differently. For example:

The phoneme denoted in Old English by the letter **c** had two variants: [k] — hard and [k'] — palatal, the former remaining unchanged, the latter giving us a new phoneme, the phoneme [tʃ].

The phoneme denoted by the letters "g" or "c3" and which existed in four variants: [g'], [g] — in spelling "c3" and [j], [ʝ] — in spelling "g" had the following development:

[g'] > [dʒ] bridge
 [j], [ʝ] were vocalized: dæ3>dai, ʒiet>yet,
 bo3a>boue, dra3an>drauen
 [g] remained unchanged: ʒōd > good

Special notice should be taken of the development of such consonant phonemes that had voiced and voiceless variants in Old English, such as:

[f] — [v] in spelling f
 [s] — [z] in spelling s
 [θ] — [ð] in spelling þ, ð

They became different phonemes in Middle English.

* * *

Summary — Middle English

1. Levelling of vowels in the unstressed position.
2. No principally new monophthongs in the system of the language appeared, but the monophthongs of the [o] and [e] type may differ: they are either "open" — generally those developed from the Old English ā (stān > stōn) or "close" — developing from the Old English ō (bōc > bōk (*book*)).
2. The sounds [æ] and [y] disappeared from the system of the language.
3. There are no long diphthongs.
4. New diphthongs appeared with the glide more close than the nucleus (because of the origin) as contrasted to Old English with the glide more open than the nucleus.
5. No parallelism exists between long and short monophthongs different only in their quantity.

6. The quantity of the vowel depends upon its position in the word. (**a, o, e** — always long in an open syllable or before **ld, mb, nd**. All vowels are always short before two consonants, with the exception of **ld, mb, nd**).

Only in one position — in a closed syllable before *one* consonant vowels of any quantity could be found (**wīs** but **pīg**).

7. New affricates and the fricative [ʃ] appeared in the system of the language.

8. The resonance (the voiced or the voiceless nature) of the consonants ([f], [v], [s], [z] and [θ], [ð]) became phonemic.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF – CONTROL

1. What kind of change did the vowels in unstressed position have in Middle English? Give examples.
2. What qualitative changes of monophthongs and diphthongs were there in Middle English? Give examples.
3. What quantitative changes of monophthongs and diphthongs were there in Middle English? Give examples.
4. What were the most important changes in the consonant system in Middle English? Give examples.

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topics “Middle English Phonology” pp.112-117, “Changes in the System of Spelling” p.p. 111-112. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 8. THE VERBAL SYSTEM IN MIDDLE ENGLISH

List of principle questions:

1. Non-finite forms in Middle English:

- 1.1. The infinitive
- 1.2. Participle I
- 1.3. Participle II

1. Non-finite forms in Middle English

1.1. The infinitive

All types of verbs existing in Old English - strong, weak, preterite-present and irregular were preserved in Middle English. In each type we find changes due to phonetic developments of this period, but the proportional value of the weak ones is greater and continues to grow, and a tendency is already traced - that is, some of the former strong verbs are drifting in the direction of the weak ones. The drift was not a comprehensive one; there was even a reverse process, some of the former weak ones became strong.

The Old English prefix *je-* reduced to *y-*. Now it is mostly found in the second participle (in the Southern dialects). In most dialects it disappeared by the 14c, yet in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* we may find a considerable number of such uses [5].

Non-finite forms which in Old English comprised the infinitive and the two participles, have changed in the direction from the nominal to verbal parts of speech. They are no longer declined, nor are they agreed with the nouns; gradually new verbal categories penetrate into their system, and nowadays we speak about the analytical forms of the non-finite forms (passive infinitive, perfect infinitive etc.)

A new non-finite form of the verb arises - the gerund. The infinitive loses the category of case and acquires a pre-infinitival particle *to*. It may still be used with what remained of the infinitival suffix {-an, -ian → -en, -n) - *to goon, to writen, to spenden, to niaken* - but the tendency to lose the final consonant is strong, and we find in Chaucer's works *to seke* alongside with *to seken, to do* with *to doon, to*

make with *to maken*. This particle is not used when the infinitive stands after other (preterite-present in particular) verbs:

Wei coude he singe and pleven on a rote.. (he could sing and play the rote well) But for *to tellen* you of his array His hors were goode but he was not gay (to tell about his array, (it is to be noted) that his horse was good, but he was not cheerful) [5].

Participle I, having an active meaning and expressing a process of doing something, in Middle English changes its shape. Its suffix *-ende* turns into *-inde* and finally *-ynge/-inge* due to the processes of weakening of the final sounds and through intermixture with other dialectal forms. In the Old English there existed the form of the verbal noun with the suffix *-ung* (*liornunge* - learning) which also was shifting toward less distinct form *-ynge"/inge*. So these two forms became homonymic, which led to much confusion:

The silver drops hangynge on the leves (the silver drops hanging on the leaves)

A rose gerland, fressh and wel smellynge (a rose garland (wreath) fresh and well- smelling)

Of priking and of huntyng for the hare

Was al his lust, for no coste he wolde spare (All he wanted was rapid horse-riding and hunting for the hare, and he would spare no cost..)

Therefore in stede of wepyynge and preyeres men moote yeve silver to the poor freres (therefore instead of weeping and of prayers men must give silver to the poor friars)

Originally, the verbal noun was derived from transitive verbs, took an object in the genitive case (which in our times is replaced by of-phrase). But when phonetically it coincided with the participle, it began to behave more freely, now and again taking the direct object. So from the verbal noun without an article but with a direct object we have a grammatical innovation - the Gerund. A typical case of such contamination in Russian is the notorious phrase *onjiamieaume 3a npoe.3d* in

which two correct grammatical structures *njiamume 3a npoe3d* and *onnamume npoe3d* are mixed.

The number of Gerunds in Chaucer's works is not very significant; yet its versatility, the fact that it could be used with various prepositions makes it still more vague. It is said that true Gerunds (unambiguous) were found only 6 times in Chaucer's works - or were those just grammar mistakes? [5]

Participles II in Middle English - those of strong verbs and those of the weak ones continue to be used with the prefix *y-* (reduced *je-*); but this is not universal, and they are sure to lose it in Early Modern English. Yet in Chaucer's works we may find an interesting phenomenon when depending on the use or non-use of the prefix with the participles of the strong verbs final *-n* disappears: *hoplen* but *y-holpe*, while the Participle II form of the weak verbs does not change, prefixed or non-prefixed *broyded* - *y-broyded*.

... nyne and twenty in a compaignye Of sondry folk, by aventure *y-falle*

In felaweshipe, and pilgrimes were they alle (a company of twenty-nine different people fallen into fellowship by chance, and they all were pilgrims)

Of smale houndes hadde she, that she fedde With rostedflesh, or milk and wastel-breed. (She had some small dogs which she fed with roasted flesh, or milk, or waffers) He hadde of gold *ywroght* a curious pyn (He had a curious pin made (wrought) of gold) ... hadde I dwelled with Theseus *Yfetered* in his prisoun (I had dwelled with Theseus, fettered in his prison).

QUESTIONS FOR SELF - CONTROL

1. What types of verbs existed in Middle English?
2. What are the characteristics of the infinitive in Middle English?
3. What are the characteristics of Participle I in Middle English?
4. What are the characteristics of Participle II in Middle English?

TOPIC 9. The changes in various classes of the Middle English Verb

List of principal questions:

1. The changes in strong verbs in Middle English.
2. The changes in weak verbs in Middle English.

1. The changes in strong verbs

The changes in strong verbs are as follows:

The number of the basic forms of the verb remained the same (four), but due to the reduction of endings and the fact that the length of the vowel became positional the form of the present participle of some verbs coincided with the form of the past plural, that is that here too we may find homonymy of forms

class I *writen - wrot - writen - writen;*

class II *chesen - dies - chosen - chosen;*

class III *drinken - drank — drunken - drunken;*

helpen — halp - holpen - holpen;

fighten - fought - foughten - foughten;

class IV *beren - bar - beren/bar - boren;*

class V *geten ~ gat -geten/gat - geten;*

class VI *shaken - shok - sltoken - shaken;*

class VII *knownen - knew - knewen -knownen*

Some of the strong verbs may take the dental suffix for formation of their past form, thus becoming weak (*gripen, crepen, eleven, wepen, spelen, walken, dreden, reden*):

He *slepte* namoore than dooth a nygtyngale (he slept no more than does a nightingale) [3; 5; 11].

I seye, that in the feeldes *walked* we (I say, we walked in the fields)

Weak verbs

The number of weak verbs grows significantly in Middle English, because practically all borrowed verbs and new verbs derived from other parts of speech become weak.

The changes in the weak verbs were mainly phonetical. Some of them lost the sound *-/-* in the suffix in the infinitive:

lufian - louen class II lost its specific *-ode* ending due to the levelling of endings and turned into *-ed*. class III retained only the verbs *sejjen, libben, hebben - seien, liven haven*

In the 14c. in some weak verbs with a stem ending in */, /;* and *v* the past suffix *-d* changed into *-t*; (*leomian- leornode - lernte (to learn)*; *felan - felde - feelen - felte (to feel)*); *hlsenan - hlsende - lenen - lente (to lean)*; *wendan - wende - wenden - wente (to wend)*).

Most Scandinavian borrowings are conjugated according to the weak type: *callen, wanten, guessen* (except *take, thriven* and *flingen* which have vowel interchange in the past tense and in the participle - probably due to their own origin and similarity in formation of the forms joined correspondingly class VI, I, and III of the strong verbs). All the verbs of the French origin (with the exception of *striven* that joined class I of the strong verbs), became weak (we call them now regular).

The simplified system of synthetic forms now is as follows:

The	Binden. (to) binde (bind)	Beren (to) bere (hear)	tellen (to) telle (tell)	maken. (to) make (make)
Present Indicative Singular				
I	Rinde	Bere	telle	Make
Thou	Bindest	Berest	tellest	Makest
he. she. it	Bindeth.	Bereth	telleth	Maketh
Plural all persons	Binden	Beren	tellen	Make
Present Subjunctive Singular all persons	Binde	Bere	telle	Make
Plural all persons	Binden	Beren	tellen	Make
Imperative Singular	Rind	Ber	tel	Make
Plural	bind(eth)	ber(eth)	telleth	Make
Participle I	Bindinge	Beringe	tellinge	Makinge
Past tense Indicative				
I	Bond	Bar	tolde	maked/made
Thou	Bounde	Bare	tolde	maked/made

he. she. it	Bond	Bar	tolde	maked/made
Plural	Bounden	Baren	tolde	maked/made
all persons				
Subjunctive				
Singular	Bounde	Bore	tolde	maked/made
all persons				
Plural	Bounden	Boren	tolde	maked/made
all persons				
Participle II	Bounden	bor(en)	tolde	maked v-
	y-bounde	y-born	y-tolde	maked/ made

His eyen *twinkled* in his heed aryght (past)/As *doon* the sterres in the frosty nyght (present plural) (His eyes twinkled in his head as do the stars on the frosty night) [5; 11; 17].

I *noot* how men hym calle (Merging of ne + present tense *wot*) (I don't know how men call it)

We *losten* alle oure housbondes at that toun (past plural) (we lost all our husbands at that town)

In the group of preterite-present verbs *jeneah* lost its status of a verb and turned into an adverb *ynough* (enough): (he drank *ynough* biforn); the other just simplified their paradigms, some forms were lost (the form of the 2nd person of present singular with the verbs *downen*, *unnen*, where the infinitive was also lost), *munen*, etc. The verb *kan/koude* might be used as a modal verb, accompanied with an infinitive, and may be used in its primary original meaning *to know*:

Of woodecraft wel *koude* he al the usage (he knew all the use of woodcraft)

Shall/sholde alongside with its modal meaning is widely used as an auxiliary of the future tense, future-in-the-past and as auxiliaries of the new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood.

Motan gradually loses the meaning of ability and possibility which is occasionally expressed by its present tense form *moot*, and is more and more used to express obligation; the past tense form *moste* was used only in this latter meaning:

Who sorweth now but woful Palamoun, That *moot* namoore goon agayn to fighte? (Who grieves now but woeful Palamon that cannot go again to fight?)

I seye,

That freendes everych oother *moot obeye*, If they wol longe holden compaignye. (I say that the friends must obey each other if they want to keep company long) The meaning of obligation is reinforced in combination with the adverb *nede*, *nedes* (nowadays preserved in a cliché *must needs*):

Myn heritage *moot I nedes selle*

And been a beggere (I must needs sell my heritage and be a beggar)

"The word *moot nede accorde* with the dede." (the word must needs accord with the deed)

The form *moste* might occasionally retain its past tense meaning, but in most cases approaches its present-day status:

The day was come that homward *moste he tourne* (the day has come when he had to return home)

This tresor *moste ycaried be* by nyghte,

As wisely and as slyly as it myghte. (This treasure must be earned away by night, as wisely and as slyly as it might be).

In the paradigm of the preterite-present verbs second person ending *-est*, the plural ending *-en* may be retained, but the tendency is not to use personal endings:

"Help, for *thou mayst* best of alle!" (help, for you may it best of all).

I grante thee lyf, if thou *kanst tellen* me

What thyng is it that wommen moost desiren. (I grant thee life if thou can tell me what things women desire most of all).

I woot right wel *thou darst it nat withseyn* (I know well thou dare not object).

Thou *shaltseye* sooth thyne othes (Thou shall truly say thine oaths).

Whan that my fourthe housbonde was on beere,

I weep algate, and made sory cheere,

As wyves *mooten-for* it is usage-

And with my coverchief covered my visage (When my fourth husband drank beer, I at least wept, and made a mournful face, as women may do, as a rule, and covered my face with a handkerchief).

Ben and *goon* remained suppletive, *goon* having acquired another stem (*went*) for the past tense, which finally supplanted the other one (*eode*). For he *was* late ycome from his viage,

And *wente* for to doon his pilgrymage (for has come from his voyage late and went to his pilgrimage).

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What main changes were there in the strong verbs in Middle English?
2. What main changes were there in the weak verbs in Middle English?

TOPIC 10. The Categories of the Middle English Verb

List of principle questions:

1. The category of tense
 - 1.1. Future time
 - 1.2. The Present and the Past Perfect
2. The category of voice
3. The category of mood

1. The category of tense

During this period there appear analytical forms of the verb. In Old English the only ways to make the forms of the verb were suffixes/vowel interchange/using another stem + inflections; in Middle English there arise the forms now very common in Present-day English but absent in Old English. One cannot say that there were no prerequisites to them in Old English - but in Old English these had the status of phrases with grammatical meaning, they did not have the qualities of a true analytical form.

An analytical form must have a stable structural pattern different from the patterns of verb phrases; it must consist of an auxiliary (which itself might stand in an analytical form) and a non-finite form of the verb, which remains unchanged. Its meaning is not reduced to the sum total of the components (that is, if we take *he will do it* it does not mean that he is willing to do it; he might resist the task all he can; the more so we can say about such sentences as *Close the window, or the child will catch cold*).

In present day English the temporal paradigm of the verb contains two synthetic and one analytical form. This means that this form was absent in Old English, and this form is the Future tense [4; 5; 11; 19].

1.1. Future time

Future time relevance was rendered by various supporting elements in the text; so in the adverbial clauses of time and condition it was self-evident, that with the insertion of a marker in the principal clause the action of the subordinate would

invariably refer to the future as well (*When he comes I want him to help me*). In sentences containing explicit indication of time by means of adverbs, etc. it was not a compulsory element; hence we have the following uses of the present instead of the future *tomorrow we are writing a test*. The use of such verbs as *shall/ will* referred the action to the future as such which was desirable but not yet realized, or obligatory. In Middle English these become the true auxiliaries for the future tense. Chaucer uses them freely:

/ *shal telle* yow bitwix us two (I shall tell you between the two of us).
 of which I tolde yow *and tellen shal* (Of which I told you and shall tell further).
 / *shal make* us sauf for everemore (I shall make us safe forever).
That wol my bane be (that will be my ruin).
 And / *shal tellen*, in a wordes fewe,
 What we *shal doon* (And I shall tell in a few words what we shall do).
 Now *wol I tellen* forth what happed me.(Now I will continue to tell what happened to me).

The same auxiliary was also used in the already appearing analytical forms of future in the past:

For shortly this was his opinioun,
 That in that grove he *wolde hym hvde* al day,
 And in the nyght thanne *wolde he take* his way (His opinion was that he should hide himself in that grove all day and then at night should take his way).
 Hym thoughte that his herte *wolde breke*.
 Whan he saugh hem so pitous (He thought that his heart would break when he saw them so full of pity).

1.2. The Present and the Past Perfect tenses

The Present and the Past Perfect equally came into the Middle English, both using as auxiliary the verb *to haven* in the Present or the past tense + Participle II (with or without a prefix):

Aprille *hathperced* to the rote... (April has pierced to the root...).
 hem *hath holpen*... (has helped them).
 who *hath thee doon* offence (who has offended you).
 so *hadde I spoken* with hem everichon...(so I had spoken with each of them).
 He *hath* alle the bodyes on an heep *ydrawe* (he has drawn all the bodies on a heap).

With the verbs of motion, however, and intransitive verbs in general the perfect might still be used with the ten-auxiliary:

At night *was come* in-to that hostelrie wel nyne and twenty in a companie (at night into that hostel a company of twenty-nine has come).

Now I *am come* unto this wodes side (now I have come to the side of this wood).

For he *was late y-come* from his viage and wente for to doon his pilgrimage (for he has come late from his journey and went to do his pilgrimage).

Non-finite form of the verb, the infinitive, acquired this grammatical category too. Perfect infinitives are common in Chaucer's times, mainly as part of new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood: And certes, if it nere to long to here [5; 11; 21].

I wolde *have toold* vow fully the manere.. (and certainly, if it were not long to hear it I would have told you in full about the manner...).

And on hir bare knees adoun they falle,

And wolde *have kist* his feet (And they fell down on their bare knees and would have kissed his feet).

2. The category of voice

The passive voice expressed by the combination *ben + PII* expressing a state as well as an action is widely used in Middle English. Unlike Old English where the

form of the participle agreed in number with the subject of the sentence (*dast arcebiscope wees je-martyrod /wseron jemartyrode*), in Middle English, where still the ending of the plural adjectives and participles was preserved in the Participle II, the lexical part of the analytical form is utterly unchangeable:

hir yellow heer was broyded in a tresse (her yellow hair was braided in a tress).

al that is writ en, is writen for oure doctrine (all that is written is written for our doctrine).

I wol been his to whom that I am kiiyt (I will be his to whom I am knitted (tied)).

I have relikes and pardoun...whiche were me yeven by the popes hond. (I have relics and a papal indulgence which were given to me by the pope's hand).

And alle thise were bounden in o volume (and all these were bound in one volume).

The category of voice was expressed also in the non-finite forms of the verb - passive infinitives are rather common in this period:

This tresor moste ycaried be by nyghte, as wisely and as slyly as it myghte. (This treasure must be carried by night, as wisely and as slyly as possible...).

It is ful fair to been v-cleped ma dame (It is very pleasant to be called madame).
the bodyes ..neither to been yburved nor ybrent (bodies ...to be neither buried nor burnt).

The future, the perfect and the passive form reflected different aspects of the action, and as soon as they came into the language they all could be used simultaneously, that is perfect forms might be used in active or passive voice, present as well as the future tense [2; 5].

The problem of aspect is a disputable one. The prefix *ze-*, which rendered some aspective meanings now was falling into disuse, and was actually limited to the participle of the verb. A new form - the continuous was rising, but in Middle English it was considered an ungrammatical form of the verb, and it was not allowed into the

good literary English (of the type of Russians *noemuu*, *He cna.tuiu* - it is well understood by native speakers but surely not to be used by educated people and in written Russian). It might contain even a French participle (*was evene joynant to gardin wal*) - the number of such structures was really insignificant and they might be considered lexical collocations rather than the beginnings of the continuous forms.

Synginge he was or floy tinge all the day (he was singing and playing the flute all day long).

We may observe that even more complicated forms of the Continuous, such as Perfect continuous may be found in late Middle English: Heere in the temple of the goddesse Clemence We ban ben waitynge al this fourtenyght (Here in the temple of the goddess Clementine we have been waiting all this fortnight...).

3. The category of mood

The category of mood retains the former subdivision into the indicative, the imperative and the subjunctive. While there is nothing new or nothing special about the indicative and the imperative mood - the first represented the action as real, the second expressed commands, requests etc., the forms of the subjunctive mood had some specificity which might be commented on.

The present tense of the subjunctive (we call it now Subjunctive I) renders the meanings of wishes (including curses):

as wis god helpe me (so help me wise God).
a verray pestilence upon vow falle (That you should suffer of

true pestilence...). But very frequently this form of the Subjunctive was used to render the meaning of uncertainty:

I noot wher she te.womman or goddesse (I don't know whether she is a woman or a goddess).

O Jankyn, be, ye there? (Oh, Jankin, are you (really) there?).
But, sooth to seyn, I noot how men hym calle (but, to tell the truth, I don't know how men call/should call/ him).

Such use of this form was especially frequent when the action referred to the future (that is, in the subordinate clauses of time and condition, when the condition was real). What is used in present-day English in such clauses, is the present tense instead of the future, or the Suppositional mood - such sentences are now called the sentences of problematic condition).

...my lady, whom I love and serve

And evere shal, *til* that myn herte sterve. (my lady whom I love and serve, and ever shall, until my heart dies).

if they *be* nought to blame (if they are not to blame...).

The category of mood was also enriched by analytical formations *wolde + inf* and *sholde + iif*; the newly arisen form of the past perfect readily supplements the range of meanings of the old synthetic subjunctive:

sire, if that I *were* ye, Yet *sholde I seyn* ...(Sir, if I were you I would say).

She *wolde wepe* if that she *saugh* a mous kaught in a trappe, if it *were* deed or blede (She would weep if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it were dead or bleeding).

If that I verrailly the cause *knewe* of your disese, ...I *wolde amenden* it er that it were nyght (If I really knew the cause of your disease, I would heal it /treat it until it were nothing).

His haad was balled, that shoon as any glas And eek his face, as if it hadde been *anoynt* (His head was bald, and shone like glass, and so did his face, as if it had been annointed...) [5].

The perfect and passive forms of the verb in the subjunctive mood were not a rare occasion:

Two men that wolde ban passed over see

For certeyn cause, into a fer contree,

If that the wynd ne hadde been contrarie (The two men who would have passed over the sea for some purpose into a far country, if the wind had not been adverse...).

I might escapen from prisoun, than hadde I been in joye and partfit hele (if I had been joyous and perfectly healthy I might /have/ escaped from prison).

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. How was future time rendered in the text in Middle English?
2. How were the Present and the Past Perfect tenses formed in Middle English?
2. How was the category of voice expressed in Middle English?
3. How was the category of mood expressed in Middle English?

TOPIC 11. NEW ENGLISH. GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

List of principal questions:

1. Outer history
 - 1.1. Emergence of the nation
 - 1.2. Establishment of the literary norm
 - 1.3. Geographical expansion of English
2. Inner history
 - 2.1. Phonetics
 - 2.2. Grammar
 - 2.3. Word-stock

1. Outer history

1.1. Emergence of the nation

The 15 century is a border-line in the history of the English people. In 1485 there ended the War between the Roses. The end of the war meant the end of feudalism and the beginning of capitalism. An absolute monarchy was established, the first absolute monarch was Henry Tudor. It meant a real political and economic unification of the country, the development and establishment of one nation and one national language .

The first king of the period, Henry VII (1485—1509) strengthened the monarchy and provided the revenue imperative for its very existence. During his reign commerce and shipbuilding were encouraged, and the material wealth of the country increased. New lands — Newfoundland and Nova Scotia — were discovered. Following in his steps, his son, Henry VIII (1509—1547) broke away from the ecclesiastical influence of Rome, made himself head of the Church of

and also particularly rich in learning — it was the age of Shakespeare, Sidney, Spencer, Bacon, Marlowe and many other famous names.

Nevertheless, the evident achievements in foreign policy, trade and culture did not put an end to the controversy of various powerful forces in the country.. The strife between the Crown and Parliament was aggravated by religious differences. The development of the country required more regular revenue, and forced the Crown to raise taxes, which met with disapproval from Parliament [4; 11; 17].

In the XVII century Charles I (1625—1649) for over a decade ruled without Parliament. However, when Parliament demanded further concessions, denied the king control of the army, a crisis followed which is now known under the title of the Great Rebellion. The Crown lost the ensuing war, Charles I surrendered and was executed, and for over a decade the country was ruled by Parliament alone, the most notable leader of that time being Oliver Cromwell. Granted the title of Lord Protector, he was a virtual dictator of the nation, heavily relying on the Army and disillusioning Parliament which had first brought him to power.

After the death of Oliver Cromwell the Army and Parliament were unable to agree on a government, and the restoration of monarchy that followed in 1660, when the son of the executed king, Charles II, was invited to return to the throne, was more a. restoration of Parliament than of the King himself. Charles II, who during the time of Cromwell lived in exile in France, brought with him from the Continent a keen interest in scientific development, culture and arts, together with a considerable influence of the French language spoken by his supporters.

1.2. Establishment of the literary norm

English literary norm was formed only at the end of the 17 th century, when there appeared the first scientific English dictionaries and the first scientific English grammar. In the 17 th and 18th centuries there appeared a great number of grammar books whose authors tried to stabilise the use of the language. Thus Samuel

Johnson, the author of the famous Dictionary (1755), wrote that he preferred the use of “regular and solemn” pronunciation to the “cursory and colloquial.” Many famous writers also greatly contributed to the formation of English, and among them, first and foremost, the great Shakespeare.

Early New English (15th — beginning of the 18th century) — the establishment of the literary norm. The language that was used in England at that time is reflected in the famous translation of the Bible called the King James Bible (published in 1611). Although the language of the Bible is Early Modern English, the authors tried to use a more solemn and grand style and more archaic expressions [11; 12; 13].

A great influence was also connected with the magazine published by Joseph Addison and Richard Steele called *The Spectator* (1711—1714), the authors of which discussed various questions of the language, including its syntax and the use of words.

Late New English — since the 18th century.

1.3. Geographical expansion of English in the 17th—20th centuries and its effect on the language

Up to the 17th century the English language was spoken by the people who lived only on the British Isles but even there in the far-away mountainous parts of the country the people preserved their own Celtic dialects very long into the New English period. Thus in Cornwall the local dialect, Cornish died out in the 18th century. In Wales there arose a tendency to revive the local Celtic language. In 1893 the Welsh University was founded, and in 1961 the number of those speaking Welsh amounted to 650 thousand. In Ireland through centuries a struggle against English was fought. It reached its climax in 1916 with the Irish rebellion. In 1922 the Irish free state was formed and in 1949 the new state — Eire — left the Commonwealth of Nations. Now Eire occupies the whole but the Northern part of Ireland, which is a part of Britain. The number of people rose from 300 thousand to

over 600 thousand, but the majority speak English.

The penetration of the English language to other parts of the globe mainly began in the 16th century together with the expansion of British colonialism. The 16th century was an age of great adventurers, and England's progress in the discovery and colonising field was tremendous. The first Virginian colony was founded; Drake circumnavigated the globe; the East India Company was established and English seamen left their mark in many parts of the world. In 1620 the famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America in the region which is now the state of Massachusetts. This marked the beginning of English in the New World.

The 18th century witnessed the coming of English to India, where nowadays the language is widely spread, although its sphere is limited to large cities and a certain social layer, and in today's India English is a state language together with the native languages of Hindi and Urdu..

In the 18th century England conquered Canada. During the 19th century the colonisation of Australia took place. In the 20th century English penetrated into South Africa.

2. Inner history

2.1. Phonetics

2.1.1. The system of stress

In native words the stress is fixed and falls on the first root syllable (as in Old English and Middle English). Some of the borrowed words were not fully assimilated phonetically, that is why the stress falls on another syllable, those fully assimilated have the stress on the first root syllable, like in native words.

Native English words are short — they have one or two syllables, that is why it is a norm, a rhythmic tendency of the language to have one stressed syllable and one unstressed one => in borrowed words there developed a system of two stresses.

Sometimes the stress is used to differentiate the words formed from the same root by the process called conversion (to pro'duce— 'produce).

2.1.2. Consonants

a) A new [ʒ] was introduced in borrowed words. Otherwise the changes were not so great as in Middle English.

b) Vocalisation of consonants (some consonants in some positions were vocalised — they disappeared, influencing the preceding vowel) [5; 11].

Ex.: [r] disappeared at the end of the words and before consonants changing the quantity of the vowel immediately preceding it:

	Middle English	New English
for	[for]	[fo:]
form	[form]	[fo:m]

2.1.3. Vowels

a) In the unstressed position the vowels that were levelled in Middle English generally disappeared at the end of the words. Some of them were preserved for phonetic reasons only, where the pronunciation without a vowel was impossible.

Compare, for example, the plural forms of nouns:

Old English	Middle English	New English
-as	-es	[z] dogs
		[s] cats
		[iz] dresses

b) All Middle English long vowels underwent the Great Vowel Shift (in early New English, 15th—18th century). They became more narrow and more front. Some of them remained monophthongs, others developed into diphthongs.

	Middle English	New English	
he	[he:]	[hi:]	e: => i:
name	[na:me]	[neim]	a: => ei

2.2. Grammar

In New English it did not change fundamentally. The main changes are the strengthening of analytical features of the language:

a) In many more cases empty grammatical words are used (form-words);

b) Analytical forms of the Middle English are preserved, and in addition to them in New English non-finite analytical forms appear (in Middle English only finite forms could be analytical);

c) A fixed word-order is established.

2.3. Word-stock

The vocabulary is changing quickly. Many new words are formed to express new notions, which are numerous. Ways of enriching the vocabulary:

1. inner means (conversion: hand => to hand);
2. outer means. The sources here are numberless, as the English have not only direct, but also indirect (through books, later — TV, radio, films) contacts with all the world.

In the beginning of the Early New English (15th—16th century) — the epoch of the Renaissance — there are many borrowings from Greek, Italian, Latin.

The 17th century is the period of Restoration => borrowings come to the English language from French (a considerable number of these words being brought by Charles II and his court).

In the 17th century the English appear in America => borrowings from the Indians' languages are registered [11; 14].

In the 18th century the English appear in India => borrowings from this source come to the English language (but these words are not very frequent, for they denote some particular reality of India, ex.: curry).

In the 19th century the English colonisers appear in Australia and New Zealand => new borrowings follow (kangaroo).

At the end of the 19th—beginning of the 20th century the English appear in Africa, coming to the regions formerly colonised by the Dutch => borrowings from Afrikaans and Dutch appear.

Old English and Middle English Russian borrowings are scarce — the

contacts between the countries and their peoples were difficult. In New English there are more borrowings: sable (very dark), astrakhan, mammoth; in the 20th century — soviet, kolkhoz, perestroika, etc.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. Why is the 15 th century a border-line in the history of English people?
2. When were the English literary forms formed and why?
3. What were the results of geographical expansion of English in the 17th – 20th centuries?
4. What changes were there in the phonetic system in New English?
5. How was the word-stock enriched in Old English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topics “Early New English Vocabulary. Word building”, “Conversion as a New Phenomenon in Early New English. Word-formation”, “Borrowings in the Early New English” pp.191-193. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 12 . CHANGES IN THE PHONETIC SYSTEM IN NEW ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. Changes in the phonetic system in New English
 - 1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position
 - 1.2. Vowels under stress
 - 1.2.1. Qualitative changes
 - 1.2.2. Quantitative changes
 - 1.3. Consonants
2. Changes in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English

1. Changes in the phonetic system in New English

1.1. Vowels in the unstressed position

Vowels in the unstressed position already reduced in Middle English to the vowel of the [ə] type are dropped in New English if they are found in the endings of words, for example:

<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
nama	name	name [neim]
writan	writen	write [rait]
sunu	sone	son [sʌn]

The vowel in the endings is sometimes preserved — mainly for phonetic reason:

wanted, dresses

— without the intermediate vowel it would be very difficult to pronounce the endings of such words.

1.2. Vowels under stress

1.2.1. Qualitative changes

— Changes of monophthongs

All **long monophthongs** in New English (XV—XVII century) underwent a change that is called **The Great Vowel Shift**.

Due to this change the vowels became more narrow and more front. Thus:

Middle English New English

[ā] > [ei]	make	make
[ē] > [i:]	see	see
[ō] > [ou]	ston	stone
[ō] > [u:]	roote	root
	moon	moon

Two long close vowels: [ū] and [ī] at first also became more narrow and gave diphthongs of the [uw] or [ij] type. But those diphthongs were unstable because of the similarity between the glide and the nucleus.

Consequently the process of the dissimilation of the elements of the new diphthongs took place and eventually the vowels [ī] and [ū] gave us the diphthongs [ai] and [au], respectively. For instance:

Middle English New English

[ū] > [au]	hous	house
[ī] > [ai]	time	time

Influence of the consonant "r" upon the Great Vowel Shift

When a long vowel was followed in a word by the consonant "r" the given consonant did not prevent the Great Vowel Shift, but the resulting vowel is more open, than the resulting vowel in such cases when the long vowel undergoing the Shift was followed by a consonant other than "r". For example:

[ei] but [ɛə]	fate <i>but</i> fare
[i:] but [iə]	steep <i>but</i> steer
[ai] but [aiə]	time <i>but</i> tire

As a result of the Great Vowel Shift new sounds did not appear, but the already existing sounds appeared under new conditions. For instance:

	The sound existed before the Shift	The sound appeared after the Shift
[ei]	wey	make
[u:]	hous	moon
[i:]	time	see, etc.

Two **short monophthongs** changed their quality in new English (XVII century), the monophthong [a] becoming [æ] and the monophthong [u] becoming [ʌ]. For instance:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
[a] > [æ]	that	that
[u] > [ʌ]	cut	cut

However, these processes depended to a certain extent upon the preceding sound. When the sound [a] was preceded by [w] it changed into [ɔ]. Compare:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
[a] > [æ]	that	that
[a] > [ɔ]	was	was

(but: wax [wæks]).

Where the sound [u] was preceded by the consonants [p], [b] or [f], the change of [u] into [ʌ] generally did not take place, hence:

bull, butcher, pull, push, full, etc.

But sometimes even the preceding consonant did not prevent the change, for instance:

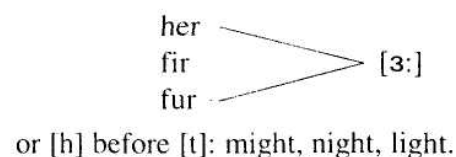
	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
[u] > [ʌ]	but [but]	but [bʌt]

1.2.2. Quantitative changes

Among many cases of quantitative changes of vowels in New English one should pay particular attention to the lengthening of the vowel, when it was followed by the consonant [r]. Short vowels followed by the consonant [r] became long after the disappearance of the given consonant at the end of the word or before another consonant:

	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
[a] > [a:]	farm	farm
[o] > [ɔ:]	hors	horse

When the consonant [r] stood after the vowels [e], [i], [u], the resulting vowel was different from the initial vowel not only in quantity but also in quality. Compare:



1.3. Consonants

The changes that affected consonants in New English are not very numerous. They are as follows.

1) Appearance of a new consonant in the system of English phonemes — [ʒ] and the development of the consonants [dʒ] and [tʃ] from palatal consonants.

Thus Middle English [sj], [zj], [tj], [dj] gave in New English the sounds [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ], [dʒ]. For example:

[sj] > [ʃ]	Asia, ocean
[zj] > [ʒ]	measure, treasure
[tj] > [tʃ]	nature, culture, century
[dj] > [dʒ]	soldier

Note should be taken that the above-mentioned change took place in *borrowed* words, whereas the sounds [tʃ], [dʒ], [ʃ] which appeared in Middle English developed in *native* words.

2. Certain consonants disappeared at the end of the word or before another consonant, the most important change of the kind affecting the consonant [r]:

farm, form, horse, etc.

(see above, quantitative changes of vowels).

3. The fricative consonants [s], [θ] and [f] were voiced after unstressed vowels or in words having no sentence stress — the so-called “Verner’s Law in New English”:

possess, observe, exhibition; dogs, cats; the, this, that, there, then, though, etc.

Summary — New English

The changes that affected the vowel and the consonant system in New English were great and numerous.

Vowels — Qualitative changes:

1. Disappearance of vowels in the unstressed position at the end of the word.
2. Changes of all long vowels — the Great Vowel Shift.

3. Changes of two short vowels: [a] > [æ] or [ɔ] and [u] > [ʌ].

Vowels — Quantitative changes:

4. Changes of two diphthongs: [ai] > [ei], [au] > [ɔ:].

5. Lengthening of vowels before [r] — due to the vocalisation of consonants.

Consonants:

6. Appearance of the consonant [ʒ] and the consonants [tʃ], [dʒ] in new positions.

7. Disappearance or vocalisation of the consonant [r].

8. Voicing of consonants — Verner's Law in New English.

9. Positional disappearance:

r vocalised at the end of the word: far

w before r write

k before n knight

h before t light

3. Changes in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English

As we remember, the Old English spelling system was mainly phonetic. However, the 13th and 14th centuries witnessed many changes in the English language, including its alphabet and spelling. As a result of these modifications the written form of the word became much closer to what we have nowadays.

In Middle English the former Anglo-Saxon spelling tradition was replaced by that of the Norman scribes reflecting the influence of French and often mixing purely phonetic spelling with French spelling habits and traditions inherited from Old English. The scribes substituted the so-called "continental variant" of the Latin alphabet for the old "insular writing". Some letters came into disuse, replaced by new means of expressing the sounds formerly denoted by them — thus the letters þ ("thorn") and ƿ ("wen"), being of runic origin, unknown to the Norman scribes, disappeared altogether. Some letters, already existing in Old English but being not

very frequent there, expanded their sphere of use — like the letter **k**. New letters were added — among them **j, w, v and z**. Many digraphs — combinations of letters to denote one sound, both vowel and consonant — appeared, mostly following the pattern of the French language.

The following letters disappeared:

The following letters were introduced:

g for [g] in god and [dʒ] in singe

j for [dʒ] in words of French origin: joy, judge

k for [k] instead of **c** before front vowels and **n**:
drincan — drinken, cnawan — knowen.

v for [v] instead of **f** as a separate phoneme:
lufu — love [luva]

q for [k] (followed by **u**) in quay
or [kw] in cwen—queen to replace OE cw₂

z for [z] as a separate phoneme: zel (zeal)²

The following digraphs appeared:

consonant digraphs:

ch for the sound [tʃ] cild — child

dg [dʒ] brycʒ — bridge

gh [χ] riʒt — right,

th [ð, θ] þencan — thinken,
moðor — mother

sh [ʃ] scip — ship

ph [f] in words borrowed from Latin:
phonetics

ch [k] in words borrowed from Latin:
chemistry

vowel digraphs — to show the length of the vowel:

Some changes were made for ease of reading and for a better visual image of the word:

k instead of c	boc — book	in the final position for
y	i by, my	better visual separation
w	u now	of words

Besides, **y** and **w** were considered more ornamental than **i** and **u** at the end of the word, allowing to finish it with an elegant curve.

o instead of u	cumen — come	close to letters
	on3unnen — bigonne	consisting only
	sunu — sone	of vertical
	lufu — love	strokes, such as
	munuc — monk	u/v, n, m

The New English period witnessed the establishment of the literary norm presupposing a stable system of spelling. However, the spelling finally fixed in the norm was influenced by many factors, objective and subjective in character, preserving separate elements of different epochs and showing traces of attempts to improve or rationalise it [2; 5; 11; 18].

In New English with the revival of learning in the 16th century a new principle of spelling was introduced, later to be called etymological. It was believed that, whatever the pronunciation, the spelling should represent to the eye the form from which the word was derived, especially in words of Latin or Greek origin. Thus, the word *dett* borrowed from French **dette** was respelled as **debt**, for it could be traced to Latin **debitum**, **dout** borrowed from French **douter** — as **doubt** from Latin **dubitare**.

However, the level of learning at that age was far from perfect, and many of the so-called etymological spellings were wrong. Here it is possible to mention such words as:

ME **ake** (from OE **acan**) respelt as **ache** from a wrongfully supposed connection with Greek **achos**;

ME **tonge** (from OE **tunge**) respelt as **tongue** on analogy with French *langue*, Latin **lingua**;

ME **iland** (from OE **igland**) respelt as **island** from a wrongfully supposed connection with French **isle**, Latin **insula**;

ME **scool** borrowed in OE from Latin and always written with **sc-** (OE *scool*) respelt as **school**, because in Latin the sound [k] in words of Greek origin was rendered as **ch**;

ME **delit** borrowed from French **delit** came to be spelt with a mute digraph **-gh-** on analogy with **light** — **delight**, etc.

At the same time, the major phonetic changes of the period, and first of all, the Great Vowel Shift, found practically no corresponding changes in spelling. This resulted in the present-day system where one sound can be denoted in several ways, for instance:

3 — **torn**, **colonel**, **herd**, **heard**, **bird**, **blurred**, **erred**, **stirred**, **word**;

ou — **note**, **noble**, **both**, **toad**, **toe**, **soul**, **dough**, **mow**, **brooch**, **oh**, **mauve**, **beau**, **depot**, **yeoman**, **sew**;

one symbol can stand for different sounds:

ch — **chaos**, **chaise**, **such**, **choir**, **drachm** (mute)

o — **hot**, **cold**, **wolf**, **women**, **whom**, **son**, **button**, **lost**, **hero**

In addition, there are many so-called "silent letters", the presence of which can be explained only historically. Among the latter there are often mentioned the following:

e (mute **e**) *at the end of words*: **house**, **take**

b after **m**: **lamb**, **limb**, **comb**

b before **t**: **debt**, **doubt**

ch — **yacht**

g before **n** and **m**: **gnaw**, **phlegm**

h — **heir**, **hour**, **exhibitor**

k before **n**: **knife**, **knee**

l — **could**, **yolk**, **palm**

n after **m**: **autumn**, **column**

s — **island**, **aisle**

t after **s** and **f** and before **l** or **n** — listen, often, wrestle, soften

w — wrap, sword, answer

There are also double consonants used not to denote the quality or quantity of the consonant, but the quantity of the preceding vowel: **bigger**, **redder**, **stopper**.

All these features make the present-day English system of spelling one of the most complex and complicated in the world.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What were the main changes in the phonetic system in New English?
2. What qualitative changes were there in the phonetic system in New English?
3. What quantitative changes were there in the phonetic system in New English?
4. What consonants appeared in New English?
2. What changes were there in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Learn the topics “Phonetic Changes in Early New English Period” and “The changes in the Early New English consonants” p.p. 164-170. (Верба Л. Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 13 . CHANGES IN THE NOMINAL SYSTEM IN NEW ENGLISH

List of principle questions:

1. Morphological classification in New English
- 1.2. Origin of irregular noun forms
- 1.3. Grammatical categories
2. The adjective
3. The pronoun
4. The article

1. Morphological classification in New English

The process of the simplification of the system of noun declension that was manifest in Middle English continued at the beginning of the New English period.

In Old English we could speak of many types of consonant and vowel declensions, the **a-**, **n-** and **root-**stem being principal among them. In Middle English we observe only these three declensions: **a-stem**, **n-stem**, **root-stem**. In New English we do not find different declensions, as the overwhelming majority of nouns is declined in accordance with the original **a-stem** declension masculine, the endings of the plural form **-es** and the Possessive **-s** being traced to the endings of the original **a-stem** declension masculine, i.e.:

Old English		Middle English	
Nominative & Accusative		Common Plural	
Plural ending	-as	ending	-es
Genitive Singular		Genitive Singular	
ending	-es	ending	-s

Of the original **n-stem** and **root-stem** declensions we have in New English but isolated forms, generally referred to in modern grammar books as exceptions, or irregular noun forms.

1.2. Origin of modern irregular noun forms

All modern irregular noun forms can be subdivided into several groups according to their origin:

- a) nouns going back to the original **a-stem** declension, neuter gender, which had no

ending in the nominative and accusative plural even in Old English, such as:

sheep — sheep (OE scēap — scēap)

deer — deer (OE dēor — dēor)

b) some nouns of the **n**-stem declension preserving their plural form, such as:

ox — oxen (OE oxa — oxan)

c) the original **s**-stem declension word child — children (Old English cild — cildru)

In Middle English the final vowel was neutralised and the ending **-n** added on analogy with the nouns of the original **n**-stem declension. This shows that the power of the **n**-stem declension was at the time still relatively strong.

d) remnants of the original root-stem declension, such as:

foot — feet (OE fōt — fēt)

tooth — teeth (OE tōð — tēð)

e) "foreign plurals" — words borrowed in Early New English from Latin. These words were borrowed by learned people from scientific books who alone used them, trying to preserve their original form and not attempting to adapt them to their native language. Among such words are: **datum — data, automaton — automata, axis — axes, etc.** It should be noted that when in the course of further history these words entered the language of the whole people, they tended to add regular plural endings, which gave rise to such doublets as:

molecula — molecule and molecules,

formula — formulae and formulas,

antenna — antennae and antennas, the irregular form being reserved for the scientific style.

1.3. Grammatical categories

The category of gender is formal, traditional already in Old English; in Middle English and New English nouns have no category of gender.

The category of number is preserved, manifesting the difference between singular and plural forms [4; 5; 11].

The category of case, which underwent reduction first to three and then to two

forms, in New English contains the same number of case-forms as in Middle English, but the difference is the number of the nouns used in the Genitive (or Possessive) case — mainly living beings, and the meaning — mainly the quality or the person who possesses something.

the boy's book

a women's magazine

a two miles' walk

Inanimate nouns are not so common:

the river's bank

the razor's edge

In Modern English, however, we observe a gradual spreading of the ending **-s** of the Possessive case to nouns denoting inanimate things, especially certain geographical notions, such cases as "England's prime minister" being the norm, especially in political style.

2. The adjective

Only two grammatical phenomena that were reflected in the adjectival paradigm in Old English are preserved in Middle English: declension and the category of number.

The difference between the Indefinite (strong) and the Definite (weak) declension is shown by the zero ending for the former and the ending **-e** for the latter, but only in the Singular. The forms of the Definite and the Indefinite declension in the Plural have similar endings.

For instance:

	Singular	Plural
Indefinite	a yong squier	yonge
Definite	the yonge sonne	

The difference between number forms is manifest only in the Indefinite (strong) declension, where there is no ending in the Singular but the ending **-e** in the Plural.

In New English what remained of the declension in Middle English

disappeared completely and now we have the uninflected form for the adjective used for all purposes for which in Old English there existed a complicated adjectival paradigm with two number-forms, five case-forms, three gender-forms and two declensions [3; 7; 11].

As we have seen above, all grammatical categories and declensions in Middle and New English disappeared. Contrary to that degrees of comparison of the adjective were not only preserved but also developed in Middle and New English. For example:

Table 9-1. Degrees of Comparison

Degree Period	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Old English Middle English New English	heard hard hard	heardra hardre harder	heardost hardest hardest
Old English Middle English New English	eald ald old	ieldra/yldra eldre elder	ieldest eldest eldest
Old English Middle English New English	3ōd 3ood good	betera bette better	betst best best

It should be noted, however, that out of the three principal means of forming degrees of comparison that existed in Old English: suffixation, vowel interchange and suppletive forms, there remained as a productive means only one: suffixation, the rest of the means seen only in isolated forms. At the same time there was formed and developed a new means — analytical, which can be observed in such cases encountered, for instance, in the works of J. Chaucer, as:

comfortable — more comfortable.

3. The pronoun

In Old English all pronouns were declined, and the pronominal paradigm was very complicated. In Middle English the system was greatly simplified and nowadays what remained of the pronominal declension is mainly represented by

the declension of the personal pronoun and on a small scale — demonstrative and interrogative (relative).

Case

The four-case system that existed in Old English gave way to a two-case system in late Middle English and in New English. The development may be illustrated by the following scheme of the pronominal paradigm (see Scheme 9-1).

Scheme 9-1. Personal Pronouns

<i>Old English</i>		<i>Middle English</i>		<i>New English</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	Ic	⇒	<i>Nominative</i>	I
<i>Accusative</i>	mec	}	<i>Objective</i>	me
<i>Dative</i>	mē			
<i>Genitive</i>	mīn			
<i>Possessive Pronouns</i>		⇒	mine	⇒ mine

Gender

As a grammatical phenomenon gender disappeared already in Middle English, the pronouns **he** and **she** referring only to animate notions and **it** — to inanimate.

Number

The three number system that existed in Early Old English (Singular, Dual, Plural) was substituted by a two number system already in Late Old English.

4. The article

The first elements of the category of the article appeared already in Old English, when the meaning of the demonstrative pronoun was weakened, and it approached the status of an article in such phrases as:

However, we may not speak of any category if it is not represented by an opposition of at least two units. Such opposition arose only in Middle English, when the indefinite article **an** appeared.

The form of the definite article **the** can be traced back to the Old English demonstrative pronoun **sē** (*that, masculine, singular*), which in the course of history came to be used on analogy with the forms of the same pronoun having the initial consonant [θ] and began to be used with all nouns, irrespective of their gender or number.

The indefinite article developed from the Old English numeral **ān**. In Middle English **ān** split into two words: the indefinite pronoun **an**, losing a separate stress and undergoing reduction of its vowel, and the numeral **one**, remaining stressed as any other notional word. Later the indefinite pronoun **an** grew into the indefinite article **a/an**, and together with the definite article **the** formed a new grammatical category — the category of determination, or the category of **article**.

Summary

The system of the declinable parts of speech underwent considerable simplification, at the same time developing new analytical features:

1. Reduction in the number of the declinable parts of speech.
2. Reduction in the number of declensions (whatever is preserved follows the **a**-stem masculine).
3. Reduction in the number of grammatical categories
4. Reduction in the number of the categorial forms (the category of number of personal pronouns and case — of all nominal parts of speech)
5. Formation of a new class of words — **article**.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What is the origin of irregular noun forms in New English?
2. What are grammatical characteristics of the adjective in New English?
3. What are grammatical characteristics of the pronoun in New English?
4. What are grammatical characteristics of the article in New English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

2. Learn the topics “Noun in Early New English” and “Early New English pronouns”, “Early New English Adjective” p.p. 170-175. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

TOPIC 14. CHANGES IN THE VERBAL SYSTEM IN NEW ENGLISH

List of principal questions:

1. Non-finite forms (verbals)
2. Morphological classification of verbs in Middle English and New English
 - 2.1. Strong verbs
 - 2.1.1. Classes of the strong verbs
 - 2.1.2. Principal forms of the strong verbs
 - 2.2. Weak verbs
 - 2.2.1. Classes of the weak verbs
 - 2.2.2. Principal forms of the weak verbs
 - 2.3. Origin of modern irregular verbs
3. Grammatical categories of the English verb

1. Non-finite forms (verbals)

A comparison of the verbals in Old English and in Middle and New English shows that the number of verbals in Old English was less than that in Middle and New English. At the end of the Middle English period a new verbal developed — the Gerund, in addition to the Infinitive and the Participle existing already in Old English. The Gerund appeared as a result of a blend between the Old English Present Participle ending in '-ende' and the Old English Verbal noun ending in '-inge'. From the Verbal noun the Gerund acquired the form (the ending '-ing(e)'), but under the influence of the Participle it became more "verbal" in meaning [4; 11; 18].

In the process of English history the Verbals are gradually shifting from the system of declension into the system of conjugation. Thus in Old English the verbals existing at the time: the infinitive and the participle could be declined (see above, Old English). In the course of history the Infinitive (already at the end of the Old English period) and the Participle (in Middle English) lost their declension. And at the end of the Middle English and in New English they acquired elements of

conjugation — the grammatical categories of order, voice and aspect (the infinitive) and the grammatical categories of order and voice (the participle

and the gerund). The Old English preposition **tō** preceding the Dative case of the infinitive loses its independent meaning and functions simply as a grammatical particle showing that the Verbal is an Infinitive.

But even in Modern English we can find such contexts where the form of the verbal is active, though the meaning is passive:

The book is worth reading. The coat needs ironing.

or the non-perfect form expresses order, i.e. is used to express events that took place prior to the action of the finite form of the verbs:

I remember doing...

I thanked him for bringing the happy tidings.

Such phenomena reflect the previous stage of the development of the English language, when the given verbals were indifferent to voice and order.

2. Morphological classification of verbs in Middle English and New English

2.0. The subdivision of Old English verbs into Strong and Weak is preserved with modifications in Middle English.

2.1. Strong verbs

2.1.1. Classes of the strong verbs

In New English, however, the original regularity that was observed in the group of strong verbs in Old English and partly in Middle English is no longer felt due to the following:

1) Splitting of original classes into subclasses, for example:

2) Some strong verbs of one class entering another class. Thus, the Old English verb of the 5th class:

sprecan — spræc — spræcon — sprecen
passed into the 5th class in Middle English with the forms
speken — spak — speken — spoken

on analogy with such verbs as
stelen — stal — stelen — stolen.

3) Passing of some strong verbs into the group of weak verbs and (rarely) vice versa. For example:

	Old English	New English
I class	gripan	to grip
	glidan	to glide
II class	creopan	to creep
	leo3an	to lie
III class	climban	to climb
	helpan	to help
VI class	bacan	to bake
	wascnan	to wake

The contrary process, as we have already said, is quite rare:

Old English	New English
hydan	to hide
waerian	to wear

4) But some weak verbs acquired only some features of the strong verbs, like the Old English weak verb **sceawian** — Modern English **show, showed, but shown**.

2.1.2. Principal forms of the strong verbs

The strong Verbs in Old English **had four principal forms**, for example:

In Middle English, however, they exhibited a marked tendency to have **the same vowel** in both the forms of the past tense, thus gradually reducing the number

of the principal forms **to three**. In New English we have only **three principal forms** in verbs originally belonging to the group of strong verbs:

write — wrote — written

The vowel that is preserved in the Past tense is generally traced back to the vowel of Old English past tense singular. For example:

	<i>Old English</i>	<i>Middle English</i>	<i>New English</i>
<i>I class</i>	wrāt	wrōt	wrote (<i>to write</i>)
<i>II class</i>	scōc	shōk	shook (<i>to shake</i>)

but sometimes it is the vowel of the original past tense plural:

<i>Old English</i>	bitan	—	bāt	—	biton	—	biten
<i>Middle English</i>	biten	—	bot	—	biten	—	biten
<i>New English</i>	bite	—	bit	—	bitten		

with the Past tense form deriving its vowel from the past tense plural form of the verb [2; 5; 7; 11].

Sometimes the vowel of the past tense form was borrowed from the form of the past participle:

<i>Old English</i>	stelan	—	stæl	—	stælon	—	stolen
<i>Middle English</i>	stelen	—	stal	—	stelen	—	stolen
<i>New English</i>	steal	—	stole	—	stolen		

2.2. Weak verbs

As we have said above the number of strong verbs was diminishing in Middle English and New English mainly due to the passing of some strong verbs into the weak conjugation. Weak verbs, however, were becoming more and more numerous, as they not only preserved in Middle and New English almost all the verbs that were typical of the group in Old English, but also added to their group the majority of borrowed verbs and about seventy verbs originally strong (see above), and also such verbs as:

to call

to want **Scandinavian borrowings**

to guess

to pierce

to punish

French borrowings

to finish

to contribute

to create

Latin borrowings

to distribute

Alike strong verbs many weak verbs became irregular in the course of history, especially weak verbs of the first class. This irregularity was mainly conditioned by qualitative and quantitative changes that many weak verbs underwent in Middle English and New English. For instance:

<i>Old English</i>	cēpan	—	cēpte	—	cēpt
<i>Middle English</i>	kēpen	—	kepte	—	kept
<i>New English</i>	keep	—	kept	—	kept

As we see the Old English weak verb of the first class became irregular due to the quantitative change — shortening of the vowel in the second and third forms in Middle English (before two consonants — for example, pt), thus acquiring quantitative vowel interchange. This quantitative interchange was followed by qualitative in New English after the Great vowel shift, which only the vowel of the first form, being long, underwent, the short vowel of the second and third forms retaining their quality.

2.2.1. Classes of the weak verbs

In Old English there were two principal classes of the weak verbs. In Middle English some verbs that did not become irregular lost the class difference and we have but one class of verbs going back mainly to the weak verbs of the second class. For instance:

Old English II class lufian — lufode — lufod (to love) Middle English
loven — lov(e)de — luv(e)d

2.2.2. Principal forms of the weak verbs

In Old English there were three principal forms of the weak verbs, for instance:

cēpan — cēpte — cēpt (*to keep*)
 lufian — lufode — lufod (*to love*)

In Late Middle English — Early New English, with the loss of the final -e in the second form the second and the third form became homonymous, thus we speak of **three principal forms** of such verbs as **to love or to keep** mainly on analogy with original strong verbs, and also because of the existing tradition as no Modern English regular verb, originally belonging to the weak conjugation, shows any trace of difference between the second and third forms [1; 4; 5; 11].

Thus in New English due to different phonetic processes and changes on analogy the two principal groups of verbs that existed in Old English, strong and weak, gave us two principal groups of Modern verbs: regular and irregular, neither of which is directly derived from either of the Old English groups of strong and weak verbs.

2.3. Origin of modern irregular verbs

In Old English most verbs were regular, although there were a number of irregular ones. In Middle English not only the few Old English irregular verbs were preserved, but also new irregular verbs appeared. This was due, first of all, to the disappearance of the division of verbs into strong and weak, most strong verbs losing their regular pattern of conjugation and thus becoming irregular.

Another source of irregular verbs was the 1st class of weak verbs the irregularity of which was due to several reasons. In addition to the examples given above we can show three groups of verbs originally belonging to the 1st class of weak verbs, which later became irregular:

a) verbs with a long root vowel, **the root ending in -t or -d:**

Old English mētan — mētte — mētt

In Middle English the root vowel of the second and third forms is shortened due to the rhythmic tendency of the language requiring the shortening of all vowels

if followed by two consonants. The vowel interchange in Middle English is quantitative only.

In New English the long root vowel in the first form due to the great vowel shift is changed qualitatively, so now we have both quantitative and qualitative vowel interchange in the verb.

b) verbs with a long root vowel, the root ending in a consonant **other than -t or -d:**

<i>Old English</i>	cēpan — cēpte — cēpt
<i>Middle English</i>	kepen — kepte — kept
<i>New English</i>	keep — kept — kept

In Middle English the dental suffixation of the 2nd and 3rd forms is supplemented with a quantitative vowel interchange similar to that explained above, and in New English we have both vowel interchange (quantitative and qualitative) and suffixation as form-building means.

c) verbs with a short root vowel, **the root ending in -t or -d:**

Old English	settan — sette — sett
Middle English	setten — sette — sett
New English	set — set — set

No changes took place in the root vowel, the ending disappeared due to the final reduction of unstressed vowels, and now the verb forms its forms without any material manifestation.

Even in the 2nd class of weak verbs examples of irregularity can be found.

One of them is the verb **to make**.

Old English	macian — macode — macod
Middle English	maken — made — made
New English	make — made — made

The middle syllable of the 2nd and 3rd forms was lost, making the verb irregular [5; 8; 11; 15].

Still another source of irregular verbs may be found in some loan words borrowed into the language in Middle English and New English. Although most borrowed verbs formed their forms in accordance with the weak verbs of the 2nd

class, some of them are irregular. Here it is possible to mention Scandinavian strong verb borrowings which preserve their original vowel interchange and thus are nowadays irregular, as:

give — gave — given
take — took — taken
get — got — gotten.

Another irregular loan word is the French borrowing **to catch** (caught, caught) which is irregular, forming its forms on analogy with the verb to teach (taught, taught).

Thus, among New English regular verbs there may be encountered either native words (almost all Old English weak verbs of the 2nd class and some Old English strong verbs having lost their irregularity and forming their forms on analogy with the weak verbs of the 2nd class, such as to help, to bake, etc.) or borrowings (almost all loan verbs).

3. Grammatical categories of the English verb

In Old English the verb had four categories: person, number, tense and mood.

In Middle English and New English there gradually developed three more grammatical categories — order, voice and aspect.

These grammatical categories used a new grammatical means for the formation, namely, analytical forms. These analytical forms developed from free word combinations of the Old English verbs **habban**, **beon/wesan** + an infinitive (or participle). The way of the formation of those analytical forms was the following:

In the free word combination **habban**, **beon/wesan** + an infinitive (or participle) the first element was gradually losing its lexical meaning, and the second — its grammatical one, thus tending to become notionally and grammatically inseparable, idiomatic.

The category of order was the oldest, formed already in Middle English from the Old English free combination **habban** + past participle.

Hie hæfdon hīera cyning āworþenne

(They had already overthrown their king)

The younge sonne **hath** in the Ram his halve course **y-runne**

(The young sun has run its half-course in the Ram)

... Whan the sonne was to reste,

So **hadde I spoked** with hem everichon...

(When the sun was about to rest,

So I had spoken with every one of them)

The same idea of order is sometimes still expressed with the help of the combination *to be* + *participle 2*, going back to the Old English *bēon* + *past participle*:

This gentleman **is** happily **arrived**.

Now he **is gone**.

The category of **voice** appeared out of the free combination of *weorþan* (*beon*) + *past participle*:

Old English **hē wēarþ ofslæzen**
(he was slain)

Middle English **engendered is** the flour
(the flower is generated [born])

The category of **aspect** was formed in Middle English on the basis of the free combination of *bēn* (*beon*) + *present participle*:

Singinge hē was ... al the dai

(he was singing all the day)

The grammatical categories of tense and mood which existed in Old English acquired **new categorial forms**.

1. The Old English present and past tense forms were supplemented with a special form for the future tense which appeared in Middle English out of the free combination of the Old English modal verbs "sculan" and "willan" with the infinitive. This free combination of words was split into two groups: in the first, remaining free, the modal meaning is preserved:

You **shall do** it — necessity

I **will do** it — volition

in the second the independent meaning is lost and the fixed word combination is perceived as the future tense form:

I **shall go** there. You **will go** there.

The category of mood in Old English was represented by three mood forms, one for each of the moods (indicative, subjunctive and imperative). The subjunctive in Old English did not show whether the events were probable or contrary to fact, but it had two tense forms — past and present, which in the course of history developed into two subjunctive moods:

- I/he **be** present — out of the Old English present tense form of the subjunctive mood
- I/he **were** present — out of the Old English past tense form of the subjunctive mood.

The difference between these two subjunctive moods now is in the shade of probability, and not in the tense, the second one denoting events which are contrary to fact [4; 11; 16; 17].

In addition to that at the end of Middle English and the beginning of New English two more subjunctive mood forms appeared making use of the analytical form building means:

- I/he **should be** present — to show events which are probable, though problematic
- I **should be** present — to show imaginary events,
- he **would be** present — contrary to fact.

Here **should and would** are the subjunctive mood forms of the Old English **sculan and willan**.

QUESTIONS FOR SELF-CONTROL

1. What new non-finite forms appeared in New English? How were they conjugated?
2. What new grammatical categories of the verb were formed?
3. What new categorial forms of the verb appeared in New English?

INDIVIDUAL WORK

Learn the topics “The Verb in New Early English” and “The Categories of the Early New English Verb” p.p. 175-178. (Верба Л.Г. Історія англійської мови. Посібник для студентів та викладачів вищих навчальних закладів. — Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2006. — 296 с. (англійською мовою).

Questions for self-study

Germanic languages. Old English.

1. The aim of the study of the subject
2. Inner and outer history of the language
3. Chief characteristics of the Germanic languages
 - 3.1. Phonetics
 - 3.2. Grammar
 - 3.3. Alphabet
4. Old English
 - 4.1 Outer history
 - 4.1.1 Principal written records
 - 4.1.2. Dialectal classification
 - 4.1.1.1. The dialects in Old English
 - 4.1.1.2. Old English written records
5. Inner history
 - 5.1. Phonetics
 - 5.1.1. Old English vowels
 - 5.1.2. Old English Consonants
 - 5.2. Spelling
 - 5.3. Grammar
 - 5.3.1. General survey of the nominal system
 - 5.3.2. General survey of the verbal system
 - 5.4. Vocabulary

MIDDLE ENGLISH

1. Outer history
 - 1.1. Scandinavian Invasion
 - 1.2. Norman Conquest
 - 1.3. Formation of the English national language
2. Inner history

2.1. Phonetics

2.1.1. Changes in the phonetic system in Middle English

2.1.2. Vowels in the unstressed position

2.1.3. Changes of monophthongs

2.1.4. Changes of diphthongs

2.1.5. Lengthening and shortening of vowels

2.1.6. Consonants

2.1. Grammar

2.2.1. General survey of the nominal system

2.2.2. General survey of the verbal system

2.3. Word-stock

NEW ENGLISH

1. Outer history

1.1. Emergence of the nation

1.2. Establishment of the literary norm

1.3. Geographical expansion of English

2. Inner history

2.1. Phonetics

2.1.1. Changes in the phonetic system in New English

2.1.2. Vowels in the unstressed position

2.1.3. Vowels under stress

2.1.4. Qualitative changes

2.1.5. Quantitative changes

2.2. Consonants

2.3. Grammar

2.3.1. General survey of the nominal system

2.3.2. General survey of the verbal system

2.4. Changes in alphabet and spelling in Middle and New English

2.5. Word-stock

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE FOR SELF-STUDY

1. Алексеева Л.А. Древнеанглийский язык /Л.А.Алексеева. – Москва, 1971. – 260с.

2. Аракин В.Д. История английского языка/В.Д.Араки. – Москва, 1985. – 124с.

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8. Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка /Б.А Ильиш. – Москва, 1973. – 302 с.

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14. Ярцева В.Н. История английского литературного языка IX – XV вв./В.Н.Ярцева. – Москва, 1985. – 308с.

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16. Campbell A. Old English Grammar /A.Campbell. – Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1959 p.
17. Jespersen O. Growth and Structure of the English Language / O. Jespersen. – Leipzig. 1935. – 589 p.
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19. Schlauch V. The English Language of Modern Times (since 1400) /V. Schlauch. – Warszawa. – London, 1964. – 457p.
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22. Wyld H.C. A History of Modern Colloquial English /P.C.Wyld. – London. – 234 p.

Assignments for self-study

1. English as a Germanic Language, its place among other languages of the world.
2. Principal Features of Germanic Languages.
3. Word Stress in Indo-European and Common Germanic and its influence upon the morphological system of English.
4. Verner's Law. Rhotacism.
5. Grimm's Law.
6. Common Germanic Vowel Shift. Common Germanic Fracture.
7. Periods in the History of English.
8. The structure of the Word in OE, its previous and subsequent stages.
9. Development of Vowels in OE.
10. Assimilative Processes in OE vocalism and their traces in Mod E.
11. The Old English Vowel system. Phonological Processes in OE and their traces in Mod. English (OE Breaking, Velar Umlaut, I – Umlaut, Palatal Diphthongization).
12. The Origin and Status of short diphthongs in OE.
13. OE system of vowels.
14. Lengthening of Vowels in OE.
15. OE Vowels. Development of Vowels in Unstressed Syllables in Old English.
16. The Old English Consonant System.
17. Development of Consonants in OE.
18. The Old English Vowel System.
19. Nominal Grammatical Categories in OE and their Historical Development.
20. Grammatical categories of the Noun in OE.
21. The Declension of the Noun in OE. Types of Stems.
22. The Categories of the OE Adjective and their further development.
23. The Adjective in OE.
24. The Pronoun in OE.
25. Strong, Weak, Preterite-Present and Anomalous Verbs in Old English.
26. Verbal Grammatical Categories in OE.
27. Strong Verbs in OE.
28. Weak Verbs in OE.
29. Preterite-Present Verbs in OE and their further development.
30. The Non-Finite forms of the verb in OE.
31. The Morphological Classification of the OE Verbs.
32. The Non-Finite forms of the verb in OE and their further development.
33. Principal Features of OE Syntax.
34. OE Vocabulary.
35. The Peculiarities of the Complex Sentence. Structure in OE and its historical development.
36. The Structure of the Simple sentence in OE.
37. Principal Features of OE vocabulary.
38. The Word formation in OE.
39. Changes within the Consonant System in ME.

40. ME Vowels: Qualitative changes.
41. Reduction of Vowels in Final Unstressed Syllables in ME.
42. ME Vowels: Quantitative changes.
43. Changes within the System of Vowels in ME.
44. Sources of New ME diphthongs.
45. Formation of New Diphthongs in ME.
46. Changes within the Noun System in ME.
47. Changes within the Adjective System in ME.
48. Changes within the Pronoun System in ME.
49. Rise of the Article System in ME.
50. Changes within the System of Strong and Weak Verb in ME.
51. Categories of the Verb in ME.
52. Development of Future and Passive in English.
53. Development of Continuous Aspect in English.
54. Development of Perfect Forms in English.
55. Middle English Dialects.
56. The Linguistic Consequences of the Norman Conquest.
57. The Linguistic Consequences of the Scandinavian Invasion.
58. ME Dialects. Development of the Monophthongs *ȳ*, *ā*, *ǣ*, *æ* in Different Dialects.
59. General Characteristics of Middle English Grammar.
60. Scandinavian Borrowings in ME.
61. French Borrowings in ME.
62. The development of the Complex sentence structure in ME and NE.
63. Vocabulary in Middle English.
64. Changes in Orthography in ME.
65. Formation of the National literary English language.
66. The Great Vowel Shift.
67. Formation of New Long Vowels in Mod E.
68. Formation of Sibilants and Affricates in Mod E. Voicing of voiceless fricatives in Mod E.
69. Formation of New diphthongs and diphthongs in Mod. E.
70. Formation of New Short Vowels in Mod E.
71. Changes within the Consonant System in Early New English.
72. Simplification of Consonant Clusters in Mod E.
73. Changes within the Verb System in Mod E.
74. Development of Vocabulary in Mod E.
75. Latin Borrowings throughout the Development of the English Language.
76. Historical Development of Analytical Forms of the verb in English.
77. Development of Vowels in Unstressed Syllables in OE, ME, Early New English.
78. Development of Non-Finite Forms of the verb in the English language.
79. Latin Development of Vocabulary in Mod.E
80. The Unstressed Vocalism and its Role in the Morphological Structure of the English language.

TESTS

1. State the timeframe of Old English choosing the correct answer from the list:
 - a) 5th-13th c.
 - б) 6th – 12th c.
 - в) 9th – 12th c.
 - г) 5th – 11th c.

2. The English language belongs to:
 - a) the Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages
 - б) the North Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages
 - в) the West Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages
 - г) the Southern Germanic subdivision of the Indo-European family of languages

3. The principal East Germanic language is:
 - a) Icelandic
 - б) **Gothic**
 - в) Norwegian
 - г) Vandalic

4. One of the most important common features of all Germanic languages is:
 - a) its weak dynamic stress falling on the first root syllable
 - б) its strong dynamic stress falling on the first root syllable
 - в) its strong dynamic stress falling on the second root syllable
 - г) its weak dynamic stress falling on the second root syllable

5. The Germanic nouns had a well-developed case system with
 - a) 2 cases (nominative, genitive)
 - б) 3 cases (nominative, genitive, dative)
 - в) 4 cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative)
 - г) 1 case (nominative)

6. The earliest runic alphabet known in the history of the English language as the futhork had:

- a) 26 letters
- б) 25 letters
- в) 22 letters
- г) 24 letters

7. The history of the English language begins in the:

- a) 5th c.
- б) 6th c.
- в) 4th c.
- г) 7th c.

8. Choose the time of King Alfred's reign:

- a) 878-914
- б) 753-803
- в) 337-364
- г) 871-899

9. There were ... declinable parts of speech in Old English:

- a) five (the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral, the participle)
- б) four (the noun, the pronoun, the adjective, the numeral)
- в) three (the noun, the pronoun, the adjective)
- г) two (the noun, the pronoun)

10. The Old English noun paradigm was composed by the following grammatical categories:

- a) gender, number
- б) gender, number, case

в) gender, case

г) gender

11. The paradigm of the a-stem nouns is characterised by the homonymity of the: a)

Nominative and Accusative case-forms in plural

б) Nominative and Accusative case-forms in singular

в) Nominative and Genitive case-forms in plural

г) Dative and Accusative case-forms in plural

12. The Old English personal pronoun had the grammatical categories of:

a) gender, number, case

б) gender, number

в) gender, case

г) gender

13. The first inroads of the Scandinavian Vikings began:

a) at the end of the 9th century

б) at the beginning of the 8th century

в) at the end of the 8th century

г) at the beginning of the 9th century

14. The Norman Conquest began in:

a) 1067

б) 1068

в) 1069

г) 1066.

15. Printing was invented in Germany :

a) by William Caxton in 1477

б) by Henry Tudor in 1477

- b) by Johann Gutenberg in 1438
- r) by Johann Gutenberg in 1477

16. The words **take, give, sky, wrong** are ... borrowings in the English language:

- a) Greek
- б) French
- b) Latin
- r) Scandinavian

17. English literary norm was formed :

- A. at the end of the 17th century
- B. at the end of the 18th century
- C. in the middle of the 17th century
- D. at the end of the 16th century

18. State the timeframe of Middle English choosing the correct answer from the list:

- a) 7th-13th c.
- б) 11th – 15th c.
- b) 9th – 12th c.
- r) 5th – 15th c.

19. In Middle English ... appeared:

- a) two new diphthongs [au], [ei]
- б) three new diphthongs [au], [ei], [ou]
- b) four new diphthongs [au], [ei], [ou], [ue]
- r) four new diphthongs [au], [ei], [ou], [ai]

20. In Middle English there remained only ... declinable parts of speech:

- a) three (the noun, the pronoun, the adjective)

- б) two (the noun, the pronoun)
- b) two (the noun, the adjective)
- r) three (the noun, the pronoun, the participle)

21. The verbs **to pierce, to punish, to finish** are... borrowings in the English language:

- a) Greek
- б) Scandinavian
- b) Latin
- r) French

22. Chronologically the words of Scandinavian origin entered the English language in the period:

- a) between the 8th and the 9th centuries
- б) between the 8th and the 10th centuries
- b) between the 7th and the 10th centuries
- r) between the 7th and the 9th centuries

23. French borrowings of the New English period entered the English language:

- a) beginning with the 18th century
- б) beginning with the 16th century
- b) beginning with the 17th century
- r) beginning with the 15th century

24. State the timeframe of New English choosing the correct answer from the list:

- a) 15th – till now
- б) 16th – till now
- b) 15th – 20th c.
- r) 15th – 21st c.

25. The Old English personal pronoun had the grammatical categories of:

- a) gender, number, case
- б) gender, number
- в) gender, case
- г) gender

26. The history of the English language begins in the:

- a) 5th c.
- б) 6th c.
- в) 4th c.
- г) 7th c.

27. The first inroads of the Scandinavian Vikings began:

- a) at the end of the 9th century
- б) at the beginning of the 8th century
- в) at the end of the 8th century
- г) at the beginning of the 9th century

28. The East Germanic group of dialects are:

- a) Old Norwegian, Old Danish, Old Swedish, Old Icelandic
- б) Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian
- в) the dialects of Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians
- г) Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian, Old Icelandic

29. The common Indo-European notional word consisted of:

- a) two elements
- б) four elements
- в) one element
- г) three elements

30. The Germanic adjectives had:

- a) three types of declension
- б) one type of declension
- в) two types of declension
- г) four types of declension

31. The Germanic verbs are divided into:

- a) two principal groups
- б) three principal groups
- в) one principal group
- г) four principal groups

32. Germanic languages belonged to:

- a) the analytic type of form-building
- б) the synthetic type of form-building
- в) the phonetic type of form-building
- г) the grammatical type of form-building

33. The grammatical means that Old English used were primarily:

- a) suffixation
- б) use of suppletive forms.
- в) suffixation, vowel gradation,
- г) suffixation, vowel gradation, use of suppletive forms.

34. In Old English the noun **wifman** (woman) was declined as:

- a) masculine
- б) feminine
- в) neuter
- г) neuter and masculine

35. In Old English we find the following categorial forms:

- a) singular and dual
- б) dual and plural
- в) singular, dual and plural
- г) singular and plural

36. The strong Verbs in Old English had:

- a) two principal forms
- б) four principal forms
- в) three principal forms
- г) one principal form

37. In Middle English there remained onlydeclinable parts of speech

- a) two
- б) four
- в) five
- г) three

38. The words **balcony, gondola, grotto, volcano** are borrowings in the English language

- a) Italian
- б) Scandinavian
- в) Latin
- г) French

39. The words **orange, cotton, candy, chess** are borrowings in the English language

- a) Italian
- б) Arabic

в) Latin

г) French

40. The Romans invaded Britannia in:

- a) 53 – 52 BC
- б) 52 – 51 BC
- в) 54 – 53 BC
- г) 55— 54 BC

41. The runic inscription on the "Ruthwell cross" is:

- a) a love story
- б) a detective story
- в) a religious poem
- г) a poetic poem

42. The majority of Old English records are written in

- a) so-called insular alphabet
- б) the Latin alphabet
- в) the Runic alphabet
- г) the Old English alphabet

43. By about AD 600 the Angles established their separate kingdoms:

- a) Northumbria, Wessex and Sussex
- б) Wessex, Mercia and East Anglia
- в) Wessex, Sussex and Essex;
- г) Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia

44. By about AD 600 the separate kingdoms **Wessex, Sussex and Essex** were established by:

- a) the Angles

- б) the Saxons
- в) by the Jutes
- г) the Frisians

45. In England Christianity appeared in:

- а) 596 AD
- б) 599 AD
- в) 597 AD
- г) 595 AD

46. Among the principal Old English dialects the most important for us is:

- а) the Wessex dialect
- б) the Northumbrian dialect
- в) the Mercian dialect
- г) the Wessex dialect and the Mercian dialect

47. The English language became the language of Parliament and courts in:

- а) 1361
- б) 1360
- в) 1359
- г) 1362

48. English literary norm was formed:

- а) at the end of the 16 th century
- б) at the end of the 17 th century
- в) at the end of the 18 th century
- г) at the end of the 19 th century

49. The magazine published by Joseph Addison and Richard Steele was called

- а) The Walker (1711—1714)

б) English Grammar (1711—1714)

в) The Spectator (1711—1714)

г) English Spelling (1711—1714)

50. The famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America in

- а) 1620
- б) 1621
- в) 1619
- г) 1622

51. The “pre-written period” of the English language is dated by the:

- а) 5 th – 6 th centuries
- б) 5 th – 9 th centuries
- в) 5 th – 8 th centuries
- г) 5 th – 7 th centuries

52. The first written records were dated as far back as:

- а) the beginning of the 6 - th century
- б) the beginning of the 7 - th century
- в) the beginning of the 8 - th century
- г) the beginning of the 9 - th century

53. The Romans invaded Britannia in:

- а) 54 – 53 BC
- б) 55— 54 BC
- в) 53 – 52 BC
- г) 52 – 51 BC

54. The most famous of all English kings Alfred of Wessex came to the throne in:

- а) 873
- б) 872
- в) 871
- г) 870

55. After the death of Alfred the Great the throne was occupied by Danish kings:

- a) from 1017 till 1043
- б) from 1017 till 1040
- в) from 1017 till 1041
- г) from 1017 till 1042

56. In Old English the word **mētan** had the meaning:

- a) to meet
- б) a meeting
- в) to mete
- г) meat

57. In Old English the word **gōd** had the meaning:

- a) god
- б) good
- в) well
- г) better

58. In Old English the word **pīn** had the meaning:

- a) pale
- б) pink
- в) a pin
- г) pain

59. In Old English the noun **wifman** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

60. In Old English the noun **tunge** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

61. In Old English the noun **name** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

62. In Old English the noun **cicen** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

63. In Old English the noun **meolc** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

64. The Old English consonant system consisted of consonant phonemes:

- a) 13
- б) 14
- в) 15
- г) 16

65. The qualitative change of Old English vowels that experts call palatal mutation, or i-mutation, occurred somewhere during:

- a) the 5th—7th centuries
- б) the 4th—7th centuries
- в) the 6th—7th centuries
- г) the 6th—8th centuries

66. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **a** was replaced by the monophthong:

- a) e
- б) æ

в) ŷ

г) ē

67. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **æ** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) e

б) æ

в) ŷ

г) ē

68. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **o** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) e

б) æ

в) ŷ

г) ē

69. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **ō** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) e

б) æ

в) ŷ

г) ē

70. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **ū** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) e

б) æ

в) ŷ

г) ē

71. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the diphthong **ea** was replaced by the diphthong:

а) ie

б) eo

в) ēa

г) ēo

72. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the diphthong **ēa** was replaced by the diphthong:

а) ie

б) eo

в) ēa

г) īe

73. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the diphthong **eo** was replaced by the diphthong:

а) ie

б) eo

в) ēa

г) īe

74. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the diphthong **ēo** was replaced by the diphthong:

а) ie

б) eo

в) ēa

г) īe

75. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the monophthong **ā** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) ŷ

б) ō

в) ē

г) ī

76. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the monophthong **ǣ** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) ŷ

б) ō

в) ē

г) ī

77. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the monophthong **ȝ** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) æ

б) ȝ

в) ē

г) ī

78. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the diphthong **eo** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) æ

б) ȝ

в) ē

г) ī

79. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the diphthong **ea** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) a

б) ȝ

в) ē

г) ī

80. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the diphthong **eo** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) a

б) ȝ

в) ī

г) e

81. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the diphthong **ea** was replaced by the monophthong:

а) a

б) ȝ

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в) ī

г) e

82. In Old English the letter **ȝ** could denote sound [j]:

а) before or after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

б) after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

в) after back vowels [a],[o],[u] and consonants [l] and [r]

г) before consonants and before back vowels [a],[o],[u]

83. In Old English the letter **ȝ** could denote sound [ɣ]:

а) before or after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

б) after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

в) after back vowels [a],[o],[u] and consonants [l] and [r]

г) before consonants and before back vowels [a],[o],[u]

84. In Old English the letter **ȝ** could denote sound [g]:

а) before or after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

б) after front vowels [æ],[e],[i]

в) after back vowels [a],[o],[u] and consonants [l] and [r]

г) before consonants and before back vowels [a],[o],[u]

85. In Old English the first letter in the word **ȝiefan (give)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

86. In Old English the first letter in the word **ȝear (year)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

87. In Old English the letter **ȝ** in the middle of the word **daȝas (days)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

88. In Old English the letter **ƿ** in the middle of the word **folƿian (follow)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

89. In Old English the letter **g** at the beginning of the word **gōd (good)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

90. In Old English the letter **g** at the beginning of the word **gleo (glee)** was pronounced as:

а) [g]

б) [ɣ]

в) [j]

г) [f]

91. In Middle English there are appeared four new diphthongs:

а) [ai],[ei],[au],[uə]

б) [ai],[ei],[iə],[ou]

в) [oi],[ei],[au],[ou]

г) [ai],[ei],[au],[ou]

92. In Middle English as a result of quantitative changes the Old English palatal consonant [k'] was replaced by:

а) the fricative consonant [ç]

б) the affricate [tʃ]

в) the fricative consonant [ʃ]

г) the affricate [tʃ]

93. In Middle English as a result of quantitative changes the Old English consonant combination [sk'] was replaced by:

а) the fricative consonant [ʃ]

б) the affricate [tʃ]

в) the fricative consonant [ʃ]

г) the affricate [tʃ]

94. In Middle English as a result of quantitative changes the Old English consonant [g'] was replaced by:

а) the fricative consonant [ç]

б) the affricate [tʃ]

в) the fricative consonant [ʃ]

г) the affricate [tʃ]

95. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ā] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [ei]

б) [i:]

в) [ou]

г) [u:]

96. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ē] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [ei]

б) [i:]

в) [ou]

г) [u:]

97. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ō] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [ei]

б) [i:]

в) [ou]

г) [u:]

98. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ō] gave the monophthong :

а) [e:]

б) [i:]

в) [a:]

г) [u:]

99. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ū] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [ei]

б) [i:]

в) [ou]

г) [au]

100. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ī] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [ei]

б) [i:]

в) [ai]

г) [au]

101. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English short monophthong [a] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [æ]

б) [i:]

в) [ai]

г) [au]

102. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English short monophthong [u] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

а) [æ]

б) [i:]

в) [Λ]

г) [au]

103. In New English when the diphthong [ei] was followed in a word by the consonant “r” the result was the diphthong (triphthong):

а) [ɛə]

б) [iə]

в) [aiə]

г) [uə]

104. In New English when the long monophthong [i:] was followed in a word by the consonant “r” the result was the diphthong (triphthong):

а) [ɛə]

б) [iə]

в) [aiə]

г) [uə]

105. In New English when the diphthong [ai] was followed in a word by the consonant “r” the result was the diphthong (triphthong):

а) [ɛə]

б) [iə]

в) [aiə]

г) [uə]

106. In New English when the long monophthong [u:] was followed in a word by the consonant “r” the result was the diphthong (triphthong):

а) [ɛə]

б) [iə]

в) [aiə]

г) [uə]

107. In New English when the diphthong [au] was followed in a word by the consonant “r” the result was the diphthong (triphthong):

а) []

б) [auə]

в) [aiə]

г) [uə]

108. In New English the Middle English diphthong [ai] became the diphthong (monophthong):

а) [ei]

б) [a:]

в) [iə]

г) [uə]

109. In New English the Middle English diphthong [au] became the diphthong (monophthong):

а) [ei]

б) [a:]

в) [iə]

г) [o:]

110. In New English when the Middle English sound [a] was preceded by [w] it was changed into sound:

а) [ɔ]

б) [a:]

в) [u]

г) [o:]

111. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **fisc+ere** meant:

а) to fish

б) fishing

в) a fisher

г) fish

112. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **cyn+in** meant:

а) a queen

б) a king

в) cunning

г) cunningly

113. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **spinn+estre** meant:

а) spinster

б) spinning wheel

в) spinning

г) spinet

114. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **trēow+ [ð]** meant:

а) trusty

б) truthful

в) trustily

г) truth

115. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **ƿod+nis** meant:

а) goodie

б) goodies

в) goodness

г) goods

116. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **frēond+scip** meant:

а) a friend

б) friendship

в) friendless

г) friendliness

117. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **frēo+dōm** meant:

а) freedom

б) freeborn

b) a freeholder

r) freeside

118. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **cild+hād** meant:

a) childbirth

б) childing

в) childish

г) childhood

119. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **īs+ iȝ** meant:

a) icicle

б) ictus

в) icy

г) ice

120. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **bys+ iȝ** meant:

a) beastly

б) busy

в) basic

г) basics

121. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **Engl+isc** meant:

a) English

б) England

в) an Englishman

г) the Englishmen

122. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **Frens+isc** meant:

a) a Frenchman

б) the French

в) France

г) French

123. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **slæp+lēas** meant:

a) sleeping

б) sleepily

в) sleepless

г) a sleeper

124. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **for+ ȝiefan** meant:

a) forgiven

б) forgave

в) to forgive

г) forever

125. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **mis+dæd** meant:

a) misdeed

б) misdid

в) misdo

г) misdone

126. In Old English affixation was widely used as a word-building means. The new formed word **un+cu[ð]** meant:

a) uncounted

б) uncouth

в) to uncover

г) uncovered

127. The verb-system in Old English was presented by (set) sets of forms:

a) one

б) four

в) three

г) two

128. In Old English the infinitive could have case-form(s):

а) two

б) four

в) three

г) one

129. In Old English the Dative case was mainly used when the Infinitive functioned as an adverbial modifier of:

а) time

б) direction

в) purpose

г) measure

130. In Old English the participle had only one grammatical category of:

а) mood

б) tense

в) person

г) number

131. The Old English verb was build up by grammatical categories:

а) one

б) two

в) three

г) four

132. In Old English the grammatical category of tense was presented byforms:

а) one

б) two

в) three

г) four

133. In Old English the grammatical category of mood was presented byforms:

а) one

б) two

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в) three

г) four

134. The Old English free combination **habban + past participle** was the base for appearing such a category in Middle English as:

а) order

б) voice

в) aspect

г) mood

135. The Old English free combination **bēn (beon) + present participle** was the base for appearing such a category in Middle English as:

а) order

б) voice

в) aspect

г) mood

136. The Old English free combination **weorþan (beon) + past participle** was the base for appearing such a category in Middle English as:

а) order

б) voice

в) aspect

г) mood

137. The strong verbs in Old English had principal form(s):

а) one

б) two

в) three

г) four

138. The weak verbs in Old English had principal form(s):

а) one

б) two

в) three

г) four

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139. In Old English the process of breaking took place in century:

- a) the 6th
- б) the 7th
- в) the 8th
- г) the 9th

140. In Old English the process of breaking affected vowels when they were followed by the consonants [r], [l], [h] generally followed by another consonant:

- a) [a] and [e]
- б) [æ] and [e]
- в) [æ] and [i]
- г) [æ] and [o]

141. The Old English noun paradigm was composed by the following grammatical categories:

- a) gender, number
- б) gender, number, case
- в) gender, case
- г) gender

142. In Middle English there remained only ... declinable parts of speech:

- a) three (the noun, the pronoun, the adjective)
- б) two (the noun, the pronoun)
- в) two (the noun, the adjective)
- г) three (the noun, the pronoun, the participle)

143. The Germanic adjectives had:

- a) three types of declension
- б) one type of declension
- в) two types of declension
- г) four types of declension

144. The Romans invaded Britannia in:

- a) 53 – 52 BC
- б) 52 – 51 BC
- в) 54 – 53 BC
- г) 55— 54 BC

145. The famous ship *The Mayflower* reached North America in

- a) 1620
- б) 1621
- в) 1619
- г) 1622

146. In Old English the noun **tunge** was declined as gender:

- a) neuter
- б) none
- в) masculine
- г) feminine

147. In Old English as a result of palatal mutation the monophthong **ū** was replaced by the monophthong:

- a) e
- б) æ
- в) ŷ
- г) ē

148. In Middle English as a result of qualitative changes the diphthong **eo** was replaced by the monophthong:

- a) a
- б) ō
- в) ī
- г) e

149. In Old English the letter **ȝ** at the beginning of the word **ȝlēo (glee)** was pronounced as:

- a) [g]
- б) [ɣ]
- в) [j]
- г) [f]

150. In New English as a result of qualitative changes the Middle English long monophthong [ī] gave the diphthong (monophthong) :

- a) [ei]
- б) [i:]
- в) [ai]
- г) [au]

ANSWERS

1 г) 2 а) 3 б) 4 б) 5 в) 6 г) 7 а) 8 г) 9 а) 10 б) 11 а) 12 а) 13 б) 14 г) 15 в) 16 г)
17 а) 18 б) 19 а) 20 а) 21 г) 22 б) 23 в) 24 а) 25 а) 26 а) 27 б) 28 б) 29 г) 30 в)
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145 а) 146 г) 147 в) 148 г) 149 а) 150 в

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