**Lectures on the discipline “History of the language”**

**Lecture1. Ancient Germanic Languages and Modern Germanic Languages.**

English is a Germanic language which belongs to the Indo-European languages. The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows: English, German, Netherlandish (known also as Dutch and Flemish), Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, Frisian, Faroese, Afrikaans (in the South African Republic) and Yiddish.

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic language (PG). PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related Indo-European languages sometimes between the 15th and 10th century B.C.

PG is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectically coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectical groups and tribal dialects.

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th century B.C., in an account of a sea voyage to the Baltic Sea. Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes – the Suevians – who bordered on the Celts of Gaul in the North-East. In the 1st century A.D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in NATURAL HISTORY (NATURALIS HISTORIA) made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings.

Toward the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons has extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. PG split into three branches: East Germanic (Vindili among them were the Goths, the Vandals and the Burgundians in Pliny’s classification), North Germanic (Hilleviones) and West Germanic (which embraces Ingveones, Istaveones and Herminones in Pliny’s list). Then these branches split into separate Germanic languages: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

Germanic languages

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| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | East Germanic | North Germanic | West Germanic |
| Old Germanic languages (with dates of the earliest records) | Gothic (4th c.) Vandalic Burgundian | Old Norse or Old Scandinavian (2nd-3rd c.)Old Icelandic (12th c.)Old Norwegian (13th c.)Old Danish (13th c.)Old Swedish (13th c.) | Anglian, Frisian, Jutish, Saxon, Franconian, High German (Alemanic, Thuringian, Swavian, Bavarian) Old English (7th c.)Old Saxon (9th c.)Old High German (8th c.)Old Dutch (12th c.) |
| Modern Germanic languages | No living languages | Icelandic NorwegianDanishSwedishFaroese | EnglishGermanNetherlandishAfrikaansYiddishFrisian |

All the Germanic languages of the past and present have common linguistic features. They preserved many IE features in lexis as well as at other levels. The most ancient etymological layer in the Germanic vocabulary is made up of words shared by most IE languages.

**Lecture 2**

**Theme: The main historical events of the ancient period.**

**Celtic tribes and languages on the European continent and British Isles (1000 BC). Celtic languages in modern Britain.**

 The history of the English language begins with the invasion of the British Isles by Germanic tribes in the 5th c. of our era.

Prior to the Germanic invasion the British Isles were inhabited for at least fifty thousand years. Archeological research has uncovered many layers of prehistoric population. The settlement of Britain began in New Stone Age (Neolitic times) with tribal groups coming from the Iberian Peninsula. They came by sea from about 4000 B.C. settling near the coasts of south and west Britain as well as in Ireland. They brought with them the agricultural methods which had been developed around the Mediterranean coasts, the raising of cattle and planting of wheat. As the lowlands of Britain were still covered with forests, these settlers lived on hills such as the chalk uplands of southern England. These tribes did not use metals yet, but they made axes and arrowheads from flint which was mined in the chalk of Norfolk in East Anglia. In this period the large stone circles of Stonehenge on the chalk plateau of Salisbure Plane were begun constructing. This stone monument consists of concentric circles of stones. It was used as observatory for planning the times of farming operations in a society with no calendar.

 Some time later after about 2,000 B.C. similar farming people came from the east and south east, the present day France and Belgium. They brought the use of bronze and a special kind of pottery. These people seem to have mixed peacefully with the former settlers. After most of the British Isles had been populated by these tribes, further settlers came from Rhine valley. They were successive tribes of Celts. The earliest inhabitants whose linguistic affiliation has been established are the Celts. The Celts came to Britain in the three waves and immediately preceded the Teutons. Celtic tribes invaded Britain about 500 B.C. Economically and socially the Celts were a tribal society made up of kins, kinship groups, clans and tribes; they practised a primitive agriculture, and carried on trade with Celtic Gaul. The first millennium B.C. was the period of Celtic migrations and expansion. Traces of their civilization are still found all over Europe. Celtic languages were spoken over extensive parts of Europe before our era; later they were absorbed by other IE languages and left very few vestiges behind. The Gaelic branch has survived as Irish (or Erse) in Ireland, has expanded to Scotland as Scotch-Gaelic of the Highlands and is still spoken by a few hundred people on the Isle of Man (the Manx language). The Britonnic branch is represented by Kymric or Welsh in modern Wales and by Breton or Armorican spoken by over a million people in modern France( in the area called Bretagne or Britanny, where the Celts came as emigrants from Britain in the 5th c.); another Britonic dialect in Great Britain, Cornish, was spoken in Cornwall until the end of the 18th c.

**Lecture 3**

 **The Roman occupation of Britain and its influence on different spheres of life in Britain.**

 In the first century B.C. Gaul was conquered by the Romans. Having occupied Gaul Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, in 55 and 54 B.C. The British Isles had long been known to the Romans as a source of valuable tin ore; Caesar attacked Britain for economic reasons – to obtain tin, pearls and corn, -and also for strategic reasons, since rebels and refugees from Gaul found support among their kinsmen, But these Caesar’s attacks failed. In A.D.43 Britain was again invaded by Roman legions under Emperor Claudius and Britain became part of the Roman Empire. Britain was totally conquered except for Scotland (and other parts beyond Hadrian’s Wall, a long stone wall built about 121 A.D. during the reign of the Emperor Hadrian to protect the province from the inroads of the Celtic Scots and non-Indo-European Picts, the Celtic tribes of Caledonia. The Romans subdued the Britions and colonized the country establishing a great number of military camps which eventually developed into English cities. Under the emperor Domitian, about 80 A.D. they reached the territory of the modern cities like Edinburgh and Glasgow. The Roman occupation of Britain lasted nearly 400 years; the province was carefully guarded: about 40,000 men were stationed there. Two fortified walls ran across the country, a network of paved Roman roads connected the towns and military camps. Scores of towns with a mixed population grew along the Roman roads – inhabited by Roman legionaries, civilians and by the native Celts; among the most important trading centres of Roman Britain was London. The Roman occupation came to an end in the early 5th c. In A.D. 410, the Roman troops were officially withdrawn to Rome by the emperor Constantine. This temporary withdrawal turned out to be final, because the Empire was breaking up due to internal and external causes, - particularly the attacks of barbarian tribes (including the Teutons) when Rome itself was threatened by an incursion of the Goths under king Alaric in this very year 410 the city of Rome was captured by the Goths. The other cause was the growth of independent kingdoms on former Roman territories. The expansion of Franks to Gaul in the 5th c. cut off Britain from the Roman world. The Britons had to rely on their own forces in the coming struggle with Germanic tribes.

 Four centuries of Roman occupation had a profound effect on the country, had meant far- reaching Romanization, or Latinization, of life in Great Britain, including Christianization of its inhabitants and the establishment of Latin, besides Brittonic( a sub-branch of Common Celtic from which Welsh, Cornish and Breton are said to have been derived), as the language of administration and law as well as of the Church and at least the second language of the upper strata among the urban and rural population of Roman Britain. Romanization of distant Britain was more superficial than that of continental provinces (e.g. Gaul and Iberia, where the complete linguistic conquest resulted in the growth of new Romance languages, French and Spanish.

After the departure of the Roman legions the richest and most civilized part of the island, the south-east, was laid waste. Many towns were destroyed. Constant feuds among local landlords as well as the increased assaults of the Celts from the North and also the first Germanic raids from beyond the North Sea proved ruinous to the civilization of Roman Britain.

Since the Romans had left the British Isles some time before the invasion of the West Germanic tribes, there could never be any direct contacts between the new arrivals and the Romans on British soil. It follows that the elements of Roman culture and language which the new invaders learnt in Britain were passed on to them at second hand by the Romanised Celts. It must be recalled, however, that the West Germanic tribes had already come into contact with the Romans, and the Romanised population of continental provinces, prior to their migration to Britain: they had met Romans in combat, had gone to Rome as war prisoners, and slaves, had enlisted in the Roman troops, and had certainly traded with Roman, or Romanised Celtic merchants. Thus, in a number of various ways they had got acquainted with the Roman civilization and the Latin languages.

**Lecture 4**

**Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain and formation of English language. The migration of Angles, Saxons Jutes, Frisians on the British island and formation of Anglo-Saxon states. The Scandinavian conquest of Britain and its role in the history of the English language.**

The 5th century A.D. was the beginning of the period of the migration of considerable numbers of Germanic tribesmen, the beginning of large scale invasion of Britain from the east and south by Germanic war-bands who, in course of time, established a number of Germanic kingdoms in various parts of the conquered country. The invaders from the 5th and the following centuries came from various West Germanic tribes referred to as Angles, Saxons, Frisians and Jutes. About the middle of the century these West Germanic tribes overran Britain and, for the most part colonized the island by the end of the century, though the invasion lasted in the 6th c. A.D. too.

The story of the invasion was told by Bede (673-735), a monastic scholar who wrote the first history of England, HISTORIA ECCLESIASTICA GENTIS ANGLORIUM.

 According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in A.D. 449 under the leadership of two Germanic kings, Hengist and Horsa; they had been invited by a British king, Vortigern, as assistants and allies in a local war. The newcomers soon dispossessed their hosts, and other Germanic bands followed. The invaders came in multitude, in families and clans, to settle in the occupied territories; the conquest of Britain was not a migration of entire continental Germanic tribes but a process which involved numerous, and often probably, mixed bands of many continental tribes. The Britons fought against the conquerors for about a century and a half till about the year 600.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way:

The Angles occupied most of the territory north of the river the Thames up to the Firth of Forth in Scotland. The Saxons, the territory south of the Thames; the Jutes settled in Kent and in the Isle of Wight.

 Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain their language ties with the continent were broken, and its further development went its own way. It is at this time, the 5th century A.D. that the history of the English language begins. Its original territory was England in the strict sense.

 The direct evidence about the language of the early Germanic settlers in Britain is almost non-existent before 700 A.D. However, the great bulk of the writings that have survived from the Old English period do not go back further than the tenth and eleventh centuries. The England of the Old English period was not one kingdom. The country was divided into seven separate kingdoms; Kent, Essex(East Saxons, the capital - London), Sussex(South Saxons), Wessex(West Saxons), Mercia(Angles), Nortumbria (Angles) and East Anglia, but only three, namely Nortumbria, Mercia and Wessex, developed into powers of major importance, which exercised supremacy over all England. The conquest of Britain by Anglo-Saxons was completed by the end of the seventh century. Members of various Germanic tribes were brought into contact with Celtic –speaking Britons. The speech of the population, living in the country, was a hybrid Anglo-British intermixture. The Old English speech community was heterogeneous. The main point to note is that these kingdoms actually spoke different languages based on the grammars, vocabularies and pronunciations of the original Germanic languages of the different tribes. The people who came across the sea to conquer and settle in the country, brought their North-Sea Germanic tribal dialects along with them. These dialects formed a kind of ‘natural basis’ of the ‘insular dialects’. This partly explains the very great dialectal differences that exist in the relatively small geographic area represented by modern day England. In the ninth century Wessex, the strongest among seven kingdoms, won the victory in their struggle for supremacy. Winchester, the capital of Wessex, became the capital of England. In 871 the King of Wessex, King Alfred, became the major leader, the King, who ruled the whole country. West Saxon dialect, as a regional dialect, developed primarily in the South West of England, dominated at that period of the development of the English language. The spread of this standardized form of West Saxon, its knowledge and use in writing throughout England in the tenth and eleventh centuries was greatly facilitated by the political and cultural supremacy of Wessex during most of this period and the unification of England under a single crown. There are a lot of texts, records, written in West Saxon dialect found from that time.

 A new language-contact situation arose when, in the last third of the ninth century, Viking war-bands from Denmark and Norway began the systematic occupation of English territory and the settlement of occupied areas in various parts of the country. This resulted in a Scandinavian-speaking community of some considerable size coming into existence in the period of Viking dominions. It was only in the battle at Edington (Wiltshire) in 878, when King Alfred won the Danes that prevented the Danes or Norsemen from becoming lords over all England and forced them to conclude a peace treaty. The Treaty of Wedmore practically meant the division of England into two parts. The Vikings promised to leave Wessex and to accept Christianity. The northern and eastern territories already belonged to the Danes. This area was called the Danelaw. The number of people of the Scandinavian stock who became permanent occupants of the conquered territory was considerable. Naturally, the massive settlement that the Scandinavians undertook led to the extensive use of the Norse tongue in the area of the Danelaw, and we can see evidence of it even today through its influences on the English language. Scandinavian vocabulary penetrated nearly every area of the English language. Most words of Scandinavian origin in English are concrete everyday words. A few examples are given here: nouns -*bank, birth, booth, egg, gift, husband, law, leg, root, score, sister, skin, sky, skirt, trust, wing, window*; adjectives - *awkward, flat, happy, ill, loose, low, odd, sly, ugly, weak, wrong*; verbs *– to cast, clip, crawl, cut, die, drown, gasp, give, lift, nag, scare, sprint, take, want, the present plural of ‘to be’ are;* pronouns *both, same, they, them* and *their*.

The facts that even the Norse pronoun ‘*they*’, *‘them’* and ‘*their*’ were accepted into English is remarkable; it is very unusual that grammatical items are borrowed. This suggests that there was extensive contact between the Anglo-Saxons and the Vikings and a gradual integration of the two groups. It can be difficult to recognize the Scandinavian words since the languages are so closely related. For example, the Old English word for ‘take’ was *niman*, but in late Old English *tacan* is found. The Old Norse word was *taka,* which shows that it must have been borrowed from the Scandinavians. In the same way, the word ‘law’ was originally oe but a later recording is *lagu*, which comes from the Old Norse. In fact, judging by the large number of Scandinavian words in the legal area, the Vikings had a considerable impact upon the law and order of the Anglo-Saxons. The Scandinavian peoples brought not only their laws and customs to the Danelaw, but their view on law and legal custom was to a great extent acknowledged by all of England.

**Lecture 5**

**The problem of chronological division of the periods in the history of the English language. The main three periods which are distinguished in the history of the English language: Old English, Middle English, Modern English.**

Whenever we have to deal with a long stretch of time in the history of the country, or of a culture, we naturally tend to divide this stretch of time into some periods. This division must not be arbitrary: it must be based on a set of features agreed in advance and serving to distinguish one period from the other. With reference to the history of English language which covers roughly 1300 years, different features might be taken as aground for such division. The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845-1912), the author of a number of works on the English language and on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English language according to the state of unstressed ending.

The first period –Old English – the period of full endings. This means that any vowel may be found in an unstressed ending. For example, the word *singan* means ‘sing’, we have at the end vowel *a*  or the word *sunu* means ‘son’ we have at the end vowel *u.*

The second period - Middle English is the period of leveled endings.

Old English *singan - singen* Middle English, *sunu - sune* Middle English.

The third period is Modern English period, the period of lost endings. This means that ending is lost altogether, we have *sing* and *son.*

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

Now we must define the chronological limits of each period. These are approximately the following: the Old English period begins about 700A.D. (the time to which the earliest writing in English belongs) and lasts till about 1100 A.D.

 The Middle English period lasts in the period between 1100 and till 1500 (including the 15th century transitional period).

The Modern English period begins about 1500 and lasts till our own times. Within Modern English period it is customary to distinguish between Early Modern English (approximately 1500-1660), and Late Modern English (approximately from 1660 till our times). These dates are very close to important events in the social and political life of the country: 1100 follows close upon 1066, the year of Norman Conquest at the Battle of Hastings, when the Duke of Normandy, William the Conqueror, defeated King Harold and became the king of England. The Norman Invasion of England in 1066 brought French into England. This led to the unusual situation, in which the common people spoke one language (English), and the aristocrats spoke another (Norman French).The two languages gradually began to mix into what we now call Middle English and the year 1500 is close to 1485, the year when the war of Roses came to an end, which marked the decay of feudalism and the rise of capitalism in England. The end of the 15th century is also the time when the English nation arises. The Early Modern English Period coincided with the Renaissance, the time of discoveries and learning, the time of introduction of printing. The loss of most inflectional endings in the 15th c. was the main feature of the Modern English.

According to the famous author of the textbook “A History of the English Language” T.A.Rastorguyeva, the history of the English language is subdivided into seven periods differing in \linguistic situation and the nature of linguistic changes.

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| I | Early OE (also: Pre-written OE) | 450 - 700 | } | OLD ENGLISH |
| II | OE (also: Written OE) | 700 - 1066 |
| III | Early ME | 1066 - 1350 | } | MIDDLE ENGLISH |
| IV | ME (also: Classical ME) | 1350 - 1475 |
| V | Early NE | 1476 - 1660 |   | EARLY NEW ENGLISH |
| VI | Normalisation Period (also: Age of Correctness, Neo-Classical period) | 1660 - 1800 | } | NEW ENGLISH (also: MODERN ENGLISH) |
| VII | Late NE, or Mod E (including Present-day English) | 1800 - … |

**Lecture 6**

**The main historical events of Middle Age period.**

**The Norman Conquest of England and its influence on all spheres of life. The social structure of England in XII c. – XV c.**

 The colonization and the intermixture of the Scandinavians with Anglo-Saxons continued from the 9th c. on, during two hundred years, which witnessed diverse political events. After Canute’s death, Denmark’s king, in1042, after the collapse of his empire, the new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042-1066), who had been reared in France, brought over many Norman advisors. He paved the way for Norman infiltration long before the Norman Conquest. The government of the country at that time was in the hands of Anglo-Saxons lords, headed by the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex. In 1066, after Edward’s Confessor death, the Elders of England proclaimed Harold Godwin the king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy, he mustered a big army by promise of land and plunder ( one third of his soldiers were Normans, others, mercenaries from all over Europe) and, with the support of the Pope, landed in Britain.

 The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe (Norman - Northman). In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on the both shores of the Seine estuary. Under a treaty concluded in 912 with the Norman chief Rollo, the French king Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans this stretch of the coast, which since then was called Normandy. During the century and a half between the Normans’ settlement in France and their invasion of England they had undergone a powerful influence of French culture. Mixing with the local population, they adopted the French language and in the middle of the11th.century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French culture and of the French language

 In 1066, on October14, William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, routed the English troops under king of England Harold Godwin, who was killed in the battle of Hastings. The English were defeated. The Norman Conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be a turning point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. In the course of a few years military occupation was completed and the Normans became masters of England. The ruling class of Anglo-Saxon nobility vanished almost completely; some of them perished in battles, others were executed. This nobility was replaced by Norman barons, who spoke French, namely its Norman dialect. William the Conqueror (1066-1087) conducted a relentless policy of subjugation, devastation and almost depopulated Northumbria and Mercia, which tried to rise against the conquerors. Most of the lands of Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of Norman barons. William’s own possession comprised about one third of the country. All posts in the church, in the government, in army were given to persons of French culture. About 200000 French people crossed the Channel to make their home in Britain. Immigration was easy, since the Norman kings of Britain were also dukes of Normandy and about a hundred years later, took possession of the whole western half of France, thus bringing England into still closer contact with the continent. French monks, merchants, soldiers, teachers, craftsmen flooded the south-western towns of England seeking for a new field of activity. This influx lasted for about two centuries. During three hundred years the ruling language of England was French. It was the language of the administration, the court, the government, the church, the army. The English language was reduced to lower social sphere: the main mass of peasantry and townspeople spoke English. The intellectual life, literature, education were in the hands of French speaking people. French was the language of writing. But most of the English people were illiterate, continued to speak English and looked upon French as foreign and hostile. The struggle between two languages for supremacy lasted all through three centuries as English was the living language of the entire people and French was restricted to certain social spheres. As a consequence of the Norman Conquest, political and economic power became concentrated in the hands of a small group of great feudal landlords, feudal aristocracy, which included the king himself, the landlords among the clergy- the archbishops, bishops, and the superiors of the more important abbeys.

 Three hundred years of the domination of French affected English more than any other foreign influence before and after. The Norman Conquest put an end to the dominating position of the West Saxon literary language.

**Lecture 7**

**Formation of English as the Language of the State and Literature. The struggle between English and French languages. The London Dialect.**

 The domination of the French language in England came to an end in the course of the 14th c. The victory of English was predetermined and prepared for by previous events and historical conditions.

Little by little the Normans and English drew together and intermingled. In the 14th c. Anglo-Norman was a dead language; it appeared as corrupt French to those who had access to the French of Paris through books, education or direct contacts. The number of people who knew French had fallen; Anglo-Norman and French literary compositions had lost their audience and had to be translated into English. Towards the end of the 14th c. the English language had taken the place of French as the language of literature and administration. English was once more the dominant speech of all social classes in all regions. It had ousted French since it had always remained the mother tongue and only spoken language of the bulk of the population.

It may be interesting to mention some facts showing how the transition came about. In 1362 Edward III gave his consent to an act of Parliament ordaining that English should be used in the law courts, since “French has become much unknown in the realm”. This reform, however, was not carried out of years to come: French, as well as Latin, continued to be used by lawyers alongside English until the 16th c. Yet many legal documents which have survived from the late 14th and 15th c. are written in English: wills, municipal acts, petitions. In 1363, for the first time in history, Parliament was opened by the king’s chancellor with an address in English.

 In 1399 King Henry IV used English in his official speech when accepting the throne. In 1404 English diplomats refused to conduct negotiations with France in French, claiming that the language was unknown to them. All these events testify to the recognitions of English as the state language.

Slowly and inevitably English regained supremacy in the field of education. As early as 1349 it was ruled that English should be used at schools in teaching Latin, but it was not until 1385 that the practice became general, and even the universities began to conduct their curricula in English. By the 15th c. the ability to speak French had come to be regarded as a special accomplishment, and French, like Latin, was learnt as a foreign language. One might have expected that the triumph of English would lead to a weakening of the French influence upon English. In reality, however, the impact of French became more apparent. As seen from the surviving written texts, French loan-words multiplied at the very time when English became a medium of general communications. The large-scale influx of French loans can be attributed to several causes. It is probable that many French words had been in current use for quite a long time before they were first recorded. We should recall that records in Early ME were scarce and came mostly from the Northern and Western regions, which were least affected by French influence. Later ME texts were produced in London and in the neighbouring areas, with a mixed and largely bilingual population. In numerous translations from French – which became necessary when the French language was going out of use – many loan-words were employed for the sake of greater precision, for want of a suitable native equivalent or due to the translator’s inefficiency. It is also important that in the course of the 14th c. the local dialects were brought into closer contact; they intermixed and influenced one another: therefore the infiltration of French borrowings into all the local and social varieties of English progressed more rapidly.

As with other foreign influences, the impact of French is to be found, first and foremost, in the vocabulary. The layers and the semantic spheres of the French borrowings reflect the relations between the Norman rulers and the English populations, the dominance of the French language in literature and the contacts with French culture. The prevalence of French as the language of writing led to numerous changes in English spelling. The dialects of this Middle English, the 14th and 15th.c.period of time, were divided into the Southern group, including Kentish, and the South-Western dialects, the Midland group with its minute subdivisions and the Northern group. The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the London dialect as the prevalent written form of language.

The history of the London dialect reveals the sources of the literary language in Late ME and also the main source and basis of the Literary Standard, both in its written and spoken forms. The history of London extends back to the Roman period. Even in OE times London was by far the biggest town in Britain. The Early ME records made in London – beginning with the PROCLAMATION of 1258 – show that the dialect of London was fundamentally East Saxon; in terms of the ME division, it belonged to the South-Western dialect group. Later records indicate that the speech of London was becoming more mixed, with East Midland features gradually prevailing over the Southern features. The change of the dialect type and the mixed character of London English can be explained by the history of the London population. In the 12th and 13th c. the inhabitants of London came from the south-western districts. In the middle of the 14th c. London was practically depopulated during the “Black Death” (1348) and later outbreaks of bubonic plague. It has been estimated that about one third of the population of Britain died in the epidemics, the highest proportion of deaths occurring in London. But in 1377 London had already over 35000 inhabitants.

Most of the new arrivals came from the East Midlands: Norfolk, Suffolk, and other populous and wealthy counties of Medieval England, although not bordering immediately on the capital. As a result the speech of Londoners was brought much closer to the East Midland dialect. The official and literary papers produced in London in the late 14th c. had east Midland features. The London dialect became more Anglian than Saxon in character .This mixed dialect of London, which had extended to the two universities in Oxford and Cambridge ousted French from official spheres and from the sphere of writing.

**Lecture № 8-**

**The Evolution of the English vocabulary from Old English till nowadays.**

Old English was almost a purely Germanic language. The full extent of O.E. vocabulary is not known. Modern estimates of the total vocabulary of O.E. range from about thirty thousand words to almost one hundred thousand. It consisted of native words inherited from Proto-Germanic or formed from native roots and affixes. Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main historical layers in the native OE words are: 1) common Indo-European words, 2) common Germanic words, 3) specifically OE words.

1) Words belonging to the common Indo-European layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. They go back to the days of the IE parent language before the extension over the wide territories of Europe and Asia and before the appearance of the Germanic group. They were inherited by Proto-Germanic and passed into Germanic languages of various subgroups including English. Among these names there are names of natural phenomena, plants, animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship. For example: modor –mother, fader-father, sunu-son,broder-brother, dohter-daughter; parts of the human body: fot-foot, heorte-heart, nose, lip, nazl-nail, beard-beard; plants: treow-tree, birch, corn; animals: ealh-elk, sawan-sow, swine, cow, goose; heavenly bodies sun, moon, star; time of the day; day, night; numerous adjectives; neowe-new, long, riht-right, red, glad, sad; the numerals from one to hundred; verbs: tear, sit, stand, eat, lie, bear, be, know; personal and demonstrative pronouns.

2) The common Germanic words include words which are shared by most Germanic languages but do not occur outside the group. Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history, i. e. in PG when the Teutonic tribes lived close together. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with the sea, everyday’s life; ; parts of the human body; head, hand, arm, finger, bone; animals: bear, sheep, fox, calf; plants: oak, fir, grass; names of natural phenomena; rain, frost,; seasons of the year; winter, spring, summer; landscape features; sea, land, sand, earth; human dwellings and furniture; house, room, bench; sea-going vessels: boat, ship; adjectives; green, blue, grey, white, small, thick, high, old, good; verbs: see, hear, speak, tell, say, sing, find, starve, answer, make, give, drink.

3) Specifically OE words - the third etymological layer of native words can be defined as words which do not occur in other Germanic or non - Germanic languages. These words are few, stand alone in the vocabulary system of Indo-European languages: OE brid –NE bird, OE clippian-NE call, boy, girl, lord, lady, man, woman, wife, child, daisy, always, live, meat, sleep and etc.

**Foreign Element in the Old .English vocabulary.**

Borrowed words constituted only a small portion of O.E. vocabulary – all in all about six hundred words- they are of great importance for linguistic study. The borrowings reflect contacts of English with other tongues. O.E. borrowings came from two sources: Celtic and Latin.

 **Borrowings from Celtic**.

The influence of Celtic upon Old English was slight. Abundant borrowings from Celtic are found in place-names. The O.E kingdoms Kent, Deira, Bernicia derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. The names of York, the Downs have been traced to Celtic sources. Various Celtic designations of river, water were understood as proper names – Avon-Evan- in Celtic means water, The Thames, meaning Dark River, The Dover also came from Celtic. Some elements frequently occurring in Celtic place names can help to identify them: comb- deep valley in Batcombe, Duncombe. London means the town of the wild one. Many Celtic names with Celtic elements are hybrids. The Celtic component combined with a Latin or a Germanic component make a compound place-name; e.g.

Celtic plus Latin: Man -chester, Win-chester, Lan-caster, Glow-cester, Wor-cester. Celtic plus Germanic: York - shire, Salis - bury, Devon-shire ,Canter-bury.

Outside of place names Celtic borrowings in OE were very few: no more than a dozen. Examples of common nouns are OE binn (NE bin or crib), OE cradol (NE cradle) , bratt –(NE cloak) , loch dial. lake

**Latin influence on the Old English Vocabulary. Latin borrowings**.

 Latin was not the language of a conquered people. It was the language of a higher civilization; a civilization from which the Anglo-Saxons had much to learn. The contact with that civilization, at first commercial and military, later religious and intellectual, extended over many centuries and was constantly renewed. It began long before the Anglo-Saxons came to Britain and continued throughout the Old English period. Chronologically they can be divided into two layers:

1. the oldest layer words taken over either directly from the Romans before the Anglo-Saxons settled in Britain; 2) The second layer: words concerning religion and the church, taken over after the introduction of Christianity which began in 597.

The first layer рere belongs, on the one hand, names of objects of material culture, and on the other hand, names of products bought from Roman merchants, for example: wine from Latin vinum, butter from Latin butyrum, plum from prunus, cheese from Latin caseus, pipor-pepper from Latin piper. Roman contribution to building can be perceived in words like O.E. cealk-chalk, O.E.coper- NE copper, tile, wall, street. A group of words relating to domestic life is exemplified by O.E. cytel-kettle, disc-dish, cuppe-cup, pyle -pillow. The second layer consists of words which directly or indirectly belong to the sphere of religion and church. They are O.E. biscop -bishop, cleric- churchman-clericus, apostol- apostle- apostolus, devil, monk, candle, minster, angel, priest. The amount and variety of the borrowings show the extent of Christianity’s impact on seventh-century Anglo-Saxon society. The linguistic result of the **Scandinavian’s influence was threefold**. Many general words entered the language; nearly 1,000 words became a part of Standard English. There are a lot of Scandinavian place names in England. The most remarkable influence is the forms of the verb “to be” and personal pronouns.

 **Lecture 9.The Development of the Phonetic structure of English.**

Old English is so far removed from Modern English that one may take it for entirely different language this is largely to the peculiarities of its pronunciation.

The system of vowel phonemes has undergone drastic changes in the course of English linguistic history. The development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels. The vocalic system in OE included 2 subsystems: monophthongs, diphthongs.The major factor in OE was a category of quantity vowels. It means that all OE vowels, including diphthongs, could be both long and short. Though the total number of phonemes has practically remained the same, their distinctive features and the principles of their opposition in the system have altered. The system of OE vowels consisted of 7 short and long monophthongs and 4 diphthongs.

|  |
| --- |
|  OLD ENGLISH VOWEL SYSTEM |
| Monophthongsshort | **a** man | **e**  set | **i** sit | **o** God | **u**  ful | **y** wynn joy | **æ** |  |
| long | **a:** ham Mod E.home | **e:** he | **i:** widMod.E.wide | **o:** good | **u:** hushouse | **y:** ryman | **æ:** |  |
| diphthongs | **ea**  earm arm | **eo** eorl earl | **ie** | **io** |
|  | **ea:** eare ear | **eo:** beor beer | **ie**: | **io:** |

The new system came with Anglo-Saxon tribes. In most cases these new processes represent the result of influence of the next sounds and are called the combinatory changes.

 **Phonetic Changes in OE.**

1. *OE Fracture of vowels (Breaking*)преломление

 OE fracture was the earliest phonetic process which took place in the first half of the VI th century. OE fracture is the diphthongization of short vowels before certain consonant clusters, namely short vowels were diphthongised before the consonant. Short vowels **æ** and **е** were diphthongised**: æ** turns into **ea** before combinations r + consonant, l + consonant, h + consonant, and before h at the end of a word. The vowel [**æ** ] **>**[ **ea**] underwent fracture. For example: **æ >ea** before r+ consonant ærm - earm**,** , before h + consonant æhta –eahta,before l + consonant æld-eald, before h at the end of a word sæh-seah.

The vowel **e** turns into **eo** before combinations r+consonant, l + velar consonant **c** and **h**, before **h** at the end of a word. For example: e > eo before r+ consonant herte *– heorte –heart* ; [e] > [eo] in OE *derc – deorc*, NE *dark*. L+consonant *melcan-meolcan-milk ;* L+h *selh -seolh –seal; feh –feoh.* The phonetic essence of fracture is that the front vowel is partially assimilated to the following hard consonant by forming a glide, which combines with the vowel to form a diphthong. Fracture was most consistently carried out in the West Saxon dialect, in other dialects, such as Mercian, fracture in many cases did not occur. In these dialects the vowel **æ** ] **>**[ **a**],there were the following variants of words *arm, ald, ahta, sah*.

1. *Palatalization*

 OE vowels also changed under the influence of the initial palatal consonants: *c, g* and the cluster *sc*. For example: sc > sh O.E *scort –sceort –short* . k,g’,sk,into sounds closed to affricates dz..ch,sh.After the palatal consonants [k’], [sk’] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element, e.g. OE *sc*æmu > sceamu (NE shame). In the resulting diphthong the initial [i] or [e] must have been unstressed but later the stress shifted to the first element, which turned into the nucleus of the diphthong, to conform to the structure of OE diphthongs. This process is known as “diphthongisation after palatal consonants”**.** It is observed in the Wessex dialect. æ – ea: scæl >sceal>shall ; a > ea scacan>sceacan. o >eo: scort> ceort; e > ie **:** зefan**>з**iefan

1. *Contraction* – (стяжение.

The vowels contracted into 1 when they were separated by h and h disappeared. For example:eh+a=eo (sehan – seon); ih+a=eo (tihan- teon); ah+a=ea (slahan – slean). oh+a=o: (fohan – fon)

*4 . Mutation or i-Umlaut.*

By mutation or i-Umlaut, we mean a change of vowel, sound alteration, caused by partial assimilation to the following vowel. It is thought to have taken place during the 7th century. I-mutation is the most important type of mutation. Some English word pairs had the effects of a phonological change which took place over 1,200 years ago. They are the following words: goose-geese; tooth-teeth; man - men; mouse-mice; hale- health; doom-deem; full-fill; whole-heal; fall-fell; blood -bleed; foul-filth; long-length; food-feed; strong – strength; broad-breadth; old -elder. Not all forms affected by i-mutation have survived into modern English. In Old English, the plural of bookwas *bec*, but this has not come into Modern English as *beek*, we have in Modern English *books*.

Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable. There were 2 types of mutation: i-Umlaut mutation (palatal mutation) and Back mutation (guttural)-гортанный.

1) i-Umlaut **-** under its influence vowel moves ahead or narrowed.

æ > e:sætjan – settan**,** tælian – tellan; o>e ofstian **–** efstan**,** ō >ēdōmian – dēman, u > yfullian - fyllan **, u > y** cuþ- cŷþþan. Changes in diphthongs:ea > ie, ea > ie :, eo > ie, eo: > ie:.

2) Back mutation – U-Umlaut it is caused by back vowels (a, o, u).In Wessex dialect it takes place only before consonants r, l, p, f, m. a>ea saru – searu, i>io hira – hioru, e>eo herot – heorot. The words which begin with wi – mutation occurred without dependence from the subsequent consonant: widu – wiodu. U-umlaut was optional (facultative) and i-umlaut was the main

**Development of monophthongs**

The PG short [a] and the long [a:], which had arisen in West and North Germanic, underwent similar alterations in Early OE: they were fronted, and in the process of fronting, they split into several sounds. The principal regular direction of the change – [a] > [æ] and [a:] > [æ:] – is often referred to as the fronting or palatalisation of [a, a:]. The other directions can be interpreted as positional deviations or restrictions to this trend: short [a] could change to [o] or [ā] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal; the preservation of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable.

### **Development of diphthongs**

The PG diphthongs – [ei, ai, iu, eu, au] – underwent regular independent changes in Early OE; they took place in all phonetic conditions irrespective of environment. The diphthongs with the *i*-glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in *–u* were reflected as long diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [ea:]. Towards the end of OE quantitative vowel changes occurred. Early Middle English is mainly characterized by positional quantitative changes of monophthongs; at the same time profound independent changes affected the system of diphthongs: OE diphthongs were monophthongised and lost, and new types of diphthongs developed from vowels and consonants.

**Quantitative Vowel Changes in Late Old English and Early Middle English**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Phonetic conditions | Change illustrated | Old English  | Middle English |  Modern English |
| Before sonorant plus plosive(ld, nd, mb) | Vowels become long | cildfindanclimbancoldfeldfundongold | child[ t i: ld] finden[fi:nd n]climbencoldfield[fe:ld]founden [fu:nden]gold[go:ld] | childfindclimbcoldfieldfound(Past of f goldind) |
| Before other consonant sequences  | Vowels become short  | feddemette | fedde[fedde]mette[mette] | Fedmet |
| In open syllables | Vowels become long and more open | metestelanmaciantalunosu | mete[me:t ]stelen maken[ma:ken]tale[ta:le]nose[no:ze] | meatstealmaketalenose |

The OE close labialized vowels [y] and [y:] disappeared in Early Middle English.

**Development of Old English Diphthongs in Early Middle English**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Change illustrated |  | Examples | Examples | Examples |
| Old English  | Middle English (ME) | OE | ME | Modern English |
| ea: | e: | East | east[e:st ] | east |
| eo: | e:  | Deop | deep[de:p] | deep |
| ea | a | Earm | arm [arm]  | arm |
| eo | e | Heorte | herte[ hert ] | heart |
| ie | i | Nieht | night[nix;t] | night |
| ie: | i: | hieran  | heren[he:r n] | hear |

**Middle English Vowels (the Age of Chaucer, Late 14 c.)**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Monophthongs | Diphthongs |
| Short | i u a o e | [ai.] day, [oi] joye- joy |
| Examples | this but can oft men | [ui] joinen – Mod.E join |
| Pin, bit, kin | [iu] newe |
| Long | i: e: u: a: o: e: | [eu] fewe - Mod.E few |
| Examples | Ryden, sweete, houre, name, good | [au].lawe, [ou] growe |

The study of Middle English phonology is made increasingly difficult by the intricate dialect situation. There were 6 dialects in Middle English: Northern, West Midland, East Midland, East Anglia, Southern and Kentish. Long vowels were the most changeable and historically unstable group of English sounds. At all times they displayed a strong tendency to become narrower and to diphthongize, whereas short vowels displayed a reverse trend towards greater openness. Late Middle English period is characterized by qualitative changes of all vowels. These changes are known as the “Great Vowel Shift” which involved the change of all Middle English long monophthongs, and some of the diphthongs. The Great Vowel Shift is the name given to a series of changes of long vowels between the 14th and the 18th centuries. During this period all the long vowels became closer or were diphthongized.

**The Great Vowel Shift**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Changes Illustrated  | Examples |  Examples |
| Middle English - Modern | Middle English  | Modern English |
| i: aie: i: a: eio: u:u: auau : | time[ti:m]kepenmakenmoonmouscause | time [taim]keepmakemoonmousecause |

The Great Vowel Shift did not add any new sounds to the vowel system of the English language. The effect of the Great Vowel Shift may be seen very clearly in the English names of many of the letters of the alphabet. A, B, C and D are pronounced /eɪ, bi, si, di in today's English, but in contemporary French they are /a, be, se, de/. The French names (which the English names are derived from) preserve the English vowels from before the Great Vowel Shift. By contrast, the names of F, L, M, N and S (/ɛf, ɛl, ɛm, ɛn, ɛs/) remain the same in both languages, because "short" vowels were unaffected by the Shift.

Shortening of long vowels at various stages produced further complications. ea is again a good example, shortening commonly before coronal consonants such as d and th, thus: dead, head, threat, wealth etc. (This is known as the bred–bread merger.) oo was shortened from [uː] to [ʊ] in many cases before k, d and less commonly t, thus book, foot, good etc. Some cases occurred before the change of [ʊ] to [ʌ]: blood, flood. Similar, yet older shortening occurred for some instances of ou: country, could. Some theories attach the cause of the shift to the mass migration to the south-east part of England after the Black Death, where the difference in accents led to certain groups modifying their speech to allow for a standard pronunciation of vowel sounds. The different dialects and the rise of a standardised middle class in London led to changes in pronunciation, which continued to spread out from the city. The sudden social mobility after the Black Death may have caused the shift, with people from lower levels in society moving to higher levels. Another explanation highlights the language of the ruling class: the medieval aristocracy had spoken French, but, by the early fifteenth century, they were using English. Because English spelling was becoming standardised in the 15th and 16th centuries, the Great Vowel Shift is responsible for many of the peculiarities of English spelling.

**The OE consonant system consisted of the following sounds**:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Place of articulationManner of articulation | Labial, labiodental | Forelingual(dental) | Mediolingual(palatal) | Back lingual(velar) |
| Noise consonants | plosive | p p:b b: | t t:d d: | k’ k’: g’: | k k:g g: |
| fricative | f f:v  |  s s: z | x’ x’: | x x: (h) |
| Sonorants | m m:w | n n:r l | j |  ( ) |

The OE consonantswere subdivided into Labial [p, b ,m, f, v], Dental [t, d. n, s, z,r, l ], Velar[c, h, ] Sonorants [m, n, l], Plosives [p, b, t, d, k, g]

Some consonants letters denoted different sounds in different positions. Letter C in OE for instance denoted two different phonemes, according to its different environment. In some words it denoted the phoneme [k], which remained [k] in Middle English and Modern English as well. For example,OE caru –cearu - care; cyning –king. In other cases it denoted the phoneme [c] or even [ ] which appears as [ ] denoted by the digraph ch in Modern English.

The letter f denoted both the voiceless [f] and the voiced [v]. Both consonants were dependent on the environment: voiced [v] could only appear on voiced environment. For example: afre[ever], fif [fife] in Modern English five. The same holds true concerning the pairs[s]and [z].

**Lecture 10. The Evolution of the English Grammar from Old English till nowadays. The parts of Speech. The Noun**

Old English was a synthetic or inflected type of language; it showed the relations between words mainly with the help of simple grammatical forms. The distinguished parts of speech in OE were the following: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. Inflected parts of speech possessed certain grammatical categories. Grammatical categories were subdivided into nominal categories, found in nominal parts of parts of speech and verbal categories found chiefly in the finite verb.

There were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison and the category of definiteness/ indefiniteness. Each part of speech had its own peculiarities.

The OE noun had two grammatical categories: number and case. Nouns distinguished three genders, but gender was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting for the division of nouns into morphological classes. The category of number consisted of two members: singular and plural There were five major cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and instrumental. The nominative case indicated the subject of the sentence. It was also used for direct address or could serve as a predicative. The accusative indicated the direct object of the sentence. It was never distinguished in the plural, or in a neuter noun. The genitive case indicated possession. The meanings of the Genitive case were very complex and can only be grouped under the headings “Subjective” and “Objective” Genitive. Subjective Genitive is associated with the possessive meaning and the meaning of origin. Objective Genitive is associated with what is termed “partitive meaning” .The dative case indicated the indirect object of the sentence. It was the chief case used with prepositions, e.g. on morзenne ‘in the morning’. The instrumental case indicated an instrument used to achieve something. During the Old English period, the instrumental was falling out of use, having largely merged with the dative. Only pronouns and strong adjectives retained separate forms for the instrumental.

**Morphological classification of nouns. Declensions.** Historically, the OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables. Stem-suffixes could consist of vowels (vocalic stems, e.g. a-stems, i- stems), of consonants (consonantal stems, e.g. n-stems), of sound sequences, e.g. -ja-stems, -nd-stems. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a “zero-suffix”; they are usually termed “root-stems” and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, e.g. OE man, bōc. OE nouns distinguished three genders: Masc., Fem. and Neut. Sometimes a derivational suffix referred a noun to a certain gender and placed it into a certain semantic group, e.g. abstract nouns built with the help of the suffix –þu were Fem. – OE lenзþu, hyhpu(NE length, height),suffix - ere were Masc. – OE fiscere, bocere(NE fisher, “learned man”). The following nouns denoting human beings show, however, that grammatical gender did not necessarily correspond to sex: alongside Masculine and Feminine nouns denoting males and females there nouns with “unjustified” gender, for example: OE wif,neutral gender(NE wife)OE maзden Neutral gender(NE maiden, maid) OE wifman, wimman Masculine (NE woman, originally a compound word consisting of two roots whose second component OE man was Mascular + with. OE widuwa, Masculine (‘widower’) –OE widowe, Feminine (NE widow). Masculine and neuter words generally share their endings. Feminine words have their own subset of endings. The plural does not distinguish between genders. The division into genders was in a certain way connected with the division into stems, though there was no direct correspondence between them: some stems were represented by nouns of one particular gender, e.g. ō-stems were always Fem., and others embraced nouns of two or three genders. Other reasons accounting for the division into declensions were structural and phonetic: monosyllabic nouns had certain peculiarities as compared to polysyllabic; monosyllables with a long root-syllable differed in some forms from nouns with a short syllable. The majority of OE nouns belonged to the a-stems, ō-stems and n-stems.

Old English nouns are divided as either strong or weak. Weak nouns have their own endings. In general, weak nouns are easier than strong nouns, since they had begun to lose their declensional system. Strong (a,o,i,u –stem). A-stem and its variation ja&wa – m,n. O-stem – jo&wo –f noun. I-stem – m,f,n. U-stem – m,f. j,w –appeare before inflexion. Weak decl – n –m,f,n. es –n. room-stem (Root-stem formed some cases not by an inflexional ending, but by the chance of the root vowel due to mutation)-no form suffixes. Sound of donation inner flexion. Mutation was used to define number and gender of noun. Primary compound (both parts in Nom. case) adj+noun. Secondary comp.noun (the 2-nd part in Gen Case.)=noun+noun, verb+noun.

Middle English period. English Noun had no gender at that period of time. 2 groups exist in ME in plural form. The one is the former a-declension and n-declension, which of former feminine noun (weak declension). The root-declension had lost some words, but it continued to exist. The noun in Middle English period had two cases: the Common and Possessive. The weak declension had no case forms at all. Noun was rejected into reduction of their flexion. All vowels endings –e-. OE a-stem, became the productive type. Grammatical gender was lost and difference between Weak and Strong declension disappeared. (-n)/: -s- became for Pl all nouns (for G). Some nouns retain Pl with o-inflexions. For root-stem nouns their mutated forms were used only in Pl. Weak decl. –n- express the Pl.

The rise of the articles in EnglishCauses:1.loss of strong & weak declensions of adjectives - articles were employed to show definiteness & indefiniteness.2.word order: It is a book. The book is interesting.Definite articles -> mascul, singular "se"Indefinite article -> an (= one)(numeral). It had 5 case declension -> in**.** Middle English cases were lost, 13th century an > oon/one -> a/an

**Lecture 11.The evolution of the adjective from Old English till nowadays**

There were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of definiteness/indefiniteness. The noun had only two grammatical categories proper: number and case. The adjective had the maximum number of categories – five. The number of members in the same grammatical categories in different parts of speech did not necessarily coincide: thus the noun had four cases, Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative, whereas the adjective had five (the same four cases plus the Instrumental case).

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence – if the adjective was a predicative. Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instrumental. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to noun in the Dative case expressing an instrumental meaning – e.g.: *lytle* werede ‘with (the help of) a small troop’.

Most adjectives in OE could be declined in two ways: according to the weak and to the strong declension. The formal differences between the declensions, as well as their origin, were similar to those of the noun declensions. The strong and weak declensions arose due to the use of several stem-forming suffixes in PG: vocalic *a-, ō-, u-* and *i-* and consonantal *n-*. Accordingly, there developed sets of endings of the strong declension mainly coinciding with the endings of *a-*stems of nouns for adjectives in the Masc. and Neut. and of *ō-*stems – in the Fem.

The difference between the strong and the weak declension of adjective was not only formal but also semantic. Unlike a noun, an adjective did not belong to a certain type of declension. Most adjectives could be declined on both ways. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners, e.g.: pā menn sindon ōde ‘the men are good’ mid hnescre beddin e ‘with soft bedding’

The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case pronouns.There existed a certain semantic contrast between the strong and weak forms: the strong forms were associated with the meaning of indefiniteness (roughly corresponding to the meaning of the modern indefinite article), the weak forms – with the meaning of “definiteness” (corresponding to the meaning of the definite article). Therefore the weak forms were regularly used together with demonstrative pronouns.

Like adjective in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes *–ra* and *–est/ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel. The root-vowel interchanges in *long, eald*, go back to different sources. The variation [а~æ] is a purely phonetic phenomenon; retraction of [æ] before the back vowel in the suffix *–ost* is not peculiar to the adjective. The interchange in *long* and *eald* is of an entirely different nature: the narrowed or fronted root-vowel is regularly employed as a marker of the comparative and the superlative degrees, together with the suffixes. The mutation of the root-vowel was caused by *i-*umlaut in Early OE. At that stage the suffixes were either *–ira, -ist* or *–ora, -ost*. In the forms with *–i-* the root vowel was fronted and/or made narrower; later *–i-* was lost or weakened to *–e-* - but the mutated root-vowel survived as an additional formal marker of the comparative and superlative degrees.Some adjectives had parallel sets of forms: with and without a vowel interchange. These sets could arise if the adjective had originally employed both kinds of suffixes; or else the non-mutated vowel was restored on the analogy of the positive degree and other adjectives without sound interchanges.

The adjective *ōd* had suppletive forms. Suppletion was a very old way of building the degrees of comparison (it can be illustrated by the forms of adjectives in other IE languages: G gut, besser, bester R хороший, лучше.

In the course of the Middle English period the adjective underwent greater simplifying changes than any other part of speech. It lost all its grammatical categories with the exception of the degrees of comparison. By the end of the OE period the agreement of the adjective with the noun had become looser and in the course of Early Middle English it was practically lost. The decay of the grammatical categories of the adjective proceeded in the following order. The first category to disappear was gender, which ceased to be distinguished by the adjective in the 11th c. In ME the degrees of comparison could be built in the same way, only the suffixes had been weakened to –er, -est and sound interchange of the root vowel was less common than before. Since most adjectives with sound alternation had parallel forms without it, the forms with an interchange soon fell into disuse. For example, ME long, lenger, longest and long, longer, longest. The alternation of root-vowels in Early Modern English survived in the adjective old, elder, eldest, where the difference in meaning from older, oldest made the formal distinction essential. Other traces of the old alternation are found in the pairs farther and further and also in the modern words nigh, near and next, which go back to the old degrees of comparison of the OE adjective neah ‘near’, but have split into separate words. The most important innovation in the adjective system in the Middle English period was the growth of analytical forms of the degree of comparison. The new system of comparisons emerged in Middle English, but the ground for it had already been prepared by the use of the OE adverbs ma, bet, betst, swipor – ‘more’, ‘better’, ‘to a greater degree’ with adjectives and participles. It is noteworthy that in ME , when the phrases with ME more and most became more and more common, they were used with all kinds of adjective, regardless of the number of syllables and were even preferred with mono- and disyllabic words. Double comparatives were banned as illogical and incorrect in the 18th c. It appears that n the course of history the adjective has lost all the dependent grammatical categories but has preserved the only specifically adjectival category – the comparison. The adjective is the only nominal part of speech which makes use of the new, analytical, way of form-building

The adjective in OE could change for number, gender and case. Those were dependent grammatical categories or forms of agreement of the adjective with the noun it modified or with the subject of the sentence – if the adjective was a predicative. Adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instr. It was used when the adjective served as an attribute to a noun in the Dat. case expressing an instrumental meaning.

Adjectives can be declined either strong/weak.

Historically adjective is a younger class of words as compared to noun & it has borrowed many inflections from nouns & pronouns. Declensions (unlike nouns adjectives could be declined both ways):**1. strong** A-stem, O-stem, when adjective was used attributively without any *determined (articles,* demonstrative *& possessive pronouns)* when used predicatively 2. **weak** N-stem, when an adjective was preceded by demonstrative pronoun or genitive case. Some adjectives were declined always strong.

The endings of adjectives showed agreement between noun and adjective. There were a lot of anonymous forms *->* inflections were lost & adjective became an unchangeable part of speech. Gender- **first** category to disappear (11th century) Cases: 1.instrumental case fell together with dative (end of OE*)* *2.* **all** other cases disappeared by the end of 13th century

The difference between the strong and weak declension of adjectives was not only formal but also semantic. The choice of the declension was determined by a number of factors: the syntactical function of the adjective, the degree of comparison and the presence of noun determiners. The adjective had a strong form when used predicatively and when used attributively without any determiners. The weak form was employed when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the Gen. case of personal pronouns.

**Degrees of comparison** Most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. The regular means used to form the comparative and the superlative from the positive were the suffixes –ra and –est/-ost. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root-vowel.

L**ecture 12. The evolution of the pronoun**

Pronouns in OE were subdivided into following categories: personal (Modern English I, you), demonstrative (this, that), interrogative (who, which), possessive (my, his), indefinite (one, some), negative (no+body).

OE pronoun fell under the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative and indefinite. As for the other groups - relative, reflexive – they were not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes. The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to those of nouns (in “noun-pronouns”) or corresponded to those of adjectives (in “adjective pronouns”).

**Personal pronouns**

Modern English system of personal pronouns has preserved most of the inflectional complexity of Old English and Middle English. OE personal pronouns had three persons, three numbers in the 1st and 2nd person (two numbers- in the 3rd) and three genders in the 3rd person.

**Declension of Personal pronouns**

|  |
| --- |
| First person |
| Case | Singular | Dual | Plural |
| *Nom.* | ic | wit | we |
| *Gen.* | min | uncer | ūre, ūser |
| *Dat.* | me | unc | us |
| *Acc.* | mec, me | uncit | usic, us |
| Second person |
| *Nom.* | pu |  it  |  e |
| *Gen.* | pin | incer | eower |
| *Dat.* | pe | inc | eow |
| *Acc.* | pec, pe | incit, inc | eowic, eow |
| Third person |
| Singular | Plural |
|  | M | F | N | All genders |
| *Nom.* | he | heo, hio | hit | hie, hi, hy, heo |
| *Gen.* | his | hire, hiere | his | hira, heora, hiera, hyra |
| *Dat.* | him | hire, hiere | him | him, heom |
| *Acc.* | hine | hie, hi, hy | hit | hie, hi, hy, heo |

**Demonstrative Pronouns**

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE *that*,which distinguished three genders in the sg and had one form for all the genders in the pl. (see next table) and the prototype of *this* with the same subdivisions: *pes* Masc., *peos* Fem., *pis* Neut. and *pas* pl. They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system: Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., and Instr. (the latter having a special form only in the Masc. and Neut. sg).

**Declension of se, seo, pæt**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Case | Singular | Plural |
|  | M | N | F | All genders |
| Nom. | se, se | pæt | seo | pa |
| Gen. | pæs | pæs | pære | para, pæra |
| Dat. | pæm, pam | pæm, pam | pære | pam, pæm |
| Acc. | pone | pæt | pa | pa |
| Instr. | py, pon | py, pon | pære | pæm, pam |

**Interrogative pronouns**

**Interrogative pronouns** - *hwa*, Masc. and Fem., and hwat, Neut., - had a four case paradigm ( NE who, what). The instrumental case of hwat was used as a separate interrogative word hwy ( NE why ). Some interrogative pronouns were used as adjective pronouns, e.g. *hwelc, hw*æ*per.*

**Indefinite pronouns** were a numerous class embracing several simple pronouns and a large number of compounds: *an* and its derivative æ*niz* (NE *one, any*); *nan*, made up of *an* and the negative particle *ne* ( NE *none*); *nanpinz*, made up of preceding and the noun *ping* (NE nothing); *nawiht/nowiht/noht* (‘nothing’ , NE *not*), *hw*æ*t – hwuzu* ‘something’ and many others.

Pronouns of different classes – personal and demonstrative – could be used in a relative function, as connectives. The demonstrative *se* in its various from and the personal pronoun *he*, either alone or together with a special relative particle *pe* could join attributive clauses, e.g.:

*Se pe me zeh*æ*lde se cwæð to me* ‘he who healed me, he said to me’.

**The development of grammatical categories in pronouns in Middle English period**

 In Early Middle English period the OE Feminine pronoun of the third person singular *heo* was replaced by *she.* The new Feminine pronoun, Late Middle English *she* was first recorded in the North Eastern regions and gradually extended to other areas. In the course of Middle English period another important lexical replacement took place: the OE pronoun of the 3rd person plural *hie* was replaced by the Scandinavian loan – word *they*. Like the pronoun *she*, it came from the North-eastern areas and was adopted by the mixed London dialect. *They* ousted the Nom. Case, OE *hie*, while *them* and *their* (coming from the same Scand. loan) replaced the oblique case forms: OE *hem* and *heora.*

One more replacement was made in the set of personal pronouns at a later date – in the 17th or 18th c. Beginning with the 15th c. the plural forms of the 2nd person –*ye, you, your* – were applied more and more generally to individuals. The forms *thou, thee, thine* became obsolete, *thou* can be found only in poetry, in religious discourse.

The OE genitive case of pronouns turned into a new class of pronouns- possessive. Some possessive pronouns had two variant forms in ME: myne/my, our/ours.

The OE oblique case – forms of personal pronouns and the ME possessive pronouns gave rise to one more type of pronouns- reflexive. Reflexive pronouns developed from combination of some forms of personal pronouns with the adjective *self.* Their origins are obvious from their modern structures: e.g. *myself,* *ourselves* consist of the Genitive case or possessive pronoun and the component *self; himself, themselves* contain the Objective case of personal pronouns as their first components.

Demonstrative pronouns were adjective – pronouns; like other adjectives, in OE they agreed with the noun in case, number and gender and had a well-developed morphological paradigm. In Early Middle English the OE demonstrative pronouns *se, seo, pat* and *pes, peos, pis* – lost most of their inflected forms; out of seventeen forms only two left. The ME descendants of these pronouns are *that* and *this*, the former Nom. and Acc. Cases, Neutral Singular, which served now as the sg of all cases and genders. Each pronoun has respective plural form, which made up a balanced paradigm of forms opposed through number.

Sg this Pl thise /these (NE this --- these)

 that tho/those (NE that --- those)

**Other Classes of Pronouns**

**(Interrogative, Indefinite, Relative)**

The other classes of OE pronouns – **interrogative and indefinite** – were subjected to the same simplifying changes as all nominal parts of speech. The paradigm of the OE interrogative pronoun *hwu* was reduced to two forms – *who*, Nom. case, and *whom*, the Obj. case. The Genitive case of OE *hwa, hwat – hwas*- developed into a separate interrogative pronoun, similarly with the Genitive Case of personal pronouns --- Me and NE *whose*. OE *hwi*, the former Instrumental Case of the same pronouns continued to be used as a separate pronoun *why.*

OE *hwelc*, ME *which* widened its application. It began to be used with relation not only to persons but also to things. OE hw per, ME whether was used as an interrogative pronoun in the meaning which of the two, but later was mainly used as a conjunction.

Most **Indefinite pronouns** of the OE period simplified their morphological structure and some pronouns fell out of use. The indefinite pronoun ān lost its inflection and in the 13th c. its reduced forms *an/a* were firmly established in all regions. In Modern English this form of the indefinite pronoun is used as the indefinite article. OE *nan-pin* became *nothing*. New types of compound indefinite pronouns came into use – with the component – thing, - body, -one, etc.

**Lecture 13. The evolution of the English verb**

**The OE verb**

The OE verb was characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure. Verbs fell into numerous morphological classes. All the forms of the verb were synthetic. Analytical forms appeared later. The non-finite firms had little in common with the finite forms.

**Grammatical categories of the Finite Verb in OE**

The verb-predicate agreed with the subject of the sentence in two grammatical categories: number and person. Its specifically verbal categories were mood and tense. Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: singular and plural. The category of Person was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd person. The category of Mood was constituted by the Indicative, Imperative and Subjunctive. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorical forms: Present and Past. The use of Subj. forms conveyed a very general meaning of unreality or supposition. In addition to its use in conditional sentences and other volitional, conjectural and hypothetical contexts Subjunctive Mood was common in other types of construction: in clauses of time, clauses of result and in clauses presenting reported speech. The meanings of the tense forms were also very general, as compared with later ages and with present-day English. The forms of the Present tense were used to indicate present and future actions. The Past tense was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past. There were no categories of Aspect and Voice. In OE the category of Aspect was expressed by the regular contrast of verbs with and without the prefix зe-; verbs with the prefix had a perfective meaning while the same verbs without the prefix indicated a non-completed action, e.g. feohtan – зefeohtan ‘fight’ – ‘gain by fighting’. it has been shown that the prefix зe- in OE can hardly be regarded as a marker of aspect, it could change the aspective meaning of the verb by making it perfective, but it could also change its lexical meaning, e.g. beran – зeberan ‘carry’ – ‘bear a child’. It follows that the prefix зe- should rather be regarded as an element of word-building, a derivational prefix of general meaning. It is important to note that in OE texts there were also other means of expressing aspective meanings: the Past or Present Participle. The phrases with Participle I were used to describe a prolonged state or action, the phrases with Participle II indicated a state resulting from a previous, completed action. The passive meaning was frequently indicated with the help of Participle II of transitive verbs used as predicatives with the verbs beōn(NE ‘be’) and weorðan ‘become’.

**Grammatical categories of the Verbals**

In OE there were two non-finite forms of the verb: the Infinitive and the Participle. The Infinitive had no verbal grammatical categories. Being a verbal noun by origin, it had a sort of reduced case-system: two forms which roughly corresponded to the Nom. and the Dat. cases of nouns – beran – uninflected Infinitive (“Nom.” case) tō berenne or tō beranne – inflected Infinitive (“Dat.” case) Like the Dat. case of nouns the inflected Infinitive with the preposition tō could be used to indicate the direction or purpose of an action. The uninflected Infinitive was used in verb phrases with modal verbs or other verbs of incomplete predication.

The Participle was a kind of verbal adjective which was characterized not only by nominal but also by certain verbal features. Participle I (Present Participle) was opposed to Participle II (Past Participle) through voice and tense distinctions: it was active and expressed present or simultaneous processes and qualities, while Participle II expressed states and qualities resulting from past action and was contrasted to Participle I as passive to active, if the verb was transitive. Participle II of intransitive verbs had an active meaning; it indicated a past action and was opposed to Participle I only through tense. Participles were employed predicatively and attributively like adjectives and shared their grammatical categories: they were declined as weak and strong and agreed with nouns in number, gender and case.

Gerund appears in the 17th century. OE verbal noun with suffix —ung, -ing and Participle1 overlapped; verbal nounlater turned into Gerund and could 1) take direct object (for example: buying the book) - verbal feature; 2) be preceded by article or possessive pronoun – nominal feature. The gerund can be traced to three sources: the OE verbal noun in *-uns* and *-ins,* the Present Participle and the Infinitive. In OE the verbal noun derived from transitive verbs took an object in the Genitive case, which corresponded to the direct object of the finite verb. The syntactic functions of the verbal noun, the infinitive and the participle partly overlapped.

This verbal feature — a direct object as well as the frequent absence of article before the -ing-form functioning, as a noun — transformed the verbal noun into a Gerund in the modern understanding of the term. The nominal features, retained from the verbal noun, were its syntactic functions and the ability to be modified by a possessive pronoun or a noun in the Genitive case.

**OE Strong verbs**

The majority of OE verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. Besides these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as “minor” groups. The main difference between the strong and weak verbs lay in the means of forming the principal parts, or “stems” of the verb. The strong verbs formed their stems by means of ablaut and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs ablaut was accompanied by consonant interchanges. The strong verbs had seven classes and four stems, as they distinguished two stems in the Past Tense – one for the 1st and 3rd person, singular Indicative Mood, the other – for the other Past tense forms, Indicative and Subj. The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help of the dental suffix -d- or -t-; normally they did not interchange their root vowel, but in some verbs suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange. Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way (“preterite-present” verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous.

**Strong Verbs** The strong verbs in OE are usually divided into seven classes. Classes from 1 to 6 use vowel gradation which goes back to the IE ablaut-series modified in different phonetic conditions in accordance with PG and Early OE sound changes. Class 7 includes reduplicating verbs, which originally built their past forms by means of repeating the root-morpheme; this doubled root gave rise to a specific kind of root-vowel interchange, e.g.. *maitan –maimait –maimatum* –*maitans*(‘chop’).

Strong verbs indicated tense by a change in the quality of a vowel. OE had about 300 strong verbs. The 1 class – i class; the 2 class--u-class. The 3, 4 classes - the gradation was caused by consonant (breaking), 6- qualitative-quantitative ablaut; 7 class –reduplication of the root-morpheme. The principal forms of all strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: -an for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past singular stem, -on in the form of Past plural, -en for Participle II, e.g. writan –wrat – writon - writen.

**OE Weak verbs**

The number of weak verbs in OE by far exceeded that of strong verbs. Weak verbs form their Past and Participle2 by addition of a dental suffix (d/t) –love, loved. Weak verbs form the majority of Old English verbs. There are three major classes of weak verbs in Old English. The first class displays i-mutation in the root. The verbs of Class I usually were i-stems, originally contained the element [-i/-j] between the root and the endings. The verbs of Class II were built with the help of the stem-suffix -ō, or -ōj and are known as ō-stems. Class III was made up of a few survivals of the PG third and fourth classes of weak verbs, mostly -ǽj-stems.

Each weak verb is characterized by 3 basic forms: Infinitive, Past and a Participle II.

The 1st class of weak verbs is formed either from noun, or from other verbs.In regular verbs the root vowel in all forms subjected to mutation under the influence **-i** in suffix. The verbs with long root vowels -i disappears irrespective of which consonant stood before it, e.g. dēman-dēmde-dēmed – (Mod.English deem).

 There are 11 irregular verbs in the 1st class. Their irregularity consist that they have suffix only in the 1-st form - the infinitive and present tense, and it means, that umlaut was only in 1-st form, that is the 1st form distinguished from the second and the third by quality of the root vowel. (tellan, tealde, teald-to tell).

The 2nd class –o-class. This o –is preserved before the dental suffix in Past and Participle2. The 2nd class has - oja -in the infinitive and –o- in Past. The vowel is not mutated(locian - locoed – locod - Mod.English –look).

The 3rd class contained few verbs: habban-hæfde-hæfd (have), libban-lifde-lifd (live), secзan-sæзde/sæde-sæзd/ (say). The dental suffix is joined immediately to the root. In the present there was –j-, but the 2nd and 3rd person singular show no trace of –j-.

**OE minor groups of verbs**

Among the verbs of the minor groups there were several anomalous verbs with irregular forms. Two OE verbs were suppletive *зan*, whose Past tense was built *зan-eode - зe зan(* Modern English *go).* The otherOE suppletive verb (*beon*, *wesan* –root *be, es,wes*, Mod.English *be*) is a verb which creates different grammatical categories by means of root vowel(*be,es,wes*). The most important group of these verbs was the so-called **“preterite-presents”.** Originally the Present tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms. Later these forms had a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense. Most of these verbs had new Past Tense forms built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also had the forms of the verbals: Participles and Infinitives. In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in Mod E: OE *āз; cunnan; cann; dear(r), sculan, sceal; maзan, mæз; mōt (NE owe; ought; can; dare; shall; may; must*). Most preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action denoted by another verb, an Infinitive which followed the preterite-present. In other words they were used like modal verbs, and eventually developed into modern modal verbs.

Among the verbs of the minor grours there were several anomalous verbs with irregular forms. OE *willan* was an irregular verb with the meaning of volition and desire; it resembled the preterit-presents in meaning and function, as it indicated an attitude to an action and was often followed by an Infinitive. *Willan* had a Past tense form *wolde*, built like *sceolde*, the Past tense of the preterite-present *sculan, sceal*. Eventually willan became a modal verb, like the surviving preterite-presents, and, together with sculan developed into an auxiliary (NE shall, will, should, would).

Some verbs combined the features of weak and strong verbs. OE *do*n formed a weak Past tense with a vowel interchange: and a Parti­ciple in -n: *don — dyde — зe-don (NE do)*. OE *buan* 'live' had a weak Past — *bude* and Participle II, ending in -n, *з*e-bun like a strong verb.

**The evolution of analytical forms.**

In OE there *were no* analytical forms; they appeared in ME in all Germanic languages and consisted of two elements; 1) a verb of broad semantics (to be, to have) and high frequency; 2) non-finite forms (Inf., Participle I/II). They are Perfect, Passive. Future, Cont, Do-forms.

The rise of Perfect forms

1.habbant (transitive verb)/ beon (intransitive verb) +Participle II

beon in ME ceased to be used, so as not to confuse Perfect with Passive. 2. In ME also Infinitive and Participle acquired Perfect forms.

The rise of Passive forms

In OE the finite verb had no category of Voice. The analytical Passive forms developed from OE verb phrases consisting from OE verb beon(NE be) and weorÞan(‘become’) and Participle II of transitive verbs

1. beon/ weorÞ (died out in ME) +PII of transitive verbs. The Pass. Inf., consisting of *beon* plus Part. II, is found in OE texts. In Middle English period weorÞan was replaced by numerous new link-verbs which had developed from notional verbs. In ME bēon –ben + Past Participle developed into analytical form. 2. Passive constructions were often used with prepositions: of, from, mid, with, by. Two were selected by/with to show the doer of the action and the instrument.

The rise of the Future forms

1. Analytical Future Tense forms developed from OE verbs Sculan/willan"+inf. 2.In 13-14 cent. — Future Tense forms became very common "willan/scullan were completely interchangeable.

3.In 17 th cent. John Wales established a rule - 'shall" – first person, will" - 2/3 person 4.present day tendency “will” is used with all persons

The rise of the Continuous Forms

 OE "beon" +PI - denoted a quality of a lasting state of the subject. In Early ME this form fell into disuse. In the 15 th cent. there were two forms to show continuous aspect (be+PI/ be +preposition "on"). In the 18cent. Cont. forms were well established. 19th cent - Cont. forms *appear* in Passive\*, before this time such forms were considered clumsy.

The rise of the do-forms1. do-forms (do-periphrasis) appeared in Past and Present in Indicative Mood. 2. do-forms were used in negative, affirmative and interrogative sentence*s* and freely interchanged with simple forms, without do *(16-17 cent)* ( for example: Did you hear this/ Heard you this? don't know/ I know not; I do like ice ­cream/ I like ice-cream)3. *17* cent, do-forms were found only in negative and interrogative sentences.

**The evolution of Participle and Infinitive**

Participle Ihad an active meaning and expressed a process or quality simultaneous with the events described by the predicate of the sentence. Participle IIhad an active or passive meaning depending on the transitivity of the verb, and expressed a preceding action or its results in the subsequent situation.

Participle I coincided with the verbal noun, which was formed in OE with the help of the suffixes *-ung* and *-ing,* but had preserved only one suffix, *-ing,* in ME. (The fusion of the Participle with the verbal noun was an important factor of the growth of a new verbal, the Gerund, and played a certain role in the development of the Continuous forms**.**

Participle 2. In ME the weak verbs built Participle II with the help of the dental suffix *-(e)d, -t,* the strong verbs — with the help of vowel gradation and the suffix *-en.* Strong verbs -4 grades(1-the form of the inf, 2-Preterit Sg, 3-Pret. Pl, 4-Partic2)

Weak verbs -3 grades (1-inf, 2-Pret, 3-P2).

Participle I- suffix -ende (ex. OE berende, ME bering. NE bearing) Participle II - suffix -en{strong verbs), and -t,-d according to the type of verb (weak verbs) and commonly marked by prefix -3e. in OE: active voice (ex. segan**)** and passive voice (ex.seboren). In OE Participle I and Participle II were used predicatively and attributively (like adj.) and agreed with noun in number, Gender, case*.* Participle I and Participle IIlost number, Gender, case in ME.

Infinitive. loss of dative case (ME) (ex. OE Nomin.: writan, Dative: to writanne; ME: to written, NE: to write, ("to” is a formal sign). The preposition *to,* which was placed In OE to show direction or purpose, lost Its prepositional force and changed into a formal sign of the Infinitive. In ME the Infinitive with *to* does not necessarily express purpose. In order to reinforce the meaning of purpose another preposition was used *for.*

**The evolution of Strong verbs**

The seven classes of OE strong verbs underwent multiple grammatical and phonetic changes. In ME the final syllables of the stems were weakened, in Early NE most of them were lost.

1.The OE endings *•an, -on,* and *-en* (of the 1st, 3rd and 4th principal forms) were all reduced to ME *-en;* consequently in Classes 6 and 7, where the infinitive and the participle had the same gradation vowel, these forms fell together. In Classes 1 and 3 it led to the coincidence of the 3rd and 4th principal forms. 2. There were phonetic changes in root of verbs. The major factor is lengthening of root the vowel: in the 4 and 5 class because the syllable is opened, also in the 3 class - where after n goes d – (findan-> fiindan). The 4 and 5 class in ME began to merge in favour of the 4-th class.

Early NE. Formation of a paradigm from 3 forms comes to the end. The 1st class - has the form of Past Singular in all verbs, except bite. The 2nd class has the form of plural. In the 3d class it is differently, basically the form of plural find-found-found, but ring-rang-rung. The 4 and 5 class has vowel of Participle II, and these classes completely coincide. In 6 and 7 class singular and plural of Past Tense were identical.

2) presence/absence of the suffix of ParticipleII

The unaccented inflection of infinitive was lost already in the ME, and Participle II in ME was: Зe-treden, зe-writen, зe-funden.

As a result, Early NE has the form without prefix. Remains: speak-spoken, find-found, but ring-rung. The 3d class has rejected a prefix and the form of Past and Participle II coincided, as well as at weak verbs. Participle II has no suffix. There were kept some distinction in the 5th class: British English get/forget - got/forgot, American English gotten/forgotten.

One of the most important events in the history of the strong verbs was their transition into weak. In ME and Early NE many strong verbs began to form their Past and Participle II with the help of the dental suffix instead of vowel gradation. Therefore the number of strong verbs decreased. In OE there were about three hundred strong verbs. Some of them dropped out of use owing to changes in the vocabulary, while most of the remaining verbs became weak. Out of 195 OE strong verbs, preserved in the language, only 67 retained strong forms with root-vowel interchanges. The changes in the formation of principal parts of strong verbs extended over a long period — from the 12th to'18th c.

**The evolution of weak verb.**

ME verbs of Class I took the ending *-de* in the past without an intermediate vowel before the dental suffix — and the ending *-ed* in the Past Participle.

Several groups of modern non-standard verbs have developed from the weak verbs of Class I. (1) Verbs like OE *sellan* and *tacan* had an interchange in the root caused by palatal mutation in the Present tense stem and its absence in the other stems (Past tense *salde/sealde, tahte.)* In ME and NE they preserved the root-vowel interchange, though some of the vowels were altered due to regular quantitative and qualitative vowel changes: ME *sellen — solde* ME I'so:ld]> NE *sold* [sould]), *techen* — *taughte;* NE *sell — sold*, *teach* — *taught.*

(2) Another group of weak verbs became irregular in Early ME as a result of quantitative vowel changes. In verbs like OE *cepan, fedan, metan* the long vowel in the root was shortened before two consonants in the Past and Participle II; OE *cepte>* ME *kepte* ['kepta]. The long vowel in the Present tense stem was preserved and was altered during the Great Vowel Shift, hence the interchange[ i : ~ e ] , NE *keep — kept, feed* — *fed.*

(3) Verbs like OE *settan,* with the root ending in a dental consonant, added the dental suffix without the intervening vowel [e ] — OE *sette.*

When the inflections were reduced and dropped, the three stems of the verbs — Present, Past and Participle II fell together: NE *set* —*set* — *set;*

Class 2 formed a basis of the future irregular verbs. The verbs of Class 2, which were marked by *-ode, -od* in OE, had weakened these endings to *-ede, -ed* in ME. In Late ME the vowel [e] in unstressed medial and final syllables became very unstable and was lost. This change eliminated the differences between the two classes and also the distinctions between the 2nd and 3rd principal forms.

3. All borrowings (unique loan word *take* from Scandinavian remains in the 6 class,). Class 3 was destroyed. We have 2 classes by the end of this process:

1. Regular (on the basis of weak) or “standard” verbs;

2. Irregular or non-standard verbs: 1) all remained strong verbs 2) weak verbs of the 1st class irregular 3) weak verbs of the 1st class with devocalization in the end 4) 2 remained verbs of the 3d class - have, say. The number of non-standard verbs in Modern English is not large, about 200 verbs. They constitute an important feature of the language. Most of them belong to the basic layer of the vocabulary. They preserved the distinction between three stems in all English verbs.

**The evolution of anomalous verbs**

Several preterite-present verbs died out. The surviving verbs lost some of their old forms and grammatical distinctions but retained many specific peculiarities. They lost the forms of the verbals which had sprung up in OE and the distinctions between the forms of number and mood in the Present tense. In NE their paradigms have been reduced to two forms or even to one.

Some verbs combined the features of weak and strong verbs. OE don formed a weak Past tense with a vowel interchange: and a Parti­ciple in -n: don — dyde — зe-don (NE do). OE buan 'live' had a weak Past — bude and Participle II, ending in -n, ie-bun like a strong verb.

OE зan has had a most unusual history. In OE its Past form was built from a different root and had a weak ending: *eode;* its Part. II ended in *-n,* similarly with strong verbs *(ie)^dn.* In ME the verb acquired a new Past tense *wente,* which came from an entirely different verb, OE *wendan* (ME *wenden,* NE *wend).* Its OE Past form *wente* had entered the paradigm of *goon* (NE *go, went),* while *wend* acquired a new past form *wended.* Thus the verb *go* remained a suppletive verb, though its OE Past was replaced by a new form (this is arare instance of suppletion appearing at arelatively recent period of history).

**The evolution of word-formation.**

**Ways of formation -** word formation fell into two types: word derivation and word composition.

**Word Derivation**

Suffixation has always been the most productive way of deriving new words, most of the OE productive suffixes have survived, and many new suffixes have been added from internal and external sources.

The development of prefixation was uneven: in ME many OE prefixes fell into disuse; after a temporary decline in the 15th and 16th c. the use of prefixes grew again; like suffixes, Early NE prefixes could come from foreign sources.

The Early NE period witnessed the growth of a new, specifically English way of word derivation — conversion (also known as "functional change"), which has developed into a productive way of creating new words.

**Sound interchanges**

In OE they served as a supplementary means of word differentiation and were mostly used together with suffixes. In ME and Early NE sound interchanges continued to be used as an accompanying feature together with other derivational means. The role of sound interchanges has grown due to the weakening and loss of many suffixes and grammatical endings.

**Word Stress**

The role of stress in word-building has grown in ME and Early NE in consequence of the same changes namely the weakening and loss of final syllables.

**Prefixation**

During the ME period prefixes were used in derivation less frequently than before. OE prefixes were productive means of forming verbs from other verbs. The simple and derived verb were synonymous. Consequently the prefix could be easily dispensed with. Instead of the OE pairs of synonyms, differing in the prefix, ME retained only the simple verb. **Native Prefixes -** Many OE verb prefixes dropped out of use, e.g. a-, to-, on-. The negative prefixes mis- and un- produced a great number of new words. OE un- was mainly used with nouns and adjectives, seldom with verbs; New formations in ME are unable, unknowen, in Early NE — unhook, unload and others; **Borrowed Prefixes-** In Late ME, and in Early NE new prefixes began to be employed in word derivation in English: French, Latin, and Greek. com- and sub-. French and Latin. Between the years 1200 and 1500 English borrowed many French words with the prefix re-, e.g.: ME re-dressen, re-formen. Re- was separated, as an element of the word.

The verb prefixes de- and dis- of Romance origin (French and Latin) entered the English language in many loan-words, e.g.: ME destructive, discomforten.

**Suffixation**

Suffixation has remained the most productive way of word derivation through all historical periods. Though some of the OE suffixes were practically dead, many new suffixes developed from native and foreign sources. **Native suffixes -** suffixes:)Several OE suffixes of agent nouns -end (friend), -ere(fiscere) were lost as means of derivation; in ME -end, -en, -estre occur as inseparable parts of the stem.

The old suffixes of abstract nouns -ap, -op, -p, had long been dead in ME. The suffix -ness was equally productive in all historical periods. It was mainly used with adjectival stems, irrespective of their origin: ME derkness, NE narrowness, (native stems); ME cleerness, NE politeness (borrowed stems). New suffixes derived from noun root morphemes - A new suffix *-man,* developed from a root-morpheme in ME. **Borrowed Suffixes -** borrowed suffixes entered the English language with the two biggest waves of loan-words: French loans in ME and classical loans in Early NE. French loan-words with the suffix *–able (agreeable).* In Late ME the suffix *-able* began to be used in adjective derivation — at first with Romance stems —*admittable.* The French suffix *-ess* produced many derivatives in ME, as it had replaced the native *-estre;* e.g.: ME *authoress.* The suffix *-or* (from Fr) resembled the native suffix *–er.*

**Lecture 14. The evolution of syntax.**

**OE**

The syntax of Old English was much more flexible than modern English because of the declensions of the nouns. The case endings told the function of the word in the sentence, so word order was not very important. But as the stress began to move to the first syllable of words, the endings were not pronounced as clearly and began to diminish from the language. So in modern English, word order is very important because we no longer have declensions to show case distinctions. Instead we use prepositions. The general word order was **subject - verb - object**, but it did vary in a few instances:1. When an object is a pronoun, it often precedes the verb. 2. When a sentence begins with an adverb, the subject often follows the verb. 3. The verb often comes at the end of a subordinate clause.

 **ME**

 Syntax was stricter and more prepositions were used. New compound tenses were used, such as the perfect tenses, and there was more use of the progressive and passive voice. The use of double negation also increased as did impersonal constructions. The use of the verbs *will and shall* for the future tense was first used too. Formerly, *will* meant want and *shall* meant obliged to.

The most obvious difference between OE syntax **and** the syntax of the ME and NE periods is that the word order became morestrict and the use of prepositions more extensive.

In ME is used the direct word order. But in the sentences which began with adjunct (обстоятельственное) word, it was indirect word order. The synthetical word order gradually disappears. The word order in ME is not so fixed, as in NE, but has important meaning. Then a direct word order becomes obligatory. The indirect word order begins to be used in questions. The auxiliary word do is entered, which was fixed in questions and negations.

**Sentences.**

In OE is distinguished part of the sentence, as in the modern language: the main and minor clause.

In ME The word order from a rhetorical category becomes syntactic. A subject is absolutely obligatory member of the sentence. If it is absent there is a formal subject. The model with a formal subject “there” is traced already in OE.

In Early NE the simple sentence develops basically on a way of ordering of all rules connected with an arrangement of all members, questions and negation.

**The evolution of Gerund**

**Gerund** appears in the 12th century. OE verbal noun(отглагольное сущ)with suffix —ung, -ing and P1 overlapped(частично совпад); verbal *noun* later turned into Gerund and could 1) take direct object (ex. buying the book) - verbal feature; 2) preceded by article or possessive pronoun – nominal(именной)feature. The gerund can be traced to three sources: the OE verbal noun in *-uns* and *-ins,* the Present Participle and the Infinitive. In OE the verbal noun derived from transitive verbs took an object in the Gen. case, which corresponded to the direct object of the finite(личных) verb. The syntactic functions of the verbal noun, the infinitive and the participle partly overlapped.

This verbal feature — a direct object as well as the frequent absence of article before the -ing-form functioning, as a noun — transformed the verbal noun into a Gerund in the modern understanding of the term. The nominal features, retained from the verbal noun, were its syntactic functions and the ability to be modified by a possessive pronoun or a noun in the Gen. case.