Lectures in history of the English language and method-guides for seminars

Contents

Foreword

History of the English language is one of the essential courses forming the linguistic background of a specialist in philology. It studies the uplifting and advancement of English, its structure and peculiarities in the old days, its similarities to other languages of the same family and its unequalled specific features.

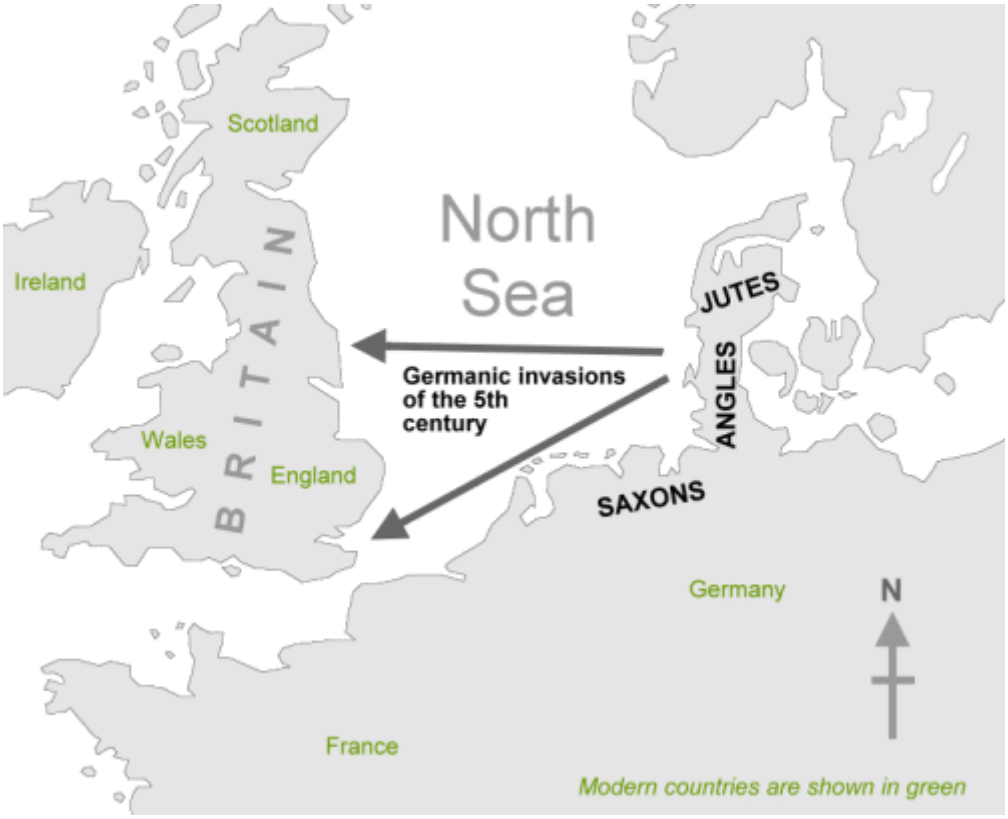
The current issue is a collection of lectures that thoroughly discusses the history of the English language and the factors influenced it in the course of history. It provides a set of examples of literary work and introduces their authors that significantly contributed to the rise and development of the English language. The collection also gives some information about the major differences between the British and American English in various respects.

The study of the history of the English language will require the knowledge of related subjects. It is reccommended mainly to university, college students as well as teachers and all learners interested in the English language.

What is English?

A short history of the origins and development of English

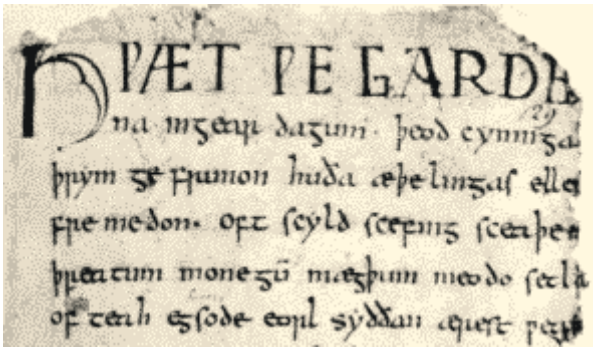
The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the 5th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from Englaland and their language was called Englisc - from which the words England and English are derived.



Germanic invaders entered Britain on the east and south coasts in the 5th century.

Old English (450-1100 AD)

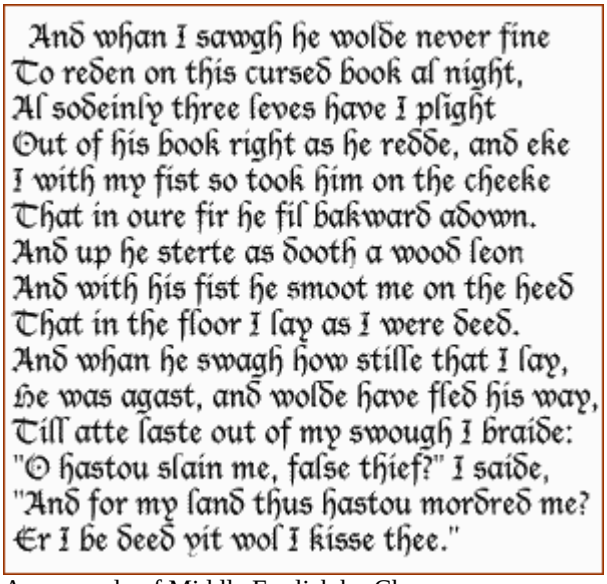
The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words *be, strong* and *water,* for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.



Part of *Beowulf*, a poem written in Old English.

Middle English (1100-1500)

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy (part of modern France), invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors (called the Normans) brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the 14th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

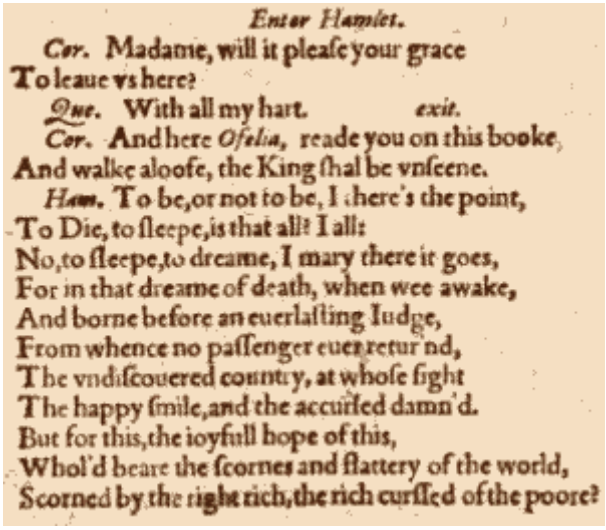


And whan I sawgh he wolde never fine
To reden on this cursed book al night,
Al sodeinly three leves have I plight
Out of his book right as he redde, and eke
I with my fist so took him on the cheeke
That in oure fir he fil bakward adown.
And up he sterte as dooth a wood leon
And with his fist he smoot me on the heed
That in the floor I lay as I were deed.
And whan he swagh how stille that I lay,
He was agast, and wolde have fled his way,
Till atte laste out of my swough I braide:
"O hastou slain me, false thief?" I saide,
"And for my land thus hastou mordred me?
Er I be deed yit wol I kisse thee."

An example of Middle English by Chaucer.

Modern English

Early Modern English (1500-1800)


Enter Hamlet.
Cor. Madame, will it pleaſe your grace
To leaue vs here?
Que. With all my hart. exit.
Cor. And here Ofelia, reade you on this booke,
And walke aloofe, the King ſhal be vnſeene.
Ham. To be, or not to be, I there's the point,
To Die, to ſleepe, is that all? I all:
No, to ſleepe, to dreame, I mary there it goes,
For in that dreame of death, when wee awake,
And borne before an euerlaſting Iudge,
From whence no paſſenger euer retur nd,
The vndiſcouered country, at whoſe ſight
The happy ſmile, and the accurſed damn'd.
But for this, the ioyfull hope of this,
Whol'd beare the ſcornes and flattery of the world,
Scorned by the right rich, the rich curſted of the poore?

Hamlet's famous "To be, or not to be" lines, written in Early Modern English by Shakespeare.

Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the 16th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

Late Modern English (1800-Present)

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

Varieties of English

From around 1600, the English colonization of North America resulted in the creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some English pronunciations and words "froze" when they reached America. In some ways, American English is more like the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Some expressions that the British call "Americanisms" are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain (for example *trash* for rubbish, *loan* as a verb instead of lend, and *fall* for autumn; another example, *frame-up*, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies). Spanish also had an influence on American English (and subsequently British English), with words like *canyon*, *ranch*, *stampede* and *vigilante* being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West. French words (through Louisiana) and West African words (through the slave trade) also influenced American English (and so, to an extent, British English).

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology (including the Internet). But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

The Germanic Family of Languages

English is a member of the Germanic family of languages.
Germanic is a branch of the Indo-European language family.

A brief chronology of English		
55 BC	Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar.	Local inhabitants speak Celtish
AD 43	Roman invasion and occupation. Beginning of Roman rule of Britain.	
436	Roman withdrawal from Britain complete.	
449	Settlement of Britain by Germanic invaders begins	
450-480	Earliest known Old English inscriptions.	Old English
1066	William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England.	
c1150	Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English.	Middle English
1348	English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools.	
1362	English replaces French as the language of law. English is used in Parliament for the first time.	
c1388	Chaucer starts writing *The Canterbury Tales*.	
c1400	The Great Vowel Shift begins.	
1476	William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.	Early Modern English
1564	Shakespeare is born.	
1604	*Table Alphabeticall*, the first English dictionary, is published.	
1607	The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established.	
1616	Shakespeare dies.	
1623	Shakespeare's First Folio is published	
1702	The first daily English-language newspaper, *The Daily Courant*, is published in London.	
1755	Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.	
1776	Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of	

	Independence.	
1782	Britain abandons its American colonies.	
1828	Webster publishes his American English dictionary.	Late Modern English
1922	The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded.	
1928	The *Oxford English Dictionary* is published.	

Lectures and seminar topics

Lecture № 1.

Plan: Introduction.

The English Language as a chief medium of communication

West Germanic language of the Indo-European language family that is closely related to Frisian, German, and Netherlandic languages. English originated in England and is now widely spoken on six continents. It is the primary language of the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand, and various small island nations in the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. It is also an official language of India, the Philippines, and many countries in sub-Saharan Africa, including South Africa.

Origins and basic characteristics

English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages and is therefore related to most other languages spoken in Europe and western Asia from Iceland to India. The parent tongue, called Proto-Indo-European, was spoken about 5,000 years ago by nomads believed to have roamed the southeast European plains. Germanic, one of the language groups descended from this ancestral speech, is usually divided by scholars into three regional groups: East (Burgundian, Vandal, and Gothic, all extinct), North (Icelandic, Faeroese, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish), and West (German, Netherlandic [Dutch and Flemish], Frisian, English). Though closely related to English, German remains far more conservative than English in its retention of a fairly elaborate system of inflections. Frisian, spoken by the inhabitants of the Dutch province of Friesland and the islands off the west coast of Schleswig, is the language most nearly related to Modern English. Icelandic, which has changed little over the last thousand years, is the living language most nearly resembling Old English in grammatical structure.

Modern English is analytic (i.e., relatively uninflected), whereas Proto-Indo-European, the ancestral tongue of most of the modern European languages (e.g., German, French, Russian, Greek), was synthetic, or inflected. During the course of thousands of years, English words have been slowly simplified from the inflected variable forms found in Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, Russian, and German, toward invariable forms, as in Chinese and Vietnamese. The German and Chinese words for “man” are exemplary. German has five forms: Mann, Mannes, Manne, Männer, Männern. Chinese has one form: jen. English stands in between, with four forms:

man, man's, men, men's. In English only nouns, pronouns, and verbs are inflected. Adjectives have no inflections aside from the determiners “this, these” and “that, those.” (The endings -er, -est, denoting degrees of comparison, are better regarded as non inflectional suffixes.) English is the only European language to employ uninflected adjectives; e.g., “the tall man,” “the tall woman,” compared to Spanish el hombre alto and la mujer alta. As for verbs, if the Modern English word ride is compared with the corresponding words in Old English and Modern German, it will be found that English now has only five forms (ride, rides, rode, riding, ridden), whereas Old English ridan had 13, and Modern German reiten has 16 forms.

In addition to this simplicity of inflections, English has two other basic characteristics: flexibility of function and openness of vocabulary.

Flexibility of function has grown over the last five centuries as a consequence of the loss of inflections. Words formerly distinguished as nouns or verbs by differences in their forms are now often used as both nouns and verbs. One can speak, for example, of “planning a table” or “tabling a plan,” “booking a place” or “placing a book,” “lifting a thumb” or “thumbing a lift.” In the other Indo-European languages, apart from rare exceptions in Scandinavian, nouns and verbs are never identical because of the necessity of separate noun and verb endings. In English, forms for traditional pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs can also function as nouns; adjectives and adverbs as verbs; and nouns, pronouns, and adverbs as adjectives. One speaks in English of the Frankfurt Book Fair, but in German one must add the suffix -er to the place-name and put attributive and noun together as a compound, Frankfurter Buchmesse. In French one has no choice but to construct a phrase involving the use of two prepositions: Foire du Livre de Francfort. In English it is now possible to employ a plural noun as adjunct (modifier), as in “wages board” and “sports editor”; or even a conjunctional group, as in “prices and incomes policy” and “parks and gardens committee.”

Openness of vocabulary implies both free admission of words from other languages and the ready creation of compounds and derivatives. English adopts (without change) or adapts (with slight change) any word really needed to name some new object or to denote some new process. Like French, Spanish, and Russian, English frequently forms scientific terms from Classical Greek word elements.

English possesses a system of orthography that does not always accurately reflect the pronunciation of words.

Orthography

The Latin alphabet originally had 20 letters, the present English alphabet minus J, K, V, W, Y, and Z. The Romans themselves added K for use in abbreviations and Y and Z in words transcribed from Greek. After its adoption by the English, this 23-letter alphabet developed W as a ligatured doubling of U and later J and V as consonantal variants of I and U. The resultant alphabet of 26 letters has both uppercase, or capital, and lowercase, or small, letters. (See also alphabet.)

English spelling is based for the most part on that of the 15th century, but pronunciation has changed considerably since then, especially that of long vowels and diphthongs. The extensive change in the pronunciation of vowels, known as the Great Vowel Shift, affected all of Geoffrey Chaucer's seven long vowels, and for centuries spelling remained untidy. If the meaning of the message was clear, the spelling of individual words seemed unimportant. In the 17th century during the English Civil War, compositors adopted fixed spellings for practical reasons, and in the order-loving 18th century uniformity became more and more fashionable. Since Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language (1755), orthography has remained fairly stable. Numerous tacit changes, such as “music” for “musick” (c. 1880) and “fantasy” for “phantasy” (c. 1920), have been accepted, but spelling has nevertheless continued to be in part un phonetic. Attempts have been made at reform. Indeed, every century has had its reformers since the 13th, when an Augustinian canon named Orm devised his own method of differentiating short vowels from long by doubling the succeeding consonants or, when this was not feasible, by marking short vowels with a superimposed breve mark (˘). William Caxton, who set up his wooden printing press at Westminster in 1476, was much concerned with spelling problems throughout his working life. Noah Webster produced his Spelling Book, in 1783, as a precursor to the first edition (1828) of his American Dictionary of the English Language. The 20th century has produced many zealous reformers. Three systems, supplementary to traditional spelling, are actually in use for different purposes: (1) the Initial Teaching (Augmented Roman) Alphabet (ITA) of 44 letters used by educationists in the teaching of children under seven; (2) the Shaw alphabet of 48 letters, designed in implementation of the will of George Bernard Shaw; and (3) the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), constructed on the basis of one symbol for one individual sound and used by many trained linguists. Countless other systems have been worked out from time to

time, of which R.E. Zachrisson's “Anglic” (1930) and Axel Wijk's Regularized English (1959) may be the best.

Meanwhile, the great publishing houses continue unperturbed because drastic reform remains impracticable, undesirable, and unlikely. This is because there is no longer one criterion of correct pronunciation but several standards throughout the world; regional standards are themselves not static, but changing with each new generation; and, if spelling were changed drastically, all the books in English in the world's public and private libraries would become inaccessible to readers without special study.

Questions to lecture 1:

1. Which family of languages does the English language belong to? What relalationship does it have with other languages spoken in Europe, Asia etc?

2. What is the most striking feature of the orthography of the English language?

3. What has contributed to the flexibility of the lananguage?

Lecture № 2.

Plan: Historical background.

Development of the language
Old English Period
Middle English Period
Modern English Period
20th-Century English

Historical background. Among highlights in the history of the English language, the following stand out most clearly: the settlement in Britain of Jutes, Saxons, and Angles in the 5th and 6th centuries; the arrival of St. Augustine in 597 and the subsequent conversion of England to Latin Christianity; the Viking invasions of the 9th century; the Norman Conquest of 1066; the Statute of Pleading in 1362 (this required that court proceedings be conducted in English); the setting up of Caxton's printing press at Westminster in 1476; the full flowering

of the Renaissance in the 16th century; the publishing of the King James Bible in 1611;the completion of Johnson's Dictionary of 1755; and the expansion to North America and South Africa in the 17th century and to India, Australia, and New Zealand in the 18th.

Development of the language Three main stages are usually recognized in the history of the development of the English language. Old English, known formerly as Anglo-Saxon, dates from AD449 to 1066 or 1100. Middle English dates from 1066 or 1100 to 1450 or 1500. Modern English dates from about 1450 or 1500 and is subdivided into Early Modern English, from about 1500 to 1660, and Late Modern English, from about 1660 to the present time.

Old English Period Old English, a variant of West Germanic, was spoken by certain Germanic peoples (Angles, Saxons, and Jutes) of the regions comprising present-day southern Denmark and northern Germany who invaded Britain in the 5th century AD; the Jutes were the first to arrive, in 449, according to tradition. Settling in Britain, the invaders drove the indigenous Celtic-speaking peoples, notably the Britons, to the north and west. As time went on, Old English evolved further from the original Continental form, and regional dialects developed. The four major dialects recognized in Old English are Kentish, originally the dialect spoken by the Jutes; West Saxon, a branch of the dialect spoken by the Saxons; and Northumbrian and Mercian, subdivisions of the dialects spoken by the Angles. By the 9th century, partly through the influence of Alfred, king of the West Saxons and the first ruler of all England, West Saxon became prevalent in prose literature. A Mercian mixed dialect, however, was primarily used for the greatest poetry, such as the anonymous 8th-century epic poem Beowulf and the contemporary elegiac poems.

Old English was an inflected language characterized by strong and weak verbs; a dual number for pronouns (for example, a form for “we two” as well as “we”), two different declensions of adjectives, four declensions of nouns, and grammatical distinctions of gender. Although rich in word-building possibilities, Old English was sparse in vocabulary. It borrowed few proper nouns from the language of the conquered Celts, primarily those such as Aberdeen (“mouth of the Dee”) and Inchcape (“island cape”) that describe geographical features. Scholars believe that ten common nouns in Old English are of Celtic origin; among these are bannock, cart, down, and mattock. Although other Celtic words not preserved in literature may have been in use during the Old English period, most Modern English words of Celtic origin, that is, those derived from Welsh, Scottish Gaelic, or Irish, are comparatively recent borrowings.

The number of Latin words, many of them derived from the Greek that were introduced during the Old English period has been estimated at 140. Typical of these words are altar,

mass, priest, psalm, temple, kitchen, palm, and pear. A few were probably introduced through the Celtic; others were brought to Britain by the Germanic invaders, who previously had come into contact with Roman culture. By far the largest number of Latin words was introduced as a result of the spread of Christianity. Such words included not only ecclesiastical terms but many others of less specialized significance.

About 40 Scandinavian (Old Norse) words were introduced into Old English by the Norsemen, or Vikings, who invaded Britain periodically from the late 8th century on. Introduced first were words pertaining to the sea and battle, but shortly after the initial invasions other words used in the Scandinavian social and administrative system—for example, the word law—entered the language, as well as the verb form are and such widely used words as take, cut, both, ill, and ugly.

Middle English Period

At the beginning of the Middle English period, which dates from the Norman Conquest of 1066, the language was still inflectional; at the end of the period the relationship between the elements of the sentence depended basically on word order. As early as 1200 the three or four grammatical case forms of nouns in the singular had been reduced to two, and to denote the plural the noun ending -es had been adopted.

The declension of the noun was simplified further by dropping the final n from five cases of the fourth, or weak, declension; by neutralizing all vowel endings to e (sounded like the a in Modern English sofa), and by extending the masculine, nominative, and accusative plural ending -as, later neutralized also to -es, to other declensions and other cases. Only one example of a weak plural ending, oxen, survives in Modern English; kine and brethren are later formations. Several representatives of the Old English modification of the root vowel in the plural, such as man, men, and foot, feet, survive also.

With the levelling of inflections, the distinctions of grammatical gender in English were replaced by those of natural gender. During this period the dual number fell into disuse, and the dative and accusative of pronouns were reduced to a common form. Furthermore, the Scandinavian they, them were substituted for the original hie, hem of the third person plural, and who, which, and that acquired their present relative functions. The conjugation of verbs was simplified by the omission of endings and by the use of a common form for the singular and plural of the past tense of strong verbs.

In the early period of Middle English, a number of utilitarian words, such as egg, sky, sister, window, and get, came into the language from Old Norse. The Normans brought other additions to the vocabulary. Before 1250 about 900 new words had appeared in English, mainly words, such as baron, noble, and feast, that the Anglo-Saxon lower classes required in their dealings with the Norman-French nobility. Eventually the Norman nobility and clergy, although they had learned English, introduced from the French words pertaining to the government, the church, the army, and the fashions of the court, in addition to others proper to the arts, scholarship, and medicine.

Midland, the dialect of Middle English derived from the Mercian dialect of Old English, became important during the 14th century, when the counties in which it was spoken developed into centres of university, economic, and courtly life. East Midland, one of the subdivisions of Midland, had by that time become the speech of the entire metropolitan area of the capital, London, and probably had spread south of the Thames River into Kent and Surrey. The influence of East Midland was strengthened by its use in the government offices of London, by its literary dissemination in the works of the 14th-century poets Geoffrey Chaucer, John Gower, and John Lydgate, and ultimately by its adoption for printed works by William Caxton. These and other circumstances gradually contributed to the direct development of the East Midland dialect into the Modern English language.

During the period of this linguistic transformation the other Middle English dialects continued to exist, and dialects descending from them are still spoken in the 20th century. Lowland Scottish, for example, is a development of the Northern dialect.

Modern English Period

In the early part of the Modern English period the vocabulary was enlarged by the widespread use of one part of speech for another and by increased borrowings from other languages. The revival of interest in Latin and Greek during the Renaissance brought new words into English from those languages. Other words were introduced by English travellers and merchants after their return from journeys on the Continent. From Italian came cameo, stanza, and violin; from Spanish and Portuguese, alligator, peccadillo, and sombrero. During its development, Modern English borrowed words from more than 50 different languages.

In the late 17th century and during the 18th century, certain important grammatical changes occurred. The formal rules of English grammar were established during that period. The

pronoun its came into use, replacing the genitive form his, which was the only form used by the translators of the King James Bible (1611). The progressive tenses developed from the use of the participle as a noun proceeded by the preposition on; the preposition gradually weakened to a and finally disappeared. Thereafter only the simple ing form of the verb remained in use. After the 18th century this process of development culminated in the creation of the progressive passive form, for example, “The job is being done.”

The most important development begun during this period and continued without interruption throughout the 19th and 20th centuries concerned vocabulary. As a result of colonial expansion, notably in North America but also in other areas of the world, many new words entered the English language. From the indigenous peoples of North America, the words raccoon and wigwam were borrowed; from Peru, llama and quinine; from the West Indies, barbecue and cannibal; from Africa, chimpanzee and zebra; from India, bandanna, curry, and punch; and from Australia, kangaroo and boomerang. In addition, thousands of scientific terms were developed to denote new concepts, discoveries, and inventions. Many of these terms, such as neutron, penicillin, and supersonic, were formed from Greek and Latin roots; others were borrowed from modern languages, as with blitzkrieg from German and sputnik from Russian.

20th-Century English

In Great Britain at present the speech of educated persons is known as Received Standard English. A class dialect rather than a regional dialect, it is based on the type of speech cultivated at such schools as Eton and Harrow and at such of the older universities as Oxford and Cambridge. Many English people who speak regional dialects in their childhood acquire Received Standard English while attending school and university. Its influence has become even stronger in recent years because of its use by such public media as the British Broadcasting Corp.

Widely differing regional and local dialects are still employed in the various counties of Great Britain. Other important regional dialects have developed also; for example, the English language in Ireland has retained certain individual peculiarities of pronunciation, such as the pronunciation of lave for leave and fluther for flutter; certain syntactical peculiarities, such as the use of after following forms of the verb be; and certain differences in vocabulary, including the use of archaic words such as adown (for down) and Celtic borrowings such as banshee. The Lowland Scottish dialect, sometimes called Lallans, first made known throughout the English-speaking world by the songs of the 18th-century Scottish poet Robert

Burns, contains differences in pronunciation also, such as neebour (“neighbor”) and guid (“good”), and words of Scandinavian origin peculiar to the dialect, such as braw and bairn. The English spoken in Australia, with its marked diphthongization of vowels, also makes use of special words, retained from English regional dialect usages, or taken over from indigenous Australian terms.

Questions to lecture 2:

1. What are the three main stages recognized in the history of the development of the English language.

2. Who were the first Germanic tribes settled in Britain in 449? What are the four major dialects used during the Old English period?

3. What are the main grammatical changes of the Middle English period?

4. What is the role of Latin and Greek during the Renissance? What caused the increased borrowings from other languages?

5. What is the speech of the educated people in the 20th century England? What is it based on?

Lectue № 3.

Plan: Development of the language.

Old English period.

Old English as a variant of West Germanic

The Jutes, Angles, and Saxons lived in Jutland, Schleswig, and Holstein, respectively, before settling in Britain. According to the Venerable Bede, the first historian of the English people, the first Jutes, Hengist and Horsa, landed at Ebbsfleet in the Isle of Thanet in 449; and the Jutes later settled in Kent, southern Hampshire, and the Isle of Wight. The Saxons occupied the rest of England south of the Thames, as well as modern Middlesex and Essex. The Angles eventually took the remainder of England as far north as the Firth of Forth, including the future Edinburgh and the Scottish Lowlands. In both Latin and Common Germanic the Angles' name was Angli, later mutated in Old English to Engle (nominative)

and Engla (genitive). “Engla land” designated the home of all three tribes collectively, and both King Alfred (known as Alfred the Great) and Abbot Aelfric, author and grammarian, subsequently referred to their speech as Englisc. Nevertheless, all the evidence indicates that Jutes, Angles, and Saxons retained their distinctive dialects.

The River Humber was an important boundary, and the Anglian-speaking region developed two speech groups: to the north of the river, Northumbrian, and, to the south, Southumbrian, or Mercian. There were thus four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, West Saxon, and Kentish (see Figure 13). In the 8th century, Northumbrian led in literature and culture, but that leadership was destroyed by the Viking invaders, who sacked Lindisfarne, an island near the Northumbrian mainland, in 793. They landed in strength in 865. The first raiders were Danes, but they were later joined by Norwegians from Ireland and the Western Isles who settled in modern Cumberland, Westmorland, northwest Yorkshire, Lancashire, north Cheshire, and the Isle of Man. In the 9th century, as a result of the Norwegian invasions, cultural leadership passed from Northumbria to Wessex. During King Alfred's reign, in the last three decades of the 9th century, Winchester became the chief centre of learning. There the Parker Chronicle (a manuscript of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle) was written; there the Latin works of the priest and historian Paulus Orosius, St. Augustine, St. Gregory, and the Venerable Bede were translated; and there the native poetry of Northumbria and Mercia was transcribed into the West Saxon dialect. This resulted in West Saxon's becoming “standard Old English”; and later, when Aelfric (c. 955–c. 1010) wrote his lucid and mature prose at Winchester, Cerne Abbas, and Eynsham, the hegemony of Wessex was strengthened.

In **standard Old English**, adjectives were inflected as well as nouns, pronouns, and verbs. Nouns were inflected for four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, and accusative) in singular and plural. Five nouns of first kinship—faeder, mōdor, brōthor, sweostor, and dohtor (“father,” “mother,” “brother,” “sister,” and “daughter,” respectively)—had their own set of inflections. There were 25 nouns such as mon, men (“man,” “men”) with mutated, or umlauted, stems. Adjectives had strong and weak declensions, the strong showing a mixture of noun and pronoun endings and the weak following the pattern of weak nouns. Personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and relative pronouns had full inflections. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons still had distinctive dual forms:

There were two demonstratives: sē, sēo, thaet, meaning “that,” and thes, thēos, this, meaning “this,” but no articles, the definite article being expressed by use of the demonstrative for “that” or not expressed at all. Thus, “the good man” was sē gōda mon or plain gōd mon. The

function of the indefinite article was performed by the numeral ān “one” in ān mon “a man,” by the adjective–pronoun sum in sum mon “a (certain) man,” or not expressed, as in thū eart gōd mon “you are a good man.”

Verbs had two tenses only (present–future and past), three moods (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), two numbers (singular and plural), and three persons (1st, 2nd, and 3rd). There were two classes of verb stems. (A verb stem is that part of a verb to which inflectional changes—changes indicating tense, mood, number, etc.—are added.) One type of verb stem, called vocalic because an internal vowel shows variations, is exemplified by the verb for “sing”: singan, singth, sang, sungon,gesungen. The word for “deem” is an example of the other, called consonantal: dēman, dēmth, dēmde, dēmdon, gedēmed. Such verbs are called strong and weak, respectively.

All new verbs, whether derived from existing verbs or from nouns, belonged to the consonantal type. Some verbs of great frequency (antecedents of the modern words “be,” “shall,” “will,” “do,” “go,” “can,” “may,” and so on) had their own peculiar patterns of inflections.

Grammatical gender persisted throughout the Old English period. Just as Germans now say der Fuss, die Hand, and das Auge (masculine, feminine, and neuter terms for “the foot,” “the hand,” and “the eye”), so, for these same structures, Aelfric saidsē fōt, sēo hond, and thaet ēaġe, also masculine, feminine, and neuter. The three words for “woman,” wīfmon, cwene, and wīf, were masculine, feminine, and neuter, respectively. Hors “horse,” sċēap “sheep,” and maeġden “maiden” were all neuter. Eorthe “earth” was feminine, but lond “land” was neuter. Sunne “sun” was feminine, but mōna “moon” was masculine. This simplification of grammatical gender resulted from the fact that the gender of Old English substantives was not always indicated by the ending but rather by the terminations of the adjectives and demonstrative pronouns used with the substantives. When these endings were lost, all outward marks of gender disappeared with them. Thus, the weakening of inflections and loss of gender occurred together. In the North, where inflections weakened earlier, the marks of gender likewise disappeared first. They survived in the South as late as the 14th century.

Because **of the greater use of inflections in Old English**, word order was freer than today. The sequence of subject, verb, and complement was normal, but when there were outer and inner complements the second was put in the dative case after to: Sē biscop hālgode Ēadrēd tō cyninge “The bishop consecrated Edred king.” After an introductory adverb or adverbial phrase the verb generally took second place as in modern German: Nū bydde iċ ān thing

“Now I ask [literally, “ask I”] one thing”; Th□ ilcan gēare gesette Aelfrēd cyning Lundenburg “In that same year Alfred the king occupied London.” Impersonal verbs had no subject expressed. Infinitives constructed with auxiliary verbs were placed at the ends of clauses or sentences: Hīe ne dorston forth bī thære ēa siglan “They dared not sail beyond that river” (siglan is the infinitive); Iċ wolde thās lytlan bōc āwendan “I wanted to translate this little book” (āwendan is the infinitive). The verb usually came last in a dependent clause—e.g., āwrītan wile in gif hwā thās bōc āwrītan wile (gerihte hē hīe be thære bysene) “If anyone wants to copy this book (let him correct his copy by the original).” Prepositions (or postpositions) frequently followed their objects. Negation was often repeated for emphasis.

Questions to lecture 3:

1. Where did the first tibes settle on the island? What happend to the native Celts?

2. What are the major grammatical features of ’Standard’ Old English?

3. Why was the word order freer in Old English sentences than later?

Lecture № 4.

Plan: Middle English Period.

The leveling of inflections.

The influence of East Midland.

Geoffrey Chaucer

Middle English

One result of the Norman Conquest of 1066 was to place all four Old English dialects more or less on a level. West Saxon lost its supremacy and the centre of culture and learning gradually shifted from Winchester to London. The old Northumbrian dialect became divided into Scottish and Northern, although little is known of either of these divisions before the end of the 13th century (Figure 14). The old Mercian dialect was split into East and West Midland. West Saxon became slightly diminished in area and was more appropriately named the South Western dialect. The Kentish dialect was considerably extended and was called South Eastern accordingly. All five Middle English dialects (Northern, West Midland, East Midland, South

Western, and South Eastern) went their own ways and developed their own characteristics. The so-called Katherine Group of writings (1180–1210), associated with Hereford, a town not far from the Welsh border, adhered most closely to native traditions, and there is something to be said for regarding this West Midland dialect, least disturbed by French and Scandinavian intrusions, as a kind of Standard English in the High Middle Ages.

Another outcome of the Norman Conquest was to change the writing of English from the clear and easily readable insular hand of Irish origin to the delicate Carolingian script then in use on the Continent. With the change in appearance came a change in spelling. Norman scribes wrote Old English y as u, as ui, ū as ou (ow when final). Thus, mycel (“much”) appeared as muchel, f□r (“fire”) as fuir, hūs (“house”) as hous, and hū (“how”) as how. For the sake of clarity (i.e., legibility) u was often written o before and after m, n, u, v, and w; and i was sometimes written y before and after m and n. So sunu (“son”) appeared as sone and him (“him”) as hym. Old English cw was changed to qu; hw to wh, qu, or quh; ċ to ch or tch; sċ to sh; -ċġ- to -gg-; and -ht to ght. So Old English cwēn appeared as queen; hwaet as what, quat, or quhat; dīċ as ditch; sċip as ship; secge as segge; and miht as might.

For the first century after the Conquest, most loanwords came from Normandy and Picardy, but with the extension south to the Pyrenees of the Angevin empire of Henry II (reigned 1154–89), other dialects, especially Central French, or Francien, contributed to the speech of the aristocracy. As a result, Modern English acquired the forms canal, catch, leal, real, reward, wage, warden, and warrant from Norman French side by side with the corresponding forms channel, chase, loyal, royal, regard, gage, guardian, and guarantee, from Francien. King John lost Normandy in 1204. With the increasing power of the Capetian kings of Paris, Francien gradually predominated. Meanwhile, Latin stood intact as the language of learning. For three centuries, therefore, the literature of England was trilingual. Ancrene Riwle, for instance, a guide or rule (riwle) of rare quality for recluses or anchorites (ancren), was disseminated in all three languages.

The sounds of the native speech changed slowly. Even in late Old English short vowels had been lengthened before ld, rd, mb, and nd, and long vowels had been shortened before all other consonant groups and before double consonants. In early Middle English short vowels of whatever origin were lengthened in the open stressed syllables of disyllabic words. An open syllable is one ending in a vowel. Both syllables in Old English nama “name,” mete “meat, food,” nosu “nose,” wicu “week,” and duru “door” were short, and the first syllables, being stressed, were lengthened to nāme, mēte, nōse, wēke, and dōre in the 13th and 14th

centuries. A similar change occurred in 4th-century Latin, in 13th-century German, and at different times in other languages. The popular notion has arisen that final mute -e in English makes a preceding vowel long; in fact, it is the lengthening of the vowel that has caused e to be lost in pronunciation. On the other hand, Old English long vowels were shortened in the first syllables of trisyllabic words, even when those syllables were open; e.g., hāligdaeg "holy day," ærende "message, errand," crīstendōm "Christianity," and sūtherne "southern," became hŏliday (Northern hăliday), ĕrrende, chrĭstendom, and sŭtherne. This principle still operates in current English. Compare, for example, trisyllabic derivatives such as the words chastity, criminal, fabulous, gradual, gravity, linear, national, ominous, sanity, and tabulate with the simple nouns and adjectives chaste, crime, fable, grade, grave, line, nation, omen, sane, and table.

There were significant **variations in verb inflections** in the Northern, Midland, and Southern dialects (see table). The Northern infinitive was already one syllable (sing rather than the Old English singan), whereas the past participle -en inflection of Old English was strictly kept. These apparently contradictory features can be attributed entirely to Scandinavian, in which the final -n of the infinitive was lost early in singa, and the final -n of the past participle was doubled in sunginn. The Northern unmutated present participle in -and was also of Scandinavian origin. Old English mutated -ende (German -end) in the present participle had already become -inde in late West Saxon (Southern in the table), and it was this Southern -inde that blended with the -ing suffix (German -ung) of nouns of action that had already become near-gerunds in such compound nouns as athswering "oath swearing" and writingfether "writing feather, pen." This blending of present participle and gerund was further helped by the fact that Anglo-Norman and French -ant was itself a coalescence of Latin present participles in -antem, -entem, and Latin gerunds in -andum, -endum. The Northern second person singular singis was inherited unchanged from Common Germanic. The final t sound in Midland -est and Southern -st was excrescent, comparable with the final t in modern "amidst" and "amongst" from older amiddes and amonges. The Northern third person singular singis had a quite different origin. Like the singis of the plural, it resulted almost casually from an inadvertent retractionof the tongue in enunciation from an interdental -th sound to postdental -s. Today the form "singeth" survives as a poetic archaism. Shakespeare used both -eth and -s endings ("It [mercy] blesseth him that gives and him that takes," The Merchant of Venice). The Midland present plural inflection -en was taken from

the subjunctive. The past participle prefix y- developed from the Old English perfective prefix ge-.

Chaucer, who was born and died in London, spoke a dialect that was basically East Midland. Compared with his contemporaries, he was remarkably modern in his use of language. He was in his early 20s when the Statute of Pleading (1362) was passed, by the terms of which all court proceedings were henceforth to be conducted in English, though “enrolled in Latin.” Chaucer himself used four languages; he read Latin (Classical and Medieval) and spoke French and Italian on his travels. For his own literary work he deliberately chose English.

Transition from Middle English to Early Modern English.

The death of Chaucer at the close of the century (1400) marked the beginning of the period of transition from Middle English to the Early Modern English stage. The Early Modern English period is regarded by many scholars as beginning in about 1500and terminating with the return of the monarchy (John Dryden's Astraea Redux) in 1660. The 15th century witnessed three outstanding developments: the rise of London English, the invention of printing, and the spread of the new learning.

When Caxton started printing at Westminster in the late summer of 1476, he was painfully aware of the uncertain state of the English language. In his prologues and epilogues to his translations he made some revealing observations on the problems that he had encountered as translator and editor. At this time, sentence structures were being gradually modified, but many remained untidy. For the first time, nonprofessional scribes, including women, were writing at length.

The revival of classical learning was one aspect of that Renaissance, or spiritual rebirth, that arose in Italy and spread to France and England. It evoked a new interest in Greek on the part of learned men such as William Grocyn and Thomas Linacre, Sir Thomas More and Desiderius Erasmus. John Colet, dean of St. Paul's in the first quarter of the 16th century, startledhis congregation by expounding the Pauline Epistles of the New Testament as living letters. The deans who had preceded him had known no Greek, because they had found in Latin all that they required. Only a few medieval churchmen, such as Robert Grosseteste, bishop of Lincoln, and the Franciscan Roger Bacon could read Greek with ease. The names of the seven liberal arts of the medieval curricula (the trivium and the quadrivium), it is true, were all Greek—grammar, logic, and rhetoric; arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music—but they had come into English by way of French.

Renaissance scholars adopted a liberal attitude to language. They borrowed Latin words through French, or Latin words direct; Greek words through Latin, or Greek words direct. Latin was no longer limited to Church Latin: it embraced all Classical Latin. For a time the whole Latin lexicon became potentially English. Some words, such as consolation and infidel, could have come from either French or Latin. Others, such as the terms abacus, arbitrator, explicit, finis, gratis, imprimis, item, memento, memorandum, neuter, simile, and videlicet, were taken straight from Latin. Words that had already entered the language through French were now borrowed again, so that doublets arose: benison and benediction; blame and blaspheme; chance and cadence; count and compute; dainty and dignity; frail and fragile; poor and pauper; purvey and provide; ray and radius; sever and separate; strait and strict; sure and secure. The Latin adjectives for “kingly” and “lawful” have even given rise to triplets; in the forms real, royal, and regal and leal, loyal, and legal, they were imported first from Anglo-Norman, then from Old French, and last from Latin direct.

After the dawn of the 16th century, English prose moved swiftly toward modernity. In 1525 Lord Berners completed his translation of Jean Froissart's Chronicle, and William Tyndale translated the New Testament. One-third of the King James Bible(1611), it has been computed, is worded exactly as Tyndale left it; and between 1525 and 1611 lay the Tudor Golden Age, with its culmination in Shakespeare. Too many writers, to be sure, used “inkhorn terms,” newly-coined, ephemeral words, and too many vacillated between Latin and English. Sir Thomas More actually wrote his Utopia in Latin. It was translated into French during his lifetime but not into English until 1551, some years after his death. Francis Bacon published De dignitate et augmentis scientiarum (On the Dignity and Advancement of Learning, an expansion of his earlier Advancement of Learning) in Latin in 1623. William Harvey announced his epoch-making discovery of the circulation of the blood in his Latin De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis in Animalibus (1628; On the Motion of the Heart and Blood in Animals). John Milton composed polemical treatises in the language of Cicero. As Oliver Cromwell's secretary, he corresponded in Latin with foreign states. His younger contemporary Sir Isaac Newton lived long enough to bridge the gap. He wrote his Principia (1687) in Latin but his Opticks (1704) in English.

Questions to lecture 4:

1. What is the main outcome of the Norman Conquest in the writing system?

2. What is the result of the Statute of Pleading in 1362?

3. What are the main consequences of the Transition from Middle English to Early Modern English?

Lecture № 5.

Plan: The Great Vowel Shift.

Although the population of London in 1400 was only about 40,000, it was by far the largest city in England. York came second, followed by Bristol, Coventry, Plymouth, and Norwich. The Midlands and East Anglia, the most densely populated parts of England, supplied London with streams of young immigrants. The speech of the capital was mixed, and it was changing. The seven long vowels of Chaucer's speech had already begun to shift.

The Great Vowel Shift.
What Was It?

The Great Vowel Shift was a gradual process which began in Chaucer's time (early 15th Century) and was continuing through the time of Shakespeare (early 17th Century). Speakers of English gradually changed the parts of their mouth used to articulate the long vowels. Simply put, the articulation point moved upward in the mouth. The vowels, which began being pronounced at the top, could not be moved farther up (without poking into the nose); they became diphthongs1. The upshot has been that the Anglo-Saxons lived (like the Scottish still do) in a 'hoose', and the English live in a 'house'; the Anglo-Saxons (like the Scottish) milked a 'coo', and the English milk a 'cow'; an Anglo-Saxon had a 'gode' day and the English have a 'good' one; an Anglo-Saxon had 'feef' fingers on each hand and the English have 'five'; they wore 'boats' on their 'fate' while the English wear 'boots' on our 'feet'. The Great Vowel Shift is still continuing today in regional dialects; many speakers are now trying to move the topmost articulation points farther up, producing new diphthongs.

Why Was It?

There are theories for why the Great Vowel Shift has occurred, but none are likely ever be testable without a time machine. Two models of the pattern of vowel change are the 'pull

theory' in which the upper vowels moved first and 'pulled' the lower ones along, and the 'push theory' in which the lower vowels moved forward and up, pushing the others ahead. Neither theory gives us an answer to why the shift happened, and the actual shifting was so complicated by regional variation that it will be difficult to ever sort out more than a general pattern of shifting. The regional variation of the shift has lead to a multitude of vowel pronunciations which are neither standard English nor standard Continental such as this anecdote:

Boy in North-East England is sitting by a river, crying. Passer by asks what's up.
Boy says 'Me mate fell in the water'.
'Oh - that's terrible, how did it happen?'.
'Fell right out of my sandwich, into the water!'

Or the Cockney woman who, when trying to buy a cut loaf of bread was asked by the puzzled baker 'Is it a bread especially for cats?' Both of these examples are vowels that have shifted beyond the strict definition of the Great Vowel Shift. This is a demonstration that the English language is still evolving in wonderful (and confusing) ways. In addition, the reconstruction of the sounds is based on texts, which are rarely a perfect means of recording sound. The printing press further complicated this problem, as it tended to fix spelling in the 15th and 16th Centuries, before the sounds of speech had finished shifting (if they ever did finish). Today, we speak with 21st Century pronunciation, but we write our words in a 15th Century form.

Since the Great Vowel Shift did not occur in other languages or in some regional dialects of English (see, the Scottish 'house' and 'cow', above), it is the Standard English speakers and not the speakers of other languages, who have the wacky vowels.

- The transition from Middle English to Modern English was marked by a major change in the pronunciation of vowels during the 15th and 16th centuries. This change, termed the Great Vowel Shift by the Danish linguist Otto Jespersen, consisted of a shift in the articulation of vowels with respect to the positions assumed by the tongue and the lips. The Great Vowel Shift changed the pronunciation of 18 of the 20 distinctive vowels and diphthongs of Middle English. Spelling, however, remained unchanged and was preserved from then on as a result of the advent of printing in England about 1475, during the shift. (In general, Middle English orthography was much more phonetic

than Modern English; all consonants, for example, were pronounced, whereas now letters such as the l preserved in walking are silent).

The principal changes (with the vowels shown in IPA) are roughly as follows. However, exceptions occur, the transitions were not always complete, and there were sometimes accompanying changes in orthography:

- Middle English [a□] (*ā*) fronted to [æ□] and then raised to [□□], [e□] and in many dialects diphthongised in Modern English to [e□] (as in *m**a**ke*). Since Old English *ā* had mutated to [□□] in Middle English, Old English *ā* does not correspond to the Modern English diphthong [e□].
- Middle English [□□] raised to [e□] and then to modern English [i□] (as in *b**ea**k*).
- Middle English [e□] raised to Modern English [i□] (as in *f**ee**t*).
- Middle English [i□] diphthongised to [□i], which was most likely followed by [ə□] and finally Modern English [a□] (as in *m**i**ce*).
- Middle English [□□] raised to [o□], and in the eighteenth century this became Modern English [o□] or[ə□] (as in *b**oa**t*).
- Middle English [o□] raised to Modern English [u□] (as in *b**oo**t*).
- Middle English [u□] was diphthongised in most environments to [□u], and this was followed by [ə□], and then Modern English [a□] (as in *m**ou**se*) in the eighteenth century. Before labial consonants, this shift did not occur, and [u□] remains as in *s**ou**p*).

Questions:

1. What is the outcome of the population increase in London in the 13th century?

2. How did the Great Vowel Shift change the pronunciation?

3. What is the name of the linguist who termed the change the Great Vowel Shift?

Lecture № 6.

Plan: Modern English Period.

The widespread use of one part of speech for another.

The increased borrowings from other languages.

Important grammatical changes.

Restoration period.

With the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, men again looked to France. John Dryden admired the Académie Française and greatly deplored that the English had “not so much as a tolerable dictionary, or a grammar; so that our language is in a manner barbarous” as compared with elegant French. After the passionate controversies of the Civil War, this was an age of cool scientific nationalism. In 1662 the Royal Society of London for the Promotion of Natural Knowledge received its charter. Its first members, much concerned with language, appointed a committee of 22 “to improve the English tongue particularly for philosophic purposes.” It included Dryden, the diarist John Evelyn, Bishop Thomas Sprat, and the poet Edmund Waller. Sprat pleaded for “a close, naked, natural way of speaking; positive expressions; clear senses, a native easiness; bringing all things as near the mathematical plainness” as possible. The committee, however, achieved no tangible result, and failed in its attempt to found an authoritative arbiter over the English tongue. A second attempt was made in 1712, when Jonathan Swift addressed an open letter to Robert Harley, earl of Oxford, then Lord Treasurer, making “A Proposal for Correcting, Improving, and Ascertaining [fixing] the English Tongue.” This letter received some popular support, but its aims were frustrated by a turn in political fortunes. Queen Anne died in 1714. The Earl of Oxford and his fellow Tories, including Swift, lost power. No organized attempt to found a language academy on French lines has ever been made since.

With Dryden and Swift the English language reached its full maturity. Their failure to found an academy was partly counterbalanced by Samuel Johnson in his Dictionary (published in 1755) and by Robert Lowth in his Grammar (published in 1761).

Age of Johnson. In the making of his Dictionary, Johnson took the best conversation of contemporary London and the normal usage of reputable writers after Sir Philip Sidney (1554–86) as his criteria. He exemplified the meanings of words by illustrative quotations. Johnson admitted that “he had flattered himself for a while” with “the prospect of fixing our

language" but that thereby "he had indulged expectation which neither reason nor experience could justify." The two-folio work of 1755 was followed in 1756 by a shortened, one-volume version that was widely used far into the 20th century. Revised and enlarged editions of the unabbreviated version were made by Archdeacon Henry John Todd in 1818 and by Robert Gordon Latham in 1866.

It was unfortunate that Joseph Priestley, Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, and other 18th-century grammarians (Priestley was perhaps better known as a scientist and theologian) took a narrower view than Johnson on linguistic growth and development. They spent too much time condemning such current "improprieties" as "I had rather not," "you better go," "between you and I," "it is me," "who is this for?", "between fourwalls," "a third alternative," "the largest of the two," "more perfect," and "quite unique." Without explanatory comment they banned "you was" outright, although it was in widespread use among educated people (on that ground it was later defended by Noah Webster). "You was" had, in fact, taken the place of both "thou wast" and "thou wert" as a useful singular equivalent of the accepted plural "you were."

As the century wore on, grammarians became more numerous and aggressive. They set themselves up as arbiters of correct usage. They compiled manuals that were not only descriptive (stating what people do say) and prescriptive (stating what they should say) but also proscriptive (stating what they should not say). They regarded Latin as a language superior to English and claimed that Latin embodied universally valid canons of logic. This view was well maintained by Lindley Murray, a native of Pennsylvania who settled in England in the very year (1784) of Johnson's death. Murray's English Grammar appeared in 1795, became immensely popular, and went into numerous editions. It was followed by an English Reader (1799) and an English Spelling Book (1804), long favourite textbooks in both Old and New England.

Historical background. 19th and 20th centuries. In 1857 Richard Chenevix Trench, dean of St. Paul's, lectured to the Philological Society on the theme, "On some Deficiencies in our English Dictionaries." His proposals for a new dictionary were implemented in 1859, when Samuel Taylor Coleridge's grandnephew, Herbert Coleridge, set to work as first editor. He was succeeded by a lawyer named Frederick James Furnivall, who in 1864 founded the Early English Text Society with a view to making all the earlier literature available to historical lexicographers in competent editions. Furnivall was subsequently succeeded as editor by James A.H. Murray, who published the first fascicle of A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles in 1884. Later Murray was joined successively by three editors: Henry

Bradley, William Alexander Craigie, and Charles Talbut Onions. Aside from its Supplements, the dictionary itself fills 12 volumes, has over 15,000 pages, and contains 414,825 words, illustrated by 1,827,306 citations. It is a dictionary of the British Commonwealth and the United States, a fact symbolized by the presentation of first copies in the spring of 1928 to King George V and Pres. Calvin Coolidge. It exhibits the histories and meanings of all words known to have been in use since 1150. From 1150 to 1500 all five Middle English dialects, as has been seen, were of equal status. They are therefore all included. After1500, however, dialectal expressions are not admitted, nor are scientific and technical terms not in general use. Otherwise, the written vocabulary is comprehensive. A revised edition of this dictionary, known as The Oxford English Dictionary, was published in 1933.

Vocabulary

The vocabulary of Modern English is approximately half Germanic (Old English and Scandinavian) and half Italic or Romance (French and Latin), with copious and increasing importations from Greek in science and technology and with considerable borrowings from Dutch, Low German, Italian, Spanish, German, Arabic, and many other languages. Names of basic concepts and things come from Old English or Anglo-Saxon: heaven and earth, love and hate, life and death, beginning and end, day and night, month and year, heat and cold, way and path, meadow and stream. Cardinal numerals come from Old English, as do all the ordinal numerals except “second” (Old English other, which still retains its older meaning in “every other day”). “Second” comes from Latin secundus “following,” through French second, related to Latin sequi “to follow,” as in English “sequence.” From Old English come all the personal pronouns (except “they,” “their,” and “them,” which are from Scandinavian), the auxiliary verbs (except the marginal “used,” which is from French), most simple prepositions, and all conjunctions.

Numerous nouns would be identical whether they came from Old English or Scandinavian: father, mother, brother (but not sister); man, wife; ground, land, tree, grass; summer, winter; cliff, dale. Many verbs would also be identical, especially monosyllabic verbs—bring, come, get, hear, meet, see, set, sit, spin, stand, think. The same is true of the adjectives full and wise; the colour names gray, green, and white; the disjunctive possessives mine and thine (but not ours and yours); the terms north and west (but not south and east); and the prepositions over and under. Just a few English and Scandinavian doublets coexist in current speech: no and nay, yea and ay, from and fro, rear (i.e., to bring up) and raise, shirt and skirt (both related to the adjective short), less and loose. From Scandinavian, “law” was borrowed early, whence

“bylaw,” meaning “village law,” and “outlaw,” meaning “man outside the law.” “Husband” (hus-bondi) meant “householder,” whether single or married, whereas “fellow” (fe-lagi) meant one who “lays fee” or shares property with another, and so “partner, shareholder.” From Scandinavian come the common nouns axle (tree), band, birth, bloom, crook, dirt, egg, gait, gap, girth, knife, loan, race, rift, root, score, seat, skill, sky, snare, thrift, and window; the adjectives awkward, flat, happy, ill, loose, rotten, rugged, sly, tight, ugly, weak, and wrong; and many verbs, including call, cast, clasp, clip, crave, die, droop, drown, flit, gape, gasp, glitter, life, rake, rid, scare, scowl, skulk, snub, sprint, thrive, thrust, and want.

The debt of the English language to French is large. The terms president, representative, legislature, congress, constitution, and parliament are all French. So, too, are duke, marquis, viscount, and baron; but king, queen, lord, lady, earl, and knight are English. City, village, court, palace, manor, mansion, residence, and domicile are French; but town, borough, hall, house, bower, room, and home are English. Comparison between English and French synonyms shows that the former are more human and concrete, the latter more intellectual and abstract; e.g., the terms freedom and liberty, friendship and amity, hatred and enmity, love and affection, likelihood and probability, truth and veracity, lying and mendacity. The superiority of French cooking is duly recognized by the adoption of such culinary terms as boil, broil, fry, grill, roast, souse, and toast. “Breakfast” is English, but “dinner” and “supper” are French. “Hunt” is English, but “chase,” “quarry,” “scent,” and “track” are French. Craftsmen bear names of English origin: baker, builder, fisher (man), hedger, miller, shepherd, shoemaker, wainwright, and weaver, or webber. Names of skilled artisans, however, are French: carpenter, draper, haberdasher, joiner, mason, painter, plumber, and tailor. Many terms relating to dress and fashion, cuisine and viniculture, politics and diplomacy, drama and literature, art and ballet come from French.

In the spheres of science and technology many terms come from Classical Greek through French or directly from Greek. Pioneers in research and development now regard Greek as a kind of inexhaustible quarry from which they can draw linguistic material at will. By prefixing the Greek adverb tēle “far away, distant” to the existing compound photography, “light writing,” they create the precise term “telephotography” to denote the photographing of distant objects by means of a special lens. By inserting the prefix micro- “small” into this same compound, they make the new term “photomicrography,” denoting the electronic photographing of bacteria and viruses. Such neo-Hellenic derivatives would probably have

been unintelligible to Plato and Aristotle. Many Greek compounds and derivatives have Latin equivalents with slight or considerable differentiations in meaning (see table).

At first sight it might appear that some of these equivalents, such as “metamorphosis” and “transformation,” are sufficiently synonymous to make one or the other redundant. In fact, however, “metamorphosis” is more technical and therefore more restricted than “transformation.” In mythology it signifies a magical shape changing; in nature it denotes a postembryonic development such as that of a tadpole into a frog, a cocoon into a silkworm, or a chrysalis into a butterfly. Transformation, on the other hand, means any kind of change from one state to another.

Ever since the 12th century, when merchants from the Netherlands made homes in East Anglia, Dutch words have infiltrated into Midland speech. For centuries a form of Low German was used by seafaring men in North Sea ports. Old nautical terms still in use include buoy, deck, dock, freebooter, hoist, leak, pump, skipper, and yacht. The Dutch in New Amsterdam (later New York) and adjacent settlements gave the words boss, cookie, dope, snoop, and waffle to American speech. The Dutch in Cape Province gave the terms apartheid, commandeer, commando, spoor, and trek to South African speech.

The contribution of High German has been on a different level. In the 18th and 19th centuries it lay in technicalities of geology and mineralogy and in abstractions relating to literature, philosophy, and psychology. In the 20th century this contribution has sometimes been indirect. “Unclear” and “meaningful” echoed German unklar and bedeutungsvoll, or sinnvoll. “Ring road” (a British term applied to roads encircling cities or parts of cities) translated Ringstrasse; “round trip,” Rundfahrt; and “the turn of the century,” die Jahrhundertwende. The terms “classless society,” “inferiority complex,” and “wishful thinking” echoed die klassenlöse Gesellschaft, der Minderwertigkeitskomplex, and das Wunschdenken.

Along with the rest of the Western world, English has accepted Italian as the language of music. The names of voices, parts, performers, instruments, forms of composition, and technical directions are all Italian. Many of the latter—allegro, andante, cantabile, crescendo, diminuendo, legato, maestoso, obbligato, pizzicato, staccato, and vibrato—are also used metaphorically. In architecture, the terms belvedere, corridor, cupola, grotto, pedestal, pergola, piazza, pilaster, and rotunda are accepted; in literature, burlesque, canto, extravaganza, stanza, and many more are used.

From Spanish, English has acquired the words armada, cannibal, cigar, galleon, guerrilla, matador, mosquito, quadroon, tornado, and vanilla, some of these loanwords going back to the 16th century, when sea dogs encountered hidalgos on the high seas. Many names of animals and plants have entered English from indigenous languages through Spanish: “potato” through Spanish patata from Taino batata, and “tomato” through Spanish tomate from Nahuatl tomatl. Other words have entered from Latin America by way of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California; e.g., such words as canyon, cigar, estancia, lasso, mustang, pueblo, and rodeo. Some have gathered new connotations: bonanza, originally denoting “goodness,” came through miners' slang to mean “spectacular windfall, prosperity”; mañana, “tomorrow,” acquired an undertone of mysterious unpredictability.

From Arabic through European Spanish, through French from Spanish, through Latin, or occasionally through Greek, English has obtained the terms alchemy, alcohol, alembic, algebra, alkali, almanac, arsenal, assassin, attar, azimuth, cipher, elixir, mosque, nadir, naphtha, sugar, syrup, zenith, and zero. From Egyptian Arabic, English has recently borrowed the term loofah(also spelled luffa). From Hebrew, directly or by way of Vulgate Latin, come the terms amen, cherub, hallelujah, manna, messiah, pharisee, rabbi, sabbath, and seraph; jubilee, leviathan, and shibboleth; and, more recently, kosher, and kibbutz.

English has freely adopted and adapted words from many other languages, acquiring them sometimes directly and sometimes by devious routes. Each word has its own history. The following lists indicate the origins of a number of English words: Welsh—flannel, coracle, cromlech, penguin, eisteddfod; Cornish—gull, brill, dolmen; Gaelic and Irish—shamrock, brogue, leprechaun, ogham, Tory, galore, blarney, hooligan, clan, claymore, bog, plaid, slogan, sporran, cairn, whisky, pibroch; Breton—menhir; Norwegian—ski, ombudsman; Finnish—sauna; Russian—kvass, ruble, tsar, verst, mammoth, ukase, astrakhan, vodka, samovar, tundra (from Sami), troika, pogrom, duma, soviet, bolshevik, intelligentsia (from Latin through Polish), borscht, balalaika, sputnik, soyuz, salyut, lunokhod; Polish—mazurka; Czech—robot; Hungarian—goulash, paprika; Portuguese—marmalade, flamingo, molasses, veranda, port (wine), dodo; Basque—bizarre; Turkish—janissary, turban, coffee, kiosk, caviar, pasha, odalisque, fez, bosh; Hindi—nabob, guru, sahib, maharajah, mahatma, pundit, punch (drink), juggernaut, cushy, jungle, thug, cheetah, shampoo, chit, dungaree, pucka, gymkhana, mantra, loot, pajamas, dinghy, polo; Persian—paradise, divan, purdah, lilac, bazaar, shah, caravan, chess, salamander, taffeta, shawl, khaki; Tamil—pariah, curry, catamaran, mulligatawny; Chinese—tea (Amoy), sampan; Japanese—shogun, kimono,

mikado, tycoon, hara-kiri, gobang, judo, jujitsu, bushido, samurai, banzai, tsunami, satsuma, No (the dance drama), karate, Kabuki; Malay—ketchup, sago, bamboo, junk, amuck, orangutan, compound (fenced area), raffia; Polynesian—taboo, tattoo; Hawaiian—ukulele; African languages—chimpanzee, goober, mumbo jumbo, voodoo; Inuit—kayak, igloo, anorak; Yupik—mukluk; Algonquian—totem; Nahuatl—mescal; languages of the Caribbean—hammock, hurricane, tobacco, maize, iguana; Aboriginal Australian—kangaroo, corroboree, wallaby, wombat, boomerang, paramatta, budgerigar.

Questions to lecture 6:

1. What are the attempts made by the Royal Society of London and later Jonathan Swift to found an authoritative arbiter over the English tongue?

2. What did Johnson base his dictionary on? How did his contemporary fellows react on the dictionary?

3. How did the incresed borrowings take place during this period?

Lecture 7.

Plan: 20th-Century English.

Received Standard English.

Widely differing regional and local dialects

The abbreviation RP (Received Pronunciation) denotes the speech of educated people living in London and the southeast of England and of other people elsewhere who speak in this way. If the qualifier educated be assumed, RP is then a regional (geographical) dialect, as contrasted with London Cockney, which is a class (social) dialect. RP is not intrinsically superior to other varieties of English; it is itself only one particular regional dialect that has, through the accidents of history, achieved more extensive use than others. Although acquiring its unique status without the aid of any established authority, it may have been fostered (elősegít)by the public schools (Winchester, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, and so on) and the ancient universities (Oxford and Cambridge). Other varieties of English are well preserved in spite of the levelling (különbségeket eltűntető) influences of film, television, and radio. In the Northern dialect RP /a:/ (the first vowel sound in “father”) is still pronounced /æ/ (a sound

like the a in “fat”) in words such as laugh, fast, and path; this pronunciation has been carried across the Atlantic into American English.

In the words run, rung, and tongue, the received-standard pronunciation of the vowel is /□/, like the u in “but”; in the Northern dialect it is /u/, like the oo in “book.” In the words bind, find, and grind, the received standard pronunciation of the vowel sound is /ai/, like that in “bide”; in Northern, it is /i/, like the sound in “feet.” The vowel sound in the words go, home, and know in the Northern dialect is /□:/, approximately the sound in “law” in some American English dialects. In parts of Northumberland, RP “it” is still pronounced “hit,” as in Old English. In various Northern dialects the definite article “the” is heard as t, th, or d. In those dialects in which it becomes both tand th, t is used before consonants and th before vowels. Thus, one hears “t'book” but “th'apple.” When, however, the definite article is reduced to t and the following word begins with t or d, as in “t'tail” or “t'dog,” it is replaced by a slight pause as in the RP articulation of the first t in “hat trick.” The RP /tʃ/, the sound of the ch in “church,” becomes k, as in “thack,” (“thatch, roof”) and “kirk” (“church”). In many Northern dialects strong verbs retain the old past-tense singular forms band, brak, fand, spak for RP forms bound, broke, found, and spoke. Strong verbs also retain the past participle inflection -en as in “comen,” “shutten,” “sitten,” and “getten” or “gotten” for RP “come,” “shut,” “sat,” and “got.”

In some Midland dialects the diphthongs in “throat” and “stone” have been kept apart, whereas in RP they have fallen together. In Cheshire, Derby, Stafford, and Warwick, RP “singing” is pronounced with a g sounded after the velar nasal sound (as in RP “finger”). In Norfolk one hears “skellington” and “solintary” for “skeleton” and “solitary,” showing an intrusive n just as does “messenger” in RP from French messager, “passenger” from French passager, and “nightingale” from Old English nihtegala. Other East Anglian words show consonantal metathesis (switch position-áttétel), as in “singify,” and substitution of one liquid or nasal for another, as in “chimbly” for “chimney,” and “synnable” for “syllable.” “Hantle” for “handful” shows syncope (disappearance-szó megrövidítése) of an unstressed vowel, partial assimilation-hasonulás of d to t before voiceless f, and subsequent loss of fin a triple consonant group.

In South Western dialects, initial f and s are often voiced, becoming v and z. Two words with initial v have found their way into RP: “vat”-(dézsa) from “fat” and “vixen” from “fixen” (female fox).Another South Western feature is the development of a d between l or n and r, as in “parlder” for “parlour” and “carnder” for “corner.” The bilabial semivowel w has

developed before o in“wold” for “old,” and in “wom” for “home,” illustrating a similar development in RP by which Old English ān has become “one,” and Old English hāl has come to be spelled “whole,” as compared with Northern hale. In South Western dialects “yat” comes from the old singular geat, whereas RP “gate” comes from the plural gatu. Likewise, “clee” comes from the old nominative clea, whereas RP “claw-karom” comes from the oblique cases. The verbs keel and kemb have developed regularly from Old English cēlan “to make cool” and kemban “to use a comb,” whereas the corresponding RP verbs cool and comb come from the adjective and the noun, respectively.

In Wales, people often speak a clear and measured form of English with a musical intonation inherited from ancestral Celtic. They tend to aspirate both plosives (stops) and fricative consonants very forcibly; thus, “true” is pronounced with an audible puff of breath after the initial t.

Lowland Scottish was once a part of Northern English, but two dialects began to diverge-szétágazik in the 14th century. Today Lowland Scots trill their r's, shorten vowels, and simplify diphthongs. A few Scottish words, such as bairn, brae, canny, dour, and pawky, have made their way into RP. Lowland Scottish is not to be confused with Scottish Gaelic, a Celtic language still spoken by about 90,700 people (almost all bilingual) mostly in the Highlands and the Western Isles. Thanks to Robert Burns and Sir Walter Scott, many Scottish Gaelic words have been preserved in English literature.

Northern Ireland has dialects related in part to Lowland Scottish and in part to the southern Irish dialect of English. Irish pronunciation is conservative and is clearer and more easily intelligible-érthető than many other dialects. The influence of the Irish language on the speech of Dublin is most evident in the syntax of drama and in the survival of such picturesque expressions as “We are after finishing,” “It's sorry you will be,” and “James do be cutting corn every day.”

Questions to lecture 7:

1. What are the major differences between RP and the Northen Dialect spoken in the north of England?

2. What are the main peculiarities of the Lowland Scottish Dialect?

3. What are the chief features of the Welsh and the Irish accents?

Lecture № 8.

Plan: American English as a variety of the English language spoken in the United States.

Characteristics of American English, pronunciation, words, spelling, grammar. American lexicographer Noah Webster.

The History of American English.

Modern variation and influence of American English.

Canadian English

.

American and Canadian English.

The dialect regions of the United States are most clearly marked along the Atlantic littoral, where the earlier settlements were made. Three dialects can be defined: Northern, Midland, and Southern. Each has its sub dialects.

The Northern dialect is spoken in New England. Its six chief sub dialects comprise north-eastern New England (Maine, New Hampshire, and eastern Vermont), south-eastern New England (eastern Massachusetts, eastern Connecticut, and Rhode Island), south-western New England (western Massachusetts and western Connecticut), the inland north (western Vermont and upstate New York), the Hudson Valley, and metropolitan New York.

The Midland dialect is spoken in the coastal region from Point Pleasant, in New Jersey, to Dover, in Delaware. Its seven major sub dialects comprise the Delaware Valley, the Susquehanna Valley, the Upper Ohio Valley, northern West Virginia, the Upper Potomac and Shenandoah, southern West Virginia and eastern Kentucky, western Carolina, and eastern Tennessee.

The Southern dialect area covers the coastal region from Delaware to South Carolina. Its five chief subdialects comprise the Delmarva Peninsula, the Virginia Piedmont, north-eastern North Carolina (Albemarle Sound and Neuse Valley), Cape Fear and Pee Dee valleys, and the South Carolina Low Country, around Charleston.

These boundaries, based on those of the Linguistic Atlas of the United States and Canada, are highly tentative. To some extent these regions preserve the traditional speech of south-eastern and southern England, where most of the early colonists were born. The first settlers who came to Virginia (1607) and Massachusetts (1620) soon learned to adapt old words to new uses, but they were content to borrow names from the local Indian languages for unknown trees, such as hickory and persimmon, and for unfamiliar animals, such as raccoons and woodchucks. Later they took words from foreign settlers: “chowder” and “prairie” from the French, “scow” and “sleigh” from the Dutch. They made new compounds, such as “backwoods” and “bullfrog,” and gave new meanings to such words as “lumber” (which in British English denotes disused furniture, or junk) and “corn” (which in British English signifies any grain, especially wheat).

Historical background. Before the Declaration of Independence (1776), two-thirds of the immigrants had come from England, but after that date they arrived in large numbers from Ireland. The potato famine of 1845 drove 1,500,000 Irish to seek homes in the New World, and the European revolutions of 1848 drove as many Germans to settle in Pennsylvania and the Middle West. After the close of the American Civil War, millions of Scandinavians, Slavs, and Italians crossed the ocean and eventually settled mostly in the North Central and Upper Midwest states. In some areas of South Carolina and Georgia the American Negroes who had been imported to work the rice and cotton plantations developed a contact language called Gullah, or Geechee, that made use of many structural and lexical features of their native languages. This remarkable variety of English is comparable to such “contact languages” as Sranan (Taki-Taki) and Melanesian Pidgin. The speech of the Atlantic Seaboard shows far greater differences in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary than that of any area in the North Central States, the Upper Midwest, the Rocky Mountains, or the Pacific Coast. Today, urbanization, quick transport, and television have tended to level out some dialectal differences in the United States.

The boundary with Canada nowhere corresponds to any boundary between dialects, and the influence of United States English is strong, being felt least in the Maritime Provinces and Newfoundland. Nevertheless, in spite of the effect of this proximity to the United States, British influences are still potent in some of the larger cities; Scottish influences are well sustained in Ontario. Canada remains bilingual. One-fourth of its people, living mostly in the province of Quebec, have French as their mother tongue. Those provinces in which French is

spoken as a mother tongue by 10 percent or more of the population are described as “federal bilingual districts” in the Official Languages Bill of 1968.

Questions to lecture 8:

1. How many dialects exist in the USA? What are their major peculiarities?

2. Are there any significant characteristic features of Canadian English?

3. What are the most common modern variations of American English?

Lecture № 9.

Plan: Varieties of English. Australian and New Zealand English.

The English of India–Pakistan.

African English.

Creoles and Pidgins.

Australian and New Zealand English.

Unlike Canada, Australia has few speakers of European languages other than English within its borders. There are still many Aboriginal languages, though they are spoken by only a few hundred speakers each and their continued existence is threatened. More than 80 percent of the population is British. By the mid-20th century, with rapid decline of its Aboriginal tongues, English was without rivals in Australia.

During colonial times the new settlers had to find names for a fauna and flora (e.g., banksia, iron bark, whee whee) different from anything previously known to them: trees that shed bark instead of leaves and cherries with external stones. The words brush, bush, creek, paddock, and scrub acquired wider senses, whereas the terms brook, dale, field, forest, and meadow were seldom used. A creek leading out of a river and entering it again downstream was called an anastomizing branch (a term from anatomy), or an anabranch, whereas a creek coming to a dead end was called by its native name, a billabong. The giant kingfisher with its raucous bray was long referred to as a laughing jackass, later as a bushman's clock, but now it is a

kookaburra. Cattle so intractable that only roping could control them were said to be ropable, a term now used as a synonym for „angry" or "extremely annoyed."

A deadbeat was a penniless "sundowner" at the very end of his tether, and a no-hoper was an incompetent fellow, hopeless and helpless. An offsider (strictly, the offside driver of a bullock team) was any assistant or partner. A rouseabout was first an odd-job man on a sheep station and then any kind of handyman. He was, in fact, the "down-under" counterpart of the wharf labourer, or roustabout, on the Mississippi River. Both words originated in Cornwall, and many other terms, now exclusively Australian, came ultimately from British dialects. "Dinkum," for instance, meaning "true, authentic, genuine," echoed the "fair dinkum," or fair deal, of Lincolnshire dialect. "Fossicking" about for surface gold, and then rummaging about in general, perpetuated the term fossick ("to elicit information, ferret out the facts") from the Cornish dialect of English. To "barrack," or jeer noisily, recalled Irish "barrack" ("to brag, boast"), whereas "skerrick" in the phrase "not a skerrick left" was obviously identical with the "skerrick" meaning "small fragment, particle,"still heard in English dialects from Westmorland to Hampshire.

Some Australian English terms came from Aboriginal speech: the words boomerang, corroboree (warlike dance and then any large and noisy gathering), dingo (reddish-brown wild dog), galah (cockatoo), gunyah (bush hut), kangaroo, karri (dark-red eucalyptus tree), nonda (rosaceous tree yielding edible fruit), wallaby (small marsupial), and wallaroo (large rock kangaroo). Australian English has slower rhythms and flatter intonations than RP. Although there is remarkably little regional variation throughout the entire continent, there is significant social variation. The neutral vowel /ə/ (as the a in "sofa") is frequently used, as in London Cockney: "arches" and "archers" are both pronounced [a:tʃəz], and the pronunciations of RP "day" and "go" are, respectively, [dəi] and [gəu].

Although New Zealand lies over 1,000 miles away, much of the English spoken there is similar to that of Australia. The blanket term Austral English is sometimes used to cover the language of the whole of Australasia, or Southern Asia, but this term is far from popular with New Zealanders because it makes no reference to New Zealand and gives all the prominence, so they feel, to Australia. Between North and South Islands there are observable differences. For one thing, Maori, which is still a living language (related to Tahitian, Hawaiian, and the other Austronesian [Malayo-Polynesian] languages), has a greater number of speakers and more influence in North Island.

The English of India–Pakistan. In 1950 India became a federal republic within the Commonwealth of Nations, and Hindi was declared the first national language. English, it was stated, would “continue to be used for all official purposes until 1965.” In 1967, however, by the terms of the English Language Amendment Bill, English was proclaimed “an alternative official or associate language with Hindi until such time as all non-Hindi states had agreed to its being dropped.” English is therefore acknowledged to be indispensable. It is the only practicable means of day-to-day communication between the central government at New Delhi and states with non-Hindi speaking populations, especially with the Deccan, or “South,” where millions speak Dravidian (non-Indo-European) languages—Telugu, Tamil, Kannada, and Malayalam. English is widely used in business, and, although its use as a medium in higher education is decreasing, it remains the principal language of scientific research.

In 1956 Pakistan became an autonomous republic comprising two states, East and West. Bengali and Urdu were made the national languages of East and West Pakistan, respectively, but English was adopted as a third official language and functioned as the medium of interstate communication. (In 1971East Pakistan broke away from its western partner and became the independent state of Bangladesh.)

African English. Africa is the most multilingual area in the world, if people are measured against languages. Upon a large number of indigenous languages rests a slowly changing superstructure of world languages (Arabic, English, French, and Portuguese). The problems of language are everywhere linked with political, social, economic, and educational factors.

The Republic of South Africa, the oldest British settlement in the continent, resembles Canada in having two recognized European languages within its borders: English and Afrikaans, or Cape Dutch. Both British and Dutch traders followed in the wake of 15th-century Portuguese explorers and have lived in widely varying war-and-peace relationships ever since. Although the Union of South Africa, comprising Cape Province, Transvaal, Natal, and Orange Free State, was for more than a half century (1910–61) a member of the British Empire and Commonwealth, its four prime ministers (Botha, Smuts, Hertzog, and Malan) were all Dutchmen. In the early 1980s Afrikaners outnumbered British by three to two. The Afrikaans language began to diverge seriously from European Dutch in the late 18th century and has gradually come to be recognized as a separate language. Although the English spoken in South Africa differs in some respects from standard British English, its speakers do not regard the language as a separate one. They have naturally come to use many Afrikanerisms, such as kloof, kopje, krans, veld, and vlei, to denote features of the landscape and occasionally

employ African names to designate local animals and plants. The words trek and commando, notorious in South African history, have acquired almost worldwide currency.

Elsewhere in Africa, English helps to answer the needs of wider communication. It functions as an official language of administration in Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland and in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malaŵi, Uganda, and Kenya. It is the language of instruction at Makerere University in Kampala, Uganda; at the University of Nairobi, Kenya; and at the University of Dar es Salaam, in Tanzania.

The West African states of The Gambia, Sierra Leone, Ghana, and Nigeria, independent members of the Commonwealth, have English as their official language. They are all multilingual. The official language of Liberia is also English, although its tribal communities constitute four different linguistic groups. Its leading citizens regard themselves as Americo-Liberians, being descendants of those freed blacks whose first contingents arrived in West Africa in 1822. South of the Sahara indigenous languages are extending their domains and are competing healthily and vigorously with French and English.

Pidgin. Pidgin, language based on another language, but with a sharply curtailed vocabulary (often 700 to 2000 words) and grammar; native to none of its speakers; and used as a lingua franca, or a language used as a means of communication between peoples with different native languages. Pidgins develop when people who speak different languages are brought together and forced to develop a means of communication without having sufficient time to learn each other's native languages. A pidgin usually derives its vocabulary from one principal language, but its grammar will either reflect the structures of each speaker's native tongue, or it will evolve a distinct grammar. Among languages that have given rise to pidgins are English, French, Spanish, Italian, Zulu, and Chinook. In a pidgin, words may change meaning—for example, the English word belong becomes blong (“is”) in Chinese Pidgin and bilong (“of”) in Tok Pisin, spoken in Papua New Guinea. Many concepts are expressed by phrases—for example, lait bilong klaut (“lightning,” literally “light of cloud”) in Tok Pisin. Borrowings from other languages may be added—Tok Pisin, for instance, has two forms of the word we: mipela,”I and others but not you” (from mi,”I,” plus plural ending -pela, derived from “fellow”); and yumi,”we, including you.” If a pidgin survives for several generations, it may displace other languages and become the tongue of its region; it is then called a creole, and its vocabulary is gradually reexpanded. Examples include the French-based Haitian Creole; Papiamento, based on Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch, and spoken in the Netherlands Antilles; and the English-based Krio, spoken in Sierra Leone.

Creole (language), language that began as a pidgin but has become the native language of a community. Creoles and pidgins develop as a means of communication between members of two mutually unintelligible language communities. Both creoles and pidgins have simple grammatical structures and limited vocabularies, although the grammar of a Creole is more complex than that of a pidgin. Moreover, the rules of Creole grammar remain uniform from speaker to speaker, whereas pidgin grammar varies among speakers. Pidgins have no native speakers; when a pidgin does acquire native speakers through years of use it is called a Creole.

Creole languages exist throughout the world, although they develop primarily in isolated areas, especially islands, in which colonial governments have established economies based on immigrant or slave labor. The Creole that develops merges elements of the colonial language, especially vocabulary, with elements of the language or languages of the laborers, typically grammatical structure. The primary creoles spoken in North America and the Caribbean include English-based Gullah, French-based Louisiana Creole, English-based Jamaican Creole, and French-based Haitian Creole. All of these creoles draw upon African languages.

Linguists have noted similarities in grammatical structure among all Creole languages. Common features include the use of repeated adjectives and adverbs to indicate intensity and the use of particles to change verb tense. Scholars suggest differing hypotheses to account for this uniformity across diverse Creole languages. One theory states that all Creole languages descend from the same 15th-century Portuguese pidgin, used by Portuguese explorers throughout Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Americas. When this pidgin came in contact with the languages of later colonizers, the basic grammar remained while the vocabulary incorporated new words from such languages as French and English. However, this hypothesis does not explain why some pidgins and creoles that developed with little or no contact with European languages still share grammatical features. Other scholars suggest that the shared grammatical features come from basic linguistic preferences for certain word order and for simplified, uninflected forms of verbs and other parts of speech.

One feature that distinguishes a Creole language from English is the use of the anterior tense, which resembles the past perfect tense in English. The anterior tense uses *bin* or *wen* instead of the suffix *-ed,* so that *hadwalked* in English becomes *bin walk* in Creole. Some common linguistic characteristics of the various Creole languages include questions and statements being identified by intonation alone, and patterns in verb conjugation. For example, Krio, the English-based Creole of Sierra Leone, and Guianese Crĭole, the French-based Creole of

Guiana, follow similar patterns of adding verb particles to change tense. In Krio the word *chop* for “eat” becomes *a chop* to indicate “I ate”and *a de chop* for “I am eating.” In Guianese Crйole the word *mɛze* for “eat” becomes *mo mɛze* to mean “I ate” and *mo ka mɛze* to indicate “I am eating.”

A Creole language often changes as its speakers become linguistically assimilated into the dominant society. This transformation is known as decreolization. In the case of Gullah, a Creole language spoken along the southeastern coast of the United States, decreolization involves a gradual decrease of African linguistic components and an increase in English components.

Questions to lecture 9:

1. What are the most common characteristic features of Australian and New-Zealand English?

2. What is the role of English in most African countries?

3. How do Pidgin and Creole evolve? What are the most significant peculiarities of them?

Lecture № 10.

Plan: The future of English.

Modifications in pronunciation.

The tendency to restore the full qualities of vowels.

Narrowing the gap between pronunciation and spelling.

Advanced technological education, computer programming, machine translation, and expanding mass media.

The universal scientific language.

The future of English.

Geographically, English is the most widespread language on earth, and it is second only to Mandarin Chinese in the number of people who speak it. The International

Telecommunication Union (ITU) has five official languages: English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese. The influence of these languages upon one another will inevitably increase.

It is reasonable to ask if changes in English can be predicted. There will doubtless be modifications in pronunciation, especially in that of long vowels and diphthongs. In weakly stressed syllables there is already a discernible tendency, operating effectively through radio and television, to restore the full qualities of vowels in these syllables. This tendency may bring British English more into line with American English and may bring them both a little nearer to Spanish and Italian. Further, it may help to narrow the gap between pronunciation and spelling. Other factors will also contribute toward the narrowing of this gap: advanced technological education, computer programming, machine translation, and expanding mass media. Spelling reformers will arise from time to time to liven up proceedings, but in general, traditional orthography may well hold its own against all comers, perhaps with some regularization. Printing houses, wielding concentrated power through their style directives, will surely find it in their best interests to agree on uniformity of spelling. Encyclopaedic dictionaries—computerized, universal, and subject to continuous revision—may not go on indefinitely recording such variant spellings as “connection” and “connexion,” “judgment” and “judgement,” “labor” and “labour,” “medieval” and “mediaeval,” “plow” and “plough,” “realise” and “realize,” “thru” and “through.”

Since Tudor days, aside from the verb endings -est and -eth, inflections have remained stable because they represent the essential minimum. The abandonment of the forms thou and thee may encourage the spread of yous and youse in many areas, but it is not necessarily certain that these forms will win general acceptance. The need for a distinctive plural can be supplied in other ways (e.g., the forms “you all, you fellows, you people”). The distinctions between the words “I” and “me,” “he”and “him,” “she” and “her,” “we” and “us,” “they” and “them” seem to many authors to be too important to be set aside, in spite of a growing tendency to use objective forms as emphatic subjective pronouns and to say, for instance, “them and us” instead of “they and we” in contrasting social classes. Otherwise, these distinctive forms may remain stable; they are all monosyllabic, they are in daily use, and they can bear the main stress. Thus they are likely to resist levelling processes.

Considerable changes will continue to be made in the forms and functions of auxiliary verbs, catenative (linking) verbs, phrasal verbs, and verb phrases. Indeed, the constituents of verbs and verb groups are being more subtly modified than those of any other word class. By means

of auxiliaries and participles, a highly intricate system of aspects, tenses, and modalities is gradually evolving.

In syntax the movement toward a stricter word order seems to many to be certain to continue. The extension of multiple attributives in nominal groups has probably reached its maximum. It cannot extend further without incurring the risk of ambiguity.

In vocabulary further increases are expected if the present trends continue. Unabbreviated general dictionaries already contain 500,000 entries, but even larger dictionaries, with 750,000 entries, may be required. Coiners of words probably will not confine themselves to Greek and Latin in creating new terms; instead they are likely to exercise their inventive powers in developing an international technical vocabulary that is increasingly shared by Russian, French, and Spanish and that is slowly emerging as the universal scientific language.

The influence of the mass media appears likely to result in standardized pronunciation, more uniform spelling, and eventually a spelling closer to actual pronunciation. Despite the likelihood of such standardization, a unique feature of the English language remains its tendency to grow and change. Despite the warnings of linguistic purists, new words are constantly being coined and usages modified to express new concepts. Its vocabulary is constantly enriched by linguistic borrowings, particularly by cross-fertilizations from American English. Because it is capable of infinite possibilities of communication, the English language has become the chief international language.

Questions to lecture10:

1. What are the most reasonable predictions of the future of English?

2. Are are the speculations of the lingiusts regarding the vocabulary?

3. **What languages are expected to be the prevailing ones in the future?**

Seminar topics for individual elaboration

1. Characteristics of Modern English. Phonology.

British Received Pronunciation (RP), by definition, the usual speech of educated people living in London and south-eastern England, is one of the many forms of standard speech. Other pronunciations, although not standard, are entirely acceptable in their own right on conversational levels.

The chief differences between British Received Pronunciation, as defined above, and a variety of American English, such as Inland Northern (the speech form of western New England and its derivatives, often popularly referred to as General American), are in the pronunciation of certain individual vowels and diphthongs. Inland Northern American vowels sometimes have semi consonantal final glides (i.e., sounds resembling initial w, for example, or initial y). Aside from the final glides, this American dialect shows four divergences from British English: (1) the words cod, box, dock, hot, and not are pronounced with a short (or half-long) low front sound as in British "bard" shortened (the terms front, back, low, and high refer to the position of the tongue); (2) words such as bud, but, cut, and rung are pronounced with a central vowel as in the unstressed final syllable of "sofa"; (3) before the fricative sounds s, f, and θ(the last of these is the th sound in "thin") the long low back vowel a, as in British "bath," is pronounced as a short front vowel a, as in British "bad"; (4) high back vowels following the alveolar sounds t and d and the nasal sound n in words such as tulips, dew, and news are pronounced without a glide as in British English; indeed, the words sound like the British "two lips," "do," and "nooze" in "snooze." (In several American dialects, however, these glides do occur.)

The 24 consonant sounds comprise six stops (plosives): p, b, t, d, k, g; the fricatives f, v, θ (as in "thin"), [eth] (as in "then"), s, z, ʃ (as in "ship"), ʒ (as in "pleasure"), and h; two affricatives: tʃ (as in "church") and dʒ (as the j in "jam"); the nasals m, n, ŋ (the sound that occurs at the end of words such as "young"); the lateral l; the vibrant or retroflex r; and the

semivowels j (often spelled y) and w. These remain fairly stable, but Inland Northern American differs from British English in two respects: (1) r following vowels is preserved in words such as “door,” “flower,” and “harmony,” whereas it is lost in British; (2) t between vowels is voiced, so that “metal” and “matter” sound very much like British “medal” and “madder,” although the pronunciation of this t is softer and less aspirated, or breathy, than the d of British English. Like Russian, English is a strongly stressed language. Four degrees of stress may be differentiated: primary, secondary, tertiary, and weak, which may be indicated, respectively, by acute (´), circumflex(ˆ), and grave (□) accent marks and by the breve(˘). Thus, “Têll mè thĕ trúth” (the whole truth, and nothing but the truth) may be contrasted with “Têll mé thĕ trûth” (whatever you may tell other people); “blâck bîrd” (any bird black in colour) may be contrasted with “blâckbìrd” (that particular bird Turdus merula). The verbs “permít” and “recórd” (henceforth only primary stresses are marked) may be contrasted with their corresponding nouns “pérmit” and “récord.” A feeling for antepenultimate (third syllable from the end) primary stress, revealed in such five-syllable words as equanímity, longitúdinal, notoríety, opportúnity, parsimónious, pertinácity, and vegetárian, causes stress to shift when extra syllables are added, as in “históríical,” a derivative of “hístory” and “theatricálity,” a derivative of “theátrical.” Vowel qualities are also changed here and in such word groups as période, periódical, periodícity; phótograph, photógraphy, photográphical. French stress may be sustained in many borrowed words; e.g.,bizárre, critíque, duréss, hotél, prestíge, and techníque.

Pitch, or musical tone, determined by the rate of vibration of the vocal cords, may be level, falling, rising, or falling–rising. In counting “one,” “two,” “three,” “four,” one naturally gives level pitch to each of these cardinal numerals. But if a person says “I want two, not one,” he naturally gives “two” falling pitch and “one” falling–rising. In the question “One?” rising pitch is used. Word tone is called pitch, and sentence tone is referred to as intonation. The end-of-sentence cadence is important for meaning, and it therefore varies least. Three main end-of-sentence intonations can be distinguished: falling, rising, and falling–rising. Falling intonation is used in completed statements, direct commands, and sometimes in general questions unanswerable by “yes” or “no”; e.g., “I have nothing to add.” “Keep to the right.” “Who told you that?” Rising intonation is frequently used in open-ended statements made with some reservation, in polite requests, and in particular questions answerable by “yes” or “no”: “I have nothing more to say at the moment.” “Let me know how you get on.” “Are you sure?” The third type of end-of-sentence intonation, first falling and then rising pitch, is used

in sentences that imply concessions or contrasts: “Some people do like them” (but others do not). “Don't say I didn't warn you” (because that is just what I'm now doing). Intonation is on the whole less singsong in American than in British English, and there is a narrower range of pitch. American speech may seem more monotonous but at the same time may sometimes be clearer and more readily intelligible. Everywhere English is spoken, regional dialects display distinctive patterns of intonation.

2. Characteristics of Modern English. Morphology. Inflection

Modern English nouns, pronouns, and verbs are inflected. Adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are invariable.

Most English nouns have plural inflection in (-e)s, but this form shows variations in pronunciation in the words cats (with a final s sound), dogs (with a final z sound), and horses (with a final iz sound), as also in the 3rd person singular present-tense forms of verbs: cuts (s), jogs (z), and forces (iz). Seven nouns have mutated (umlauted) plurals: man, men; woman, women; tooth, teeth; foot, feet; goose, geese; mouse, mice; louse, lice. Three have plurals in -en: ox, oxen; child, children; brother, brethren. Some remain unchanged; e.g., deer, sheep, moose, grouse. Five of the seven personal pronouns have distinctive forms for subject and object.

The forms of verbs are not complex. Only the substantive verb (“to be”) has eight forms: be, am, is, are, was, were, being, been. Strong verbs have five forms: ride, rides, rode, riding, ridden. Regular or weak verbs customarily have four: walk, walks, walked, walking. Some that end in a t or d have three forms only: cut, cuts, cutting. Of these three-form verbs, 16 are in frequent use.

In addition to the above inflections, English employs two other main morphological (structural) processes—affixation and composition—and two subsidiary ones—back-formation and blend.

3. Characteristics of Modern English. Affixation

Affixes, word elements attached to words, may either precede, as prefixes (do, undo; way, subway), or follow, as suffixes (do, doer; way, wayward). They may be native (overdo, waywardness), Greek (hyperbole, thesis), or Latin (supersede, pediment). Modern technologists greatly favour the neo-Hellenic prefixes macro-“long, large,” micro- “small,”

para- “alongside,” poly- “many,” and the Latin mini-, with its antonym maxi-. Greek and Latin affixes have become so fully acclimatized that they can occur together in one and the same word, as, indeed, in “ac-climat-ize-d,” just used, consisting of a Latin prefix plus a Greek stem plus a Greek suffix plus an English inflection. Suffixes are bound more closely than prefixes to the stems or root elements of words. Consider, for instance, the wide variety of agent suffixes in the nouns actor, artisan, dotard, engineer, financier, hireling, magistrate, merchant, scientist, secretary, songster, student, and worker. Suffixes may come to be attached to stems quite fortuitously, but, once attached, they are likely to be permanent. At the same time, one suffix can perform many functions. The suffix -er denotes the doer of the action in the words worker, driver, and hunter; the instrument in chopper, harvester, and roller; and the dweller in Icelander, Londoner, and Trobriander. It refers to things or actions associated with the basic concept in the words breather, “pause to take breath”; diner, “dining car on a train”; and fiver, “five-pound note.” In the terms disclaimer, misnomer, and rejoinder (all from French) the suffix denotes one single instance of the action expressed by the verb. Usage may prove capricious. Whereas a writer is a person, a typewriter is a machine. For some time a computer was both, but now, with the invention and extensive use of electronic apparatus, the word is no longer used of persons.

4. Characteristics of Modern English. Composition

Composition, or compounding, is concerned with free forms. Theprimary compounds “already,” “cloverleaf,” and “gentleman” show the collocation of two free forms. They differ from word groups or phrases in phonology, stress, or juncture or by a combination of two or more of these. Thus, “already” differs from “all ready” in stress and juncture, “cloverleaf” from “clover leaf” in stress, and “gentleman” from “gentle man” in phonology, stress, and juncture. In describing the structure of compound words it is necessary to take into account the relation of components to each other and the relation of the whole compound to its components. These relations diverge widely in, for example, the words cloverleaf, icebreaker, breakwater, blackbird, peace-loving, and paperback. In “cloverleaf” the first component noun is attributive and modifies the second, as also in the terms aircraft, beehive, landmark, lifeline, network, and vineyard. “Icebreaker,” however, is a compound made up of noun object plus agent noun, itself consisting of verb plus agent suffix, as also in the words bridgebuilder, landowner, metalworker, minelayer, and timekeeper. The next type consists of verb plus object. It is rare in English, Dutch, and German but frequent in French, Spanish, and Italian.

The English “pastime” may be compared, for example, with French passe-temps, the Spanish pasatiempo, and the Italian passatempo. From French comes “passport,” meaning “pass (i.e., enter) harbour.” From Italian comes “portfolio,” meaning “carry leaf.” Other words of this type are daredevil, scapegrace, and scarecrow. As for the “blackbird” type, consisting of attributive adjective plus noun, it occurs frequently, as in the terms bluebell, grandson, shorthand, and wildfire. The next type, composed of object noun and a present participle, as in the terms fact-finding, heart-rending (German herzzerreissend), life-giving (German lebenspendend), painstaking, and time-consuming, occurs rarely. The last type is seen in barefoot, bluebeard, hunchback, leatherneck, redbreast, and scatterbrain.

5. Characteristics of Modern English. Back-formations and blends

Back-formations and blends are becoming increasingly popular. Back-formation is the reverse of affixation, being the analogicalcreation of a new word from an existing word falsely assumed tobe its derivative. For example, the verb “to edit” has been formed from the noun “editor” on the reverse analogy of the noun “actor” from “to act,” and similarly the verbs automate, bulldoze, commute, escalate, liaise, loaf, sightsee, and televise are backformed from the nouns automation, bulldozer, commuter, escalation, liaison, loafer, sightseer, and television. From the single noun “procession” are backformed two verbs with different stresses and meanings: procéss, “to walk in procession,” and prócess, “to subject food (and other material) to a special operation.”

Blends fall into two groups: (1) coalescences, such as “bash” from “bang” and “smash”; and (2) telescoped forms, called portmanteau words, such as “motorcade” from “motor cavalcade.” In the first group are the words clash, from clack and crash, and geep, offspring of goat and sheep. To the second group belong dormobiles, or dormitory automobiles, and slurbs, or slum suburbs. A travel monologue becomes a travelogue and a telegram sent by cable a cablegram. Aviation electronics becomes avionics; biology electronics, bionics; and nuclear electronics, nucleonics. In cablese a question mark is a quark; incomputerese a binary unit is a bit. In astrophysics a quasistellar source of radio energy becomes a quasar, and a pulsating star becomes a pulsar.

Simple shortenings, such as “ad” for “advertisement,” have risen in status. They are listed in dictionaries side by side with their full forms. Among such fashionable abbreviations are exam, gym, lab, lib, op, spec, sub, tech, veg, and vet. Compound shortenings, after the pattern of Russian agitprop for agitatsiya propaganda, are also becoming fashionable. Initial syllables are joined as in the words Fortran, for formula (computer) translation; mascon, for massive (lunar) concentration; and Tacomsat, for Tactical Communications Satellite.

6. Characteristics of Modern English. Syntax

Sentences can be classified as (1) simple, containing one clause and predication: “John knows this country”; (2) multiple or compound, containing two or more coordinate clauses: “John has been here before, and he knows this country”; and (3) complex, containing one or more main clauses and one or more subordinate clauses: “John, who has been here before, knows this country” or “Because he has been here before, John knows this country.” Simple, declarative, affirmative sentences have two main patterns with five subsidiary patterns within each. Verb and complement together form the predicate. “Complement” is here used to cover both the complement and the object of traditional grammarians (see table).

In (1) the complement is the direct object of a transitive verb; in (2) it is a predicative nominal group forming the second component of an equation linked to the first part by the meaningless copula is; in (3) it is a predicative noun linked with the subject by the meaningful copula becomes; in (4) it is a predicative adjective; and in (5) it is a predicative past participle.

In the next table each sentence contains four components: subject, verb, and two complements, first and second, or inner and outer. In (6) inner and outer complements consist of indirect object (without preposition) followed by direct object; in (7) these complements are direct object and appositive noun; in (8)direct object and predicative adjective; in (9) direct object and predicative past participle; in (10) direct object and predicative infinitive.

One can seldom change the word order in these 10 sentences without doing something else—adding or subtracting a word, changing the meaning. There is no better way of appreciating the importance of word position than by scrutinizing the 10 frames illustrated. If, for instance, in (6) one reverses inner and outer complements, one adds “to” and says, “John gives a ring to Mary”; one does not say “John gives a ring Mary.” Some verbs, such as “explain” and “say,” never omit the preposition “to” before the indirect object: “John's father explained the details to his son.” “He said many things to him.” If, in (10), the inner and outer complements are reversed (e.g., “We want to know you”), the meaning is changed as well as the structure.

Apart from these fundamental rules of word order, the principles governing the positions of adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions call for brief comment. For attributive adjectives the rule is simple: single words regularly precede the noun, and word groups follow—e.g., “an unforgettable experience” but “an experience never to be forgotten.” There is a growing tendency, however, to abandon this principle, to switch groups to front position, and to say “a

never to be forgotten experience.” In the ordering of multiple epithets, on the other hand, some new principles are seen to be slowly emerging. Attributes denoting permanent qualities stand nearest their head nouns: “long, white beard,” “six-lane elevated freeway.” The order in multiple attribution tends to be as follows: determiner; quantifier; adjective of quality; adjective of size, shape, or texture; adjective of colour or material; noun adjunct (if any); head noun. Examples include: “that one solid, round, oak dining table,” “these many fine, large, black race horses,” “those countless memorable, long, bright summer evenings.”

Adverbs are more mobile than adjectives. Nevertheless, some tentative principles seem to be at work. Adverbs of frequency tend to come immediately after the substantive verb (“You are often late”), before other verbs (“You never know”), and between auxiliaries and full verbs (“You can never tell”). In this last instance, however, American differs from British usage. Most Americans would place the adverb before the auxiliary and say “You never can tell.” (In the title of his play of that name, first performed in 1899, George Bernard Shaw avowedly followed American usage.) Adverbs of time usually occur at the beginning or end of a sentence, seldom in the middle. Particular expressions normally precede more general ones: “Neil Armstrong set foot on the Moon at 4 o'clock in the morning on July 21, 1969.” An adverb of place or direction follows a verb with which it is semantically bound: “We arrived home after dark.” Other adverbs normally take end positions in the order of manner, place, and time: “Senator Smith summed it all up most adroitly [manner] in Congress [place] last night [time].”

In spite of its etymology (Latin prae-positio “before placing”), a preposition may sometimes follow the noun it governs, as in “all the world over,” “the clock round,” and “the whole place through.” “This seems a good place to live in” seems more natural to most speakers than “This seems a good place in which to live.” “Have you anything to open this can with?” is now more common than “Have you anything with which to open this can?”

The above are principles rather than rules, and in the end it must be agreed that English syntax lacks regimentation. Its structural laxity makes English an easy language to speak badly. It also makes English prone to ambiguity. “When walking snipe always approach up wind,” a shooting manual directs. The writer intends the reader to understand, “When you are walking to flush snipe always approach them up against the wind.” “John kept the car in the garage” can mean either (1) “John retained that car you see in the garage, and sold his other one” or (2) “John housed the car in the garage, and not elsewhere.” “Flying planes can be dangerous”

is ambiguous because it may mean either (1) “Planes that fly can be dangerous” or (2) “It is dangerous to fly planes.”

Two ways in which “John gives Mary a ring” can be stated in the passive are: (1) “A ring is given to Mary by John” and (2) “Mary is given a ring by John.” Concerning this same action, four types of question can be formulated: (1) “Who gives Mary a ring?” The information sought is the identity of the giver. (2) “Does John give Mary a ring?” The question may be answered by “yes” or “no.” (3) “John gives Mary a ring, doesn't he?” Confirmation is sought of the questioner's belief that John does in fact give Marya ring. (4) “John gives Mary a ring?” This form, differing from the declarative statement only by the question mark in writing, or by rising intonation in speech, calls, like sentences (2) and (3), for a “yes” or “no” answer but suggests doubt on the part of the questioner that the action is taking place.

7. The Old English Alphabets. Literary sources.

In the writing of the Old English Period we find two alphabets employed: the older (runic) alphabet in which we have only inscriptions and the Latin alphabet in which we have quite a number of writings. The runic alphabet: -an inscription on Frank’s Casket (шкатулка). There is a very old ancient inscription, which is not very easy even to decode. It is made of whalebone. Ruthwell cross It’s a Christian cross on which we find an inscription in the runic alphabet. It was found near the place Ruthwell. That’s why it is called Ruthwell cross. The Latin alphabet: Anglo-Saxon Chronicle. It registered the most important historical events from the 9th c. Up to the 12th c. It doesn’t mean that monks didn’t write anything before, they did. But before the 9th c. Monks kept the chronicles in different monasteries and in the 9th c. (on the initiative of King Alfred the Great) they compiled different manuscripts in one and began to continue registering the events in several main manuscripts. Of course it’s not a literally creations and the facts are rather monotonous. But it’s a splendid sample of Anglo-Saxons prose. Besides we have quit a number of private documents (financial documents) but of course the most important things are literally works. The point is that though A-S. Tribes are considered to be barbarians; we have splendid samples born of poetry and prose. Poetry. All in all we have about 30000 lines. What do we find among them? First of all there are shorter and longer poems. The longest is “Beowulf” (1/10 of the whole, 30000) It is a complete poem, an epic poem, a legend of a hero. The meter (размер) of the poem: The old Germanic and English verse had no rhythm and no meter. The main device which was employed is alliteration – it’s a repetition of certain sounds. The key sound for alliteration was

the first stressed sound of several sounds at the beginning of the second half-line Alliteration was the universal device. Whatever we have in the OE verses everything was alliterated. OE poetry was very rich in metaphors: “sun” = “world candle” etc Though it (Beowulf) it is a legend in some parts we can rely on it as on historical material because it is based on some historical events, there are names of real kings, tribes and which is more important we can draw from it interesting information on their way of life: the descriptions of the warriors, their weapons the relations between the king and his vassals, of their duties. Other poems: It is unique that in spite of the fact that it is very old poetry and mostly epic it is clear that the authors (anonymous) are interested in the readers and the hearers’ reaction. Even in Beowulf and even more in later poems we find highly pronounced lyrical basis. Another wonders of the Old English Period are the so-called elegiac poems (of the late Old English Period). There are referred to as elegiac because they are elegiac in their dominant hey note. There are four of them: one of them is called “Widsith” (maybe the of the author) in which sufferings of the author, his life are described; author is called “Deor’s Lament” – it is also a sad elegiac poem in which the author describes the hardlots of different people. The poem is unique by its strophic form; two more: Wanderer, Sea Farer. Besides we find fragments of two more epic poems and quite a number of short poems. More than half of them are religious poems either of devotional or moralistic character. Some of them describe lives of saints or paraphrase the Bible. And also there is gnomic verse. Some riddles. OE Poetry was highly accomplished. As far as the main attitudes are concerned we find here a mixture of pagan and Christian thought. Prose is a much later achievement than poetry and it is unique that at the time than other people of Europe only began to compose verse the OE people began to write prose. A-S Chronicle King Alfred the Great is one of the greatest authors of OE prose (9th c.). He was king of Wessex. His life wasn’t long but very hard. He had to fight against the Danes (a Scandinavian Tribe). He is a great enlighter. “At the time when other rules were moral and intellectual monsters, K. A. Was to enlighten his people”. King Alfred the Great (848-901). He himself introduced the educational reform, imported learned people, scholars from Europe to teach at the monasteries (monastery schools) and he himself ventured to write prose. That’s why he is sometimes referred to as «The Father of E. Prose». His purpose was to educate his people. That’s why it was on his initiative that the Anglo-Saxon chronicle was started as a single piece. He himself translated several very important books into the OE language: from Latin, because before the OE prose developed, there were some writings in Latin and in order to be able to translate from Latin he learned Latin himself with the role purpose of translating learned books: «Ecclesiastical history of the E people» written by Bede the Venerable (Беда

Достопочтенный) («Церковная история английского народа»). In this book we also find a poem by Cadmon. Bede describes how Cadmon got the ability of glorifying God in his dream. («Cadmon's Hymn») He translated «World History» by Paulus Orosius - a Spanish monk who wrote «World History» in which there are some interesting historical and geographical facts. King Alfred inserted some parts describing the Northern Parts of the world (Scandinavia). So these are episodes written by King Alfred. That's why they are precious to us. «Pastoral Care» («Заботы пастыря») by Pope Gregory - he was a highly educated, intellectual and spiritual man. The book describes what a clergyman should do for people. So these are the main translations by King Alfred the Great. And we consider we find that they are much shorter that the originals: he picked out only something which he considered very important, some parts are adopted and some parts are paraphrased. There some other prose writers. The most important for the development of writing are Wulfstan and Alfic. They lived at the end of the OE Period (end X - beginning XI). They were both clergymen. Wulfstan was a bishop. Since they were clergymen they mostly wrote homilies (проповеди). Both Wulfstan and Alfic were brilliant stylists and had their own styles. Both wrote in alliterated and rhythmic prose. Wulfstan's style was firrier, more energetic and Alfic's style was a bit gentler. He is considered to be one of the greatest stylists of the period. Wulfstan was also a great statesman; he took an active part in the reforms (in the state and church). As to Alfic he is interesting for us because he is the author of one of the first grammars «Colloqui» which was written as an instruction for monastery students, it was written in the form of a dialogue between the teacher and his pupils. It was desired as an instruction in good language and it is considered to be one of the first grammars in the history of the development of the E language.

8. The Old English Noun.

The OE noun had the grammatical category of number, case (N, G, D, A.), and the grammatical gender which depended on the noun . There was no article but there were words, which could function as those expressing definiteness/indefiniteness: the pronoun se, seo, (тот) (мн. Число a). This demonstrative pronoun of functioned as the article. Up to the 12th century the demonstrative ""had two functions (pronoun, article). How the noun was declined: The OE noun had nine declensions. The type of declension depended on the stem-building suffix. Accordingly the declensions subdivided: - The a-stem m and n day - The o-stem f care - The i-stem all genders deal- The n-stem son. These four types of

vowel declensions are also referred to as the strong declension (Сильное склонение или спряжение – изменение гласной, слабое – суффикс с согласным). 3 consonant declensions: The -nt-stem friend The -s-stem child The -r-stem sister + one more: weak declension – the –en-stem ox – oxen and the root stem declension (man – men, woman – women) The suffix of a certain stem did not exist in the OE language – the type of stem is determined through the whole paradigms. ЧТО СОХРАНИЛОСЬ? The regular suffix – goes back to the old “as” of the a-stem declension masculine. The homonymous forms (deer - deer) go back to the a-stem declension neutral with the long syllable variant sheep. They were homonymous already then.-en is the old suffix of the en-stem declension. There are only three such words in the literal language: ox, child, brother (in dialects there are many more of them). But only “oxen” belonged to the weak declension. “child” belonged to the n-stem declension. And the plural was There is also so called foreign plural, but these are much later borrowings. The suffix of the possessive case’s has developed from the Gen. Case with the ending –es the a-stem declension masculine.

9. The Old English Adjective.

The adjective in OE agreed with the noun in gender, number and case. It had all the categories of agreement, besides the adjective had two declensions: the strong and the weak declension. The strong declension of the adjective had the case ending similar to those of the corresponding vowel declension of the noun. Some endings were like those of the demonstrative pronouns. That is why sometimes the strong is referred to as the pronominal declension. As to the weak declension it had in oblige cases the suffix with the consonant “n”. The type of the adjective declension depended on the indefinites or definiteness of the noun.

10. The Old English pronoun.

There were several groups of pronouns, but they were fewer in number: personal pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, interrogative pronoun, and indefinite pronoun. The personal pronouns were declined; like the nouns they had four cases: N ic (=I) G min(=mine) D me(=me)A mec Besides in old times the 1st and the 2nd person had the dual number Ic (я) - wit (я и ты) - we (мы больше, чем)The idea of possession was expressed by the Gen. Case of the personal pronouns. As to the demonstrative pronouns there were two groups for “this” and for “that” is this) - es (these) at (that) - os (those) the (gave us the modern article) There were interrogative pronouns: hwat-what hwyk-which and so on. The indefinite pronouns: The group was not so

numerous as in the ME language. All these: somebody/thing – were not words, but word groups. There were “each, much, little” and so on.

11. The Old English verb.

There were finite and non-finite forms. The non-finite forms were the Infinitive and the Participle (I and II). There was no Gerund. A) The Infinitive in OE was a verbal noun and belonged to the weak –en-stem declension. Of the four cases the Infinitive employed only two (N. - , D.- drincenne). The D. Case, which was very frequently used, was often used with the preposition “to” as an adverbial modifier of purpose and later it came to be used as the marker of the infinitive (нет с модальными глаголами т.к. Они не могут выражать цель).b) The Participle was a verbal adjective. Like any adjective – it had the category of agreement. It agreed with its noun in gender, number and case. As to the formation, P.I was formed from the present item with the suffix –ende, -ande. As to P.II, its formation depended on the type of the verb. These were four types of conjugation: two major types and two minor types. The two major: the strong conjugation & the weak conjugation. A strong verb had four main forms:-the infinitive - Preterit singular 1st and 3rd person - the 2nd person singular and all the persons of the plural and the past subjunctive- Participle II There are seven classes of strong verbs. The gradation was based on: in the first 5 classes the basis was the ablaut or the “e-o” gradation: “e-o-zero”. Different gradations resulted as an interaction (взаимодействие). The vowels of gradation and the phonetic conditions of the root I. Writan - wrat - writon – writen (i + i (a + i>a) (i + зero) (i + zero) The sixth class featured quantative gradation. «o-o» (in IE) o + a o + a scacal - scoc (shake) taka - tok (take) The last 7th class featured reduplication of the root (fall, let) lailait (in the Gothic language) In the OE the two parts merged into one root. THE WEAK VERBS. The weak verbs had three main forms:- the infinitive - the Praterite - Participle II. The weak verbs formed three forms by means of a dental suffix. The suffix of the weak verbs later turned into the standard suffix -ed. In Germanic languages there were four weak classes, in OE we find three weak classes. In the 1st weak class we find three subclasses: weak verbs with the short root syllable (neriat - nered - nered). Weak verbs with the long syllable variants (fedan - fedde - fedd). Irregular verbs (совр. Глаголы, которые имеют чередование гласного + нестандартный «t/d») (to think - thought - thought, to tell - told - told). Taljan > tellan (везде был jan палатальная перегласовка tellan (инф) - (Praterite) talde в форме прошедшего времени элемента «j» не было).All the verbs of the 1st weak class are derivatives with the help of the suffix jan

which caused palatal mutation in the root. However in the Praterite of the 3rd subgroup the suffix was dropped. That is why there was no palatal mutation in the Praterite. The same is true of the gradation man-men, that is they went through palatal mutation in the plural mannіз > men The 2nd weak class was the most regular one. It had no exceptions - ode (Prater) - od (P.II) love: luvian - luvode – luvod It served as the basis for the future development of the standard verbs. The 3rd class was not numerous and it was in the state of decay. In ME: to have, to live, to say (different models) habban - hэbde - hэbd There are also two minor types of conjugation. - Preterit-Present Verbs - Suppletive Verbs The Preterit-Present Verbs were originally strong verbs belonging to certain classes, then for some semantic reasons their old past came to be used as the present tense form after which a new Preterit form was formed according to the weak type as the productive. They have given us modal verbs: dare, must, may, should, shall, can, ought. Cunnan (inf.) - can (present - старое прошедшее). Suppletive verbs: There have always been two suppletive verbs: to be, to go. “To be” in the OLD ENGLISH PERIOD had two present paradigms to be - bist (bhen IE) am (es IE)“to go”: OE зап-ecde (прош. Время). Later the Preterite “ecde” was replaced by the Preterite “wendte” (от wendan = wander). The categories: 7 grammatical categories in the ME language, but there were 4 categories in OE: tense: Present/Preterite Mood (Indicative, Imper., Subj.) Person Number Cepan (keep) Ic cepe n cepst he cep Other categories were only beginning to develop (voice, aspect, phase, etc.)

12. The Old English syntax.

OE was a typically synthetic language: the structure of the sentence, the members of the sentence were typical of a synthetic lang.The same members of the sentence (Russian and English). However the word order in the sentence was more grammatically free: it was more semantic than grammatical thus, for instance, inversion was not obligatory for a question and on the contrary inversion could occur in a declarative sentence: Wille ic sagen = могу я сказать.However there were two shirt grammatical rules which are still observed in Modern German language:a frame construction inversion in sentences beginning with secondary members (obligatory) THE TYPES OF SENTENCES.In the main, the types and the kinds of sentences were the same: simple & compound, main clauses & subordinate clauses. But there were however some peculiarities:2 types of impersonal sentences. The younger type like the modern with «it» with «hit». 1.an impersonal sentence without the subject: him uhte - ему подумалось.Another feature: the difference between coordination and subordination was not

pronounced (не проявлялось) esp. In epic poems.Of the 5 complexes that we have now, in OE there was only 2: Acc. With the infinitive, Nom. With the infinitive.MEANS OF WORDBUILDING AND WORDSTOCK.Like any G. Language OE was rich in means of wordbuilding. There were 3 of them: affixation, word composition (word compounding) and sound gradation (it was not productive) AFFIXATION.The noun and the adjective were rich in suffixes. Sometimes the noun added an element which in OE was a word and later became a suffix.Had - царство, область - hood, ful and so on. As to the verb, it was rich prefixes. The prefixes marked the terminative character of the verb.WORD COMPOSITION.noun + noun: goldsmith adjective + noun: cwic + seolfor = quicksilver noun + adjective: win + sad (насыщенный вином) adjective + adjective: wid + cu (широкоизвестный)

13. The Sound System in Old English

In OE, as it is now, there were long and short vowels. Short: a, (э), e, i, o, u, y; long: a, (э), e, i, o, u, y. There was no reduction. The main principle of the orthography was the phonetic principle. There were some sounds which are not pronounced in the modern language. One of the other interesting features is complete parallelism (в староанглийском гласные образуют полноценные пары a-a..., тогда как в современном языке этого не наблюдается I не равно i: т.к. Разница не только в долготе, но и в качестве гласного). OE - modern English. Общее: - деление на долгие/краткие; - сохранение некоторых звуков. Разница: - отсутствие параллелизма в современном English; - исчезли некоторые звуки появились новые. There were also diftongs, both long and short: ea, eo (not a single one is now preserved). Difference - there were long and shot diftongs (in ME only long diftongs) - the second element sonorous than the glide in ME. - the second element was broader (now narrower). Consonants. There were no affricates t , d , besides there were no fricatives. There was no palatalisation, which is strictly forbidden in the modern language, in some positions. The sounds s-z, f-v, were not different phonemes, they were positional variants of the phonemes. There was aspiration. Sound Changes. Vowels: 1)palatalisation of the Germanic [a] a:>. In all the positions except the position before a nasal dags (Gothic) || ME day There was no palatalisation before a nasal consonant. Before a nasal consonant ‘a’ was nasalised and labialised: man 2)breaking (преломление)A monophtong became a diphtong a>ea; a shot monophtong gave a short diphtong and a long monophtong gave a long diphtonggothic ahtan || EO eahta > ME eight Breaking occurred before: «rr, r + a consonant, l, h».No immediate traces of it in the modern language can be seen due to monophtongazotion.

3)palatal mutation (палатальная перегласовка, Umlaut) By palatal mutation we mean a change which consisted in the root vowel becoming more front and more narrow. Palatal mutation is an assimilating change of the root vowel affected by the sounds «i» or «j» in the following suffix (a repressive assimilation) There are numerous traces palatal mutation in the ME: the noun with vowel gradation (man-men) in the plural; adjectives with two sets of forms (old-older or elder) and adverbs; verbs like tell-told, teach-taught; some worlds building pairs long-length. 4)velar mutation (веллерная, небная перегласовка) Velar mutation is a change of the root vowel caused by the back vowel in the suffix (repressive assimilation) There are now immediate traces of it in the ME language. 5)lengthening of stressed vowels in the root Chronologically there were two lengthenings: the earlier (prehistoric; III – IV c.) And later (IV c. And later). The earlier lengthening occurred due to the loss of a consonant. There were two instances here: - dropping of з [h] seозan . OE seon (>to see; sehen in Deutsch) when a nasal was dropped before a fricative Goth. Fimf || OE fif (german funf) The second lengthening: the root vowel was lengthened before certain combinations ld, nd and so on : old, cold, kind, wind, table II Consonants 1)The prehistoric process of doubling West Germanic consonants which is typical of the whole occurred as a by-product of the process of palatal mutation. *satjan > s(э) ttan There are no immediate traces of it in the Me. 2)rotacism: a certain fricative was voiced according to Verner's law and later it developed into "r" was – were sein – war- gewesen 3)Palatalization Some consonants were palatalized when they occurred next to a front vowel (e, i, y)OE cild (> ME child) Later they (palatalized consonants) gave new phonemes 4)metathesis (метатеза) – a prehistoric process; metathesis is changing of positions of consonants in one root der Teller || тарелка third < ridda brennen || burn 5)dropping – see lengthening of vowels 6)voicing some fricatives were voiced in the intervocal position. It is due to this voicing that we get such pairs of words as: life – lives, shelf - shelves

14. The Middle English Period. General Characteristic.

It was the period of the decay of the old trial system and the intensive development of feudalism. The feudal system leads to feudal isolation because each of the manors is self-sustained and produces all that is necessary for him. That's why we observe here isolation of different territories. This influenced the situation in the language. If in OE we deal with trial dialects, in ME in the place of the old tribal dialects we find local dialects. If we group the local dialects, we find 3 large groups: the South-Western and Kentish group = the Southern

Group the Midland Group the Northern Group Gradually they were developing in the direction of disintegration; they were becoming more and more unlike. By the beginning of the Middle English Period we can't speak about a uniform literary language it means that when we speak of the language of the Middle English Period we mean a community of dialects, but within this community there was a very important process of the London dialect, becoming more and more important as the main dialect, born for writings and for communication. Towards the end of the Middle English Period we find that the London dialect is gradually turning into the basis of the literary language. The main group of the words in the London dialect belonged to the Southern group (the southwestern part of it), though of course we find a lot of elements from the Midland group. London was the capital; the center of culture, trade, navigation and it was the center of printing. The great trend of that period is great transformation in the English language. The Middle English Period was a period when the English language was transforming from the synthetic structure in the analytic structure the English language is now. So, the Middle English Period is the period of transition. The most important processes: 1)The phonetic process of reduction (in OE there were no reduced vowels) – unstressed vowels came to be reduced; it was one of the main reasons for dropping of endings. 2)Leveling on analogy (выравнивание по аналогии) – the grammatical processes; употребление форм в соответствии с продуктивными парадигмами. Another very important event of the period was the influence of the French language, which is connected with the so-called Worman Conquest. It affected the life of the country, its political and social systems, its economic system and it' language greatly. Towards the end of the Middle English Period the English language came to be romanized by about 70%. Towards the end of the Old English Period a great part of the E territory belonged to the Danes, but part of the territory remained English (Alfred the Great). Late in the 10th century the Dane invasions were renewed under Sweyn (The Danish King), who was a powerful king and ruled a very powerful Danish Kingdom which united Denmark, Norway and partly Sweden and England. When in 1018 Sweyn died, his son Canute became king and he was even more powerful ruler than his father. The power of the Danes extended too much that as historians say for some time it seemed that the future of England was to be connected with Denmark. It lasted for several decades. In 1035, when Canute died, his sons were unable to keep his kingdom together, the King power was weakened and Denmark fell into parts. So thei was an opportunity for English nobility to have a King of their royal dynasty. In 1042 they proclaimed Edward the Confessor King of England. He was a representative of Godwin royal line. Edward was not a strong ruler, he was a man of rather a weak character and he

devoted much time to religion, and didn't devote much time to state affairs. He had several statesmen who helped him in his state affairs. One of the peculiarities of his biography was that King Edward had been reared in France. When part of England was under the Danish law, he was in France. It was there that he got education. Somehow it explains the events which are to fallow. It was then that English contacts with Normandy (Земля северных людей) grew stronger. Normandy – part of France, which was populated by Scandinavians, who had made raids not only to England, but to France too. By culture, civilization they lived within Roman civilization, they were more civilized then the English people. In 1066 Duke William (the Duke of Normandy) garnered large army and landed in England. He had claims to the English throne. Historians wonder, whether there were any reasons for it. There was another King already – Harold, a representative of the same powerful Godwin line. Edward had no children. And when he died, England faced the problem of choice. And they chose Harold. Harold with his army met William's army. The most fierce battle took place at Hastings. In a fierce battle Harold was killed and William the Conqueror proclaimed himself King of England. The most important reasons for his victory were: -higher civilization - William's army was well-organized, some of his soldiers were professional, whereas Harold had to gather an army of common people, peasants -Unexpected attack in autumn, as it had been expected by Harold in summer, it means that he decided that the attack would be postponed till spring and let some of his soldiers go home. Some nobility in England didn't support him, whereas everybody supported William. After the Norman Conquest there began romanization of the whole country and language. William brought many nobles with himself and they occupied the most important posts of court, in court of course they brought the French language. For more than 2 centuries there was a three-lingual situation. The official and literary language was French, but North-French (Anglo-Norman), the language of the common population was English; Latin was the language of science. It was taught at monasteries, in the 1st Universities.

15. The Middle English Period. The Alphabet. Literature.

As to the alphabet, there were some important changes in the system of spelling and the alphabet. Some symbols were not used any longer: _ _ _. On the other hand they introduced some other new symbols: k v and some others. Some symbols changed their sound value: y [U (умляут) – I]. There was also an important in the very way of spelling certain sounds. The introduction of digraphs (двухбуквенное обозначение одной фонемы): vowel digraphs

(ee…) and consonant digraphs (sh, ch…).Writings. The number of writings had considerably increased, esp. Towards the end of the Middle English Period, when parchment (пергамент) was replaced by paper. If we consider the development of the language and the development of writings, we should divide the Middle English Period into 2 subperiods: early and late.

At the beginning of the Middle English Period we find that in literature in writings they continued the old Anglo-Saxon tradition: they mostly wrote religious poems, tents, gospels and in the very way they wrote them it was also a continuation of the Anglo-Saxon tradition – that is poems were written in alliterative form. A typical example of it is the poem, which is called “Ormullum” - it was a poetic interpretation of the gospel written by Orm. We can’t say, that this poem is a work of art, but it is a typical example of the continuation of the A. -S. Tradition, born in style and form. As to continuation of the A-Saxon tradition in prose, we find it in chronicles, which were renewed after the break. The chronicle, which covers the late period, is referred to as “Petersburg Chronicle”. In the middle of the early Middle English Period we already come across new trends and developments in literature. English literature of that period was greatly influenced by French literature. In French literature the main genre of the time was chivalry romance (рыцарские романы). These were poems, which mostly described the life of knights. We find a number of romance poems in England in English, however at the beginning of the development of this genre the poems were written mostly in French and in Latin (ballads), towards the end of the Middle English Period there appeared quite a number of them – even some cycles in English. One of the most important poems of the 1st part of Middle English Period was the poem “But” written by Layoman, it is a poetic interpretation of another work, which was written in French on the history of England. The original author traces the English Royal life to the times of Эней (Трои). It is one of the most remarkable poems, however it is not as great as Beowulf or Canterbury tales. In it we see the process of development of the English poetic language in the making. In it we see different devices: alliteration and syllabic strictness. Many later plots were derived from this poem. The second part of the Middle English Period – Late Middle English Period – is usually referred to as medieval noon, flourish. It’s the second part of the 13th century. As far as poetry is concerned, we should mention Jeffrey Chaucer, John Gower and an anonymous writer, William Langland (an allegoric poem “Vision of Piers the Ploughman” – “Видение Петра пахаря”, It’s a great work of art; it is written in alliterative style; it is one of the first works of art in which the author voices his protest against inequality, exploitation. In medieval literature we find a new ideaxrial disconnect, which can’t be seen in the Old English Period.

Another important work of that period was a prosaic work – a translation of the Bible, made be John Wiclif and his followers. He was an outstanding man; he was one of the fathers of the Reformation in England. This translation is usually considered to be a work of art, because the quality of the translation is such, that makes us think that it is a work of art, a splendid sample of medieval literature. J. Chaucer (1340-1380) – a man of genius. He was an outstanding statesman, a man of great courage, wish, irony; he is of course also a writer of genius. He wrote several poems. The greatest of which is the famous poem, a real masterpiece – "The Canterbury tales". It is a long poem, which is written in iambic pentameter (пяти-строчный ямб). The language of the poem is quite modern. Originally he wanted to write 32 parts in it, but he managed to write only 24. In the prologue to the poem he describes a group of pilgrims who are on their way to Canterbury. Since there were no cars, they travelled either on foot or on horse. And in order not to feel very dull on their way, they decided to tell stories of their life and other lives. This is an encyclopedia of the life of that time. Chaucer described all the layers of society. Chaucer's vocabulary is very rich and picturesque. He used words form different dialects. The situation in the country couldn't but tell on the linguistic situation in the country, which was three-lingual at that time. By the 14th century French had lost its significance and English became the state language. As far as literature is concerned, there appeared new genres: chivalry romance (ballads, poems and stories about the heroic deeds of the Knights). The most important change in the system of versification was the complete change in the poetic form. In OE the main device was alliteration. The Middle English Period witnessed the establishment of syllabi-tonic system. The Middle English Period witnessed the considerable increase in the number of written documents, letters. The development of medieval literature culminated in the second half of the 14th century. All the works were already written in English. And this period is usually referred to as the medieval noon. Here we find such great works as: Langland's "Vision of Piers the Ploughman", John Wyclif's translation of the Bible, the anonymous finest chivalry poem "Sir Govern and the green Knights", Sir Gower's works, and Chaucer's works – he wrote pamphlets, he criticized clergy and of course he was the author of "The Kent. Tales".

16. The Middle English Period. The Noun.

In OE there were 9 declensions which depended on the type of stem. During the Middle English Period the E noun lost its types of declensions so that towards the end of the Middle English Period (by the 14th century). They didn't distinguish declensions. 4 case system

turned into 2 case system: N. Fissh fisshes (goes back to the -a-stem declension)G. Fisshes fisshes (goes back to the -a-stem declension) The plural and the genitive of the unified paradime goes back to the old «-as reduction» of the -a-stem declension. As to the irregular nouns, they have always been irregular (non-standard). Together with the loss of endings the E noun lost its category of grammatical gender. The weak -n-stems declension resisted analogy longer than all the other stems. The development of the noun declension lasted for about 3 centuries and the -n-stems resisted unification longer than other stems. Now: ox - oxen (настоящее только это), brother - brethren, child - children and in some dialects: horse - horsen.

17. The Middle English Period. The Adjective.

The adjective began to lose its markers even earlier than the noun. The process began at the end of The OLD ENGLISH PERIOD. The development went along the same lines: that is - the reduction of the endings led to dropping and simplification. The adjective lost the distinction between the strong and the weak declension. The adjective markers of agreement with the noun. Towards the end of the Middle English Period we find only some relics of the old system of declension: in Chaucer's works - -e goode - the plural of the strong declension, but it was already occasional. As to the degrees of comparison alongside the old system with the suffixes er, est there developed a new way - the analytical way with «more, most». The development was to some extent influenced by the French language. So towards the end of the Middle English Period we had two parallel ways of the formation of decrees of comparison. However even at the beginning of the NEP there wasn't a fixed rule as to which of the two forms to use. (Shakespeare - most beautifullest).

18. The Middle English Period. The Pronoun

.In OE the groups of pronouns were fewer in number. The system of the personal pronouns had changed greatly. In the peace of the old 4-case system we find a 2-case system in ME. The old nominative case has remained up to now except for «you» («зеw») in which the old N. R. Form was replaced by the objective case form. (старая форма «це» - is used in dialects and in spoken language) as to u>thou (библия + возвышенный стиль) The modern objective case developed from the oblique cases (the D. And the A.); with some of them (I) the D. Case became the unified form, with some (it) the unified for was the A. Case.As to the G. Case it left the case system and gave rise to a new group of possessive pronouns.As to the Dem.

Pronouns like all the other declinable parts of speech they lost their case forms, their forms of the gender: they have preserved only the pl./sg. Forms: this - these / that-those. There was the group of interrogative pronouns. They only changed their pronunciation. Generally they have always be the same. The other groups developed during the Middle English Period. Some of them developed as compound words.

19. The Middle English Period. The Verb.

NON - FINITE FORMS. The development of the non-finite forms: the infinitive and the participles may well be described as gradual verbalization. The OE Infinitive was a verbal noun. During the Middle English Period the Infinitive lost all its noun features except for some of his syntactic functions. It's suffix -an was reduced and dropped -an>-en>-e>zero. As to the particle «to» it was a preposition. With the meaning of purpose (у мод. (после них) глаголов нет «to»б т.к. Они не выражают значение цели). The same is true of the participle. The EP lost its nominal morphological characteristic (and the category of agreement with the noun). Alongside this loss the Infinitive and the P. Began to develop verbal features and categories. The Gerund is a much later development. FINITE FORMS. The classes (4 classes in OE) of verbs were in the main preserved. The speakers still distinguished the classes. But there were certain very important developments. The number of strong verbs was reduced from 300 in OE to 200 in ME. At the same time some strong verbs became weak, they lost their vowel gradation and took on the dental suffix: to help, to climb, to walk and some others. At the same time there was a mixture of classes: strong verbs remained strong, but they changed their class, their gradation (4th <>5th - more often): to speak (5 в 4). As to the weak verbs the 3rd class stop existing: two classes. The suffixes were -du and -ed. The most regular was the second weak class - it later gave us the standard suffix -ed for standard or regular verbs. The Middle English Period witnessed the development of weak verbs which then turned into regular verbs. A great number of verbs joined the class of regular verbs. The new formations which joined the group of regular verbs were French (and some other languages). As to the preterit-present verbs they preserved their modal meaning, but their paradime had changed greatly. Towards the end of the Middle English Period they lost their infinitive and participles and turned into defective verbs. Some of their old forms were dropped or gave rise to other words: cunning < can (cunnan); own (owe) < ought (азan). As to the suppletives they have always been the same: to be, to go. THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ANALUTICAL FORMS. In OE there were only 4 grammatical categories. They are

the Tense (Present & Preterit), the Mood, Person and Number. All of them were synthetic. But during the Middle English Period some other categories which were mainly analytical appeared. One of the first to develop was the category of time correlation. In OE there were many constructions with the verb «to have» in its main meaning +an object +an attribute, which referred to the object (to have something done). Later this construction developed into the Perfect Form. We see it when Participle II lost its agreement with the object and when later the object took the position after the Participle. This process was going in the middle of the Middle English Period => «to have done something». The Continuous forms developed in the same way. From a free form combination to a morphological form. In the beginning it was a compound nominal predicate with the verb «to be» as a link-verb and Participle I as a predicative. And originally it didn't express a process, it meant only permanent characteristic as a Present indefinite now. The Continuous form acquired its modern meaning much later in the 16th century, even after Shakespeare. The process which took place was the same as with the Perfect form: originally the Participle agreed with the subject, but then it lost its category of agreement and became a part of the Continuous form. The same process took place with the Passive which developed from a free word combination to a fixed morphological form. Originally it was a compound nominal predicate with the verb «to be» + Participle II as a predicative. Gradually the Participle lost its agreement with the subject of the sentence. As we know the Future Tense Form was not represented in the OE and developed only during the Middle English Period. It developed from a combination which was a compound verbal modal predicate with the verb «shall» and «will». But even in the time of Shakespeare this combination could be still to either as a modal predicate or as a Future form. The Perfect Continuous Form was one of last to appear. It appeared at the beginning of the NEP. And the last to appear was the Continuous form of the Passive which began developing only in the 19th century. In OE we may find passive infinitive, though no passive forms far finite forms may be found. Other analytical non-finite forms developed during the Middle English Period, but only after corresponding analytical forms of finite forms had developed. The gerund was also one of the last to appear. There are several theories concerning the development of the Gerund and the most current of them is that it developed as a mixture of Participle I and the verbal noun with the preposition «on» in the function of the predicative (He was on hunting. OE).

20. The Middle English Period. The Syntax.

In the main the types of the sentences and the number of the sentence remained the same. But still there were several important changes: In connection with the decay of the synthetic system the word order in the sentence became much more stable. Inversion (when an adverbial modifier stood in the beginning of the sentence - like in German) still existed (till the NEP). The inversion in questions established itself in the beginning of the NEP. The auxiliary «do» became to be used during the Middle English Period towards its end. But in the time of Shakespeare it still could be used even in affirmative sentences, whereas by the 16th or 17th centuries «do» as an auxiliary was used only in negative and interrogative sentences: it became a strict rule. Maybe it is connected with the word order (the predicate should follow the subject even in questions), maybe for some rhythmic reasons. Together with the development of literature, education and style concposite sentences began to develop. Their structure became more complicated, the number of subordinate clauses increased together with the number of conjunctions and special connectives, some of which were bookish and developed from notional words. The difference between the compound (сложносочиненные) complex (сложноподчиненные) sentences became more distinct. As to the type of the predicate the old impersonal one-member type had gone out of use completely (Him thought. OE).

21. The Middle English Period. Word-stock.

There was a great rash of the Romane words to the language. For more than two centuries French was the state language and it affected the English language and vocabulary in all the spheres of life (everyday language, government, military sphere, art, fashion, meals (except names of meat of different animals), religion and so on). About 80-85% of OE (originally Germanic) words were lost completely or ousted by borrowings (take, call) from Danish and French and later during the Medieval time with the development of such sciences as medicine, theology and philosophy when many, mostly bookish, words were borrowed. Sometimes borrowings co-existed with the original words: begin □ start, commence. MEANS OF WORDBUILDING. The old productive ways of wordbuilding (word composition and affixation) still remained such, but there appeared some new ones: 1)conversion - it is closely connected with the loss of endings, when words became to be root words; in ME it is limitless and appears to be one of the main devices. 2)shift of stress: present □ present - mostly in

borrowings. 3)abbreviations: a certain word was shortened; nowadays there are several variants of shortening words.

22. The New English Period. General Characteristic.

The NEP begins in the 15th century. So the NEP is the period from the 15th century up to our time. There are subdivisions here: - early NE, which is the period of the development of the E nation as a nation from the political point of view and the period of the formation of the uniform literary language and of the establishing of the literary norm.Unlike the borderline between the ancient times and the Old English Period, and the borderline between the Old English Period and the Middle English Period when there some cataclysms, battles and so on, the borderline between the Middle English Period and the NEP is not so historically marked. There were no cataclysms, nevertheless some very important events and particular events took place in the country and new conditions came into play.As early as the 13th century within the feudal system new economic relations began to take shape. The villains were gradually superseded by copy-holders (пожизненные арендаторы). New industries and trade began to develop; new crafts appeared and these very new crafts began to be separated from agriculture. Together with the decay of the feudal system, the development of new relations within the feudal system, the development of new industries and crafts new social groups into being: artisans, rich merchants, owners of workshops, money lenders - they were typical of the capitalist system. It couldn’t but change the situation in the country in all its spheres. The most crucial periods were the 15th and the 16th centuries. A new mode of production developed rapidly, new industries sprang into existence. The development of industry required new resources and new markets. So it was a period of great projects, of great maritime projects. All this changes influenced the cultural situation in the country: different regions of the country, which had been isolated before, were brought together through commerce, transportation, trade. It stimulated the necessity to have greater contacts and a uniform language.The process of the formation of the uniform language was further supported by printing. The first printer was William Caxton (the second part of the 15th century). He founded the first printing house (before that all written matter was written in hand). Caxton printed his first book in 1476 in the London dialect which strengthened it. At first glance it may seem that the process of the development of the national language was a peaceful process, but in reality it was a painful process. Many people, who were more or less concerned with writing: writers, scholars, had their hands in the development of the language.

They had heated discussions as to how the language should develop.There were 3 main groups of opinions: 1)the language can borrow as many words from other languages as possible => it would enrich the language. 2)strongly against borrowings: English should remain a monosyllabic language as it was.(Спенсер - Faire Queen - старался показать, что он приверженец старины). 3)«leave the language as it is and let it develop by itself» (это не цитата!).Unification: it was a period of normalization, which achieved not by itself, but through the activity of many people. As to the spelling, they were trying to work out certain general fixed rules of spelling, but at the beginning of the NEP the spelling varied from writer to writer yet. For example, Sir John Cheke doubled his vowels to mark their length. The first grammars and the first comprehensive and fundamental dictionaries appeared. Bullocar «Brief Grammar for English». New genres sprang into existence during the early NEP: the genre of newspaper - Still and Edison - they started newspaper in England. Sentimentalism, realistic novels began to develop. It was then that the novel was born. (рубет 17-18 вв.).

23. The Middle English Period. The Main Sound Changes.

Vowels: 1)The Great Vowel Shift (с большой буквы). It was rather lengthy: 15th century - part of the 17th century.It affected all the long vowels. All the long vowels tended to become more high, more narrow and more front. Those that were narrow enough turned into diphthongs.a>ei (это объясняет необычное звучание английского алфавита Aa [ei]) e (открытый) e (закрытый) i>ai o (открытый) > ou o (закрытый) > u: u>au 2).The shortening of «u» (до великого сдвига): a) the earlier (the 15th century); ‘u’ was shorted before the dental sounds [t, d] e.g.: blood, flood; b) the later (the 18th century); ‘u’ was shortened before [k] e.g.: took. 3). The development of the short ‘a’:(in a close syllable) hag – э (before ‘l’) hall – o: (preserved by [w] was labialised) what – a before a combination of consonant) ask - a: 4)The development of the long ‘e’: e>e (short) before [d, t] - dental sounds; bread (но в mean (i: по шифту). 5)Delabialization of the short ‘u’: u>^ blood - bl[^]d 6)The formation of new diphthongs which have [нетральн] for the glide: [iэ], [ёэ], [uэ]. «a vowel + r» - it’s called vocalization of ‘r’, but: her [h :/з:] here [hi]; in ME her = here = [her] => if the vowel was short, the resulting sound was a long vowel; if the vowel was long, the resulting sound was a diphthong. Consonants: 1)the development of the sound [h], but there were also [x], [x’] (= в немецком [,]) both the hard and the soft [ ]in the middle of the word were dropped causing the lengthening of the preceding vowel thought, taught [x] (in ME) light: ME [lixt] > [lit] > NE [lait] dropped 2)Vocalization of ‘s’ (see vowels) 3)voicing of fricatives (Verner’s law in

NE) fricatives [s] and [ ] were voiced, when they were preceded by an unstressed vowel: his [z], tables [z], game cats [z] (но это слово прошло уже вторичную ассимиляцию), exhibit [z] □ exhibition [s] 4)the development of the combinations [tj, sj, dj, zj] in borrowed words (mostly French) into fricatives [,] and affricates: precision [ʒ], decision [ʒ]. There was no development when these combinations preceded a stressen vowel tune ['tju:n]: sugar - исключение, sure - тоже исключение.

24. The development of Word-stock and means of Word building at the end of the Middle English Period - at the beginning of the NEP.

The end of the Middle English Period and the beginning of the NEP and further on witnessed an intensive development of the word-stock. It was connected with the general development of the country, its political and social development, the development of culture and education.The end of the Middle English Period witnessed the development of 3 sciences: theology, medicine and philosophy (many special terms except from Latin and Greek entered the E language and many of the have become international terms).But a real flourish is witnessed during the beginning of the new E period and all through the NEP => it's a period of European Renaissance which began in Italy and flourished in many other countries. Together with the Renaissance came great interest in culture, art, classical languages => the revival of learning and of interest for Latin; later Italian and still later French. In the Old English Period there were about 30000 words, whereas now we find about 50000 words. Together with the development of the language there developed new ways of the formation of the new words (OE: affixation, sound gradation, word composition): 1)due to the fact that E has become analytical - conversion developed (many words are root words which may have diff. Functions) now it's the main way. 2)change of stress: present - to present. 3)shortening – Fridge. There appeared many synonyms: sometimes they borrowed words for the nations for which they had already words: native – colloquial, to begin - to start - to commence, borrowed – bookish (native) (early borrowed) (bookish) there have appeared many etymological doublets: they are words which have one and the same origin, but they were borrowed at the different chronological periods: capital - chapter (a later borrowing) [тш] - new affricate. There appeared etymological hybrids - many words were formed in which diff. Parts have diff. Origin: beautiful - beautiful

25. Characteristics Of American English

American English, variety of the English language spoken in the United States. Although all Americans do not speak the same way, their speech has enough in common that American English can be recognized as a variety of English distinct from British English, Australian English, and other national varieties. American English has grown up with the country. It began to diverge from British English during its colonial beginnings and acquired regional differences and ethnic flavor during the settlement of the continent. Today it influences other languages and other varieties of English because it is the medium by which the attractions of American culture—its literature, motion pictures, and television programs—are transmitted to the world.

All speakers of English share a common linguistic system and a basic set of words. But American English differs from British English, Australian English, and other national varieties in many of its pronunciations, words, spellings, and grammatical constructions. Words or phrases of American origin, and those used in America but not so much elsewhere, are called Americanisms.

26. American English Pronunciation. Words. Spelling. Grammar.

In broad terms, Canadian and American speakers tend to sound like one another. They also tend to sound different from a large group of English speakers who sound more British, such as those in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. For example, most Canadians and Americans pronounce an *r* sound after the vowel in words like *barn*, *car*, and *farther,* while speakers from the British English group do not. Also, some British English speakers drop *h* sounds at the beginning of words, so that *he* and *his* are pronounced as if they were spelled *ee* and *is*. The English spoken in Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa sounds more like British English than American English does because these varieties have had less time to diverge from British English. The process of separate development began later in these countries than in North America.

Although Canadians and Americans share many speech habits, Canadian speakers of English sometimes tend more toward British English because of the closer historical association of Britain with Canada. One prominent difference between American English and Canadian English is the vowel sound in words like *out* and *house.* Americans often say that the Canadian pronunciation sounds as if the words were spelled *oot* and *hoose.*

In some cases there are differences between American English and British English in the rhythm of words. British speakers seem to leave out a syllable in words like *secretary,* as if it were spelled *secretry,* while Americans keep all the syllables. The opposite is true of other words, such as *specialty,* which Americans pronounce with three syllables (*spe-cial-ty*) while British speakers pronounce it with five syllables (*spe-ci-al-i-ty*). Vowels and consonants may also have different pronunciations. British speakers pronounce *zebra* to rhyme with *Debra,* while American speakers make *zebra* rhyme with *Libra.* Canadian and British speakers pronounce the word *schedule* as if it began with an *sh* sound, while Americans pronounce it as if it began with an *sk* sound.

The most frequently used words are shared by speakers of different varieties of English. These words include the most common nouns, the most common verbs, and most function words (such as pronouns, articles, and prepositions). The different varieties of English do, however, use different words for many words that are slightly less common—for example, British *crisps* for American *potato chips,* Australian *billabong* for American *pond,* and Canadian *chesterfield* for American *sofa.* It is even more common for the same word to exist with different meanings in different varieties of English. *Corn* is a general term in Britain, for which Americans use *grain*, while *corn* in American English is a specific kind of grain. The word *pond* in British English usually refers to an artificial body of water, whereas *ponds* also occur naturally in North America. British English *chemist* is the same as American English *drugstore,* and in Canada people go to the *druggist.* Many of the words most easily recognized as American in origin are associated with aspects of American popular culture, such as *gangster* or *cowboy.*

American English spelling differs from British English spelling largely because of one man, American lexicographer Noah Webster. In addition to his well-known *An American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828), Webster published *The American Spelling Book* (1783, with many subsequent editions), which became one of the most widely used schoolbooks in American history. Webster's books sought to standardize spelling in the United States by promoting the use of an American language that intentionally differed from British English. The development of a specifically American variety of English mirrored the new country's separate political development. Webster's most successful changes were spellings with *or* instead of *our* (*honor, labor* for the British *honour, labour*); with *er* instead of *re* (*center, theater* for the British *centre, theatre*); with an *s* instead of a *c* (*defense, license* for the British *defence, licence*); with a final *ck* instead of *que* (*check, mask* for the British

cheque, masque); and without a final *k* (*traffic, public,* now also used in British English, for the older *traffick, publick*). Later spelling reform created a few other differences, such as *program* for British *programme.* Canadian spelling varies between the British and American forms, more British in eastern Canada and more American in western Canada.

The grammar of educated speakers of English differs little among national varieties. In the speech of people with less access to education, grammatical variations in regional and social varieties of American English are very common as normal, systematic occurrences (not as errors). One major difference between British and American English is that the two attach different verb forms to nouns that are grammatically singular but plural in sense. In American English, *the team is…,* or *the government is…* (because they are viewed as single entities), but in British English, *the team are…,* or *the government are…* (because teams and government are understood to consist of more than one person). Sometimes function words are used differently: The British stay *in hospital* but Americans stay *in the hospital*.

27. History Of American English. Territorial Expansion and Urbanization

American English shows many influences from the different cultures and languages of the people who settled in North America. The nature of the influence depends on the time and the circumstances of contact between cultures. Colonial Period. The first settlements on the East Coast of North America in the 17th century were composed mostly of British subjects. Accounting for about 90 percent of the people, the British vastly outnumbered French and German settlers. English was therefore the only real candidate for a common American language. The settlers spoke varieties of English from various parts of England, but in the creation of American English, these varieties were leveled—that is, their differences largely disappeared. Michel Guillaume Jean de Crиvecoeur, a French-born writer who published under the name J. Hector St. John de Crиvecoeur and became famous for his book *Letters from an American Farmer* (1782), describes the desire of settlers to "become an American," their common ideal to own and work their own farms, without prejudice toward neighbors whatever their neighbors' religion or national origin. This shared goal encouraged development of a shared variety of the language, which came to be enriched by contributions from many cultures.

As the European settlers came into contact with Native Americans, American English collected a large stock of Native American place names (*Allegheny, Chicago, Mississippi, Potomac*) and Native American names for things not found in Europe or Asia (*moose,*

opossum, squash, moccasin, tomahawk, totem). Sometimes Native American words were spelled by settlers so that they looked more like English words; *woodchuck,* for example, probably comes from the Cree word *wuchak.* Cultural exchange with Native Americans was more limited than might be expected, because diseases brought by Spanish explorers and European settlers greatly reduced the Native American population in eastern North America during early settlement.

In the 18th century people from Ireland and Northern Europe joined the British settlers. By the time of the American Revolution (1775-1783), there were comparable numbers of British settlers and settlers from other European countries. Some Europeans formed separate communities, such as the Pennsylvania Germans, but most mixed with British settlers and contributed to American English words from their own languages. Examples include *pumpkin, bayou,* and *bureau* from French; *cookie, waffle,* and *boss* from Dutch; and *pretzel, pinochle,* and *phooey* from German. Scottish and Irish settlers were already English speakers, but they influenced American English with features from their own varieties—for example, pronunciation of *r* after vowels (while many British English speakers were losing the *r* after vowels) and double verb forms like *might could.*

Africans were imported as slaves throughout the early settlement of North America. By the American Revolution one-quarter of the American population consisted of African Americans, and as much as 95 percent of the population living in plantation areas was African American. Slaves were not allowed to share in Crиvecoeur's American ideal, but they learned American English from their owners, overseers, and other slaves. Some slaves may have developed creole languages on plantations. A creole is made of words from different languages—in this case, English and the African languages spoken by the slaves. It also has its own grammar. Over time, especially after slavery was abolished, the language of African Americans came to have fewer creole characteristics. One authentic American plantation creole remains: Gullah, spoken by African Americans in communities on the Sea Islands off South Carolina and Georgia. African words in American English include *gumbo, okra,* and *voodoo.*

During the 19th and 20th centuries settlers pushed westward as the United States acquired control of land from the French, the Spanish, and the Native Americans. Crиvecoeur's American ideal of separate farms lasted well into the 20th century, and a shared sense of purpose maintained social pressure for immigrants to participate in American language and culture. This period also saw the rise of great cities, first in the East and later in other regions.

Development of industries brought opportunities for immigrants to work in cities instead of on farms, and the resulting concentration of people in urban areas allowed for maintenance of immigrant languages in some quarters, while most people still found it best to learn and use American English for everyday discourse.

At the same time that settlers from other countries were adapting to English, they were influencing it as well. Settlement of the West and Southwest by northern Europeans meant contact with the Spanish-speaking settlers who were already there. As a result, American English adopted many words commonly associated with Spanish, such as *enchilada, pueblo, sombrero,* and *tortilla,* and also many words not usually thought of as Spanish, such as *alfalfa, cockroach, marina, plaza,* and *ranch.* Scandinavians established homesteads in the upper Midwest and gave American English the words *smorgasbord* and *sauna*. Other European immigrants were drawn primarily to urban areas. Jewish immigrants are particularly associated with New York City, for example, and provided such words as *kosher* and *kibbitz*. Polish immigrants, strongly associated with Chicago, provided *kielbasa* and *pierogi;* Chinese immigrants, associated with San Francisco or Los Angeles, *chow mein* and *mahjong;* Italian immigrants, associated with many cities, contributed the words *spaghetti* and *pizza*. Many other cultural groups have also had an impact on American English, often more local than national, as, for example, Cubans in Miami, Florida.

28. American English Development Of Regional Speech Patterns

Even settlers who shared Crиvecouer's goal of "becoming an American" did not always share American English in exactly the same form. People tend to talk like the people they talk to, and so American English developed regional varieties. These varieties match the main ports of entry and follow the typical paths of settlement that started in each port. According to American linguist Hans Kurath, three broad east-west bands—North, Midland, and South—show a link between settlement and speech patterns. These bands reach as far as the Mississippi River but do not cross it, because settlement of the West was more mixed.

The Northern speech band includes New England and the northernmost tier of states. Boston served as the focus of the New England settlement area, from Rhode Island north to Maine, but mountains hindered direct overland settlement to the west. New England speech came to leave out the *r* sound after vowels, as also occurred in British English, and to pronounce the vowels of *aunt, half,* and *law* much like the vowel in *calm.*

New York City, also in the Northern speech band, developed speech habits different from those of many other northern regions, in ways made famous by the city's prominence in the media. These differences include the lack of the *r* sound after vowels, occasional substitution of a *t* sound for a *th* sound, and pronunciation of words with an *oi* sound that others pronounce with an *er* sound. All of these combine in the pronunciation *toity-toid* for *thirty-third.*

The first English-speaking settlers in the Inland Northern region traveled through Connecticut to get to upstate New York. Later, the Hudson River and the Erie Canal opened up settlement for the entire Inland Northern region via the Great Lakes. Inland Northern speakers do pronounce *r* after vowels.

The Midland region has one city as its focus, Philadelphia, but two different settlement pathways. Settlers could move west from Philadelphia through southern Pennsylvania to Ohio and Indiana; this path created the North Midland area, whose inhabitants share linguistic features with the Northern region. Settlers could also proceed southwest through the Shenandoah Valley, creating the South Midland region, where people share linguistic features with the Southern region. Midland speakers from both pathways pronounce *r* after vowels.

The Southern region has two focal areas—the Virginia plantation area around Richmond and the Charleston plantation area in South Carolina and Georgia—but only one main path of settlement. This main thrust of Southern settlement went into areas suitable for plantations, extending as far as eastern Texas. Southern speakers do not pronounce *r* after vowels. African Americans worked on plantations and learned Southern American English, acquiring many other Southern linguistic features.

Settlement west of the Mississippi River was more mixed than settlement through the regular pathways in the East, and eastern regional features were leveled in the West just as the speech of people from different parts of England had been leveled in the colonies. Western American English is not all the same, however, because of varying amounts of influence from Spanish residents and because the plains and Western states were settled by different proportions of Northerners, Midlanders, and Southerners. The Pacific Northwest and northern California gained more Northerners and North Midlanders, while the Southwest and the southern plains received more settlement from the South and South Midland.

29. American English Modern Variation In American English

The regional speech patterns that developed during the settlement of the United States are still

present and are still important aspects of American English. However, social circumstances have changed in the 20th century. Large-scale immigration and initial settlement have given way to movements between established regions of the country, and people who stay in one area develop local speech patterns. These social conditions lead, paradoxically, both to wider use of a spoken standard American English and to greater variety in local speech types. Some scholars believe that local accents in American cities differ more now than ever before.

This paradox occurs because people talk differently depending on whom they are talking to and on the circumstances of the conversation. For instance, people who work together in different kinds of jobs have special words for their jobs: lawyers know legal language, doctors know medical terms, and factory workers know the right terms to describe the products they make and the processes used to make them. Such job-related language not only has special purposes, it also identifies the user as somebody who knows the job. For example, someone who cannot use legal language convincingly is probably not a lawyer. Language for particular needs and for identification occurs in connection not only with jobs but also with social groups—groups formed by region, gender, ethnic affiliation, age, or other criteria.

30. American English. The Spoken Standard. Regional and Social Variation

American English has never had a strict spoken standard that is considered “correct,” as most European languages have. Today the spoken standard in American English is best defined as the relative absence of characteristics—such as word choice or pronunciation—that might identify the speaker as coming from a particular region or social group. National newscasters and other broadcast personalities often adopt this speech type in public, as do many Americans in formal settings such as schools, courts, and boardrooms.

The spoken standard has become associated with education. In general the more someone has gone to school, the better the person’s command of American English without regional and social characteristics. This occurs largely because the written American English taught in schoolbooks does not include many regional or social features. This association does not mean that the spoken standard is more correct than speech with regional or social characteristics. However, standard language is usually more appropriate in formal situations because people have come to expect it on those occasions.

Outside of schools and other formal situations, regional and social variations thrive in American English. The majority of Americans now live in urban and suburban communities

instead of on isolated farms, and this change in residence patterns encourages development of informal speech types, each one of which is called a vernacular. Vernaculars develop especially in neighborhoods where people have a great deal of daily contact, but they also develop more broadly according to regional and social patterns of contact. Old regional words sometimes fade, but new ones take their place in regional vernaculars.

The pronunciation of American English is also changing, but often in different ways in different vernaculars. American sociolinguist William Labov has suggested three sets of changes in pronunciation, each set appropriate to a different vernacular.

One pattern of change affects Northern cities: the vowel of *wrought* is often pronounced more like the one in *rot;* in turn, the vowel in *rot* is pronounced more like the one in *rat;* and the vowel in *rat* is pronounced more like the one in *Rhett.* Another pattern of change is occurring among South Midland and Southern speakers: the vowel of *red* is often pronounced more like the one in *raid;* in turn, the vowel in *raid* is often pronounced more like the vowel in *ride.* Each vowel is actually pronounced as a combination of two vowel sounds, called a diphthong, which many people would say was part of a drawl. The third pattern of change affects New England, the North Midland, and most of the western United States and Canada. Many speakers in these areas no longer pronounce different vowels in words like *cot* and *caught,* or *tot* and *taught,* so that the words now sound alike. When these large patterns of change combine, unevenly, with regional words and other characteristics, the result is that vernacular speech tends to be somewhat different from city to city, or in places some distance apart.

While regional and social background certainly affects people's speech, background does not prevent anyone from learning either the spoken standard or aspects of other regional and social varieties. When adults move to a new region, they typically do not pick up all the characteristics of speech in the new area. Young children, however, commonly learn to sound more like natives. The result is a mixture of speakers with different regional and social backgrounds in nearly every community. Spoken standard American English is also used in nearly every community. Some commentators predict the loss of regional and social characteristics because everyone hears spoken standard speech on radio and television. However, passive exposure to the media will not outweigh the personal contact that occurs within neighborhoods and social groups and through regional travel. This contact strongly shapes regional and social varieties of speech.

31. African American Vernacular English. Spanish and English

African American Vernacular English (sometimes called Ebonics, and formerly called Black English) is a major social speech type. It refers to the variety of American English most shaped by African American culture. Historically, African American English has probably drawn some features from plantation creoles, but has drawn many more characteristics from the Southern American English associated with plantation culture.

Speakers of African American Vernacular English generally do not pronounce *r* after vowels, so that *door* may sound like *doe,* or *poor* like *Poe.* Words like *this* and *that* may be pronounced *dis* and *dat.* Groups of consonants at the ends of words are often reduced to a single consonant, as for instance in the pronunciation of *sold* as *sole,* or *walked* as *walk.* It is common for the linking verb, usually a form of the verb *to be,* not to appear in such sentences as *He happy* or *She doctor.* The use of *be* in the sentence *He be sick,* on the other hand, means that he has often been sick, or has been sick over a period of time.

During and after the Great Depression of the 1930s, many African Americans left farms in old plantation areas and moved to cities in search of work and opportunity. They maintained a strong common culture in the cities because of segregated housing, and African American Vernacular English was maintained as well, although some African American communities began to develop more local speech characteristics.

As more and more African Americans moved away from segregated housing, they had less connection to the vernacular and more occasion to use other regional or social speech characteristics or to speak standard American English. Experts disagree about whether African American Vernacular English is becoming more different from regional and social varieties of Standard English or more like these varieties. This disagreement stems from differences in which African Americans they count as speakers of African American Vernacular English.

Large communities of Hispanic Americans have developed in the Southwest and in many cities throughout the United States. Spanish and English are both commonly used in these communities, but often for different purposes or in different settings. People sometimes also blend Spanish words into English sentences or English words into Spanish sentences, a process called code-switching. The English of such communities is enriched by many Spanish

words, but the practice of code-switching is not the same thing as a social variety of American English.

32. Influence Of American English.

Most people around the world who learn English as a second language learn either American English or British English. The worldwide use of English began when Britain created a worldwide empire. Today, most people who learn English as a foreign language still learn British English. This happens because Britain has had a longstanding interest in teaching English and has publishers and institutions in place to promote it. American English is taught more and more, however, because of the worldwide success of American business and technology. This success also leads speakers of British English—even in England—to adopt many Americanisms. English has truly become a world language in science and business, and over time it will come to have more of an American English sound.

Five Events that Shaped the History of English

Philip Durkin, Principal Etymologist at the *Oxford English Dictionary*, chooses five events that shaped the English Language.

The Anglo-Saxon Settlement

It's never easy to pinpoint exactly when a specific language began, but in the case of English we can at least say that there is little sense in speaking of the English language as a separate entity before the Anglo-Saxons came to Britain. Little is known of this period with any certainty, but we do know that Germanic invaders came and settled in Britain from the north-western coastline of continental Europe in the fifth and sixth centuries. The invaders all spoke a language that was Germanic (related to what emerged as Dutch, Frisian, German and the Scandinavian languages, and to Gothic), but we'll probably never know how different their speech was from that of their continental neighbours. However it is fairly certain that many of the settlers would have spoken in exactly the same way as some of their north European neighbours, and that not all of the settlers would have spoken in the same way.

The reason that we know so little about the linguistic situation in this period is because we do not have much in the way of written records from any of the Germanic languages of north-western Europe until several centuries later. When Old English writings begin to appear in the seventh, eighth, and ninth centuries there is a good deal of regional variation, but not substantially more than that found in later periods. This was the language that Alfred the Great referred to as ‘English’ in the ninth century.

The Celts were already resident in Britain when the Anglo-Saxons arrived, but there are few obvious traces of their language in English today. Some scholars have suggested that the Celtic tongue might have had an underlying influence on the grammatical development of English, particularly in some parts of the country, but this is highly speculative. The number of loanwords known for certain to have entered Old English from this source is very small. Those that survive in modern English include *brock* (badger), and *coomb* a type of valley, alongside many place names.

The Scandinavian Settlements

The next invaders were the Norsemen. From the middle of the ninth century large numbers of Norse invaders settled in Britain, particularly in northern and eastern areas, and in the eleventh century the whole of England had a Danish king, Canute. The distinct North Germanic speech of the Norsemen had great influence on English, most obviously seen in the words that English has borrowed from this source. These include some very basic words such as *take* and even grammatical words such as *they*. The common Germanic base of the two languages meant that there were still many similarities between Old English and the language of the invaders. Some words, for example *give*, perhaps show a kind of hybridization with some spellings going back to Old English and others being Norse in origin. However, the resemblances between the two languages are so great that in many cases it is impossible to be sure of the exact ancestry of a particular word or spelling. However, much of the influence of Norse, including the vast majority of the loanwords, does not appear in written English until after the next great historical and cultural upheaval, the Norman Conquest.

1066 and after

The centuries after the Norman Conquest witnessed enormous changes in the English language. In the course of what is called the Middle English period, the fairly rich inflectional system of Old English broke down. It was replaced by what is broadly speaking, the same system English has today, which unlike Old English makes very little use of distinctive word endings in the grammar of the language. The vocabulary of English also changed enormously, with tremendous numbers of borrowings from French and Latin, in addition to the Scandinavian loanwords already mentioned, which were slowly starting to appear in the written language. Old English, like German today, showed a tendency to find native equivalents for foreign words and phrases (although both Old English and modern German show plenty of loanwords), whereas Middle English acquired the habit that modern English retains today of readily accommodating foreign words. Trilingualism in English, French, and Latin was common in the worlds of business and the professions, with words crossing over from one language to another with ease. You only have to flick through the etymologies of any English dictionary to get an impression of the huge number of words entering English from French and Latin during the later medieval period. This trend was set to continue into the early modern period with the explosion of interest in the writings of the ancient world.

Standardization

The late medieval and early modern periods saw a fairly steady process of standardization in English south of the Scottish border. The written and spoken language of London continued to evolve and gradually began to have a greater influence in the country at large. For most of the Middle English period a dialect was simply what was spoken in a particular area, which would normally be more or less represented in writing - although where and from whom the writer had learnt how to write were also important. It was only when the broadly London standard began to dominate, especially through the new technology of printing, that the other regional varieties of the language began to be seen as different in kind. As the London standard became used more widely, especially in more formal contexts and particularly amongst the more elevated members of society, the other regional varieties came to be stigmatized, as lacking social prestige and indicating a lack of education.

In the same period a series of changes also occurred in English pronunciation (though not uniformly in all dialects), which go under the collective name of the Great Vowel Shift. These were purely linguistic 'sound changes' which occur in every language in every period of history. The changes in pronunciation weren't the result of specific social or historical factors, but social and historical factors would have helped to spread the results of the changes. As a result the so-called 'pure' vowel sounds which still characterize many continental languages were lost to English. The phonetic pairings of most long and short vowel sounds were also lost, which gave rise to many of the oddities of English pronunciation, and which now obscure the relationships between many English words and their foreign counterparts.

Colonization and Globalization

During the medieval and early modern periods the influence of English spread throughout the British Isles, and from the early seventeenth century onwards its influence began to be felt throughout the world. The complex processes of exploration, colonization and overseas trade that characterized Britain's external relations for several centuries led to significant change in English. Words were absorbed from all over the world, often via the languages of other trading and imperial nations such as Spain, Portugal and the Netherlands. At the same time, new varieties of English emerged, each with their own nuances of vocabulary and grammar and their own distinct pronunciations. More recently still, English has become a *lingua franca*, a global language, regularly used and understood by many nations for whom English

is not their first language. The eventual effects on the English language of both of these developments can only be guessed at today, but there can be little doubt that they will be as important as anything that has happened to English in the past sixteen hundred years.

Historic English text samples

Old English

Beowulf lines 1 to 11, approximately AD 900

Hwæt! We Gar-Dena in gear-dagum

þeod-cyninga, þrym gefrunon,

hu ða æþelingas ellen fremedon!

Oft Scyld Scefing sceaþena þreatum

monegum mægþum meodo-setla ofteah;

egsode eorl[as] syððan ærest wearð

feasceaft funden; he þæs frofre gebad,

weox under wolcnum, weorð-myndum þah,

oðæt him æghwylc þara ymb-sittendra

ofer hron-rade hyran scolde,

gomban gyldan. Þæt wæs god cyning!

Which, as translated by Francis Gummere, reads:

Lo, praise of the prowess of people-kings
of spear-armed Danes, in days long sped,
we have heard, and what honor the athelings won!
Oft Scyld the Scefing from squadroned foes,
from many a tribe, the mead-bench tore,
awing the earls. Since erst he lay
friendless, a foundling, fate repaid him:
for he waxed under welkin, in wealth he throve,
till before him the folk, both far and near,
who house by the whale-path, heard his mandate,
gave him gifts: a good king he!

Here is a sample *prose* text, the beginning of *The Voyages of Ohthere* and *Wulfstan*. The full text can be found at The Voyages of Ohthere and Wulfstan, at Wikisource.

Ōhthere sæde his hlāforde, Ælfrēde cyninge, ðæt hē ealra Norðmonna norþmest būde. Hē cwæð þæt hē būde on þǣm lande norþweardum wiþ þā Westsǣ. Hē sæde þēah þæt þæt land sīe swīþe lang norþ þonan; ac hit is eal wēste, būton on fēawum stōwum styccemælum wīciað

Finnas, on huntoðe on wintra, ond on sumera on fiscaþe be þǣre sǣ. Hē sǣde þæt hē æt sumum cirre wolde fandian hū longe þæt land norþryhte lǣge, oþþe hwæðer ǣnig mon be norðan þǣm wēstenne būde. Þā fōr hē norþryhte be þǣm lande: lēt him ealne weg þæt wēste land on ðæt stēorbord, ond þā wīdsǣ on ðæt bæcbord þrīe dagas. Þā wæs hē swā feor norþ swā þā hwælhuntan firrest faraþ. Þā fōr hē þā giet norþryhte swā feor swā hē meahte on þǣm ōþrum þrīm dagum gesiglau. Þā bēag þæt land, þǣr ēastryhte, oþþe sēo sǣ in on ðæt lond, hē nysse hwæðer, būton hē wisse ðæt hē ðǣr bād westanwindes ond hwōn norþan, ond siglde ðā ēast be lande swā swā hē meahte on fēower dagum gesiglan. Þā sceolde hē ðǣr bīdan ryhtnorþanwindes, for ðǣm þæt land bēag þǣr sūþryhte, oþþe sēo sǣ in on ðæt land, hē nysse hwæþer. Þā siglde hē þonan sūðryhte be lande swā swā hē meahte on fīf dagum gesiglan. Ðā læg þǣr ān micel ēa ūp on þæt land. Ðā cirdon hīe ūp in on ðā ēa for þǣm hīe ne dorston forþ bī þǣre ēa siglan for unfriþe; for þǣm ðæt land wæs eall gebūn on ōþre healfe þǣre ēas. Ne mētte hē ǣr nān gebūn land, siþþan hē from his āgnum hām fōr; ac him wæs ealne weg wēste land on þæt stēorbord, būtan fiscerum ond fugelerum ond huntum, ond þæt wǣron eall Finnas; ond him wæs āwīdsǣ on þæt bæcbord. Þā Boermas heafdon sīþe wel gebūd hira land: ac hīe ne dorston þǣr on cuman. Ac þāra Terfinna land wæs eal wēste, būton ðǣr huntan gewīcodon, oþþe fisceras, oþþe fugeleras.

This may be translated as:

Ohthere said to his lord, King Alfred, that he of all Norsemen lived north-most. He quoth that he lived in the land northward along the North Sea. He said though that the land was very long from there, but it is all wasteland, except that in a few places here and there Finns [i.e. Sami] encamp, hunting in winter and in summer fishing by the sea. He said that at some time he wanted to find out how long the land lay northward or whether any man lived north of the wasteland. Then he traveled north by the land. All the way he kept the waste land on his starboard and the wide sea on his port three days. Then he was as far north as whale hunters furthest travel. Then he traveled still north as far as he might sail in another three days. Then the land bowed east (or the sea into the land — he did not know which). But he knew that he waited there for west winds (and somewhat north), and sailed east by the land so as he might sail in four days. Then he had to wait for due-north winds, because the land bowed south (or the sea into the land — he did not know which). Then he sailed from there south by the land so as he might sail in five days. Then a large river lay there up into the land. Then they turned up into the river, because they dared not sail forth past the river for hostility, because the land was all settled on the other side of the river. He had not encountered earlier any settled land since he travelled from his own home, but all the way waste land was on his starboard (except fishers, fowlers and hunters, who were all Finns). And the wide sea was always on his port. The Bjarmians have cultivated their land very well, but they did not dare go in there. But the Terfinn's land was all waste except where hunters encamped, or fishers or fowlers.[17]

Middle English

From Ayenbyte of Inwit *by Dan Michel, 1340*:

Nou ich wille þet ye ywite hou hit is ywent
þet þis boc is ywrite mid Engliss of Kent.
Þis boc is ymad vor lewede men
Vor vader and vor moder and vor oþer ken
ham vor to berȝe vram alle manyere zen
þet ine hare inwytte ne bleve no voul wen.
'Huo ase god' in his name yzed,
Þet þis boc made god him yeve þet bread,
Of angles of hevene, and þerto his red,
And ondervonge his zaule huanne þet he is dyad. Amen.

From The Canterbury Tales *by Geoffrey Chaucer, 14th century*:

Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open yë
(So priketh hem Nature in hir corages);
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages

Early Modern English

From Paradise Lost *by John Milton, 1667*:

Of Mans First Disobedience, and the Fruit
Of that Forbidden Tree, whose mortal tast
Brought Death into the World, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful Seat,
Sing Heav'nly Muse, that on the secret top
Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
That Shepherd, who first taught the chosen Seed,
In the Beginning how the Heav'ns and Earth
Rose out of Chaos: Or if Sion Hill
Delight thee more, and Siloa's Brook that flow'd
Fast by the Oracle of God; I thence

Invoke thy aid to my adventrous Song,
That with no middle flight intends to soar
Above th' Aonian Mount, while it pursues
Things unattempted yet in Prose or Rhime.

Modern English

Taken from Oliver Twist*, 1838, by Charles Dickens*:

The evening arrived: the boys took their places; the master in his cook's uniform stationed himself at the copper; his pauper assistants ranged themselves behind him; the gruel was served out, and a long grace was said over the short commons. The gruel disappeared, the boys whispered each other and winked at Oliver, while his next neighbours nudged him. Child as he was, he was desperate with hunger and reckless with misery. He rose from the table, and advancing, basin and spoon in hand, to the master, said, somewhat alarmed at his own temerity.

"Please, sir, I want some more."

The master was a fat, healthy man, but he turned very pale. He gazed in stupefied astonishment on the small rebel for some seconds, and then clung for support to the copper. The assistants were paralysed with wonder, and the boys with fear.

"What!" said the master at length, in a faint voice.

"Please, sir," replied Oliver, "I want some more."

The master aimed a blow at Oliver's head with the ladle, pinioned him in his arms, and shrieked aloud for the beadle.

Tables of grammatical changes during the history

Interrogative pronouns

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Masculine/Feminine (Person)	Nominative	hwā	who	who
	Accusative	hwone / hwæne	whom	who / whom[1]
	Dative	hwām / hw□m		
	Instrumental			
	Genitive	hwæs	whos	whose
Neuter (Thing)	Nominative	hwæt	what	what
	Accusative	hwæt	what / whom	
	Dative	hwām / hw□m		
	Instrumental	hwȳ / hwon	why	why
	Genitive	hwæs	whos	whose[2]

[1] - In some dialects *who* is used where Formal English only allows whom, though variation among dialects must be taken into account.

[2] - Usually replaced by *of what* (postpositioned).

First person personal pronouns

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Singular	Nominative	iċ	I / ich / ik	I
	Accusative	mē / meċ	me	me

	Dative	mē		
	Genitive	mīn	min / mi	my, mine
	Nominative	wē	we	we
Plural	Accusative	ūs / ūsiċ	us	us
	Dative	ūs		
	Genitive	ūser / ūre	ure / our	our, ours

(Old English also had a separate dual, **wit** ("we two") etcetera; however, no later forms derive from it.)

Second person personal pronouns

Old and Middle English singular to the Modern English archaic informal

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
	Nominative	þū	þu / thou	thou (you)
Singular	Accusative	þē / þeċ	þé / thee	thee (you)
	Dative	þē		
	Genitive	þīn	þi / þīn / þīne / thy /thin / thine	thy, thine (your)
	Nominative	ġē	ye / ȝe / you	
Plural	Accusative	ēow / ēowiċ	you, ya	you
	Dative	ēow		
	Genitive	ēower	your	your, yours

Note that the ye/you distinction still existed, at least optionally, in Early Modern English: "Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free" from the King James Bible.

Here the letter þ (interchangeable with ð in manuscripts) corresponds to *th*.

Formal and informal forms of the second person singular and plural

	Old English				Middle English				Modern English			
	Singular		Plural		Singular		Plural		Singular		Plu	
Case	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Formal	Informal	Fo	
Nominative	þū		ġē		you	thou	you	ye	you			

Accusative	þē / þeċ	ēow / ēowiċ		thee	you	
Dative	þē	ēow				
Genitive	þīn	ēower	your, yours	thy, thine	your, yours	your, yours

(Old English also had a separate dual, ȝit ("ye two") etcetera; however, no later forms derive from it.)

Third person personal pronouns

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Masculine Singular	Nominative	hē	he	he
	Accusative	hine	him	him
	Dative	him		
	Genitive	his	his	his
Feminine Singular	Nominative	hēo	heo / sche / ho / he / ȝho	she
	Accusative	hīe	hire / hure / her / heore	her
	Dative	hire		
	Genitive	hire	hir / hire / heore / her / here	her, hers
Neuter Singular	Nominative	hit	hit / it	it
	Accusative	hit	hit / it / him	
	Dative	him		
	Genitive	his	his / its	its
Plural	Nominative	hīe	he / hi / ho / hie / þai / þei	they
	Accusative	hīe	hem / ham / heom / þaim / þem / þam	them
	Dative	him		
	Genitive	hira	here / heore / hore / þair / þar	their, theirs

(The origin of the modern forms is generally thought to have been a borrowing from Old Norse forms þæir, þæim, þæira.
The two different roots co-existed for some time, although currently the only common

remnant is the shortened form 'em.
Cf. also the demonstrative pronouns.)

Comparison of British and American English Vocabulary

Most of the differences in lexis or vocabulary between British and American English are in connection with concepts originating from the 19th century to the mid 20th century, when new words were coined independently. Almost the entire vocabularies of the car/automobile and railway/railroad industries (see Rail terminology) are different between the UK and US, for example. Other sources of difference are slang or vulgar terms (where frequent new coinage occurs) and idiomatic phrases, including phrasal verbs. The differences most likely to create confusion are those where the same word or phrase is used for two different concepts. Regional variations, even within the US or the UK, can create the same problems.

It is not a straightforward matter to classify differences of vocabulary. David Crystal identifies some of the problems of classification on the facing page to his list of American English/British English lexical variation and states "this should be enough to suggest caution when working through an apparently simple list of equivalents".

Overview of lexical differences

Note: A lexicon is not made up of different words but different "units of meaning" (lexical units or lexical items e.g. "fly ball" in baseball), including idioms and figures of speech. This makes it easier to compare the dialects.

Though the influence of cross-culture media has done much to familiarize BrE and AmE speakers with each other's regional words and terms, many words are still recognized as part of a single form of English. Though the use of a British word would be acceptable in AmE (and vice versa), most listeners would recognize the word as coming from the other form of English and treat it much the same as a word borrowed from any other language. For instance

a British speaker using the word *chap* or *mate* to refer to a friend would be heard in much the same way as an American using the Spanish word *amigo*.

Words and phrases that have their origins in BrE

Some speakers of AmE are aware of some BrE terms, although they may not generally use them or may be confused as to whether someone intends the American or British meaning (such as for *biscuit*). They will be able to guess approximately what some others, such as "driving licence", mean. However, use of many other British words such as *naff* (slang but commonly used to mean "not very good") are unheard of in American English.

Words and phrases that have their origins in AmE

Speakers of BrE are likely to understand most common AmE terms, examples such as "sidewalk", "gas (gasoline/petrol)", "counterclockwise" or "elevator (lift)", without any problem, thanks in part to considerable exposure to American popular culture and literature. Certain terms that are heard less frequently, especially those likely to be absent or rare in American popular culture, e.g. "copacetic (satisfactory)", are unlikely to be understood by most BrE speakers.

Divergence

Words and phrases with different meanings

Words such as *bill* and *biscuit* are used regularly in both AmE and BrE but mean different things in each form. In AmE a bill is usually paper money (as in "dollar bill") though it can mean the same as in BrE, an invoice (as in "the repair bill was £250"). In AmE a biscuit is what in BrE is called a scone. In BrE a biscuit is what AmE calls a cookie. As chronicled by Winston Churchill, the opposite meanings of the verb *to table* created a misunderstanding during a meeting of the Allied forces; in BrE to table an item on an agenda means to *open it up* for discussion whereas in AmE, it means to *remove* it from discussion, or at times, to suspend or delay discussion.

The word "football" in BrE refers to Association football, also known as soccer. In AmE, "football" means American football. However, the standard AmE term "soccer", a contraction of "association (football)", is also of British origin, derived from the formalization of different

codes of football in the 19th century, and was a fairly unremarkable usage (possibly marked for class) in BrE until relatively recently; it has lately become perceived incorrectly as an Americanism.

Similarly, the word "hockey" in BrE refers to field hockey and in AmE, "hockey" means ice hockey.

Other ambiguity (complex cases)

Words with completely different meanings are relatively few; most of the time there are either (1) words with one or more shared meanings and one or more meanings unique to one variety (for example, bathroom and toilet) or (2) words the meanings of which are actually common to both BrE and AmE but that show differences in frequency, connotation or denotation (for example, *smart*, *clever*, *mad*).

Some differences in usage and/or meaning can cause confusion or embarrassment. For example the word *fanny* is a slang word for vulva in BrE but means buttocks in AmE—the AmE phrase *fanny pack* is *bum bag* in BrE. In AmE the word *fag* (short for *faggot*) is a highly offensive term for a gay male but in BrE it is a normal and well-used term for a cigarette, for hard work, or for a chore, while a faggot itself is a sort of meatball. In AmE the word *pissed* means being annoyed whereas in BrE it is a coarse word for being drunk (in both varieties, *pissed off* means irritated).

Similarly, in AmE the word *pants* is the common word for the BrE *trousers*, while the majority of BrE speakers would understand *pants* to mean *underwear*. Many dialects in the North of England agree with the AmE usage and use *pants* to refer to *trousers*; this is often incorrectly considered an Americanism by people from elsewhere in Britain. The word *pants* is a shortening of the archaic *pantaloons*, which shares the same source as the French for trousers, *pantalon*.

Sometimes the confusion is more subtle. In AmE the word *quite* used as a qualifier is generally a reinforcement: for example, "I'm quite hungry" means "I'm very hungry". In BrE *quite* (which is much more common in conversation) may have this meaning, as in "quite right" or "quite mad", but it more commonly means "somewhat", so that in BrE "I'm quite

hungry" can mean "I'm somewhat hungry". This divergence of use can lead to misunderstanding.

Frequency

- In the UK the word *whilst* is historically acceptable as a conjunction (as an alternative to *while*, especially prevalent in some dialects). In AmE only *while* is used in both contexts.
- In the UK generally the term *fall* meaning "autumn" is obsolete. Although found often from Elizabethan literature to Victorian literature, continued understanding of the word is usually ascribed to its continued use in America.
- In the UK the term *period* for a full stop is not used; in AmE the term *full stop* is rarely, if ever, used for the punctuation mark. For example, Tony Blair said, "Terrorism is wrong, full stop", whereas in AmE, "Terrorism is wrong, period."

Social and cultural differences

Lexical items that reflect separate social and cultural development.

Education

School

Main articles: Primary education, Secondary education in the United Kingdom, and Secondary education in the United States

The naming of school years in British (except Scotland) and American English

Age range	British English			American English	
	Name	**Alternative/Old name**	**Syllabus**	**Name**	**Alternative name**
		Preschool (optional)			
1–4	Nursery	Playgroup	Foundation Stage 1	Day care	Preschool
		Primary school			
3–5	Reception	Infants reception	Foundation Stage 2	Pre-kindergarten	Pre-K
5–6	Year 1	Infants year 1		Kindergarten	
			Key Stage 1	**Elementary school**	
6–7	Year 2	Infants year 2		1st grade	
7–8	Year 3	First year Junior	Key Stage 2	2nd grade	
8–9	Year 4	Second year Junior		3rd grade	
9–10	Year 5	Third year Junior		4th grade	

10–11	Year 6	Fourth year Junior		5th grade	
		Secondary school / High School		**Middle school**	**Junior high school**
11–12	Year 7	First form		6th grade	
12–13	Year 8	Second form	Key Stage 3	7th grade	
13–14	Year 9	Third form		8th grade	
				High school	
14–15	Year 10	Fourth form	Key Stage 4, GCSE	9th grade	Freshman year
15–16	Year 11	Fifth form		10th grade	Sophomore year
		Sixth form (currently optional)			
16–17	Year 12	Lower sixth (AS)	Key Stage 5, A level	11th grade	Junior year
17–18	Year 13	Upper sixth (A2)		12th grade	Senior year

In the US 6th grade is sometimes part of elementary school leaving just 7th and 8th in middle school/junior high. Occasionally, 9th grade is in middle school/junior high.

In the UK the US equivalent of a *high school* is often referred to as a *secondary school* regardless of whether it is state funded or private. Secondary education in the United States also includes *middle school* or *junior high school*, a two- or three-year transitional school between elementary school and high school. "Middle school" is sometimes used in the UK as a synonym for the younger *junior school*, covering the second half of the primary curriculum—current years 4 to 6 in some areas. But in Dorset (South England) it is used to describe the second school in the three-tier system, which is normally from year 5 to year 8, In other regions such as a town called Evesham and the surrounding area in Worcestershire the second tier goes from year 6 to year 8, and both starting secondary school in year 9.

A *public school* has opposite meanings in the two countries. In the US this is a government-owned institution supported by taxpayers. In England and Wales the term strictly refers to an ill-defined group of prestigious private independent schools funded by students' fees, although it is often more loosely used to refer to any independent school. Independent schools are also known as *private schools*, and the latter is the correct term in Scotland and Northern Ireland for all such fee-funded schools. Strictly, the term *public school* is not used in Scotland and Northern Ireland in the same sense as in England, but nevertheless Gordonstoun, the Scottish private school which Charles, Prince of Wales attended, is sometimes referred to as a *public school*. Government-funded schools in Scotland and Northern Ireland are properly referred to as *state schools*—but are sometimes confusingly referred to as *public schools* (with the same meaning as in the US); whereas in the US, where most public schools are administered by

local governments, a *state school* is typically a college or university run by one of the states. The UK use of the term "public" school is in contrast with "private" education, i.e. to be educated privately with a tutor.

Speakers in both the United States and the United Kingdom use several additional terms for specific types of secondary school. A US *prep school* or *preparatory school* is an independent school funded by tuition fees; the same term is used in the UK for a private school for pupils under thirteen, designed to prepare them for fee-paying public schools. An American *parochial school* covers costs through tuition and has affiliation with a religious institution, most often a Catholic Church or diocese. (Interestingly, the term "parochial" is almost never used to describe schools run by fundamentalist Protestant groups.) In England, where the state-funded education system grew from parish schools organized by the local established church, the Church of England (C. of E., or C.E.), and many schools, especially primary schools (up to age 11) retain a church connection and are known as *church schools*, *C.E. Schools* or *C.E. (Aided) Schools*. There are also *faith schools* associated with the Roman Catholic Church and other major faiths, with a mixture of funding arrangements.

In the US, a *magnet school* receives government funding and has special admission requirements: pupils gain admission through superior performance on admission tests. The UK has city academies, which are independent privately sponsored schools run with public funding and which can select up to 10% of pupils by aptitude. Moreover in the UK 36 Local Education Authorities retain selection by ability at 11. They maintain grammar schools (State funded secondary schools), which admit pupils according to performance in an examination (known as the 11+) and Comprehensive schools that take pupils of all abilities. Grammar schools select the most academically able 10% to 23% of those who sit the exam. Students who fail the exam go to a Secondary modern school sometimes called a high school and increasingly an academy. In areas where there are no grammar schools the comprehensives likewise may term themselves high schools or academies. Nationally only 6% of pupils attend grammar schools, mainly in 4 distinct counties. Some private schools are called grammar schools, chiefly those that were grammar schools long before the advent of state education.

University

In the UK a university student is said to *study*, to *read* or informally simply to *do* a subject. In the recent past the expression 'to read a subject' was more common at the older universities

such as Oxford and Cambridge. In the US a student *studies* or *majors in* a subject (although *concentration* or *emphasis* is also used in some US colleges or universities to refer to the major subject of study). *To major in* something refers to the student's principal course of study; *to study* may refer to any class being taken.

BrE:

"She read biology at Cambridge."
"She studied biology at Cambridge."
"She did biology at Cambridge." (informal)

AmE:

"She majored in biology at Harvard."
"She studied biology at Harvard."
"She concentrated in biology at Harvard."

At university level in BrE, each *module* is taught or facilitated by a *lecturer* or *tutor*; *professor* is the job-title of a senior academic. (In AmE, at some universities, the equivalent of the BrE lecturer is instructor, especially when the teacher has a lesser degree or no University degree, though the usage may become confusing according to whether the subject being taught is considered technical or not. Also, it is not to be confused with Adjunct Instructor/Professor.) In AmE each *class* is generally taught by a *professor* (although some US tertiary educational institutions follow the BrE usage), while the position of *lecturer* is occasionally given to individuals hired on a temporary basis to teach one or more classes and who may or not have a doctoral degree.

The word *course* in American use typically refers to the study of a restricted topic or individual subject (for example, *a course in Early Medieval England, a course in Integral Calculus*) over a limited period of time (such as a semester or term) and is equivalent to a *module* or sometimes *unit* at a British university. In the UK a *course of study* or simply *course* is likely to refer to the entire program of study, which may extend over several years and be made up of any number of *modules*, hence is also practically synonymous to a degree programme.

General terms

In both the US and the UK, a student *takes* an exam, but in BrE a student can also be said to *sit* an exam. The expression *he sits for* an exam also arises in BrE but only rarely in AmE; American lawyers-to-be *sit for* their bar exams and American master's and doctoral students may *sit for* their comprehensive exams, but in nearly all other instances, Americans *take* their exams. When preparing for an exam students *revise* (BrE)/*review* (AmE) what they have studied; the BrE idiom *to revise for* has the equivalent *to review for* in AmE.

Examinations are supervised by *invigilators* in the UK and *proctors* (or *(exam) supervisors*) in the US (a *proctor* in the UK is an official responsible for student discipline at the University of Oxford or Cambridge). In the UK a teacher *sets* an exam, while in the US, a teacher *writes* (prepares) and then *gives* (administers) an exam.

BrE:

> "I sat my Spanish exam yesterday."
> "I plan to set a difficult exam for my students, but I don't have it ready yet."

AmE:

> "I took my exams at Yale."
> "I spent the entire day yesterday writing the exam. I'm almost ready to give it to my students."

In BrE, students are awarded *marks* as credit for requirements (e.g. tests, projects) while in AmE, students are awarded *points* or "grades" for the same. Similarly, in BrE, a candidate's work is being *marked* while in AmE it is said to be *checked* to determine what mark or grade is given.

Another source of confusion is the different usage of the word *college*. (See a full international discussion of the various meanings at college.) In the US this refers to a post-high school institution that grants either associate's or bachelor's degrees, while in the UK it refers to any post-secondary institution that is not a university (including *Sixth Form College* after the name in secondary education for Years 12 and 13, the *6th form*) where intermediary courses such as A Levels or NVQs can be taken and GCSE courses can be retaken. College

may sometimes be used in the UK or in Commonwealth countries as part of the name of a secondary or high school (for example, Dubai College). In the case of Oxford, Cambridge, Aberdeen, London, Lancaster, Durham, Kent and York universities, all members are also members of a college which is part of the university, for example, one is a member of Clare College, Cambridge and hence the University.

In both the US and UK *college* can refer to some division within a university such as the "college of business and economics" though in the UK "faculty" is more often used. Institutions in the US that offer two to four years of post-high school education often have the word *college* as part of their name, while those offering more advanced degrees are called a *university*. (There are exceptions of course: Boston College, Dartmouth College and The College of William & Mary are examples of colleges that offer advanced degrees, while Vincennes University is an unusual example of a "university" that offers only associate degrees in the vast majority of its academic programs.) American students who pursue a *bachelor's degree* (four years of higher education) or an *associate degree* (two years of higher education) are *college students* regardless of whether they attend a college or a university and refer to their educational institutions informally as *colleges.* A student who pursues a master's degree or a doctorate degree in the arts and sciences is in AmE a *graduate student*; in BrE a *postgraduate student* although *graduate student* is also sometimes used. Students of advanced professional programs are known by their field (*business student, law student, medical student*). Some universities also have a residential college system, the details of which may vary but generally involve common living and dining spaces as well as college-organized activities. Nonetheless, when it comes to the **level** of education, AmE generally uses the word *college* (e.g. going to college) whereas BrE generally uses the word *university* (e.g. going to university) regardless of the institution's official designation/status in both countries.

"Professor" has different meanings in BrE and AmE. In BrE it is the highest academic rank, followed by Reader, Senior Lecturer and Lecturer. In AmE "Professor" refers to academic staff of all ranks, with (Full) Professor (largely equivalent to the UK meaning) followed by Associate Professor and Assistant Professor.

"Tuition" has traditionally had separate meaning in each variation. In BrE it is the educational content transferred from teacher to student at a university. In AmE it is the money (the fees) paid to receive that education (BrE: Tuition fees).

There is additionally a difference between American and British usage in the word *school*. In British usage "school" by itself refers only to primary (elementary) and secondary (high) schools and to *sixth forms* attached to secondary schools—if one "goes to school", this type of institution is implied. By contrast an American student at a university may talk of "going to school" or "being in school". US law students and medical students almost universally speak in terms of going to "law school" and "med school", respectively. However, the word is used in BrE in the context of higher education to describe a division grouping together several related subjects within a university, for example a "School of European Languages" containing *departments* for each language and also in the term "art school". It is also the name of some of the constituent colleges of the University of London, for example, School of Oriental and African Studies, London School of Economics.

Among high-school and college students in the United States, the words *freshman* (or the gender-neutral term *frosh* or *first year*), *sophomore*, *junior* and *senior* refer to the first, second, third, and fourth years respectively. For first-year students, "frosh" is another gender-neutral term that can be used as a qualifier, for example "Frosh class elections". It is important that the context of either high school or college first be established or else it must be stated direct (that is, *She is a high school freshman*. *He is a college junior*.). Many institutes in both countries also use the term *first-year* as a gender-neutral replacement for *freshman*, although in the US this is recent usage, formerly referring only to those in the first year as a graduate student. One exception is the University of Virginia; since its founding in 1819 the terms "first-year", "second-year", "third-year", and "fourth-year" have been used to describe undergraduate university students. At the United States service academies, at least those operated by the federal government directly, a different terminology is used, namely "fourth class", "third class", "second class" and "first class" (the order of numbering being the reverse of the number of years in attendance). In the UK first-year university students are sometimes called *freshers* early in the academic year; however, there are no specific names for those in other years nor for school pupils. Graduate and professional students in the United States are known by their year of study, such as a "second-year medical student" or a "fifth-year doctoral candidate." Law students are often referred to as "1L", "2L", or "3L" rather than "nth-year law students"; similarly medical students are frequently referred to as "M1", "M2", "M3", or "M4").

While anyone in the US who finishes studying at any educational institution by passing relevant examinations is said to *graduate* and to be a *graduate*, in the UK only degree and above level students can *graduate*. *Student* itself has a wider meaning in AmE, meaning any person of any age studying at any educational institution, whereas in BrE it tends to be used for people studying at a post-secondary educational institution and the term *pupil* is widely used for a young person at primary or secondary school.

The names of individual institutions can be confusing. There are several "University High Schools" in the United States that are not affiliated with any post-secondary institutions and cannot grant degrees, and there is one public high school, Central High School of Philadelphia, which does grant bachelor's degrees to the top ten per cent of graduating seniors. British secondary schools occasionally have the word "college" in their names.

In the context of education, for AmE, the word *staff* mainly refers to school personnel who are neither administrators nor have teaching loads or academic responsibilities; personnel who have academic responsibilities are referred to as members of their institution's *faculty*. In BrE, the word *staff* refers to both academic and non-academic school personnel.

Politics

In Britain, political candidates *stand for election*, while in the US, they *run for office*. There is virtually no crossover between BrE and AmE in the use of these terms.

Business/Finance

In financial statements, what is referred to in AmE as *revenue* or *sales* is known in BrE as *turnover*.

Transport/Transportation

Americans refer to *transportation* and British people to *transport*. (*Transportation* in Britain has traditionally meant the punishment of criminals by deporting them to an overseas penal colony.) In AmE, the word *transport* is mainly used only as a verb, seldom as a noun or adjective except in reference to certain specialized objects, such as a *tape transport* or a *military transport* (e.g., a troop transport, a kind of vehicle, not an act of transporting).

Differences in terminology are especially obvious in the context of roads. The British term *dual carriageway*, in American parlance, would be *divided highway*. The *central reservation* on a *motorway* or *dual carriageway* in the UK would be the *median* or *center divide* on a *freeway*, *expressway*, *highway* or *parkway* in the US. The one-way lanes that make it possible to enter and leave such roads at an intermediate point without disrupting the flow of traffic are known as *slip roads* in the UK but US civil engineers call them *ramps* and further distinguish between *on-ramps* (for entering) and *off-ramps* (for leaving). When American engineers speak of *slip roads*, they are referring to a street that runs alongside the main road (separated by a berm) to allow off-the-highway access to the premises that are there, sometimes also known as a frontage road—in both the US and UK this is also known as a *service road*.

In the UK, the term *outside lane* refers to the higher-speed *overtaking lane* (*passing lane* in the US) closest to the centre of the road, while *inside lane* refers to the lane closer to the edge of the road. In the US *outside lane* is used only in the context of a turn, in which case it depends in which direction the road is turning (i.e. if the road bends right the left lane is the "outside lane" but if the road bends left it is the right lane). Both also refer to *slow* and *fast* lanes (even though all actual traffic speeds may be at or around the legal speed limit).

In the UK *drink driving* is against the law, while in the US, where the action is also outlawed, the term is *drunk driving*. The legal term in the US is *driving while intoxicated* (DWI) or *driving under the influence of alcohol* (DUI). The equivalent legal phrase in the UK is *drunk in charge of a motor vehicle* (DIC) or more commonly *driving with excess alcohol*.

Specific auto parts and transport terms have different names in the two dialects, for example:

UK	**US**
accelerator	gas [pedal], accelerator
B road	rural road
bonnet	Hood
boot	Trunk
mudguard, wheel arch, wing	fender
hood	convertible top
car park	parking lot
driving licence	driver's license
dual carriageway	divided highway
estate car	station wagon
flyover	Overpass

gearbox	Transmission
juggernaut	18 wheeler, tractor-trailer
lorry	Truck
articulated lorry	trailer truck, semi
motorway	Freeway or highway
pavement	Sidewalk
roadworks	construction zone, roadwork
petrol	gasoline or gas
saloon	Sedan
silencer	Muffler
spanner	Wrench
ticking over	Idling
windscreen	Windshield
anti-clockwise	Counter-clockwise
car valeting	auto detailing

There are also differences in terminology in the context of rail transport. The best known is *railway* in Britain and *railroad* in America, but there are several others. A *railway station* in the UK is a *railroad station* or *train station* in the US; trains have *drivers* (often called *engine drivers*) in Britain, while in America trains are driven by *engineers*; and a place where two tracks meet is called a *point* in the UK and a *switch* in the US. The British term *platform* in the sense "The train is at Platform 1" would be known in the USA by the term *track*, and used in the phrase "The train is on Track 1". Also, the British term *Brake Van* or *Guard's Van*, is a *Caboose* in the US. Finally the American English phrase "All aboard!" when getting on a train is rarely used in Britain; the nearest British equivalent is "Take your seats!", and when the train reaches its final stop, in Britain the phrase used by announcers is "All change!" while in America it is "All out!"

Test your knowledge - Self assessment

Module Test on Lectures (1-5)

(Old English/Middle English periods)

1. **What are the greatest events that stand out clearly among the highlights in the history of the English language? Name at least 10 events.**

_____
_____
_____
_____

10points

2. **Write the data of the Old and the Middle English periods**

Old English period _____
Middle English period _____

5points

3. **Name the four Old English major dialects.**

1…….. 2…….. 3…….. 4…….

4points

4. **Name the most ancient population on the British Isles.**

…… *2points*

5. **What words were transferred into the Old English language after the first Roman colonists left Britain in the 1st century AD? Name at least three words.**

a)…….. b)……. c)……

6points

6. **Enumerate the four cases Old English nouns were inflected for :**

a) …….. b) …….. c) ……. d) …….

8points

7. **Find the odd one out.**

One result of the Norman Conquest of 1066 was:

1. to change the writing
2. to place all four Old English dialects more or less on a level
3. the seven long vowels of Chaucer's speech had already begun to shift
4. West Saxon lost its supremacy and the centre of culture and learning gradually shifted from Winchester to London

4points

8. **Testing the Old and the Middle English Periods**

1. When was the Roman withdrawal from Britain?
a) 449 b) 436 c) 450
2. When does Alfred become King of Wessex?
a) 845 b) 860 c) 871
3. The Venerable Bede publishes 'The Ecclesiastical History of the English People' in Latin.
a) 731 b) 742 c) 738
4. The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins
a) 445 b) 449 c) 456
5) Roman invasion of Britain under Julius Caesar
a) 55 BC b) 50 BC c) 68 BC
6)English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools.
a) 1348 b) 1452 c) 1390
7) The Great Vowel Shift begins.
a) c.1450 b) c.1400 c) c. 1300
8) The Black Death kills one third of the British population.
a) 1340-45 b) 1350-55 c) 1349-50
9) Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible.
a) 1275 b) 1375 c) 1384
10) Chaucer begins the Canterbury Tales
a) 1392 b) 1388 c) 1360

20points

9. **Enumerate the seven kingdoms united by Alfred the Great in 878.**

1. …….
2. …….
3. …….
4. …….
5. …….
6. …….
7. …….

14points

10. Write about the main characteristics of the Old English period.

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

10points

11. Circle the correct number. How many classes are Old English strong verbs distinguished between?.

a) 5 b) 3 c)6 d) 7 e)4 f)8

1point

12. Write about the main characteristics of the Middle English period.

……
……
……
……
……
……

……
……
……
……

10points

13. Write the origin of the following words on the lines.

1. attorney, court, butcher, _____
2. skin, husband, reindeer _____
3. testament, temporal, apocalypse _____
4. bard, clan, loch _____
5. shore, trade, clock _____
6. wallet, boy, kidney _____

6points

Module Test on Lectures (6-10)

(Middle English/Modern English periods)

1. Which are the three rich sources of character and adventure the first English romance drew from?

a) ……. b) …… c) ……..

6points

2. What are the main changes from Old English to Middle English Verbs?

……
……

5points

3. Who was the first printer stabilized the written language and its spelling and what were the greatest advantages of establishing it?

……
……
……

5points

4. What are the main characteristic features of Early Modern English Grammar?

……
……
……
……
……
……

10points

5. What are the origins of the following words borrowed from other languages?

1) cigar, mosquito, tornado, cockroach …….
2) participate, accommodate, global, collide …….
3) mango, marmalade, veranda …….
4) carnival, umbrella, piano, opera …….
5) favourite, police, soup, engage …….

10points

6. Testing Modern English Period

1. William Tyndale translates the New Testaments

a) 1500 b) 1510 c) 1525

2. Shakespeare born
a) 1564 b) 1610 c) 1616
3. Publication of the first daily, English Language Newspaper, the Daily Courant, in London
a) 1702 b) 1707 c) 1525
4. Noah Webster publishes his dictionary
a) 1818 b) 1820 c) 1828
5) British Broadcasting Corporation founded
a) 1887 b) 1922 c) 1920

10points

7. What is RP? Write about the main features of RP. (Received Pronunciation)

……
……
……
……
……
……

10points

8. Describe the main characteristics of American English, Australian and New-Zealand English

……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……
……

10points

9. How do Pidgin and Creole develop? What are the most widespread areas in the world the mentioned languages occur?

……
……
……
……
……
……

10points

10. What is the future of the English language?

……
……
……

……
……
……
……

10points

11. Two of these works are not Shakespeare's works. Which are they?

a) Hamlet b) King Lear c) Faerie Queen d) Taming of the Shrew
e) Volpone f) Much Ado about Nothing

4points

Recommended literature

1. Barber Ch. Linguistic Change in Present-Day English. London, 1964.
2. Baugh A. History of the English Language. New York, 1959.
3. Brook G. History of the English Language. London, 1960.
4. Burlakova V.V. Contribution of English and American Linguists to the Theory of Phrase. M., 1971.
5. Ilyish B. The Structure of Modern English. M.;L., 1971.
6. Ilysh B. History of the English Language. L., 1973.
7. Jespersen O. A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles. London, 1954.
8. Jespersen O. Growth and Structure of the English Language. Oxford, 1945; 1958.
9. Jespersen O. Language: Its Nature, Development and Origin. London; New York, 1934.
10. Pyles Th. The Origins and Development of the English Language. New York, 1964.
11. Quirk R.S., Wrenn C.L. An Old English Grammar. London, 1958.
12. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. M., 1983.
13. Stevick R.D. English and Its History. The Evolution of Language. Boston, 1968.
14. Strang B.A. A History of English. London, 1970.
15. Wyld H. History of modern Colloquial English. Oxford, 1953.
16. Аракин В.Д. История английского языка. М., 1985.
17. Арнольд И.В., Дьяконова Н.Я. Три века английской прозы. Л., 1967 (на английском языке).
18. Ахманова О.С. О принципах и методах лингвистического исследования. М., 1966.
19. Бруннер К. История английского языка. М., 1955. Т.1; М., 1956. Т.2.

20. Зятковская Р.Г. Суффиксальная система современного английского языка. М., 1971.
21. Иванова И.П. и др. Структура английского имени существительного. М., 1975.
22. Иванова И.П. История английского языка. СПб.: Лань, 1999.
23. Иванова И.П., Чахоян Л.П. История английского языка. М., 1976.
24. Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. М., 1968.
25. Пауль Г. Принципы историии языка М., 1960.
26. Секирин В.П. Заимствования в английском языке. Киев, 1964.
27. Смирницкий А.И. Древнеанглийский язык. М., 1955.
28. Смирницкий А.И. История английского языка. М., 1965.
29. Смирницкий А.И. Морфология английского языка. М., 1959.
30. Смирницкий А.И. Синтаксис английского языка. М., 1957.
31. Цвет Л.Я. Основы истории германских языков. Тюмень: Скорпион, 1998.
32. Шевякова В.Е. Современный английский язык. М., 1980.
33. Ярцева В.Н. Историческая морфология английского языка. М.; Л., 1960.
34. Ярцева В.Н. Исторический синтаксис английского языка. М.; Л., 1961.
35. Ярцева В.Н. Различия национального английского языка. М.; Л.,1969.