МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ
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імені Михайла Туган-Барановського

Кафедра іноземної філології,
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Г. М. Удовіченко, Л. А. Дмитрук, Д. В. Фурт

History of English

Курс лекцій

ступінь: бакалавр

Кривий Ріг
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У запропонованому курсі лекцій представлені основні питання історії та розвитку англійської мови. Викладення теоретичних понять супроводжується великою кількістю прикладів. Зміст посібника викликає зацікавленість, пов'язану з актуальністю розроблених тем. Методичну розробку побудовано з урахуванням сучасних вимог до викладання теоретичних дисциплін у ЗВО.

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ВСТУП / INTRODUCTION

Вимоги до викладання теоретичних дисциплін, які відповідають сучасному рівню розвитку інформаційного суспільства, у парадигмі новітніх підходів до навчання й викладання у закладах вищої освіти передбачають передусім акцентування на формуванні та розвитку у студентів здатності до аналітичного й критичного мислення в умовах аргументативного дискурсу, розвитку вмінь самостійно отримувати, осмислювати інформаційні блоки, використовувати результати аналізу та обробки інформації для розв'язання практичних завдань.

Метою викладання навчальної дисципліни "Історія англійської мови" є системний виклад основних фактів історії англійської мови, який передбачає презентацію провідного напряму розвитку національної літературної англійської мови, опис шляхів утворення її загальногерманського характеру та аналіз головних причин виникнення й формування її ареальних та індивідуальних рис.

Предметом вивчення навчальної дисципліни є історичний процес утворення англійської літературної мови.

Опанування теоретичних положень курсу студентами базується на теоретичних знаннях та практичних уміннях з таких дисциплін: "Вступ до загального мовознавства", "Вступ до германського мовознавства", "Теоретична граматика сучасної англійської мови" та "Практична граматика сучасної англійської мови", "Теоретична фонетика сучасної англійської мови" та "Практична фонетика сучасної англійської мови", "Лексикологія сучасної англійської мови", "Історія літератури Англії". В основу лінгвістичного опису розвитку структури літературної англійської мови покладено принцип системної взаємообумовленості всіх елементів мови. Значна увага також приділена соціолінгвістичним факторам впливу на розвиток мови та особливостям її функціонування в суспільстві.

Основними **завданнями** навчальної дисципліни "Історія англійської мови" є:

- ознайомити студентів з теоретичними питаннями курсу з урахуванням загальної теорії лінгвістичного опису мов;

- навчити студентів застосовувати діахронічний підхід до вивчення фактів історичного розвитку мови та допомогти використовувати знання, які були отримані під час опанування курсу "Історія англійської мови", для аналізу лінгвістичного матеріалу з точки зору історичної перспективи її розвитку;

- сформувати в студентів уміння застосувати теоретичні відомості й положення курсу у викладанні сучасної англійської мови.

У результаті вивчення навчальної дисципліни "Історія англійської мови" студенти повинні **знати**:

- важливі історичні процеси та соціолінгвістичні фактори, які мали вплив на функціонування та формування англійської літературної мови;

- загальні закономірності становлення англійської мови та основні мовні явища, які відбулися на певному етапі її розвитку;

- причини та шляхи утворення специфічних рис, властивих для сучасного стану англійської мови.

Студенти повинні **вміти**:

- застосовувати основні методи лінгвістичного аналізу мовного матеріалу;

- визначати типологічні та ареальні риси англійської мови в її історичному розвитку;

- розуміти єдність, взаємозв'язок та взаємозумовленість історичних змін мови; аналізувати специфіку соціально-історичного контексту функціонування мови;

- використовувати знання з курсу для пояснення специфічних особливостей сучасного стану англійської мови.

Запропонована методична розробка має за мету сприяти засвоєнню студентами основних положень теоретичного курсу та формуванню практичних навичок аналізу мовних явищ в історичній перспективі для більш адекватного та глибокого розуміння індивідуального та специфічного характеру розвитку англійської мови.

За змістом і структурою курс лекцій відповідає чинним вимогам до укладання навчально-методичної літератури та включає інформаційні матеріали, які пропонують системний і стислий виклад основних тем та теоретичних положень з опорної інформації курсу.

CONTENT MODULE 1.
ENGLISH LITERARY DEVELOPMENT (V-XXI CENTURIES)

Lecture 1.
General Characteristics of the Germanic Languages
Plan:
1. Introduction
2. The Indo-European family of languages
3. Old Germanic languages and Old Germanic written records
4. Common linguistic features of Old Germanic languages
    A. Peculiar features of Old Germanic morphology
    B. Common Germanic vocabulary
    C. Peculiar features of Old Germanic phonetics
5. Conclusions

References: 1, 2, 3, 4, 16, 17.

1. Introduction
Any language is subject to constant and gradual changes. There is no evidence of a language used in communication that has been preserved absolutely unchanged even for a few centuries. When a language ceases to change it becomes a dead language as Latin, for example, that hasn't changed for centuries, as it has no longer been used for everyday social communication in a speech community. The evolution of any language is generally characterized by two tendencies, on the one hand, the stability of the existing language system, the preservation of the language for social purposes of communication, on the other hand, its development that reflects the evolution of the human community and changes in the social and cultural life. The most mobile section of the language is probably lexicon, whereas the less changeable section seems to be grammar. Old words die out and new words appear alongside with the development of the human community during the lifetime of one generation. Words can also change their meaning, for example, the word *nice* in pre-Shakespearian times (up to 1560) meant *foolish, stupid,* in Shakespearian times it began to be used in the meaning *difficult to please, or satisfy, fastidious* (1551), *strict, particular, careful, fastidiously careful* (1584) (now archaic and rare): Some are so nice that they condemn generally all sorts of divinations (1584), The Parliament is always very nice and curious on the point (1661). In Modern English the word *nice* has the meaning *agreeable*, *pleasant, attractive* or *kind, friendly:* Did you have a nice time? Our neighbours are very nice. Many new words or idiomatic expressions have been entering the lexis of Modern English.as new words are always being invented or coming into the language because of the development of technology, science, the Media and so on, for example, from the world of information technology the following computer terms have come: web-log, down-

load, emoticon, newbie, to upload, to double-click, up-time and so on. The social tendencies in the development of the language are shown through the appearance of many new informal words which are recorded in present-day English dictionaries: shedloads, busted, minging, back-burner, lite, techie.

The historical development of any language is made up of diverse facts and processes. The English language of today reflects in its entire development the political, social, technological and cultural history of the English people. Modern linguists in their observation how language functions distinguish two approaches to the study of language: diachronic (from Greek δῐά *through* and χρόνος *time)* and synchronic (from Greek σύν *together* and χρόνος *time).* The synchronic approach is concerned with the representation of a language as it functions at a given time (for example, the English language of today, or the English language of Shakespeare). The diachronic approach shows the way the language system has been developing and has shaped over time. It deals with the evolution of the language in the course of time, with the rise of new elements in the language system and with linguistic changes in different sections of the language system within the time periods, such as the evolution of the vocabulary of the language or its sound system, the formation of the grammatical system of the language. It helps to understand the development of social functions of the language and changes in the sociolinguistic attitudes in the speech community, the evolution of different forms of language in the history of a speech community (local and social dialects, different language variants). Both approaches to the study of language are interrelated in the way that the diachronic analysis is based on the synchronic description of language phenomena and can't go without the results of the systematic examination and analysis of the language system at a given time period.

Since Jacob Grimm's time the most important comparative-linguistic working method has been the method of comparison of language facts to determine cognate relations between languages and the most frequently used working procedure has been the reconstruction of two types: a comparative or external reconstruction and an internal reconstruction. Later there have been introduced sociolinguistic and functional approaches to deal with the historical development of language in speech communities.

Modern linguists recognize two sets of factors that can trigger, condition or influence a linguistic change: internal, or structural, which are governed by laws inherent in the functioning and operation of the language system and external which emphasize the importance of outside influences. What makes external factors different from internal factors is the time limitation which is usually imposed on external influence by historical frames, by the time characteristics of the historical context in which the language change comes about. The external (extralinguistic) factors in language changes are found in varied linguistic influences which speakers of one language can take over through cross-cultural experience that involves social, political, cultural, ethnic and historical relationships between different human

communities. It seems important to lay considerable emphasis on the fact that different tendencies in the evolution of the language are the results of the interaction of different factors that are due to the structural character of the language as well as to its social functioning in a speech community.

The diachronic study of the internal structural development of the language system concentrates on the evolution and changes of each of its sections which are viewed from the historical aspect: historical phonetics and historical phonology, historical lexicology, historical grammar. No less important is the historical treatment of facts that relate to the functioning of the language in the speech community. The historical approach to the study of functional aspects of the language is very important in the investigation of the language evolution since it aims at the understanding of historical changes in the English language from a sociolinguistic perspective. The sociolinguistic perspective is introduced whenever the social motivation is found for a language change, be it the reduction of unstressed vowels, the analogical formation, or the adoption of some features from another language or dialect. Moreover, the study of the history of any language from that point brings forward the consideration of different aspects of the language functioning such as the spread of the English language overseas and the rise of different national and area variants of English on the territory of the British Isles and overseas, the evolution of different local dialects, the formation of the national literary form of the language, various contacts with other languages, changes in social modes of speech behavior, the rise of different functional styles of English, such as the language of science, literature, the mass media, etc. The main focus of the historical sociolinguistic analysis is on the study of changes in the people's attitude towards the language and in its social functions, on the way linguistic changes are motivated by social shifts in the society, by socially important historical events or by demands of the increasing communication. The historical sociolinguistic analysis focuses on the study of changes in the sociolinguistic relations in England and in socially oriented speech behaviour of the speakers in the English-speaking community, on the study of different changes in the sociolinguistic contexts of the development of English.

The major laws that define the evolution of the language structure are thought to be the ones that determine the phonetic development, for example, different quantitative and qualitative vowel changes or the weakening and reduction of unstressed vowels, the evolution of the grammatical system, for example, various changes by analogy, processes of grammaticalization and verbalization, the development of the lexical system, for example, processes of word-formation and of borrowing new lexemes from other language systems.

2. The Indo-European lfamily of anguages

The English language genetically belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages and is a close relative to the rest of them. Indo-

European is a wide-spread family of languages that includes: *Indian* (Sanskrit, Hindu, Urdu, Bengali, Punjabi, and Marathi), *Iranian* (Avestan [the language of the Avesta], Old Persian, Persian [Farsi], Afghan [Pushtu], Dari, Kurdish), *Armenian, Albanian, Hellenic* (Greek), *Italic or Romance (Romanic) languages* (Latin, French, Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, Romanian, Provençal, Rhaeto-Romanic [Romansch], Catalan), *Celtic* (Welsh, Breton, Cornish, Irish, Gaelic), *Germanic:* the West-Germanic group (English, German, Frisian, Dutch in the Netherlands, Flemish in northern Belgium, Afrikaans, Yiddish) and the North-Germanic group (Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, Norwegian, Faroese), *Baltic* (Prussian, Latvian [Lettish], Lithuanian), *Slavic* (Old Church Slavonic, Russian, Ukrainian, Belorussian, Polish, Czech, Slovak, Slovene [Slovenian], Serbo- Croat [Serbo-Croatian], Bulgarian).

3. Old Germanic features and Old Germanic written records

The name *Germāni* is first used by Julius Caesar in his work *Commentarii de Bello Gallĭco [Commentaries on the Gallic War]* written in the first century B.C., later it was used by Cornelius Tacitus in his short work *Germania, De ŏrīgĭnĕ et sĭtū Germanōrum [About the Origin and Location of the Germanic people]*) written in A. D. 98. In the first century of our era Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scholar, made the first classified list of Germanic tribes in his famous work *Naturalis Historia [Natural History],* Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes, later revised by historians, seems to be generally accepted by modern scholars. This rearranged classification is based on a tripartite division of the Germanic tribes. The Old Germanic tribes are usually subdivided into some groups: the North Germanic tribes [the Hilleviones], the Scandinavians, the East-German- ic tribes [lat. *Vindĭli*]: the Goths [lat. *Gŏtōnes*, late lat. *Gothi],* the Bastarnae [lat. *Bastarnae],* the Vandals [lat. *Vandăli*], the Burgundians [lat. *Burgundiones*], the West-Germanic tribes: the Ingwinians, the Ingvaeones or the Ingaevones [lat. *Ingaevŏnes*]: the Angles [lat. *Anglii],* the Saxons, the Jutes, the Frisians [lat. *Frīsii],* the Iscaevones or Istaevŏnēs [lat. *Istaevŏnes*]: the Franks [lat. *Franci],* the Herminones [lat. *Hermĭnŏnēs*] or the Hermiones [lat. *Hermi ŏ nes*]: the Suevi, later the Swabians [lat. *Su ē bi],* the Bavarians, the Langobards [lat. *Langŏbardi*], the Alemanians [lat. *Ălĕmanni],* The most famous written records in Old Germanic languages are the following: in Gothic, the fourth-century translation of the Bible by Ulfilas [Wulfila] in the manuscript *Codex Argenteus,* in Old Icelandic, *The Elder or Poetic Edda* and *The Younger or Prose Edda,* the forty sagas of the twelfth-thirteenth centuries, in Old English, poems: *Beowulf, The Wanderer, The Battle of Maldon,* in Old High German, *Otfrids Evangelien buch [Otfrid's Gospel Book],* poems: Das *Ludwigslied [Ludwig's Song], Das Hilderbrandslied [The Song of Hilderbrandt],* in Old Saxon, the poem *The Heliand.*

4. Common linguistic features of Old Germanic languages

All Old Germanic languages share many common features in morphology,

syntax, vocabulary and phonetics. These common features are partly due to their common Indo-European history and partly due to their common Germanic development. The most obvious common Indo- European characteristics of the Old Germanic languages include: the highly inflected morphological systems of the noun, of the verb and of the adjective, a tripartite morphological structure of the word in Common Germanic, the declension of some pronouns, the ablaut vowel modification and a certain portion of the essential vocabulary.

The study of verbal inflections in the present tense-forms shows many cognate features between the Old Germanic languages and the languages of other Indo-European sub-families.

Morphology:

Old Indian Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Ukrainian	Gothic	Old English	Old High German
bhar- to bear	to bear	fĕrrĕ to bear	брати	bairan to bear	beran to bear	neman to take

Singular:

Old Indian Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Ukrainian	Gothic	Old English	Old High German
1. bhárāmi	φέρω	fĕrō	беру	baira	bere	nimu
2. bhárasi	φέρεις	fĕrs	береш	bairis	bir(e)st	nimis
3. bhárati	φέρει	fĕrt	бере	bairiþ	bir(e)þ	nimit

Plural:

Old Indian Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Ukrianian	Gothic	Old English	Old High German
1. bhárāmas	φέρομεν	fĕrĭmŭs	беремо	bairam	beraþ	nemumês
2. bháratha	φέρετε	fĕrtĭs	берете	bairiþ	beraþ	nemet (nemat)
3. bháranti	φέροντι	fĕrunt	беруть	bairand	beraþ	nemant

Vocabulary

The oldest part of the essential vocabulary is also an eloquent testimony to a shared historical past.

One

Gothic ains, Old Icelandic einn, Old English ān, Old Frisian ān, ēn, Old Saxon ên, Old High German ein || Compare: Greek οϊνη| ace, εἷς;, ἕν (Genetive ἑνός;) one, Latin ūnus, Old Latin oinos, Old Prussian ains, Lithuanian víenàs, Latvian viens, Ukrainian один, Russian один, Russian иной, Irish oin, oen.

Sister

Gothic swistar, Old Icelandic systir, Old English sweostor, suster, Old Frisian suster, swester, sister, Old Saxon swestar, Old High German swester ‖ Compare: Old Indian svásar, Greek ἕορ, Latin soror (oris), Old Prussian swestro, Ukrainian сестра, Russian сестра, Old Irish siur, Welsh chwaer.

To plough

Gothic arjan, Old Icelandic erja, eria, Old English erian, Old Saxon erian, Old Frisian era, Old High German erien, erren ‖ Compare: Greek ἀρόω *to plough, to cultivate*, Latin ăro (-are) *to plough, to cultivate,* Lithuanian árti, ariù, Latvian art *to plough, to cultivate,* Russian орать (dated), Ukrainian орати, Old Irish airim *I plough,* Armenian araur a *plough.*

Eye

Gothic augo, Old Icelandic auga, Old English ēage, ēge, Old Frisian āge, Old Saxon ôga, Old High German ouga, auga ‖ Compare: Old Indian ákṣi, Latin oculus (i), Old Prussian ackis, Lithuanian akìs, Latvian acs, Ukrainian око, Russian око (dated), Bulgarian око, Czech oko, Polish oko.

The most significant Common Germanic characteristics of Old Germanic languages, which set them apart from the rest of the Indo-European languages, are the development of a new system of phonemic accentual (dynamic) stress, which became restricted to the root-syllable of words and caused the tendency to the weakening (reduction) of vowels in unaccented syllables, the First Germanic Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law) which sets off the Germanic languages from other languages of the Indo-European family, Verner's Law, the introduction of a new type of verb-formation (weak verbs), the development of the weak declension of adjectives and the rise of two syntactically distinct forms of adjective declension, the development of specifically Germanic phono-morphological schemes of alteration (ablaut) in the system of strong verbs, the development of the group of present-preterite verbs, the simplification of the verbal grammatical system and the development of the tense opposition *non-past/past* supported by verbal inflectional forms.

The central problem of comparative phonetic studies of Old Germanic languages is the relation between the Indo-European and the Germanic consonant systems. Most of the Indo-European consonants changed in Germanic so that the character of consonant sounds was made completely different. This process, known as the First Germanic Consonant Shift or Grimm's Law, was regular and consistent. Grimm's Law explains the consonant correspondences between the Germanic languages and the rest of the Indo-European languages, thus showing their close kinship. The consonant changes produced by the First Germanic Consonant Shift affected only plosives (stop obstruents) and didn't modify the development of nasals or liquids. These were spontaneous and independent sound i changes the chronological frames of which as well as their motivation still remain obscure. Numerous attempts made by linguists of different phonological schools to give the

phonological interpretation to the phonetic processes which characterize the development of the Proto-Germanic consonant system seem to have proved unsatisfactory in view of the complexity of the problem and none of the explanations has received a unanimous support as yet.

The basic phonemic oppositions in the Early Indo-European system of consonant phonemes are believed to have been *aspirated/non-aspirated* and *voiced/voiceless.* In Proto-Germanic the basic phonemic oppositions in the system of consonant phonemes became *voiced/voiceless* and *stop/fricative.* The changes of plosives in the Germanic area fall into three groups. In each group the changes affect one sound of each of the phonetic categories according to the place of articulation: labial, dental, velar, and labio-velar.

The First Germanic Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law)

1. The aspirated voiced plosives */bʰ/ */dʰ/ */gʰ/ */gʰw/ lose their aspiration and become non-aspirated voiced plosives */b/ */d/ */g/ */w/ in Germanic.

The Indo-European */bʰ/ > the Proto-Germanic *lbl* > */b/

Gothic brofþar, Old Icelandic br*ó*ðir, Old English br$\bar{o}$ðor, Old Frisian br$\bar{o}$ther, br$\bar{o}$der, Old Saxon br*ô*ðar, Old High German brooder *brother* || Compare: Old Indian bhr$\bar{a}$tr, bhr$\acute{\bar{a}}$t$\bar{a}$, Greek φρᾱ́τηρ, φρᾱτηρ, Latin fr$\bar{a}$ter (-tris), Ukrainian брат, Russian брат.

The Indo-European */dʰ/ > the Proto-Germanic */d/ > */d/

Gothic doms, Old Icelandic d*ó*mr, Old English d$\bar{o}$m, Old Frisian d$\bar{o}$m, Old Saxon d*ô*m, Old High German tuom *law, judgment, fame, doom* || Compare: Old Indian dh$\bar{a}$man *law.*

The Indo-European */gʰ/ > the Proto-Germanic */y/ > */g/

Gothic dags, Old Icelandic dagr, Old English dæg, Old Frisian dach, dei,

Old Saxon dag, Old High German tag, tac *day* || Compare: Old Indian nid$\bar{a}$gh*á*s *summer, heat,* Old Prussian dagis *summer,* Lithuanian daga, d$\tilde{a}$gas *hot weather.*

2. The Indo-European non-aspirated voiced plosives */b/ */d/ */g/ */gʷ/ become voiceless plosives */p/ */t/ *lkl* */kʷ/ in Germanic.

The Indo-European */b/ > the Proto-Germanic */p/

Gothic slepan, Old English sl$\bar{æ}$pan, sl$\bar{e}$pan, Old Frisian sl$\bar{e}$pa, Old Saxon sl*â*pan, Old High German sl*â*ffan, sl*â*fan *to sleep* || Compare: Lithuanian sl$\tilde{o}$bti, slobst*ù*, sloba$\tilde{u}$ to *become weak, to faint, to pass out,* sl$\tilde{a}$bnas *weak,* Latvian sl$\bar{a}$binat *to make weak,* sl$\bar{a}$banas *weak,* Bulgarian слаб, Ukrainian слабкий, Russian слабый, Czech slaby, Polish slaby, Slovene sl*á*b, sl*á*ba.

The Indo-European */d/ > the Proto-Germanic */t/

Gothic twai, twos, twa, Old Icelandic tveir, tvær, tvau, Old English tw$\bar{e}$gen, tw$\bar{a}$; t$\bar{u}$, Old Frisian tw$\bar{e}$ne, twer, tw$\bar{a}$, Old Saxon tw*ê*ne; tw*ô*; tw*â*; tw*ê*, Old High German zw*ê*ne, zw*ô*, zw*â*; zwei *two* || Compare: Old Indian dv$\acute{\bar{a}}$u, d(u) v$\bar{e}$, d(u)v$\bar{a}$, Sanskrit dva*ú*, dv*é*, Avestan dv$\bar{a}$, duye, Greek δ*ύ*o, δ*ύ*ω *два,* Latin duo, Old Prussian dwai, Lithuanian d*ù*, dv*ì,* Latvian divi, Ukrainian два, Russian два,

Bulgarian два, Czech dva, Old Irish dāu, dā, Welsh dau.

The Indo-European */g/ > the Proto-Germanic */k/

Gothic kaurn, Old Icelandic korn, Old English corn, Old Frisian korn, Old Saxon korn, Old High German korn, chorn *com* || Compare: Latin grānum *com,* Lithuanian žirnis a *pea,* Latvian zirnis a *pea,* zirni peas, Ukrainian зерно, Russian зерно, Old Irish gràn.

Gothic akrs, Old Icelandic akr, Old English æcer, Old Frisian ekker, Old Saxon acchar, akkar, Old High German ahhar *field, pasture* || Compare: Old Indian á*jra-pasture,* Greek ἀγρός *field, pasture,* Latin ager (agri) *field.*

3. The Indo-European voiceless plosives */p/ */t/ */k/ */kʷ/ [*/pʰ/ */tʰ/ */ kʰ/] become voiceless fricatives */f/ */0/ *lxl */ Xʷ/ in Germanic.

The Indo-European */pʰ/, */p/ > the Proto-Germanic */f/

Gothic fisks, Old Icelandic fiskr, Old English fisc, Old Frisian fisk, Old Saxon fisk, Old High German fisc *fish* || Compare: Latin piscis *fish,* Gaelic iasg < *peiskos, Irish iasc.

The Indo-European */tʰ/, *ltl > the Proto-Germanic */0/

Gothic þu, Old Icelandic þú, Old English þū, Old Frisian thū, Old Saxon thû; Old High German dû, thû, dhû || Compare: Old Indian tvàm, Avestan tū, Gr. tú, Latin tu, Lithuanian tù, Latvian tu, Old Prussian tou, tu, Ukrainian ти, Russian ты, Polish ty, Czech ty.

The Indo-European */kʰ/, */kl> the Proto-Germanic *lxl Gothic hund, Old Icelandic hundr, Old English hund, Old Frisian hund, Old Saxon hund, Old High German hunt *a dog* || Compare: Sanskrit śván - a *dog,* Old Indian śvā (śúnas) - a *dog,* Avestan span - a *dog,* Greek κύων(κὔνὸς;) a *dog,* Latin canis(is), Old Irish cú (con).

The general tendency of the evolution of Germanic consonants can he seen in the change of the mode of articulation whereas the place of articulation does not change. It seems to be now generally accepted that the basic phonological result of the First Consonant Shift is the elimination of the Indo-European correlation *aspirated/non-aspirated* and the rise of the *plosive/fricative* contrast in the Germanic area. Phonologically, the ultimate results of the series of consonant changes of the First Germanic Shift were to strengthen the position of fricatives in the system as in the Indo-European consonant system there was only one spirant (fricative) phoneme /sl.

The explanations to other certain apparent exceptions to the First Germanic Consonant Shift were provided by the Danish scholar Karl Verner (1846-1896) in his famous paper *Eine Ausnahme der ersten Lautver- schiebung [An Exception to the First Sound Shift]* (1877). Karl Verner showed that when the Indo-European accent was not on the vowel which immediately preceded the consonant it did not exactly follow the rule of the First Germanic Consonant Shift. Verner's law states that the voiceless fricatives */f/ */0/ *lxl,* which were the result of the sound changes of the First Germanic Consonant Shift, and the Indo-European fricative /sl became

voiced in the Germanic area when they were not immediately preceded by the chief stress of the word. The shift of the voiced /z/ into /r/ is called rhotacism.

Verner's Law

The Indo-European */p/1| the Proto-Germanic */f/ > *lbl > */b/

The Indo-European *ltl || the Proto-Germanic */0/ > */d/ > */d/

The Indo-European */k/1| the Proto-Germanic *lxl > */y/ > */g/

Old Indian bhrātr, bhrā́tā, Greek φρᾱ́τωρ, φρᾱτηρ, Latin frāter (-tris), Ukrainian брат, Russian брат.

|| Gothic brobar, Old Icelandic bróđir, Old English brōđor, Old Frisian brōther, brōder, Old Saxon brôđar, Old High German bruoder *brother.* but: Old Indian pitár, Sanskrit pita, Greek πατήρ, Latin pater (tris) || Gothic fadar, Old Icelandic fađir, Old English fæder, Old Frisian feder, Old Saxon fadar, fader, Old High German fadar, fater *father.*

Rhotacism

The Indo-European */s/ | |the Proto-Germanic */s/ > */z/ > *lrl

Greek oâς; Latin auris (is), Lithuanian ausìs, Latin auss, Ukrainian вухо, Russian ухо II Gothic auso, Old Icelandic eyra, Old English ēare, Old Frisian āre, Old Saxon ôra, Old High German ôra *ear.*

It is generally accepted to believe that the Indo-European symmetrical vowel system of monophthongs was broken in the Proto-Germanic area with the loss of the phonological contrast of quantity between /a/:: /a:/ and /o/:: /o:/, which was the result of the disappearance of the Indo-European oppositions /a/ :: /o/ and /a:/ :: /o:/. This specific development happened through the loss of the Indo-European vowels /a:/ and /o/ in the Germanic area so that the Germanic /a/ was the reflex of the Indo-European vowels /a/, /o/ and /ə/ and the Germanic /o:/ was the reflex of the Indo-European vowels /o:/ and /a:/.

The Proto-Germanic system as a result of these changes can be represented in the following way:

The Indo-European */a/, */o/, */ə/ II the Proto-Germanic */a/ Indo-European */agro/ || Old Indian ájra-pasfure, Greek ἀγρός; *field,* Latin ager (agri) || Gothic akrs, Old Icelandic akr, Old English æcer, Old Frisian ekker, Old Saxon acchar, akkar, Old High German ahhar *field.*

Indo-European*/nokt-/I I Tocharian noktim *before the night,* Latin nox (noctis), Ukrainian ніч, Russian ночь, Slovene noc, Polish noc, Czech noc, Old Irish *nocht (in-nocht *at night)* || Gothic nahts, Old Icelandic nátt, Old English neaht, niht, Old Frisian nacht, Old Saxon naht, Old High German naht.

Indo-European */pətḗr/\\ Old Indian pitár, Sanskrit pita, Greek πατήρ, Latin pater *father* || Gothic fadar, Old Icelandic fađir, Old English fæder, Old Frisian feder, Old Saxon fadar, fader, Old High German fadar, fater.

The Indo-European */a:/, */o:/ | | the Proto-Germanic */o:/

Indo-European */mātér || Sanskrit mātár, Greek μάτηρ, μήτηρ, Latin mater, Latvian mate, Ukrainian мати, Russian мать || Old Icelandic móđir, Old English

mōdor, Old Saxon mōdar, Old High German muoter.

Indo-European */plotu-* ‖ Greek πλωός; *swimming,* Latin plōro(-āre) *to weep aloud* ‖ Gothic flodus, Old Icelandic flođ, flœđr, Old English flōd. Old Frisian flōd, Old Saxon flōd, Old High German flout *flood*

Common Indo-European ablaut (vowel gradation) or reflexes of Common Indo-European vowel gradation can be seen in many Indo-European languages, though vocalic alternations cannot be regarded as an exclusively Indo-European language fact since vowel variations can also be found outside the Indo-European family of languages. The ablaut concept, the same as the term, was firstly introduced by J. Grimm to describe the specific character of the Germanic morphological system that showed reflexes of the Common Indo-European morphological system.

The Indo-European vocalic alternation, now widely known as ablaut, or vowel gradation, is usually accepted as an only normal vowel variation very typical and characteristic of the Indo-European morphological system and functionally important for it. By general recognition the ablaut vocalic alternation is accepted as the oldest Indo-European language phenomenon that is presented in several types of phonetic vowel variation of qualitative and quantitative nature and that is characterized by derivational (word-forming) and inflectional (form-building) functions.

The widely supported theoretical points concerning the Common Indo-European vowel gradation (ablaut) seem to be: (1) the existence of two types of ablaut, qualitative and quantitative, (2) the existence of ablaut grades and ablaut series, (3) the existence of two morphological functions of the ablaut (derivational and inflectional), (4) the establishment of typical patterns or schemes of ablaut alternation. The most controversial seems to be the issue of the number and the rise of ablaut grades. Traditionally three grades of ablaut vocalic alternation are distinguished in Indo-European languages: the full or normal grade (e/o), the lengthened or prolonged grade (ē/ō) and the zero or nil (null) grade (ø). These grades are thought to be used in form-building and in word-formation creating gradation (ablaut) rows of groups of words that share the same root and are in ablaut (gradation) relationship to each other. For example, in Old Greek the full or normal grade (e) is seen in the verbal form φέρω *I bear.* The full or normal grade (o) in the nouns φορά *bearing, burden* and φόρος; *tax, tribute,* the lengthened grade (ō) in the noun φώρ *thief* and the zero grade (ø), as in the noun δί-φρος; [from δίς; + φέρώ] *chariot* can be found in word-formation ablaut patterns.

The mechanism of ablaut alternations of the Late Indo-European period can be characterized as alternations of two types: qualitative and quantitative. The basic type of qualitative ablaut when the vowel is varied in quality, that is when the vowel quality is changed, is shown as an alternation of e/o (the full grade), for example, in word-formation: Old Slavonic **везж** and **возъ,** Russian везу and воз, Ukrainian везу and віз. The alternation scheme e/o is the most typical pattern of Indo-European gradation (ablaut), whereas the ablaut vocalic alternation ē/ō seems to be

less typical and can be supported only by some reliable illustrations. The most frequently found type of quantitative ablaut is shown in the cases of the alternation of the full grade (e) with the absence of the vowel (ø) or the reduced vowel (ə) in the nil (zero) grade, for example, in the formation of morphological forms: Old Slavonic **бержѫ** and **бьрати**, Russian беру and брать, Ukrainian беру and брати. If initially phonetically conditioned by position or other factors, with the time, in the period of isolation of individual Indo-European languages, the gradation became a historically conditioned vowel alternation that was employed as a morphological device important for distinguishing morphological forms in Indo-European.

Indo-European patterns of the ablaut vocalic variation based on qualitative and quantitative types of alternation can phonetically be built up with five possible grades e/o/ø/ ē/ō. But, though the number of theoretically possible ablaut variation schemes is very large, only a small proportion of the possible variant forms is found extant in Indo-European languages or is productive in them. In Germanic languages only some alternation schemes (ablaut series) can be found as the reflex of Indo-European gradation (ablaut): Indo-European e/o, that is reflected in the Germanic area as e/a (Gothic i/a), Indo-European ē/ō, that is reflected in the Germanic area as *ǣ/ō, Indo-European e/ø, that is reflected in the Germanic area as e/ø (Gothic i/ø), Indo-European o/ø, that is reflected in the Germanic area as a/ø, Indo-European o/ō, that is reflected in the Germanic area as a/ø. Both types of the ablaut vocalic alternation, qualitative and quantitative, can be observed in root-gradation patterns in word-formation and in form-building in the Germanic area.

The qualitative type of the ablaut alternation in word-formation (Indo-European e/o, Germanic e/a) can be seen in Old Greek λέγω / *speak* and λόγος; *speech,* in Latin tĕgo *to cover, to hide, to protect* and toga *tŏga, the outer garment of a Roman citizen,* in Russian наберу and набор, in Ukrainian беру and збори, in Gothic ligan *to lie* and lagjan *to lay,* in Gothic bindan (Old Icelandic binda, Old English bindan, Old Frisian binda, Old Saxon bindan, Old High German bintan) *to bind* and Gothic bandi *fetters, handcuffs* (Old Icelandic band *bond,* Old English bend from *bandi, Old Frisian bend, Old Saxon band, Old High German bant *bond, fetters),* in form-building in the Germanic area it can well be seen in the way Old Germanic strong verbs built the present and past singular forms: Gothic bindan (Old Icelandic binda, Old English bindan, Old Frisian binda, Old ' .axon bindan, Old High German bintan) *to bind* and Gothic band (Old Icelandic batt, Old English band, bond, Old Frisian band, Old Saxon band, Old High German bant) *(she, he)bound.*

The quantitative type of the ablaut alternation in the Germanic area can be found in more ablaut series: (1) Indo-European e/ø, Germanic e/ø; (2) Indo-European o/ø, Germanic a/ø; (3) Indo-European o/ō, Germanic a/ō, (4) occasionally Indo-European e/ē, Germanic e/*ǣ): (1) Latin gigno, gĕno (archaic) *to give birth to a child* and cognâtus a *relative, or of the same family,* Ukrainian беру and брав, Gothic bairan (Old Icelandic bera, Old English beran, Old Frisian bera,

Old Saxon beran, Old High German beran) *to bear* and Gothic gabaur^s (Old Icelandic burđr, byrđ, Old English ʒebyrd from *burđi, Old Frisian berde, berth, Old Saxon giburđ, Old High German giburt) *birth,* (2) Greek γόνος *birth* and γνησίως; *by birth,* Russian посол and послать, Gothic kunnan *to know* and kannjan *to make known,* Gothic kunnan (Old Icelandic kunna, Old English cunnan, Old Frisian kon(n)a, Old Saxon kunnan, Old High German kunnan) and Gothic kann (Old Icelandic kann, Old English can(n), Old Frisian kan, Old Saxon kan, Old High German kan), (3) Latin fŏdio *to dig* and fōdi *(he) dug,* Gothic graban (Old Icelandic grata, Old English ʒrafan, Old High German graban) *to dig* and Gothic groba (Old Icelandic gróf, Old High German grouba) *hole,* Old English calan *to be cold* and cōl *cool,* (4) Latin lĕgo *to gather, to collect* and lēgi *(he) collects,* Gothic qino (Old English cwene) a *woman* and Gothic qens, qeins *wife, woman* (Old English cwĕn *queen).*

Though historically an Indo-European phenomenon, ablaut has great significance for the development of Germanic languages in which it became a new type of internal inflexion. The further development of the Indo- European ablaut vowel alternation, or gradation, in the Germanic area resulted in the establishment of a peculiar Germanic character of ablaut series in the strong verbal formation and it is also well seen in the expansion of ablaut gradation schemes in which ablaut alternations are used as a derivational device. The most important is the rise of rather clear-cut and systematically organized patterns of alternations in the strong verbal paradigm. The formation of verbal forms with the help of ablaut in Old Germanic languages is closely connected with the contrast in stems, as the paradigm of Old Germanic strong verbs was built up on the basis of the compulsory distinction between four basic forms that differed in ablaut grades.

5. Conclusions

The historical perspective in studying languages can shed light on the relationship between language groups. It can help to explain the present state of the language and to describe general and local tendencies of its development. The English language belongs to the Germanic branch of the Indo-European family of languages and is characterized by both Indo-European and Germanic features. The lexical, grammatical and sound correspondences between the Germanic group of languages and the rest of the Indo-European family can show their close kinship scientifically.

Questions and tasks for self-control
1. What languages are in the Indo-European family?
2. What peculiar features of Old Germanic morphology can you name?
3. What the most significant Common Germanic characteristics of Old Germanic languages can you name?
4. Tell about peculiar features of Old Germanic phonetics.

Lecture 2.
The Development of English in the Anglo-Saxon Times
Part I

Plan:
1. Introduction
2. Anglo-Saxon dialects and the functional status of the West-Saxon dialect in Late English
3. Old English phonetics
    A. The Old English vowel system, its origin and evolution, the main phonological features
    B. The Old English consonant system, the main phonological features
4. Conclusions

References: 6, 9, 13, 14.

1. Introduction

The history of the English language is traditionally divided into three major periods: Old English, Middle English, New or Modern English. The first scholar to propose the division of the history of English into three main stages was Henry Sweet (1845-1912), one of the most significant scholars of the history of English, who distinguished three main stages of development in the history of the English language: Old English (OE), Middle English (ME), and Modern English (MnE). Henry Sweet's division of the history of English is based, on the one hand, on the morphological and phonetic principles, that is the state of the unstressed endings at different stages of the evolution of English and, on the other hand, on the principle of chronological sequence in the literary activity from the earliest literary writings to the present day. H. Sweet defined Old English as the period of full endings *(mōna, sunne, sunu, stānas),* Middle English as the period of levelled endings *(mōne, sunne, sune, stǭnes),* Modern English as the period of lost endings *(moon, sun, son, stones).*

Taking into consideration the main prominent and distinctive features of the development of the literary writing in the English language H. Sweet gave the following dates of the periods:

Early Old English (E. of Alfred)	700-900
Late Old English (E. of /Elfric)	900-1100
Transition Old English (E. of Layamon)	1100-1200
Early Middle English (E. of the Ancren Riwle)	1200-1300
Late Middle English (E. of Chaucer)	1300-1400
Transition Middle English (Caxton E.)	1400-1500
Early Modern English (Tudor E.; E. of Shakespeare)	1500-1650
Late Modern English	1650-
Present English	the 19th century -

Since Henry Sweet attached more importance to the morphological and

phonetic development of the English language, his approach was basically morphological and, accordingly, his division of the history of English is generally referred to as morphological. The basic tripartite division of the history of English into the Old English, Middle English and Modern (New) English periods, which was proposed by H. Sweet, remains traditionally and almost universally accepted by scholars concerned with the subject, as it seems to show more or less objectively the main identifiable and distinct factual stages in the evolution of English. Yet, the attempts have been made to introduce additional criteria to specify the boundary dates, to increase the number of subdivisions, or to substantiate the grounds for such divisions and give a more detailed description to each of the periods by taking into consideration the form of the language and its social functions in the English-speaking community, the social and political framework of the English society, forms of the historical and ethnic organization of the English people, the main features of the linguistic situation, historical factors, that is the historic events of great consequence for the evolution of the English society, the events that shaped the course of English history and marked off the main phases of the development of the country.

The accepted division of the history of English into periods does not coincide with the division of the history of England into periods, as the first concentrates on the evolution of the language, that is on the linguistic, sociolinguistic and other factors of its development, whereas the latter focuses on the study of the historical development of the English people and the evolution of the English society in the historical, social, economic and cultural contexts.

The suggested approaches and amendments to Henry Sweet's division of the history of English may receive a favourable or a critical recognition, but since they all aim at a more comprehensive, scientifically grounded, adequate and systematic presentation of the history of English and can help to discover new ways in our scholarly treatment of the sublet and to show new aspects of the evolution of English, they all are worth thorough consideration, careful examination and deep analysis.

It is commonly known that any historical division of the development of English is rather arbitrary and relative, not absolute through the objective complexity of the subject, as many factors have been at work in shaping the English language in communication in the speech community throughout its history. Like all other divisions in history, the division of a language history into periods is, to a large extent, a matter of academic choice, convenience and convention because precise clear-cut lines of demarcation ore hard to draw as all language changes are gradual and sometimes imperceptible to speakers and the periods merge into each other very slowly. Furthermore, as Albert Baugh, a famous American scholar says, there is no break in the process of the continuous transition from one stage of the evolution of English into the other.

What makes H. Sweet's tripartite division of the history of English an up-to-

date issue is its convenience and its validity, its reference to the factual information and wide knowledge about the development of English. At the same time the general characterization of each of the periods now gets a more complicated linguistic treatment in which many factors that influenced the development of English are taken into account and contemporary linguistic concepts, new ideas are introduced.

Generally, in its structural evolution the English language passed several stages of transformation against a background of marked, significant shifts in the social, political, economic order of the society and against a background of changes in the national, cultural and religious life of the English people. In the history of English one can find the reflection of the complexity of various and diverse historical ways which the English people have passed, the historic events that had their impact on the evolution of English. Hence, the up-to-date linguistic approach demands to view the development of English in the frame of its historical and social contexts. Modern linguists tend to focus their attention on the following range of problems important for better understanding of the evolvement of English through a comprehensive, detailed and all-embracing examination and description of the main stages in its development: (1) characteristics of the structure of the English language and the levels of the structure which are interrelated in a functioning whole: the phonetic system and the inventory of vowel and consonant phonemes, the grammatical structure of the language, the inventory of grammatical categories, their morphological forms, grammatical meanings, general characteristics of the lexis, foreign influence and word-formation processes, (2) characteristics of the historical, social contexts of the evolution of English: historical, political, social framework of the society and its ethnic structure, historical, social, economic, cultural and technological development of the English-speaking community, (3) main features of the sociolinguistic situation: geographical expansion of the English language and its speakers, growth in the number of the English-speaking people, the form of the language spoken in the English-speaking community and its social functions, contacts with other languages or with speech communities with different languages, the rate of literacy in the society and social functions of the written form of the English language, absence or existence of the literary pattern and the state of literary activity in the society. Taking into account different approaches to the division of the history of English into periods the following general characterization of each of the main periods can be given.

Old English

The origins of English can be found in what was a historical and a so-ciolinguistic phenomenon: the invasion of Britain in the fifth and sixth centuries by Germanic tribes who brought with them their culture, customs and their own languages, whereas the English language of which there is factual evidence starts with the first written records dating from the seventh-eighth centuries. Old English, which presumably covers the period until the end of the eleventh century, is the

language of the people whose ethnic identity and community were still in the making and there were several early feudal states in Britain. The language, spoken on .1 geographically limited territory by a comparatively small speech community (about a million people), existed in the form of different territorial dialects which developed on the basis of the tribal dialects of the Germanic tribes of the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. In the Old English period there appeared the first written fixation of the English language and the written language acquired a separate official status but there was still a lack of the unified literary pattern in that period of the English language development. The Anglo-Saxons in Britain came into contacts with the Celtic-speaking and Scandinavian-speaking communities and their interrelations had different impact on the development of the English language.

Old English was a self-sufficing language that is the number of loanwords from different languages was very small, they were taken mainly from four sources: Latin, Celtic, Scandinavian and Greek through Latin. At that, Old English loanwords from Celtic, Greek and Scandinavian were not numerous and the sphere of their application was narrow and clearly defined. During the Old English period new lexical additions that were formed largely on the basis of native lexemes as a result of two word-formation processes: suffixation and word-composition were incorporated into the English lexical system.

The system of Old English phonemes was mainly Common Germanic by origin, and there arose only some new phonemes as a result of different sound changes. The process of reduction of unstressed vowels did not spread greatly in the period and any short vowel could be found in the unstressed position.

Old English was morphologically a highly inflectional language, in which grammatical categories were shown with the help of various inflections. Old English is syntactically characterized as a language in which the word-order in a sentence was logically determined, but not grammatically fixed because all basic syntactical relations in a sentence were shown through inflected forms of the word.

Middle English

The Middle English period extends from the eleventh century until the middle of the fifteenth century. It started with the Norman Conquest of 1066 which brought the Anglo-Saxons under French rule and ultimately led to a fundamental shift in language attitudes and to changes in the social functions of the English language in the speech community. The socio- linguistic situation was characterized by three languages in use: French, English and Latin. The English language in the form of the territorial dialects that were equal in their functional status in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries socially came under the pressure of two languages in the terms of prestige: French and Latin. Furthermore, the sociolinguistic situation was still more complicated, as there was a part of the population, especially in the North and in the North East, who spoke Scandinavian dialects so that the English speakers in those parts of the country came into a close contact with the Scandinavian-speaking communities.

The English language in the Middle English speech community is the language of the people whose ethnic identity and political unity were established and who lived in the state of England. English expanded territorially and in the number of people (about 4 million) who spoke it.

In the Middle English period the language is presented in the form of local dialects with marked language differences between them. In the second half of the thirteenth century the importance of the London dialect rose and French, in its modified form of the Anglo-Norman dialect, gradually was superseded by English in its basic social functions in the English society. Though a unified and uniform literary pattern was still absent, there developed a great amount of literature in local dialects which showed the rise in the literary activity in the English-speaking community of the second half of the thirteenth century - the first half of the fourteenth century. The literary uniform pattern began to develop on the basis of the London dialect in the second half of the fourteenth century. The writing system of English was greatly modified as a result of the activity of Norman French-speaking scribes and new writing habits were introduced.

The Middle English lexis is marked by a great extension of foreign influence on English. The lexis was greatly enriched with loan-words from French and Scandinavian and their number was enormous. Moreover, besides a noticeable inflow of French and Scandinavian loan-words, more loan-words came from Latin and Greek.

There were great changes in the Middle English stressed vocalism and in the system of Middle English consonant phonemes. These changes deepened the differences between the Middle English local dialects. The process of reduction of vowels in the unstressed final positions expanded and it had a strong influence on the development of English.

In morphology the process of the decay of inflections started and it brought about serious changes in grammatical categories, in their number .md grammatical forms. Some grammatical categories were lost, some new grammatical categories were established and in the verbal system analytical forms began to develop. In syntax the loss in importance of grammatical inflections resulted in the encouragement of the tendency to a grammatically fixed word-order in a sentence

Modern [New] English

The Modern (New) English period extends from the middle of the fifteenth century when the first book in English was printed in 1475 by W. Caxton up to the present day and it is especially marked by the flowering of English literature. The introduction of printing in the fifteenth century facilitated the shift from primary oral functioning of the language to primary written textual fixation. The Modern English period is the period of the National Literary language as English becomes the language of the English nation and starts to function in all spheres of the English society. Modern English saw an increase in the rate of literacy and the growth of the reading public. In Early Modern English local dialects declined in their literary

importance and received social assessment as there developed a unified literary pattern alongside with the development of the notion of the literary norm (standard) which has been established throughout the whole period. Various grammar books and dictionaries, which prescribed grammar rules and normalized the word usage, have been compiled. The further development of the social stratification of the society has stimulated significant changes in the social modes of speech behavior in the English-speaking community. The functioning varieties (styles) of English have been developing, such as the language of poetry, of science (terminology) and the stylistic stratification of English has become more complicated. There arose different national and area variants of English as it spread overseas and expanded geographically. The number of the English-speaking communities has increased the same as the number of the English speakers (above 400 million)

The lexis of English has been enlarged and enriched greatly and it has become etymologically mixed as more loan-words from more languages have been taken. The number of loan-words has increased considerably the same as the number of languages from which they have come. There were changes in the vocalic and consonantal systems of English which were not reflected in spelling. This has resulted in the present-day discrepancy between the pronunciation and the spelling system of Modern English and has made English orthography etymologically grounded. The morphological character of the English language has become predominantly analytical, with only scanty remains of the older inflections.

2. Anglo-Saxon dialects and the functional status of the West-Saxon dialect in Late English

The migration of the Germanic tribes of the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes and probably the Frisians from the continent to Britain in the second half of the fifth century and their forcible settlement there initiated a long historical and sociolinguistic process of the evolvement of the English language. By the start of the seventh century, as a result of territorial enlargement, strong ethnic admixtures, colonization movement, consolidation for military or economic expansion, several fairly stable early feudal kingdoms were formed on the territories: East Anglia (predominantly settled by the Angles), Kent (presumably settled mostly by the Jutes), Sussex, Essex, Wessex (predominantly settled by the Saxons), Mercia and Northumbria (presumably settled mostly by the Angles).

The four main Old English (Anglo-Saxon) territorial dialects which are represented by Old English written texts were formed on the basis of the tribal dialects of the Germanic newcomers and were their continuation in the Germanic character, much influenced by distance and geographical location, by ethnic background of speakers and by the time of dominance: Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish and West-Saxon. On the basis of the textual fixation of the English language in the Old English period the assumption can be made that in the ninth-tenth centuries West Saxon became one of the Old English dialects the written form

of which began to be used for official and literary activities in the speech community by the speakers who began to feel themselves as one and the same people.

A special position was acquired by a written form of West Saxon because of the social functions it was employed to perform in the Anglo- Saxon community and, before all, because of its use as an official medium for administrative purposes and as a literary pattern for literary activity. This led the written form of English to a kind of selection, to a "cultivated" form, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, to the development of a mixed character of the West Saxon dialect. An introduction of dialectal elements into it from other dialects can be explained by the fact that sometimes the educated clergy, scribes, or writers wrote in West Saxon though their native dialects used by them in oral communication may have had some distinctions. That can also indicate to the process of the interaction of the Old English dialects, of their influence on each other. That process was much encouraged by the existence of large dialectal variation within the Old English dialects and the rising literary written form was easily comprehensible to the educated majority of the Old English speaking community. These language and functional characteristics of the West-Saxon dialect of the later period can probably indicate the initial stage of the formation of a pre-national unified literary form of language.

3. Old English phonetics

Old English was written in the British modified form of the Latin alphabet with some letters from the runic alphabet. To show long sounds the letters for consonants were doubled and the letters for vowels were supplied with a special sign called a macron, for example, <ō> [o:]. Like many alphabet writings Old English writing was at the beginning based on phonetic principles.

According to the structure there were monophthongs and diphthongs in the Old English vocalic system. All vowel phonemes are contrasted by the feature of quantity which was phonologically relevant so that the vocalic phonemic system is thought to have been balanced and symmetrical: OE fūl (MnE *foul)* - OE ful (MnE *full),* OE wēg (MnE *weight)* - OE weg (MnE *way),* OE gōd (MnE *good)* - OE god (MnE *God).* The Old English monophthongs were distinguished according to the place of the articulation and according to the raising. The system of the Old English monophthongs can be presented in the following way:

I (:)	y (:)	u (:)	high raising
	e (:)	o (:)	middle raising
	æ (:) a (:)		low raising

The next examples can be given as illustrations: OE bindan (MnE *to bind) :* OE rīdan (MnE *to ride),* OE cyninȝ (MnE *king)* : OE brȳd (MnE *hride),* OE hungor (MnE *hunger):* OE hūs (MnE *house),* OE beran (MnE *to hear)* : OE sēcan (MnE *to seek),* OE dohtor (MnE *daughter) :* OE ȝrōwan (MnE *to grow),* OE dæȝ (MnE *day):* OE slǣpan (MnE *to sleep),* OE faran (MnE *to go)* : OE ān (MnE *one).* With the

exception of the phonemes *lyl* and *ly:l* the Old English monophthongs were Germanic by origin.

There were the following diphthongs in Old English: */ea/ /ea:/ /eo/ /eo:/* /ie/ /ie:/, for example, OE eald (MnE *old),* OE strēeam (MnE *stream),* OE heorte (MnE *heart) :* OE dēop (MnE *deep),* OE ieldra (MnE *older):* OE hīeran (MnE to *hear).* The long diphthongs, mainly Germanic by origin, are mostly the reflex of Common Germanic diphthongs, whereas the short diphthongs are the result of the Old English assimilative sound changes which were in operation either in the time before the first written records of Old English had appeared or in the time of their writing. The diphthongs /ie:/ and /ie/ are the result of individual development of some vowels in the West-Saxon area, they do not occur in other Anglo-Saxon dialects and, consequently, are regarded as a distinctive and specific feature of the West-Saxon dialect. Later, in the ninth century, both diphthongs were monophthongized (contracted) into the monophthongs *lyl* and /y:/ in some parts of the West-Saxon area, and into /i/, /i:/ in other parts of the West-Saxon area. In Old English two more diphthongs /io/, /io:/ could occasionally be found, but they usually tended to finally fall together with the diphthongs /ie/, *lie:/,* especially in the West-Saxon area, through the stage of the diphthongs */eo/, /eo:/.*

The Old English vocalism displayed a strong tendency to vowel modification which was its most important characteristic feature. The major Old English vowel qualitative sound changes were breaking (fracture), palatal diphthongization (palatalization), palatal and velar mutation, contraction.

Breaking is the earliest of the Old English vowel qualitative sound changes. It is supposed to have been in operation in pre-written times. The phonetic mechanism of the change is the diphthongization of the short front vowels */æ/ /e/ /i/* under the influence of the velar or velarized consonants /r/ /1/ /χ/ through the development of a vowel glide to the front vowel: /æ/ > /æa/ > /ea/, for example, OE cæld (MnE *cold)* from *caeld > ceald, compare the Gothic form *kalds, /e/ > /eo/,* for example, OE heorte (MnE *heart)* from *herte > heorte, compare the Old Saxon form *herta.* Breaking more regularly operated in the West-Saxon and Kentish dialectal areas.

Palatal diphthongization that presumably took place in the seventh- eighth centuries is a progressive assimilation when the vowels of low and middle rise were diphthongized after the palatalized consonants /j/ /k'/ *lsk'*/(in writing <g>, <c>, <sc>): OE (Mercian) scæl, OE (West Saxon) sceal (MnE *shall),* OE (Mercian) ꝣefan, OE (West Saxon) ꝣiefan (MnE *to give).* The phonetic mechanism of the change is the appearance of a front-vowel glide between the palatalized consonant and the vowel.The glide and the vowel formed a rising diphthong which later became falling. This sound change was mostly characteristic of the vowel development in the West-Saxon dialectal area. The indications of this sound change are supposed to be seen in the spelling of the Modern English words *shield* (OE sceld, scield), *yield* (OE ꝣeldan, ꝣieldan *to pay).*

In Old English there were two types of regressive assimilation that depended on the phonetic qualities of the vowels that caused this assimilation, palatal and velar mutation (umlaut). Palatal mutation (i-umlaut) is a complete regressive assimilation that affected the vowel through the influence of the sounds /i/ or /j/ which originally stood in the next syllable: *fullian (Gothic lulljan) > OE fyllan (MnE *to fill),* *wōpjan (Gothic wopjan) > OE wēpan (MnE *to weep).* Velar mutation (back umlaut) is a partial assimilation which was caused through the influence of the back vowels /u/ /o/ /a/ in the next syllable when a back vowel glide developed after the front vowels /e/, /i/: OE (Northumbrian) hefen, OE (West Saxon) heofon (MnE *heaven),* OE (Anglian) silufr, OE (West Saxon) siolufr (MnE *silver).* In the Mercian area the velar mutation could affect the back vowel /a/ and it resulted in the development of the diphthong /ea/. Some scholars' opinion is that the velar mutation is one of syntagmatic sound changes in which the short vowels /e/, /i/ and /a/ were replaced by short diphthongs when followed by a back vowel.

The phonological results of the Old English qualitative phonetic modifications are: the rise of the short diphthongs /ea/ /eo/ /ie/ /io/ (breaking), the rise of the new front (mid-front) rounded phonemes /y/ /y:/ (palatal mutation) and the increase in the functional load of the short and long diphthongs (palatal diphthongization, palatal and velar mutation).

Contraction is one of the earliest syntagmatic changes the phonetic mechanism of which is the loss of the fricative /χ/ in the intervocalic portion: *slaχan > *sleaχan (breaking) > OE slēan (MnE *to slay),* compare Gothic slahan.

There were two types of quantitative sound changes of Old English vowels: the shortening of vowels before consonant clusters in the seventh- eighth centuries: EOE ʒodspell > LOE ʒodspel (MnE *gospel),* EOE cēpan, cēpte > LOE cēpan, cepte (MnE *to keep, kept),* OE hūs > LOE hus, hūs in hūsbūnda, husbonda (MnE *husband)* and the lengthening of vowels before the consonant clusters /ld/ /nd/ /mb/ /ng/ /rd/ in the eighth-ninth centuries: EOE findan [findan] > LOE findan [fi:ndan] (MnE *to find),* EOE fundon [fundon] > LOE fundon [fu:ndon] (MnE *they found).* These syntagmatic changes as a result of which positionally conditioned allophones appeared altered the distribution of long and short vowels and weakened the correlation *long/short* in the system of monophthongs.

The most striking phonological features of the Early Old English system of consonant phonemes were: the absence of sibilants and affricates, the absence of sonority within the set of fricatives, the existence of the phonemic feature of quantity. The most important phonetic feature of the Old English consonants is the mode of their articulation. Consonants were noise and sonorous. The noise consonants were plosives and fricatives. The sonorous consonants were liquids and nasals. According to the place of articulation plosives were labial /p - b/, dental /t - d/, velar /k - g/. According to the place of articulation fricatives were forelingual /f – v/, /s - z/, /θ- đ/, mediolingual [χ'] [j]. backlingual [γ] [χ].

The opposition *voiced/unvoiced* (*voiceless*) was a relevant feature only for

plosive consonant phonemes. Plosives: labial /p - b/ OE pinn (MnE *pin)* - OE binn *stall* (MnE *bin),* dental /t - d/ OE tūn *village* (MnE town) - OE dūn *hill* (MnE down), velar /k - g/ OE bōc (MnE *book)* - OE bōჳ (MnE *bough).* In the set of the Old English fricatives the voiced and voiceless variants were allophones that were characterized by positional (complementary) distribution. The voiced forelingual fricatives could appear in the voiced environment (mid-position), while the voiceless sounds appeared in other positions (initial and final). The Old English mediolingual fricatives (the voiceless palatal dorsal [χ'] and the voiced dorsal spirant [j]) could appear before or after front vowels, while the backlingual fricatives (the voiceless velar dorsal [χ] and the voiced dorsal [y]) appeared medially after back vowels or finally after /r/ /I/. The following illustrations can show this: forelingual fricatives: /t - v/ OE fīf [fi:f] (MnE *five)* - OE ofer [over] (MnE *over),* /s - z/ OE settan [set:an] (MnE *to sit)* - OE rīsan [ri:zan] (MnE *to rise),* /ɵ - ð/ OE þēof [ɵeo:f] (MnE *thief)* - OE baþian [baðian] (MnE *to bathe),* mediolingual fricatives [χ] [j]: OE niht [niχ't] (MnE *night)* - OE dæჳ [dæj] (MnE *day),* backlingual fricatives [y] [χ]: OE daჳas [dayas] (MnE *days)* - OE sōhte [so:χte] (MnE *sought).*

   Other consonants were as follows: glottal /h/ OE healdan (MnE *to hold),* nasals /n/ /m/ OE nama (MnE *name),* liquids /I/ /r/ OE leornian (MnE *to learn),* the bilabial sonorant (semivowel) /w/ OE waeter (MnE *water),* OE wīs (MnE *wise).*

   Consonants could be long and short in Old English, but the phonological contrast was defective, because some consonants, such as /w/ /sk'/ /j/, had no correlates. The feature of quantity was a relevant feature for almost all consonant phonemes, but the existence of long consonants can be char- acterized as peripheral to the Old English phonemic system of consonants as their distribution was restricted and the functional load was rather low.Long consonants, such as /b:/ /p:/ /d:/ /t:/ /k:/ /g:/ /m:/ /n:/ /I:/ /r:/ [f:] [ɵ:] [χ':] χ:] [s:] were fully established only in medial and intervocalic positions, for example, OE sunna [sun:a] (MnE *the sun)*:: OE suna [suna] (MnE *sons).* In wrilting long consonants were shown through the doubling of the letters: OE habban (MnE *to have),* OE cuppe (MnE *cup),* OE biddan (MnE *to pray),* OE sittan (MnE *to sit),* OE dogga (MnE *dog),* OE locc (MnE *lock),*OE swimman (MnE *to swim),* OE synn (MnE *sin),* OE eall (MnE *all),* OE steorra (MnE *star),* OE offrian (MnE *to offer),* OE siþþan, sidðan *afterwards,* OE cyssan (MnE *to kiss),* OE hliehhan (MnE *to laugh),* OE pohha (MnE *bag, pocket).*

   There were three palatalized consonants in Early Old English: /k'/ /g:'/ /sk'/which supported the existence of the peripheral and defective contrast *palatalized/non-palatalized,* for example, EOE cild [k'ild] (MnE *child),* EOE ocy [eg':] (MnE *edge),* EOE scip [sk'ip] (MnE *ship).* In Late Old English tlie correlation *palatalized/non-palatalized* was removed when palatalized i onsonants /k'/ /g:'/ /sk'/ were assibilated, i.e. became sibilants. As a refill of this sound change a new class of phonemes, sibilants, appeared, out of which two phonemes were affricates /ʧ/ /dჳ/ and one was a voiceless fricative (sibilant) /ʃ/. The phonological essence of the Old English ussibilation is the rise of a new set of phonemes (sibilants) and the

loss of palatalized plosives. The following illustrations can be given: EOE cild |k ild] > LOE cild [tʃiːld] (MnE *child)*, EOE brycʒ [brydʒ:] > LOE brycg [brycfe] (MnE *bridge)*, EOE fisc [fisk'] > LOE fisc [fiʃ] (MnE *fish)*.

In general, the Old English system of vowel and consonant phonemes is basically Common Germanic in character, but it shows the tendency to individual development in the vowel system from the pre-written times and to the later modifications in the system of consonant phonemes in Late Old English. The correlation of quantity that was one of the typological peculiarities of Old Germanic languages in the feature specification of phonemes showed signs of instability in the Old English phonemic system. It was not equally important for the vocalic and consonant systems as long consonants were characterized by the inconsistent nature of contrast in functioning and some consonants lacked long correlates.

4. Conclusions

Old English of the Anglo-Saxon times was presented in a bunch of Anglo-Saxon dialects that developed individually, though basically in the same socio-linguistic situation. The Anglo-Saxon dialects exerted influence on each other and experienced the complications of close coexistence which resulted in the penetration of the peculiar features of one dialect into the others.

The phonological system of Old English can be characterized as Common Germanic with some Indo-European features. It is remarkable for the rise of purely Old English phonemes as a result of the individual phonetic processes. The Old English morphological system can be characterized as Indo-European in character with many Germanic innovations ihoi greatly modified it. In the system of verbal morphological forms the modification of ablaut schemes of alternation in strong conjugation, the weak forms and the existence of preterite-present verbs can clearly show a specifically Germanic development. In the noun system numerous ho-monymous forms occur systematically in the paradigms of all stem-declensions. This testifies to the start of the process of ruin of the Old English stem-declension system. The Old English is a self-sufficing language the lexical system of which comprises mostly lexemes of native origin. Loanwords, as a way of enriching the lexicon, do not amount to a substantial number**.**

Questions and tasks for self-control

1. The sociolinguistic context of the development of English in Anglo- Saxon England
2. Writing and literary activity in the vernacular in Anglo-Saxon England
3. Old English adjectives: their grammatical categories and morphological forms
4. Old English pronouns: their grammatical categories and morpholoical forms. Groups of Old English pronouns
   – Old English syntax. A general survey
   – Stylistic stratification of the Old English vocabulary

Lecture 3.
The Development of English in the Anglo-Saxon Times
Part II

Plan:
1. Old English morphology
   A. The Old English system of the verb: morphological groups and verbal categories
   B. The Old English system of the noun: morphological groups and noun categories
2. Old English vocabulary. An etymological survey
3. Conclusions

References: 6, 9, 13, 14.

1. Old English morphology

The morphological system of the English language in the Anglo-Saxon times shows many Common Indo-European and Common Germanic features and is marked by a highly inflected character.

The basic grammatical categories of the Old English verb were: the category of tense that was presented in two sets of morphological forms: present and past (there was no special future tense-form); the category of mood that was presented in three sets of morphological forms: the indicative mood, the subjunctive mood, the imperative mood; the category of number that was presented in two morphological forms: singular and plural; the category of person that was presented in three morphological forms: the first person, the second person, the third person. These grammatical categories were expressed synthetically, that is, with the help of inflections.

Indicative Mood

Present:			Past:		
Sing.	1.	(ic) helpe	Sing.	1.	(ic) healp
	2.	(þū) hilpst		2.	(þū) hulpe
	3.	(hē, hēo, hit) hilpð(þ)		3.	(hē, hēo, hit) healp
Pl.		(wē, ʒē, hīe) helpað(þ)	Pl.		(wē, ʒē, hīe) hulpon

The existence of the morphological grammatical categories of voice and aspect in Old English is a matter of dispute. The most common opinion is that there was no special grammatical inflectional form to show inactive states and actions, as passive meanings were shown not morphologically, but syntactically, by a compound nominal predicate: hē wæs ʒefunden *he* was *found.* There is a trace of the Old Germanic mediopassive in the form *hātte:* þā ēa þe hātte Araxis *the river*

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that is called Araxes. The aspective meanings of *perfectiveness/non-perfectiveness* are believed to have been shown lexically, mostly with the help of the prefix ʒe- which is thought to be a typological feature of the Germanic language area: sittan *to sit* - ʒesittan *to occupy,* compare: Gothic sitan *to sit*- gasitan *to sit down.*

There were two non-finite forms of the Old English verb: the infinitive and the participle. By its origin the infinitive was a verbal noun and in Old English it preserved two forms: inflected and uninflected. The inflected form that had originally been the form of the dative case was used with the preposition tō and denoted the direction or the purpose of the action, for example, OE þencan *to think* - tō þaencenne (so *as) to think,* OE helpan *to help* - tō helpanne *(so as) to help.* The infinitive because of its specific morphological features that are explained by its origin had no verbal morphological categories in Old English. The participle was originally a verbal adjective and the grammatical forms of it could show the same tival grammatical categories of case, number, gender and definiteness/ indefiniteness that were typical of the Old English adjective. There were two forms of the Old English participle that could be contrasted in the grammatical meaning and had different grammatical forms. The present participle was used with active meaning whereas the past participle of transitive verbs usually had a passive meaning. The present participle was formed with the help of the suffix -ende, for example, OE þencende *thinking,* OE helpende *helping*, OE healdende *holding* and the past parti-ciple was marked by the dental suffix in weak verbs OE ʒedēmed *judged (about),* ʒeþōht *thought (about)* and by the suffix -en in strong verbs OE Imlpen *helped,* OE healden *held.* Both forms of the participle were declined according to the strong or weak types of the adjectival declension, Iml in some syntactical positions, especially when used predicatively, they i mild keep uninflected forms.

In Old English there were four morphological groups of verbs that differed in the way they built the basic morphological forms: strong, weak, preterite-present and anomalous. Strong verbs built their principal past tense-forms by means of vowel gradation (the inner inflection). Weak verbs formed their principal past tense-forms by adding the dental suffix in the stem (the outer inflection). Preterite-present verbs had the present tense-forms like the past forms (preterite) of strong verbs, with vowel gradation, and the past tense-forms like the past forms of weak verbs, with the help of the dental suffix. Anomalous verbs had individual paradigms.

Old English strong verbs are characterized by phonomorphological vowel modification that was the reflex of the Indo-European ablaut e/o/ø. A complicated character of inflectional alternation schemes based on the Indo-European patterns of gradation (ablaut) of qualitative and quantitative types can partially be illustrated by some basic morphological forms of the verbal paradigm of the Old Greek verb λείπω that had the basic form of the Present λείπω / *leave* with the full grade of ablaut (e) in the combination εί; the basic form of the Perfect λέλοιπα / *have left* with the lull grade of ablaut (o) in the combination οι; the basic form of the Aorist

ἔλιπον / *left* with the zero grade (ø). The original ablaut patterns became greatly obscured in Old English as a result of different phonetic processes.

There are seven classes of strong verbs in Old English. These seven classes differ in the character of the stem-ending and in the schemes of ablaut series. The verbs of the first five classes are characterized by the qualitative type of ablaut (the Germanic pattern e(i)/a in the present and past singular forms), the verbs of the sixth class are characterized by the quantitative type of ablaut (the Germanic pattern a/ō). The verbs of the seventh class were historically characterized by reduplication that is not seen in Old English. Old English strong verbs have four principal forms that differ in the ablaut grade: (I) the infinitive and present tense-forms, (II) the past tense singular forms, (III) the past tense plural forms, (IV) the form of the past participle. In the first three classes the scheme of alternation was presented in the grammatical forms in the following way: the full grades in the infinitive, present tense-forms and in the past tense singular forms, the nil-grade in the past tense plural forms and in the forms of the past participle. A Germanic innovation of ablaut series in the strong verbal formation can be seen in the introduction of the lengthened or prolonged grade in the past tense plural forms of the verbs belonging to the fourth and fifth classes and in the scheme of alternation found in the verbs of the sixth class. The system of Old English strong verbs belongs to a conservative type of the verbal formation and is not productive in Old English.

	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Past Participle
Class I	rīsan *to rise*	rās	rison	risen
Class II	cēosan *to choose*	cēas	curon	coren
Class III	bindan *to bind*	band	bundon	bunden
	helpan *to help*	healp	hulpon	holpen
Class IV	stelan *to steal*	stæl	stǣlon	stolen
Class V	etan *to eat*	æt	ǣton	eten
Class VI	faran *to go*	fōr	fōron	faren
Class VII	cnāwan *to know*	cnēow	cnēowon	cnāwen

Old English wool

Old English weak verbs that are a Germanic innovation are characterized by the dental suffix that was originally added to the verbal stem. There were three classes of Old English weak verbs distinguished by the nature of the stem-building suffix before the dental suffix. The most productive pattern of verbal weak formation characterizes the verbs belonging to class 2. A peculiar feature of these verbs is the phonological uniformity of root vowels. Only three verbs *habban, libban* and *secӡ(e)an* are usually attributed to class 3. This can testify to the unproductive character and ruin of class 3 in Old English. The verbs of class 1 are rather numerous in number. They can be subdivided in two groups: regular and

irregular. The peculiarity of the Old English irregular verbs is the formation of past tense- forms and forms of the past participle by adding the dental suffix directly to the root without the stem-building suffix of the first class verbal formation i/j that caused palatal mutation in all basic morphological forms of regular verbs: the infinitive, past tense-forms and forms of the past participle. The modifications of the root-vowels in the past tense-forms and in the forms ul the past participle in the Old English first class irregular verbal formation can also show the results of the operation of other phonetic processes, such as breaking.

Old English weak verbs had three principal forms: (I) the infinitive and ihe present tense-forms, (II) the past tense-forms, (III) the forms of the past participle.

		Infinitive	Past tense-forms	Past Participle
Class 1	(a)	dēman *to deem*	dēmde	(ȝe)dēmed *(regular verbs)*
	(b)	sellan *to sell*	sealde	(ȝe)seald *(irregular verbs)*
		sēcan *to seek*	sōhte	(ȝe)sōht
Class 2		lufian *to love*	lufode	(ȝe)lufod
Class 3		habban *to have*	hæfde	(ȝe)hæfd
		secg(e)an *to say*	sægde, sæde	(ȝe)sægd

Old English preterite-present verbs had present tense-forms like the past tense-forms (preterite) of strong verbs, with vowel gradation, as they originally were the isolated forms of the Indo-European perfect which named a present meaning in the Germanic area, and past tense-forms of these verbs developed later on the new pattern of the Germanic weak verbal formation, with the dental suffix. In Old English some verbs of this group began to express modality, some verbs developed a modal meaning as one of the basic components in their semantic structure and some verbs kept their original lexical meaning.

Infinitive cunnan

Present Indicative			Past		
Sing.	1,3	can(n), con(n) *I know, I can*	Sing.	1,3	cūþe < *cun + þe
	2	canst, const			
Pl.	3	cunnon	Pl.	1,3	cūþon

The basic grammatical categories of Old English nouns were the categories of number, case and gender. Old English nouns, by general recognition, were characterized by three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter. The gender distinctions were not shown in the morphological structure of the word, but the

definite gender was fixed upon a noun, for example, the nouns OE stan *stone* and OE fisc *fish* were attributed to the masculine gender, OE scip *ship* and OE word *word* were neuter nouns and the nouns OE tunʒe *tongue* and OE eorðe *earth* belonged to the feminine gender. Only some nouns had a motivated gender orientation: the Old English noun sunu *son* was masculine and the Old English noun mōder *mother* was feminine. In some cases the grammatical gender contradicted the lexical meaning of the word, for example, the Old English nouns mæʒden, mǣden *girl, maiden* and wīf *wife* were of neuter gender and the Old English noun wīfman *woman* was of masculine gender. More clearly the gender of nouns is seen through forms of the adjective and pronouns which modify them.

The grammatical categories of case and number were word-changing. The grammatical category of number was presented in two forms: plural and singular. The grammatical category of case was presented in four forms: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, though a three-case system in which the nominative and accusative case-forms became homonymous is more frequently found in many stem-declensions of the nouns recorded in the extant texts. This can testify to simplifying processes that were already underway in Old English. In this regard a four-case system can probably be treated as an archaic feature of the noun paradigm in Late Old English.

Nouns were morphologically divided into several types of declension known as stems. The names of the stems point to the origin of different paradigms and have purely historical significance. Old English nouns were subdivided according to the nature of the stem-suffix into two large groups. Nouns whose stems originally ended in a vowel belong to the vocalic (strong) declension that comprised a-stems, ō-stems, u-stems, i-stems. Nouns whose stems originally ended in a consonant belong to the consonantal declension that comprised: n-stems (weak), r-stems, *es-stems, nd-stems. There was a small group of nouns that had no stem-building suffix and the endings were simply added to the root (root-stems). A striking feature of the Old English stem-division is the merging of the gender classification of nouns with the stem-division. The a-stem of the strong declension, for example, comprised only masculine and neuter nouns.

a-stems

	Masculine	Neuter
Sing.		
Norn., Acc.	stān	word
Gen.	stānes	wordes
Dat.	stāne	worde
Pl.		
Nom., Acc.	stānas	word
Gen.	stāna	word a
Dat.	stānum	wordum

The group of root-stem nouns is characterized by a root-vowel interchange as a regular means of form-building in some case-forms. In the dative case-form singular and in the nominative, accusative forms plural the alternation of the root vowel was originally the result of the operation of the palatal mutation caused by the front vowel [i] in the inflexion that was joined to the root without any stem-building suffix. Later this root-vowel inlnrchange became perceived as an inner inflexion, a specific morpho- Mjlcal feature of the root-stem declension.

	Masculine	Feminine
Sing.		
Nom., Acc.	fōt	bōc
Gen.	fōtes < *fōtaz	bōce, bēc < *bōkiz
Dat.	fēt < *fōti	bēc < *bōki
Pl.		
Nom., Acc.	fet < *fōtiz	bēc < *bōkiz
Gen.	fōta	bōca
Dat.	fōtum	bōcum

Generally, Old English possessed a well-developed morphological system made up of inflectional forms that showed basic nominal and verbal grammatical categories typical of the Common Germanic area of languages. The Old English morphological system is characterized by the appearance of homonymous forms that occur regularly in all paradigms i mill of noun declensions and of the verb conjugation. This can testify to the start of the process of decay of older paradigms.

2. Old English vocabulary. An etymological survey

While considering the character and the amount of Old English lexemes it should be born in mind that the full extent of the Old English lexis, its lexical potential, is difficult to assess for lack of reliable evidence. This can be accounted for, on the one hand, by the level of writing activity and the social functions of the written form in the speech communities in which oral communication prevailed and, on the other hand, by the loss of many written records that did not survive the hardships of sometimes difficult historical times. The Old English lexis can etymologically be divided into native lexemes and loan-words. Old English native lexemes etymologically fall into several groups: Indo-European, Common Germanic, West- Germanic and English proper.

The Indo-European lexemes are those, the origin of which can be traced back to the times when the Indo-European language community was splitting up into groups of dialects and the dispersal of the speakers of Indo- European took place (about 3 000 years ago). The lexical correspondences to these lexical units can be found in other languages that belong to the Indo-European family. By the morphological status these are nouns, verbs, some pronouns (mostly personal),

numerals up to 10 and adjectives. These lexemes semantically denote the most important notions and things of everyday life. The following illustrations can be given here: OE mōnað a *month* || Gothic menoþs, Old Icelandic mánaðr, manuðr, Old Frisian mōnath, Old Saxon mânoth, mânuth, Old High German mânôd a *month.* Compare: Greek μήν (genetive μηνός) a *month,* Latin mensis (is), Latvian mẽnesis, Ukrainian місяць, Russian месяц. Some more Old English examples can be as follows: modor *mother,* sunu *son,* fisc *fish,* ʒāt *goat,* swīn *swine,* oxa ox, trēow *tree,* corn *corn,* lēaf *leaf,* niht *night,* dæʒ *day,* fȳr *fire,* snāw *snow,* reʒn *rain,* wæter *water,* heorte *heart,* tōþ *tooth,* ʒeard *yard,* ʒold *gold,* hwīt *white,* rēad *red,* ceald *cold,* dēop *deep,* lanʒ *long,* heard *hard,* beran *to carry, to bear,* slǣpan *to sleep,* sēon *to see,* standan *to stand,* bindan *to bind,* ān *one,* þrīe, þrēo *three,* fīf *five,* hunʒor *hunger,* tēar *tear,* nama *name.*

The Common Germanic lexemes come back to the times before the Common Germanic language community began to split up and the dispersal of the speakers of Common Germanic took place (before A.D. 1-2). The lexical correspondences to these lexical units can be found only in the languages that belong to the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages. By the morphological status these are mainly nouns, verbs, adjectives and some pronouns. These lexemes convey the most important notions and things of everyday life that the speakers of Common Germanic acquired with the development of their speech communities and with the expansion of the knowledge about the surrounding world.

The Common Germanic nature of the Old English lexeme finʒer *finger,* Ini example, can be illustrated by the following lexical correspondences: OE finʒer *finger* || Gothic figgrs, Old Icelandic fingr, Old Frisian finger, Old Saxon finger, Old High German finger. The following Old English lexemes me usually supposed to be of Common Germanic origin: sǣ sea, mūþ mou*th,* blōd *blood,* sāwol, sāwel *soul,* bæc *back,* bān *bone,* āþ *oath,* brȳd *hrlde,* frēond *friend,* smið *smith,* sneʒel, snæʒel *snail,* swalewe, swalwe s*wallow (a bird),* swan *swan,* wǣpen *weapon,* bæþ *bath,* bycʒan *to buy,* briʒan *to bring,* healdan *to hold,* leornian, liornian *to learn,* swelʒan *to swallow,* swerian, swerʒan *to swear,* lȳtel *little,* brād *broad,* deare, deore, dȳre *dear,* dumb *dumb,* bit(t)er *bitter,* blac, blæc *black,* sēoc *sick,* deorc *i laik,* worð, wurð, wyrþ *worthy, honorable, worth,* finʒer *finger,* hond *hand,* hlāf *loaf,* sweord *sword,* lamb *lamb,* healf *half,* drincan *to drink.*

The West-Germanic lexemes are those, the origin of which can be trased back to the times when the Common-Germanic language community was splitting up into separate isolated groups of Old Germanic dielects and the dispersal of the speakers of Common-Germanic took place. The lexical correspondences to these lexical units can be found only in West-Germanic languages that belong to the Germanic group of languages, such as Old English, Old Frisian, Old Saxon and Old High German. By the morphological status these are nouns, verbs, and adjectives. Native lexemes of the West-Germanic layer refer to various semantic fields and convey notions and things of everyday life that the speakers of West-Germanic

acquired with the isolated development of their speech communities. The West-Germanic nature of the Old English lexeme scēap *sheep,* for example, can be illustrated by the following lexical correspondences: OE scēap *sheep* ‖ Old Frisian skēp, schēp, Old Saxon skâp, Old High German scâf. The next Old English lexemes me usually supposed to be of West-Germanic origin: sprecan *to speak,* ʒrētan *greet,* bōsm *bosom, breast,* scēap *sheep,* braʒen, brǣʒen *brain,* brōc *brook,* ifiʒ *ivy,* bār *boar,* cīcen *chicken,* cǣʒ *key,* cniht *boy, youth, servant* (MnE *knight*), belle *bell,* scoppa *shed for trade or work* (MnE s*hop*), sprǣc *speech,* great *great,* wēriʒ *tired, exhausted* (MnE *weary*), dysiʒ *foolish, unwise* (MnE *dizzy*), macian *to make,* ʒrâpian, ʒrōpian *to lunch, to grope,* nearu *narrow.*

Old English lexemes proper can sometimes be of obscure origin, but ʍ the main they were the result of different word-building processes. In Old English the most productive means of word-formation were suffixation and composition, for example, nouns were formed with the suffixes: -dōm, -ing, -hād, -scīpe, -aþ (-oþ), -ere, -nes(s): frēodōm *freedom,* leornunʒ *learning,* rǣdinʒ *reading,* cildhād *chilhood,* frēondscīpe *friendship,* fiscoþ *fishing,* bæcre *baker,* ʒōdnis *goodness.* Adjectives were formed with the suffixes -isc, -full, -lēas, -līe, -en, -iʒ: Enʒlisc *English,* sorʒfull *sorrowful,* slǣplēas *sleepless,* frēodīlc *friendly,* ʒylden *golden,* stāniʒ *stony.*

A characteristic feature of Old English is rather a great number of compound words, especially typical of Old English poetic writing. Some poetic compound words were outdated already in Old English. The following illustrations can be given from the Old English texts: in prose *(Boethius):* bōccraeft *literature* < bōc *book* + cræft *skill,* woruldþēawas *conduct of life* < woruld *world* + þēawas *morals, virtues,* in poetry *(Beowulf):* rūn-wita (outdated) a *trusty supporter* < rūn *counsel* + wita a *wise man,* fyrʒen-holt (outdated) *mountain wood* < fyrʒen *mountain* + holt *wood.* Kennings are poetic compound lexemes that give a descriptive-metaphorical denotation of objects, such as ʒlēo-bēam *harp* < (literally) *glee + beam,* sǣ-mearh *ship* < (literally) sea + *horse,* brēost-hord *the thought, mind, heart* < (literally) *breast + hoard.*

The number of loan-words from different languages in Old English was very small and these loan-words were taken mainly from Latin or Greek (indirectly through Latin) and few were adopted from Celtic and Scandinavian (directly). Old English Latin loan-words belong to different historical periods. The Common Germanic Latin loan-words penetrated the language of the Anglo-Saxons through the oral channel of communication before their coming to the British Isles. The appearance of these words in the speech of the Germanic tribes can historically be explained by different contacts of the Old Germans with the Romans. These lexical units semantically pertain to such activities of social life as agriculture production, military activity, trade occupation, construction works, for example, the following lexemes: OE ceēap *cattle, purchase* (Old High German couf *purchase)* ‖ Latin caupo a *peddler, an innkeeper,* Modern English *cheap,* wīn *wine* (Latin *vīnum),* strǣt *street* (Latin *strāta),* mīl *mile* (Latin *mille, mīle),* pīl *pile* (Latin *pīlum),* cealc

chalk (Latin *calx),* cēse *cheese* (Latin *cāseus),* camp *battle, strife* (Latin *campus),* carcern *prison* (Latin *career),* bēte *beet* (Latin *bēta),* cyst, cest *chest* (Latin *cista),* pipor *pepper* (Latin *piper),* pund *pound* (Latin *pondo).*

Latin loan-words of the Old English period are mainly the result of the introduction of Christianity into the Anglo-Saxon society in the sixthsexenth centuries. These lexemes are mostly semantically religious and scholarly terms. The main semantic fields of these lexical units are: religion, education, scholarly activity, fauna, flora, medicine. The following Old English illustrations can be supplied here: prēost *priest* (Latin *presby- ter),* mæsse *mass* (Latin *missa),* cir(i)ce *church* (late Latin *cyrīca*), cleric cler*k* (Latin *clericus*), abbod *abbot* (Latin *abbātem),* apostal *apostle* (Latin a*postolus*), bisc(e)op *bishop* (Latin *episcopus),* candel *candle* (Latin *candēla),* cuppe *cup* (late Latin *cuppa),* dēofol *devil* (Latin *diabulus),* disc *dish* (Latin *discus*), ʒīʒant *giant* (Latin *gigantem),* lēo *lion* (Latin Leo), martyr *martyr* (Latin *martyr),* mynster *monastery* (Latin *monastērium),* ultor *vul- ture* (Latin *vultur).*

In general, Old English was essentially a self-sufficing language, as the lexemes borrowed from other languages constitute comparatively only a .mall portion of the Old English lexicon and they did not modify the lenient character of the Old English language as a whole.

3. Conclusions

Old English of the Anglo-Saxon times was presented in a bunch of Anglo-Saxon dialects that developed individually, though basically in the same socio-linguistic situation. The Anglo-Saxon dialects exerted influence on each other and experienced the complications of close coexistence which resulted in the penetration of the peculiar features of one dialect into the others.

The phonological system of Old English can be characterized as Common Germanic with some Indo-European features. It is remarkable for the rise of purely Old English phonemes as a result of the individual phonetic processes. The Old English morphological system can be characterized as Indo-European in character with many Germanic innovations ihoi greatly modified it. In the system of verbal morphological forms the modification of ablaut schemes of alternation in strong conjugation, the weak forms and the existence of preterite-present verbs can clearly show a specifically Germanic development. In the noun system numerous ho-monymous forms occur systematically in the paradigms of all stem-declensions. This testifies to the start of the process of ruin of the Old English stem-declension system. The Old English is a self-sufficing language the lexical system of which comprises mostly lexemes of native origin. Loanwords, as a way of enriching the lexicon, do not amount to a substantial number**.**

Questions and tasks for self-control
1. The sociolinguistic context of the development of English in Anglo- Saxon

England
2. Writing and literary activity in the vernacular in Anglo-Saxon England
3. Old English adjectives: their grammatical categories and morphological forms
4. Old English pronouns: their grammatical categories and morpholoical forms. Groups of Old English pronouns
  – Old English syntax. A general survey
  – Stylistic stratification of the Old English vocabulary

Lecture 4.
The Development of the National Literary English Language
Part I

Plan:
1. Introduction
2. The Norman Conquest and changes in the sociolinguistic context of the development of English in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries
3. The rise of the London dialect and changes in the sociolinguistic context of the development of English in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries
4. Conclusions

References: 5, 6, 7, 11, 13.

1. Introduction

Early Middle English groups of territorial dialects that developed on the basis of the Old English territorial dialects of West-Saxon, Kentish, Mercian, Northumbrian were Northern, Midland and Southern groups, though it should be mentioned here that neither the boundaries of Old and Middle English dialects, nor the dialectal areas themselves fully coincided. The old boundaries changed as a result of such powerful historical and sociolinguistic factors as Scandinavian inroads with the subsequent Danish settlement in the East-North of England, the invasion of the Normans, the political and economic development of the country that changed the social pattern of life. A peculiar feature of Early Middle English is the division of the Midland dialects into two large groups: East Midland and West Midland. The Southern group of dialects includes the dialect of Kent and the South-Western dialects. In Scotland the Scottish dialect developed on the basis of some of the Northern dialects. In that period the Celtic languages still survived in the west of Great Britain (Welsh in Wales and Cornish in Cornwell) and in the west and north of Scotland (Gaelic). All Early Middle English territorial dialects were functionally and socially equal in status and they had but local significance. The Eady Middle English dialects greatly differed locally so that almost every place, be it a region or a town, had its own local speech-forms and enjoyed its own speech peculiarities.

2. The Norman Conquest and changes in the sociolinguistic context of the development of English in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries

The permanent development of the West-Saxon dialect as the Late Old English literary dialect that was used in various types of social writing nctivities by the Anglo-Saxons was broken and stopped by the Norman Conquest of England in 1066. The Norman Conquest turned out to have been one of the most significant events in the history of English. It formed tlir historical background and created new aspects and characteristics of Ihe sociolinguistic situation within which the

English language developed in the Medieval Ages. After the Norman Conquest the French-speaking nobility was introduced into the political and social life of the country. The unlive tongue of the majority of the invaders who became feudal lords and high churchmen was the French language in the form of the Northern dialects of Normandy and Picardy. The Normans occupied the most important posts in the society and in the church and created a two-class society in England. The country became socially and linguistically split up into the French-speaking elite, ruling feudal lords and upper clerical people, and the English-speaking peasantry who were mostly illiterate people.

Throughout the period of almost two centuries French was freely used by the upper classes so that there were socially two kinds of speech communities in England: French-speaking and English-speaking. In the east- north there also were Scandinavian speech communities of the Danelaw area.

The coming of the Normans had a profound impact on the language situation in England as their arrival to the island also revived Latin learning and stimulated the usage of Latin for some social purposes as a result of riling up many new monasteries and monastic houses in which French churchmen were brought to position of power. Consequently, a complicated sociolinguistic situation arose in England when English in the form of local terriorial dialects came under the pressure of two languages (French and Lalin) in terms of prestige. Each of the languages that were in use in Medieval England performed its own social functions. French, besides being the spoken and written language of the feudal nobility, became the official lunguage, though it did not replace or supersede English as the language of the majority of the people in the country. French was also the language of schooling, of the Court literature, of the court procedures and from the middle of the thirteenth century it became the language of government transactions. The knowledge and use of French served as a mark of social difference in the society. In the twelfth-thirteenth centuries Latin was the language of official government documents in England. It was also the language of international scholarship and diplomacy, of education at the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, of serious literature, and it was the language of churchmen who used it widely not only in public or private religious services, but also in private and official correspondence. English was mostly spoken orally and the written form of it was peripheral to lite-rary culture of England up to the middle of the thirteenth century.

Thus, the general effects of the Norman Conquest on the development of the sociolinguistic situation in England in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries were as follows: firstly, the country was socially divided into two sections: the feudal upper classes who spoke Norman French and the peasantry and the town people who spoke English; secondly, there were three languages in use: French, Latin and English, each of which had a different social function in communication; thirdly, the use of French and Latin was regarded as more socially prestigious in official communication; fourthly, in the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries there appeared a

considerable layer of bilingual population in different social groups as a result of social shifts in the society due to the historical, political, cultural and economic development of the country. The sociolinguistic situation in England was also complicated by close personal and official contacts of English-speaking speech communities with a considerable portion of the population who spoke Scandinavian dialects.

3. The rise of the London dialect and changes in the sociolinguistic context of the development of English in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries

The animation of the literary activity that is seen in the appearance of various pieces of literary writing in the Late Middle English territorial dialects is a vivid testimony to the political and economic changes in the Middle English society and reflects great changes in the people's attitudes towards social functions of the language in the society and to the extension of the social functions of the written form of English. The relationship of equality between the Middle English territorial dialects slowly changed with the development of the London dialect which with the time replaced them as the form of literary writing.The rise of the London dialect in the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries was due to the consolidation of the English kingdom, its political, economic development, and due to the rising prominence of its capital as a place of great and growing political, social, administrative, cultural, commercial importance and authority. The Proclamation of 1258 is the first official document in the London dialect issued in ihe times of Henry III.

The dialectal basis of the London dialect in the thirteenth century was n complex formation of the East Midland dialects with southern forms (South-East Midlands). In the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries the importance of northern elements in the London dialect increased. In the fourteenth century there were two basic forms of the London dialect, firstly, the language of the uneducated poor people and of the middle class men who spoke the form of the London dialect with a strong southern orientation that would become the present-day cockney dialect, and, secondly, the language of scholars, of the educated nobility and the gentry who spoke HID form of the London dialect with a northern orientation. That form would lincome the basis for the development of the national literary English language. The main points of difference between the London dialect and the national literary language can be elucidated by the following factors: firstly, the London dialect was not unified, it was full of variations in spelling, grammatical and pronouncing forms, moreover, it was characterized by a mixture of dialectal forms; secondly, the usage of the London dialect was restricted geographically and in the number of people who spoke it; thirdly, the social functions of the London dialect and the spheres of its usage write limited up to that time as Latin was still the language of religion, of .scholarship and education at the Universities and French was still used at the Royal Court and in courts.

The sociolinguistic situation in England changed in the fourteenth- fifteenth

centuries due to historical, political, social and economic factors, the most important of which were the following:

1) England lost its main land possessions on the continent in the ihiileenth-fifteenth centuries as a result of some historical events in the limes of King John the Lackland (1204) and after One Hundred Years' War (1337-1453). The social and political consequences of these historical events were that French and English nobility had to be separated from each other and French in England began to deviate from Continental French.

2) The social events behind the time [The Black Death of 1348-1356, The Peasants' Revolt of 1381, the growth of medieval towns] encouraged the emergence of the middle class in England and the new social layers of the society, the gentry and the town bourgeoisie, who spoke English, rose in their social importance. The development of Middle English dialects of those times was backed up by these social transformations. In the middle of the fifteenth century East Midland English with northern features in the form of the London dialect began to be used as a written standard for official documents and official writing.

3) The political and social events had led to the consolidation of the English nationality by the thirteenth century and to the formation of the English nation by the fifteenth century.

4) Though in the late thirteenth and during the fourteenth centuries French gradually gave place to English in public life, Norman French and Latin were still used as the languages of law, of the court and the language of education. In the fourteenth century Norman French that developed into Anglo-Norman lost its prestige and with the rise of the Parisian dialect in France it became marked as provincial in England. In the fifteenth century French was perceived as a foreign language by the English speech community.

5) In the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries English was introduced in schools as the language of schooling and gradually it was restored as the language of legal procedures.

6) The rise of the London dialect in the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries led to a decline in the literary importance of the Middle English territorial dialects in the fifteenth century. In the fourteenth century the literary activity in the London dialect is represented by the highly significant works of Chaucer in English, by theological writings of Wyclif who wrote in English i and Latin and by works of Gower who still wrote his works in three languages: English, Anglo-French and Latin.

7) The introduction of printing in the fifteenth century fostered the spread of the London dialect all over the country. The first English book was printed in Bruges (Flanders [the Netherlands]) in 1475 by William j Caxton (1422-1491). It was *The Recuyeil of the History of Troy.* The first English book *The Dictes and Sayings of the Philosophers* was printed in England in 1477. The printing of books was a very important factor in raising the prestige of the vernacular and in fixing spelling and grammar forms. The spread of printed books in the London dialect helped to form

a unified standard national language on the basis of it.

7. Conclusions

In its historical development the English language has evolved from the territorial dialects of the Anglo-Saxons to the English national literary language. The English language of today is presented in different functional forms: in literary language, in social and local dialects, in national and area variants. And it is beginning to be universally recognized as a common language of international and intercultural communication outside the original territory.

Questions and tasks for self-control
1. Written records in Early Middle English territorial dialects
2. Written records and literary activity in Late Middle English territorial dialects
3. State writing and literary activity in the London dialect
4. The flowering of literature in Modern English and its effects on the development of the national literary English language
5. The Reformation and its effects on the development of the English language
6. Historical and social background to the development of English in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries
7. Historical and social background to the development of English in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries
8. The main components of the sociolinguistic situation in England in the eleventh-fourteenth centuries

Lecture 5.
The Development of the National Literary English Language
Part II

Plan:
1. The development of the national literary English language in Early Modern English
   A. The extension of the spheres of application
   B. The establishment of the language norm
2. National and area variants of English overseas
3. Social and local dialects in Britain
4. Conclusions

References: 5, 6, 7, 11, 13.

1. The development of the national literary English language in Early Modern English

In the sixteenth century all Middle English dialects finally lost their independent literary status, only the London and the Scottish dialects were used in literary activity. The social criterion was introduced in evaluation of the local dialects the varied character of which began to be regarded as due to social rather than to geographical causes. The local dialects regularly got social negative assessment as the speech of rude and un- educated people. In the later centuries local dialects became gradually isolated from the national literary standard. In the sixteenth century the interrelation between the written and the spoken forms of the language shanged: the written form of English became standardized earlier than its spoken form. There appeared the recognition of setting language norms and the notion of the language norm was introduced into the minds. The variability and instability of English in spelling and grammar forms were focused on and many books were composed on spelling forms. The first grammar books were compiled in the sixteenth century. Only during the seventeenth century the gap between the spoken form of the language and its written form became less with the rise in reading public and the spread of education.

But the social functions of the English language were still limited by the use of Latin that was still a serious rival to English. Latin remained the international language of scholarship in Western Europe throughout the Early Modern English period. It was the recognized language of in struction and scholarly discourse for scholars, orators and philosophers. The powerful forces that worked in favour of English in the Early Modern English community were not only the rise in the level of education and the uiuwth of the reading public, the increase in the rate of literacy and the lowering in the level of the knowledge of Latin, but also no less important were the effects of the Protestant Reformation that encouraged the use of English in two ways: the Protestants insisted on translation of the Bible into the native

tongue and the existence and the widespread use of an English Bible raised the prestige of the vernacular. All theological debates on the burning and fundamental issues of religion were usually carried on in English as the participants in these religious discussions strove for greater public recognition, for the acceptance of their theory and new ideas. They wanted a wide audience at home. After the political success of the Reformation movement in England Latin was gradually ousted from public life as the only language of scholarship and the language of religion.

The factors that raised the prestige of English in the sixteenth century worn also the appearance of many important works of literature written in English by outstanding poets and writers of the time [Thomas Wyatt (1503-1542), Edmund Spenser (1552-1599), John Lily (1554-1606), Sir Philip Sidney (1554-1586)], the appearance of the English translation of the Bible and of such famous books as Utopia (1551) by Thomas More (1478-1535) that was originally written in Latin. The language writing was greatly enriched with devices of classical rhetorical mastership. An enormous expansion of the English lexis took place and the stability of the language with the fixation of the language usage was increasing. In the sixteenth-eighteenth centuries there appeared grammars and dictionaries that helped to fix the language usage and to set the standard norm. The first English grammar book *Bref Grammar for English* was written by William Bullokar in 1585 and the first English dictionary of 120 pages *The Table Alphabetical of Hard words* was compiled by Robert Cawdrey in 1604. The gap between the written form of the language and its spoken form became narrower as with the spread of education more people learned to speak correctly. By the end of the seventeenth century the written standard had in the main been established.

In the late sixteenth-eighteenth centuries the main factors that determined the process of recognition of the correctness of the language were: the economic, political and cultural unification of the country, the flowering of literature [Christopher Marlowe (1564-1593), William Shakespeare(1564-1616), John Donne (1572-1631), Ben Jonson (1573-1637), John Milton (1608-1674), John Dryden (1631-1700), Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), Alexander Pope (1688-1744), Oliver Goldsmith (1730- 1774)], the progress of culture and education, a great expansion of the reading public. The literary norm of English had mainly been established by the eighteenth century, but it was fully set in the eighteenth century. The codification of the lexicon and orthography in the eighteenth century was made by Samuel Johnson in his famous impressive work *Dictionary of the English Language* (1755). The most important attempt at the codification of grammar was made by Robert Lowth in the book named *A Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762).

The development and modification of the literary standard of English has not stopped. Changes in literary usage and fluctuations within the literary norm that are the manifestation of the continuous process of the language evolution are often observed in present-day English, for example, in phonetics: often [ofən, oftən], garage [gæriʤ, gæra:ʤ, gæra:ʒ], suitable [su:təbl, su:təbəl, sju:təbl, sju:tabal] and

in grammar: cactus - (plural) cacti, cactuses, I helped her to carry her cases up the stairs. She helped him choose some new clothes.

2. National and area variants of English overseas

In the history of its development the English language has spread far beyond the borders of England and has widely extended the areas find spheres of its functioning as a result of different kinds of the colonial expansion made for political and economic reasons. Nowadays English is globally widespread outside the British Isles. In the present world two main types of language variants (varieties) of English may be distinguished: national variants (varieties) of the English language, such as British English, American English, Canadian English, Australian English, English in New Zealand, and area variants (varieties) that can be found in India (Indian English), in the South Pacific, in Africa (South and West African English) here English functions as the second language. Moreover, English has become a common language of international and intercultural communication in some professional spheres, for example, Business English, English used in academic, scholarly debates, in sea navigation and air flights, or in pop music.

The national and area variants of the English language show some language differences, mainly in the lexis and pronunciation, sometimes in morphology and syntax. These language differences between the variants of English are basically due to different language and social characteristics of the original local and social accents of English-speaking migrants and settlers, for example, Australian English shows many slang features of the popular London speech of low classes, as it was heard in the eighteenth-nineteenth centuries. The language peculiarities of the variants of English outside Britain can also be partly due to the separate development of speech communities in time and space, partly due to the influence of new conditions of the environment under which the speakers of English have lived, partly they are the result of various language contacts with different speech communities. The most spread variety of English is American English, which influences the mode of English speech behaviour not only in other English-speaking countries but also in different social, business, cultural spheres of international communication all round the world and the speakers of which are found far beyond the United States. Here are some examples of British-American lexical correspondences.

holiday - vacation
tap – faucet
autumn – fall
queue – line
postbox – mailbox
rubber – eraser
pavement – sidewalk
to hire – to rent

biscuits – cookies
flat – apartment
film – movie
torch – flashlight
luggage – baggage
chemist, pharmacy – drugstore.

3. Social and local dialects in Britain

In the course of the language development the language elements which are not perceived as belonging to the literary language standard are excluded from it but they can be preserved in some social or local dialects and are marked as non-standard, or they can become outdated (archaisms). The usage of these elements in literary styles is stylistically restricted. They can be used to give the social and local description to the speech of the book characters or to convey the atmosphere of the epoch, place, environment or the time in which the described events happen. Sometimes these language elements are employed to make the language more archaic or local for specific stylistic purposes of literary writing. Lexical, semantic and grammatical archaic forms can be found in proverbs and in literature alike, for example, in proverbs: A fair face may hide a foul heart. All are good lasses, but whence come the bad wives? Time and tide wait for no man. One man's meat is another man's poison. Don't have thy cloak to make when it begins to rain. The usage of archaisms in literature can be illustrated by some lines from the verse by George Gordon, Lord Byron (1788-1824):

I saw thee weep – the big bright tear
Came o'er that eye of blue;
And then methought it did appear
A violet dropping dew;
I saw thee smile – the sapphire's blaze
Beside thee ceased to shine;
It could not match the living rays
That filled that glance of thine.

In present-day Britain the English language functions not only in the literary norm supported by dictionaries and grammar books, but also in the form of local and social dialects. One example of urban dialects is cockney, a working-class variety of London speech, specifically that of the East End. "Cock's egg", an idiom, was initially used for a pampered child, then for a city person, and finally for a Londoner.

The main general non-standard features of the cockney dialect are: (1) a narrow variant of the open sound [æ]: mep (map), beck *(back),* fency *(fancy):* (2) the h-dropping 'ot *(hot),* 'ouse *(house):* (3) the substitution of the diphthong [ei] by the diphthong [ai]: plite *[plate]*); (4) double negation: I have nothing to say about nobody that ain't no customers; (5) double degrees of comparison: The most

awfullest fing *(thing)* you ever see, (6) the use of the adverbs without the suffix: It was done quick; (7) the use of ihyrning slang: pen and ink *(sink),* trouble and strife *(wife),* God forbids *(kids).* Many features of the present-day Cockney speech can be traced to the London dialect of the thirteenth century with a southern orientation.

Modern English in Britain has now no less than six district divisions, with numerous subdivisions. The main divisions are: the Lowland of Scotland (Scottish), the Northern dialects (for example, Yorkshire, Lancashire), the Midlands (for example, Oxfordshire, Staffordshire), the Western dialects (Shropshire), the Eastern dialects (for example, East Anglia). Local dialects are characterized by a number of specific marked language features in pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary some of which can be trased back to the earlier stages of the English language development. For example, a peculiar feature of the Southern dialects is the voicing of the initial fricatives /f/ and /sl/ in the majority of the native words, such as lire, silly, to see, such, sight.

A Somerset dialect story

Lady: What do you think, Miss, **o' thic zilly lass,** Hannah? She and her i iilier walked sixteen miles **to zee a fire.**

Visitor: Were there many houses burnt?

Hannah: Houses burnt - **noa,** Miss! There **beant** nothing at all burnt **nl fires.**

Visitor: Not anything burnt at fires?

Hannah: **Noa,** Miss. It wasn't a **viar,** but a **fire.**

Visitor: Well. What do you call a fire?

Hannah: Why a **fire** be where they **zell** gingerbread, and cloth, and Million, and show wild beasts. And there be monkeys what jumps **thro'** hoops and great big wax dolls in a cart. **Moi** heart! **Zuch a zize.** And **zinging** and dancing, and **zuch vine vun.** I do like **fires** so much.

"In Britain" May, 1978

4. Conclusions

In its historical development the English language has evolved from the territorial dialects of the Anglo-Saxons to the English national literary language. The English language of today is presented in different functional forms: in literary language, in social and local dialects, in national and area variants. And it is beginning to be universally recognized as a common language of international and intercultural communication outside the original territory.

Questions and tasks for self-control

1. The main changes of the sociolinguistic situation in England in the fifteenth-seventeenth centuries
2. Establishment of the written literary norm. Tendencies to the normalization of language usage
3. The problem of spelling rules, vocabulary choice and grammar usage in Early

Modern English

4. Grammars and dictionaries of the sixteenth-eighteenth centuries

5. The arguments about the expansion of the English lexis in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries

6. New fundamental principles of the compilation of Samuel Jonson's Dictionary

7. The spread of English outside Great Britain. Historical, social, cultural and language aspects

8. The historical aspect of the language peculiarities of Modern English social and local dialects

CONTENT MODULE 2.
ENGLISH STRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT (XI-XXI CENTURIES)

Lecture 6.
The Development of the English Vocabulary
Plan:
1. Introduction
2. Loan-words from Romanic languages in the history of English
   A. French loan-words of Middle and Modern English
   B. Latin loan-words of Middle and Modern English
   C. Italian loan-words of Modern English
   D. Spanish loan-words of Modern English
   E. Etymological doublets from Romance languages
3. Loan-words from Germanic languages in the history of English
   A. North-Germanic (Scandinavian) loan-words of Middle English
   B. West-Germanic (Dutch and German) loan-words of Modern English
4. Conclusions

References: 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 13.

1. Introduction

The development of the vocabulary of any language reflects various changes in the material, cultural, social and political life of the people. There are two important ways of enriching a language vocabulary: as a result of the word-formation process when new words are created on word-formation patterns that have existed or have developed in the language in the course of its evolution and as a result of the process of borrowing when new words are taken over from other languages during the time of manifold and diverse close ties of human communities. The process of borrowing is generally determined by different historical contacts of peoples, military conflicts, commercial, cultural and other relations.

In the course of its development the English lexicon has developed a highly etymologically mixed structure with the predominance of native lexemes. Loan-words came into the English lexis from languages belonging to different branches not only of the Indo-European family of languages but also of other language families, such as Semitic (Arabic and Hebrew, for example), Finnish-Hungarian, Sinitic (Chinese, for example) and others, reflecting multifarious cross-national and cross-cultural contacts and activities of English-speaking communities. When the evolution of the English lexis is viewed from the angle of the process of borrowing then the general picture, which arises here, is that of a constant and marked increase in the number of languages from which new words are taken and in the number of borrowed lexemes, so that the English language shows great flexibility and a high level of absorption of different foreign lexical elements into its lexical system. Far

more numerous are historically borrowings from Romance and Germanic languages.

2. Loan-words from Romanic languages in the history of English

Romance languages have influenced the character of the English lexis more greatly that any other group of languages. Loan-words came from French, Latin, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese, the most durable and long-lasting was the exposure to the French and Latin influences. Depending on the sociolinguistic context in which the process of borrowing occurred, Romance influence on English varied in its structure, its scope and its power. The first French loan-words appeared already in Late Old English in the time of the Benedictine reform when some continental religious scholars of prominence, such as Abbo from the famous abbey of Fleury-sur-Loire, France, and other ecclesiastical people from continental monasteries were invited to England to instruct Anglo-Saxon monks and in assist them in reforming the manasticism and later in the reign of the English king Edward the Confessor (1042-1066) whose mother was the daughter of Duke Richard of Normandy and who spent most of his youth in Normandy. But Late Old English loan-words were few in number, for example, OE (1000) cancer *canker*, ONF cancre, LOE (1014) prūt, rarely prūd *proud* OF prod, prud or prout, prou(d) meaning *valiant*, OE (1048) castel *castle,* ONF castel, OE (1030) werre, wyrre *war,* Old North-Eastern French werre.

The powerful and enormous inflow of Middle English French loanwords is convincing and clear evidence of a wide range of different social functions of the French language in the country for more than two centuries after the Norman Conquest whereas French loan-words of Modern English are commonly admitted to have been the result of various official contacts of England with the state of France, of personal or official contacts and direct or indirect acquaintance of English-speaking communities with French culture. Consequently, two main types of French loan-words are traditionally distinguished according to the dialect of French that huppened to be their primary source: the lexemes borrowed in the eleventh-fourteenth centuries from some dialects of Northern France, mainly the Norman and Picard dialects, and the lexemes borrowed in the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries and afterwards mostly from Parisian French.

Depending on the components of the sociolinguistic situation in which the process of borrowing from French went a more detailed description can be given to it when some layers of French loan-words may be distinguished. The first two layers of French loan-words within the chronological frame of Middle English can be seen in the twelfth-fourteenth centuries when earlier French loan-words predominantly came from the Northern dialects of French, later more French lexemes were adopted from Anglo- French and Central dialects of French. In the time after the Norman Conquest French was the mother tongue of the French-speaking feudal nobility and French was imposed as an administrative language by the invaders of England and

introduced into the social life of English-speaking communities. The amount of the extant written records of the twelfth - the first half of the thirteenth centuries does not show the Early Middle English lexis to its full extent and it is difficult to estimate the intensity of the inflow of French loan-words in those centuries. Indirect evidence that can be found in the peculiar character of the sociolinguistic situation that arose after the Norman Conquest may indicate to rather a low level of close social and language contacts between the invaders and the native population. Immediately after the Conquest the Normans were not many in number. The invaders mostly lived in their castles that were dispersed and scattered throughout the land and they were relatively isolated from English-speaking communities. Consequently, only few French loan-words could have passed into the speech of the English-speaking community and they had a small chance to be recorded in English writing because of the decline in English writing activity. Later, during the time of significant and important historical events, of great social shifts in the society and the development of culture, when the French-speaking and English-speaking communities were brought into closer social contacts as a result of the establishment of the French-speaking ruling elite, through the introduction of a new system of state administration and new standards of culture, through the development of stronger personal ties, more French loan-words appeared in the local dialects of Middle English by means of oral channel of communication and writing. Many French lexemes firstly appeared in writing as a result of translation, as many literary works in Middle English local dialects of the late thirteenth-fourteenth centuries are either translations from French originals or they followed the French writing tradition. It is also quite natural to suppose that the amazingly great amount of French loan-words registered in writing in that period can reflect many loan-words that had been in oral use in previous years and only later appeared in writing as the common speakers of English who were mostly illiterate before the second half of the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries might have got accustomed to their usage isirlier through oral communication with the French-speaking members of ihe society. Consequently, the number of French loan-words increased i neatly so that the peak of French loan-words which is observed by many scholars in written records of the second half of the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries can show not only the result of the activity of medieval translates, but also the accumulated results of the process of borrowing that had linen underway in the previous centuries. It can also be connected with n gradual extension of English official and social writing into the socialife, with the rise in literary activity in local dialects in 1250-1400 and with Ihe flowering of Late Middle English literature when English became to be more widely recorded in its written form. The number of French loan-words that poured into the English lexis as a consequence of political, social and cultural transformations of the social life after the Norman Conquest was realy remarkably substantial.

The lexemes of the earlier layer are thought to have mostly been taken from the Northern dialects of French that were important in the French literary dialects,

which developed on the basis of the Western dialects of French in the eleventh-twelfth centuries. The influence of Norman features that can be seen in literary dialects of French was explained at first liy the political dominance of the duchy of Normandy in France in the limes of William the Conqueror (b. 1028 - d. 1087) and later by the political dominance of the Plantagenets. It was strongly felt especially in the reign of Henry II (king of England in 1154-1189), the founder of the dynasty of the English kings of Norman and Angevin descent, whose power was diuat not only in England, but also in France, two-thirds of the territory of which Henry II held under his control. Henry II, king of England, actually spent twenty-one years of his reign on the continent, in his French land possessions and in his time England was socially and culturally closely connected with the French parts of his Angevin Empire. Before the second part of the thirteenth century most of the French written texts were written or copied in Normandy or in, English land possessions of the English kings of the Norman and Angevin descent.

The evidence for the northern origin of the borrowed lexemes from French in that period is found in the preservation of some phonological characteristics peculiar to the Northern dialects of French. The Anglo-Nor-man dialect had some distinct phonetic peculiarities not always found in the Central dialects of French on the basis of which the French literary language was formed in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries. The Northern forms of French differed from the Central French forms in some phonetic features. It is traditionally stated that the Anglo-Norman dialect usually kept the Northern initial [k] spelt as <ca->, whereas Anglo-French in later forms preserved the forms of the Central French dialects in which the initial [k] was usually rather early palatalized into [tʃ] spelt as <cha->, <chie->, and later it developed into the sibilant [ʃ]. In the dialect of Picardy that was spoken in the North of France and had common features, on the one hand, with the Western French dialects and, on the other hand, with the North-Eastern French dialects the diphthong /ei/ developed into the diphthong /oi/. The same can be said about the initial or medial [w] of Germanic origin that was spelt as <w> in the North-Eastern dialects of French and in Anglo-Norman whereas in the Western group of French dialects and later in Central French the initial or medial [w] of Germanic origin was assimilated into [gw], later [g], spelt as <gu>. The following lexemes are traditionally treated as the ones that came from Old Northern French or sometimes from other dialects of Old French, in the eleventh - the first half of the thirteenth centuries: EME (1099) capelein *chaplain* (ONF capelain), EME (1200) sarmun, sermon, sarmun *sermon* (AF sermoun sermon, OF sermon), ME (1175) saynt, seint, seynt *saint* (OF saint), EME (1154) curt *court* (OF curt, court), ME (1180) questiuns (PI) *question* (AF questiun, OF questioun), EME (1225) caroine, caronye *carrion* (LME caryon, caroigne, caroine, ONF caroigne), EME (1200) carriage *carriage* (ONF carriage, Picard carriage, Central French charriage), EME (1225) wardein, wardeine *warden* (ONF wardein), EME (1225) cointe, kointe, qyaynt *quaint* (OF cointe, queinte), ME (1137) miracle *miracle* (OF miracle), EME (1225) chapele

chapel (OF chapel), EME (1225) crien, cryen *to cry* (OF crier), EME (1200-1205) ba- run, baroun *baron* (OF barun, baron), EME (1230) baner *banner* (OF ba- nere), ME (1216-1259) parlement *parliament* (OF parlement), EME (1230) blam(e) *shame, sin* (OF blasme), MnE *blame,* EME (1200) cuistome, cos- tome *custom* (OF custume, costume), EME (1186) curtine, cortine *curtain* (OF courtaine), ME (1225) servand, serwaunt *servant* (OF servant), ME (1260) canevas *canvas* (ONF canevas, Central French chanevas), EME (1200) waiten, wayten, weiten *to wait* (ONF waitier, OF guaitier), EME (1225) warrant, waraunt, warente *warrant* (ONF warrant, warand, OF guarant, garant), ME (1225) cheapitre *chapter* (OF chapitre).

The highest peak of the inflow of French loan-words that was observed in the second half of the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries is evidently the м nil of the interaction of two main kinds of inflow of French borrowings: from the Northern dialects and from the Central dialects of French. Furthermore, as a result of the political, historical events and social shifts i much in England underwent the process of pidginization which made thn process of borrowing from French much easier due to the increased mixture of language elements in oral and written modes of communication as an expected consequence of the rise of the bilingual population. Anglo-French, sometimes called the Anglo-Norman dialect as it perhaps originally developed on the basis of the Northern dialects, had never been homogeneous in its dialectal character and later it also included dialectal elements from Central French. So, in the complicated sociolinguistic situation that arose in England in that period English experienced a triple influence of French: firstly, French in the form of the Northern dialects, formerly a mother tongue of the majority of the French-speaking nobility that had got a peripheral status in the Late Middle English period, secondly, Anglo-French that was the result of the bilingualism and that was used in oral communication and in writing, for example, John Gower wrote his literary works in Latin, English and Anglo-French, and, thirdly, an increasing dominant influence of more prestigious forms of Central dialects of French, later of the Parisian dialect, that was becoming an administrative longue of France. The inflow of French loan-words from Central dialects of French shows the increase in the volume of cultural, diplomatic, political contacts and military conflicts with France in the Late Middle Ages.

Middle English lexemes borrowed from French pertain to different spheres of usage and reflect the notions and concepts of the French-speaking nobility and high churchmen. Later French borrowed lexemes taken over mostly from Anglo-French and the Parisian dialect of French were introduced by literary men, translators as well as writers, because Medieval English literature was greatly influenced by French literary traditions, these lexemes usually keep the meaning with which they were used in French. The Middle English French loan-words are mostly governmental, administrative, financial terms, names of feudal hierarchy, juridical, military, religious terms, terms of family relationships, terms of art, fashion, literature, architecture, names of occupation and professions, names of

meals, gems, names of objects and actions of the routine everyday life. The following lexemes borrowed in the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries can also illustrate the point: ME (1290) vncle, wncle, uncle *uncle* (AF uncle, OF oncle, uncle), ME (1297) straunge *strange* (OF estraunge), ME (1297) verdit, verdyt *verdict* (AF verdit, AF voirdit), ME (1300) emeraude *emerald* (OF emeraude, esmeralde), ME vynegre, vinegre, vynagre *vinegar* (OF vyn egre), ME (1320-1330) servise, serfise *service* (OF servise, service), EME (1297) worreur, werreyour *warrior* (ONF werreieor, werrieur), EME (1297) pes, pees, pais *peace* (OF pes, pais), ME (1297) bataile *battle* (OF bataille), ME (1275) bealte, beute *beauty* (OF bealte, beaute), ME (1297) diner *dinner* (OF di(s)ner), ME (1300) blew *blue* (OF bleu), ME (1250) companye *company* (AF compaynie, OF compaignie), ME (1300) corage *courage* (OF corage, curage), ME (1300) soudoier, souder, soldiour *soldier* (OF soud(i)er, soldier), ME (1375) plessaunt, playsaunt *pleasant* (OF pleisant, plaisant), ME (1374) papure *paper* (AF papir, OF papier), ME (1374) studye, study *study* (OF estudie), ME (1337) salerie, sallery, saleri *salary* (AF salarie, OF salairie).

The confluence of the streams of loan-words from Old Northern French, Anglo-French and Old French (Central dialects) in the second half of the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries, that was the result of close interlingual communication, led to a complex type of interaction not only between French loan-words and native lexemes but also between French loan-words themselves and had many-sided effects.

In some cases there was a transformation or a modification of the phonetic structure, a phonetic adaptation of a previously borrowed lexeme from the Northern form of French after the Central French form. The preservation of some sounds in the phonetic structure of the loan-word can indicate the French dialect from which it was taken, as, for example, in the history of the lexeme *chancellor,* the earlier English form *canceler* evidently initially came from Old Northern French (EME (1093, 1123) canceler, ONF canceler, AF canceler) and later in the thirteenth century it was supplanted by the form *chanceler* that came from Central French and was also used in the late Anglo-French dialect (OF chancelier). The same modification or the replacement of the earlier form is seen in the history of the lexeme *chaplain* (EME (1100) capellane, ONF capelain), the Early Middle English form of which was superseded in 1340 under the influence of the form *chapelain* from Central French (OF chapelain).

Sometimes the forms coexisted and the survival of the lexeme in this or that form was a matter of chance or a social preference, usually, but not always, a Central French form survived as a more prestigious one as it became in the later period, or the lexeme was adopted through Anglo-French or Central French directly. The preservation of the Northern forms can be seen in the following lexemes: ME (1325) carpenter *carpenter* (AF car- Iii-liter, ONF carpentier, OF charpentier), ME (1183) waige, wayge *wage* (Al, ONF wage, Central French guage, gage), from Central French came ilio next lexemes: ME (1225) chapel *chapel* (OF chapel, ONF capele),

Ml (1300) chayne, cheyne *chain* (OF chaeine, chaaine, ONF caenne, caeine), ME (1300) chaere, chaiere *chair* (OF chaere, AF chaiere). Some more illustrations can be given here: ME (1217) cartre, chartre *charter* (OF charter, ONF cartre), ME (1297) chaunge, change *change* (OF change, AF chaunge), ME (1297) coler *collar* (AF coler, OF colier), ME (1297) voue, vuwe, woue *vow* (AF vu(u), vou, vo,), ME (1225) flour, flur *flower* (OF flour, flower), ME (1290) vyll, vyl, uile *vile* (AF and OF vil), ME (1297) colur, colour *colour* (OF color, colur), ME (1240) cunestable, conestable *constable* (OF cunestable, conestable), ME (1330) chief, chef chief (OF chief, chef), ME sergont, ser(g)ant *man-at-arms*, MnE sergeant (OF serjant).

There are also cases of preservation of two forms from different dialects of French in Modern English as a result if which French etymological doublets have arisen, for example, *cattle - chattel:* ME (1275) catel *cattle* (ONF catel, Parisian French chattel) - ME (1325) chatel *chattel* (OF chain, ONF catel), *to catch - to chase:* ME (1250) cacchen, cachen *to catch* (ONF cachier, Picard cacher, OF chacier) - ME (1314) chacen, chascen *to chase* (OF chacier, ONF cacher), *to carry- to charge*: ME (1320-1340) carien *to carry* (ONF carier, Central French charie) - ME (1225) chargen *to charge* (OF charger, chargier, ONF carguer, cargier), *to convoy – to convey:* ME (1375) convoi, conwoy, conuoy *to convoy* (Central French convoier, later convoyer) - ME (1300) conve(e), convey, conway *to convey* (ONF (Picard) conveyer), *to reward - to regard:* ME (1325) rewarde *to inward* (ONF rewarder, OF reguarder) - LME (1430) regarde, reguard *to regard* (OF regarder, reguarder).

Sometimes the Modem English cognate lexemes etymologically came frorn different French sources: ME (1300) corage, curage *gallantry, heart,* MnE *courage* (OF curage, corage, courage) and ME (1297) corageus, coraious courageous (AF courageous, OF corajus, corageus, later courageux).

One of the sociolinguistic factors that promoted and intensified the process of borrowing of Romance lexemes in Middle English was the influence of Medieval Latin that was actively introduced into social everyday life. The overlapping of French and Latin influences on the lexical system of

Middle English may probably be explained by the changes in the sociolinguistic situation that arose after the Norman Conquest when there was the revival of Latin learning through the activity of many churchmen of different ranks who were brought by William the Conqueror to England and later through the increased activity of various religious houses and newly established religious orders, such as the Dominicans, the Cistercians, the Franciscans, the Templars and others. By comparison, in Late Anglo-Saxon England all religious houses were Benedictine in type in the eleventh century. Furthermore, after the Conquest in the eleventh-thirteenth centuries Old French *[d'ancien Français]* in many aspects was very close to Medieval Latin as it developed on the basis of popular Latin *[latin vulgaire]* and was one of the consequences of the sociolinguistic situation in which the Gallic-Romanic bilingual communication developed. The effect of the double pressure of

French and Latin on Middle English social communication in terms of prestige under which English came resulted in a complex pattern of interrelationship and in a high degree of overlap between the two streams of Romance loan-words when a borrowed lexeme can equally well be taken over from French or Latin as Old French could have inherited it from popular Latin, or the adopted lexemes are etymologically interrelated, for example, *to confirm* (ME) from OF confermer that is cognate to Lat. confirmare, *complexion* (ME) from Fr., from med. Lat. complexionem, Lat. complexio, -ōnis, *casual* (ME) from Fr. casuel from Lat casuālis.

The basic functional difference between the borrowed lexemes from Old French or from Medieval Latin may probably lie in the predominant mode of communication through which Romance loan-words came to the Middle and Early Modern English lexis. French lexemes were generally adopted through oral communication or from secular literature mostly in Anglo-French, later they were taken from oral or written official or personal discourse in Central (Parisian) French. Latin loan-words mainly passed over to the English lexical system through the written channel of communication by way of religious or serious secular literature and by way of official or scholarly writing. Some borrowed lexemes from Latin may have come through the oral channel of communication as in Medieval England Latin was a spoken language among ecclesiastical people, men of learning and could be used by them in scholarly, religious diplomatic and political correspondence. The peculiar nature of their entering into the English lexical system conditioned the semantic characteristics of these borrowed lexemes, the predominant register usage and the field of socialactivity.

The following lexemes of Middle English may equally have come fromi French or Latin: *singular* (ME) from OF singular, singulalre, or Lat. hliigularis, *possible* (ME) from Fr. possible, or Lat. possibilis, *instrument* (ME) from Fr. instrument or from Lat. instrūmentum, *position* (LME) from Fr. position, or Lat. positionem, *primrose* (LME) primerose from EOF primerose from med. Lat. prima rose, *passion* (ME) passiun, passyoun, OF passion, passion from Lat. passio, -ōnis.

The next layer of French loan words characterizes their inflow in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries when French became a foreign tongue to the papulation of England and the process of borrowing was mainly the result of the political, diplomatic and cultural ties that were established between the language communities. These lexemes mostly came into the English lexis from the Parisian dialect, though the Anglo-French forms can still be registered in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries, for example, *director (*1477) AF directour, *to elope* (1596), AF aloper, (a juridical term) *guaranty* (1592), AF guarantie. Some lexemes of the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries may equally have come from French or Latin as the influences of both languages were unbelievably great: *reduction* (1474), Fr. reduction, or Lat. imluctionem, *unison* (1574) from OF unison or late Lat. unisonus, *uniform* (1540) from Fr. uniforme, or from Lat. uniformis, *unique* (1602) from Fr.

unique, or from Lat. unicus, *similar* (1611) from Fr. similaire or med. Lat. *similaris from Lat. similis.The French loan-words of this layer, the same as the Latin loan-words of this period bear rather bookish, literary character mitI are primarily used in literary or scholarly writing. French influence was so considerable that sometimes sets of derivatives passed into the English lexical system, for example, *to adore* (1483) from OF adorer, *adoration* (1543) from Fr. adoration, *adorable* (1611) from Fr. adorable.

The fourth layer of French loan-words can be found in the seventeenth tiwntury and afterwards when French influence on the English lexis was the greatest in the times of the Restoration of the Stuarts (1660-1688) and later as a result of the cultural and political importance of France, in ihe twentieth-twenty-first centuries there was a relative decrease in the number of new French loan-words but the process of the assimilation of previously borrowed lexemes (changes of the phonetic structure mid shifts in the functional register) has become more intensified. The French loan-words of the later period are less assimilated and usually keep a French-like spelling, stress and pronunciation. They are often semantically unassimilated and are used in the same meaning with which they were borrowed. These lexemes are largely literary or bookish in character, sometimes of rare occurrence, and are frequently found in official discourse and in literary or official writing. The main semantic fields of the French loan-words of Modern English are diplomacy, political, military activity, fashion, art, cookery, science (geographical, literary, linguistic and other terms).

The French influence on the English lexical system was very profound and was not restricted only to the process of borrowing of lexical units but extended to the process of borrowing of the word-formation elements, suffixes and prefixes. This affected the existing word-formation patterns in two ways: firstly, the position of affixation, especially suffixation, as a word-formation device was reinforced, secondly, the combinality of native stems became flexible and many hybrid formations developed on the basis of the borrowed word-formation elements, for example, believable (ME), unthinkable (LME), eatable (1483), readable (1570), wondrous (1500), leakage (1490), shortage (1868). This can also testify to a high level of assimilation and adaptation of foreign word-formation elements.

A great amount of adopted French loan-words in the English lexical system linguistically supported and encouraged a considerable inflow of Latin loan-words the peak of which was observed in Early Modern English. The orrowed lexemes that supposedly came directly from Latin in the Middle and Modern English periods were especially numerous in the fourteenth-sixteenth centuries in the time of the Renaissance when many now scientific terms were introduced and in the seventeenth-eighteenth centuries in the time of the Industrial Revolution. The Early Modern English loan-words from Latin were mainly scholarly words closely connected with the achievements in the humanities (philosophy, logic, education, jurisprudence), natural sciences (astronomy, physics, mathematics, chemistry,

zoology, botany, medicine) and technology.

15ʰ-16.ʰ	17--18	19ᵗʰ—20ᵗʰ
ccrew (1455)	prestige (1656)	cliché (1832)
to accompany (1460)	ballet (1667)	attaché (1835)
manoeuvre (1479)	picket (1690)	format (1840)
aid (1460)	routine (1676)	blouse (1828)
rouge (1485)	detail (1603)	acrobat (1825)
blonde (1481)	fatigue (1669)	mirage (1812)
banquet(1483)	patrol (1664)	elite (1823)
ballad (1492)	champagne (1664)	troupe (1825)
machine (1549) Fr. machine	cuisine (1786)	soufflé (1813)
carrots (1553) Fr. carotte	brunette (1712)	genre (1816)
cashier (1592) Fr. caissier	amateur (1784)	café (1816)
police (1530) Fr. police	dentist (1759)	lingerie (1835)
career (1534) Fr. carrière	connoisseur (1714)	chiffon (1876)
combat (1567)	cassette (1793)	morpheme (1905)
credit (1542)	cashew (1703)	garage (1902)
barbarian (1549)	cul-de-sac (1738)	camouflage (1917)
cash (1596)	egoism (1785)	limousine (1902)
massif (1524)	avalanche (1789)	phoneme (1923)
platform (1550)	denouement (1752)	montage

The biggest part of these Latin borrowings belongs to the formal register of the lexicon, being scientific terms and literary words that are usually found in scholarly or literary writing, or words of rare occurrence. The following lexemes that are thought to have been taken over from Latin directly can be given to illustrate the point: *lunatic* (ME lynatyk, Lat. lūnāticus), to *admit* (ME admitten, Lat. admitto, -ĕre), *to construe* (ME constru(w)e, Lat. con-struo, -ĕre), *lecture* (ME) from med. Lat. lectura, *conflict* (ME) from Lat. conflictūs, *to comprehend* (ME) from Lat. comprĕhendo, -ĕre, in*stinct* (ME) from Lat. instinctŭs, *family* (ME) from Lat. fāmĭlia, *compensation* (ME) from med. Lat. compensationem from Lat. compensation, -ōnis, *contempt* (ME) from Lat. contemptūs, *to add* (ME) from Lat. addo –ĕre, *consŭl* (ME) from Lat. consul, *cassation* (ME) from med. Lat. casationem, *fate* (ME) from Lat. fātum, *collision* (ME) from med. Lat. collisionem, from Lat. collīsŭs, *defect* (ME) from Lat. dēfectŭs, *depression* (ME) from med. Lat.

depressionem, *solar* (1450) from Lat. sōlāris, *legal* (1500) from Lat. lēgālis, *flora* (1508) from Lat. Flora, *education* (1531) from med. Lat. educationem from Lat. ēdŭcātio, -ōnis, *triangular* (1541) from late Lat. triangularis, *abdomen* (1541) from Lat. abdomen, *appendix* (1542) from Lat. appendix, *concept* (1556) from med. Lat. conceptum, *alternative* (1590) from med. Lat. alternatives, *theory* (1597) from late Lat. theoria, *rheumatism* (1601) from late Lat. rheumatismus, *laboratory* (1605) from med. Lat. laboratorium, *lunar* (1626) from Lat. lunaris, *apparatus* (1628) from Lat. apparatus, *alibi* (1727) from Lat. ălĭbī *elsewhere, in other place, fauna* (1771) from modern Lat. Fauna, *to pulsate* (1794) from Lat. pulsat - from Lat. pulso, -āre, *detective* (1843) from Lat. detectum from Lat. detĕgo, ĕre *to find out, to discove,* *affricate* (1880) from modern Lat. affricatus, *fricative* (1860) from modern Lat. fricative, *platinum* (1812) from modern Lat. platina.

Latin influence was so great in Early Modern English that some French words which had been borrowed earlier were latinized either in spelling, or in spelling and pronunciation: ME dette, det from OFr. dete > MnE *debt* (med. Lat *debita from Lat. debitum), ME duten, douten from OFr. duter, douter > MnE *to doubt* (Lat. dubitare), LME receite, reciet from Fr. receite > MnE *receipt* (Lat. recepta from Lat. recipere), ME avocat from OFr. avocat > MnE *advocate* (Lat. advocatus), ME aventure from OFr. auenture > MnE *adventure* (Lat. adventura), ME paume from OF paume > MnE *palm* (Lat. palma), ME parfit(e) from OF parfit(e) > MnE perfect (med. Lat. perfectum)

A Latin lexeme was usually borrowed not in isolation but in a set of de-rivatives: *to congratulate* (1548) from Lat. congrātŭlor, -āri - *congratulation* (1591) from late Lat. congratulationem, *to comprehend* (ME) from Lat. com- prĕhendo, -ĕre - *comprehensible* (1529) from Lat. comprĕhensĭbĭlis - *comprehension* (1541) from Lat. comprehension, -ōnis – *comprehensive* (1614) from late Lat. comprehensivus. Modern English derivational word-families can sometimes be composed of etymologically different elements with the same Romanic roots: *attention* (ME) from Lat. attention, ōnis - *attentive* (1570) from Fr. attentif, -ive, *agony* (ME) from Lat. ăgōnia, ōrum - *to agonize* (1583) from Fr. agonizer or med. Lat. agonizare, *attraction* (1533) from Lat. attraction, ōnis - *attractive* (1540) from Fr. attractif, *mystery* (ME) from Fr. mistere, *AF misterie - *mysterious* (1616) from Lat. mystērium, *grammar* (ME) from Fr. gramaire - *grammatic* (1599) from Lat. grammătĭcus, *to offend* (ME) from OF offender - *offensive* (1547) late Lat. offensivus.

Latin borrowings contributed much to the formation of semantic groups of lexemes that include lexical units with different etymological characteristics not connected through derivational ties: *sun* (OE sunne) - *solar* (1450) from Lat. sōlāris, *house* (OE hūs) - *domestic* (1521) from Lat. dŏmestĭcus, *eye* (OE eaʒe) - *ocular* (1503) from Lat. ŏcŭlāris, *mind* (OE mynd) - *mental* (LME) from late Lat. mentalis, from Lat. mens *mind, son* (OE sunu) - *filial* (ME), late Lat. filialis, from fllius *son,* *country* (ME contre, countre from OFr. cuntrée) - *rural* (LME) from late Lat. ruralis

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from rūs *country, town* (OE tūn) - *urban* (1619) Lat. urbānus.

The richness of Modern English in synonyms is largely due to the mingling of Latin, French and native etymological elements. The Latin word is usually stylistically marked and belongs to the formal register.

Native	French	Latin
to do (OE)	to perform (ME)	to act (1594)
to understand (OE)	to interpret (ME)	to construe (ME)
to ask (OE)	to question (1470)	to interrogate (1483)
time (OE)	age (ME)	era (1615)
to think (OE)	to consider (ME)	to contemplate (1592), to meditate (1560)
to begin, to start (OE)	to commence (ME)	to originate (1653)
fire (OE)	flame (ME)	conflagration(1555)
alone (ME), lonely (1607)	single (ME)	solitary (ME)
to speak (OE)	to converse (ME)	to communicate (1526)

Italian loan-words have directly been penetrating the English lexis mostly since the sixteenth century and the first evident inflow of these borrowings was during the period of the Renaissance in the thirteenth- sixteenth centuries when the interest in art and in the ideas of Roman and Greek philosophers was revived and stimulated. Italy came to be universally recognized as the birthplace of the European Renaissance movement and became notable for significantly distinguished and influential dowering of literature, architecture and art. Later Italian loan-words came as a result of various direct and indirect cultural, political contacts with Italy, the Italians and their culture. Some Italian loan-words seem to have firstly appeared in American English from the speech of Italian immigrants who arrived into the USA from Italy in the nineteenth-twentieth centuries, i мiег these lexemes became common in the British English lexis. Most of the Italian loan-words semantically and functionally belong to the specific mgister of the English lexicon, pertaining to the spheres of culture (mu- sic, literature, architecture and art) and cookery or denoting some notions of politics, military activity, finance, medicine. They can be geographical terms and lexemes that belong to the national register and describe peculiarities of the Italian way of living. Italian lexemes that are often not fully assimilated and keep phonetic and spelling peculiarities of the Italian language could infiltrate the English lexis directly and indirectly, through other languages.

The following lexemes are thought to have come directly from Italian: MnE *violin* (1579), Ital. violino (diminitive of Ital. viola), MnE *umbrella* (1609), Ital.

umbrella, ombrella (diminitive of Ital. ombra a *shade),* MnE *malaria* (1740), Ital. mal'aria (mala aria *bad air),* MnE *casino* (1789), Ital. casino (diminitive of Ital. casa a *cottage, a house),* MnE *archipelago* (1502), Ital. arcipelago, MnE *artichoke* (1531), Ital. articiocco, arciciocco, MnE *bankrupt* (1533), Ital. banka rotta, MnE *ballot* (1549), Ital. ballotta, MnE *squadron* (1562), Ital. squadrone, MnE *lottery* (1567), Ital. lotteria, MnE *bandit* (1593), Ital. bandito, MnE *madrigal* (1588), Ital. madrigal, MnE *fresco* (1598), Ital. fresco, MnE *ghetto* (1611), Ital., perhaps abbreviation of borghetto, diminutive of borga *{borough),* MnE *volcano* (1613), Ital. vul, volcano, MnE *balcony* (1618), Ital. balcone, MnE *allegro* (1632), Ital. allegro, MnE *balloon* (1634), Ital. ballone, MnE *opera* (1644), opera, MnE *manifesto* (1644), Ital. manifesto, MnE *bulletin* (1651), MnE *car toon* (1671), Ital. cartone, MnE *sonata* (1694), Ital. sonata, MnE *broccoli* (1699), Ital. broccoli, plural of broccolo, MnE *tempo* (1724), Ital. tempo, MnE *concerto* (1730), Ital. concerto, MnE *soprano* (1730), Ital. soprano, MnE *adagio* (1746), Ital. adagio, MnE *lava* (1750), Ital. lava, MnE *ballerina* (1792), Ital. ballerina, MnE *maestro* (1797), Ital. maestro, MnE *studio* (1819), Ital. studio, MnE *pizzicato* (1845), Ital. pizzicato from pizzicare *to pinch, to twing,* MnE *graffito* [graffiti (pi.)] (1851), Ital. graffito, MnE *vendetta* (1855), Ital. vendetta, MnE *mafia* (1875), Ital. mafia, MnE *risotto* (1884), MnE *spaghetti* (1888), Ital. pl. of the diminutive form of spago *string,* MnE *fascist* (1921), Ital. fascista from Ital. fascio *group.*

The latest Italian lexemes imported into the Modern English lexical system seem to be mostly names of food and drink, and some miscellaneous lexemes, for example, *pasta* (Ital. pasta), *pizza* (Ital. pizza), *pizzeria, cappuccino, ravioli, risotto, zucchini, linguini, lasagne* (Am.E. *lasagna), paparazzi, mafioso.*

The following lexemes that came indirectly from Italian were taken mostly through French or through Spanish: MnE *bastion* (1598), Ital. bastione *part of a fortification* through Fr. bastion, MnE *battalion* (1589), Ital. battaglione through Fr. bataillon, MnE *bank* (1474), Ital. banca through Fr. banque, MnE *caravel* (1527) Ital. caravella through Fr. caravelle, MnE *traffic* (1506), Ital. traffico through Fr. trafique (mod. Fr. trafic), MnE *porcelain* (1530), Ital. porcellana through Fr. porcelaine, MnE *bronze* (1721), Ital. bronzo through Fr. bronze, MnE *contraband* (1529), Ital. contrabando *prohibited goods* through Spanish contrabando *smuggling.*

The earliest regular influence of the Spanish language is chronologically limited to the time of the Geographical discoveries in the fifteenth- sixteenth centuries when Spain became one of the wealthiest European countries and was in the prime of its might after the Spanish active colonial expansion of the New World was launched following Christophero Columbus' voyage to the continent of America. The enormous amount of riches, gold, silver and new products poured into Spain and flooded the European markets with new goods. A vast majority of these commodities wine of Mexican, Brazilian or Indian origin and new words to denote new Hungs to an European mind were usually taken from Indian languages мін example, Caribbean, Haitian, Arawakan) and native tongues of the Mexican

and Brazilian people. Ultimately, these lexemes adopted by the Spanish language came to many European languages directly from Spanish or indirectly through French. Later some Spanish lexemes were borowed into the English lexical system from the Spanish-speaking communities of North America and new Spanish loan-words could be taken from the South-American variants of the Spanish language or from Spanish spoken in the Caribbean islands of the West Indies. In the nineteenth-twentieth centuries, when many Englishmen travelled to Spain as to a popular place of tourist attraction, more Spanish lexemes that described the Spanish way of living came into the English lexis. Spanish loan-words im sometimes not fully assimilated and may keep phonetic and spelling poailiarities of the Spanish language.

The main semantic fields of Spanish loan-words are flora and fauna, trade and commerce, military activity, the culturally-biased register, natural phenomena, names of food and of some everyday things. Spanish lexemes were taken directly and indirectly, mostly through French. Here are some examples of Spanish loan-words: MnE *cork* (1463), Sp. corcha, corche, MnE *armada* (1533), Sp. armada, MnE *batata* (1577) Sp., batata from Haitian, *potato* (1565), Sp. potata, a variant of batata, MnE *banana (1597)*, Sp. banana from West Indian, MnE *hurricane* (1555) Sp. huracan (torn Caribbean huracan, MnE *canoe* (1555), Sp. canoa from Haitian or Arawak canaoua, MnE *tomato* (1604), Sp. tomate from Mexican tomatl, MnE *grenade* (1532), Sp. granada through Fr. grenade, MnE *savannah (1555)*, Sp. zavana from West Indian, MnE *cocao, cacao* (1555), Sp. from Mexican caca-uatl, MnE *iguana* (1555), Sp. iguana from Caribbean iwana, MnE *tornado* (1556), Sp. tronada (*thunder-storm*), MnE *alligator* (1568), Sp. al(el) lagarto, MnE *maize* (1565), Sp. maiz of Cuban origin, MnE *armadillo* (1577), Sp., diminutive of armada, MnE *tobacco* (1577), Sp. tabaco from Indian, MnE *mosquito* (1583), Sp. and Pg. mosquito, diminutive of mosca (a *fly)*, MnE *lama, llama* (1600), Sp. llama, MnE *embargo* (1602), Sp. from embargar, MnE *chocolate* (1604), Sp. chocolate from Mexican chocolatl through Fr. chocolat, MnE *condor* (1604), Sp. condor from Peruvian cuntur, MnE *toreador* (1618), Sp. from Sp. torear (fo *fight bulls)*, MnE *cockroach* (1624), Sp. cucaracha, MnE *rancho* (1648), MnE *siesta* (1655), MnE *cargo* (1657), Sp. cargo, MnE *vanilla* (1662), Sp. vaynilla, vainilla, MnE *matador* (1674), Sp. matador, MnE *plaza* (1683), Sp. plaza, MnE *barbecue* (1697), Sp. barbacoafrom Haitian, MnE *cigar* (1735), Sp. cigarro, MnE *hacienda* (1760), South-American Sp., MnE *lasso* (1808), Sp. lazo, MnE *patio* (1828), Sp. patio, MnE *canyon, kanyon* (1850), Sp. canon *(tube),* MnE *tango* (1913), South-American Sp., MnE *rumba* (1937), Cuban Sp. rumba.

As a result of different influences from many Romance languages numerous etymological doublets that sometimes form sets of two or more lexemes appeared in the English lexical system. Etymological doublets are two or more words which can ultimately be traced to the common root, but which entered the lexis by different routes and which are characterized by different semantic and phonetic development. The following examples are usually given: MnE *feat* (ME feet, ONF fet, fait, Lat.

factum *action, deed, act)* - MnE *fact* (1539) (Lat. factum *action, deed, act),* MnE *strait* (ME streit, OF estreit, Lat. strictus *narrow, strict)* - MnE *strict* (1578) (Lat. strictus *tight, strict),* MnE *concert* (1665) (Fr., Ital. concerto *agreement* from concertare *to adjust)* - MnE *concerto* (1730) (Ital. concerto *agreement),* MnE *cattle* (ME cate I, ONF catel, late Lat. captale, Lat. capitale from caput *head)* - MnE *chattel* (ME catel, chattel, Central Fr. chattel, late Lat. captale, Lat. capital), MnE *chief* (ME chef, chief, OF chef, chief *head,* Lat. caput *head)* - MnE *chef* (1842) (Fr. chef *head),* MnE *wine* (OE win from Lat. vinum) - MnE *vine* (ME vyne, OF vigne, vine, Lat. vlnea *vine, vineyard* from Lat. vinum *wine).*

3. Loan-words from Germanic languages in the history of English

Compared with the influence of Romance languages, which was intense, considerable and not limited chronologically after the Norman Conquest, the impact of Germanic languages may seem less noticeable and chronologically more restricted to certain historical periods in which the intensity of the process of borrowing varied greatly. It also largely depended on the local Middle English dialect and on the group of the Germanic languages the loan-words came from in the Middle English and Modern English periods. The Germanic loan-words came from the North-Germanic languages, mostly Scandinavian dialects, and from the West-Germanic languages (Flemish, Dutch and German). Mostly influential and effective was the influence of the Scandinavian dialects on English in the Early Medieval Ages.

The earliest Scandinavian loan-words appeared in the late Anglo-Saxon dialects as a direct consequence of the military conflicts with the Danes and the Norwegians during their attacks on England. Scandinavians came into Britain as a result of three chronologically discernible waves of incursions beginning from the eighth century when the Danes launched a whole series of inroads on the northern and eastern parts of Anglo-Saxon England. Later the character of their attacks entirely changed when a great number of Scandinavian families came to settle in England. Alter the settlement of the Danes in the East of England in the eighth-ninth centunes the Anglo-Saxon speech communities in these territories came into close contacts with Scandinavian-speaking settlers. Early in the eleventh century England as a result of new incursions and military conflicts with the Danes became incorporated into the Northern (Danish) kingdom under Canute the Dane.

The process of assimilation of the Danes went rapidly in England mainly for two reasons. There was a noticeable close kinship between the two peoples as their social order, culture, customs and beliefs were almost the same. Scandinavian dialects belonged to the Northern branch of the Gemanic group of languages and were genetically close to the Anglo-Saxon dialects that belonged to the Western branch of the Germanic group of languages.The Scandinavian dialects spoken in the Danish-speaking communities of the settlers were similar to the Anglian dialects spoken in the Anglo-Saxon speech communities in a number of particulars in which

Hie latter showed divergence from the West-Saxon dialect of Old English.

The Scandinavian dialects were so close to the Anglian dialects of English that many lexemes were almost identical. It is now commonly accepted that it is difficult to make a true decision about the ultimate etymology of some lexemes and to estimate the exact amount of unmistakably Scandinavian lexemes borrowed into English. In some cases phonetic peculiarities of each of the languages can help to distinguish a Scandinavian loanword from a native lexeme. A different development of the initial or final palatalized consonant /sk/ that was assibilated in Old English can help to identify a native word in some cases: OE scip [ski'p] *ship,* OE fisc [fisk'] *fish.* In Scandinavian dialects /sk/ was kept in the phonetic structure of the word. So, the following Modern English lexemes of Germanic origin may be thought to have come into the English lexis from Scandinavian dialects: scatter, skill, skin, scale, scalp, scant, to scare, scrape. Still, it should lie noted that Modern English lexemes with the initial consonant cluster [sk] can be of different origin, for example, scribe (Lat.), scandal (ONF), screen (AF), scaffold (ONF), to scald (ONF), to scan (Lat.), scarce (ONF), scarlet (OF), scarf (ONF), scheme (Greek through Lat.), school (Lat.).

The following Old English lexemes are traditionally defined as the earliest Scandinavian loan-words: OE hūs-būnda *húsband*, ON husbondi, late OE féolaʒa *fellow,* ON feélaga, OE Iaʒu *law,* ON *lagu, Old Icelandic lǫg, OE ūt-lah *outlaw,* ON ūtlagi, late OE roōt *root,* ON roōt, late OE scoru *score,* ON skor.

A total amount of Scandinavian loan-words is usually estimated at the number of nine hundred lexemes the main bulk of which entered the English lexis after the eleventh century in the Middle English period. These lexemes denote common notions known to the Anglo-Saxons: actions and things of everyday life, elements of home life, animals and plants, natural phenomena, parts of the body, some juridical terms. Scandinavian loanwords usually came through the oral channel of communication and they mostly belong to the neutral part of the Modern English vocabulary: MnE *leg* (ME lege, leg, ON leggr), MnE *anger* (ME anger, ON angr *grief),* MnE *skin* (ME, ON skinn), MnE *to die* (ME dien, deyen, ON deyja), MnE *to take* (ME taken, ON taka), MnE *bloom* (ME blome, ON blóm), MnE *wing* (ME wyng, weng, ON vængir), MnE *cake,* (ME cake, kake, ON kaka), MnE *to call* (ME call(e), ON kalla), MnE *to gape* (ME, ON gapa), MnE *skill* (ME, ON skil), MnE *to cast* (ME casten, ON kasta), MnE *want* (ME want *lack,* ON vant *need, lack),* MnE *seat* (ME sete, ON sǽti), MnE *egg* (ME, ON egg), MnE *ill* (EME ille, ill, ON illr), MnE *flat* (adj.) (ME, ON flatr), MnE *to gasp* (ME, ON geispa), MnE *window* (ME windoʒe, wyndou, ON vindau- ga), MnE *loan* (ME, ON Ian), MnE *trust,* (EME truste, ON traust), MnE *sly* (ME sleʒ, ON slǿgr), MnE *loose* (ME los, ON Iọuss), MnE *odd* (ME odde, odd, ON odda), MnE *bull* (ME bole, boole, ON bole, boli), MnE *reindeer* (LME, ON hreindýri, MnE *weak* (ME, ON veikr), MnE *steak* (LME, ON steik), MnE *kid* (ME kide, kede, kid, ON kið), MnE *crook* (ME croc, crok, ON krðókr), MnE *to glitter* (ME glitteren, ON glitra), MnE *gap* (ME, ON

gap), MnE *to rid* (ME, ryðja), MnE *to thrust* (EME þrusten, ON þrýsta), MnE *to kindle* (ME, ON kynda), MnE *club* (ME clubbe, clobbe, ON clubba), MnE *rag* (ME, ON rǫgg a *strip of fur),* MnE *cart* (ME cart(e), ON kartr).

A complicated character of the interrelation between Scandinavian and native lexemes can result in the appearance of Anglo-Scandinavian etymological doublets, for example, MnE *skirt,* ON scyrta - MnE *shirt,* OE scyrte, MnE *to raise,* ON reisa - MnE *to rise,* OE rīsan.

Scandinavian influence may be seen in different ways. The phonetic modification of the phonetic structure of the lexeme can be observed in the preservation of the plosive velar consonant /g/ before front vowels /i/, /e/, for example, MnE *to give* (OE ʒiefan, ʒyfan, ME yiven, yeven, gifen, gyven, given, ON gefa), MnE *to get* (OE -ʒietan, ME gete, ON geta). The modification of the semantic structure may indicate the Scandinavian influence in some lexemes: MnE *dream* (OE drēam *joy,* ON draumr *sleep),* MnE *to dwell* (OE dwellian *to lead astray,* ON dvelja *to live).* Grammatical influence can also be seen in morphology, for example, the introduction of the -s inflection of the third person, singular, present tense into the Northern dialects, the borrowing of the pronouns *they (them), their, both, same.* Some scholars believe that the process of the weakening of inflectional endings that was generally characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon dialects, especially in the North, was accelerated by the Scandinavian impact on the sociolinguistic situation that arose in the North and East of England where the Scandinavian ethnic communities lived.

It may be quite justified to note that the influence of the Scandinavian dialects can be perceived as one of the most significant and extensive of the foreign influences that the English language has experienced because of its extent and the ultimate results of the incorporation of Scandinavian language elements.

Borrowed lexemes from West-Germanic languages differ in volume, in the scope of semantic fields, in the semantic structure and in the socio-historical context in which the process of borrowing took place. These lexemes are usually not assimilated semantically and, as a rule, keep the primary meaning with which they were borrowed. A large portion of West-Germanic loan-words chronologically belongs to the Modern English inflow of borrowings and they are the result of political, cultural, scientific, commercial and other contacts and ties with the Netherlands (Holland) and Germany. A close similarity of West-Germanic languages in Middle and Early Modern times sometimes makes it difficult to know precisely whether .1 lexeme has been adopted from Dutch, Flemish or German, for example, Modern English *to rack* (LME) may have come from Dutch (MDu reeken) or from German (MLG reeken to stretch), Modern English *shore* (ME) can lie traced to Dutch (MDu schore) and to German (MLG schore, schare).

The first Flemish-speaking communities appeared in Britain in the Early Middle Ages when Flemish colonists settled in Wales, Scotland and Ireland in the early twelfth century. Later Dutch-speaking and more Flemish-speaking people

came as merchants and craftsmen when foreigners were allowed to settle and set up their business in England in the thirteenth century. The close economic ties with Flanders as a trade partner of England strengthened when England provided the wool as raw material for the cloth industries in Flanders in the Middle Ages. Many Flemish people stayed in England as weavers and taught the art of cloth manufacturing in England. Skilled military men from the Netherlands were mercenaries in the army of Edward III during the Hundred Years War and served as cannon operators. Till the end of the sixteenth century the trade and industry of England had been closely connected with Flanders. In the sixteenth century the Netherlands was a leading navigating country with well-recognized and long-standing traditions of navigation and shipbuilding. Furthermore, the Dutch and Flemish schools of painting that emerged in the late sixteenth and in the early seventeenth centuries had a strong influence on the art of painting in England. The brilliant artistic personalities of famous Dutch artists such as Frans Hals (1580-1666), Rembrandt van Rijn (1606-1669), Johannes Vermeer (1632-1675) and notable Flemish painters such as Peter Rubens (1577-1640), who was an ambassador in London, and his pupil Anthony van Dyck, who was the court painter of Charles I and worked in London, dominated the world of European art. Consequently, the Dutch and Flemish loan-words semantically refer to the spheres of shipbuilding, navigation, weaving, the Fine Arts. They can also denote different notions of everyday life.

The following Dutch loan-words are traditionally given as illustrations: MnE. *to glare,* ME glaren, MDu, MLG glaren *to gleam, to glare,* MnE *yacht* (1577), Du. jagt, Old Dutch jacht a *swift boat,* MnE *easel* (1634), Du. ezel *an ass, a support, a painting easel,* MnE *boss* (1822), Du. baas *master,* MnE *cooper* (ME), MnE *scoop* (ME), MnE *pack* (ME), MnE *skipper* (LME), MDu or MLG schipper *a captain of a ship,* MnE *golf* (1457), Du. kolf, kolv, MnE *deck* (1466), MnE *dock* (1513), MnE *to scrabble* (1537), Du. schrabbelen, MnE *reef* (1584) a *rock,* MnE *landscape* (1598), MnE *to etch* (1634), MnE *to skate* (1636), MnE *to cruise* (1651), MnE *walrus* (1655), MnE *brandy* (1657), MnE *slim* (1657), MnE *gas* (1658), MnE *holster* (1663), MnE *sketch* (1668), MnE *to hustle* (1684), MnE *to smuggle* (1687), MnE *commodore* (1694), Du. kommandeur, MnE *waffle* (1808).

German lexemes borrowed into English mainly denote new notions and concepts introduced by German scholars and scientists. The rest of the loan-words belong to the specific national register and denote the peculiar ethnic way of living in German-speaking countries. The following illustrations are usually given: MnE *to plunder* (1632), German plündern to *rob of household effects*, MnE *poodle* (1825), German pudel from pudelhund a *water-dog,* MnE *larch* (1548), German Lärche, MnE *hamster* (1607), MnE *sauerkraut* (1617), MnE *zinc* (1651), MnE *bismuth* (1668), MnE *cobalt* (1728), MnE *quartz* (1756), MnE *wolfram* (1757), MnE *nickel* (1/75), MnE *waltz* (1781), MnE *semester* (1827), MnE *chorale* (1841), MnE *Umlaut* (1852), MnE *kindergarten* (1852), MnE *lager* (1853) a *sort iif beer,*

MnE *edelweiss* (1862), MnE *Ablaut* (1871), MnE *leitmotiv* (1876), Mill *dachshund* (1881), MnE *seminar* (1889), MnE *marzipan* (1891), MnE *ituksack* (1895), MnE *blitz* (1940), MnE *bunker* (1940), MnE *Weltschmerz*

4. Conclusions

As a result of diverse historical and political contacts of England with other countries of the world and a complex confluence of social, historical and i ullural factors the English lexis has been vastly enlarged and greatly enriched due to the process of borrowing from different foreign languages uni it developed a highly etymologically mixed structure. The list of languages from which borrowed lexemes have come into the English lexical system is rather great and it reflects the complexity and the versatile character of historical, national and cultural contacts of the English-speaking communities. Loan-words mostly have come from Romance languages mid Scandinavian dialects. The majority of the lexical units of the English luxis are still native. They can have come down from the old times, or they limy have been the result of the word-formation process. The most productive means of word-formation have been conversion, suffixation and prefixation, composition.

Questions and tasks for self-control
1. The development of different ways of word-formation in the history of English
2. The rise of conversion as a word-formation device in Late Middle English and Early Modern English
3. The word-composition as a word-formation device in Middle English and Early Modern English
4. The role of semantic changes in the evolution of the English lexical system in the history of English
5. The functional status of French and Latin derivational affixes in the of English
6. Greek loan-words in the history of English, their semantic fields and the specific character of usage
7. A comparative study of Latin loan-words of Middle and Modern English semantic fields and the peculiar character of usage)
8. Loan-words from different languages in the nineteenth-twentieth centuries as the reflection of various and many-sided cross-national contacts of English speech communities
9. The rise of different types of etymological doublets in the history of English
10. The main stages and the principal forms of the process of assimilation of loan-words in the history of English

Lecture 7.
English Historical Phonetics
Part I

Plan:
1. Introduction
2. Qualitative sound changes in the subsystems of short and long vowel phonemes in Middle English
3. The ruin of the system of Old English diphthongs and the rise of Middle English diphthongs
4. Quantitative sound changes in the system of Middle English vowel phonemes
5. Conclusions

References: 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 13.

1. Introduction

The Old English sound system underwent considerable changes in the Middle and Modern periods of the evolution of the English language. The following most noticeable features mark this process: the majority of sound changes in Middle and Modern English were independent and spontaneous; widely-spread positional changes that often affected the quality of vowels in Old English were characteristic of the quantity of vowels in Middle English; changes of the quality of speech sounds often went together with changes in the quantity of speech sounds; long monophthongs and diphthongs in the accented syllables were more affected than short monophthongs in their quality; vowels in the unstressed positions had a strong tendency to being reduced in their quality; the English consonant sounds were generally more stable than vowels, still some consonants were subject to vocalization and assibilation, some were lost and somenow consonants emerged. The changes in the vocalic system were often i onnected and interrelated with the vocalization of the fricative and liquid i unsonants.

Modern English spelling is mostly etymological and its basic foundations, to a large extent, can be traced to Middle English spelling habits, since the extensive sound changes were not reflected in spelling in later periods. Generally, this contributed much to the discrepancy between Modern English pronunciation and spelling.

2. Qualitative sound changes in the subsystems of short and long vowel phonemes in Middle English

The most remarkable feature of the Middle English sound system is a growing tendency for dialectal variation. The sound changes of Midle English increased the divergence among the Middle English dialects, though this divergence already existed in Old English. The increasing loudency for dialectal variation was encouraged by and, to some extent, was the result of the changes in the

sociolinguistic situation that arose in England after the Norman Conquest. There seem to have been two basic causes which supported the Middle English dialectal variation. The first one was the decline of the written form of English because the English language was restricted in its social functions and was almost exclusively used for oral communication. Most of English-speaking people were peasants who were illiterate and the changes in oral communication are believed to be wide-ranging and fast-going, especially in pronunciation and grammatical forms. The second one was the use of the French language in the country for a considerable period of time and the appearance of a large layer of bilingual population during the natural development of the society, a sociolinguistic direct consequence of which was the increased interconnection and interrelation between English and French in England.

The main sound changes that occurred in the subsystems of Old English short and long vowel phonemes in Middle English could be of the qualitative and of the quantitative nature. The system of late Old English monophlhongs for the West-Saxon dialect could be presented in this scheme:

i (˙)　　　y (˙)　　u (:)
e (:)　　　o (:)
ae(:)　a(:)

On the basis of the written evidence of the extant Middle English manuscripts the dominant trends of the Middle English vowel development may generally be described in the following way.

The short and long front and back vowels of the high rise /i/, /i:/, /u/, */u:/* were kept and remained unchanged in Middle English, for example, EOE *fisc* [fisk], EME *fissh, fyssh* [fiʃ], OE *wulf* [wulf], ME *wolf, wulf* [wulfj, OE *mīn* [mi:n], ME *mine* [mi:n], OE *mūs* [mu:s], ME *mous* [mu:s].

The rounded short and long front vowels of the high rise /y/ and */y:/* split into three dialectal variants. In the North and in the East Midland the vowel phonemes lost labialization and became unrounded /i/ /i:/, in the Kentish dialect and in the South-East they became wide and unrounded /e/ */e:/,* in the West South they remained unchanged but later moved backward and became /u//u:/, for example, OE *synne* [syn:e], ME *sinne* [sine] in the North and East Midland, *senne* [sene] in Kent, *sünne, sunne* [sune] in the West South. The spellings to show this change became usual by the end of the twelfth century.

Some Modern English forms can show the mixture of dialectal variants when the pronunciation can be traced to one dialectal form while the writ ten form comes back to the other, for example, the Modern English form *busy* [bizi] (OE bysiʒ [byzij]) shows the mixture of two dialectal forms: the Northern form is reflected in pronunciation and the Southern form can be traced in spelling: ME *bisy* [bizi] (North and East Midland), ME *besy* [bezi] (Kent), ME *busy* [buzi] (West South).

The short and long vowels of the middle rise */e/ /e:/ /o/ /o:/* were kept and remained unchanged in Middle English: OE *west* [west], ME west [west], OE *folc*

[folk], ME *foie, folk{e)* [folk], OE *cēpan* [k'e:pan], ME *kepen* [ke:pen], OE *mōna* [mo:na], ME *mone* [mo:ne].

The short open front vowel of the low rise *lae: l* developed into the short back vowel of the low rise */a/* in closed syllables in all Middle English dialects with the exception of the Southern dialects where it narrowed into */ e :/*: OE waes [wæs], ME was [was], ME wes [wes] (in the South), OE *bæc* [bæk], ME *back* [bak], ME *beck* [bek]. The sound */e/* can still be heard in the cockney dialect.

The long front open vowel of the low rise /æ:/ remained unchanged in Middle English but became close in Kent: OE *dǣlan* [dæ:lan], ME dealen [dɛ:len], ME delen [de:len] (the Kentish dialect), OE *slǣpan* [slæ:pan], ME *slepen* [sle:pen] (Kent). In the Northern dialects and in some parts ol Midlands both vowels could be found as they were distinguished already in the Anglian dialects of Old English: OE deēd deed, OE strēt *street* and OE dǣl *deal,* OE tǣcan *to teach.*

The short back vowel of the low rise /a/ was kept and remained unchanged in Middle English. In the Western dialects the nasalized variant of the phoneme before nasal consonants turned into */o/:* OE *lånd* [lånd], ME *land*, ME *lond* (in the West).

The long back vowel of the low rise /a:/ became rounded and raised into the long open vowel of the middle rise /ɔ:/ in Early Middle English in all dialects with the exception of the Northern dialects: OE *stān* [stɔ:n], ME stone [sto:n], ME *stane* [sta:n] in the North. This sound can be traced in Modern Scottish: *stane walls* and in the Yorkshire dialect: So I *turned back to gan hame.*

The main phonological results of all qualitative changes of monophthongs in the Middle English vocalic system can be seen in the replacement of the phonemes according to the dialect development, in the rise of a new vocalic contrast *open/closed* in the long vowel phonemes: /e:/: /ɛ:/, /o /: /ɔ:/ and in the increase in the number of long monophthongs. By the twelfth-thirteenth centuries the symmetry had been broken in the system of Early Middle English monophthongs with the loss of the long back vowel of the low rise /a:/ in the majority of the Middle English dialects and with the rise of two new long monophthongs. Two Old English sounds completely disappeared: /y/, /y:/ and the phoneme */a/* was fully established in the subsystem of short vowels. Long monophthongs became additionally contrasted with a new phonemic feature of *closeness/openness,* which short monophthongs lacked. This weakened the position of the correlation of quantity in the Early Middle English vocalic system and encouraged the further processes of its decay.

EME   i   u   i: u:
         e   o   e: o:
           a   ɛ: ɔ:

A consistent dialectal spelling representation of Middle English sound changes in written records of the period shows rather exactly their normal and regular distribution since Middle English spelling, being relatively phonetic, varied

from locality to locality as normalizing influences were not yet powerful. The existing written evidence implies that a particular sound change could show an individual rate of frequency in different Middle English local dialects, for example, the Old English nasalized variant /å/ of the short vowel phoneme /a/ before nasal consonants was normally reflected as the rounded vowel sound */o/* in the West Midlands: nom *he took,* mon *man,* lond *land,* con *can.* In the South West both pronouncing variant forms, the rounded /o/ and the unrounded /a/, could regularly appear before nasals side by side, whereas in other dialects the unrounded variant /a/ before nasal consonants was more usual.

The interaction between Middle English local dialects was also particularly strong in the bordering areas where speakers of neighbouring communities could be accustomed to different variants of pronunciation or could use intermediate forms of pronunciation. Generally, the East Midland dialects were closer to the speech of the Northerners, whereas the West Midland dialects had much in common with Southern speech. The extant Middle English written records usually include many specific dialectal forms that reflect features peculiar to other dialects, since writers could use variant forms from neighbouring areas to create necessary forms for convenience, copyists, scribes and transcribers tended to mix their own spelling forms with those of the original text and introduced numerous scribal peculiarities, authors could reproduce rather directly not only the comparative regularity, but also irregularity of their own speech or of the speech of their own community and sometimes displayed conservative tendencies in their writings. In fact, many Middle English written literary works, basically representing the dialectal character of the region where they were created, can show a complicated mixture of dialectal forms, for, example, one of the earliest Middle English romances *King Horn,* written in the thirteenth century, presents the Southern dialect with South-Easi and Midland forms and the famous poem *The Vision of William concerning Piers the Plowman* of the fourteenth century was basically written in the South Midland dialect with different admixtures.

3. The ruin of the system of Old English diphthongs and the rise of Middle English diphthongs

The subsystem of Old English diphthongs was ruined in Early Middle English when the diphthongs became simplified as a result of the monophthongization and merged with the identical monophthongs that phonetically coincided with the first element of the diphthongs: OE */ea/* [æa] > LOE /æ/ > EME */a/,* OE */ēa/* [æa:] > LOE /æ:/ > EME /ɛ:/, OE */ēo/* > EME */e:/,* OE eo > EME /e/. This can be illustrated by the next examples: OE *heard* [hæard], LOE (the eleventh century) *hærd* [hærd], EME *hard* [hard], OE *ēast* [æa:st], EME *east* [ɛ:st], OE *dēop* [deo:p], EME *deep.depe* [de:p], OE *heorte* [heorte], EME *herte* [herte].

The system of Middle English diphthongs that arose as a result of the process of vocalization of mediolingual and backlingual fricatives lost the contrast of

quantity and new diphthongs were no longer characterized as short or long. In Early Middle English, the Old English voiced palatal and velar fricatives [j], [y] and the semi-vowel /w/ were involved in the process of vocalization. In Late Middle English the process of vocalization timhraced the Old English voiceless palatal and velar fricatives [x], [x']. The phonetic mechanism of the development of a diphthong in earlier vocalization is usually described in the following way: the vowels which resulted from the vocalization of the voiced velar and palatal fricatives and tne semi-vowel /w/ formed a diphthong with a preceding vowel of the middle or of the low rise, for example, OE *dæʒ*[dæj] > EME *dæi /dæi/, dei* [dei], *dai, day* [dai], OE *weʒ* [wej] > EME *wei* [wei], OE laʒu |layu| > EME *lawe* [lauə], OE boʒa [boya] > EME *bowe* [bouə], OE *snāw* /sna:w/ > EME snow [snou]. In some cases the results of the vocalization of the sounds /y/ and /w/ coincided as in the following cases: OE āʒan [a:yan], EME *owen* [ouən] and OE ʒrōwan [gro: wan], EME *growen* [grouən]. The Middle English diphthong /eu/iu/ appeared as a result of the monophthongization of the Old English diphthongs and the vocali- zation of the semi-vowel /w/, for example, OE *fēawe* [fēawe] > ME *fewe* [feuə]. One of the results of the Middle English process of vocalization wns the rise of new short-lived diphthongs /iį/ and /uų/ that could be interpreted as monophonemic structures. The vocalization of the palatal fricalive /j/ after the front vowel of the high rise resulted in the development of the diphthong /iį/: OE tiʒol [tijol] > EME tiʒele, *tegel, tile* [tijl > tiil >ti:l]. The vocalization of the velar /y/ after the back vowel of the high rise resulted in the development of the diphthong /uų/: OE *fuʒol* [fuyol] > EME f*owel* [fuųəl], *foule* [fuųlə], A peculiar character of these diphthongs lies in their structure in which the first element (the nucleus) and the second element (the glide) were almost identical so that they were easily monophthongized.

The phonetical mechanism of the development of a diphthong as a result of the Late Middle English vocalization of the voiceless dorsal and vular fricatives /x'/, /x/ is traditionally explained by scholars through the appearance of the gliding sound between the fricative and the preceding sound, for example, OE *brōhte* [bro:xte] > EME broʒte [broxte] > LME *hinughte* [brouxtə], OE *tāhte* [ta:xte] > EME taʒte [taxte] > LME *taught /t*auxtə], OE *niht* [nix't] > ME *night* [niįx't], OE *eahta* [eax'ta] > EME *ehte /ex'te/* > LME *eighte* [eix'tə]. This process of vocalization is often reflected in spelling forms.

Nowadays some scholars believe that the rise of Middle English diphthongs as a result of the process of vocalization of mediolingual and backlingual fricatives greatly supported and favoured the general tendency of the development of the new correlation *checked/non-checked*, a new important phonological feature of English vowel phonemes, when some Middle English diphthongs could be interpreted as non-checked vowel phonemes.

In the thirteenth-fourteenth centuries the diphthong /oi/ appeared as the result of the process of borrowing of an element in the phonetic structure of some French loan-words, for example, *joy, point, boy, joint, choice,* etc. The following

considerations could possibly be given to explain rather a rare case of borrowing of a phonetic element. Firstly, it can show that the sociolinguistic context provided a sufficient number of French loanwords with the diphthong /oi/ in their phonetic structure for the speaker to become familiar with the sound in current communication. Secondly, the introduction of the new diphthong /oi/ was supported by a new system of native diphthongs that arose in Middle English. It could structurally be grouped into the i-glide subdivision.

The new Middle English diphthongs differed structurally from the Old English diphthongs that had been monophthongized. The first element ol Middle English diphthongs was more open and the second element was closer. They structurally fell into two subdivisions: with the second ele ment of the /i/-character and with the second element of the /u/-character. Genetically, they were mostly the result of the vocalization of some consonants. No more did long and short diphthongs exist which supports the general tendency to the ruin of the phonemic correlation of quantity in the sound system of Middle English. One of the important phonological results of the rise of a new system of Middle English diphthongs seems to be seen in the development of new diphthongs, some of which can be interpreted as monophonemic structures. It is thought that these monophonemic structures encouraged the process of the replacement of the vocalic correlation *short/long* by the correlation *checked/non-checked.* The system ol the Late Middle English diphthongs can be presented in the next scheme:

$$iį \qquad\qquad uų$$
$$ių / eų$$
$$eį \qquad oį \qquad oų$$
$$aį \qquad aų$$
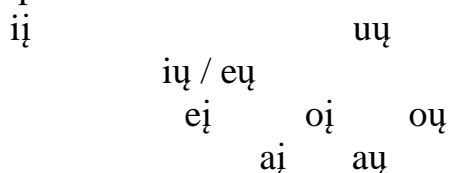
4. Quantitative sound changes in the system of Middle English vowel phonemes

The most noticeable quantitative sound changes that strongly affected the phonemic importance of the correlation of quantity in the system of Middle English monophthongs occurred in the twelfth-thirteenth centuries when the short vowels */e/, /o/, /a/* were lengthened in open syllables of disyllabic words: OE *stelan* [stelan], ME *stelen, stealen* [stɛ:len], OE *smocian* [smokian], ME *smoken* [smɔ:ken], OE *nama* [nama], ME *name* [na:me].The lengthening of the sounds */e/* and */o/* was accompanied with the phonetic process of opening. This sound change can rather inconsistently be reflected in spelling when the diagraph <ea>, <oa> were introduced to show the open vowels /ɛ:/, /ɔ:/ respectively and the diagraphs <ee>, <oo> were used for the close vowels */e:/, /o:/* respectively. The short vowels of the high rise */i/* and /u/ were affected only in the Northern dialects. In this case the vowels, while being lengthened, became open: OE *wicu* [wiku] > ME *weeke* [we:ke] (in the North), OE *duru* [duru] > ME *doore, dore* [do:re] (in the North). As a result of this quantitative sound change Middle English vowels became short or long depending on the position they stood in and the quantity of the vowel remained free only in monosyllabic words, such as, OE lïf [li:f], ME *life* [li:f], OE *bed* [bed], ME

bedd, bed [bed]. The dependence of the vowel quantity on the nature of the syllable is commonly believed to be the most striking and distinguishing feature of the Middle English vocalic system.This dependence of the quantity of the vowel on the position in the phonetic structure of the word and on the nature of the syllable further undermined the importance of the correlation of quantity. The only position in which the quantity of vowel could be free appeared not to be enough to keep phonological opposition of *length/shortness* in the system.

The phonological results of Middle English quantitative changes can be seen in the development of the long back vowel phoneme of the low rise /a:/, a correlate to the existing short vowel phoneme of the low rise, in the London dialect and in other dialects in which it had been missing and in the ruin and loss of the phonological correlation of quantity in the vocalic system of Middle English by the end of the Middle English period. The correlation short: long was gradually being replaced by the new correlation ch*ecked/non-checked* in the vocalic system. Phonetically short vowels were becoming to be interpreted as checked and phonetically long vowels as non-checked or free. The correlation *open/close* in long monophthongs Imoame functionally more strengthened. These sound changes also strengthened the position of long monophthongs in the Middle English vocalic system by increasing their functional load.

On the whole, as a result of all qualitative and quantitative sound changes the Middle English system of vowels became a system that was greatly characterized by a dialectal development. The Middle English vocalic system was basically transformed as the old correlation of quantity, one of the important phonological characteristics of a sound phoneme, was gradually replaced by a new correlation of contact. This was a slow and complicated process that was the result of radical changes in the inventory of monophthongs when their phonemic system became asymetrical as the number of long monophthongs exceeded the number of short monophthongs and this split with the time grew deeper, thus ruining the contrastive character of the correlation of quantity. This process also involved modifications in the consonant system from which mediolingual and backlingual fricatives had been removed after the process of vocalization and in which the position of forelingual fricatives became strengthened. The transformations of the vocalic system were also connected with the beginning of serious changes in the nature of the syllable and in the character of the syllabic division.

5. Conclusions

The English sound system has undergone various changes so that in some aspects the system of sounds was basically reconstructed. The phonetic changes of Modern English contributed much to the Modern English discrepancy between spoken and written English because the sound changes were mainly not recorded in writing as the system of writing was established in Late Middle English - Early Modern English. This has led to a great diversity and variety of graphic means of

representation of sounds and to a great discrepancy between the phonetic structure of the word and its written form.

Questions and tasks for self-control

1. The main changes in the Middle English spelling system. The introduction of new devices and the loss of some Old English letters
2. The establishment of the system of orthographic rules in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries
3. The etymological character of Modern English spelling
4. The main trends in the changes of unstressed vowels and the spread of reduction
5. The main theoretical approaches to the phonological interpretation of the Great Vowel Shift
6. Simplification of consonant clusters and the main syntagmatic changes of consonants in Middle and Modern English
7. Changes in the system of accentuation in the history of English
8. The historical aspect of the phonetic peculiarities of American English
9. The impact of sociolinguistic factors on the evolution of the English phonological system
10. The reduction of unstressed vowels in the final position and the main consequences of this phonetic process for the development of English

Lecture 8.
English Historical Phonetics
Part II

Plan:
1. Qualitative sound changes in the system of vowel phonemes in Modern English
2. Quantitative sound changes in the system of Early Modern English vowel phonemes
3. Sound changes in the system of consonant phonemes in the History English
4. The main stages of the reduction of vowels in the unstressed final position
5. Conclusions

References: 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 13.

1. Qualitative sound changes in the system of vowel phonemes in Modern English

The general tendencies that revealed themselves in the rebuilding of the vocalic system in Middle English were also shown in the main directions of Early Modern English development that involved all phonetically long vowels in a lengthy process of radical qualitative sound changes known as the Great Vowel Shift. This complicated process of the reshaping of the vocalic system was also interrelated with the vocalization of the liquids /I/, /r/ and with the instability of some Middle English diphthongs and with dynamic of the changes in the syllabic structure ol the words.

Much is left unsolved concerning this modification of long vowel phonemes: the chronological frames, their direction, the phonetic mechanism, the phonological essence and the phonological results. This series ol sound changes is almost universally assumed to have been active in the period from the fourteenth century to the seventeenth century and some of these changes may be thought to be operative in present-day English. It is assumed that the weakening and decay of the correlation of quantity in Middle English brought changes in the substance of vowel phonemes and made it easier for the new correlation of contact to establish itself in the phonemic system of vowel phonemes. So, the sound changes of tho Great Vowel Shift are thought to have been the second major source ol free (non-checked) vowels in the history of English. Free (non-checked) vowels are believed to have initially arisen in Late Middle English as the resylt of the vocalization of some fricatives.

There are several different approaches that aim at the explanation and the interpretation of the transformation of sound changes named the Great Vowel Shift. The famous "a push chain" and "a pull (drag) chain" theories, uggested by K. Luick and O. Jespersen respectively, focus on the phonetic procedure of the changes and on the nature of the impulse that started the changes. The phonological approach is actualized in the works by such pmminent linguists as, A. Martinet, B. Trnka, J. Vachek, A. Smirnitsky, V. Kviatkovskij, P. Wolfe, J. Welna, V. Plotkin and
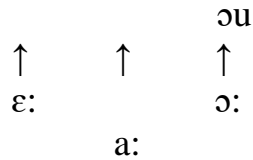
others. The sociolinguistic approach was probably firstly applied by H. Wyld in his much respected work *History of Modem Colloquial English* in which a detailed analysis of different stages of the modifications of vowel sounds is given wiih regard to dialectal and social variation reflected in different written documents, particularly private letters written in Early Modern English. Recently given explanations of the sound changes, for example, the one offered by the famous British linguist R. Lass, add a sociolinguistic treatment of the vowel changes to their phonological interpretation and recognize the possible impact of the social stratification (class, gender groupings) seen in the sociolinguistic and dialectal variation that existed in the London area of the late fifteenth-sixteenth centuries. The majority of contemporary scholars focus on the complicated character of these sound changes and regand the transformation of the vocalic system in Early Modern English im a complex language process that involved different aspects of the language development, such as, the radical changes of the Middle English sound system, the transition from the Middle English dominant disyllabic 'structure of the word to monosyllabic after the process of the reduction and complete loss of the final [ə] by the early fifteenth century, the dialectal variation and the influence of the normalizing tendencies. The changes in the syllabic division made the contact of the vowel with the following consonant mure important and favoured the development of the correlation of contact *(checked/non-checked)* in Late Middle English and Early Modern English. The establishment of the opposition *checked/non-checked* was attended and supported by the vocalization of the liquids /I/, /r/, by the decay of the correlation of quantity and was backed up by the instability of some of the Late Middle English diphthongs that became monophonemic structures.

The phonetic mechanism of the sound changes of the vocalic system is thought to be the raising and the narrowing of all Middle English phonetically long vowels of the middle rise and the diphthongization of the narrowest long vowels. These sound changes were gradual and systematic and affected all Middle English phonetically long, free monophthongs. The Late Middle English vocalic system included seven long vowels:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text{i:} & \text{u:} \\
\text{e:} & \text{o:} \\
\text{ɛ:} & \text{ɔ:} \\
& \text{a:} \\
\end{array}
$$

The presumed development of the Middle English phonetically long vowel monophthongs in Early Modern English can traditionally be shown in the following way:

$$
\begin{array}{cccccc}
\text{ai} \leftarrow \text{i:} & \text{i:} & \text{i:} & & \text{u:} & \text{u:} \rightarrow \text{au} \\
& \uparrow & \uparrow & & & \uparrow \\
& \text{e:} & \text{e:} & & & \text{o:} \\
& \uparrow & & \text{ei} & & \\
\end{array}
$$

ɔu
                        ↑   ↑   ↑
                        ɛ: ɔ:
                                a:

The main stages of the changes of the long vowel of the high rise */i:/* can traditionally be presented in the following chain of sound changes: ME /i:/- /ii/ — /ei/ -,/æi/-* /ai/ (after H. Wyld) or ME /i:/-/ij/ — /ai/ (after j G. L. Brook): ME *lyfe, life* [li:f], MnE *life* [laif]. The chronological stages ol the development of the phonetically long vowel phoneme of the high rise/u:/ can be shown in thefollowing way:

            15c   16c   17c   18c
        /u:/→ /uu̯/   → /ɔu/   →/eu/   →/au/   (after G. L. Brook)
    or
        /u:/ →/uu̯/   →/eu/   →/əu/   → /au/ (after Ch Barber)

The development of the long sound of the low rise /a:/ is traditionally assumed to have been such as given in the following chain of sound changes:

ME   15 c   16 c   17 c   18 c
    /a:/ → /æ:/ →   →/ɛ:/   → /e:/   →/ei/   (after G. L. Brook)
    make [ma:ke] →mæ: k   →mɛ: к   →me: k   →meik]

Some more examples to illustrate the changes of the Great Vowel Shift can be provided: ME *hous, house* [hu:s], MnE *house* [haʊs], ME nu, *nou, now* [nu:], MnE *now* [naʊ], ME *child* [ʧi:ld], MnE *child* [ʧaild], ME sen, *seen* [se:n], MnE *see* [si:], ME *meten* [me:ten], MnE *to meet* [mid], Ml se, *sæ, sea* [sɛ:], MnE sea [si:], ME *mete* [mɛ:t], MnE *meat* [mi:t], ME mone, *moone* [mo:ne], MnE *moon* [mu:n], ME *gos*, *goos* [go:s], MnE *goose* [gu:s], ME *hoom, home* [hɔ:m], MnE *home,* Br.E [həʊm], Am. E. [hoʊm], ME *open* [ɔpen], MnE *open,* Br.E [əʊpən], Am. E. [oʊpən], ME *name* [na:me], MnE *name* [neim], ME *fame* [fa:me], MnE *fame* [feim], ME *kas,kaas, case* [ka: s], MnE *case* [keis], ME *blame* [bla:me], MnE *blame* [bleim].

The development of the long vowel phoneme /ɛ:/ went the following way: /ɛ:/ > /e:/ > /i:/, as for example, ME *sæ, se, see, sea* [sɛ:], MnE sea [si:], but in few words this sound /ɛ:/ developed into the diphthong /ei/ as in the words: ME *grǽte, grete, greet, great* [grɛ:t], MnE *great* [gre:t > gri:d > greit] and ME *breken* [brɛ:ken], MnE *break* [breik]. The explanation for the appearance of these forms can probably be found in the dialectal variation and in this case they reflect the introduction of dialectal forms into the national literary standard. The rhyme in the Modern English reading of Early Modern English sonnets is sometimes not heard because of these sound changes and is recognized as an instance of an eye rhyme.

    Sonnet 61
    O, no! thy love, though much, is not so great:
    It is my love that keeps mine eye awake;
    Mine own true love that doth my rest defeat

To play the watchman ever for thy sake

W. Shakespeare

The phonological results of the Great Vowel Shift can be seen in the 'following changes: the final establishment of the correlation *checked/free (non-checked)* in English, the disappearance of the correlation *close/open* in the system of long vowels, the decrease in the number of phonetically long vowels that were present in the Middle English vocalic system. After the operation of the Great Vowel Shift the diphthongs and the phonetically long monophthongs, being non-checked vowel phonemes, are opposed to the phonetically short, checked vowel phonemes so that the diphthongs do not represent a separate system of vowels any longer. Some scholars believe that certain changes that can be observed in Modern English when diphthongs are monophthongized as they are opposed not to long but to short monophthongs can be perceived and explained in the framework of the conception of the rise of the phonological correlation *checked/ non-checked* in the English phonological system.

The radical changes in the Early Modern English vocalic system not only involved the modifications of the phonetically long vowels, but also greatly reformed the system of Middle English diphthongs. The driving forces behind these changes were the instability of Middle English diphthongs, the weakening of the contrast *long/short* in the Middle English sound system and the increase in the operation of the contrast *checked/ non-checked* in the vocalic system. The development of Middle English diphthongs in Early Modern English can be characterized by three main tendencies: the preservation or the phonetic modification of some of the Middle English diphthongs and the rise of new diphthongs.

The Middle English diphthong /ɔi/ that was a French borrowing showed stability which may be explained by functional restrictions imposed by its French origin, for example, *boy* [bɔi], *toy* [tɔi], *point* [pɔint].

The Middle English diphthongs /eu̯/ and /au̯/, which were hypothetically biphonemic structures at the first stage of the vocalization of the fricatives and due to that unstable, merged into the diphthong /æi/ which later developed into */ei/* and coincided with the diphthong */ei/* that developed as a result of the Great Vowel Shift from the long vowel /a:/, thus supporting K. Luick's "push chain" theory about the impulse of the Great Vowel Shift, for example, ME *dai* [dau̯], EMnE *day* [dei], LMnE [dei], ME wey, *way* [weu̯]. EMnE *way* [wei], LMnE [wei].

The tendency to the establishment of the dominant position of the con trast of contact and the transformation of the vocalic system made it easier for the Middle English diphthongs /au̯/ and /ou̯/ which were the result of the vocalization of the fricatives to be interpreted as monophonemic structures and to develop into the non-checked vowel /ɔ:/ that replaced the Middle English vowel of the middle rise, for example, LME *broughte* [brou̯xtə], EMnE *brought* [brou̯t > brɔ:t], LME *cause* [kau̯zə], EMnE *cause* [kɔ:z], LMI *tnughte* [tau̯xtə], EMnE *taught* [tau̯t > tɔ:t]. The

Middle English diphthong / ɔu/ was preserved mostly in the words where it was the result of the vocalization of the semi-vowel /w/: OE *snāw,* ME snawe, snogh, snowe [snɔu], MnE snow [snou] and coincided with the diphthong /ou/ that developed in Early Modern English as a result of the Great Vowel Shift from the long vowel /ɔ:/, later in the present day British standard it became /əʊ/: snow [snəʊ].

   The Middle English diphthongs /iį/ and /uų/, being interpreted as mono-phonemic structures very early, developed into long vowels /i:/ and /u:/ in the fifteenth century and afterwards developed into the diphthongs */ai/* and /au/ as a part of a series of sound changes of the Great Vowel Shift, for example, ME *night* [niįxt], EMnE *night* [ni:t >nait], LMnE [nait], ME *towel* [fuųəl], EMnE *fowl* [fu:l >faul], LMnE [faʊl].

   The Middle English diphthong /eų/ /ių/ developed into the diphthong ju: / probably under the influence of French. It was interpreted as a biphonemic structure that was unstable from the late fifteenth century and later developed into the cluster of [u:] with the preceding [j], for example, OE (WS) *nīewe, nīwe,* (non-WS) *nīowe, nēowe,* ME *niwe, neuwe, neoue, new* [neų], EMnE *new* [nju:], OE (WS) *hīew, hīw,* (non-WS) *hīow, hēow,* ME *heou, hewe, hew, hiu, hiwe* [hiųwe, hiųe], EMnE *hue* [hju:]. The sonorant [j] tended to be removed from the cluster with [u:] in stressed syllables after some consonants, for example, MnE *blue* [blu:], MnE *grew* [gru:]. The variation within the literary norm exists in present day British English, for example, MnE *suit* [suit], [sjuit], MnE *illuminate* [i lu:mineit], [i lju:imineit] and there is difference between British and American English, for example MnE *tune* [tju:n] (British), [tu:n] (American).

   Modern English diphthongs could be not only the result of the vowel modifications, but they could also emerge as a result of the phonetic process of the vocalization of liquids. Two liquids were vocalized in Modern Enqlish: /I/ and /r/. Phonetically, in this vocalization a glide usually developed before the liquid which later merged with the preceding vowel into a diphthongoid. This diphthongoid then developed into a non-checked vowel phoneme, for example, the vocalization of the liquid [I] which started wilh the development of the [u]-glide in the fifteenth century resulted in the appearance of short-lived diphthongs that in the sixteenth century developed into non-checked vowels [ɔ:] and [a:], for example, LME *al, all* [al], MnE *all* [aul > ɔ:l], LME *half* [half], MnE *half* [haulf > ha:f]. Sometimes the process of the development was not completed and the diphthong was preserved, as for example, in the word MnE *folk*: ME *folc, folk* [folk], MnE folk [foulk>fouk], LMnE [fəʊk] (British), [foʊk] (American). This vocalization is thought to have been one of the sources of the rise of the phonetically long non-checked vowels /ɔ:/ and / a:/ in Modern English vocalic system.

   The vocalization of the liquid /r/ that started in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries influenced the development of both checked and non-checked vowels with different results. After non-checked vowels the so-called "centralized" diphthongs appeared, the first element of which historically was the result of the

development of Middle English long monophthongs after the Great Vowel Shift, and the second element was the neutral dorsal vowel /ə/. The vocalization of /r/ began in the fifteenth century with the development of the /ə/-glide between a non-checked vowel and the liquid. The complete vocalization is thought to have taken place in the eighteenth century in the British standard, in American English the vocalization of the liquid /r/ was not completed, for example, ME fire [fi:re], MnE fire [fair >ᐧ faiər > faiə(r)], LMnE [faiə] (British), [fair] (American).

Modern English dictionaries that register the current norm of pronunciation give the following dynamics in pronouncing forms which show a variable character of the vocalization of the liquid /rl in the final position in British English.

Daniel Jones (1957)	**A. S. Hornby (2005)**
pore Br. E. [pɔə] [pɔ:]	Br. E. [pɔ:(r)]
poor Br. E. [puə] [pɔə]	Br. E. [pɔ:(r)] [pʊə(r)]
moor Br. E. [muə]	Br. E. [mɔ: (r)] [mʊə(r)]

The regular results of the vocalization of the liquid /r/ in the final position are as follows:

ME	**EMnE**	**LMnE**	
ME /i:r/	/aiər/	/aiə/>/aiə/ (Br. E.), /aiər/ (Am. E.) fire, shire, tire, tyre, wire	
ME /e:/	/iər/	/iə/>/iə/,/iər/ (Br. E.), /ir/ (Am. E.) beer, dear, here, hear, near	
ME /ɛ:/	/ɛər/	/ɛə)/>/eə/,/eər/ (Br.E.), /er/ (Am. E.) bear, there, wear	
ME /ɛ:/	/iər/	/iə/>/iə/,/iər/ (Br. E.), /ir/ (Am. E.) fear, clear, ear	
ME /u:/	/auər/	/auə/>/aʊə/ (Br. E.), /aʊər/ (Am. E.) flower, power, flour, tower,	
ME /o:/	/uər/	/uə/>/ʊə/>/ɔ:/, /ɔ:r/ (Br. E.)> /ʊr/, /ɔ:r/ (Am. E.) poor, moor	
ME /ɔ:/	/ɔər/	/oə/>/ɔ:/ (Br. E.), /ɔ:r/ (Am. E.) boar, roar, ore, oar, more	
ME /a:/	/ɛər/	/ɛə/>/eə/ (Br. E.), /er/ (Am. E.) fare, dare, care, share	

The vocalization of the liquid /r/ after the checked vowels /e/, /i/, /u/ led to the rise of the new phoneme/ɜ:/that is non-checked, unrounded, centraland long, for example, LME turnen [turnən], MnE turn [tɜ:n], Am. E. [tɜ:rn], LME serven [servən], MnE serve [sɜ:v], Am. E. [Sɜ:rv], ME first [first], MnE hirst [fɜ:st] Am. E. [fɜ:rst]. The vocalization of the liquid /r/ after the back vowels /o/ and /a/ led to the appearance of the non-checked vowels /ɔ:/ and /a:/, for example, ME sport [sport], MnE sport [spɔ:t], Am. E. [spɔ:rt], Ml hard [hard], MnE hard [ha:d], Am. E. [ha:rd]. It is assumed that in the case of the vocalization after the checked vowels, the loss of the liquid /r/ in British English was phonetically compensated with the lengthening which resulted in the rise of the new non-checked vowel phonemes /a:/ /ɔ:/ /ɜ:/, in the American variant this process attends the partial vocalization of the liquid.

The phonological results of the vocalization of the liquids in Modern English can be thought to be the following: the emergence of the free (non-checked) vowel

phoneme /ɜ:/, the rise of a new set of diphthongs, tlm so-called "centralized" diphthongs, the increase of the functional load of it the new free (non-checked) vowel phonemes /a:/ and /ɔ:/.

Qualitative sound changes of short vowels in Modern English were not numerous. Only two Middle English vowels out of five were affected in Modern English: the short vowel of the low rise /a/ and the short vowel of the high rise /u/. In the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries the Middle English /a/ regularly developed into Modern English /æ/, for example, ME *man* |man], MnE *man* [mæn]. This development had different results depending on the phonetic structure of the word: ME /a/ > MnE E /ɔ/ > /ɒ/ (after labials), as in ME *hwat* [(h) ʌat], MnE *what* Br. E. [wɒt], and ME *lal* > MnE /æ/ > /æ:/ >/a:/ (before the consonant /sl and the consonant clusters /nt/, /ft/) as in ME *grass* [gras], MnE *grass* [græs] > [græ:s] > [gra:s] (British English). The phonetic results of the development of the Middle English /a/ in American English are different, for example, Am. E. what [wa:t, wʌt], Am. E. grass [græs], after [æftər].

In the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries the Middle English back phoneme of the high rise *lul* split into two vowels: /u/ and /ʌ/. The back, phonetically short vowel of the high rise /u/ became wide and lost labialization in some positions in which it was replaced by the phoneme /ʌ/, for example, ME *loven* [luven], MnE *to love* [lʌv], This replacement usually did not occur when the sound /u/ stood after the labial consonants /p/, /b/, /f/, /w/: MnE wolf [wʊlf], MnE bull [bʊl], MnE full [fʊl] but this substitution is characterized by an inconsistent operation, for example, on the one hand, MnE sugar [ʃʊgə], MnE cushion [kʊʃən] and, on the other hand, MnE butter [bʌtə], MnE pub [pʌb], MnE fumble [fʌmbəl]. The vowel /u/ in all positions is still preserved in some local accents, for example, in the Northern dialects of Yorkshire and Lancashire.

The rhyme in the Modern English reading of Early Modern English sonnets is sometimes broken because of different forms of pronunciation of the words in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries and in present-day reading.

Sonnet 116

Let me not to the marriage of true minds
Admit impediments. Love is not love   [u]
Which alters when it alteration finds,
Or bends with the remover to remove   [u]

W. *Shakespeare*

The sound changes of vowels in Modern English brought about the fundamental transformation of the whole vocalic system. These sound I changes that were gradual and systematic were practically not reflected in spelling as the spelling of English was mainly fixed before their operation.

2. Quantitative sound changes in the system of Early Modern English vowel phonemes

There were only some cases of quantitative sound changes in Modern English. The lengthening of short vowels occurred in British English before the consonantal clusters /st/ /ft/ /nt/, before /s/ in the final position, as in the examples: ME *blast* [blast], MnE *blast* [bla:st], ME *after* [after], MnE *after* [a:ftə], ME *plant* [plant], MnE *plant* [pla:nt], ME *glass* [glas], MnL *glass* [gla:s].

The shortening of long vowels occurred in British and American English before certain consonants, such as the dentals /d/ /tl/ /ə/ in the sixteenth century: ME *good, flood* [o:], MnE *good* [o: > u: > u > ʊ], *flood* [u >ʌ], ME *breeth, breath* [brɛ:ə], MnE *breath* [brɛ:ə > bre:ə > breə], before the velar /k/ in the eighteenth century: ME *book, bocke* [o:], MnE book [o: > u: > u > ʊ]. This change was not actualized before the voiced consonant [ð]: ME *brethen* [bre:ðen], MnE *breathe* [bre:ð > bri:ð].

3. Sound changes in the system of consonant phonemes in the History English

The development of the system of consonants has not been accompanied by numerous sharp sound changes and the consonant sound system can generally be characterized as conservative, though few alterations that can be stated brought some changes into the inventory of the consonant phonemes. The dominant changes in the transformation of the consonant system were closely connected and sometimes intertwined with the phonetic processes that modified the system of vowels, though the system of consonants showed more diachronic stability.

The system of the Late Old English consonants that included plosives (labials: /p/ /b/, dentals: /t/ /d/, velar: */k/ /q/),* fricatives (forelingual: /f - v/ /ə – ð/ /s - z/, mediolingual (palatal): */x'* - j/, backlingual: */x* - y/), sonorous sounds (nasals: /n/ /m/, liquids: /I/ /r/), the glottal phoneme */h/,* the semi-vowel /w/, affricates: (/tʃ/ /dʒ/), the sibilant /ʃ/ was characterized by the tallowing features: the presence of the correlation *short/long,* the absence at the voiced counterpart (the correlative phoneme) to the voiceless sibilant /ʃ/, the absence of sonority within the set of fricative consonants, that i the voiced and voiceless fricative sounds were allophones: forelingual: /f -v/ /ə - ð/ /s - z/, mediolingual (palatal): */x'* - j/, backlingual: */x* - y/.

One of the notable features of the transformation of the consonantal system was the loss of the correlation *short/long* when the feature of quantity became non-distinctive for the Middle English consonants before the end of the fourteenth century. The main motives behind this change that went at the same time as the ruin of the corresponding correlation in the vocalic system were the defective character of the contrast already in Old English, changes in the syllabic structure of the word and the elimination of some syllabic patterns connected with the dropping of the final [ə], the increasing dialectal variation and the interpenetration of dialectal influences. The letter designations for long consonants in Late Middle English began to show that the vowel grapheme before them should be read ns a short vowel so that the graphic doubling of consonant graphemes was misinterpreted, for example, OE *sumor* [sumor], ME *summer, sommer* [sumər], OE *cele* [k'ele], *ciele*

[k'iele], LME *chill* [tʃil], ME *banner,* Old French *baniere, banere,* ME *manner,* Old French *maniere,* Anglo-French ma*nere.* This graphic device became possible only after the correlation of quantity in the consonantal system had ceased to function.

One of the earliest changes of consonants took place in the subsystem of fricatives when the mediolingual and backlingual fricatives that had a restricted character of functioning in Old English were removed as a result of the vocalization from the system of consonants. This change was probably one of the factors that strengthened the position of forelingual fricatives in which the correlation of voicing began to be established, thus starting to penetrate the whole consonantal system. In the twelfth-fourteenth centuries the correlation *voiced/voiceless* was established in the subsystem of the forelingual fricatives. The main motives for this change are seen by the Polish scholar J. Wetna in the loss of the consonantal correlation *long/short,* in the process of borrowing French words, in the voicing of /f/ and /s/ in the Southern dialects and in the loss of the final unstressed */ə/.* The loss of the correlation *long/short* in the system of consonants led to the direct contrast of voiced and voiceless fricatives in the intervocalic position: (OE) Vf:V : VvV > (ME) VfV : VvV, (OE) Vs:V : VzV > (ME) VsV : VzV, (OE) VΘ:V : VðV > (ME) VΘV : VðV, for example, OE *offrian* [of:rian], ME *offeren* [oferən], MnE *offer,* OE *ofer* [over], ME *over* [ɔ:ver], MnE *over.* The borrowing of French words in the phonetic structure of which voiced fricatives occurred in the initial position, the same as the voicing of /f/ and /s/ in the initial position in the South, led to the following contrast: (ME) fV: vV, (ME) sV : zV, for example, ME *veyne* [veinə], OF *veine,* MnE *vein,* ME *feynen, feinen* [feinən], OF *feindre,* MnE *to feign,* OE *sinne,* ME *sin, zin* (South), MnE *sin.* The loss of the final unstressed */ə/* and the unstressed inflection in the infinitive left voiced fricatives in the final position, for example, OE *nosu* [nozu], ME *nose* [nɔ:zə], MnE *nose* (Br. E. [nəʊz], Am. E. [noʊz]), OE *cēosan* [k'ēozan], ME *chesen* [tʃezən], *chosen* [tʃo:zən], MnE *choose* [tʃu:z].

The phonological results of the changes in Middle English consonant system are as follows: the correlation *voiced/voiceless* penetrated into the subsystem of the fricative phonemes and embraced the whole system of plosive and fricative phonemes with the exception of the voiceless /ʃ/ which still lacked a voiced correlative phoneme; the number of the forelingual fricative phonemes doubled, as a result of the split of forelingual fricatives; in Middle English the subsystem of fricative phonemes lost the mediolingual fricatives /j/ and /x'/ and backlingual fricatives /y/ and /x/ as the result of the vocalization; the correlation *long/short* was lost. There was no marked regional variation of consonant phonemes in Middle English, except the southern dialects in which the voicing of fricatives was seen.

In Early Modern English the correlation *voiced/voiceless* in the subsystem of plosives /p/ /b/, /t/ /d/ /k/ /g/ was replaced by the correlation *aspirated (fortis) Znon-aspirated (lenis).* In Late Middle English or Early Modern English the final [g] was lost in the cluster [ng] and this change resulted in the rise of the dorsal nasal sonorant

consonant phoneme /ŋ/, for example, *ring* ME [ring], MnE [riŋ].

In the period from the late half of the fifteenth century and well into the seventeenth century, sometimes the twentieth century, the clusters /tj/ /dj/ /sj/ /zj/ were assibilated in word-medial positions in borrowed lexemes. The phonetic mechanism of these changes which are regarded as syntagmatic is the assimilation within the clusters with the palatal /j/, for example, the cluster [sj] was assibilated into [ʃ] in the fifteenth-seventeenth centuries: *mission* [misjən > miʃn], the cluster [zj] was assibilated into [ʒ] in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries: *pleasure* [plezjər > pieʒə], the cluster [dj] was assibilated into [ʤ] in the eighteenth-twenty-first centuries: s*oldier* [soldjer > 'səʊlcʤə], the cluster [tj] was assibilated into [ʧ] in the eighteenth-twentieth centuries: *picture* ['piktje(r) > piktʃə], *situation* [sitju'eiʃən >,sitʃu'eiʃən]. Fluctuations in the pronunciation of these clusters within the British and American pronouncing norms are widely observed, lor example, *issue* (Br. E.) ['ɪʃu:], [i'ɪsju:], (Am. E.) ['ɪʃu:], *glacier* (Br. E.) ['glæsiə], (Am. E.) [gleɪʃər].

The phonological result of the Modern English assibilation was the rise ol the voiced correlative phoneme /ʒ/ to the voiceless sibilant /ʃ/, the enlargement of the functional load and the distribution of the affricates /ʤ/ /tʃ/ and the sibilant /ʃ/. The new phoneme /ʒ/ had a limited character of distribution after the phonetic process of assibilation. It was met in word-medial positions: *measure* ['meʒə], *casual* ['kæʒuəl]. Later its distribution was extended with the appearance of French borrowings in Modern English: *rouge* [ru:ʒ], *mirage* [mi'ra:ʒ], *genre* Br. E ['ʒɒnrə], Am. E. ['ʒa:nrə]. Almost all consonant changes of Modern English have not been reflected in orthography.

4. The main stages of the reduction of vowels in the unstressed final position

A typological feature of Early Common Germanic was the possibility of any vowel, be it long, short or a diphthong, to stand in the unstressed position, but unstressed long vowels were gradually shortened in the final positions and unstressed diphthongs were replaced by monophthongs already in Late Common Germanic and later in the pre-written periods of the development of separate Old Germanic languages. In Old English the vowels of the unaccented final syllables were /e - i/, /o - u/, /a/ which often fluctuated as they were not sometimes opposed in the word paradigm, for example, OE woruld, weorold *world*, snottor, snottur *wise*, mōdor, mōder *mother*. The lack of the contrastive quality in the paradigm of one and the same word made the process of reduction of vowels in the unaccented syllables possible and easy. The reduction of unstressed vowels went more intensively in Middle English when all vowels in the unaccented final position were levelled and reduced to -e, for example, OE bindan *to bind,* EME binden, LME binde(n), OE stānas *stones*, ME stones. The fluctuation in the quality of unstressed vowels in endings was still present in Earlyiddle English dialects, for example, askid *asked*, bundin *bound* in the Northern dialects. Fernand Mosse writes that the final unstressed -e acquired the /ə/-quality in the twelfth century and was dropped, little

by little, in the pronunciation, first in the thirteenth century in the North and in the fourteenth century in the Midlands and South. By general assumption the final loss of the unstressed final endings took place in the fifteenth century. This phonetic process of the complete reduction of the unstressed final /ə/ is closely connected with important changes in the syllabic structure of the word, with the transformation of the English morphology and syntax, with great changes in the lexical system of the English language, such as the appearance of homophones, homonyms and the development of conversion as one of the most productive means of word-formation.

5. Conclusions

The English sound system has undergone various changes so that in some aspects the system of sounds was basically reconstructed. The phonetic changes of Modern English contributed much to the Modern English discrepancy between spoken and written English because the sound changes were mainly not recorded in writing as the system of writing was established in Late Middle English - Early Modern English. This has led to a great diversity and variety of graphic means of representation of sounds and to a great discrepancy between the phonetic structure of the word and its written form.

Questions and tasks for self-control

1. The main changes in the Middle English spelling system. The introduction of new devices and the loss of some Old English letters
2. The establishment of the system of orthographic rules in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries
3. The etymological character of Modern English spelling
4. The main trends in the changes of unstressed vowels and the spread of reduction
5. The main theoretical approaches to the phonological interpretation of the Great Vowel Shift
6. Simplification of consonant clusters and the main syntagmatic changes of consonants in Middle and Modern English
7. Changes in the system of accentuation in the history of English
8. The historical aspect of the phonetic peculiarities of American English
9. The impact of sociolinguistic factors on the evolution of the English phonological system
10. The reduction of unstressed vowels in the final position and the main consequences of this phonetic process for the development of English

Lecture 9.
Development of the English Grammatical System
Part I

Plan:
1. Introduction
2. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the noun system
   A. The development and the elimination of the category of gender
   B. The development and the modification of the category of number
   C. The development and the modification of the category of case
3. The major transformations in the system of the adjective
4. Conclusion

References: 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 13.

1. Introduction

In the course of its evolution the Old English morphological system of highly developed inflexions underwent serious changes which led to the simplification of its inflexional character in later periods. The main reasons for this transformation were the reduction of unstressed syllables, partial or complete, the result of which was the functional weakening of endings; fluctuations of some grammatical endings and their homonymy in Old English that favoured the development of numerous formations by analogy. The process of the simplification of the inflectional system is thought to have been intensetied by the influence of Scandinavian dialects in which this process of simplification went faster and obviously this influence was more felt in the Northern dialects, whereas the Southern dialects remained more conservative.

2. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the noun system

Changes in the noun system are observed through the modifications of all grammatical nominal categories. It is generally assumed that the grammatical category of gender in the system of the noun fell into decline presumably in the eleventh-twelfth centuries. This process went intensively already in the tenth century in the Northern dialects and led to early elimination of gender noun distinctions.This feature became one of the particular characteristics of these dialects. The main factors that caused the process of gender simplification are supposed to have been morphological, syntactical and semantic. Morphological causes are seen in the weakening of the endings due to the reduction of unstressed vowels the evident result of which was the development of homonymous forms in llio morphological system and in the operation of analogy which resulted In shifting endings from larger morphological groups to smaller ones, thus destroying the former system of stem-declensions. The evident result of the action of analogy was also fluctuations in gender of some nouns.

Homonymous endings in the noun paradigm developed very early M> that nouns of neuter and masculine gender in the a-stem declension mixed their grammatical forms already in Old English:

	Sing. Masculine	Neuter	Pl. Masculine	Neuter
Norn., Acc.	stān	scip	stānas	scipu
Gen.	stān es	scipes	stāna	scipa
Dat.	stāne	scipe	stānum	scipum

In Middle English this process was greatly intensified so that nouns of the feminine gender of former different Old English declensions mixed their forms in the singular with masculine / neuter forms.

ME	Sing. Masc. / Neuter (-a-) (OE stān)	Fem. (-o-) (OE caru)
Nom., Acc.	stone [stɔ:n]	care
Gen.	stones	cares
bat.	ston(e)	care

The most important syntactical factor that occasioned changes of the limmmatical category of gender was the loss of the inflectional endings in the declension of adjectives and demonstrative pronouns the morphological forms of which were one of the ways to show the gender attribution of the noun with which the adjectival and pronominal forms were agreed. For example, in Old English the forms of the adjective and of the demonstrative pronoun are used with the dative inflexion to show the masculine and neuter gender after the preposition *mid:* mid rihtum ʒelēafan *with a just belief*; mid þæm worde *with that word* in Ælfric's Homilies (the tenth century), whereas in Middle English the forms of the adjective and of the demonstrative pronoun in the prepositional word-phrase with the same preposition lost the forms of agreement to show number, gender or case: mid micel wurtscipe *with the great ceremony* (The Peterborough Chronicle, the twelfth century), mid te word *with that word* (Ancrene Riwle, the thirteenth century).

In Old English there was a small group of nouns in which the grammatical gender contradicted the lexical meaning of the word, for example, Old English wīfman (m) *woman*, mæʒden, mæden (n) *maiden, girl,* wīf (n) *woman, wife.* These nouns denoted living beings and they were usually replaced or used with a corresponding personal or possessive pronoun of the third person singular which differentiated and specified the natural gender orientation of the noun. This

tendency was kept up in Middle English and it weakened semantically the grammatical gender meanings in the nouns, for example, the following lines from the poem of the thirteenth century *The Thrush and the Nightingale,* the West Midland dialect:

> Of a maide meke and midle
> Of hire sprong ρat holi bern
> Þboren wes in Bedlehem?
> And temeρ al ρat is widle

> Because of a meek and mild maiden
> From her that holy child was born?
> The one that was born in Bethlehem
> And who tames all which is wild

(II. 170-174)

The grammatical gender classification of nouns gradually gave place to a semantic division of nouns into animate and inanimate. By the time of Chaucer the grammatical category of gender of nouns is thought to have completely disappeared. Some stylistically marked references to gender through personification can still be found in Modern English.

> The Ancient Mariner
> *The Sun now rose upon the right:*
> *Out of the sea came he,*
> *Still hid in mist, and on the left*
> *Went down into the sea.*

> *Samuel Taylor Coleridge (b. 1772 - d. 1834)*

The possessive pronoun for masculine animate or inanimate nouns was *his* till the seventeenth century.

> Sonnet 116
> *Love's not Time's fool, though rosy lips and cheeks*
> *Within his bending sickle's compass come;*
> *Love alters not with his brief hours and weeks,*
> *But bears it out even to the edge of doom.*

> *W. Shakespeare*

On the whole, the elimination of the grammatical category of gender was a gradual and complicated process in which many operating factors were at work. This process is characterized by the unification and elimination of stem-division of nouns which was the result of homonymy of inflectional louns and their weakening due to the reduction of unstressed vowels and the operation of analogy; by gender fluctuations and the contradiction between the lexical and grammatical meanings of some nouns; by the weakening of the agreement in the syntactical structure of a sentence through the simplification of the declensions of adjectives and demonstrative pronouns ns a result of the reduction and the loss of inflectional

endings; by the probable influence of Scandinavian dialects which quickened this process in the Northern dialects through the confusion of gender endings.

The grammatical category of number has been preserved in Modern English but the means of its expression have changed. In Old English the plural endings were dependent on gender and on the stem declension of nouns. In the vocalic stems plural endings were: -as, -ø, -u (the a-stems), for example, stānas (Masculine) *stones,* word (Neuter) *words,* scipu (Neuter) *ships*; -a, -e (the ō-stems), for example, sāwla, -e (Feminine) *souls;* -e, a, -as (the i-stems), for example, giestas (Masculine) *guests,* cwēne, -a (Feminine) queens; -a (the u-stems), for example, suna (Masculine) sons, lianda (Feminine) *hands.* In the consonantal stems plural endings were as follows: -an (the n-stems), for example, guman (Masculine) *men,* tungan (Feminine) *tongues*; -ø, -tru (the r-stems), for example, dohtor, -tru, -tra (Feminine) *daughters*; -ru (s-stems), for example, cildru (Neuter) *children; ø* , -as (the nd-stems), for example, freond, -as (Masculine) *friends.* And there was a small group of nouns with the inner inflection: fōt - fēt (the root-stems) *foot - feet.*

Already in Old English there appeared a tendency for the unification of plural endings in the noun paradigm. This process was intensified in Early Middle English due to some factors the most powerful of which were the weakening of endings because of the reduction of unstressed vowels and the operation of analogy. In Middle English the number of plural inflexions was reduced to five basic types: the inflexions -es, -en, -ø, -e and the inner inflexion of the former Old English root-forms. The Old English ending -as of the a-stems was reduced to the ending -es in Middle English, for example, OE stānas, ME stones.This ending was transferred to nouns of different Old English stems by analogy, for example, OE fetera (the Old English o-stem), ME fetteres *fetters.* The Old English plural ending -an found in the n-stems was reduced to the ending -en in Middle English, for example, OE naman, ME namen *names.* This ending could also be added to form plurals of nouns of different Old English stems by analogy. In some cases this ending could be added to the Old English plurals to reinforce the grammatical meaning of plurality when the older forms were no longer perceived as plurals, for example, OE cildru, ME chilre(n) *children.* The Old English endings of different stems, such as -a, -e, -u were levelled to the ending -e in Middle English, for example, OE tiʒola, ME tigele, tile *tiles.* Some neuter nouns of Old English a-stems kept their plural forms with the zero ending -ø, for example, OE scēap, ME shep, sheep *sheep.* Most of the Old English root- stems also kept their plural forms in Middle English: ME foot (Sing.) - ME fet, feet (Pl.), ME gos, goos (Sing.) - ME ges, gees, geese (Pl.), ME man, mon (Sing.) - ME men (Pl.). The Middle English plurals were not equally represented in different local dialects, for example, in the Southern dialects the plural ending -es, outside former a-stems, is not usual before the thir teenth century, but the older forms, particularly the weak forms with the plu ral ending -en, are more typical. Out of the wide diversity of Middle English plural endings the inflexion -es appeared to be the most clearly marked, phonetically stable and functionally dominant. It was

shifted to other nouns historically of different stem-declensions. By the end of the Middle English period this inflexion had become the common plural inflexion of nouns in Midland and Northern dialects. In the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries this plural ending became the standard literary norm.

Loan-words from other languages, if not fully assimilated, have kept the original plural forms, for example, stratum (Lat. strātum) - (PI.) strata, terminus (Lat. termĭnus) - (PI.) termini, radius (Lat. rădius) - (PI.) radii, phenomenon (Gr.φαινόμενον, pi. -μενα) – (PI.) phenomena, crisis [kraisis] (Gr.κρίσις;) - (PI.) crises [kraisi:z], criterion (Gr.κρίτήριον) - (PI.) criteria, mafioso (Ital.) – (PI.) mafiosi. Some loan-words have two variant forms that are sometimes functionally distinguished, one form is assimilated and the other form is the preserved original, for example, medium (Lat. mĕdium) - (PI.) media, mediums, libretto (Ital.) - (PI.) libretti, librettos, tempo (Ital.) - (PI.) tempi (music), tempos.

On the whole, the unification of plural endings in English is closely uuinected with the decay and ruin of the grammatical category of gender and with the modifications in the noun paradigm. The appearance of a unified type of the plural ending made the number distinctions in Modern English nouns more vivid and clearly cut. The Modern English plural -es lines back to the Old English plural ending of the a-stems. This ending supposedly spread in English beginning from the Northern dialects.

The result of the development of the grammatical category of case has been its great simplification. The Old English four-case system was induced to a three-case system in Late Old English and in Middle English it was further simplified as a result of the action of two factors: changes in the formal structure of the noun paradigm that were caused and quickened by the reduction of unstressed vowels in inflections and changes in the semantic structure of cases. The earliest were the changes in the formal structure of the noun paradigm caused and quickened by the reduction which resulted in weakening and levelling of case endings and in the development of homonymous case forms. The first stage of the simplification which already started in Old English was the appearance of homonymous terms of the nominative and the accusative case forms, later both case terms merged.

	OE	EME	LME	OE	EME	LME
	a-stems			**n-stems**		
Sing.	stān	ston	stone	nama	name [na:mə]	name [na:m]
Norn., Acc.	stānes	stones	stones	naman	namen	names
(icn.	stāne	stone	stone	naman	namen	name [na:m]
Ddt.		[stɔ:nə]	[stɔ:n]			
PI.						
Nom., Acc.	stānas	stones	stones	naman	namen	names
Gen.	stāna	stone	stones	namena	namen(e)	names
Dat.	stānum	stonen	stones	namum	namen	names

The further simplification of the noun paradigm was due to the changes in the semantic structure of the cases, for example, the dative case was functionally weakened through the development of case synonymy and passed over some of the case meanings to the accusative case. It firstly occurred through the replacement of the dative case-form by the accusative forms when a noun was used in the function of a direct object. This functional coincidence of the dative and accusative cases was interrelated with changes in the nature of the verbal government. The verbs which were characterized by the dative case government in Old English changed it for the accusative in Middle English, for example, the Old English verb helpan *to help* that could be used with dative or genitive, or the Old English verbs losian to *be lost*, fylʒan *to follow* with dative began to be used with a noun in the function of a direct object in Middle English. The accusative case in Middle English began to be used in most of the cases in which the dative case was usual in Old English. A probable explanation can also be found in the development of the Middle English sentence structure and in the intensive process of the appearance of homonymous forms. The loss of the dative case as opposed to other cases appeared a decisive factor of primary importance for the development of the common case in English. By the end ol the Middle English period all the cases in the singular, except the Genitive case, had merged into one form which had no grammatical ending. This form was contrasted to the old Genitive case in -es and became the Com mon Case form. The stability of the genitive case was of great significance for the development of a two-case system in English. The Genitive case became semantically and functionally isolated as it narrowed its meaning as well as the spheres of its functioning. In Old English the genitive case wa'. possible after and before nouns, after verbs, and it could be used with some pronouns. In Middle English it became possible only with nouns and began to show mostly the meaning of possession. Its position was fixed as the nouns in the genitive case were mostly used before the nouns they modified so that the dominant syntactical function of the noun in the genitive cas became that of an attribute. The apostrophe appeared in the seventeenth century presumably to mark the loss of the reduced vowel of the old genitivti ending. The meanings and functions lost by the genitive forms have been transmitted to the prepositional phrases, mostly to the of-phrase.

On the whole, the Old English noun paradigm was greatly transformed in Middle English and the system of nominal categories can be said to have undergone the metamorphosis in its evolution.

3. The major transformations in the system of the adjective
The Old English adjective had rather a complicated system of grammatical forms which showed the grammatical agreement with the grammatical characteristics of the noun that the adjective modified. The grammatical forms of the adjective showed the grammatical categories of gender, number, case, degrees of comparison and the category which was called by prof. A. Smirnitsky the

grammatical category of definiteness/indefiniteness and which was shown through strong and weak forms of the declension of the adective. In Middle English the inflectional endings of the adjective were strongly weakened through the reduction of unstressed vowels in final syllables and completely dropped out in the twelfth-thirteenth centuries. Some adjectival inflections can still be met in the fourteenth century but in the fifteenth century the adjective finally lost all grammatical forms of agreement with the noun and became an uninflected part of speech. The only change of the form that was left to it was the formation of the grammatical forms of the degrees of comparison that was shared by it with the adverb. With the loss of inflections in adjectives and nouns the agreement as a means of expressing syntactical relations in the noun-group lost its importance. This contributed much to the development of a more stable word order in the sentence.

5. Conclusions

The morphological system of English has been greatly transformed through the time, some grammatical categories disappeared, some have been modified and in the verbal system new grammatical categories and new grammatical forms have been established. The main factors that led to a considerable morphological rebuilding were phonetic and analogous changes that greatly modified the noun and the verb systems and the operation of such grammatical processes as grammaticalization and verbalization.

Questions and tasks for self-control
1. The development of the Old English preterite-present verbs and the evolution of modals in the history of English
2. Modifications of the system of personal pronouns in the history of English
3. The major tendencies in the development of the system of demonstrative pronouns in the history of English and the rise of the system of articles
4. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the system of possessive pronouns in the history of English
5. The development of new types of pronouns in the history of English
6. The rise of new parts of speech in Middle and Modern periods of the development of English

Lecture 10.
Development of the English Grammatical System
Part II

Plan:
1. The major modifications in the system of the adverb
2. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the verbal system
   A. The major types of transformations and modifications in morphological groups of verbs
   B. The transformation and modification of the system of verbal grammatical categories
      a. Modifications of the grammatical categories which existed in Old English
      b. The rise of new grammatical categories in Middle and Modern English
3. Conclusions

References: 8, 9, 10, 11, 1, 13.

1. The major modifications in the system of the adverb

It is commonly believed that changes in the system of the adverb led to the appearance of a new dominant regular adverb-forming suffix in Middle English when the Old English suffix -e was gradually superseded hy the suffix -ly. Old English adverbs were regularly formed from adjectives with the help of the suffix -e, for example, OE dēope *deeply* from OE dēop *deep,* OE dēoplīce *deeply, profoundly* from OE dēoplīc *deep,* OE hearde *severely, sorely* from OE heard *hard,* OE heardlīce *boldly, bravely* from OE *heardlīc* (*severe, harsh).* The traditional explanation that was perhaps firstly given by the famous scholar Henry Sweet suggests that numerous Old English formations like OE dēoplīce, heardlīce favoured the consideration that -līce was an independent adverb-forming equivnlent to -e so that already in Old English there appeared some adverbs ending in the suffix -līce that had no parallel adjectival formations, for example, OE holdlīce *faithfully, graciously,* hwsætlīce *quickly, speedily,* lætlīce *slowly.* In Middle English the form of the suffix -līce underwent some phonetic modifications and became -li, -ly (ME -liche, -li, -ly). To illustrate the change in the form of the adverb-forming suffix the following examples can be given: (OE) Ond þus glædlīce tō ūs sprecende eart *Thus cheerfully to us you are speaking* (Bede, I. 109, the ninth century) and (ME) And gladly wolde he lerne and gladly teche. *And gladly would he learn, and gladly teach* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales, I. 310, the fourteenth century). Both adverbial forms in -e and in -ly could be used in Middle English, for example, ME depe and ME deepliche, deepli, deeply, depely: Ne wette hir fyngres in hir sauce depe. *She didn't wet her fingers too deeply in the sauce.* (Chaucer, The Prologue to The Canterbury Tales, I. 129, the fourteenth century), Sore longit þo lordis hor londys to se, and dissiret full depely, doutyng no wedur. *The lords bitterly longed to see their lands and desired it very greatly, fearing no storm* (The Gest Hystoriale

of the Destruction of Troy, the XXXI Boke, I. 113-114), written about 1375). In Late Middle English - Early Modern English the suffix -ly could be added to numerals to form adverbs, for example, firstly, secondly. In the eighteenth century the adverb-forming suffix -ly became a norm in the literary standard, though some adverbial forms without the suffix -ly thal can be perceived as old forms with the reduced old suffix -e are still preserved in Modern English. In British English the adverbial forms with the suffix -ly and without are often used with some differentiation in meaning, as, for instance, Modern English adverbs *hard* and *hardly, fair* and *fairly, late* and *lately,* or the adverbs without the suffix -ly can be found in some commonly used phrases, for example, Modern English *to play fair, to go wrong, to read loud.*

2. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the verbal system

The Old English division of verbs into four morphological groups of strong, weak, preterite-present and anomalous was largely ruined in Middle English and superseded by a new major division of verbs into regular/ irregular in Modern English. Changes in the morphological structure of the verb that brought about the ruin of the Old English morphological division of verbs into groups were of two types: phonetic changes of the morphological forms in the systems of strong and weak verbs in Middle and Early Modern English and analogous changes in the systems of strong and weak formations in Middle and Early Modern English. All major morpho logical groups of Old English verbs differed in the way they built up then four principal morphological forms (the infinitive and the present tense forms, the past tense singular, the past tense plural, the past participle), In the history of English changes in these principal forms of verbs led to the simplification of the morphological structure of the verbal forms and to rebuilding of the verbal system.

Phonetic changes that ruined the Old English verbal morphological structure were of two major types: phonetic modifications of accented vowels in the root due to numerous qualitative and quantitative changes which made the vowel gradation in strong verbs less regular and less consistent and the weakening of unstressed vowels which led to the levelling of inflections and in some cases to the coincidence of morphological Inrms in Middle English. As a result of the weakening and reduction of the unstressed vowels in endings the number of the principal forms in strong verbs was reduced from four to three in the first three classes when the forms of the past plural and the past participle became homonymous. In weak verbs the number of morphological forms was reduced to two due to the appearance of homonymous forms so that the difference between the weak classes was removed.

Strong verbs:

Class I	I	II	III	IV
OE	rīsan	rās	rison	risen
ME	risen	rose	risen	risen
MnE	rise	rose		risen

Class II	I	II	III	IV
OE	findan	fand	fundon	funden
ME	finden	fand	founden	founden
MnE	find		found	found

Weak verbs		I	II	III
OE	Class I	dēman	dēmde	dēmed
	Class2	lufian	lufode	lufod
ME	Class1	deemen	deemed	deemed
	Class2	loven	loved	loved
MnE		to deem	deemed	deemed
		to love	loved	loved

The gradation patterns in strong verbs became obscure and not consistent already in Old English but phonetic modifications of the root-vowels ilue to qualitative and quantitative vowel changes in Middle and Modern Enqlish heavily ruined the ablaut alternation patterns in strong verbs and broke the regularity of the morphological formation of the verbal grammatical forms within the classes so that the morphological forms of the same verbs began to differ greatly from the former Old English sets, or the classes split as they became morphologically not identical, as is shown below.

Class III	I	II	III	IV
OE	findan	fand	fundon	funden
	drincan	dranc	druncon	drunken
ME	findan	fand	founden	founen
	[i:]	[a]	[u:]	[u:]
	drinken	drank	drunken	drunken
	[i]	[a]	[u]	[u]
MnE	to find		found	found
	to drink	drank		drunk

Class IV	I	II	III	IV
E	beran	bær	bǣron	boren
ME	beren[ɛ:]	bar, ber, bore	beren [ɛ:]	bore(n)
MnE	bear	bore		born

Sound changes in the phonetic structure of weak verbs could also ruin the regularity in the formation of their morphological forms and led to the rise of new

grammatical patterns.

Class I (regular)	I	II	III
OE	cēpan	cēpte	(ȝe)cēpt
ME	kepen	kepte	kept
	[e:]	[e]	[e]
MnE	to keep	kept	kept

Class I (irregular)	I	II	III
OE	sellan	sealed,salde (Anglian)	(ȝe)seald
ME	sellen	solde	isold, sold
MnE	to sell	sold	sold
OE	tǣc(e)an	tāhte	(ȝe)tāht
ME	techen	taught	i-taught
MnE	to teach	taught	taught

Class 2	I	II	III
OE	macian	macode	macod
ME	maken	maked, made	maked, imaked, imad
MnE	to make	made	made

Class 3	I	II	III
OE	secgan	sægde, sǣde	sægd, sǣde
ME	seggen, seien	seide, saide	said
MnE	to say	said	said

In Early Modern English some weak verbs developed a new morphological set of forms due to the appearance of homonymous forms after the loss of weakened endings, for example, the weak verbs of class 1:

Class 1	I	II	III
OE	(ȝe)settan	sette	(ȝe)seted (Anglian), (ȝe)sett (West-Saxon)
ME	setten	sette	sett
MnE	to set	set	set

The weakening and the obscurity of the gradation patterns of strong verbs and the modifications of some weak verbs made the verbal morphological sets of forms

more easily susceptible of different types of influences, for example, influence by analogy or by the dialectal variation. A further powerful factor that accelerated the transformation of the verbal morphological forms was analogy that worked in different directions: analogous changes within the classes of verbs, analogous changes outside the classes of verbs and analogous changes between the morphological gioups of verbs. Analogous influence was very often backed up by the dialectal variation.

Analogous changes within the classes of verbs resulted in the reduction of the number of principal forms. In strong verbs one of the results of analogy was to remove the distinction between the past singular and the past plural forms. An indirect influence can probably be exerted here and supported by the lack of the difference between these forms in the system of weak formation as the verbal grammatical category of number was not morphologically supported in weak verbs. In Middle and Early Modern English the levelling went to the advantage of the past form singular in the Northern dialects. In the Western dialects the past form singular was removed and the past form plural remained, for example, in the strong verbs ol class III both processes can be seen:

OE	drincan	dranc	druncon	drunken
ME	drinken	drank	drunken	drunken
MnE	drink	drank		drunk

OE	findan	fand	fundon	funden
ME	finden	fand	founden	founden
MnE	find		found	found

The introduction of dialectal elements into the development of the verbal system favoured further modification and confusion of the morphological forms. The interaction of dialectal preferences in the usage of morphological forms of verbs could be revealed through the rise of new paradigmatic sets of verbs. In Modern English the distinction was removed between the forms of the past singular and of the past participle to the advantage of the past participle form or to the advantage of the past singular form and this led to the greater confusion of old paradigmatic patterns.

Class IV(strong verbs)

OE	stelan	stæl	stǣlon	stolen
ME	stelen	stal	stelen	stolen
MnE	steal	stole		stolen

Class V (strong verbs)

OE	sittan	sæt	sǣton	seten
ME	sitten	sat	seten	seten
MnE	sit	sat		sat

Analogous changes outside the classes of verbs affected some strong verbs of class V and some strong verbs of class VI so that the verbs passed from one class into another, for example, the Old English verb sp(r)ecan *to speak* developed a new paradigmatic set of forms on the analogy with the strong verbs of class IV in Middle English.

Class V (strong verbs)

OE	sp(r)ecan	sp(r)æc	sp(r)ǣcon	sp(r)ecen
ME	speken	spak	speken	speken, spoken
MnE	speak	spoke		

Some verbs of class VI created a new set of principal forms under the influence of the verbs of class VII in Middle English.

Class IV (strong verbs)

OE	slēan	slōh	slōgon	(ge)slæȝen
ME	slen	slew	slewen	slain
MnE	slay	slew		slain

Some former weak verbs developed mixed forms on the basis of older weak forms and on the analogy with the forms of the past participle ol strong forms.

Class 2 (weak verbs)

OE	scēawian	scēawode	scēawod
ME	shewen, showen	showed, shawde	shawd, showed
MnE	to show	showed	shown

Analogous modifications could also be seen in the transition of some verbs from one morphological group to another, for example, about eighty strong verbs acquired weak morphological forms in Middle English and this process continued well into Early Modern English, for example, the Old English strong verbs of class I ȝrīpan *to gripe*, ȝlīdan *to glide*, the Old English strong verbs of class III climban *to climb,* helpan *to help,* murnan *to mourn,* the Old English strong verbs of class VI wascan *to wash,* swerian *to swear,* the Old English strong verbs of class VII fealdan *to fold,* blāwan *to blow* became weak in Early Modern English. The peak of this transition is traditionally thought to have been in the fifteenth-sixteenth centuries.

On the whole, the operation of analogy very often resulted in the creation of a new set of morphological forms which did not fit into any of the old gradation patterns.

The position of strong formation in the system of verbal forms greatly weakened in Middle and Early Modern English as a result of the modifications in the sets of morphological forms and the reduction of the number of strong verbs through the transition of more than one hundred strong verbs to weak formation, the loss of about eighty verbs which dropped out of usage. Furthermore, many newly borrowed words joined the weak formation, for example, to change (OF), to die (Old Norse), to dress (OF), to launch (ONF) and many newly formed words joined the weak formation, lor example, to clash (1500), to clean (1450), to dig (ME). For the establishment of the new morphological division into the regular/irregular type two factors were of importance: the stability of former weak formation that became to dominate and the development of irregular formations. The new irregular group of verbs included some former strong verbs and some termer weak verbs that began to be characterized by a new set of morphological forms, for example, some former weak verbs of all three classes developed new grammatical patterns and joined the irregular type, the same is some newly borrowed verbs, for example, to catch (ONF), to strive (OF). A general consequence of all these transformations was the shift of llie boundary between old strong and old weak formations. The regular lype of the basic verbal morphological forms developed on the basis of the weak verbs of former class 2 and, partly, of former class 1. In Early Modern English the ed-forms became dominant in the system of past-tense forms and the ending of weak verbs which was the reflex of the Common Germanic dental suffix became a regular way of verbal form-building. In Early Middle English the syncope of the unstressed vowel in the ending was often shown through the usage of the apostrophe, as for example, in the following sentence: It seem'd in me but as an honour snatch'd with boist'rous hand (W. Shakespeare, King Henry the Fourth, Part two, Act 4, Sc. 5, II. 191-193).

Fluctuations in the choice of verbal morphological forms may be seen in their parallel functioning in literature of the Modern English period in the sixteenth-seventeenth centuries and some competing old forms can be used, especially in poetry, by many writers of later centuries.

Sonnet 8
Betwixt mine eye and heart the league is *took*

William Shakespeare

Sonnet 116
It is the star to every wandering bark,
Whose worth's unknown, although his height be *taken.*

William Shakespeare

Variations of verbal morphological forms can still be found in Modem local dialects, for example, in the South-East: *How long he laid dere he never rightly*

knowed and in the Midlands: *An' they never sid no more o'*em *atter than* (sid saw).

On the whole, the development of the regular/irregular (standard/ non-standard) morphological types of verbs in Early Modern English was determined by several factors and resulted in a complete ruin of the historical morphological division of English verbs into strong and weak.

A small group of the Old English preterite-present verbs was trans formed into a special group of modal verbs which was fully established in Early Modern English. The composition of the group changed with the loss of five verbs in Middle English and was rebuilt with the inclusion of the Middle English verb willen *will* (OE willan) which did not originally belong to that group of verbs. By Early Modern English these verbs had begun to be grouped together according to new morphological, func tional and semantic characteristics. The first major important feature in the development of modals as an isolated group was their semantic and functional specialization. Through all Middle English period the general Old English syntagmatic characteristics of these verbs were preserved:some of them continued to function as the first element of the compound verbal modal predicate, for example, ME mai, mei *may,* some kept their primary meanings and continued to be used as simple predicates, for example, the Middle English verb witen *to know* (OE witan), some had a double nature of functioning depending on the factual realization of the romponents of the semantic structure, for example, ME conne, kunne (can) *to know, to be able to.* But already in Early Middle English some of those verbs began to function as the first element of the compound verbal modal predicate, for example, the past-tense form of the Middle English verb owe(n) (OE āʒan) oʒte *ought* (OE āhte), some of these verbs wore used as modals and as auxiliaries, for example, ME schal *shall* (OE sceal). By Early Modern English almost all of the modal verbs had gradually changed their dominant syntagmatic character and became to be combined with the infinitive. The modal meanings began to prevail in their semantic structure and they began to show the relation to the action cither than the action itself. A peculiar feature of the development of two former preterite-present verbs was a morphological split of their paradigmatic forms when their past-tense forms became isolated and joined the group of modals as separate verbs, for example, OE āhte, ME 0ʒte, ouʒte, oghte *ought* (OE āʒan *to have, to possess)* and OE mōste, ME moste, muste *must* (OE mōtan *may, to be allowed, must).* The verb *must* kept one of the Old English modal meanings and the form *ought to* developed modal meanings already in Early Middle English.The form of the infinitive of the Old English verb āʒan, ME owe(n) *to have, to possess* has been kept in the language as a separate verb *to owe* that joined the regular type of verb formation. The Middle English forms *moste* and *oghte* in their morphologically isolated status as modals shifted the relation to the tense and were interpreted as referring to the present, they began to he used in the present-time context. The second major important feature in the evolution of modals as an isolated group of verbs was the development of their communicative potential when they began to be

used to snow different communicative speech acts, such as request, permission, prohibition, assurance, uncertainty, doubt and others. It is usual to believe that the system of modals in English was completely formed in the eighteenth century.

The most evident feature of the evolution of the tense-aspect system in the English language is its entire transformation. A new tense-aspect system that developed in Middle English was quite different from the Old English inflected system, though all grammatical processes that brought about the rebuilding of the system were a continuation of tendencies that had begun in Old English. The main factors that worked in shaping a Modern English tense-aspect system in Middle and Modern English were the leveling of old inflectional endings as a result of reduction, the operation of analogy and the rise of the analytical forms as a result of the process of grammaticalization of some free word combinations.

The Old English inflected finite verbal forms which showed the grammatical categories of person, number, tense, mood can be presented in the following present tense paradigm of the Old English verbs bindan *to bind* and dēman *to deem.*

Present Indicative

	Singular			**Plural**	
1	binde	dēme			
2	bintst	dēmest	(for all persons)	bindaþ	dēmaþ
3	bint	dēmeþ			

Present Subjunctive

Singular	binde	dēme	**Plural**	binden	dēmen

In Early Middle English many verbal inflected forms in the present became homonymous due to the reduction of the unstressed vowels in the final position: OE -aþ -eþ), ME -eth (OE *dēmaþ, dēmeþ,* ME *deemeth),* OE -an -en, ME -en (OE *dēman, dēmen*, ME *deemen).* As a result of theso changes the number of inflexions was shortened and the homonymoin endings ceased to show the grammatical meanings distinctly and clearly in Middle English. This brought the need for new morphological forms to appear and Middle English became the period when analytical fornu came into wide use.

In Middle English the inflected grammatical forms to show the grammatical categories of person and number in the present, though kept, were largely simplified and the distribution of them was dependent on the local dialect. The Southern dialects kept some older forms, whereas the Northern dialects showed a more radical tendency.

		South	**Midland**	**North**
Singular				
	1	binde	binde	bind(e)

2	blindest	blindest	bindes
3	bindeth	bindeth(es)	bind(es)
Plural			
All persons	bindeth	binde(n), bindes	bind(es)

In the London dialect of the fourteenth century the prevailing form for the third person singular was still the ending -th: Til Sonday that the sonne tiooth to reste. *Till Sunday when the sun goes to rest.* (G. Chaucer. The Miller's Tale, I. 236) and both, the inflected and the reduced plural forms, were in parallel usage: They daunce and pleye at dees bothe day and night, and ete and drinken over hir might, *They dance and play at dice day nnd night, and also eat and drink more than they can handle* (G. Chaucer, The Pardoner's Tale, II. 139-140). In the North-West Midlands the s-inflection prevailed, for example, in the poem *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* el the last quarter of the fourteenth century: So mony meruayl bi mount þer þe mon fyndeʒ, So *many wonders among the hills the man finds* (I. 718).

In Early Modern English there coexisted two competing grammatical forms of the third person singular in literary usage: with the ending-th under the influence of the Southern dialects and with the ending -s under the influence of the Northern dialects, the ending -th disappeared from the current usage in the eighteenth century. In present-day English the usage of the verbal form in -th is considered stylistically restricted and is recognized as a grammatical archaism. The present-day form of the third person singular has come into the present literary standard from the Northern dialects. The following lines can be given as illustrations:

Sonnet 73

In me thou seest the twilight of such day As
after sunset fadeth in the west,
Which by and by black night doth take away,
Death's second self, that seals up all in rest.

William Shakespeare

The Clod and the Pebble

Love seeketh not itself to please,Nor for itself hath any care;
But for another gives its ease,
And builds a Heaven in Hell's despair

William Blake (1757-1827)

Mariana

She only said, "My life is dreary,
He cometh not, " she said;
She said, "I am aweary, aweary,
I would that I were dead!"

Alfred, Lord Tennyson (1809-1892)

The verbal form of the second person singular was in current use up to the eighteenth century. By the eighteenth century it had disappeared simultaneously

with the pronoun *thou.* The replacement of the personal pronoun *thou* by the personal pronoun ye/you eliminated the distinction of person in the verbal paradigm with the only exception of the inflected form of the third person singular.

Romeo and Juliet, Act 2 Scene 2, II. 60-61

Julia: Art thou not Romeo, and a Montague?

Romeo: Neither, fair maid, if either thee dislike.

Julia: How cam'st thou hither, tell me, and wherefore?

William Shakespeare

Since the eighteenth century the form of the second person singular has become a grammatical archaism that is found in poetry, or it can be found in some local and social dialects in Modern English.

Sonnet To Science

Science! true daughter of Old Time thou art!
Who alterest all things with thy peering eyes.
Why preyest thou thus upon the poet's heart,
Vulture, whose wings are dull realities?

Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849)

Song

I'll handle dainties on the docks
And thou shalt read of summer frocks:
At evening by the sour canals
We'll hope to hear some madrigals.

*c.	Day Lewis (1904-1972)*

The present plural verbal form with a reduced ending can be traced back to the Middle English central (Midland) form in -en. This ending that penetrated into other dialects was completely reduced in the fifteenth century and the form was established in the literary standard. The ending -en is thought to have been taken over on analogy from the Old English verbal form of the present subjunctive plural that can still be found in usage in Middle English. The following illustrations can be given to show the usage ol the inflected present plural form in Late Middle and Early Modern English:

The Canterbury Tales, The Prologue, II. 9-12

And smale fowles maken melodye
That steepen all the night with open ye
(So pricketh hem Nature in hir corages),
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages

Geoffrey Chaucer

The Shepheardes Calender, II. 13-15

Thomalin, why sytten we soe,
As weren ouerwent with woe,
Vpon so fayre a morrow?

Edmund Spenser (15527-1599)

A Midsummer Night's Dream, Act 2, Sc.l, II. 54-58
Puck: And then the whole quire hold their hips and laugh,
And waxen in their mirth, and neeze, and swear
A merrier hour was *never wasted there.*
neeze to sneeze, *mirth* merriment, *quire* choir

<div align="right">

William Shakespeare

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The verbal inflexion -en can occasionally be added by analogy to the past form of the verb to show the plurality, as is the case in some English local dialects: So they all wenten to the 'ouse, an' the Runnellses wun in a most despert way when they sidden the boogies cornin' (The Midlands). Boogies *hobgoblins*

On the whole, the present-tense inflexional system was greatly modified due to the general tendency of the simplification of inflections and the transition to analytical forms of the representation of verbal grammatical categories.

The grammatical category of mood is basically shown through three sets of forms: indicative, imperative and subjunctive. In Old English the subjunctive mood forms were a part of the verbal paradigm and the basic subjunctive meanings were usually shown by the inflected forms, for example, the following sentence from Bede's account of the poet Cædmon: In eallum þǣm hē geornlīce gēmde þæt hē men ātuge from synna lufan and māndǣda *In all that he eargerly took care that he drew people away from sinful life and evil deeds* (II. 85-86). The communicative functions of the subjunctive forms were extensive and the scope of subjunctive meanings was very broad so that they could show volition, wishes, hypothetical condition, probability, uncertainty. The Old English forms ol the subjunctive mood were widely used in indirect speech, after the verbs expressing supposition, in subordinate clauses and in simple sentences. In Late Old English there appeared a tendency to show some of the suh junctive meanings by periphrastic forms in which the verbs with the mod al meaning were used with the infinitive, for example, in the sentence from Aelfric's Homilies: mæʒ ʒehýran se þe wyle be þām hālgan mǽdene Eugenia *Let hear those who will about the Holy Maiden Eugenia.*

In Early Middle English the Old English subjunctive forms generally survived, but in the process of the general simplification of the verbal paradigm caused by different factors the inflected subjunctive mood forms coincided with the indicative mood forms and ceased to show subjunctive meanings distinctly. This led to a more extensive usage of the periphrastic combinations which gradually developed into the analytical forms of the conditional and suppositional mood as a result of the process of gramma ticalization. The present-day analytical verbal mood forms go back to free word combinations of the verbs with the modal meaning *sholde, wolde* and the infinitive. The weakening of the lexical meanings of the modal verbs went intensively already in Early Middle English, though the original meanings were still more or less clearly felt. At the first stage of the development into the analytical forms these free word-combinations functioned syntactically as

compound verbal modal predicates. In the eleventh-thirteenth centuries the modal verbs *sholde* and *wolde* weakened their meaning and in the fourteenth century the tense differentiation took place with the appearance of the perfect infinitive after the verbs *sholde* and *wolde*. The old inflected forms were also used, though their usage was restricted to certain syntactical patterns. The following sentences can be given to illustrate the point: from the poem *The Owl and the Nightingale* of the twelfth-thirteenth centuries: ȝif ich schulde aluve bringe Wif oþer maide, hwanne ich singe *If I should bring to life a woman or a maiden with my singing*; from Robert Manning *Handlynge Synne* of the first half of the fourteenth century: and to hys hous shuld hyt be broght *and to his house it should be brought* (I. 28); from Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales* of the fourteenth century: She wolde wepe if that she sawe a mous caught in a trappe, if it were deed or blede. *She would weep if she saw a mouse caught in a trap and dead or bleeding.* (II. 144-145); And certes, if it nere to long to here, I wolde han told yow fully the manere, how wonnen was the regne of Femenye by Theseus *And indeed, if it were not too long to listen to, I would have wanted to tell you fully the way in which the realm of the Amazons was won by Theseus* (II. 18-20).

Though analytical forms of the subjunctive mood were in wide use in Early Modern English, the old inflected forms were still kept mostly in subordinate clauses of condition and concession. Here are some illustrations fiom the works by Shakespeare:

Sonnet 116
If this be error, and upon me prov'd,
I never writ, nor no man ever lov'd
Romeo and Juliet, Act 2, Sc.2, II. 24-25
Romeo: O that I were a glove upon that hand,
That I might touch that cheek!

Sonnet 71
Lest the wise world should look into your moan,
And mock you with me after I am gone.
Romeo and Juliet, Act 2, Sc.2, II. 18-22
Romeo: What if her eyes were there, they in her
head?
The brightness of her cheek would
shame
those stars,
As daylight doth a lamp; her
eyes in heaven
Would through the airy region
stream so
bright

That birds would sing, and think
it were not night.

By the eighteenth century all analytical forms of the subjunctive mood to show hypothetical actions had been included into the verbal paradigm.The remnants of the old inflected forms are used in simple sentences ex pressing wish, more often these are set phrases, such as, so be it, heaven forbid, as it were.

In Old English there was no special grammatical verbal form to express a future action, as the tense category was presented by two sets of forms present and past. A future action was usually shown through the usage of the present-tense form: Ic *lufiʒe* tō dæʒ oððe tō merʒen *I'll love today* or *tomorrow,* though it could also be shown by means of the combinations ol the verb with the modal meaning and the infinitive. The present-day analytical form of the future tense goes back to the free word combination ol the verbs with the modal meaning and the infinitive. Two verbs were used in these periphrastic expressions: *shall* and *will.* These word-combinations in Early Middle English were compound verbal modal predicates. In Middle English the use of these modal phrases, especially with the verb *shall* in all persons, became increasingly popular. The verb *shall* was the first to bo grammaticalized. It is supposed that the verb weakened its lexical meaning and became a future tense auxiliary already in Early Middle English. So the analytical future tense-form arose as a result of the semantic shift from the modal way of showing a future action to the form which began to show the objective future. It can be illustrated by the sentences from Layamon's Brut written in the thirteenth century: And heo seal mine wunden makien all isunde *And she will cure all my wounds* (I. 28570) and from Chaucer`s. The Canterbury Tales: And lat see now who shal soper winne *and let us see, now, who will win the supper* (The Knight's Tale, I. 33). By F. Mossé's opinion the Middle English verb wil was very often used to express volition, so that the modal shades could still be felt, for example, a sentence from William Langland's Piers Plowman: I wil worschip þerwith Treuthe bi my lyue I *will worship Truth by that means during my life* (I. 95). A complete grammaticalization of the verb *will* is thought to have taken place only in modern times. In Early Modern English, in the age of Shakespeare, the analytical forms with *shall* and *will* occurred in free variation, both of the verbs were used indiscriminately and their usage for the persons was not fixed. Here are some illustrations from the works by Shakespeare:

Much Ado About Nothing, Act 5, Sc., 1, II. 77-80
Leonato: If thou kill'st me, boy, thou shalt kill a

man.

Antonio: He shall kill two of us, and
men,

indeed;
Much Ado About Nothing, Act 4, Sc., II. 52-53

Dogberry: O villain! thou wilt be condemn'd into everlasting redemption for this.

A Midsummer Night's Dream, Act 1, Sc.1, II. 246-248

Helena: I will go tell him of fair Hermia's flight;

Then to the wood will he to-morrow night

Pursue her;

By the middle of the eighteenth century the fixation of the verbs *shall* nnd *will* in persons was set. By general opinion it is accepted that a complete formal differentiation of future auxiliaries from modals is achieved through the phonetic reduction of the verb *will* to the form `// for all persons. In present-day English the verb shall is more perceived as a modal verb than a future auxiliary.

In Old English there was no regular opposition of passive voice forms. The grammatical verbal meanings of the passive voice were shown in Old English through syntactical constructions and, thus, the syntactical source of the analytical form of the passive voice can be found in two Old English constructions which functioned syntactically as compound nominal predicates: one with the verb *beon/wesan* (OE He wæs of-slæӡen *He was killed)* and the other with the verb *weorþan* (OE He wearþ of-slæӡen He *got killed)* and the past participle of the transitive verbs, for example, from Beowulf: Wæs sē grimma gǽst Grendel häten *Was that cruel spirit called Grendel* (I. 102), from The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, year 784: He þær wearþ ofslægen *He got killed there.* The construction with the verb *heon/wesan* denoted the state which was the result of a previous action, the second construction with the verb *weorþan* indicated the transition to the state of the subject which was caused by an action performed on it. The process of grammaticalization of these constructions began already in Old English, but it was intensified in Middle English. In the Middle English period in many cases the speaker's attention began to be shifted from the state of the subject to the action which caused this state and the contractions with the verbs *ben* and *wurþen* (OE weorðan, wurþan) began to show not only the state but also the action experienced by the subject of the sentence. After the loss of the lexical meanings by the verbs *ben* and *wurþen* both of the constructions syntactically became simple verbal predicates. The verb *wurþen* went out of use in Late Middle English and the verb *ben* completely lost its lexical meaning in the passive constructions, increased its combinability and developed into the auxiliary verb ol the analytical form of the passive voice. When the voice categorical meaning was well established, the analytical verbal form of the passive voice became part of the verbal paradigm. It gradually developed tense, time correlation (perfect/non-perfect), aspect distinctions parallel to those in the active voice. It can be illustrated by the following examples: from The Peterborough Chronicle, year 1137: for þe land was al fordon mid siulce dædes *because the land* was *all ruined with such deeds:* from Laӡamon's Brut: Iþonked wurðe Drihtene þe alle domes waldeð God *is thanked who rules the*

judgment (I. 20826); from Chaucer's: *A Treatise on the Astrolabe:* that alle the conclusiouns that han ben founde, or elles possibly mighten be founde in so noble an instrument as an Astolabie, ben un-knowe perfitly to any mortal man in this regioun, as I suppose *that all mathematical propositions which have been found, or in other respects might possibly be found in such a noble instrument as an astrolabe, are completely un known to any mortal man in the region, as I think* (I. 12-14); from The *Canterbury Tales:* With many a tempest hadde his berd been shake *Many a tempest had shaken his beard* (The Prologue, I. 408; from John Wyclifś *The Case for Translation*: It semyþ first þat þe wit of Goddis lawe shulde be tau3t on þat tunge þat is more knowun *It first seems that the knowledgn of the law of God should be taught in that language that is more known* (I. 6-7). A considerable expansion of the passive constructions in Modern English was also due to the changes in the morphology of the verb. There arose a great number of transitive verbs and some verbs could admit of two passive constructions. The verbs with postpositions could also be used in passive forms, for example, the following sentence from *Hamlet* by Shakespeare: My lord, we were sent for. (Act II, Sc. 2, I. 292). The wide use of passive constructions in the literary written standard in the eighteenth century testifies to high productivity of the passive forms. In Modern English the form of the verb to be with the past participle can show the action undergone by the subject as well as the state: The doof has been locked. The door is locked.

In Middle and Modern English two new verbal grammatical categories developed: the grammatical category of perfect and the grammatical category of aspect. The syntactical source of the analytical perfect form is traditionally found in two Old English constructions: a two-member construction which functioned as a compound nominal predicate and which consisted of the verb beon/wesan with the past participle of intransitive verbs, for example, Wæs Hǣstēn þā þǣr cumen mid his herȝe *Then Hasten had come there with his army* (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, year 893) and a three-member construction which functioned as a combination of a simple verbal predicate expressed by the verb *hab- ban,* a direct object expressed by a noun/a pronoun in the accusative case and an attribute to that object (an objective predicative) expressed by the past participle of transitive verbs, for example, oþ þæt hïe hine ofslægenne haefdon *until they have killed him* (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, year 755). The most important features of the process of grammaticalization of these syntactical word combinations which started already in Old English are the following: the loss of the forms of agreement by the past participle with the noun, for example, Hæfde Hǣstēn ǣr ȝeworht þæt ȝeweorc æt Bēamflēote *Hasten had formerly built up that fortress at Benfleet* (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, year 893); the increase in the valency potential of the verb *habban* that began to be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs: oð hīe glǣdmōde ȝegān hǣfdon tō ðām wealgate *until they cheerfully reached (came up to) the wall-gate* (Judith, a poem of the tenth century, II. 140-141); the occasional omission of the direct object.

In Middle English the process of the grammaticalization was intensified und included the following features: the usual omission of the direct object in the structure, the changes in the arrangement of the components of the structure when the past participle moved closer to the verb *haven* and formed the unity with the verb *haven* so that only some adverbs could be placed between them, the verbs *haven* and *ben* weakened their lexical meaning. The verb *haven* increased its valency and the verb *ben* became restricted in its valency only by verbs of motion from the twelfth century, for example, the following illustrations from *The Canterbury Tales* by Chaucer:

Al nyht was come into that hostelrye	*at night there came into that hostelry*
Wei nyne and twenty in a companye	*a company of nine-and-twenty*
Of sondry folk,	*people*

<div align="right">The Prologue, II. 23-25</div>

And whan this worthy duk hath thus y-don	*when the valiant duke had thus done*
He took his host, and hoom he rit rode home	*he took his army and soon*

<div align="right">The Knight's Tale, II. 167-168</div>

She haddle passed many a straunge streem-	*she had crossed many a strange river*
At Rome she hadde been, and at Bologne	*she had been at Rome and at Boulogne*

<div align="right">The Prologue, II. 464-465</div>

In Middle English the new analytical forms still had the grammatical meaning of a past action and could be grammatical synonyms to the past simple forms:

…, to Canterbury they wende,	*they come to Canterbury*
The holy blisful martyr for to seeke	*to seek the holy, blissful martur*
That hem hath holpen whan that They were seke	*who helped them when they were sick*

<div align="right">The Prologue, II. 16-18</div>

In Middle English the perfect analytical forms were also used to show the completeness of the action as well as the temporal characteristics of the action:

Whan that Aprill with his shoures sote	*When April with his sweet showers has*
The droghte of Marche hath perced to the rote,	*pierced the drought of March to the root,*
And, bathed every veyne in swich licour	*and bathed every vein in such moisture*

<div align="right">The Prologue, II. 1-3</div>

The last stage in the development of the analytical forms of perfect as part of

the verbal paradigm can be seen in Late Middle English. The verb *haven* became the dominant auxiliary verb in the construction. The participle that had acquired verbal characteristics turned into a non-verbal form and had come to be an element of the verbal system. The perfect forms were involved in the verbal paradigm and developed new grammatical forms with the grammatical meanings of the grammatical categories of mood, voice and aspect, for example, a sentence from Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*: God wot he wolde have trowed it ful lyt *God knows there is small chance Hint he would have imagined it* (The Knight's Tale, I. 662). The non-verbals, participle I and the infinitive, also developed the perfect forms: A semely man our Hoste was withalle for to han been a marshal in an halle *our host was indeed a seemly man to have been a master of ceremonies in a hall* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales, The Prologue, II. 753-754)

Gradually, the meaning of perfect forms and the non-perfect forms become differentiated. The perfect forms began to show the completeness of the action, the prior actions or actions performed in the unfinished period of time, whereas non-perfect forms didn't imply the priority of the action but referred the action directly to a time period in the past. In Early Modern English both forms could still be used in the same grammatical context, lor example, in the following lines from Hamlet, Act 2, Sc. 2, II. 584-588 hy Shakespeare:

> *About, my brains. Hum - I have heard*
> *That guilty creatures, sitting at a play,*
> *Have by the very cunning of the scene*
> *Been struck so to the soul that presently*
> *They have proclaim'd their malefactions*
>   or:
> *What, have you given him any hard words of late?*

> *Hamlet, Act 2, Sc.l, I. 107*

... for look you how cheerfully my mother looks and my father died within's two hours.

> *Hamlet, Act 3, Sc.2,1. 125*

> Sonnet 116
> *If this be error, and upon me prov'd,*
> *I never writ, nor no man ever lov'd.*

The usage of the construction with the verb *to be* and the past participle, if confined to the verbs of motion, can still be found in Early Modern English. The usage of this construction in Late Modern English is usually stylistically restricted and considered old-fashioned, archaic or dialectal.

> Sonnet 71
> Give warning to the world that I *am fled*
> From this vile world, with vilest worms to dwell.

> *William Shakespeair*

Ch. Brontë (1816-1855)

113

This house where you are come to live (Jane Eyre p. 69)

Mr. Rochester that night was absent from home, nor was he yet returned (Jane Eyre p. 357).

Local dialects (Midlands)

So at last they *wun gotten* so bad as the Runnellses couldna put up ooth 'em no lunger; ... An everythin' *wuz comen* all right (the Shropshire dialect)

The perfect forms fully acquired their Modern English meaning and embraced all the subsystem of the verb both finite and non-finite in the seventeenth-eighteenth centuries.

The longest way of the development marks the formation and the evolution of the analytical continuous form. The process of grammaticalization of the periphrastic constructions in this case is characterized by a great complexity and is closely connected with the process of verbalization of the present participle and the gerund, as it is believed to have been a fusion of two constructions, participial (the verb to be with thn present participle) and gerundial (the verb to be with the preposition before a verbal noun in -ing). The syntactical source of the continuous form was the Old English free word combination of the verb *beon/wesan* with the present participle. This construction functioned as a compound nominal predicate. The meaning of the construction was the action unlimited in time and in the sentence it functioned as a compound nominal predicate, for example, OE..., ond hīe alle on þone cyning wǣrun feohtende..., *and they all fought (were fighting) against that king* (The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, year 755, I. 16-17). In Old English there was another construction with the meaning of a continuous action limited in time that was represented by the verb *beon/wesan* with the preposition *on* and the verbal noun in -unʒ,(-inʒ): Gyrstandæʒ ic waes on huntunʒe *Yesterday I* was *hunting* (Bosworth). The verbal noun in the construction was used in the function of the adverbial modifier of place. In Old English both constrm tions were not so often used. In Early Middle English they almost went out of use, but in the fourteenth-fifteenth centuries both of the constructions increased their functioning, firstly in the Northern dialects, later in the rest of the dialects. In Middle English different prepositions can be found in ihe construction with the verbal noun, later prepositions were usually weakened and reduced to the element a-: (Northern dialects): They had ben a fyghtyng with their ennimies (The Chronicle of Froissart, cited by, V. N. Yartseva, p. 136); Arestotill sais þat þe bees are feghtande agaynes hym þat will drawe þaire hony fra thayme. *Aristotle says that bees are lighting against the one who takes their honey from them* (Richard Rolle, The Nature of the Bee, II. 19-20). The functional similarity of both con- structions favoured their merging in Middle English and on that basis a new form emerged. It is generally believed now that the grammatical meaning of the continuous form was taken over from the Old English phrases with the verbal noun after the preposition - a continuous action limited in time - though the grammatical form goes back to the

Old English phrases with the present participle. The process of the grammaticalization of the construction which would develop into a future continuous form was connected with the loss of the lexical meaning of the verb *to be*, wiih the increase in its combinability and with the process of verbalization that consisted in the development of the verbal features of the present participle.

The origin of the suffix *-ing* in the form of the present participle is not quite easy to explain and there are different attempts to give an adequate theoretical explanation from morphological, phonological and syntactical approaches. The explanation supplied by prof. A. I. Smirnitsky takes into account the functional similarity that favoured the development both of the continuous form and the non-finite forms of the verb: the present participle and the gerund and speaks about the emergence of syntactical doublets in Middle English: herde fowles singende - herde fowles singing, he lay on dyinge-he lay dyinde. The confusion of these constructions, in A. I. Smirnitsky's opinion, led to the transfer of the suffix *-ing* from the verbal noun to the participle. In Late Middle English the form of the present participle with the *-ing* is quite common: Singinge he was, or floytinge, al the day. *He was ringing and playing the flute all day long* (Chaucer, The Canterbury Tales, Prologue, I. 91). The perfect continuous forms appeared in Late Middle English and in Early Modern English, as in the following sentence from Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales:* we han ben waytinge al this fourtenight ue *have been attending for all this fortnight* (The Knight's Tale, I. 71) and in the sentence from William Shakespeare's play *King Henry the Eighth:* Old Lady: Why, this it is: see, see! I *have been begging* sixteen years in court-Am yet a courtier beggarly-(Act 2, Sc. 3, II. 81-85), but they wen; not frequent.

In Early Modern English the grammatical meaning of the construction with the verb to be and the present participle was still not completely defined and was not contrasted paradigmatically and semantically with the non-continuous form. It is traditionally assumed that the analytical contin uous form was completely grammaticalized in the eighteenth century. Old forms of the participle with the reduced preposition or with the nominal government can still be found in some local and social dialects in Late Modern English, as, for example, (the cockney dialect): Biggs's boy hailed him: "Hi! Ground floor o'42's a-moving" (J. K. Jerome, p. 58), (the South East): "I've been a-bakin", said de liddle voice, (East Anglia): What arc yew a-crying for? What were that you was a singun' of, Maw'r? (Folk-tales of the British Isles), (nusery rhymes):

> I saw a *ship a-sailing,*
> *A-sailing on the sea,*
> *And, oh! it* was *all laden*
> *With pretty things for me.*

On the whole, the Modern English tense-aspect verbal system which is the result of a complex grammatical development shows the transition to the dominance of the analytical forms, whereas the old synthetical mor phological forms can be

regarded as peripheral.

4. Conclusions

The morphological system of English has been greatly transformed through the time, some grammatical categories disappeared, some have been modified and in the verbal system new grammatical categories and new grammatical forms have been established. The main factors that led to a considerable morphological rebuilding were phonetic and analogous changes that greatly modified the noun and the verb systems and the operation of such grammatical processes as grammaticalization and verbalization.

Questions and tasks for self-control

1. The development of the Old English preterite-present verbs and the evolution of modals in the history of English
2. Modifications of the system of personal pronouns in the history of English
3. The major tendencies in the development of the system of demonstrative pronouns in the history of English and the rise of the system of articles
4. Dominant tendencies in the transformation of the system of possessive pronouns in the history of English
5. The development of new types of pronouns in the history of English
6. The rise of new parts of speech in Middle and Modern periods of the development of English
7. The evolution of the non-finite forms in the verbal system of English and the rise of the gerund as a result of the grammatical process of verbalization.
8. The main stages of the process of grammaticalization in the history of English verbal forms
9. General tendencies in the development of the structural characteristics of the word combinations
10. The major dominant tendencies in the evolution of the sentence structure in the history of English
11. The major dominant tendencies in the development of complex sentences in the history of English
12. The impact of sociolinguistic factors on the formation of the English literary grammar norm
13. The evolution of the category of definiteness/indefiniteness and the rise of the system of article

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