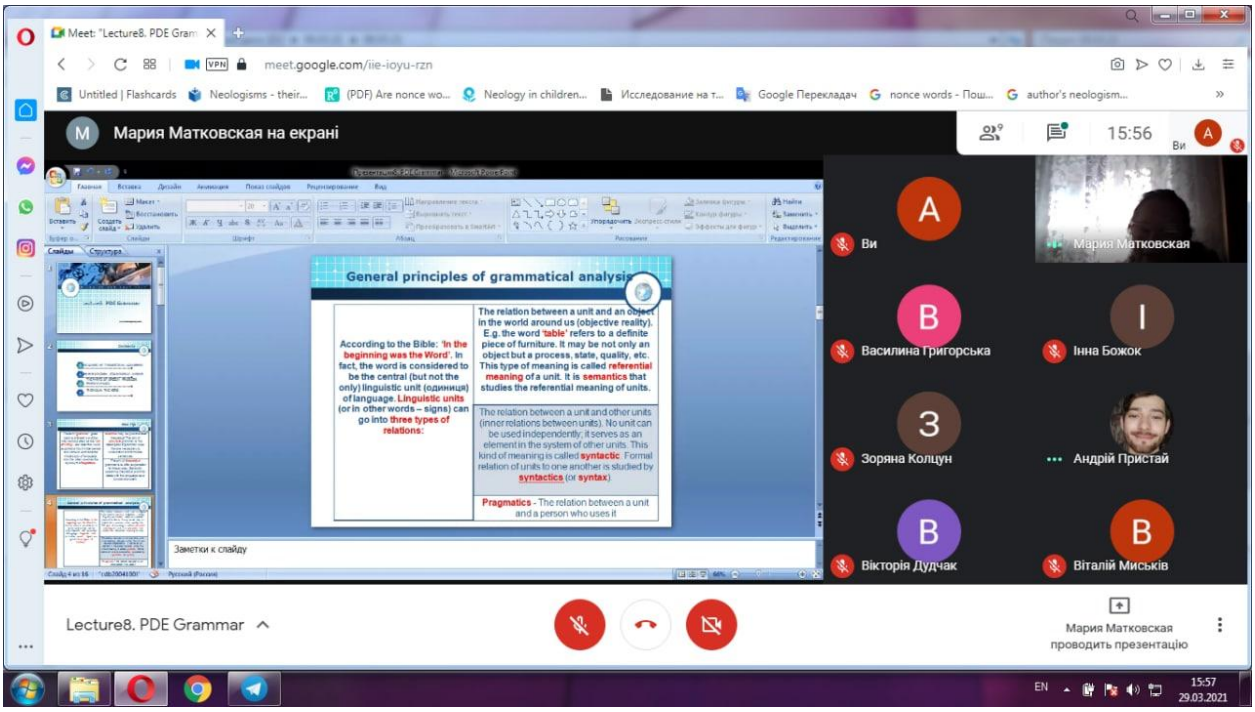
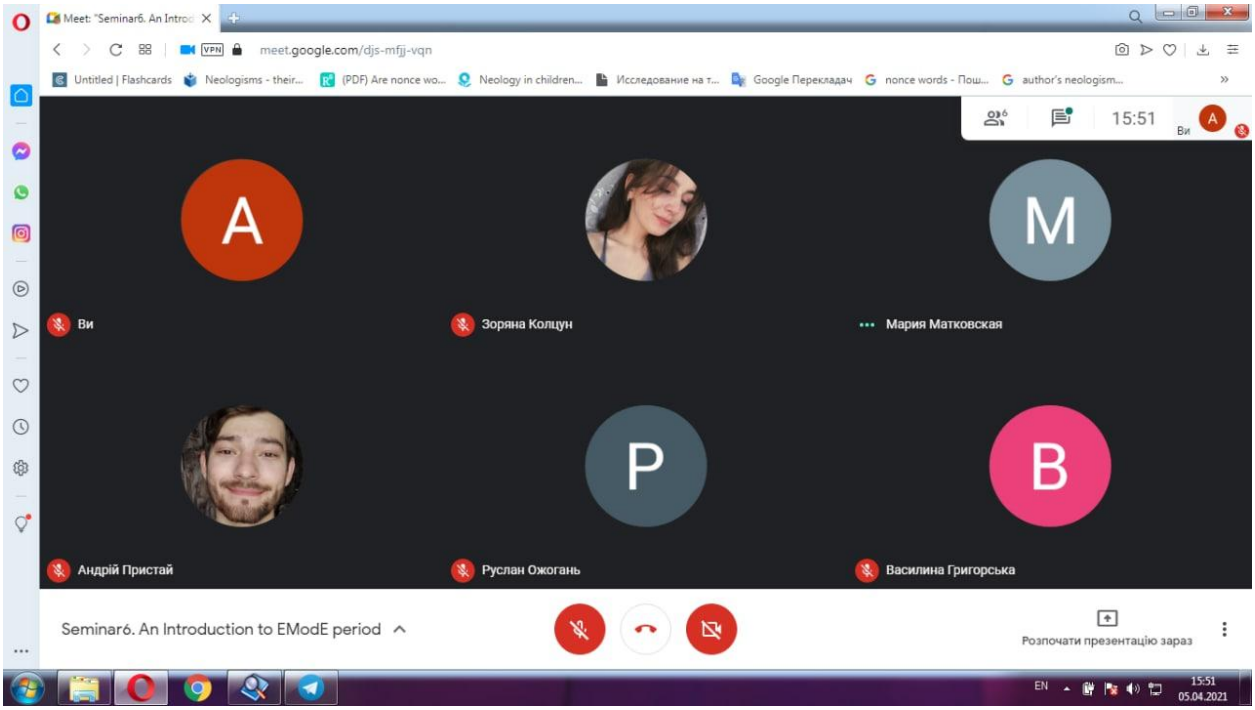
Матковська М.В.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THEORETICAL COURSE OF ENGLISH





Матковська М.В.

AN INTRODUCTION TO THEORETICAL COURSE OF ENGLISH

Навчально-методичний посібник

для самостійної роботи

Кам'янець-Подільський

2023

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М 33

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Друкується за ухвалою вченої ради
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Навчально-методичний посібник спрямований на формування у студентів мовно-мовленнєвої компетентності аналізувати та пояснювати лінгвістичні явища з точки зору як історичного, так і сучасного розвитку англійської мови.

Структурно посібник складається з 8 тематичних модулів, у яких викладено основні етапи розвитку фонетичної й граматичної будови сучасної англійської мови, зміни її лексичного складу та словотворчих засобів. Кожен модуль завершується градуйованими тестами для встановлення рівня лінгвістичної й соціокультурної компетенції студента. Інша особливість навчально-методичного посібника полягає у використанні мультимедійних відеофільмів для виконання тестових завдань у системі Moodle, яка на сьогодні перспективна й актуальна форма навчання, сприяє інтенсифікації та активізації творчої діяльності студентів, розвитку філологічного мислення та стимулює їх когнітивний підхід до об'єкту.

Для студентів-філологів вищих навчальних закладів.

УДК 811.11101(075.8)

CONTENTS

6. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MpVAuQUlI-k
7. 5.4. *Chaucer, Lesson 1– Historical Context for the Canterbury Tales*
8. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1epKYZURHB
9. 5.5. *Chaucer, Lesson 2 – Middle English-Introduction to the Canterbury Tales*
10. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZLKAD0tESUc

6. Video films (on You Tube)

History of English – The EModE Period
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bciUXRAUpHk&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63&index=15

6.2. *The History of English – Middle English to Early Modern English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8LyXW0pozQk

6.3. *History of English – Towards PDE*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rJYZq4DMBAA&index=22&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63

6.4. *Early Modern English History*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s7e0otnS5kI

6.5. *David Crystal – Shakespeare Anniversary*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qDAp_KTQewY

6.6. *David Crystal on English Idioms by Shakespeare*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qm2QwsJDbLo

6.7. *Professor David Crystal – The Influence of the King James Bible on the English Language*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lgSDd6Bkatg

5.1.8. *Shakespeare's Sonnets Audio book by William Shakespeare*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h2KeALDmztQ

LECTURE1. PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

Aims:

- ✓ to familiarize students with the system of vocalic and consonantal sounds in Modern English;
- ✓ to account for the system of diphthongs in Modern English.

Points for discussion:

Introduction

1. Vowel sounds in Modern English
2. Consonant sounds in Modern English
3. Diphthongs in Modern English
4. Phonemes and allophones in Modern English

Summary

Key words to know:

speech sound	a phonetically distinct unit of speech
phonetics	the study and classification of speech sounds
phonology	the system of contrastive relationships among the speech sounds that constitute the fundamental components of a language; the study of speech sounds in a particular language
vocalic	relating to or consisting of a vowel or vowels
consonantal	relating to, functioning as, or constituting a consonant, such as the semivowel w in English work; consisting of or characterized by consonants
intonation	the rise and fall of the voice in speaking
palatalization	softening of consonants that takes place when the middle part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate and the air passage is narrowed
vowel	a voiced speech sound whose articulation is characterized by the absence of friction-causing obstruction in the vocal tract, allowing the breath stream free passage. The timbre of a vowel is chiefly determined by the position of the tongue and the lips
consonant	a speech sound or letter of the alphabet other than a vowel; a stop, fricative, or continuant from different cultural backgrounds.
voiced	speech sound is one that is produced with vibration of the vocal cords
voiceless	voiceless speech sound is one that is produced without

	vibration of the vocal cords

Suggested reading:

1. Leontyeva S.F. (1988). *A Theoretical Course of English Phonetics.* M.: Vysshaya shkola. S. 19–47.
2. Karnevskaya, E.B. (1990). *Practical English Phonetics.* Mn: Vysshaya shkola. S. 5–165.
3. *Cognitive Exploration of Language and Linguistics,* (2004). [edited by] Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor; in collaboration with Johan de Caluwe. et al. – 2nd rev. ed. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. P. 100–122.
4. Finegan, E. (1999). *Language: Its Structure and Use.* London &New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers. P. 74–104.
5. Ostapenko, V.I. (2011). *Study Guide to English Phonetics and Phonology*. Kamyanets-Podilsky: FOP Sysyn O.V. P. 6–20.

Introduction

In this lecture we will start describing organs of speech, speech sounds in their general, physical appearance and in their functioning in one specific language, i.e. English. This difference constitutes the basis of the two sciences of speech sounds, i.e. phonetics and phonology. **Phonetics** studies speech sounds as sounds, in all their complexity and diversity, independent of their role in a given language. E. Finegan (1999: 79) figures out three principal branches. 1. *Articulatory phonetics* focuses on the human vocal apparatus and describes sounds in terms of their articulation in the vocal tract. 2. *Acoustic phonetics* uses the tools of physics to study the nature of sound waves produced in human language. 3. *Auditory phonetics* studies the perception of sounds by the brain through the human ear. **Phonology** studies speech sounds as these are categorized by speakers of a given language. In standard British English, there are about 45 different categories of speech sounds, called phonemes.

We will analyze the main types of speech sounds and some phonological processes. These speech sounds are the consonants, vowels and diphthongs. We will try to account for a distinction between a sound and a phoneme as well as a distinction between a phonetic description and a phonemic one.

Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor (2004: 103–104) distinguish two main stages in the production of speech sounds: *phonation and articulation.*

Phonation stands for the airstream becoming voiced or voiceless. Phonation refers to the modulation of the airstream in the glottis. If the vocal folds are brought together, they may vibrate, to produce voice. If air passes freely through the glottis, the air stream is minimally affected (this is the state of voicelessness).

Articulation refers to the creation of a special resonance space for each sound. This involves the shaping of the vocal tract (i.e. the tubular structure above the larynx), by adjustment, in the oral cavity, of the tongue, jaw, velum (soft palate), lips, etc.

While saying the word *zoo*, we will be able to feel a certain vibration. The vibration is that of the vocal folds, technically known as voice. Both **[z]** and **[u]** are **voiced sounds.**

If we repeat this exercise while saying the word *soon*, we would feel no vibration in the larynx. **[s]** is a **voiceless sound.**

1. The vocal cords
2. The lips
3. The teeth
4. The hard palate
5. The soft palate with the uvula
6. The front of the tongue
7. The back of the tongue
8. The pharynx
9. The epiglottis
10. The larynx
11. Glottis

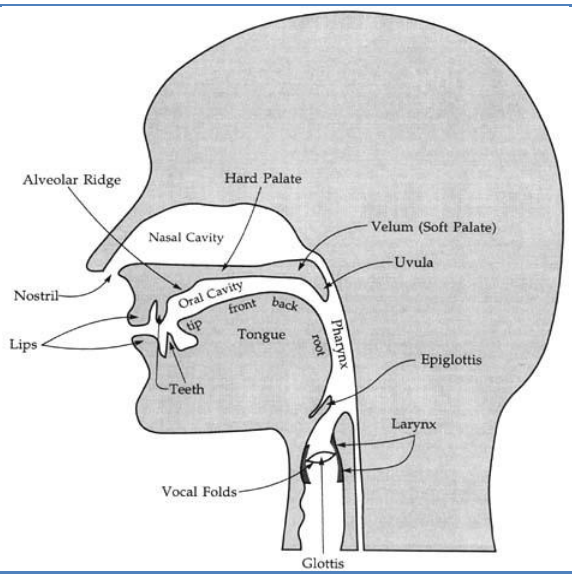
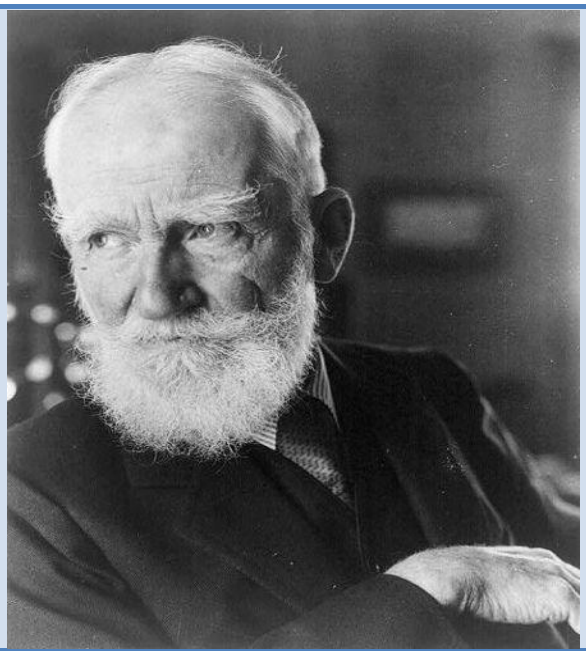


Figure1.1. The Vocal Tract

Bernard Shaw on English spelling

"The English have no respect for their language, and will not teach their children to speak it. They cannot spell it because they had nothing to spell it with but an ***old foreign alphabet*** *of which only the* ***consonants*** *– and not all of them – have any agreed* ***speech value.*** *Consequently no man can teach himself what it should sound like* ***from reading it".***

/G.B. Shaw, Pygmalion, Preface/



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The poem on spelling irregularities (*source-unknown*)

I take it you already know
of *tough* and *bough* and *cough* and *dough*?
Some may stumble but not you.
on *hiccough*, *thorough*, *slough* and *through*?
So now you are ready perhaps
to learn of less familiar traps?
Beware of *heard*, a dreadful *word* that looks like *beard* and sounds like *bird*, and *dead* is *said* like *bed*, not *bead* or *deed*.
Watch out for *meat*, *great*, and *threat* that rhyme with, *suite*, *straight* and *debt*.
(Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*, p.14)

1.1. Vowel sounds in Modern English

Many phoneticians (D. Crystal, R. Dirvin and M. Verspoor, E. Finegan, and others) consider that vowel sounds differ from the consonant sounds in that they are produced not by blocking air in its passage from the lungs but by passing air through different shapes of the mouth and different positions of the tongue and lips.

Vowels are characterized by the position of the tongue and the lips, in particular by the relative height and relative frontness or backness of the tongue and the relative rounding of the lips. We refer to vowels as being high or low and front or back; we also consider whether the lips are rounded (as for *pool*) or nonrounded (as for *pill*).

Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor (2004: 109) define the vowels of standard British English. These are:

beat	**i:**	**the**	**ə**	**boot**	**ū**
bit	**ɪ**	**bird**	**ə:**	**put**	**ʊ**
bet	**e**	**but**	**ʌ**	**bored**	**ō**
bat	**æ**	**bard**	**ā**	**pot**	**ɒ**

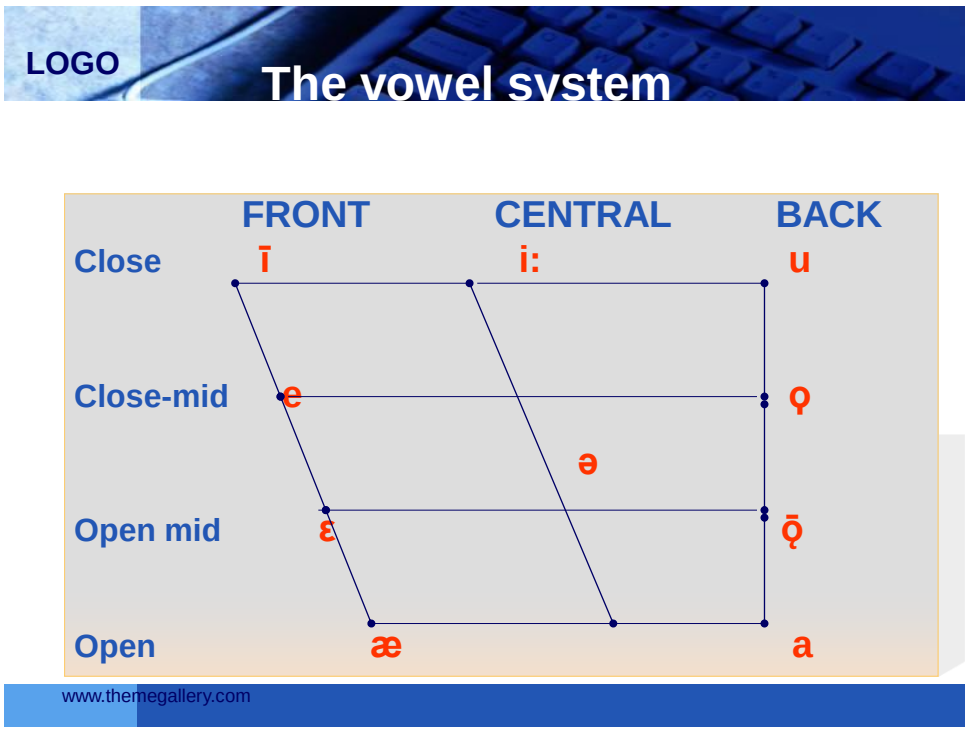

Figure1.2. The Vowels of English

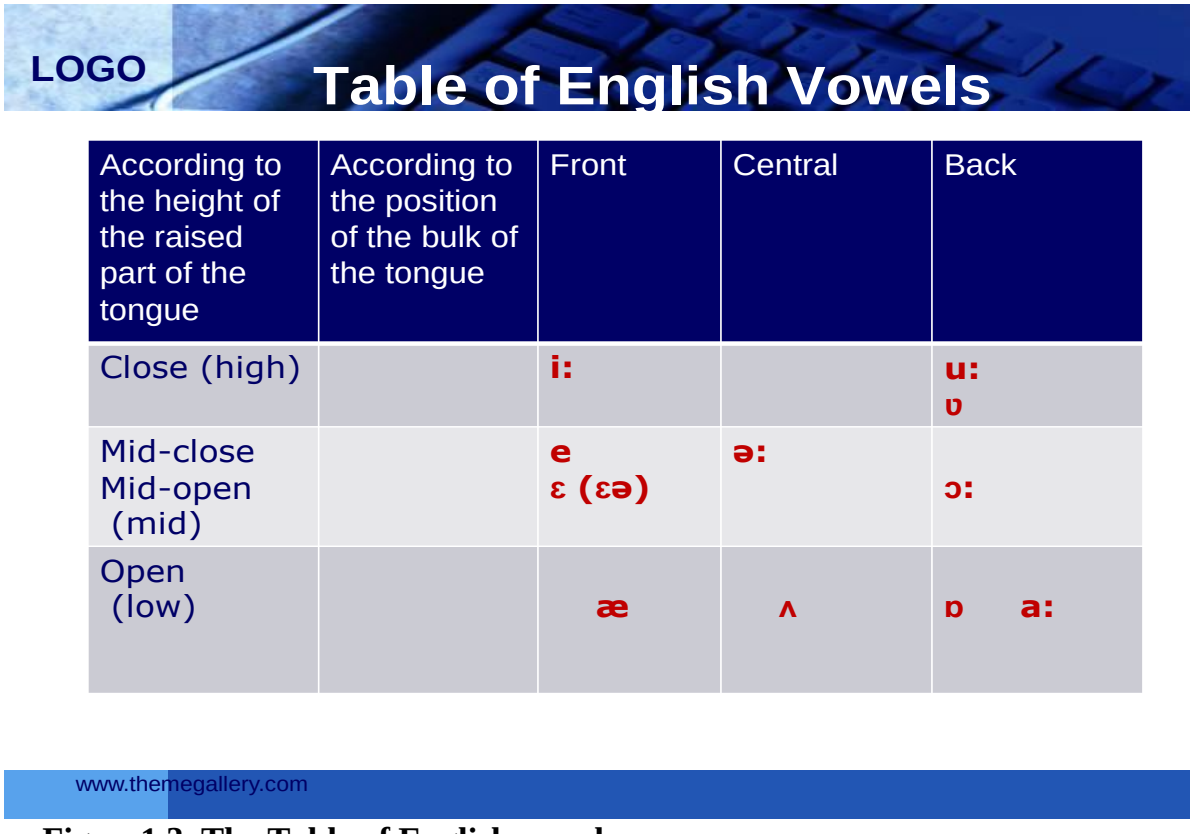

Figure1.3. The Table of English vowels

PDE system of vowels		
	Monophthongs	**Diphthongs**
short	**i, e, æ, ɒ, ʌ, ʊ, ə**	**ei, ai, ɔi, əʊ, aʊ,**

		iə, ɛə, ʊə
long	**i:, ɜ:,(ə:), u:, o:, a:**	**Diphthong –** a vowel phoneme which consists of two elements: a nucleus and a glide
Monophthong – a vowel that has a single perceived auditory quality		

Table1.1. PDE system of vowels

1.2. Consonant sounds in Modern English

Consonants are sounds produced by partially or completely blocking air in its passage from the lungs through the vocal tract. Consonants can be described in terms of two major parameters: the place in the vocal tract at which constriction occurs (**place of articulation**), and the nature of the constriction (**manner of articulation**).

In the articulation of a consonant, a movable articulator (usually some part of the tongue, or the lips) is moved towards a more stable articulator (e.g. the upper teeth, or some part of the palate). The following terms describe the more common places of articulation.

- *bilabial* [p, b, m, w]. The lower lip articulates with the upper lip
- *labiodental* [f, v]. The lower lip articulates with the upper teeth
- *dental* [θ, d]. The tongue tip articulates with the top teeth
- *alveolar* [t, d, n, l, s, z]. The tongue tip articulates with the alveolar ridge. Also many articulations of "r".
- *alveo-palatal* [ʃ, ʒ]. The tongue front (excluding the tip) articulates with the back part of the alveolar ridge.
- *palatal* [j]. The tongue blade articulates with the back part of the alveolar ridge.
- *velar* [k, g]. The tongue back articulates with the velum (soft palate). [k, g] before back vowels, as in *core, gore*.

Manner of articulation describes the kind of constriction that is made. The following are the major categories: **Stops, Fricatives, Affricates, Approximants, Nasals.**

English Stops

The principal stops in English are **[p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g].** By pronouncing words with these in them, we can recognize that [p] and [b] are bilabial stops, [t] and [d] – alveolar stops, and [k] and [g] are velar stops. **Stops** are formed when air is built up in the vocal tract and suddenly released through the mouth.

Place of articulation				
	Bilabial	Alveolar	Velar	Glottal
voiceless	**p**	**t**	**k**	**ʔ**
voiced	**b**	**d**	**g**	

English Fricatives

Fricatives are characterized by a forcing of air in a continuous stream through a narrow opening. *Fricatives* are: **[f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ].** They are made with a very narrow gap between the articulators. The airstream passes through this gap under high pressure, causing friction.

Place of articulation					
	Labio-dental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveo-Palatal	Glottal
voiceless	**f**	**θ**	**s**	**ŝ (IPA ʃ)**	**h**
voiced	**v**	**ð**	**z**	**ž (IPA ʒ)**	

English Affricates

Affricates are: [tʃ, dʒ]. They are complex sounds, consisting of a stop followed immediately by a fricative *at the same place of articulation*. They are closely related to stops and fricatives. English has two affricates, both of which are alveo-palatal affricates.

Place of articulation	
Alveo-palatal	
voiceless	**č (IPA tʃ)**
voiced	**ǰ (IPA dʒ)**

English Approximants

Approximants are**: [r, l, j, w].** They are articulated with only minimal constriction; consequently, there is virtually no friction. In most varieties of English, word initial "r" is an approximant. It is articulated by moving the tip of the tongue towards the alveolar ridge, deflecting the air over the tongue without causing friction. In laterals the air flows along the sides (or along one side) of the tongue. For [l], the tip of the tongue forms a complete closure centrally against the alveolar ridge (as in a stop), but the side(s) of the tongue is/are lowered, and air is deflected between the side(s) and the gums.

Place of articulation			
	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palatal
Voiced (central)	**w**	**r**	**y**
Voiced (lateral)		**l**	

English Nasals

Nasals are: [m, n, ŋ]. They involve a blocking of the oral airstream, by lowering of the velum. Thus, the air is allowed to escape through the nasal cavities.
Place of articulation

Bilabial	Alveolar	Velar
m	**n**	**ŋ**

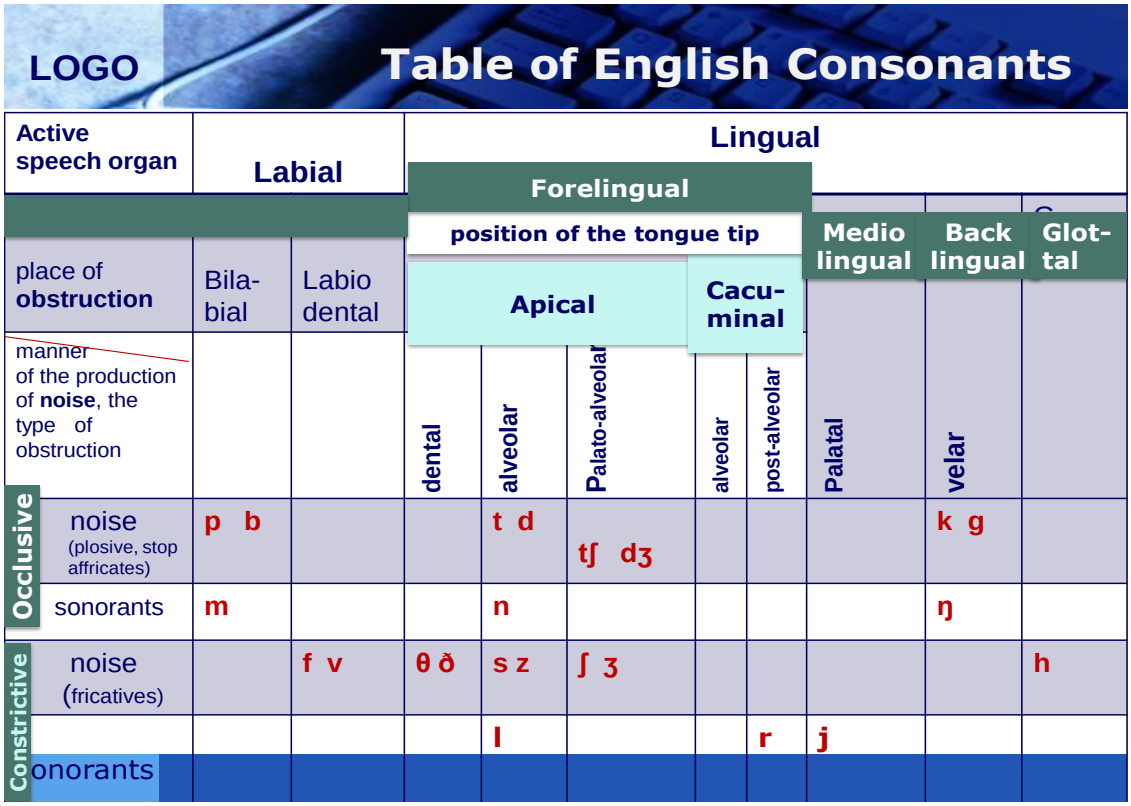

Figure1.4. The Table of English consonants

Thus, we may summarize:

English consonants
According **to the work of the vocal cords** consonants are subdivided into **voiced and voiceless:**
Voiced consonants are: **/b, d, g, z, v, ð, ʒ, m, n, ŋ, l, r, j, w, dʒ/**
Voiceless consonants are: **/p, t, k, s, f, θ, h, ʃ, ʧ**

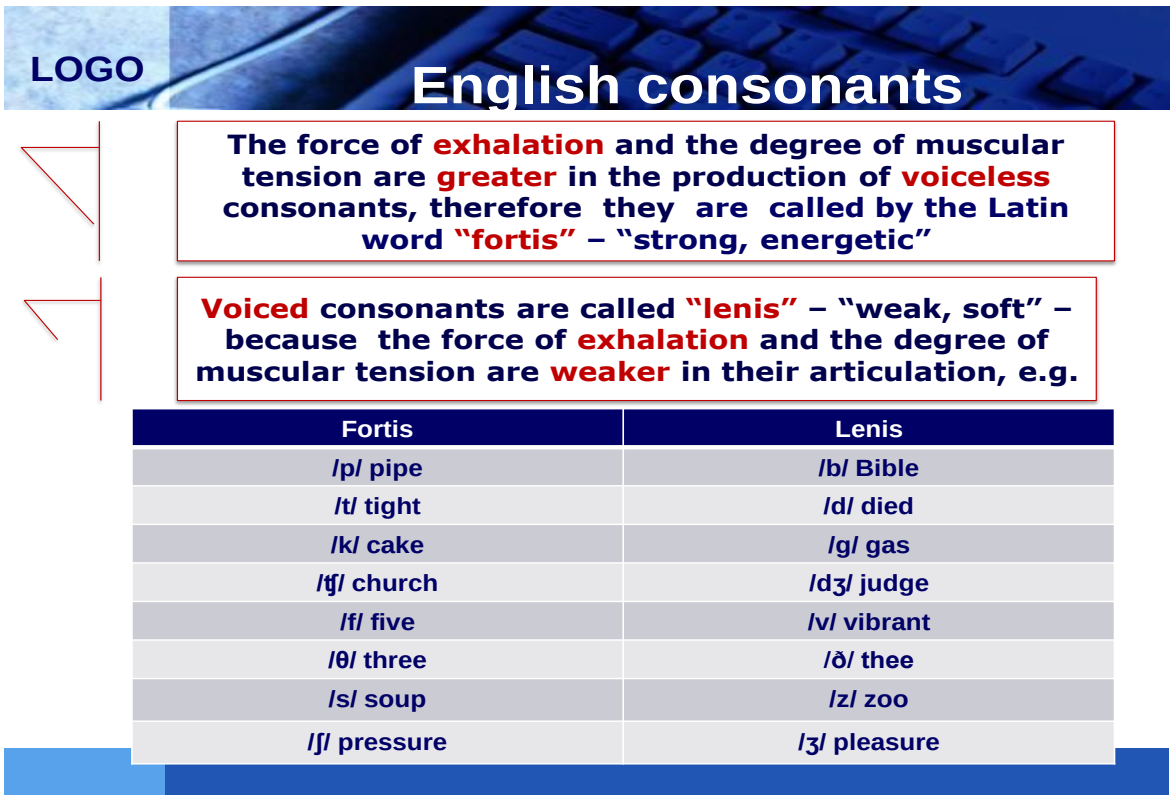

Figure1.5. Fortis and lenis English consonants

The English consonants /h, m, n, ŋ, w, j, r/ do not enter *fortis-lenis* oppositions

According to the **position of the active organs of speech** consonants are classified into 1. **Labial** 2. **Lingual** 3. **Glottal**	
Labial consonants are: a. **Bilabial** b. **Labio-dental**	
Bilabial consonants are produced with both lips	**Labio-dental** consonants are articulated with the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth
/p, b, m, w/	**/f, v/**

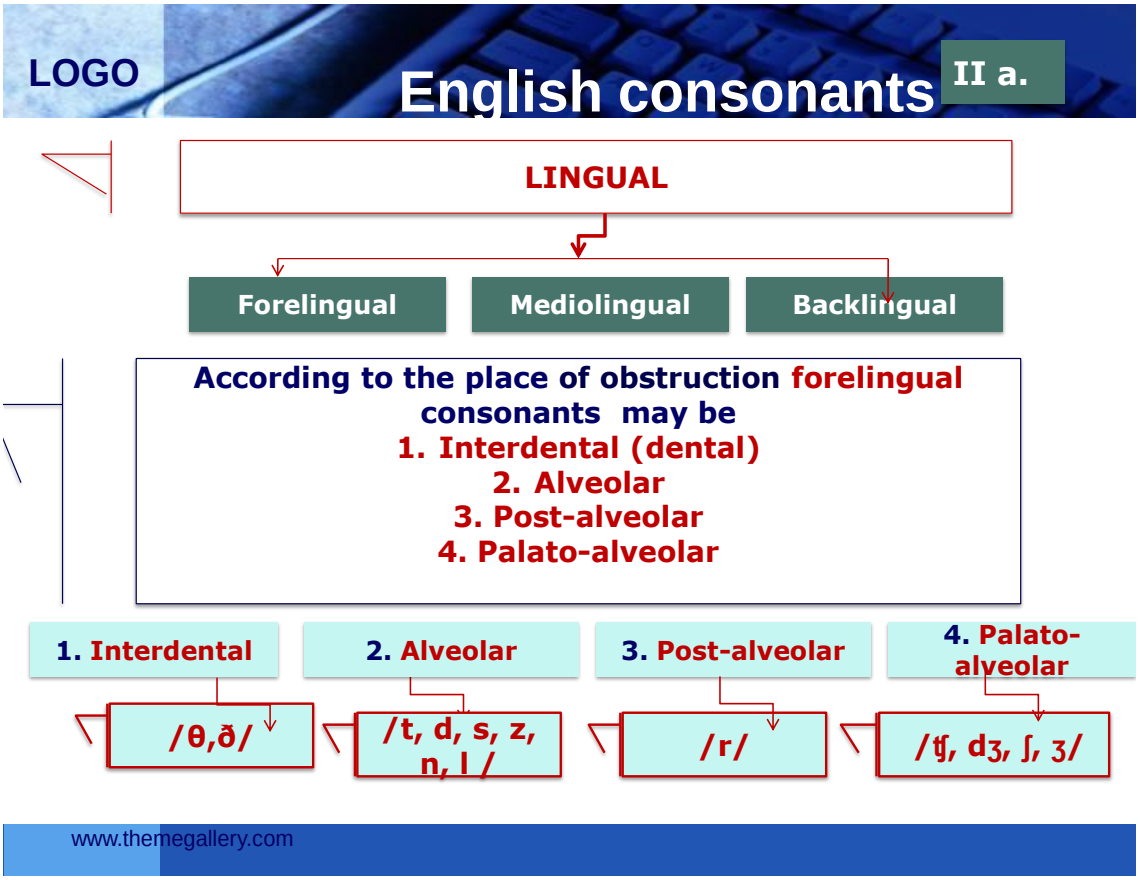

Figure1.5. English forelingual consonants

English mediolingual, backlingual and glottal consonants		
Mediolingual	**Backlingual (velar)**	**Glottal**
Mediolingual consonants are produced with the front part of the tongue raised high to the hard palate	Backlingual consonants are produced with the back part of the tongue raised to the soft palate "velum"	The **glottal** consonant /**h**/ is articulated in the glottis
/j/	**/k, g, ŋ/**	**/h/**

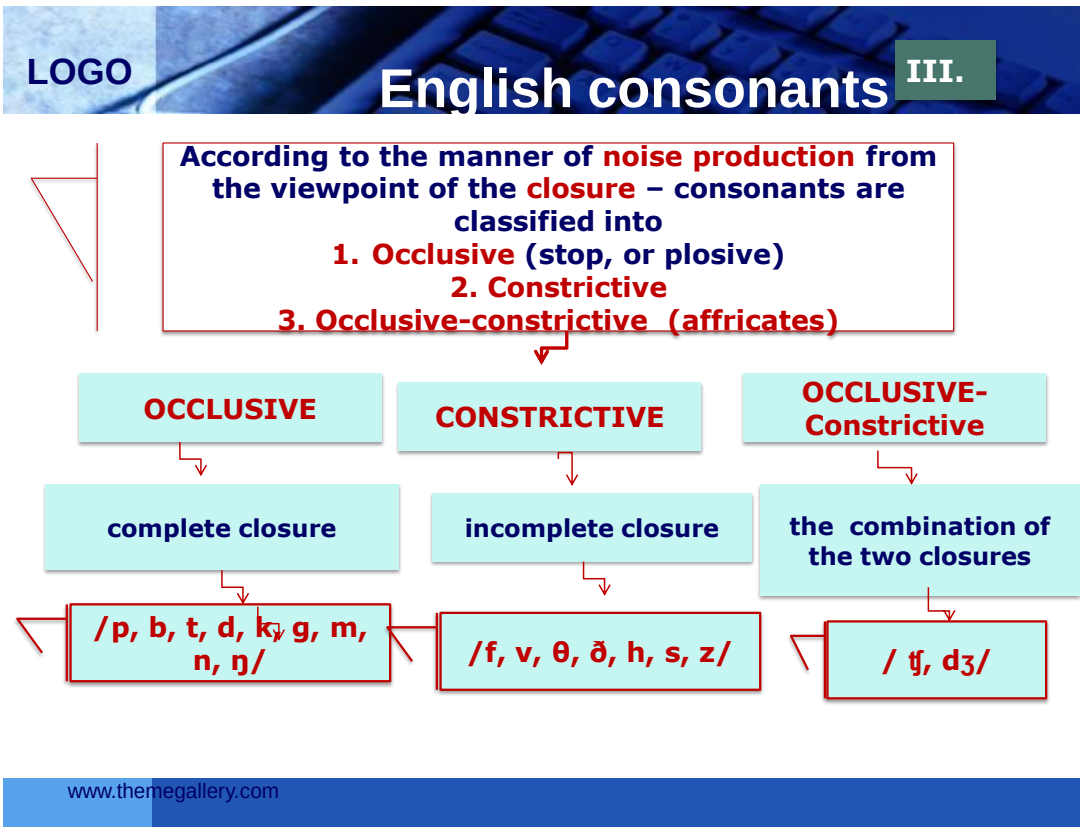

Figure1.6. English occlusive constrictive consonants

According to the **position of the soft palate** – consonants are classified into 1. **Oral** 2. **Nasal**	
Oral	**Nasal**
When the **soft palate** is **raised** and the air from the lungs gets into the pharynx and then into the mouth cavity, **oral consonants** are produced	When the **soft palate** is **lowered** and the air on its way out passes through the nasal cavity, **nasal consonants** are produced
/p, b, t, d, k, g, m, n, ŋ/	**/ m, n, ŋ/**

Occlusive Noise Consonant Phonemes (Plosives) /p, b, t, d, k, g/	
/p, b/ - the lips are brought together and form a complete obstruction	**/t, d/** - the tip of the tongue is against the alveolar ridge.
/p/ is voiceless fortis, labial, bilabial, occlusive (plosive, or stop), noise, oral	**/t/** is voiceless fortis, **/d/** is voiced lenis, lingual, forelingual, alveolar, occlusive, (plosive, or stop), noise, oral
/b/ is voiced lenis, labial, bilabial, occlusive, noise, oral	**/k, g/** - the back part of the tongue is pressed against the soft palate, or velum
/p/ is not pronounced: In Greek words **before n, s, t,** e.g. ***pneumonia, psalm,*** etc.	**/k/** is voiceless fortis, **/g/** is voiced lenis, lingual, backlingual velar, occlusive (plosive, or stop), noise, oral

/b/ is not pronounced **after m** and **before t:** ***lamb, debt, doubt.***	

Occlusive Nasal Sonorants /m, n, ŋ/	
/m/ - the lips are slightly pressed together and form a complete obstruction	**/ŋ/ -** the back part of the tongue touches the soft palate, or velum
/m/ is a labial, bilabial, occlusive nasal sonorant	**/ŋ/** is a backlingual, velar, occlusive, nasal sonorant
/n/– the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge	
/n/ is a lingual, forelingual, alveolar, occlusive nasal sonorant	

Constrictive Noise Phonemes (Fricatives) /s, z, f, v, θ, ð, h, ʃ, ʒ/	
/s, z/ - the tip of the tongue rises to the alveolar ridge	**/h/ -** a strong stream of air is passing through the open glottis
/s/ is voiceless fortis, **/z/** is voiced lenis, lingual, forelingual, alveolar, constrictive, noise, oral	**h/** is voiceless fortis, glottal, constrictive, noise, oral
/f, v/– the lower lip makes a light contact with the upper front teeth	**/ʃ, ʒ/ -** the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate
/f/ is voiceless fortis, **/v/** is voiced lenis, labial, labio-dental, constrictive, noise, oral	The sounds **/ʃ, ʒ/** are soft or slightly palatalized
/θ, ð/ - the tip of the tongue should be slightly projected between the teeth	**/ʃ/** is voiceless fortis, lingual, forelingual, palato-alveolar, constrictive, noise, oral
/θ/ is voiceless fortis, lingual, forelingual, interdental, constrictive, noise, oral	**/ʒ/** is voiced lenis, lingual, forelingual, palato-alveolar, constrictive, noise, oral
/ð/ is voiced lenis, lingual, forelingual, interdental, constrictive, noise, oral	

Constrictive Sonorants (Approximants) /r, j, l, w/	
/r, j, l, w/- in the articulation of these consonant phonemes voice prevails over noise, therefore all of them are sonorants. They fall into three groups: **median /w, r/ lateral /l/** and **palatal /j/.**	**/j/ -** in the articulation of /j/ the front part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate. The tip of the tongue is lowered
/r/ is sonorant, lingual, forelingual, post-alveolar, constrictive, median, oral	**/l/** is sonorant, lingual, forelingual, alveolar, constrictive, lateral, oral
/r/- the tip of the tongue is curled behind the back slope of the teeth-ridge (alveolar)	**/l/ -** the tip and the blade are slightly pressed against the alveolar ridge

/j/ is sonorant, lingual, medio-lingual, palatal, constrictive, median, oral	**/w/** is sonorant, labial, bilabial, constrictive, median, velar, oral. The lips are protruded and rounded

Occlusive-Constrictive Noise Phonemes (Affricates) /tʃ, dʒ/
/tʃ/- is voiceless fortis, **/dʒ/** is voiced lenis, lingual, fore- and mediolingual, palato-alveolar, oclusive-constrictive (affricates) noise, oral
The **first focus** is formed by the tip and the blade of the tongue, touching the back part of **the teeth ridge**
The **second focus** is formed by the front part of the tongue, which is raised to the **hard palate**
affricate - a composite speech sound consisting of a stop and a fricative
phoneme - one of the set of speech sounds in any given language that serve to distinguish one word from another

1.3. Diphthongs in Modern English

English has several diphthongs. A **diphthong** is a sequence of two vowels within a single syllable. One component of the diphthong is more prominent than the other. In the English diphthongs, it is usually the first component which is more prominent.

Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor (2004: 112–113) distinguish two broad categories of diphthongs in English, which differ according to the direction of vowel movement: the **rising** and the **centering** diphthongs. In the rising diphthongs the movement is towards a **high vowel**, and in the centering diphthongs the movement is towards **schwa**. Rising diphthongs are in turn divided into those which have movement towards **/i/,** and those which have movement towards /**u/.**/

Rising diphthongs				**Centering diphthongs**	
say	**ei**	**how**	**au**	**hair**	**eə**
sigh	**ai**	**so**	**əu**	**here**	**iə**
soy	**oi**			**poor**	**uə**

In Modern English there are some triphthongs, i.e. sequences of three vowel sounds within a syllable. Here are some examples:

Modern English triphthongs	
shower, flower	**auə**
fire, hire	**aiə**
lawyer	**oiə**

1.4. Phonemes and allophones in Modern English

The “p” sound in *pin* is different from the “p” sound in *spin*; the former is aspirated [p^h], the latter unaspirated [p]. Yet, in an important sense, we want to say that the two “p” sounds of English, in spite of their phonetic difference, are variants of the same sound (Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor, 2004: 113).

The term phoneme designates the more abstract unit, of which [ph] and [p] are examples. [p^h] and [p] are allophones of the same phoneme, /p/. By convention, phonemes are written between slashes / /, while allophones (or, more generally, sounds considered in their phonetic aspects) are written between square brackets [].

/p/ phoneme	
[p] allophone	**[p^h] allophone**

1.4. Summary

Consonants are characterized according to the work of active organs of speech, place of obstruction and manner of the production of noise, and the type of obstruction.

Vowels are determined as front central and back ones according to the position of the bulk of the tongue and according to the height of the raised part of the tongue they are classified as close (high), middle close and middle open, and open (low)

Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels in one syllable. According to the direction of vowel movement they may be rising and centering diphthongs.

Two different sounds are two different phonemes if they cause a difference in meaning as in a minimal pair like *pear* and *bear*. Different sounds that do not create a difference in meaning like the [t^h] in *top* and the [t] in *stop* are allophones, which in this case occur in complementary distribution. This means that they are bound to a given position: [*t^h*] can only occur in initial position, [*t*] in non-initial position.

Questions for self-control

1. Identify the front vowels. Exemplify your answer.
2. Figure out the major types of English consonants. Exemplify your answer.
3. Analyze the principles of structuring the English consonants. Exemplify your answer.
4. What types of labial consonants can you name?
5. What labio-dental consonants can you name?
6. What alveolar consonants can you name? Exemplify your answer.
7. Identify the velar consonants of Modern English?
8. Comment on the types of lingual consonants?
9. Identify the consonants of Modern English according to the place of obstruction. Exemplify your answer.
10. Identify the consonants of Modern English according to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction. Exemplify your answer.

SEMINAR1. Phonetics and Phonology

Aims:

- ✓ to account for the system of vowels, consonants and diphthongs in Modern English;
- ✓ to figure out the difference between phonetics and phonology.

Points for discussion:

Introduction

1. Vowel sounds in Modern English
2. Consonant sounds in Modern English
3. Diphthongs in Modern English
4. Phonemes and allophones in Modern English

Summary

Suggested reading:

1. Leontyeva S.F. (1988). *A Theoretical Course of English Phonetics.* M.: Vysshaya shkola. S. 19–47.
2. Karnevskaya, E.B. (1990). *Practical English Phonetics.* Mn: Vysshaya shkola. S. 5–165.
3. *Cognitive Exploration of Language and Linguistics,* (2004). [edited by] Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor; in collaboration with Johan de Caluwe. et al. – 2nd rev. ed. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. P. 100–122.
4. Finegan, E. (1999). *Language: Its Structure and Use.* London &New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers. P. 74–104.
5. Ostapenko, V.I. (2011). *Study Guide to English Phonetics and Phonology*. Kamyanets-Podilsky: FOP Sysyn O.V. P. 6–20.

Tests: review of theory

I. True/False: write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. According to the height of the raised part of the tongue vowels are divided into front, central and back.

2. In pronouncing the bilabial consonants the lower lip articulates with the upper teeth.

3. In pronouncing the labiodental consonants the lower lip articulates with the upper lip.

4. In pronouncing the alveolar consonants the tongue tip articulates with the hard palate.
5. In pronouncing the velar consonants *t*he tongue back articulates with the hard palate.
6. Stops are formed when air is built up in the vocal tract and suddenly released through the mouth.
7. Fricatives are complex sounds, consisting of a stop followed immediately by a fricative *at the same place of articulation*.
8. According to the work of the vocal cords consonants are subdivided into voiced and voiceless.
9. The English consonants /h, m, n, ŋ, w, j, r/ enter *fortis-lenis* oppositions.
10. Vowels are characterized by the position of the tongue and the lips, in particular by the relative height and relative frontness or backness of the tongue.

II. Multiple choice: select the best response on each of the following questions/statements.

1. **/p, b, m, w/** are _____ consonants are produced with both lips.
   A bilabial
   B alveolar
   C labio-dental
2. The principal _____ in English are **[p], [b], [t], [d], [k], [g].**
   A fricatives
   B stops
   C affricates
3. **_____** are: [tʃ, dʒ]. They are complex sounds, consisting of a stop followed immediately by a fricative at the same place of articulation.
   A Fricatives
   B Stops
   C Affricates
4. _____ consonants are produced with the back part of the tongue raised to the soft palate "velum".

   A Backlingual
   B Forelingual
   C Glottal

5. _____ consonants are produced with the front part of the tongue raised high to the hard palate.
   A Mediolingual
   B Forelingual
   C Glottal

6. **_____** consonants are articulated with the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth.
   A Dental
   B Labio-dental
   C Labio

7. The glottal consonant /**h**/ is articulated in the _____.

A soft palate
B velum
C glottis

8. When the soft palate is lowered and the air on its way out passes through the nasal cavity, _____ consonants are produced.

A nasal
B velar
C glottal

9. **/p, b/** are: Occlusive Noise Consonant Phonemes _____

A Nasals
B Dentals
C Plosives

10. **/m, n, ŋ/** are: Occlusive Nasal _____

A Sonorants
B Dentals
C Constrictive

III. Matching: match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

1. Bilabial consonants are:
2. Labiodental consonants are: [
3. Dental consonants are:
4. Alveolar consonants are:
5. Alveo-palatal consonants are..
6. Velar consonants are: [k, g].
7. Constrictive Noise Phonemes (Fricatives) are:
8. Constrictive Sonorants (Approximants) are: /
9. Occlusive-Constrictive Noise Phonemes (Affricates) are:
10. Occlusive Noise Consonant Phonemes (Plosives) are:

A – [ʃ, ʒ]. The tongue front (excluding the tip) articulates with the back part of the alveolar ridge
B – [p, b, m, w]. The lower lip articulates with the upper lip
C – ʻ/s, z, f, v, θ, ð, h, ʃ, ʒ/.
D – [f, v]. The lower lip articulates with the upper teeth
E – /ʧ, dʒ.
F– [θ, d]. The tongue tip articulates with the top teeth
G – [k, g]. The tongue back articulates with the velum (soft palate). [k, g] before back vowels, as in *core, gore*.
H – [t, d, n, l, s, z]. The tongue tip articulates with the alveolar ridge
I – /r, j, l, w/.

J – /p, b, t, d, k, g/.

SELF-STUDY1

Aims:

- watch the video films pertaining to self-study 1; *i.e.*, basics of phonetics and phonology;
- cognize and apprehend information from the given films;
- take the computer (e-learning system) tests, based on them;
- amend and refine your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

9. Video films (on You Tube)

4. Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=elFOQnWr5Co

5. Phonetics vs. Phonology
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=De4iMKxSpgY

6. The Phoneme
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=f3UpSsH3Tb0

Suggested reading:

1. Leontyeva S.F. (1988). *A Theoretical Course of English Phonetics.* M.: Vysshaya shkola. S. 19–47.
2. Karnevskaya, E.B. (1990). *Practical English Phonetics.* Mn: Vysshaya shkola. S. 5–165.
3. *Cognitive Exploration of Language and Linguistics*, (2004). [edited by] Rene Dirven and Marjolijn Verspoor; in collaboration with Johan de Caluwe. et al. – 2nd rev. ed. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company. P. 100–122.
4. Finegan, E. (1999). *Language: Its Structure and Use.* London &New York: Harcourt Brace College Publishers. P. 74–104.
5. Ostapenko, V.I. (2011). *Study Guide to English Phonetics and Phonology*. Kamyanets-Podilsky: FOP Sysyn O.V. P. 6–20.

10. Computer tests in e-learning system (Moodle):
Multiple choice: select the best response on each of the following questions / statements.

PDE system of vowels consists of _____ {
~%50%monophthongs
~%50%diphthongs

~consonants
}

A vowel with a single perceived auditory quality _____ {
~monophthong
~diphthong
~consonant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/b/** is a _____ sound {
~labial
~lingual
~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/p/** is a _____ sound {
~labial
~lingual
~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/m/** is a _____ sound {
~labial
~lingual
~alveolar
}

According to the active organs of speech **/f/** is a _____ sound {
~labial
~lingual
~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/v/** is a _____ sound {
~labial
~lingual
~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/t/** is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial
~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/d/** is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial

~sonorant
}

According to the active organs of speech **/n/** is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial
~dental
}

According to the active organs of speech **/s**/ is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial
~dental
}

According to the active organs of speech **/z**/ is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial
~dental
}

According to the active organs of speech **/l**/ is a _____ sound {
~lingual
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/tʃ/** is a _____ sound {
~palate-alveolar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/dʒ/** is a _____ sound {
~palate-alveolar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/ʃ/** is a _____ sound {
~palate-alveolar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/ʒ/** is a _____ sound {
~palate-alveolar
~labial

~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/r/** is a _____ sound {
~post-alveolar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/j/** is a _____ sound {
~palatal
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/k/** is a _____ sound {
~velar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the place of obstruction **/g/** is a _____ sound {
~velar
~labial
~dental
}

According to the position of the active organs of speech **/h/** is a _____ sound {
~glottal
~labial
~dental
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction **/b/** is a _____ sound {
~occlusive noise plosive
~sonorant
~constrictive noise plosive
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction **/p/** is a _____ sound {
~occlusive noise plosive
~sonorant
~constrictive noise plosive
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction **/m/** is a _____ sound {
~sonorant
~affricate
~constrictive
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction **/t/** is a _____ sound {
~occlusive noise plosive
~sonorant
~constrictive noise plosive
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction /**d**/ is a _____ sound {
~occlusive noise plosive
~sonorant
~constrictive noise fricative
}

According to the manner of the production of noise and the type of obstruction /**b**/ is a _____ sound {
~occlusive noise plosive
~sonorant
~constrictive noise fricative
}

Identify the following consonants according to the place of obstruction {
~/ð/ -> Interdental
~/t/ -> Alveolar
~/s/ -> Alveolar
~/ʃ/ ->Palato-alveolar
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/p/ -> voiceless, bilabial, occlusive
~/b/ -> voiced, bilabial, occlusive
~/d/ -> voiced, lingual, alveolar, occlusive
~/t/ -> voiceless, lingual, alveolar, occlusive
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/g/ -> voiced, lingual, velar, occlusive
~/k/ -> voiceless, lingual, velar, occlusive
~/m/ -> labial, bilabial, occlusive sonorant
~/n/ -> lingual, alveolar, occlusive sonorant
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/z/ -> voiced, lingual, alveolar, constrictive
~/s/ -> voiceless, lingual, alveolar, constrictive
~/v/ -> voiced, labio-dental, constrictive
~/f/ -> voiceless, labio-dental, constrictive
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/ð/ -> voiced, lingual, interdental, constrictive
~/θ/ -> voiceless, lingual, interdental, constrictive
~/h/ -> voiceless, glottal, constrictive
~/ŋ/ -> backlingual, velar, occlusive sonorant
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/ʒ/ -> voiced, lingual, palate-alveolar, constrictive
~/ʃ/ -> voiceless, lingual, palate-alveolar, constrictive
~/r/ -> sonorant, lingual, post-alveolar, constrictive
~/j/ -> sonorant, lingual, palatal, constrictive
}

Identify the following consonants {
~/l/ -> sonorant, lingual, alveolar, constrictive
~/w/ -> sonorant, labial, bilabial, velar, constrictive
~/dʒ/ -> voiced, lingual, palate-alveolar, occlusive-constrictive
~/tʃ/ -> voiceless, lingual, palate-alveolar, occlusive-constrictive
}

According to the work of the vocal cords consonants are subdivided into _____ {
~voiced and voiceless
~voiced
~voiceless
}

Labial consonants are: _____ {
~bilabial, labio-dental
~dental
~alveolar
}

Forelingual consonants are: _____ {
~dental, alveolar
~labio-dental
~velar
}

Mediolingual consonants are: _____ {
~palatal

~labio-dental
~velar
}

Backlingual consonants are: _____ {
~velar
~labio-dental
~palatal
}

According to the position of the soft palate consonants are classified into ___ {
~oral, nasal
~voiced, voiceless
~lenis
}

In the articulation of _____ the lips are brought together and form a complete obstruction {
~/p, b/
~/t, d/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue is against the alveolar ridge {
~/t, d/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the back part of the tongue is pressed against the soft palate or velum {
~/k, g/
~/p, b/
~/t, d/
}

In the articulation of _____ the lips are pressed together and form a complete obstruction {
~/m/
~/n/
~/k /
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge {
~/n/
~/m/
~/b/
}

In the articulation of _____ the back part of the tongue touches the soft palate or velum {
~/ŋ/
~/n/
~/m/
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue rises to the alveolar ridge {
~/s, z/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the lower lip makes a light contact with the upper front teeth {
~/f, v/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue should be slightly projected between the teeth {
~/θ, ð/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ a strong stream of air is passing through the open glottis {
~/h/
~/p /
~/g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the front part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate {
~/ʃ, ʒ/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue is curled behind the back slope of the teeth-ridge {
~/r/
~/h/
~/w/
}

In the articulation of _____ the front part of the tongue is raised to the hard palate. The tip of the tongue is lowered {
~/j/
~/h/
~/w/
}

In the articulation of _____ the tip and the blade are slightly pressed against the alveolar ridge {
~/l/
~/h/
~/w/
}

In the articulation of _____ the lips are protruded and rounded {
~/w/
~/h/
~/l/
}

According to the position of the bulk of the tongue the PDE vowels are _____ {
~front, central, back
~close, open
~central
}

According to the height of the raised part of the tongue the PDE vowels are ___ {
~close, mid, open
~front, central, back
~central
}

The front vowels are _____ {
~i:, e, ɛ, æ
~e, o, æ, ɛ
~i;, a, u, æ
}

The back vowels are _____ {
~u:, o:, a:, ʌ, ʊ
~e, o, æ, ɛ, a
~i;, a, u, æ, ʊ
}

LECTURE2. The Indo-European language family. Linguistic features of Germanic languages

> *"The **Sanskrit** language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure, more perfect than the **Greek**, more copious than the **Latin**, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, … there is a similar reason, … for supposing that both the **Gothick** and the **Celtick**, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the **Sanskrit".***
>
> (Sir William Jones, Third Anniversary Discourse, on the Hindus. Royal Asiatic Society, 1786)

Aims: to make students familiar with the historical background of the Indo-European family of languages;

- ✓ to account for the main processes that separated the Germanic languages from the rest of the Indo-European ones;
- ✓ to figure out genetic cognates among the Indo-European languages;
- ✓ to trace the Indo-European roots within the words of contemporary English.

Points for Discussion:

Introduction
2.1. The Indo-European hypothesis about the discovery of the Indo-European languages
2.2. Overview of the Germanic languages
2.3. Germanic alphabets
2.4. Indo-European to Germanic: sound changes
2.5. Indo-European to Germanic: changes in morphology and syntax
2.6. Indo-European to Germanic: lexicon changes
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key Words to Know:

Indo-European (IE), Sanskrit	Cognates
Germanic	Centum and Satem
Grimm's Law	The Baltic Theory
Runic, Gothic, Latin Alphabets	The South-East European Theory
Proto-language	The Flood Theory
Inflection	The Caucasus Theory (Proto-IE)

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

1. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 49–88.
2. Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 16–37.
3. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam, Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 35–43.
4. Hans Henrich Hock, Brian D. Joseph. *Language History, Language Change, and Language Relationship: an introduction to historical and comparative linguistics.* – Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter. 1996. – P. 35–64.
5. Richard M. Hogg. *The Cambridge history of the English language*. – Cambridge University Press, 1992. – P. 26–66.
6. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 9–12.
7. T.A.Rastorgueva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 34–49.

Additional:

1. В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 9–19.
2. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 46–57.
3. Жлуктенко Ю.О., Яворська Т.А. *Вступ до германського мовознавства*. – КиЇв, 1986. – С.56–135.

Introduction

In this lecture we will speak about the Indo-European languages highlighting their common historical basis: modem European languages, classical Latin and Greek, and, undoubtedly, Sanskrit related to this family. We will try to clarify the most important changes within sounds, grammar and lexis while comparing Indo-European cognates and to outline their similarities and differences inasmuch as they affect words that are currently widely in use.

1. The Indo-European hypothesis about the discovery of the Indo-European languages

By the early 19th century the term **'Indo-European'** had been created referring to the language family spreading from India all the way to Europe and encompassing such diverse languages as Latin, Greek, Hindi, Welsh, French, German, Icelandic, Russian and many others. It is generally accepted that the discovery of Indo-European is one of the most fascinating stories of modern linguistic research. In the late 18th century a British judge and a scholar of Greek and Latin, named **Sir William Jones,** after arriving in Bengal in the North-Eastern part of India established the Royal Asiatick Society in the hopes of enlightening the world about the history and culture of India. Jones theorized that **Latin, Greek** and **Sanskrit** had all come from some common ancestor. When Sanskrit (the language of the **Vedas**, an ancient body of **writings** from **India)** became more widely known in the West and other mother languages began to be studied more in

depth the idea of a **Proto** language other than Hebrew became more and more popular. In a famous paper of 1786 for the Meeting of the *"Asiatick Society of Calcutta",* Sir William Jones wrote that …

> *"…no philologer could examine all the languages* ***[Sanskrit, Latin*** *and* ***Greek]*** *without believing them to have sprung from some* ***common source*** *which, perhaps,* ***no longer exists?"***
>
> *(*Sir William Jones, 1786). *2002: 18).*

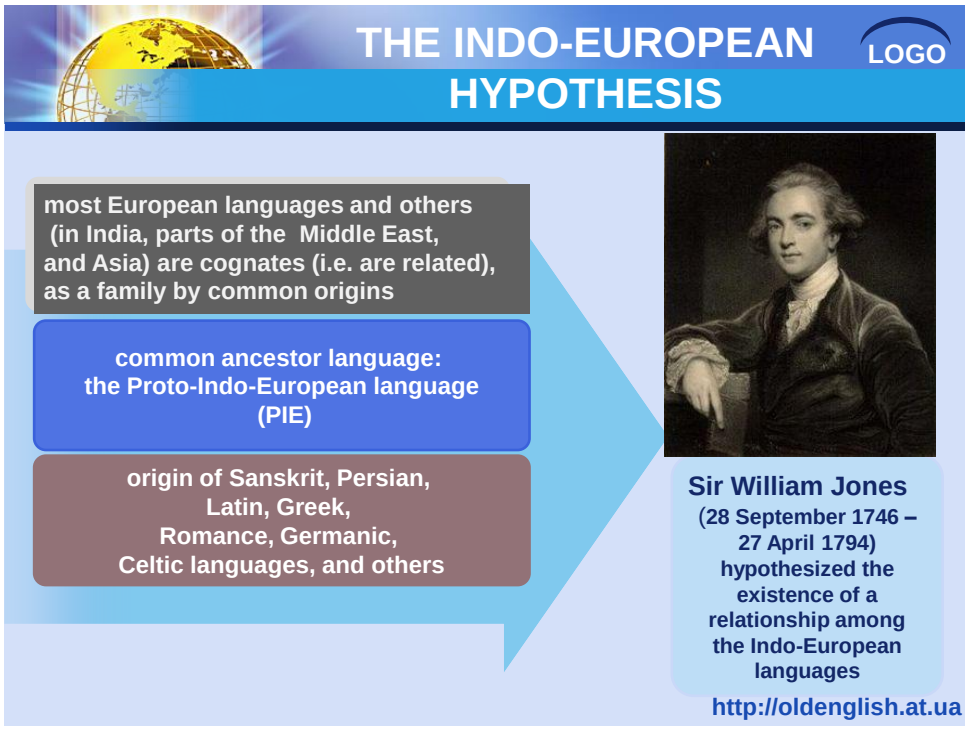

Figure 2.1.

Sir William Jones's contribution to the development of the Indo-European

This priceless piece of understanding was the overture to many important, indeed revolutionary, insights into the history of Western Civilization.

Generally speaking, the extensive literature of India, reaching back further than that of any other European languages preserves features of the common language that is much older than most of those of Greek or Latin or German. It is easier, for example, to see the resemblance between the English word ***brother*** and the Sanskrit ***bhrātar*** than between ***brother*** and ***frāter*****.** But what is even more important is that Sanskrit preserves an unusually full system of declensions and conjugations by which it became clear that the inflections of these languages could similarly be traced to a common origin.

The material offered by Sanskrit for comparison with other languages of the group, both in vocabulary and inflection, was of the greatest importance. And we may presume that Sanskrit was the most appropriate for the linguistic analysis in comparison with other languages as it possessed the most elaborate, orderly and systematically arranged language structure. Therefore, as the study of linguistics advanced, it became clear that some languages belonging to the Indo-European family had much in common.

The Indo-European theory relies on the fact that various languages from all across Eurasia reaching out as far as India and the Hebrides show many essential similarities, enough that they must have originated as a single tongue at some point long ago. Jones's successors began exploring the full linguistic record from that perspective.

Parallels in vocabulary and grammar quickly emerged among foreign languages, particularly: **Latin, Greek** and **Sanskrit.**

The word ***'three'*** demonstrates this point well. Besides **Latin** *tres*, **Greek** *treis* and **Sanscrit** *trayas*, there is also **Spanish** *tres*, **Danish, Italian** and **Swedish** *tre*, **French** *trois*, **German** *drei*, **Dutch** *drie*, **Russian** *tri*, **Ukrainian** *try*, **English** *three*, based on the **Indo-European** ***trejes***. The proof that these words are cognates is evident especially when they are compared to *"three"* in non Indo-European languages, such as **Turkish** *us*, **Malay** *tiga*. For instance:

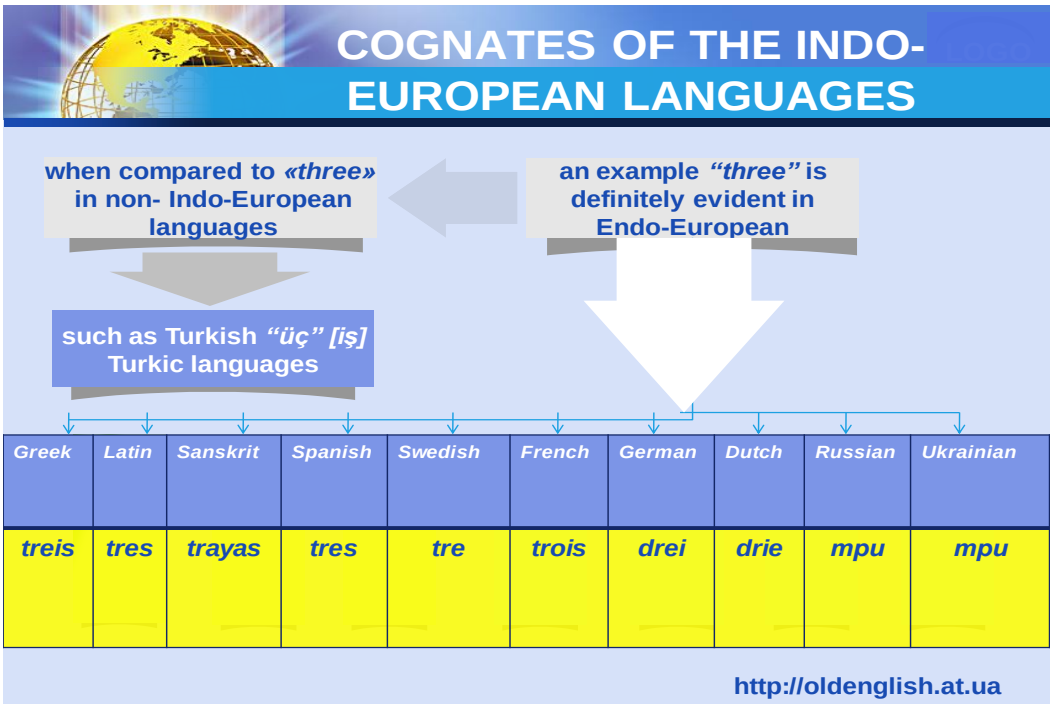

Figure 2.2. The word *'three'* clearly demonstrates its linguistic affinity with the other Indo-European languages

Thus, we may conclude that **Proto-Indo-European** was the original language spoken probably around 3 or 4 thousand BC. But the ideas of the original geographic location, the 'original homeland' of Indo-Europeans, are rather controversial and disputable. Among them there are three main: **the Kurgan, the Anatolian** and **the Armenian hypotheses.**

According to the **Kurgan** hypothesis, suggested by the American archaeologist **Maria Gimbutas** in the 1950, the Indo-Europeans are identified with the Kurgan (burial mound) archaeological culture of the steppes north and northeast of the Black and Caspian Seas as early as the 5th millennium BC. On the other hand, proponents of the **Anatolian** hypothesis, most notably the British archaeologist **C. Renfrew**, locate the Indo-European homeland in central Anatolia (modern Turkey) at a much earlier date, at

the very beginning of the Neolithic age in the 7th millennium BC. Known linguists **T.V. Gamkrelidze** and **V.V. Ivanov** proposed the Indo-European origin in the vicinity of the Armenian plateau. Still other scholars opt for the Balkan Peninsula, the Iranian Plateau, northern/central Europe or India, but they lack evidence. We will support the most popular current theory, the *'Pontic steppe hypothesis'* (Kurgan) by Maria Gimbutas who, on the basis of archeological evidence, believed that the Indo-Europeans originated in the Russian steppes (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 31-35).

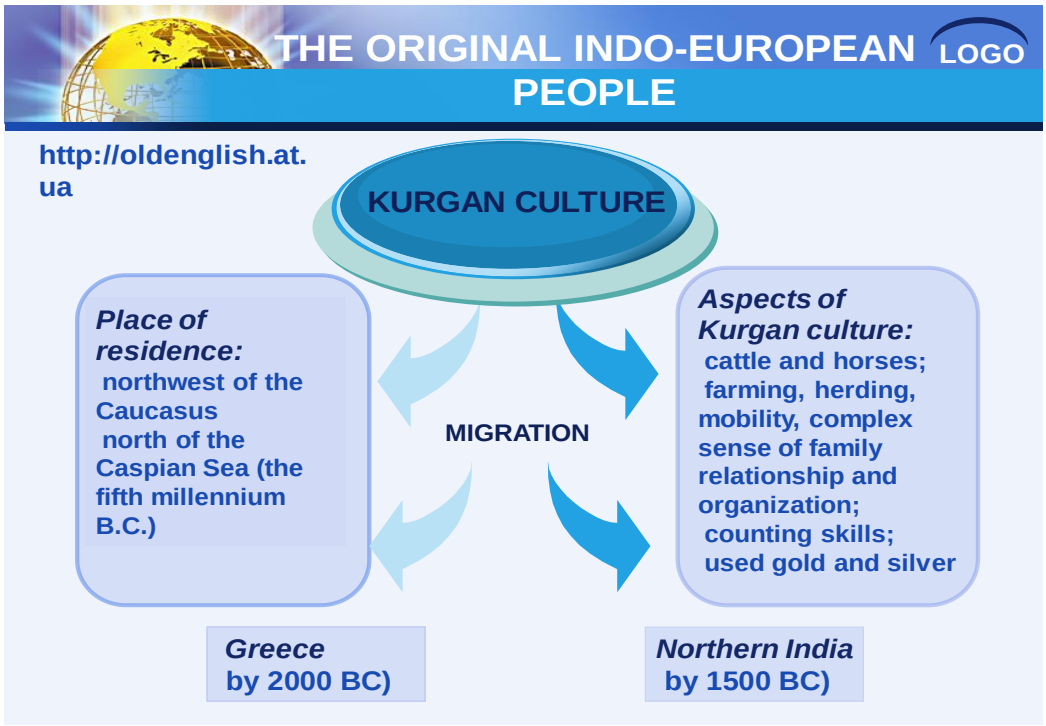

Figure 2.3. The probable home of the Indo-European people

Summing up, we may say that the term 'Indo-European' refers to both languages and people, demonstrating very clearly its linguistic and geographical scopes. Beyond any doubt it is to Jones's great credit that he suggested that even some modern languages might have to be added to the Indo-European family: Persian, Celtic, and 'Gothick' – a term by which he probably meant Germanic, the family that includes English, German, as well as Gothic. Since then, comparative linguists have established that Persian, Celtic, and Germanic are in fact relatives of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit. Modern surviving languages display various degrees of similarity to one another, the similarity bearing a direct relationship to their geographical distribution. They accordingly fall into the following branches: ***Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Hellenic, Albanian, Italic, Balto-Slavic, Germanic, Celtic, Hittite,*** and ***Tocharian***.

> *Thus, **first** and **foremost** was the **idea** that there must have been a **"mother"** tongue which, as the peoples who spoke it spread across the globe, evolved into a family of **"daughter"** languages all of which, though they look different on the surface, are **fundamentally related.***

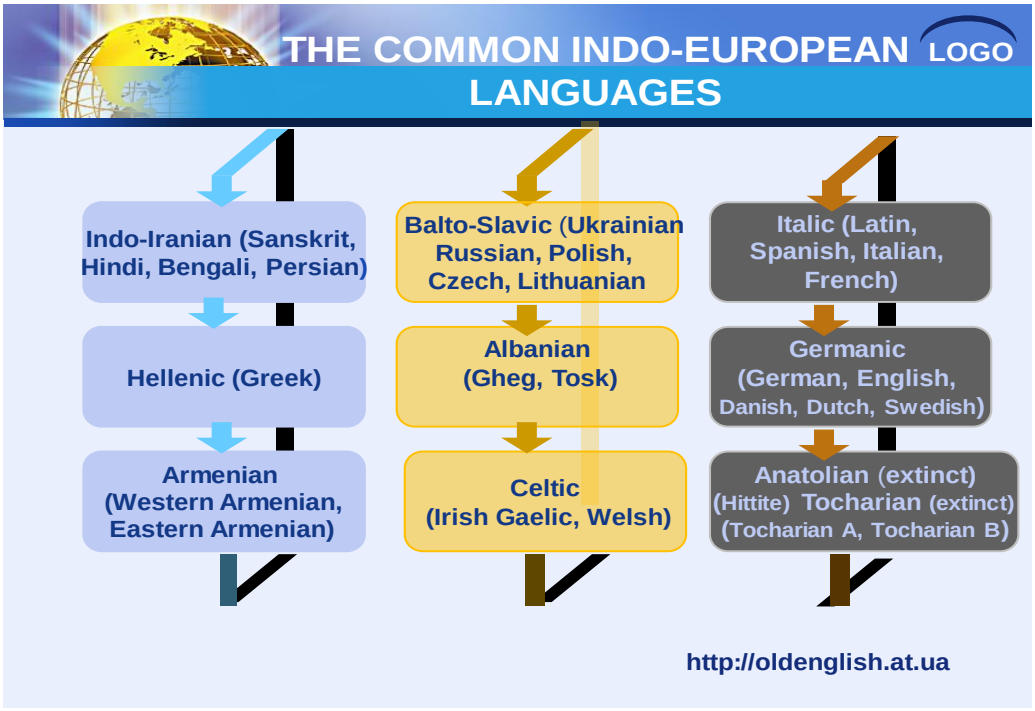

Figure2.4. Branches of the Indo-European family of languages

The branches of the Indo-European family fall into two well-defined groups: the **centum** and **satem** groups from the words for ***hundred*** in **Latin** and **Avestan.**

The **Centum** group includes the ***Hellenic, Italic, Germanic*** and ***Celtic*** branches.	To the **Satem** group belong ***Indian, Iranian, Armenian, Balto-Slavic*** and ***Albanian.***
Centum "western" languages are characterized by the **loss** of the **distinction** between **palatal velars** and **pure velars [k ,g, ŋ];** original **velar stops** were **not palatalized**	**Satem "eastern"** languages, on the contrary are characterized by the **loss** of the **distinction** between **labiovelar** and **pure velars;** original **velar stops became palatalized (k > s)**

The groups are marked by a number of differences in phonology, grammar and vocabulary. One of the distinctive differences in phonology between the two groups is the treatment of palatal ***k*** in the common ancestor of all the Indo-European languages, a hypothetical language that we usually term **'Proto-Indo-European'**. This palatal ***k*** appears as a velar **[k]** in the Western languages, but as some kind of palatal fricative, **[s]** or **[ʃ]**, in the Eastern languages. Thus the word for 'hundred' is Greek *he-**k**aton*, Latin ***c**entum*, Tocharian ***k**änt*, Old Irish ***c**et*, and Welsh ***c**ant* (the letter ***c*** in each case representing **[k]**), but in Sanskrit it is ***s**atam*, in Avestan ***s**atəm*, in Lithuanian ***s**zimtas* and in Old Slavonic ***s**eto* (modern Ukrainian ***s**to*). For this reason, the two groups are often referred to as the **Centum (Kentum)** languages and the **Satem** languages. On the whole, the **Kentum** languages are in the west and the **Satem** languages in the east, but an apparent anomaly is Tocharian, right across in western China, which is a Kentum language.

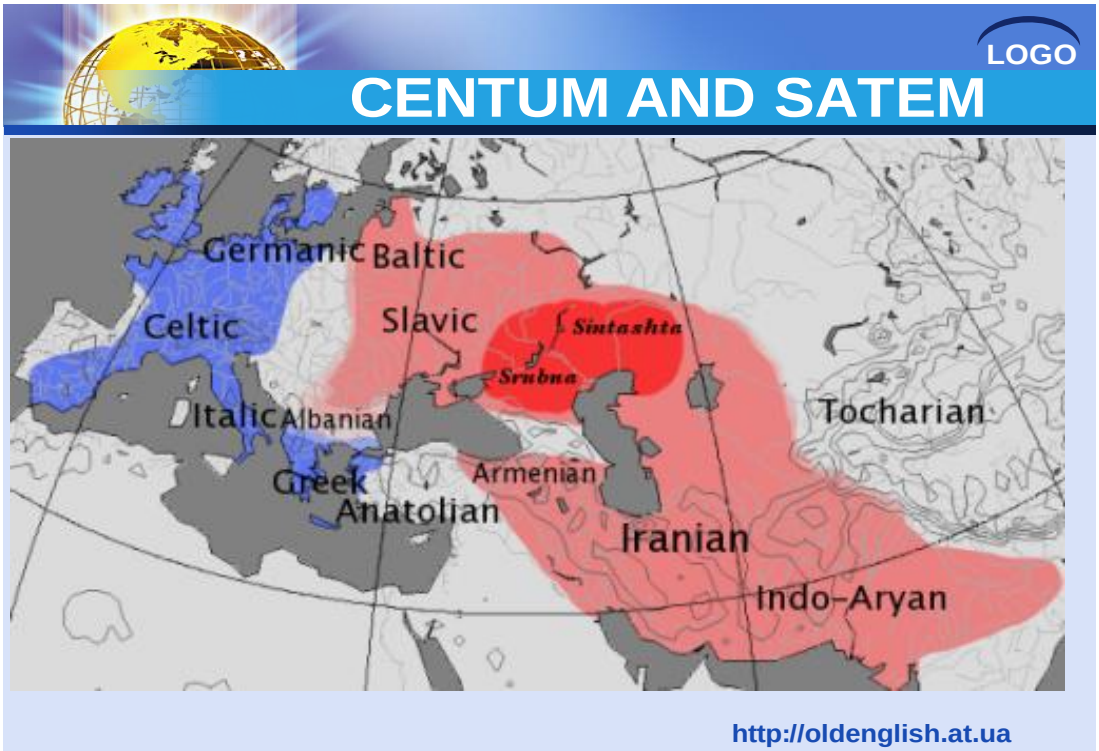

Figure2.5. The Centum and Satem groups of the Indo-European languages

2.2. Overview of the Germanic languages

The earliest attestations of the **Germanic** languages come in brief inscriptions from about the first century A.D. The inscriptions were written in runes. The language of these texts is virtually identical to the reconstructed **Proto-Germanic** ancestor, the common form that the languages of the Germanic branch had before they became differentiated. The languages descendent from **Common Germanic** fall into three groups: **East Germanic**, **North Germanic**, and **West Germanic**.

The principal language of **East** Germanic is **Gothic**. Our knowledge of Gothic is almost wholly due to a translation of the Gospels and other parts of the New Testament made by a missionary named **Ulfilas** (311–383). Manuscripts have been found in Germany, Italy and even Egypt: and new finds are still being made. **Burgundian** and **Vandalic** also belonged to the East Germanic branch, but our knowledge of these languages is confined to a small number of proper names.

North Germanic is found in Scandinavia (Norway and Sweden), Denmark, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands. The earliest traces of the common **Scandinavian** language have been preserved in runic inscriptions from the third century. In its earlier form the common Scandinavian language is conveniently spoken of as Old Norse. From about the eleventh century on, dialectal differences become noticeable. The **Scandinavian** languages fall into two groups: an **eastern** group including **Swedish** and **Danish**, and a **western** group including **Norwegian** and **Icelandic**. Norwegian ceased to be a literary language in the fourteenth century, and Danish (with Norwegian elements) is one written language of Norway.

Of the early Scandinavian languages **Old Icelandic** is by far the most literary. Iceland was colonized by settlers from Norway about A.D. 874 and early on preserved a body of heroic literature unsurpassed among the Germanic peoples. Among the more important monuments are the Elder or Poetic Edda, a collection of poems that probably date from the tenth or eleventh century, the Younger or Prose Edda compiled by Snorri Sturluson (1178–1241), and about forty sagas, or prose epics, in which the lives and exploits of various traditional figures are related (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 18).

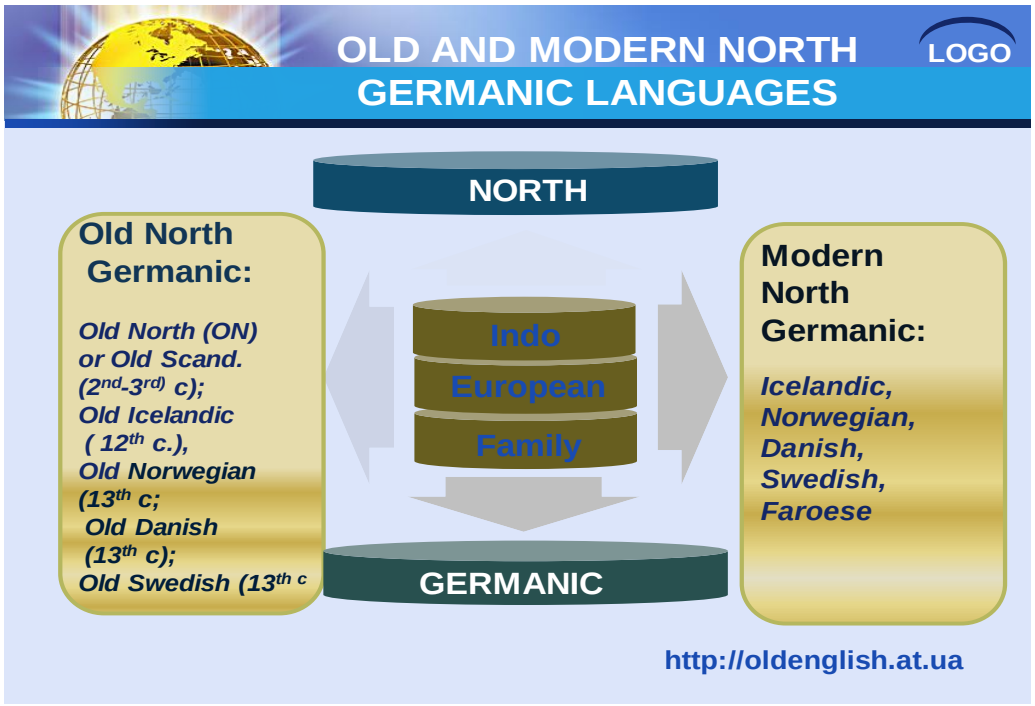

Figure2.7. The group of North Germanic languages

West Germanic is the group to which **English** belongs. The earliest written texts of the other Germanic languages appear later than the older runic inscriptions and Gothic texts, e.g., for **Old English** – the **seventh** century A.D, for Old Frisian (the coastal areas of present-day Holland and Germany) – the thirteenth century, the tenth century for Old Low Frankish (the ancestor of modern Dutch and Flemish), the ninth century for Old Saxon (the ancestor of 'Low' German in northern Germany), the eighth century for Old High German (the southern, mountainous area of Germany, hence the term 'High' German).

The major **modern Germanic** language is **English.** Like French, Spanish and Portuguese, English became an international language as the result of world expansion. 314 million speakers, including also native speakers in **North America** and the **Caribbean, Australia, New Zealand** and **South Africa,** vastly outnumber the 56.5 million speakers in the **United Kingdom** and 3.5 million in the **Republic of Ireland**. But in addition, English is used as a means of communication by about another 300 million speakers in former British and American colonies around the world, including **India, Singapore, the Philippines, Kenya** and **Nigeria.** New standard varieties of English have emerged, such as **South Asian**

English (the Indian subcontinent), etc. **German** is the official language of **Germany, Austria, Liechtenstein**, **Luxemburg,** some parts of **Switzerland** and **Belgium**.

Dutch or **Netherlandish** is spoken in the **Netherlands** (Holland) and the closely related **Flemish** or **Flanders** in **Belgium**. **Afrikaans** (besides English) is the official language of the **South African Republic**. **Frisian** is spoken in some regions of the **Netherlands** and **Germany**. **Yiddish** is spoken in different countries of Europe and the USA.

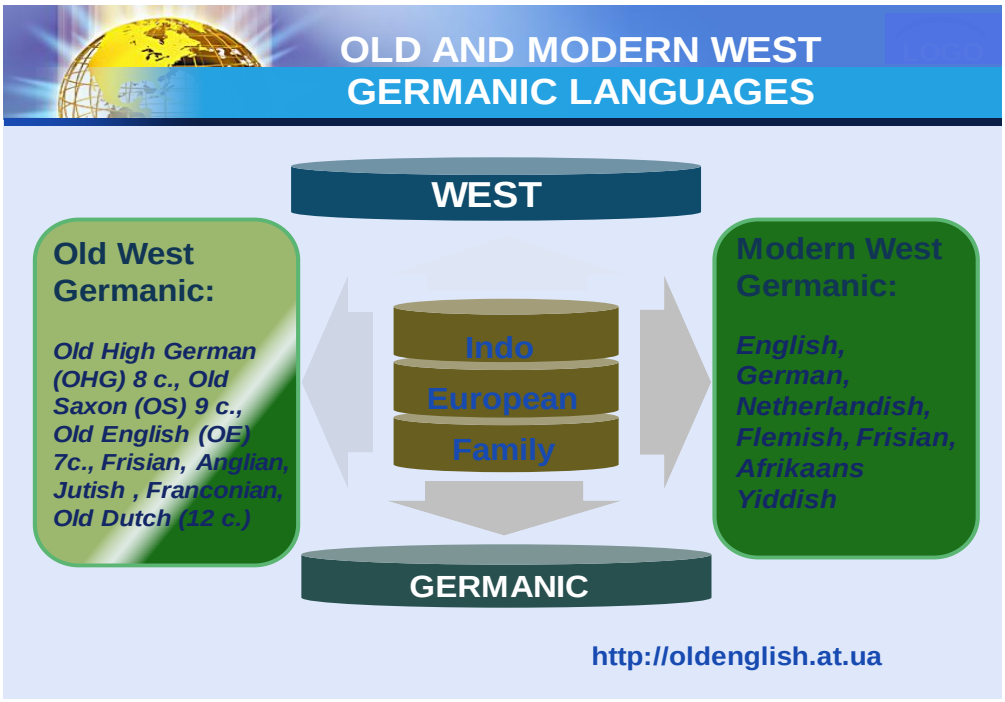

Figure2.8. The group of West Germanic languages

3. Germanic alphabets

Through the history of their development Germanic languages used 3 different alphabets, which partly succeeded each other in time: the **Runic** alphabet **(futhark)**, the **Ulfila's** Gothic ABC, the **Latin** alphabet.

The Runic alphabet is supposed to have been based on the Latin or some other Italic alphabet close to Latin in writing, but the material and technique of writing used by Germanic tribes in their early times caused considerable modifications of Latin in the Runic ABC. It is believed that the Runic ABC originated in the 2-3 AD on the banks of the Rhine or the Danube where Germanic tribes could come into contact with Roman culture. Since the Runic ABC was used by different Germanic tribes *(Goths, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians)* it was adapted to the needs of each of these languages. The following letters illustrate the **Runic** alphabet **(futhark)**:

Figure2.9. The Runic alphabet (futhark)

The **Ulfila's Gothic ABC:**

Ulphila's Gothic ABC originated in the 4th century. It is based on the Greek ABC but has some Latin and Runic letters. This is the ABC of Ulphila's gothic translation of the Bible. But in modern editions of the Goth text a Latin transcription of the Gothic ABC is used. it was invented by **Bishop Ulfila** (Ulphila, or Wulfila – 4 c. AD) in the Roman town Nicopolis ad Istrum, the present village Nikup in the central northern part of Bulgaria (20 km north from the former capital Veliko Tarnovo). One of the phonological characteristics of Wulfila's text is that the Proto-Germanic short vowels /e/ and /o/ appear as *i* and *u*: the verb *'to steal'* is Old English and Old High German *stelan,* and Old Icelandic *stela,* but Gothic *stilan;* and corresponding to English *God* and German *Gott* we find Gothic *guþ* (Barber, 2009: 89).

The following letters represent the Ulfila's Gothic ABC:

The **Latin alphabet**

It began to be used when a new technique of writing was introduced. That is the spreading of color or paint on a surface instead of cutting and engraving the letters. Introduction of the Latin ABC was stimulated by the spread of Christianity as Christian

religious texts were written in Latin. The Latin ABC was also modified to the peculiar needs of the separate Germanic languages.

Figure 2.11.

The Latin alphabet

4. Indo-European to Germanic: sound changes

The most important phonetic peculiarities of the Germanic languages are as follows:

1. The **fixed word-stress** on **the first (root) syllable.**
2. The **First** or **Proto-Germanic Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law).**

Accent is considered to be one of the very important phonetic changes in the historical development of the Germanic languages. The **accent** of a syllable depends partly on **stress** (acoustic loudness) and partly on **intonation** (musical pitch), but some languages rely more on one than on the other.

Proto-Indo-European probably made great use of the **musical accent,** but in **Proto-Germanic** the **stress accent became predominant.**

There was a strong tendency in **Germanic** languages to adopt a uniform position for the **stress** on a word by putting it on the **first syllable**. This was not the characteristic feature of **Indo-European**, where the accent could fall on any syllable of a word whether **prefix, stem, suffix** or **inflection,** the so-called **'free accent'**. The tendency in Proto-Germanic to stabilize the **accent** on the **first syllable** of a word, together with the adoption of a predominantly stress type of accent, had **profound consequences**. Above

all, it led to a **weakening** and often a **loss** of **unstressed syllables**, especially at the end of a word, and this is a trend which has continued in the Germanic languages throughout their history [Barber, 2009: 96]. For example:

Similar processes of attrition, though not always as drastic as this, have taken place in other Germanic languages.

The **heavy fixed word stress** inherited from PG has played an **important** role in the development of the **Germanic languages.**

Accented syllables were pronounced with **great distinctness** and precision, while **unaccented became** less **distinct** and were **phonetically weakened**.

Thus, the **accent** was uniformly retracted to the **first syllable** of words. As a consequence of the then general initial stress **unstressed syllables** tended towards **weakening.**

The phonetic system of Indo-European was reconstructed by nineteenth-century scholars. The reconstructed Indo-European languages turned out to have a great number of stop consonants. This system underwent great changes in Germanic languages; one of the most distinctive features marking off the Germanic languages from all other Indo-European languages is the so-called **Consonant-shift** described in **1822** by the German brothers who collected the Grimm's Fairy Tales. It was actually **Jacob Grimm** who invented the law. The **First Germanic Consonant Shift**, or **Grimm's Law** as it is also known, theorized that these consonantal values had initially shifted in the ancestor of the Germanic languages, proto-Germanic, in prehistoric times (perhaps through contacts) [Baugh and Cable, 2002: 22]. Other Indo-European languages, such as Sanskrit and Latin, however, were thought to have at least largely preserved the earlier consonantal values once present in PIE. Through systematic comparison of cognate data, Grimm reconstructed the relevant proto-segments for PIE and established a line of transmission to Proto-Germanic; the main features of such are shown in table **4.2.**

Table 4.2. The First 'Sound-Shifting' (*The **First*** or ***Proto-Germanic Consonant Shift***)

Aspirated voiced stops	Voiced stops	Voiceless stops	Voiceless fricatives
bh →	**b** →	**p** →	**f**
dh →	**d** →	**t** →	**θ**
gh →	**g** →	**k** →	**h (x)**

What do these correspondences mean in a practical usage?

We can see **historical relationships** by comparing, for example, certain **English** and **Latin** words***: lip/ labial, tooth/ dental, heart/ cardiac, gall/ choleric, knee/ genuflect, foot/ pedal*** (Lerer, 2008: 19)

Grimm's Law shows how **close Latin, Greek** and **Sanskrit** are **to the Germanic** and **Slavic languages.**

Neither **Latin, Greek Sanskrit, Russian** nor **Gothic** are the original languages. All of them derived from an unrecorded language thought to have been spoken about 6000 years ago somewhere near the Black Sea.

So that we can understand Grimm's Law we have to look at the language that all the Indo-European languages descended from: **Proto-Indo-European**. There are no written records whatsoever of this language. Furthermore, it's not really clear exactly where, when, or by whom it was spoken, but philologists have been able to reconstruct it with amazing accuracy.

As proved by Grimm, all the Indo-European stops seem to have gradually changed in Old Germanic.

The Indo-European voiceless stops **[p, t, k]** became Proto-Germanic voiceless fricatives [**f, θ,** (in some cases this has become voiced /**ð**/ in Mod.E), **h** (**x**)].

Table 4.3. Phase Change 1. Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates **[p, t, k]** became Germanic (shifted) **[f, θ, (ð), h, (x)]** ones.

PIE /**p**/ became Germanic /**f**/				
Latin	Greek	Sanskrit	Gothic	Old English
***p**edem*	***p**oda*	***p**adam*	***f**ōtus*	***f**ōt 'foot'*
***p**ecus*	–	***p**acu*	***f**aihu*	***f**eoh 'cattle'*
***p**iscis*	–	–	***f**isks*	***f**isc 'fish'*
***p**ater*	***p**atér*	***p**itár*	***f**adar*	***f**æder 'father'*
–	***p**énte*	***p**ančа*	***f**imf*	***f**īf 'five'*
PIE /**t**/ became Germanic /**θ**/				
Latin	Greek	Sanskrit	Old Norse	Old English
***t**rēs*	***t**reis*	***t**rayas*	***þ**rír*	***þ**reo 'three'*
***t**ū*	***t**u*	***t**vam*	***þ**ú*	***þ**u 'thou'*
*frā**t**er*	*phrē**t**ēr*	*bhrā**t**a(r)*	*brō**þ**ar*	*brō**ð**or 'brother'*
PIE /**k**/ became Germanic /**h**/ (**x**)				
Latin	Greek	Welsh	Gothic	OHG	Old English
***c**ordem*	***k**ardia*	***c**raidd*	***h**airto*	***h**erza*	***h**eort 'heart'*
***c**entum*	*-**k**aton*	***c**ant*	***h**und*	***h**unt*	***h**und 'hundred'*

Table 4.4. Phase Change 2. Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates voiced stops

[b, d, g] became Germanic (shifted) voiceless stops **[p, t, k].**

PIE /**b**/ became Germanic /**p**/				
Lithuanian	Russian	Gothic	OHG	Old English
***b**alà*	***б**олото*	–	***p**fuol*	***p**ōl 'pool'*
*du**b**ùs*	*∂е**б**ри*	*diu**p**s*	–	*dē**o**p 'deep'*
PIE /**d**/ became Germanic /**t**/				

Greek	Ukrainian	Gothic	Old Icelandic	Old English
***d**ȳo*	***ð**ва*	***t**wai*	***t**veir*	***t**wā ‘two’*
*é**d**ein*	*ї**ð**a*	*i**t**an*	*e**t**a*	*e**t**an ‘eat’*
***d**rȳs*	***ð**ерево*	***t**riu*	***t**rē*	***t**rēo ‘tree’*
PIE /**g**/ became Germanic /**k**/				
Latin	Greek	Gothic	Old Norse	Old English
*a**g**er*	*a**g**rós*	*a**k**rs*	*a**k**r*	*æ**c**er ‘acre’*
*ju**g**um*	–	*ju**k***	*o**k***	*geo**c** ‘yoke’*
***g**enu*	***g**óny*	***k**niu*	***k**ne*	***c**neo ‘knee’*

Table 4.5. Phase Change 3. Indo-European aspirated voiced stops **[bh, dh, gh]** changed into Proto-Germanic voiced stops **[b, d, g] (**Non-Germanic (unshifted) cognates Germanic (shifted) ones:

PIE /**bh**/ became Germanic /**b**/ **(f/v)**				
Sanskrit	Gothic	Old Icelandic	OHG	Old English
***bh**árāmi*	***b**airan*	***b**era*	***b**eran*	***b**eran ‘bear’*
*ná**bh**as*	**–**	*ni**f**l*	*ne**b**ul*	*ni**f**el ‘sky’*
PIE /**dh**/ became Germanic /**d**/ **(ð)**				
Sanskrit	Ukrainian	Old Icelandic	Gothic	Old English
*ru**dh**ira*	*py**ð**uŭ* < IE **reu**dh***	*rau**ð**r*	*rau**þ**s*	*rēa**d** ‘red’*
***dh**rsnóti*	***ð**ерзати*	–	*(ga)**d**ars*	***d**ear(r) ‘dare’*
PIE /**gh**/ became Germanic /**g**/ **(γ)**				
Sanskrit	Gothic	Old Icelandic	OHG	Old English
***gh**ostis*	***g**asts*	***g**estr*	***g**ast*	***g**æst ‘guest’*
***h**amsá* < *IE *ghans*	**g**g**ansus*	*g**g**ās*	*g**g**ans*	*g**g**ōs ‘goose’*

Some apparently anomalous deviations from **Grimm’s Law** were firstly discussed by the Neogrammarian linguist **Karl Verner** in 1877. Verner noticed that certain voiceless fricative consonant sounds in Proto-Germanic were realized as voiced in a voiced environment (e.g. between vowels), and when the stress was on the following rather than on the preceding syllable. A subsequent stress-shift meant that this environment was subsequently obscured. An Old English example illustrating the process is *fæ**d**er*, with a medial ***d*** (from earlier **ð*), as opposed to a medial ***θ*** (cf. Proto-Indo-European **pé**t**ēr*). The spirant **/s/** is basically kept unchanged in Germanic. But it took part in the voicing process ruled by **Verner's Law.** Thus we find an alternation of **/s/ : /z /** in Germanic, which reflects the original position of the accent. Germanic /**z**/ yielded /**r**/ in intervocalic position in Old English (**rhotacism**, for the process compare Lat. *flo**s**/flo**r**is* 'flower'), but in final position it is generally lost. So the **exceptions** to **Grimm’s Law** are the following ones:

1. The Indo-European voiceless stop consonants (together with the voiceless aspirated stop consonants) **[p, t, k]** remained unchanged in the course of their development into Germanic when they are preceded by ***s-***, thus ***sp-, st-,*** and ***sk-*** remain unchanged: ****st**andan-*, the Germanic verb for '***st**and'* (OE ***st**andari*), exhibits the initial

group ***st***-found in Lat. ***st****are*, Ukrainian ***cm****оямu,* English ***st****and*, Greek ***sp****athē*; Latin ***hos****tis*, Ukrainian *ґі****cm****ь,* Gothic *ga****st****s*, German *Ga****st***, English *gue****st.***

2. Only the first of a group of voiceless stops changed to a spirant. For example, Latin ***octo,*** Gothic ***ahtau,*** German ***acht,*** English ***eight.***

Thus, **four voiceless fricatives /f, h(x), s/,** which had appeared as a result of the **Germanic Shift,** became **voiced except for** the combinations **"ht, hs, ft, fs, sk, st, sp."**

Later on voicing of fricatives between the voiced phonemes became wide-spread, and it did not depend on the stress type. Though Karl Verner considered the process as an exception from the Germanic Shift, his discovery is not an exception but its further development.

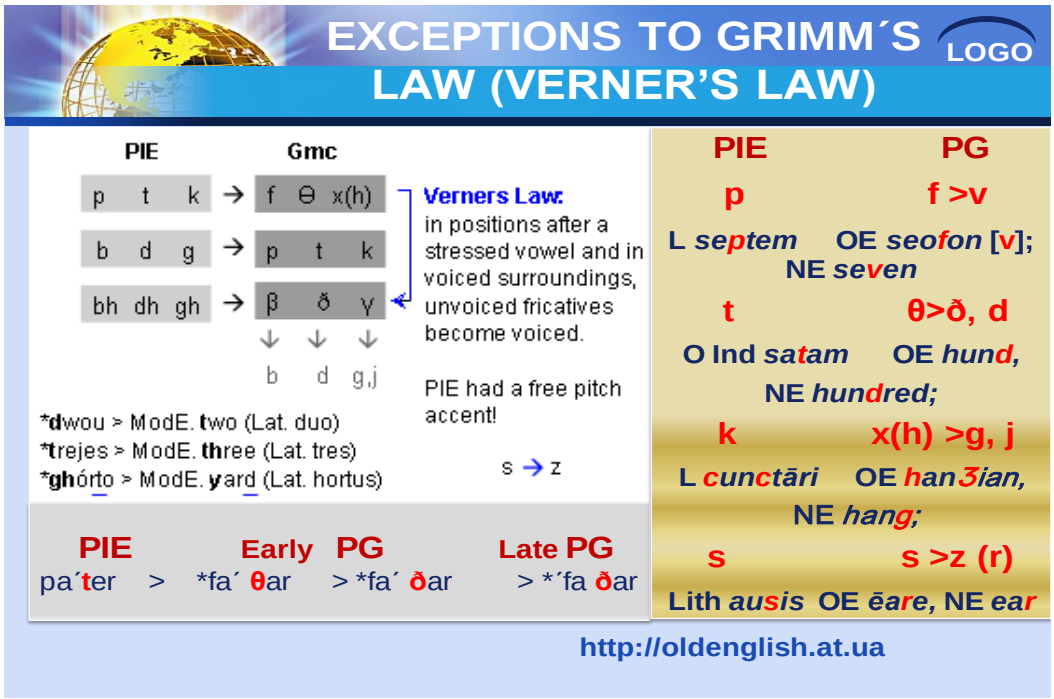

Figure 2.15. Verner's Law

Rhotacism is a philological term coined on the basis of the root *rho*, the Greek name of the letter and sound **[r],** Greek <ρ>. The term describes the change of the consonant **[s]** through its voiced counterpart **[z]** to **[r]** when paradigmatic alternations placed **[s]** between **two vowels**. Rhotacism is found both in words of Latin origin and in Germanic words, though the conditions under which it applies are slightly different. In Latin rhotacism accompanied the addition of vowel-initial suffixes *(-is,-a,-um,-ere)* to words ending in a vowel followed by **[-s],** producing the sequence **<-V+s+V->.** Flanked by vowels, the consonant **[-s-]** was subject to weakening of its consonantal nature: first **[-s-]** was voiced to **[-z-],** and subsequently **[-z-]** developed into the sonorant **[-r-].** The process accounts for the allomorphy in pairs such as *os* 'mouth,' gen. sg. *oris* 'of the mouth'; *rus* 'the country,' gen. *ruris* 'of the country'; *opus* 'work,' pl. *opera.*

Voicing of **[s]** to **[z]** and a subsequent change to **[r]** in a vocalic environment could also occur in early Germanic. The consonant ***s*** was preserved in Germanic languages only when not influenced by Verner's law and when it did not change into ***z***. The sound ***z*** was preserved in Gothic but changed into ***r*** in Scandinavian and West-Germanic languages, e.g., Got. *hausjan* – Sc. *heyra* – *hieran* – NE *hear;* Got. *huzd* – OE *hord* (Mykhailenko, 1999: 12). Some pairs of cognate words which preserve traces of this ancient allomorphy are the past-tense forms of the verb *to be*: sg. *wa**s*** vs. pl. *we**re***, and the present tense and the adjectival participle of the verb *lo**s**e* – *(for)lo**r**n* **(**from earlier *(for)lo**re**n).* The historical relationship between *rise* and *rear*, *sneeze* and *snore* can also be traced back to rhotacism.

Table 4.6. Samples on **rhotacism** (from Minkova, 2009: 148)

*flos 'flower'+**al*** →	***flo**ral* 'of or relating to flowers'
*flos+c**ule*** →	*flo**sc**ule* 'little flower, floret'
*ges **'carry'**+t+**ure*** →	*ge**st**ure* 'mode of carrying'
*ges+u**nd*** →	*ge**ru**nd* 'carried, verbal noun'
*opus **'work'**+c**ule*** →	*opu**sc**ule* 'small work'
*opus+a**te*** →	*ope**ra**te* 'work, produce'
*os **'mouth, speak'**+a**te**+**ion*** →	*o**ra**tion* 'speech'
*os+c**it** **'move'**+**ant*** →	*o**sc**itant* 'gaping,' o**sc**itancy 'yawning'
*rus **'open land'**+a**l*** →	*ru**ra**l* 'of the country'
*rus+**tic**+**ate*** →	*ru**st**icate* 'retire to the country'

The most important feature of the system of Germanic vowels is the so-called **Ablaut**, or **gradation**, which is a spontaneous, positionally independent alteration of vowels inhabited by the Germanic languages from the Common Indo-European period. Originally **gradation** affected root morphemes and occurred regularly in conjunction with specific grammatical changes within a paradigm, e.g. the present vs. the past-tense form of one and the same verb ***(stand, stood)***, the nominative vs. the genitive case of the same noun. The vowels played an important part in the **grammar** of Indo-European, because of the way they alternated in related forms (as in our ***sing, sang, sung***). There were several series of vowels which altered in this way. One such series in IE, for example, was short ***e***, short ***o*** and ***zero***: originally, the zero grade probably appeared in unaccented syllables. This series was used in some of the strong verbs: the ***e*** grade appeared in the present tense, the ***o*** grade in the past singular, and the ***zero*** grade in the past plural and the past participle (in which the accent was originally on the ending, not the stem). This is the series that was used in *sing, sang, sung*, though this fact has been obscured by the vowel changes which took place in Germanic languages.

5. Indo-European to Germanic: changes in morphology and syntax

Speaking about the grammatical structure of the Old Germanic languages, it is essential to note that they had a synthetic grammatical structure. This means that the relations between the parts of the sentence were shown by the forms of the word rather than by their position or by auxiliary words.

The **Indo-European nominal** system may be reconstructed as having had three genders, three numbers and eight cases. The **three genders** of Indo-European were masculine, feminine and neuter. The three gender system of Indo-European was kept basically unchanged in Germanic. The **three numbers** of Indo-European were singular, dual and plural. In Germanic languages, as in other Indo-European ones, there was no single set of case inflections used for all nouns alike, but several different sets, some nouns following one pattern, and others another. That is, there were various declensions of nouns. All **nouns**, moreover, had grammatical **gender:** every noun had to be either masculine feminine or neuter. This grammatical gender had no necessary connection with sex or with animacy: the names of inanimate objects could be masculine or feminine, and the names of sexed creatures could be neuter. The words for *he, she* and *it* had to be used in accordance with grammatical gender, not in accordance with sex or animacy. The system of **eight cases** is found in Indo-Iranian. The **cases** preserved in **Germanic** were the **nominative**, the **genitive** ('of'), the **dative** ('to' or 'for'), the **accusative** and the **instrumental** ('by'). There are also traces of a **vocative** case (used in addressing somebody) and of a locative (corresponding to 'at'). As in Latin, there were separate inflections for the **singular** and the **plural.**

Sanskrit nouns have endings representing **eight different cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental, ablative, locative and vocative.**

Germanic languages, like Indo-European, also had a system of cases, numbers and genders for **pronouns, articles** and **similar words.**

Indo-European also had a great set of inflections for its **verbs**. The Indo-European verbal system is assumed to have exhibited the following categories:

1. Aspect: present, aorist, perfect.

2. Mood: indicative, subjunctive, imperative, injunctive.

3. Voice: active and middle.

4. Person: three – speaker, person spoken to and a person or thing spoken about.

5. Number: three – the singular, the plural and the dual (Bammesberger, 2005: 55).

The **Germanic verb** retained many of these categories; but it simplified the system. It had only **two tenses**, a **present** tense and a **past** tense: there were forms corresponding to ***I sing*** and ***I sang.*** The main categories of the Germanic verb can be exemplified with the following Gothic paradigm of the verb *niman* 'take'.

As far as **syntax** is concerned, we may conclude that traditionally it deals with the arrangement of word groups or, in other words, changes in word order constitute syntactic change. Essentially, languages can be classified according to *word-order types* (or *word-order typologies*), which are partly based on the fundamental, unmarked (meaning typical and ideally, most frequently occurring) order of three constituents S(ubject), V(erb), O(bject) (Singh, 2005: 30). Thus, if a language frequently features unmarked structures such as *Jane* (S) *draws* (V) *a picture* (O), then it will be categorized

as **SVO.** On the other hand, if its typical sentence structure is more like *Jane a picture draws*, then it will be termed **SOV.**

The ordering of S, V and O are not the only salient characteristics of a word-order typology. The ordering of the three appears to be accompanied by certain structural properties – a proposal first made by Greenberg in 1963. Indeed, Greenberg found that languages in which V precedes O shared certain properties, as did those in which O precedes V – a finding which has been supported by later research. As a result, the six syntactic permutations (SVO, OVS, SOV, VSO, VOS, OSV) have been reduced to two general ones – **VO** and **OV**– with each carrying particular implicational properties (meaning that the presence of one property in a language implies the presence of another) (Greenberg).

6. Indo-European to Germanic: lexicon change

Down to the present day, English preserves a number of words which may well go back to very old stages of Indo-European. Among these items we should certainly include the basic terms for **family relationships** such as *father, mother, brother, sister, son, and daughter.*

Table 4.12. The basic terms for **family relationship** within Germanic and non-Germanic languages (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

Latin	Greek	Skt	Gothic	OHG	OIcel.	OE	ModE
pater	*patḗr*	*pitár*	*fadar*	*fater*	*faðir*	*fæder*	*father*
māter	*mētḗr*	*māter*	–	*muoter*	*mōðir*	*mōder, mōdor*	*mother*
–	–	*sūtē*	*sunus*	*sun(u)*	*sunr*	*sunu*	*son*
–	*thygátēr*	*duhitār*	*dauhtar*	*tohter*	*dōttir*	*dohtor*	*daughter*
frāter	*phrḗtēr*	*bhrā̃ta(r)*	*brōþar*	*bruoder*	*brōðir*	*brōðor*	*brother*
soror	–	*svásr̥*	*swistar*	*swester*	*systir*	*sweostor*	*sister*

Among the clearly inherited items which certainly have a long prehistory belong also the basic **numerals** such as *one, two, three, four, five,* etc.

Table 4.14. Samples on etymology of words belonging to the mentioned above semantic groups (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

Latin	Greek	Skt	Gothic	OHG	OIcel.	OE	ModE
*ānser (<*hanser)*	*chēn*	*hamsa-h*	*gansus*	*gans*	*gās*	*gōs/gēs*	*goose/ geese*
cannabis	*kánnabis*	–	–	*hanaf*	*hampr*	*henep*	*hemp*
cānus	–	*śasá-h*	–	*haso*	*heri*	*hara*	*hare*
cornū	*kéras*	–	–	*hirus*	*hjǫrtr*	*heort, heorot*	*hart*

–	*kórdys*	*śárdha-h*	*hairda*	*herta*	*hjǫrð*	*heord*	*herd*
cursus	–	*kūrdati*	–	*hros*	*hross*	*hors*	*horse*
crōcīre	*krázein*	–	–	*hraban*	*hrafn*	*hræfn*	*raven*
canis	*kýōn*	*śvắ*	*hunds*	*hunt*	*hundr*	*hund*	*hound*
ūva	*oíē, óē*	–	–	*īwa, īha*	*ȳr*	*īw, ēow*	*yew*
grānum	–	*jīrná-h*	*kaurn*	*korn*	*korn*	*corn*	*corn*

Table 4.15. Some examples on etymology of the common Indo-European verbs (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

Latin	**Greek**	**Skt**	**Gothic**	**OHG**	**OIcel.**	**OE**	**ModE**
ferre	*phérein*	*bhárati*	*bairan*	*beran*	*bera*	*beran*	*bear*
venīre	*baínein*	*gámati*	*qiman*	*queman*	*koma*	*cuman*	*come*
metere	*á-mētos*	–	–	*māen*	–	*māwan*	*mow*
stāre	*éstēn*	*sthā*	*standan*	*stān, stēn*	*standa*	*standan*	*stand*
derbita	*dérein*	*dṛnắti*	*ga-(dis-) -tairan*	–	–	*teran*	*tear*

The following list will illustrate words of the common Germanic stock, i.e., words having their parallels in German, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic, etc such as *ankle, breast, bridge, brook, bone, calf, cheek, chicken, coal, hand, heaven, home, hope, life, meal, nature, sea, shirt, ship, summer, winter* and many others. These words appeared in **Proto Germanic** or in later history of separate languages from purely Germanic roots. Quite a number of adverbs and pronouns also belong here.

Table 4.16. Specifically Germanic Words (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

OE	**OHG**	**OIcel.**	**Gothic**	**Germanic**	**ModE**
drīfan	*trīban*	*drīfa*	*dreiban*	*< *drīƀan*	*drive*
cid	*kizzi*	*kið*	–	*< *kiđja*	*kid*
clǣne	*kleini*	–	–	*< *klainiz*	*clean*
hūs	*hūs*	*hūs*	*gud-hūs*	*< * hūsa-*	*house*
land	*lant*	*land*	*land*	*< *lind-/land-/lund*	*land*
māra	*mēr*	*meir*	*maiza*	*< *māiza-/ōn*	*more*
man	*man*	*maðr, mannr*	*manna*	*< *mann- (< *manų-)*	*man*
mǣv	*māven*	*már*	–	*< *mǣwō*	*mew*
reg(e)n	*regan*	*regn*	*rign*	*< *regna*	*rain*
sǣ	*sē(o)*	*sær*	*saiws*	*< *saiw-i/a-*	*sea*
sāwol, sāwul	*sē(u)la*	*sāl (*< OE *sāwo)l*	*saiwala*	*< *saiwa-lō*	*soul*
wīf	*wīb*	*wīf*	–	*< *wiƀa*	*wife*

So we may conclude that both etymological layers of the vocabulary – the **Indo-European** and the specifically **Germanic –** are **native words**. In addition to native words the OG languages share some **borrowings** made from other languages. Some spheres where the Germans learnt a good deal from their southern neighbours, mainly **Celtic** and **Latin** speakers, were many borrowed words concerning *war, trade, building, horticulture* and *food.* Tacitus described that the Germans also learnt Latin *trading terms*, for there was a good deal of traffic between the two areas: the loans include the words which have become *pound, mile, cheap, monger* and *mint (*originally meaning *'coin, money',* from Latin *monēta).* Tacitus said that the Germans did not grow fruit trees or cultivate gardens, but they seem to have been willing to learn for they borrowed the words *apple, plum* and *pear,* not to mention *wine.* Culinary refinements also came to the north of Europe from the Mediterranean: the word *kitchen* was borrowed from Latin, and so were *butter, cheese, dish, kettle, mint* (the herb), *peas, pepper,* etc (Barber, 2009: 103).

Table 4.17. Early Latin and Celtic loans in Germanic languages (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

OE	OHG	OIcel.	Gothic	Latin	Celtic	ModE
butere	*butera*	–		< *bū-tyrum*	–	*butter*
cest	*kista*	*kista*	–	< *cista*	–	*chest*
cycene	*chuhhina, kuhhina*	–	–	< *cocīna*	–	*kitchen*
īren	*īsa(r)n*	*īsarn*	*eisarn*	–	*jārn*	*iron*
mylen	*mulī*	*mylna*		< *molīnae*	–	*mill*
pæneg, pæning	*pfennic*	*penningr*	-	< *pondus*	–	*penny, pound*
wīn	*wīn*	*vīn*	*wein*	< *vīnum*	–	*wine*

In the **word-formation** of the Indo-European languages **compounding** is known to occupy a very important place. The Indo-European compounds can be defined as presenting the unchangeable first part, whereas the required changes occur in the second part. In Indo-European only nouns could be compounded. Alfred Bammesberger defines the following types of compounds in Germanic. **Determinative compounds** originally consist of two nominal stems, the first of which qualifies (= 'determines') the second. For Proto-Germanic it is possible to assume a formation **brūdi-fadi-* (< IE *bhrūtípoti-) on the basis of the Gothic *brūþ-faþs* 'bridegroom'. The nominal Germanic stem **faþi-* (< IE **póti-*) apparently fell out of use early, and the compound gradually lost its transparency. In Old English *brȳdguma,* another term for 'man', namely *guma,* was substituted. But OE *guma* was obsolete and the compound became again opaque. *Guma,* having been dropped out of use, was replaced by the similarly sounding but originally quite different noun *groom.*

Table 4.18. A sample of the determinative compound 'bridegroom' in the Germanic languages

OE	OHG	OIcel.	Gothic	Germanic	ModE
brȳd+	*brūt+*	*brūðr+*	*brūþs+*	*brūđi+*	*bride*

brȳdguma	*brūtgomo*	*brūðrguma*	*brūþsguma*	*brūđi+guma*	*bridegroom*

Copulative compounds, which apparently were not numerous in Germanic, consisted of these two elements. This type of compounding is found in numerals like *thirteen* (= 'three and ten'), *fourteen* (= 'four and ten'), etc. There was another type of compounds that usually consisted of adjective + noun, and the whole compound functioned as an adjective. These compounds are usually termed **possessive compounds** or, using an Indic example of the type, bahuvrihi-compounds. *Barefoot* is an example in point, since it means 'having bare feet' (Bammesberger, 2005: 64-65).

Summary

We may conclude that in this lecture we have tried to trace the most important changes within sounds, grammar and lexis while comparing Indo-European and Germanic and to outline their similarities and differences inasmuch as they affect the historical development of languages in general and some particular aspects of English in detail. This historical development accounts much for the wide difference now existing between the orthographic system and the grammatical structure of English and the other Indo-European languages that followed different linguistic paths.

Questions for self-control

1. In what did word stress in Common Germanic differ from Indo-European?

2. What subsystem of consonants underwent changes as a result of the first shift of consonants?

3. What changes in the sphere of Germanic consonants are connected with the word-stress?

4. What categories characterized Common Germanic nouns? Which of the categories exist in Modern English?

5. How would you describe the changes in the Second Consonant Shift (use terms such as voicing and frication?

6. Use the comparative method to reconstruct the proto-form **'hundred':** French *cent* [să]; Italian *cento* [tʃénto]; Spanish *ciento* [siɛ́nto]; Latin *centum* [kentum].

7. What is the main process that separated the Germanic language family from the rest of Indo- European languages?

8. The freezing of Germanic word-stress onto the first root-syllable of a word had extensive effects, didn't it?

9. Did Grimm's Law affect consonants or vowels?

10. Did other consonant shifts apply in other Indo-European languages? If yes, what are these languages?

11. What important discovery regarding Sanskrit lead to the revelation that dozens of European, Indian, and Middle-Eastern languages originated in a single lost language?

12. Who first made this important discovery regarding Sanskrit?

13. In addition to the fact that Sanskrit has many cognates in common with other Indo-European languages, what does its unusual system of declensions and conjugations make clear to scholars of proto-Indo-European?

14. What do German philologists call Indo-European?

15. What changes of consonants are characteristic of Common Germanic?

16. What is the essence of Grimm's Law?

17. What is the essence of Verner's Law?

18. What kind of process is rhotacism?

19. What layers is the Common Germanic vocabulary characterized by?

20. Compare Germanic and Slavonic languages. What common features characterize them?

SEMINAR2

Aims:

- ✓ be able to account for changes in Phonetics, Morphology/Syntax, and Vocabulary between Indo-European and Germanic;
- ✓ to trace the Indo-European roots within the words of contemporary English.

1. Study points:

1. The Indo-European Hypothesis about the Discovery of the Indo-European Languages

2. General Overview of Germanic Languages

3. Germanic Alphabets

4. Word stress and sound changes in Indo-European and Germanic languages

5. Indo-European to Germanic: changes in morphology and syntax

6. Indo-European to Germanic: changes in vocabulary

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 16–37.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam, Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 35–43.
- ✓ Hans Henrich Hock, Brian D. Joseph. *Language History, Language Change, and Language Relationship: an introduction to historical and comparative linguistics.* – Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1996. – P. 35–64.
- ✓ Richard M. Hogg. *The Cambridge History of the English language*. – Cambridge University Press, 1992. – P. 26–66.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 9–12.
- ✓ T.A.Rastorgueva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 34–49.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 9–19.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. –
- ✓ С. 46–57.
- ✓ Жлуктенко Ю.О., Яворська Т.А. *Вступ до германського мовознавства*. – КиЇв, 1986. – С. 56 – 135.

2. Tests: review of theory

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. Only one process occurred to separate the Germanic language family from the rest of the Indo-European languages.

2. The freezing of Germanic word-stress onto the first root-syllable of a word had extensive effects but receives less attention than Grimm's Law.

3. Contemporary English words come into Modern English from PIE roots through a variety of paths.

4. Words which are related in meaning are not related in their form through Grimm's Law.

5. The introduction of printing in the 15th century is considered the beginning of the Old English Period.

6. The history of the English language begins in the 5th century.

7. Consonant-Shift was described in 1822 by the German philologist Karl Grimm.

8. There are no exceptions to Grimm's Law.

9. The old Indo-European accent was fairly well preserved on the root syllable of a word.

10. Grimm's Law distinguishes Germanic Languages from languages such as Latin, Greek and modern Romance languages such as French and Spanish.

11. Sir William Jones, a British judge in India in the late 18th c., made the larger scholarly community aware of correspondences between Latin, Greek and Sanskrit.

12. Words such as *bhrāta, frater,* and *brōðo*r have a common ancestor and are called cognates.

13. The Comparative Method is supposed to lose the linguistic relations between kinship terms as comparison material.

14. Grimm and Rask accounted for correspondences between consonants found in Germanic languages with different consonants found in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin (1822).

15. English is a Germanic language as are German, Dutch, Flemish, Afrikaans, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, Faroese and Icelandic.

16. While English is very different from Hindi, they both come ultimately from the same source: Indo-European.

17. *Centum* is the ancient word for 'one hundred' in Latin, a language in the eastern branch of Indo-European.

18 *Satem* is the ancient word for 'one hundred' in Avestan, a language in the western branch of Indo-European.

19. Today, Indo-European languages have spread across the Middle East and India.

20. Most languages in Europe, the Middle-East, and India appear to descend from a common ancestral language known to scholars as 'Proto-Indo-European'

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response or each of the following questions / statements.

1. Grimm's Law affected ….

A vowels
B consonants
C diphthongs
D monophthongs

2. The English word *foot* is related to Latin's ….

A leg
B arm
C pedal
D knee

3. Grimm's Law affected the PIE stops according to the following scheme ….

A p, t, k – f, t, k
B p, t, k – f, θ, x
C p, t, k – p, θ, x

D p, t, k – θ, p, x

4. When two words come into ME from the same root by different paths, they tend to continue to have related … meanings.

A semantic
B lexical
C phonetic
D grammatical

5. The so-called Consonant-Shift was described in ….

A 1722
B 1822
C 1832
D 1066

6. The Indo-European voiced stops **[b, d, g]** become ....

A voiced spirants [ɦ, đ, g]
B voiceless [p, t, k]
C voiceless spirants [f, þ, h]
D voiced [p, t, k]

7. The connection between the Germanic sounds and the position of the Indo-European accent was discovered by ....

A J. Grimm
B Th. Malory
C K. Verner
D H. Sweet

8. In Germanic languages the stress was early fixed on the … root syllable of a word.

A first
B second
C third
D shifted

9. The grammatical forms in Germanic languages were built in a … way.

A synthetic
B analytical
C structural
D functional

10. The … endings – were the most specific characteristic features of the OG languages.

A linguistic
B inflectional
C common
D reconstructed

11. Sanskrit nouns have endings representing … different cases.

A four
B two

C eight
D five

12. The deterioration of the case system is related to the …-syllable stress patterns of Germanic languages.
A final
B complete
C shifted
D initial

13. Germanic added … verbs (also called dental preterite verbs) featuring a dental sound [d] at the end of a verb to indicate past tense (the ancestor of our regular past tenses: e.g. walk, walked).
A weak
B strong
C anomalous
D suppletive

14. Relative preservation of Indo-European … changes in root vowels indicated tense, number, part of speech e.g., English *sing, sang, sung*.
A vowel gradation
B i-umlaut
C contraction
D consonant shift

15. Germanic retained a relatively … word order but made greater use of prepositions to compensate for the loss of inflections.
A rigid
B free
C simplified
D distinctive

16. Both etymological layers of vocabulary – the IE and the specifically Germanic layer – are … words.
A borrowed
B preserved
C native
D loans

17. Through the history of their development Germanic languages used … different alphabets.
A five
B four
C three
D two

18. Certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's law were explained by the Danish linguist …in 1877: *four voiceless fricatives /f,ð,h(x),s/, which had appeared as a result of the Germanic Shift, became voiced except for the combinations 'ht, hs, ft, fs,sk, st, sp'.*

A William Jones
B Henry Sweet
C Karl Verner
D Jacob Grimm

19. The sound 'z' was preserved in the Gothic language but was changed into 'r' in Scandinavian and West-Germanic languages. This process is called ….

A consonant shift
B mutation
C Verner's Law
D rhotacism

20. It's speculated that the so called … people were the original Indo-European people; they lived northwest of the Caucasus, north of the Caspian Sea, as early as the fifth millennium B.C.

A Celtic
B Slavonic
C Germanic
D Kurgan

III. Matching: Match the following Latin words with the correct meaning in English.

Latin	**English**
1. *pedal*	A. *knee*
2. *genuflect*	B. *kin*
3. *pentagon*	C. *triple*
4. *cardiac*	D. *cannabis*
5. *genus*	E. *rubric, ruby*
6. *hundred*	F. *foot*
7. *three*	G. *maternal*
8. *hemp*	H. *five*
9. *hostis*	I. *hostel*
10. *red*	J. *fragment*
11. *mother*	K. *octagon*
12. *break*	L. *pedal*
13. *eight*	M. *guest*
14. *foot*	N. *brother*
15. *hostel*	O. *centennial*
16. *fraternal*	P. *heart*
17. *fire*	Q. *pyromania*
18. *dentis*	R. *tooth*
19. *octo*	S. *eight*
20. *vallum*	T. *wall*
21. *plēnus*	U. *door*

22. *fores*	V. *full*
23. *grānum*	W. *thunder*
24. *tonare*	X. *corn*
25. *canis*	Y. *hound*

3. Practice exercises

1. Using Grimm's Law, which of the Latin and Sanskrit cognates can be matched to the Old English ones?. Translate them into Modern English:

Latin /Sanskrit	Old English	Modern English
ped	*fisc*	
piscis	*fæder*	
pater	*þrēo*	
tres	*heorte*	
guod	*fit*	
cor	*hwæt*	
tu	*ðu*	
bhārāmi	*widwe*	
bhrātā	*brōðor*	
vidhava	*bere*	
madhyas	*giest*	
hostis	*middel*	
pančа	*tīen*	
canis	*hund*	
decem	*fīf*	
rudhira	*æcer*	
ager	*rēad*	
genu	*cnēo*	
iugum	*witan*	
vidēre	*geoc*	

2. Questions for summing up:

1. What are the "Grimm's Law Correspondences"?

2. Why do we have so many "Grimm's Law Pairs" in Modern English?

3. Can many pairs of words in Contemporary English be traced back to the same Indo-European roots? If yes, how can it happen?

4. What did the Indo-European voiceless stops [p, t, k] and their aspirated parallels [ph, th, kh] change to?

5. What are the correspondences for labial [p] and [ph]?

6. Did the Indo-European voiced stops [b, d, g] remain the same ones or become voiceless?

7. How were the Indo-European aspirated voiced stops [bh, dh, gh] changed?

8. Can you name the exceptions to Grimm's Law?

9. What is the explanation given by K. Verner?

10. What is the main idea of Verner's Law?

SELF-STUDY2

Aims:

- ✓ watch the video films pertaining to Self-Study 2; i.e., the branches of the Indo-European language family; Grimm's Law; Verner's Law;
- ✓ cognize and apprehend information from the given films;
- ✓ take the computer (e-learning system) tests, based on them;
- ✓ amend and refine your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)
2.1.3. *Verner's Law,* Part 1 of 3 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=aal9VSPkf5s 2.1.4. *Verner's Law,* Part 2 of 3 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fRXKQjLBBrI&feature=relmfu

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- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam, Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 35–43.
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- ✓ T.A.Rastorgueva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 34–49.

Additional:

- ✓ Аракин В.Д. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 9–19.
- ✓ Жлуктенко Ю.О., Яворська Т.А. *Вступ до германського мовознавства*. – КиЇв, 1986. – С. 56 – 135.
- ✓ Lecture 2.

2. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. To answer the questions about the historical development of English we must travel back in time about 5 thousand years to the North of the Black Sea in the South-Eastern Europe.

2. Experts say the people in that area (South-Eastern Europe) spoke a language called Proto-Indo-European. That language is no longer spoken.

3. Researchers know what Proto-Indo-European sounded like.

4. Proto-Indo-European is believed to be the descendant of most European languages.

5. Most European languages of that period include the languages that became Ancient Greek, Ancient German *(Germanic)* and Ancient Sanskrit.

6. Latin disappeared as a spoken language yet it left behind 3 great languages that became modern French, Spanish and English.

7. Ancient German *(Germanic)* became Dutch, Danish, German, Norwegian, Swedish and others languages that developed into English.

8. Perhaps the oldest Stonehenge, the prehistoric origin, served as the *"common source"* (William Jones) for the Indo-European group of languages reaching out as far as India and the Hebrides.

9. The Indo-Europeans probably lived in central Europe; gradually the Germanic tribes, the ancestors of English, moved westwards.

10. Eventually, the Germanic tribes, including the Jutes, Angles, Saxons and Frisians, settled along the shores of Northern Europe, what is now known as Denmark, Germany and Holland.

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions / statements.

1. … was the original language spoken probably around 3 or 4 thousand BC, and with the movement of peoples into various parts of Europe and Asia it developed into 3 major groups.

A European
B Common Germanic
C Proto-Indo-European
D Germanic

2. The two modern languages that have developed from the Old Baltic language group are modern-day Lithuanian and Latvian spoken in Lithuania and Latvia, two small countries which border on … on the one side and Russia on the other.

A the Baltic Sea
B the North Sea
C the Black Sea
D the Mediterranean Sea

3. Many linguists consider … to be the language most closely related to the original Proto-Indo-European language, that is to say it probably changed over time less than the other languages you see in the group here.

A Latvian
B Baltic
C Lithuanian
D Estonian

4. Moving then to the … branch, you will see that overtime it broke into 3 distinct groups: West, South and East ….

A Celtic … Celtic
B Slavic … Slavic
C Baltic … Baltic
D Armenian … Armenian

5. West-Slavic languages spoken in … Europe are as follows: ….

A West … Polish, Slovak, Czech
B East … Polish, Russian, Czech
C South … Polish, Slovak, Bulgarian
D East … Polish, Slovak, Czech

6. South-Slavic languages are located in the south and are all spoken in what used to be known as … but are now broken up into separate countries of ….

A Yugoslavia … Macedonia, Serbia, Croatia

B Yugoslavia … Bulgaria, Macedonia, Serbia

C Yugoslavia … Serbia, Croatia, Montenegro
D Bulgaria … Macedonia, Serbia, Croatia

7. Actually now Serbians like to say that their language is different from ….

A Macedonian
B Croatian
C Bulgarian
D Yugoslavian

8. But really Serbian and Croatian are the same languages, the only difference is that … use the … alphabet, the same alphabet the Russians use, and … use the … alphabet, the same alphabet the English do.

A Serbians …Cyrillic; Croats … Latin
B Serbians … Latin; Croats … Cyrillic
C Serbians …Cyrillic; Croats … Cyrillic
D Serbians … Latin; Croats … Latin

9. Then moving on to the Slavic languages, you will see that it is a very popular language group, because … on the one hand and … on the other are speaking … languages.

A West-Slavic … the Ukrainians … the Russians … West-Slavic
B Balto-Slavic … the Ukrainians … the Russians … Balto-Slavic
C East-Slavic … the Ukrainians … the Russians … East-Slavic
D South-Slavic … the Ukrainians … the Russians … South-Slavic

10. All Slavic languages are … to one another, so that in some cases it's almost like adapting to a different dialect rather than learning a different language.

A related
B isolated
C separate
D autonomous

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.

1. The story of Verner's Law begins in 1749 …
2. Jones was a scholar of Greek and Latin who, even as a boy, found he could learn ancient languages but …
3. Verner's Law said the following …
4. Soon after Jones's arrival in Bengal in the North-Eastern part of India …
5. Jones theorized that Latin, Greek and Sanskrit …
6. When Sanskrit became more widely known in the West and other mother languages began to be studied more in depth …
7. By the early 19th century the term *"Indo-European"* had been created, referring to a language family spreading from India all away to Europe and …

8. Many of the most important discoveries in Indo-European were made by the noted philologists Rasmus Christian Rask and Frans Bopp. Much of the information that came to be known about the Germanic languages – …

9. In the second edition of his *Deutsche Grammatik* Jacob Grimm formed what was later to be known as Grimm's Law or the 1st Consonant Shift; i.e., …

10. Grimm's Law explained the changes in hundreds of words e.g., *pyro/fire; toga/thök/thatch; plus/fleist/veil; tres/three*, etc …

A. … was codified by the brothers Grimm.

B. ... with the birth of Sir William Jones in England.

C. … had all come from some common ancestor and then developed along different lines.

D. … encompassing such diverse languages as Latin, Greek, Hindi, Welsh, French, German, Icelandic, Russian and many others.

E. … he was not able to put his skills in philology to any kind of practical use and would have to choose another field if he was going to support himself through life.

F. … when the consonants *p, t,* and *k* occurred in the middle of a word they would become the voiced consonants *b*, *d*, and *g (v, ð, w)* and not *f, θ,* and *x (h)* as predicted by Grimm. This shift from voiceless to voiced sounds occurred unless the IE stress immediately preceded the consonants in question. If stress was there, *p, t,* and *k* shifted as Grimm had predicted. Germanic *s* could also be affected. With stress preceded it – it remained *'s > s*, or without stress *s* changed into ***z*** and then ***r*:** s > z > r (Rhotacism).

G. … the idea of a Proto language other than Hebrew became more and more popular.

H. … in the development from Indo-European to Germanic Jacob Grimm observed a very significant change had occurred in the shape of consonants, particularly those labial stop consonants, that is consonants that temporary stop the flow of air completely.

I. … he established the Royal Asiatick Society in the hopes of enlightening the world about the history and culture of India.

J. … but unfortunately there were also many words that do not develop according to Grimm's Law.

LECTURE3. Language change and language variation

Aims:

- ✓ to define the main types of language change and language variation.

Language	**Language Evolution**
Communication	Language Change
Synchronic / Diachronic	Language Variation
Internal Reconstruction	Internal/ External
English	Lexicon
Germanic	Historical Linguistics
Statics / Dynamics	Comparative Linguistics

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1995. – P. 1–3.
- ✓ Gerry Knowles. *A Cultural History of the English Language*. – London: Arnold, a member of the Hodder Headline Group, 1999. – P. 1–17.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 5–9.

We will deal with such linguistic phenomena as language change and language variation. In order to understand them we should start from the reality that there are different kinds of English with variations arising from generational, social, regional or ethnic factors. Any of these may introduce new forms or new meanings or cause older ones to disappear. Such processes are natural, they can never be stopped or predicted, and when they are accepted one can conclude that language change has occurred. To prove this we can recite a quotation that

*"**English** became what it did from its **overwhelming receptivity to input from the outside,** especially in the **Age of Empire and the Age of Industrv…***

*For those … who would turn **English** into a **museum,** who would laminate the dictionaries so that **nothing new can be added** or **amended, a la the French Academy,** I say **be careful what you wish for"*** (Ruth Wajnryb, Australian linguist *(2005, Dec 3) The Sydney*

*Now in **the Digital Age,** it's doing it again – **following the natural ebb and flow of the tides of change.***

So **language change** may be defined as a process by which developments in a language are introduced and established. Language change is continual in every language and is largely regular. The custom of language change is like changes with life reflecting the differences in succeeding generations. However, the rate of language change is different among different languages. All kinds of language change can basically be assigned to one of two types: either the change is caused by a structural requirement of the language — this is internally motivated change (any change that takes place over time in phonology, morphology, syntax, or vocabulary of a language) — or it does not; then we speak of externally motivated change, which is the result of social, cultural and political influence.

*"**variations** in language are identified with four social groups: **different ages, education, economic background** and **gender** and points out the **importance** of differentiating within **analyses of language change** … across **speech groups".***

All languages are constantly changing. They change over time and vary from place to place, they change on a personal level, in day-to-day communication; this may not be easily apparent or obvious. People are so intimately connected to their language that they may fail to see its changes. No two individuals speak identically: people from different geographical places clearly speak differently, but even within the same small community there are variations according to a speaker's age, gender, ethnicity, social and educational background. Through their interactions with these different speakers, people encounter new words, expressions and pronunciations and integrate them into their own speech. Every successive generation makes its own small contribution to language change and, when sufficient time has elapsed, the impact of these changes becomes more obvious. As we see, languages indeed change. Some languages flourish and expand and some languages die. A language is the culmination of thousands of years of people's experience and wisdom. Moreover, it is the vehicle that transmits and perpetuates that wisdom. According to Michał B. Paradowski:

"***English** today is one of the most **hybrid** and **rapidly changing languages** in the world. New users of the language are not just passively absorbing, but actively shaping it, breeding a variety of **regional Englishes**, as well as **pidgins** and **English-lexified creoles**".*

Here **language variety** means the total number of grammatical, lexical and phonological characteristics of the common language used by a certain subgroup of speakers. As we move across the country we experience the changing landscape and architecture. At the same time we notice a gradual change in the sounds we hear – the **accents** and **dialects** that immediately conjure up a sense of the place to which they belong. The terms **accent** and **dialect** are often used interchangeably, although in strict linguistic terms they refer to different aspects of language variation.

A **dialect** is a specific variety of English that differs from other varieties in three specific ways: **lexis, grammar** and **phonology** (pronunciation or **accent).**

Accent, on the other hand, refers only to differences in the **sound patterns** of a **specific dialect.** True **dialect** speakers are relatively rare, but despite that they all speak with an **accent.**

Language changes are evidenced at all the levels of the language, namely in its **phonetics/phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis.**

1.1. Sound changes

Traditionally historical linguistic studies begin with sound change and comparative studies with phonological reconstruction.

Sound change *or* ***phonetic change*** *is a historical process of language change consisting in the* ***replacement of one speech sound*** *or, more generally,* ***one phonetic feature by another in a given phonological environment.***

In a daily conversation there are certain words which people pronounce in different ways. Sometimes the difference may be due to social factors, sometimes due to physical factors and sometimes even after reflection. Between the English of Chaucer and that of spoken today probably all entities in the phonological systems have changed.

The constant change taking place in language may lead to the modification of sound. For example, the Old English '***hus***' [hu:s] appears as '***house***' [haʊs] in Modern English, where there has been a shift of the Old English u:] t to [aʊ] in in Modern English. One of the first tasks which a student of the history of English has to undertake is to decide how far variant spellings reflect differences in pronunciation, e.g.: older speakers across the UK tend to stress the first syllable in the word ***´controversy***, for instance, while younger speakers increasingly place the main stress on the second syllable, ***con´troversy***. In other cases, the pronunciation of a particular vowel sound or consonant sound changes gradually across successive generations and thus has an impact on a large group of words. A change in pronunciation might initially take place only in

one particular geographic location and remain local. Or it time spread nationally over time and thus affect all varieties of English.

The pronunciation of the word ***tunes*** is very revealing. Many older speakers in the UK would pronounce a <y> sound in between the initial consonant and vowel of a word like ***tune*** or ***dune*** — so that they sound like **'tyoon'** and **'dyoon'** respectively. Younger speakers are far more likely to blend the consonant and <y> sounds into a <ch> and <j> sound respectively. Thus the word ***tune*** might sound something like **'choon'** and the word ***dune*** might be pronounced like ***june*.**

The other example concerns a <v> sound for the medial consonant in the word ***nephew***, where most speakers nowadays tend to use a <f> sound. The <v> is the traditional pronunciation for speakers of all accents, but is rarely heard among younger speakers nowadays. It is unclear why this change has occurred, but it is probably because of the spelling. Over the past 100 years or so, access to education has increased, and thus more of speakers are aware of the written appearance of the word.

One more example of changes concerns whether speakers prefix the word ***historic*** with the indefinite article, ***a*** – in that case the initial <h> sound is pronounced — or by the indefinite article, ***an*** – then the <h> sound is omitted. The same choice is available with the word ***hotel,*** where *an hotel* (without the <h> sound) perhaps sounds old-fashioned. In the USA the <h> is nearly always omitted on the word *herb*, but this is not the case in British English (these examples of conversational English are taken from http:www.bl.uk/learning /resources/sounds/mp3).

David Crystal, a famous lecturer on the changing language, highlights the most noticeable changes in phonology, in pronunciation, mostly in the prosody of the language, the rhythm, the intonation and the tone of voice:

> *"One can notice an increasing use of the **glottal stop** at the end of a word. In prosody, for instance, one will notice the development of a **Mid-Atlantic accent**, which is mainly a **cross** between **American and British intonation**, a **slower, more drawled, slightly nasal tone** which to an **American ear sounds British** but to a **British ear sounds American"***

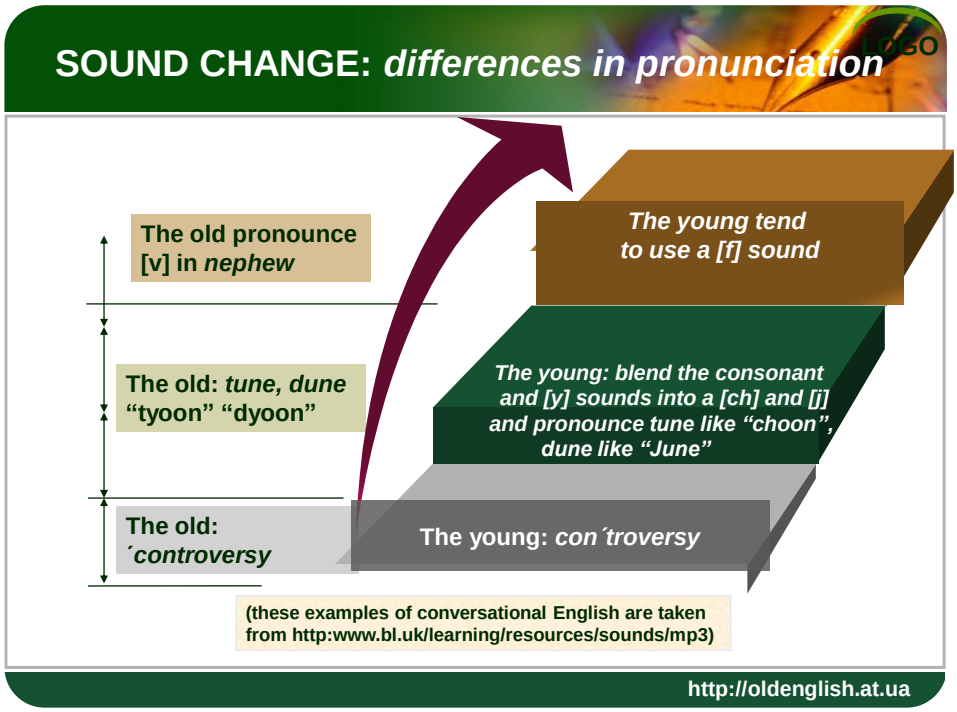

Figure 1.13. Sound or phonetic changes

1.2. Grammatical changes

***Grammatical changes** focus on changes in **morphology** (the **structure of words**) and/or **syntax** (the **structure** of **phrases** and **clauses**).*

Morphology deals with **endings** which are prone to change. In English, the verb 'to dream' used to be irregular, however a regular form is now acceptable for use in the past tense, e.g. *'I have dreamed'*.

Syntactic changes take place over a long time, for example as in Old English to Middle English. OE had a much more irregular syntactical structure (the verb phrase for example could appear in several places in the sentence), but ME is more like Modern English with a designated place for the verb phrase.

Grammatical change appears to spread more slowly than lexical change; older, more conservative forms of speech might sometimes remain present in some **regional dialects**, but not in others. The use of the second person pronouns ***thou, thee, thy*** and ***thine,*** for instance, sound old-fashioned to most contemporaries, but are still heard in parts of northern England – although even there they are becoming increasingly associated with older speakers.

Another example of grammatical change may be an **emphatic intensifier**,a very recent innovation. It first drew attention in positive statements such as *that's* **so** *last year*, but is now just as commonly used with the negative particle, *not*, as in the statement *that's* ***so not*** *cool*. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, this latter construction first appeared in print in 1997, although it has almost certainly been around in spoken English for much longer and probably originated in the USA. For older speakers it is

roughly the equivalent of *I'm **just** not used to it* or *I'm not **really** used to it*, but the newer construction *I'm **so** not used to it* uttered with additional stress on the word *so* lends an extra degree of emphasis to a statement.

One more example of grammatical change is an interesting verbal construction, the **historic** which is used to describe an event in the past. The additional <**s**> on *we **gets*** and *I* **says** indicates quite clearly this is not a 'normal' present tense and the event obviously happened some time ago, as elsewhere one uses simple past tense constructions (*it* **was** *a beautiful day and* **I was** *upstairs*). This type of **historic present** is quite common among older speakers – the immediacy of a pseudo-present tense. It remains relatively widespread in north England and Scotland, but is less heard among younger speakers elsewhere.

Younger speakers use a relatively new verbal construction to relate an event in the past. The present perfect tense (*I**'ve seen** that film and she'**s gone** to Italy*) expresses a number of meanings in English but generally refers to something that happened at an unspecified time in the past. The use of this type of construction, the **historic perfect**, appears to be increasing among younger speakers across the UK. It is used to enliven the act of telling a story or to relate a series of connected events in the past. For instance, it is commonly used in sporting circles to describe an individual piece of play in a match. When asked to describe a goal, footballers and commentators frequently use statements such as *he'**s beaten** the full back, he'**s pulled** the ball back and I'**ve nodded** it in*, where previous generations might have expected a **simple past tense** - *he **beat** the full back, he **pulled** the ball back and I **nodded** it in.*

It is worth mentioning one more process concerning grammatical change which is multiple negation – the use of two or sometimes several negative markers in a statement – which often provokes disapproval and is viewed by many speakers as somehow illogical: two negatives surely do not make a positive? The prescriptive view of language stems from eighteenth-century attempts by the so-called grammarians to make the English language conform to a certain set of rules. In many cases these rules applied to the classical languages of Ancient Greek and Latin but not to English, which is a Germanic language. Multiple negatives were considered perfectly acceptable in most forms of Early and Middle English, as is illustrated by the triple negatives in Chaucer's description of the Friar in The *Canterbury Tales* – '*there **nas no** man **nowher** so vertuous*' – and in Viola's description of her heart in Shakespeare's Twelfth Night – ***'Nor never none**/Shall mistress of it be, save I alone*'. Although modern Standard English speakers studiously avoid such constructions, multiple negatives thrive in most non-standard dialects of English, often serving to intensify or enhance the negative impact of a statement. Al Jolson's famous line in The Jazz Singer in 1927 – '*you **ain't** heard **nothin**' yet*' – and Ronald Reagan's taunt at the Republican National Convention in 1992 – '*you **ain't** seen **nothin'** yet*' – would have carried far less force had they been expressed in Standard English (the given examples are from http:www.bl.uk/learning/resources/sounds/mp3).

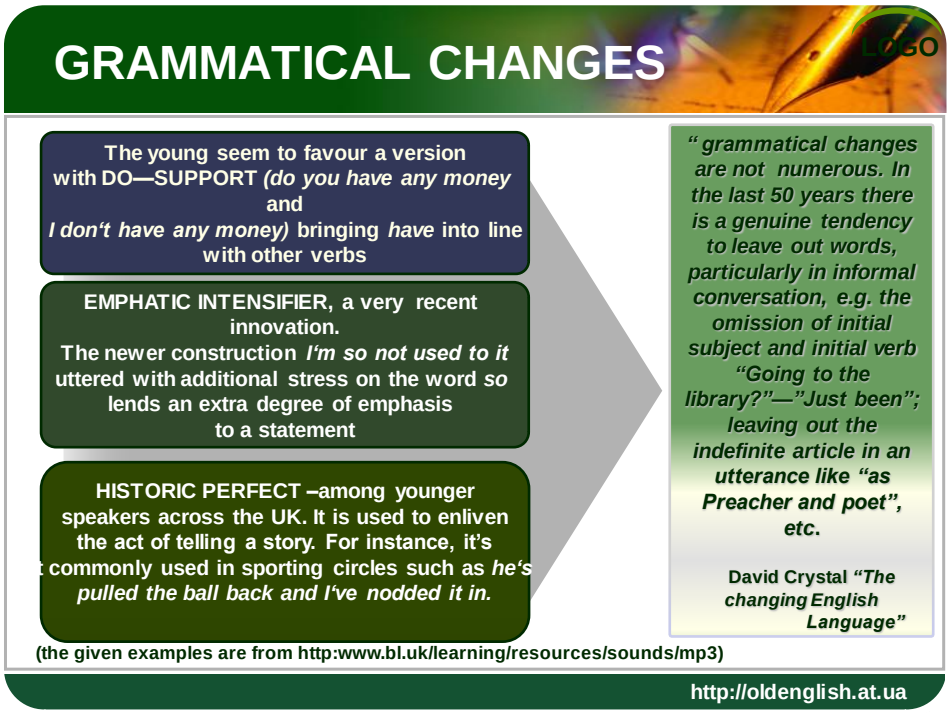

Figure 1.14. Samples of grammatical changes

1.3. Lexical changes

Lexical change refers to a change in the meaning or use of a word or a generational shift in preference for one word or phrase over another.

Lexical change is probably the most **frequent** type of language change and certainly the easiest to observe.

For instance, we can make confident assertions about the age of a speaker who uses the word ***courting*** to mean **"going out with",** or one who uses the adjective ***fit*** to describe someone they find attractive.

Lexical items (*words*), for example, tend to extend their meaning to cover new references; grammatical forms tend to become more general in their application. The term ***holiday,*** once limited to a religious event, now refers to any day away from work. In a similar way, the shape associated with the nautical vessel ***submarine*** was extended to refer to the fast-food sandwich based on the shape of the roll wrapped around the contents. The use of the word ***like*** to introduce a quote as in, *"**He's like**, What are you doing?"* simply extends this grammatically versatile word, already used as a noun, verb, adverb, adjective and conjunction, to set off quoted statements. The human mind organizes language and uses it to communicate thought in a way that predisposes it to certain types of change.

Twenty-five years ago, speakers who used ***like*** in ***she's like****, "Don't leave the house!"* were largely confined to Southern California and strongly associated with a stereotypical Valley Girl way of speaking. Today, the specialized use of ***like*** to introduce a quote (what linguists call the 'quotative ***like***') has spread throughout the English-speaking world. The rapid, expansive spread of 'quotative ***like***' among speakers under the age of 40 is truly exceptional. It also raises important questions about the nature of language change. When it comes to language variety due to age, lexical items in

particular play an important role. Often parents claim not to understand what their children are saying, and children don't want to sound ‘old’ like their parents. Young people in the United States and elsewhere, especially college students, are currently using the expression ***to be like*** in place of ***to say*** when they are reporting a conversation:

(1) *“So **he's like** 'I didn't know that!' And **I'm like** 'but I told you all about it last night!”* (Dirven, 2004: 205).

Another example of lexical change concerns the word ***wireless*** in the statement *“We hadn't a **wireless**”*. We would probably assume this statement was made by an older person, as radio is now the more common term. New vocabulary or changes in fashionable usage spread rapidly and evenly across the country due to our sophisticated communication links. Intriguingly, in the case of ***wireless***, the word has experienced something of a revival. If you hear the word wireless used by a younger speaker, they are almost certainly using it as an adjective rather than a noun and referring to ***wireless technology***, from ***WAP phones*** to ***laptops***. This illustrates perfectly how words can virtually disappear or gradually shift in meaning and usage.

As has already been mentioned above, **David Crystal** in his Keynote Lecture declares that the most noticeable changes of language are in vocabulary. When vocabulary changes, it will undergo changes in different ways. You can borrow words from abroad. You can convert words from one class to another (***‘round’*** the adjective to *‘round’* the verb to *‘round’* the noun) and you can use affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to develop your new words. Then David Crystal mentions some other interesting suffixes taken from newspapers and magazines in the last few months. For example: Maggie is not ***‘Eurofriendly’.*** The trend towards affixation has been a trend since the sixties and a very interesting one, because it has not been a trend in English for several hundred years.

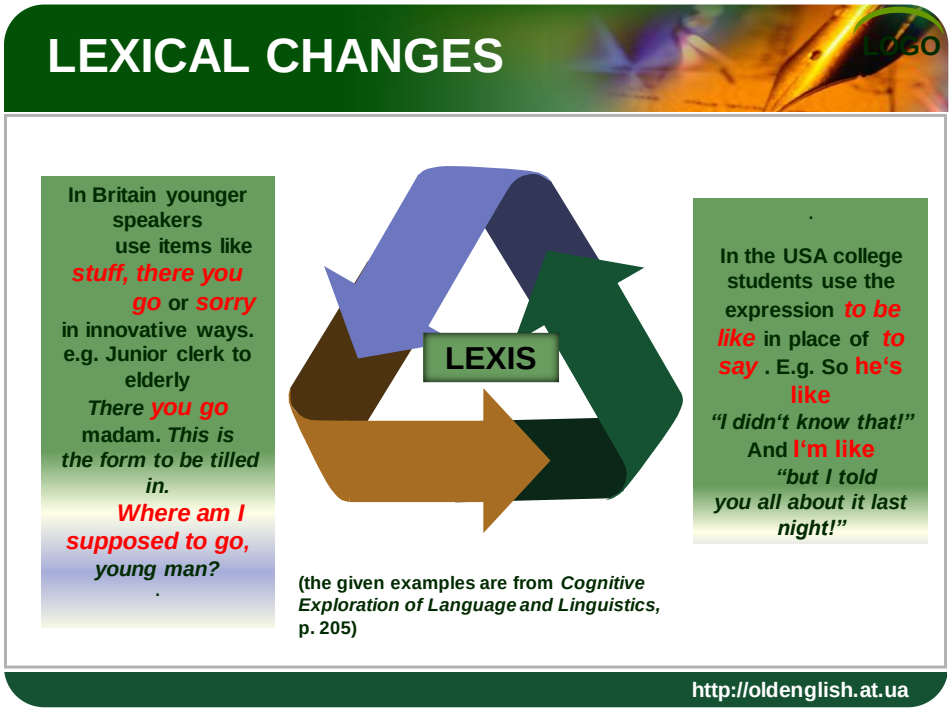

Figure 1.15. Peculiarities of lexical changes

To conclude, we may admit that linguistic changes are constant and inevitable, but they can also be the subject of complaint and controversy. Pressure to change comes both

from within language itself and from its role in society. Because language is a highly patterned code for communication, people collectively pressure it to change in ways that preserve its patterning or enhance its communicative efficiency. At the same time, we use language as a social behavior, to solidify or separate different social groups.

Summary

In this lecture we have tried to make a general outline of the theory of English and the history of the people who have spoken it. Undoubtedly understanding their history helps us understand why their language has become the way it is today. Certainly English is not the same language it was a thousand years ago. All languages change over time, but few languages have changed so much in as short a time as English has. We learned about the reasons why languages change and continue to change generally. The reasons for these changes are many and they can be divided into two categories: internal and external ones. Internal reasons concern linguistic causes. External have to do with social, economic, geographical, political, and historical sources such as migrations, trade contacts, etc.

Because of external and internal influences, English has changed quite significantly from the Old English period to the present. But perhaps one of the more striking changes concerns the rise of English as an international language, the most widely spoken in the world.

Briefly we may summarise that the Early Modern English period, thanks to William Shakespeare and the King James Bible, symbolizes the supreme manifestation of independence and knowledge, effort and intellect, responsibility and talent. Both geniuses of the Renaissance gave their language a choice of national presence at all levels of its usage and created such a high prestige among all levels of society that it would prove to be a widely spread communicative means in the future. As a whole and viewed from its historical perspective Early Modern English made a prelude to a new phase of the English language: **Modern English**.

Questions for self-control

1. Explain why linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual.
2. Can you think of reasons why these changes may occur over time?
3. What kinds of language change can you name?
4. What is meant by sound change? Name several kinds of sound changes.
5. What is the aim of descriptive linguistics?
6. Accordingly, what is the aim of prescriptive linguistics? Which one is more preferable to you and why?
7. Clarify the difference between synchronic and diachronic approaches to language history studies?
8. What is the comparative method of reconstruction? What principal steps are involved in this method?

9. How does the method of internal reconstruction differ from the comparative method of reconstruction?
10. What is usefulness of studying the history of language?
11. What does historical linguistics study?
12. How many levels are there in the structure of language?
13. What is the main contribution of Ferdinand de Saussure to the study of language?
14. What does historical phonology study? Supply your answers with examples.
15. What does historical morphology study? Supply your answers with examples.
16. What does historical syntax study? Supply your answers with examples.
17. What does historical lexicology study? Supply your answers with examples.
18. What is the difference between synthetic and analytic languages?
19. How can you prove that English is an analytic language?
20. Provide arguments to prove that Ukrainian is a synthetic language?

1.2. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

1.2.3. *A brief history of the English language*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NFcjeCIQiME
1.2.4. *OE Introduction*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XWzBIqmxW34

1.3. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.
1. English is a really inconsistent language; it has a lot of grammatical inconsistencies.
2. Originally Britain, Ireland and a lot of France were called Gaul. A lot of that was inhabited by a Celtic speaking people, the Celts, speaking Welsh and Gaelic.
3. Romans made their way conquering people through France and into England. They established settlements in towns and pushed the Anglo-Saxon language on the Celts.
4. A lot of barbarians were coming down to attack villages and causing problems for the Romans and Celtic people that lived there.
5. The Anglo-Saxon people from the Netherlands, parts of Belgium, Germany and Denmark came and basically invaded Britain except Wales. The Romans and Celts were pushed into Wales, which is why in Wales they speak Welsh.
6. The English language is a result of the invasions of the island of Britain over many hundreds of years. The invaders lived along the Northern coast of Europe.
7. Through the years Angles, Saxons and Jutes mixed their different languages, the result is called Anglo-Saxon or Old Frisian.

8. Old English is extremely easy to understand.
9. Several written works have survived from the OE period; perhaps the most famous is called Beowulf.
10. The name of the person who wrote Beowulf is known.
II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.

1. The first invasions were carried out by a people called … about one thousand five hundred years ago.
A Angles
B Romans
C Celts
D Vikings

2. The Angles were a … tribe who crossed the English Channel.
A Celtic
B Roman
C Germanic
D Scandinavian

3. Later, two more groups crossed into Britain – they were the ….
A Saxons and the Celts
B Jutes and the Romans
C Angles and the Vikings
D Saxons and the Jutes

4. The Germanic groups found a people called the …, who lived in Britain for many thousands of years.
A Romans
B Celts
C Anglo-Saxons
D Jutes

5. … is the oldest known English poem, written in Britain more than one thousand years ago.
A "The Wanderer"
B "Historia Ecclesiastica"
C "The Poem of Beowulf"
D "The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"

6. The next great invasion of Britain came from the …, beginning one hundred one thousand years ago.
A Far North
B Far South
C Far East
D Far West

7. The Vikings came from … and other northern countries.

A Germany and Denmark
B The Netherlands and Norway
C Denmark and Norway
D Sweden and Germany

8. Many English words such as **...** come from the Ancient Vikings:
A street, kitchen, wine, cheese
B strong, worry, sick, skin
C loch, bard, shamrock, whisky
D sky, leg, egg, crawl, lift

9. About 5000 modern words are derived from OE, unchanged and in common use today; for example: **...**.
A wire, from, teach, hide, no
B brogue, claymore, plaid, clan
C anger, bull, flat, ill, low
D plum, pea, dish, kettle, pear

10. During the OE period such Latin words as **...** made their way into the English vocabulary.
A budget, flannel, mackintosh, tunnel
B wall, pepper, cup, mill, mile
C rotten, scant, ugly, wrong
D water, tree, moon, night

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.

1. More people are trying to …
2. *English* is the language of …
3. *English* has become the …
4. International treaties say: …
5. *English* is the major foreign language taught in most schools in …
6. School children in the Philippines and Japan begin learning *English* …
7. *Englis*h is an official language of more than 75 countries …
8. In countries where many different languages are spoken …
9. *English* is a common language in India where at least …
10. So the history of English highlights …

A. … *English* is often used as an official language to help people communicate.
B. ... learn *English* than any other language in the world.
C. … South America and Europe.
D. … including Britain, Canada, the United States, Australia and South Africa.
E. …political negotiations and international business.
F. …international language of science and medicine.
G. …at an early age.
H. … 24 languages are spoken by more than one million people.
I. ...*"Passenger airplane pilots must speak English"*.
J. …where the *English* language came from and why it has become so popular.

LECTURE4. The Old English period: 450-1100 A.D.

Aims:

- ✓ be able to define the beginnings of English through its origins and history;
- ✓ be familiar with Old English dialects and written records: runic inscriptions, manuscripts, works of prose and poetry.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
1. Celtic settlers of Britain: the pre-English period
2. The Roman conquest of Britain
3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion
4. The Scandinavian invasion
5. Old English dialects
6. The early runic inscriptions
7. Old English manuscripts

Summary
Questions for self control

Key terms and people to know:

Celts	Venerable Bede	the Ruthwell Cross
the Roman conquest	Julius Caesar	the Franks Casket
Germanic tribes	Emperor Claudius	Beowulf
Old English	King Alfred (871–889)	the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle
Anglo-Saxon English	Cædmon, Cynewulf	the Dream of the Rood

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

1. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. –P. 7–15.
2. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 1–11.
3. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 13–16.
4. T.A. Rastorgueva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 35–71.

Additional:

1. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.*

Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 7–19.
2. L.Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 18–22.

Introduction

In this lecture we will speak about certain movements or events that stand out in the history of English: the earliest inhabitants of Britain – the Celtic-speaking peoples; the settlement of this island by Jutes, Saxons, and Angles in the fifth and sixth centuries; the coming of St Augustine in 597 and the subsequent conversion of England to Latin Christianity; the Scandinavian invasions in the eighth, and ninth, centuries and consequently the arrival of new inhabitants who spoke different languages such as Latin, Germanic and Norse which further displaced or mixed with the existing Celtic ones. At our lecture we look briefly at the linguistic situation in which English first arose and try to account for the specificities of Anglo-Saxon civilization and literature.

1. Celtic settlers of Britain: the pre-English period

The British Isles are thought to have had been home to human populations some 50,000 years earlier, although some estimates put this as far back as 250,000 (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 43). The island was settled during the Stone Age (which lasted in England until approximately 2000 BC), initially by Palaeolithic people (old Stone Age) and later Neolithic people (new Stone Age). While archaeological and paleontological traces of these peoples remain, no linguistic ones do – we have no idea what language(s) they spoke (Ishtla Singh, 2005: 68).

The Neolithic settlers are commonly believed to have been non-Indo-European in origin. Baugh and Cable state that some scholars hold that a modern remnant of this ancient culture is the Basque community in the Pyrenees mountains of Spain. If this is the case, then the Basque language, which does not belong to the PIE family or any other language family now known, may be a descendant of a Neolithic tongue (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 45).

The first settlers in Britain whose linguistic legacy has been identified were the Celts. The invasion of the Celtic tribes went on from the 8^{th}-7^{th} cc. B.C. to the 1^{st} c. B.C. At the beginning of the Christian era, Western Europe was, broadly speaking, divided into a Celtic-speaking south and a Germanic-speaking north. This pattern was overlaid by the spread of Latin out of the Italian peninsula over much of the Celtic-speaking territory.

The first Celtic comers were the Gaels; the Brythons arrived some two centuries later and pushed the Gaels to Wales, Scotland, Ireland and Cornwall, taking possession of the south and east.

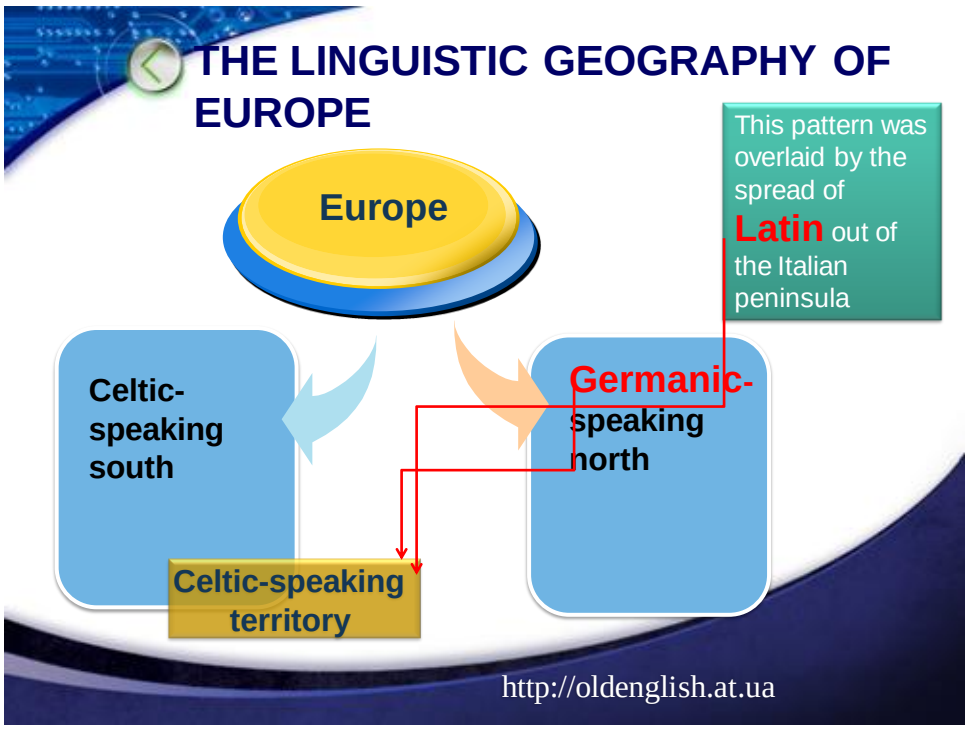

Figure 4.1. The linguistic situation in Europe at the beginning of our era

Thus the British Isles became Celtic in language and the structure of society. The Gaelic form of the Celtic dialects was spoken in Scotland and Ireland, the Brythonic form in England and Wales. The Celtic languages spread over much of southern and western Europe, including modern France, northern Italy and Spain in the first millennium BC. The names of some Celtic tribes survive in modern names: for example, the name Belgi survives in the name of Belgium. The name Gaul survives in the adjective Gallic used by the French. The Cimbri were first found on the continent, and their name possibly survives in Cymru, Welsh for 'Wales', and thence also in Cambrian, Cumberland and Cumbria. Britain and Ireland were invaded and colonized by different groups of Celtic speakers, with the result that there were significant differences between the kinds of Celtic spoken in Britain and Ireland during the following centuries. Irish Celtic is referred to as Gaelic, while British Celtic was spoken in Britain (Gerry Knowles, 1999: 22-23).

The PIE daughter-language **Celtic** eventually split into **Brythonic** and **Goidelic.**	
The **Brythonic** speakers (the southern group of Celtic languages) initially settled in England but later moved into what is now **Wales, Cornwall** and **Brittany**, spawning **Welsh, Cornish** and **Breton.**	The **Goidelic**-speaking Celts (the northern group of Celtic languages) ultimately settled in **Ireland, Scotland** and **the Isle of Man,** giving rise to **Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic** and the now extinct Manx.

The social unit of the Celts, the clan, superseded earlier family groups; clans were united into kinship groups, and those into tribes. The clan was the chief economic unit, the main organizational unit for the basic activities of the Celts such as farming.

The Celts were good craftsmen; they perfected their skill mostly in bronze work. They were heathens until Christianity was brought to them by later invaders, the Romans.

On the eve of the Roman conquest the Brythons were at the stage of decay. The rapid economic development of that time led to a weakening of the Celtic clan structure and that, to a certain extent, may account for the comparative ease with which the conquest was accomplished.

2. The Roman conquest of Britain

Many historians attribute the interest that the Romans took in the British Isles to purely strategic reasons. Gaul, at that time, was conquered by the Roman Empire and completely subdued and reduced to the status of province. So, having occupied Gaul, Julius Caesar made two raids on Britain, in **55** and **54 B.C.** However, it led to practically nothing more serious than Caesar's departure with Celtic hostages and a promise of ransom which he didn't seem to have ever returned to claim. But Roman influence, nevertheless, came in other ways than that of military conquest.

Trade contacts developed all through the **ninety years** separating Caesar's attempted invasion from the actual conquest.

The **Roman Conquest** took place in **43 A.D.** when the **Emperor Claudius** sent a 50-thousand strong army which landed in Kent and crossed the Thames. Since that time up to **410** Britain was one of the most remote provinces of the Roman Empire. It was a military occupation that the Romans established and lasted **4** centuries.

The **Romans** never penetrated far into **Wales** and **Scotland**, and eventually most of what is now England (bordered and protected in the north by Hadrian's Wall) that was settled by Brythonic Celts settled there, came under Roman rule – a situation which continued for about three hundred years. The cooperation of many of the tribal kings seems to have made this an easier transition than it would otherwise have been, but the peace between Roman overlords and subjugated Celts seems to have been initially uneasy. There were numerous revolts, the most famous of which was led by Boudicca in 60 AD that ultimately destroyed Colchester (the first Roman city established in England) and left approximately 70,000 Roman soldiers and Romanized citizens dead (Ishtla Singh, 2005: 69).

Despite such uprisings, the Romanization of the conquered areas and tribes was extensive – there is ample evidence today of Roman roads and villas in England as well as of the adoption of Roman styles of dress, entertainment and even cooking utensils.

Figure 4.2. The Roman occupation of Britain

Latin was introduced as the language of the occupying forces, and it would have been used by people dependent on them and in the towns which grew up around the Roman forts. As a result Latin became the official language of public and government records (some remnants of which remain) and eventually of Christianity, which spread into some areas of England in the third century AD. More recently, fragments of Latin writing, from receipts, letters, invitations and bills, have been found in the soil around the forts of Hadrian's Wall, which would have housed garrisoned soldiers and their families (ibid.: 69).

By the late secondary third centuries AD, the Romans and the Brythonic- Celts seem to have settled into a largely peaceful coexistence, which even allowed for inter-marriage and the emergence of a hybrid Romano-Celtic culture in some areas. This cultural exchange also had linguistic consequences: by the third century, the sons of Celtic kings allied with Rome were growing up speaking and writing Latin. This home-grown elite consequently had access to high social positions in the government of the province. A wide range of languages must have been spoken in Britain at this time.

In **Britain**, **Celtic** had never been completely replaced by **Latin,** and its use continued after the withdrawal of the Roman forces in the early fifth century.

It is difficult to say exactly what role Latin played for this stratum of society – did some abandon their native Celtic, for example? Were some proficient bilinguals in Latin and Brythonic? Were others simply competent in using Latin in certain specialized domains?

What seemed certain was that the **majority** of the **Brythonic Celts** continued to use their **native language** during the **Roman occupation.**

In the **fifth century**, the **Roman Empire** in northern Europe was in terminal **decline** and began to be attacked by 'the Huns' along its continental boundaries, and **troops** were **withdrawn** from **England** to shore up numbers there.

Gaul, now France, was conquered by tribes whose barbarian languages were Germanic in origin. As a result, Rome stopped sending its governors and administrators to its northern outposts in the British Isles. The Britons, who over almost 500 years had become Romanized in behaviour and attitude, but were still Celtic-speaking, now had to look after themselves. The Britons were in a weak position. Germanic tribes had also started attacking the south-east coast of the British Isles even before Roman rule came to an end. England itself also began to undergo raids from Saxon tribes, which led to the establishment of Saxon Shore forts along the eastern and southern coasts. However, the depleted numbers of Roman legions at all boundaries meant that invaders encountered significantly lessened resistance, and in 367 England felt the brunt of this. In three coordinated raids, **Anglo-Saxons** arriving from across the North Sea**, Picts** from Scotland and the **Scots** from Ireland unleashed severe destruction across the land. **Rome** subsequently sent reinforcements, but they were not sufficient to deter the invaders. The **Roman** occupation of **Britain** lasted nearly 400 years; it came to an end in the early 5th c. In **A.D**. **410** the last of the **Roman** legions were **withdrawn** from England, leaving the **Brythonic Celts** – 'tamed' after centuries of Romanization – **on their own.**

(1) According to **Bede,** the native **Britons,** desperate from the continuous attacks by the **Picts** and **Scots**, formed a pact with their other Germanic aggressors

(2) The **Picts** and **Scots** 'received of the Britons a place to inhabit, upon condition that they should wage war against their enemies (Germanic invaders) for the peace and security of the country, whilst the Britons agreed to furnish them with pay'

The Saxons easily succeeded in their task, and, in what Bede describes as a sudden volte-face, entered an alliance with the Picts and turned savagely on their Celtic 'hosts'. In 440, invasions began in earnest and in 446, the Celts made a last frantic appeal to Rome for help.

None came, and to paraphrase Caesar, the Germanic tribes came, saw and conquered. A **new era** in the island's history had begun.

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

Many modern accounts of that time portray it as a ‘tidy compartmentalization of British history’, with a ‘wholesale destruction of Roman Britain immediately followed by a violent reincarnation as Anglo-Saxon England’ (Schama, 2000: 45). In fact, as Baugh and Cable, Schama and Singh note, the transition was much slower and generally much less dramatic. This is not to say that there was no significant hostility between the Saxons, as the Celts generally called the invaders, and the wealas (‘foreigners’), as the invaders rather tellingly and cheekily called the Celts (Baugh and Cable, 2002; Schama, 2000; Singh, 2005).

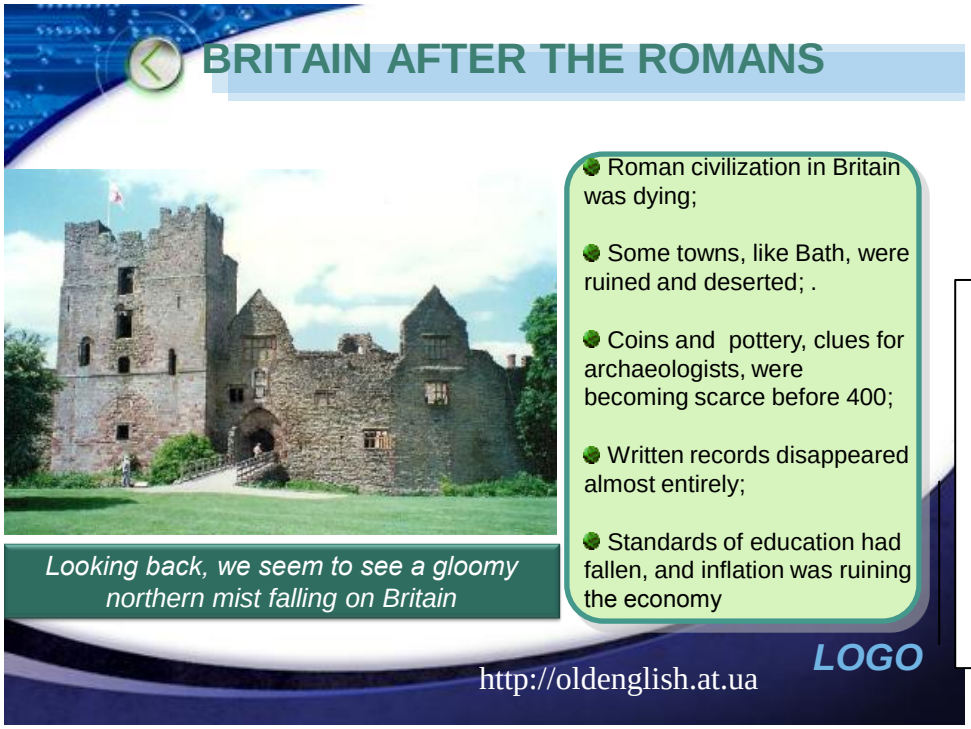

Figure 4.3. Britain after the Romans' departure

Linguistic and cultural history attests to the fact that large numbers of Brythonic Celts were forced to leave England, moving into Wales, Cornwall and Brittany. Quite a few also must have been killed in skirmishes with the newcomers. But it seems that a large number also stayed where they were and eventually assimilated with their Anglo-Saxon neighbours. Since the latter were looking to settle on *“‘already-worked land’ ... and since the only interest the unfree country people had was in calculating which kind of overlord offered the more secure protection, there was an easy fit between the new and the old”* (Ishtla Singh, 2005: 70).

3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion

From the early fifth century, thousands of Germanic migrants crossed the North Sea and settled on the east and south coasts of Britain. These are the people now known as the **Anglo-Saxons**, and their language is the earliest form of what we now call **English.** They came from many different places: from modern Denmark, the north-east of Germany, the north coast of the Netherlands, and possibly from further inland. They spoke many different dialects. In order to understand how this happened, we need to trace

both the growth of Anglo-Saxon settlements and the effect of political and administrative institutions on the speech of the immigrant population.

The **Jutes**, the Germanic tribe believed to be a Frankish one from the low Rhine, were the first to arrive on the British Isles. They seem to have been in contact with the Romans and were well trained in military affairs. The Jutes settled in the southern part of the island, founding the kingdom of Kent.

Other Germanic tribes that followed the Jutes were the **Angles** and the **Saxons**, Teutonic tribes from the German coast that is from the area around the mouth of the Elbe and from the south of Denmark.

They were land-tillers, living in large kinship groups and having a special class of professional warriors to do the fighting. By the 4th c. A.D. the latter were beginning to feel important since their military exploits brought them booty and took them to distant lands. Their first raids to the British Isles, therefore, were a chance for them to rise higher above the general run of peaceful peasants. The random raiders in war-bands began to infiltrate into Britain at the end of the 4th and early in the 5th c.c.

> The **traditional date** of the **Anglo-Saxon invasion** is **449-450 A.D.**

This is the time when migrations of people in Western Europe were becoming the normal state of thing, and it was probably as part of this movement that vast Anglo-Saxon hordes poured into Britain, the object being **territorial conquest.** Reliable evidence of the period is extremely scarce. The story of the invasion is told by **Bede (673-735)**, a monastic scholar who wrote the first history of England.

According to Bede the invaders came to Britain in A.D. 449 under the leadership of two **Germanic kings**, **Hengist** and **Horsa**; they had been invited by a **British** king, **Vortigern**, as assistants and allies in a local war who landed at Ebbsfleet in the Isle of Thanet in **449**. To quote Bede:

> "They came from three very powerful Germanic tribes, the **Saxons, Angles** and **Jutes.** The people of **Kent** and the inhabitants of the Isle of Wight are of Jutish origin and also those opposite the Isle of Wight, that part of the kingdom of Wessex which is still today called the nation of the **Jutes.** From the **Saxon** country, that is, the district now known as Old Saxony, came the **East Saxons,** the **South Saxons** and the **West Saxons**. Besides this, from the country of the **Angles**, that is, the land between the kingdoms of the Jutes and the Saxons, which is called Angulus, came the **East Angles,** the **Middle Angles,** the **Mercians** and all the **Northumbrian** race (that is those people who dwell north of the river Humber) as well as the other **Anglian** tribes"

Bede did not mention the Frisians, but he drew a fairly clear picture of the settlement of Britain by these three related 'nations' or tribes: the **Jutes** who came first and settled in **Kent, Southern Hampshire** and the **Isle** of **Wight**; the **Saxons** who afterwards occupied the rest of **England south** of the **Thames;** and then the **Angles** or

English, who founded homes in regions **north** of the **Thames**. The Jutes came from Jutland, the Saxons came from Holstein and the Angles were from Schleswig.

Whatever their exact origins, these groups were in any case closely related in language and culture, and eventually came to regard themselves as one people. The Angles took their name from the word *angle* or corner of land. In both Latin and Common Germanic their name was *Angli,* and this form became *Engle* in Old English by the change of a stressed vowel or 'front mutation'. The word Engle, 'the Angles', came to be applied to all of the Germanic settlers in Britain, and the related adjective Englisc was similarly applied to all these peoples and their language, not just to the Angles.

Before 1000 A.D. ***Angelcynn,* 'Angle-race',** and after that date ***Englaland,* 'land of the Angles'**, were used to denote collectively the Germanic peoples in Britain: **Angles, Saxons** and **Jutes** alike.

From the beginning the language was always Englisc.

The origin and the linguistic affiliation of the **Jutes** appear uncertain: some historians define them as a Frankish tribe; others doubt the participation and the very existence of the **Jutes.** It is also uncertain whether the early settlers really belonged to separate tribes, **Saxons** and **Angles,** or, perhaps, constituted two mixed waves of invaders, differing merely in the place and time of arrival (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 57).

The newcomers soon dispossessed their hosts, and other Germanic bands followed. They came in family groups and in tribes, with wives and children, immediately following the warriors.

The invasion must have been ruthless in its character. The barbaric invaders not only destroyed all the remnants of Roman culture, they killed and plundered and laid the country to waste. The Celts were mercilessly exterminated. The survivors were either enslaved or made to retreat to Wales, Cornwall and to the North of the island. So they took refuge in those mountainous regions and retained their independence and culture. They developed crafts and arts showing great skill in metal work, sculpture, music and literature.

Many of those Celts who did not retreat to Devon, Cornwall, Wales and Cumberland, crossed the channel immigrating to the continent to found what is today known as the French province of Brittany where the Celtic influence survives in the dialect and styles of life. In **Ireland** the **Celtic** tribes separated from the main island by the sea and were never subdued, likewise retaining their **freedom**.

Figure 4.4. The legends extol King Arthur's courage and integrity

After the first shock even the Romanized Celts must have rallied to resist. There were victorious battles where the Celts demonstrated their endurance and persistence. **King Arthur** organized Celtic resistance so as to make it a constant menace to the Anglo-Saxon invaders. The Celts made their faith a weapon in their struggle against the heathen Germanic invaders.

So **King Arthur**, the 6th c. hero of **Celtic Independence**, became in the memory of the people a defender of the faith, and his **Knights** of the **Round Table**, bright examples of all the moral virtues.

Thus the resistance of the brave Celts protracted the conquest period, which to a great extent determined the political structure of the conquerors' society. There appeared many independent tribal communities. Groups of tribes formed separate kingdoms. The borders of the kingdoms were constantly changing and shifting; they struggled for supremacy and the English history of that period is the struggle of one of the Anglo-Saxons after another for power and dominance.

By the end of the 6th c. **Kent** was the only kingdom of the **Jutes** while the **Angles** and the **Saxons** had formed **six kingdoms**, three of the **Angles** in the northern and central parts of the island (**Northumbria** in the North between two rivers, the Forth and the Humber; **East Anglia** in the East in what is now Norfolk, Suffolk and part of Cambridgeshire and **Mercia** in the Midlands between East Anglia and the still unconquered Wales); and three of the **Saxons** in the southern part: **Sussex** and **Essex** to the south and north of Kent respectively in the south-eastern corner of the island and **Wessex** in the western part of the southern section.

So the seven emerged kingdoms on the settled British territories constituted the Anglo-Saxon ‘heptarchy’ of Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex and Kent. One of these kingdoms would gain political supremacy over others at different times: in the early part of the seventh century Northumbria gained prominence and was a great centre of learning, in the eighth century Mercia, and then in the ninth century Wessex under Ecgbert (802–839) and later Alfred (871–889).

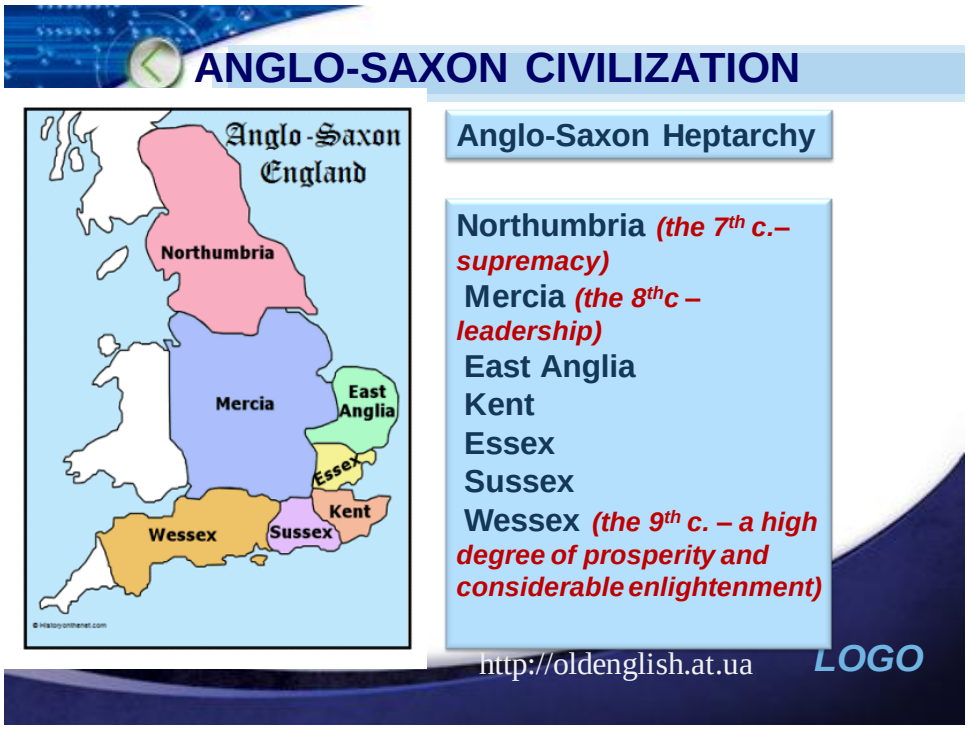

Figure 4.5.

Anglo-Saxon kingdoms

The migration of the Germanic tribes to the British Isles and the resulting separation from the Germanic tribes on the mainland was a decisive event in their linguistic history. Geographical separation, as well as the mixture and unification of people, are major factors in linguistic differentiation and in the formation of languages.

> Being cut off from related OG tongues the closely related group of **West Germanic dialects** developed into a separate Germanic language, **English**. That is why the **Germanic settlement** of Britain can be regarded as the **beginning** of the **independent history** of the **English language** (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 58)

In the late sixth century, Pope Gregory the Great sent missionaries to the kingdom of Kent where the Jutish ruler, Æthelbert, had married a Frankish Christian princess, Bertha. This group of ‘godspellers’, led by **St Augustine**, eventually managed to convert Æthelbert, baptising him into the Christian faith within a few short months. Important monasteries such as those at Jarrow and Lindisfarne were soon established (one of their main purposes being the copying of sacred texts and histories of the early Church), and during the **seventh century**, most of England became **Christianized.**

Upon Æthelbert's conversion, Pope Gregory styled him as Rex Anglorum, **'King of the Angles'**, a title that would later be taken by the leader of any prominent kingdom. As mentioned earlier, the Celts had initially referred to the invaders as Saxons, and early Latin writers had followed this trend, giving the tribes the generic name Saxones and the land they settled on Saxonia. However, the terms ***Angli, Anglia*** and ***Angelcynn*** ('Angle-kin') soon began to co-occur as general terms of reference. However, the Germanic dialects spoken by the tribes seem to have always been referred to collectively as **Englisc,** again derived from the name of the **Angles,** and from 1000 onwards it was the language of ***Englalond*** ('**land of the Angles'**) (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 50–1).

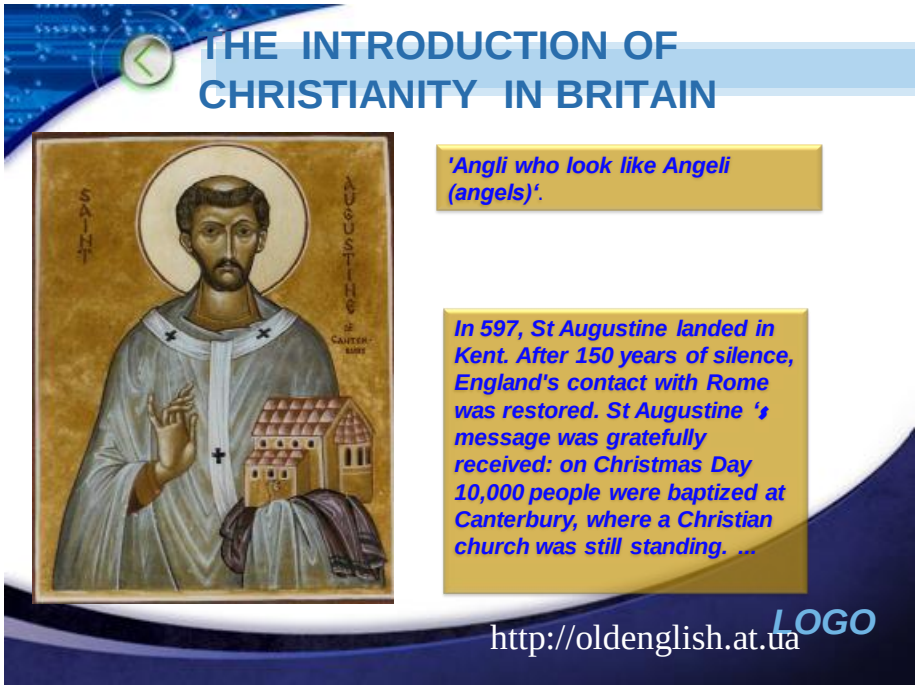

Figure 4.6. St Augustine's Christian mission to England

Thus with the arrival of St Augustine and his monks, direct contact was resumed with the life and thought of the Mediterranean. England became a home of learning, especially north of the Humber. The light of learning shone more brightly in Northumbria than anywhere else Europe. But that light was extinguished by the Scandinavian Vikings, who sacked Lindisfarne in 793 and put an end to monastic learning in the north in 870.

4. The Scandinavian invasion

The harrying of Europe by the Scandinavian Vikings, which took place between about 750 and 1050, was the last phase of the expansion of the early Germanic peoples. As Barber and Schama note, the basic cause was perhaps overpopulation in Norway and Denmark, but there were other contributory causes (Barber, 2009: 137; Schama, 2000: 54). The custom of leaving the inheritance to the eldest son meant that there were always younger sons wanting to carve out inheritances for themselves. Political conflicts drove many noblemen into exile. And then, in the late eighth century, Charlemagne destroyed the power of the Frisians, who had hitherto been the greatest maritime power of north-western Europe, and thereby left open the sea-route southward for the Vikings. The word **viking** (Old Norse *víkingr*) perhaps means 'creek-dweller'; but there are cognate forms in

Old English and Old Frisian, and the OE word, *wīcing* 'a pirate', is recorded in the days before the Scandinavian raids, which has led some to argue for alternative etymologies based on an Old English, rather than Old Norse, origin for the word (Barber, 2009: 138).

The Vikings consisted of Swedes, Norwegians and Danes. The Swedes mostly went eastwards to the Baltic countries and Russia, while the Norwegians and Danes tended to go westwards and southwards. The Vikings who attacked England were referred to by the Anglo-Saxons as Dene 'Danes' (and as pagans).

The invaders who in **793** began their predatory expeditions with the ruthless destruction of the Lindisfarne abbey were the **two Scandinavian peoples, Danes** and **Norwegians.** Later on the **Danes** became the invaders of **England** and the **Norwegians** constituted the bulk of the hosts invading **Scotland** and **Ireland.**

They were skillful warriors and cunning shipbuilders; they were ferocious fighters and daring pirates. The Danes surpassed the Anglo-Saxons in military skill and in military equipment. In addition to the long ships and the iron axes they had efficient-looking long swords of iron, iron helmets and shields and often chain armour while the Anglo-Saxons had knives and spears and, far from being protected with iron mesh, could only boast leathern covering. Danes knew tricks of lightning-speed attack, getting where they wanted in their long ships, landing quickly, getting all the horses available and attacking on horseback, etc.

In **842** they burnt down **London**, in 850 they stayed to winter in England instead of withdrawing with the booty as usual, and in the 60ies of the 9th c. they founded their first permanent settlements (Johansson, 2005: 54). With this as a springboard, they moved to overrun and plunder Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia which had already lost their resistance power. In **871** they founded a fortified camp in Reading that served them as a base for their further push on to Wessex (ibid.).

Alfred became ruler of **Wessex** in **871**, following the death of his brother Æthelred. In the years following, he waged a series of campaigns against the raiders, enjoying some small victories as well as lamenting quite a few defeats. In **878,** however, he won a significant **victory** at Edington over one of the Viking chieftains, **Guthrum.**

Indeed, this victory was military and spiritual: **Guthrum** was so impressed by the skills of Alfred's Christian soldiers that he also decided **to convert.** Alfred was godfather at his baptism in **878**.

Alfred and **Guthrum** also signed the **Treaty of Wedmore** in this year where Guthrum agreed to stay in East Anglia (which he had seized before the battle at Edington) and to refrain from attacking Wessex, Mercia, Essex and Kent. The Treaty also allowed for Viking settlement in East Anglia, Mercia and Northumbria, east of a line of demarcation which ran roughly from London to Chester. This area, **subject to Viking rule**, became known as **the Danelaw**. And the settlers, following Guthrum's lead, largely became Christian. Thus, Alfred managed a 'modus vivendi with a Christianized, and therefore relatively peaceful Viking realm' (Johansson, 2005: 61).

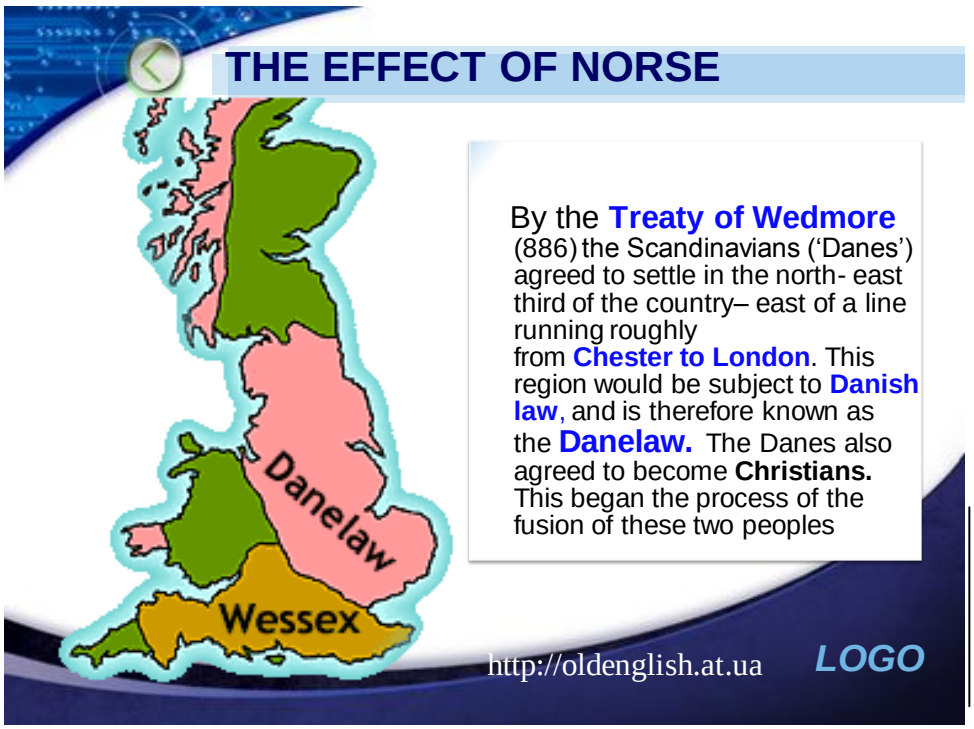

Figure 4.7. The Treaty of Wedmore: the "Danelaw" and England proper

The **Danelaw** and later settlements actually brought together peoples who ultimately had a great deal in common, which quickly facilitated inter-marriages and neighbourly living. Pyles and Algeo state that the 'Scandinavian tongues' at that point were 'little differentiated from one another', and were also largely mutually intelligible with the English spoken by the descendants of the original Germanic invaders (Pyles and Algeo 1982: 103). Culturally, they also shared similar perspectives, legends and histories. **The Vikings** appear to have **assimilated** with their **English**-speaking neighbours, and the close and intimate contact between the two groups provided the opportunity for English to borrow quite a few, sometimes surprising, lexical items from Old Norse, as the language of the Vikings is often labelled. Indeed, some scholars argue that the contact between **the two languages catalysed** certain structural changes in **English** (Singh, 2005: 73).

5. Old English dialects

We should remember that the tripartite division of England was naturally reflected in language and dialects. Inasmuch as **Jutes, Angles** and **Saxons** could probably understand one another, we may speak of three inherited dialects rather than of three separate languages. There were, for example, regional dialectal divisions, initially established by the settlement of the various Germanic tribes in different areas of England and continued by the varying rates and directions of change that each underwent in its particular environment. Old English, like any other living language, was not uniform across the general speech community.

The available evidence has allowed scholars to distinguish **four** main **dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian** (sometimes collectively known as Anglian), **West Saxon** and **Kentish**.

Northumbrian and **Mercian** were spoken in the areas of mainly Anglian settlement north of the Thames while **Kentish** emerged in its namesake Kent, which became home to mainly Jutish communities.

Textual material for these dialects is scant – a few charters, runic inscriptions, brief fragments of verse and of biblical translation have survived in Northumbrian and Mercian, but even less now exists in Kentish (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 53).

In addition, we should bear in mind that no single dialect would have been uniform in itself: it is reasonable to assume that there must have been variation influenced by extra-linguistic factors such as social position, age, and gender, much as there is now. There is no concrete evidence for such sociolinguistic variation given the limited textual production of the time, but that should not give us license to assume that it did not exist. Many of the earlier manuscripts were destroyed in the Viking conquests of the north and midlands, and in the later part of the period there was a tendency for manuscripts to be copied by West Saxon scribes and so put into West Saxon form. For example, the Old English epic poem **Beowulf** was possibly composed in an **Anglian** dialect, but the only surviving manuscript copy contains a fair number of **West Saxon** features.

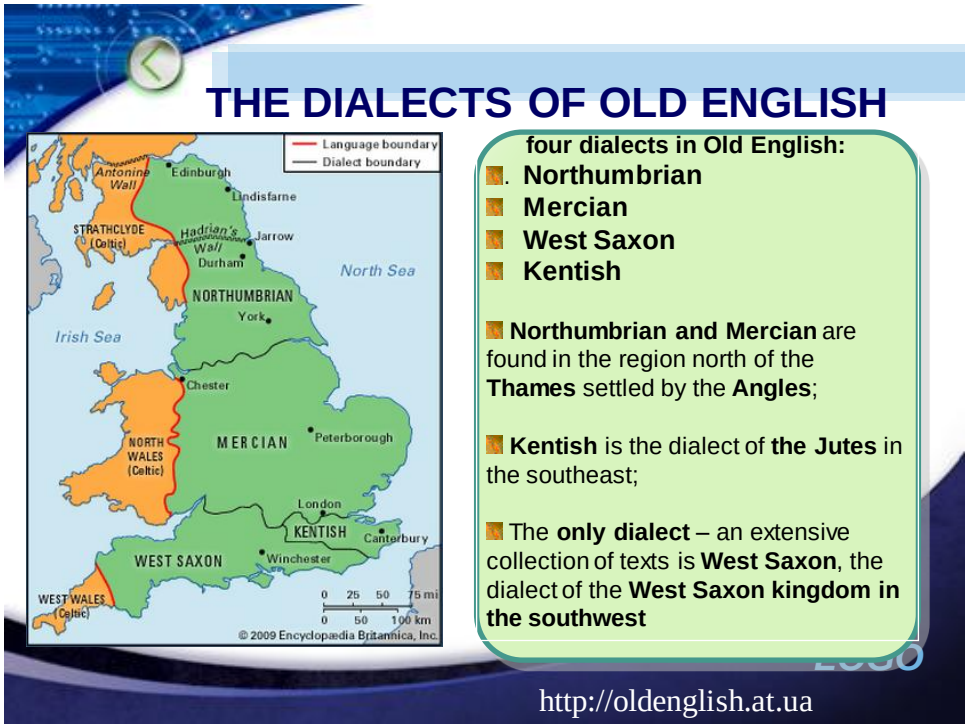

Figure 4.8.

Old English dialects

One interesting thing is that, although a **West Saxon** variety became an **influential literary language** in the late Anglo-Saxon period, it is **not** the **direct ancestor** of modern **Standard English**, which is mainly derived from an **Anglian dialect** (but not, it should

be pointed out, any of the Mercian or Northumbrian varieties represented in extant Old English texts) (Barber, 2009: 110).

The Germanic tribes who settled in Britain in the 5th and 6th c. spoke closely related tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup. Their common origin and separation from other related tongues, as well as their joint evolution in Britain, transformed them eventually into a single tongue, **English.** Yet, at the early stages of their development in Britain the dialects remained disunited.

On the one hand, the **Old English dialects** acquired certain **common features** which distinguished them from **continental Germanic tongues**; on the other hand, they displayed **growing regional divergence.**

The feudal system was setting in and the dialects were entering a new phase; tribal dialectal division was superseded by geographical division. In other words, tribal dialects were transformed into local or regional dialects.

The boundaries between dialects were uncertain and probably movable. Dialects passed into one another imperceptibly, and dialectal forms were freely borrowed from one dialect into another; however, information is scarce and mainly pertains to the later part of the Old English period. Throughout this period the dialects enjoyed relative equality; none of them was the dominant form of speech, each being the main type used over a limited area.

As mentioned above, by the **8th** c. the center of English culture had shifted to **Northumbria,** which must have brought the Northumbrian dialect to the fore; yet, most of the writing at that time was done in Latin or, perhaps, many OE texts have perished.

In the 9th c. the political and cultural center moved to **Wessex.** It is no wonder that the **West Saxon** dialect has been preserved in a greater number of texts than all the other OE dialect put together.

Towards the 11th c. the written form of the West Saxon dialect developed into a bookish type of language, which, probably, served as the **language** of **writing** for all **English-speaking people** (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 63).

It follows from the above description that the changes in the linguistic situation justify the distinction of two historical periods. In Early OE from the 5th to the 7th c. the would-be English language consisted of a group of spoken tribal dialects having neither a written nor a dominant form. At the time of written OE the dialects had changed from tribal to regional; they possessed both an oral and a written form and were no longer equal; in the domain of **writing** the **West Saxon** dialect prevailed over its neighbours (ibid).

6. The early runic inscriptions

With Christianity came the Latin model of writing. The English already had one form of writing, **runes**, but these were used only for short inscriptions, not for texts of any length.

Runes had been used by the Germanic peoples from at least the **third century AD** for carving or scratching inscriptions on stone, metalwork or wood. The word **rune (OE rūn)** also meant **'mystery, secret'**, and some inscriptions were perhaps thought to have **magical power.**

It is unclear how and where the runic alphabet originated, but it has clear **similarities** with **Greek** and **Italic alphabets** (among which the Roman alphabet is the best known and the one we use today). Because of their use in inscriptions, **runes** have acquired a decidedly **angular** form, as straight lines are easier to scratch (especially into wood) than curved lines. The best-known inscriptions are the **Scandinavian ones**, and the **earliest English inscriptions** use forms of the runic alphabet that closely resemble those in contemporaneous use elsewhere in Germanic-speaking areas. However, the English had a distinctive form of the runic alphabet which, from its first six letters, is known as the 'futhorc' (fuþorc). When clerics introduced writing to England they used a version of the Latin alphabet, but eked it out with runic symbols from the futhorc: for example, they used the symbol ***ƿ*** ('wynn') to represent the OE /w/ phoneme. (Barber, 2009: 112-113).

The **number** of runes in different OG languages **varied.** As compared to the continent, the number of runes in England was larger: new runes were added as new sounds appeared in English (from **28 to 33** runes in **Britain** against **16 or 24** on the **continent**) (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 64).

The **two** best known **runic inscriptions** in England are the earliest extant OE written records. One of them is an inscription on a box called the **Franks Casket;** the other is a short text on a stone cross in Dumfriesshire near the village of Ruthwell known as the **Ruthwell Cross.**

Both records are in the **Northumbrian dialect.** The **Franks Casket** was discovered in the early years of the 19th c. in France, and was presented to the British Museum by a British archaeologist, A. W. Franks. The Franks Casket (or the Auzon Runic Casket) is a little whalebone chest, carved with narrative scenes in flat two-dimensional low-relief and inscribed with runes. The runic text describes the story of Romulus and Remus, two brothers, who were nourished by a she-wolf in Rome, far from their native land.

The **Ruthwell Cross** is a 15 feet tall stone cross inscribed and ornamented on all sides. The principal inscription has been reproduced into a passage from an OE religious poem, ***The Dream of the Rood***, which was also found in another version in a later manuscript.

Many runic inscriptions have been preserved on weapons, coins, amulets, tombstones, rings, various cross fragments. Some runic insertions occur in OE

manuscripts written in Latin letters. The total number of runic inscriptions in OE is about forty; the last of them belong to the end of the OE period.

Figure 4.9. The Ruthwell Cross was inscribed c. A.D. 700 in Latin and in runes with a religious Anglo-Saxon poem *"The Dream of the Rood"*

7. The Old English manuscripts

While speaking about the Old English manuscripts we should take note of the sources from which our linguistic and cultural knowledge of the Anglo-Saxon period is largely derived. The available literature – **poetry** and **prose** dating mainly from the **tenth** and **eleventh** centuries – has been described collectively as *'one of the richest and most significant of any preserved among the early Germanic peoples' (*Baugh and Cable, 2002: 69). Approximately 30,000 lines of Old English poetry survive in written form, remnants of a much larger body of material originally composed for oral delivery.

Surviving **Anglo-Saxon poetry** ranges across the treatment of **mythic, heroic** and **ecclesiastic** subjects, sometimes merging themes of all three.

Poetry that nostalgically recounts a Germanic pre-history of heroic deeds and epic struggle is often *'overlaid with Christian sentiment'*, and that which treats *'purely Christian themes contain*[s] *every now and again traces of an earlier philosophy not forgotten'* (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 69). Despite such thematic overlap, however, certain broad categorizations are possible (ibid: 74–5). Surviving Anglo-Saxon poetry ranges across the treatment of mythic, heroic and ecclesiastic subjects, sometimes merging themes of all three (Singh: 73).

'Heroic' poetry includes such poems as *Beowulf, Deor, The Fight at Finnsburh, Waldere* and *Widsith.*

Historical, **biographical** poems are: *The Battle of Brunanburh* and *The Battle of Maldon.*

To **religious** poems we refer to *The Dream of the Rood ('Cross'), Christ and Judith;* **Christian allegorical compositions** such as *The Phoenix, The Panther, The Whale.*

There are also **biblical paraphrases** such as The *Metrical Psalms*. **Lives of the saints** were also popular poetic material, as illustrated by *Andreas, Elene, Guthlac* and *Juliana*.

Short **elegies** and **lyrics** are comprised by *The Wife's Lament, The Husband's Message, Wulf and Eadwacer, The Ruin, The Wanderer and The Seafarer.*

There are also riddles, gnomic verses (which comprise general maxims), and finally, poems which do not fall into any particular category, such as the *Charms, The Runic Poem* and *The Riming Poem.* All of these are collated in the six volumes of the **Anglo-Saxon Poetic Records.**

The greatest poem of the time was **Beowulf,** an epic of the 7th or 8th c. It was originally composed in the Mercian or Northumbrian dialect, but has come down to us in a 10th c. West Saxon copy. It is valued both as a source of linguistic material and as a work of art; it is the oldest poem in Germanic literature. BEOWULF is built up of several songs arranged in three chapters (over 3,000 lines in all). It is based on old legends about the tribal life of the ancient Teutons. The author (unknown) vividly depicts the adventures and fights of legendary heroes.

The plot is rather simple: in the first part of the poem, Beowulf, a young hero of the Geats (a tribe in Southern Sweden), hears of a sea monster preying upon Hrothgar, the king of the Danes, and killing his warriors after their feast in the "mead-hall", called Heorot.

So Beowulf goes there with his warriors, mortally wounds the monster and then kills the monster's mother in the second part. The symbolic meaning of the poem was interpreted by numerous investigators as a triumph of human courage over the mysterious hostile forces of nature.

There is another, later, Christianity-influenced idea of one gaining salvation for all by the sacrifice of his own life. This can be seen from the third part where Beowulf, now an aged king, an ideal king of the tribal society, a king by virtue of his superior courage, wisdom and inborn nobility, saves his people from the wrath of a fire-breathing monster who hoard gold in a cave. Gold is a vital function of the warrior culture. Beowulf dies protecting his people from the grave menace.

Example 1 from *"The Poem of Beowulf"* demonstrates moral courage of the main hero.

Beowulf maþelode,	*bearn Eaʒþeower*
Ne sorʒa, snotor ʒuma; *þæt hē his frēond wrecce,*	*sēlre biþ āʒhwæm* *þonne hē fela murne.*
Ūre æʒhwylc sceal ende	*ʒebīdan*
worolde līfes;	*wyrce sē þe mōte*
dōmes ær dēaþe;	*þæt bið driht-ʒuman*
unlifiʒendum æfter selest.	

Beowulf spoke, Eaʒtheow's son

Sorrow not, sage man; better 'tis for every one

that he his friend avenge, than that he greatly mourn

each of us must an end await

or this world's life; let him who can, work

high deeds ere death; to the

The earliest English poem and the first example of the nature of Old English poetry is *"Cædmon's Hymn",* composed between 657 and 680. In his *"Ecclesiastical History"* Bede tells us the story of the first Anglian poet, a shepherd called Cædmon who, as the legend goes, *"did not learn the art of poetry from men, but from God; for which reason he never could compose any trivial or vain poem, but only those which related to religion"* (England, 1976: 31).

Cædmon was taken to the monastery of Whitby where, since he was illiterate, the monks wrote his exposition of the Biblical topics that were suggested to him.

Our knowledge of the OE language comes mainly from manuscripts written in Latin characters. Like elsewhere in Western Europe Latin in England was the language of the church and also the language of writing and education. The monks were practically the only literate people; they read and wrote Latin and therefore began to use Latin letters to write down English words. Like the scribes of other countries, British scribes modified the Latin script to suit their needs: they changed the shape of some letters, added new symbols to indicate sounds for which Latin had no equivalents, attached new sound values to Latin letters. The first English words to be written down with the help of Latin characters were personal names and place names inserted in Latin texts; then came glosses and longer textual insertions.

All over the country all kinds of legal documents were written and copied. At first they were made in Latin with English names and place-names spelt by means of Latin letters; later they were also written in the local dialects. Many documents have survived on single sheets or have been copied into large manuscripts containing various wills, grants, deals of purchase, agreements, proceedings of church councils, laws, etc. Most of them are now commonly known under the general heading of *"Anglo-Saxon Charters"*; the earliest are in Kentish and Mercian (8-9th c.); later laws and charters are written in West Saxon though they do **not** necessarily come from **Wessex**: West Saxon as the written form of language was used in different regions.

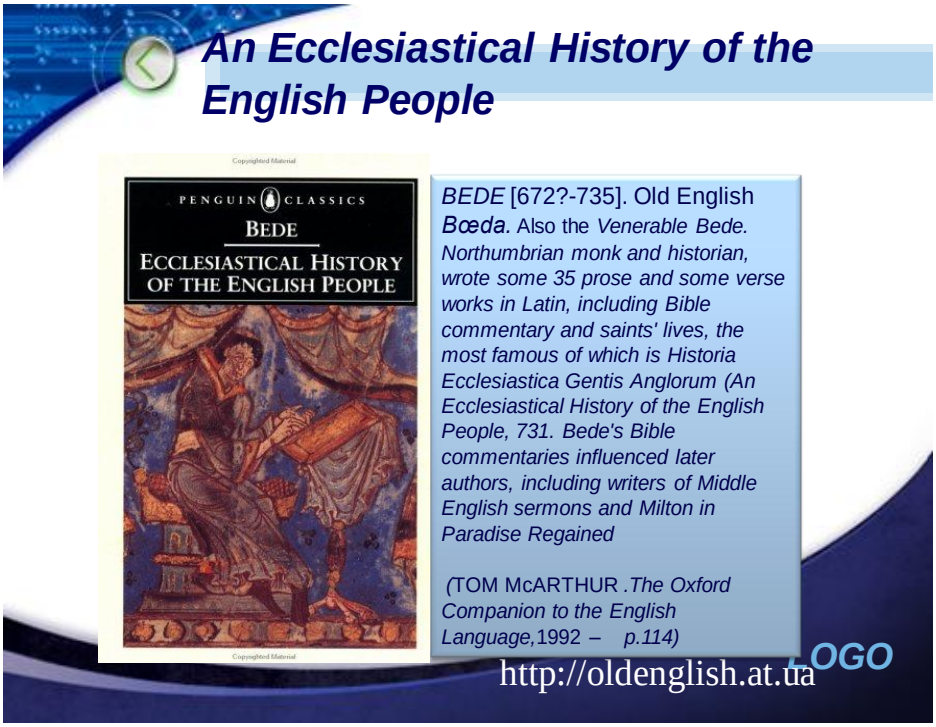

Figure 4.10. Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglo-Rum*

Glosses to the Gospels and other religious texts were made in many English monasteries for the benefit of those who did not know enough Latin. Their chronology is uncertain but, undoubtedly, they constitute early samples of written English.

OE poetry constitutes a most precious literary relic and quite a substantial portion of the records in the vernacular. All in all we have about 30,000 lines of OE verse from many poets of some three centuries.

The names of the poets are unknown except **Cædmon and Cynewulf**, two early **Northumbrian authors**.

In the 10th c, when the old heroic verses were already declining, some new war poems were composed and inserted into the prose historical chronicles: **The Battle of Brunanburh, The Battle of Maldon**. They bear resemblance to the ancient heroic poems but deal with contemporary events: the wars with the Scots, the Picts and the raiders from Scandinavia.

Another group of poems are OE elegiac (lyrical) poems: **Widsith** *("The Traveller's Song")*, **The Wanderer, The Seafarer**, and others. *The Wanderer* depicts the sorrows and bereavement of a poet in exile: he laments the death of his protectors and friends and expresses his resignation to the gloomy fate. *The Seafarer* is considered to be the most original of the poems: it gives a mournful picture of the dark northern seas and sings joy at the return of the spring. Most of those poems are ascribed to *Cynewulf.*

Religious poems paraphrase, more or less closely, the books of the Bible — **Genesis, Exodus** (written by Cædmon), **Elene, Andreas, Christ, Fate of the Apostles** tell the life-stories of apostles and saints or deal with various subjects associated with the Gospels (e.g. in the **Dream of the Rood**, the tree of which the cross was made tells its

story from the time it was cut to the crucifixion of Christ; extracts from this poem were carved in runes on the **Ruthwell** Cross).

OE poetry is characterized by a specific system of versification and some peculiar stylistic devices. Practically all of it is written in the OG **alliterative verse:** the lines are not rhymed and the number of the syllables in a line is **free**, only the number of stressed syllables being fixed. The **line** is divided into **two halves** with **two** strongly **stressed** syllables in each half and is bound together by the use of the same sound at the beginning of at least two stressed syllables in the line.

The **style** of **OE poetry** is marked by the wide use of **metaphorical** phrases or compounds describing the qualities or functions of the thing; e.g. OE *heapu-swat* – 'war-sweat' for *blood*, OE *breost-hord* – 'breast-hoard' for *thought*. This kind of metaphor naturally led to the composition of **riddles**, another peculiar production of OE poetry.

Some riddles contain descriptions of nature; many riddles describe all kinds of everyday objects in roundabout terms and make a sort of encyclopedia of contemporary life. For instance, the riddle of the shield which describes its sufferings on the battle-field; of an ox-horn used as a trumpet and as a drinking cup.

OE prose is a most valuable source of information for the history of the language. The earliest samples of continuous prose are the first pages of the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicles**: brief annals of the year's happenings made at various monasteries. In the 9th c. the chronicles were unified at **Winchester**, the capital of Wessex. Though sometimes dropped or started again, the Chronicles developed into a fairly complete prose history of England; the Winchester annals were copied and continued in other monasteries.

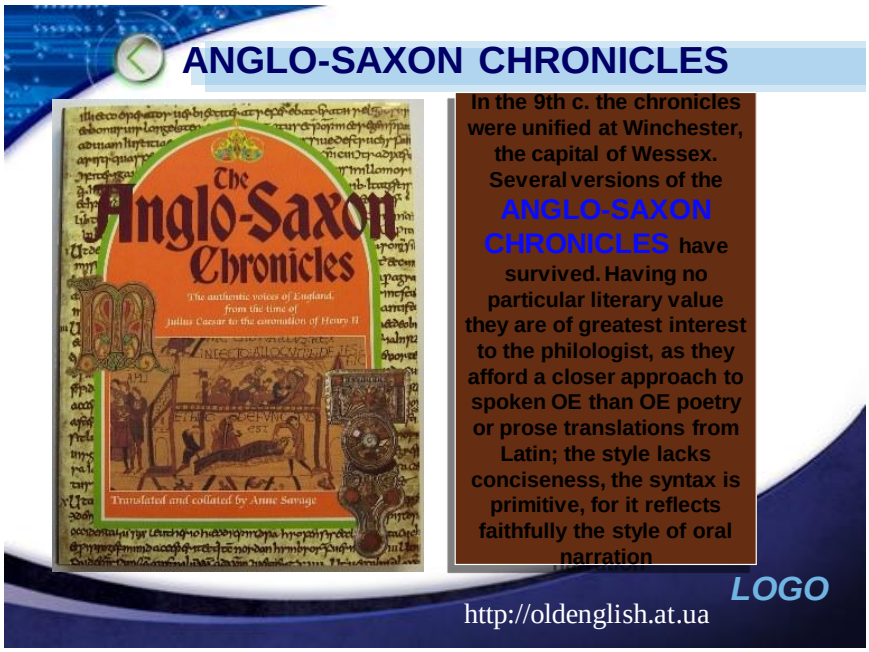

Figure 4.12.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicles

Several versions of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles have survived. They could afford a closer approach to spoken OE than OE poetry or prose translations from Latin; the style

lacks conciseness and the syntax is primitive for it reflects faithfully the style of oral narration.

Literary prose does not really begin until the 9th c. which witnessed a flourishing of learning and literature in Wessex during King Alfred's reign.

This flourishing is justly attributed to King Alfred and a group of scholars he had gathered at his court at Winchester. An erudite himself, Alfred realised that culture could reach the people only in their own tongue. He translated from the Latin books on geography, history and philosophy that were popular at the time. One of his most important contributions is the West Saxon version of Orosius's World History (*Historiarum Adversus Paganos Libri Septem* **"Seven books of history against the heathens"**). It abounds in deviations from the original, expansions and insertions, which make it more interesting; he included there a full description of the lands where Germanic languages were spoken; two accounts of voyages: one made by Ohthere, a Norwegian, who had sailed along the coast of Scandinavia into the White Sea; another by Wulfstan, a Dane, who had travelled round the Baltic Sea. Alfred's (or his associates') other translations were a book of instructions for parish priests called **Pastoral Care** (Cura Pastoralis) by Pope Gregory the Great; the famous philosophical treatise **On the Consolation of Philosophy** (De Consolatione Philosophic) by Boethius, a Roman philosopher and statesman. Bede's **Ecclesiastical History of the English People**, written about a hundred and fifty years before, was first rendered in English in Alfred's time, if not by Alfred himself.

By the 10th c. the West Saxon dialect had firmly established itself as the written form of English.

The two important 10th c. writers are **Ælfric** and **Wulfstan**; they wrote in a form of **Late West Saxon** which is believed to have considerably deviated from spoken West Saxon and to have developed into a somewhat artificial bookish language.

Ælfric was the most outstanding writer of the later OE period. He produced a series of homilies to be used by the clergy during a year's service called the **Lives of the Saints** which was written in alliterative metrical prose.

Ælfric was the first to translate from Latin some parts of the Bible. Of special interest are his textbooks: the **Colloquium**, which is a series of dialogues written as a manual for boys at a monastic school in Winchester and a **Latin Grammar** giving OE equivalents of Latin forms and constructions. The grammar shows the author's great ingenuity in devising English grammatical terms by means of translation-loans.

Wulfstan, the second prominent late West Saxon author, was Archbishop of York in the early 11th c. He is famous for his collection of passionate sermons known as the **Homilies**.

Later, in the 18th and 19th c, many more OE texts were discovered; they were published in facsimile editions in more modern English script with commentary and translations. Most of the OE written material is kept in the British Museum; some of it is scattered elsewhere. A valuable manuscript of Bede's **Ecclesiastical History** dated in the year 746 is preserved in the St. Petersburg Public Library; the Latin text contains OE personal names, place-names and an early version of Cædmon's famous hymn in the Northumbrian dialect. In modern publications, and especially in readers designed for students, the old records are edited. The runes are usually replaced by Latin characters, the abbreviations are deciphered, marks of length and missing letters are supplied, punctuation marks inserted. The spelling is to some extent regulated and normalized. In poetry the lines are shown in accordance with modern standards **(in OE manuscripts verse was written out continuously, like prose)**. Apart from these minor adjustments all the peculiarities of the records are carefully reproduced so that modern publications can be used as reliable material for the study of the OE language.

Summary

Traditionally the 5th century is named as the date of the beginning of the history of the English people and the history of the English language. The Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain is regarded as the arrival and penetration of various uncoordinated bands in different parts of the country, beginning in the middle of the fifth century and going on all through the sixth. The processes of struggle and assimilation with Celtic-speaking Britons were lengthy, and Anglo-Saxon domination in England was not assured until late in the sixth century. But by about 700, the Anglo-Saxons had occupied most of England (the exceptions being Cornwall and an area in the north-west) and also a considerable part of southern Scotland. Wales remained a British stronghold.

Old English, the Germanic language of the newcomers, became the dominant one, and there are few traces of Celtic influence on it; indeed, the number of Celtic words taken into English in the whole of its history has been very small. Among the historical events that greatly influenced the development of the English language at that period was the introduction of Christianity in the 7th century.

Questions for self-control

1. What alphabets did the old Germanic tribes use?
2. To what subgroup did the English language belong?
3. What tribal dialects did the OE language consist of?
4. When did the written language begin to be used?
5. Name the oldest writings in English.
6. Why did the Wessex dialect dominate by the end of the OE period?
7. When did the Scandinavian invasion begin?
8. In what parts was England divided after the Scandinavian invasion?

9. How did the Scandinavian invasion influence the English language?
10. Name the oldest runic inscriptions.

SELF-STUDY 4

Aims:

- ✓ watch the video films pertaining to Self-Study 3, i.e. the beginnings of English through its origins and history;
- ✓ cognize and apprehend information from the given films;
- ✓ take the computer (e-learning system MOODLE) tests, based on them;
- ✓ amend and refine your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

4.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube:

http://www.)

3.1.1. *The Story of English episode 1 – The English Speaking World* *http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7FtSUPAM-uA*

3.1.2. *The Story of English episode 2 – The Mother Tongue,* Part 1 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7UG6vHXArlk

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. –P. 7–15.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 1–11.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 13–16.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorgueva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 35–71.

Additional:

- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. –
- ✓ С. 7–19.
- ✓ L.Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 18–22.

4.2. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. Two thousand years ago on the shores of North West Europe lived a tribe called Anglii, ancestors to the English speaking peoples.

2. The Roman historian Tacitus said they were one of the 5 tribes who sacrifice to the God's Mother Earth.

3. More recently in Denmark more recently the descendants of those people, while digging a pit, made some remarkable discoveries. Victims of those tribes had been perfectly preserved in a bag: this man was strangled; this man's throat was cut.

4. It's hard to imagine that the language of these savage people would one day become the most widely spoken in the world.

5. A Hindi chapel might seem a strange place to start the story of German.

6. That chanting is in the Holy language Sanskrit. Our word *divine* resembles their word *deiva*.

7. The surprising connection between English and Sanskrit was discovered at the end of the 18^{th} c. by a British judge named Sir William Jones.

8. Jones found that the English *"mother"* resembles the Sanskrit *΄pitar*, the Greek *pa΄ter* and the Latin *΄pater*.

9. Other basic words like *mother, three, me, new*, and *seven* convinced Jones – they were all part of the same language family.

10. The European languages are as follows: Latin and its descendants French and Spanish; the Celtic languages of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales; the Slavic languages of Russia and Poland; and the Germanic tongues like Danish, Dutch and English, etc.

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.

1. The English language arrived in Britain in A.D. …. A.D.

A 597
B 449
C 1066
D 1475

2. The invading Frisians, Angles, Saxons, and Jutes came to be known as ….

A Anglo-Saxons
B Anglo-Jutes
C Anglo-Frisians
D Anglo-Romans

3. Britain had recently been abandoned by the Romans, leaving the … inhabitants.

A Jutes
B Angles
C Celtic
D Norse

4. A defensive chain was built by the Romanized Britons because of the growing frequency of Saxon attacks. These attacks were so frequent that this coast came to be known as the … shore.

A Angles
B Jutes

C Frisians
D Saxons

5. There was so little cultural contact that English, which is borrowed virtually from everyone, took fewer than a dozen words from the original ….
A Britons
B Romans
C Anglo-Saxons
D Normans

6. The … names of rivers Avon, Thames and places like Kent and Dover have survived.
A Roman
B Norman
C Scandinavian
D Celtic

7. When Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain, the Celts spread in many directions: to ….
A Ireland, Germany and to Wales
B Ireland, France and to Wales
C Ireland, Norway and to Wales
D Ireland, Denmark and to Wales

8. The Celtic Britons were also part of the … family.
A Finno-Ugric
B Semitic
C Indo-European
D Ural-Altaic

9. Echoes of Celtic languages are still heard in modern ….
A French
B Irish
C Dutch
D Welsh

10. The Celts who fled from Britain to France called their new home ….
A Brittany
B Britain
C Wales
D France

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.

1. Super power politics divide East from West …
2. English is more influential than any language …
3. English is the universal language of …
4. An Italian pilot flying an Italian jet into Italian airspace …
5. English is used in 75% of telexes, telegrams, letters and post-cards …

6. English is the language of more than half of the world's ten thousand newspapers …
7. American English is the language of the world's movies and …
8. English is a language without frontiers …
9. People speak varieties of English …
10. In fact, the idea of a correct or proper way to speak is surprisingly recent …

A. … but ironically English, the world language, is still alien to parts of the British Isles. In Barra in the Scottish Hebrides the first language is Gaelic.
B. ... but for English there are no borders.
C. … delivered around the world.
D. … jazz, rock and rock'n'roll are all sung in British or American English, even by Swedes or Poles.
E. … the world has ever known.
F. … air traffic control.
G. … and of three thousand publications in India alone.
H. … determined by their background.
I. … contacts Italian ground control, speaking only in English.
J. … it's often referred to as Queen's English, BBC English, Oxford English, or Public School English.

LECTURE5. AN INTRODUCTION TO MIDDLE ENGLISH (1066–1475)

Aims:

- ✓ to familiarize with the term "Middle English";
- ✓ to account for major external and internal influences on its development;
- ✓ to perceive the linguistic consequences of the Norman Conquest;
- ✓ to define the return of English as a standard.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
1. Social History
2. The Norman Conquest of 1066 its influence on English culture and life
3. The decline of French
4. Middle English dialects
5. Middle English writing
6. Towards a new written standard for English

Summary

Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

Middle English	The Battle of Hastings
Cnut – *'England the English way'*	William, *the Conqueror*
Harold	Normans
Harthacnut	Norman French
Alfred / Edward	Anglo-French
Witan (the Elders of England)	King John
Edward, *the Confessor*	Latin
Chancery English	William Caxton
East Midland dialect	Magna Carta

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1995. – P. 30–39.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 111–117.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 2–5.

- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 16–21.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 149–163.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Vinnitsa: Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 102–110.

Introduction

Middle English (ME) constitutes a kind of *middle stage* within the evolution of English when one looks at it from a contemporary perspective. Lasting from about 1150 to about 1500, ME is the period that lies between Old English (650–1100) and (Early) Modern English (1500–today). But rather than regarding the period as a purely temporal middle stage, ME should be seen as a transition point. The transformation of English in the Middle Ages marks its turn from the early Anglo-Saxon to the modern period. By the end of the ME stage, all the basic linguistic parameters that lead to its modern structure and anatomy are established.

1. Social History

In the Middle Ages English was marked by important landmarks that drove its development into a direction that was markedly different from the development of other West Germanic languages such as German. The evolution of English from the second half of the Old English to the end of the Middle English period was deeply influenced by language contact situations that disturbed its smooth development as a Germanic language.

In early Anglo-Saxon times, Old English dialects co-existed with Latin, the language of church. However, while Latin was only spoken by small educated elite, the status of English was strong; this is reflected by the impressive literature written in the West-Saxon standard.

The linguistic anatomy of Old English was first affected by its contact with Old Norse in the North, North East and mid-East of England – the result of Viking invasions and settlement.

The Anglo-Saxon period drew to an end with the ascendance of Danish kings to the English throne. Four years into his English reign, Cnut inherited the kingdom of Denmark from his brother, and effectively became ruler of an impressive Balto-Danish empire. Although England was ultimately only a province in this much larger body, Cnut made it his base and devoted a great deal of his energies to ensuring that the political stability and prosperity enjoyed under rulers such as Alfred continued:

> ***Cnut*** *shrewdly ran* ***'England the English way'*** *letting the already established councils and governments get on with doing what they had been doing for centuries, and doing well. He also built up a cohort of trusted English advisors including the* ***Earl Godwine****, one of Cnut's closest confidants and one of the most richly rewarded in land and title* (Schama, 2000: 70–1).

With Cnut's demise, the English lost a capable ruler and gained a succession problem that threatened to shatter the 20 years of peace that the old king had established. Cnut had had a son, **Harold,** with his first wife Ælgifu, and another son **Harthacnut** with his second spouse, Emma of Normandy. Emma's previous marriage to Æthelred had borne two sons, **Alfred** and **Edward**, both of whom had been sent to **Normandy** with the resumption of Viking raids at the end of the tenth century. All four of these offspring had legitimate claims to the throne, which did not automatically pass to eldest sons in Danish or Anglo-Saxon law. Decisions of kingship were made by the ***witan*** (the national council comprising secular and spiritual leaders) who, in this case, named **Harold** as **Cnut's successor** (Singh, 2005: 104).

> *Alfred and Edward were not initially inclined to forgo their claim: a decision perhaps encouraged by the territorialist sensibilities of the Norman society that had fostered them.*

On the northern coast of France directly across from England is a district extending some seventy-five miles back from the Channel and known as **Normandy.** It derives its name from the bands of Northmen who settled there in the ninth and tenth centuries, at the same time that similar bands were settling in the north and east of England. The Seine offered a convenient channel for penetration into the country, and the settlements of Danes in this region furnish a close parallel to those around the Humber (Baugh, 2002: 99). **King Charles the Simple** of **France** had reached terms with the **Viking** leader **Hlófr** (or Rollo), granting him and his band the crescent of territory in north-western France that now bears their name. Hlófr became the first duke of Normandy, and his great-great grandson, William, would extend the realm to England.

In the five or so generations that separated Hlófr and William, the Vikings had assimilated in significant measure to their French 'host'. They also became French speakers, although their variety, known as Norman French, retained Scandinavian influences. But the desire for conquest and land which had driven their forefathers remained, and Emma's sons may well has been encouraged by their Norman guardians to stake their claim to the English throne. In 1036, they arrived in England to consult with their mother on this prospect. Edward, more politically sensitive than his brother, managed to escape the hostility to his claim by returning to Normandy. Alfred, however, stayed – a decision that cost him his life at the hands of Godwine and Harold's men (Singh, 2005: 105).

Harold died in 1040 and was succeeded by his half-brother Harthacnut, who reigned for only two years.

*On the **witan's** recommendation, the remaining heir, **Edward**, was crowned **King** of **England** on Easter Day 1043.*

Edward's reign was not without personal strife. His mother Emma explicitly supported the claim of another contender, the Norwegian king Magnus I, to the English throne, and the powerful **Godwine** who had engineered the murder of his brother, was a necessary ally. But Edward never lost his animosity to Godwine nor his sense of affiliation with his Norman kin. It is highly likely that he knew the young William (titled *the Bastard* as the illegitimate son of Duke Robert of Normandy and Herlève, a tanner's daughter) while in Normandy, and may well have maintained contact with him. Edward also built up an entourage of Norman supporters to whom he granted English land and titles. Indeed, with his nephew Earl Ralf (son of his brother Alfred), Edward created *'a little Normandy'* in Herefordshire, complete with Norman castles and knights (Schama, 2000: 77).

In the later years of his reign **Edward** turned increasingly to religion, adopting the ascetic lifestyle that would mythologize him as a miracle-worker and healer, and lead to the title he is known to posterity by, ***the Confessor.***

In 1064, **Harold** – one of Godwine's three sons and a renowned military leader – had undertaken a sea journey, the purposes of which still remain unclear. Norman chroniclers maintain that Harold was travelling to Normandy under Edward's instructions to confirm William's succession to the English throne, but this is not indisputable (ibid.: 80).

*When Edward died, **Harold** was offered the throne, and 'the funeral of one king on the Feast of Epiphany 1066 was followed, later that same day, by the coronation of another, **Harold II'***

The troubles of Harold's short reign began almost immediately. Harold fought two major battles in 1066. While waiting near London for William to land, the king received word that Tostig's army (Harold,'s brother from whom he took Northumbria) had invaded and sacked towns in northern England. Harold marched his troops in their direction, reaching York in five short days. The English defeated this latest Viking attack, and almost immediately turned south to meet William's offensive. The Battle of Hastings was a resounding defeat for the weary English army, who lost not only king (Harold is said to have been killed by an arrow in the eye). The events at Hastings were woven into the famous Bayeux tapestry a unique and extraordinary document to reflect this episode of English history.

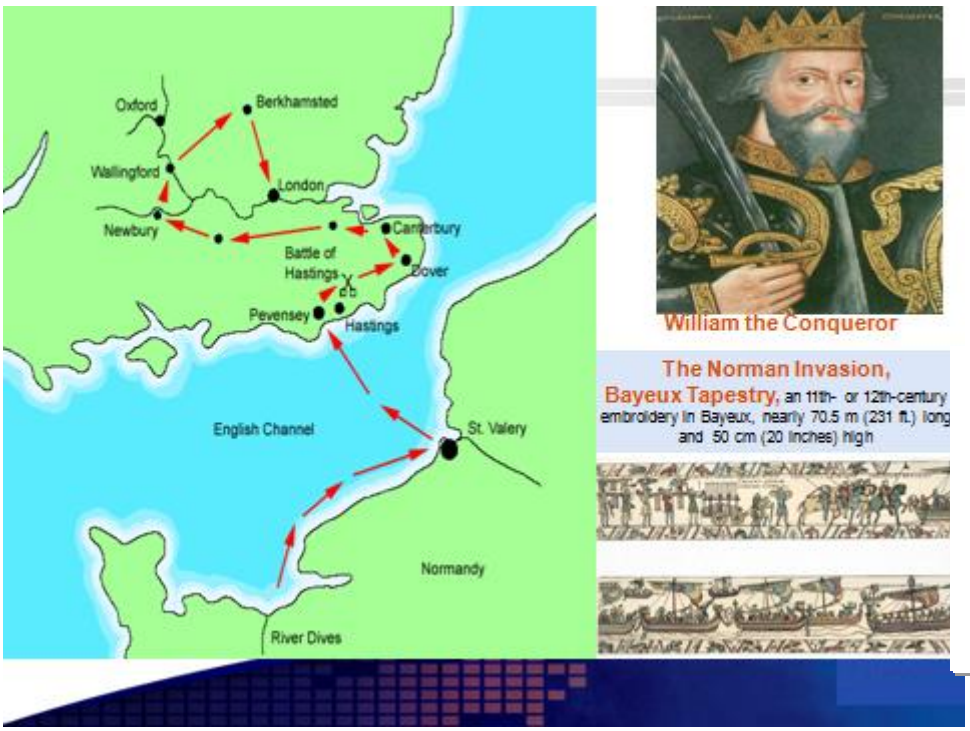

Figure 5.1. The Norman Conquest of 1066

2. The Norman Conquest of 1066 and its influence on English culture and life

On Christmas Day 1066, the duke formerly known as the Bastard became the Conqueror, and was crowned King of England at Westminster. Acceptance, however, was not immediately forthcoming. In the early years of his reign, William faced significant opposition to which he retaliated forcefully, burning and plundering portions of the country, stationing armed troops across the countryside and executing members of the old Anglo-Saxon nobility involved in plots of treason. He also rewarded his supporters and retainers, Norman and otherwise, with the properties, estates and offices of the English nobility (many of whom had been killed at Hastings). Thus, for many of the surviving English who were near enough geographically and socially to the consequences of the Conquest, life changed dramatically:

> *"... the entire governing class of Anglo-Saxon England, some 4000 or 5000 thegns, had been made to vanish and authority, wealth, men and beasts had been given to foreigners. You could survive and still be English. You could even speak the language. But politically, you were now a member of the underclass, the inferior race... you lived in England, but it was no longer your country"* (Schama, 2000: 67–8).

It is likely that the new Norman aristocracy staffed their households with their own retainers and guards, and soldiers from the Continent, as mentioned above, were garrisoned around the country. Merchants and craftsmen also moved their businesses to England. It is impossible to quantify exactly how many of these newcomers, in all walks of life, settled in England under William and his sons, but what is certain is that they

never outnumbered the general English population. However, because the Normans largely became members of the governing classes, their ‘influence was out of all proportion to their number’ (ibid.: 114).

What consequences did the Norman invasion have for the English population? It is uncontroversial that the Normans did not civilize the Anglo-Saxon population. The Anglo-Saxons had a highly developed culture: they had an extraordinary literature and crafted beautiful jewellery, they were Christianized, and profited from a well-developed and well-functioning economy. The same is true for the Vikings who mixed with them in the North and East of England. Therefore, the Norman Conquest was not a mission of civilization.

Very simply, the Normans brought power with them: the Normans were more powerful politically and ecclesiastically.

As we know, at the time of the Conquest, the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were politically weak due to internal quarrels. Since many of the Anglo-Saxon nobility were wiped out at Hastings, the English ruling class was replaced by Norman noblemen. The Normans imported the feudal system and lordship by taking the key positions in the state and church. These positions correspond to the high ranks of power in the medieval social order, which was defined by the three-estates of nobility, clergy, and peasants. Since the grammar schools also lay in the hands of the church in the Middle Ages, the Normans also controlled education. In a nutshell, they established the new upper-class.

Material tokens of Norman power are still conspicuously present in today’s England. The Normans built around 1000 castles, among them the White Tower of London.

Evidence of Norman ecclesiastical power is visible in the many impressive cathedrals usually constructed in Romanesque style.

In addition, the Normans also imported their national symbols. The three golden lions in the coat of arms of England are derived from the symbol of the kingdom of Normandy.

The Normans also brought their language – ***Norman French***

And what was its linguistic influence? The Norman Conquest influenced the linguistic landscape of England decisively. At the moment, this is an extremely difficult question to answer: scant reliable evidence exists for the everyday linguistic situation after the Conquest, and we therefore have very little idea of who spoke what language, with whom and for what period of time. There are, however, a few clues in the textual and historical records which, along with our increasing contemporary knowledge of contact situations, can lead us through some educated guesswork about the changing linguistic situation after 1066. The following statement in the Chronicle of Robert of Gloucester from around 1300 illustrates this nicely:

> *"Thus came, lo, England into Normandy's hand: and the Normans then knew how to speak only their own language, and spoke French as they did at home, and also had their children taught it, so that noblemen of this land, that come of their stock, all keep to the same speech that they received from them; for unless a man knows French, people make little account of him. But low men keep to English and to their own language still. I think that in the whole world there are no countries that do not keep their own language, except England alone. But people know well that it is good to master both, because the more a man knows the more honoured he is".*

So the chronicle indicates that the Norman upper-classes, first and foremost, spoke French – Norman French to be precise - and they taught this language to their children. French was the prestigious H-language. English, however, was the language of the lower classes – the vernacular. But, English was spoken by the majority of the population of England.

The chronicler bemoans this situation as being unique in the world: any nation should stick to its own language – in this case English. However, he nevertheless regards it as a virtue to speak both languages. Clearly, to learn French was the only way possible to climb up the social ladder.

Many of the new Norman nobility in England were also landholders in Normandy, and retained strong ties to their native land. It seems safe to assume then that in the early years following the Conquest, the language of communication among this group (who continued to execute their duties in Normandy) was their native variety of French. William's linguistic usage would have also facilitated this continued use: it is said that he tried to learn English but never became fluent in it (Singh, 2005: 107).

The **ruling Anglo-Norman** classes inevitably transferred their everyday tongue to their official offices, and **Anglo-French** (that is, the French spoken in England after the Conquest) soon became established alongside the traditional **Latin** as the language of public state business and of the court. It also became the language of the literature that received royal patronage. And finally, the mass of the peasantry, largely native English in origin, would appear to have remained monolingual in their native English varieties, having neither means nor motivation to learn any type of French.

We should also mention here the **scribal class** which emerged after the Conquest and who were involved in the copying and drafting of (usually official) records. Very little is known about who they actually were: Rothwell (1998: 6) points out, for example, that they may have been native French speakers (from Normandy or elsewhere) who had settled in England, or native English speakers who had learnt French as a foreign language. What does seem to be certain, however, is that they were trilingual in English, French and Latin, moving 'freely from one language to another according to the nature of their work and the company in which they found themselves' (ibid.: 11).

So, English was ousted from public and official roles, and the cultivation of one of its varieties as a literary standard – a process which had begun with West Saxon under Alfred – was halted. English would not make a comeback for about two hundred years.

The historical and political context that led to the Norman invasion frames a complex story about collaboration, intrigue, and treachery. Both Harold and William the Conqueror had claims to the throne, which they both regarded as their rightful inheritance. When William invaded England he came to gain what he regarded his own possession and right.

Thus, by the beginning of the thirteenth century, England was a much more multilingual country than we currently imagine, but it is important to note that multilingualism was not widespread; while there was 'a considerable number who were genuinely bilingual', there were also 'some who spoke only French and many more who spoke only English … as well as many who had some understanding of both languages while speaking only one' (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 126).

As England moved into the thirteenth century, the tide turned increasingly in favour of English, and proficiency in French waned. Indeed, English, as we will see, became intimately associated with notions of distinctive national identity – a process in which French could have no role.

3. The decline of French

It seems that the notion of 'Englishness' began to coalesce under **King John** (1199–1216), whose reign saw the creation of the **Magna Carta** (1215) and the severing of political ties between England and Normandy (1214).

The historical record indicates that the Magna Carta, which ultimately sought to limit the potentially despotic power of the monarchy, evolved in reaction to a series of ill-judged political decisions on the part of the king. The essence of the charter was built on the idea of an English 'state', 'of which the king was a part ... but not the whole' (Schama, 2000: 162).

When France had taken Normandy in 1214, nobles holding land there as well as in England had had to choose their allegiances. A significant proportion had given up their Norman holdings. In some cases, their decisions may well have been because their English estates were larger, but we cannot discount the possibility that many now considered themselves English and were more concerned with internal English affairs. John's misdemeanours, then, ultimately began to give shape to an English polity that saw itself as distinct from its Continental ancestry. Psychologically, this sounded one of the death knells for the use of French in England.

Looking at the upper-classes again, one can also find interesting shifts in the status of French. These shifts in sociolinguistics status possibly helped English to gain the status that it has today.

First, around 1250, **Norman French** came out of fashion at court and was replaced by **Central French** (Parisian French). This already indicates that the bonds of the Anglo-Norman nobility with Normandy became weaker and weaker. From Around 1300 onwards, the status of French declined quite drastically, but why? Quite simply, the change in attitude towards French was caused by political developments. Living both in Normandy and in England the Anglo-Norman kings had one foot on the island and the other on the continent.

As it was mentioned earlier, in 1204, **King John** got into conflict with **King Philip** of France and lost Normandy to the French kingdom, which ruled over England for one year. King John regained England, but due to the conflict, the majority of the Norman nobility fled to England. As a consequence, the bonds of England with Normandy were weakened and developing a spirit of English nationalism the Anglo-Norman nobility gradually became English.

*In 1348 English became the language of grammar-schools (excluding Oxford and Cambridge where Latin was used) and in 1362 the **Language Act** declared English the official language of the law courts. In 1399, Henry IV was the first man on the throne with English as his mother tongue. From 1423 onwards all parliament records were written in English.*

At the end of the 14th c. and at the beginning of the 15th c., English was practically established as the official language of records. The following historical events certify this process. King Henry V (1413–1422) proclaimed English as the official language. By 1423, all the Parliament's records were kept in English. The London Brewer's Guild adopted English as its official language of record in 1422. In 1438, the Countess of Stafford made her will in English. The wills of kings Henry IV, Henry V, and Henry VI were all in English. Shakespeare went so far as to present Henry V as not even conversant in French, an example, in S. Lerer's opinion, of the rewriting of history. Some critics argue that Chaucer's revival in the 15th c. was itself the product of a nationalistic movement (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, 2008, Part II: 3).

4. Middle English dialects

During the Middle English period (roughly 1100–1500) the English language is characterized by a complete lack of a standard variety. By contrast, during much of the Old English period, the West Saxon dialect had enjoyed a position as a written standard, and the transition to Early Modern English is marked by the emergence of the middle class dialect of London as the new standard variety of the language.

The lack of a written standard in Middle English is a natural consequence of the low status of English during this period. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the ruling classes spoke (Norman) French, while English lived on as the spoken language of the lower classes. In the absence of a high-prestige variety of English which might serve as a target for writers of English, each writer simply used his own variety of the language. The Old English dialects evolved and became ME dialects: Kentish, Southern, East-Midland and West-Midland, Northern, stretched from the middle of Yorkshire to Scotland and so subsumed Scots, the English variety of the lowlands. Scots came to be used as a literary standard in Scotland from the late fourteenth century onwards, and has

been especially noted as the medium for the work of the fifteenth-century 'Chaucerian poets' of the Scottish court. We will not pursue the history of Scots here, but the interested student is referred to Barber (2009).

As to the other dialects, South-Eastern derived from OE Kentish and South-Western from OE West Saxon. Mercian was the OE antecedent of Midland (stretching from London to Gloucestershire), which is traditionally separate into East Midland and West Midland. Fennell also distinguishes a sixth dialect, East Anglian, stating that texts from that particular area show marked differences from its neighbouring East Midlands variety (Fennell, 2001: 109).

Thus, the Middle English dialects can be divided into five major groups:

- ✓ **South-Western** (SW) (or simply Southern), a continuation of OE West Saxon;
- ✓ **South-Eastern** (SE) (or Kentish, though it extended into neighbouring counties as well), a continuation of OE Kentish;
- ✓ **East Midland** (EM), in the eastern part of the OE Mercian area;
- ✓ **West Midland** (WM), in the western part of the OE Mercian area;
- ✓ **Northern** (N), north of the Humber.

Figure 5.2. A map of Middle English dialects

The **London dialect,** comprising predominantly features of East Midland, became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14th century. The London dialect had extended to the first two universities of Cambridge and Oxford, thus constituting the famous literary and cultural London – Oxford – Cambridge triangle.

Thus the year 1066 is the date of the Norman Conquest in England. The conquest symbolizes the beginning of a new social, cultural and linguistic era in Great Britain, i.e. the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th c. Undoubtedly French as the language of conquerors influenced English greatly. French or Norman

French was immediately established as the dominant language of the ruling class. Strikingly but Anglo-Saxon dialects were not suppressed. During the following 300 years communication in England went on in three languages: 1) at the monasteries learning was conducted in Latin; 2) **Norman-French** was spoken at court and in official institutions; 3) the common people held firmly to their mother tongue.

During the **Middle Ages** in **Britain** educated people would have been trilingual. English would have been their mother tongue. They would have learned Latin as the required language of the Church, the Roman Classics, most scholarship and some politico-legal matters. And they would have found French – essential both for routine administrative communication within Britain and in order to be considered fashionable throughout Western European society (D. Crystal's *The Stories of English*, 2004: 139).

Norman-French *or* ***Anglo-French****, the language of the ruling class in medieval history of English, was the variety of the Northern dialect of French, spoken predominantly by Norman French-speaking noblemen and their descendants in Britain.*

Some scholars (David Crystal, Seth Lerer) admit that the Norman Conquest had major effects on the English language but at the same time they claim that English was changing long before the conquest and continued to change throughout the British Isles despite the influence of the French-speaking Normans (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition*, 2008, Part I: 37).

Traditionally linguists look for written evidence showing a level of literacy high enough to record sounds and forms that they can find many signs of ongoing changes. Both David Crystal and Seth Lerer assert that the Middle English period has a much richer documentation than Old English.((D. Crystal's *The Stories of English* p.117,
S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, 2008, Part I: 39).

An illustrative example of the ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*** proved this. The *Chronicle* did not stop in 1066. In one manuscript scholars find entries continuing for nearly a century after the Norman Conquest. This is the ***Peterborough Chronicle***, so called because it was first copied in the Benedictine monastery at Peterborough, Cambridgeshire. It was copied in 1121, and updated to that year, and various scribes kept it going until1131. No further additions were then made for twenty-three years. The *Peterborough Chronicle* entries up to and including 1131 were written in Old English, in the West Saxon literary standard; but the later entries are sufficiently different in spelling, grammar, and vocabulary that they have to be considered an early example of Middle English. Also, the final continuation of the *Peterborough Chronicle* is of special interest because of the way its style can be directly compared with an analogues sample of Late West Saxon of only twenty-five years before. Nowhere else is the transition between Old and Middle English so visible. And one of the most notable features – the *Peterborough Chronicle* as a whole has very few new French loanwords (about 30) (D. Crystal's *The Stories of English*, 2004: 117–120).

The ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*** is not a single text, but a compilation from several sources which differ in date and place of origin. It takes the form of a year-by-year diary, with some years warranting extensive comment, some a bare line or two and many nothing at all. Most ancient European chronicles were kept in Latin. There are seven surviving chronicle manuscripts, six of which are completely in Old English, the seventh partly in Latin. The scholars have given each text a distinguishing letter name, but they

are commonly known by the name of their source location or that of an early owner (David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, 1995: 15).

The ***Peterborough Chronicle*** – also called the ***Laud Chronicle***, after Archbishop William Laud (1573–1645). This version, copied at Peterborough in a single hand until 1121, extends as far as 1154. In 1116, most of the monastery at Peterborough was destroyed by fire, along with many manuscripts. The monks immediately began to replace the writings which had been lost. The language became quite different. Despite points of similarity with the previous work, the overall impression is that the writer is starting again, using vocabulary and grammatical patterns which reflect the language of his time and locality, and inventing fresh spelling conventions to cope with new sounds (David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, 1995: 33).

Apart from changes in pronunciation, the most striking characteristic of this process is the influence of Scandinavian in the Danelaw, which led to the division of the **Midland dialects** (the former Mercian dialects) into the East and West Midlands dialect areas.

Among many other features, the **Scandinavian influence** can be seen in the use of the plural 3rd person personal pronoun *they*, which was first used in the North and East Midlands and then spread to the other dialects from there.

5. Middle English writing

Obviously, the advent of Norman French did not determine the use of Old English dialects. Conservative forms of English were still in use until about 1150. For instance, the archbishopric of Canterbury was fairly resistant to linguistic changes.

The move from Old to Middle English was not a drastic but a gradual development. Nevertheless, there is a recognizable gap in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus. This is the consequence of the political changes after the Norman Conquest. Written English was basically non-existent for about 100-150 years.

Writing, being an upper-class and church issue, was dominated by the Norman French ruling class. As we have seen, this class used French or Latin and not English. As a consequence, the West Saxon written standard was replaced by French and Latin texts. Literature in English only started to be written again from about 1150 onwards.

Due to the absence of a written standard for English, this literature is highly ***dialectal****. Middle English writers used a dialectal pronunciation-based spelling.*

The development of the national language was greatly promoted by the work of **Geoffrey Chaucer** (1340–1400), an outstanding poet, ***"father of English Poetry"*** as many historians style him. Chaucer's best-known work ***The Canterbury Tales*** is the variety of the written language which has been carefully crafted. It contains many variations in word order and frequent literary allusions. Chaucer has managed to capture so vividly the intriguing characters, and to reflect so naturally the colloquial features of their speech. And it is acknowledged by many scholars that no other author, except Chaucer, who would have better supported for the view that there is an underlying correspondence between the natural rhythm of English poetry and that of English

everyday conversation (David Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* 1995: 38).

The famous opening 18-line sentence of the General Prologue to *"The Canterbury Tales"* shows us how Chaucer makes meaning out of the linguistic resources of his time and place.

These lines juxtapose new words of French and Latin origin with roots and forms of Old English or Anglo-Saxon origin. We see French, for example, in *perced*, *veyne*, *licour*, and *flour*. The word *vertu* comes from Latin *vir*, meaning *man*; here, we interpret it as *power*. Combined with *engendred*, we get a sense of the power of regeneration in the spring (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition, 2008, Part I: 49–50). Summing up we may conclude that French words mostly reflected culture, whilst English ones mainly depicted nature and landscape.

Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licour
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his half cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open ye
(Spriketh hem nature in hir corages),
Than longen folkto goon on pilgrimages,
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
And specially from every shires ende
Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende,
The hooly blisful martir for to seke,

That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.

Figure 5.3. Geoffrey Chaucer (134

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400, the *"Father of English Poetry"* was the greatest narrative poet of Middle Ages. He made a distinct advance in literature, in most of his poems Chaucer used the heroic couplet, a verse having five accents with the lines rhyming in pairs.

*Chaucer's greatest work is **The Canterbury Tales**, becoming a herald of the Renaissance.*

Geoffrey Chaucer's realistic approach and humanitarian atmosphere, his whole-hearted optimism and folk spirit make his *The Canterbury Tales* immortal. It is a splendid picture of the 14th c. England. It is a marvelous trilingual picture of the history of the English language of his time, its trilingualism being presented together in a profound synthesis of nature (English), culture (French) and religion (Latin). Middle English literature includes a variety of genres constituting an impressive corpus of Middle English literature, the most celebrated text is **Geoffrey Chaucer's** masterpiece, the **Canterbury Tales (1387,** East Midland dialect).

So we may conclude that the English, or rather the **Anglo-Normal** literature of the 11th–13th cc. reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: church literature was in Latin, chivalric poetry was for the most part in French while folk-lore continued to develop in Anglo-Saxon. Thus without losing its native basis, with the help of few writers of genius, and profiting by the situation, the English language of the 14th c. was transforming from the language of common people into a general, unifying language for all the strata of English society).

Among the authors who contributed much in the progress of literary tradition in Medieval England are worth mentioning **John Wyclif** (1320–1384), **William Langland** (1332–1400 appr.), **John Gower** (1325–1408), an anonymous poet created an elegy for a daughter lost *"The Pearl"*, and another created a chivalric romance in verse *"Sir Gawain and the Green Knight"* of the King Arthur cycle.

*English literature was flourishing gradually in the 14th c., reflecting the culmination of the medieval genres and promoting the way to the **Renaissance**.*

Finally, the ME period has also left a significant textual record in terms of legal and medical documents, sermons, macaronic poems (or poems where more than one language is used for composition, such as *On the Times* and *On the King's Breaking of the Magna Charta*), lyrics (such as *Alisoun, Fowles in the Frith* and My *Lief is Foren in Londe*) and personal and public correspondence (such as the Paston letters).

6. Towards a new written standard for English

With the decline of French, English regained its social status as the language of the ruling class. As a consequence, a new written standard was necessary. Although the modern English standard, as we know it, was only established in the centuries to follow, a minimum standard had already developed towards the end of the Middle English period. The standard was based on the **East Midland dialect**.

The most important reason for this dialect to become the basis for the novel standard was the strong economic and cultural influence of the East Midlands triangle: London-Oxford-Cambridge. This centre attracted a great number of people from all over England all of them contributing to the development of the new standard.

In summary, we may conclude that with the emergence of English as a standard language, French became decaying rapidly. By the end of the 15th c. new inspiring ideas appeared in English culture. The Oxford University (1168) was becoming a centre for scholars, students, and connoisseurs of art, discovering the Greek and Latin authors of antiquity. The clear thought of the ancient Greeks, unburdened by scholasticism, was opening the medieval eyes of the English to perception of something unknown to them.

The foremost scholar Seth Lerer admits that a standard form of English accompanied the rise of the institution known as 'Chancery' (S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition, 2008, Part II: 3–5).

Chancery comes from the word *chancel*, or chapel of the king, where the chaplains of the court originally spent their time between services, writing the king's letters. **Chancery English** contributed to the development of a form of writing that was a

standard, irrespective of the speech or dialect of the writer. Spelling was standardized without regard for pronunciation. Writing became truly conventional and arbitrary. The term **Chancery** first appears in English in the late fourteenth century, referring to an additional court, presided over by the Lord Chancellor of England. Chancery English established special forms of spelling and handwriting that were taught to scribes for the production of official documents. Among the features which have been suggested as typical of Chancery style are:

- ✓ past-tense verb endings typically *–ed* (*assembled, dwelled, ordeyned*);
- ✓ present-participle ending in *–yng* (*dwellyng*);
- ✓ third-person singular forms in-*th* rather than-*s* (*hath*);
- ✓ 'said' as *saide* rather than *seide*;
- ✓ 'should' as *shulde* rather than *schulde*;
- ✓ 'which' as *whiche* rather than *wiche*;
- ✓ 'any' as *any* rather than *ony*;
- ✓ the double *o* spelling in 'one'(*oon*);
- ✓ *-ly* ending on adverbs (*only*) rather than *–li, -lich,* etc.
- ✓ prefix 'in-' as *en-* rather than *in-* (*enquestes*);
- ✓ 'tion' suffix is *–cion* (*discrecions*)

(D. Crystal's *The Stories of English*, 2004: 233–236)

Middle English is the name given to the English language spoken in Great Britain from the 11th century to the 15th century (1066–1475). The English, or rather, Anglo-Norman literary monuments of Medieval England reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: religious works were written in Latin; chivalric poetry was predominantly French, while folk-lore continued to develop in English. Thus, without losing its native basis, the English language was becoming in the 14th century more flexible and profiting by the trilingual situation to have been finally turned into a general language for all layers of society. By using Chancery English, **William Caxton** established a national literary standard in printing based on the written standard of official documentation. This was a radical change in the notion of a standard and in a standard's relationship to regional dialect and official forms.

Questions for self-control

1. Account for the term "Middle English".
2. Comment on the effect of the Norman Conquest on the linguistic situation.
3. Identify social events that contributed to the decline of French.
4. Identify social events that contributed to the rise of English.
5. Identify the term "A trilingual nation". Supply your answer with examples.
6. Compare the ME dialects with the OE ones.
7. Identify the best representatives of the ME literary tradition. Exemplify.

SELF-STUDY 5.

Aims:

- ✓ to account for major external and internal influences on ME once and again;
- ✓ to trace the peculiarities of the linguistic consequence of the Norman Conquest afresh.

5.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

5.1. *History of English – The ME Period*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vLFihdWwmfw

5.2. *Middle English – Transitions from Old English with added diversity*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tQmaD0UMDjo

5.3. *Geoffrey Chaucer– The Canterbury Tales*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MpVAuQUlI-k

5.4. *Chaucer, Lesson 1– Historical Context for the Canterbury Tales*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1epKYZURHB

5.5. *Chaucer, Lesson 2 – Middle English-Introduction to the Canterbury Tales*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZLKAD0tESUc

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1994. – P. 30–39.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language* –Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 111–117.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition, 2008. – Part II. – P.2–5.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. –Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 16–21.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 149–163.

- ✓ ***Additional:***

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 102–110.
- ✓ Lecture 1.

5.2. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.
1. *Middle English*, in the words of Barbara Strang, is *"'par excellence'*, the dialectal phase of *English"*, i.e. the period in which dialectal variation was represented in writing.
2. The languages of *Latin, French* and *English* were functioning in medieval England.
3. *The Norman Conquest* of 1166 changed the whole course of *the English language*.
4. *Middle English* (1066–1475) was the period of transition from feudalism to capitalism.
5. The historical event that triggered very few changes in the *Middle English* period was *the Norman Conquest* of England.

6. At the time of *the Conquest*, the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were politically strong due to internal quarrels.
7. The Normans brought the *feudal system* to *the British Isles* and took the key positions in the state and church.
8. The Normans imported their language – *Norman French* to the British soil.
9. *English* was the dominant language in medieval England, while *French* was spoken by the majority of the population.
10. *The Norman Conquest* marked the conventional *transition* from *Old English* to *Middle English.*

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.

1. There is a recognizable … in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus.
A evidence
B sign
C trace
D gap

2. The Norman French ruling class used ….
A French or Latin
B Latin or English
C English or French
D French or English

3. The West Saxon written standard was replaced by ….
A Latin and English texts
B French and Latin texts
C French and English texts
D English and French texts

4. Due to the absence of a written standard for English, this literature is highly ….
A hypothetical
B conventional
C traditional
D dialectal

5. The development of the national language was greatly promoted by the work of … an outstanding poet, *"father of English Poetry".*
A Geoffrey Chaucer
B William Caxton
C King Alfred
D William Shakespeare

6. Chaucer's best-known work **...** is the variety of the written language which has been carefully crafted.
A The Cambridge Encyclopedia
B The Ecclesiastical History
C The Canterbury Tales

D The Stories of English

7. The famous opening 18-line sentence of the General Prologue to *"The Canterbury Tales"*:
A The droghte of March hath perced to the roote
B Whan that Aprill with his shoures soote
C And bathed every veyne in swich licour
D Of which vertu engendred is the flour

8. *"The Canterbury Tales"* is a splendid picture of the 14th c. England, a marvelous … picture of the history of the English language of that time.
A trilingual
B bilingual
C polylingual
D multilingual

9. The London dialect, comprising predominantly features of …, became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14th century.
A West Midland
B East Midland
C Kentish
D Southern

10. English literature was flourishing gradually in the 14th c., reflecting the culmination of the medieval genres and promoting the way to the ….
A the Romanticism
B the Enlightenment
C the Renaissance
D the Classicism;

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.
A The Old English dialects evolved and became ME dialects:
B South-Western (SW) (or simply Southern) is ….
C South-Eastern (SE) ….
D East Midland (EM ….
E West Midland (WM) ….
F Northern (N) ….
G The London dialect ….
H The Conquest of 1066 ….
I During the following 300 years communication in medieval England went on ….
J Norman-French or Anglo-French, the language of the ruling class in medieval history of English, was ….

1. ... a continuation of OE West Saxon.
2. … Kentish, Southern, Northern, East-Midland and West-Midland.
3. … or Kentish.
4. … north of the Humber.

5. … became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14th century; thus constituting the famous literary and cultural London – Oxford – Cambridge triangle.
6. **...** symbolizes the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th c.
7. **...** in three languages.
8. … the variety of the Northern dialect of French, spoken predominantly by Norman French-speaking noblemen and their descendants in Britain.
9. **...** the western part of the OE Mercian area.
10. … the eastern part of the OE Mercian area.

LECTURE6. An Introduction to Early Modern English

(1475–1660)

Aims:

- ✓ to familiarize with the term "Early Modern English";
- ✓ to account for major external and internal influences on its development.

Points for discussion:

K

Early Modern English	Mary Stuart
national language	The Revival of Learning
national literary language	Sir William Caxton
Hanseatic League	William Tyndale
Francis Drake	William Shakespeare
The Protestant Reformation	Authorized Version of the Bible
King Henry VIII	King James Bible
Elizabeth I	the Elizabethan Age

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1995. – P. 56–65.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 155–159.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 20–37.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 16–18.

- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 164–179.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Vinnitsa: Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 152–163.

Introduction

The formation of the national literary English language covers the **Early Modern English** period (c. **1475–1660**). Henceforth we can speak of the evolution of a single literary language instead of the similar or different development of the dialects.

There were at least two major external factors which favoured the rise of the national language and the literary standards: the unification of the country and the progress of culture. Other historical events, such as increased foreign contacts, affected the language in a less general way: they influenced the growth of the vocabulary.

Thus **Early Modern English** (1475–1660 (1700)) is the period of the formation of the national literary English language. The **'national'** language embraces all the varieties of the language used by the nation including dialects; the **'national literary language'** applies only to recognized standard forms of the language, both written and spoken; for earlier periods of history the term **'literary language'** may indicate the language of writing in a wider sense, including chronicles, legal documents, religious texts, etc. The national literary language is characterized by codified norms or rules of usage and functional stylistic differentiation (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 164).

6.1. Economic and Political Unification. Conditions for Linguistic Unity

As early as the 13th c., within the feudal system, new economic relations began to take shape. The villain was gradually superseded by the copy-holder, and ultimately, by the rent-paying tenant. With the growing interest in commercial profits, feudal oppression grew and the conditions of the peasants deteriorated. Social discontent showed itself in the famous peasants' rebellions of the 14th and 15th c.

The medieval social system was based on the model of feudalism and was centred on the three estates of nobility, clergy, and peasants.

In England, this system was subject to gradual transformation from the mid-14th century onwards, the Black Death playing a major role in this process. After the plague, there was a sudden lack of cheap manpower. The lower classes were thus faced with the possibility of claiming wages for provided work. This caused peasants and other craftsmen to free themselves from their former feudal obligations and to become economically self-sufficient.

So, economic interests entered the lower classes of society and gifted craftsmen and merchants started to establish a new, economically defined middle class. In this process, guilds and powerful trade unions emerged. It is this historical context where one of the stereotypical words to be associated with modern economy has its etymological roots. In Florence, commercial transactions between merchants took place on a small table or counter *la banca.* It is this context from which the word bank is derived. This indicates how influential these social changes of the early Renaissance are for our modern concept of society.

6.2. Sea Trade and Expansion

In the late Middle Ages, the North and East Sea were economically dominated by the **Hanseatic League**, a trade union whose power and influence went well beyond economic matters.

Figure 6.1. The centres of the Hanseatic League

London constituted one of the centres of this early form of coordinated international trade.

Economic zeal and greed and the scientific interest in nature and the world triggered a historical development that defines our very present: the expansion of Western economy and culture into the world by sea trade and explorations.

More importantly, the Renaissance constituted the basis for the Spanish and Portuguese exploration and colonization of the Americas and Africa. Both of these sea powers brought enormous riches from these far-away continents to Europe. To start with, England did not play a major role in this process. However, the privateer, merchant, and seaman **Francis Drake** interfered with the Spanish sea dominion by pirating Spanish merchant ships coming from the Americas, which caused him to be regarded as a national

hero in England. Also, he won an important sea battle against the 'invincible' Spanish armada, which earned him the favour of Queen Elizabeth I.

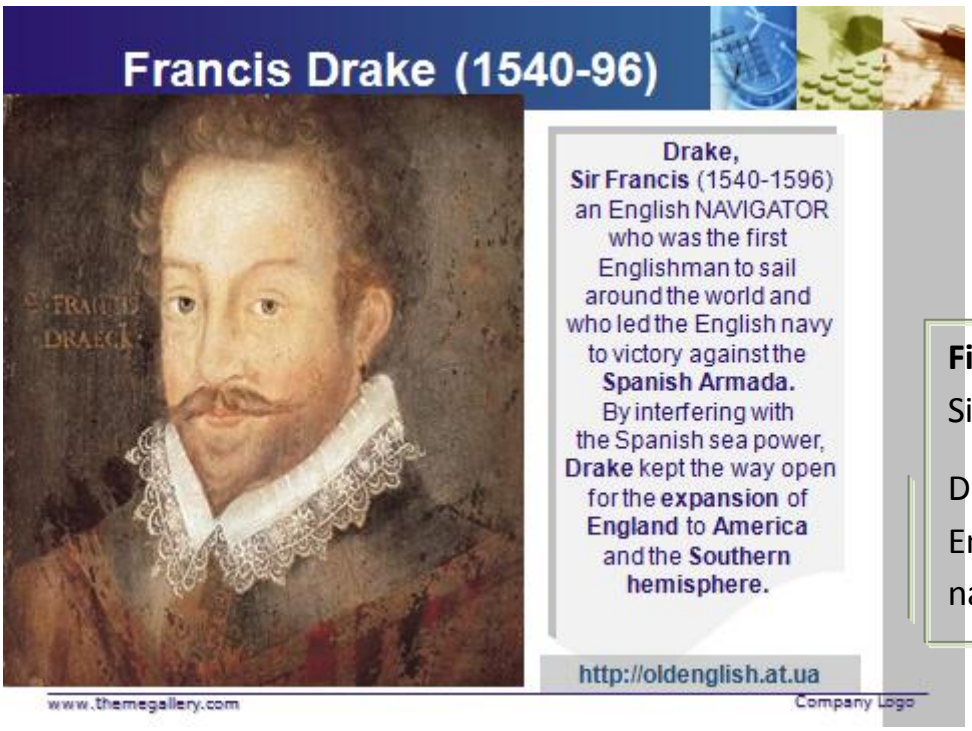

Figure 6.2. Sir Francis Drake, an English navigator

Drake's achievements on sea are of great importance for the history of England. By interfering with the Spanish sea power, Drake kept the way open for the expansion of England to America and the Southern hemisphere. This defines his status as a pirate in the eyes of Spain and a hero in the eyes of England.

6.3. The Protestant Reformation

In the domain of religion, the Renaissance experienced the protestant movement and reformation. Unlike the fundamental religious reorientation in Germany (Luther) or Switzerland (Calvin, Zwingli), the reformation of church in England was triggered by idiosyncratic political factors.

King Henry VIII, who was married to Catherine of Aragon, wanted to divorce from his wife and marry Anne Boleyn instead because the queen of Spanish origin did not give birth to a male successor. Since divorce was illegal by Catholic law, Henry asked pope Clement VII to annul the marriage. The pope, however, did not give in. As a consequence, Henry chose to break with the Catholic Church by declaring himself **Supreme Head** of the **Church** of **England**.

Figure 6.3. Henry VIII, the most famous English

Disputes and fights between Protestants and Catholics continued with Henry successors to the throne.

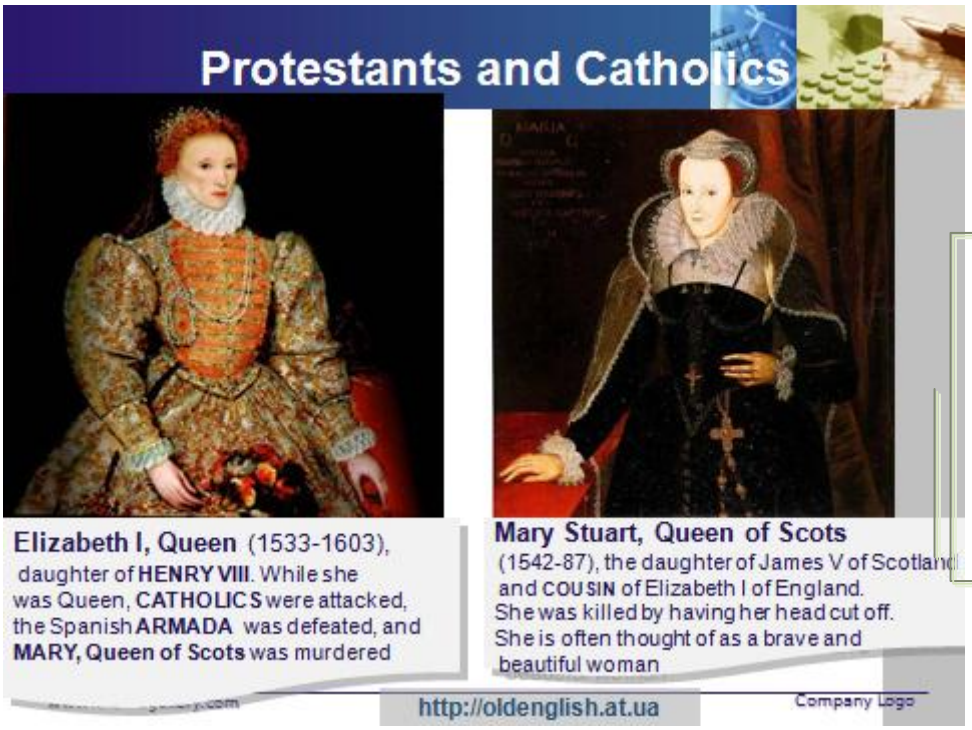

Figure 6.4. The bloody quarrels between Protestants and

During her reign, **Elizabeth I** – the protestant daughter of Henry and Boleyn fought against the Catholic Spaniards and eliminated her Catholic archrival **Mary Stuart,** Queen of Scots.

Thus, the bloody quarrels between **Protestants** and **Catholics** defined this very period.

6.4. Introduction of Printing

A further important factor that supported the standardization process was the introduction of the **printing press** by William Caxton in 1476. In addition, the Chancery scribes, the writers of the royal administrative documents, had their office at Westminster very close to Caxton's printing press. It is possible that their spelling influenced the written standard as well, though only marginally.

Thereby we may indicate again and again a number of events at the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries that make **1476** an appropriate date for the start of the Early Modern English period (1476–1660). The introduction of printing press by William Caxton in 1476 became a landmark as for the history of English so the English themselves. As far as the history of English is concerned, it was supposed to have been unified and standardized in the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order, etc. Undoubtedly the printing books were subdued to the idea of literacy. Literacy, however, was already spreading rapidly and increasingly in the Middle English period, despite strong opposition to it.

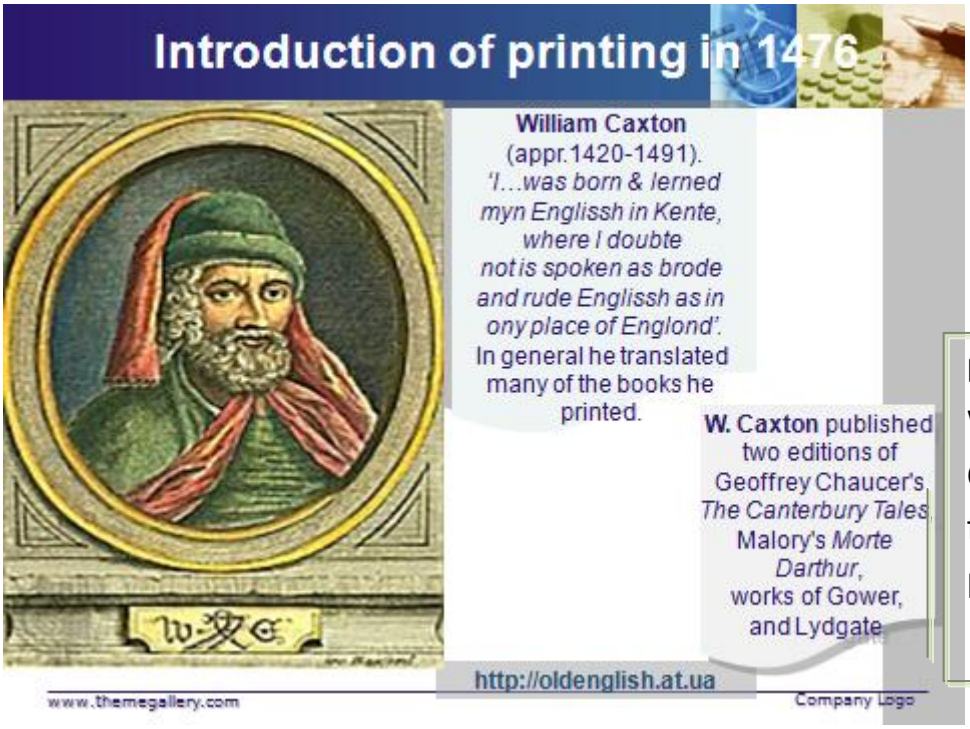

Figure 6.5. William Caxton, the first English printer

William Caxton opened his print shop in Westminster, the site of Chancery, to establish the idea that his documents were printed in 'official' English (**Chancery English**). Naturally in 1476 Caxton set up the first printing-press there. Two years later, after Caxton had attracted public notice, a second printing-press was set up at Oxford. The **East Midland dialect** became the literary standard of English; many features of Chancery English as standard in its orthography and usage were adopted by mutual convention. As a result, a rudimentary orthographic system emerged. So we have the

first inklings of modern Standard English. Undoubtedly, it became the standard written form of a national government that began addressing all of its subjects in Chancery English. Accordingly the introduction of printing by Caxton in 1476, being a milestone in the spread of written English definitely correlated with the new spirit of pre-Renaissance.

Thus, the **introduction** of **printing** by **Caxton** in **1476** – is in the mainstream of the history of English, as it affected the development of the language greatly, especially its written form. Printed books, being accessible to the greater mass of people, prioritized literacy, which, apparently, caused the impact of learning and thinking that in its turn gave the English language the level of prestige, progress, and a choice of national presence.

6.5. The Elisabethan Age. Flourishing of Literature in Early Modern English. Literary Renaissance

The period to define the historical context of Early Modern English is the Renaissance. While the Renaissance had already begun in Italy in the 14th century, its beginning in Northern Europe was around 1500. The English Renaissance lasted from about 1500 to 1650.

But what does **Renaissance** mean? The name for this historical era simply means **rebirth**; it was coined by the French historian Jules Michelet and was later used by Jacob Burckhardt, a Swiss historian. The notion of **'rebirth'** tries to capture the fact that the cultural and political ideas that shaped this period were fundamentally influenced by a new interest in the classical cultures and civilizations of ancient Rome and Greece. This conceptual rebirth triggered a great number of cultural and political changes that mark the transition from medieval to modern life. These changes concern the structure and organization of society, people's world-views and national identity, the organization of religious life, and the development of literature and art.

So the **Renaissance** or the **Revival** of **Learning** is the great era of intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th and 17th centuries, when art, literature, and ideas of ancient Greece and Italy were discovered again and widely studied, causing a rebirth of activity and aspiring minds, freedom in creating words and meanings. In England the Renaissance began a little before 1500. Undoubtedly it was a time of radical changes occurred in the spiritual life of the newly-arising nation with its new-born culture that was taking an unmistakably national shape. During the Renaissance English began acquiring the prevalent analytic features.

The outgrowth of Early Modern English was much influenced by **Elizabethan literature,** notably by Thomas More, Edmund Spenser, Ben Jonson, William Shakespeare, (Hamlet's famous soliloquy, written by Shakespeare in the late 16th century) and by the texts of many Bibles, especially those of Tyndale (1525) and **King James** (1611).

Table 6.1. The Great Classics of the Elizabethan Age

Sir Thomas More (1478–1535) *"Utopia"*
Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586) *"Apology for Poetry", "Astrophel and Stella"*
Edmund Spenser (1552–1599) *"The Faerie Queene", "Amoretti"*
Thomas Kid (1557? –1595?) *"Spanish Tragedy"*
Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593) *"Tamburlaine", "The Massacre at Paris", "The Jue of Malta", "The Tragical History of Dr. Faustus", "Edward II"*
Ben Jonson (1573–1637) *"Volpone, or the Fox", "The Silent Woman", "The Alchemist", "Bartholomew Fair"*

William Shakespeare (1564–1616) *"Twelfth Night", "Henry VI", "Richard III", "Henry IV", "Henry V", "Julius Caesar", "Romeo and Juliet", "Othello", "Hamlet", "All's Well That Ends Well", "Macbeth", "King Lear", "Antony and Cleopatra", "The Winter's Tale", sonnets, "The Tempest", "Henry VIII",* etc

Among the classics of Early Modern English whom we would like to single out in detail are **William Tyndale**, and without any doubt, **William Shakespeare**.

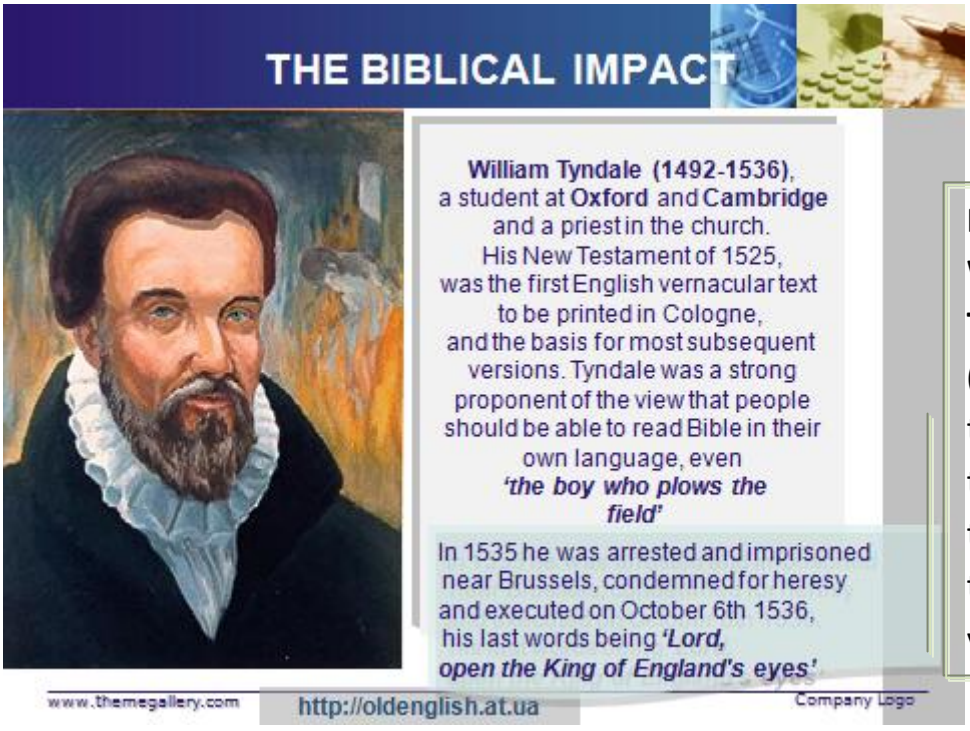

Figure 6.6. William Tyndale (1494–1536), the first translator of the Bible in the English vernacular

William Tyndale wrote: *"I had perceaved by experyence, how that it was impossible to stablysh the laye people in any truth, excepte the scripture were playnly layde before their eyes in their mother tonge, that they might se the processe, ordre and meaning of the texte".*

Tyndale's last words being *'Lord, open the King of England's eyes'* – a death-wish full of irony, as Coverdale's translation had been published the year before. The irony lies in the fact that Coverdale had been Tyndale's assistant, and his translation closely followed Tyndale's. The 1534 Convocation of Canterbury had petitioned Henry VIII *'that the whole scripture should be translated into the vulgar English tongue',* and the Coverdale Bible contained a dedication to the king. As a result, ten years after Tyndale's translation was banned in England, Coverdale's translation was welcomed (Crystal, 2005: 271–273).

Most memorable biblical allusions are Tyndale's – such as *let there be light, the truth shall make you free, blessed are the peacemakers, the signs of the time, eat, drink and be merry.* Only 120 entries of *Oxford English Dictionary* have a recorded use attributed to Tyndale. The figure includes a number of compounds, which have an everyday flavour, such as *broken-hearted, fellow-soldier, house-top, long-suffering, rose-coloured, sea-shore, stumbling-block, two-edged* (of a sword), and *wine-press.* Several already existing words are found in new grammatical uses: *abrogate* as a verb, *beggarly* as an adjective, *brotherly* as an adverb, *nurse* as a verb (‘bring up’). It is difficult to say how many genuine Tyndalisms there might be. **Tyndale**, interested in reaching the ploughboy rather than the professor, was no lexical innovator (Crystal, 2005: 271–273).

William Shakespeare (1564–1616), *the founder of the national literary English language,* is the greatest of the great creators of the language: in the sphere of vocabulary, syntax, and semantics he is absolutely innovative, unsurpassed and unrivalled.

Shakespeare managed to convey through his masterpieces the **Renaissance** spirit of optimistic hopefulness and joy, of ultimate triumph of love and freedom over dark forces of hatred and lust for power. Some special lectures will be devoted to the language of William Shakespeare. We will try to examine how ‘the canonical writer of the English language’ deploys lexical and grammatical resources in his language, while creating his concepts and characters, offering new treatment of words and giving additional meanings to them.

Table 6.2. Shakespeare’s influencing idioms

your lord and master	*I never stood on ceremonies*
my salad days	*play fast and loose*
neither rhyme nor reason	*cold comfort*
too much of a good thing	*more sinned against than sinning*
the game is up	*the be all and the end all*
in one's mind's eye	*stretch out to the crack of doom*
to the manner born	*at one fell swoop*
brevity is the soul of wit	*with bated breath*
caviare to the general	*mine own flesh and blood*
hold the mirror up to nature	*green-eyed jealousy*
send (someone) packing	*let us not be laughing -stocks*
set my teeth on edge	*what the dickens*
give the devil his due	*pomp and circumstance*
it was Greek to me	*a foregone conclusion*
make a virtue of necessity	*a tower of strength*
a good riddance	*melted into thin air*
'tis fair play	*with bag and baggage*

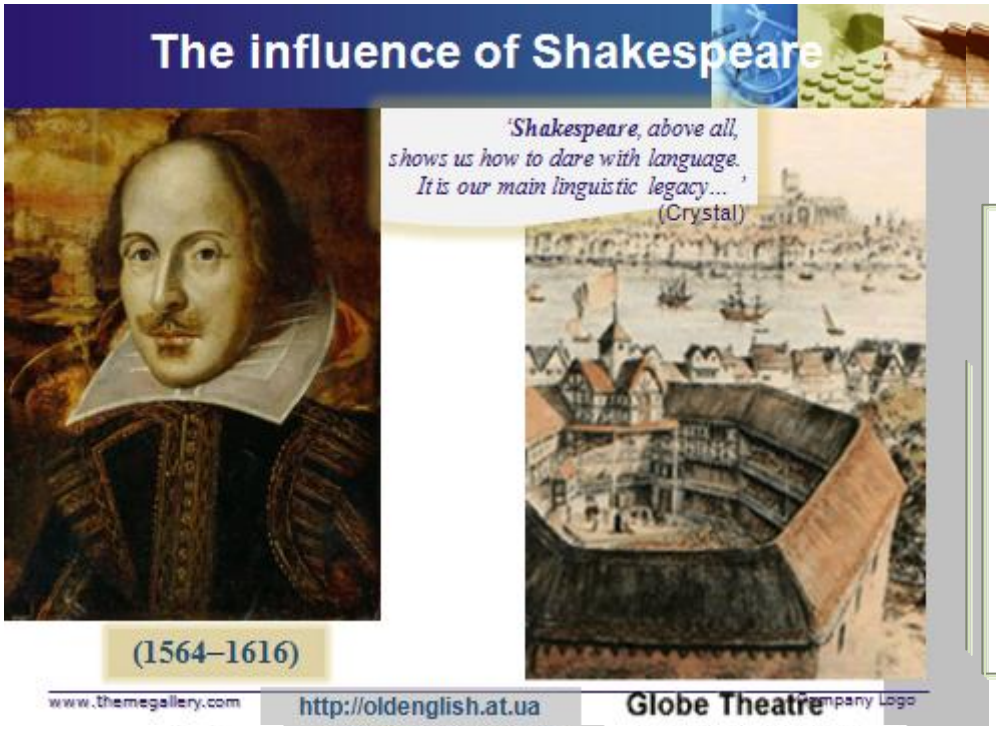

Figure 6.7. William Shakespeare, *the founder of the national literary English*

Through the analysis of some texts we will try to trace the changing nature of the English language, defining mainly which of these peculiarities remained only the characteristics of Early Modern English and sound as archaic to us, but which can be easily interwoven in the language of our contemporaries.

Another important event which contributed greatly to English in the way of idiomatic expressions was the first **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (also known as the **King James Bible**), published in 1611. Its verbal beauty and status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.

In the next lectures we will look in more detail at linguistic phenomena, being typical for Early Modern English. The 16th c. was the time when, with the advent of capitalism, radical changes occurred in the basis of English society which led to the creation of the national language. This way we are trying to concentrate on personalities, having contributed much to the development of history in general and the history of the English language in particular.

Table 6.3. Extracts from the King James Version of **St Matthew's Gospel,** from which **Standard** English expressions have been derived (Crystal, 2005: 277).

man shall not live by bread alone (4: 4)	*straight … and narrow* (7: 14)
the salt of the earth (5: 13)	*built his house upon the sand* (7: 27)
the light of the world (5: 14)	*new wine into old bottles* (9: 17)

an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth (5: 38)	*lost sheep* (10: 6)
let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth (6: 3)	*the blind lead the blind* (15: 14)
our daily bread (6: 11)	*the signs of the times* (16: 3)
treasures in heaven (6: 20)	*take up his cross* (16: 24)
ye cannot serve God and mammon (6: 24)	*two or three are gathered together in my name* (18: 20)
the mote … in thine own eye (7: 3)	*the last shall be the first, and the first last* (20: 16)
cast your pearls before swine (7: 6)	*many are called, but few are chosen* (22: 14)
seek and ye shall find (7: 7)	*the spirit …is willing, but the flesh is weak* (26: 41)

The above mentioned sacred words of biblical content are worthy of one's attention as they have a considerable impact on the spiritual and intellectual regeneration of the English nation and the continuity of evolution of the English language. No other factor can cause the emerging standard of language to be so widely respected and circulated, influential and prestigious.

Conclusion

Briefly we may summarise that the Early Modern English period thanks to William Shakespeare and King James Bible symbolizes supreme manifestation of independence and knowledge, effort and intellect, responsibility and talent. Both geniuses of the Renaissance gave their language a choice of national presence at all the levels of its usage and such a high prestige among all the strata of society that it would prove to be a widely spread communicative means in the future. As a whole and viewed from its historical perspective Early Modern English made a prelude to a new world of the English language, its **Modern English**.

Questions for self-control

1. Account for the term “Early Modern English”.
2. Comment on the introduction of printing and its effect on the linguistic situation.
3. Identify the events of external history which favoured the growth of the national literary language.
4. Identify social events that contributed to the flourishing of literature in EModE.
5. Dwell on the Biblical impact on the history of English. Supply your answer with examples.

6. Compare the EModE dialect with the ME ones.
7. Identify the best representatives of the EModE literary tradition. Exemplify.

SELF-STUDY 6

Aims:

- ✓ to familiarize with the term "Early Modern English" once again;
- ✓ to account for major external and internal influences on its development.

6.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

6.1. *History of English – The EModE Period*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bciUXRAUpHk&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63&index=15

6.2. *The History of English – Middle English to Early Modern English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8LyXW0pozQk

6.3. *History of English – Towards PDE*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rJYZq4DMBAA&index=22&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63

6.4. *Early Modern English History*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s7e0otnS5kI

6.5. *David Crystal – Shakespeare Anniversary*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qDAp_KTQewY

6.6. *David Crystal on English Idioms by Shakespeare*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qm2QwsJDbLo

6.7. *Professor David Crystal – The Influence of the King James Bible on the English Language*

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lgSDd6Bkatg

5.1.8. *Shakespeare's Sonnets Audio book by William Shakespeare*

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h2KeALDmztQ

F

C

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Vinnitsa: Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 152–163.
- ✓ Lecture 5.

6.2. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. The unification of the country and the progress of culture favoured the rise of the national language and the literary standards.
2. Early Modern English (1475–1660 (2000)) is the period of the formation of the national literary English language.
3. New economic relations (emergence of the middle class, guilds and powerful trade unions) established to a certain extent conditions for linguistic unity.
4. In the late Middle Ages London constituted one of the centres of the early form of coordinated international trade.

5. The Renaissance constituted the basis for the Spanish and Portuguese exploration and colonization of the British Isles.
6. In the domain of religion, the Renaissance experienced the protestant movement and reformation, the reformation of church in England was triggered by idiosyncratic political factors.
7. The introduction of printing by William Caxton in 1476 did not support the standardization of the linguistic process in the country.
8. English was supposed to have been unified and standardized in the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order etcetera due to the introduction of printing.
9. The printing books were subdued to the idea of literacy being spread rapidly and increasingly in the Middle English period, despite the strong opposition to it.
10. Introduction of printing by Caxton in 1476 – is in the mainstream of the history of English, as it affected the development of the language greatly, especially its written form.

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.

1. The formation of the national literary English language covers:
A the Old English period
B the Middle English period
C the Early Modern English period
D the Modern English period

2. Major external factors that contributed greatly to the rise of the national language are:
A increased foreign contacts
B sea trade and expansion
C the protestant movement and reformation
D the unification of the country and the progress of culture

3. The landmark of the history of Early Modern English in particular and in the history of English in general is:
A introduction of printing
B flourishing of literature
C exploration of the Americas and Africa
D the expansion of England to America

4. William Caxton (appr.1420–1491) wrote preface and printed:
A David Crystal's *The Stories of English*
B Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*
C William Shakespeare's *Hamlet*
D William Tyndale's *New Testament*

5. The literary standard of English in Early Modern English became:
A the East Midland dialect
B the West Midland dialect
C the Southern dialect

D the Northern dialect

6. The period that characterizes the historical context of Early Modern English is:
A the Renaissance
B the Reformation
C the Romanticism
D the Enlightenment

7. The Renaissance or the Revival of Learning is the great era of:
A a religious and political movement of the 16th century
B the romantic art, music and literature of the late 18th and the early 19th c.
C the 18th c. philosophical movement stressing the importance of reason
D intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th–17th c.

8. The classics of Early Modern English without any doubt are:
A William Shakespeare and William Tyndale
B King Henry VIII and Coverdale
C Malory and Gower
D Mary Stuart and Elizabeth I

9. *The founder of the National Literary English Language*, the greatest of all the great creators of the English language is:
A William Caxton
B William Shakespeare
C William Tyndale
D Geoffrey Chaucer

10. The great geniuses of the Renaissance gave the English language:
A a choice of national presence at all the levels of its usage
B changes in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift)
C patterns of word order
D peculiarities of word endings

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.

1. The 'national' language embraces …
2. The 'national literary language' applies …
3. Hanseatic League was …
4. Francis Drake is regarded as a national hero in England as he …
5. King Henry VIII is connected with the Reformation of church in England as he …
6. Chancery English became 'official' English of the royal administrative documents, id est …
7. Renaissance means …
8. William Tyndale (1494–1536) a priest in the church, being educated at Oxford and Cambridge, was the strong proponent of the idea that people …
9. William Shakespeare (1564–1616), 'the canonical writer of the English language' …

10. The first Authorized Version of the Bible (also known as the King James Bible), published in 1611 was a verbal beauty ….

A …. the standard written form of the national government that began addressing all of its subjects in Chancery English.
B …. broke with the Catholic church (on condition that pope Clement VII refused to annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon) and declared himself Supreme Head of the Church of England.
C …. *rebirth;* a great number of cultural and political changes that mark the transition from medieval to modern life.
D …. only to recognized standard forms of the language, written and spoken.
E …. should be able to read the Bible in their own language, he wanted a translation which ordinary people would understand, even 'the boy who plows the field'.
F …. a commercial association of towns in North Germany formed in the late Middle Ages to protect and control trade.
G …. all the varieties of the language used by the nation including dialects.
H …. pirated Spanish merchant ships coming from the Americas and won an important sea battle against the 'invincible' Spanish armada.
I …. and had status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.
J …. deploys lexical and grammatical resources in his language, while creating his concepts and characters; offering new treatment of words and giving additional meanings to them.

LECTURE7. The Great Vowel Shift

Aims: to examine Early Modern English spelling and sound changes;

- ✓ to distinguish among the changes – free development of vowels reflecting some general trend;
- ✓to identify the scholarly hypotheses on the Great Vowel Shift

Points for discussion:

Introduction
7.1. The Emerging Orthographic System
7.2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift
7.3. Consonants in EModE
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

free development of vowels	*influence of neighbouring sounds*
The Great Vowel Shift	Development of Vowels in EModE
ME Short Vowels in EModE	Shortening of Long Vowels
Evolution of ME Diphthongs in EModE	Influence of Labial Consonants

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1994. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.

Additional:

✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 164–170.

Introduction

The changes discussed in this lecture are those occurring in stressed vowels. They are clearly of more interest to the students of English than developments in unstressed vowels. The most significant change in unstressed vowels that took place between Middle and Early Modern English – the loss of the reduced vowel in final syllables, was completed by the end of the Middle Period.

It appears useful to distinguish among the changes under consideration free development of vowels reflecting some general trend, and development influenced or caused by the neighbouring sounds (combinative changes).

7.1. The Emerging Orthographic System

The introduction of printing at the very beginning of the Modern English period greatly contributed to the unification and fixation of English spelling. Begun by Caxton in the last quarter of the 15th century, this process practically ended in the first half of the 18th century, after which the orthography altered but little. In general the spelling changes during the Modern English period were less radical than those of the previous one. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

In fact most phonetic changes of the Early Modern English period were not reflected in spelling, which accounts a good deal for the present discrepancy between spoken and written English.

The phonetic change which had the most disturbing effect upon the spelling of that period was the loss of ME **[ə]** written **e.**

a In many cases the letter disappeared as well as the sound.
E.g. ME *sone, nute* > ModE *son, nut.*

b In many other cases the letter remained, though the sound disappeared, as in *name, write, love.*

c The letter **e** in a final position came to be regarded as a sign indicating the length of a preceding vowel *(comp, hat – hate, bit – bite)* and was added in such capacity to many words which had never before had the letter.

E. g. ModE *stone, mice, toe* < ME *stoon, mis, to* < OE *stān, mȳs, tā.*

d The addition or retention of the so-called silent **e** was often quite superfluous or even misleading. Thus, the ME form *hous* showed quite plainly that the vowel was long and the addition of **e** (ModE *house*) was unnecessary. The retention of **e** after **v** in such words as *live, give, have* is misleading as it conceals the difference in the vowels of *live*

and *alive, have* and *behave,* etc.

Of the other changes in spelling we shall mention the following ones:

a New digraphs **oa** and **ea** were introduced to represent the long open **[ǭ]** and **[ę:].** ME *rood, boot, se, deel* came to be written *road, boat, sea, deal* in the 16th century. It was an improvement on ME spelling which had mostly made no difference in representing **[ǭ]** and **[ọ:], [ę:]** and **[ẹ:].**

b Most double consonants preceding the final weak **[ə]** were simplified after the loss of the latter.

Comp. ME *lette, stoppe, dogge, sunne* and ModE *let, stop, dog, sun.*

The combinations **ss, ff, ll** and **ck (-kk**) were, however, retained.

Comp. ME *kisse, stuffe, pulle, locke* and ModE *kiss, stuff, pull, lock.*

Moreover, these combinations were transferred to other words with originally a single final letter.

Comp. ME *glas, staf, smal, sik* and ModE *glass, staff, small, sick.*

Medially, all consonants were usually doubled after a short vowel just as a sign that the vowel was short.

Comp. ME *super, felow, sumer, bery, matere* and ModE *supper, fellow, summer, berry, matter.*

c The written forms of many words, especially those borrowed from French, were altered in order to render their Latin or Greek origin more obvious to the eye. Thus the letter **b** was inserted in ME *dette, doute,* (ModE *debt, doubt*) under the influence of Latin *debitum* and *dubitare.* French *rhithme* was changed to *rhythm* under the influence of Latin *rhythmus. Scool* was replaced by *school* and thus made to conform to Latin *schola.* Not unfrequently the supposed connection with Latin was false. The **s** in *island,* for instance, is due to false association with Latin *insula,* whereas it is a native English word, ME *īland* < OE. *īȝland,* īȝ- denoting ‘island’.

7.2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift

The most important among the vowel changes which took place during the transition from Middle to Early Modern English and in the Modern Period is the so-called **“Great Vowel Shift”.** It is a series of changes which affected all the Middle English long vowels and played a decisive part in transforming the phonetic shape of English words and the relation between pronunciation and spelling. All these changes reveal a general trend towards narrowing and diphthongization of long vowels.

All the ME long vowels **[ī, ę:, ẹ:, ū, ǭ, ọ:, ā]** changed during the Early Modern English period. This change began, apparently, in the 15th century. There is no unanimity among linguists as to the phases each sound passed in the course of its development, nor as to the exact time the sound reached a certain phase. According to some authors the present articulation of some of these sounds was reached only in the 19th century, whereas others think that the vowel shift took place between the 14th and 16th centuries i.e., the set

of long vowels in English went through a systematic process of *raising* and *diphthongization* between 1300 and 1700. *Raising* and *diphthongization* created structural gaps that were filled by shifting the proximate vowels into those gaps.

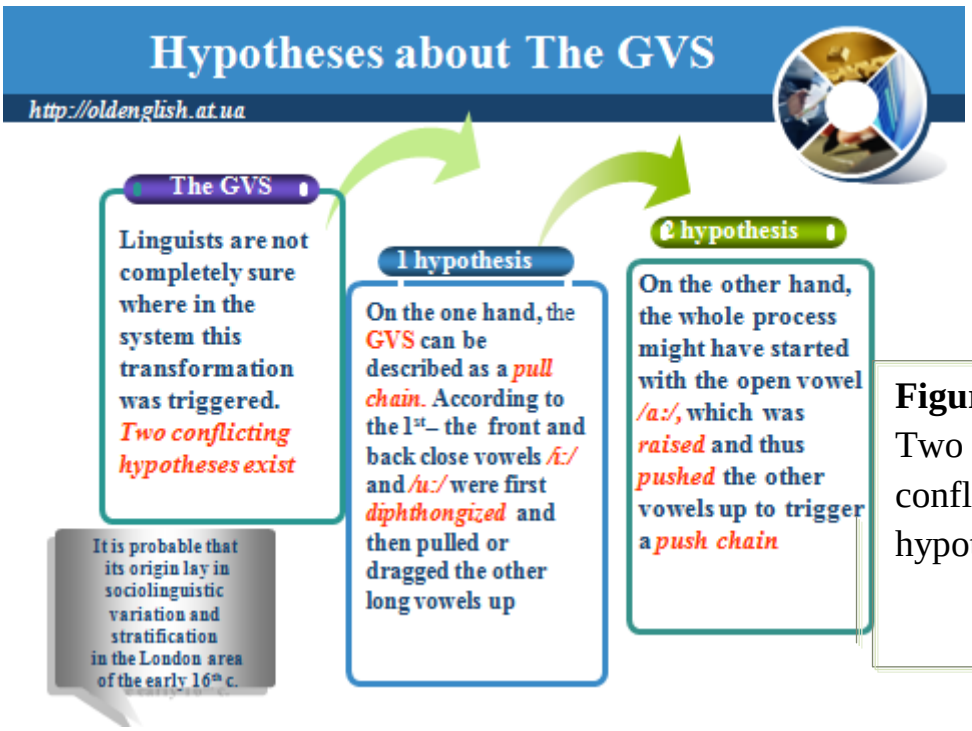

Figure 7.1. Two conflicting hypotheses.

The Great Vowel Shift consists of a combination of *pull* and *push* factors related to the social stratification of linguistic variables. Linguists are not completely sure where in the system this transformation was triggered. Two conflicting hypotheses exist.

On the one hand, the GVS can be described as a *pull chain.* According to the **1st hypothesis** the front and back close vowels */i:/* and */u:/* were first *diphthongized* and then pulled or dragged the other long vowels up.

On the other hand, the whole process might have started with the open vowel */a:/*, which was *raised* and thus *pushed* the other vowels up to trigger a *push chain.*

It is probable that its origin lay in sociolinguistic variation and stratification in the London area of the early 16th c.

The following diagram shows the initial and final stages in the articulation of each sound. The circles contain the ME long vowels before the Shift. The squares display the resulting Modern English Sounds.

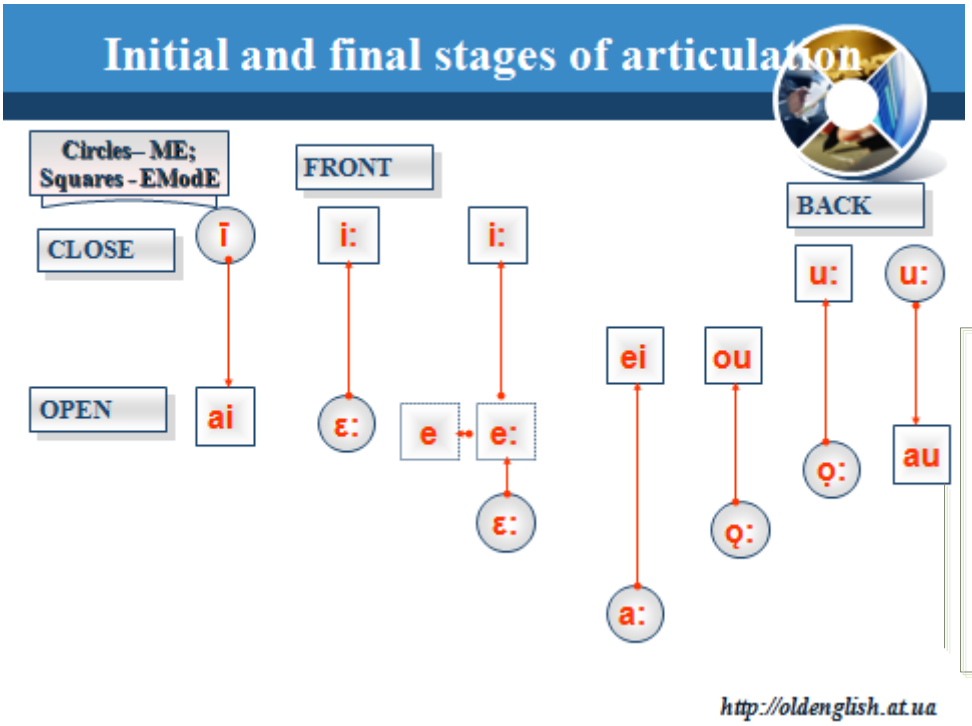

Figure 7.2. Stages of articulation

As we see, 5 out of 7 vowels became closer in their articulation, and only the two closest sounds – **[ī]** and **[ū]** – developed into diphthongs with an open first element.

ME	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700	ModE
[i:] rise(n)		[ii]	[ai]			[ai] rise
[u:] mouth		[uu]	[au]			[au] mouth
[e:] feet			[i:]			[i:] feet
[ɛ:] beeme				[e:]		[i:] beam
[ǫ:] goos			[u:]			[u:] goose
[ǫ:] ston				[o:]	[ou]	[əu] stone
[a:] name			[æ:]	[ɛ:]	[e:]	[ei] name

Table 7.1. Dates of the GVS changes

The names of the letters of the English alphabet also serve as examples. The Latin letter **a** was, as in other languages, called **[a:]** before the Vowel Shift. The letter **k** was called **[ka:]** and the letter **h** was **[a:tʃ].** After the Shift they became **[ei], [kei]** and **[eitʃ]** respectively. The letter **b** was **[bē],** the letter **d** was **[dē], p** was **[pē].** Now they are **[bi:], [di:],** and **[pi:]** respectively. In the same way **o** became **[ou], i** became **[ai],** etc.

In words like *head, bread, sweat, breath* etc., where the digraph **ea** shows that the vowel before the Shift was **[ę:],** we should have expected **[i:].** But the fact is that in some cases, chiefly before **[d], [t]** or **[θ],** the sound was shortened in its **[ē]** stage and did not

develop into **[i:].** Similarly, **[u:]** was later shortened before [**d], [t], [k]** in words like *good, foot, book,* etc.

The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes greatly to the present discrepancy between spoken and written English.

7. 3. Consonants in EModE

One of the most important changes of the 15th century was the voicing of **[f], [s], [θ], [tʃ]** and **[ks]** in weakly stressed words and syllables. The phenomenon is somewhat similar to that discovered by K. Verner in the Old Germanic languages, and is sometimes referred to as **Verner's Law in English.** For instance:

ME **[f] > [v],** as in *o**f**, acti**v**e* (< ME acti**f**), *pensive* (< pensi**f**).

ME **[s] > [z],** as in *i**s**, hi**s**, come**s**, stone**s**, po**ss**ess.*

ME **[θ > [ð],** as in *wi**th**, **th**e, **th**ey.*

ME **[tʃ] > [dʒ],** as in *knowle**dg**e* (< ME knowle**ch**e), *Greenwi**ch*** ['grini**dʒ**].

ME **[ks] > [gz],** as in *e**x**amine, e**xh**ibit, e**x**act.*

Final **[ng]** has been reduced to **[ŋ].**

E.g. ME *thing* [θing] > EModE *thing* [θiŋ].

Final **[b]** has been lost after **[m],** as in *climb, dumb, comb.*

'Silent' **b** has been wrongly inserted in *thumb, crumb.*

In the 15th c. **[d]** before **[r]** often changed into **[ð].**

E.g. ME *fader* > *father*

ME *weder* > *weather*

New sibilants developed in the 17th century from the combinations [**s], [z], [t], or [d] + [j], [sj] > [ʃ], [zj] > [ʒ], [tj] > [tʃ], [dj] > [dʒ].** This change took place mostly after stressed vowels.

Examples:

[sj] > [ʃ] as in *Russian, Asia, physician, nation* (ME ['nãsjon] > ['neisjən] > ['neiʃ(ə)n). This change did not take place in such words as *suit, assume, pursue,* etc., because the stress followed the combination **[sj].** There are, however, some exceptions like *sure* and *sugar.*

[zj] > [ʒ], as in *decision, usual, measure.*

Not in *resume,* where the stress follows.

[tj] > [tʃ], as in *nature* (ME ['nātiur] > ['neitjə] > ['neitʃə]), *century, question.* Not in *tune, tutor* etc., where the stress follows.

[dj] > [d3], as in *soldier, India* (in careless speech).

Not in *duty, induce,* where the stress follows.

Table 6.3. Some phonological changes in the historical development of English

IE	Germanic	OE	ME	EModE		ModE
5000 BC	2000 BC	450 AD	1066 (1150)	1400	1500	1700
Grimm's Law		palatalization		GVS starts		
		breaking				
		i-umlaut				

Summary

As a result of changes described above, the PDE vowel and consonant system differs in a number of essential points from that of Middle English.

The number of short vowel phonemes has increased by one – the vowel phoneme **[ʌ].** Another new short vowel phoneme **[æ]** has replaced ME **a.**

An entirely new long vowel phoneme **[ə:]** and a new type of diphthongs with the **[ə]**-glide have emerged, while the two long **e**-phonemes and the long close **[o̜:]** do not exist longer (having changed to **[i:]** and **[u:]** respectively), nor do the diphthongs **eu, iu.**

The rest of the PDE long vowels and diphthongs have counterparts in Middle English.

The EModE consonant system includes the new phonemes **[ʃ, ʒ, ʧ, ʤ],** which did not exist in OE.

The sounds **[f, v, θ, ð, s, z]** came to occur in positions they did not occupy previously, which changed the voiceless and voiced members of pairs **[f – v], [θ – ð]** and **[s – z]** from variants of the three fricative phonemes.

Questions for self-control

1. Account for the series of long vowel changes known as 'the Great Vowel Shift'.

2. Identify the development of ME short vowels in EModE.
3. Trace the evolution of ME diphthongs in EModE.
4. Comment on the vowel changes under the influence of consonants.
5. What is meant by ‘discrepancy’ between spelling and pronunciation in EModE?
6. Account for the emergence of new palatal-alveolar sibilants.
7. Comment on the voicing of fricatives.

SEMINAR 7

Aims:

- ✓ to examine Early Modern English spelling and sound changes in detail;
- ✓ to distinguish among the changes – free development of vowels reflecting some general trend;
- ✓ to identify the scholarly hypotheses on the Great Vowel Shift once more;
- ✓ to implement the theory about the Great Vowel Shift into practice;
- ✓ to denote the influence of the consonants on the following vowels;
- ✓ trace the phonological underpinnings of the main-stream accents of the period.

7.1. Study points:

1. The Emerging Orthographic System
2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift
3. Development of ME Short Vowels in EModE
4. Vowel Changes under the Influence of Consonants
5. Consonants in Early Modern English

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1994. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 164–170.

7.2. Tests: review of theory

I. True / false: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. Early Modern English pronunciation clearly had many stable features but also underwent a series of sound changes.
2. Standards of pronunciation are not fixed like orthographic standards but continue to change with time.
3. Vowels changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects.
4. The introduction of printing at the very beginning of the Early Modern English period greatly contributed to the unification and fixation of English spelling and pronunciation.
5. The spelling changes during the Early Modern English period were more radical than those of the Middle English period.
6. The phonetic change which had the most disturbing effect upon the spelling of that period was the loss of ME **[ə]** written **e.**
7.The letter **e** disappeared as well as the sound **[ə].** E.g. ME *sone, nute* > EModE *son, nut.*
8. The letter **e** in a final position came to be regarded as a sign indicating the length of a following vowel.
9. One of the phonological developments that obliterated earlier sound – spelling correspondences were changes in short vowels known as the Great Vowel Shift (GVS).
10. The changes included in the Great Vowel Shift affected regularly every stressed long vowel in any position.
11. During the Great Vowel Shift all the long vowels became closer or were diphthongised.
12. The changes included in the Great Vowel Shift can be defined as 'dependent', as they were not caused by any apparent phonetic conditions in the syllable or in the word.
13. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound and comprehensive change in the history of English vowels: every long vowel was 'shifted', and the pronunciation of all the words with these sounds was altered.
14. The front and back close vowels **ī** and **ū** were first monophthongized and then pulled or dragged the other long vowels up.
15. During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed, for they contained long vowels.
16. From a sociolinguistic perspective the Great Vowel Shift consists of a combination of pull and push factors related to the social stratification of linguistic variables.
17. Although it is difficult to reconstruct the actuation of this sound change, it is probable that its origin lay in sociolinguistic variation and stratification in the London area of the early 16^{th} century.
18. The whole process might have started with the open vowel **ā,** which was raised and thus pushed the other vowels up to trigger a pull chain.
19. Since the lower-class dialects were stigmatized, upper-class speakers unconsciously started to raise the long vowels in ME words in order to maintain the social difference.
20. Three conflicting hypotheses concerning the GVS exist.

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions / statements.

1. The ME long vowels changed in the Shift are as follows:
A ī, ę:, ę:, ā, ǭ, ǫ:, ū
B i:, a, o, u, i, o:, e
C a, o, o:, e, e:, i, i:
D e, e:, u, o, a, o:, i

2. The two closest sounds … developed into diphthongs with an open first element.
A ē and ū
B ī and ū
C ē and a
D a and ū

3. After the Shift the sound **[ī]** became:
A [i:]
B [e:]
C [ai]
D [ei]

4. After the Shift the sound **[ū]** became:
A [au]
B [e:]
C [ai]
D [ei]

5. After the Shift the sound **[ę:]** became:
A [i:]
B [e:]
C [ai]
D [ei]

6. After the Shift the sound **[ǫ:]** became:
A [i:**]**
B [e:]
C [u:]
D [ei]

7. After the Shift the sound **[ɛ:]** became:
A [ə]
B [e:]

C **[**ai]
D **[**i:]

8. After the Shift the sound **[ǭ]** became:
A **[**əu
B [e:]
C **[**ai]
D [ei]

9. After the Shift the sound **[ā]** became:
A [i:]
B [e:]
C **[**ai]
D [ei]

10. The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes greatly to the present … between spoken and written English.
A agreement
B consistency
C coordination
D discrepancy

11. ME **[ə]** (written **e**) was … in EModE.
A appeared
B functioned
C denoted
D lost

12. ME **a** normally changed into EModE ….
A **[æ]**
B [e:]
C **[**ai]
D [ei]

13. ME [**o**] sounded like … in EModE.
A **[æ]**
B **[**a]
C **[**ai]
D [ei]

14. ME **[au**] was monophthongized and became ….
A **[æ]**
B **[**a]

C [o:]
D [ei]

15. Final **[b**] has been lost after ….
A [n**]**
B [p**]**
C [m**]**
D [v]

16. In the 15th c. **[d**] before **[r**] often changed into ….
A [z**]**
B [s**]**
C [ð]
D [t]

17. Final **[ng]** has been reduced to ….
A [n**]**
B [s**]**
C [ŋ]
D [g]

18. The voicing of … in weakly stressed words and syllables became one of the most important changes of the 15th c.
A [n**],** [s], [f], [h], [k]
B [f], [s], [θ], [tʃ], [ks]
C [p**],** [t], [f], [r], [l]
D [c] **[**n**],** [w], [h], [k]

19. Sound [**e]** before **[r**] in the same syllable changed to … in the 15th c.
A [a]
B [ei**]**
C [o**]**
D [er]

20. EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME … before the voiceless fricatives [**s]**, **[f],** and **[θ**]

A [a]
B [e
C [o**]**
D [u]

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

1. The Great Vowel Shift is …
2. The Great Vowel Shift displays …
3. Early Modern English witnessed the greatest event in the history of English vowels …
4. ME sound **[ə]** was preserved mostly between …
5. After **[w] – [a]** was rounded and coincided with …
6. Sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to **[a]** in the 15th c., …
7. The drastic changes of long vowels …
8. ME letter **e** was added to many words …
9. Phonetic alphabet: …
10. ME letter **e** in a final position **...**
11. The combinations **ss, ff, ll** and **ck (-kk)** …
12. The transition from Middle to Modern English is not marked by any specific cultural event but rather by a linguistic event: …
13. Most double consonants preceding the final weak **[ə]** …
14. The combinations ss, **ff, ll** and **ck (-kk)** were transferred …
15. ME letter **e** remained and …
16. Medially, all consonants were usually doubled …
17. If the sound **[r]** happened to follow a long vowel …
18. ME letter **e** and the sound **[ə]** …
19. EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME **[a]** before the voiceless fricatives **[s], [f],** and **[θ]** …
20. ME **[u]** developed in a new sound **[ʌ]** in EModE, e.g. cup, son, sun, up …

A **...** the name given to a series of changes of long vowels between the 14th and the 18th c.
B … which involved the change of all ME long monophthongs, and probably some of the diphthongs.
C … a growing discrepancy between letters and sounds.
D … were not reflected in spelling.
E … the Great Vowel Shift.
F **...** an alphabet used to study speech sounds in which every symbol corresponds to one and only one sound.
G … the sound **[ə]** disappeared. E.g., *name, write, love*.
H … disappeared. E.g., ME *sone, nute* > EModE *son, nut*.
I … which had never before had the letter, e.g. EModE *stone, mice* < ME *stoon, mis*.
J … indicates the length of a preceding vowel. E.g. *hat – hate, bit – bite.*
K … were simplified after the loss of the latter. E.g., ME *lette, stoppe – let, stop*.

L …were retained. E.g., ME *kisse, stuffe, pulle, locke – kiss, stuff, pull, lock.*

M … after a short vowel just as a sign that the vowel was short. e.g., ME *super, felow, sumer – supper, fellow, summer*.

N … to other words with originally a single final letter. E.g. ME *glas, small – glass, small*.

O … sibilants or dentals*: glasses, ashes, wanted, beloved, learned*.

P … **[o],** E.g. ModE *was* [woz], *want, what, quantity.*

Q … so that **[er] > [ar**]. *Comp.* ME *derk, ferm, sterre* and EModE *dark, farm, star.* In some words like *clerk, sergeant* the older spelling has been preserved.

R … the result was a diphthong (triphthong) with **[ə]** as the second element. E.g. ME **ēr** > EModE **[iə],** as in *here, beer;* ME **ōr** > EModE **[ue],** *poor;* ME **ār** > EModE **[ɛə],** *hare, dare;* ME īr > EModE **[aiə],** *hire, fire;* ME **ūr** > EModE **[auə],** *our, flower.*

S … as in *grass, grasp, past, ask, after, staff, pass.* In most regions of the United States the vowel here is still **[æ]**.

T The same sound **[ʌ]**is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which **[u:] (<** ME **ō** was shortened before the 17th c.: **[blu:d > blud > blʌd].**

IV. Exercises.

1. Show the historical development of the following **OE** words. *Model:*

OE feor > ME fer > E far [fa:]

OE **eo** > ME **e**; ME **er** > ModE **ar**; **r > ə; ar > a:**

æfter, āʒan, āʒān, æniʒ, rīsan, bæc, baþian, bēatan, bindan, bysiʒ, bītan, blōd, bodyʒ, boʒa, cald, brēad, brōþor, brūn, cearu, caru, cēpan, cild, cnāwan, cniht, cneoht, cuman, cwēn, dæʒ, dæl, dēor, dēop, deorc, draʒan, ʒræs, hēdan, hebban.

2. Show the historical development of the following **ME** words. *Model:*

ME caughte > ModE caught [ko:t]

ME [**au**] (au) > ModE [**o:**] (au);

ME [**x**] (gh) > ModE [–] (gh);

able, abusen, apperen, blamen, biten, blowen, breeth, cause, chambre, chamber, cun, klene, cleene, knowen, col, knight, cove, cleven, corn, cutten, day, derk, dep, deep, dor, door, English.

3. Show the historical development of the following **ModE** words. *Model:*

ModE ground [graund] < ME ground [grūnd] < OE ȝrund

ModE **[au]** (ou) < ME [**ū**] (ou) < OE u (+ nd)

half, hard, lead, like, love, meal, meet, mighty, mild, morning, night, pound, port, read, ride, rise, say, small, speak, star, son, tale, work, wide, write.

7.3. Reading practice

William Shakespeare, Sonnet 7. Supply a historical explanation: probable origin, spelling, pronunciation, grammatical forms and their meanings.

Model of the analysis: Sonnet 2 (1).

When forty winters shall besiege thy brow,

And dig deep trenches in thy beauty's field,

Thy youth's proud livery so gazed on now,

Model of the phonetic analysis	
when	the ME combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*
forty	the ME sound **[or]** > the EModE sound **[o:]** – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of **r**)
shall	the ME sound **[a]** is a monophthongization of the OE diphthong **[ea]** in the word *sceal* (the 11th c); ***sh*** – the development of the sibilant **[ʃ]** (the 17th c.)
besiege	the ME digraph ***ie*** denoted the sound **[e:].** ME **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.); the ME palatal consonant **[g]** > the EModE sibilant **[dʒ]**
thy	the ME voiceless fricative **[θ]** > the EModE voiced **[ð];** the ME letter **y** > the EModE diphthong **[ai]** (The GVS – the pull chain)

brow	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
deep	the monophthongization of the OE diphthong **[ēo]** in the word *dēop* (the 11th c); **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
field	the ME digraph ***ie*** denoted the sound **[e:].** ME **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (th**e** pull chain; the 15th c.)
gaze	the ME sound **[a] > [ei**] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the push chain; the 15th c.)
now	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
be	the ME sound **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
weed	the monophthongization of the OE diphthong **[ēo]** in the word *wēod* (the 11th c); **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
small	the influence of the consonant **[l]** on the preceding vowel, especially **[a],** which resulted in the development of an **u**-glide before **[l],** mostly after **[a],** sometimes after **[o]: [al > aul > o:l]**
worth	the ME sound **[or]** > the EModE sound **[o:]** – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of **r**)
all	the influence of the consonant **[l]** on the preceding vowel, especially **[a],** which resulted in the development of an **u**-glide before **[l],** mostly after **[a],** sometimes after **[o]: [al > aul > o:l]**
lies	the ME digraph ***ie*** denoted the sound **[e:].** ME **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
proud	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
where	the ME combination of letters ***wh*** was substituted for OE ***hw***

Model of the grammatical and etymological analysis	
when	conj., OE origin *hwænne*
winters	n, the Common case, plural, originated from OE *wintar*
shall	the auxiliary verb is used to denote the future tense, OE origin *sculan*
besiege	v, originated from French
thy	pron. possessive, the 2nd person singular conjoint form of the possessive pronouns, *thine* is the 2nd person singular absolute form of the possessive pronouns. The forms *thy* and *thine* are now archaic, having been replaced in common use by the plural forms *your* and *yours*
brow	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from OE *brū*
trenches	n, the Common case, Plural, originated from French *trenche*
beauty's	n, the Possessive case, Singular, from French origin *biauté*
field	n, the Common case, Singular of the Old English noun *feld*
youth's	n, the Possessive case, Singular of the noun youth of Old English origin *geogoth*

and	conjunction of Old English origin *and* [and]
livery	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from French *livrée*
so	adverb of Old English origin *swā*
gazed	Past Indef., originated from Scandinavian *gasa*
will	the auxiliary verb is used to denote the future tense, OE origin *willan*
be	the Infinitive, OE origin *beon*
tatter'd	the contracted form of Past Indef., originated from Old English *tealtrian*
weed	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from Old English *wēod*
of	prep., originated from Old English *af*
small	adj., the Positive degree, originated from Old English *smæl*
held	Past Indef., originated from Old English *healdan*
worth	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from Old English *weorth*
then	adverb of Old English origin *thenne*
being	Participle I of OE *beon*
asked	Past Indef., originated from Old English *āscian*
all	pron. defining originated from Old English *eall*
where	adverb of Old English origin *hwær*
thy	pron. possessive, the 2nd person singular conjoint form
lies	Pres. Indef., originated from Old English *lēogan*

Sonnet № 7

Lo! in the orient when the gracious light

Lifts up his burning head, each under eye

Doth homage to his new-appearing sight,

Serving with looks his sacred majesty;

And having climbed the steep-up heavenly hill,

Resembling strong youth in his middle age,

Yet mortal looks adore his beauty still,

Attending on his golden pilgrimage:

But when from highmost pitch, with weary car,

Like feeble age, he reeleth from the day,

Like feeble age, he reeleth from the day,

The eyes, 'fore duteous, now converted are

From his low tract, and look another way:

So thou, thyself outgoing in thy noon

Unlooked on diest unless thou get a son.

The Modern English system of sounds and letters:

1. Stressed vowels.

sounds	**letters**	**examples**
i:	e, ee, ea, ie, ei, i	w**e,** f**ee**l, sp**ea**k, ch**ie**f, rec**ei**ve, mach**i**ne
i	i, y, ui	p**i**n, s**y**nonym, b**ui**ld
e	e, ea	p**e**n, h**ea**d
æ	a	m**a**n
a:	ar, al (+m, f), a (+ss, st, ft, th, etc.)	d**ar**k, c**al**m, h**al**f, p**a**ss, p**a**st, gr**a**sp, **a**fter, p**a**th
o	o, a (after w, qu)	h**o**t, w**a**s, qu**an**tity
o:	or, au, aw, a (+ l + cons.)	p**or**t, c**au**se, l**aw**, w**al**k, f**a**ll, s**a**lt
u	u, oo (+ k)	p**u**ll, l**oo**k
u: (ju)	oo, u, o, ui, ew	m**oo**n, r**u**le, d**o**, fr**ui**t, d**u**ty, s**ui**t, n**ew**
ʌ	u, o, ou	s**u**n, c**o**me, r**ou**gh
ə:	er, ir, ur, ear	p**er**son, b**ir**d, t**ur**n, **ear**th
ei	a, ai, ay, ei, ey	l**a**te, s**ai**l, d**ay**, v**ei**n, th**ey**
ou	o, oa, ow, ou	n**o**, c**o**ld, **oa**k, kn**ow**, th**ou**gh
ai	i, y	t**i**me, f**i**nd, l**i**ght, m**y**
au	ou, ow	h**ou**se, n**ow**
oi	oi, oy	c**oi**n, b**oy**
iə	eer, ere, ear	b**eer**, h**ere**, d**ear**
ɛə	ar (+ vowel), ear	p**ar**ent, c**ar**e, b**ear**
oə, o:	oar, ore	r**oar**, m**ore**
uə, (juə)	oor, ure	p**oor**, p**ure**

2. Consonants

t	t, tt, ed	ca**t**, bo**tt**om, ask**ed**
k	k, c, ck, ch	boo**k**, **k**ing, **c**up, ba**ck**, s**ch**ool
f	f, ff, ph, gh	**f**ire, stu**ff**, **ph**otogra**ph**, lau**gh**
z	z, s, ss	**z**oo, ro**s**e, po**ss**ess
ʃ	sh, ch, si, ssi, ci, ti	**sh**ip, ma**ch**ine, pen**si**on, profe**ssi**on, academi**ci**an, na**ti**on

SELF-STUDY 7

Aims:

- ✓ to review afresh the sound changes within the phonemic system of Early Modern English with its relation to Present-Day English;
- ✓ to perceive the phenomenon of the Great Vowel Shift and its changes once again;
- ✓ to trace the evolution of ME diphthongs and the development of vowels influenced or caused by the neighbouring sounds in Early Modern English in practice.

7.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

7. 1. *History of English – The Sound System of EMnE*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pWTFcUZVAlY
7. 2. *History of English – The Great Vowel Shift*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zyhZ8NQOZeo
7. 3. *The Great Vowel Shift*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gLMpTdAsGH0
7. 4. *History of the English Language – 12 To Modern English The Great Vowel Shift {audio book}*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hEoV71a748U
7. 5. *Shakespeare – Original pronunciation*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gPlpphT7n9s
7. 6. *Early Modern English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YEqb7WGupW0

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1994. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language*. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 164–170.

7.2. Computer tests in e-learning

True/False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.
2. Vowels changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects.
3. All the long vowels became closer or were diphthongized between the 16th and the 20th c.
4. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound change in the history of the English vocalic system: the vowels being shifted led to the great changes in the pronunciation.
5. The ME digraph **ee** [**ę:**] was used to denote **[i:]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME deep [dę:p] > ModE deep [di:p].
6. The ME digraph **ea [ɛ:]** was used to denote [**ę:]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sea [sę:] > ModE sea [si:].
7. The ME digraph **oo** [ǫ**:**] stands for [**u:**] after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sōne [so:nə] > ModE soon [su:n].
8. The ME digraph **oa** [ǭ] stands for **[ou**] after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME open ['ɔ:pən] > ModE open ['əup(ə)n].
9. The letter **x** stands for [**gz**] in the following words: *oxen, axes, execute, exercise, oxidation, excuse, exclusive, exceptional, extraordinary.*
10. The letter **x** stands for [**ks]** in the following words: *executor, examine, exact, exist, exemplify, exert, exhaust.*

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.

1. Identify the sound value of the **ee**-digraph (**ee, ei, ie**) after the GVS in the following words:

A sleep, street, deed, weep
B time, line, wipe, tide
C shift, chin, ship, pin, written
D hand, face, help, word

2. Determine the sound value of the **ea**-digraph after the GVS in the following words:

A feel, seek, feet, beet
B black, nap, stand, bathe
C east, wheat, feat , lea, meat
D d instead, expect, certain, phonetic

3. Define the sound value of the digraph **oo** as a result of the GVS in the following words:

A bold, cold, old, comb
B go, no, oak, know
C do, lose, prove, to
D coin, oil, boy, toy

4. Identify the sound value of the digraph **oa** as a result of the GVS in the following words:

A show, alone, below, promote
B come, become, welcome, some
C embolden, encourage, foster, support
D got, not, forgot, blot, thought

5. Denote the exceptions to the **ea**-digraph sound value in the following words:

A altitude, height, eight tail
B bear, pear, there, where
C break, steak, great
D creak, dread, dream, drear

6. Define the quality of ME short vowel **o** in ModE in the following words:

A above, honey, tongue, wonder
B who, lose, move, whom
C don't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't
D coup, group, rouge, soup

7. Identify the lengthening of ME **a** before voiceless fricatives in the following words:

A alphabet, alto, altitude, aptitude

B aghast, cast, task, staff, raft
C small, tall, wall, walk, talk
D wander, what, swallow, wasp

8. Define the quality of ME **a** under the influence of labial consonants in the following words:

A wag, pat, back, hand
B want, wand, wash, was
C base, chaste, haste, paste
D father, mother, rather, another

9. Identify the loss of consonants in the following words:

A desert, exact, though, that
B pull, put, butcher, push
C swagger, quality, quantity
D comb, hymn, solemn, tomb

10. The present-day system of vowels should be regarded as something:

A final and permanent
B constant and decisive
C determined and invariable
D continuing and durative

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms or words with the correct meaning.

1. Phonetic changes, especially those after the fixation of spelling in 1476 …
2. Two or more sounds may coincide in one phoneme …
3. Sounds which at one time belonged to one phoneme and were represented by one and the same graphic symbol …
4. The loss of a sound makes its graphic symbol silent in those positions where the lost sound occurred …
5. The silent ***e*** was added in some words …
6. The simplification of double consonants has resulted in doubled letters being written for single sounds …
7. Through convergence of originally different sounds a number of English words have become identical in pronunciation that is …
8. The relation between sound and spelling in the English language was complicated by other factors, e.g. …
9. Sometimes the divergence between spelling and pronunciation is due to the fact

that …

10. There is a tendency in ModE to conform spelling to pronunciation that is …

A … homophones: being pronounced in the same way but differing in meaning or spelling or both, as for example *bear* and *bare*, *meet* and *meat*, *stare* and *stair*.

B … either to indicate the shortness of the preceding vowel, as in *copper, hotter, running,* or simply by tradition, as in *bell, egg, community*.

C … that is the main reason why the same phoneme is spelt differently in different words, e.g. [ʌ] is spelt *u* (ME **u**) in *cut*, but *oo* (ME o:) in *blood*, and *ou* (for ME ū) in *couple*.

D … to indicate the "long" reading of the preceding vowel and some silent letters are written by analogy or on etymological grounds (sometimes mistakenly) though no corresponding sound was ever pronounced.

E … have been the main cause of the increasing discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling.

F … the introduction of numerous loan-words from other languages, as these words often keep their foreign spellings, e.g. *ou* for [u:], *i* for [i:], *ch* for [ʃ] and *g* for [ʒ] in some ModE borrowings from French*: group, machine, charade, regime*; *ch* for [k] and *ph* [f] in Greek loans: *character, philosophy, chorus, physics*, etc.

G … may develop in different ways depending on their phonetic position and may in the end be identified as different phonemes, e.g. ME **a** before **r, l,** and voiceless fricatives and after **w**.

H … to pronounce a word as it is spelt, e.g. ['ɔftən] for [ɔfn] (often), ['fɔ:hed] instead of ['fɔrid] (forehead).

I … that is how the final *e* became silent in many words and a number of silent consonant letters as well as the silent digraph *gh* appeared, e.g. *delight*.

J … the spelling and the sound form of the word come from two parallel ME forms, usually belonging to different dialects, e.g. the word *eye*, where the digraph *ey* is read [ai], and not [ei]. The spelling *eye* comes from ME < OE *ēage* (West Saxon dialect), with ēa > ē and [j] (spelt g (ʒ) in OE, *y* in ME changing to *i* and forming the diphthong [ei]. The pronunciation [ai] goes back to the ME form *īe*, from OE *ēge,* a northern form, where *ē* narrowed to *ī* under the influence of the following [j], which then merged with *ī*.

LECTURE8. PDE Vocabulary

Aims:

- ✓ to explore the significant increase in vocabulary in the EModE period;
- ✓ to identify words borrowed from the disciplines of experimental science, classical scholarship and practical technology;
- ✓ to examine new words being coined from Latin and Greek to express technical concepts;
- ✓ to trace how words, both new and old, were changing in meaning, and how the phenomenon of polysemy affected the English writing.

Points for discussion:

Key words to know:

semasiology	synonymy
onomasiology	antonymy
concept	specialization
polysemy	contiguity
homonymy	periphrastic

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 11–14.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–118; 129–130.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.

Additional:

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.

Introduction

The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was tremendous. Thousands upon thousands of foreign words were borrowed. The **inkhorn** (inkwell) terms were coined from Latin or Greek for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).

Many of the intelligentsia who advocated writing in the vernacular in the EModE period also had, for want of a better term, a kind of love-hate relationship with Latin; simultaneously pushing English forward as the 'rightful' medium for the nation with one hand and yet keeping Latin firmly on its pedestal with the other. The continuing veneration of Latin was not only a consequence of its ancient, classical heritage but also an accolade of its practicality – its centuries of use in various disciplines had led to the development of stylistic conventions and in particular, terminology, which English simply did not possess. For many, this seeming inadequacy of their native tongue needed redress if English was to be a worthy usurper of Latin's reign (Singh, 2005: 162).

Concerns about the shortcomings of English became primarily focused on filling the 'gaps' in its vocabulary and a variety of solutions, encompassing borrowing, coinage and revival, were employed. So productive were these attempts that sources such as the *Chronological English Dictionary*, for example, indicate that the 'fastest growth of the vocabulary in the history of the English language' took place roughly between 1530 and 1600, 'both in absolute figures as well as in proportion to the total' (Singh, 2005: 162–163). This rapid expansion, and the processes through which it was achieved, were often commented upon by EModE writers, as can be seen in the following excerpt:

> *"Since Learning began to flourish in our Nation, there have been more than ordinary Changes introduced in our Language; partly by new artificial Compositions; partly by enfranchising strange forein words, for their elegance and significancy … and partly by refining and mollifying old words for the more easie and graceful sound".*
> (Wilkins (1668) *An Essay Towards a Real Character, and a Philosophical Language*, quoted in Singh, 2005: 163)

8.1. The Common Core of the ModE Lexis

The **common core** of English consists of frequent everyday vocabulary used in all registers in speech and in writing. This core, which largely goes back to Old English, forms the backbone of the language. It includes the names of everyday objects and actions; terms for family and social relationships; the commoner verbs, adjectives and adverbs; and the central **grammatical** or **function** words (*articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs*). The ten most frequent

word-form tokens in a million-word corpus of Standard Present-day British English are all **grammatical:** *the, of, and, to, a, in, that, is, was* and *it* (Hofland and Johansson, 1982). It is interesting to see that the top ten most frequent word-forms in the Early Modern English section of the *Helsinki Corpus of English Texts* are the same as in the Present-day corpus except that they include *I* but not *was*. These words are all native Germanic in origin.

In the course of time, the core vocabulary has also absorbed a number of loan words but, according to some estimates, roughly 50 per cent of the core vocabulary items of English remains Germanic (Scheler, 1977: 73). The ten most frequent lexical or content verbs (lexeme tokens) in a large corpus of Present-day British and American speech and writing are: *say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take* and *want* (Biber et al., 1999: 373). All go back to the native Old English stock except for *take,* which is a Scandinavian loan word in late Old English and *want,* another word of Scandinavian origin, first attested in Early Middle English.

If we compile a similar top ten for the last Early Modern English period (1640–1710) in the Helsinki Corpus, the ten most frequent lexical verbs in order of frequency are: *say, make, come, go, know, see, take, think, tell* and *give.*

As in the Present-day study, *do* is excluded, as it is more typical as an auxiliary than as a main verb. Incidentally, the Shakespeare extract in (1) also has two instances of the lexemes *say* and *go,* and one of *know*. The Early Modern English list based on the *Helsinki Corpus* contains two lexemes, *tell* and *give,* which do not show up in the Present-day list. *Give*, (the eleventh most frequent verb in the Present-day data) also goes back to Old English, although the initial /g/ may be attributed to Scandinavian influence on northern Middle English. *Get* and *want* do not appear among the Early Modern English top ten, although both are frequent in the data (.

These high-frequency verbs mostly come from three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*), and mental verbs (*know, think*). In Present-day English they are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, *say,* in fiction, newspapers and academic writing (Biber et al., 1999: 373). Long-term evidence like this illustrates the primacy of speech over writing as a means of human communication. It partly explains how a sizable part of the common core can reach back to the earliest stages of a language.

Another lexical domain that is interesting to look at in this context is proper names. Although these do not strictly speaking belong to the core vocabulary of English, they display considerable diachronic continuity.

Top ten Early Modern English names (1538–1700):

John	*Elizabeth*
William	*Mary*
Thomas	*Anne*
Richard	*Margaret*
Robert	*Jane*
Edward	*Alice*
George	*Joan*
James	*Agnes*
Henry	*Catherine*
Nicholas	*Dorothy*

By way of comparison, the ten most common first names, all male, of the members of the American Congress born between 1721 and 1960 were: *John, William, James, Thomas, Charles, George, Robert, Joseph, Henry* and *Samuel* (Kjellmer, 2000: 144). As many as seven of them also appear among the Early Modern English top ten in (2); only *Charles, Joseph* and *Samuel* do not. In England these three names gained in popularity in the seventeenth century with especially *Joseph* and *Samuel* in the ascendant after 1620. The Congress statistics suggest that the Early Modern English pattern of giving names to boys continued across the Atlantic after the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

8.2. English versus Latin

In the supplanting of Latin and the final establishment of **English** as the *sole literary medium* in England, a considerable part was played by the religious disputes that raged from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. During the Reformation, people engaged in controversy wanted to be read by as large a public as possible. When Sir Thomas More wrote for the entertainment of the learned men of Europe, as in the *Utopia* (1516), he wrote in Latin, but when he was drawn into the domestic religious argument against the Reformers he wrote books and pamphlets in English. Milton, similarly, over a century later, wrote defences of the English republic which were intended for the learned men of Europe, and these were in Latin; but the bulk of his controversial prose (on episcopacy, divorce, the freedom of the press and so on) was intended to have an immediate impact on English politics, and was written in English. The translation of the Bible into English, moreover, and the changeover from Latin to English in church services, raised the prestige of English.

The more extreme Protestants, indeed, regarded Latin as a 'popish' language, designed to keep ordinary people in ignorance and to maintain the power of priests.

Another factor in favour of English was the *increase in national feeling* which accompanied the rise of the modern nation-state in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This national feeling led to a greater interest and pride in the national languages, whiles the language of international Christendom, Latin, slowly fell into the background.

Nationalism led to conscious efforts to create a vernacular literature to vie with that of Greece and Rome, and both Spenser's Faerie Queene (1590) and Milton's Paradise Lost (1667) were conscious attempts to do for English what Homer and Virgil had done for Greek and Latin.

A third factor in favour of English was the *rise of social and occupational groups* which had *little or no Latin,* but which were eager to read and to learn, and wanted books in English. Such were many of the practical men of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century England – skilled craftsmen, instrument makers, explorers, navigators, soldiers – often from the citizen or yeomen classes. Here an important part was played by the spread of literacy and the expansion of the reading-public which followed the introduction of printing in the late fifteenth century.

On the other hand, there were social groups which fought hard for the retention of Latin, because their professional monopoly depended on excluding ordinary people from

the mysteries of their art; physicians appear to have been particularly bitter in their attacks on medical works published in English. This led to fierce controversy about the suitability of English for works of science and scholarship, which raged especially in the second half of the sixteenth century. This controversy was gradually won by the supporters of English, as more and more fields of study were successfully invaded by it (Barber, 2009: 185–187).

8.3. Borrowings from Classical Languages, with Special Reference to the Age of the Renaissance

One result of this Latin influence on English was the introduction of a large number of Latin loanwords into the language. We have already seen that the influx of French words in the Middle English period had predisposed English speakers to borrow words from abroad. In Renaissance England this predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of **Latin** loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660. The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from Latin. When English invaded a field of discourse (for example, rhetoric, logic, geometry, classical history, warfare), the first stage usually took the form of translations of standard Latin works; in the second stage, there were original English works deeply indebted to Latin originals; and in the third stage there were entirely independent English works. In this process, there was a strong tendency for writers to invent English technical terms by adapting those of the Latin originals. It must be added, however, that there was also a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements.

Such a purist was Ralph Lever, who in a textbook of logic published in 1573 invented such words as endsay 'conclusion', foresays 'premisses', saywhat 'defnition', witcraft 'logic' and yeasay 'affrmation'.

It is striking, however, that none of these coinages caught on, and that we use words derived from the Latin expressions that Lever rejected (affirmation, conclusion, etc.) (Barber, 2009: I88).

The Renaissance loans were not, of course, the first Latin words to be borrowed by English. We have already seen how words like *mint, street* and *wine* were borrowed while the English were still on the continent and words like *bishop* and *minster* during the OE period. A few Latin words were borrowed, too, into Middle English: they include religious terms, like *gloria* and *requiem;* words from the law courts, like *client, conviction* and *memorandum;* medical and scientific words, like *dissolve, distillation, equator* and *recipe;* and numbers of abstract words, like *conflict, dissent, imaginary* and *implication.*

There are a number of Latin loans in Old and Middle English, but in Early Modern English this increases considerably, and by 1600 Latin is the greatest source of loanwords in English.

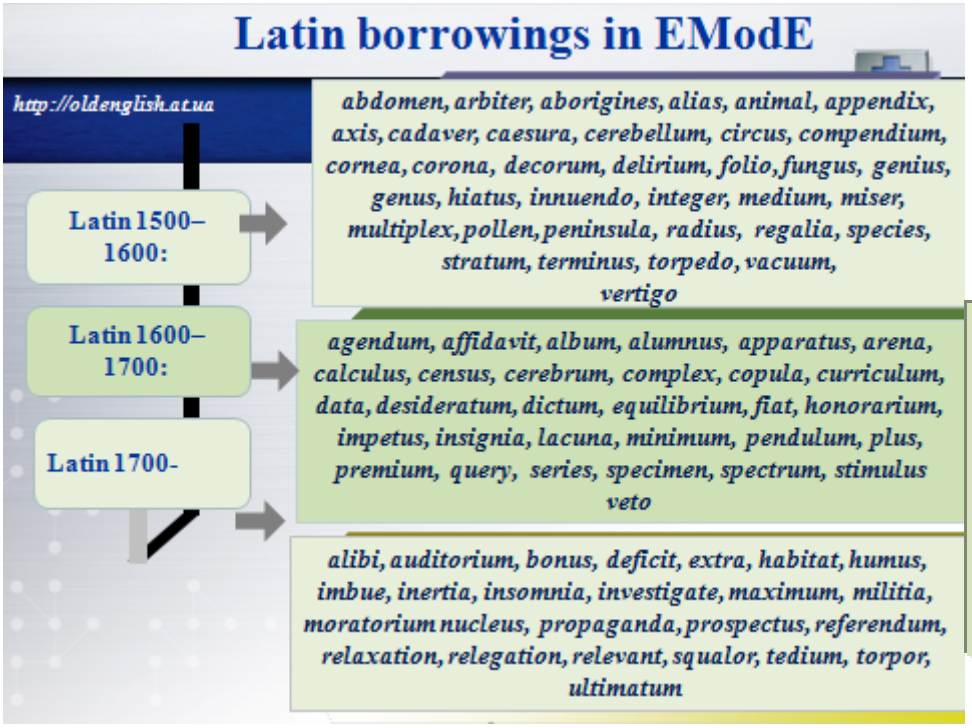

Figure 8.1. Latin loans in the EModE period

The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Latin contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675, when it contributed more than 13,000 new words. Overall, some 35 per cent of the new lexis recorded for sixteenth century in the OED was loans, overwhelmingly Latinate, and the figure rose to 40 per cent in the seventeenth century.

Early Modern English loans from Latin are mostly bookish. Some of them were short-lived, but a large number remained in the language as technical terms, while others made their way into general use. Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs.

In considering classical borrowings a distinction must be made between genuine Latin and Greek words. A great many **Greek** words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek. Borrowings from Greek like those from Latin go back to an early period. But the influx of Greek words on a large scale did not begin until the time of the Revival of Learning. These are mostly bookish borrowings.

It is interesting to note that modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.

In natural sciences the preponderance of Greek words is striking. It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the Greek language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies.

Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form. They are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them. When, for instance, after the Roman time the Latin ***c*** changed its pronunciation before ***e, i, y (k)*** the pronunciation of many Greek words was changed. Thus we got a word like the modern *cycle* which is very unlike the Greek *kyklos* – circle.

Quite a number of proper names are also Greek in origin, e.g. *George*, *Eugene*, *Helene*, *Sophie*, *Peter*, *Nicholas*, *Theodor* and still others.

Among numerous Greek borrowings in the English vocabulary we find the following ones:

Figure 8.2. Greek loans in the ModE period

8.4 Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in ModE

Although Latin was by far the main source of loanwords in the early modern period, a great number were borrowed from other languages too. The next largest source after Latin was French. The influx of **French** words continued and reached new peaks in the late 15th and in the late 17th c.

The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary. French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years. Examples of diplomatic terms are: *attaché, communiqué, dossier.*

Recent borrowings from French carry an unequivocally French appearance; but their number is far less than the number of borrowings direct from Latin.

The following phonetic peculiarities are indicative of later adoptions from French:

a) keeping the accent on the last syllable, e.g. *cravat, finance, finesse, supreme,* etc.;

b) ***ch*** pronounced as **[ʃ]:** *avalanche, chandelier, chaperon, chaise, charade, chauffeur, charlatan, chic, douche, machine,* etc.;

c) ***g*** before ***e*** and ***i*** pronounced as **[ʒ]:** *beige, blindage, bourgeois, camouflage, massage, prestige, regime, rouge,* etc.;

d) ***ou*** is pronounced as **[u],** e.g. *coup, rouge, sou.*

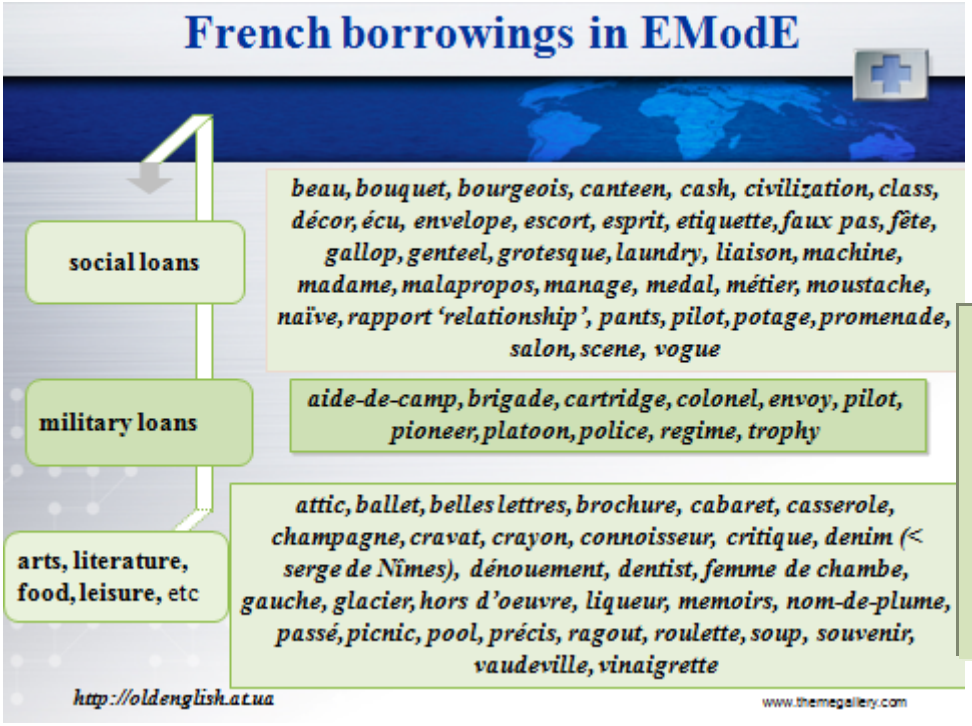

Figure 8.3. French loans in the EModE period

Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, **Italian,** Spanish and Portuguese.

The English travelled frequently in Italy, observed Italian life and culture and brought back not only Italian manners but Italian words, such as:

Figure 8.4. Italian loans in the EModE period

Spanish loans are often concerned with commerce or warfare.

Since the early European exploration of America was largely carried out by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, many early words for specifically American things came into English via **Spanish** or **Portuguese.**

Figure 8.5. Spanish and Portuguese loans in the EModE period

Borrowings from Germanic languages are of special interest as English is a Germanic language too. By the 15th – 16th c. the Germanic languages had driven far apart; their linguistic affinities were disguised by the changes of the intervening periods (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 312). Therefore loan-words from related Germanic tongues were no less foreign to English speakers than those from other linguistic groups. Yet their sound form was somewhat closer to English and their assimilation progressed rapidly (ibid.: 312).

Dutch made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the 15th and 16th c. The Netherlands had had close commercial contacts with England ever since the Norman Conquest and many of the words borrowed by English have to do with seafaring, trade and art. The whole number of Dutch words in English is uncertain, approximately 200 words.

Among **Dutch** borrowings in the English vocabulary we find such:

brandy, cookie, cruise, deck, dock, dollar, easel, filibuster, guilder, gulden, jib, keel, knapsack, landscape, onslaught, reef, schooner, skate, sketch, skipper, smuggler, steady, tattoo, yacht, Yankee, wagon, walrus

Borrowings from **German** reflect scientific and cultural achievements of Germany. There is also a group of miscellaneous words borrowed directly or indirectly and quite a number of literal translation-loans from German in the domain of philosophy.

Among **German** borrowings in the English vocabulary we find such as:

allopathy, bismuth, blitzkrieg, carouse, cobalt, dynamics, fatherland, feldspar, gneiss, halt, hamster, homeopathy, iceberg, kapellmeister, kindergarten, landgrave, leitmotif, lobby, nickel, plunder, quartz, poodle, sauerkraut, shale, stroll, swindler, transcendental, teleology, tuberculin, waltz, zinc

The earliest **Russian** loan-words entered the English language as far as the 16th c., when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company) established the first trade relations with Russia (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 313). Russian borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia:

altine, astrakhan, beluga, balalaika, bolshevik, borzoi, boyar, copeck, cossack, Decembrist, duma, intelligentsia, kvass, Narodnik, nihilist, pogrom, rouble, samovar, steppe, taiga, tundra, troika, tsar, tsarina, tsarevich, verst, vodka, voivode, volost, ukase, uyezd, zemstvo

English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

We can exemplify some **Indian** borrowings:

aniline, bungalow, calico, candy, cot, curry, guru, jungle, jute, khaki, loot, pariah, punch, rupee, sapphire, shampoo, sugar, typhoon

Among **Persian** words borrowed directly may be mentioned:

bazaar, caravan, mullah, pilau, shah, turban

From the **Polish** language the following words were borrowed directly and indirectly:

mazurka, polack, polka

The role of borrowing as one of the principal means of enriching Early Modern English is clearly borne out by the data. Table 1 testifies that borrowings had a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general.

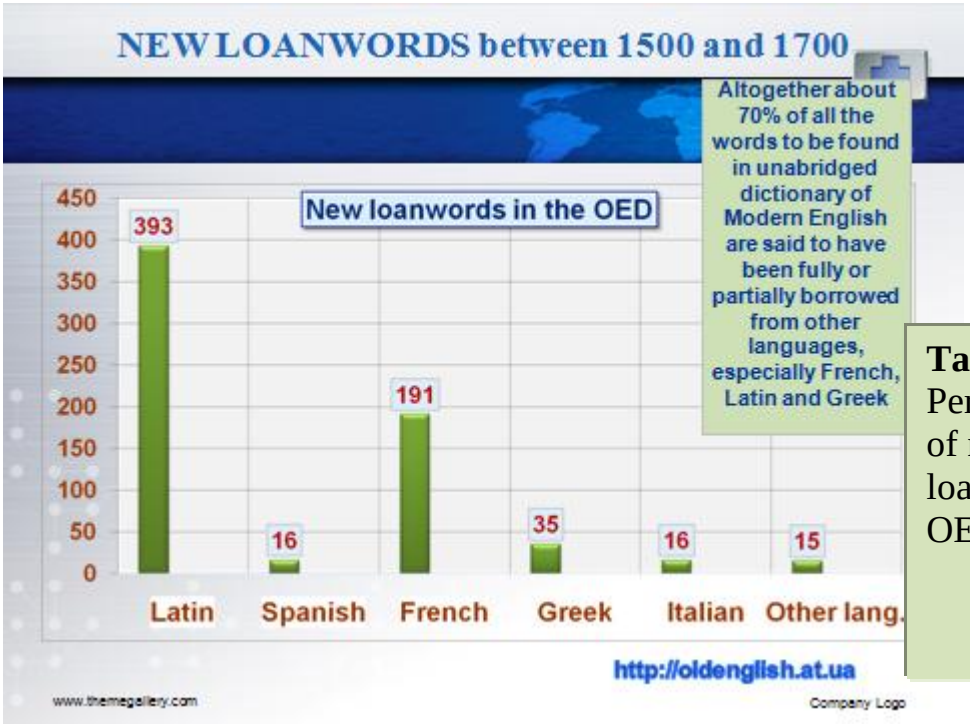

Table 8.1. Percentage of new loans in OED

Words from non-European languages entered through travel, trade and conquest. Examples of these borrowings are presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2. Examples of borrowings from non-European languages

languages	**borrowings**
Turkish	*aga, bey, caftan, coffee, dolman, horde, kiosk, vizier, jackal, janizary, pasha, sherbet, uhlan, yogurt*
Hungarian	*coach, tokay*
Arabic	*Allah, arrack, emir, fakir, harem, hashish, henna, khalif, Koran, mohair, Moslem, Ramadan, sheikh, simoom, sofa*
African	*baobab, chimpanzee, gnu, Mumbo Jumbo, zebra*
Chinese	*bamboo, bohea, cockatoo, cogou, ginseng, hyson, ketchup, orangutan(g), sago, sake, soy, tea*
Japanese	*geisha, kimono, Mikado, rickshaw, samurai*
N American languages	*raccoon, moose, skunk, hickory, totem, canoe*

8.5 New Word Formation

While large numbers of loanwords entered the language in the Early Modern English period, especially from Latin, words nevertheless continued to be coined from existing English language-material by traditional methods of word-formation,

especially **affixation, compounding** and **conversion.** Indeed, it is probable that more words were produced in this way than were borrowed from foreign languages, though this fact was not noticed by contemporaries, who were obsessed with *inkhorn* terms. In fact, any loanword entering the language is soon likely to have other words derived from it by the normal native processes of word-formation. For example, in the fourteenth century the adjective *comfortable* was borrowed from French; by the end of the century the adverb *comfortably* had been derived from it, followed by the adjective *uncomfortable* (1592) (Barber, 2009: 192).

By far the commonest method of word-formation in the Early Modern English period was **affixation,** that is, the coining of new words by the use of **prefixes** and **suffixes.** Most of the words thus formed were nouns or adjectives, though there were also some adverbs and a few verbs. The two suffixes most frequently used for forming nouns were ***-ness*** and ***-er,*** the former being added to adjectives (*bawdiness, briskness*) and the latter to verbs (*feeler, murmurer*). Adjectives were often formed by the use of ***-ed*** (*latticed*) or of ***-y*** (*batty, briny*). Adverbs were normally formed from adjectives with the suffix ***-ly*** (*bawdily*), but occasionally the ending ***-wise*** is found (*sporting-wise*). The usual suffix for forming verbs was ***-ize*** (*anathematize*). There were also many prefixes, of which by far the commonest was ***un-,*** which was used freely with nouns, adjectives, participles, verbs and adverbs (*uncivility, unclimbable, unavailing, unclasp, uncircumspectly*).

A considerable number of words were formed by **compounding,** that is, the combination of two or more free morphemes. They are nearly all nouns, and the commonest type is **Noun + Noun** (*sheep-brand, water dock*). There are also a fair number of the type **Adjective + Noun** (*Frenchwoman, freshman*) and of the type **Verb + Object** (*scrape-penny* 'miser').

The third reasonably common type of word-formation was **conversion,** the process by which one word is derived from another with no change of form. Three types were especially common: the formation of verbs from nouns (*to bayonet, to gossip, to invoice*); the formation of nouns from adjectives (*an ancient* 'an old man', *a brisk* 'a fop'); and the formation of nouns from verbs (*an invite, a laugh*).

The words formed by affixation, compounding and conversion are often ordinary everyday words, or words to do with practical affairs like farming, fishing and handicrafts. By contrast, as we have seen, Latin loanwords tend to be more formal and literary, and often concern specialized fields of discourse like science, medicine, religion, classical culture and the liberal arts. Figure 8.6. summarizes the traditional methods of word-formation in the Early Modern English period.

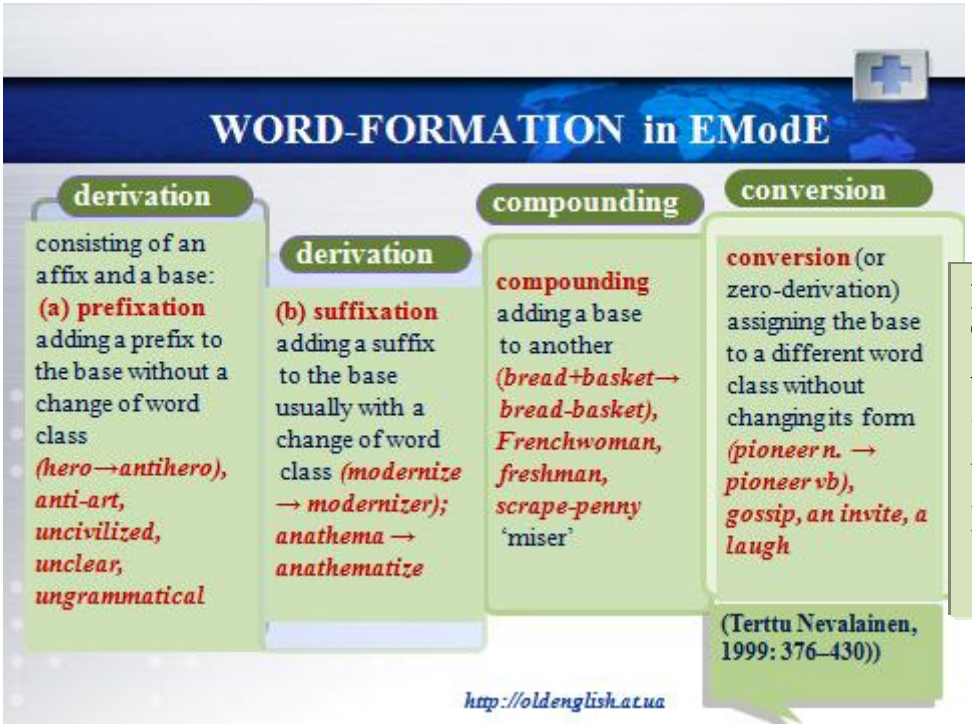

Figure 8.6. Types of word-formation the EModE period

Summary

Early Modern English borrowed heavily from the classical languages, Latin in particular, as well as from French and other Romance languages. Foreign borrowing provided the language with much needed technical terminology and increased its lexical variability. At the same time Latinate loans also increased the opaqueness of English vocabulary introducing semantically related words from different sources. Heavy borrowing did not, however, disrupt native continuity, the Germanic element remaining the backbone of English vocabulary even after the Early Modern English period.

Questions for self-control

1. Identify the notion 'inkhorn terms'.
2. Exemplify Latin loans.
3. Exemplify Greek loans.
4. Exemplify French loans.
5. Exemplify Spanish and Portuguese loans.
6. Exemplify Italian loans.
7. Exemplify Germanic loans.

SEMINAR 8

Aims:

- ✓ to trace the Latin and Greek influence up to the end of the Early Modern English period;

- ✓ to present evidence for extensive Germanic influence during EModE period;
- ✓ to perceive the influx of French loans.

8.1. Study points:

1. The Common Core of the EModE Lexis
2. English versus Latin
3. Borrowings from Classical Languages
4. Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in EModE
5. New Word-Formation

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 11–14.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–118; 129–130.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.

Additional:

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.
- ✓ Lecture 8.

8.2. Tests: review of theory

I. True / false: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.

1. The common core of English consists of frequent everyday vocabulary used in all registers in speech and in writing.
2. The common core of English is exclusively the language of printed matter.
3. The common core of English includes the names of everyday objects and actions; terms for family and social relationships; the commoner verbs, adjectives and adverbs; and the central grammatical or function words (*articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs*).
4. The core vocabulary has also absorbed a number of loan words but, according to some estimates, roughly 50 per cent of the core vocabulary items of English remains Germanic.
5. The ten rarest lexical or content verbs (lexeme tokens) in a large corpus of Present-day British and American speech and writing are: *say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take and want.*
6. The ten most frequent lexical verbs for the last Early Modern English period (1640–1710) in the Helsinki Corpus are: *say, make, come, go, know, see, take, think, tell and give.*

7. High-frequency verbs mostly come from three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*), and mental verbs (*know, think*).
8. In Present-day English high-frequency verbs are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, in fiction, newspapers and academic writing.
9. The inkhorn (inkwell) terms, being coined from Scandinavian for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).
10. Long-term evidence illustrates the primacy of speech over writing as a means of human communication that partly explains how a sizable part of the common core can reach back to the earliest stages of a language.

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions / statements.

1. Identify the Latin loans in EModE:
   A ballet, boulevard, canteen, champagne
   B addiction, assert, customary, hallucinate
   C hammock, maize, potato, tobacco
   D jungle, nirvana, polo, punch

2. Define the French loans in EModE:
   A bungalow, cashmere, china, cot, curry
   B barbecue, cannibal, chili, chocolate
   C cohesion, connoisseur, coquette, dentist
   D skipper, yacht, dock, cruise

3. Determine the Dutch loans in EModE:
   A landscape, easel, sketch, tattoo
   B sofa, harem, emir, Moslem
   C sombrero, guitar, embargo, cargo
   D publicity, routine, soubrette, syndicate

4. Define the Italian loans in EModE:
   A mulatto, caste, canoe, lasso, mustang
   B zemstvo, ukase, knout, pogrom, rouble
   C violin, opera, piano, libretto, sonata, tempo
   D chinchilla, condor, dorado, guano

5. Identify the Spanish loans in EModE:
   A honour, colour, traveller, waggon
   B Madonna, casino, zero, manage
   C accommodation, chocolate, excitement
   D cocoa, tobacco, banana, maize, cigar

6. Identify the Russian loans in EModE:
   A charqui, guanaco, quipu
   B taiga, tundra, samovar, balalaika

C colonel, pilot, cartridge, trophy
D radioactive, hydrogen bomb, chain

7. Define *native* Germanic loans in EModE:
A affrighted, black eye, galled, hint
B blotch, gibber, hush, phew
C cordon, livre, indigo, vase, portmanteau
D reaction, black holes, quarks

8. Determine the Greek loans in EModE:
A bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame
B mathematics, physics, psychiatry, lexicology
C axe, tyre, storey, labour, habour, organise
D robot, mazurka, Tokay, tea, bamboo, shawl

9. Define the German loans in EModE:
A coffee, kiosk, rickshaw, jinrikisha,boomerang
B decor, beau, ménage, naïve, liaison, malapropos
C plunder, poodle, swindler, blitzkrieg, transcendental
D buoy, deck, freight, keel, spool, tub, scum

10. The Renaissance and the revival of classical learning intensified borrowings from:
A Latin, Greek and French
B Latin, Greek and Germanic
C Latin, Greek and Scandinavian
D Latin, Greek and Celtic

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

1. The role of borrowing as one of the principal means of enriching Early Modern English is clearly borne out by the data: …
2. Latin technical terms preserve their original plurals: …
3. Greek loans provided mostly technical terms in various fields ranging from: …
4. At a time of intense borrowing of terminology, fields such as medicine, psychology and theology gained most: …
5. Unlike Latin, French loan words indicated the fashion among the cultivated upper ranks of introducing French words and phrases into ordinary conversation, e.g. …
6. French loans often undergo some sound substitutions and stress shifts, e.g. …
7. The 16th century borrowings from French include military and naval terms, mainly: …
8. 'Social' French loans such as: …
9. Other areas where French borrowing made an impact are the arts and literature, dress, entertainment and food, e.g. …
10. Borrowings having a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general did not, however, disrupt native continuity: …

A … about 60 per cent of the new words recorded for 1604 come from Latin and French, whereas native Germanic patterns of word-formation only cover some 20 percent of the new words.

B … *bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame, minion, vogue, class, decor, beau, faux pas, liaison, malapropos, ménage, naïve, rapport, repartee,* etc. became particularly frequent in the 17th century.

C … *It may well be that I am in this particular likewise beholden to Mr. Gayers, of whose generous freedome and bonté I have had divers testimonies heretofore* (CEEC, John Cosin, 1659: 288).

D … anglicisation takes place with affixes: **contre-** changes into **counter-** (*counterpoint*), **-té** into **-ty** (*fidelity*), and verbs in **-er** take the suffix **-ise** (*anathemise*).

E … *formula – formulae, fungus – fungi, genius – genii, genus– genera.*

F … *catastrophe* and *crisis* to *hyperbole* and *praxis*, from *dialysis, hypothesis* and *coma* to *cosmos, narcosis* and *psyche.*

G … *colonel, pilot, cartridge* and *trophy*, as well as trade loans such as *cordon, livre, indigo, vase* and *portmanteau*.

H … *anemia, appendicitis, arteriosclerosis, bronchitis, diphtheria, aspirin, insulin, morphine, extrovert* and *introvert, behaviorism, inhibition, defense mechanism, inferiority complex, psychoanalysis, ozone, natural selection, stratosphere*, etc.

I … *ballet, cabaret, champagne, denim (< serge de Nîmes), memoirs, nom-de-plume, rôle, crayon, soup vinaigrette,* etc.

J … the Germanic element remaining the backbone of the English vocabulary even after the Early Modern period.

SELF-STUDY 8

Aims:

- ✓ to identify the concept 'English versus Latin';
- ✓ to identify borrowings from contemporary languages in EModE.

8.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

8.1.1. *Academic English – Prof. David Crystal on standard vs. non-standard English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hGg-2MQVReQ

8.1.2. *Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 1 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFci7BMAX88

8.1.3. *Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 2 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mB6V6JniMJk

8.1.4. *To Be Or Not To Be- Shakespeare – Professor Sallie DelVecchio*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eet4u8MUVtM

8.1.5. Prof. Peter Saccio destroys the Shakespeare authorship question
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2YHLjE1Wh4

8.1.6. Shakespeare's Trial for fraud (Bishop's University)
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BR53TuDZ4k4

8.1.7. Was Marlowe Shakespeare Much Ado about Something
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OsJTbWF1-lg

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 11–14.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–118; 129–130.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.

Additional:

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.
- ✓ Lecture 8.

8.2. Computer tests in e-learning

True/False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement. Comment on your choice and supply your answer with examples of your own.

1. In Renaissance England the predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of Latin loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660.
2. The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from Latin.
3. There wasn't a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements.
4. By 1600 French is the greatest source of loanwords in English.
5. The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Spanish contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675.
6. Early Modern English loans from Portuguese are mostly bookish terms.
7. Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs.
8. A great many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek.
9. The influx of Greek words on a large scale began until the time of the Revival of Learning.
10. Greek words are mostly bookish borrowings.
11. Modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency.
12. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.
13. In natural sciences the preponderance of Dutch words is striking.
14. It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the German language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies.
15. Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form.
16. Greek borrowings are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them.

17. Quite a number of proper names are Russian in origin, e.g. *George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, Theodor* and still others.

18. The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary.

19. Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, Greek, Spanish and Portuguese.

20. English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

LINGUISTIC TERMS

1. **Ablaut** (also sometimes called **vowel gradation** and **vowel grades**, an alternation of vowels in the same root (or an etymologically related word) that correlates with meaning differences. Ablaut is a characteristic particularly of Indo-European languages, especially the older ones such as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin and Germanic, though the term is also used for vowel alternations in grammatically related forms in other languages. The irregular ('strong') verbs of English illustrate ablaut alternations, for example *sing/sang/sung, bring/brought/brought, seek/sought/sought, break/broke/broken, drive/drove/driven*, etc.
2. **Acronym,** a word derived from the initial letters of each of the successive parts of a compound term or successive words, for example ***UNESCO*** [yunéskow] from *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*; ***emcee*** from *'master of ceremonies'*; ***radar*** from *'radio direction and ranging'*; ***scuba*** (diving) from *'self contained underwater breathing apparatus'*; ***Gestapo*** from *German Geheime Staatspolizei 'secret state's police'*. Acronym also refers to abbreviations where the letters are spelled out: ***ASAP*** *'as soon as possible'*, ***CD*** *'compact disc'*, ***DJ*** *'disc jockey'*, ***VCR*** from *'video cassette recorder'* **Adjective** – a part of speech used to describe or qualify a noun either as a subordinate member of a noun phrase or predicatively.
3. **Allophone,** a variant of a phoneme which does not discriminate the phonemic structure of words.
4. **Amalgamation** (sometimes also misleadingly referred to as agglutination), the fusion of two or more words occurring in a phrase into a single word with a more idiomatic meaning; for example, English *never the less* > *nevertheless*; German *nicht desto weniger* > *nichtdestoweniger* 'nonetheless'; Spanish *tan poco* > *tampoco* 'neither'.
5. **Analogy,** a process whereby one form of a language becomes more like another with which it is somehow associated; that is, analogical change involves a relation of similarity in which one piece of a language changes to become more like another pattern in that language when speakers perceive the changing part as similar to the pattern which it changes to become like. For example, earlier English *brethren 'brothers'* changed to *brothers*, with *brother/brothers* coming in line with the pattern of many nouns that have **-s** plurals as in *sister/sisters, mother/mothers, son/sons* etc.
6. **Analytical grammar meanings** are those which are expressed outside the word form (word order, functional words, link and auxiliary verbs).
7. **Anglo-Saxon English** developed in England as a consequence of the Anglo-Saxons invasions in the 5th century and is often accordingly referred to as **Anglo-Saxon;** however, its oldest extant form, found in texts from the 7th century, is generally called **Old English.**
8. **Anglo-Saxons,** the Germanic peoples who settled the British Isles beginning in the 5th and 6th centuries A.D. and who spoke Old English. Conquered by the Normans in 1066, they were gradually absorbed into the Norman French-speaking population.

9. **Anthropomorphy**, transference of the name of a certain art of the human body on an inanimate object.
10. **Antonomasia**, metaphoric transition of proper names into common ones to denote a person possessing the characteristic features of the original bearer of the name.
11. **Archaism**, a word which is no longer in general use but not absolutely obsolete.
12. **Assimilation**, a partial or total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system.
13. **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (the **King James Bible),** an important event which contributed greatly to English in the way of idiomatic expressions was the first **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (also known as the **King James Bible**), published in 1611. Its verbal beauty and status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.
14. **Bede, Venerable** [*the*] of Northumbria (673-735) lived in a monastery all his life, teaching and writing. He wrote on problems of science, such as geography, astrology, climate, seasons, etc. Bede also wrote on orthography, metrics and rhetoric. His greatest work was the Latin *"Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum"*, the crowning work of his life, written in Latin and completed four years before his death. This work was translated a century and a half later by **King Alfred.**
15. **Borrowing**, resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, to further differentiate the existing concepts and to name new objects, phenomena, etc.
16. **Borrowings** are words which came to English from other languages.
17. **Bound morphemes**, those which cannot occur alone (i.e. are not words).
18. **Brothers Grimm** (Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) and Wilhelm Grimm (1786-1859), the German linguists, lexicographers and folklorists. They collected stories of the German people into well-known volumes of fairy tales. Brothers Grimm produced the major historical dictionary of the German language. Jacob Grimm formulated the sound relationships for Indo-European languages that come to be known as **Grimm's Law.**
19. **Catachresis**, misusage of the original meaning of one of the stems of the compound word.
20. **Cædmon** (c. late 7^{th} century), the first known English poet was an apparently illiterate farm-worker attached to the Abbey of Whitby during the abbacy of Hilda between 650 and 679. He wrote a hymn of nine lines about the creation of the world in Old English that was considered to be the first English poem.
21. **Chancery English** contributed to the development of a form of writing that was a standard, irrespective of the speech or dialect of the writer. Spelling was standardized without regard for pronunciation. Writing became truly conventional and arbitrary. Thus, by using Chancery English, **William Caxton** established a national literary standard in printing based on the written standard of official documentation. This was a radical change in the notion of a standard and in a standard's relationship to regional dialect and official forms. The term *Chancery* first appears in English in the late fourteenth century, referring to an additional court, presided over by the Lord Chancellor of England. **Chancery English** established special forms of spelling and handwriting that were taught to scribes for the

production of official documents.

22. **Chaucer, Geoffrey** (1340-1400), the *"Father of English Poetry",* was the greatest poet of Middle Ages. His **The Canterbury Tales** became a herald of the Renaissance. Chaucer's realistic approach and humanitarian atmosphere, his whole-hearted optimism and folk spirit make his *The Canterbury Tales* immortal **(1387,** the East Midland dialect). It is a splendid picture of the 14th c. England. It is a marvelous trilingual picture of the history of the English language of his time, its trilingualism being presented together in a profound synthesis of nature (English), culture (French), and religion (Latin). The famous opening 18-line sentence of the General Prologue to *"The Canterbury Tales"* shows how Chaucer makes meaning out of the linguistic resources of his time and place. These lines juxtapose new words of French and Latin origin with roots and forms of Old English or Anglo-Saxon origin.
23. **Common Germanic language unity** once originated on the basis of Common Indo-European language unity and later became the background of the Germanic group of languages.
24. **Common Indo-European language unity,** a number of kindred dialects which are supposed to have existed about 3000 B.C. and became the background of Indo-European language family.
25. **Communication,** the transmission and reception of information between a signaller and a receiver. Various steps in this process can be recognized. A message is formulated in the signaler's brain and is then encoded in the nervous and muscular systems. It leaves the signaller (typically via the vocal tract or hands) and is transmitted through air, paper, electrical system or other medium to the brain of the receiver (typically via the eye or ear), where it is decoded. The receiver may influence the nature of the message at any time by sending feedback to the signaller. In principle, any of the five senses can be involved, but humans tend to use only the auditory/vocal, visual and tactile modes for active communication (the other two modes smell and taste are widely employed among certain animal species).
26. **Comparative philology** studies structural affinities between languages with the aim of finding their common ancestor language.
27. **Connotation**, supplementary meaning or complementary semantic and/or stylistic shade which is added to the word's main meaning and which serves to express all sorts of emotional, expressive, evaluative overtones.
28. **Contiguity of meanings or metonymy**, semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it.
29. **Creole,** a pidgin language which became the mother tongue of a speech community. The process expanding the structural and stylistic range of the pidgin is called **creolization.**
30. **Dead languages** are those which are no longer spoken.
31. **Declension,** the list of all possible inflected forms of a noun, pronoun, or adjective.
32. **Degree,** adjectives and adverbs are usually classified into the Positive degree (the statement of a quality or attribute but implying no comparison); Comparative degree (expressing a higher or lower degree of particular quality or attribute in relation to a reference point); Superlative degree (expressing the highest or lowest degree).
33. **Denotation**, the expression of the main meaning, meaning proper of a linguistic unit in contrast to its connotation.

34. **Derivation**, such word-formation where the target word is formed by combining a stem and affixes.
35. **Diachrony**, the historical development of the system of language as the object of linguistic investigation. Diachronic, historical.
36. **Dialect,** a form of a language used in a part of a country or by a class of people.
37. **Diphthong,** a vowel sound with a syllable with a perceptible change in its quality during its production.
38. **Dual,** a grammatical category of number referring to two items.
39. **Early Modern English,** the formation of the national literary English language covers the **Early Modern English** period (c. **1475—1660 (1700)**). Henceforth we can speak of the evolution of a single literary language instead of the similar or different development of the dialects. The language rapidly evolved into a recognizable modern form, with the process of standardization hastened in the later 15th century through the invention of printing. Shakespeare and the Authorized Version of the Bible represent the peak of literary achievement.
40. **Ellipsis**, (substantivization), dropping of the final nominal member of a frequently used attributive word-group. The remaining adjective takes on the meaning and all the syntactic functions of the noun and thus develops into a new word changing its class membership and becoming homonymous to the existing adjective.
41. **English,** a member of the **western** group of the **Germanic** branch of the **Indo-European** language family spoken worldwide by a large and ever-increasing number of people – 1,000,000,000 by a conservative estimate, 1,500,000,000 by a liberal estimate. Some 400,000,000 use the language as a mother tongue, chiefly in the USA (*c.*227 million), the UK (*c.*57 million), Canada (*c.*20 million), Australia (*c.*15 million), New Zealand (*c.*3.4 million), Ireland (*c.*3.5 million) and South Africa (*c.*3.6 million). A further 400 million use it as a second language in such countries as Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania, Pakistan and the Philippines. It has official status in over 60 countries.
42. **Estuary English** (the end of the 20th c. – the beginning of the 21st c.), a variety of British English originating in the counties adjacent to the estuary of the river Thames and thus displaying the influence of London regional speech (Cockney), especially in pronunciation. The variety has now a considerable presence in the London hinterland, reaching towns over 100 miles away along the commuter roads and railways and interacting with other regional dialects. It achieved considerable public attention during the 1990s, when it reported that several commercial organizations were finding it a more attractive ('customer friendly') accent than RP.
43. **Etymological doublets,** two or more words of the same language which were derived by different routes from the same basic word.
44. **Etymological doublets**, two or more words of the same language which were derived by different roots from the same basic word.
45. **Etymological spelling** occurred in borrowed words of Latin and Greek origin when English scribers tried to preserve Latin or Greek spelling irrespective of the English pronunciation of the word.
46. **Euphemism**, metaphoric transference of the name based on the usage of conventionally acceptable words instead of unpleasant, rough ones.

47. **Extra-linguistic causes**, various changes in the life of speech community, changes in economic and social structure, changes in ideas, scientific concepts, way of life and other spheres of human activities as reflected in word meanings.
48. **Free morphemes**, those which can occur alone (i.e., which are also free forms of words).
49. **French,** a member of the Romance branch of languages, spoken by c. 72 million people as a first language, by at least a further 50 million as a country's second language and by many more as an international foreign language. First language use is chiefly in France (c. 53 million), Canada (c. 6 million, primarily in Québec), Belgium (4 million), Switzerland (1.3 million) and the USA (c. 2.5 million), with substantial numbers also in Réunion, Mauritius, Guadeloupe and other former French colonies. French has official status in over 30 countries. Standard French is based on the dialect of the Paris region, recognized as such since the 16th century.
50. **Fricative,** a speech sound which is produced as a continuous sound by forcing the air through a partially obstructed vocal tract in such a way that the friction is audible with or without a voice.
51. **Geminate,** a geminate can be defined phonetically as a sequence of identical articulation.
52. **Germanic** languages, spoken by over 550 million people as a first language (largely because of the worldwide distribution of English), belong to the Indo-European family of languages. These people descended from the Germanic tribes who lived in northern Europe during the first millennium BC. Some Germanic words are recorded in Latin authors and some Scandinavian descriptions are recorded in the runic alphabet from the 3rd century AD. The languages are usually classified into three groups: **East Germanic, North Germanic** and **West Germanic. East Germanic** is now extinct, with only Gothic in manuscript to any extent. **North Germanic** includes the Scandinavian languages of Swedish and Danish (East Scandinavian) and Norwegian, Icelandic and Faeroese (West Scandinavian), along with the older states of these languages (Old Norse), notably the literary variety of Old Icelandic. Within the **West Germanic** group such languages as English, German, Netherlandish (Dutch), Flemish (Flanders), Frisian, Afrikaans, Yiddish are identified.
53. **Grammar,** the term grammar refers to generalized statements of the regularities and irregularities found in language.
54. **Grammar category,** one of the most general characteristics of linguistic units or their classes which is expressed grammatically in a language (caw, number, tense, etc.).
55. **Grammatical meaning**, the meaning of the formal membership of a word expressed by the word's form, i.e. the meaning of relationship manifested not in the word itself but in the dependent element which is supplementary to its material part.
56. **Historical (**or **diachronic) linguistics** studies the development of a language from one stage in its history to the next.
57. **Historic present,** the use of a present tense form while narrating events which happened in the past; for example, *Two weeks ago I'm walking down this road, when I see John coming towards me*…This usage is common in contexts where the speaker wishes to convey a sense of drama, immediacy or urgency.

58. **Historical principle of spelling** presupposes considerable deviations between spoken and written traditions in a language. Changes in pronunciation are more dynamic and not always reflected in spelling.
59. **Historism**, a word which has become obsolete because the thing named is outdated and no longer used.
60. **Hybrid**, a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.
61. **Hyperbole**, metaphoric shift of the name based on hyperbolic exaggeration of a certain quality or property.
62. **International words**, words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source.
63. **Introduction of printing by Caxton** in **1476 [***the*], the mainstream in the history of English, as it affected the development of the language greatly, especially its written form. Printed books, being accessible to the greater mass of people, prioritized literacy, which, apparently, caused the impact of learning and thinking that in its turn gave the English language the level of prestige, progress, and a choice of national presence.
64. **Kindred languages** are these which have the same source of origin and are usually united into groups and families.
65. **King Alfred**, known as **Alfred the Great (849-899),** King of the Anglo-Saxons (871-899) consolidated West-Saxon political hegemony in southern England, commissioned the translation of major Latin works into Old English and provided the political aegis for the establishment of the West Saxon dialect of Old English as a standard.
66. **Language,** the symbolic, conventional use of sounds, signs or written symbols in a human society for communication and self-expression. Linguists distinguish between language viewed as an act of speaking or writing, in a given situation (often referred to by the French term *parole*, or a linguistic **performance**), the linguistic system underlying an individual's use of speech or writing (often referred to as **competence**) and the abstract system underlying the spoken or written behaviour of a whole community (often referred to by the French term *langue*).
67. **Language change,** change within a language over a period of time – a universal and unstoppable process. The phenomenon was first systematically investigated by comparative philologists at the end of the 18th century and in the present century by historical linguists and sociolinguists. All aspects of language are involved, though most attention has been paid to the areas of pronunciation and vocabulary, where changes are most noticeable and frequent.
68. **Language variety,** any system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational variables, such as regional, occupational or social class factors. The term is sometimes used more narrowly, referring to a single kind of situationally distinctive language. Varieties of English include scientific, religious, legal, formal, conversational, American, Welsh and Cockney.
69. **Language norm,** a total amount of rules and language means which are accepted as correct by a certain society (group of speakers) at a certain stage of its development. It is closely connected with the notion of literary language.
70. **Late Modern English** (c. 1950 –) Britain retreats from empire. New standardized varieties of English emerge in newly independent countries. English becomes the international language of communications technology. American English becomes

the dominant world variety.

71. **Latin,** the parent language of the Romance branch, spoken during the first millennium BC in Rome and the surrounding provinces, then rising and declining in Europe, the Middle East and Africa along with the fortunes of the Roman Empire. It is preserved in inscriptions from the 6th century BC and in literature from the 6th century BC (**Classical Latin**). Major figures include the poet Virgil, the orator Cicero and the historian Livy, all active in or around the 1st century BC. The **Vulgar Latin** used from around the 3rd century AD in everyday speech throughout the Roman Empire gave rise to the Romance branch of languages. A **Renaissance Latin** is associated with Dante, Petrarch and others in the 14th century. As the chief language of education, Latin later exercised considerable influence on the way grammar was taught in schools; Latin grammatical categories came to be routinely used in the description of modern European languages.

72. **Lexical meaning**, the material meaning of a word, i.e. the meaning of the main material part of the word (as distinct from its formal, or grammatical, part), which reflects the concept the given word expresses and the basic properties of the thing (phenomenon, quality, state, etc.) the work denotes.

73. **Lexical morpheme**, generalized term for root and derivational morphemes, as expressing lexical meanings in contrast to flexional (morphemes) that express grammatical meanings.

74. **Lexical set**, 1) a group of words more or less corresponding in their main semantic component, i.e. belonging to the same semantic field; 2) a group of words having the same generic meaning.

75. **Linguistic causes**, factors acting within the language system.

76. **Linguistic phonetics** analyses sounds used in languages and it provides a description of how they are produced by the speech organs (articulatory phonetics), how they are perceived by hearers (auditory phonetics), and how they are transmitted from the speaker to the hearer (Acoustic phonetics).

77. **Loan translations** (calques), borrowing by means of literally translating words (usually one part after another) or word combinations, by modeling words after foreign patterns.

78. **London dialect** [*the*], comprising predominantly features of East Midland, became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14th century. The London dialect had extended to the first two universities of Cambridge and Oxford, thus constituting the famous literary and cultural London – Oxford – Cambridge triangle.

79. **Main nominative meaning**, the main, direct meaning of a word immediately referring to objects, phenomena, actions and qualities in extralinguistic reality (referent) and reflecting the general understanding by the speaker.

80. **Metathesis,** an interchange of sounds or syllables in a word (Old English *hwat* – Modern English *what*).

81. **Middle English,** the name given to the English language spoken in Great Britain from the 11th century to the 15th century (1066-1475). The English, or rather, Anglo-Norman literary monuments of Medieval England reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: religious works were written in Latin; chivalric poetry was predominantly French, while folk-lore continued to develop in English. Thus, without losing its native basis, the English language was becoming in the 14th

century more flexible and profiting by the trilingual situation to have been finally turned into a general language for all layers of society.

82. **Modern English** (**New English**), the period from **1700** onwards contributed to the standardization of the language. The other major development of this period was the establishment of English as a significant language throughout the Empire. This global expansion continued throughout the 19th century. The post-colonial expansion of English around the world has led to the rise of new regional varieties, both first language (e.g. American, Australian, South African) and second language (e.g. Indian, Nigerian, Singaporean), the nature of which has begun to be investigated only in recent times.
83. **Monophthong,** a single vowel sound with no change in quality from beginning to end of its production.
84. **Morpheme**, the smallest indivisible two-facet (possessing sound form and meaning) language unit.
85. **Morphological segmentation** (morphologic divisibility), the ability of a word to be divided into such elements as root, stem end affix (or affixes).
86. **Morphology** describes the form and function of word-forms with respect to their grammatical relevance.
87. **Mutation,** the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable.
88. **Neologism**, a word or a word combination that appears or is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.
89. **Nominative-derivative meanings**, other meanings in a polysemantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.
90. **Norman Conquest** of **1066 [***the*], the date of the Norman Conquest in England. The conquest symbolizes the beginning of a new social, cultural and linguistic era in Great Britain, i.e. the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th century was French or **Norman French.**
91. **Norman-French** or Anglo-French, the language of the ruling class in medieval history of English, was the variety of the Northern dialect of French, spoken predominantly by Norman French-speaking noblemen and their descendants in Britain. French or Norman French was immediately established as the dominant language of the ruling class from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th century. Undoubtedly French as the language of conquerors influenced English greatly. Strikingly but Anglo-Saxon dialects were not suppressed. During the following 300 years communication in England went on in three languages: 1) at the monasteries learning was conducted in Latin**;** 2) **Norman-French** was spoken at court and in official institutions; 3) the common people held firmly to their mother tongue.
92. **Obsolete word**, a word which has dropped out of the language altogether.
93. **Occasional word**, a word which a speaker of a certain language coins when he needs it, i.e. a word used by a speaker or by a writer "once", coined for one occasion.
94. **Old English,** the oldest extant form of the English language spoken in England from the 5th century to the 11th century **(449-1066).** It is an inflecting language which preserves many features of Germanic languages. Old English is the language

of Anglo Saxon poetry and prose, dating from around the **7th** century. The epic poem, Beowulf, believed to have been composed in the 8th century A.D and preserved in manuscript in the 10th c., is the chief example of this period.

95. **Opposition**, a difference between two (or more) homogeneous units which is capable of fulfilling a semiological function, i.e. a semiologically relevant difference.
96. **Palatalization,** the raising of the tongue towards the hard palate, normally as a secondary feature of articulation.
97. **Palatal mutation** (i -umlaut), a series of combinative changes in vowels when there is an *i* or *j* in the following syllable.
98. **Paradigmatics**, 1) associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of words in language as distinct from linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech (syntagmatics); 2) an approach to language when the elements of its system are regarded as associated units joined by oppositional relationship.
99. **Paradigm** is a total amount of word forms possible for a speech in a definite language.
100. **Paradigm**, the system of the grammatical forms of a word.
101. **Pejorative development**, the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge.
102. **Person,** a deictic category relating participants one to another in a linguistic situation.
103. **Personal pronoun,** a pronoun referring to one of the categories of person.
104. **Phoneme,** the smallest unit of human speech representing a certain amount of differentiating features proper to a definite language and is able to discriminate the phonemic structure of words. Phoneme – the smallest unit of phonology. The phonetic realization of a phoneme may vary: its phonetic variants are called allophones.
105. **Phonological distribution,** an amount of contexts a phoneme occurs in.
106. **Phonological principle of spelling,** based on a very close correlation between spoken and written traditions in a language.
107. **Phonology,** concerned with sounds as elements of a pattern or a system: the sound part of language is governed by regularities of general principles. The task of phonology is to discover or extract those principles.
108. **Pidgin,** a language with a markedly reduced grammatical structure, lexicon and stylistic range. The native language of no one, it emerges when members of two mutually unintelligible speech communities attempt to communicate; often called a **trade language,** when seen in the context of the expansionist era of colonial economies. Pidgins contrast with creoles, which are created when pidgins acquire native speakers.
109. **Plosive,** a stop released with a regressive pulmonic air stream.
110. **Potential word**, a derivative or a compound word which does not actually exist (i.e. has not appeared in any text), but which can be produced at any moment in accordance with the productive word-forming patterns of the language.
111. **Pre-English** (– c. AD 450), local languages in Britain. They are Celtic ones. After the Roman Conquest, c. 55 BC, Latin becomes the dominant language of culture and government. Many communities in Britain are bilingual: Celtic-Latin.

112. Productivity, the ability of being used to form (after specific patterns) new, occasional or potential words which are readily understood by the speakers of a language.

113. Pronoun, a part of speech used instead of noun or noun phrase.

114. Public School of English (the 18th – the 19th c), the dialect of the East Midland triangle i.e. *Oxford – Cambridge – London* was used as a new educational standard. The phonetician Daniel Jones called this standard *Public School of English.* Public School of English is the origin of what is nowadays known as RP, i.e. *Received Pronunciation* – the British standard of the social and educational elite.

115. Quality, the characteristic timber of a speech sound depending on the shape of the resonance chambers in the vocal tract, which in turn depends on the position of the lips, tongue and velum. The difference in quality enables different sounds to be distinguished from one another.

116. Quantity, duration of a speech sound as a phonological feature. Quantity is a distinctive feature in some languages. Quantity often combines with quality as a distinguishing feature.

117. Received Pronunciation (RP) (the 19th–the 20th c.), the regionally neutral, educationally influential accent in British English, an accent which seems to have arisen in the prestigious 'public schools' (private schools) in the 19th century. No more than three per cent of Britons speak with an RP accent, though many more have a **near-RP** accent which differs only in a few particulars. RP is the accent usually taught to foreign learners of English in Britain. Nevertheless, regional and social variation in accents in Britain is very great, greater than anywhere else in the English-speaking world and the urban accents of Newcastle, Glasgow or Liverpool may be unintelligible to outsiders. In the USA, distinctive and readily identifiable regional accents of English are confined to New England, the east coast and the south, the areas which have been settled longest. West of the Appalachians, the differences level out into the great continuum of **General American** accents, with a minimal local variation apart from a few large cities. When this accent displays features of regional influence, it is known as **modified RP.**

118. Reconstruction, a method in historical studies of language whereby a hypothetical system of sounds or forms, representing an earlier, non-extant state of a language, is established from an analysis of the attested sounds and forms of extant texts. This is called **internal reconstruction**, if evidence from only one language is used and **comparative reconstruction**, if evidence from a number of related languages is used. The comparison of forms taken from cognate languages to determine the details of their historical relationships is called the comparative method.

119. Renaissance [*the*] (the 14th.–17th c.), the great era of intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th. – 17th centuries, when art, literature, and ideas of ancient Greece and Italy were discovered again and widely studied, causing a rebirth of activity and aspiring minds, freedom in creating words and meanings. In England the Renaissance began a little before 1500. Undoubtedly it was a time of radical changes occurred in the spiritual life of the newly-arising nation with its new-born culture that was taking an unmistakably national shape. During the Renaissance English began acquiring the prevalent analytic features.

120. Rhotacism, the occurrence of [r] in place of some other speech sound.

121. Root is a part of a word bearing its lexical meaning.

122. **Root**, the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected.

123. **Samuel Johnson's Dictionary** (1755). Samuel Johnson was one of those 18th century scholars who believed that the English language should be purified and corrected. In the two volumes of his DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (1755) he included quotations from several hundred authors of the 17th and 18th centuries. The entries of his dictionary contain definitions of meaning, illustrations of usage, etymologies and stylistic comments. He regulated current usage by giving precise definitions, which, as a rule, were noticeable improvements upon those given by his predecessors. His Dictionary set the standards for lexicography for more than a century.

124. **Saussure, Ferdinand de** (1857–1913), a Swiss linguist whose theoretical ideas are widely regarded as providing the foundation for the science of linguistics. His thought is summarized in the posthumously published *Cours de linguistique générale* (‘Course in general linguistics’, 1916), consisting of a reconstruction by two of Saussure’s students of his lecture notes and other materials.

125. **Semantic extension** (widening of meaning), application of the word to a wider variety of referents.

126. **Semantic field**, part (‘slice’) of reality singled out in human experience, and, theoretically, covered in language by more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

127. **Semantic restriction** (narrowing of meaning), restriction of the types or range of referents denoted by the word.

128. **Shakespeare, William** (1564–1616), *the founder of the National Literary English Language,* the greatest of the great creators of the language: in the sphere of vocabulary, syntax, and semantics he is absolutely innovative, unsurpassed and unrivalled. He managed to convey through his masterpieces the **Renaissance** spirit of optimistic hopefulness and joy, of ultimate triumph of love and freedom over dark forces of hatred and lust for power. It is a usual and reasonable opinion that Shakespeare's greatness is nowhere more visible than in the series of tragedies — “*Hamlet”, “Othello”, “King Lear*”. With a few exceptions Shakespeare did not invent the plot of his plays. Sometimes he used old stories *("Hamlet")*, (the source of the plot *("Tragical History of Hamlet, prince of Denmark").*

129. **Similarity of meaning** or **metaphor**, semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other.

130. **Sociolinguistics**, branch of linguistics studying causation between language and the life of the speaking community.

131. **Sonorant** versus **non-sonorant** (obstruent), sonorants are produced with the vocal tract in a position where spontaneous voicing is possible, sound formed with greater constriction in the vocal tract, e.g. stops, fricatives, affricates are non-sonorants.

132. **Sonority,** a resonant quality of a sound such as "loudness" or ""length" which makes it more prominent than another.

133. **Standard English,** the variety of English used as a standard throughout the English-speaking world; in Britain often called ‘BBC English’ or ‘Oxford English’, though these terms relate more to the use of Received Pronunciation than to the use of grammar and vocabulary. Since the 1960s, particular attention has been paid to the emergence of different national standards in areas where large numbers of people speak English as a first or second language: there are important regional

differences between the UK, the USA, Canada, Australia, South Africa, the West Indies, India, West Africa and several other parts of the English-speaking world.

134. **Stem,** a part of a word without a flexion.
135. **Stem**, the part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and affixes are added.
136. **Strong declension,** an indefinite declension.
137. **Strong verbs** are those which express, past forms by means of changing the root vowel.
138. **Substratum,** under-layer.
139. **Synchronic studies** are concerned with the structure of a language at one (usually the contemporary) stage only.
140. **Synchrony**, a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language.
141. **Synecdoche**, semantic process consisting in giving the name of the part for the whole or the name of the whole for the part.
142. **Syntagmatics**, linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech as distinct from associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of word in language (paradigmatics).
143. **Synthetical grammar meanings** expressed within the word form (flexions, changing the root vowel, affixation, suppletive forms, etc.).
144. **Taboo**, prohibition of the usage of a word caused by prejudices, superstitions as a safeguard against supernatural forces.
145. **The Great Vowel Shift,** a phonological change of Early New English period, the essence of which is narrowing of all Middle English long vowels and diphthongization of the narrowest long ones.
146. **Tribe** , a racial group, especially one united by language and custom, living as a community under one or more chief.
147. **Velar,** a speech sound articulated with the tongue touching or approaching the velum.
148. **Verb phrase,** a group of verbs which together have the same syntactic function as a single verb (e.g. *He asked /may have asked*); also called a **verbal group** or **verbal cluster.** In such sentences, one verb is the **main verb** or **lexical verb**; other verbs are subordinate to it – notably, the **auxiliary verbs.** A verb followed by a nonverbal particle is a **phrasal verb.**
149. **Verner's Law,** a sound change, first worked by the Danish linguist Karl Verner (1846-96), which explained a class of apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law. He found that Grimm's Law worked well whenever the stress fell on the root syllable of the Sanskrit word; but when it fell on another syllable, the consonants behave differently. Voiceless plosives then did not stay as voiceless fricatives, but became voiced plosives.
150. **Vocabulary**, the totality of words in a language.
151. **Weak verbs** are those which express past forms by means of a dental suffix.
152. **Word-formation**, the system of derivative types of words and the process of creating new words from the material available in the language after certain structural and semantic formulas and patterns.
153. **Word-forming pattern**, a certain type of a stable structure with a generalizing lexico-categorial meaning.

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