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AN INTRODUCTION TO OLD ENGLISH

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Навчальний посібник спрямований на формування у студентів мовно-мовленнєвої компетентності аналізувати та пояснювати лінгвістичні явища з точки зору їх історичного розвитку. Структурно посібник складається з 6 тематичних модулів: Theoretical Aspects, Germanic languages, Old English 450-1100 A.D., Old English Phonology, Old English Grammar and Old English Vocabulary; у зазначених вище модулях викладено основні етапи розвитку фонетичної і граматичної будови давньоанглійської мови, зміни її лексичного складу та словотворчих засобів. Теоретичний матеріал підкріплений завданнями і тестами для практичних занять та самостійної роботи із можливістю застосування мультимедійних технологій з метою вдосконалення знань студентів з історії англійської мови.

Для студентів-філологів вищих навчальних закладів.

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PREFACE

Our language can be seen as an ancient city: a maze of little streets and squares, of old and new houses, and of houses with additions from various periods; and this surrounded by a multitude of new boroughs with straight regular streets and uniform houses.

(Ludwig Wittgenstein. *Philosophical investigations*, translated by G. E. M. Anscombe. – Oxford: Blackwell, 1967: 18)

The present educational manual *"An Introduction to Old English"* and the course, of which it is a part of, are designed for students who wish to learn the basics of Old English and who would like to get a feel for the earliest stages of the historical development of the English language.

In general, this course will supply students with an overview of the history of English through analysis of internal factors (phonology, grammar and lexis) and external ones – the political, social, and intellectual forces that have determined the course of that development.

In addition to raising awareness of language observation, this guide will provide students with an understanding of a range of key issues related to the study of language history such as synchrony/diachrony, language variation/language change, statics/dynamics and causes of its gradual change. It will also consider such aspects as sources and records of language evolution, regional and national differences in its development, etc.

The historical account for language phenomena promotes *"a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us to find coherence in many of the fluctuations and conflicts of the present-day English language use. Above all, it satisfies the deep-rooted sense of curiosity people have about their linguistic heritage. People like to be aware of their linguistic roots"* (David Crystal).

The course is taught through 6 EDUCATIONAL MODULES which are structured as follows:

LECTURES – theoretical points for discussion according to the curriculum, references to theoretical items, questions for self-control.

SEMINARS – tests, reading practice, analysis (phonological, grammatical and etymological) of Old English texts.

SELF-STUDY –additional theory, computer tests based on authentic videos in e-learning, etc.

All these sections of educational modules are aimed at understanding the evolution of English and putting into practice a range of skills necessary for linguistic research.

This handbook would not have been possible without the help of many people. It wouldn't have existed if **Professor Oleksandr D. Oguy**, Ph.D., D.Sc. (*Yuri Fedkovych Chernivtsi National University*) had not suggested the idea of arranging for a series of lectures on history of English on the modular system. Undoubtedly without his knowledge, experience and constant assistance this work wouldn't have been completed. I am deeply indebted to Professor Oleksandr D. Oguy for his valuable suggestions, supervision and encouragement.

My best thanks are to **Professor Nina G. Ischenko** Ph.D., D.Sc. (NTUU *"Kyiv Polytechnic Institute"*) for her constructive remarks and propositions that were very beneficial in improving the manuscript.

I owe a great debt to **Professor Valery V. Mykhailenko**, Ph.D., D.Sc. (*Bukovinian State University of Finance and Economics*) for his persistence to work much on this draft that it should be correct. Thanks to Professor Valery V. Mykhailenko, multimedia has begun to be actively implemented at our university.

I would like to thank **Professor Roman V. Vas'ko,** Ph.D., D.Sc. (*Kyiv Linguistic National University*) for his innovative ideas at making the handbook a challenging one that can cause our students to think and work hard. I am very grateful to Professor Roman V. Vas'ko for his patience in giving much thought to the manuscript that it could be competitive.

My sincerest thanks are to **Professor of English and Translation Michelle E. Lampton**, MA, University of Leeds, Great Britain (*Visiting English-language Professor at Yuri Fedkovych Chernivtsi National University)* for her invaluable assistance and intellectual work on re-proofing, verifying and improving the accuracy and clarity of the whole manuscript and providing me with very important and helpful suggestions.

I am very grateful to **Associate Professor Volodymur P. Khalupko**, Head of the Chair for his benevolence, tact, encouragement and collaboration.

I would like to thank **TA Oleksandr Pushkar** for his constant readiness to create the new projects for our students: **http: //oldenglish.at.ua.**

And I would like to thank **my students** who have helped me improve the way of teaching, especially those who took the course of history of English in 2008–2012 and happily submitted to testing the SELF-STUDY activities in e-learning.

THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE HISTORY

LECTURE 1

*"…no understanding of **the English language** can be very satisfactory without a notion of **the history of the language"***
(Paul Roberts)

Aims:

- ✓ to familiarize students with the notion of the standard history of English;
- ✓ to account for major external and internal influences on its development;
- ✓ to identify methods for studying this subject;
- ✓ to define the main types of language change and language variation.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
1.1. The origins and history of English
1.2. Methods of studying the history of English
1.3. Internal and external language history
1.4. Synchrony versus diachrony
1.5. Language change and language variation
1.5.1. *Sound changes*
1.5.2. *Grammatical changes*
1.5.3. *Lexical changes*
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

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:

1. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 9–48.
2. Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language*. – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 1–15.
3. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Holyheard, 1995. – P. 1–3.
4. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language* – Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 1–13.
5. Gerry Knowles. *A Cultural History of the English Language*. – London: Arnold, a member of the Hodder Headline Group, 1999. – P. 1–17.
6. Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language,* 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – P. 1–7.
7. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 5–9.

Additional:

1. Richard Hogg. *An Introduction to Old English*. – Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2002. – P. 1–2.

Introduction

The subject **History of English** is a linguistic discipline that surveys the history of English from its origins as a dialect of Germanic tribes through the literary documents of its 1,500-year period to Present-day English. It will allow students to develop an understanding of the reasons languages change and how they change. Finally, it will enable them to gain some knowledge of the origins of contemporary English and of the provenance of a number of systematic and unsystematic traits of Modern English. In this course, we will look at the literary, historical, cultural, political and scientific underpinnings of the English language people use today.

History of English has been studied during two semesters. In the 6th term we will deal with *An Introduction to Old English.* We will try to perceive the ancient roots of the English language and how the language people speak today developed in spoken and written forms over the Old English period (449-1066). Accordingly, the 7th term will be concerned with the historical development of ***Middle English*** (1066-1475), ***Early Modern English*** (1475-1700) and ***Modern English*** (1700-the present).

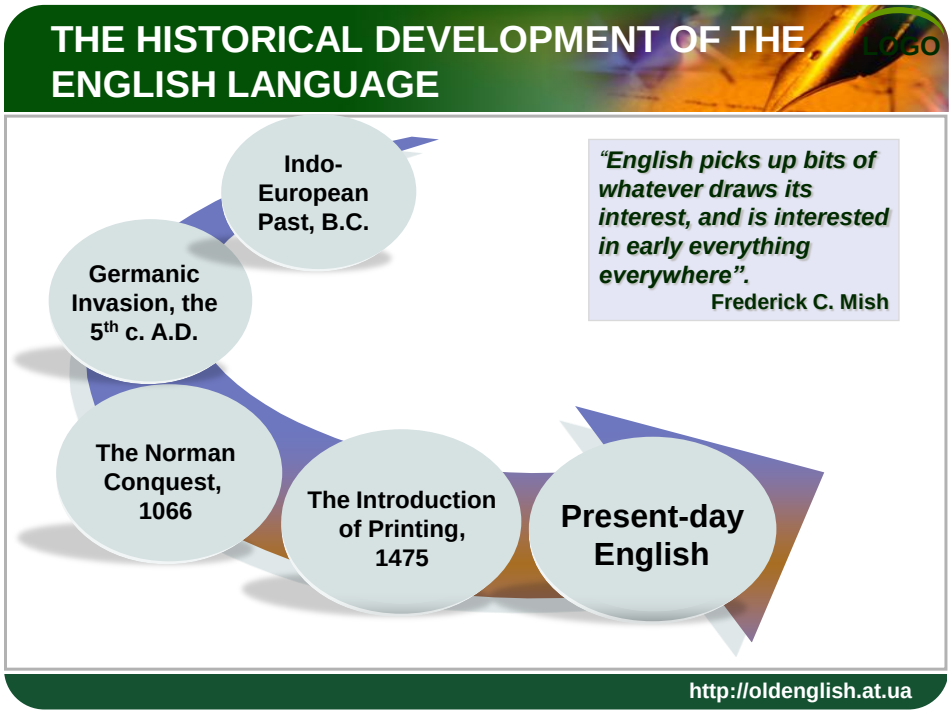


Figure 1.1. The evolution of the English language

We have chosen the whole term (the 6th) for dealing with **Old English** as it accounts for many of the processes that caused the appearance of Modern English.

So the spring semester we'll begin with the study of the Indo-European languages, originating probably 5,000 years ago, from which the modern and classical European, Iranian and Indian languages evolved. Out of this Indo-European matrix emerged Germanic-speaking peoples in the north of Europe, some of them, mainly Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians, came to the British Isles and settled there. We will learn how the Germanic languages engendered English and how the relationship between the Anglo-Saxons and the Romans gave rise to the language and culture and to certain words that still survive in English today. Predominantly we'll focus on the linguistic characteristics of Old English, its internal structure: spelling, phonetics/phonology, grammar, vocabulary. To understand the history of English means to understand its culture and literature. While reading such samples of the Old English literary tradition as *"Cædmon's Hymn"*, *"Beowulf"*, Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"*, *"Anglo-Saxons Chronicle"* we will learn about the world of Anglo-Saxons, their contacts with other peoples, their religion, mythology and culture.

In sum, the purpose of this course is to trace the development of the English language from its earliest forms up to the present. To do so, we need to standardize a basic terminology for its study and, mainly, we need to know the different points of view of linguists on the historical development of the English language and its current usage.

1.1. The origins and history of English

Today we are going to outline the standard history of the English language,

account for some theoretical issues, such as methods of its study, internal and external language history, synchrony versus diachrony, language diversity and changes in sounds, grammar and vocabulary and supply these items with examples so that we can perceive the ways the language has changed over hundreds of years, i.e. the ways in which **English** developed from Old to Modern and how the development of the language in the 19th – 21st centuries affected its transformation into a global language. Despite the fact that this term we will learn the history of Old English, at the beginning of the 1st lecture we will try to highlight the mainstream events and written evidence of the whole external history that has influenced the development of the language that we can cognize the diversity, significance and influence of different processes on the linguistic changes and succeed in explaining them in subsequent lectures and seminars.

"**English** is a member of the **western** group of the **Germanic branch** of the **Indo-European** language family. In this sense **David Crystal** admits that **English** is **closest** in structure to **Frisian** though hardly … known about the ancient **Frisians** and their role in the **invasion of Britain".**
(*Crystal, 1995: 6*)

Before we start tracing the historical development of the English language, we will formulate a definition of a working notion of what language is. Traditionally the term **language** may be defined as a system of signs and symbols by means of which people communicate and cooperate; express meanings and feelings; share knowledge and experience.

"Language is a purely **human** and **non-instinctive** method of **communicating ideas, emotions,** and **desires** by **means** of a **system** of **voluntary produced symbols"**.
(*Edward Sapir*)

"When we study **human language**, we are approaching what some might call the **"human essence"**, the **distinctive qualities** of **mind** that are, so far as we know, **unique to man".**
(*Noam Chomsky*)

It seems quite appropriate at this point to inquire about the beginnings of English and try to see what the historical account of the **English** language is.

Old English or **Anglo Saxon** is the name given to the English language spoken in England from the 5th century to the 11th century **(449-1066).** It is the language of **Anglo-Saxon poetry** and **prose,** dating from around the **7th century.**

Old English literary heritage provides an opportunity to examine the linguistic data and gives an account of the **sounds, spellings, grammar,** and **vocabulary** of **Old English.**

In *"The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language"* (1995) David Crystal has extended his theory to account for the difference between **Anglo-Saxon** and **Old**

English:

*…"The name **Anglo-Saxon** came to refer in the **16th** century to all aspects of the **early period** – people, culture, and language… but since the **19th** century, when the history of languages came to be studied in detail, **Old English** has been the preferred name for the language…"*

Old English** emphasizes the continuing development of English, from Anglo-Saxon times through **'Middle English'** to **the present day.

… Some authors … still use the term **Anglo-Saxon** for the language, the choice of this name … the language in this early period is very different from what is later to be found under the heading of **English.** (*Crystal, 1995:8*)

In our lectures we will try to understand the noteworthy, salient, and sometimes disputable ideas of famous linguists concerning the process of its development. Most perspective and useful treatments of theory and practice in the history of the English language can be found in detailed researches made by Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable, David Crystal, Dennis Freeborn, Elly van Gelderen, Richard Hogg, Seth Lerer, Valery V. Mykhailenko, T.A. Rastorguyeva, L. Verba and other scholars.

In today's lecture we will refer, for the most part, to D. Crystal's *The Stories of English* (2004) and S. Lerer's *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition (2008) that concentrate greatly on the standardization of English and on the relationships between pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary from the historical perspective. In their works they describe the stages of language development in the emergence of what has come to be called **'Standard English',** though David Crystal argues the *correctness* of the notion 'Standard English'. In his opinion, a **standard** is a variety of language which has acquired special prestige within a community, claiming that *"there is no single story of English, but several, with waves of **Anglo-Saxons** arriving in various locations, and laying the foundations of later dialect difference"* (Crystal, 2005: 1)

David Crystal was born in 1941 and spent his early years in Holyhead, **North Wales.** Crystal went to St Mary's College, and University College London, where he taught English and obtained his **Ph.D. in 1966**. **Doctor Crystal is Honorary Professor of Linguistics** at the **University of Wales, Bangor.** He has published over **ninety books**, including ***The Stories of English* (2004),** ***The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (1995, 2003),** ***Who Cares About English Usage?* (1985, 2000),** ***The English Language* (2002, 2nd edn.),** etc.).

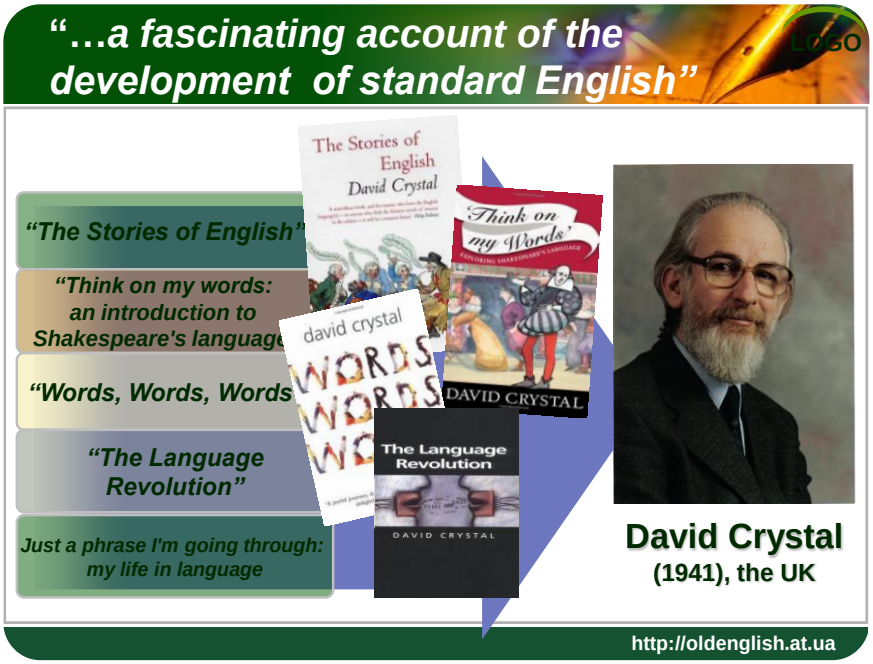


Figure 1.2. A range of Crystal's 'marvellous books' (Philip Pullman) on the English language

There is a widely recognized **Standard English**: the dialectal variety that has been codified in dictionaries, grammars, and usage handbooks (Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English, 1999: 18).

> **Standard** is a form of a language, or a standard accent, is one that is usually used by the most educated people in a country, and is therefore considered more widely acceptable or **"correct"** than other forms, and taught at schools and universities. The standard language is the one normally used for writing. ***I'm not*** is **Standard English; *I ain't*** is **non-standard**, or sub-standard.

Despite the debates among scholars (Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable, David Crystal, Seth Lerer, Richard M. Hogg, Ishtla Singh, Valery V. Mykhailenko, T.A. Rastorguyeva, Jeremy J. Smith, etc.) concerning the standard or real history of English, I would like to present the chronological chain of events which traditionally constitute the standard history of the English language.

So this history usually goes something like this:

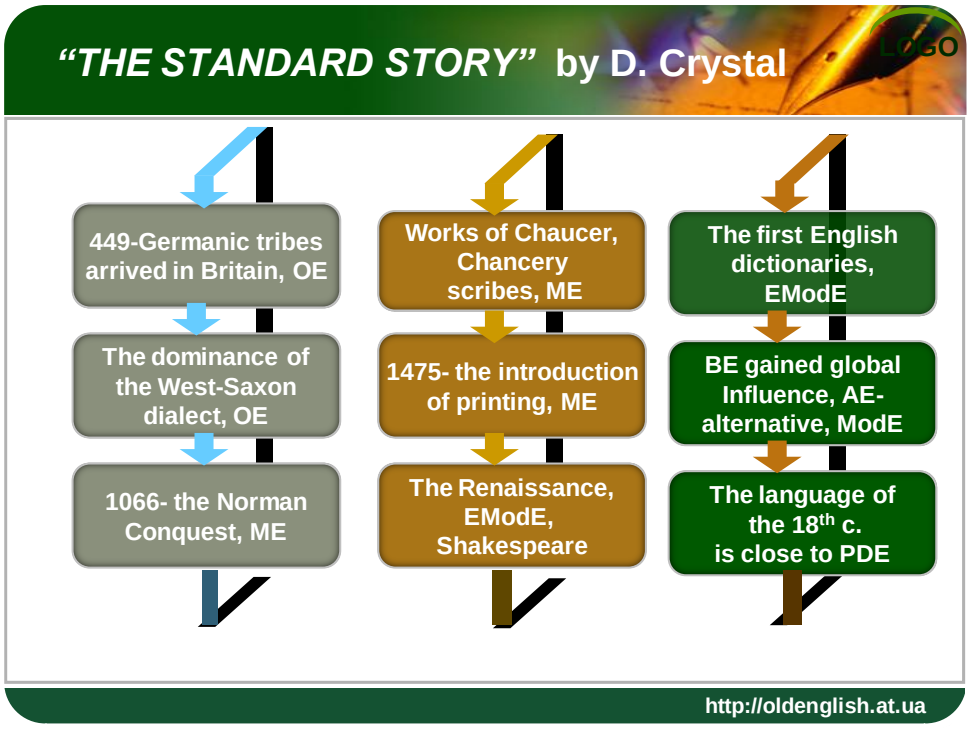


Figure 1.3. The main events that constitute the evolution of English

In the year 449 **Germanic tribes** (**Angles, Saxons** and **Jutes**) arrived in Britain from the European mainland, displaced the native Celtic, and established a single language, *Englisc*, which was Anglo-Saxon in character. The Anglo-Saxon invasion must have been ruthless in its character. The invaders practically destroyed all the remnants of Roman culture, the Celtic way of life, economy and social structure; they killed, plundered and laid the country to waste.

Anglo-Saxons were the West Germanic tribes (**Angles, Saxons, Jutes**, and **Frisians**) who invaded Britain in the fifth century (**449**).They came across the North Sea from what is today known as northern **Germany** and **Denmark.** The native inhabitants of **Britain** – **Celts** used to speak a **Celtic language**, which was displaced quickly.

Only with the introduction of Christianity (the end of the 6th c. (597AD)) was Roman civilization reintroduced into the country again and Latin words entering the language of Anglo-Saxons since all the religious books were written in Latin. The monasteries became the centres of learning and education. Not surprisingly the poets and writers of that period imitated Latin books about early Christians; they tried to compose religious stories about the historical legends, beliefs, ties of kinship, and tribal relations of the Anglo-Saxons themselves. Among such great poets whose poetic magnificence reached our days were **Cædmon**, **Cynewulf** and the **Venerable Bede.**

In *"The Ecclesiastical History"* **Bede** writes about the first Anglian poet **Cædmon** who, as the legend says, "*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".* According to Bede, Cædmon was unable to sing and thus couldn't take part in the socializing among the cowherds. One evening he was visited by an angel,

who asked him to sing of the creation – and, miraculously, he sung a hymn.

Cædmon, the unlearned shepherd from Whitby, a famous abbey in Yorkshire, became England's **first Christian poet,** sometime in the **late 7th** c.

He created verses in his native language, in the **Northumbrian dialect. *"Cædmon's Hymn",*** composed between 657 and 680, – the earliest **English poem** and the **first example** of **Old English poetic vocabulary.**

The **Northumbrian dialect** is an **Anglian dialect** that was spoken by the **Angles** who lived to the north of the river **Humber** in the **north-east** of **England**. The **Northumbrian language** was predominant in Britain during the **7th-8th** centuries. This domination was brought to an **end** in the **9th** century by the Viking invasions.

Bede's *Ecclesiastical History* focuses on the growth of Christianity in Britain, but its scope is much wider and it is recognized as the most valuable source we have for early English history. Bede's wide learning and keen intellect quickly made the book an authority throughout Europe. A translation into Old English was instigated or even made by King Alfred the Great (Crystal, 2005: 17).

Bede or **Bæda** (OE), a **Northumbrian monk,** was born in Monkton on Tyne in 673. He became a priest at thirty, working as a writer and a teacher. A doctor of the Church, Bede was canonized in 1899. His feast-day is on the 25th of May. ***"The Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation"*** written in ***Latin*** was his **masterpiece.**

"… I, Bede, servant of Christ *and priest, send greetings to the well beloved king Ceolwulf.*

And I send you the history which I lately wrote about ***the Angles and Saxons,*** *for yourself to read and examine at leisure, and also to copy out and impact to others …; and I have confidence in your zeal, because you are very diligent and inquisitive…"*

Cynewulf became a monastery poet, versifying the lives of saints in such poems as *"Christ"*, *"Elene"*, and *"Juliana"*. Two of Cynewulf's poems, *"Elene"* and *"Juliana"*, are celebrated creations due to being the first ones to introduce female characters.

The link that connected **Northumbrian culture** with that of **Wessex** was the poetry of **Cynewulf** (750-825), educated at York. Feeling *"the shining of the cross upon him",* he left his occupation of a scop for that of a monastery poet (England: History, Geography, Culture 1976:31).

Most writings of that period are shown to be preserved in the **West-Saxon dialect**, the language of King Alfred, spoken in the politically and culturally dominant region of southern England around Winchester. West-Saxon constituted of two parts: Early West-

Saxon and Late West-Saxon.

The **West-Saxon dialect** or (**Wessex**) – is a standard literary dialect that was spoken by the **Saxons** who lived in the south of **the Thames** and **the Bristol Channel. Wessex** was the only kingdom that remained independent; hence the **West-Saxon** dialect was made the **official language** of **Britain** by the **10th c.**

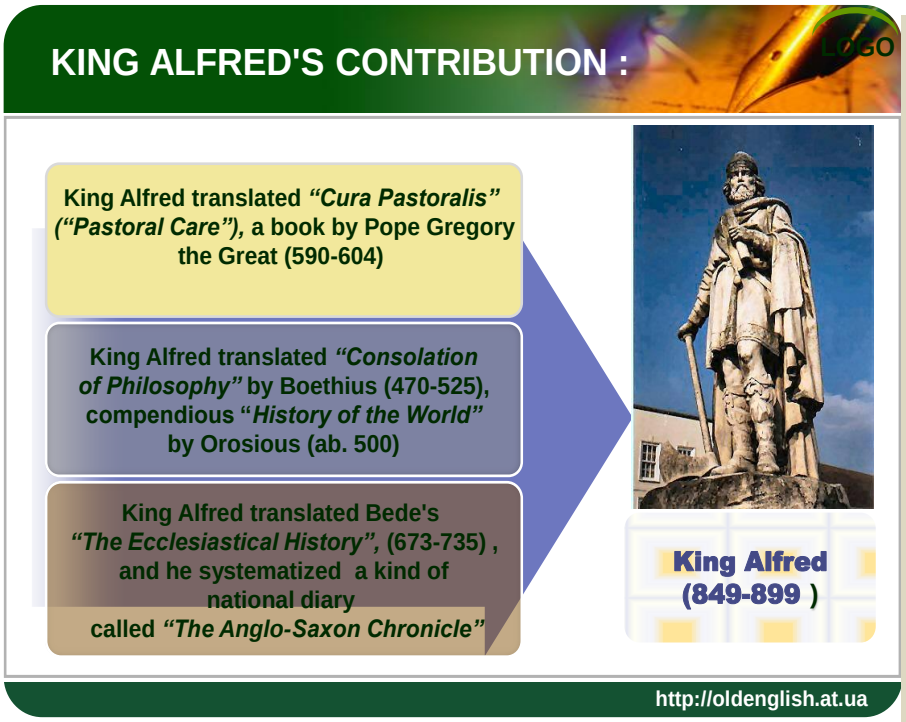
The latter part of the 8th c. was a period of Northumbrian supremacy but it did not last long since Scandinavians began their raids on Britain. Only **Wessex** could bear the attacks of the Norsemen and head the resistance.

In the 9th c. **Wessex** succeeded in consolidating all the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms **(East Anglia, Northumbria, Mercia, Kent, Sussex** and **Essex)** into a **unified country**, which advanced feudalism.

So, **Wessex** became the political and cultural **centre** of **England,** especially when the literary tradition began flourishing under the **reign of King Alfred (871–899).**

The former (Early West-Saxon) characterizes the literature that was written under the influence of **King Alfred**, known as **Alfred the Great (849-899),** who introduced a revival of religion, learning, culture, and intellectual efflorescence. King Alfred was born in Wantage in Oxfordshire, was the fifth son of King Ethelwulf, and became King of Wessex from 871 to 899.When he came to the throne, the Danes had already conquered much of Northumbria, parts of **Mercia**, and **East Anglia,** and threatened to subdue **Wessex** itself. In 878 **Alfred** 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 was the only English king ever formally titled **'the Great'.**



Alfred the **Great** wrote a preface to ***"Cura Pastoralis"*** (893) in which he recalls the pre-conquest state of culture and complains of the decay of learning in England. Alfred contrasts the early days of Christianity with his own time, for which the destruction caused by the Vikings would have been largely to blame (p.25).This book was part of the great programme of **learning.**

Figure 1.5. King Alfred's contribution to the development of learning, culture, and literature

Undoubtedly, **King Alfred's** greatest role was his outstanding contribution to the development of learning, culture, and literature.

> *"…and those in priestly orders, how zealous they were for* ***lore*** *and for* ***learning*** *— and how men without our borders sought* ***wisdom*** *and* ***lore*** *hither in our land have* ***and how now we must go out beyond it if we would them****.*

> *So clean* ***fallen away*** *was* ***learning*** *among* ***the English*** *people that there were very few this side of the Humber who could understand their* ***Mass-book in English*** *or even change a letter from* ***Latin into English…***

> ***God be thanked that we have now any teachers at all…"*** (*England: History, Geography, Culture* 1976: 31-32).

He invited foreign scholars and translated or supervised the translations of numerous books from Latin. His first effort was the translation of ***"Cura Pastoralis"*** *("Pastoral Care")*, a book by Pope Gregory the Great (590–604) on the duties and responsibilities of priests. Other major translations from the early period attributed to Alfred are ***"Consolation of Philosophy"*** by Boethius (470–525), compendious *"The History of the World"* by Orosious (ab. 500) and Bede's ***"The Ecclesiastical History"*** (673–735). King Alfred systematized ***"The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle"***, a year-by-year narration of important historical events in the kingdom.

The latter (Late West Saxon, the end of the 10th c.) constituted the writings of **Ælfric, Wulfstan, Æthelwold, Byrhtferth** and others. There is an important difference between the Early and Late periods. In the Early period the texts contain a great deal of

variation, displaying dialectal mixture (especially from **Mercian**), personal variation and scribal inconsistency.

The **Mercian dialect** is an Anglian dialect, being spoken by the **Angles** who lived in the **Midlands** near the river **Thames** and the river **Humber.** The **dominant** period of Mercian power was the early **8th** century. Linguistic evidence of this dialect is scarce, presumably because of the devastating effect of the Viking invasions.

During the second half of the tenth century an attempt to produce a consistent, universally standardized form of expression began to be made. Descriptions of the language, known as Anglo-Saxon or Old English, therefore reflect this dominance. Many writers show remarkable similarity in spellings, words, and constructions. ***Æ*lfric** was the one who revised his earlier works to satisfy the needs of standards. *Æ*lfric (955**–**1020), a monastery teacher of the late Old English period, wrote predominantly on linguistic problems. He created a *Latin grammar* and *Latin – English glossary*, accompanied by a *Latin Colloquium,* which gives a vivid picture of contemporary social conditions in England (Crystal, 2005:56).

After **Alfred,** there was only one important writer in Old English literature before **the Norman Conquest.**

This was ***Æ*lfric** (955–1020, appr.) – a monk who was later appointed as the first abbot of Eynsham in **Oxfordshire.**

Æ*lfric** composed two books of eighty ***"Homilies" in Old English, a paraphrase of the first seven books of the Bible, and a book of ***"Lives of Saints".***

His ***"Colloquy on the Occupations"*** was written by him in **Latin** as a sort of **teaching aid.**

Summing up the outline sketch of Old English we may infer that the understanding of historical texts will help us to understand the language in which they are written and gain an adequate awareness of the internal history of Old English. Undoubtedly textual analysis will be preferable (reading Old English prose and poetry with a dictionary), so that students may acquire the linguistic competence, i.e., the ability to compare the linguistic differences manifested in languages with remote Anglo-Saxon ancestors that have contemporary descendants in the British Isles.

In the following part of our lecture we will only briefly enumerate the greatest, most important people and events of English history so that we can make an effort to imagine how the language of those people ***(the Old English period)*** could one day become the most widely spoken in the world ***(the Modern English period)***. Beyond any doubt among such personalities and events are the **Norman Conquest** of **1066;** the dominance of the **London dialect** (the London – Oxford – Cambridge triangle – the late 14th c.); the superior political authority of **Norman-French** (the 11th –the 14th. c.); **Geoffrey Chaucer's** (1340**–**1400) contribution to the development of the national language; the **Renaissance** (the 14th.–17th c.); the **introduction** of **printing** by **Caxton** in **1475**; **Chancery English;** the **Great Vowel Shift** (the 15th c.–the 16th c.); **William Tyndale** (1494**–**1536), the translator of many Bibles; **William Shakespeare** (1564**–**

1616), the founder of the National Literary English Language; **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (the **King James Bible**), published in 1611; **Samuel Johnson's Dictionary** published in 1755; the establishment of the **Public School of English** (1870); **Received Pronunciation** (the 19th–the 20th c.); **Estuary English** (the end of the 20th c.–the beginning of the 21st c.); the **present-day world status** of **English** (the **international language** since **1990**), etc.

Thus, we have tried to identify the essentials of English development from the historical perspective. Undoubtedly it is vitally important to encounter some implications of its contemporary state, so that we can understand its diversity, richness, and complexity better.

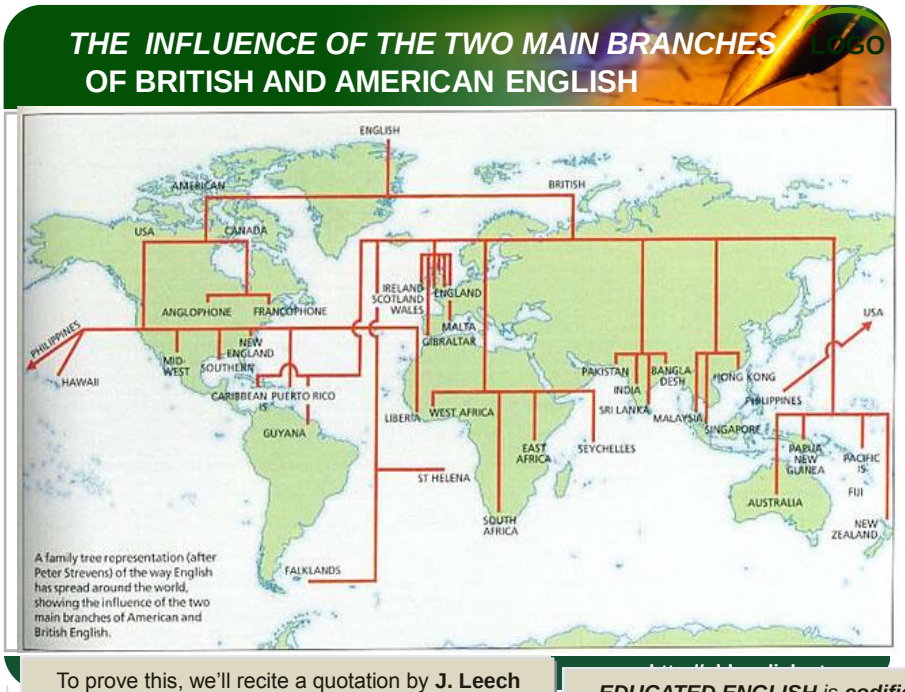


Figure 1.6.

The **global spread** of **English** (with its centres in **England** and **America**) in terms of a family tree representation, (**the 20th c.**); taken from http://www.ehistling-pub.meotod.de).

To prove this, we'll recite a quotation by **J. Leech** and **R. Quirk:** ***"EDUCATED ENGLISH*** *naturally tends to be given the additional* ***prestige*** *of the* ***government,*** *the* ***political parties****, the* ***press****,* ***the law court*** *and* ***the pulpit*** *– any institution which must attempt to* ***address*** *itself to a* ***public beyond*** *the smallest* ***dialectal community…***

EDUCATED ENGLISH *is* ***codified*** *in* ***dictionaries, grammars****, and guides to usage, and it is* ***taught*** *in the* ***school system at all levels.*** *It is almost exclusively the language of* ***printed matter.*** *Because educated English is thus accorded implicit social and political sanction, it comes to be referred to as* ***STANDARD ENGLISH"…***

This citation provides a perspective for the contemporary study of the language. But the historical account promotes a sense of identity and continuity, and enables us, according to **D. Crystal**, to find coherence in many of the fluctuations and conflicts of the present-day English language use.

As we see further, the history of English forms the linguistic basis of a philologist and evolves, respectively, the following aims of study:

- ✓ to provide the students with basic knowledge so that they can understand the evolution of English from its Germanic roots to its recent global development;
- ✓ to identify the problems of language change and language variation, synchronic and diachronic approaches, internal and external factors influencing the development of the English language;
- ✓ to summarize the relationship of English with other European languages, describe the major periods in the history of English;

- ✓ read, translate and analyze various excerpts from Old English texts;
- ✓ in a nutshell, to construct a historical narrative: *"we begin with origins and end with the future"* – (**Seth Lerer**);
- ✓ account for the contributions of linguists of historical linguistics into the development of language history;
- ✓ try to relate, wherever appropriate, Old English linguistic structures (phonology, grammar and lexis) to those of the present day and demonstrate how much of the language has changed or remained stable over time.

Thus, the study of English history may help us answer questions we have about language today. Questions about the standardization of English, about English as an official language, about the relationship between spelling, pronunciation, grammar and style are the essentials of language acquisition and language competence in the history of English.

1.2. Methods of studying the history of English

Now we'll present some **branches** of **linguistics** and **methods** of **studying language historically** and we will look at how earlier forms of language can be reconstructed by scholars.

Historical linguistics studies the development of languages in the **course** of **time**, the ways in which **languages change from period to period**, and the causes and results of such changes, both outside the languages and within them.

Comparative linguistics is concerned with **comparing two** or **more different languages** from one or more points of view with the theory and techniques applicable to such comparisons.

Seth Lerer, a contemporary connoisseur of the history of English, asserts that scholars have three tools for studying language historically: **articulatory phonetics** (the description of sounds according to where and how they are produced in the mouth); **sociolinguistics** (the study of how language operates in society); and **comparative philology** (the technique of reconstructing earlier forms of a language by comparing surviving forms in recorded languages) (Lerer, 2008: 8). These tools can be applied to examine all the spheres of **language change**, namely: **pronunciation**, **grammar** (**morphology**, **syntax**), **lexis**, and meaning (**semantics**).

An active interest in the comparison of languages has always attracted scrupulous scholarly attention. But it was only at the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 19th centuries when many linguists were involved in the idea of comparison, either comparison of anatomical structures to understand the development of animals, or actual languages on the base of their phonetic similarities to then work out a regularity in the differences that they exhibit. Without any doubt a sincere respect can be attributed to such linguists in comparative studies as **Rasmus Rask** (observed predictable patterns between sounds in Germanic and in other European languages); the **brothers Grimm** (formulated the first consonant shift law); **August Schleicher** (attempted to reconstruct a common ancestor of Indo-European languages), etc.

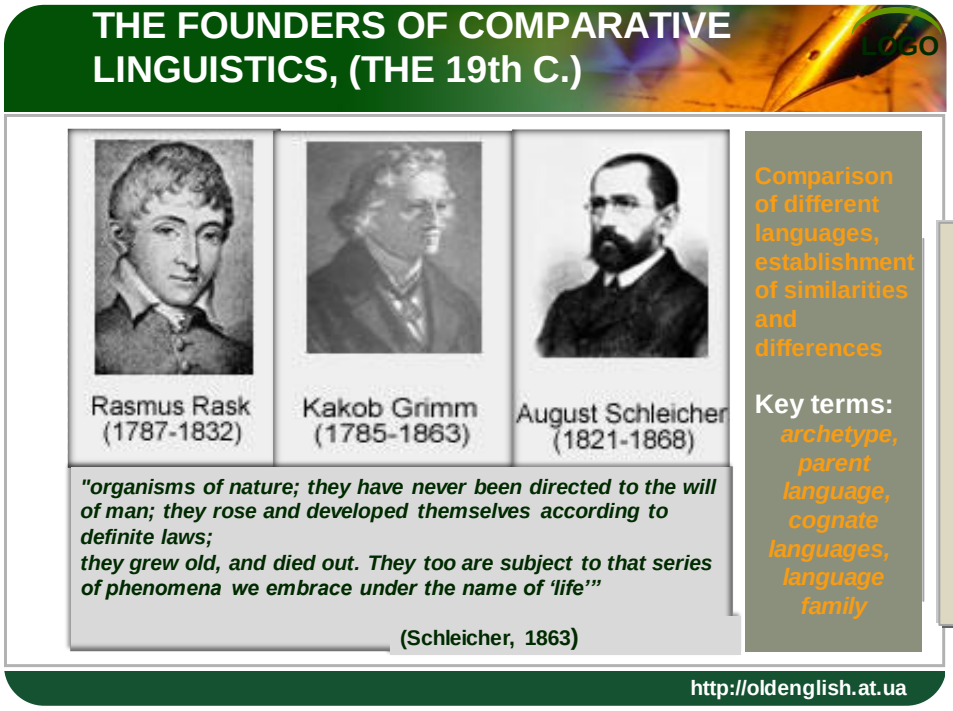


Figure 1.7. The founders of **Comparative Linguistics,** (the 19th c.)

August Schleicher (1821-1868, the first German scholar who produced a **family-tree diagram** for the **relationships** among the **IE languages.** The concept of diversity of modern species resulting from a common ancestor had come to the fore rather earlier in language studies than in biology. When the scholar read **Darwin's *Origin of Species*** he became excited by the parallels.

Schleicher argued that the two domains were very close to one another and urged that **languages should be seen as true living organisms of nature.** But in reality his idea did not survive (http://www.ehistling-pub.meotod.de).

Thus **comparative philology** may be defined as the systematic study of the (phonological) similarities between different languages with the primary aim or classifying these languages based on their genetic relatedness and tracing their historical evolution.

In British usage **philology** (comes from Greek and means *a love of language* or *a love of a word*) is generally an equivalent to **comparative philology**, an older and still quite common term for what linguists technically refer to as **comparative** and **historical linguistics** (Robins 1964:5)

Linguists have developed two broad approaches to classifying languages: **genetic** and **typological** ones (Lerer, 2008: 17).

Genetic classification implies the growth or **development** from a **"root stock"** and the **branching** into **language groups** or **families.**

Typological classification means **comparing languages** for **larger systems of organization.**

Genetic classification looks for **shared features** of **vocabulary, sound, and grammar** that enable scholars to reconstruct earlier forms. This is a **historical**, or **diachronic**, system of classification.

Typological classification figures out whether the languages **signal meaning** in a sentence by means of **inflectional endings** (the **synthetic languages**), or they do by **word-order patterns** (the **analytic languages**). This is a **synchronic** system of classification.

We will compare the surviving words in the non-Germanic Indo-European languages with some of the **Germanic languages** to see their relationships of sound and pronunciation in detail in the next lecture, but for now it is important to familiarize the students with the process of comparison in general and to illustrate it by some examples. So in the early 19th c. **Jacob Grimm** noticed that the contrast between Latin *centum* and English *hundred* has many corresponding examples, i.e., **Latin** *cannabis* and **English** *hemp*; Latin *caput* – English *head*; Latin *pisces* – English *fish;* Latin *tres* – English *three*, etc.

In **1822** along with Danish contemporary **Rasmus Rask**, the **brothers Grimm** proposed a theory – **The First** or **Proto-Germanic consonant shift,** also known as **Grimm's Law**.

Grimm's Law accounts for **correspondences** between **consonants** found in **Germanic** languages with different **consonants** found in **non-Germanic** languages, mainly **Sanskrit**, **Latin**, and **Greek**.

The aspect of **historical phonetics** (**phonology**) will be regarded with the other aspects of the intra-linguistic structure of the language, namely **historical grammar, historical lexis** and **sociolinguistics.**

Thus, in general, **historical linguistics** is concerned with describing how languages change and attempting to explain why languages change. Since the 1960s, explanations in historical linguistics have been revolutionized by the sociolinguistic examination of **language variation** (point 5).

1.3. Internal and external language history

Now we will speak about the other approaches concerning the general aspects of the historical development of English, namely its internal and external histories.

Traditionally the history of any language includes both **intra-linguistic** processes that take place within the language itself (in our case, the Old English period) and **extra-linguistic** ones, that is an account of those people who spoke that language, the territory of the land where they lived, their migrations, wars, conquests of and by others, their economies and religions, literature and culture, trade and commerce, family customs and, indeed, all the aspects of their lives.

We will try to recognize the difference between these two language histories. At first, we'll speak about the peculiarities of internal history. As it was already mentioned, linguistics deals with the levels of language.

From the **historical perspective** the **history** of any **language** can be subdivided into **historical phonetics /phonology, historical grammar (morphology** and **syntax**), and **historical lexicology**.

The above-mentioned areas of language structure and functioning in their development presume external and internal changes. We will mention some general linguistic changes that will be familiar to students from their language study, but in the

subsequent lectures we will talk about them in more detail.

1. Historical Phonetics, Phonology. This is the level of sounds. We may distinguish here the set of possible human sounds, which constitutes the area of *phonetics* proper, and the set of system sounds, used in a given human language that constitutes the area of *phonology*.

Historical Phonetics of English is the study of the **origins** of **speech sounds** in all their **complexity** and **diversity, independent** of their **role** in a given **language.**

Historical Phonology of English is the study of its **sound system** functioning **across time, categorized** by its **speakers** to **cognize** the **differences** in **meaning.**

So **historical phonetics** is concerned with the general, physical appearance of sounds at every period of history. These speech sounds are vowels, consonants and diphthongs. If we pronounce one and the same word many times, there would be differences in each articulation but we would nevertheless emphasize that the *'different articulations constitute the same word'*. The same refers to the written language. The following symbols have a different written form, e.g., *H h, H h, H h, H h, H h, H h, H h,* but despite this they all make up the *'same' entity,* i.e. *'the eighth letter of the alphabet'*. **Historical phonology** deals with classifying the sound changes of language across time and with saying what distinctions in meaning can be made on the basis of these sounds. These changes begin with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones that may prevail over the others and that replaces them over time. They may result, as well, in the splitting of phonemes, and their numerical growth introduces new distinctive features. The change may also lead to the merging of old phonemes as their new prevailing allophones can fall together (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 76). Besides, English has borrowed from other languages. Words of foreign origin may be spelt according to the rules of the donor language, thereby introducing numerous "irregularities" into English spelling, e.g., French borrowings like *rouge, chateau, coiffeur, liquor*, *chemise*, etc. Moreover, spellings have sometimes been influenced by speakers' attitude towards etymology, e.g., *debt* is a borrowing from Old French *dette*. The "b" was never pronounced, but it was inserted to show the supposed relation of the word to Latin *debitum* (Dirven, 2004: 102-103).

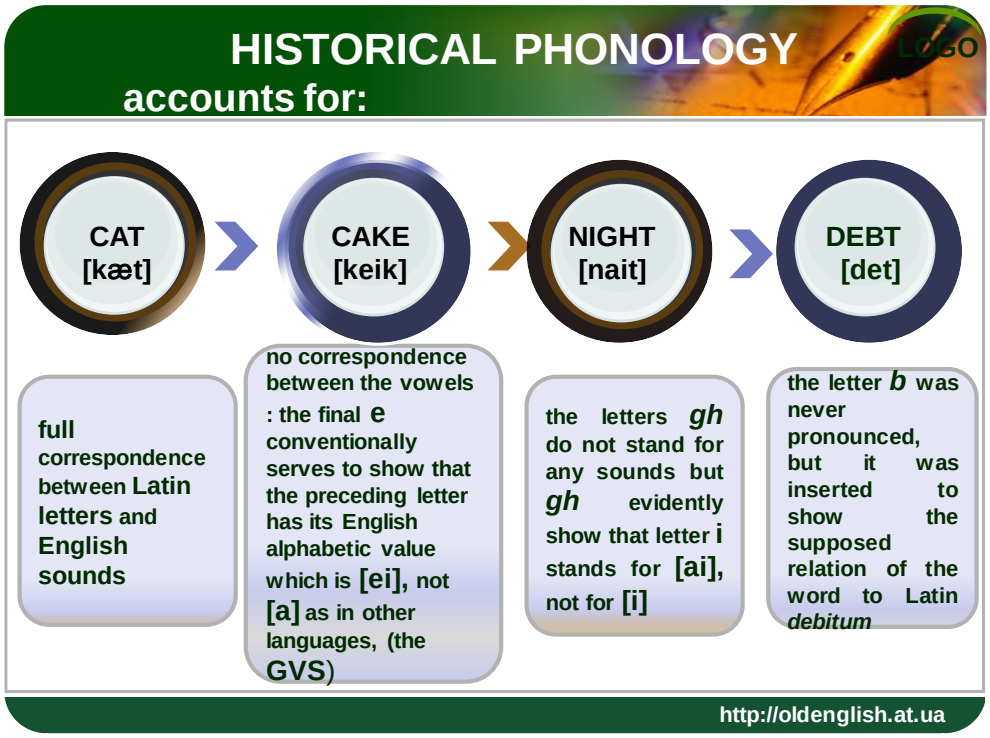


Figure 1.9. Historical phonology accounts for the sound changes of language across time

2. Historical Grammar is usually divided into two domains**: historical morphology** (i.e., structure of words, being prone to changes) and **historical syntax** (structure of phrases and clauses change-prone as well).

Historical morphology is concerned with the loss of inflections in the words, mainly the reduction of vowels in unstressed endings. Though the grammatical structure of English has a common historical basis with all the Indo-European languages (the Germanic branch), it differs in much of its morphology and syntax even from close Germanic languages. Loss of inflections (as Old English had a case system) is one of the major changes that occurred between Old and Modern English that is a change from its **synthetic** to a predominantly **analytic** type of grammatical structure. Thus the **historical** outline of **English morphology** will account for its evolution from the gradual simplification to the total absence of inflections; the consequent lack of agreement with nouns in adjectives and articles; the complicated system of forms (the analytical ones) in verbs, etc. Generally speaking, we will trace the historical development of salient morphological irregularities, inasmuch as they tend to affect a gradually changing order of words in the English language.

The term **morpheme** (from Greek *morphè* **'form')** is the smallest meaningful unit of a language, consisting of a word or part of a word that cannot be divided without losing its meaning.

The term **syntax** (from Latin *syntaxis,* and earlier from Greek *syn+tassein* 'together +arrange') **focuses** on the **structure** of **sentences.**

Historical Morphology deals with complex **inflectional systems** that tend to **be subject** to a **simplification process.**

Historical Syntax relates to the **structure of phrases** and sentences, **arranging together** their **elements** by means of **patterns** in **diachronic perspective.**

The **historical syntax** is concerned with the constantly changing patterns of word order from relatively free in Old English to strict and rigid in Modern English. OE had a much more irregular syntactical structure (the verb phrase, for example, could appear in several places in the sentence), but Middle English is more like Modern English with a designated place for the verb phrase. Nevertheless Richard Hogg in his manual *"An Introduction to Old English"* claims that in Old English there were two competing word orders: there was an SVO order as in the present-day language, but there was also an SOV word order, as occurs, for example, in Latin. This may seem confusing, but similar facts hold, albeit in somewhat different ways, in present-day Germanic languages such as German and Dutch. This should, by now, be a familiar feature, namely that Old English often looks as much like German or Dutch as English. It is a recurring pattern and simply emphasizes the Germanic origins of English (Hogg, 2002: 87). This point of view, to some extent, has been proved by the well-known linguist R. Burchfield in the second half of chapter IV of his *The English Language* (1985).While tracing the evolution of syntax from Old English to Present-day English, R. Burchfield points out that in Old English, an inflected language, customary but not obligatory rules affected the normal subject-verb-object rule: *sēo cwēn beswāc þone cyning* 'the queen betrayed the king' could be changed to *þone cyning beswāc sēo cwēn* without change of meaning. The endings unmistakably revealed the subject and object (Burchfield, 1985: 174).

In the last few decades, however, there has been a significant move in the study of grammatical change in English and other languages towards looking at developments that also involve meaning. Most of these studies rely on and contribute to what has become known as **grammaticalisation** theory – named after the phenomenon of grammaticalisation.

While referring to the various grammatical possibilities of the historical development of English, it is worth mentioning a type of language change known as grammaticalisation, which may be defined as the development of grammatical constructions out of more lexical expressions. The reverse (i.e. grammatical constructions developing into more lexical expressions) does not, or hardly ever, appear to happen.

> **Grammaticalisation** is a process that involves **changes** in the **function** or **meaning** of a **linguistic unit,** which evolves from **lexical** to **grammatical** or from **grammatical** to more **grammatical.**

So grammaticalisation is the process whereby lexical or content words acquire grammatical function or existing grammatical units acquire further grammatical functions e.g.,

> (1) ***I'm going to*** *the library* (**lexical** meaning of the verb ***to go***)
> (2) ***I'm going to be*** *an astronaut (when I grow up)* (**grammatical** meaning of the verb ***to go*** indicating the **future**).

What concerns us here is the meaning of *the **be going to** construction.* In example

(1) this expression describes a physical path of motion, while in (2) it describes future time, which is the more recent meaning associated with this construction i.e., this is a type of language change where the lexical verb ***to go*** acquires the additional grammatical function of denoting the future action.

Summing up briefly the notion of **historical grammar** we may conclude that language change has affected and will continue affecting grammar constantly, evolving new areas and theories of research. The above-mentioned theory of grammaticalisation has received the most attention from philologists (historical linguists with a particular interest in establishing language families), dating back at least as far as the eighteenth century. Although the term 'grammaticalisation' suggests a type of grammatical change, grammaticalisation in fact involves correlated changes in sound, meaning and grammar. In other words, the process of grammaticalisation affects the phonology, morphology and syntax and meaning or function of a given symbolic unit.

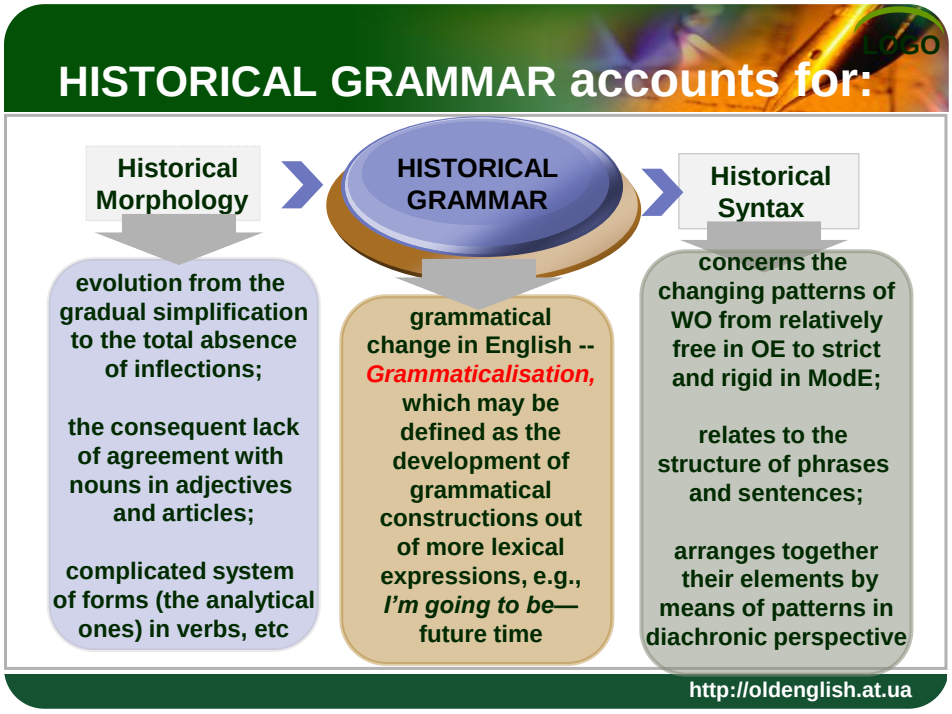


Figure 1.10. Historical grammar accounts for the morphological and syntactical changes of language across time

3. Historical Lexicology is concerned with the study of words in the process of time, i.e., with changes in vocabulary. How do meanings change and how do people create new words? How do people 'borrow' words from other languages, such as *rouge* from French or *pundit* from Sanskrit? And what do these *'borrowings'* tell us about change in culture and society or about the general tendencies of human nature? Language never remains stable.

Historically language changes by being supplemented with **loans** which constitute elements of the **English vocabulary** and with **new words** which come with the **advances** in **human knowledge,** with **changes** in the **social system,** with the **growth** and **development** of **culture,** etc.

Historically language changes by being supplemented with loans that constitute elements of the English vocabulary and with new words which come with advances in human knowledge, with changes in the social system, with the growth and development of culture, etc.

We may conclude that it is, of course, possible to view the history of a language merely as an **internal** one – we can formulate sound laws and shifts, describe changes that convert an inflected language to an isolating one, or a syntax that puts an object before its verb to one that puts the verb before its object. That is we can describe a language purely as a formal object. But such a view will be abstract and often lacking in explanation for its linguistic changes, because language is a human capacity; the history of a particular language is linked with that of its speakers. Language is so basic to human activity that there is nothing human beings do that does not influence and, in turn, is not influenced by the language they speak.

The quotation from Benjamin Lee Whorf's *"Language"* (1956), that ***"our very thought patterns and view of the world are inescapably connected with our language"*** proves the previous idea.

The **external history** of a language is the history of its speakers as their history affects the language they use. It also includes, in addition to what was mentioned above, the notions of spreading the language in geographical and social space, the differentiation of language into functional varieties (geographical variants, dialects, standard and non – standard forms, etc.), political and social developments in the community, contacts with other languages, etc (Rastorguyeva,1983:15).

We can distinguish between **linguistic evidence,** – as such often called **internal evidence,** and **non-linguistic historical information,** often called **external evidence.**

Internal evidence comes mainly from **documents** which provide examples of the **language** at **known points** in **time.**

Most **internal** evidence of **older** Old English comes from northern poetic texts such as version 1 of ***Cædmon's Hymn*** and ***Beowulf.***
Most **internal** evidence of **later** Old English comes from southern prose texts such as Alfred's ***Orosious*** or the works of ***Æ*lfric**.

Evidence is one of the biggest problems in writing the history of a language. There are problems concerning availability of evidence, the relationship between internal and external evidence, and the interpretation of whatever evidence exists.

Undoubtedly, among others, we should mention ***Beowulf*** – but a dialect and date of composition cannot be firmly established.

Most **external evidence** about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers. They contain descriptions of Germanic tribes, personal names and place-names. Among them are Pitheas, a Greek

historian of the 4th c. B.C. who mentioned Germanic tribes in his description of his sea voyage to the Baltic Sea for the first time.

External evidence typically comes from **archeological sites** or contemporary **written histories.**

The prominent Roman scientist and writer **Pliny the Elder** in ***Natural History*** (the 1st c A.D.), classified **Germanic tribes,** grouping them under six headings.

A few decades later the Roman historian **Tacitus** compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the **ancient Teutons.**

In the 1st c. B.C. in ***Commentaries on the Gallic War*** **Julies Caesar** described some militant **Germanic tribes.**

It is worth mentioning **Friedrich Engels** (1820-1895), who used these sources extensively in his works ***On the History of the Ancient Germans*** and ***The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State.***

To summarize, we may confirm that the evolution of language is characteristic of diverse **intra-linguistic** and **extra-linguistic** facts and processes. As it was mentioned above, the history of any language can be divided into external and internal ones. Needless to say these two aspects are connected to each other but it is a one-way connection: the external history can affect the internal one but not vice versa. For instance, the rise of bilingualism between the Scandinavians and the English in the north of the country in the 9th and 10th century had repercussions for the structure of English. However, one cannot say that an internal change such as the Great Vowel Shift in any way influenced external development of England. Even today's perception of internal and external data is important and appropriate. JRR Tolkien, professor of Anglo-Saxon in Oxford, includes many elements of Anglo-Saxon linguistic and literary tradition in his works, mainly in *Lord of the Rings.*

1.4. Synchrony versus diachrony

This time we will speak about the two principal approaches in linguistics to the study of language material, namely the **synchronic** (or descriptive) and the **diachronic** (or historical) ones. The distinction between these two approaches is due to the Swiss philologist **Ferdinand de Saussure** (1857–1913), who separated them stating that synchronic linguistics is concerned with systems, that is with the units of language that exist at a given period of time; diachronic linguistics — with single units, that is with changes and development of linguistical units in the course of time. To exemplify these two dimensions of linguistic analysis, de Saussure used a tree analogy.

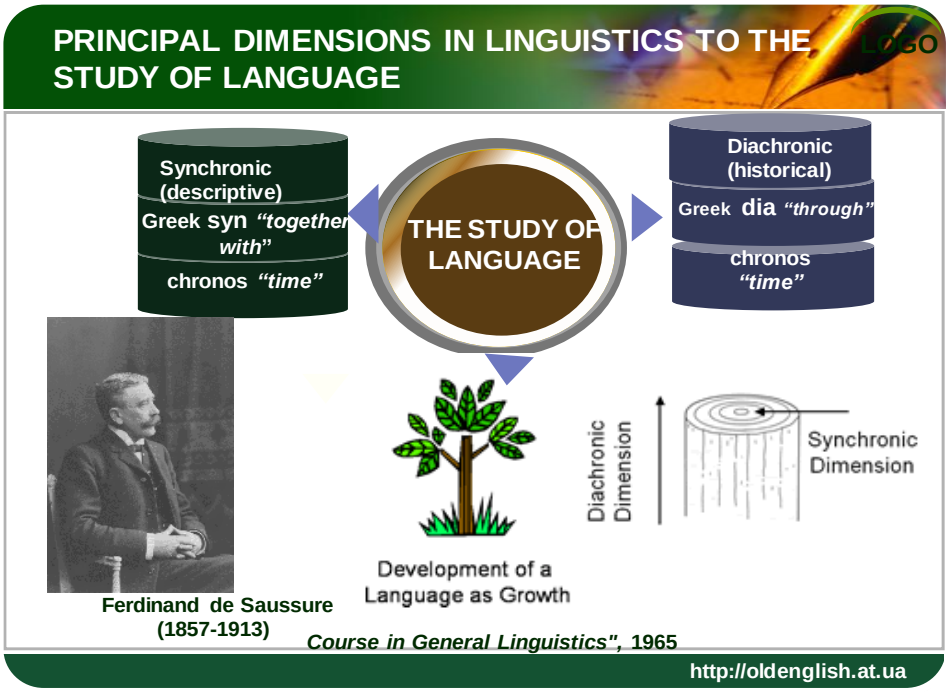


Figure 1.12. Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), *"Course in General Linguistics",* 1965. Synchrony vs. Diachrony (from http://www.ehistling-pub.meotod.de).

With the *synchronic approach* to language we have concentrated our discussion upon languages as they are now, for example, in the early years of the twenty-first century or as they were in the middle of the 17th century.

Historical linguists take a *diachronic view* of language, describing patterns of change and attempting to account for those changes. The findings of historical linguistics have implications for most areas of modern linguistics, because language change affects phonology, semantics and grammar and can therefore inform synchronic theories about these core areas of language. The causes of language change can often be attributed to socio-linguistic forces, which entail a close link between historical linguistics and socio-linguistics.

As we know, trees develop and grow, changing their shape throughout their lifetime without, however, changing their basic physical structure. To trace the development of a tree, one can observe its longitudinal growth from being a sapling to becoming a huge plant (http://www.ehistling-pub.meotod.de). This **temporal** perspective of evolution corresponds to the **diachronic** perspective of language. If, however, the stem of the plant is crossing from side to side, a very complicated design of rings appears. This design shows the complex arrangement of the tree's fibre – its internal complex structure. By analogy, the tree rings can be compared to the complex structure of a language. In the same way as the transversal cut lays open the structure of the fibres at one stage of the tree's growth, the overall structure of a linguistical system can be analyzed at any given point in time. This is the **synchronic** perspective (http://www.ehistling-pub.meotod.de).

The term ***"synchronic"*** consists of the two **Greek** morphemes ***syn*** meaning "**together, with"** and ***chronos*** which denotes **"time".**

The term ***"diachronic"*** is composed of the **Greek** morphemes ***dia*** meaning **"through"** and ***chronos*** meaning **"time".**

The two approaches toward the history of English (synchronic and diachronic) should not be contrasted, in fact, they are interconnected and interdependent: every linguistic structure and system exists in a state of constant development so that the synchronic state of a language system is a result of a long process of linguistic evolution, the result of the historical development of the language. A good example illustrating both the distinction between the two approaches and their interconnection is supplied with the words ***to beg*** and ***beggar.***

Synchronically, these words are related as a simple word ***(to beg)*** and a derived word ***(beggar)***. The noun ***beggar*** is derived from the verb ***to beg*** by means of the suffix ***–ar.***

Diachronically, however, we learn that the noun ***beggar*** was borrowed from Old French and the verb ***to beg*** appeared in the English language as a result of **back derivation**, i.e. it was derived from the noun ***beggar.***

Perhaps the most striking difference is the unfamiliar look of some of the words, although some of the sounds are somewhat familiar. For instance, the Old English word for 'woman'*, cwēn*, has developed into the modern-day form *queen*. This is an example of a phenomenon called narrowing: over time a word develops a more specialized, or narrower, function. Today *queen* can only be applied to a female monarch, whereas in Old English it could be applied to all *adult females*.

To conclude, we may ascertain that the **synchronic** approach deals with units of language at a certain time. The **diachronic** approach refers, accordingly, to studying the development of language or languages over time. So, historical linguistics deals with the complex interaction of the synchronic and diachronic perspectives of language. On the one hand, it can analyze textual (or other) sources from a given period and try to reconstruct the synchronic state of a given language at a specific point in time. On the other hand, it can clarify the changes and the development of linguistic units in the course of time. Moving from one such point to the other, it becomes possible to describe the history of English from temporal perspective on its dynamics and statics. The English language has undergone complex processes of reshaping and transformation and will do so in the future. Therefore, English historical linguistics is a very fascinating (David Crystal) and challenging field of further analysis.

1.5. Language change and language variation

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

> *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 Morning Herald)*

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.

Two linguistic disciplines dealing with studying **language change** are **historical linguistics** and **sociolinguistics.**

Historical linguists examine how a **language** was spoken in the **past** and seek to determine how **present languages derived from it** and **are related to one another.**

Sociolinguists such as Rudi Keller and William Labov are interested in the **origins of language changes** and want to explain how **society and changes in society influence language.**

William Labov (1973) states that:

> *"**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.**

The subject **History of English** is a linguistic discipline that surveys the history of English from its origins as a dialect of Germanic tribes through the literary documents of its 1,500-year period to Present-day English. It will allow students to develop an understanding of the reasons languages change and of the types of changes. Finally, it will enable them to gain some knowledge of the origins of contemporary English and of the provenance of a number of systematic and unsystematic traits of Modern English. In this course, we will look at the literary, historical, cultural, political and scientific underpinnings of the English language people use today.

1.5.1. 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 [u:] in [aʊ] 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, ´***controversy***, eakers increasingly place the main stress on the second syllable, ***con´troversy***. In other cases, the pron ticular vowel sound or consonant sound changes gradually across succ 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.

con´troversy.

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 ely. Th word ***tune*** might sound something like **'choon'** and the word ***dune*** might be pronounced like ***june.***

<ch>

<j>

The other example concerns a <v> sound for the medial consonant in the word ***nephew***, where most speakers nowadays tend to use a <f> s he <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.

<v>

<f>

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 pr d — or e article, ***an*** – then the <h> sound is omitted. T e 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

<h>

<h>

pronounced

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"***

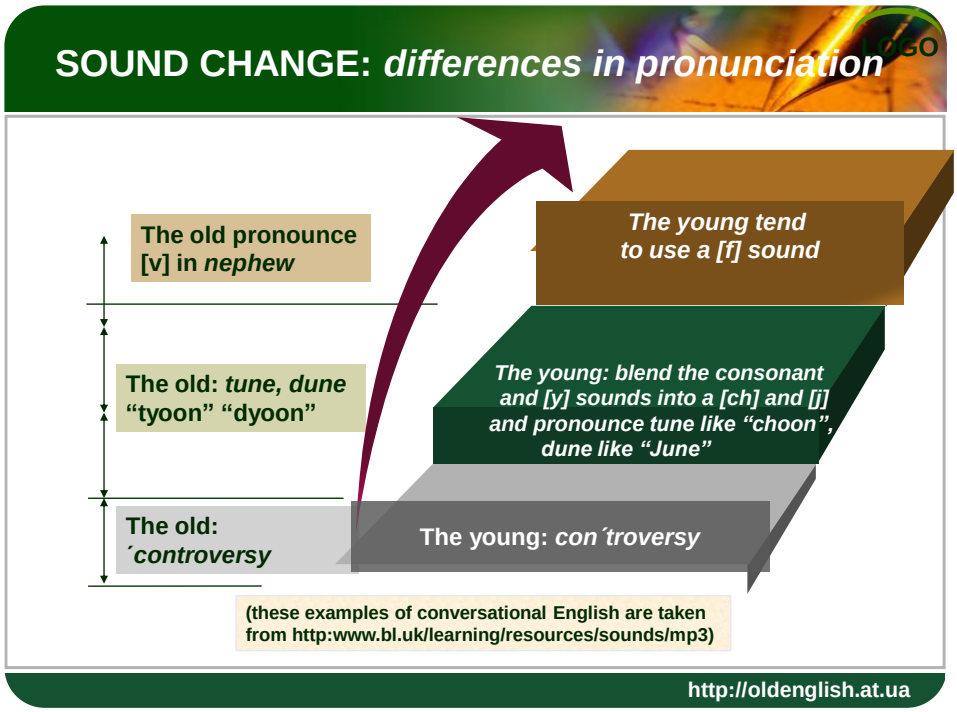


Figure 1.13. Sound or phonetic changes

1.5.2. 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**, 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 present**, 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).

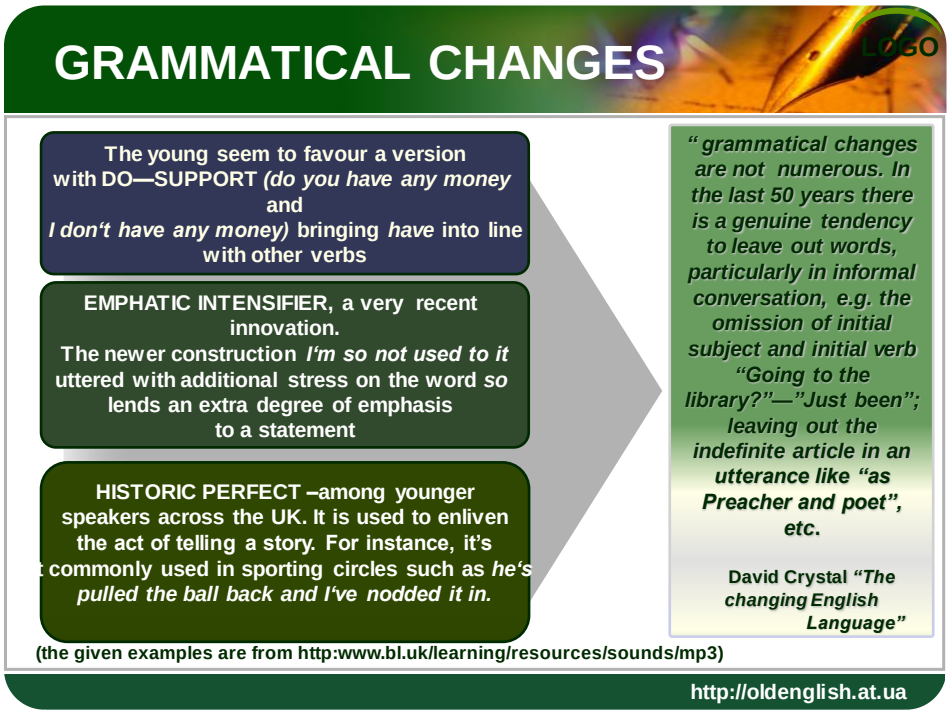


Figure 1.14. Samples of grammatical changes

1.5.3. 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.

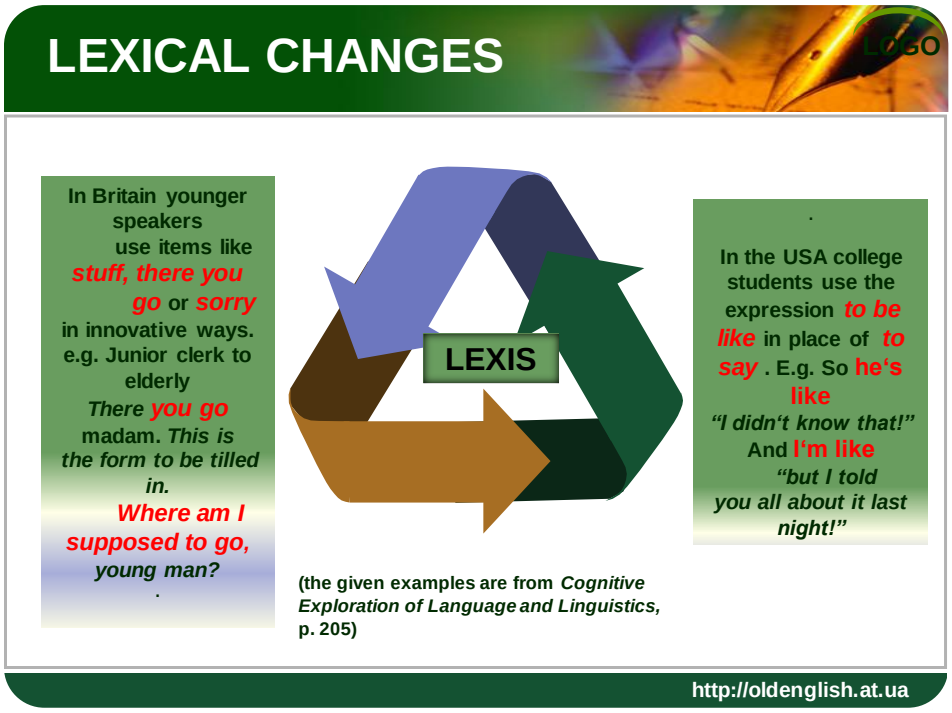


Figure 1.15. Peculiarities of lexical changes

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 history 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.

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?

I. SELF-STUDY 1

Aims:

- ✓ get acquainted with the main periods of the standard history of English;
- ✓ be able to account for major external and internal events pertaining to these periods;
- ✓ be able to comprehend information from video films and present their main items in a number of computer tests.

Introduction
1.1. The theoretical item for Self-study: the periods in the history of English
Summary
1.2. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)
1.2.1. *VOA history of English* (part 1)
1.2.2. *VOA history of English* (part 2)
1.2.3. *A brief history of the English language*
1.2.4. *OE Introduction*
1.3. Computer tests in e-learning

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. – Holyheard, 1994. – P. 1–3.

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 7–10.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 5–6.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorgueva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 49–55.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 6–18.
- ✓ Lecture 1.

Introduction

Periodization of any language is not only desirable but, without a doubt, necessary to understand major changes in its evolution. This is particularly true in the case of English which has had a long and attractive history.

1.1. The theoretical item for Self-study: the periods in the history of English

Conventionally the history of the English language consists of **three** periods: **Old English** (OE), **Middle English** (ME) and **New English** (NE). Linguists have taken into account extra-linguistic factors, mainly the most crucial historical events which, consequently, greatly influenced the English language.

OE begins with the **Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c; 449)** or with the beginning of writing (the 7th c.) and ends with the **Norman Conquest (1066).**

ME begins with the **Norman Conquest** and ends with the **introduction of printing (1475)**.

ModE (NE) begins with the **introduction of printing (1475);** the **New** period lasts to the present day.

In this section we will examine some works of famous linguists (e.g. Baugh and Cable, David Crystal, Elly van Gelderen, Richard Hogg, Valery V. Mykhailenko, Tatyana A. Rastorgueva, etc.), who try to provide the periodization of the English language with more details from linguistic evidence.

Both **extra-linguistic** and l**inguistic** evidences will help us specify how the language functioned in the past and how it changed in the course of time and in what context.

For instance, while outlining the main periods in the historical development of English, **Crystal** examines the ***literary heritage*** of the English people. Speaking about

the Old English period he investigates the corpus of Anglo-Saxon poetry and prose dating from around the 7th century, which provides a great opportunity to examine linguistic data and gives a brief account of the sounds, spellings, grammar, and vocabulary of Old English. A similar description is given of the Middle English period, beginning with the effects on the language of the French invasion and concluding with a discussion of the origins of Standard English. At all points, special attention is paid to the ***historical and cultural setting*** to which these texts relate and to the character of the ***leading literary works*** such as ***Beowulf*** (an anonymous Old English epic poem of the 8th c.), ***The Canterbury Tales*** by Geoffrey Chaucer (a masterpiece of Middle English, the 14th c.). The English of **Caxton, Shakespeare, the King James Bible** and **Johnson's *Dictionary*** are the landmarks of creativity of the Early Modern English period, (1500–1700).

*The notion of **Standard English**, seen from both national and international perspectives, turns out to be of special importance (David Crystal, 1995: 1-3).*

Modern English (the 19th-20th centuries) follows the course of further language change, examines the nature of early grammars, traces the development of new varieties and attitudes in America, and finds in literature, especially in the novel, an invaluable linguistic mirror. Several present-day usage controversies turn out to have their origins during this period.

On the contrary, **Henry Sweet**, the famous English phonetician, only took into account the linguistic, namely the ***morphological principle,*** while subdividing the three main periods into early, classical, and late ones. Consequently the **early (OE)** period can be defined as a period of ***full endings*** (e.g. *sun**u**, stan**as** writ**an**),* **ME** – as a period of ***shortened, reduced,*** or ***levelled endings*** (e.g. *sun**e**, ston**es**, writ**en***) and finally **NE** as a period of ***lost inflectional endings*** (e.g. *sun, stone, write).*

Baugh and **Cable** also state that the period from **450** to **1150** is known as **Old English.** It is described as the period of **full inflections**, because during most of this period the endings of nouns, adjectives and verbs are preserved more or less unimpaired. From **1150** to **1500** the language is known as **Middle English** (some of the developments which distinguish Middle English begin as early as the tenth century). During this period the inflections began to break down toward the end of the Old English period, become greatly reduced and is consequently known as the period of **leveled inflections.** The language **since 1500** is called **Modern English.** By the time we reach this stage in the development of the English language a large part of the original inflectional system has disappeared entirely, and we therefore speak of it as the period of **lost inflections** (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 46).

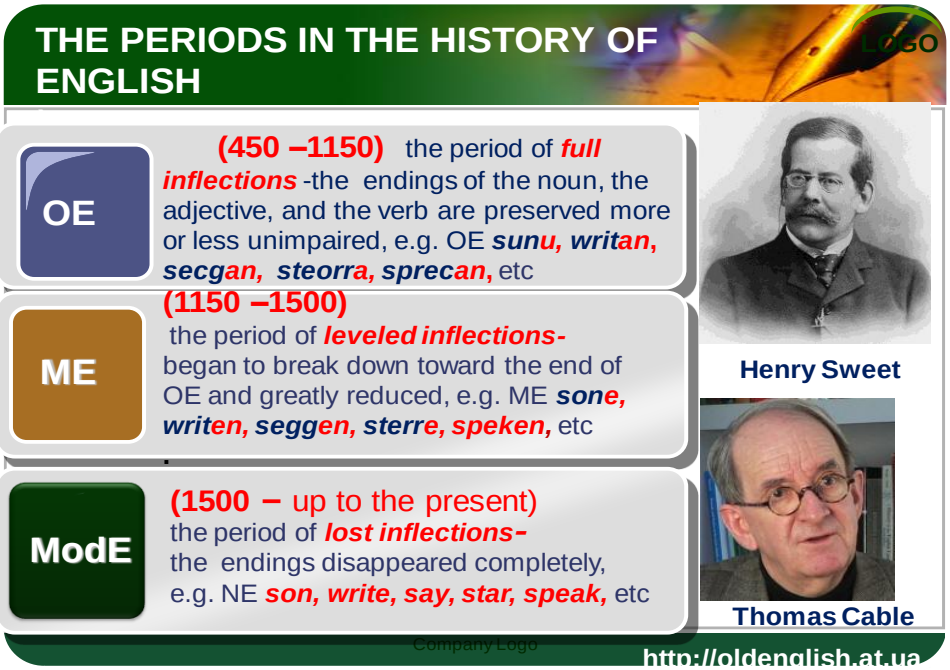


Figure1.16. Traditional chronological divisions in the History of English

T.A. Rastorguyeva subdivides the history of the English language into seven periods, taking into account both external and internal peculiarities:

The first period ***(Early Old English)*** lasts from the West Germanic invasion of Britain in **449** until the beginning of writing, which is from the **5th** to the close of the **7th** c.

The **tribal dialects** of the **West Germanic** invaders **Angles, Saxons, Jutes** and **Frisians** were used only for **oral communication**.

The second period ***(Old English or Anglo-Saxon)*** **is** from the **8th** c. until the end of the **11th c.**

The **tribal dialects (West Saxon, Mercian, Northumbrian and Kentish)** gradually changed into local and **regional** dialects. In the 9th c. the **West Saxon** dialect acquired **authority** over the others and became the **dominant** form in the **sphere of writing.**

Old English of that period displayed the distinctive features of other Germanic languages in **phonetics, grammar** and **vocabulary.**

In **phonetics** it is worth mentioning the **fixed word accentuation,** strict differentiation of long and short vowels, **consonant shifts (Grimm's Law, Verner's Law),** proper OE pronunciation etc.

As for **grammar,** OE was a **synthetic type** of language with **grammatical endings, morphological classification** of **nominal** and **verbal** parts of speech

As far as OE **vocabulary** is concerned, it was almost entirely **Germanic** except for a small number of **Celtic** and **Latin borrowings** and comparatively few **original OE words**.

The third period ***(Early Middle English)*** starts after 1066, the year of the **Norman Conquest**, the political event which affected the administration system and language of England and lasted to the middle of the 14th c. The English of this time retained many different dialectal forms and had little standardization in spelling. For about two centuries the country had two languages. So under the Norman rule the **official language** in England became **French,** or rather its variety called **Anglo-French** or **Anglo-Norman,** which was also the dominant language of literature and learning, the court, nobility, polite society.

Anglo-French didn't replace **English** as the language of the people. **English** continued to be the **national language** but it **changed too much** after the conquest.

The fourth period ***(Late or Classical Middle English)*** is from the later **14th** c. until the end of the **15th c**. It embraces the age of **Chaucer**, the greatest English medieval writer and forerunner of the English Renaissance. **Middle English** was still a **Germanic language** but was different from Old English in many ways. The grammar and the sound system changed a great deal. People started to rely more on **word order** and structure words to express their meaning rather than the use of case system. *"This can be called as a* ***simplification*** *but it is not exactly. Languages don't become simpler, they merely exchange one kind of complexity for another"* (Graddol et al., 1996: 56).

The formation of **national literary English** covers the **fifth period:** ***Early Modern English*** period (c. 1475–1660(1700)). The period that defined the historical context of Early Modern English is **the Renaissance.**

The Renaissance (the Revival of Learning) is the great era of intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th. and 17th centuries when the **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 that 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 **Shakespeare, (Hamlet's famous soliloquy),** and by the texts of many **Bibles**, especially those of **Tyndale** (1525) and **King James** (1611).

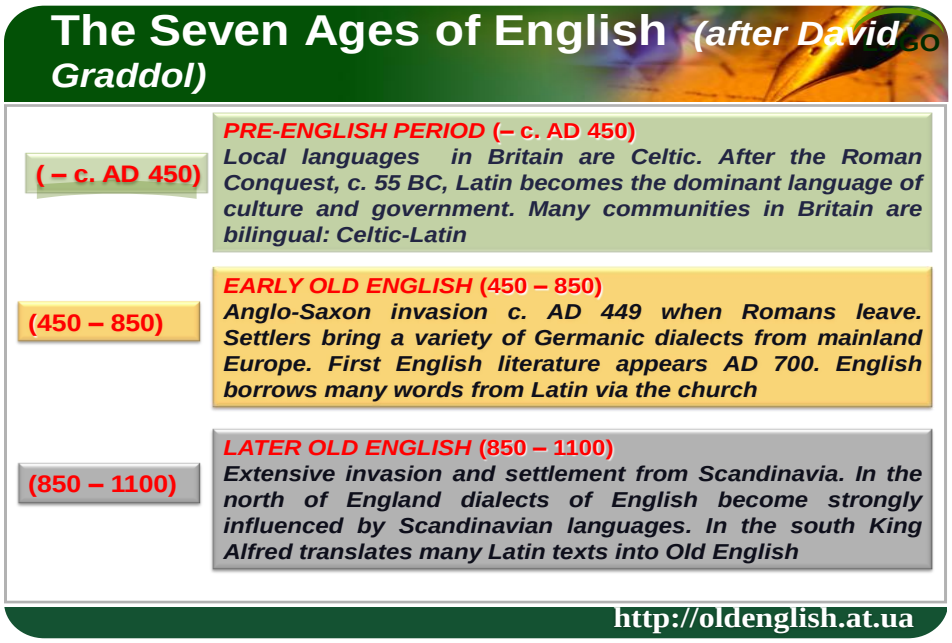
The very factor that supported the standardization process was the introduction of the **printing press** by **William Caxton in 1476.** In addition, **the Chancery scribes**, the writers of the royal administrative documents, had their office at Westminster very close to Caxton's printing press. It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

Introduction of printing by **Caxton** in **1476** is important in the **history of English** as it affected the **development** of the **language greatly,** especially its **written form.**

Printed books, being accessible to the larger amount 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**

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 the printing press by William Caxton in 1476 became a landmark for the history of English as well as the English themselves. As far as the history of English is concerned, it was supposed to unify and standardize the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order, etc. Undoubtedly printed books were vital to the idea of literacy. Literacy, however, was already spreading rapidly and increasingly in the Middle English period despite strong opposition to it.

Similarly **David Graddol** subdivides the history of English into **seven ages,** taking into account both external and internal peculiarities but paying more attention to **Pre-English and Late Modern English** periods. The following table demonstrates it clearly:



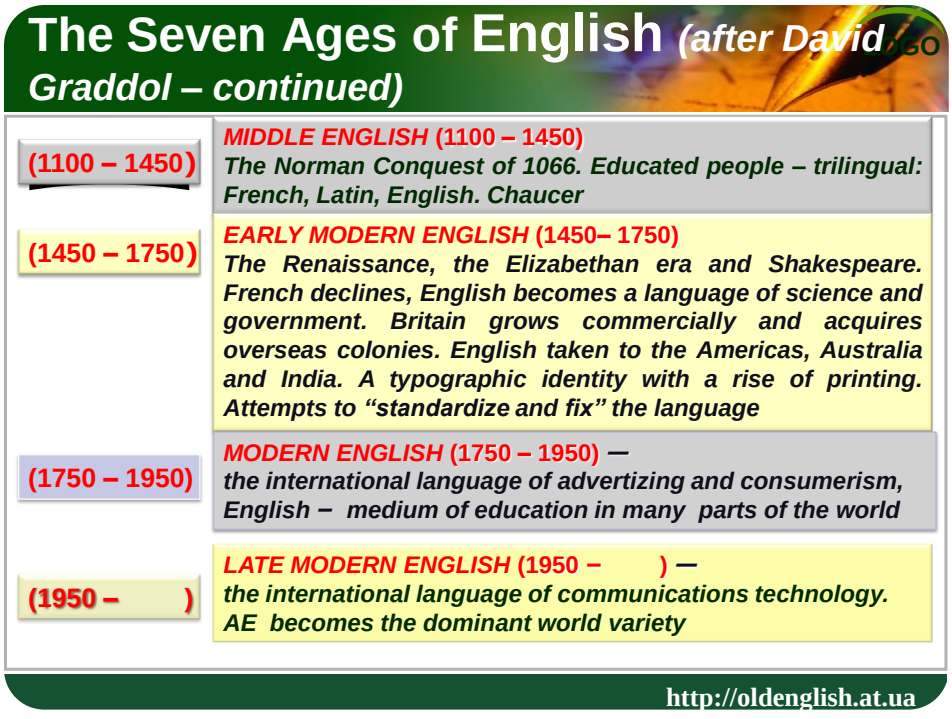


Figure1.17. Chronological divisions in the History of English after David Graddol (continued)

Summary

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**.

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.

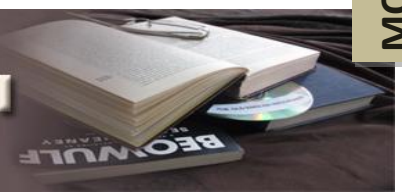
A budget, flannel, mackintosh, tunnel
B wall, pepper, cup, mill, mile
C rotten, scant, ugly, wrong
D water, tree, moon, night

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.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE II



THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE FAMILY. LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

LECTURE 2

*"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.

2.1. 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).*

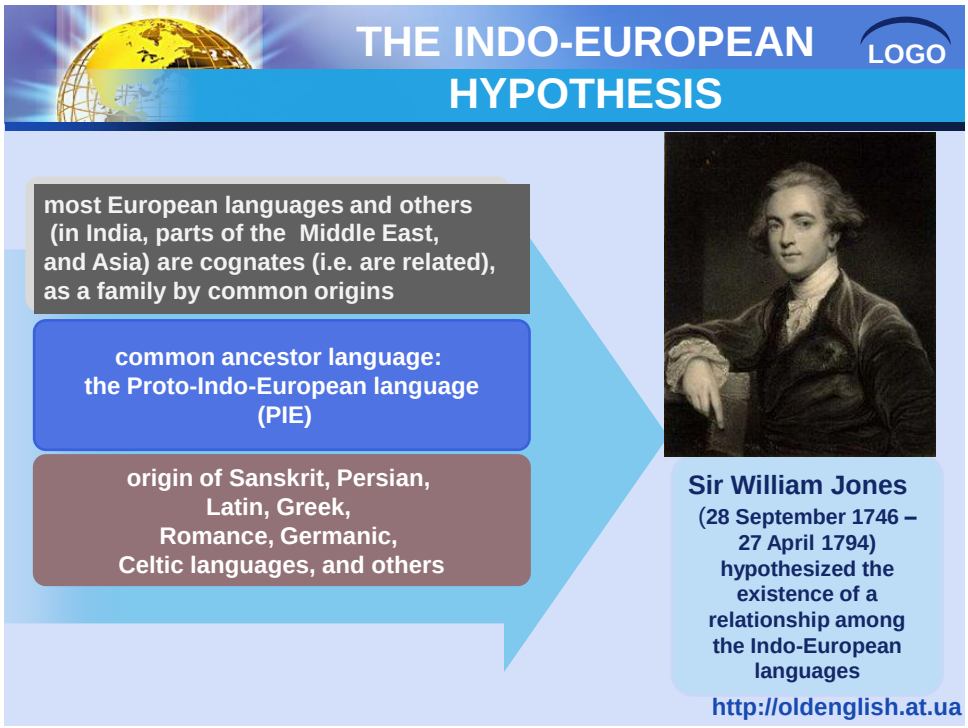


Figure 2.1.

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

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.

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

Close analysis of its language showed that **Sanskrit** has a strong affinity with **Latin** and **Greek**. Compare the following forms of the verb ***to be:***

Table 1.2. The verb ***to be*** had the same endings: ***mi, si, ti, mas, tha, nti*** as the verb ***to give*** did (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 18)

Old English	**Gothic**	**Latin**	**Greek**	**Sanskrit**
eom (am)	*im*	*sum*	*eimi*	*asmi*
eart (art)	*is*	*es*	*ei*	*asi*
is (is)	*ist*	*est*	*esti*	*asti*
sindon (are)	*sijum*	*sumus*	*esmen*	*smas*
sindon (are)	*sijuþ*	*estis*	*este*	*stha*
sindon (are)	*sind*	*sunt*	*eisi*	*santi*

The Sanskrit forms in particular permit us to see that at one time this verb had the same endings **(*mi, si, ti, mas, tha, nti*)** as were employed in the present tense of other verbs, for example:

Table 1.3. The verb ***to give*** had the same endings: ***mi, si, ti, mas, tha, nti*** as the verb ***to be*** did (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 18)

Sanskrit	**Greek**
dádāmi	*dídōmi (I give)*
dádāsi	*dídōs*
dádāti	*dídōsi*
dadmás	*dídomen*
datthá	*dídote*
dáda(n)ti	*didóāsi*

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.

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:

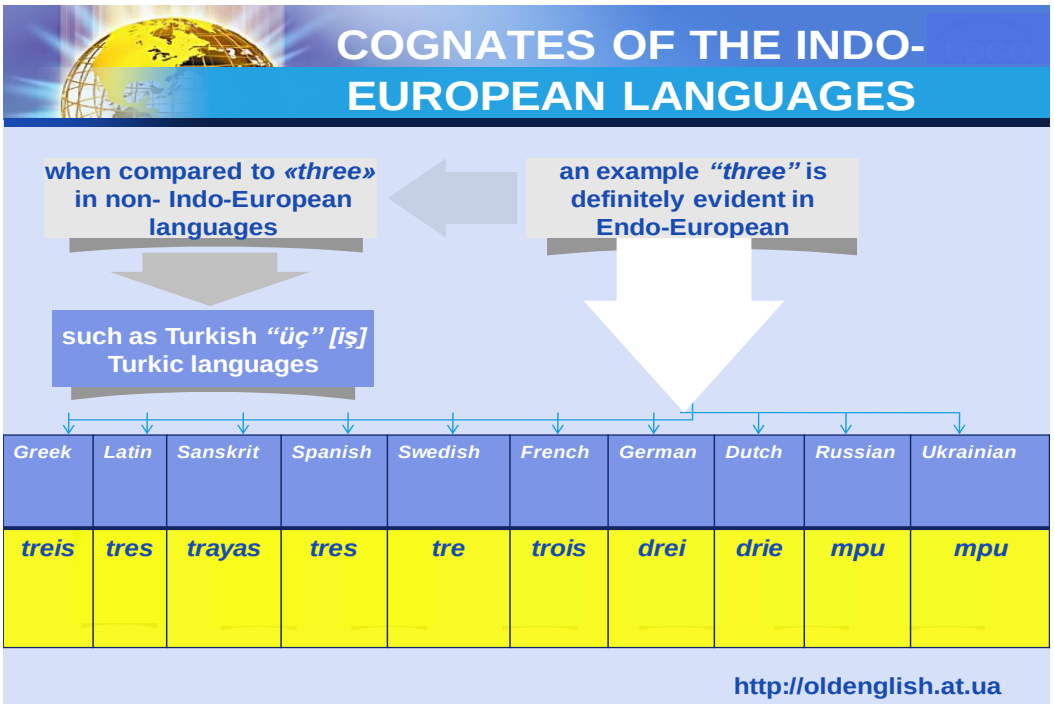


Figure 2.2. The word *'three'* clearly demonstrates its linguistic affinity with the other Indo-European languages

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).

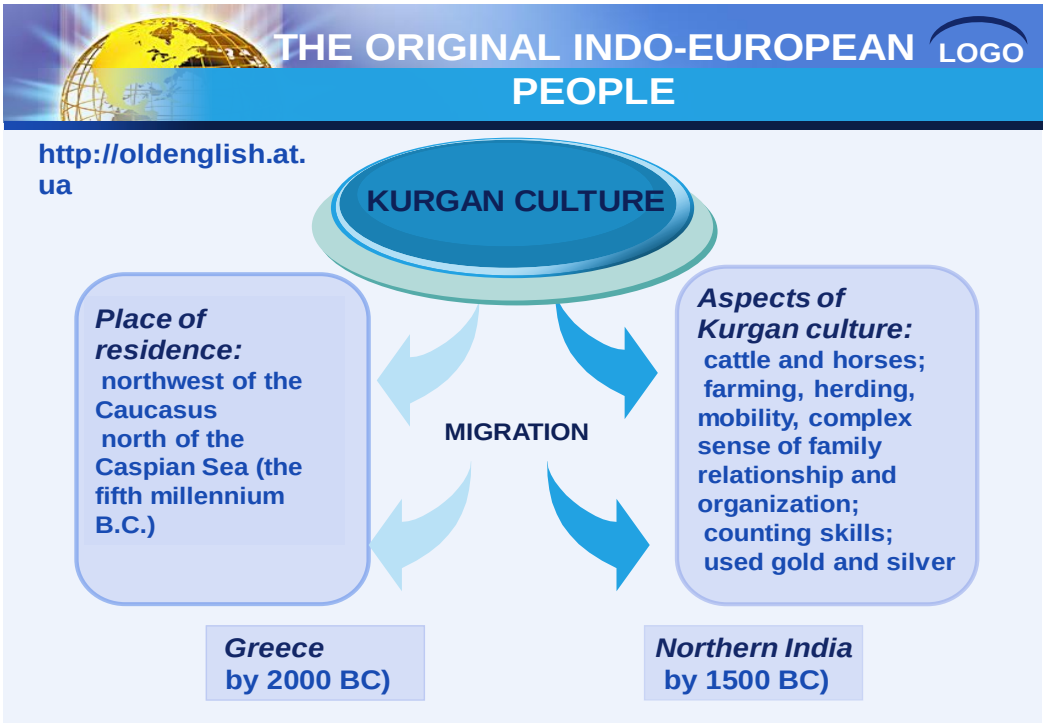


Figure 2.3. The probable home of the Indo-European people

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.***

> *Since these languages can be found all over **Europe** and **Asia,** scholars ultimately called them **Indo-European** and **Proto-Indo-European** as the designation for the **"mother"** tongue itself.*

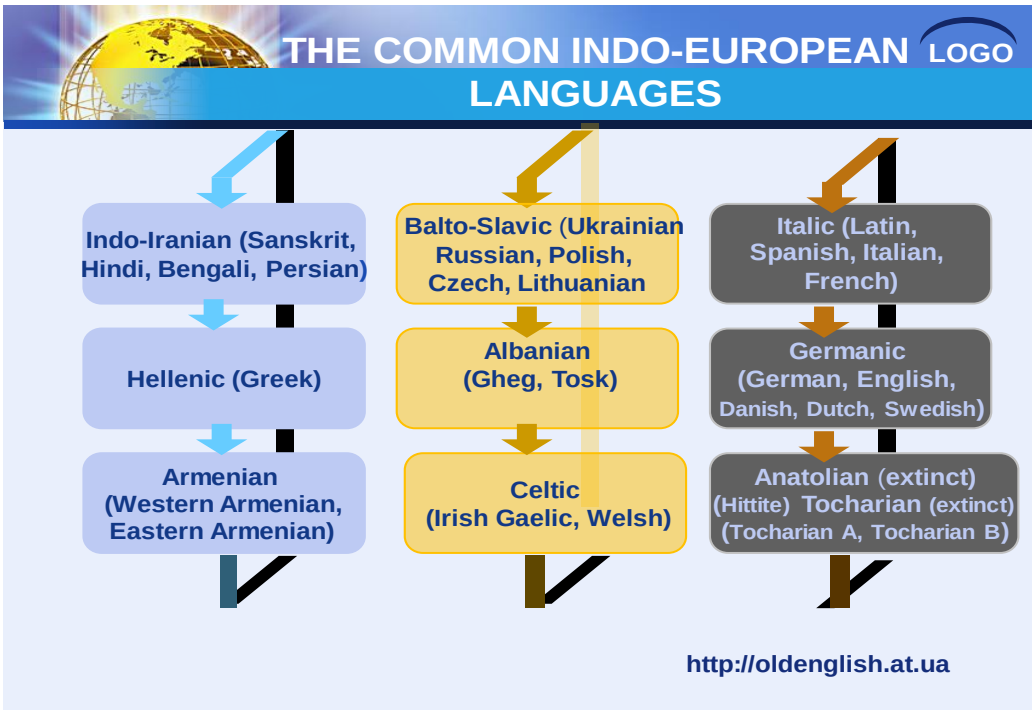


Figure2.4. Branches of the Indo-European family of languages

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.

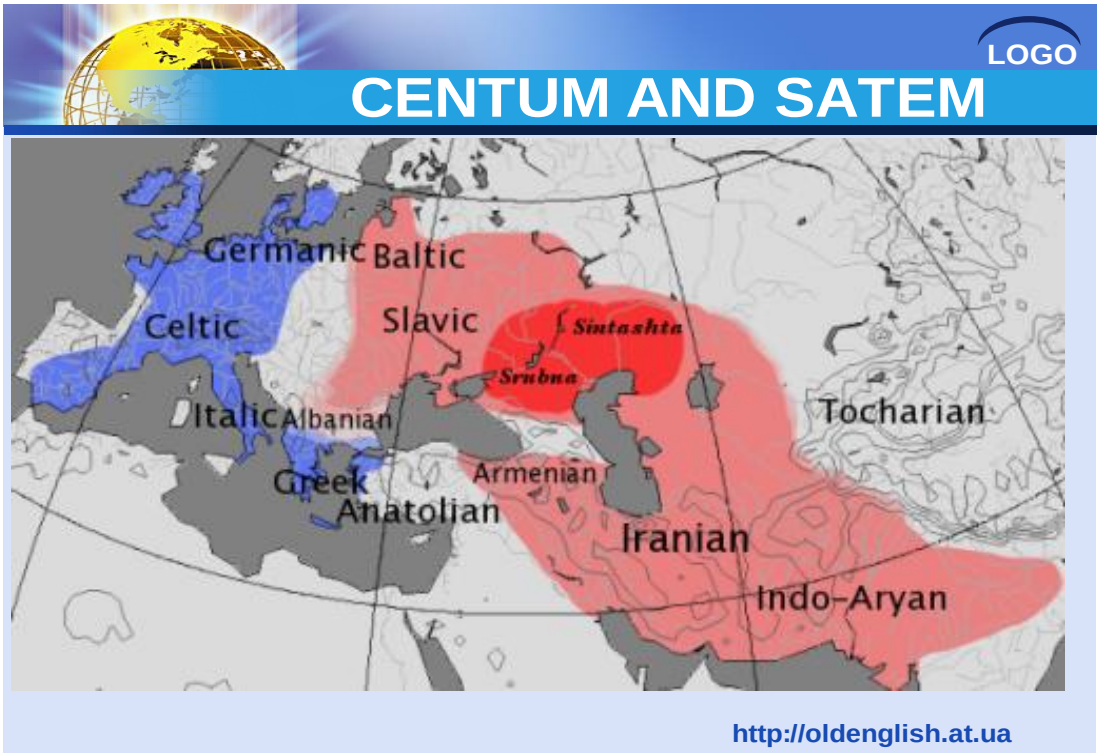


Figure2.5. The Centum and Satem groups of the Indo-European languages

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.

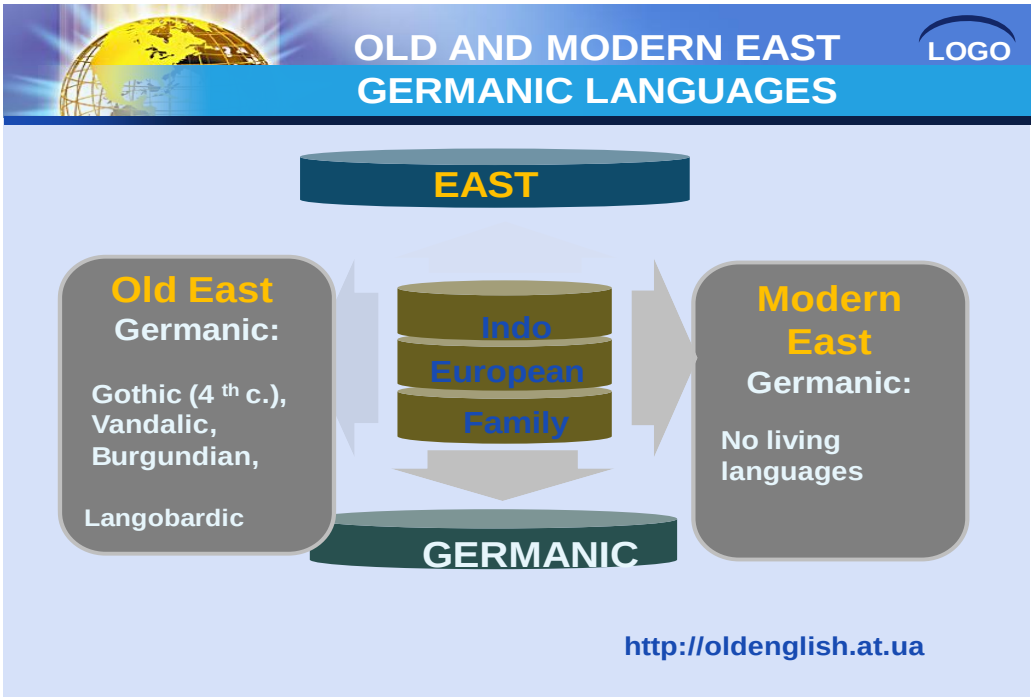


Figure2.6. The group of East Germanic languages

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).

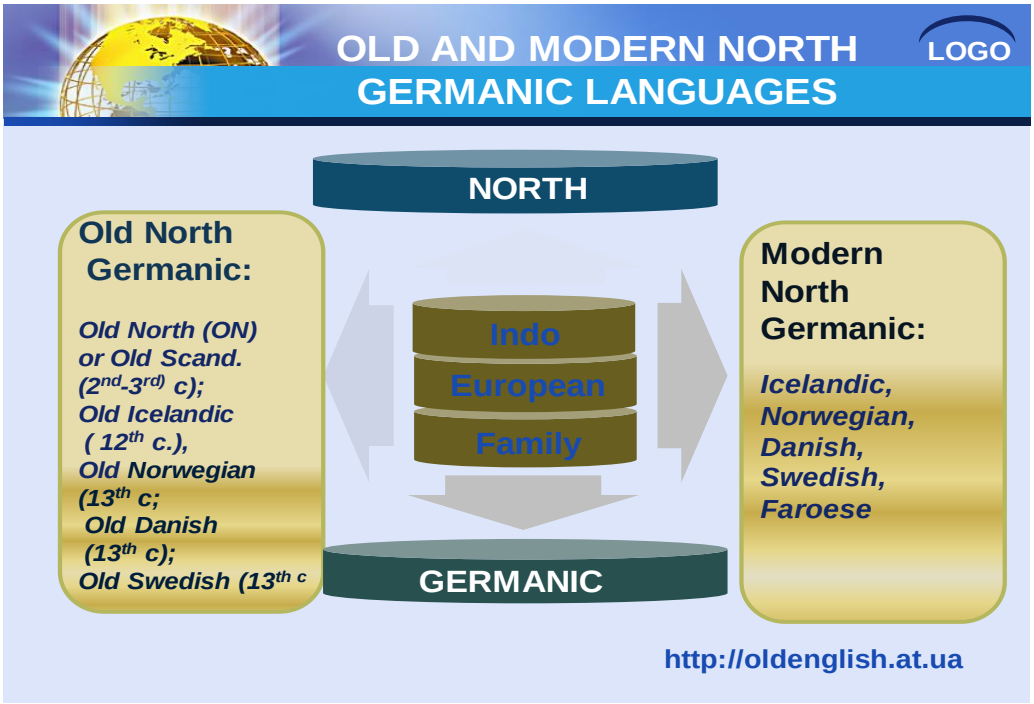


Figure2.7. The group of North Germanic languages

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.

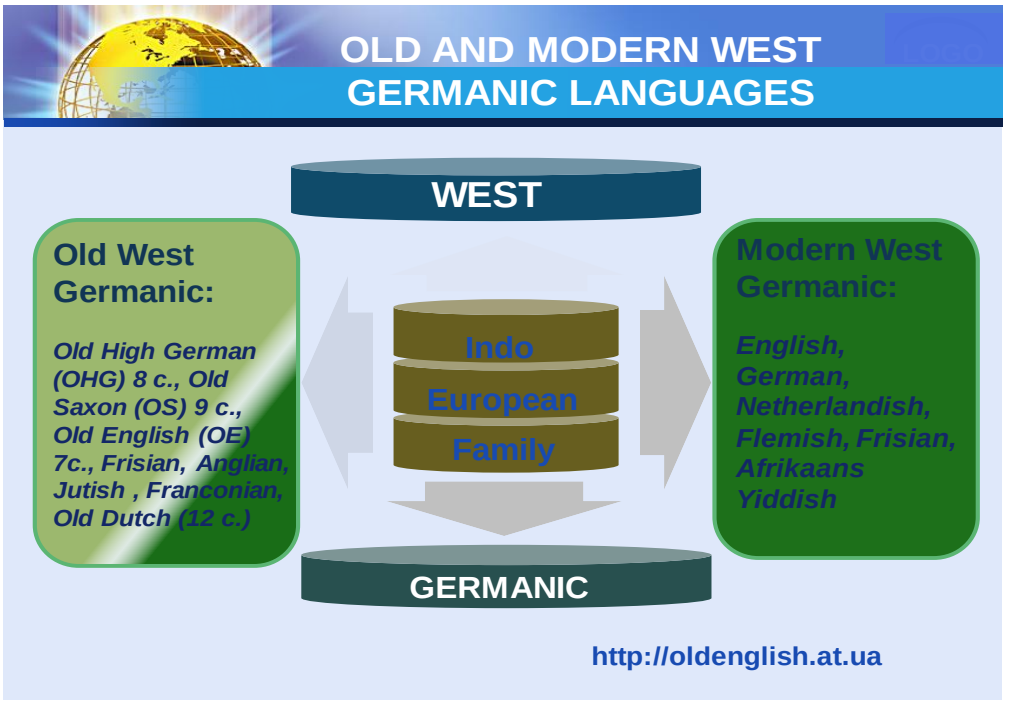


Figure2.8. The group of West Germanic languages

2.3. 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

2.4. 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).**
3. **Voicing** of **Fricatives** in Proto-Germanic **(Verner'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:

Table4.1. The historical development of some words with a ***weakening*** **(ME)** and a ***loss***

(Mod.E) of ***unstressed syllables***

Gothic	Old High German	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
*bair**an***	*ber**an***	*ber**an***	*ber**en***	*bear*
*far**an***	*far**an***	*far**an***	*far**en***	*go*
*finþ**an***	*find**an***	*find**an***	*find**en***	*find*
*frij**ōn***	–	*frēō**ȝan***	*freo**ȝen***	*free*
*sandj**an***	*sent**an***	*send**an***	*send**en***	*send*
*stairn**ō***	*stern**o***	*steorr**a***	*sterr**e***	*star*
*wat**ō***	*wazz**ar***	*wæt**er***	*wet**er***	*water*

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
***tr**ēs*	***t**reis*	***t**rayas*	***þ**rír*	***þ**reo 'three'*
***t**ū*	***t**u*	***t**vam*	***þ**ú*	***þ**u 'thou'*
*fr**ā**ter*	*phr**ē**t**ē**r*	*bhr**ā**ta(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**о**лото*	–	***pf**uol*	***p**ōl ‘pool’*
*du**b**ùs*	*дe**б**ри*	*diu**p**s*	–	*dē**o**p ‘deep’*
PIE /**d**/ became Germanic /**t**/				
Greek	Ukrainian	Gothic	Old Icelandic	Old English
***d**ȳo*	***д**ва*	***t**wai*	***t**veir*	***t**wā ‘two’*
*é**d**ein*	*ї**д**а*	*i**t**an*	*e**t**a*	*e**t**an ‘eat’*
***d**rȳs*	***д**epeво*	***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**ónу*	***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*	*ру**д**ий* < IE **reu**dh***	*rau**ð**r*	*rau**þ**s*	*rēa**d** ‘red’*
***dh**rsnóti*	***д**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**a**nsus*	*gā**s***	***g**ans*	***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 *fæder,* with a medial ***d*** (from earlier **ð*), as opposed to a medial ***θ*** (cf. Proto-Indo-European **pétēr*). 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. *flos/floris* '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**ояти,* English ***st**and*, Greek ***sp**athē*; Latin ***h**ostis,* Ukrainian *єи**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 ***oct**o***,** Gothic ***aht**au***,** German ***ach**t***,** English ***eigh**t.***

> 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.

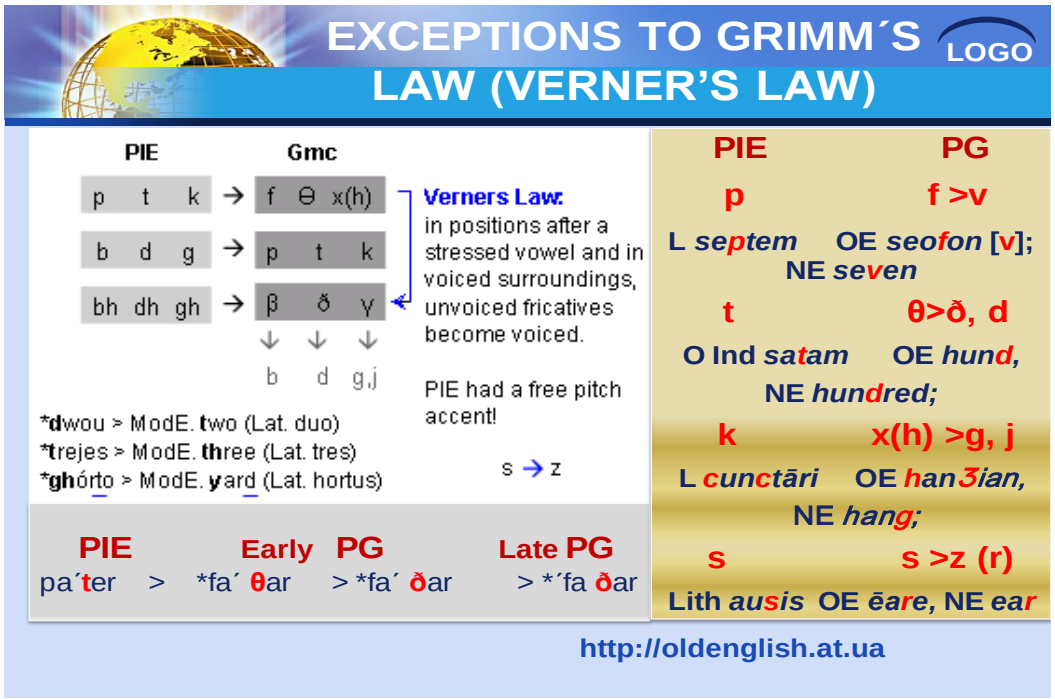


Figure 2.15. Verner's Law

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'**+**cule*** →	*opu**sc**ule* 'small work'
opus+*a**te*** →	*ope**ra**te* 'work, produce'
*os **'mouth, speak'**+**ate**+**ion*** →	*o**ra**tion* 'speech'
os+*c**it** **'move'**+**ant*** →	*o**sc**itant* 'gaping,' o**sc**itancy 'yawning'
*rus **'open land'**+al* →	*ru**ra**l* 'of the country'
rus+*t**ic**+**ate*** →	*ru**st**icate* 'retire to the country'

Germanic also made changes in the IE **vowel** system, though these were less extensive than the consonant changes. The three most important vowels in the Indo-European languages were ***a, e*** and ***o***, each of which could be either short or long. There were also short ***i*** and ***u***, which could operate either as unstressed vowels or as approximants (i.e. **[j]** and **[w]**) Let us exemplify two vowel changes in stressed syllables: IE short ***o*** became G ***a***, and IE long ***ā*** became G ***ō***.

Table 4.7. Examples of the change of ***o*** to ***a***:

Latin	Greek	Russian	Old Irish	Gothic	OHG	Mod.E
octō	*oktō*	*восемь*	*ocht*	*ahtau*	*ahto*	*eight*
nox	–	*ночь*	*nochd*	*nahts*	*naht*	*night*
hostus	*chortos*	*двор*	*gort*	*gards*	*gart*	*yard*
hostis	–	*гость*	–	*gasts*	*gast*	*guest*

Table 4.8. Examples of the change of ***ā*** to ***ō***:

Latin	Ukrainian	Greek	Old Irish	Gothic	Old Norse	Old English	Modern English
frāter	*брат*	*phrātēr*	*brāthir*	*brōþar*	*brōþer*	*brōþar*	*brother*
māter	*мати*	*mātēr*	*māthir*	–	*mōþer*	*mōdor*	*mother*

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.

Table 4.9. Samples on **gradation** (from Minkova, 2009: 147)

Fossils of *e/o* pattern in Modern English the verb–noun pairs:	
do	*did*
sing	*song*
break	*breach*
bind	*bond, bundle*
criss	*cross*
mish	*mash*
flim	*flam*
riff	*raff*

*sh**i**lly*	*sh**a**lly*
*t**i**p*	*t**o**p*

One of the phonological characteristics of the West Germanic languages is the development of **numerous diphthongs**, often found in positions where north and East Germanic have a pure vowel plus a consonant. So the Old Norse *hǫggva* and Modern Swedish *hugga* correspond to the Old English verb *hēawan* 'to cut, hew' and the Old English *brēowan* 'to brew' corresponds to the Old Swedish *bryggja*, Modern Swedish *brygga*. One lexical form found only in West Germanic is the word *sheep* (Dutch *schaap*, German *Schaf*, Old Frisian *skēp*), which has no known cognate elsewhere. Gothic used the forms *awi-* and *lamb*, while the Old Norse word was *fār* (Old Swedish) or *fćr* (Old Icelandic): the Faroes are the 'Sheep Islands' (Old Icelandic *Fćreyjar*) (Barber, 2009: 90).

2.5. 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.

> So the **inflectional endings** were the most specific characteristic **features of the OG languages**, which they **inherited from the Indo-European ones.**

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.**

Table 4.10. The set of inflections of the noun ***dominus*** (from Barber, 2009: 92).

Cases	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*dominus* 'a master'	*dominī* 'masters'
Vocative	*domine* 'a master!'	*dominī* 'masters!'
Accusative	*dominum* 'a master'	*dominōs* 'masters'
Genitive	*dominī* 'of a master'	*dominōrum* 'of masters'
Dative	*dominō* 'to, for a master'	*dominīs* 'to, for masters'
Ablative	*dominō* 'by, with, from a master'	*dominīs* 'by, with, from masters'

The ending ***-us*** shows the nominative case, used for the subject of the sentence, and the ending ***-um*** the accusative case, used for the object of the sentence.

Thus, Latin inherited its system of case inflections from Indo-European, and a somewhat similar system was inherited by Germanic, though both Latin and Germanic reduced the number of case distinctions: for all practical purposes, they had only five or six cases, whereas Indo-European had at least eight.

> The **Old English noun** had **four cases: nominative, genitive, dative,** and **accusative.** It used **prepositions** rather than the **locative, ablative** and **instrumental.**

As for the Indo-European adjectives, they had the same inflections as the nouns did. In **Germanic** languages there were two distinct sets of inflections for **adjectives**, called **strong** and **weak declensions.**

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’.

Table 4.11. The basic paradigms of the Gothic verb ***niman*** 'take' (from, Bammesberger, 2005: 58).

Present				
		Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
Sg.	1.	*nima*	*nimau*	–
	2.	*nimis*	*nimais*	*nim*
	3.	*nimiþ*	*nimai*	*nimadau*
Pl.	1.	*niman*	*nimaima*	*nimam*
	2.	*nimiþ*	*nimaiþ*	*nimiþ*
	3.	*nimand*	*nimaina*	*nimandau*

Preterite			
		Indicative	Subjunctive
Sg.	1.	*nam*	*nemjau*
	2.	*namt*	*nemeis*
	3.	*nam*	*nemei*
Pl.	1.	*nemum*	*nemeima*
	2.	*nemuþ*	*nemeiþ*
	3.	*nemun*	*nemeina*

From Indo-European Germanic had inherited a whole series of verbs that showed change of tense by changing the vowel of their stem, like Modern English ***I sing, I sang***, or ***I bind, I bound***; these are called **strong verbs.** This **alternation** of **vowels** for **grammatical** purposes is characteristic of the Indo-European languages. Alongside these strong verbs, however, Germanic invented a new type, called **weak verbs**. In these, the past tense is formed by **adding** an **inflection** to the **verb-stem**, as in ***I walk, I walked.*** **Weak verbs** have become the **dominant verb-forms** in the **Germanic** languages. In Mod.E strong verbs, which were the original type, are a small minority and weak verbs, having become the norm, are a great majority.

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).

The properties typically cited in word-order typologies are (1) the position of adjectives (A) relative to nouns (N); and (2) the position of genitives (G) relative to nouns (N). In VO languages, the noun tends to come first, yielding NA and NG orders, while the opposite holds in OV languages, which have AN and GN structures (Singh, 2005: 30).

Some languages show a high degree of conformity to one of these patterns, and are thus said to exhibit *typological harmony*. However, there are quite a few that do not: English, for example, is VO but does not possess expected NA order (*a red cat,* not **a cat red*). Trask points out that Basque 'is a perfect OV language' except for the fact that its adjectives follow nouns rather than precede them, and Persian carries all the properties of a VO language apart from the fact that its objects precede verbs (Trask, 1996: 148).

> One more basic **criterion** for grouping languages from the point of view of syntax is the position of the **verb** (Barber, 2009: 127-128).

> If we take the **predicate** as the centre of reference, it becomes possible to classify languages according to whether the **object precedes** or **follows** the **finite verb.** If we represent the object with **O** and the finite verb with **V**, the following two basic patterns can be set up: **VO/OV.**

Whereas **Modern English** is clearly a **VO**-language, **Old English** was an **OV** language, and this characteristic was inherited from Germanic and Indo-European. To illustrate the **Germanic word-order** sequence the runic inscription on the Gallehus horn may be quoted:

(1)	ek Hlewagastiz Holtijaz	horna	tawido
	S	**O**	**V**
	'I, H.H. [this] horn made'		

The object *horna* 'the horn' is found preceding the finite verb *tawido* 'I made'. The subject of the clause consists of three parts: *ek* 'I' is the personal pronoun for first singular, *Hlewagastiz* is the person's name, and *holtijaz* (probably meaning 'from Holt') is used attributively with regard to the name. The text of the inscription can be translated as *'I Hlewagastiz from Holt made the horn'* (Bammesberger, 2005: 60). The position of

the finite verb after the object can be found in a great number of most Indo-European languages. It is generally agreed that the Gallehus runic inscription provides a typical pattern of the Proto-Germanic sentence structure. Dated to the fifth century A.D., it is a straightforward statement framed as an alliterative poetic line. This inscription and others provide strong support for the conclusion that the structure of the sentence in Proto-Germanic was **SOV** (Lehmann).

A passage from Horace might indicate absolute freedom in word-order: *aequam memento rebus in arduis servare mentem* 'remember to keep an even mind in adverse conditions' (Bammesberger, 2005: 61).

Through time, languages can move or drift from one basic type to another, undergoing a series of interconnected changes in certain properties in the process (McMahon, 1994: 6). Indeed, it has been argued that languages which do not exhibit typological harmony are in a state of transition between the two types (Lehmann, 1973). This process of drift has been postulated for the historical development of English from **OV** to **VO.** There is some textual evidence that the ancestor of English, North West Germanic, was essentially an **OV** language; example 2, taken from the runic inscription on the Tune stone, supports this conclusion:

(2) [me]z Woduride staina þrijoz dohtriz dalidum
O **S** **V**
'for me, W., [this stone] three daughters made'

Winfred P. Lehmann has analyzed many samples of **SOV** order from the earliest literary verse and prose texts, such as the Old English Beowulf, the Old English poem Elene, The Voyages of Ohthere and Wulfstan, The First Epistles of Paul the Apostle to the Corinthians, etc (Lehmann).

The first three lines of the Old English epic poem Beowulf evidently support the idea of OV sentence structure:

(3) *Hwæt, wē Gār-dena in gēardagum*
þēodcyninga þrym gefrūnon,
hū ðā æþelingas ellen fremedon.

Listen, we have heard of the glory of the Spear-danes,
of the kings of the people, in days of old,
how the heroes performed deeds of valor.

The two verbs are used at the ends of their clauses as well as of the poetic lines. In the second and third lines the objects *þrym* and *ellen* occupy the major alliterative position. The two genitives precede the noun they modify. These lines and many others

that might be cited from early poetry provide strong support for the conclusion of **OV** order (Lehmann). Among other patterns characteristic of **OV** sentence structure Lehmann figures out comparative constructions, the use of postpositions rather than prepositions, relative clauses indicated by particles, **OV order** for adjectives and genitives, the word order of questions, **OV** pattern of titles after the name, etc. Finally he concluded that such innovations as auxiliaries are in keeping with the gradual shift from OV to VO structure (Lehmann).

Ishtla Singh also points out that the evidence available from North West Germanic indicates a lack of typological harmony: nouns preceded adjectives and genitives could occur either before or after nouns, depending on the class of the latter. In addition, it seems that speakers of the language also made use of **SVO** order. All in all, the available evidence seems to provide a snapshot of a language undergoing typological change from **OV** to **VO** (Singh, 2005: 32).

In conclusion, we may confirm that the **Germanic** languages have close **affinities** with the other Indo-European ones as in **morphology** so in **syntax,** together with **certain** peculiar **developments** of their **own.**

Like the mentioned **Latin** and **Sanskrit – Germanic** is a **highly inflected language:** that is, in its **grammar** it makes a great use of **endings** predominantly in all the **notional parts** of **speech**. The **word-order** rules for Germanic can to a certain extent be **deduced** from the **Latin, Greek** and **Sanskrit syntactic patterns** as well.

2.6. 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*	*bhrā̂ta(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 4.13. The basic **numerals** within Germanic and non-Germanic languages (Левицкий В. В: 2010)

Latin	Greek	Skt	Gothic	OHG	OIcel.	OE	ModE
ūnus	*oinē*	*ēkas*	*ains*	*ein*	*einn*	*ān*	*one*
duo	*dýo*	*d(u)vā*	*twai*	*zwei*	*tveir*	*twā*	*two*
trēs	*treīs*	*tráyah*	*þreis, þrija*	*drī*	*þrīr*	*þrī*	*three*
quattuor	–	*catvắra-h*	*fidwōr*	*fior*	*fjōrir*	*fēower*	*four*
quīnque	*pénte*	*páñca*	*fimf*	*fimf*	*fimm*	*fīf*	*five*

In the Indo-European stock we also find words denoting birds such as *crane, crow, fowl;* animals (domestic and wild) as *bear, bull, cat, cow, fish, fox, goose, hare, horse, hound, mouse, ox, swine, wolf ,worm;* trees and plants *ash, alder, barley, beech, birch, leaf, line, midge, moss, rye, rush, sallow, wheat, wood, yew,* etc. Here belong also quite a number of **verbs**: *to bear, to come, to know, to lie, to mow, to sit, to sow, to stand, to tear, to work,* etc. **Adjectives** belonging to this part of the vocabulary may be illustrated by: *hard, light, quick, right, red, slow, thin, white,* etc. We will present some instances of Modern English **verbs** and **adjectives,** demonstrating their origin from the common Indo-European layer.

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*	*ýr*	*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*	*< *drīþan*	*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- (< *manụ-)*	*man*
mǣv	*māven*	*mār*	–	*< *mǣwō*	*mew*
reg(e)n	*regan*	*regn*	*rign*	*< *regna*	*rain*
sǣ	*sē(o)*	*sǣr*	*saiws*	*< *saiw-i/a-*	*sea*
sāwol, sāwul	*sē(u)la*	*sāl (<* OE *sāwo)l*	*saiwala*	*< *saiwa-lō*	*soul*
wīf	*wīb*	*wīf*	–	*< *wiþa*	*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* [tʃɛ̀nto]; Spanish *ciento* [siɛ̀nto]; 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?

SEMINAR 1

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.

2.1. 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.

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- ✓ 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.
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2.2. 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 [ƀ, 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*

2.3. 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-STUDY 2

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.

2.1. **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

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.
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1999. – P.9–12.
- ✓ 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.

2.2. 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.

THE OLD ENGLISH PERIOD: 450-1100 A.D.

LECTURE 3

> *"…A historian of English describes not how an individual speaker used language at some moment in the past, but how through time the shared abstract patterns of* ***language*** *have gradually changed since the* ***fifth century A.D.,*** *when those first* ***Germanic tribes*** *from Northern Europe invaded the* ***island of Britain*** *and, by the mere political fact of that invasion, thereupon began speaking* ***a language*** *we no longer call* ***West Germanic or Frisian or Jutish*** *or whatever, but* ***Old English".***
>
> (Joseph McWilliams)

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
3.1. Celtic settlers of Britain: the pre-English period
3.2. The Roman conquest of Britain
3.3. The Anglo-Saxon invasion
3.4. The Scandinavian invasion
3.5. Old English dialects
3.6. The early runic inscriptions
3.7. 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. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 89–116.
2. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. –P. 7–15.
3. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 1–11.
4. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 13–16.
5. 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.

3.1. 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 8th-7th cc. B.C. to the 1st 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.

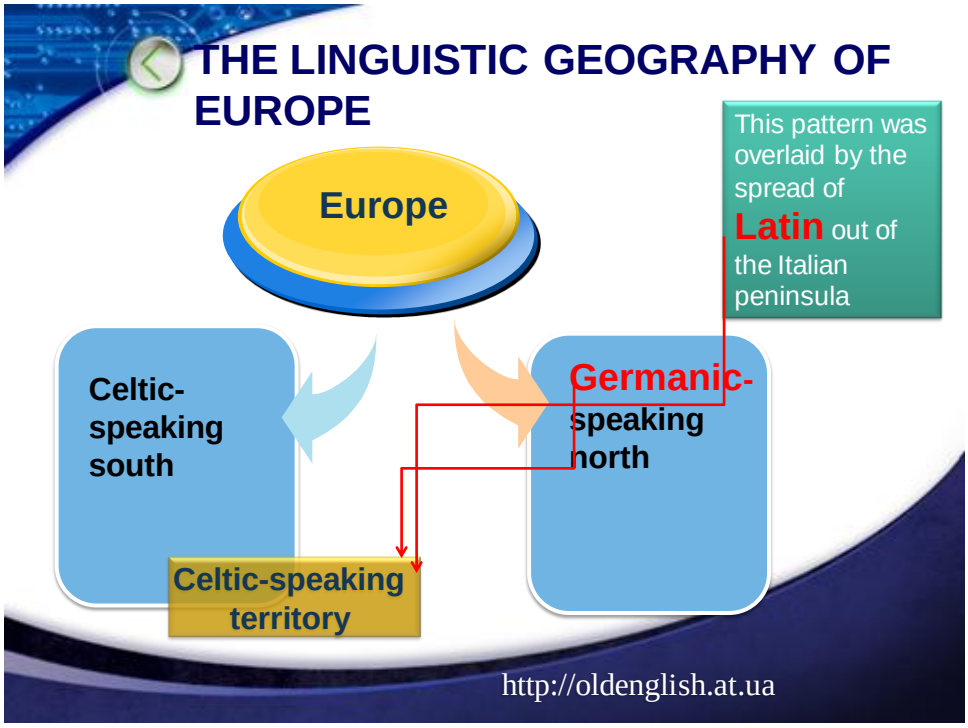


Figure 3.1. The linguistic situation in Europe at the beginning of our era

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.

3.2. 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 3.2. 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
(Bede, Book I, Chapter XV, in Halsall (2000)).

(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'
(Bede, Book I, Chapter XV, in Halsall (2000)).

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).

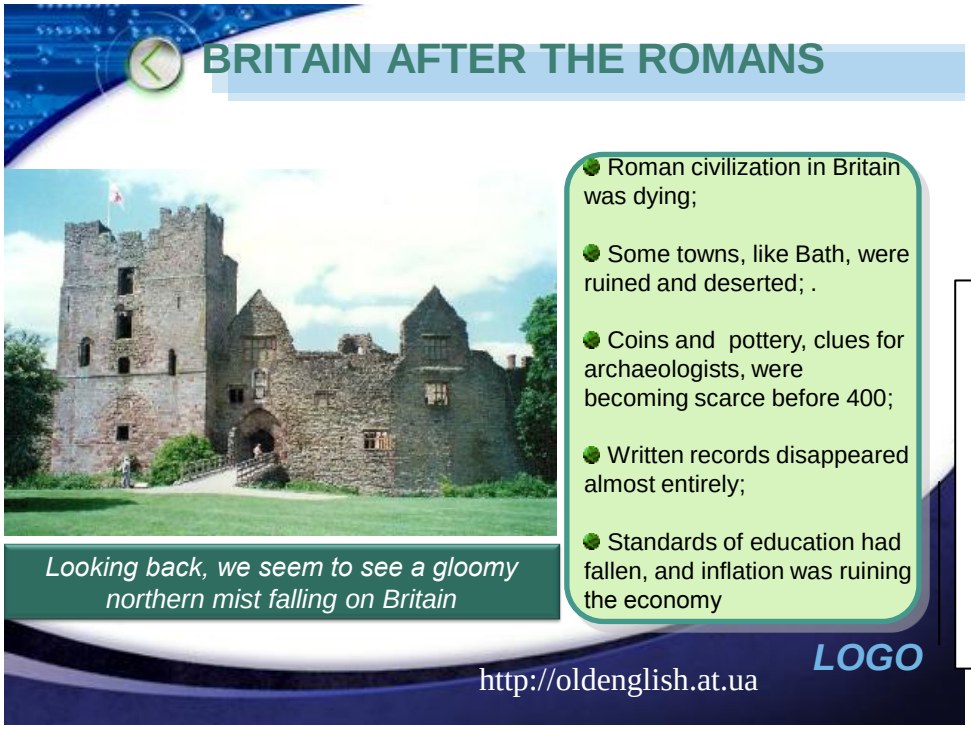


Figure 3.3. Britain after the Romans' departure

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).

3.3. 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"
(The Ecclesiastical History of the English People)

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**.

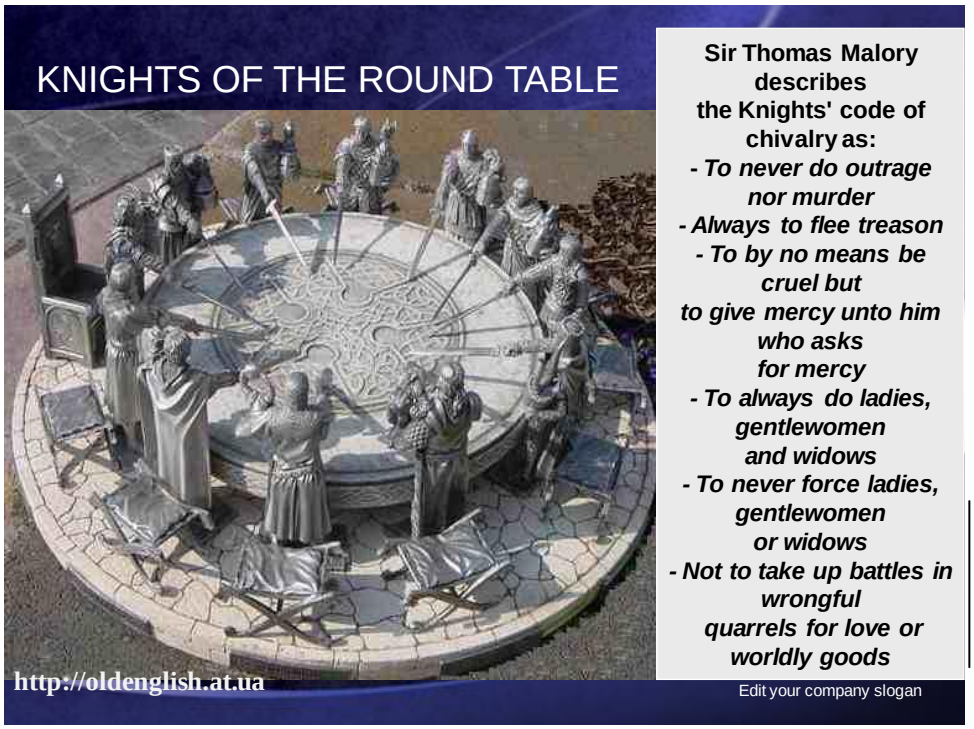


Figure 3.4. The legends extol King Arthur's courage and integrity

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).

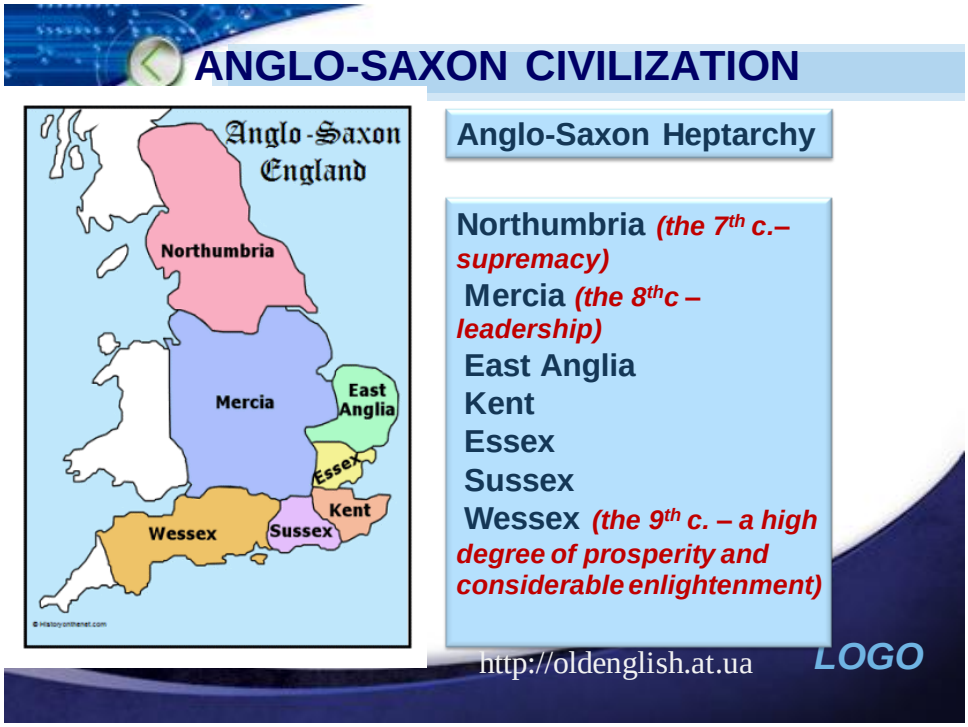


Figure 3.5.

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).

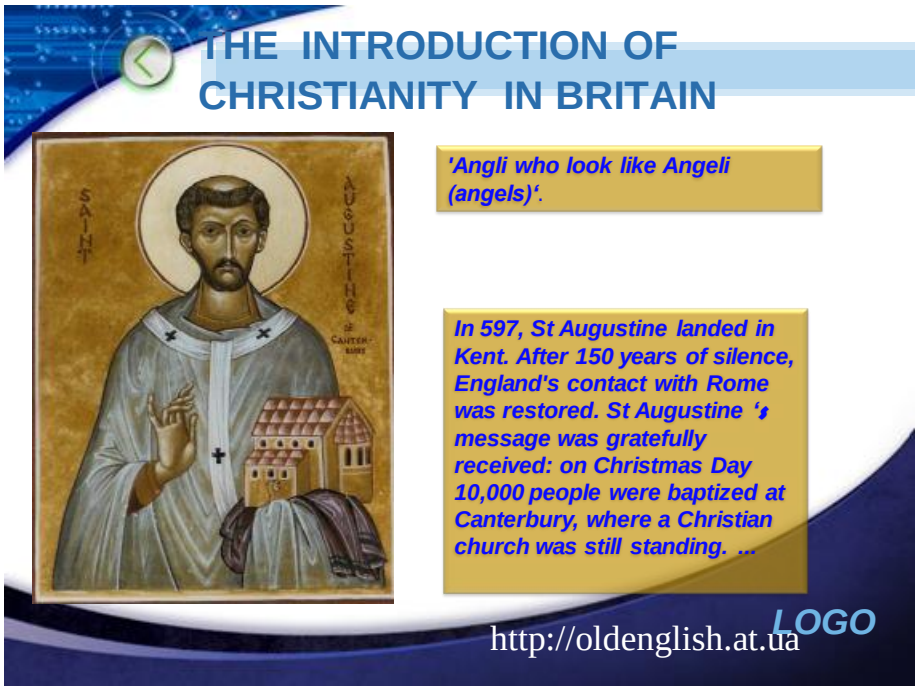


Figure 3.6. St Augustine's Christian mission to England

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.

3.4. 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).

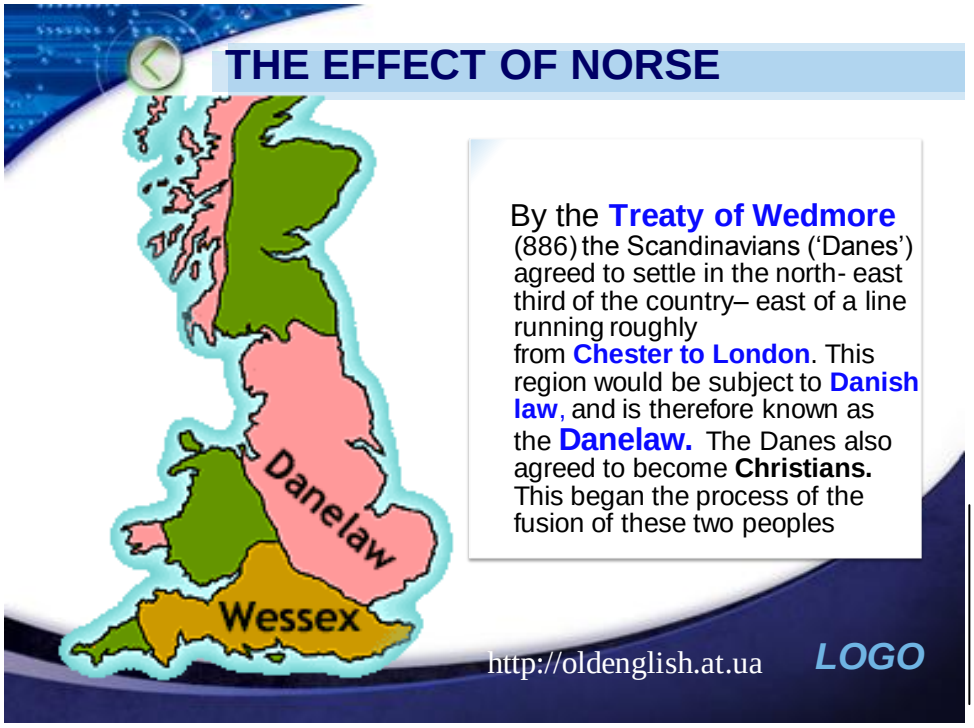


Figure 3.7. The Treaty of Wedmore: the "Danelaw" and England proper

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).

3.5. 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.

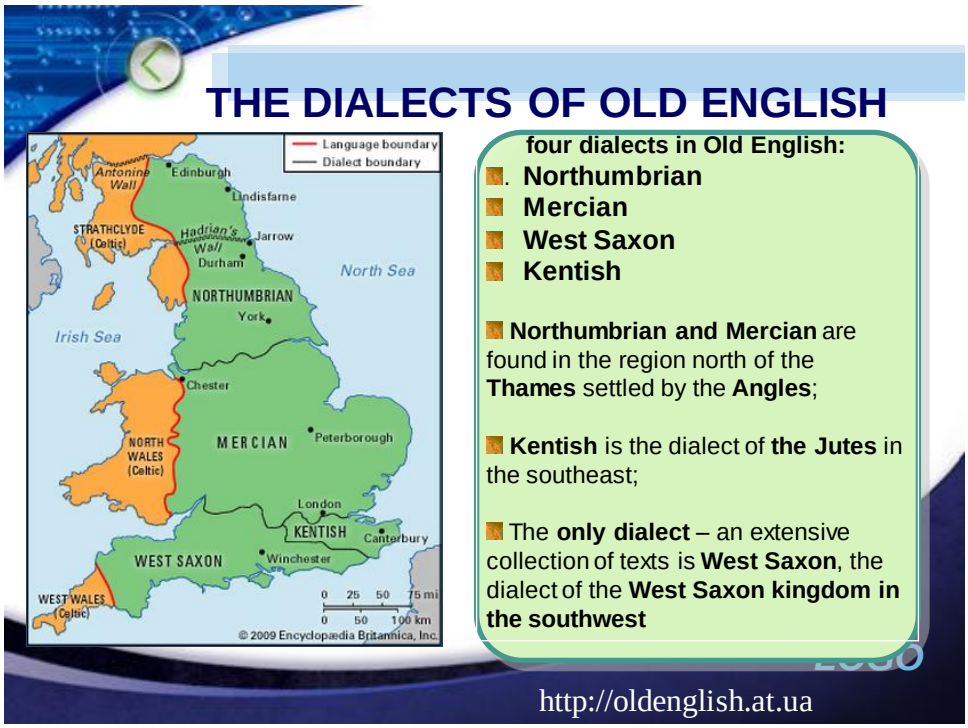


Figure 3.8.

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).

3.6. 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 3.9. 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"*

3.7. 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).

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.*

'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.*

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 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 warrior that will be
when lifeless, afterwards best.
(Literary translation by B. Thorpe)

Beowulf maþelode, bearn Eaʒþeower
Ne sorʒa, snotor ʒuma; sēlre biþ āʒhwæm
þæt hē his frēond wrecce, 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.

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.

The nine lines in **Example 2** from *"Cædmon's Hymn"* describe the creation of the world.

Nu sculon herigean heofonrices Weard,
Meotodes meahte ond his modgeþanc,
weorc Wuldorfæder swa he wundra gehwæs
ece Drihten, or onstealde.
He ærest sceop eorðan bearnum
heofon to hrofe halig Scyppend;
þa middangeard moncynnes Weard,
ece Drihten, æfter teode,
firum foldan, Frea ælmihtig.

Now we shall praise heaven-kingdom's Guardian,
the Creator's might, and his mind-thought,
the works of the Glory-father: how he, each of us wonders,
the eternal Lord, established at the beginning.
He first shaped for earth's children heaven as a roof, the holy Creator.
Then a middle-yard, mankind's Guardian,
the eternal Lord, established afterwards,
the earth for the people, the Lord almighty.

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.

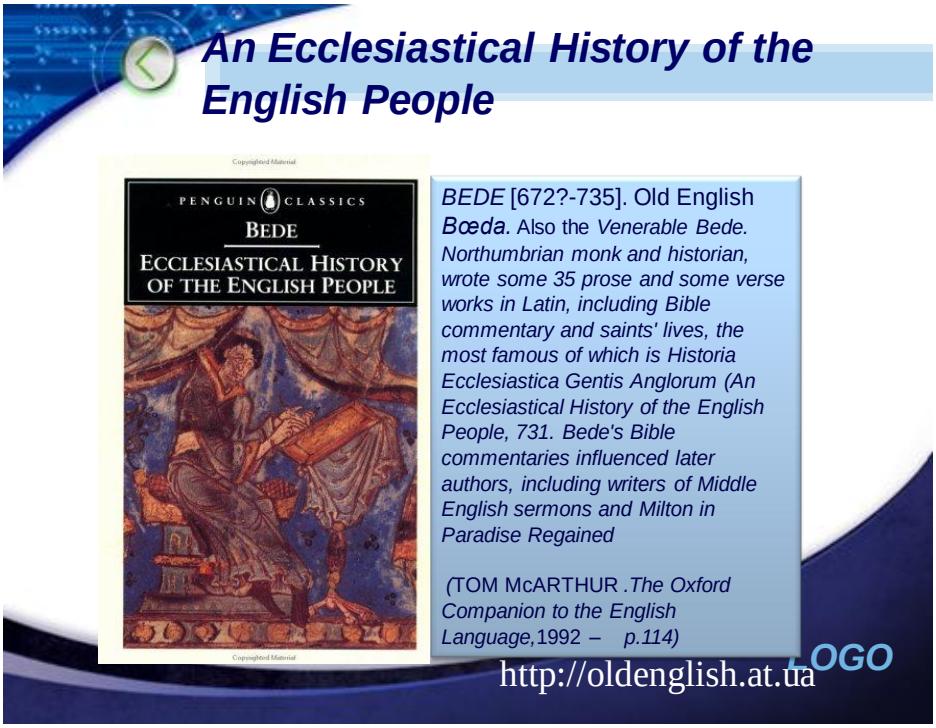


Figure 3.10. Bede's *Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglo-Rum*

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.

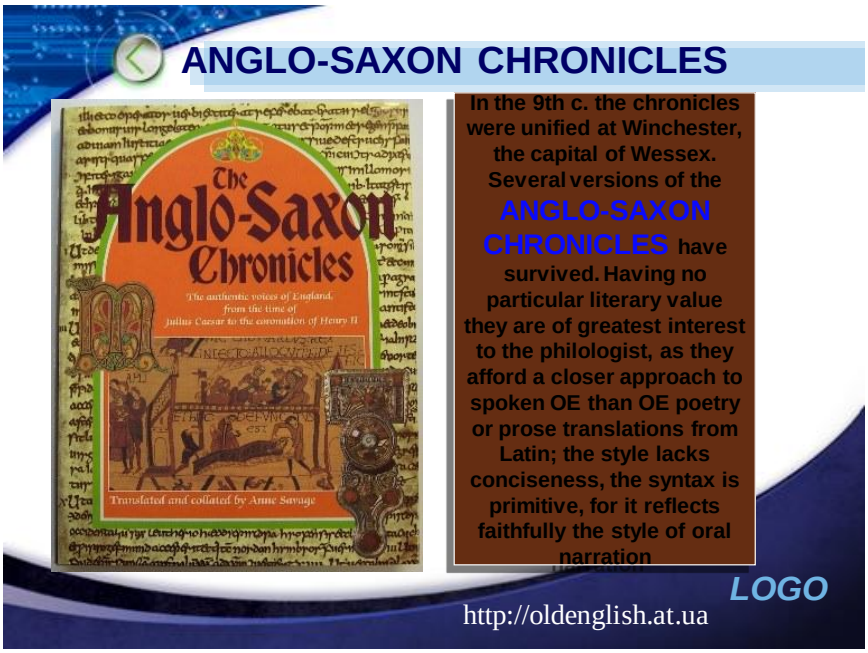


Figure 3.12.

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 3

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.

3.1. 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.
- ✓ Lecture 3.

3.2. 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 18th 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.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE IV

OLD ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

LECTURE 4

> "*Language is a system of arbitrary **vocal symbols** by means of which a **social group cooperates**".*
>
> (B. Bloch)

Aims:

- ✓ perceive phonetic irregularities between spelling and pronunciation;
- ✓ be able to account for major vowels and consonants changes that occurred in Old English.

Points for discussion:

Introduction

4.1. Spelling irregularities

4.2. Word stress

4.3. Vowel changes in Old English

- 4.3.1. *Breaking (fracture)*
- 4.3.2. *Palatal mutation (**i**-umlaut)*
- 4.3.3. Back or velar mutation
- 4.3.4. *Diphthongization after palatal consonants*
- 4.3.5. *Mutation before **h***
- 4.3.6. *Contraction*
- 4.3.7. *Lengthening of vowels before the clusters **nd, ld, mb***

4.4. Consonant changes in Old English

- 4.4.1. *Voicing of fricatives in intervocalic position*
- 4.4.2. *Palatalization of the sounds **c′, sc, cð***
- 4.4.3. *Assimilation before **t***
- 4.4.4. *Loss of consonants in certain positions*
- 4.4.5. *Metathesis of **r***
- 4.4.6. *West Germanic gemination of consonants*

4.5. Reflexes of Common Germanic diphthongs in Old English

Summary

Questions for self-control

Key terms to know:

Monophthongs	**Back / Velar Mutation**
Diphthongs	Mutation before **h**

Assimilation	Contraction
Breaking (fracture)	Voicing of Fricatives
Palatalization	Palatalization of **j**
Palatal mutation (**i**-umlaut)	Assimilation before **t**
Diphthongization	Gemination of Consonants

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

1. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 117–148.
2. Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 47–50.
3. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 16–19.
4. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 13–23.
5. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 22–25; 30–35.

Additional:

1. В.Д. Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 31–45.
2. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 53–68.

Introduction

In this lecture we will start tracing the history of the English sound system and its relation to spelling. In particular, we will discuss the most important vocalic (*breaking, i-umlaut, diphthongization, lengthening)* and consonantal (*voicing, palatalization, metathesis of* ***r,*** *gemination*) sound changes in Old English which will leave their mark on the phonetic structure, reading and spelling of words in Present-day English. Evidently we will get acquainted with some of the written sources in Old English, and we'll listen to, try to read and examine the first lines of *Cædmon's Hymn*.

4.1. Spelling irregularities

"The Poem on Spelling Irregularities" demonstrates the discrepancy between the spelling and pronunciation very clearly.

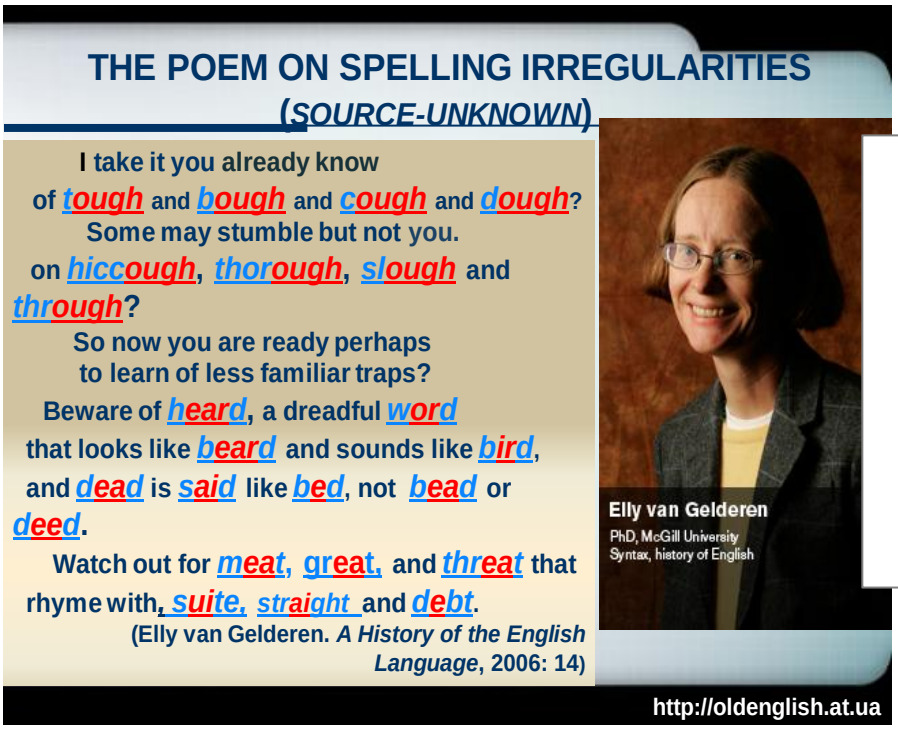


Figure 4.1. The Poem on *Spelling Irregularities*

An explanation of these and other peculiarities of Modern English pronunciation and spelling is to be sought in the history of English sounds and spelling. In particular, with regard to the reading of English vowels, historical study will show that in Old English these letters, Latin by origin, denoted the sounds similar to those which were assigned to them in Latin and which they still represent in modern West-European languages using the Latin alphabet, for example German. They changed their sound meanings as a result of the historical changes. All these historical processes in the sound system will be examined in our subsequent lectures on Middle and Early Modern English phonology. But before tracing the changes that took place in the sounds and spelling of the English language in its long history, we should pay attention to the spelling and pronunciation of English at the time when Old English written records appeared.

Ever since the Old English period English writing was based on the Latin alphabet.

With the introduction of **Christianity** in the **7th** century the Anglo-Saxons acquired the **Latin alphabet**, before they used the runic one.

Christianity brought the Latin model of writing. The English already had one form of writing, runes, but these were only used 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 OE verb *wrītan* could mean both ‘write’ and ‘scratch’ (Barber, 2009: 112). It is unclear how and where the **runic alphabet** originated, but it has clear similarities with **Greek** and **Latin** alphabets. The best-known runic inscriptions are the **Scandinavian** ones. The English developed the runic alphabet in the seventh century in a rather distinctive form which, from its first six letters, is known as the ‘futhorc’ (fuþorc). When the clerics introduced

writing to England, they used a version of the Latin alphabet with runic symbols from the futhorc. Some runic letters were retained after the 7th century and used regularly by Old English scribes, such as the letter **þ** ('thorn') denoting the interdental voiced and voiceless fricatives **[ð, θ]** and the rune **ƿ** ('wynn') denoting the sound **[w]**.

The OE forms of the **Latin letters** were often peculiar; the letter **g**, for instance, being written **ȝ** ('yogh'). Other peculiar letters were **æ** ('ash') and **ð** ('eth').

The ligature **æ** is a combination of the letters **a** and **e** blended together.

Old English writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound.

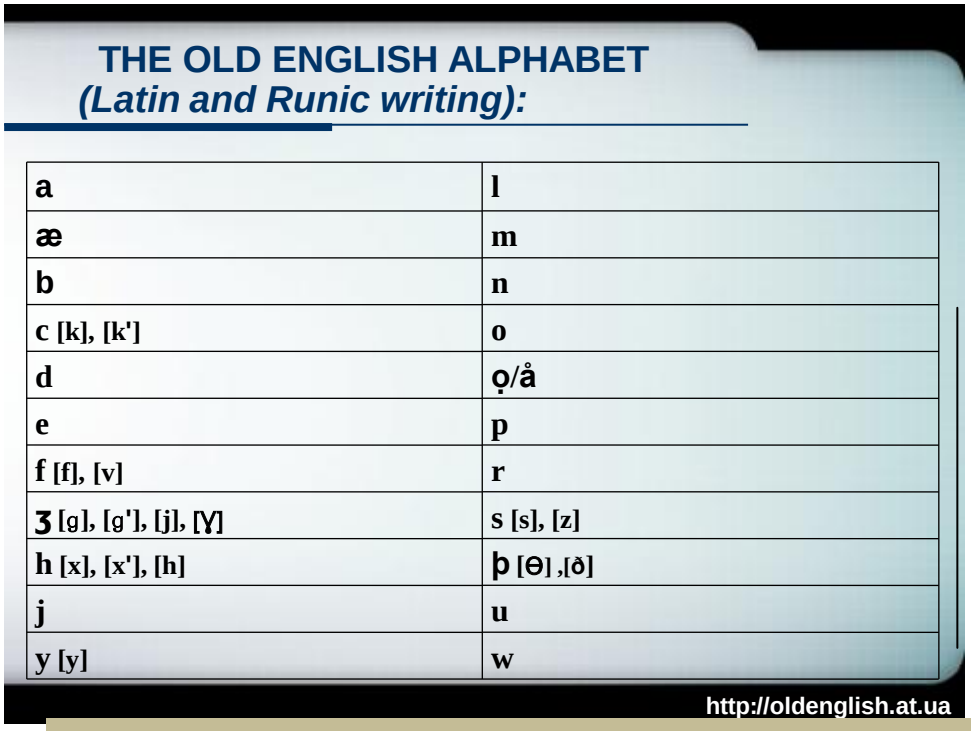


Figure 4.2. The Old English Alphabet (Mykhailenko, 1999: 24)

4.2. Word stress

In Old English, as in other Germanic languages, words of more than one syllable had a **strong stress** on the **first**, normally the **root**, syllable. The **exceptions** are concerned mostly with **verbs** beginning with an **unstressed prefix** (e.g. *be'ginnan* 'to begin') and adverbs made up of a proposition and a noun (e.g. *of'dune* 'downwards') where the **root syllable** received the **stress**, even though it was not at the beginning of the word. Word stress was fixed; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word, e.g.

Nom. case: *hlāford* ['xla:vord]
cyning ['kyniŋg]

Dat. case: *hlāforde* ['xla:vordə]
cyninge ['kyniŋgə]

Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, had two stresses, the chief and the secondary ones. The chief stress was fixed on the first root-morpheme.

The stressed syllable was pronounced with increased force at the expense of the unstressed syllables following it, which were weakened accordingly. This marked difference in the degree of force or intensity affected the subsequent development of vowels: unstressed vowels developed in different ways from those of stressed vowels. It also affected the development of the grammatical structure of English, contributing to the weakening and loss of grammatical endings since these were part of unstressed final syllables. For illustration of word accentuation is the first sentence from Ohthere's account of his voyage round the Scandinavian Peninsula (Orosius' *World History* – West Saxon dialect, 9th c.):

"Ōhthere 'sæde his 'hlāforde 'Ælfrēde 'cyninge þæt hē 'ealra 'Norðmanna 'norþmest 'būde".

"Ohthere said to his lord Alfred king that he of all Northmen to the North lived".

4.3. Vowel changes in Old English

The letters used in OE to represent **vowel** sounds were **i, e, æ, y, o, u, a.** These seven letters were used for both **short** and **long** vowel sounds (a total number of 14). All the symbols represent pure vowels, not diphthongs. To represent **diphthongs**, the Anglo-Saxons used **digraphs** (sequences of two symbols): **ea, eo, io** and **ie.** They too could be either short or long. Old English diphthongs were stressed on the first element. The first elements of the diphthongs ea, ēa were open, so that these diphthongs can be transcribed phonetically as [æa]. [ǣa]. The diphthongs **io** and **īo** appear mainly in early texts of northern and south-eastern (Kentish) dialects of Old English. In the West Saxon dialect they were, for the most part, replaced in the 9th century by **eo** and **ēo** respectively, e.g. *d**ēo**p* 'deep' *s**eo**fon* 'seven' for *d**īo**p, s**io**fon*. The digraph **ie** probably also once represented a diphthong, but even in early West Saxon texts it seems already to have fallen together with the sounds represented by **i/y**. And in the 9th century they changed into **ȳ** or **ī**, e.g. ***ie**ldra* > ***y**ldra, **i**ldra* ('elder'), *h**īe*** > *h**ȳ**, h**ī*** ('they'). Non-West-Saxon texts also use the digraph **oe**; this, however, does not represent a diphthong but the close-mid front rounded vowel [**ø(:)**], that is, some kind of [**e(:)**] with lip-rounding (Barber, 2009: 115).

Table4.1. The vowel system of Old English

vowels	**front**	**back**
short monophthongs	i, e, æ, y	u, o, a
long monophthongs	ī, ē, ǣ, ȳ	ū, ō, ā
short diphthongs	ea, eo, io > (eo), ie > (y, i)	

long diphthongs	ēa, ēo, īo > (ēo), īe > (ȳ, ī)	

The vowels **y** and **ȳ** were pronounced like German short and long **ü**, i.e., they were rounded close front vowels, such as will be produced if we try to articulate [i:] and [i] with lips protruded and rounded. Before nasals **a** became **å,** a back vowel varying from **a** to an open **o**, e.g. *l**a**nd, l**o**nd* 'land'; *n**a**ma, n**o**ma* 'name'. But later this vowel lost its nasal quality.

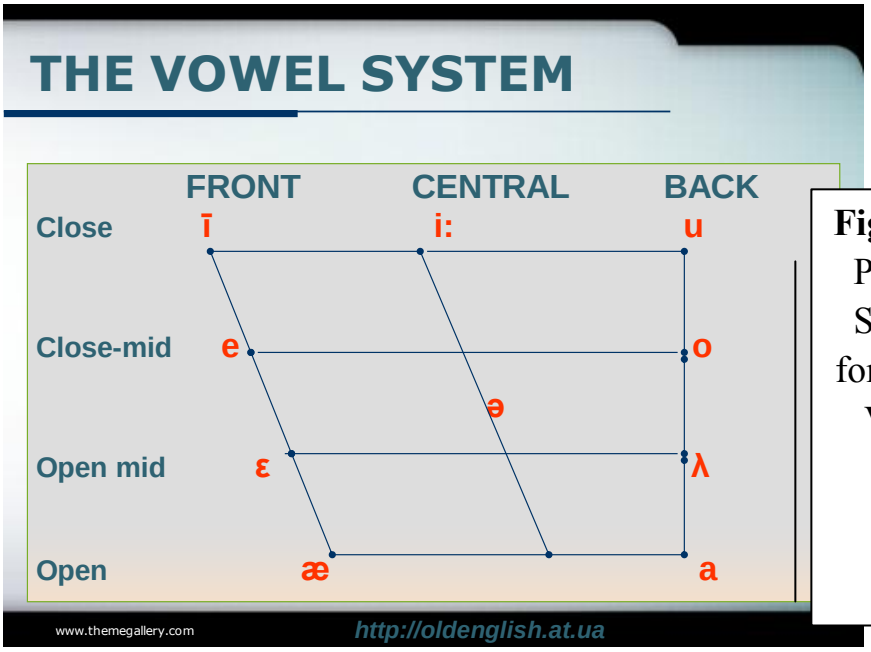


Figure 4.3. Phonetic Symbols for English Vowels

The Old English sound system developed from the Proto Germanic system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written period of history and got some phonetic peculiarities from the speech of Angles, Saxons and Jutes at the time of their invasion of Great Britain. Phonological developments of OE in comparison with other Germanic languages within the system of vowels (monophthongs/diphthongs) and consonants are considerable. The Proto-Germanic diphthongs were changed in Old English. For example, PG **ai** became OE **ā**, so that Old English has *st**ā**n* and *h**ā**m* where Gothic has *st**ai**ns* 'stone' and *h**ai**ms* 'village'. And PG **au** became OE **ēa**, so that Old English has *dr**ēa**m* where Old Norse has *dr**au**mr* 'dream', and *b**ēa**m* where German has *B**au**m* 'tree, pole', and ***ēa**re* where Gothic has ***au**sō* 'ear' (Barber, 2009: 121).

Table4.2. Correspondence table between **Gothic** and **Old English** vowels

Gothic	**Old English**
[a] *d**a**gs, hw**ā**, p**a**ta*	**[æ/a]** *d**æ**g* 'day', *hw**æ**t* 'what', *þ**æ**t* 'that'
ē: *slēpan, lētan, jēr, hēr*	**[ǣ/ēa/ē]** *sl**ǣ**pan* 'sleep', *l**ǣ**tan* 'let', *ʒ**ēa**r* 'year', *h**ē**r* 'here'
[a] *d**a**gos, f**a**ran*	**[a]** (in an open syllable before a back vowel) *d**a**ʒas* 'days', *f**a**ran* 'to go, travel'
[ai] ***ai**ns, st**ai**ns, hl**ai**fs*	**[ā]** *ā**n*** 'one', *st**ā**n* 'stone', *hl**ā**f* 'loaf'

[au] *hau**bi**þ, au**g**o*	**[ēa]** *hē**a**fod* ‘head’, *ē**a**ʒe* ‘eye’
[iu] *di**u**ps, ki**u**san*	**[ēo]** *dē**o**p* ‘deep’, *cē**o**san* ‘to choose’
[ī] (the digraph **ei** in Gt is always **[ī]**) *me**i**ns, re**i**san*	**[ī]** *mīn* ‘mine, my’, *rī**s**an* ‘to rise’
[ō] *brōþar, fōtus, gōþs*	**[ō]** *brōþor* ‘brother’, *fōt* ‘foot’, *ʒōd* ‘good’
[u] *fugls, guþ*	**[u/o]** *fuʒol* ‘fowl’, *ʒod* ‘God’
[ū] *ūt, ūta*	**[ū]** *ūt, ūte* ‘out’

Table4.3. Correspondence table between **Gothic, OE** and **OHG** vowels

Gothic	Old English	Old High German
[ē] *slēpan*	[ǣ] *slǣpan*	**[ā]** *slā**f**an* ‘to sleep’
[ō] *brōþar*	**[ō]** *brōþor*	**[uo]** *br**uo**der* ‘brother’
[ai] *ha**i**tan*	**[ā]** *hā**t**an*	**[ei]** *he**i**zen* ‘to be called’
[au] *da**u**þs*	**[ēa]** *dē**a**d*	**[ō]** *tōt* ‘dead’
[iu] *bi**u**dan*	**[ēo]** *bē**o**dan*	**[io]** *bi**o**ten* ‘to bid’

The comparison of OE words with the corresponding OHG ones is predominantly connected with the *second consonant shift*; i.e., systematic changes of consonants in Old High German in the pre-written period stipulating, thus, a particular place for German in the West Germanic subgroup of languages.

Table4.4. The **Second** Consonant Shift

Gothic // Old English	Old High German
a vowel + p, t, k e.g. Gt. *na**t**i* // OE *ne**t***; Gt. *ski**p*** // OE *sci**p***; Gt. ***i**tan* // OE ***e**tan*	**a vowel +f, tz, h** (after a short vowel **doubling** of **ff, zz, hh, (ch)** e.g. OHG *ne**zz**i* ‘net’; *ski**f*** ‘ship’; ***ezz**an* ‘to eat’
p, t, k at the beginning of a word, after a consonant or doubling of it e.g. Gt. ***tw**ai* // OE ***tw**ā*; Gt. *sa**tj**an* // OE *se**tt**an*	**pf/ph, z/zz, ch/kh** e.g. OHG ***z**wei* [tswei] ‘two’; OHG *se**zz**en/se**ts**en* ‘to set’
b, d, g e.g. Gt. ***d**ails* // OE ***d**ǣl*; Gt. ***g**asts* // OE ***g**est*; OE ***b**et***	**p, t k** e.g. OHG ***t**eil* ‘deal’; OHG ***k**ast* ‘guest’; OHG ***p**az* ‘better’
Note. The transition of the Germanic voiceless fricative **/þ/** into a voiced stop **/d/** e.g. OE ***þ**ǣt* – OHG ***d**az* ‘that’; OE *pæ**þ*** – OHG *pfa**d*** ‘path’; OE ***þ**encan* – OHG ***d**enchen* ‘to think’; OE ***þ**orn* – OHG ***d**orn* ‘thorn’; OE *ba**þ*** – OHG *ba**d*** ‘bath’	

The sound changes that happened in Old English were almost all of a combinative, or positional, nature; i.e., they were caused by the influence of the neighbouring sounds in the word. So, the Old English combinative sound changes are as follows:

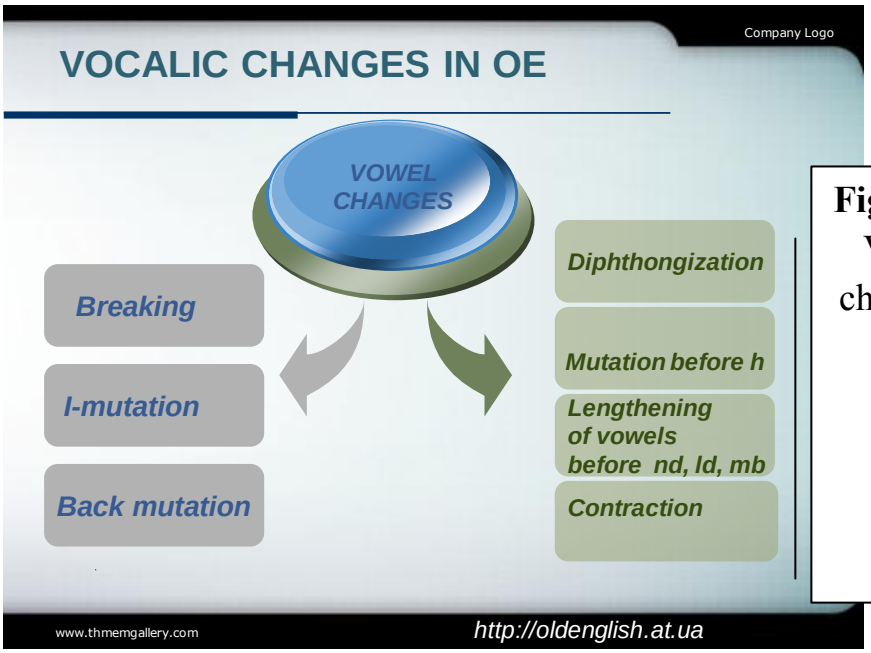


Figure 4.4. Vocalic changes in OE

4.3.1. *Breaking (Fracture)*

The **Old English Breaking** is one of the combinative changes of prehistoric Old English that caused the diphthongization of vowels, often with different results in different dialects. **Breaking,** or '**fracture**', affected vowels before **/l/** plus consonant, **/r/** plus consonant, and /**h**/. In other words it is a formation of a *short diphthong* from a *simple short vowel* when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster. Breaking was more characteristic of West Saxon than of Anglian dialects (Mercian and Northumbrian). So West Saxon and Kentish have the forms *c**ea**ld* 'cold', ***ea**rm* 'arm' and ***ea**hta* 'eight', compared with Gothic *k**a**lds*, ***a**rms* and ***a**htau*. The Anglian dialects, however, have unbroken vowels in many positions, as in *c**a**ld* 'cold' and ***æ**hta* 'eight', ***a**ld* 'all'.

(**1-3**)

a > ea before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word
æ > ea before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word
e > eo before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word

(**1**)

a > ea before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word

Gothic ***a**rms* > OE ***ea**rm* > NE *arm;*
Gothic ***a**htau* > OE ***ea**hta* (Kent., Wes.) > NE *eight;*
Gothic *h**a**rdus* > OE *h**ea**rd* > NE *hard;*
OHG ***a**lt* > OE ***ea**ld* > NE *old;*
OHG *f**a**llan* > OE *f**ea**llan* (Wes., Kent.) > NE *to fall*

(**2**)

æ > ea before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word

OHG *Saltz* > **s**æ**lt* > OE *s**ea**lt* > NE *salt;*
OHG *haltan* > **h**æ**ldan* > OE *h**ea**ldan* > NE *hold;*
OHG *sah* > **s**æ**h* > OE *s**ea**h* > NE *saw;*
OHG *nāh*> **n**ǣ**h* > OE *n**ēa**h* > NE *near*

(3) **e > eo** before **r, l, h + consonant** or **h** at the end of a word

OHG *f**e**htan* > OE *f**eo**htan* > > NE *fight;*
OHG *f**e**hu* (*fihu*) > OE *f**eo**h* > NE *fee;*
Gothic *st**e**rra* > OE *st**eo**rra* > NE *star;*
OHG *h**e**rza* > OE *h**eo**rte* > NE *heart*

4.3.2. *Palatal mutation (i-umlaut)*

One of the Old English sound changes with far-reaching effects in the subsequent periods of English history is the so-called **palatal mutation** or **front mutation** or **i-umlaut** (also known as **i-mutation**). This change was completed before the appearance of the earliest Old English texts.

Palatal mutation affected stressed vowels followed by an unstressed syllable containing an **i, ī** or **j**-element. This element influenced the articulation of the vowel in the preceding stressed syllable **narrowing** it if it was open or **fronting** it in the case of a back vowel. Subsequently, the original presence of **i, ī** or **j** may be established by examining cognate words in other languages. For example, front mutation accounts for the difference in vowel between the related words *dole* and *deal.* In Old English they are *dāl* 'portion' and *d**ǣ**lan* 'to divide, distribute', in which the **ǣ** is due to front mutation; this is clear if we look at the cognate Gothic words, which are *dails* and *dailjan* (the sound **ai** in the Gothic words regularly becomes **ā** in Old English before front mutation takes place) (Barber, 2009: 121).
The various Old English vowels were mutated as follows:

Table 4.5. Samples on **Palatal mutation**

CHANGE (illustrated)	EXAMPLES		
	Gt. or **OE** (without mutation)	**OE** (with mutation)	**ModE**
ā > ǣ	Gt. *h**ā**lian*	OE *h**ǣ**lan*	'to heal'; cf. *hāl* 'hale'
a > e	OE *l**a**ngira*	OE *l**e**ngra*	'longer'; cf. *lång*
æ > e	OE *s**æ**tian*	OE *s**e**ttan*	'to set, make sit'; cf. *sæt* 'sat'
ō > ē	Gt. *gadō**m**jan*	OE *dē**m**an*	'to judge'; cf. *dōm* 'judgement'
o > e	OE *d**o**htri*	OE *d**e**hter*	'to the daughter' (D. Sg.);

			cf. *dohtor* ‘daughter’
ū > ȳ	OE *c**ū**þian*	OE *c**ȳ**þan*	‘to proclaim, to make known’; cf. *cūþ* ‘known’
u >y	Gt. *f**u**lljan*	OE *f**y**llan*	‘to fill’; cf. *full*
ēa > īe	OE *h**ēa**rian*	OE *h**īe**ran*	‘to hear’
ea > ie	OE *e**a**rmiþu*	OE *i**e**rmþu*	‘poverty’; cf. *earm* ‘poor’
ēo > īe	OE *c**ēo**siþ*	OE *c**ie**sþ*	‘chooses’; cf. *cēosan* ‘to choose’
eo >ie	OE *af**eo**rrian*	OE *af**ie**rran*	‘to move away’; cf. *feorr* ‘far’

Some English word pairs, showing the effects of **i-mutation**, survive in Modern English. These occur in the following series of forms:

1) Nouns with ‘irregular’ plural forms e.g.:

*m**a**n – m**e**n*	OE *m**a**n(n) – m**e**n(n)*
*f**oo**t – f**ee**t*	OE *f**ō**t – f**ē**t*
*g**oo**se – g**ee**se*	OE *g**ō**s – g**ē**s*
*t**oo**th – t**ee**th*	OE *t**ō**þ – t**ē**þ*
*m**ou**se – mice*	OE *m**ū**s – m**ȳ**s*

The mutation in the plural forms of these nouns was caused by the i in the Old Germanic nominative plural ending, as in *manniz, fōtiz*, etc.

2) The ‘irregular’ degrees of comparison of the adjective e.g.:

***o**ld – **e**lder – **e**ldest*: OE ***a**ld – **e**ldra (< ald**i**ra) – **e**ldest (< ald**i**st)* – the forms of the Northumbrian dialect.

The West Saxon forms were: ***ea**ld – **y**ldra (< **ie**ldra < ealdira) – **y**ldest (< **ie**ldest < ealdist*

3) In word-building series as

*h**a**le – to h**ea**l*	OE *h**ā**l – h**æ**lan (< h**ā**l**i**an)*
*h**o**t – h**ea**t – to h**ea**t*	OE *h**ā**t – h**æ**tu (< h**ā**t**i**n) – h**æ**tan (< h**ā**t**i**an)*
*bl**oo**d – to bl**ee**d*	OE *bl**ō**d – bl**ē**dan (< bl**ō**d**i**an)*
*br**oo**d – to br**ee**d*	OE *br**ō**d – br**ē**dan (< br**ō**d**i**an)*
*d**oo**m – to d**ee**m*	OE *d**ō**m – d**ē**man (< d**ō**m**i**an)*
*f**oo**d – to f**ee**d*	OE *f**ō**da – f**ē**dan (< f**ō**d**i**an)*
*g**o**ld – to g**i**ld*	OE *g**o**ld – g**y**ldan (< guld**i**an)*
*f**u**ll – to f**i**ll*	OE *f**u**ll – f**y**llan (< full**i**an)*
*l**o**ng – l**e**ngth*	OE *l**å**ng – l**e**ngþu (< lengu < lang**i**n)*
*str**o**ng – str**e**ngth*	OE *str**å**ng – str**e**ngþu (< strengu < strang**i**n)*
*br**oa**d – br**ea**dth*	OE *br**ā**d – br**æ**du (br**ā**d**i**n)*

Other modern pairs illustrating these changes include ***A**ngles* **–** ***E**nglish, gr**o**w* **–** *gr**ee**n, f**ou**l* **–***f**i**le, pr**ou**d* **–** *pr**i**de, s**a**le* **–** *s**e**ll, t**a**le* **–** *t**e**ll, l**o**de* **–** *l**ea**d, d**o**le* **–** *d**ea**l, w**a**nder* **–** *w**e**nd, C**a**nterbury* **–** *K**e**nt, str**ai**ght* **–** *str**e**tch, kn**o**t* **–** *kn**i**t, pl**ea**sure* **–***pl**ea**se.* Thus, we may conclude that **i**-mutation made considerable changes in the pronunciation of English. **I**-mutation or palatal mutation of vowels took place not only in Old English but in other Germanic languages as well. But not all vowel alternatives observed in Old English were due to mutation. Another kind of vowel alternation, called **vowel gradation** or **ablaut,** is found in the principal parts of OE strong verbs, e.g. *wrītan* 'to write' **–** *wrāt* (past sg.) **–** *wr**i**ton* (past pl.) **–** *wr**i**ten* (participle II), so the alternation for the OE verb *wrītan* (the 1st class) is as follows: **ī – ā – i – i.** The vowel gradation for the same verb in Modern English is like that: **[ai] – [əu] – [i]** *write – wrote – written.* The origin of the system of vowel-gradation is to be sought in phonetic changes of the pre-historic Indo-European language.

4.3.3. Back or velar mutation

The Old English **back** or **velar mutation** took place in the 7th – 8th centuries and was of comparatively small importance for the further development of the English language. Back vowels **u, o, a** influencing the front vowels **i, e, æ** of the preceding syllable caused the **formation** of **diphthongs.** The process was not universal; it occurred extensively in Kentish and Anglian dialects, but in the West Saxon literary language velar mutation happened only before the sounds **r, l, p, b, f,** and **m** e.g.:

(1) **i > io**

OE *hir**a*** > OE *h**io**ra* > NE *their*
OE *s**i**l**u**fr* > OE *s**io**lufr* > NE *silver*
OE *s**i**f**o**n* > OE *s**io**fon* > NE *seven*

(2) **e > eo**

OE *h**e**f**o**n* > OE *h**eo**fon* > NE *heaven;*
OE ***e**f**o**r* > OE ***eo**for* > NE *boar;*
OHG *sw**e**st**a**r* > OE *sw**eo**stor* > NE *sister*

(3) **æ > ea**

OE *c**æ**r**u*** > OE *c**ea**ru* NE *care*

As we see, the assimilation was partial since only part of the front vowels became velar. But after the sound **[w]** the full assimilation occurred.

OE *wid**u*** > OE *w**u**du* > NE *wood*
OE *w**e**r**o**ld* > OE *w**o**rold* > NE world

4.3.4. *Diphthongization after palatal consonants*

(in spelling ***c, sc, ʒ)***, e.g.

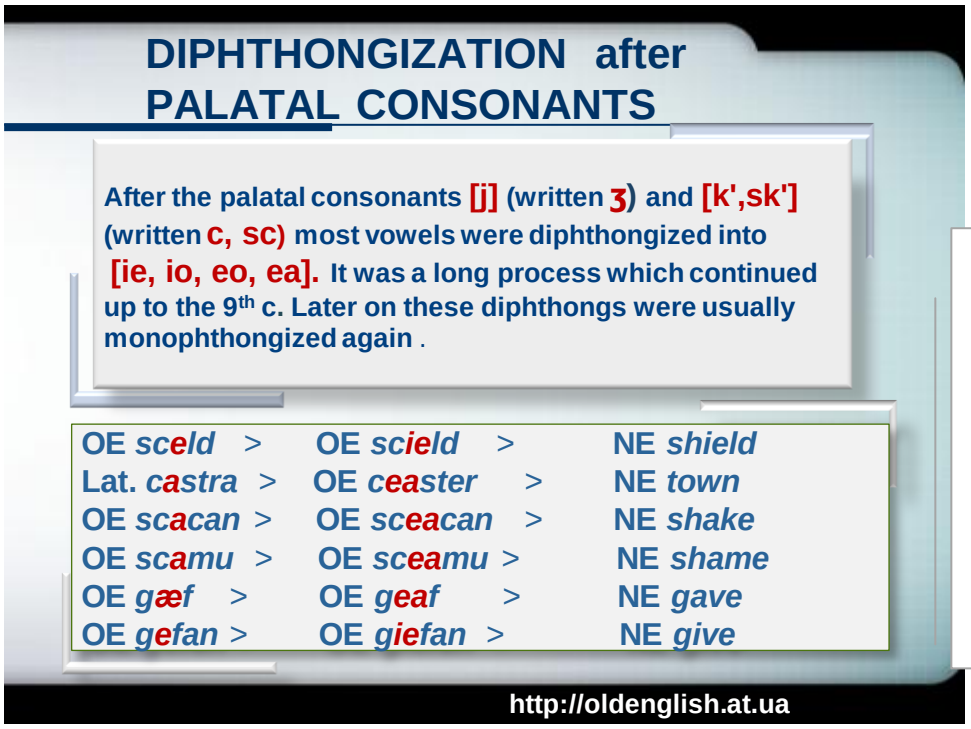


Figure 4.5. Diphthongization after palatal consonants

4.3.5. *Mutation before h*

OE **mutation** before **h** is a process when the sounds **[a]** and **[e]** preceding the sound **[h]** underwent several changes. They began mutating to diphthongs ***ea, ie*** finally being reduced to ***i/y***. The origin of this mutation is rather vague (Verba, 2004: 34). Perhaps the very nature of the sound **h**, itself undergoing constant changes, became the reason for this and further development of the sound. The words with this type of mutation are not very numerous; the **mutation** before **h** can be observed only in some examples:

OE *n**a**ht* > *n**ea**ht* > *n**i**ht* > *n**ie**ht* > *n**y**ht* > NE *night*
OE *m**a**ʒan* > *m**ea**hte* > *m**ie**hte* > *m**i**hte* > *m**y**hte* NE *may*

4.3.6. *Contraction*

The OE **contraction** as a kind of phonological change happens when an **h** placed between two vowels become **contracted** due to the process of assimilation and the two vowels merged together form either a **diphthong** or a **long vowel**, e.g.

i + h + vowel > ēo	OE *tīhan* > *tēon*	NE *draw*
e + h + vowel > ēo	OE *sēhan* > *sēon*	NE *see*
a + h + vowel >ēa	OE *slāhan* > *slēan*	NE *kill*
o + h + vowel > ō	OE *fōhan* > *fōn*	NE *catch*

4.3.7. *Lengthening of vowels before the clusters nd, ld, mb*

The OE **lengthening** of **vowels** before the clusters ***ld, nd, mb*** is another vowel change that took place towards the end of the Old English period: **short** stressed vowels became **long** before ***ld, nd, mb,*** unless followed by a third consonant; e.g., *child* (but *children* with a short **[i],** because **ld** is followed by the consonant **r**), *mild, wild* (but *bewilder* with a short **[i]** from OE *bewildrian*). That explains the long reading of vowel letters before these groups of consonants and the use in some words of the digraphs *ie* and *ou* by French scribes during the Middle English period for the long **e** and **u** (after the Norman Conquest of 1066).

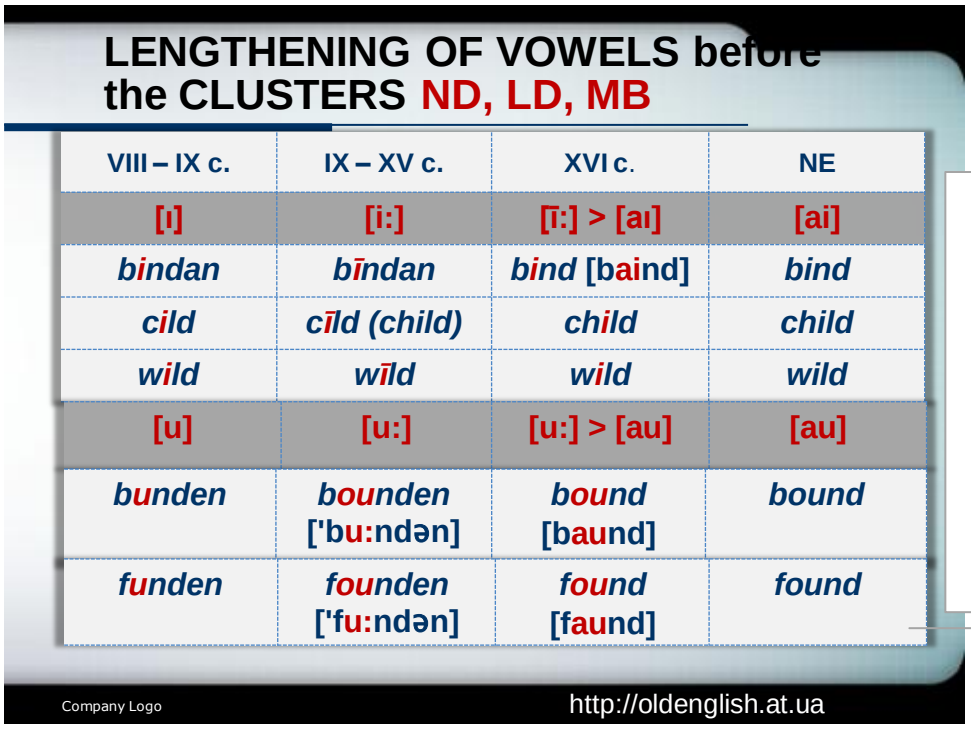


Figure 4.6. Lengthening of vowels before the clusters ***nd, ld, mb***

This also explains the exception in pronunciation of the clusters ***nd, ld, mb*** in closed syllables in Present-day English: e.g. *bold, climb, comb, find, fold, grind, hold, hound, kind, pound, rind, told, wind,* etc.

4.4. Consonant changes in Old English

The consonant system of English has, on the whole, proved more stable than the system of vowels. Still, quite a number of changes did take place in English consonants in the course of the long history of the English language. Old English script normally uses sixteen consonant symbols, which in modern editions are usually reproduced as *b, c, d, f, g, h, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, þ, ð* and *w.* For *w* the scribes used the runic symbol ƿ ('wynn'), and for *g* they used ȝ ('yogh'). Many of the symbols present no difficulty: the letters *b, d, l, m, p, t* and *w* each represent a single phoneme. But the most characteristic peculiarity in the OE consonant system was the difference in length. Apart from the short ('single') consonants listed above, Old English had long ('double') consonants: **pp, ff, dd** and so on. Only two single consonantal phonemes **[j]** and **[w]** had no counterparts among double consonants. It must be noted that long (**double**) fricatives remained **voiceless** between vowels, unlike the short fricatives **f, þ, s,** which were voiced in this position. So during the OE period long consonants were contrasted to short ones on the phonemic level, being mostly distinguished in intervocalic position. The system of consonants of the Old English period is presented in the following table (every short consonant in OE had a corresponding long one):

Table4.6. The system of **OE consonants** (after Mykhailenko, 1999: 45)

	labial	**dental**	**palatal**	**velar**	**guttural**
occlusive	p, pp b, bb	t, tt d, dd	k', g' k'k', g'g'	k, g kk, gg	
fricative	f, ff [f > v]	s, þ, þþ ss, ð [z]	ȝ, ȝȝ [j]	[x], xx [g]	h
liquid		l, r, ll rr	[j]		
nasal	m, mm	n, nn	[ŋ']	[ŋ]	
semi-nasal	w		[j]		

The principal **consonant changes** in the Old English period are as follows:

(1) **Voicing** of **fricatives** in **intervocal** position

(2) **Palatalization** of the sounds **[k'], [sk']** and **[kg]** (spelt as ***c, sc, cȝ***)

(3) **Assimilation** before **t**

(4) **Loss** of **consonants** in certain positions

(5) **Metathesis** of **r**

(6) **West Germanic gemination** of consonants

4.4.1. *Voicing of fricatives in intervocalic position*

The OE voicing of **[f], [s], [θ]** (written **þ, ð**) took place in an intervocal position or between a vowel and a voiced consonant; **[f > v], [s > z], [θ > ð]**. Thus, the Old English **[f]** and **[v], [s]** and **[z]**, the voiceless **[θ]** and the voiced **[ð]** were members of the same phoneme: they were **allophones.** To represent **þ** phoneme, the scribes used two symbols: the runic symbol **þ**, called 'thorn', and the symbol **ð**, called 'eth', which was based on the Latin character **d**. As a rule, the voiced fricatives [v, ð, z] did not occur at the beginning of words in OE. This explains why practically no native words in Modern English begin with the initial [v] or [z]: Mod.E words with the initial [v] and [z] are almost all borrowed from other languages (Barber, 2009: 117).

[f > v]	OE *o**f**er* [o**v**er] –	NE *over*
	OE *hlāf – hlā**f**as* ['hlā**v**as] –	NE *leaf – leaves*
	OE *wif – wī**f**e, wī**f**a* [wī**v**ə, wī**v**a] –	NE *wife – wives*
[θ/ð]	OE OE *sēoþan* [ð], *sēað* [θ] –	NE *seethe, seethed*

The fact that the OE forelingual fricatives were voiced only in voiced surroundings account for consonant alterations (interchange), some of which can still be heard in Modern English, e.g.:

[θ/ð]	*bath – to bathe*	OE *bæþ – baþian*
[s/z]	*grass – to graze*	OE *græs – grasian*
[f/v]	*calf – to calve*	OE *cealf – cealfian*
	knife – knives	OE *cnīf – cnīfas*

In all three cases, Old English has a single phoneme consisting of a pair of voiced and voiceless allophones, where Modern English has two separate phonemes. The Old English voicing of **[f], [s], [θ]** appeared in pre-historic Old English due to the process of assimilation.

4.4.2. *Palatalization of the sounds c΄, sc, cð*

The OE **palatalization** of the sounds **[k', sk'** *and* **kg']** (marked as **c, sc** and **cʒ)** developed in assibilation, that is the formation of a sibilant in places before front vowels.

The process of **palatalization** began in prehistoric Old English when the letter **c,** preceding a front vowel, developed into a **palatal** stop instead of a **velar** one, that is, it was articulated further forward in the mouth, somewhere between **[k]** and **[t].**

In the course of the Old English period, the difference between the velar and the palatal variants became greater, and the palatal stop has developed into Modern English **[tʃ]** (as in *church*). Indeed, it had probably reached this stage by the end of the Old

English period, so it is convenient to use the **[tʃ]** pronunciation when reading Old English.

It is not always possible to know which pronunciation to use, because the vowel following the **c** may well have changed since prehistoric times: thus *cēlan* 'to cool' and *cynn* 'kin' both have the velar stop **[k],** even though they have front vowels, because they derive from prehistoric OE forms **kōljan* and **kunni.* Often, the modern pronunciation can be a guide: thus the **velar [k]** was used in *cyssan* 'to kiss', *cǣg* 'key', *þancian* 'to thank' and *cæppe* 'cap, hood', while the **palatal [tʃ]** was used in *cinn* 'chin', *cēosan* 'to choose' and *cīdan* 'to quarrel, chide'.

Thus the Old English letter **c** can represent either **[k]** or **[tʃ]: [k]** was the allophone used before **back vowels** and **[tʃ]** – the allophone used before **front vowels**; but in the course of the Old English period they developed into two separate phonemes.

The kind of process by which this happened can be illustrated by two words already given as examples: *cinn* (pronounced **[tʃinn]**) and *cynn* (pronounced **[kynn]**) (in a word-final position the double consonant is pronounced **[-nn]**). Originally the contrast between the two words was carried by the vowels **[i]** and **[y],** and the difference between the two initial consonants had no significance. But in **late Old English**, in many parts of the country, the **[y]** of *cynn* lost its lip-rounding and became **[i],** so that the word was then *cinn,* pronounced **[kinn].** At that stage, therefore, there was a pair of words pronounced **[kinn]** and **[tʃinn],** which were distinguished from one another solely by the difference between **[k]** and **[tʃ];** and this suggests that **/k/** and /**tʃ**/ were now **separate phonemes**.

In most positions, OE **[k]** also became palatalized when it followed **[s],** and the combination represented by the OE spelling **sc** normally develops into Modern English **[ʃ]** (Barber, 2009: 117-118).

The **[ʃ]** pronunciation was in existence by the end of the OE period, so it is convenient to use it when reading OE texts, e.g. *scip* 'ship', *scrūd* 'dress, shroud', *fisc* 'fish' and *blyscan* 'to blush'.

In some positions, however, **[sk]** remained unchanged, as in *ascian* 'to ask' and *tusc* 'tooth'. Some examples of the palatalization of velar consonants:

(1) c > [k] > [k'] > [ʧ]

(2) sc [sk] > [ʃ] > sh

***c**ild* >	***ch**ild*
***c**eosan* >	***ch**oose*
*hwil**c*** >	*whi**ch***
*kit**ch**en*	

***sc**eap* >	***sh**eep*
***sc**ip* >	***sh**ip*
***sc**eotan* >	***sh**oot*
***sc**eort* >	***sh**ort*

(3) cʒ [gg] > [dʒ] > dg

bry**cʒ** >	bri**dg**e
hry**cʒ** >	ri**dg**e
we**cʒ** >	we**dg**e
e**cʒ** >	e**dg**e

Thus the English language came to possess the affricates [ʧ], [dʒ] and a sibilant [ʃ]. On the other hand, the palatal plosives [k', kk'] and [g', gg'] disappeared from the English consonant system. Palatalization did not take place before those front vowels which was a result of the palatal mutation, e.g. OHG ***K**uning* || OE ***c**yning* NE 'king'. This fact shows that the process of palatalization began before the palatal mutation.

4.4.3. *Assimilation before t*

The OE **assimilation** before **t** is the changing of the nature of a preceding sound because of the influence of the sound **t.** So the velar sounds became assimilated to the sound **h**, the labial ones to **f** and the dentals, consequently, to **s** having been influenced by the sound **t** next to them.

(1) velar + t > ht

sēcan – (sōcte) > sōhte – NE *seek – sought*
reccan – recte > rehte NE *reach*

(2) dental + t > ss, st

witan > wisse, wiste (instead of witte-knew)

(3) labial + t > ft

ʒescyppan – ʒescypte> ʒescyfte – NE *create*

Caused by the assimilation labial consonant clusters **fn, fm** became changed:

fn > mn	*ste**fn*** >	*ste**mn***	‘voice’
fm > mm	*wi**fm**an* >	*wi**mm**an*	‘woman’

The OE nasal sounds (**m, n**) in a position before fricatives (**f, s, þ**) became lost, lengthening, therefore, the preceding vowel, e.g. Gt. ***fi**mf* – OE *fī**f***.

4.4.4. *Loss of consonants in certain positions*

In OE the consonant **h** was always lost in the intervocal position (the OE **contraction)**; the sounds **n** and **m** were lost before **h**, **f, ð**; the sound **ȝ** became lost before **d** and **n** lengthening, therefore, the preceding, e.g.:

*bro**nh**te – br**ō**hte –*	NE *brought*
*fi**mf** – **f**īf –*	NE *fire*
*o**nð**er - **ō**ðer –*	NE *other*
*mu**nð** – m**ū**ð –*	NE *mouth*
*mæ**ȝd**en – m**ǣ**den –*	NE *maiden*
*sæ**ȝd**e – s**ǣ**de –*	NE *said*

4.4.5. *Metathesis of r*

The OE **metathesis** is the sound change that involves the inversion of two (usually adjacent) consonants; e.g., the pair *ascian/axian.* Metathesis of two adjacent consonants was quite common in Old English. There was, however, another form of metathesis in Old English **–** more frequent and more structurally organized. That involved the metathesis of /**r** / + **short vowel**, usually where the short vowel was originally followed by /**s** / or /**n**/. For instance:

cons. + *r* + vowel > cons. + vowel + *r*	
OE ***ðri**dda – **ðir**da –*	NE *third*
OE ***bru**nnan – **bur**nan –*	NE *burn*
OE ***hro**s – **hor**s –*	NE *horse*
OE ***bre**sten – **ber**stan –*	NE *burst*
OE ***cre**sse – **cer**se –*	NE *cress*
OE *wæ**sp** – wæ**ps** –*	NE *wasp*
OE *wli**sp** – wli**ps** –*	NE *lisping*
OE *clǣ**ns**ian – clǣ**sn**ian –*	NE *cleanse*
OE ***r**æn – æ**r**n –*	NE *ran*
OE *wa**sc**an – wa**x**an –*	NE *wash*

That sound change was of no great structural importance, but it is worth

mentioning because metathesis is something that persists throughout the history of the language; for example, the children's form *wopse* for PDE *wasp* (Hogg, 2005: 110–111).

4.4.6. *West Germanic gemination of consonants*

In the process of palatal mutation, when **j** was lost and the preceding vowel was short, the consonant after it was **doubled** (**geminated**):

Gt. *ku**ni*** > OE *cy**nn*** – ‘race’
Gt. *gaska**pj**an* > OE *scie**pp**an* – ‘to create’
Gt. *sa**lj**an* > OE *se**ll**an* – ‘to give’
Gt. *wa**kj**an* > OE *we**cc**an* – ‘to wake’
Gt. *ba**di*** > OE *be**dd*** – ‘bed’
Gt. *wi**lj**an* > OE *wi**ll**an* – ‘to will’
Gt. *la**gj**an* > OE *le**cg**an* (cg /**gg'**/ – ‘to lay’

Gt. *li**g**an* > OE *li**cg**an* – ‘to lie’
Gt. *bi**dj**an* > OE *bi**dd**an* – ‘to pray’
OS *que**li**an* > OE *cwe**ll**en* – ‘to kill’
ON *dve**lj**a* > OE *dwe**ll**an* – ‘to delay’
Gt. *li**b**an* > OE *li**bb**an* – ‘to live’
Gt. *s**i**tan* > OE *s**itt**an* – ‘to sit’
Gt. *wi**lj**a* > OE *wi**ll**a* – ‘will’

4.5. Reflexes of Common Germanic diphthongs in Old English

Old English shows certain phonological developments of its own compared with the other Germanic languages. The Proto-Germanic diphthongs were changed in Old English. For example, PG *ai* became OE *ā*, so that Old English has *stān* and *hām* where Gothic has *stains* ‘stone’ and *haims* ‘village’. And PG *au* became OE *ēa*, so that Old English has *drēam* where Old Norse has *draumr* ‘dream’, and *bēam* where German has *Baum* ‘tree, pole’, and *ēare* where Gothic has *ausō* ‘ear’(Barber, 2009: 120–121).

Richard M. Hogg notes that almost every aspect of the diphthongal system is uncertain (Hogg, 2005: 86). In classical Old English diphthongs were always ‘falling’, that is to say, the first element of the diphthong was the more prominent. There were only two principal diphthongs which were spelled <**eo**> and <**ea**>. But, and this is the major point of controversy, each of these diphthongs contrasted in length. Thus the four diphthongs can be characterized graphically as **<ēo, eo, ēa, ea**>. Examples of the usual spellings are *cnēowe* ‘know’ pa. subj. sg., *cneowe* ‘knee’ dat. sg.; *nēah* ‘near’, *seah* ‘he saw’. The reasons for this are overwhelmingly a matter of the chronological development of the language. Since the second element of the diphthong was less prominent, its behaviour was probably more akin to that of unstressed vowels than that of stressed vowels. The precise value of these elements is impossible to ascertain. If we are dealing with diphthongs, the second elements must have been back rather than front, and if they were like unstressed vowels, then they would have been either mid or low in height. This variation was dependent upon the height of the more prominent first element. Thus we can suggest the four phonemic diphthongs: **/e:o, eo, æ:a, æa**/. One important point to note is that although this description implies that the major difference between the two pairs of diphthongs was between the height of the first elements, the Old English orthographic system showed this contrast only by a difference in the spelling of the second element of the digraphs, for instance <**eo**> vs. <**ea**> (Hogg, 2005: 87).

Charles Barber states that to represent diphthongs the Anglo-Saxons used digraphs (sequences of two symbols): ***ea, eo, io*** and ***ie.*** The spellings ***ea*** and ***eo*** probably represented the pronunciations [æɑ] and [eo] (or perhaps [eu]); they too could be either short or long. The spelling ***io*** appears mainly in early texts where it appears to represent a distinct diphthong, which later fell together with the sound represented by ***eo.*** The digraph ***ie*** probably also once represented a diphthong, but even in early West Saxon texts it seems already to have fallen together with the sounds represented by ***i/y.*** Non-West-Saxon texts also use the digraph ***oe***; this however does not represent a diphthong but the close-mid front rounded vowel [ø(ː)], that is some kind of [e(ː)] with lip-rounding (Barber, 2009: 115).

Taking into account these two points, it is safe to claim that the classical Old English diphthongal system is rather controversial, uncertain and subject to debate. In the context of the development of the English language these controversies are being discussed by many scholars, for example Campbell, 1959; McCully and Hogg; 1990, etc..

Summary

In this lecture we have tried to discuss the most important sound changes in the Old English period. We have tried to understand the phonological "relationship" of Old English to its Germanic counterparts and to figure out some general properties common to them and peculiar ones belonging exclusively to Old English. We have seen that the general tendency of the Old English spelling was to represent each distinct phoneme by one particular letter (or letter combination in the case of diphthongs). We have also seen that the general tendency of the Old English vowels was to become raised and diphthongized: the reflexes of OE i-mutation, palatalization and diphthongization in PDE on the one hand and the effects of the GVS on the other characterize the English vocalic system as continuum; i.e., 'an orderly arrangement of cognate elements interpreted in the whole' (Morokhovska).

Questions for self-control

1. What type of phonological change happens when:
OE *forst* becomes Mod.E *frost*?
OE *handwyrst* becomes Mod.E *wrist*?
2. How might *make/match, bake/batch, wake/watch* and *speak/speech* be related through sound change?
3. What is the difference between the palatal and velar mutation?
4. What is the difference between the palatal diphthongization and the velar mutation?
5. Can the remnants of i-umlaut be found in Mod.E?
6. What new diphthongs appeared in OE? What process brought about their rise?
7. What new monophthongs appeared in OE? What processes promote their rise?
8. Speak of the allophones denoted by the letter 'cen' in OE. Supply examples.
9. Speak of the allophones denoted by the letters 'thorn', 'eth' in OE. Supply examples.
10. Speak of the allophones denoted by the letter 'yogh' in OE. Supply examples.
11. Explain the correspondences of sounds in the following pairs of words (in every set the process is the same):

(a) OE *beorgan* – Gt. *gebairgan*
(b) OE *seolf* – Gt. *silba*
(c) OE *deork* – Gt. *dark*
(d) Gt. *scamu* – OE *sceamu*
(e) L *castra* – OE *ceaster*
(f) OHG *jâr* – OE *gear*

12. How would the 'f' in the Old English word *heofon* be pronounced and why?
13. How would the 'f' in the Old English word *fugol* be pronounced and why?
14. How would the 'þ' in the Old English word *þe* be pronounced and why?
15. How would the 'sc' in the Old English word *sceop* be pronounced and why?
16. How would the 'h' in the Old English word *niht* be pronounced and why?
17. How would the 'cg' in the Old English word *secg* be pronounced and why?
18. How would the 'g' in the Old English word *gan* be pronounced and why?
19. How would the 'g' in the Old English word *fugol* be pronounced and why?
20. How would the 'g' in the Old English word *geþanc* be pronounced and why?

SEMINAR 2

Aims:

- ✓ be able to identify the vocalic sound changes that took place in Old English: breaking, palatal mutation, back mutation, contraction, diphthongization after palatal consonants that affected the evolution of vowels;
- ✓ be able to identify the consonant changes: voicing, palatalization, metathesis, etc that affected the development of the OE consonants.

4.1. Study points:

1. The system of vowels/consonants in Old English.
2. The assimilative processes in the vocalic system:
   2.1. *Breaking (fracture)*
   2.2. *Palatal mutation (**i**-umlaut)*
   2.3. Back or velar mutation
   2.4. *Diphthongization after palatal consonants*
   2.5 *Lengthening of vowels before the clusters **nd, ld, mb***
3. Consonant changes in Old English
   3.1. *Voicing of fricatives in intervocalic position*
   3.2. *Palatalization of the sounds **c´, sc, cð***
   3.3. *Assimilation before **t***
   3.4. *Loss of consonants in certain positions*
   3.5. *Metathesis of **r***
   3.6. *West Germanic gemination of consonants*

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London:

Routledge, 2002. – P. 47–50.
- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 16–19.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 13–23.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 22–25; 30–35.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 71–92.
- ✓ L.Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 30–38.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д. Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 31–45.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 53–68.

4.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. The system of writing in Old English was changed with the introduction of Christianity.

2. Runes are the 24 letters of an ancient Latin alphabet.

3. The oldest surviving texts in the English language written with Latin letters date back to 55-54 B.C.

4. The language of the OE period bears a lot of traces in common with other inflected Indo-European languages, Ukrainian and Russian including.

5. The system of vowels in OE included six long and seven short vowels (monophthongs).

6. The essence of palatal mutation change is that back sounds **a** or **o** changes its quality if there is a front sound in the text.

7. Palatal mutation was not found in monophthongs and diphthongs.

8. Diphthong **–** a single vowel sound with no change in quality from the beginning to end of its production.

9. Palatalization **–** the raising of the tongue towards the hard palate.

10. Rhotacism **–** the occurrences of [r] in place of some other speech sound.

11. Breaking occurs when the front vowel ӕ, e and i become diphthongs; i.e,. are broken into two sounds.

12. The essence of back mutation: the articulation of the back vowel is anticipated in the preceding front vowel which, accordingly, develops into a monophthong.

13. I-mutation, or i-umlaut (a German term meaning 'sound alteration') is the First Vowel Shift.

14. Fracture **–** is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster.

15. We find the reflexes of Old English palatal mutation in Present-Day English.

16. Remnants of voicing cannot be seen in the pronunciation of such words as *wives, halves, knives,* and *leaves.*

17. Gradation or ablaut **–** grammatical interchange of vowels in different forms of the verb and in word-formation.

18. The lengthening of vowels before the clusters *nd, ld, mb* – *bindan, cild*, *climban* – explains the exception in the rules of reading the sounds in closed syllables in present-day English (*bind, child, climb*).
19. Palatalization of the sounds 'k', 'sk' and 'kg' developed in the formation of a sibilant before back vowels.
20. There are two types of assimilation – regressive and progressive assimilation. If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive, if it influences the following one, it is called progressive assimilation.

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

1. The runic alphabet is a specifically … alphabet.
A Celtic
B Germanic
C Latin
D Romance

2. The runes were used for …
A everyday writing
B putting down prose works
C putting down poetry
D making short inscriptions on objects

3. Our knowledge of the OE language comes from manuscripts written in … letters.
A Greek
B Germanic
C Latin
D Celtic

4. The OE sound System developed from … system.
A the Proto-Germanic
B Indo- European
C Gothic
D Latin

5. What does the process 'palatal mutation' mean?
A loss of consonants in some positions
B growth of new phonemes
C rhotacism
D the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable

6. Palatal mutation means …
A raising of vowels through the influence of [i] or [j]
B phonetic relevance of some qualitative differences
C consonant changes
D voicing and devoicing of consonants

7. Velar mutation may be defined as …

A the influence of back vowels in the succeeding syllables, which transformed the accented root-vowels into diphthongs
B fronting the vowels
C labialization and vowel length
D development of monophthongs

8. OE monophthongs were classified as …

A polyfunctional
B monofunctional
C fixed
D neutralised

9. Define the sound values of the letters **f, s,** in the intervocalic position.

A [v], [z]
B [f], [s]
C [h], [v]
D [w], [c]

10. Define the phonetic process in the following pairs of words: *sandjan – sendan, an – aniȝ, saljan – sellan, fulljan – fyllan.*

A velar mutation
B palatal mutation
C hardening
D voicing

11. Account for the phonetic process in the following words: *searo, seofon, sweostor, weoruld.*

A palatal mutation
B velar mutation
C lengthening of vowels
D OE breaking

12. Breaking is the process of forming a short diphthong from a … when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster.

A long vowel
B short vowel
C long monophthong
D short consonant

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

1. A speech sound articulated with the tongue touching or approaching the velum.
2. A stop released with an aggressive pulmonic air stream.
3. A speech sound which is produced as a continuous sound by forcing the air through a partially abstracted vocal tract.

4. A series of combinative changes in vowels when there is an ‘i’ or ‘j’ in the following syllable.
5. A vowel sound with a syllable with a perceptible change in its quality during its production.
6. The raising of the tongue towards the hard palate.
7. A single vowel sound with no change in quality from the beginning to the end of its production.
8. The smallest unit of phonology.
9. The duration of a speech sound as phonological feature …
10. The characteristic timber of a speech sound that depends on the shape of the resonance chambers in the vocal tract.

A Quantity	**B** Quality
C Phoneme	**D** Monophthong
E Diphthong	**F** Palatalization
G Palatal Mutation	**H** Plosive
I Fricative	**J** Velar

4.3. Listening and reading practice

1. You will listen to the text **“The Ruin”:** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fcIZrlid5UE. Pay attention to the **alliteration** in each line. So that you can understand it better, follow the model of phonetic analysis **(Table 4.7.)**

THE RUIN

Wrǣtlic is þes wealstān, **w**yrde gebrǣcon;
burgstede burston, **b**rosnað enta geweorc.
Hrofas sind gehrorene, **hr**eorge torras,
hrungeat berofen, **hr**im on lime,
scearde scurbeorge **sc**orene, gedrorene,
ældo undereotone. **Eo**rðgrap hafað
waldend wyrhtan **forw**eorone, geleorene,
heardgripe hrusan, oþ **h**und cnea
werþeoda **ge**witan. Oft þæs wag **ge**bad
ræghar ond **re**adfah **r**ice æfter o**þr**um,
of**st**onden under **st**ormum; steap **ge**ap **ge**dreas.

THE RUIN

Wondrous is this wall-stead, wasted by fate;
Battlements broken, giant’s work shattered.
Roofs are in ruin, towers destroyed,
Broken the barred gate, rime on the plaster,
walls gape, torn up, destroyed,
consumed by age.
Earth-grip holds the proud builders,
departed, long lost,
and the hard grasp of the grave,
until a hundred generations
of people have passed.
Often this wall outlasted,
hoary with lichen, red-stained, withstanding the storm,
one reign after another; the high arch has now fallen.
(*Verse and translation by Hamer, 1970: 26-27*)

The lines in Text **5.1.**exemplify the general form of **OE verse**.
Like much early Germanic poetry, **OE** did not use rhyme but **alliteration.**

Each **line** of verse was divided into **two halves,** and in each half there had to be **two fully stressed syllables,** some of which alliterated with

Stressed syllables began with **the same letter,** which usually (but not always) represented the same phoneme; all **vowels,** however, were allowed to **alliterate together.**

Table 4.7. Model of **Phonetic Analysis** (From *"The Ruin"*)

Word from the text	Phonetic Analysis	Modern English
þes	þ as [θ] voiceless initially	this
wealstān	[ea] breaking of [æ] before [l] + consonant	wall, stone
gebrǣcon	g as [j] initially before front vowels	to break
brosnað	s as [z] in the position between a vowel and a voiced consonant	crumble, decay
geweorc	g as [j] initially before front vowels	fortification,
hrofas	f as [v] in the intervocalic position	roof, ceiling
sind	s as [s] voiceless initially	to be, to exist
gehrorene	g as [j] initially before front vowels	to fall down, ruin
hreorge	[eo] breaking of [e] before [r]+consonant	in ruins
berofen	f as [v] in the intervocalic position.	to despoil, bereave
hrim	metathesis	rime, hoar-frost
scearde	[ea] diphthongization after palatal consonants 'sc'	cutting, shearing
hafað	f as [v] in the intervocalic position	to have
waldend/weald	breaking	forest, weald, bushes
geleorene	g as [j] initially before front vowels	transitory
heardgripe	breaking	to gripe, seize, grasp
hrusan	s as [z] in the intervocalic position	earth, soil
werþeoda	þ as [ð] in the intervocalic position	people, a nation
gewitan	g as [j] initially before front vowels	to know
oft	f as [f] in the position between a vowel and a voiceless consonant	often
oþrum	þ as [ð] in the position between a vowel and a voiced consonant	1) one of two; 2) the second
ofstonden	s as [s] voiceless between two consonants	to hasten

geap	g as [j] initially before front vowels	open, wide, spread out, extended, lofty
gedreas	g as [j] initially before front vowels	concourse, assembly, tumult

2. You will listen to the text **"From the Dream of the Rood":** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UQVyol7N1Jo&feature=fvwrel. Read the text observing the rules of pronunciation. Study the model of analysis **(Table 4.7.)** and translate the text into Mod.E using the **Glossary**. Define the sound values of the underlined letters in the italicized words.

(Lines 1-6) **"From the Dream of the Rood"**

Hwæt, ic ***swefna cyst***
hwæt mē ***gemætte***
siþþan reord-berend
þūhte mē þæt ic ***gesāwe***
on ***lyft*** lædan
bē ama beorhtost.

secgan wylle,
tō midre nihte
reste wunedon.
syllicre trēow
lēohte bewunden,

An **Old Northumbrian** version appears carved in **runic script** on the **Ruthwell Cross** (the 7th -8th c.)

3. You will listen to Text 3 **(Beowulf):** http://faculty.virginia.edu/OldEnglish/Beowulf.Readings/Beowulf.Readings.html. Read the text, translate it into Mod.E and try to memorize it. Explain the [illegible] letters ***c, þ, f, g*** in the italicized words.

There are numerous translations of **"Beowulf".** They are contained in S.A.J.Bradley, Anglo-Saxon Poetry (London: Dent, 1982).

(Line 65) **Beowulf**

Þā wæs ***Hrōðgāre*** here-spēd ***gyfen,***
wīges ***weorð-mynd***, ***þæt*** him his ***wine-māgas***
georne hȳrdon, ***oðþæt*** sēo geogoð ***gewēox,***
mago-driht ***micel.***

"Beowulf" is the greatest epic poem surviving from **Anglo-Saxon** times. The materials on which the poet drew are ancient: some elements derive from the Germanic 'homeland' in Scandinavia, others from folklore.

4. You will listen to Text 4 **(The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle):** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tjXmKOt7hns. Read the text, translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary) and try to define its main idea. Account for the pronunciation of the italicized words.

Anno 449. (1) Her Martianus and Valentinus ***onfenȝon rīce***, and ***ricsodon seofon*** winter. And on hiera ***daȝum*** Hengest and Horsa, fram ***Wyrtȝeorne ȝelaþode***, ***Bretta cyninȝe, ȝesohton*** Bretene on ***þǣm*** stede þe is ***ȝenemned*** Ypwines-fleot, ærest Brettum to fultume, ac hīe eft on hīe fuhton.

(2) Sē cyninʒ het hīe ***feohtan onʒean*** Peohtas; and hīe swa dydon, and ***siʒe hæfdon*** swa ***hwær*** swa hīe comon. Hīe ***þā sendon*** to Angle, and heton him sendan māran fultum. Þā sendon hīe him ***māran*** fultum. ***Þā*** comon þā ***menn*** of ***þrim mæʒþum*** Germanie: of Ealdseaxum, of Englum, of Iotum.

The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, begun during the later part of the reign of Alfred the Great, is an annalistic record of events since ancient times, compiled from the Bible, the writings of scholars like Bede, notes made in the margins of the mathematical tables used to calculate the date of Easter, and old traditions.

4.4. Phonetic analysis practice

1. You will listen to the text **"Cædmon's Hymn":** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DAZyc8M5Q4I. Read the text and point out the **alliteration** in each line. Make a **phonetic analysis** of the italicized words according to the model given for Text 1 (*"The Ruin"*). Find examples of the OE **breaking** and **gemination.**

"Cædmon's Hymn"

Nu sculon herian ***heofonrices Weard,***
Metodes mihte and his ***modgeþanc,***
weorc Wuldorfæder, swa he wundra gehwæs
ece Dryhten, or ***onstealde.***
He ærest scop ***eorþan bearnum***
heofon to hrofe halig ***Scieppend.***
þa middangeard ***mancynnes*** Weard
ece Dryhten, æfter teode
firum foldan Frea ælmihtig.
.

This poem indicates the **basic pattern**; in the **four stressed** syllables of a prototypical pair of alliterative half-lines, the first **three** should **alliterate.** The poem also illustrates, among other things, the **formulaic** nature of OE verse, exemplified here by the number of **synonyms** for **GOD**

(*Mitchell and Robinson* 1995)

2. You may listen to the whole text 2 **"Wanderer":** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1zolqiMxoDk. Read this part of it and translate it into Mod.E. Make a **phonetic analysis** of the italicized words. Write out the OE **geminates** and explain their origin. Find examples of the OE **breaking** and **velar mutation.**

The Wanderer

Oft him anhaga are gebideð,metudes miltse,
þeah þe he modcearig geond lagulade
longe sceolde4 hreran mid hondum
hrimcealde sæwadan wræclastas.
Wyrd bið ful aræd! Swa cwæð eardstapa,
earfeþa gemyndig,
wraþra wælsleahta, inemæga hryre:
Oft ic sceolde ana uhtna gehwylce
mine ceare cwiþan. Nis nu cwicra nan
þe ic him modsefan minne durre
sweotule asecgan.

3. You will listen to Text 3 **"The Battle of Brunanburh":** http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zfaEGU45lKA. Read the text and translate it into Mod.E. Make a **phonetic analysis** of the italicized words. Find examples of the OE **breaking.**

[*1*]. *Her Aethelstan cyning,* ***eorla*** *dryhten,*
beorna beag-giefa*, and his brothor* ***eac****,*
Eadmund aetheling, ***ealdor****-langetir*
geslogon *aet saecce* ***sweorda ecgum***
ymbe Brunanburh.

[*2*]. *Bord-****weall*** *clufon,*
heowon heathu*-linde hamora* ***lafum***
eaforan *Eadweardes, swa him ge-aethele waes*
fram cneo-magum thaet hie aet campe oft
with lathra gehwone land ***ealgodon,***
hord and hamas.

The details of the **battle** at **Brunanburh** are scanty. History reveals the date (937 A.D.) and the names of the important leaders: Aethelstan and Eadmund leading the English; Constantine and Anlaf leading the Picts and Vikings. But the impetus for the battle is conjecture, as is its location.

4. You will listen to Text 4 **"Beowulf":** http://faculty.virginia.edu/OldEnglish/Beowulf.Readings/Beowulf.Readings.html. Read the text and its translation into Mod.E made by Seamus Heaney (the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1995). Make a **phonetic analysis** of all the words in lines 721-723). Comment on the system of OE vowels and consonants. Define the phonemic status of OE short diphthongs.

(Lines 721-727) **Beowulf**

Duru sona onarn
fyrbendum fæst, syþðan he hire folmum æthran;
onbræd þa bealohydig, ða he gebolgen wæs,
recedes muþan. Raþe æfter þon
on fagne flor feond treddode,
eode yrremod; him of eagum stod
ligge gelicost leoht unfæger.

(*Seamus Heaney, 2000: 6*

(Line 728-736) **Beowulf**

Geseah he in recede rinca manige,
swefan sibbegedriht samod ætgædere,
magorinca heap. Þa his mod ahlog;
mynte þæt he gedælde, ær þon dæg cwome,
atol aglæca, anra gehwylces
lif wið lice, þa him alumpen wæs
wistfylle wen. Ne wæs þæt wyrd þa gen,
þæt he ma moste manna cynnes
ðicgean ofer þa niht.

(*Seamus Heaney, 2000: 6*

SELF-STUDY 4

Aims:

- ✓ watch the video films pertaining to Self-Study 4; i.e., Old English pronunciation so that you can perceive phonetic irregularities between spelling and pronunciation;
- ✓ be able to account for major vowels and consonants changes that occurred in Old English in assignments being implemented in MOODLE tests;
- ✓ improve your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

4.1. **Video films** (either on CD or You Tube)

4.1.1. *Old English Reading Rules*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7FLwD0H256w
4.1.2. *Old English Reading Rules*, Lesson 1
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Zs--wqVdBwo

Obl

- ✓ Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 47–50.
- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 16–19.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 13–23.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 22–25; 30–35.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 71–92.
- ✓ L.Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 30–38.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д. Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 31–45.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 53–68.
- ✓ Lecture 4.

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. The pronunciation of Old English words commonly differs somewhat from that of their modern equivalents.
2. OE pronunciation is not really important if you want to have access to OE poetry.
3. For a teacher it's important to know how OE sounded so that he can motivate and help his students.
4. The diagram on the board represents 6 long and 7 short vowels.
5. OE vowels all have a long version and a short version.
6. A short version looks like a normal letter.

7. A long letter has a line over it; we call it a macron.
8. ***i*** and ***ī*** are not pronounced the same; originally they are different sounds, their quality is different, but their length of pronunciation is the same.
9. ***y*** and ***ȳ*** are not pronounced in the same place as ***i*** and ***ī***.
10. The symbols representing vowels in OE are usually monofunctional.

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

1. OE also had diphthongs; i.e., … combined together in one syllable, representing a composite vowel such as ***ēo*** in *dēop* (deep).
A 2 vowel sounds
B 2 consonant sounds
C 3 vowel sounds
D 1 vowel sound and 1 consonant sound combined together

2. OE diphthongs could be …
A short **B** long
C short and long **D** reduced

3. OE diphthongs were stressed on the … element.
A second **B** first
C both **D** none

4. The letter *þ* (…) denoted the intervocalic voiced and voiceless …
A 'thorn' … labial consonants **B** 'thorn' … velar consonants
C 'thorn' … guttural consonants **D** 'thorn' … fricatives

5. The letter *ð* (…) denoted the intervocalic voiced and voiceless …
A 'eth' … fricatives **B** 'eth' …medio-lingual consonants
C 'eth' …backlingual consonants **D** 'eth' … velar consonants

6. The letter *þ* is … with the letter *ð*.
A interchangeable **B** inefficient
C insufficient **D** inadequate

7. In OE manuscripts the sound [w] was represented by the peculiar letter … 'wynn' from the runic alphabet.
A f **B** v
C *ƿ* **D** x

8. The letter *ȝ* stood for the sound … before and after front vowels.
A [g] **B** [g']
C [x] **D** [j]

9. The letter *ȝ* stood for the sound … at the beginning of a syllable before back vowels or before consonants and also after [n].
A [g] **B** [g']
C [x] **D** [j]

10. The letter ***c*** denoted the sound [k'] (later [ʧ]) before (sometimes after) … e.g., *cild*

(child), *ic* (I).

A back vowels **B** front vowels
C diphthongs **D** consonants

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

1. In many cases the pronunciation of OE vowels …
2. The runic writing is a system of writing used by …
3. The sign (¯) over a vowel letter indicates that …
4. Short vowels are usually left …
5. The phoneme is a sound type …
6. The vowels ***y*** and ***ȳ*** were pronounced like German short and long ***ü*** respectively; i.e., …
7. Consonants in OE were different from those …
8. In modern editions of OE texts ***ƿ*** …
9. The ligature ***æ*** is a combination of …
10. The knowledge of historical changes in OE sounds is essential …

A. … is replaced by the letter ***w.***
B. ... is the same as in Modern English.
C. … capable of distinguishing a word from another word; e.g., the words *fan* and *van* are distinguished by their initial consonants.
D. … in Modern English.
E. … ancient Germanic tribes before they adopted the Latin alphabet.
F. … the vowel is long.
G. … they were rounded close front vowels, such as will be produced as if we pretend to whistle **[i:]** and **[i]** with lips protruded and rounded.
H. … the letters ***a*** and ***e*** blended together.
I. … unmarked.
J. … for understanding the most typical or most striking features of the phonetic and phonological structures, reading and spelling of words in present-day English.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE V

OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR

LECTURE 5

> ***"Grammar** is a branching discipline. It means that this discipline is represented by a number of concrete **grammatical studies** which have particular grammatical facts in view, proceed from the assumptions of concrete linguistic theories and implement appropriate methods in their practical analysis of grammatical facts".*
>
> (E.J. Morokhovska)

Aims:

- ✓ perceive grammatical terminology of the Old English period;
- ✓ identify the distinction between lexical and grammatical categories;
- ✓ outline the origin of some morphological and syntactical irregularities of the Old English Grammar;
- ✓ be able to recognize the morphological and syntactic features of the Old English synthetic language.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
5.1. Old English noun
5.2. Old English pronoun and article
5.2.1. *Personal pronouns*
5.2.2. *Demonstrative pronouns*
5.2.3. *Other classes of pronouns*
5.3. Old English adjective
5.4. Old English adverb and numeral
5.5. Old English verb. Grammatical types and classes
5.5.1. *Finite forms of the English verb*
5.5.2. *Non-finite forms of the English verb*
5.6. Old English syntax
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key terms to know:

synthetic language	root stems
morphological structure	strong / weak verbs
paradigm	vowel gradation in strong verbs

strong / weak declension of nouns	modal (defective) verbs
conjugation	anomalous verbs
strong / weak declension of adjectives	suppletive verbs
vocalic stems	preterit-presents
consonantal stems	word-order

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

1. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 149–190.
2. Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 50–58.
3. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 20–21.
4. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. –P. 55–72.
5. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 51–88; 89–115.
6. T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 92–131.
7. L.Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 38–89.

Additional:

1. В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 43–92.
2. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. –
    a. С. 98–107; 112–116; 124–128; 133–151.

Introduction

Excellent resources on Old English Grammar are Иванова et al. (2001), Hogg (2005), Ishtla (2005), Mykhailenko (1999), Quirk (1960), Rastorguyeva (2002), Traugott (2005).The emphasis in this lecture will be on showing that Old English is a synthetic language, using a lot of words endings or infections to indicate grammatical functions. We will discuss the endings on Old English words – the morphology, and will touch upon the formation of the Old English sentences – the syntax.

In OE as well as in other Indo-European languages, categories of nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs are expressed not only by their inflexions but also by derivational suffixes.

5.1. Old English noun

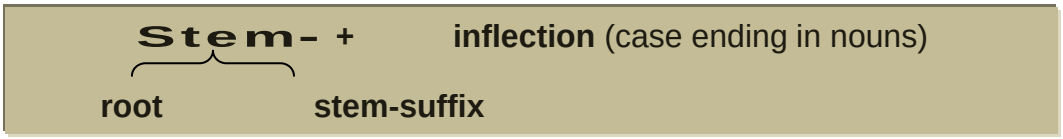
In Old English the **noun** had the grammatical categories of **case** (4 cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative), **number** (singular and plural) and **gender** (masculine, feminine and neuter). The category of gender, inherited from proto-Germanic (and ultimately from PIE), is typically classed as **grammatical,** which means first of all that the gender assignations of nouns did not necessarily coincide with what we might call 'natural' gender and thus had relevance only within the language system itself; and, second, that all modifiers and referents of the noun showed grammatical agreement with its gender. Thus, an Anglo-Saxon *wif* ('woman', 'wife') was, despite all her female characteristics, linguistically designated as *neuter* and, in theory, would therefore have had to be referred to as *hit* ('it'), not *hēo* ('she'). Similarly, the *hlāf* ('loaf', 'bread'; masculine) referred to as *hē* 'he' (Singh, 2005: 79). Platzer examined two general categories of noun – those that label human animates (as in *man, woman, boy, girl*) and those that label non-animates (such as *table, chair*) and found that 87 out of 90 sample nouns for human animates (96.67%) showed a correlation between grammatical and natural gender (Platzer, 2001: 38). In addition, texts indicate that OE users sometimes shifted to natural gender in their pronoun reference.

From proto-Germanic, OE also inherited a large number of inflectional patterns, or **declensions**, for nouns.

Reconstruction indicates that Proto-Germanic made use of nouns distinguished by **vocalic** and **consonantal stems** (that is, their stems ended in either a **vowel** or **consonant**).

By the ninth-tenth centuries, the original vowels or consonants in the noun-stems had disappeared (so that Proto-Germanic a-stem **skipa* 'ship', for example, appears in OE as *scip*), but their inflectional patterns had largely survived. Descriptions of OE nouns therefore make use of the historic vocalic and consonantal stem distinctions as a convenient means of distinguishing between different declensions (Singh, 2005: 80-81).

Thus, the basic type of the **morphological structure** of nouns, as well as of inflected words generally, in the Indo-European languages is as follows:



According to the original character of the stem (with a vowel or consonant stem-suffix, or no stem-suffix at all) Old English nouns are commonly divided into **vocalic, consonantal** and **root-stems**.

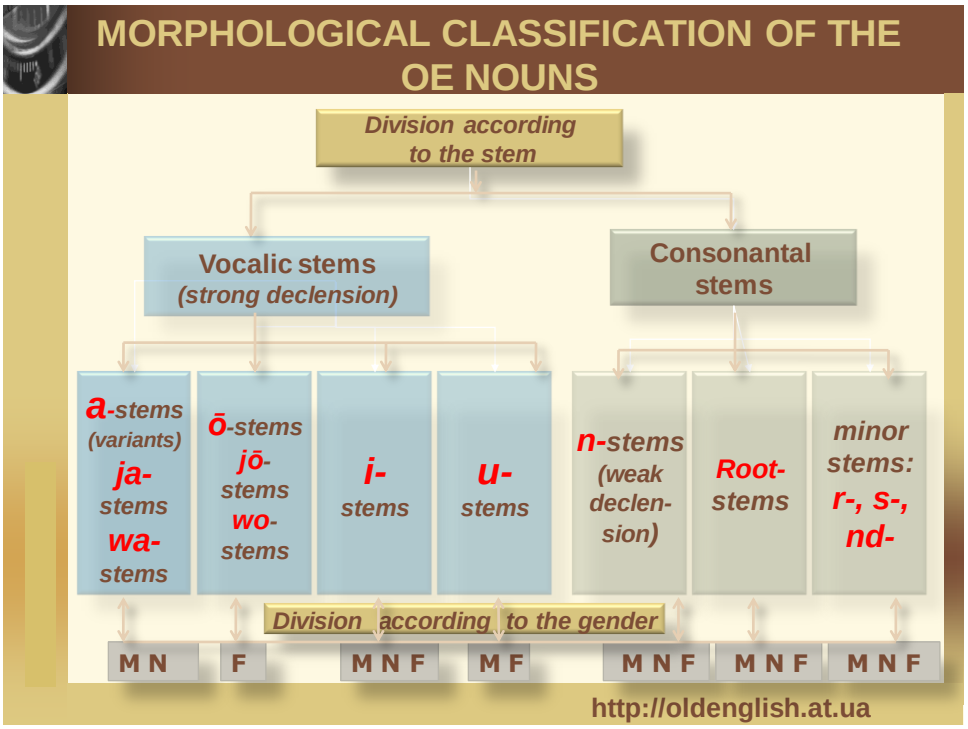


Figure 5.1. Morphological classification of the Old English nouns

There were **four classes** of **vocalic** stem nouns in Old English; namely, those that had respectively ended in **–a, –o, –u** and **–i** in proto-Germanic. Ishtla Singh considers that the **a-stem** category was something of a default: the majority of OE nouns fell into this grouping and in time its pattern of inflections was extended to all nouns (Singh, 2005:81). In terms of gender, **a-stem** nouns (including old i-stems) were either masculine or neuter, **ō-stems** were feminine, and **u-stems** were either. Consonantal stem nouns could carry any one of the three genders.

According to Hogg the following diagram gives the approximate proportion of nouns in each of the main types, namely vocalic and *n*-stems. One or two other types ignored here, notably the athematic and *r*-stems contain nouns of extremely high frequency, although they contain very few nouns:

masculine vocalic	35%
masculine n-stem	+ 10%
feminine vocalic	25%
feminine n-stem	5%
neuter vocalic	25%

(Hogg, 2005: 126).

We shall next consider the declension of the most important classes of nouns within each main type of stems. Thus the declension of the **vocalic stems** is called **strong.** The largest and most stable stem classes of the strong declension were the ***a***-stems (***-ja***-stems and ***-wa***-stems) nouns and the ***ō***-stems (***-jō***-stems and ***-wō***-stems) nouns. The ***a***-stems (corresponding to the Indo-European **o**-stems) comprised nouns of masculine and neuter gender. They were declined as follows:

Table 5.1. Vocalic **a-stem** declension samples

Number	Case	Masculine			Neuter		
		***a*-stems**	***-ja*-stems**	***-wa*-stems**	***a*-stems**	***-ja*-stems**	***-wa*-stems**
Sg.	Nom.	hrinʒ	here	bearu	scip	rīce	trēo(w)
	Gen.	hrinʒ**es**	her(i)**es**	bearw**es**	scipp**es**	rīc**es**	trēow**es**
	Dat.	hrinʒ**e**	her(i)**e**	bearw**e**	scip**e**	rīce	trēow**e**
	Acc.	hrinʒ	here	bearu	scip	rīce	trēo(w)
Pl.	Nom.	hrinʒ**as**	her(i)**as**	bearw**as**	scip**u**	rīc(i)**u**	trēow
	Gen.	hrinʒ**a**	her(i)**a**	bearw**a**	scip**a**	rīc(e)**a**	trēow**a**
	Dat.	hrinʒ**um**	her(i)**um**	bearw**um**	scip**um**	rīc(i)**um**	trēow**um**
	Acc.	hrinʒ**as** ‘ring’	her(i)**as** ‘army’	bearw**as** ‘grove, forest’	scip**u** ‘ship’	rīc(i)**u** ‘kingdom’	trēow ‘tree’

The **ō-stem** (***-jō*-stems** and ***-wō*-stems**) OE nouns (corresponding to the Indo-European **ā-stems**) were all of the feminine gender.

Table 5.2. Vocalic **ō -stem** declension samples

Number	Case	Feminine		
		***-ō*-stem**	***-jō*-stems**	***-wō*-stems**
Sg.	Nom.	car**u**	brycʒ	sead**u**
	Gen.	car**e**	brycʒ**e**	sceadw**e**
	Dat.	car**e**	brycʒ**e**	sceadw**e**
	Acc.	car**e**	brycʒ**e**	sceadw**e**
Pl.	Nom.	car**a**	brycʒ**a**	sceadw**a**
	Gen.	car**a**	brycʒ**a**	sceadw**a**
	Dat.	car**um**	brycʒ**um**	sceadw**um**
	Acc.	car**a** ‘care’	brycʒ**a** ‘bridge’	sceadw**a ‘shadow’**

The other vocalic stems, **u-stems** and **i-stems**, include nouns of different genders.

Nouns that belong to the **i-stems** changed their nature and followed the patterns of other declensions. For example: **i-stem** nouns of masculine and neuter genders coalesced with the **a-stem** nouns being declined as ***-ja*-stems**, nouns of feminine gender, accordingly, as ***-jō*-stems**. Some remnants of OE **i-stems** are the names of people who regularly formed their plural forms in the old way, e.g.: *Enʒle*, *Dene*, *Seaxe*, Mod.E Danes, Angles, Saxons. But such a division of genders is irrelevant for **u-stems.** Nouns of masculine and feminine genders that belong to the u-stem declension are as follows: *sunu* ‘son’, *wudu* ‘wood’, *feld* ‘field’, *duru* ‘door’, *nosu* ‘nose’, *hand* ‘hand’, *flor* ‘floor’, etc. follows: We will exemplify the declension of some of them in the table.

Table 5.3. Vocalic **u -stem** declension samples

Number	Case	Masculine	Feminine
Sg.	Nom.	sun**u**	dur**u**
	Gen.	sun**a**	dur**a**
	Dat.	sun**a**	dur**a**
	Acc.	sun**u**	dur**u**
Pl.	Nom.	sun**a**	dur**a**
	Gen.	sun**a**	dur**a**
	Dat.	sun**um**	dur**um**
	Acc.	sun**a** ‘son’	dur**a** ‘door’

Among the **consonantal** stems the **n**-stems (an ancient Indo-European stem class represented in Russian by nouns of the *время*, *имя* type) constituted the largest and most stable class comprising nouns of all three genders.

Table 5.4. Consonantal **n -stem** declension samples

Number	Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Sg.	Nom.	steorr**a**	heort**e**	ēar**e**
	Gen.	steorr**an**	heort**an**	ēar**an**
	Dat.	steorr**an**	heort**an**	ēar**an**
	Acc.	steorr**an**	heort**an**	ēar**an**
Pl.	Nom.	steorr**an**	heort**an**	ēar**an**
	Gen.	steorr**ena**	heort**ena**	ēar**ena**
	Dat.	steorr**um**	heort**um**	ēar**um**
	Acc.	steorr**an** ‘star’	heort**an** ‘heart’	ēar**an** ‘ear’

The declension of the **n-stems** is called **weak**, because it has little distinctive force: a form ending in -**an** (the most common ending of this declension type) can be that of the **genitive, dative** and **accusative singular,** or **nominative** and **accusative plural**

There are also two groups of nouns (**irregular nouns** or **root-stems**) that do not follow the main patterns. The first are nouns of relationship: OE *fæder* ‘father’, *mōdor* ‘mother’, *brōðor* ‘brother’, *dohtor* ‘daughter’ and *sweostor* ‘sister’. These often take no inflexional endings except for Genitive plural *-a* and Dative plural *-um.* The second is a group of nouns which undergo a vowel change rather than adding an inflexional ending. In Old English they make a small group of nouns containing all three genders, e.g.: *man, fot* ‘foot’, *toþ* ‘tooth’ (all masculine), *boc* ‘book’, *gos* ‘goose’, *mus* ‘mouse’ (feminine), *scrud* ‘clothing’ (neuter). In spite of their insignificant number, these nouns deserve special mention here, because their peculiarities are at the root of irregularities in the plural formation of several very common Modern English nouns.

A characteristic feature of the **root-stems** is the **mutation** of the root vowel in the

dative singular and the nominative and accusative plural caused by the i-element in the inflection which was lost in early (pre-literary) Old English.

Table 5.5. Root-stem declension samples

Number	Case	Masculine	Feminine
Sg.	Nom.	f**ō**t	m**ū**s
	Gen.	f**ō**tes	m**ȳ**s, m**ū**se
	Dat.	f**ē**t	m**ȳ**s
	Acc.	f**ō**t	m**ū**s
Pl.	Nom.	f**ē**t	m**ȳ**s
	Gen.	f**ō**ta	m**ū**sa
	Dat.	f**ō**tum	m**ū**sum
	Acc.	f**ē**t ‘foot’	m**ȳ**s ‘mouse’

It is from declensions such as this that today’s root-stems such as *foot/feet, goose/geese* and *tooth/teeth* derive. There were more nouns of this type in Old English, including OE *bōc* ‘book’, but most of them have now adopted the standard *-s* plural, as with *book/books* (instead of *book/beek*).

The **root**-stems were **remnants** of an old type of nouns in which case endings were added to a **stem** consisting of **a root alone, without a stem-suffix**.

It must be noted that as early as the OE period the declension of nouns in English was considerably **simplified** as compared to the **older Indo-European** type, which has been much better preserved in other Indo-European languages, even in modern times (cf. the much more **complicated** system of noun declension in **Modern Russian** and **Ukrainian).**

The **levelling** (coincidence) of endings was favoured by the **weakening** of **unstressed syllables**, which makes some endings indistinct and unstable. There was another factor that lessened the importance of case inflection and thus contributed to the simplification of noun declension. It was the **increasing use** of **prepositions** to express those relations which are usually expressed by case forms of nouns. Both these factors played an increasingly important part in the subsequent history of English.

In conclusion, it is worth emphasizing how radical the changes were in Old English noun morphology. At first, nouns had a *tripartite* structure of **root + stem-suffix + inflexion**, and the shape of the **stem-suffix** determined the declensional class to which a noun belonged. Other declensional types had a similar structure also. But due mostly to general phonological processes of reduction, the characteristics which enabled the stem element to be determined were lost at a very early stage and only a *bipartite* structure remained.

5.2. Old English pronoun and article

Of the various kinds of pronouns found in Modern English some (namely the **personal**, the **possessive**, the **demonstrative**, the **interrogative**, and a number of **indefinite** pronouns) already existed in Old English, others (the **reflexive** and emphatic, as well as the modern relative and conjunctive pronouns *what, which, who)* evolved later.

In Old English all the pronouns were declinable. We will single out only personal and demonstrative pronouns, inasmuch as they demonstrate the general trend in the evolution of English pronouns and present some peculiar features in Modern English.

5.2.1. *Personal pronouns*

OE personal pronouns had **three persons**, **three numbers** in the 1st and 2nd p. (two numbers – in the 3rd) and **three genders** in the 3rd p. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. had suppletive forms like their parallels in other IE languages. The pronouns of the 3rd p., having originated from demonstrative pronouns, had many affinities with the latter. Thus, we have, for example, subject and object pronouns (**I/me**), masculine, feminine and neuter in the third person (**he, she, it**), and singular and plural forms (**I/we**). What features of personal pronouns we have lost in Modern English are the Old English distinctions of **singular** and **plural** in the **second person** forms (represented in Modern English **you)**, the **dual** (pronoun forms used for specific reference to two people) and the OE third person plural *h- forms*, which were replaced by the Old Scandinavian forms *þai, þeim, þeir(e)* 'they, them, their'. All the OE personal pronoun forms are set out in Table 5.6. So, the historical tendency of English to reduce its inflections is evident: the accusative and dative forms in the first and second persons, for instance, are identical; as are the dative singular forms of the masculine and neuter third person.

Table 5.6. Declension of the **OE personal pronouns**

Singular					
Case	**First person**	**Second person**	**Third person**		
			Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom.	ic	þū	hē	hēo	hit
Gen.	mīn	þīn	his	hire	his
Dat.	mē	þē	him	hire	him
Acc.	mē, mec	þē, þēc	hine	hīe	hit

Besides, the 1st and the 2nd persons had the **dual** forms (i.e. forms meaning 'the two of us', 'the two of you'), but they were rarely used.

Dual

Case	First person	Second person	Third person
Nom.	wit	ʒit	–
Gen.	uncer	incer	–
Dat.	unc	inc	–
Acc.	unc, uncit	inc, incit	–
Plural			
Case	**First person**	**Second person**	**Third person**
Nom.	wē	ʒē	hīe (hȳ, hī, hēo)
Gen.	ūre	ēower	hīora (heora, hiera, hira, hyra)
Dat.	ūs	ēow	him, heom
Acc.	ūs, usic	ēow, ēowic	hīe (hȳ, hī, hēo)

Some forms of the OE personal pronouns have partially survived in Modern English, e.g.:

I < ic
me < mē
mine < mīn
we < wē
us < ūs
our < ūre

thou < þū
thee < þē
thy < pīn
it < hit
her < hire
your < ēower

he < hē
him < him
his < his
you< ēow

5.2.2. *Demonstrative pronouns*

In Old English there were **2 demonstrative pronouns** (Modern English 'that' and 'this') which had distinct forms for 3 genders (***sē*** m**,** ***sēo*** f**,** ***þæt*** n, 'that' and ***þēs*** m, ***þēos*** f, ***þis*** n 'this'. They also distinguished 2 numbers and 5 cases. In OE the demonstrative pronouns (the prototype 'that') were used as the definite articles: *sē mann* 'the man' Masc., *sēo mæd* 'the meadow' Fem., *þæt land* 'the land' Neuter.

Table 5.7. Declension of OE demonstrative pronouns **sē, sēo, þæt** 'that'

Case	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	sē, se	sēo	þæt	þā
Gen.	þæs	þǣre	þæs	þāra, þǣra
Dat.	þǣm, þām	þǣre	þǣm, þām	þām, þǣm
Acc.	þone	þā	þæt	þā
Instr.	þȳ, þon	þǣre	þȳ, þon	þǣm, þām

The OE demonstrative pronouns were declined like pronominal adjectives according to a five-case system; they were frequently used as noun determiners, and through agreement with the noun, indicated its number, gender and case.

Such OE demonstrative pronouns as *þēs* 'this' Masc., *þēos* 'this' Fem., *þis* 'this'

Neut., *þās* ‘these’ (the prototype ‘this’) were used very rarely. Here is their paradigm.

Table 5.8. Declension of OE demonstrative pronouns **þēs, þēos, þis** ‘this’

Case	**Singular**			**Plural**
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	þēs, þes	þēos, þīos	þis	þās
Gen.	þiss**es**	þisse, **-re**	þiss**es**	þissa, þissera
Dat.	þiss**um**	þisse, **-re**	þiss**um**	þiss**um**, þyss**um**
Acc.	þis**ne**, þys**ne**	þās	þis	þās
Instr.	þȳs, þīs, þis	þisse, **-re**	þȳs, þīs, þis	

The declension of OE demonstrative pronouns had much in common with the declension of adjectives. Singled out case endings **(-es, -ne, -re, -um,** etc.) are typical endings of the **pronominal** declension of adjectives.

5.2.3. *Other classes of pronouns*

The OE **reflexive pronouns**, being made up of the oblique cases of personal pronouns in combination with the adjective *self,* were used with nouns as well, e.g.:

*swā- swā hīe cwædon **him selfum*** ‘as they said to themselves’;
***god self** hit geworhte* ‘god himself made it’

The pronoun **self** followed the pattern of the **pronominal** declension of adjectives.

The OE **interrogative pronouns** *hwā* ‘who’, Masc. and Fem., and *hwæt* ‘what’ Neut., had a four-case paradigm. Their declension looks like this:

Table 5.9. Declension of OE **interrogative** pronouns **hwā** and **hwæt**

Case	**Singular**		**Plural**
	Masculine/ Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	hwā	hwæt	–
Gen.	hwæs	hwæs	–
Dat.	hwǣm, hwām	hwǣm	–
Acc.	hwone	hwæt	–

The OE **indefinite pronouns** were for the most part compounds: *ān* and its derivative *ǣniʒ* ‘one, any’; *ā* + an adverb or a pronoun gave *āhwær* ‘anywhere’ or *āhwæþer* ‘either of the two’. The OE forms of compounding *wiht* ‘thing’ and *þing* ‘thing’ with negative and interrogative particles gave the following Modern English forms. Modern pronouns *both, each, either, few*, etc. are also derived from Old English ones:

āwiht > āuht > aught
nāwiht > nāuht > naught, nought
ænigþing > anything
nānþing > nothing

bā – þā > *bōþe* > both
āgilic > *ælc* > each
æghwæþer > *æghþer* > either
fēawe > *fēa* > few

The Old English **articles** are the pronominal words. That is why we consider them together with pronouns. The OE definite article, unlike that in Modern English, showed agreement with the gender, case and number of the noun it modified. The singular masculine nominative form *se* was changed by OE speakers to *þe,* possibly through analogy with the more common *þ-* forms, finally supplying the modern article *the*. The Modern English pronoun *that* is also derived from the singular neuter nominative and accusative forms *þæt.*

In Old English the **demonstrative pronoun sē *(sēo, þæt)*** was often used in the function of the **definite article** (*to single out a thing or group of things as definite)*, and the **numeral *an*** 'one' turned in some cases into an article-like indefinite pronoun.

Table 5.10. Forms of the **definite** article **the** (by analogy with the majority of the demonstrative pronouns)

Case	**Singular**			**Plural**
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	sē, se	sēo	þæt	þā
Gen.	þæs	þǣre	þæs	þāra, þǣra
Dat.	þǣm, þām	þǣre	þǣm, þām	þām, þǣm
Acc.	þone	þā	þæt	þā

But the article was not yet established as a distinct part of speech: the use of the pronominal words in the function of an article was not yet quite regular. We can notice many identical endings in different case forms (the Sg. Dat. and Gen. forms for the Masc. and Neut. are the same as are the Sg. Nom. and Acc. forms in the Neut., and the Sg. Dat. and Gen. forms in the Fem.) that account for the tendency of OE to reduce its inflections.

5.3. Old English adjective

In Old English the **adjective** had a complicated system of grammatical forms which comprised of **3 genders, 2 numbers and 5 cases.** These forms served to express the agreement with the case, gender and number of the nouns they modified.
Moreover, as in other old Germanic languages (and in Modern German), every adjective had **two** different **types** of **declension: strong** and **weak.** The choice of declension depended on whether the noun modified by the adjective referred to something thought of

as **definite** or as **indefinite.** The **strong declension** was **'indefinite':** the adjective assumed, when used with a noun taken in a general sense, no specific reference was meant e.g. ***He is god man*** 'He is a good man'. In the **strong** declension the **inflections** were more **varied** and better suited for differentiating grammatical meanings. The **strong** declension is also called **pronominal,** for, although its historical basis was the nominal ***a***- and ***o***-stem declension, it included some **pronominal** endings.

Table 5.11. Strong adjectival declension

Case	**Singular**			**Plural**		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nom.	gōd	gōd	gōd	gōd**e**	gōd**a**	gōd
Gen.	gōd**es**	gōd**re**	gōd**es**	gōd**ra**	gōd**ra**	gōd**ra**
Dat.	gōd**um**	gōd**re**	gōd**um**	gōd**um**	gōd**um**	gōd**um**
Acc.	gōd**ne**	gōd**e**	gōd	gōd**e**	gōd**a**	gōd
Instr.	gōd**e**	gōd**re**	gōd**e**	gōd**um**	gōd**um**	gōd**um**

The **weak** declension was **'definite':** the adjective was weak when used with a noun referring to a **thing** or a **group** of things singled out as **definite.** In such a case the noun was determined by a demonstrative or a possessive pronoun, e.g. ***sē goda man***.

> The inflection of the **weak** declension was **nominal:** it coincided with that of the **weak noun declension**, except for the genitive plural, where the **'strong'** (pronominal) ending ***-ra*** replaced the **'weak'** (nominal) ending ***–ena*.**

Table 5.12. Weak adjectival declension

Case	**Singular**			**Plural**
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	gōd**a**	gōd**e**	gōd**e**	gōd**an**
Gen.	gōd**an**	gōd**an**	gōd**an**	gōd**ra**, gōd**ena**
Dat.	gōd**an**	gōd**an**	gōd**an**	gōd**um**
Acc.	gōd**an**	gōd**an**	gōd**e**	gōd**an**

Several classes of words used attributively were declined like adjectives in Old English.

Most OE adjectives distinguished between **three degrees** of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. With some modifications they have survived from the most ancient to modern times:

(1) In Old English the comparative degree of adjectives was formed by means of the suffix **-r(a)** (from an earlier ***-ora** in some adjectives, from ***-ira** in others). The superlative degree had the suffix **-ost** or-est (<*-ist), e.g. *wīd* 'wide' – *wīdra* – *wīdost.* This type of comparison of adjectives is considered to be the most productive one.

(2) The second type is connected with the **root-vowel interchange**. In OE those

adjectives which originally took the suffixes ***-ira, *-ist*** show **i-mutation** of the root vowel in the comparative and the superlative degrees, e.g.: *ald* ‘old’ – *eldra – eldest.*

(3) Other kinds of irregular degrees of comparison which have come down from Old English are the **suppletive forms.** We will summarize the means of form-building the comparatives and the superlatives in the following table.

Table 5.12. Degrees of **comparison** of adjectives in OE

Means of form-building	**Positive**	**Comparative**	**Superlative**	**NE**
Suffixation	heard	heard**ra**	heard**ost**	*hard*
Suffixation + vowel interchange (i-umlaut)	nēah	nēar**ra**	nīeh**st**, nȳhst	*near*
	lång	leng**ra**	leng**est**	*long*
Suppletion	god	bete**ra**	betst	*best*
	yfel	wyr**sa,** wiersa	wyrst	*bad*
	mycel	mā**ra**	mǣst	*much*
	lȳtel	lǣs**sa**	lǣst	*little*

5.4. Old English adverb and numeral

The Old English **adverbs** were formed out of nouns and adjectives with the help of the following **suffixes -e, -līce, -um, -es**, etc. and by means of **compounding.** This can be exemplified in the following table.

Table 5.13. The Old English **adverbs**

Old English	**Modern English**
dēop**e**	deeply
stund**um**	at intervals
hwīl**um**	sometimes
dæȝ**es** and nihtes	by day and by night
sumer**es** and wintra	in summer and winter
mihtige**līce**	mightily
gesæli**glīce**	blessedly
TO + dæge (Dat. of dæg) ‘day’	today (literally: on this day)
BE + sīdan (by , side)	beside
BI + CAUSE	because

The adverb in Old English was inflected only for comparison. The comparative was regularly formed with **-or** and the superlative with **-ost**, e.g.: *hearde* ‘severely’ – *heard**or*** – *heard**ost***
wīde ‘widely’ – *wīd**or*** – *wīd**ost.***

Some adverbs formed their degrees of comparison by means of the root-vowel interchanges, e.g.: ***feo**r(r) – **fie**r(r)* ‘far’; ***ēa**ðe – **ie**ð* ‘easily’.

The Old English **cardinal numerals** were declinable if they functioned as substantives. The numerals *twā* and *þrīo* had three genders. The numeral *ān* was declined as the strong adjective.

1. ān
2. twēgen (Musc.), twā (Fem.), twā, tū (Neut.)
3. þrȳ (-ī, ie) (Musc.), þrīo (-ēo) (Fem.), þrīo (-ēo) (Neut.)
4. fēower
5. fīf, (-e)
6. six, (-īe, y)
7. seofon, (-io, y)
8. eahta
9. nigon, (-en)
10. tīen, (-ē, ȳ)
11. endle(o)fan
12. twelf, (-e)

The numerals from **13** to **19** were derivatives from the first ten cardinals and were formed with the help of the suffix **-tīene, -tyne:**

13. þrīotȳne, (-tīene, -tēne)
14. fēowertīene
15. fīftīene

The numerals from **20** to **60** were formed with the help of the suffix **-tig:**

20. twentig < twegen-tig
30. þrītig, þrittig
40. fēowertig
50. fīftig
60. sixtig, siextig

21. ān and twentig
29. nigon and twentig
32. twā and þrītig
44. fēower and fēowertig

The numerals from **70** to **90** had got the prefix **hund-:**

70. hundseofontig
80. hundeahtatig
90. hundnigontig
100. hundtēntig, hundtēontig, hund, hundred
110. hundendleftig
120. hundtwelftig

200. tū hund
300. þrēo hund
1000. þūsend
2000. tū þūsendu

‘twā hund wintra’ (200 years)

ned li e numeral ōþer ‘other’ being declined as the strong one. Their system is as follows:

1. fyresta, forma
2. ōþer, æfterra, æfter
3. þridda, þirda
4. fēowerþa, fēorþa
5. fīfta
6. sixta, (-y-, -ie-)
7. seofoþa, (-io-)
8. eahtoþa
9. nigoþa
10. tēoþa
11. endle(o)fta
12. twelfta

The next ordinal numerals were formed with the help of the suffix **–tēoþa, -oþa:**

13. þreotēoþa
15. fīftēoþa
20. twentigoþa
21. ān and twentigoþa, fyresta eac twentigum
30. þrittigoþa
60. siextigoþa
70. hundsiofontigoþa
100. hundtēontigoþa
110. hundælleftigoþa

5.5. Old English verb. Grammatical types and classes

In its verbal system, Old English inherited from Proto-Germanic a two-tense system (traditionally called ‘present’ and ‘past’), with different forms for indicative and subjunctive. Proto-Germanic also had infections for the passive, but these did not survive in Old English.

The OE **verbs** typically fall into two types, **weak** and **strong,** a classification based on the distinct processes by which each type formed **preterites** (past tenses) and **past participles.** Both weak and strong infinitive forms carried the suffix **-an** (later transformed into the preposition **to**). The strong conjugation of verbs was older, being Indo-European in origin, but the weak conjugation was the primary one in Old English. Its origins, although obscure, were strictly Germanic, and it is this conjugation to which new verbs usually belonged, just as new verbs today join the regular conjugation exemplified by *love, loved*. The weak conjugation is indeed the source of today's regular conjugation. The irregular verbs were only a small minority, but they contained some of the most frequent verbs, e.g. *beon* ‘be’ (Hogg, 2005: 146–147). In Old English the grammatical system of the verb consisted entirely of synthetic (simple) forms.

The **finite** forms, used as predicates, comprised **3 moods:** the indicative, the subjunctive or conjunctive, and the imperative, with **2 tenses**, the present and the past (also called preterite), distinguished in the indicative and the subjunctive, **2 numbers**, the singular and the plural, in all the moods, and **3 persons** in the singular indicative.

The **non-finite,** or **nominal**, forms were the **infinitive** and the **participle: participle I** (‘the present participle’) and **participle II** (‘the past participle’).

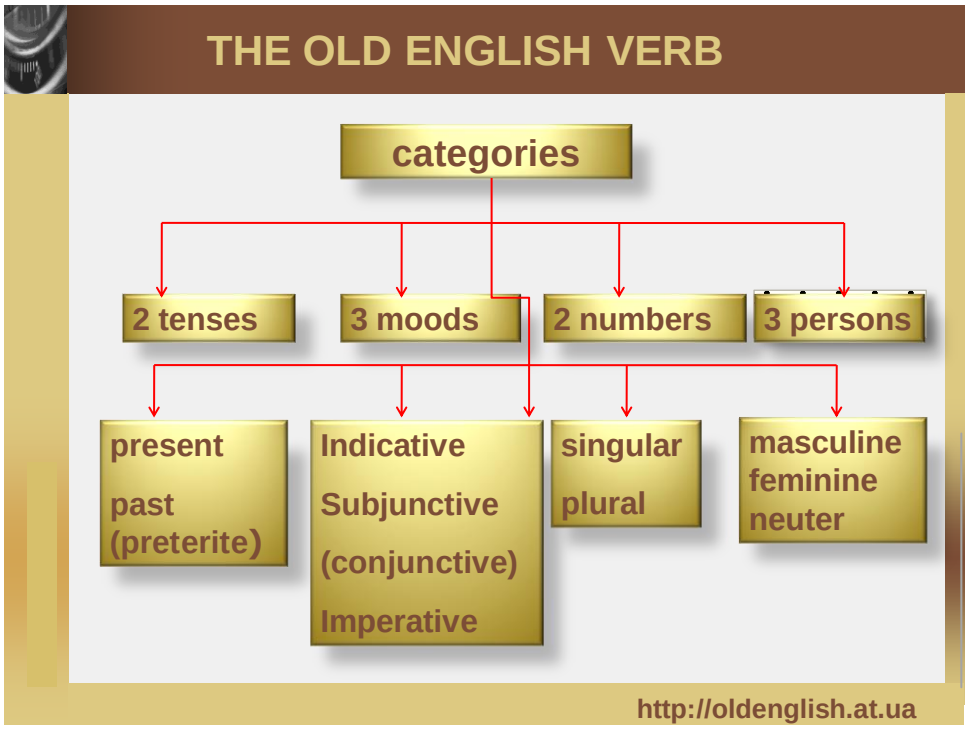


Figure 5.2. The Old English verb (**categories**)

As mentioned earlier, the OE strong formed their past tense stems by changing their root vowel, an inherited Indo-European process known as **ablaut** (gradation**)** of the root vowel (as in modern *sink – sank – sunk*). In Old English, as in other old Germanic languages, there were **7 gradation** classes of strong verbs, each class showing a different alteration of the root vowel in the 4 variants of the stem represented in the following **4 principal parts** of the verb: the **infinitive;** the **singular past** indicative; the **plural past** indicative (and the past subjunctive); **participle II.**

In the first five classes of strong verbs the gradation is based on the ancient Indo-European alternation of a front vowel (stem I) with a back vowel (stem II) and zero, i.e. no vowel (stems III, IV). The differentiation of this original gradation into a number of series was caused by the varying nature of the sounds which followed the alternating vowel (Аракин, 1985: 70–71).

In verbs of the 1st class the Old Indo-European and early Germanic alternating vowel was followed by **i**, in those of the 2nd class by **u.** In the 3rd class the root vowel was followed by a sonorant (**n, m, l, r**) + consonant and in the 4th class, by one sonorant. In verbs of the 5th class the root vowel was followed by a noise consonant. In the 6th class the gradation is based on the alternation of a short and a long vowel. The 7th class shows no uniform gradation series: it comprises of verbs with different root structure and different vowel alternations of later origin (Аракин, 1985:72–78).

Table 5.14. The **gradation** series of the various verbs of **strong classes**

I – the infinitive	**II** – the singular past indicative	**III** – the plural past indicative	**IV** – participle II
Class I			
ī	**ā**	**i**	**i**

wr**ī**tan ‘write’	wr**ā**t	wr**i**ton	wr**i**ten
Class II			
ēo fl**ēo**gan ‘fly’	**ēa** fl**ēa**g	**u** fl**u**gon	**o** fl**o**gen
Class III (**a**) Alternating vowel followed by **nasal** + consonant			
i dr**i**ncan ‘drink’	**a** dr**a**nk	**u** dr**u**ncon	**u** dr**u**nken
(**b**) Alternating vowel followed by **l** + consonant			
e h**e**lpan ‘help’	**ea** h**ea**lp	**u** h**u**lpon	**o** h**o**lpen
(**c**) Alternating vowel followed by **r** + cons., **h** + cons.			
eo st**eo**rfan ‘starve’ f**eo**htan ‘fight’	**ea** st**ea**rf f**ea**ht	**u** st**u**rfon f**u**hton	**o** st**o**rfen f**o**hten
Class IV			
e st**e**lan ‘steal’	**æ** st**æ**l	**ǣ** st**ǣ**lon	**o** st**o**len
Class V			
e tr**e**dan ‘tread’	**æ** tr**æ**d	**ǣ** tr**ǣ**don	**e** tr**e**den
Class VI			
a dr**a**gan ‘draw’	**ō** dr**ō**g	**ō** dr**ō**gon	**a** dr**a**gen
Class VII			
cn**ā**wan ‘know’	cn**ēo**w	cn**ēo**won	cn**ā**wen
f**ea**llan ‘fall’	f**eo**ll	f**eo**llon	f**ea**llen
sl**ǣ**pan ‘sleep’	sl**ē**p	sl**ē**pon	sl**ǣ**pen

The **IE** grades **[e ~o]** reflected in **Germanic** as **[e/i ~a]** were used in the **first** and the **second stems;** they represented the **normal grade** and were contrasted to the **zero-grade.**

The Old English **weak** verbs alter their morphological characteristics mainly owing to sound changes.

OE **weak** verbs form their **past tense** (and **participle2**) by means of the suffix **-d-** or, after a voiceless root consonant**,-t-** (as in modern *walk – walked – walked*).

OE **weak** verbs have the same root vowel in the singular and the plural past tense, and consequently distinguish only **3** principal parts:
the infinitive – the past tense – the participle 2: *cēpan* ‘keep’ – *cēpte* – *cēpt*
hīeran ‘hear’– *hīerde* – *hīered*
endian ‘to end’ – *endode* – (*ge*)*endod* ‘

OE **weak** verbs, which were in the majority, fell into **three** classes according to the stem-vowel joining the endings to the root. This way of forming the **past** tense is specifically **Germanic**, not found in other Indo-European languages. Suffixation was a more productive type of past tense and participle formation, which developed in Germanic languages.

Table 5.15. Weak verb **preterite** and **past participle** forms

Classes	**Infinitive**	**Past Tense**	**Participle II**	**Mod.E**
Class I	*-an /-ian*	*-de /-ede /-te*	*-ed /-d /-t*	
	temm**an**	tem**ede**	tem**ed**	'to tame'
	grēt**an**	grēt**te**	grēt**ed**	'to greet'
	sell**an**	seal**de**	seal**d**	'to give'
	tell**an**	teal**de**	teal**d**	'to tell'
	tæc(e)**an**	tāh**te**	tāh**t**	'to teach'
	byrg(e)**an**	bōh**te**	bōh**t**	'to buy'
	þenc(e)**an**	þōh**te**	þōh**t**	'to think'
	wyrc(e)**an**	worh**te**	worh**t**	'to work'
Class II	*-ian*	*-ode*	*-od*	
	mac**ian**	mac**ode**	mac**od**	'to make'
	luf**ian**	luf**ode**	luf**od**	'to love'
	hat**ian**	hat**ode**	hat**od**	'to hate'
	andswar**ian**	andswar**ode**	andswar**od**	'to answer'
	hop**ian**	hop**ode**	hop**od**	'to hope'
	lōc**ia**	lōc**ode**	lōc**od**	'to look'
Class III	*-an*	*-de*	*-d*	
	habb**an**	hæf**de**	hæf**d**	'to have'
	libb**an**	lif**de**	lif**d**	'to live'
	secʒe**an**	sæʒ**de**/sǣde	sæʒ**d** /sǣd	'to say'

The main differences between the classes were as follows:

(1) In the **1st class** the infinitive ended in ***-an,*** seldom ***-ian*** (-ian occurs after [r]; the past tense ended in ***-de, -ede*** or ***-te;*** past participle – in ***-d, -ed*** or ***–t;***

> Formerly the **1st** class had ***-ja*** in the present and ***-i*** in the past. Its root-vowel became **mutated;** the dental suffix was joined to the root by ***-i*** which had disappeared after long syllables (*dēman – dēmde*) and weakened to ***-e*** after short syllables (*fremman – fremede*).

(2) The **2nd class** has ***-ian*** in the infinitive <(ōjan) and ***-o*** in the preterite. The vowel is not mutated. This was the most regular of all the classes;

(3) The **3rd** class includes very few verbs. The infinitive ended in ***-an*** and no vowel before the dental suffix – the dental suffix is joined immediately to the root. Only three of them have survived in Modern English: 'to have', 'to live', 'to say'.

MODULE 5

Thus through analogy with the larger number of OE weak verbs, many strong verbs (of which there were only ever about three hundred) eventually gained weak preterite and past participle forms. Indeed, **-(e)d** has become the *de facto*, productive preterite/past participle suffix for English, as is evidenced by its application to new verbs accepted into the language (Singh, 2005: 87).

So far we have spoken of verbs which are either strong or weak. But there was another small yet important group of verbs. The so-called **preterite-present** verbs are a small group of verbs (12) which have **vowel-gradation** in their **present**-tense form, corresponding to vowel-gradation in the **preterit of strong verbs.** Their **preterite** is formed on the **weak** pattern. The infinitive has, as a rule, the 3rd (zero) grade. These verbs have a marked modal meaning; most of them exist in Mod.E as modal verbs (*can, may, must, ought, shall* and *dare*). Below are the basic forms of some of these verbs.

Table 5.16. The OE **preterite-present** verbs

Class of verbs	**Infinitive**	**Present Indicative**		**Past Indicat.**	**Partici-ple II**	**ModE**
		Sg.	Pl.			
I	wītan āʒan	wāt āʒ	witon āʒon	wisse, /te āhte	witen āʒen	to know to own
II	dūʒan	dēaʒ	duʒon	–	–	to fit
III	unnan cunnan þurfan durran	ann cann þearf dearr	unnon cunnon þurfon durron	ūðe cūðe þorfte dorste	unnen cūð,//nen – –	to grant to know to need to dare
IV	sculan munan	sceal man	sculon munon	sceolde munde	– munen	shall, should to remember
V	maʒan	maeʒ	maʒon	meahte	–	may

The OE verb *bēon* ‘be’, *dōn* ‘do’, *ʒān* ‘go’and *willan* ‘will’ belonged to none of the above mentioned groups. They constitute the group of the **suppletive** or **anomalous** verbs. The suppletive or the substantive verbs; i.e., the verbs with the meaning of ‘to be, to exist’, are represented in OE by three roots:

(1) be-, which appears in the infinitive (cf. Ukr. бути), the participles, the imperative, the present subjunctive, and in Old English also in the present indicative;

(2) es- in the present tense (*cf. Ukr.* є), which in Old English had parallel forms from **be-** and **es-;**

(3) wes- in the past tense, in Old English also in the infinitive which had 2 parallel forms: *bēon* and *wesan* and participle I (*bēonde* and *wesende*). In the course of time the grammatical system of the verb *wesan / bēon > be* was simplified and unified through the loss of all the superfluous parallel forms. Thus in the infinitive and the participle only the **be-** forms remain: *be, being, been* (the latter does not date from Old English, it first appeared in Middle English) (Аракин, 1985: 86-87).

5.5.1. *Finite forms of the English verb*

The system of verb endings in English has shown a tendency towards simplification since the earliest period of its history.

In OE the inflection of the verb was already somewhat simplified as compared to the ancient Indo-European and older Germanic types: the Old English verb had fewer distinct grammatical endings than are found in ancient and in some modern Indo-European languages. Only in the singular present indicative were there distinct endings for 3persons: ***-e*** for the 1st person *wrīt**e*** 'write', ***-(e)st*** for the 2nd *wrīt**(e)st*** and ***-(e)þ*** for the 3rd *wrīt**(e)þ***. In the plural present indicative, the ending ***–-aþ*** became common for all the persons, *wrītaþ*. The subjunctive mood (present and past) had the ending ***-e*** in the singular *wrīt**e*** and ***-en*** in the plural *writ**en.*** Thus the finite forms of the strong verbs *drīfan* 'drive' (Class I) and *cēosan* 'choose' (Class II) are as follows:

Table 5.17. Conjugation of the OE strong verbs *drīfan* 'drive' and *cēosan* 'choose' in the present tense

	Indicative	**Subjunctive**	**Imperative**
Present Sg. 1. Ic	drīf**e**, cēos**e**	drīf**e**, cēos**e**	–
2. þū	drīf(**e)st**, cī**est**	drīf**e**, cēos**e**	drīf, cēos
3. hē	drīf(**e)þ**, cī**esþ**	drīf**e**, cēos**e**	
Present Pl. wē, gē, hīe	drīf**aþ**, cēos**aþ**	drīf**en**, cēos**en**	1st p. drīf**an**, cēos**an** 2nd p. drīf**aþ**, cēos**aþ**

Table 5.18. Conjugation of the OE strong verbs *drīfan* 'drive' and *cēosan* 'choose' in the past tense

	Indicative	**Subjunctive**	**Imperative**
Past Sg. 1. Ic	**drāf, cēas**	**drife, cure**	
2. þū	drif**e**, cur**e**	drif**e**, cur**e**	
3. hē	drāf cēas,	drif**e**, cur**e**	
Present Pl. wē, gē, hīe	drif**on**, cur**on**	drif**en**, cur**en**	

The most important change which affected all the **weak** verbs was the weakening and loss of unstressed vowels. The singular past indicative of the weak verbs had ***-e*** for the 1st and 3rd persons singular, and ***-es/-est*** for the 2nd , while the strong verbs had only the 2nd person ending ***-e***. In the plural the common ending for all the persons was ***-on.***

Table 5.19. Conjugation of the OE **weak** verbs *fremman* 'to perform' and *dēman* 'to deem' (Class1) in the present tense

Present	**Indicative**	**Subjunctive**	**Imperative**
ic	fremm**e**, dēm**e**	fremm**e**, dēm**e**	

þū	fremm**est**, dēm(**e**)**st**	fremm**e**, dēm**e**	frem**e**, dēm
hē/o, hit	fremm(**e**)**þ**, dēm(**e**)**þ**,	fremm**e**, dēm**e**	
wē, gē, hīe	fremm**aþ**, dēm**aþ**	fremm**en**, dēm**en**	1st p. fremm**an**, dēm**an**; 2nd p. fremm**aþ**, dēm**aþ**

Table 5.20. Conjugation of the OE **weak** verbs *fremman* 'to perform' and *dēman* 'to deem' (Class1) in the past tense

Past	Indicative	Subjunctive	
ic	frem**ede**, dēm**de**	frem**ede**, dēm**de**	
þū	fremed**est**, dēmd**est**	frem**ede**, dēm**de**	
hē/o, hit	frem**ede**, dēm**de**	frem**ede**, dēm**de**	
wē, gē, hīe	fremed**on**, dēmd**on**	fremed**en**, dēmd**en**	
Past Participle frem**ed**, dēm**ed**			

We cannot leave OE verbs without presenting the paradigm of the most frequently occurring and most anomalous verb in English, *bēon* 'to be'. The modern forms of this verb – both past and present – derived from four historically unrelated verbs.

Table 5.21. The OE suppletive paradigm of the verb ***bēon*** (Indicative)

		Old English	**Mod.E**
Indicative Present	Sg. 1.	eom, am bēo(m)	am
	2.	eart bist	art (archaic)
	3.	is biþ	is
	Pl.	sint, sindon bēoþ aron (North.)	are
Indicative Past	Sg. 1.	wæs	was
	2.	wǣre	wast (archaic)
	3.	wæs	was
	Pl.	wǣron	were

Table 5.22. The OE suppletive paradigm of the verb ***bēon*** (Subjunctive, Imperative)

		Old English	**Mod.E**
Subjunctive Present	Sg.	sīe (> sȳ, sī) bēo	be
	Pl.	sīen (>sȳn, sīn) bēon	be
Subjunctive Past	Sg.	wǣre	were
	Pl.	wǣren	were
Imperative	2nd p.	wes bēo	be
	2nd p.	wesaþ bēoþ	be

Eom, is and *sindon/sind/sint* forms ultimately derive from a PIE root **es-* (with the forms **esmi, *esti, *senti*). *Eart* comes from another PIE root **er-*, meaning 'arise' and *bēo/bist/biþ/bēoþ* from **bheu-* which possibly meant something like 'become'. The preterite forms are derived from OE *wesan* (Singh, 2005: 88).

The OE alternation of **s** in the singular with **r** in the plural past tense is due to phonetic changes in Old Germanic. In ancient Germanic dialects **s>z** (according to the Verner's law) when the preceding vowel was unstressed, as it originally was in the form from which the Old English plural past tense of *wesan* developed. In West-Germanic dialects, including Anglo-Saxon, the **z** further changed to **r** between vowels. That is how **r** appeared in the plural past tense of *wesan* (which became the suppletive form of *bēon>be*), while the singular kept the old **s**, because the preceding vowel was originally accented (stressed) (Аракин, 1985: 86-87).

The equivalents of the verb *to be* in other Indo-European languages have also suppletive systems of grammatical forms, e.g. Ukrainian *є, були*; Russian *есть, были*; French *je suis, étais.*

5.5.2. *Non-finite forms of the English verb*

In OE there were two **non-finite** forms of the verb: the **Infinitive** and the **Participle.** The non-finite forms in OE are more loosely connected with the finite system than in Modern English for two reasons:

(1) there were no analytic forms in OE, although their prototypes exist as various combinations of link-verb and predicative;

(2) the non-finite forms themselves posses fewer verbal features. Their subsequent development binds them more closely with the finite verb (Иванова *et al.* 2001: 404-405).

1. The Infinitive. The infinitive is by origin kind of a noun derived from a verb system. There are two infinitive forms; one of them is called the inflected infinitive or the Dative infinitive (the Indo-European infinitive had been a declinable noun).

1. bindan	***dēman***	***baþian* – uninflected infinitive or 'Nom. case'**
2. tō bindanne	***tō dēmanne***	***tō baþianne* – inflected infinitive or 'Dat. case'**

This infinitive is preceded by ***tō*** and has the ending ***-anne/-enne;*** it is used in independent syntactic positions, mainly as an **adverbial modifier** of **purpose**, but also as the **subject** and the **predicative**, e.g.:

*Hē cymeth **tō** dēm**enne** cwicum and dēadum* 'He will come to deem the alive and the dead' (the adverbial modifier of purpose).

The OE inflected infinitive could be used in the function of the compound modal predicate after the verb *bēon* (*wesan*) with a modal meaning, e.g.:

Þære hālȝan stōwe ***is tō*** *ahab****enne*** ‘One is to abstain from entering that saint place’ (the compound modal predicate).

The infinitive with the ending ***-an*** functions, as a rule, in combination with preterite-present verbs, with modal verbs or other verbs of incomplete predication, e.g.:

*Þū meaht sinȝ****an*** ‘you can sing’ (lit. “thou may sing”).

According to Randolph Quirk the OE **infinitive** was chiefly used as follows:

(**a**) with a small number of verbs like ***cunnan, (ic) dearr, magan, sculan, þurfan, willan***, which to a greater or lesser extent act as auxiliaries and which almost all survive in Mod.E as ‘anomalous finites’. For example: *ne dear man forhealdan* ‘one dare not withhold’, *ne mōton habban* ‘(they) cannot have’, *Ne þurfe wē ūs spillan* ‘We need not destroy each other’;

(**b**) with verbs of **causation, intention** and **inception.** In this group we often find the infinitive used with passive meaning, e.g.: *dō hit ūs tō witanne* ‘make us know it’, *hēt hine lǣran* ‘bade him be taught’;

(**c**) with the verbs of **motion, rest** and **observation,** often with durative aspect, e.g.: *cōm ... sīðian* ‘came …travelling’, *geseah blācne lēoman ... scīnan* ‘saw a bright light … shining’;

(**d**) **purpose:** *ūt ēode se sǣdere his sǣd tō sāwenne* ‘the sower went out to sow his seed’;

(**e**) **causal**: *ic nū forsceamige tō secganne* ‘I am now very much ashamed to say’;
(**f**) **specificatory** (especially with nouns and adjectives) and adverbial: *wurþe tō beranne* ‘worthy to bear’, *geornful tō gehīeranne* ‘eager to hear’, *hrædest tō secganne* ‘to put it briefly;

(**g**) **substantival**: *dereð ... sumum monnum ... þæt sōð tō gehīerenne* ‘to hear the truth hurts some people. There is an important idiom with the copula and dative of the person which usually implies necessity: *nū is tīma ūs of slǣpe tō ārīsenne* ‘now it is time for me to go’, *ūs is suīðebgeornlīce to gehīeranne* ‘we must listen very attentively’ (Quirk, 1960: 85-87).

2. Participle I. The participles are by the origin adjectives derived from verb stems. In Old English they were declined like adjectives. But subsequently they lost their declension just as the adjective did. Participle I in Old English was formed by means of the suffix ***-ende***. It could be used attributively (in pre- and post-position) and predicatively:

Infinitive	**Participle I**	**Participle II**	Mod.E
wrīt**an** –	wrīt**ende** –	writ**en**	‘write’
sec**ȝan** –	sec**ȝende** –	sæ**ȝd**	‘say’
ber**an** –	ber**ende** –	bor**en**	‘bear’

3. Participle II. Participle II has the ending ***-n*** or ***-ed***, ***-od,*** according to the type of verb (strong or weak). It is declined as adjective (according both to the strong and the weak pattern) and is used mainly as attribute and predicative. Sometimes it remained uninflected, e.g.:

Hīe hæfdon hira cyning *āworpenne* 'they had their king deposed' – Participle II is in the Acc. sg. Masc., strong declension – it agrees with *cyning.*

5.6. Old English syntax

One of the most obvious contrasts between Old English and present-day English is **word order.** The order of words in a sentence was comparatively free in Old English.

Some linguists (Richard Hogg, Valery V. Mykhailenko, Ishtla Singh, Elizabeth Closs Traugott, etc.) suppose that the **Old English syntax** presents a mixture of the old and the new and that the OE word order was not free; different word order patterns coexisted, and usage was consistent within a pattern (Hogg, 2002: 87; Mykhailenko, 1999: 109-112; Singh, 2005: 88; Traugott, 2005: 274). Furthermore, in many respects, OE word order patterns are like those in other West Germanic languages such as German and Dutch, and these have not undergone substantial shifts to VO order (Traugott, 2005: 274).

The earliest syntactic structure of Old English was much closer to the Indo-European languages than that of Modern English. It was determined by two factors: the OE morphology (**case system**) and the relations between the spoken and the written forms of the language being expressed by both **object/predicate (OV)** and **predicate/object (VO)** word order structures.

OE was a **synthetic** language, predominantly used for oral communication; therefore the written forms of the language mostly coincided with oral; written texts were literal translations from Latin. As a result, the syntax of the sentence was simple – simple sentences for the most part prevailed over complex ones; compound syntactical constructions were rare.

Mel'nikov considers that the process of the development of English may be characterized as the rearrangement of the language from the grammatical system to the lexicological one, the results of which visually become apparent in the sphere of syntax, morphology and the structure of a word. According to Mel'nikov the system of Germanic languages modifies itself in accordance with the lexicological determinant; i.e., strict word-order, frequent coincidence of a syllable with a morpheme or a common word (Мельников, 1971: 366–367).

Having analyzed a large amount of linguistic evidence A.N Morokhovskiy concluded that the Old English sentences exhibited the **SO** model of usage and started displaying a process of gradual transition from a distant disposition of the subject and the predicate in the sentence towards their contact position (Мороховский, 1979: 48–55). On the basis of the examined Old English texts Morokhovskiy figured out the following

syntactic models of the elementary Old English sentences (ibid):

(a) SOP

hie	***Gode***	***don sceoldon***
they	God	do should (should do)
S	**O**	**P**

(From King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care (PC)

(b) SAP

ic	***þa***	***gemunde***
I	then	thought
S	**A**	**P**

(From King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care (PC)

(c) SOAP

mon utanborders	***wisdom and lare*** ...	***on londe***	***sohte***
strangers	wisdom and teaching	on land	sought
S	**O**	**A**	**P**

(From King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care (PC)

(d) SAOP

we	***þa***	***stilnesse***	***habbað***...
we	then	stillness (peace)	have
S	**A**	**O**	**P**

(From King Alfred's West-Saxon Version of Gregory's Pastoral Care (PC)

Hogg and Singh note that there were two competing word orders: there was a **VO** word order as in present-day English, but there was also a **OV** word order as occurs, for example, in Latin. The latter is a recurring pattern and simply emphasises the Germanic origins of English (Hogg, 2002: 87; Singh, 2005:88). The **OV word order** structure, for example, was common when: (1) the **object** of a verb was a **pronoun;** (2) a **subordinate clause** was introduced by a relative pronoun such as ***þæt*** 'that'. We would try to exemplify the above statements.

OV word order structure:

(**a**) ... *Þā hē þā* ***sē cyning þās word ȝehīerde***

'Then when he the king those words heard'

S (*sē cyning*) **O (*þās word*)** **V(*ȝehīerde*)**

(From Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"* A.D. 890, sentence 6)

(**b**) *And þā sende to Aeþelbeorhte **ǣredwrecan** and onbēad **þæt** **hē** of Rōme cōme and **þæt** betste **ǣrende lǣdde***

'And they sent to Aethelberht a messenger and announced that he had come and the best message led'

S (*hē*) **O (*ǣrende*)** **V(*lǣdde*)**

(From Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"* A.D. 890, sentence 5)

Some scholars think that the objective participial and the objective infinitive constructions were widely used in Old Germanic languages, mainly, in Gothic, Old Icelandic, Old English and some others (Жлуктенко, Яворська, 1986: 121). This is illustrated by Bede's "*Ecclesiastical History*" in which he often used the objective-with-the-infinitive construction.

(**a**) *Þā hēt* ***hē*** ***hīe*** (Acc.) ***bīdan*** *on þǣm ēalande,*

'he (the king) them bade to bide on the island'

S (*hē*) **O (*hīe*)** **V (*bīdan*)**

(the object of the verb ***bīdan*** is the pronoun ***hīe*****)**

(From Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"* A.D. 890, sentence 6)

(**b**) ***hē*** ***him*** (Dat.) ***dōn wolde***

'he (the king) them would do'

S (*hē*) **O (*him*)** **V (*dōn wolde*)**

(the object of the verb ***dōn wolde*** is the pronoun ***him***)

(From Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"* A.D. 890, sentence 6)

(**c**) *Þā hēt* ***sē cyning*** ***hīe*** (Acc.) ***sittan***

'the king them ordered to sit'

S (*sē cyning*) **O (*hīe*)** **V (*sittan*)**

(the object of the verb ***sittan*** is the pronoun ***hīe***)

(From Bede's *"Ecclesiastical History"* A.D. 890, sentence 8)

V te years of the Anglo-Saxon period due to the **inflectional reduction.** This word order was found in subordinate clauses in OE, for the most part in prose narratives and biblical translations. In such cases, the verb would follow the subject, giving VO word order, e.g.:

(a) *On þām sixtan dæge* ***hē*** ***gescēop*** ***eal dēorcynn***

'On the sixth day he made all kinds of animals'

S **V** **O**

(Singh, 2005: 89)

(b) *Ða* ***dǣlde*** ***hē*** ***him his ǣhta***

'Then gave he him his property'

V **S** **O**

(Singh, 2005: 89)

In **questions**, OE appears to have inverted subjects and verbs, i.e. the **V–S–O** order was a characteristic feature of them, e.g.:

(**a**) *Hwæt* ***sceal ic secʒan***?
What shall I say?

(**b**) *Hwæt* ***sæʒst þū, frēond***?
What say you, friend?

In **negative statements**, ***ne***, *the negative particle*, appeared at the beginning of the clause, and was typically followed by the verb and subject. Multiple negation was common, that is, **ne** might occur several times in the same sentence. The negative is often formed as above by putting **ne** before the verb (**a, b**). There is also another word, **nā**, which can be translated as 'not' (**c**). Both **ne** and **nā** can be used in the same sentence to stress the negative meaning:

(**a**) ***ne*** *con ic* ***nōht*** *secʒan*
'not know I nought to say'
(I don't know what to say)

(**b**) ***nānne ne*** *sparedon*
'they did not spare no one'
(They did not spare anyone)
(Judith: line 233)

(**c**) ***Ne*** *ielde Grendel* ***nā*** *lange*
'Grendel did not delay long'. (**Literally**, 'Grendel didn't delay not long')
(Beowulf: line 592)

So throughout the OE period we see a gradual shift from greater to lesser use of verb-final patterns. Some researchers argue that the word order change was primarily motivated by the increased role of simplification of case inflections, tense and mood inflections of endings, the use of prepositions, auxiliary verbs, verb-non-final word order that led to the predominance in the Middle English period of the structures that were largely incipient in OE (Mykhailenko, 1999: 114–115).

Summary

Thus the grammatical development of English in the OE period may be defined as an essentially synthetical, inflectional type – *'the Period of Full Endings'* according to Henry Sweet. In many features OE grammar was similar to that of other Indo-European languages. They showed strong resemblance in parts of speech and possessed the same nominal and grammatical categories. The structure of the word is supposed to have been the same in all of them: between the root and the ending there were usually stem-building suffixes. Besides the common features shared by all the members of the Indo-European family, the Germanic languages in general and Old English in particular had certain peculiarities that differentiated them; e.g., (a) a special 'weak' conjugation of verbs, and (b) a special 'weak' declension of adjectives. By the end of the OE period there appeared gradual grammatical changes: subsequent weakening of unstressed endings in morphology and lesser use of verbs in final patterns in syntax.

Questions for self-control

1. What are the most characteristic features of a-stem declension of nouns? Decline one of the nouns belonging to this declension. Name some remnants of this declension in Mod.E.
2. What are the most characteristic features of a-stem declension in OE? Decline one of the nouns belonging to this declension. How can you explain the fact that OE o-stems were o-stems in Common Germanic and OE o-stems were a-stems in CG?
3. What are the most characteristic features of i-stems declension? Decline one of the nouns belonging to this declension.
4. What are the most characteristic features of u-stem declension in OE? Decline one of the nouns belonging to this declension in OE.
5. What are the most characteristic features of n-stems (weak) declension in OE? What are the remnants of this declension in Mod.E?
6. What are the most characteristic features of root-declension in O E? Decline one of the nouns belonging to this declension in OE. What are the remnants of this declension in Mod.E?
7. How many different forms could the OE noun paradigm include if all the forms were realized? How many of them are realized? Why are they so few?
8. Do the case forms of OE adjectives always repeat those of the nouns the adjectives are connected with?
9. What is the difference between the genders of OE nouns had those of the adjectives?
10. How were the degrees of comparison of OE adjectives that had suppletive forms of degrees of comparison? Which of them still exist in Mod.E?
11. How many numbers did OE personal pronouns have?
12. How many groups of demonstrative pronouns existed in O E? What is the difference between the groups? Do any of the groups still exist in Mod.E?
13. How were different groups of OE cardinal numerals built?
14. How many classes of strong verbs do the Germanic languages have?
15. What kind of verbs belongs to a class of verbs ‘preterit-presents’?
16. What verb is used to be the present form of ‘ought to’?
17. What is the first class of weak verbs characterized by?
18. Analyze the paradigms of OE verb and find different form – building means.
19. On what principle are strong verbs classified?
20. On what principle are weak verbs classified?

SEMINAR 3

Aims:

- ✓ be able to prove that Old English is a synthetic language, using lots of endings or inflections to indicate grammatical functions;

- ✓ perceive morphological and syntactic features of Old English

5.1. Study points:

1. General tendencies of the Old English Morphology
2. Declension of Nouns in Old English
3. The pronoun and article classification
4. Declension of Adjectives in Old English. The degrees of comparison
5. The verb classification. The Old English Conjugation System
   - 5.1. *Development of the Finite Forms of the English Verb*
   - 5.2. *Development of the Non-Finite Forms of the English Verb*
6. The Old English Syntax

Obligatory:

- ✓ Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 50–58.
- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 20–21.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. –P. 55–72.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 51–88; 89–115.
- ✓ T. A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 92–131.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 38–89.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 43–92.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 98–107; 112–116; 124–128; 133–151.

5.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. The grammatical system of the English language has a common historical basis with all Indo-European languages.
2. The morphological system of Old English is characterized by the total absence of the noun inflection.
3. There were no analytical formations in Old English.

4. The nominal parts of speech in Old English were as follows: noun, pronoun, verb, conjunction, interjection, etc.
5. Old English nouns possessed the categories of declension, gender, case, tense and voice.
6. Adjectives in Old English retained the categories of declension, gender, case, tense and voice.
7. It has become traditional to call the declensions of stems ending in a vowel—strong, of n-stem—weak, and to designate all other declensions as minor.
8. The Old English Personal Pronouns had three numbers: singular, dual and plural.
9. The Old English verb had the categories of mood, tense, number, person, aspect, voice and order.
10. The Old English verbs distinguished only three tenses by inflection, the present, the past and the future.
11. There was no future tense in the Old English verb, instead a future action was denoted by a present tense form, as in Modern English.
12. The strong verbs were not very numerous in Old English (above 300), but most of them occurred very frequently.
13. In Old English the verb *write* had three basic forms: the infinitive, the past tense and Participle II.
14. There were seven classes of strong verbs in Old English.
15. Weak verbs in Old English were derived from nouns, adjectives and other parts of speech with the help of the stem-building suffix **-i/j**.
16. The order of words in a sentence was comparatively free in Old English.
17. Old English verbs formed their past with the help of the verb 'to be'.
18. There has never been a second singular form of verbs in English.
19. 'Preterite-presents' of Old English were modal verbs.
20. The verbals include infinitives and participles.

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

1. Old English was a … type of language.
A synthetic
B analytical
C mixed
D dual

2. Grammatical endings were found in … the parts of speech.
A two
B four
C all
D none

3. In Old English the noun had the grammatical category of …
A aspect
B voice
C tense
D case

4. The declension of the vocalic stems is called …

A weak
B strong
C root
D consonantal

5. The most outstanding feature of Old English nouns was their elaborate system of ...

A declension
B case
C number
D aspect

6. The declension of the n-stems is called …

A strong
B root
C weak
D minor

7. In OE the grammatical system of the verb consisted entirely of … forms.

A analytical
B synthetic
C subsequent
D alternative

8. OE verbs fall into … basic types.

A three
B two
C four
D one

9. Strong verbs form their past tense stems by … of the root vowel.

A gradation series
B by means of the suffix **-d-/-t-**
C suppletion
D palatal mutation

10. In OE, as in other old Germanic languages, there were … gradation classes of strong verbs.

A three
B seven
C five
D four

11. Weak verbs form their past tense (and Participle II) by …

A gradation
B suffixation
C mixture

D alternative

12. OE Morphology bears a much closer resemblance to …than to Mod.E.
A Modern German
B Modern English
C Old English
D Old Germanic

13. Most Old English verbs have:
A one personal ending
B different endings for singular and plural
C no endings
D the same endings for singular and plural

14. Old English verbs …
A have only one distinct form
B can appear in many forms
C have less distinct forms than adjectives
D have less distinct forms than nouns

15. The reason for assimilation is …
A endings of the weak past immediately follow a vowel
B multiplicity of OE verbs
C a sequence of consonants that is difficult to pronounce
D the root vowels of strong verbs undergo I-mutation in the present

16. Subjunctive plural endings are:
A -on (-an; -en)
B -st (-þ)
C -e (-aþ)
D -et (-t)

17. The gradation patterns …
A differ from each other
B are the same
C are derived from a single gradation pattern
D influence each other

18. Grammatical alteration …
A affects the paradigms of most auxiliary verbs
B affects the paradigms of most weak verbs
C affects the paradigms of most strong verbs
D doesn't deal with any strong verbs

19. The verbals in Old English are …
A infinitives
B participles
C gerund

D infinitives and participles

20. The Old English present participle is used to denote …
A the performer of an action
B the object of an action
C an action
D condition of an action

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

1. The division of language into linguistic levels –
2. Language is regarded as fixed in time –
3. Every linguistic fact is interpreted as a step in the never-ending evolution of language –
4. The study or use of the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences –
5. The smallest meaningful unit in a language, consisting of a word or part of a word that cannot be divided without its meaning –
6. The study of the morphemes of a language and of the way in which they are joined together to make words –
7. One or more sounds which can be spoken to represent an idea, object, action –
8. A list of all the various inflected forms of a declinable word –
9. The rules of grammar which are used for ordering and connecting to form phrases of sentences –
10. A word or (a group of words) that is used in describing an action, experience or state –
11. A part of speech used instead of a noun or a noun phrase –
12. A grammatical category of number to two items –
13. The list of all possible inflected forms of a noun, pronoun or adjective –
14. A word or group of words that is the name of a person, a place, a thing, or activity, or a quality or idea –
15. The form of a word showing its relationship with other words in a sentence –
16. Change in the form of words, esp. of nouns and verbs, depending on whether one or more than one thing is talked about –
17. Any of the forms of a verb that show the time and continuance or completion of the action or a state expressed by the verb –
18. Any of the various sets of verb forms to express a fact or action, a command or a doubt, wish, etc. –
19. The form of the verb which shows whether the subject of a sentence acts or is acted on –
20. The particular form of a verb which shows whether the action that is described is a continuing action or an action that happens always, repeatedly –

A Synchronic approach
B Internal linguistics
C Diachronic approach
D Grammar
E Morphology

F Morpheme
G Word
H Paradigm
I Pronoun
J Verb
K Syntax
L Declension
M Case
N Mood
O Aspect
P Voice
Q Tense
R Number
S Noun
T Dual

5.3. Reading practice

1. Read Text 1, translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Define the main idea. Write out all the **inflected parts** of speech.

Þæt Estland is swȳðe mycel, and ðær bið swȳðe maniȝ burh, and ælcere byriȝ bið cyniȝ, and ðær biþ swȳðe mycel huniȝ and fiscaþ; and sē cyniȝ and þa rīcostan men dricaȝ myran meolc and þa unspēdiȝan and þā þēowan drincað mede.

(*Orosius. Wulfstan's Story*)

2. Read the text and translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Define the main idea. Find examples of different classes of **strong** and **weak verbs, preterite-presents** and **suppletive verbs.**

Þā stōd him sum mon æt þurh swefn ond hine hālette ond ȝrētte ond hine be his noman nemnde: "Cædmon siȝ mē hwæt-hwuȝu!" Þā ondswarede hē ond cwæð: Ne con ic nōht siȝan; ond ih for-þon of þēossum ȝebēorscipe ūt ēode ond hider ȝewāt for-þon ic nāht siȝan ne cūðe!

Eft hē cwæð, sē ðe wið hine sprecende wæs: "Hwæðre þū meaht siȝan".

(*Bede's Ecclesiastical History. Cædmon*)

3. Read the text and translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Dwell on the historical events mentioned in the text. Account for the differences in the **word order.** Comment on the meaning of **verb prefixes.**

Æfter þǣm þe hē hīe oferwunnen hæfde, hē fōr on Bretanie þǣt Iȝlond, and wið þā Brettas ȝefeaht, and ȝeflīemed wearþ on þām londe þē mon hētCentlond. Raþe þæs hē ȝefeaht wið þā Brettas on Centlonde, and hī wurdon ȝeflīemede.

(Orosius. Julius Caesar)

5.4. Grammatical analysis practice

1. Study the model of the **grammatical** analysis based on the text *"The Ruin"* **(Table 5.21).**

THE RUIN

Wrǣtlic is þes wealstān, **w**yrde gebrǣcon;
burgstede burston, **b**rosnað enta geweorc.
Hrofas sind gehrorene, **hr**eorge torras,
hrungeat berofen, **hr**im on lime,
scearde scurbeorge **sc**orene, gedrorene,
ældo undereotone. **Eo**rðgrap hafað
waldend wyrhtan **forw**eorone, geleorene,
heardgripe hrusan, oþ **h**und cnea
werþeoda **ge**witan. Oft þæs wag **ge**bad
ræghar ond **re**adfah **r**ice æfter o**þr**um,
of**st**onden under **st**ormum;
steap **ge**ap **ge**dreas.

T *in"*)

Word from the text	Grammatical Analysis	Modern English
þes	*pron., demon. Gen. M.*, sg.	this
wealstan	*n, Nom. sg. of* weall, *M.-a*; *n. Nom. sg. of* stan, *M.-a*	wall, stone
wyrde	*n, Nom. sg. of* wyrd, *F.-n*	fate, chance, fortune, destiny
gebræcon	*v., Past Indef. of* brecan, *str., Cl. 4.*	to break
burgstede	*n, Nom. sg. of* burg, *cons.*; *n. Nom. sg. of* stede, *M.-i*	fortress, castle, town; place, spot, locality
burston	*v, Past Indef. of* berstan, *str., Cl. 3*	to break into pieces
brosnað	*v, Past Indef. of* brosnian, *wv., Cl. 2.*	crumble, decay
enta	*adj., Nom.pl. of* ent, *F, str. decl.*	giant
geweorc	*n. Nom.sg. of* geweorc, *N.-n*	fortification,
hrofas	*n, Acc. pl. of* hrof, *M. -a*	roof, ceiling
sind	*v, Pr. Pl. Indef. of* beon, *irr. suppl.,.*	to be, to exist
gehrorene	*Past part. of* hreosan, *v., str. ,Cl. 2*	to fall down, ruin
hreorge	*adj., Nom. pl. of* hreorg, *M, str. decl.*	In ruins
torras	*n, Acc. pl. of* hrof, *M. -a*	tower, watch-tower
hrungeat	*n, Acc. pl. of* hrung, *F. -n*	cross-bar

berofen	*v., Past Indef. Pl, str., Cl. 6.*	to despoil, bereave
hrim	*n, Nom. sg. of* hrim, *M. -a*	rime, hoar-frost
scearde	*n, Gen. sg. of* scearu, *F. -o*	cutting, shearing
scurbeorge	*n, Nom. sg. of* scur, *M. -a; -n, Dat. sg. of* beorg, *M. -a*;	shower; hill, mountain
scorene	*adj., Nom. pl. of* scoren, *M, str. decl.*	abrupt
gedrorene	*adj., Nom. pl. of* gedroren, *M, str. decl.*	perishable
æled	*n, Nom. sg. of* æled, *M. -a*;	fire
undereotone	*Past part. of* etan, *v., str., Cl. 5*	eat, feed, destroy
eorðgrap	*n, Nom. sg. of* eorð, *F. -o*; *n, Nom. sg. of* grap, *F. -o*;	earth; ditch, furrow, drain
hafað	*v., Pr Indef. sg, 3rd per., w., Cl. 3.*	to have
waldend/weald	*n, Nom. sg. of* weald, *M. -a*;	forest, weald, bushes
wyrhtan	*n, Nom. sg. of* wyrhta, *M. -a*;	wright, artist, worker
forweorone	*adj., Nom. pl. of* forweoron, *M, str. decl.*	decayed, decrepit
geleorene	*adj., Nom. pl. of* geleoren, *M, str. decl.*	transitory
heardgripe	*adj., Nom. pl. of* heard, *M, str. decl.; v., Pr. Indef. sg, 1st. per., str., Cl. 1.*	to gripe, seize, grasp
hrusan	*n, Dat. sg. of* hrusa, *F. -n*;	earth, soil
oþ	*conj.,*	until
hund	*num.*	hundred
cnea	*n, Gen. pl. of* cneow, *-n*	knee, generation
werþeoda	*n, Nom. sg. of* werþeoda, *F -o*	people, a nation
gewitan	*v., prt. prs*	to know
oft	*adv.*	often
þæs	*adv.*	afterwards
wag	*n, Nom. sg. of* wag *M. -a*;	wall
gebad	*n, Nom. sg. of* bad *F -o*	forced contribution, impost
ræghar	*adj., Nom. sg of* ræghar, *M, str. decl.*	grey
ond	*prep.*	and, but
readfah	*adj., Nom. sg of* readfah, *M, str. decl.*	red, red-stained
rice	*n, Nom. sg. of* rice *N. -ja*;	kingdom, power, rule
æfter	*prep.*	after, along
oþrum	*adj., Dat. sg. of* ōþre, *str. decl.*	)one of two; 2) the second.
ofstonden	*v., Past Indef. pl, 3rd per., wv., Cl. 1.*	to hasten
under	*prep., adv.*	under

stormum	*n, Dat. pl. of* storm *M. -a;*	storm
steap	*n, Nom. sg. of* steap *M. -a*;	stoup, beaker, drinking vessel
geap	*adj., Nom. sg of* geap, *M, str. decl.*	open, wide, spread out, extended, lofty
gedreas	*n, Acc. pl. of* gedreg *M. -a*;	concourse, assembly

1. (a) Read Text 1, translate it into Mod.E and define its main idea.

> Ælfred ***cyninȝ*** hāteð grētan Wærferð ***biscep*** his ***wordum*** luflice ond frēondlice ond ðē cȳðan hāte ðæt mē cōm swiðe oft on ***ȝemynd,*** hwelce wiotan īu wæron ȝiond Angel ***cynn*** æȝðer ȝē godcundra hāda ȝē woruldcundra; ond hū ȝesæliȝlica ***tīda*** ðā wæron ȝiond Angelcynn.
>
> (*Cura Pastoralis, Preface*)

Italicized nouns to text 1

cyninȝ, *n. m. a.* – king ‖ *OHG* chuning ‖ *OS* kuning ‖ *Dan.* konge
biscop, *n. m. a.* – bishop ‖ *OHG* biskof ‖ from *Late Lat.* epīscopus ‖ from *Gr.* episkopos
word, *n. n. a.* – word ‖ *OHG* wort ‖ *ON* orth ‖ *Gt.* waurd ‖ *Lat.* verbum ‖ *Sans.* vratá command
ȝemynd, *n. f. i.* – mind, memory ‖ *OHG* gimunt memory ‖ *Gt.* gamunts ‖ *OFr.* memorie ‖ from *Lat.* memoria, from memor ‘mindful’;
cynn, *n. n .ja.* – race ‖ *Gt.* kuni ‖ *OHG* chuni ‖ *Lat.* genus
tīd *n. f. ō.* – time period ‖ *OE* tīma (tīd) ‖ *ON* tīmi ‖ *OHG* zīme (zīt);

(b) Make the morphological analysis of the italicized nouns, using scheme **1.**

Scheme 1 for the **morphological** analysis of **a noun:**
‘ ’ is a noun: **stem, gender, declension, case, number.**

2. (a) Read Text 2.

> Anno 449. Her Martianus and Valentinus onfenȝon rīce, and ricsodon seofon winter. And on ***hiera*** daȝum Hengest and Horsa, fram Wyrtȝeorne ȝelaþode, Bretta cyninȝe, ȝesohton Bretene on ***þǣm*** stede þe is ȝenemned Ypwines-fleot, ærest Brettum to fultume, ac hīe eft on hīe fuhton. ***Sē*** cyninȝ het ***hīe*** feohtan onȝean Peohtas; and hīe swa dydon, and siȝe hæfdon swa hwær swa hīe comon. Hīe þā sendon to Angle, and heton him sendan māran fultum. Þā sendon hīe ***him*** māran fultum. Þā comon ***þā*** menn of þrim mæȝþum Germanie: of Ealdseaxum, of Englum, of Iotum.
>
> *(The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle)*

(b) Define the **numerals** in text 2. Draw a parallel between **cardinal** and **ordinal** ones.

(c) Identify the **declension** of the following **nouns** and define the form of their **Nominative case:** *rīce, dagum, cyninge, Angle, fultume, sige, menn, mæʒþum, stede.*

(**d**) Find out the **suppletive forms** of **comparison** of the OE **adjectives** in text **2.** Decline them, using scheme **2.**

> **Scheme 2** for the **morphological** analysis of **an adjective:**
> ‘ ’ is an adjective: **gender,** type of **declension, case, number.**

(e) Classify the **pronouns** mentioned in the text into **classes**; make the morphological analysis of **the italicized,** using scheme **3.**

> **Scheme 3** for the **morphological** analysis of **a pronoun:**
> ‘ ’ is a _____ (**class** of the pronoun), **person** (for personal) **case, number.**

3 (a) Read Text 3 and translate it into Mod.E.

> And þā hē forð ***ēode*** hē ***ʒe-seah*** Leuin Alphei ***sittende*** æt his cēp-setle, and hē ***cwæð*** tō him: ***folʒa*** mē, þā ***ārās*** hē and ***folʒode*** him.
> *(The OE Gospel, West Saxon Version)*

Italicized verbs to text 3

ārīsan, *sv. 1* – to arise ‖ *OS* arīsan ‖ *OHG* rīsan (irrīsan) ‖ *Gt.* ga-reisan
cweðan, *sv. 5* – to say ‖ *Gt.* qiþan ‖ *OHG* quethan ‖ *ON* kveða ‖ *Lat.* veto (< *gueto)
(secgan, sæʒe *wv. 3* – to say ‖ *ON* segja, seggja ‖ *OS* seggian ‖ *OHG* sagēn ‖ *OFr.* sega)
sēon, *sv. 5* – to see ‖ *ON* sjā ‖ *Gt.* saihvan ‖ *OS* sehan ‖ *OHG* sehen ‖ *Lat.* sequor
sittan sv. 5 – to sit ‖ *ON* sitja ‖ *Gt.* sitan ‖ *OHG* sizzan ‖ *Lat.* sedēre ‖ *Sans.* sīdati
gān (ēode, ʒegān), *irr. v. suppl.* – to go ‖ *OHG* gān ‖ *Gr.* kikhanein ‘to reach’ ‖ *Sans.* jahāti
folʒian, fylʒan *wv. 2* – to follow ‖ *OFr.* folgia, fulgia ‖ *OS* folgōn ‖ *OHG* folgen ‖ *pt ple* fullēode

(b) Define the **principal forms** of the italicized verbs in the text. Make the morphological analysis of them, using scheme **4.**

> **Scheme 4** for the **morphological** analysis of **a verb:**
> ‘….’ is a verb: **class, person, number, tense, mood.**

4. Read Text 4 and translate it into Mod.E. Define the characteristic features of the Old English syntax in the given text.

> Ic bidde nū on ʒodes naman, ʒyf hwā ðās bōc āwrītan wylle, þæt hē hi ʒerihte wel bē ðære bysne; forðan ðe ic nāh ʒeweald, þēah hī hwā tō woʒe ʒebrinʒe þurh lēase wrīteras, and hit bið ðonne his pleoh, nā mīn.
> *(Aelfric's Grammar)*

Glossary to text 4

biddan, *sv. 5* – to ask, pray ‖ *Gt.* bidjan ‖ *OHG* bitten
hwā, *prn.* – who; ‖ *Gt.* hvas ‖ *OHG* hwer ‖ *Latin* quis ‖ *Ukrainian* хто
āwrītan, *sv. 1* – to translate, rewrite ‖ *OHG* rizan
wrītere, *n.m.ja* – writer
willan (wolde), *irr. v.* – to want, will ‖ *Gt.* wiljan ‖ *OHG* wellen ‖ *Latin* volo ‖ *Ukrainian* воля
ȝerihtan, *wv. 1* – to correct; *rel. to* riht ‖ *Gt.* raíhts ‖ *OHG* recht ‖ *Latin* rectus
bysen, *n.f.i* – example ‖ *Gt.* anabusns
nān = neāh – have not
āȝan, āh, āhte, *prt.-prs.* – to possess, ought to, owe ‖ *Gt.* again ‖ *OHG* eigan
ȝeweald, *n.n.a* – power, strength ‖ *OHG* gewalt
wōh, wōȝes, *n.n.a* – error, wrong ‖ *Gt.* unwahs
lēas, *adj.* – loose ‖ *Gt.* laus ‖ *OHG* lōs
pleoh, *n.n.a* – damage, hurt; *rel. to* pliht ‖ *OHG* pflicht

5. Read Text 5 and translate it into Mod.E. Figure out the syntactical peculiarities of the Old English text.

> Þȳ ylcan ȝēare onforan winter þā Deniscan þe on Meresiȝe sǣton tuȝon hiera scipu up on Temese; þǣt wæs ymb twā ȝēar þǣs þe hie hider ofer sǣ cōmon.
>
> *(The Parker Chronicle)*

Glossary to text 5

þȳ – *instr. case of* sē
yic, *prn.* – the same
onforan, *prp.* – before
þe, *rel. part.* – who
Meresiȝe – the Mersey *(the name of the river)*
sǣton, *past pl. of* **sittan**, *sv. 5* – to sit, to dwell
tuȝon, *past pl. of* **tēon**, *sv. 2* – to draw, pull
ymb, *prp.* – about, by
hider, *adv.* – hither
þǣs, þe, *dem. prn.* – since the time
sǣ, *n.f.i* – sea
cōmon, *past pl. of* **cuman**, *sv. 4* – to come

SELF-STUDY 5

Aims:

- ✓ watch the video films pertaining to Self-Study 5; i.e., Old English grammar so that you can understand the grammatical terminology of the Old English period;
- ✓ be able to recognize and account for the major morphological and syntactic features of the Old English synthetic language in assignments being carried out in MOODLE tests;
- ✓ improve and elevate your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

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

5.1.1. *Old English Nouns 1* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=in57G15nSO4
5.1.2. *Old English Nouns 2*http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WiOlfrM7eLQ
5.1.3. *Old English Nouns 3* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s8eObpFVs-c&feature=relmfu
5.1.4. *Old English Pronouns* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DKQ2H5o4Wuw
5.1.5. *Old English Adjectives* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9pLndoUBvmQ
5.1.6. *Old English Verbs 1* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gydjmFcjMJU
5.1.7. *Old English Verbs 2* http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mZSC0mwQGhE

Obligatory:

- ✓ Albert C. Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language*. – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 50–58.
- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 20–21.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 55–72.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 51–88; 89–115.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 92–131.
- ✓ L.Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 38–89.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 43–92.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 98–107; 112–116; 124–128; 133–151.
- ✓ Lecture 5.

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. Nouns are words that denote things, sometimes concrete (actual, real) things such as *whiteboard, the white board* and sometimes abstract things like *thought, feminism*, etc.

2. OE nouns do not present any conceptual difficulties.

3. OE nouns break up into several different categories; i.e., different categories of nouns will have different endings.

4. The category of gender in Modern English is expressed by different endings of nouns: e.g., *bard – bards; ox – oxen; foot – feet*.

5. Peter's Magic Sheet demonstrates 2 categories of OE nouns called strong and anomalous ones.

6. Strong and weak OE nouns are subdivided further into other categories; e.g., the category of gender: masculine, feminine and neuter.

7. The plurality of nouns in OE was expressed by the case inflection together with case meaning as in Modern German, French and Ukrainian.

8. This time we will speak about a particular aspect of OE nouns –the grammatical

category of tense.

9. 4 magic letters (N., A., G., D) on the Magic Sheet correspond to the category of case in OE.

10. N., A., G., D stand for Nominative, Accusative, Genitive and Dative cases.

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

1. The Mod.E sentences *I shot him* and *He shot me* are … partners.

A structural **B** homogeny
C semantic **D** syntactic

2. Somewhere, maybe in the back of your mind, you might remember some grammatical categories called …

A subject **B** object
C predicate **D** subject and object

3. ... is a word which can be used with a subject to form the basis of a clause.

A verb **B** noun
C pronoun **D** numeral

4. The word ***I*** (*I shot him*) and the word ***He*** (*He shot me*) when indicating the … of a sentence have different forms when indicating an …

A subject … predicate **B** subject … verb
C subject … object **D** subject … attribute

5. The form a word takes when its function is to be a subject (*I, He*) is called the … form, corresponding to … on the Magic Sheet.

A Nominative … N
B Accusative … A
C Genitive … G
D Dative … D

6. The form a word takes when its function is to be the object of a sentence (him, me) is called the … form, corresponding to … on the Magic Sheet.

A Nominative … N
B Accusative … A
C Genitive … G
D Dative … D

7. The Nominative and Accusative forms are used in Mod.E all the time; we … replace nouns with pronouns.

A conventionally **B** unlikely
C improbable **D** automatically

8. When you look at Peter's Magic Sheet you will see that the Nominative and Accusative forms of different OE nouns are …

A different **B** regular
C normal **D** common

9. OE … change their forms to indicate their grammatical functions as either the subject or object of a verb.

A adjectives **B** nouns
C verbs **D** pronouns

10. The Genitive case basically indicates …

A action **B** state

C possession **D** condition

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

1. The Dative case denotes the …
2. All Genitive plurals end …
3. All Dative plurals end …
4. The OE personal pronouns had …
5. Besides, the 1st and 2nd person of the OE personal pronouns had …
6. OE nouns can be either strong or weak. All OE adjectives can be both strong and weak; …
7. The Infinitive (by origin a kind of noun derived from a verb stem) is a common basic form of a verb used in dictionaries;…
8. In OE Participle I had the suffix – ***end(e)***, e.g., *singende.* Participle II expressed "passivity" and "priority", e.g., (*ʒe*)*ʒiefen* (*given*), etc. …
9. There were three moods in OE: the indicative, the subjunctive and the imperative ones. …
10. The Magic Sheet including the verb *to be* conveys the concept that *being* is an *action*. Besides OE verbs are divided into strong and weak ones. …

A. In Mod.E Participle I has present reference; e.g., *the walking man.* Participle II – past reference; e.g., *the broken door, the wanted criminal*, etc.
B. ... indirect object.
C. … had the **dual** forms ('the two of us', 'the two of you').
D. … it doesn't change its form and comes after finite verbs.
E. … in ***-a***.
F. … in ***-um***.
G. … it depends on the ending you put the adjective on (strong or weak) e.g., *Hē is **gōd** man* (strong); ***sē gōda** man* (weak).
H. … The subjunctive mood in OE was used much more intensively than in Mod.E.
I. … 4 cases: Nominative (***ic, wē***), Accusative (***mē, ūs***), Genitive (***mīn, ūre***) and Dative (***mē, ūs***) ones.
J. … Strong verbs indicate tense by changing a root vowel; e.g., *s**i**ng – s**a**ng – s**u**ng*. Weak – by forming its preterite in ***-ede, -ode;*** e.g., *wanted,* etc.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE VI

LECTURE6. OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

"Language is first and foremost a means of ***transmitting ideas*** *and* ***information****, its study is the branch of the study of the signs and objects they symbolize. (...)* ***Language*** *is also a form of* ***social behaviour"****.*

(J. Whatmough)

Aims*:*

- ✓ to figure out the etymological layers of native Old English words and account for the role of foreign items in the Old English vocabulary;
- ✓ to identify the Celtic influence on Old Germanic, Old English, and later English;
- ✓ to explore the Latin influence on Old English;
- ✓ to figure out evidence for extensive Scandinavian influence during the Old English period;
- ✓ to understand the processes of word-formation in Old English.

Points for Discussion

Introduction
6.1. General overview of the Old English vocabulary
6.2. Native words
6.3. Foreign element in the Old English vocabulary
6.3.1. *Celtic loans*
6.3.2. *Latin loans*
6.3.3. *Scandinavian influence*
6.4. Morphological structure of the Old English vocabulary. Word-Formation. Semantics
6.5. Stylistic stratification of the Old English vocabulary
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know

lexicon	**compound place-names**
etymology	translation loans
sources	word-formation

native words	loan-words
borrowings	word structure
common IE layer	simple words
common Germanic layer	derived words
specifically OE layer	compound words
concept	word-derivation
miscellaneous borrowings	sound interchange

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

1. Матковська М.В. An Introduction to Old English : Навчальний посібник.– Кам'янець-Подільський: ПП Буйницький О.А., 2017. – С. 191–224.
2. Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language.* – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 58–61; 67–97.
3. David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 22–27.
4. Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 90–99.
5. Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–131.
6. T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 131–148.
7. L.Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 90–101.

Additional:

1. В.Д Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 92–102.
2. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 15–19.

Introduction

Vocabulary is the Everest (Crystal, 2005: 117) of a language. There is no larger task than to look for the order among the hundreds of words which comprise the lexicon.

The term ***lexicon*** is known in English from the early 17th century when it referred to a book containing a selection of a language's words and meanings arranged in alphabetical order. The term itself comes from Greek ***lexis*** "word".

To study the lexicon of Old English, accordingly, is to study all aspects of the vocabulary of the language — how words are formed, how they have developed over time, how they are used now, how they relate in meaning to each other.

In this lecture we will discuss the influence of different languages on English; i.e., Celtic, Latin, and Scandinavian, we will present etymological layers of native OE words, and we will deal with types of word-formation in Old English.

6.1. General overview of the Old English vocabulary

The full word-stock of the OE vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. The historical records of English do not go as far back as this because the oldest written texts in the English language (in Anglo-Saxon) date from about 700 and are thus removed by about three centuries from the beginnings of the language. Despite the gaps in the accessible data, philological studies (Crystal,1995; Gelderen, 2006; Mykhailenko, 1999; Rastorguyeva, 1983) have given us a fairly complete outline of the OE vocabulary in regards to its etymology, word structure, word-building and stylistic differentiation.

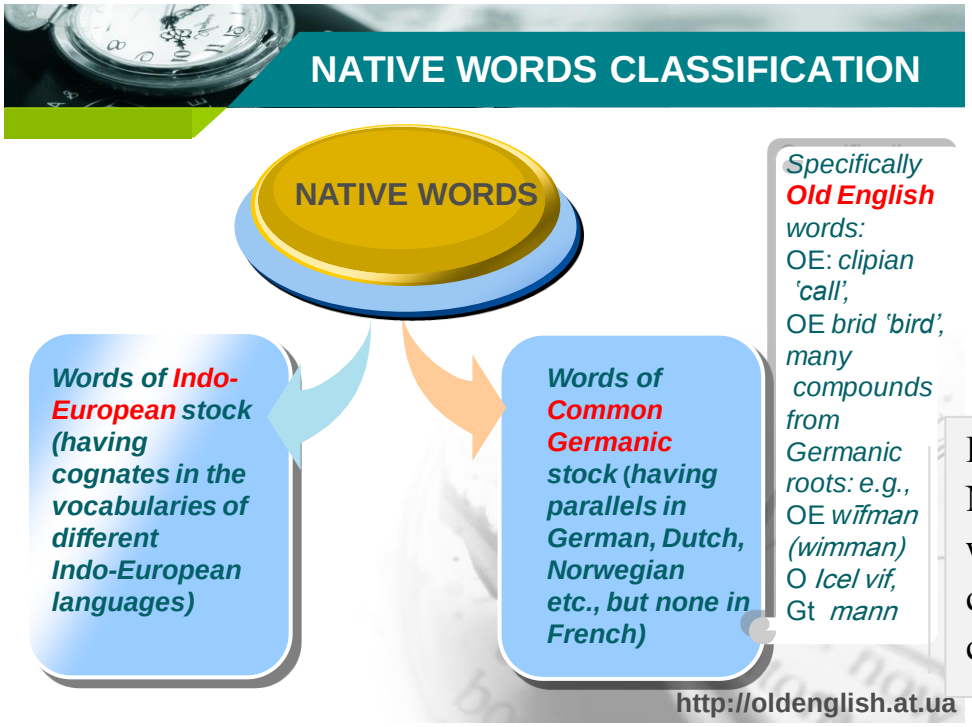


Figure 6.1. Native words classify-cation

The OE vocabulary consisted of native words inherited from PG or formed from native roots and affixes. The importance of this purely Germanic basis is often overlooked, largely because of the large number of foreign words incorporated in the vocabulary. Many studies of the English language give undue prominence to the foreign element, thus leaving an incorrect impression of the foundation of the language. Some foreign scholars (Smith: 1922; Bradley: 1931) assumed that the development of English was mainly due to borrowings from foreign sources.

But an examination of actual usage shows how important native words are, and they are still at the core of the language. They stand for fundamental things dealing with everyday objects and things. The native stock includes modal verbs, most verbs of the strong conjugation, pronouns, most numerals, prepositions and conjunctions.

6.2. Native words

It has been customary to subdivide the **native OE** words into a number of etymological layers. The **three** main layers of native OE words are: 1) common **IE** words; 2) common **Germanic** words; 3) specifically **OE** words (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 131-132).

1. Words belonging to the common **IE layer** constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary.

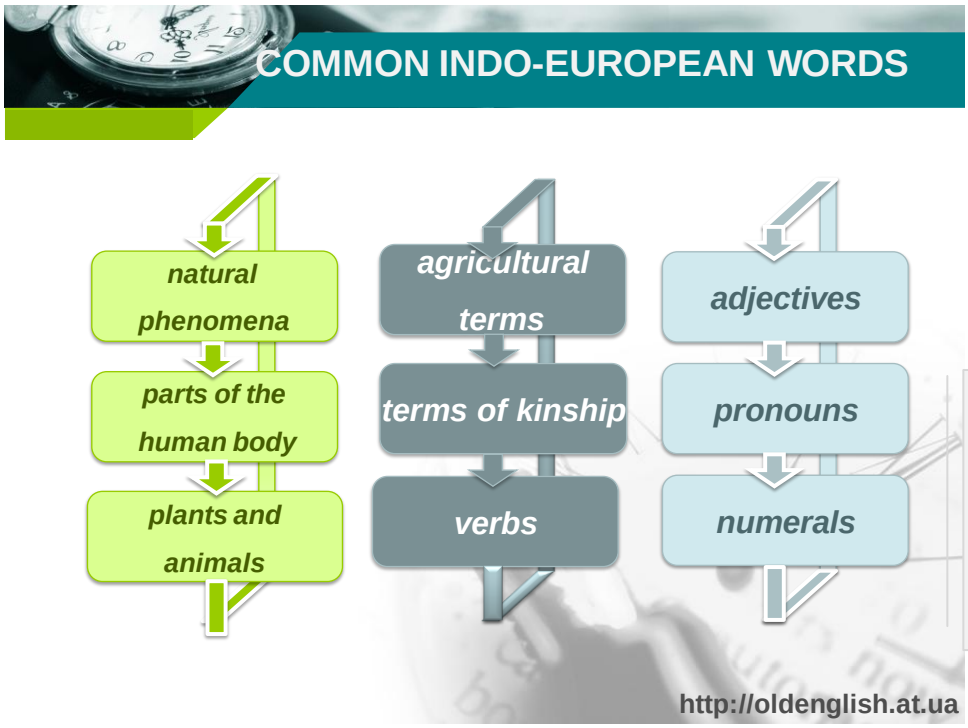


Figure6.2. Common IE words

These words go back to the days of the IE parent-language before its extension over the wide territories of Europe and Asia and before the appearance of the Germanic group.

Among these words we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship, etc.; verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of man; adjectives indicate the most essential qualities; this layer includes personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals.

Table 6.1. Common terms of **kinship** and **natural phenomena**

OE	**German**	**Latin**	**Greek**	**Ukrainian**	**ModE**
fæder	*Vater*	*pater*	*pater*		*father*
broþor	*Bruder*	*frater*		*брат*;	*brother*
modor)	*Mutter*	*mater*	*meter*	*мати*	*mother*
dohtor	*Tochter*		*hygater*	*дочка*	*daughter*
sunu	*Sohn*			*син*	*son*
names for everyday objects and things and natural phenomena					
OE	**German**	**Latin**	**Greek**	**Ukrainian**	**ModE**
mona	*Mond*		*mene*	*місяць*	*moon*

niht	*Nacht*	*nox*		*ніч*	*night*
treo, treow			*drus-oak*	*дерево*	*tree*
wæter	*Wasser*	*unda*	*hydæ*	*вода*	*water*

In the **Indo-European** stock we also find such English words as: *bull, crow, cat, fish, hare, hound, goose, mouse* and *wolf*. Here belong also quite a number of **verbs**: *to bear, to come, to know, to lie, to mow, to sit, to sow, to stand, to work, to tear*, etc. (Амосова: 1956). **Adjectives** belonging to this part of the vocabulary may be illustrated by such as: *hard, light, quick, right, red, slow, raw, thin* and *white*. Most **numerals** in some Indo-European languages are of the same origin.

> **Words** of **common Germanic stock**, i. e. words having their parallels in **German, Gothic, Norwegian, Dutch, Icelandic**, etc do not occur outside the group.

These words are an important distinctive mark of the Germanic languages at the lexical level. This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common IE words. The ratio between specifically Germanic and common IE words in the Germanic languages was estimated by 19th c. scholars as 1:2; since then it has been discovered that many more Germanic words have parallels outside the group and should be regarded as common IE (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 132).

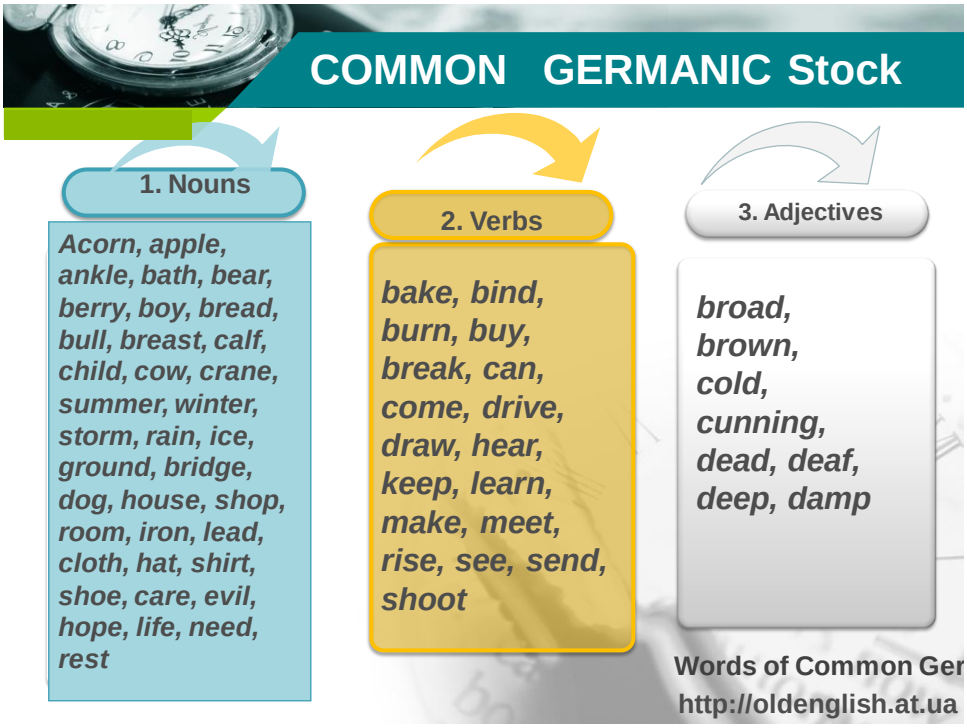


Figure 6.3. Common Germanic words

Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history; i.e., in PG when the Teutonic tribes lived close together. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with the sea and everyday life. Old English examples of this layer are given together with parallels from other Old Germanic languages, e.g.:

Table 6.2. Common **Germanic words**

OE	OHG	Gt.	OIcel	NE
hand	*hant*	*handus*	*hǫnd*	*hand*
sand	*sant*		*sandr*	*sand*
eorþe	*erda*	*airþa*	*jǫrð*	*earth*
singan	*singan*	*siggwan*	*singva*	*sing*
findan	*findan*	*finþan*	*finna*	*find*
grēne	*gruoni*		*grœn*	*green*
steorfan	*sterban*			*starve*
drincan	*trinkan*	*drigkan*	*drekka*	*drink*
land	*land*	*land*	*land*	*land*
macian	*mahhon*			*make*
fox	*fuhs*			*fox*
scrēap	*scâf*			*sheep*
wisdōm	*wístuom*		*vísdómr*	*wisdom*

The third etymological layer of native words can be defined as **specifically OE**, that is words which do not occur in other Germanic and non-Germanic languages.

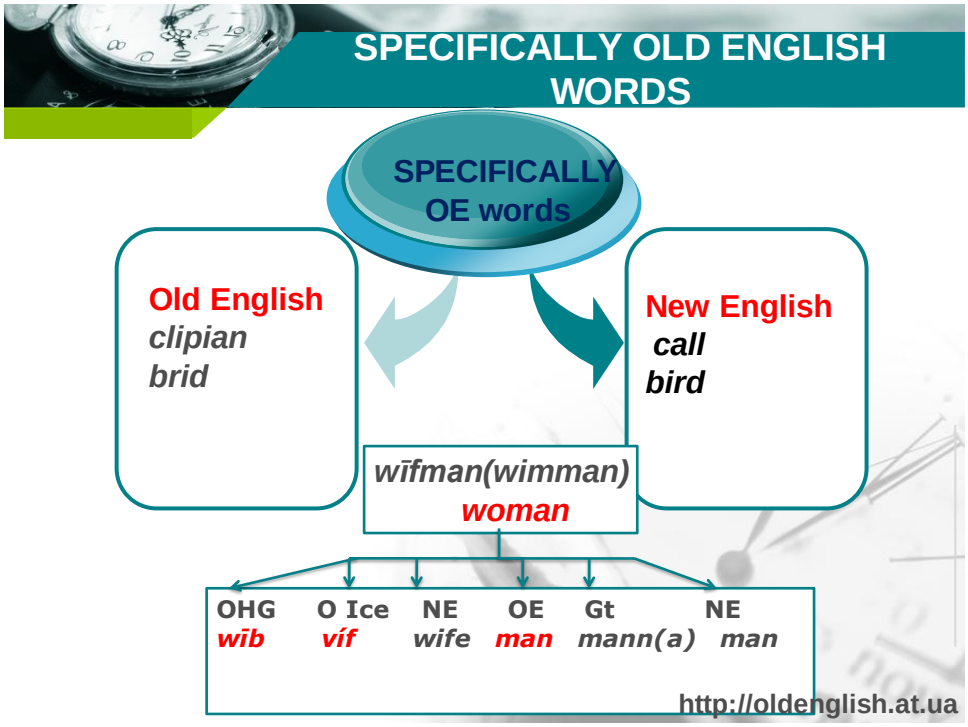


Figure 6.4 Specifically OE words

This layer includes OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England.

6.3. Foreign element in the Old English vocabulary

The history of early English vocabulary is one of repeated invasions with newcomers to the islands bringing their own language with them and leaving a fair amount of its vocabulary behind when they left or were assimilated. In the Anglo-Saxon period there were three major influences of this kind:

Celtic loans
Latin loans
Scandinavian influence

6.3.1. *Celtic loans*

According to Gelderen (2006) the **Celtic** languages influenced **English** in **three phases.** The first phase involves loans into Germanic (and other languages) on the continent. The second one covers adoptions into Old English (both before and after the introduction of Christianity). The third phase involves the influence of the Celtic languages after the Old English period. The first two phases will be discussed in more detail; the third phase is mentioned for general information only.

Regarding the **first phase**, there is a great deal of archaeological evidence of a Celtic presence in Europe.

There is **Celtic influence** on Latin and Germanic on the continent: Latin may have borrowed ***carrus*** 'wagon', ***lancia*** 'lance' and names such as ***Rhine, Danube, Armagnac*** and ***Cognac.***

These words end up in Germanic as well, but it is unknown if they come via Latin or directly from Celtic. Words such as ***dun*** 'hill' are present in both Celtic and Germanic and may have been borrowed from Celtic into Germanic. This makes the situation very complex. For instance, a word such as ***beak,*** first attested in English in the 13th century, has its origin in Old Celtic **bass* (*indicates that it is a reconstructed word); it comes into English via French which borrowed it from Celtic in what is now France.

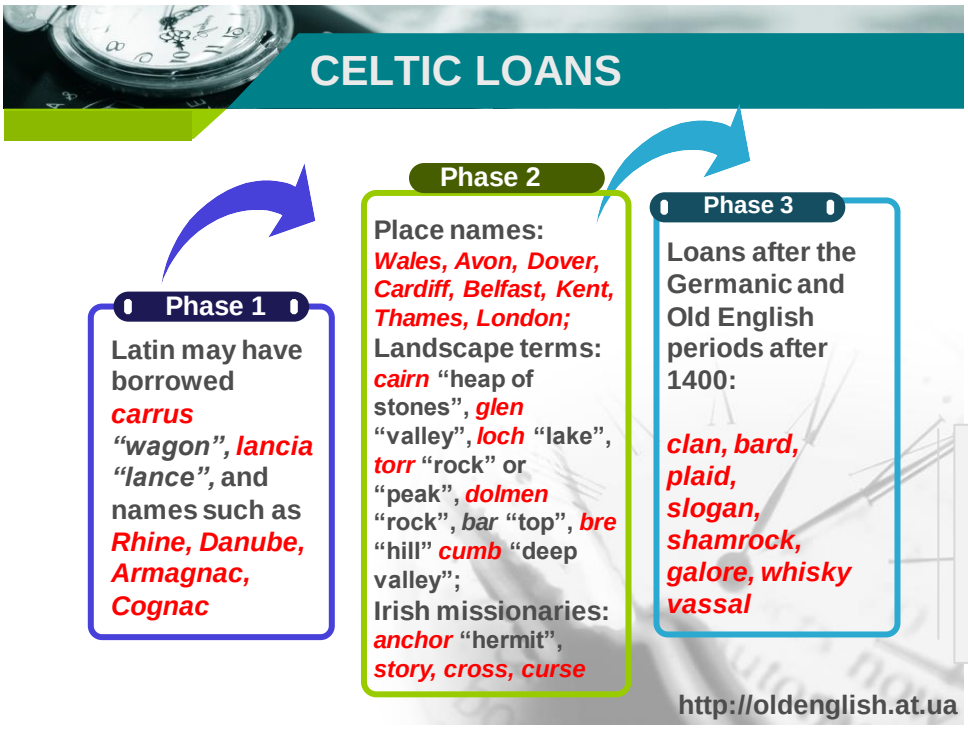


Figure6.5. Celtic Loans

Evidence of contacts between Old English and Celtic during the second phase is provided by certain words: ***walh*** means "foreigner" in Old English and there are many places named ***Waldon, Walden, Walton*** and, of course, ***Wales.*** These would have been places where the Celts lived. During this phase, the borrowings from Celtic by Latin and Germanic speakers in Britain are mostly place names. In Celtic, many of these are common nouns: ***afon*** is 'river' and ***dwr*** is 'water'; when adopted, however, they become proper nouns — the rivers named ***Avon*** and the place names ***Dover*** and ***Dorchester.***

Cardiff, Belfast, Kent, Thames, and ***London*** all derive from Celtic.

Landscape terms are borrowed frequently as well: ***cairn*** 'heap of stones', ***glen*** 'valley', ***loch*** 'lake', ***torr*** 'rock' or 'peak', ***dolmen*** 'rock', ***bar*** 'top', ***bre*** 'hill', ***llyn*** 'lake', and ***cumb*** 'deep valley'.

Some of these borrowings, such as ***luh*** "lake", are only found in Northumbrian; others, such as ***cumb*** "valley", are more common in West Saxon. During the 7th century, the northern part of England is Christianized by Irish missionaries, who introduce some Celtic into Old English. Words such as ***dry*** 'magician' come from ***druid*** (Old English ***drycræft*** is magic); ***anchor*** 'hermit', ***story, cross***, and ***curse*** probably enter through Irish during this period as well.

There is currently a lively debate about how much **invisible influence** Celtic may have had during this **second period**. See, for instance, "The Stories of English" by David Crystal (2005) in which the author provides intriguing evidence about the developing relationships between the British and the Anglo-Saxons.

There would have been a great deal of ***accommodation*** between people — that is **accents and dialects coming closer** together when communities were at peace with each other, and diverging when they were at odds.

A great deal of **bilingualism** must have been heard at the outset, and there must have been some **language mixing**. There are tantalising hints of bilingual awareness in some of the **place-names.**

The British name for ***Dover,*** for example, was ***Dubris,*** which was a plural form meaning 'waters'. When the name was adopted by the Anglo-Saxons it became ***Dofras,*** which was likewise a plural form. This suggests that those who named the place had some awareness of Celtic grammar. ***Wendover*** ('white waters' – a stream) in Berkshire and ***Andover*** ('ash-tree stream') in Hampshire had a similar history.

There are large numbers of Celtic place-names in England. A small selection would include ***Arden, Exe, Leeds***, and ***Severn,*** as well as the hundreds of compound names which contain a Celtic component. Lists of this kind hide an important point – that the names are not evenly distributed across England. If there are few such names in an area presumably this was a location where few British people remained or where the assimilation into Anglo-Saxon society was complete.

Many place-names with Celtic elements are hybrids; the Celtic component, combined with a Latin or a Germanic component, make a compound place-name.

Figure 6.6. Compound place-names

With the clusters of Celtic names, we may assume a culture where the British survived with their own identity for some time coexisting with their Anglo-Saxon neighbours, who were presumably fewer in number compared with their compeers in the east. On this basis, we can see a steady increase in **Celtic place-names** as we look from east to west across England until we reach **Wales** and **Cornwall**, where there are hardly

any Germanic names at all. Celtic names in the east are by no means entirely absent, but they do tend to be names of major centres and features such as ***Thames, London, Dover***, and ***Kent***. In such cases, we probably see the workings of convenience: the Anglo-Saxons took over the Celtic name simply because it was widely known. A similar pragmatism would be seen many times in the later development of place-names.

Apart from place-names, the influence is indeed small, and many of the words which are cited as of Celtic origin are of doubtful etymology. It is sometimes difficult to tell whether a word entered Old English from Welsh after the Anglo-Saxons arrived, or whether it had been acquired on the Continent from Latin and was thus already in their language. For example**,** ***bin*** 'receptacle' might have derived from an early British word ***benna*** (compare Welsh ***ben*** 'wagon') or from an even earlier Latin ***benna.*** There are also cases of words which probably came from Celtic, but because there are equivalent forms in some Germanic languages the point is not certain.

Anglo-Saxon personalities used some Celtic personal names***: Cœdwalla, Ceadda***, ***Cedd, Ceawlin, Cerdic***, and ***Cumba*** are all Welsh names***. Cumba***, for example, is very close to the Welsh word for 'Welshman' ***Cymro.***

But what is interesting is that these are all names of members of the Anglo-Saxon nobility**.** ***Cœdwalla***, for instance, was king of Wessex in 685 according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, and his conversion to Christianity is described by Bede (Book V, Chapter 7).

What sort of **society** must **Celts** have been for **Anglo-Saxon** royalty if the latter adopted **Welsh names**?

People are remarkably sensitive about choosing first names, as every parent knows. Great thought is devoted to the matter. No one would give their child the name of an enemy or of a person felt to be disreputable. When people are at war, they may even change their name to avoid being wrongly identified – as famously happened with the British royal family in 1917, when George V replaced Saxe-Coburg-Gotha with Windsor. On the other hand, choosing the name of a person whom one respects, or whom one wants to impress or thank, is a common practice – whether this be an older relative, a family friend, a business contact, or a political ally. People are also very influenced by social trends: some names become highly popular, and in modern times newspapers publish annual lists of the most fashionable choices. Religion exercises a strong influence, too, as with names of saints or biblical personalities. In older times – as still in many societies today – even greater significance was attached to the meanings of names with children being deliberately called names which mean 'blessed', 'Christ-like', and so on.

So if some **Anglo-Saxon** noblemen were giving their children **British** names, it must mean that, at the very least, there was respect for some members of **Celtic society** in some parts of the country.

In D. Crystal's point of view (2005: 32), a likely scenario is that Anglo-Saxon chieftains would be living in accord with members of the Romano-Celtic nobility, and intermarrying with them. A child would be named for a senior member of one or the other family, and this would just as easily be as Celtic as Germanic. Some of these children would one day become nobility themselves, and use of the name would spread. It is unknown who were the parents of Cædmon – the seventh-century monastery stable-lad who, according to Bede (Book IV, Chapter 24), became England's first Christian poet – but they gave him a Welsh name. Why such intimate contact with Celtic tradition did not result in a greater influx of Celtic loanwords into Old English remains one of the great puzzles in the history of the language (Crystal, 2005: 32-34).

6.3.2. *Latin loans*

As the political influence of Rome grew, so did the importance of **Latin**, and it spread through most of Europe, Britain included. Latin later also became the language of the **Roman Catholic Church**. As to how Latin arrived in the British Isles, there is an anecdote about Pope Gregory meeting some 'Angles' at the slave market in Rome – slavery being wide-spread – and getting the idea to convert the Angels in Britain. To this end, he sent missionaries led by Augustine. The **missionaries** first appeared in the south of England in **597** and were welcomed by King Æthelbert of Kent (Gelderen, 2006: 93).

The influence of **Latin** on **Old English** is usually divided into several periods (see Crystal, 2004:59–65; Gelderen, 2006:93–94):

(1) the influence **on Germanic** on the **continent** and in **Britain;**
(2) the influence **on Old English c. 450-c. 650;**
(3) the influence **on Old English** before the **Middle English** period **c. 650-c. 1100;**
(4) the influence **during the Renaissance**.

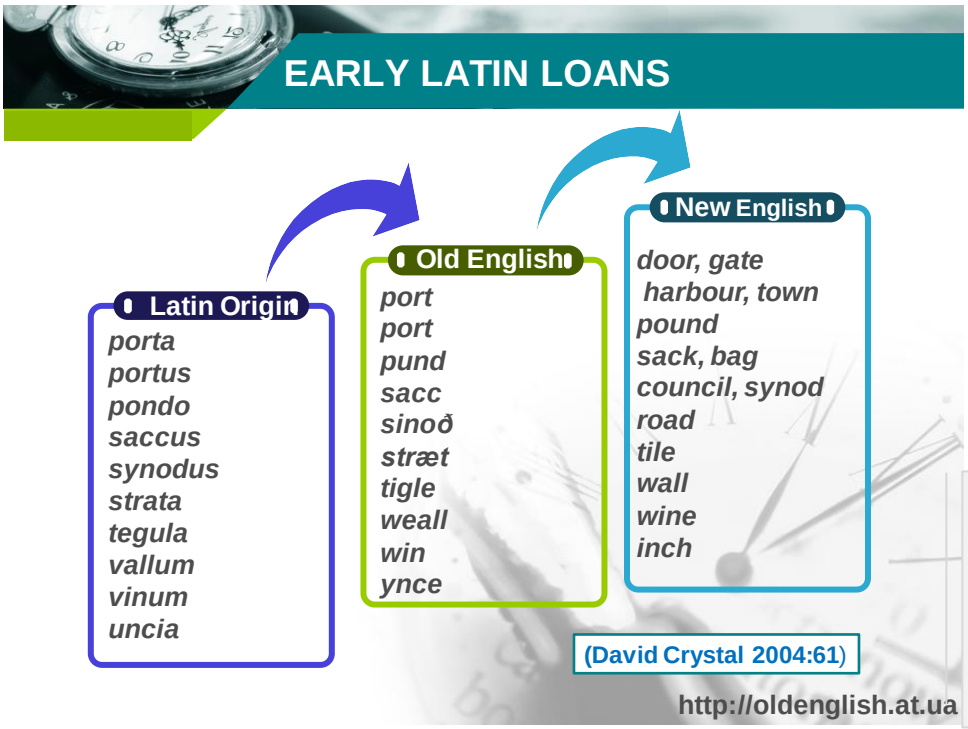


Figure6.7. Latin Loans

Possibly 170 words were borrowed on the continent, over 100 in Britain before the Romans left Britain in 410, 150 after the introduction of Christianity, and thousands in the Renaissance period.

It is known that this process happened very early on because Latin words entered several of the other old Germanic languages of Europe as well, such as Old High German, Gothic, and Old Saxon. The Anglo-Saxons, wherever they came from, would not have been immune to this influence. Thus we find, for example, Latin ***scrinium,*** meaning 'a chest for books or papers', appearing in Old Frisian ***skrin,*** Old High German ***skrini,*** and Old Norse ***skrin*** (pronounced 'screen', with a /sk-/)as well as in Old English ***scrin*** (where it was pronounced 'shreen', with a /ʃ-/). The distinctive pronunciation of the Old English form tells us that this word must have entered English very early, reflecting a time (perhaps as early as the third century) when the Anglo-Saxons were changing the pronunciation of words containing ***sk*** from /sk/ to /ʃ/. The process is called ***palatalization*** and it can be seen in such other words as ***fish*** and ***dish*** (from Latin ***piscis*** and ***discus***).

It is not entirely clear just how many words entered English from Classical or Vulgar Latin during this Continental time of contact.

A **Latin** word might have arrived in **English** through any of several possible routes.

To begin with, **Latin** words must have entered the **Celtic speech** of the Britons during the **Roman occupation**, and some might have remained in daily use after the Romans finally left in the **early fifth century**, so that they were picked up by the Anglo-Saxons in due course.

Or perhaps **Latin** continued to exercise its influence following the Roman departure: it is possible that **aristocratic Britons** would have continued to use the language as a **medium of upper-class communication**.

If so, then we might expect a significant number of Latin words to be in daily use, some of which would eventually be assimilated by the Anglo-Saxons. On the other hand, if these scenarios (see Crystal, 2005: 59) did ***not*** apply, the Latin words arriving in Britain would have been those brought in by the Anglo-Saxons themselves. A further possibility is that new Latin words would continue to arrive in Britain long after the Anglo-Saxons first arrived because of the ongoing trading activities between Britain and the Continent. And lastly, following the coming of St. Augustine in 597, the influence of Latin-speaking monks must have grown with Latinisms being dropped into speech much as they still are today, as a modus operandi which adds gravitas passim to one's magnum opus, inter alia (pace Orwell). Deciding how a particular Latin word entered English, accordingly, is quite problematic.

When we look at the lists which have been compiled for the Continental period, we find that the Latin words express a considerable semantic range. They include words for plants and animals (including birds and fish, food and drink, household objects, vessels, coins, metals, items of clothing, settlements, houses and building materials, as well as several notions to do with military, legal, medical and commercial matters. Most are nouns, with a sprinkling of verbs and adjectives.

Some of the words borrowed from **Latin** during the **Continental period:**

Old English	**Modern English**	**Latin origin**
belt	belt	*balteus*
butere	butter	*butyrum*
camp	field, battle	*campus*
candel	candle	*candela*
catt	cat	*cattus*
ceaster	city	*castra*
cetel	kettle	*catillus*
cupp	cup	*cuppa*
cycene	kitchen	*coquina*
cyse	cheese	*caseus*
draca	dragon	*draco*
mæsse	mass	*missa*
mil	mile	*mille*
minte	mint	*menta*
munuc	monk	*monachus*
mynster	minster	*monasterium*
panne	pan	*panna*
piper	pepper	*piper*
pise	pea	*pisum*
plante	plant	*planta*
port	door, gate	*porta*
port	harbour, town	*portus*
pund	pound	*pondo*
sacc	sack, bag	*saccus*
sinoð	council, synod	*synodus*
stræt	road	*strata*
tigle	tile	*tegula*
weall	wall	*vallum*
win	wine	*vinum*
ynce	inch	*uncia*

(Crystal, 2005: 59)

Borrowings from Latin continued throughout the Old English period, but it changed its character as Church influence grew. Whereas most of the earlier words had entered the language through the medium of speech, there was now an influx of learned and religious words through the medium of writing. Some domestic vocabulary did continue to come in, such as ***rose*** 'rose' from ***rosa***, ***bete*** 'beetroot' from ***beta***, and ***cama*** 'bridle' from ***camus***, but over 60 percent of the later loans were more abstract, scholarly, or technical. This trend became especially strong after the Benedictine revival of the monasteries at the end of the tenth century (once the Viking attacks had stopped), where most of the Latin loans had a distinctive educated character (Crystal, 2005: 65). The emphasis is not surprising: the teaching of the Church had to be communicated to the Anglo-Saxon people and new vocabulary was needed to express the new concepts, personal, and organizational procedures.

Borrowing Latin words was **not the only way** in which the missionaries engaged with this task.

Rather more important, in fact, were **other linguistic techniques.**

One **method** was to take a **Germanic** word and adapt its meaning so that it expressed the sense of a Latin word: examples include ***rod,*** originally meaning 'rod, pole', which came to mean 'cross'; and ***gast***, originally 'demon, evil spirit', which came to mean 'soul' or 'Holy Ghost' (Crystal, 2004: 31).

Another **technique**, relying on a type of word creation which permeates Old English poetry, was to create new compound words – in this case, by translating the elements of a Latin word into Germanic equivalents: so***, liber evangelii*** became ***godspellboc*** 'gospel book' and ***trinitas*** became ***þriness*** 'threeness' = 'trinity'. But Latin loans played their part, too, as the next panel illustrates it.

Some of the words borrowed from **Latin c. 650 – c. 1100**

Old English	**Modern English**	**Latin origin**
alter	altar	*altar*
biblioþece	library	*bibliotheca*
cancer	crab	*cancer*
creda	creed, belief	*credo*
cucumer	cucumber	*cucumer*
culpe	guilt, fault	*culpa*
diacon	deacon	*diaconus*
fenester	window	*fenestra*
fers	verse	*versus*
grammatic	grammar	*grammatica*

Some of the words borrowed from **Latin c. 650 – c. 1100** (continued)

Old English	Modern English	Latin origin
mamma	breast	*mamma*
notere	notary	*notarius*
offrian	sacrifice, offer	*offere*
orgel	organ	*organum*
papa	pope	*papa*
philosoph	philosopher	*philosophus*
predician	preach	*praedicare*
regol	religious rule	*regula*
sabbat	sabbath	*sabbatum*
scol	school	*scola*

(Crystal, 2005: 64)

An interesting point about some of the loanwords from Latin is that they were borrowed twice. For example, the translator of the early eighth-century Corpus glossary translated ***coriandrum*** 'coriander' as ***cellendre***, but in Ælfric (writing some 300 years later) we find it appearing ***coriander*** (Crystal, 2005: 63). It is not surprising to find doublets of this kind. In the age of poor communications and limited literary transmission between generations a word could easily be borrowed more than once without the translator being aware of previous usage. Alternatively, there might have been a conscious attempt to be different from earlier usage, especially in a scholarly age when writers might wish to show their Latin learning. A third possibility is that the pronunciation might have changed in the interim so that any sense of identity with the earlier world would be lost.

Of all the **Latin** words that came into **Old English**, only **a hundred** or so remain in modern **Standard English**. A few others can still be heard in regional dialects: for example, ***sicker*** 'secure, safe' is found as ***sicor*** in King Alfred's time and may still be heard in many parts of Scotland and Ireland and in northern counties of England. Various reasons account for the lack of Latin survivors. Some words borrowed **twice** from **Latin** during the **Old English** period.

Early loan	Later loan	Modern English	Latin origin
celc	*calic*	cup	*calicem*
cliroc	*cleric*	cleric, clergyman	*clericus*
læden	*latin*	Latin	*latinus*
leahtric	*lactuca*	lettuce	*lactuca*
minte	*menta*	mint	*menta*
spynge	*sponge*	sponge	*spongea*

(Crystal, 2005: 64)

6.3.3. *Scandinavian influence*

The second main source of lexical variation in Old English was Scandinavia; but even though the Vikings made their presence felt in Britain in 780, it was a further century before Old Norse words began to make their appearance. The opening encounter was recorded in the ***Parker Chronicle*** in an entry for the year 787 (actually789).

Figure6.8. Scandinavian Loans

It is important to note that Old English and the Scandinavian languages have many (very basic) words in common: *man, wife, folk, winter, summer*. This might have made communication between the two groups easy. When examining the influence of the invasions and settlements by the Scandinavians, we notice that both the vocabulary and the grammar of Old English are affected.

> **Old English** and **Scandinavian** are **similar** but a number of changes that had taken place in Old English had not happened in Old Norse and vice versa. This makes it possible for Old English to borrow the same words twice in a different form (Gelderen 2006:95).

> The **Scandinavian place-names** are one of the most important linguistic **developments** of the period.

Many are easily recognized. Over 600 place-names end in ***-by***, the Old Norse word for 'farmstead' or 'town' as in ***Rugby*** and ***Grimsby***.

> Many **Scandinavian place-names** end in ***–thorpe*** 'village, outlying farm'; ***–thwaite*** 'clearing', or ***–toft*** 'homestead': a mixed bag is ***Althorp, Millthorpe, Braithwaite, Applethwaite, Lowestoft***, and ***Sandtoft.***

Sometimes the whole name is a single Norse word or a combination of two such words: for example, there are half a dozen villages simply called ***Toft*** and a dozen villages called ***Thorpe***; combined forms appear in ***Crosby***, 'farm near a cross' (from ***kros+by***) and ***Skokholm*** island in Pembrokeshire (***stokkr*** 'channel' + ***holmr*** 'small island'). In some cases we have to be careful before confidently assigning a name to a Scandinavian source, because an Old English word of similar form and meaning also existed. ***Thorpe*** is a case in point: there was also an Old English word***, þrop*** or ***þorp***, meaning 'village'. There is a ***Thorp*** in Surrey, for example, and a ***Throop*** in Dorset, both well outside the Danish area of settlement. We also have to be careful about assuming that a Scandinavian name always reflects an original Danish or Norwegian settlement. It is likely that a local Danish aristocracy sometimes imposed a Scandinavian name on an Anglo-Saxon community as the mark of a local "empire". Some of the relational names, such as ***Netherby*** 'lower farmstead' and ***Westby*** 'west farmstead', could easily have arisen in that way. It is also possible that some native Anglo-Saxon communities voluntarily adopted a Norse name, perhaps because of a social relationship which had evolved with the incomers. But whatever the social situation, the Danelaw displays a significant level of place-names throughout (Crystal, 2005: 67).

There is a further dimension to the mixing of languages in English place-name history. Words from Old Norse and Old English can exist side by side within the same name – so-called **hybrid** names. Many of the combined forms use the ending ***–ingas***, meaning 'people of' as in *Hastings (Hœstingas*, 'people of Hæsta') and *Barking* (*Berecingas*, 'people of Berica'). More complex compounds using all-English elements are *Birmingham* (*Beormingaham*, 'home-stead of the people of Beorma') and *Uppingham* (*Yppingeham*, 'homestead of the people on the higher land'). Some Old English elements are in English place-names; e.g.

Old English word	**Meaning**	**Modern equivalents**
bæce, bece	'stream, valley'	*-bach, -badge, -bage, -batch,*
bearu	'glove, wood'	*-barrow, -ber, -bear, -borough*;
beorg	'hill, mound'	*-bar, -berry, -burgh;*
broc	'brook, stream'	*-broke, -brook, -brough;*
burh, burg	'fortified place'	*-borough, -burgh, -bury*

(Crystal, 2005: 68)

Scandinavian influence is to be found not only in the use of an Old Norse word. Quite often, a place-name uses an Old English word but its form is different because of the way the invaders pronounced it. These must have been cases where, rather than invent a new name or find an equivalent in Old Norse, the Scandinavians carried on using the Old English name they encountered and adopted the pronunciation to suit themselves. The meaning of ***Chiswick*** in Greater London is "cheese farm" from Old English ***cese***, where the ***c*** was pronounced 'ch' /tʃ/. There was no such 'ch' sound in Old Norse, which had kept the old Germanic /k/ in such words (compare modern German ***käse)***. ***Keswick,***

Cumbria, also means 'cheese farm'. If the Norwegians hadn't settled there, the name would probably be ***Chiswick*** today.

Similarly, the 'sh' sound found in ***Shipton*** ('sheep farm') was also lacking in Old Norse; hence we find ***Shipton*** in Dorset but ***Skipton*** in Yorkshire. A further development is illustrated by ***Skipwith,*** Yorkshire. Here, not only has the initial sound been adopted, but the second element is entirely Norse – ***viðr*** 'wood' being used instead of Old English ***wic.*** If there had never been any Scandinavian influence, the village would probably today be called ***Shipwich*** (Crystal, 2005: 69).

According to Gelderen, one change that sets Old English from Old Norse is **palatalization**. Scandinavian words did not undergo palatalization, which made it possible to 'recycle' them; i.e., have the palatalized Old English word and then borrow the non-palatalized one (Gelderen, 2006: 95). As a result, Modern English has both ***shirt*** and ***skirt; ship*** and ***skipper;*** and ***shatter*** and ***scatter.*** Why are non-palatalized ***skirt*** and ***egg*** still around in Modern English? In most cases one word 'wins': in the case of ***egg, sky, skin***, and ***skill***, the Scandinavian form ends up being used, and in the case of ***shall*** and ***fish***, the Old English one. In the case of ***shirt/skirt***, however, both forms are used, but with more specialized, narrow meanings; e.g., **palatalization** differences:

Palatalization:	**ON: No**	**OE: Yes**
	k*ir****k****ja*	***ch****ur****ch***
	sk*ip*	***sh****ip*
	*heila****g****r*	*hol****y***

The influence of Scandinavian on the vocabulary of English is substantial. Some estimate the number of Scandinavian loans to be 1,000 (Gelderen, 2006: 97; Minkova, 2005). Some of the words borrowed from **Old Norse** in the **Old English** period; **early** borrowings (pre-**1016**):

Old English	**Modern English**	**Old Norse**
barða/barda	beaked ship	*barð*
ceallian	call	*kalla*
dreng	warrior	*drengr*
feolaga	fellow, mate	*felagi*
husting	tribunal	*husþing*
lagu	law	*log*
ora	Danish coin	*aurar*
targe	small shield	*targa*
urlaga	outlaw	*utlagi*
wrang	wrong	*vrang*

(Crystal, 2005: 71)

Old English	Modern English	Old Norse
carl	man	*carl*
cnif	knife	*knifr*
diega	die	*deyja*
hæfene	haven	*hofn*
hamele	rowlock	*hamla*
hittan	come upon	*hit*
læst	fault, sin	*lostr*
sceppe	wheat measure	*skeppa*
scoru	score	*skor*
tacan	take, touch	*taka*

(Crystal, 2005: 71)

A language-contact situation such as existed between Danish and English readily yields **many word pairs** (**doublets)** where each language provides a word for the same object or situation. Usually one usage ousts the other. The Danish word survived in such cases as ***egg*** vs ***ey*** and ***sister*** vs ***sweostor.*** The English word survived in such cases as ***path*** vs ***reike*** and ***swell*** vs ***bolnen.*** But in a number of interesting cases**,** ***both*** words survived, because their meanings went in different directions. This is what happened to the following items:

Old Norse	Old English
dike	*ditch*
hale	*whole*
raise	*rise*
scrub	*shrub*
sick	*ill*
skill	*craft*
skin	*hide*
skirt	*shirt*

(Crystal, 2005: 74-75)

Also interesting are those cases where the Old English form has become part of Standard English while the Old Norse form has remained in a regional dialect.

Old Norse	Old English
almous	*alms*
ewer	*udder*
garth	*yard*
kirk	*church*
laup	*leap*
nay	*no*
scrive	*write*
trigg	*true*
will [‘lost’]	*wild*

(Crystal, 2005: 74)

Unlike Celtic and Latin, Scandinavian affected Old English grammar, not just its vocabulary. For instance, the appearance of the third person plural they, them, and there is due to Scandinavian contact. In short, Scandinavian influence is strong on all levels.

6.4. Morphological structure of the Old English vocabulary. Word-formation. Semantics

According to morphological structure, Old English words fall into three main types:

(**a**) simple words ('root-words') or words with a simple stem, containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes, e.g. *stān, singan, god* (Mod. E *stone*, *sing*, *good*);

(**b**) derived words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more affixes, e.g. *be-ginnan, weorþ-ung, un-scyld-ig, ge-met-ing* (Mod. E *begin, worthiness, innocent, meeting*).

(**c**) compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme, e.g**.** *mann-cynn, fēower-tīene, weall-geat* (Mod. E *mankind, fourteen, wall gate*) (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 139).

Old English employed two ways of **word-formation**: **derivation** and **word-composition** or, in other words, **affixation** and **compounding** (mainly with native elements) being the productive processes of lexical augmentation. **Derived** words in Old English were built with the help affixes: **prefixes** and **suffixes**; **sound interchanges** and **word stress**.

Barber et al. consider that in order to enlarge its vocabulary, Old English depended more on its own resources than on borrowings from other languages. From Proto-Indo-European, the Germanic languages had inherited many ways of forming new words, especially with the use of prefixes and suffixes (Barber, 2009: 128).

Old English adjectives could be formed from nouns by means of such suffixes as *-ig, -lēas* and *-ful*, giving words like *blōd**ig*** 'bloody', *frēond**lēas*** 'friendless' and *þanc**ful*** 'thankful'. Conversely, nouns could be formed from adjectives: for example, there was a Proto-Germanic suffix **-iþō* (prehistoric OE **-iþa*) which could be added to adjectives to form abstract nouns: on the stem of the adjective *fūl* 'foul, dirty' was formed the prehistoric OE noun **fūliþa*; the **i** caused front-mutation and was later lost, leading to the recorded OE form *fȳlþ* 'impurity, filth'.

Adverbs were commonly formed from adjectives by means of suffixes such as *-e* and *-līce*: so from the adjective *fæst* 'firm' was formed *fæst**e*** 'firmly', and from *blind* was formed *blind**līce*** 'blindly'.

Rastorguyeva also states that **suffixation** was by far the most productive means of word derivation in Old English. Suffixes were mostly applied in forming nouns and adjectives, seldom – in forming verbs. In Old English there were two large groups of suffixes: suffixes of nouns and suffixes of adjectives. Noun suffixes are divided into suffixes of 'agent nouns' ('nomina agentis') and those of abstract nouns (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 142).

Among the suffixes of 'agent nouns' there were some dead, unproductive suffixes: *-a*, as in the Masc. a-stem *hunt**a*** (NE *hunter*), *-end*, originally the suffix of the Present Participle, e.g. OE *frē**ond**, fi**end*** (NE *friend, fiend); -end* in word-building was later replaced by – *ere*, a suffix of IE descent, whose productivity grew after the adoption of Latin words with the same suffix, e.g. *scōl**ere**, sut**ere*** (NE *scholar, 'shoemaker*').

Productive suffixes which formed abstract nouns were as follows:*-nes/-nis, -ung/-ing, -oþ, -aþ, -uþ, -þu*, e.g. *huntoþ, fiscaþ, geoguþ* (NE *hunting, fishing, youth*).

In the derivation of adjectives the most productive suffixes were: *-ig*, and *–isc*: e.g. *hā**lig*** (NE *holy*), *Engl**isc**, Den**isc*** (NE *English, Danish*) (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 144).

Prefixation was a productive way of building new words in Old English as well. Prefixes were widely used with verbs but were far less productive with other parts of speech. Prefixes include *for-*, which generally had a negating quality, as in ***for****wyrcan* 'to forfeit' (*wyrcan* 'to do'), or an intensifying one, as in ***for****niman* 'to destroy', 'consume' (*niman* 'to capture); *mis-*, which also negated the sense of the attached word, as in ***mis****dǣd* 'evil deed' (*dǣd* 'deed'); *un-* (also still used as a negator), as in ***un****æþele* 'not noble' (*æþele* 'noble'), and *wið-* 'against', as in ***wið****cweþan* 'to refuse' (Ishtla Singh, 2005: 90). Another common verbal prefix is *ge-*, which often has a perfective force, signifying the achievement or the completion of the action. So *sceran* means 'to cut', and ***ge****sceran* 'to cut right through'; *rīdan* means 'to ride', and ***ge****rīdan* 'to ride up to, conquer, occupy' There were large numbers of prefixes, many of which could be added to verbs. (Barber, 2009: 128–129).

So, the most frequent, and probably the most productive, Old English prefixes were*: ā-, be-, for-, fore-, ge-, ofer-, un-*. Of these only *un-* was common with nouns and adjectives, the rest were mainly verb prefixes, e.g.

gān – 'go'	*faran* – 'travel'
a*-gān* – 'go away'	***ā****-faran* – 'travel'
be*-gān* – 'go round'	***tō****-faran* – 'disperse'
fore*-gān* – 'precede'	***for****-faran* – 'intercept'
ofer*-gān* – 'traverse'	***forþ****-faran* –'die'
ge*-gān* – 'go', 'go away'	***ge****-faran* –'attack',etc

(Rastorguyeva, 1983: 142).

Sound interchanges distinguish between words built from the same root. The sources of sound interchanges:

ablaut or vowel gradation;
e.g. rīdan ***v*** – rād ***n*** [ī~ā] (NE ***ride, raid***);
singan ***v*** – song ***n*** [i~a] (NE ***sing – song***)

OE breaking;
e.g. beran – bearn (NE ***bear***)

palatal mutation;
e.g. dōm – dēman (NE ***doom – deem***);
full – fyllan (NE ***full – fill***);
long – lengþu (NE ***long – length***)

Word stress helped to differentiate between some parts of speech. The verb had unaccented prefixes while the corresponding nouns had stressed prefixes, so that the position of stress served as an additional distinctive feature between them; e.g., *ond-'swarian* **v** – *'ond-swaru* **n**.

As well as using **affixation,** Old English formed new words by **compounding**.

The difference is that an affix is a bound morpheme whereas a compound word is formed by the joining of two or more free morphemes. So, for example, literature, arithmetic, grammar and astronomy were called *bōccræft, rīmcræft, stæfcræft* and *tungolcræft,* that is, book-skill, number-skill, letter-skill and star-skill. Homelier compounds have survived to our own times, like *ēarwicga* 'earwig', *hāmstede* 'homestead', *sunnebēam* 'sunbeam' and *wīfmann* 'woman'. (Barber 2009: 128–129).

OE compounds comprised mainly nouns and adjectives and, as in modern English, their final element typically acted as the head. Thus, a compound such as *hēah-clif* 'high-cliff' (adjective + noun) would have been treated as a noun. Examples from the vast range of OE compounds include formations such as *bōc-cræftig* 'book-crafty' > 'learned', *god-spellere* 'good-newser' > 'evangelist' *hēah--burg* 'high city' > 'capital'.

Modern English has, however, inherited a few amalgamated compounds from OE; that is, words which were once transparent compounds but which, through pronunciation and spelling changes, have fallen together into a seemingly indivisible whole. Examples include *daisy* (*dæges* + *ēage* 'day's eye'), *garlic* (*gār* + *lēac* 'spear leek'), *hussy* (*hūs* + *wīf* 'house wife') and *nostril* (*nosu* + *þyrel* 'nose hole'). Many place names are also the result of such amalgamations: *Boston* (Botulph's stone), *Sussex* (*sūð* + *Seaxe* 'south Saxons') and *Norwich* (*norþ* + *wīc* 'north village') (examples from Pyles and Algeo, 1982: 273).

Ishtla Singh notes that a final point to state about compounding in OE is that it appears to have been an extremely useful device in poetic composition. The alliterative patterns used in this genre necessitated the availability of a variety of synonyms for the same concept, hence the creation of oft-quoted compounds such as *swanrād* 'swan-road', *hwalrād* 'whale-road' and *ganetes bæð* 'gannet's bath' for the sea. The lexical variety produced by such processes may also have served an aesthetic purpose in keeping the poetry 'fresh and exciting'. Overall, many OE compounds were replaced by loanwords after the Anglo-Saxon period, but, as we have seen, compounding has remained a productive process of word-formation in English. Indeed, it was even consciously and deliberately espoused as a means of lexical augmentation at a time when native English vocabulary was feared to be under threat from an influx of loanwords (Ishtla Singh, 2005: 90).

To sum up we may state that compounding or word-composition was a highly productive way of developing vocabulary in OE. This method of word-formation was common to all IE languages, but in none of the groups has it become as widespread as in Germanic.

While speaking about semantics of the Old English vocabulary it is worth mentioning Dieter Kastovsky's ideas about that. The scholar argues that a comprehensive account of the semantic organization of the Old English vocabulary as a whole is not possible due to the lack of detailed investigations in many semantic areas. Those that exist are often not comparable due to completely different theoretical and methodological orientations. They reflect the changes in semantic theory from the Worter-und-Sachen ('words and objects') movement via Trier's field theory to the modern context-oriented approaches with or without explicit use of componential analysis. Kastovsky states that contextual analyses of this type provide the most accurate results and are thus indispensable. On the other hand, they ought to be complemented by the application of principles of structural semantics such as the concept of lexical field, sense relations, semantic dimensions, etc., in order to account for the fact that the lexemes of a language do not form an unstructured aggregate but are organized in terms of a complicated

network of relations (Kastovsky, 2005:290–408).

6.5. Stylistic stratification of the Old English vocabulary

Extant OE texts fall into a number of genres: **poetic, religious, legal**, and **neutral.** Modern philologists subdivide OE words into three stylistically distinct groups: *neutral words, learned words and poetic words* (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 147).

Neutral words were characterised by the highest frequency of occurrence, having wide use in word-formation and historical stability. The majority of these words have been preserved to the present day. Most words of this group are of native origin (OE *mann, stān, blind, drincan, bēon*, etc.)

Learned words are found in texts of religious, legal, philosophical or scientific character. Among learned words there were many borrowings from Latin, e.g.: L. *animæ domus* 'dwelling of the soul'.

Poetic words in OE are of special interest: OE poetry employs a very specific vocabulary. Barber also notes that a cardinal characteristic of OE poetry is its wealth of synonyms. In Beowulf, for instance, there are thirty-seven words for the concept 'warrior', twelve for 'battle', seventeen for 'sea', many words for weapons, and for horse, ship, prince, and so on. Some of these are descriptive compounds: in Beowulf, for example, the sea is called *swanrād* 'the swan-road' (Barber, 2005: 136).

Among the poetic names for 'hero' are *beorn, rinc, secg, þegn* and many metaphoric circumlocutions ('kennings') – compounds used instead of simple words: *gār-berend*, 'spear-carrier*', gar-wiga* – 'spear warrior'. These compounds were used as stylistic devices – for ornament, for expressive effect, to bring out and emphasize a certain quality, and for the sake of alliteration (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 147).

Probably many poetic words were already archaic in late OE; some of the kennings were trite, conventional metaphors, while others were used only once in a certain text and therefore cannot be included in the basic OE vocabulary. Together with the decline of the genre OE poetic words went out of use.

Summary

The vocabulary of Old English resembled the vocabularies of other Old Germanic languages with regard to the common Indo-European and specifically Germanic elements. The extent of the Old English vocabulary is estimated at 20 to 30 thousand words – less than a tenth part of the number of words registered by modern English dictionaries.

Questions for self-control

1. What etymological layers are distinguished within the OE vocabulary?
2. Why does the OE vocabulary contain so few borrowings from the Celtic languages of Britain? Why do place-names constitute a substantial part of Celtic element?
3. From lists of Latin loan-words in OE speculate on the kind of contacts the English had with Rome at different historical periods.
4. What facts can be given to prove that OE was generally resistant to borrowing and

preferred to rely upon its own resources?
5. What groups of borrowings can you speak about as regards OE? Supply some examples.
6. What word building means do you know? Which of them existed in OE?
Name the most productive of them. Supply some examples.

SEMINAR 4

Aims:

- ✓ be able to account for the influence of different languages, mainly Celtic, Latin and Scandinavian on Old English;
- ✓ examine the results of all the borrowings;
- ✓ investigate external and internal changes within the Old English vocabulary.

6.1. Study points:

1. General overview of the Old English vocabulary
2. Native words
3. Borrowings (*Celtic, Latin* and *Scandinavian*) in the Old English vocabulary
4. Affixation and compounding in Old English

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of the English Language. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1994. – P. 22–27.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. – Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2006. – P. 90–99.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–131.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 131–148.
- ✓ L.Verba. History of the English language. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 90–101.

Additional:

- ✓ Аракин В. Д. История английского языка. – М., 1985. – С. 92–102.
- ✓ И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь. / – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 15–19.
- ✓ Lecture 6.

6.2. Tests: review of theory

I. True / False: Write **‘T’** for true and **‘F’** for false beside each of the following statements.

1. The full extent of the Old English Vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars.

2. Modern estimates of the total vocabulary of Old English range from about 30 thousand words to almost one hundred thousand (B. Smirnitskiy).
3. The Old English vocabulary was almost Indo-European.
4. Native words of the Old English vocabulary cannot be subdivided into etymological layers.
5. The three main layers of Old English native words are: common Indo-European words, common Germanic words, common Celtic words.
6. Words belonging to the common Indo-European layer constitute the oldest part of the Old English Vocabulary.
7. The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Indo-European languages.
8. The common Germanic words are the words that can be found in all Germanic languages.
9. The third etymological layer consisted of many Old English compounds.
10. These borrowings reflect the contacts of English had with other languages.
11. The Celtic languages influenced English in three phases (E. van Gelderen).
12. The first phase involved loans into Germanic (and other languages) on the continent.
13. The second phase covered adoptions into Old English after the introduction of printing.
14. The third phase involved the influence of the Celtic languages after the Old English period.
15. Celtic borrowings are found in place-names and proper-names.
16. Latin influenced the Old English alphabet, the growth of writing and literature.
17. The spread of education led to the lessened use of Latin: teaching was conducted in Latin, etc.
18. One change that sets Old English apart from Old Norse is palatalization.
19. Some Scandinavian loans are still heard in place-names.
20. Scandinavian affected the Old English grammar: the appearance of the third person plural, *they, them* and *their,* is due to Scandinavian contact.

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

1. Celtic element can be distinguished in river names:
A Thames
B Teutons
C Nile;
D Wellington

2. Regarding the first phase (E. Gelderen), there is a great deal of archeological evidence of Celtic presence in…
A America
B Asia
C Africa
D Europe

3. Celtic borrowings were brought by the … missionaries from Rome in the 6^{th} – 7^{th} c. A.D.

A Celtic
B Irish
C Latin
D Roman

4. Native Old English words are characterized by …
A parts of the body
B most numerals
C domestic life
D developed polysemy

5. The majority of pronouns and numerals in the Old English vocabulary have sprung mainly from a(n) … source:
A Indo-European
B Common Germanic
C Germanic
D Gothic

6. The ratio between specifically Germanic and common Indo-European words is estimated by the 19th c scholars as:
A 1:2
B 2:1
C 2:0,5
D 1:2,5

7. Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history, i.e. in:
A Proto-Germanic
B Indo-European
C Latin
D Romance

8. The words of the third etymological layer do not occur in other Germanic languages, except …
A Gothic
B Greek
C Old English
D Latin

9. Place-names such as … incorporate Latin stems.
A Manchester, Winchester, Lancaster
B London, Kent, Dover
C Lowestoft, Eastoft, Sandtoft
D Avon, Don, Exe

10. The word ‘caster’ existed in Old English, but then it was … to ‘chester’
A mutated
B doubled

C palatalized
D fronted

11. It is important to note that Old English and Old Scandinavian languages have many basic words in …:
A common
B specific
C separate
D borrowed

12. Place-names such as … incorporate the Scandinavian element
A Don, Exe, Usk
B Derby, Rugby, Grimsby
C Rhine, Danube, Armagmac
D Avon, Kent, Wye

13. The following borrowings denote articles of trade and agricultural products:
A vinum, pondo, cāseus
B binn, crag, rice
C flat, ill, low
D anger, sky, skin

14. …were borrowed in the seventh century when the people of England were converted to Christianity
A Later Celtic loans
B Later Latin loans
C Later German loans
D Later Greek loans

15. After the introduction of … many monastic schools were set up in Britain
A printing
B Christianity
C Renaissance
D Reformation

16. The spread of education led to the wider use of …
A French
B Celtic
C English
D Latin

17. Borrowings connected with education and learning include:
A apostolos, diabolos, monachos
B piper, pondo, man3ere
C magister, versuo, scholāris
D weall, strata via, millia passuum

18. The morphological structure of Old English words consisted of … types.

A four
B three
C two
D five

19. Old English employed two ways of word-formation:
A derivation and word-composition
B sound interchange and word-stress
C prefixation and suffixation
D word-formation and word composition

20. Modern philologists subdivide Old English words into three stylistically distinct groups:
A native, borrowed, neutral
B derived, compound, specific
C principal, distinct, learned
D neutral, learned, poetic

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

A. Reformation
B. Compound words
C. Synonyms
D. Vocabulary
E. Glossary
F. Thesaurus
G. Etymology
H. Borrowing
I. Prefixes
J. Suffixes
K. Vallum
L. (via) strata
M. Prunus
N. Pisum
O. Mille
P. Discus
Q. Cista
R. Pirum
S. Piper
T. Molinum

1. affixes which follow the root;
2. a list of explanations of words, esp. unusual ones, at the end of a book;
3. a combination of two or more words that functions as a single word and has special meaning;
4. the study of the origins, history, and changing meanings of words;
5. words known, learnt, used; a list of words, usually in alphabetical order and with explanations of their meanings, less complete than a dictionary;

6. the religious movement in Europe in the 16th century leading to the establishment of Protestant churches;
7. is a word that has the same meaning, or almost the same meaning, as another word;
8. pea;
9. a book of words that are put in groups together according to connections between their meanings rather than in alphabetic list;
10. affixes which precede the root;
11. a word or phrase which has been borrowed by one language from another;
12. mile;
13. wall;
14. street;
15. plum;
16. disk;
17. pepper
18. chest;
19. pear;
20. mill.

6.3. Reading practice

1. Read Text 1, translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Define the main idea. Write out all the words derived from the same roots and analyze the means of derivation.

Syððan hē underȝeat ðæt eall folc him tō ȝeboȝen wæs, ðā bēad hē ðæt man sceolde his here mettian and horsian; and hē ðā wende syððan sūðweard mid fulre fyrde, and betǣhte ðā scipu and ða ȝislas Cnute his suna.
(Two of Anglo-Saxon Chronicles Parallel)

2. Read the text and translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Pick out derived and compound words and analyze their structure.

Ælcum men ȝebyrað, þe æniȝne ȝōdne cræft hæfð, þæt hē ðone dō nytne ōðrum mannum and befæste þæt pund, þe him got befæste, sumum ōðrum men þæt ȝoden feoh nē ætliczȝe and hē beo lyðre þeowa ȝehāten and beo ȝebunden and ȝeworpen into ðeostrum swæswā þæt hāliȝe godsple seȝð.
(*Aelfric's Grammar*)

3. ar

And þā hē forð ēode he ȝe-seah Leuin Alphei sittende æt his cēp-setle, and hē cwæð tō him: folȝa mē, þā ārās hē and folȝode him.

(The OE Gospel, West Saxon Version

6.4. Etymological analysis practice

1. Study the model of the **etymological** analysis based on the text *"The Ruin"*
Table 6.3. Model of **Etymological** analysis

Word from the text	Etymological **Analysis**	**Modern English**
wealstan	*Lat.* – vallum; wealstan – a compound word: made of weal-and stan	wall, stone
gebræcon	Germanic layer: *Gth.* brikan, *OS* brekan, *ON* breka.	to break
burgstede	a comp. word: made of burg-and stede; *OHG* burug-preserved in place-names ending in -bury (Canterbury); *Lat.* – statio, stationis;	fortress, castle, town;place, spot, locality
geweorc	*Gth.* gawaurk, *OHG* giwerk, *OS* giwerk	fortification,
hrofas	*OFr.* hrof, *ON* hrof	roof, ceiling
sind	*OHG* bim, bist, *Lat.* fui	to be, to exist
gehrorene	*ON* hrijosa	to fall down, ruin
scearde	*OHG* skeran – to divide	cutting, shearing
scurbeorge	*Gth.*skura, *OS* skur; *OHG* Berg; a compound word: made of scur-and beorg;	shower; hill, mountain
eorðgrap	*Gth.* airða, *OHG* erda; a compound word: made of eorð-and grap;	earth; ditch, furrow, drain
hafað	*Gth.* haban, *OHG* haben	to have
waldend/weald	*OHG* walt, wald, *OS* wald	forest, weald, bushes
heardgripe	*Gth.* greipan, *OS* gripan; a compound word: made of heard-and gripe;	to gripe, seize, grasp
gewitan	*Gth.* witan, *OHG* wizzan, *OS* witan	to know
oft	*Gth.* ufta, *OHG* ofto, oft	often
rice	*Gth.* reiki, *ON* riki	kingdom, power, rule

2. Read the text and translate it into Mod.E (use the Glossary). Make the etymological analysis. Analyze the structure of derived and compound words.

Ælfred cyninȝ hāteð grētan Wærferð biscep his wordum luflice ond freondlice ond ðē cȳðan hāte ðæt mē cōm swiðe oft on ȝemynd, hweice wiotan iu wæron ȝiond Angelcynn æȝðer ȝē godcundra hāda ȝē woruldcundra; ond hū ȝesæliȝlica tīda ðā wæron ȝiond Angelcynn.
(Cura Pastoralis, Preface)

SELF-STUDY 6

Aims:

- ✓ watch the video films pertaining to Self-Study 6; i.e., Old English vocabulary so that you can guess the Old English meanings of words;
- ✓ be able to recognize and account for major phonological and grammatical features of the Old English lexis in assignments being carried out in MOODLE tests;
- ✓ improve and elevate your listening comprehension skills and abilities.

6.1. **Video films** (either on CD or You Tube)

6.1.1. *Old English. People and family,* Lesson 3
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5HqelUyN7G0
6.1.2. *Old English. Animals,* Lesson 4
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=r0baCs_84yQ&feature=relmfu
6.1.3. *Old English. England and the English,* Lesson 5
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=d5YjfO98TDU&feature=relmfu

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Albert C.Baugh and Thomas Cable. *A History of the English Language*. – London: Routledge, 2002. – P. 58–61; 67–97.
- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. – Cambridge, 1994. – P. 22–27.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language*. – Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 90–99.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English*. – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–131.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English*. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 131–148.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English language*. – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 90–101.

Additional:

- ✓ В.Д. Аракин. *История английского языка*. – М., 1985. – С. 92–102. И.П. Иванова, Л.П. Чахоян, Т.М. Беляева. *История английского языка.* Учебник. Хрестоматия. Словарь./ – СПб.: Издательство «Лань», 2001. – С. 15–19.
- ✓ .Lecture 6

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 announcer of film 3 (Lesson 3) *"People and Family"* proclaims the necessity of knowing 3 words: ***se*** (masculine), ***sēo*** (feminine) and ***þæt*** (neuter).
2. Another important feature is that there is no word for *"a"* or *"an"* in OE. Therefore *"se per"* means *the man*; *"per"* accordingly *man, a man.*
3. The OE word *se mann* corresponds to Mod.E *the person, the human* (m).
4. The OE word *se per* coincides with Mod.E *the woman, the wife* (m).
5. OE *þæt pīf* means Mod.E *the woman, the wife* (n).
6. OE *þæt cīld* denotes Mod.E *children, babies.*
7. OE *þæt cnapa* represents Mod.E *the boy* (n).
8. OE *sēo mæʒð* corresponds to Mod.E *the girl, the maiden* (n).
9. OE *þæt cynn* denotes Mod.E *the family, the kin* (n).
10. OE *se fæder* signifies Mod.E *the father* (m).

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

1. The Mod.E words *the mother* and *the brother* correspond to the OE words:

A sēo modor … sēo brōðor
B sēo modor … se brōðor
C sēo modor … hē brōðor
D sēo modor … þæt brōðor

2. The Mod.E words *the son* and *the sister* represent the OE ...

A se sunu … se sweoster
B sēo sunu … se sweoster
C se sunu … sēo sweoster
D se sunu … hēo sweoster

3. The Mod.E words *the father* and the son coincide with the following OE words:

A se fæder … se sunu
B hē fæder … se sunu

C se fæder … sē sunu
D se fæder … hē sunu

4. Film 4 (Lesson 4) *"Animals"* deals with kinds of animals familiar to …
A Romans
B Celts
C Anglo-Saxons
D Vikings

5. The OE word *se fugol* became the Mod.E word …
A fowl
B four
C finger
D full

6. The OE word *se heorot* became the Mod.E word …
A heart
B hart
C harrier
D harvest

7. The OE word *þæt scēap* became the Mod.E word …
A scrap
B shepherd
C sheep
D sherry

8. The OE word *se hund* became the Mod.E word …
A hung
B hunch
C hump
D hound

9. The OE word *þæt spin* became the Mod.E word …
A swine
B spin
C spinach
D spinal

10. The OE word *se pulf* became the Mod.E word …
A wrist
B wreck
C wrap

D wolf

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

1. Several words such as *Angleland, Engleland, Englelond* (the Wessex variant), *Saxland* (a very archaic term) refer to …

2. The term *Angelcynn* ‘race of the Angles’ relates to …

3. *Englisc* means …

4. *Se Angelcyning* denotes …

5. *Þa Angelwitan* (pl.) signifies …

6. The OE word *sēo Anʒelþēod (-þīod)* corresponds to …

7. *Þæt Anʒelfolc* means …

8. *Sēo Anʒelsprǣc, (sprēc)* denotes …

9. OE *ʒeatas* coincides with …

10. OE *Centrīce, Ēastenglarīce, Ēastseaxnarīce, Süðseaxnarīce, Westseaxnarīce, Miercnarīce,* and *Norðhymbre* constitute the Heptarchy –

A. … the Old English language.

B. ... the whole country of England.

C. … the English councilors, and it could be translated as the Government of today (*witan – wise men*).

D. … the English folk.

E. … all the English people.

F. … English.

G. … Mod.E the English tribe, the English nation.

H. … Mod.E the Jutes.

I. … the king of the English.

J. … i.e., the seven kingdoms: Kent, East Anglia, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, Mercia, and Northumbria of Anglo-Saxon England (from about the 7th to the 9th centuries AD).

LINGUISTIC TERMS

1. **Ablaut** (also sometimes called **apophony, 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*** 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 7th 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 semiologlcally 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. Saussur, 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.
154. **Writing,** the process or result of recording spoken language using a system of visual marks on a surface. The concept includes the particular writing system (or **orthography**), particular medium of expression (usually handwriting or typing).

GLOSSARY

KEY TO THE GLOSSARY

1. The words in the Dictionary are given in the usual alphabetical order.
   The letter æ is placed after **A**.
   Þ (þ)and **Ð**(ð) are used indiscriminately; they are placed after **T**.
2. The asterisk * denotes forms not in actual evidence.
3. No distinction is made in the following cases:
   a) **y, i** and **ie** are to be found under **I** and may be used indiscriminately;
   b) the same concerns **io, eo, i;**
   c) the same should be remembered concerning **on, an**.
4. The prefix ***be-*** may have the form ***bi-*** or vice versa.
5. Participle II may correspond to an infinitive without the prefix ***ʒe-***.
6. In the abbreviations of the type: ***n.m.a*** – the first letter means **noun**, the second denotes the gender of this noun – **masculine,** the third denotes the **stem** suffix.
7. Middle English words are preceded by a dash.

SIGNS

ŏ over a vowel letter indicates that the vowel is short
ō over a vowel letter indicates that the vowel is long
ọ (dot) under a vowel letter indicates the close articulation of the vowel
> stands for ʻchanged to, becomes, developed into'
< stands for ʻchanged from, derived from, developed from'
***** marks hypothetical (i.e. supposed) forms
\+ followed by
‖ corresponds to
/ in phonetics it marks alternation of sounds;
in grammar it is placed between variants of a grammatical form or a morpheme

PRINCIPAL ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

acc. – accusative
adj. – adjective
AN – Anglo-Norman
arch. – archaic
adv. – adverb
anom. – anomalous
art. – article
borr. fr. – borrowed from
c. – century
cf. – confer, compare
coll. – collective
comp. – comparative
conj. – conjunction
cons. – consonantal (root) declension
ModE, MnE – Modern English
ModF, MnF – Modern French
ModG, MnG – Modern German
n. – neuter gender
negat. – negative
nom. – nominative
num. – numeral
ODa. – Old Danish
OE – Old English
OF – Old French
OFr. – Old Frisian
OHG – Old High German
OLG – Old Low German
ON – Old Norse

Dan. – Danish
dat. – dative
dem. – demonstrative
denom. fr. – denominative from
der. fr. – derived from
dial. – dialectal
Du. – Dutch
Eccl. Lat. – Ecclesiastical Latin
EMod.E– Early Modern English
e.g. – for example
ex. – example
fem. – feminine
F– French
fr. – from

gen. – genitive
Gk. – Greek
Gth.Gt. – The Gothic language
HG – High German
ibid. – in the same place (Lat. *ibidem*) i.e. in the work or passage already quoted
i.e. – that is (Lat. *id est*)
impers. – impersonal
indecl. – indeclinable
indef. art. – indefinite article
instr. – instrumental (case)
intrans. – intransitive
irr. v. – irregular verb
Lat. – Latin
LG – Low German
Lith. – Lithuanian
L.Lat. – Late Latin
m. – masculine gender
MDu. – Middle Dutch
ME – Middle English
Med. Lat. – Medieval Latin
MHG – Middle High German
MLG – Middle Low German
Mn, mod. – modern
ModDan, MnDan. – Modern Danish
ONF – Old Northern French
ONG – Old Northern German
orig. – origin
OS – Old Saxon
OSc. – Old Scandinavian
OSl. – Old Slavonic
part. – particle
pl. – plural
prob. – probably
prep, prp. – preposition
p., prs. – person
prs. t. – present tense
prt. – preterite
prt.-prs. – preterite-present verbs
p. t. – past tense
pple, part. – participle
ptple – past participle
rel. – relative
Rom. – Romanic
RP – Received Pronunciation

Russ. – Russian
s. – see
sing., sg. – singular
S – subject
Sanskr., Skt. – Sanskrit
Sp. – Spanish
subst. – substitute
suff. – suffix
sup. – superlative degree
subj. (mood) – subjunctive mood
sv. – strong verbs
Sw. – Swedish
trans. – transitive
Ukr. – Ukrainian
unkn. – unknown
v. – verb
v.v. – vice versa
wv. – weak verbs
WG – West Germanic
WS – West Saxon

(Иванова et al., 1999: 132-157)

A

ā, *adv*. – ever, always; *ME* o, oo, ai ‖ *Gth*. aiw ‖ *OHG* eo, io ‖ *ON* ā, ey
a, *art. – ME, ModE*; < *OE* ān; *ME* also an
abbe – *s.* **habban**

abhominable, *adj., ME; < OF* abhominable; *L* abominābilis – abominable
– abillite, *n.* – ability ‖ *OF* habilité ‖ *Lat*. habilitatem *f.* habilis – able

ābreȝdan, *sv. 4* – to tear away; **breȝdan** (*s.*)

ābroȝden, – *ptple of* ābreȝdan

ābūtan, *adv., prep*. – about, around; *ME* abouten
ac, *conj*. – but
ā-cerran, ācierran, ācyrran, *wv. 1* – to turn; *denom. fr*. cierr, cyrr, cerr – time, occasion; *cf. ModE* charwoman ‖ *OHG* keran ‖ *ModG* kehren
– **accorden,** *v.* – to agree; reconcile ‖ *OF* acorder ‖ *Lat*. ad+cordare (after *concordare*)
– **accounte**, *n.* – reckoning; estimation ‖ *AN* acunt ‖ *OF*acont
ācōlian, *wv. 2* – to cool; *denom. fr*. **cōl** (*s.*)
acolmōd, *adj*. – of a fearful mind, timid; **acol**, *adj*. – frightened+mōd (*s.*)
acsian, ahsian, **askian,** *wv. 2* – to ask; *ME* asken, axien ‖ *OHG* eiscon ‖ *ModG* heischen ‖ *Russ*. искать
ād, *n.m.a.* – funeral pile, pile ‖ *OHG* eit

ādēle – *s.* **dǣlan**

ādrang – *f* **ādrincan**

ādrēōȝan – *s.* **drēōȝan**

ādrincan, *sv. 3* – to drown; ā + drincan (*s.*)
ādūne, *adv*. – ā + dūn, *n.* – a mountain, hill
–**adversitee,** *n.* – adversity, misfortune ‖ *OF* adversite ‖ *Lat*. adversitas – opposition
ā-feallan, *sv. 7* – to fall; a + feallan (*s.*)
ā-feorran, *wv.2* – to remove; *denom. fr*. feorr (*s.*)

–**aferd,** *adj*. – afraid; *adjectivized ptple of OE* ā-fǣran

āfierran, āfyrran – *s.* **afeorran**
āfyrð – *s* **ā-feorran**
–**after** – *s* **æfter**

agayne – *s.* **onȝean**

āȝan, *v .prt. prs.* (āhte) – to own, possess; *ME* owen, āgen ‖ *Gth*.aigan ‖ *OHG* eigan ‖ *ModG* eigan ‖ *OS* ēgan ‖ *ON* eiga
āgān, *irr. v .suppl.* – to go away; ā + gān (*s.*)
– **agaste,** *adj*. – dumbfounded; *prt. prs of* agaste, *v.* – to frighten ‖ *OE* gæstan – to torment

– **agat** – on gate = on the way; *s* .**gate, ȝeat**

– **age,** *n.* – time of life, age ‖ *OF* oge ‖ *Lat*. ætas, ætates

āȝen, *prt. prs. II of* agan (*s.*) – own

āȝiefan, aȝefan, *sv. 5* – to give up; ā + giefan (*s.*)

– **agrisen,** *v.* – to be horrified; *OE* agrisan; *rel. to ModE* grisly
ā-hebban, *sv. 5* – to lift, raise; ā + hebban (*s.*)

āhȳdan, *wv. 1* – to hide, conceal; ā + hydan (*s.*)

āhyrdan, *wv. 1* – to grow hard; *der. fr*. heard
āhlēōp – *s* **hleapan**

ā-hōf – *s* **ā-hebban**
ā-hreddan, *wv. 1* – to snatch away, set free, liberate; ā + hreddan (*s.*)
– **ay,** *adv*. – *s.* **ā**
– **a-yens** – 1) towards; 2) in opposition to; *OE* on-ȝean + es; *ModE* against
aige – *s.* **age**
al, eall *adj*. – all; *ME* al ‖ *Gth*.alls ‖ *OHG* al ‖ *OS* al ‖ *ON* allr
– **alas,** *interj*. – alas; ‖ *F.* helas – a + ‖ *Lat*. lassus – tired, weary
ald *adj*. – *s.* **eald**
alderman, aldorman, ealdorman, *n. m. cons.* – alderman, nobleman, chief; ealdra (*s* .**eald**) + man (*s.*)
aldor, ealdor, *n. m. a* – life; age, parent; *der. fr.* ald, eald, *adj.* (*s.*)
– **ale,** *n*. – *s.* **ealu, ealo**
ā-lecgan, *wv. 1* – to lay; **ā+lecgan** (*s.*)
āled – *s.* **alecgan**
– **alighten,** *v.* – to alight, descend, make light; *OE* alihtan, *wv.1*; *der. fr*. leoht, liht – not heavy ‖ *Gth*.leihts ‖ *OHG* lihti ‖ *ModG* leicht ‖ *OS* lihts ‖ *ON* littr, lettr
– **allane** – alone < al +ane, al + one; *s.* **eall, ān**
allmehtiȝ, alimihtiȝ, *adj*. – almighty; all, eall (*s.*) + mihtig (*s.*)
– **almenak,** *n.* – almanac ‖ *Med. Lat.* almanac
– **āmærran, amerran, amyrran** – to spoil, destroy, mar; *OE* amerran; *ModE* mar ‖ *Gth*.marzjan ‖ *OHG* marren, merren ‖ *OS* merrian ‖ *ON* merja
ambyr, *adj*. – what is happening; even or equal; fair, favourable; am, *pref.* – equal + byr – happening
ān, *num*. – one; *ME* on, o, an (*indef. art*.) ‖ *Gth*.ains ‖ *OHG* ein ‖ *ON* ein-n ‖ *Lat*. unus
– **ancre,** *n.* – nun; anchorite; *OE* ancra; *ModE* anchor (*obs.*) ‖ *Lat*. anachoreta
and, *prp.* + *dat.* – with; + *acc.* – against, on, into ‖ *Lat*. ante ‖ *OHG* ant ‖ *Gth*.and – against ‖ *ON* and = against
and, *conj*. – and, along with, if ‖ *OHG* anti, enti, inti, unti ‖ *OFr.* anda, enda ‖ *OS* ande, endi ‖ *ON* enda – if
anda, *n. m. n.* – malice, malevolence ‖ *OHG* anado ‖ *ON* andi – spirit, soul
andefn, *n. n. a* – equality, measure; and, *prp.* + efn (*s.*)
andȝit, *n. n. a* – understanding, intellect, knowledge; and, *prp.* + ȝit/ȝitan, ȝietan (*s.* **beȝietan**)
andȝytfullic, *adj*. – clearly understood, meaningful; andȝyt (*s.*) + ful, *suff.*
andlang, *prp.* – along; and + lang (*s.*)
andswarian, andswerian, *wv. 2* – to answer; *denom. fr*. **andswaru** (*s.*)
andswaru, *n. f. ō* – answer; *ME* andsware, ondswere, answere ‖ *OS* antswor ‖ *rel.to OE* swarian ‖ *ON* svara ‖ *Germ.* *andswaro ‖ *Mod.G* Antwort
andwyrdan, *wv. 1* – to answer; *denom. fr*. andwyrde = **and + word**, *n. n. a*
Angelcynn, *n. n. i* – the Angles – Englishmen; **Angel, Angle + cynn** (*s.*)
anginn, angyn, *n. n. a* – a beginning; **an, on+gin** … (**ginnan**) (*s*. **onginnan**)
ānhaga, *n. m. n.* – a lone dweller, recluse; ān (one) + haga (a closed-in place) ‖ *Mod.E* hedge
– **an-hiegh** – on high; *s*. **heah**

– **anon,** *adv*. — at once; *OE* on ān
– **another,** *indef. pron.* – another; *OE* ān, *num*. + ōðer, *indef. pron.*
ān-pæð, *n. m. a* – a lonely path, a pass; *s.* **an, pæð**
ansȳn, *n. f. i.* – face, countenance; sight, form, figure; an + syn – view, sight ‖ *OHG* anasium ‖ *OS* ansiun ‖ *Mod.G* Ansehen ‖ *ON* sjōn
ansueren – *s.* **andswarian**
anweald, *n. n. a* – power; an, pref. + weald/wealdan (*s.*)
– **aperten** *v* . – to open, manifest; *denom. v. fr.* apert, *adj*. ‖ *OFr.* apert ‖ *Lat*. apertus – open
– **apparallen,** *v* . – array, attir ‖ *OF* apareiller ‖ *rel. to Lat*. par = equal
– **appelen,** *v* . – charge, accuse ‖ *Mod.E* appeal ‖ *OF* apeler ‖ *Lat*. appellare
– **apostolic,** *adj*. – apostolical; *OE* apostol; *borr. fr.* ‖ *Gk*. apostolos – messenger
ār, *n. f. ō* – oar ‖ *ON* ār ‖ *Mod.Dan.* oare ‖ *Mod.Sw.* āra
ārǣdan, *sv. 7* – to take counsel, care for, determine; interpret, guess; ā + rǣdan (*s.*)
ārēd – *s.* **ārǣdan**
ārǣran – to rear, construct, build up, establish; ā + rǣran (*s.*)
arcebisceop, *n. m. a* – archbishop; arce, *pref.* + bisceop (*s.*)
arcestōl, *n. m. a* – archiepiscopal see, or seat; arce (= highest degree, chief) + stōl (seat)
āre – *s.* **ǣr**
āreccean, *wv. 1* – to tell, relate, express; ā + reccan (*s.*)
– **aresten,** *v* . – to capture, seize ‖ *OF* arrester ‖ *Rom.* ad + restare = stop
ār-ȝeblond, *n. n. a* – the sea disturbed by oars
ārās – *s.* **ā-rīsan**
ā-rīsan, *sv. 1* – to arise; a + rīsan (*s.*)
– **ariuen,** *v* . – to arrive ‖ *OF* ariver ‖ *Lat*. ad +ripa = shore
ārlīc, *adj*. – honourable; ar, *n. f. ō* – honour + līc ‖ *Gth*. aistan – to be shy ‖ *OHG* ēra – honour
– **arming,** *n.* – arms, weapons ‖ *OF* armes, *n.*; armer, *v.* ‖ *Lat*. arma, *n.*; armare, *v.*
āsendan, *wv. 1* – to put down, lower; ā + sendan (*s.*)
āsettan, *wv. 1* – to set up, establish; appoint; make a journey; ā + settan (*s.*)
ā-smēaȝean, āsmēade, āsmēad, *wv.2* – to consider, reflect, examine; ā + smēaȝean; *denom. fr.* smēah, *adj*. subtle, crafty ‖ *OHG* smiegen
– **aspect,** *n.* – appearance; way of looking ‖ *Lat*. aspectus
āspendan, *wv. 1* – to spend entirely; ā + spendan (*s.*)
– **assoilen,** *v.* – to absolve, acquit ‖ *AN* as(s)oilier ‖ *OF* assoil, asoldre ‖ *Lat*. absolvere
ā-stāh – *s.* **astīȝan**
– **astat,** *n.* – state, condition, status – XIII; class of the body politic – XV; landed property – XVIII ‖ *Mod.E* estate ‖ *OF* estat ‖ *Mod.F* etat ‖ *Lat*. status
āstīȝan, *sv. 1* – to climb up, ascend; *s.* **stīȝan**
āstōd – *s.* **standan**
– **astrolable,** *n.* – astrolabe (instrument formerly used to take altitudes) ‖ *fr*. astrolabe ‖ *Lat*. astrolabium
at, *prp*. – to, towards (*cf.* æt) ‖ *Gth*. at ‖ *OFr.* et ‖ *OS* at ‖ *OHG* az

ā-tēon, *sv. 2* – to draw out, lead out; dispose of; make a journey; *s.* **tēon**
ā-teorian, āteorjan, *wv. 2* – to fail, cease, leave off; *s.* **teorian**
ater-tān, *n. m. a* – a poisonous twig; *s.* **ator, ater;** tān – *rel.to* **tēon**
atol, *adj*. – terrible, horrid, loathsome ‖ *ON* atall ‖ *Lat*. odium
– **atones** – at once
ator, *n. n. a* – poison; *ME* atter, attor; *Mod.E* atter – venom of reptiles ‖ *OHG* eitar ‖ *Mod.G* Eiter ‖ *ON* eitr
atte – at the
ātwām – in two (*s.* **twā**)
āþ, *n. m. a* – oath; *ME* oth ‖ *Gth*. aiþs ‖ *OHG* eid
auere – *s.* **æfre**
–**auisen,** *v*. – to take thought, reflect ‖ *OF* aviser
–**aungel,** *n*. –angel ‖ *Lat*. angelus ‖ *Gk*. angelos ‖ *Gth*. aggelus
– **aventure**, *n*. – chance, occurrence; risk, chance of danger; exciting occurrence ‖ *OF* aventure ‖ *Lat*. ad + venturum – something due to take place
–**awappen**, *v*. – to astonish; *orig. unknown*
– **awhaped** – *s.* **awappen**
āwendan, *wv. 1* – to turn away, change, translate; *s.* **wendan**
– **awnen,** *v*. – to show ‖ *MHG* ougenen ‖ *cf OE* eawan *with n-infix*
āworpennys, *n. f. ō* – rejection, casting away; *der. fr.* weorpan (*s.*)
āwrītan, *sv. 1* – to write, transcribe, compose, inscribe, carve; *s.* **wrītan**
axian – *s.* **acsian**

– **away** – *s. OE* on + weȝ (*s.*)

Æ

ǣce — *s.* **ēce**

æfenerfeweard, *n. m. a* – a rightful heir; æfen, efen (*s.* **efn**) + erfeward (*s.* **ærfeward**)
æfnan, *wv. 1* – to perform, execute, show; level; *ME* efnen – to render even; *Mod.E* to even ‖ *Gth*. (ga) ibnjan ‖ *OHG* ebanon ‖ *ON* iafna ‖ *denom. fr*. æfne

ǣfre, *adv*. – ever; *ME* ever, efre; (ā – in – feorh)

æfter, *prp*. – after, along; *ME* after ‖ *Gth*. aftra ‖ *OHG* aftar ‖ *ON* aptr
æftra, *adj*. – next; *comp. of* æfter

ǣȝþer, *pron.* – either, each, both; *ME* either, aither; (ā-ȝihwæþer)

ǣȝðer…ȝe… ȝe…, *conj*. – both…and

ǣȝhwǣm, *pron. – dat. pl. of* æȝhwā (æȝ-any – hwā) – any

ǣȝhwylc, *pron.* – everyone, everything

ǣlc, *pron.* – each; *ME* ech ‖ *OHG* eogalih ‖ *Mod.G* jeglich ‖ *rel.to* ‖ *Gth*. aiws ‖ *Lat*. aevum

ǣlch(e) – *s.* **ǣlc**

æld – *s.* **eald**

ælmeslīc, *adj*. – charitable ‖ *der. fr.* ælmesse ‖ *fr.* – charity ‖ *ME* almesse ‖ *Eccl. Lat.*

ellemosyna ‖ *fr .Gk.* elemosyna

ælmihtiʒ – *s.* **allmehtiʒ**

æmynde – jealousy, *etym. unknown*; *rel. to* ʒemynd – mind

ǣniʒ, ǣneʒ, *pron.* – any (ān + *suff.*- iʒ); *ME* any, eny

ǣnlīc, *adj*. – noble, unique (ān + līc) ‖ *Gth*. ana-leiks ‖ *OHG* einlih ‖ *Mod.G* ähnlich

ǣr, *adv*. – before, earlier; *ME* er ‖ *Gth*. airis ‖ *OHG* ēr

ǣrdæʒ, *n. m. a* – dawn, sunrise; *s.* **ær, dæʒ**

ǣrest, *adv*. – first, earliest; *superl. of* ǣr (*s.*)

ærfe, *n., adj*. – inheritance; heritable ‖ *cf.* yrfe – cattle, property ‖ *OHG* erbi ‖ *ON* arft ‖ *Lat*. orbus – orphan

ærfenuma, *n. m. n.* – heir; ærfe (*s.*) + numa; *rel. to* niman, *ptple II*

ærfeuard, *n. m. a* – heir; ærfe (*s.*) + weard, ward = guard, guardian

ǣrist – *s.* **ǣrest**

ǣrlīc, *adj*. – early; ǣr (*s.*) + līc

ærnan – *s.* **iernan**

ærðe – erede, erode; *s.* **erian**

ǣrþon, *conj*. – before; ǣr + þon, *instr. of* sē

ǣspring, *n. n. a* – fountain, spring; ǣ – water + spring – fountain

æstel, *n. m. a* – tablet for writing, a waxed tablet; *borr. fr*. ‖ *Lat*. astula

æt, *prp. + dat.* – at, in, with; from ‖ *Gth*. at ‖ *OHG* az ‖ *ON* at

æt, *n. m. a* – food, eating; *rel. to* etan (*s.*) ‖ *OHG* az ǁ *OS* at ‖ *OFr.* et ‖ *ON* at

ætlicgan, *sv. 5* – to lie still, idle; æt + licgan (*s.*)

æþel, *n. m. a* – country, native country ‖ *OHG* adili

æðele, eðele, *adj*. – noble, eminent, vigorous ‖ *OHG* edili ‖ *OS* eðili ‖ *OFr.* ethel ‖ *ON* aðia ‖ *Mod.G* edel

æþelling, *n. m. a* – noble, person of noble descent; æþel + ing, *patronymic suff.*

æþellīc, *adj*. – noble; æþele + *suff.*-līc

B

bā, *num*. – both; *s.* **begen**

baþ, *n. n. a* – bath*; ME* bath ‖ *OHG* bad ‖ *Russ.* баня

bathen, *v.* – to bathe; *OE* baþian; der. *Fr*. baþ – a bath

bæc, *n. n. a* – back; *ME* bac, back ‖ *OHG* paco ‖ *ON* bak

bærnan, beornan, biornan, *sv. 3, trans. and intrans*. – to burn; *ME* bernen, brenen ‖ *Gth*. brinnan, brannjan ‖ *OHG* brennen ‖ *ON* brinna, brenna

be, bi, *prp*. – by, near, to; for, because of; about, concerning; *ME* bi, be, by ‖ *Gth*. bi ‖ *OHG* bi ‖ *MnG* bei
bead – s. **beodan**
bearn, *n. n. a* – child*; ME* barn
beatan, *sv. 7, p. t.* beot – to beat, strike; *ME* beaten, beten ‖ *OHG* pōzan ‖ *MnG* bossen
bebeodan, *sv. 2* – to enjoin; make a will; *s*. **beodan**
bēc – *s.* **bōc**
becuman, *sv. 4* – to come, arrive, reach*; ME* becomen, bicumen – to come, reach; become; pass; be+cuman (s.)
– **bee**, *n.* – a bee; *OE* beo ‖ *OHG* bia ‖ *OSl* bicela ‖ *Lat* focus – a drone ‖ *Russ.* пчела
befæstan, befestan, *wv. 1* – to fasten; establish; commend; be+fæstan (s.)
befeallan, *sv. 7* – to fall; to fall off; *s*. **feallan**
befeolan, *sv. 4* – to commit, deliver, grant; be + feolan
beag, beah, *n. m. a* – ring, bracelet, collar; *ME* beah ‖ *OHG* pouc, boug ‖ *ON* bougr ‖ *OS* bog
bēg – *s.* **bēag, bēah**
begen, *prn.*, bā, *f.*, **bū,** *n.* – both (bā + þā) *OHG* ‖ bede, beide ‖ *MnG* beide ‖ *Russ.* оба
be-gitan, begietan, *sv. 5* – to get, acquire; *ME* begeten, yeten, geten ‖ *Gth.* begitan ‖ *OHG* pigessan (*cf. MnG vergessen*) ‖ *Lat*. pre-hendo
begnornian, *wv. 2* – to deplore, mourn; be + gnornian
beodan, *sv. 2* – to bid, command; proclaim; ofter, give; *ME* beden, beoden, beiden;
bedden, *shows influence of bidden* – to ofter, to command*; later merges with bidden* (*MnG* bid) ‖ *Gth*. buidan ‖ *OHG* biotan
bēon, *irr. supp. v*. – beo, bist, biþ; *p. t.* wæs, wǣron – to be; *ME* ben *OHG* ‖ bim, bist ‖ *MnG* bin ‖ *Lat.* fui ‖ *Russ.* быть
beorht, *adj*. – bright, shining; *ME* briht ‖ *Gth*. bairhts ‖ *OHG* beraht ‖ *rel. to Russ*. береза, береста
beornan, biernan, byrnan, *sv. 3* – to burn, be on fire; *ME* brinnen, bernen, burnen ‖ *OHG* brinan ‖ *MnG* brennen ‖ *OS* brinnan ‖ *ON* brenna
bēoþan, bēoþun, – are, *s*. **bēon**
beran, *sv. 4* – to bear, carry; produce, bring forth; endure, suffer; *ME* beren ‖ *Gth.* bairan ‖ *OHG* beran ‖ *Lat.* ferre ‖ *Russ.* брать
bet, *adv.* – better, rather…than; *ME b*et ‖ *OHG* paz, baz ‖ *OFr* bet ‖ *ON* betr
betǣcan, *v*. – to show; commit, put in trust; *s.* **tǣcan**
betǣhte – *s.* **betǣcan**
bēten – *s.* **bēatan**
bicgan, bycgan, *p. t.* bohte, *wv. irr. 1* – to buy; *ME* būggen, byen ‖ *Gth.* bugjan
bīdan, *sv. 1* – to wait; *ME* bidden; *MnG* bide ‖ *Gth.* beidan ‖ *OHG* bitan ‖ *Lat.*fido, fidus
biddan, *sv. 5* – to ask, pray, beseech; *ME* bidden – pray, beg; command; *contamin*. bēodan; *MnG* bid – to command, order ‖ *Gth*. bidlan ‖ *OHG, MnG* bitten
befallen, *v.* – to happen, chance; *s.* **befeallen**
bindan, *sv. 3* – to bind ‖ *Gth*. bindan ‖ *OHG* bintan
bineoþan, **biniþan**, *prp*. – beneath, under; bi + niþan, neoþan – below ‖ *OS* niþana ‖ *ON* neþan ‖ *cf. MnG n*ieder
bisceop, biscop, biscep, *n. m. a* –bishop; *ME* bishop ‖ *OHG* biskof ‖ *borr. fr. Gr*. Episcopus ‖ *Lat*. episcopus

bio, byo – *s.* **bēon**
bōc, *n. f. cons.* – book; *ME* bok ‖ *Gth.* bōua – letter of the alphabet ‖ *OHG* boluch ‖ *MnG* Buch ‖ *Lat.* faguss-beech ‖
bōcere, *n. m. a* – learned man; bōc + suff – ere
– bothe – *s.* **bā**
brād, *adj.* – broad, wide; *ME* brod ‖ *Gth.* bralþs ‖ *OHG, MnG* ‖ breit
brak – *s.* **brecan**
brǣþ, *n. m. i.* – breath; *ME* breeth, breth, breath ‖ *OHG* brādam ‖ *MnG* bradem
brēaþ, **breeth,** *n.* – breath; *s.* **brǣþ**
brecan, *sv. 4* –to break; *ME* breken ‖ *Gth.* brikan ‖ *OHG* brehhan ‖ *MnG* brechen ‖ *Lat.* fregi, frango
brēad, *n. n. a* – bit, morsel: *ME* bread, bred, bræd – bread; *OHG* brōt ‖ *MnG* Brot ‖ *ON* brauð ‖ *OS* brōd

C

cǣȝ, *n. f. jō* – key *(origin unknown)*
cēap, *n. m. a* – cattle
cyninȝ, *n. m. a* – king; *OHG* chuning ‖ *OS* kuning ‖ *Russ.* князь
cynn, *n. n. ja* – race; *Gth.* kuni ‖ *OHG* chuni ‖ *Lat.* Genus
Centlond – Kentish land
cweðan, *sv. 5* – to say; *Gth.* qiþan ‖ *OHG* quedan
cunnan, *prt.-prs.* – can; *Gth.* kunnan ‖ *OHG* kunnan ‖ *Lat.* gnoscere ‖ Russ. знать

D

dauus – *s.* **dæg**
dæg, dagas, *n. m. a* – day; *ME* day, dai ‖ G*th.* dags ‖ *OHG* tac ‖ *MnG* Tag
dæl, *n. n. i* – dale, valley; *ME* dale ‖ *Gth.* dals ‖ *OHG* tal ‖ *MnG* Tal ‖ *Russ.* дол
dæl, *n. m. i* – part; part of speech in grammar; *ME* del; *MnE* deal (a great deal, etc.) ‖ *Gth.* dails ‖ *OHG* teil ‖ *Russ.* доля, делить ‖ *Ukr.* ділити, доля (частина розміру)
dēad, *adj.* – dead; *ME* ded ‖ G*th.* dauþs ‖ *OHG* tōt ‖ *MnG* tot
dēaþ, *m. n. a* – death; *ME* deþ ‖ G*th.* dauþus ‖ *OHG* tōd ‖ *MnG* Tod
dēman, *wv. 1.* – to deem; judge; give one's opinion; *ME* demen ‖ *Gth.* domjan ‖ *OHG* tuoman
denisc, *adj.* – Danish, *fr.* Dene, *n. m. i* (*only pl.)* – Danes (*in Latin sources* 'Dani')
dēpe – *s.* **dēop**
dēop, *adj.* – deep; *ME* dep, deep ‖ *Gth.* diups ‖ *OHG* tiof
desport, *n.* – disport, pastime; sport; *ME* amusement, sport, liveliness ‖ *OF* desport
docga, *n. m. n* – dog; *ME* dogge; *displaced the former* hund ‖ *Germ.* dogge
doghter – *s.* **dohtor**
dohtor, *n. f. r* – daughter; *ME* doghter ‖ *OHG* tocher ‖ *MnG* Tochter ‖ *Russ.* дочь
dōm, *n. m. a* – judgement; decree; law; command; power; dignity; free will, choice; *ME* dom, dome, doom; *MnE* doom ‖ *Gth.* dōms ‖ *OHG* tuom ‖ *MnG* -tum (*suff.*) ‖ *MnG* -dom (*suff.)*
dōn, irr. v., p. t. dȳde, *ptple* gedōn – to do, perform, make, cause; *ME* don, doon, do ‖ *OHG* tuoan, tuon ‖ *MnG* tun ‖ *Russ.* деять, делать ‖ *Ukr.* діяти

dor, *n. n. a* – door, a large door; *ME* dor, door ‖ *Gth.* daura ‖ *MnG* Tür ‖ *Russ.* дверь ‖ *Ukr.*двері

doutte, *n.* – doubt, uncertainty, fear ‖ *OF* doter, duter ‖ *MnF* doute ‖ *Lat.* dubitum ‖ *the letter* b *was inserted in XVI etymologically;* b *was never pronounced in this word in English*

drēam, *n. m. a.* – 1) joy, pleasure, mirth; 2) what causes mirth – a musical instrument; *ME* dremen (to rejoice) ‖ *OS* drom – noise ‖ *OHG* troum (dream) ‖ *MnG* Traum ‖ *ON* draumr ‖ *MnE* dream *rel. to ON*

drēam-lēas, *adj.* – joyless, sad

drifan, *sv. 1* – to drive, force, pursue; *ME* dryven, driven ‖ *Gth.* dreiban ‖ *OHG* triban ‖ *MnG* treiben

dryft, *n.* – driven snow; course, direction; driving or being driven; *MnE* drift ‖ *OFr.* drift *in* urdrift – expulsion ‖ *MnG* trift – passage for cattle, pasturage; *rel. to* drifan

dryge, *adj.* – dry*; ME* drie; *hence* drugian – to dry; drugaþ – drought ‖ *OHG* trockan ‖ *MnG* trocken

driht-guma, *n. m. n.* – a warrior

drihten, *m. n. a.* – lord, creator, judge; *ME* drihten ‖ *OHG* truhtin ‖ *OFr.* drochten ‖ *ON* drottin; *rel. to* drēogan. *sv. 2* – to accomplish, carry through, suffer.

drincan, *sv. 3* – to drink; ME drinken, drincan ‖ *Gth.* drigkan ‖ OHG trinchan ‖ *MnG* trinken

durran, *v. prt.-prs., prs.* dearr, durron, *p. t.* dorste – dare, presume; *ME* durren; *MnE* dare, durst ‖ *Gth.* ga-daursan ‖ *OHG* giturran, gitorsta ‖ *Russ.* дерзать

duru, *n. f. n.* – door; *ME* dure, dor, dore ‖ *Gth.* daur ‖ *OHG* tor ‖ *MnG* Tür ‖ *ON* dyrr ‖ *Russ.* дверь ‖ *Ukr.*двері

dwellan, *wv. irr. 1* – to lead astray, delay; *ME* dwellen – to stay ‖ *OHG* twaljan ‖ *OFr.* dwelia ‖ *ON* dvelja – to delay, tarry; *Mn* meaning *fr. ON*

E

ēa, *n. f .cons.* – water; river; *ME* æ*; in MnE traced in river-names* ‖ *Gth.* ahva ‖ *OHG* aha ‖ *Lat.* aqua ‖ *of. Russ.* Ока

ēac, *conj.* – also, moreover; *ME* eac, ec, eke ‖ *MnE* eke (*arch.)* ‖ *Gth.* auk ‖ *OHG* ouh

ēadig, *adj.* – happy, upright; *ME* eadi, edi ‖ *Gth.* audags ‖ *OHG* ōtag

ēage, *n. n. n.* – eye; *ME* eye ‖ *Gth.* augo ‖ *OHG* ouga, auga ‖ *Lat.* oculus ‖ *OSl.* око

eahta, *num.* – eight; *ME* eighte, aughte ‖ *Gth.* ahtau ‖ *OHG* ahto ‖ *MnG* acht ‖ *OFr.* ahta ‖ *Lat.* octo

eald, *adj., comp.* yldra, *sup.* yldest – old, ancient; great ‖ *Gth.* alþeis ‖ *OHG* alt

eall, *adj.* – all; *ME* al, eal ‖ *Gth.* alls ‖ *OHG* all ‖ *MnG* all

ealweg, *adv.* – always, quite; eal + weg (*s.)*

earm, *n. m. a.* – arm; *ME* arm, ærm ‖ *Gth.* arms ‖ *OHG* arm, aram ‖ *OS* arm ‖ *OFr.* arm, erm ‖ *ON* armr

ēast, *n. m. a.* – east; *ME* est, eest, æst ‖ *OHG* ost, ostan ‖ *OS* ost ‖ *OFr.* asta, ost ‖ *MnG*

Ost, Osten ‖ *ON* austr; *cf.* austro-goti
ēastan, ēstan, *adv.* – from the East; *s.* **ēast**
ēc = ēac (*s.*)
ecg, *n. f. jō* – edge, blade, sword; ME ecge, egge ‖ *OHG* ekka ‖ *MnG* Ecke ‖ *OS* eggia ‖ *Lat.* acies
efn, *adj.* – even; *ME* even ‖ *Gth.* ibns ‖ *OHG* eban ‖ *MnG* eben
efne, *adv.* – even; precisely; exactly; *s.* **efn,** *adj.*
efstan, *wv. 1* – to hasten, hurry; *denom. fr.* ofost – hurry
eit, *adv.* – again; *ME* eft, efte
efter – *s.* **æfter**
ende, *n. n. ja* – end*; ME* ende, end ‖ *Gth.* andeis ‖ *OHG* enti ‖ *MnG* Ende
englisc, *adj.* – English; Angel, Angle + *suff.* -isc; *ME* English ‖ *MnG* engelisch ‖ *MnE* English
eny – any; *s.* **ænig**
ēode – *s.* **gān**
eorþe, *n. f. ō* – earth; *ME* erthe, eorþe, earþe ‖ *Gth.* airþa ‖ *OHG* erda ‖ *MnG* Erde ‖ *OS* ertha ‖ *ON* jorð
ēow, oiw – you; *ME* eow, you ‖ *OHG dat.* eu, eu: *acc.* juwih
ēower, *poss. prn.* – your; *ME* your ‖ *OHG* iuwer ‖ *ON* yðvar
erly, *adj., adv.* – early
espye, *v.* – to descry, notice; *borr. fr. OF; the stem, however, existed in Germanic languages* ‖ *OF* espier ‖ *MnF* épier ‖ *Lat.* specere ‖ *OHG* spehon ‖ *MnG* spähen
est – *s.* **ēast**

F

fæder, *n. m. r* – father; *ME* fader ‖ *Gth.* fadar ‖ *MnG* Vater ‖ *ON* faðir ‖ *Lat.* pater ‖ *Gr.* pater
faran, *sv. 6* – to go, to travel; *ME* faren, fare ‖ *Gth.* faren ‖ *OHG* faran ‖ *MnG.* Fahren
fæger, *adj.* – fair, beautiful; *ME* fair, fayre ‖ *Gth.* fagrs ‖ *OHG* fagar
fæst, *adj.* – fast, firm ‖ *OHG* fest
fæstan,*wv. 1* – to fasten; *ME* fæsten, festen, fasten ‖ *Gth.* fastan ‖ *OHG* fastjan, festan ‖ *MnG* befestigen ‖ *OS* festian ‖ *OFr.* festigien ‖ *Russ.* пост ‖ *Ukr.* пост
fēa, fēawa, *adj.* – few; *ME* fewe, feue, fæwe ‖ *Gth.* fawai ‖ *OHG* fōh ‖ *Lat.* paucus, paulus
fealdan, *sv. 7, – p. t.* fēold – to fold, wrap; give way, alter; *ME* falden ‖ *Gth.* falþan ‖ *OHG* faldan ‖ *MnG* falten ‖ *ON* falda
feallan, *sv. 7, – p. t.* fēoll – to fall; *ME* fallen, falle ‖ *OHG* fallen ‖ *MnG* fallen
fela, fæla, feala, *adj., adv.* – many; very much; *ME* fele, feole, vele ‖ *Mn Scotch* feil, fiel ‖ *Gth.* filu ‖ *OHG* filo ‖ *MnG* viel ‖ *Lat.* plus
fēlan, *wv. 1* – to feel; *ME* fele, felen ‖ *OHG* fuljan, fuolen ‖ *MnG* fühlen
felawe, fellawe, *n.* – fellow, partner ‖ *ON* fēlagi, fē ‖ *OE* fēoh (cattle) + lag (base of lay) – putting money (cattle) in a joint enterprise
felawshipe, *n. m. a* – fellowship; felawe (s.) + suff. -shipe
feld, *n. n. a* – field; *ME* feld, felde ‖ OHG *feld* ‖ *MnG* Feld ‖ *Gr.* platus – broad

felen –*s.* **fēlan**
fēo, feoh, *n. n. a* – cattle; money, value, fee, reward; property; *ME* fee, fe, feo(h) ‖ *Gth.* faihu ‖ *OHG* feha ‖ *MnG* Vieh ‖ *Lat.* pecus
feohan, *sv. 5* – to rejoice
feohtan, *sv. 3* – to fight; *ME* fehten, fihten ‖ *OHG* fechtan ‖ fechten
fēond, fiend, *n. m. nd* – enemy; *ME* feond, feend, fiend; *MnE* fiend (*der. fr. ptple 1* of fēon – to hate) ‖ *Gth.* fijands ‖ *OHG* fiant ‖ *MnG* Feind ‖ *ON* fiandi
feor, *adv.* – far; *ME* ferre, feor ‖ *Gth.* fairra ‖ *OHG* ferr ‖ *Lat.* porro (*pref.*)
feorran, *adv.* – far off, from far; feor + adv., suff. -an
fēower, *num.* – four; *ME* foure; feour, fower ‖ *Gth.* fidwor ‖ *OHG* fior ‖ *MnG* vier ‖ *Lat.* quattuor
fēowertig, *num.* – forty; fēowe (s.) + tig; cf. MnG –zig ‖ *Gr.* dekas
fīf, *num.* – five; *ME* fif, five ‖ *Gth.* fimf ‖ *OHG* fimf, finf ‖ *MnG* fünf ‖ *Lat.* quinque ‖ *Gr.* pente
fīftēne, fīftŷne, *num.* – fifteen; *ME* fifteen; fīf (s.) + tēne; *rel.* < tēn, tiene (s.)
fīftig, *num.* – fifty; *ME* fiftig; fīa (s.) + tig; *cf. G* ~ zig ‖ *Gth.* ~ tigus ‖ *Gr.*~ dekas
fil, *p. t.* of fallen – *s.* **feallan**
fylþ, *v., 3rd prs.* – *s* **feallan**
findan, *sv. 3* – to find; *ME* finden, fynden, uinden ‖ *Gth.* finþan ‖ *OHG* findan
fierd, fyrd, *n. f. i* – army, military expedition; *ME* ferd, ferde, verd, furde ‖ *OHG* fart ‖ *MnG* Fahrt
fisc, *n. m. a* (pl. fiscas, fixas) – fish; *ME* fisch, fish, fisc, fiss ‖ *Gth.* fisks ‖ *OHG* fisk ‖ *MnG* Fisch ‖ *Lat.* piscis
fōlc, *n. n. a* – folk, people, tribe; *ME* folk, uolc ‖ *OHG* folk, folch
folgian, fylgan, *wv. 2* – to follow; *ME* folwen, folghenn ‖ *OHG* folgen ‖ *MnG* folgen
folye, *n.* – folly ‖ *OF* folie ‖ *MnF* folie ‖ fōl
folk – *s.* **folc**
foresprecan, *sv. 5* – to foretell; fore + sprecan (s.)
foreswigian, *wv. 2* – to pass over in silence, to be silent; fore (adv.) + swigian – to be silent ‖ *OHG* swigen ‖ *MnG* schweigen, verschweigen
foreweard, *adj., adv.* – forward, to the fore, former; fore + suff. – weard
forhwæga, *adv.* – at least
forlætan, *sv. 7* – to leave; omit; forgive; permit ‖ *MnG* verlassen ‖ *s.* **lætan**
fōron – *s.* **faran**
forwiernan, *wv. 1* – to prevent
forwyrcan, *wv. 1 irr.* – to do wrong
forþ, *adv.* – completely, away, forth; *ME* forth ‖ *MHG* vort ‖ *MdG* fort
forðan, forðām, *conj.* – for that, for that reason which, because: for + ðām, *dat. pl. of* sē
forþgenge, *adj.* – progressive, increasing, effective; forþ + genge; *rel. to* gān, gangan
fremman, *wv. 1* – to advance, make, do persorm; *ME* fremmen, vremmon ‖ *OHG* gafremjan
frēo, frīo, *adj.* – free; *ME* free, fre, freo ‖ *Gth.* freis ‖ *OHG* fri ‖ *MnG* frei ‖ *OS* fri ‖ *OFr.* fri
frēodōm, friodōm, *n .n. a* – freedom, *ME* freodom, freedom: frēo (s.) + suff. – dōm
frēogan, *wv. 1, p. t.* frēode – to free, make free; honour, love; *ME* freoien, freogen ‖ *Gth.* frijōn ‖ *MHG* vrien ‖ *MnG* freien
frēond, *n. m. md* – friend; *ME* freond, frend, vrend ‖ *Gth.* frijōnds ‖ *OHG* friont, friunt ‖ *MnG* Frend ‖ *Russ.* при'ятель ‖ *Ukr.* 'приятель ‖ *s.* **frēogan**

frēodlīce, *adv.* – in a friendly way
from, fram, *adv., prp.* – from; *OHG* from
fugol, fugel, *n .m. a* – bird; *ME* fowel, foule; *MnE* fowl ‖ *Gth.* fugls ‖ *OHG* fogal, fugal
frut, *n.* – fruit ‖ *OF* fruit ‖ *MnF* fruit ‖ *Lat.* fructus
ful, *adv.* – very; *s.* **full**
fūl, *adj.* – foul, dirty, rotten, corrupt; *ME* ful, foule ‖ *Gth.* fuls ‖ *OHG* ful ‖ *MnG* faul ‖ *ON* full

ȝ, G

gān, *irr. suppl. v.* – eode, ȝegān – to go; *ME* gon, goon, gan ‖ *OHG* gān ‖ *MnG* gehen
ȝē , *prn.* – you; *ME* yee, ye ‖ *Gth.* jus ‖ *OS* gi, ge ‖ *OFr.* gi ‖ *OHG* ir
ȝē … ȝē, *conj.* – both ... and; and ‖ *OS* ge, gi
ȝear, *n. n. a* – year; *ME* yere, yer, yeer ‖ *Gth.* jēr ‖ *OHG* jār ‖ *MnG* Jahr
ȝebēorscipe, *n. m. a* – feast
ȝebīdan—*s.* **bidan**
ȝeboȝen—*s.* **ȝebūȝan**
ȝebūȝan, *sv, 2* – to submit
ȝebyran, *wv. 1* – 1) to happen by chance; 2) *impers.* – it is suitable, fitting; It becomes; *ME* birrþ, burde, bird ‖ *OHG* gaburjan ‖ *MnG* gebühren
ȝecnāwan, *sv.* 7 – to know, perceive, understand; *ME* cnowen, gecnowen, iknawe ‖ *ON* knācan ‖ *Lat.* novi < *gnovi; *fr.* noscere, cognoscere ‖ *Russ.* знать ‖ *Ukr.* знати
ȝedȳdon – *s.* **ȝedōn**
ȝedōn, *irr. v.* – to do, perform, reach; *s.* **dōn**
ȝedrync, *n. n. a* – drinking; *s.* **drincan**
ȝefeaht – *s.* **feohtan**
ȝeftieman, *wv. 1* –to cause to flee, drive away
ȝehawian, *wv.* 2 – to look at, observe
ȝehētan – *s.* **hātan**
ȝemǣne, *adj.* – common, general
ȝemynd, *n. f. i* – mind, memory, remembrance; *ME* minde, ȝeminde ‖ *Gth.* gamunds ‖ *OHG* gimunt ‖ *Lat.* mentem (mens) ‖ *Russ.* память ‖ *Ukr.* пам'ять ‖ *cf.* ȝemunan
ȝemunan, *v. prt.-prs., prs. t.* ȝeman – to think of, remember; *ME* imunen; *s.* **ȝemynd**
ȝenoh, ȝenog, *adj., adv.* – enough, sufficient; *ME* inoh, enowe ‖ *Gth.* ganohs ‖ *OHG* ginuog ‖ *MnG* genug ‖ *OS* ginog ‖ *OS* gnogr
ȝeo, ȝio, ȝiu, *adv.* – formerly of old, before; *Gth. ju* ‖ *OHG* giu
ȝeoguþ, ȝioguþ, ȝeogaþ, juguþ, *n. f.* ō – youth; young people; *ME* youthe ‖ *Gth.* junda ‖ *OHG* jugund ‖ *MnG* Jugend ‖ *Lat.*juventa ‖ *Russ.* юность ‖ *Ukr.* юність
ȝeond, ȝiond, *prp.* – through, beyond, among, across; *ME* ȝeond, yond, yend, yonder ‖ *Gth.* jaind ‖ *MLG* gent, jint
ȝeong, jung, *adj.* – young; *ME* young, yunge, yenge ‖ *Gth.* juggsj ‖ *OHG* jung ‖ *Lat.* juvenis ‖ *Russ.* юный ‖ *Ukr.* юний
ȝeorn, *adj.*, **ȝeorne,** *adv.* – eagerf(ly), diligent(ly), willing(ly); *ME* yeme, yeorne ‖ *Gth.* gairns ‖ *OHG* gern, gerni ‖ *MnG* gern
ȝeornfulie, *adv.* – willingly, eagerly; *s.* **ȝeorn + full + e**
ȝēre – *s.* **ȝear**
ȝereord, *n .n. a* – language, speech; *rel. to* rǣdan, *sv.* 7, *p.t.* reord – to read
ȝerīpan, *sv. 1* – to reap; *ME* repen, ripen
ȝesǣliȝ, sǣliȝ, *adj.* – happy, prosperous; *ME* i-sæle, seely ‖ *MnE* silly ‖ *OHG*

sālig ‖ *MnG* selig
ȝesæliȝlic, *adj.* – happy
ȝeseon – *s,* **seon**
ȝewāt – *s.* **ȝewitan**
ȝeweorc, *n. n. a* – work; fortress; fort; *Gth.* gawaurk ‖ *OHG* giwerk ‖ *rel. to* wyrcan (s.)
ȝewītan, *sv. 1* – to go; *ME* iwiten
ȝiefan, *sv. 4 – to* give; *ME* yiven, yeven, given ‖ *Gth.* giban ‖ *OHG* geban ‖ *MnG* geben ‖ *ON.* geba
ȝiefu, ȝlfu, ȝeofu, *n. f.* ō – gift; *ME* gifu, geve, yeve ‖ *Gth.* giba ‖ *OHG* geba ‖ *OS* geba ‖ *OFr.* jeve ‖ *ON* gjōf
ȝieman, ȝyman, *wv, 1* – to take care of ‖ *Gth.* gaumjan ‖ *OHG* goumon
ȝyf, ȝif, *conj.* – if; *ME* yif, if ‖ *Gth.* ibai, iba ‖ *OHG* oba ‖ *MnG* ob
ȝymen, *n. f. ō – care,* solicitude; *ret. to* ȝyman, ȝieman (s.)
ȝynge, *adj. – s.* ***ȝeong***
ȝiond – *s.* **ȝeond**
ȝisel, ȝysel, *n. m. a/i* – hostage; *ME* yisles *(pl.)* ‖ *OHG* kisal ‖ *MnG* Geisel
ȝlæd, *adj.* – glad, joyful, bright; *ME glad* ‖ *OHG* glat ‖ *MnG* glatt rel. to *Lat.* glaber – smooth
ȝleow, gleo, gliȝ, *n. n. a* – glee, joy, music; *ME* gleo, gleu, gle – gnawen, a. – gnaw
ȝod, *n. m. a* – god, deity; *ME* god ‖ *Gth.* guþ, got ‖ *MnG* Gott
ȝōd, *adj.* – good; *ME* god, good ‖ *Gth.* gōþs, gōds ‖ *OHG* guot ‖ *MnG* gut
godcund, *adj.* – sacred, divine; *ME* godcund ‖ *OHG* gotchundl ‖ *OS* godkund ‖ *s.* **ȝod, cunnan**
ȝrētan, *wv. 1* – to greet, call, welcome, bid farewell, approach, visit; *ME* greten, grætan ‖ *OHG* gruossanf ‖ *MnG* grüssen
ȝuma, *n. m. n* – man; *ME* gume, gome; *MnG* Groom, *with epenthetic* ‘r’ ‖ *Gth.* gums ‖ *OHG* goma ‖ *MnG* Brāutigam ‖ *Lat.* homo

H

habban, *wv. 3 – to* have; *ME* haven, han, hafen ‖ *Gth.* haban ‖ *OHG* haben ‖ *MnG* haben
hād, *n. m. a* – rank, degree, state, condition; *ME* had, hed; *also* hod, hed *as second parts of composits; perhaps, it is more correct to regard them as suffixes already. In EMnE only suffixes* -hood, -head ‖ *Gth.* haidus ‖ *OHG* hait ‖ *MnG suff.* -heit
hāl, *adj.* – whole, well, in good health; *ME* hal, hiæl, hol; *MnE* whole, *hale* ‖ *Gth. hails* ‖ *OHG* heil ‖ *MnG* heil ‖ *Russ.* целый ‖ *Ukr.* цілий
halȝa, *n. m. a* – saint; *ME* halwe; *MnE* in All Hallows’ Day
hāliȝ *adj.* – holy; *ME* hali, holy, hooli ‖ *Gth.* hailagst ‖ OHG *heflag* ‖ MnG *heilig* ‖ *OS* helag ‖ *OFr.* helich ‖ *ON* heilagr
hām, *n. m. a* – home, house, residence; *ME* ham, hom ‖ *Gth. haims* ‖ *OHG* haim ‖ *MnG* heim, *adv.* ‖ *OS* hēm ‖ *ON* heimr
hātan, *sv. 7, p. t.* heht – to order, call; hātte – was called; *ME* hight (*OE* heht), haten, hoten ‖ *Gth.* haitan ‖ *OHG* heizzan ‖ *MnG* heissen
hælo, hælu, *n. indecl. fem.* – health, safety, salvation; *s.* **hāl**
hærfest, *n. m. a.* – harvest, autumn ‖ *OHG* herbiest

hæðen, *adj., der. fr*. hǣþ – heathen, pagan; *ME* heþin, heðene, heðen ‖ *Gth*. haiþno ‖ *OHG* heidan ‖ *MnG* Heide

hǣðeness, *n. f. ō* – heathenism, paganism

hē, *prs. prn.* – he; *ME* he; hi; *fr. Germ. dem. stem* hi

hēafod, *n. n. a* – head; *ME* heed, head, heafed ‖ *Gth*. haubiþ ‖ *OHG* houbit ‖ *MnG* Haupt ‖ *OS* hōbið ‖ *ON* hōfuð ‖ *Lat.* caput

hēah, *adj*. – high, lofty; *ME* heigh, hez, heye, highe ‖ *Gth*. hauhs ‖ *OHG* hōh ‖ *MnG* hoch ‖ *OS* hōh ‖ *ON* hār ‖ *Russ*. куча ‖ *Ukr*. куча (купа)

healf, *n. f. ō* – hal, part; *ME* half, halve ‖ *Gth*. halba, halbs ‖ *OHG* halba ‖ *OS* halba ‖ *OFr*. halve ‖ *ON* halla

heard, *adj*. – hard, harsh, stern, firm, brave; *ME* harde, herd ‖ *Gth*. hardus ‖ *OHG* hart ‖ *MnG* hart

helpan, *sv. 3*– to help; *ME* helpen; *later, in EMnE, joined the regular verbs* ‖ *Gth.* hilpan ‖ *OHG* helfan ‖ *MnG* helfen

hēo, *prs. prn.* – she; *also* they; *ME* hie, hi, he, ha; *in the northern parts already displaced by the pronoun* ‘they’ *and its paradigm in XIII. The old form still exists in the contracted* ‘em (*ask* ’em)

heofon, heofen, hefon, hiofon, *n. m. a*. – heaven; *ME* hevene, heofne, heovene ‖ *Gth*. himins ‖ *OHG* himil ‖ *MnG* Himmel

heorte, *n. n. n* – heart; *ME* heorte, herte ‖ *Gth*. hairto ‖ *OHG* herza ‖ *MnG* Herz ‖ *Lat. cor*, cordis ‖ *Russ*. сердце

hēr, *adv.* – here; *ME* her, here ‖ *Gth*. hēr ‖ *OHG* hiar, hier ‖ *MnG* hier

– herb, *n.* – herb, grass ‖ *OF* herbe ‖ *Lat*. herba

here, *prn.* – their; *s.* **hīe, hē**

here, *n. m. ja, gen. sing.* **heriȝes,** herȝes – army (the enemy’s army, *generally about the Danish force*); *ME* here ‖ *Gth*. harjis ‖ *OHG* heri ‖ *MnG* Heer

hīe, hī, *prn., pl. 3 rd prs*. – they; *ME* hi, he, heo; *in the North already replaced by* ‘the’

hȳran, *wv. 1*–1) to hear; 2) to follow, obey, serve; *ME* heren; huren, hire ‖ *Gth*. hausjan ‖ *OHG* horen, horian ‖ *MnG* hören ‖ *Lat*. curtus ‖ *Russ*. чуять‖ *Ukr*. чути

hlæfdiȝe, *n. f. n* – lady, mistress of the house; **hlāf + *diȝe** – to knead

hlāford, *n. m. a* – lord; *ME* laverd, loverd, lord; orig. **hlāf + weard** – the guardian of bread

hlisa, *n. m. a* – rumour, report, reputation; *rel. to* hlīȝan – to allow one a reputation, give glory

hors, *n. n. a* – horse; *ME* hors ‖ *OHG* hros ‖ *MnG* Ross

horsian, *wv. 2* – to provide with horse; *s*. **hors**

– hour, *n.* – hour ‖ *OF* (h)ure *fr. Lat., fr. Gr*. hōra – hour, season

hū, *adv*. – how; *ME* hu, how, hou ‖ *Gth*. hwēo ‖ *MnG* wie

hund, *num*. – hundred; *ME* hund ‖ *Gth*. hund ‖ *OHG* hunt ‖ *MnG* hundert ‖ *Lat*. centum ‖ *Ukr*. сто

hund, *n. m. a* – hound, dog; *ME* hounde ‖ *Gth*. hunds ‖ *OHG* hunt ‖ *MhG* Hund

hundeahtatiȝ, *num*. – eighty

hundred – *s*. **hund,** *num.*

huniȝ, *n. n. a* – honey; *ME* huniz, honi ‖ *OHG* honag, honig ‖ *MnG* Honig

huntian, *wv. 2* – to hunt; *ME* honten; *rel. to OE* hentan
hūs, *n. n. a* – house; *ME* hus, hous, house ‖ *Gth*. hūs ‖ *OHG* hüs ‖ *MnG* Haus
hwām – *dat. of hwā (s.)*
hwanne, hwan, hwon, *adv*. – when; *ME* whenne, whonne ‖ *Gth*. hwan ‖ *OHG* hwanne, hwenne ‖ *MnG* wann
hwanon, *adv*. – from where
hwǣr, *adv*. – where ‖ *Gth*. hvar ‖ *OHG* (h)war, wa ‖ *MnG* wo
hwæt, *adj*. – brave, quick, active; *ME* hwat, wat ‖ *OS* hwat ‖ *ON* hvatr
hwæt, *prn*. – what; *ME* hwat, huet, wat ‖ *Gth*. hwa ‖ *OHG* hwaz ‖ *MnG* was ‖ *Lat.* quid
hwæþer, *prn.* – which of the two, either; *ME* whader, whether ‖ *Gth.* hwaþar ‖ *OHG* hwedar
hwæþer þe, *conj*. – or
hwelc, hwilc, hwylc, *prn*. – which; *ME* hwilche, hwuch, whulc ‖ *Gth*. hwēleiks ‖ *OHG* hwēlich ‖ *MnG* welche
hwīl, *n. f. i* – a while, space of time; *ME* hwile, hwule, while ‖ *Gth*. hveila ‖ *OHG* hwila ‖ *MnG* Weile
hwīlum, *adj*. – from time to time, at times; *ME* whilom ‖ *MnE arch.* whilom, *dat. of hwile (s.)* ‖ *OHG* hwilon

I, Y

ic, *prn*. – I; *ME* ich, I, Icc ‖ *Gth*. ik ‖ *OHG* ih ‖ *MnG* ich ‖ Lat. ego ‖ *OSl*. aʒ
iernan, irnan, yrnan, ǣrnan, *sv. 3* – to run; *ME* rinne, renne
ylc – *s*. **ilca**; *also* **ǣlc**
ilca, *prn*. – the same; *MnE arch.* of that ilk
ilchen – *s.* **ǣlc**
yldra – *comp. of* eald *(s.)*
ymb, umbe, embe, *prp.* – about, by; *ME* umbe, um ‖ *OHG* umpi, umbi ‖ *MnG* um ‖ *Lat.* ambi
intinga, *n. m. n* – a cause, case, occasion, matter
iwis, *adv*. – certainly
– **y-shette** – *ptple II of* **shetten;** *s. OE* **scyttan**

J

– janglen, *v.* – to jangle, chatter; *OF* jangler
– **jelosye,** *n.* – jealously ‖ *OF* gelos ‖ *Med. Lat.* zelosus ‖ *MnE* jealously
– **joyfull,** *adj*. – joyful, happy; joy + *suff.* -ful ‖ *OF* joie, ‖ *MnF* joie ‖ *Lat.* gaudio

L

lāf, *n. f. ō* – what is left, remnant, heirloom; a relict; widow; *ME* love, *north. dial.* lave ‖ *Gth*. laiba ‖ *OHG* leiba
lamb, *n. n. es* – lamb; *ME* lamb, pl. lambren ‖ *Gth*. lamb ‖ *OHG* lamb ‖ *MnG* Lamm ‖ *OS* lamb ‖ *ON* lamb
land, *n. n. a* – land; *ME* land ‖ *Gth*. land ‖ *OHG* lant ‖ *MnG* Land ‖ *OS, OFr*. land ‖ *ON* land

lang, *adj., comp*. lengra, longest – long; swā lange tīde – while; *ME* lang, long ‖ *Gth*. lags ‖ *OHG* lang ‖ *MnG* lang ‖ *Lat*. longus

lār, *n. f. ō* – teaching, instruction; doctrine; science; precept; *ME* lore, loar, lere, lar; *MnE* lore ‖ *OHG* lēra ‖ *MnG* Lehre

lārēow, *n. m. a* – teacher, preacher; lār (*s.*) + *suff* -ēow (*rare, arch., with nomina agentis*)

lǣce, *n. m. i* – physian, doctor; *ME* leche, lache ‖ *MnE* leech ‖ *Gth*. lēkeis ‖ *OHG* lāhhi, lache ‖ *OFr*. lēza ‖ *ON* læknir ‖ *Russ*. лекарь

lǣdan, *wv. 1* – to lead, condact; bring, produce; *ME* leden, læden, *caus fr:* liþan (*s.*) ‖ *OHG* leitan ‖ *MnG* Leiten

lǣfan, *wv. 1* – to leave; *ME* leven ‖ *Gth*. bi-laibjan ‖ *OHG* biliban; hi-leiban ‖ *MnG* bleiben

– lǣte, *n.* – belief

lǣst – the least; *s.* **lytel**

lecgan, *wv. 1, p. t.* **leȝde, læȝde** – to lay; *ME* leien, leye, leggen ‖ *caus. fr:* licgan (*s.*) ‖ *Gth.* lagian ‖ *OHG* leggian ‖ *MnG* legen ‖ *Russ*. положить

lēof, līof, *adj.* – loved, pleasant, dear; *ME* leof, lef, life ‖ *MnE* life ‖ *Gth*. liefs ‖ *OHG* liub ‖ *MnG* lieb ‖ *Russ*. любимый

leoht, liht, *n. n. a.* – light; *ME* liht ‖ *Gth*. liuhaþ ‖ *OHG* lioht ‖ *MnG* Licht

leornian, leornjan, *wv. 2* – to learn, study, read; *ME* leornen, lernen, lurnen ‖ *OHG* lernen, lirnen ‖ *MnG* lernen

leornung, liornung, *n. f. ō.* – learning, study; reading; *der. fr:* leornian

libban, *wv. 3, p. t.* lifde – to live; *later superseded by OE* lifian; *ME* livien; *MnE* to live ‖ *Gth.* liban ‖ *OHG* leben ‖ *MnG* leben

līc, *n. n. a* – body; *ME* lie, lich – body, corpse; *MnE only in* ‘lychgate’, *cf.* ȝelīc, *adv.* ‖ *Gth.* leik ‖ *OS, OFr.* lik ‖ *OHG* līh ‖ *MnG* Leiche

līc, ȝelīc, *adv.* – like, similar; *ME* lik; *also* -lik *as suff, in adjectives*

licgan, licgean, *sv. 5* – to lie, rest, be in bed; *ME* liggen, lyen; *the latter form derived from past tense* ‖ *Gth.* ligan ‖ *OHG* ligan ‖ *MnG* liegen

lician, *wv. 2* – to please; *ME* liken; *MnE* to like ‖ *OS* likōn ‖ *OFr.* likia ‖ *ON* lika

līf, *n. n. a.* – life; *ME* lif ‖ *OHG* līp, lib*MnG* Leib

liofast – *s.* **lēof**

lystan, *wv. 1* – to list, cause pleasure or desire

list – *s.* **lystan**

lytel, *adj. comp.* lǣssa, *sup.* lǣst – little; *ME* litel, lutel; lesse, lest ‖ *Gth.* leitils ‖ *OHG* luzil

lytlum, *adv.* – *s.* **lytel**, *adj.*

liþ – *3rd prs. sing. of* licgan (*s.*)

liþan, *sv. 1* – to travel

lyþer, *adj.* – base, vile; *ME* luþe ‖ *MHG* liederlich ‖ *MnG* liederlich ‖ *Russ.* лютый ‖ *Ukr.* лютий

lōcian, *wv. 2* – to look, gaze, observe; *ME* loken

– **lodlich,** *adj.* – disgusting, unpleasant

longe, *adv.* – long; *s.* **lang**, *adj.*
– longen, *v.* – to belong; desire earnestly; *OE* langian; *der. fr.* lang ‖ *OHG* langen

lufian, *wv. 2* – to love; *ME* loven; *der. fr.* lufu, *n. f.* ō ‖ *OHG* luba ‖ *MnG* liebe, lieben ‖ *OHG* lob – praise ‖ *Russ.* любить ‖ *Lat.* lubet ‖ *also s.* **lēof,** *adj.*
luflīce, *adv.* – handsomely

lufu, *n. f.* ō – love; ‖ *OHG* luba ‖ *MnG* Liebe‖*s.* **lufian, leof**

M

mā, *adv., comp.* – more; *ME* mo, moe ‖ *Gth.* mais ‖ *OHG* mēr ‖ *MnG* mehr
maclan, *wv. 2* – to make; *ME* maken, makie ‖ *OHG* machron ‖ *MnG* machen

mæd, *n. f. wo.* – m**ædwe** – meadow

maȝan, *prs.* mæȝ, maȝon, *prt.* mihte, meahte, *v. prt.-prs.* – may; to be able; *ME* may, mæiȝ; *pl.* mawen, muwen; *p. t.* mihte, mehte, me ‖ *MnG* magan, *pl.* magum ‖ *OHG* magan, *pl.* mugun ‖ *MnG* mögen ‖ *Russ.* мочь
man – *impers. prn.* < mann; *ME* man
man(n), *n. m. cons., pl.* menn – men, *ME* man, mon ‖ *Gth.* manna ‖ *OHG* mann ‖ *MnG* Mann ‖ *Russ.* муж

mænan, *wv. 1* – to tell of , to declare, relate

maniȝfealdic, *adj.* – manifold; meniȝ, maniȝ + *suff.* ~ feald + -līc

maniȝ, moniȝ, mænеȝ, *adj.* – many; *ME* many, meny, mony ‖ *Gth.* manags ‖ *OHG* manag ‖ *MnG* manch ‖ *OS* manag ‖ *OFr.* manich ‖ *Russ.* много
maþelian, *wv. 2* – to speak, discourse; *ME* maþelen ‖ *Gth.* maþeljan

mænan, *wv. 1* – to tell of , to declare, relate

mærdo, *n. f. o.* – dreatness, honour, glory

mæst – *s.* **mycel**

meahnt, meht – *s.* **miht**, *n.,* **maȝan**, *v.*
mēce, *n. n. ja* – sword, blade; *ME* mæche, meche ‖ *Gth.* mēkeis ‖ *OS* māki ‖ *ON* mækir
mechel – *s.* **mycel**
– mediacion, *n* – mediation ‖ *OF* mediation ‖ *MnF* mediation ‖ *Lat.* mediatio, medius
medu, medo, meodu, *n. m. n.* – mead, a drink made from money; *ME* mede ‖ *OHG* metu, mitu ‖ *MnG* Met ‖ *Russ.* мед
– **medwe** –*s.* **mæd, mædwe**
– **mehti** – *s.* **miht**, *n.*
mehton – *s.* **maȝan**
– meȝnee, meynee, *n.* – household ‖ *OF* maisnee ‖ *MnF* maisonnée

– melodie, *n.* – melody ‖ *OF* mélodie ‖ *L. Lat.* melōdia ‖ *Gr.* melōidiā – singing men – *s.* **man, mon**

– menden, *wv.* – to mend, improve, repair ‖ *AN* mender ‖ *rel. to Lat.* emendāre

– mene, *adj.* – *s.* **ȝemǣne**

– menen, *v.* – to mean; *s.* **mǣnan**

mengan, *wv. 1* – to mix, mingle; *ME* mengen, meynen ‖ *OHG* mengan ‖ *MnG* mengen ‖ *OS* mengian ‖ *OFr.* mengin

– menȝe – *s.* **meȝnee**

meniȝu, mengu, *n.indecl. or n. f. i.* – crowd, multitude, great number ‖ *Gth.* managel ‖ *OHG* managi, manegi ‖ *MnG* Menge ‖ *OS* menegi ‖ *OFr.* meni ‖ *Russ.* много

meole, meolus, *n. f. ō* – *ME* milk, melk ‖ *Gth.* milukus ‖ *OHG* miluh ‖ *MnG* Milch ‖ *Russ. молоко*

meole, melu, mela, *n. n. wa* – meal, flour; *ME* mele, melu ‖ *OHG* mala ‖ *MnG* Mehl ‖ *OS* melo ‖ *OFr.* mel ‖ *ON* mjo ‖ *rel. to Gth.* malan – grind ‖ *Lat.* molere ‖ *Russ. молоть*

meotud, metud, meotud, *n. m. a.* – lord, creator; *rel.* to metan, *sv.* 5 + *suff.* **-ud**

– mersy, *n.* – tranks, pity, compassion ‖ *OF* mersi ‖ *MnF* merci ‖ *Lat.* mersedem – pay, recompense

N

nāht, nāȝht, nauȝht, *prn.* – nothing, naught

nama, *n. m. n* – name; *ME* name ‖ *Gth.* namo ‖ *OHG* namo ‖ *MnG* Name ‖ *Lat.* nomen

nān = ne ān, *prp.* – none, no, not one; ME nane, none

nǣre = ne wǣre

ne, *negat. part.* – not; *ME* ne ‖ *OHG* ni, ne ‖ *Gth.* ni

nēah, nēh, nīgh, *adv., prep.* – nigh, near; *ME* neh, neih, nigh ‖ *Gth.* nēhv ‖ *OHG* nāh ‖ *MnG* nah

nele = ne wille

nēh, *adv.* **–** near; *s.* **nēah**

O

ofer, *prp.* **–** over; *ME* over ‖ *Gth.* ufar ‖ *OHG* ubar ‖ *MnG* über ‖ *OFr.* over ‖ *ON* yfir

oferwinnan, *sv. 3* **–** to conque; **ofer + winnan** (*s*)

ofslēan, *sv. 6* **–** to kill; to slay; *ME* ofslen, ofslayen; *s.* **slēan**

onbūtan, *prp.* **–** about; *ME* abouten, aboute

ōþre, ōþres . **–** *s.* **ōþer**

ōððæt, *conj.* **–** until‖

oððe, *conj.* – or

P

– peas, pais, *n.* – peace ‖ *OF* pais, peis, pes ‖ *MnF* paix ‖ *Lat.* pax, pacem

– peple, *n.* – people, nation ‖ *AN* pueple, people ‖ *OF* pople ‖ *MnF* people ‖ *Lat.*populus

pleȝa, *n. m. n* – play, game, fight; *ME* pleȝe, pleye; *s.* **pleȝian**

plōȝ, *n. m. a* – plough; measure of land; *ME* plow, *ON* plōgt

pund, *n. n. a* – pound, measure, weight; money; *ME* pund ‖ *Gth.* pund ‖ *OHG* pfunt ‖ *MnG* Pfund ‖ *fr. Lat.* pondo – 'by weight'; pondus, *n.* – weight

R

rǣdan, *sv. 7, p. t.* **reord, rēd, rǣdde** – to read; give advice; consult; take counsel; deliberate, guess; *ME* reden ‖ *Gth.* garēdan ‖ *OHG* rātan ‖ *OS* rādan ‖ *OFr.* rēda

rǣde, rǣdiȝ, ȝerǣde, *adj.* – ready, prompt; *ME* readiȝ, ready, redy ‖ *Gth.*garaiþs ‖ *OHG* reiti

reccan, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **reahte** – 1) to reach, stretch, 2) to tell a story, speak; rule, govern; *ME* recchen ‖ *Gth.* uf-rakjan ‖ *OHG* recohen, reckian

– rest, *n.* – rest, relief, repose; *ME* rest, reste; *OE* ræst ‖ *OS* rasta ‖ *OHG* rasta ‖ *MnG* Rast

rīce, *adj.* – rich, powerful; *ME* riche ‖ *Gth.* reiks ‖ *OHG* riche

rīce, *n. n. ja* – kingdom, power, rule, authority, dominion; *ME* riche ‖ *Gth.*reiki ‖ *OHG* rīchi ‖ *MnG* Reich ‖ *OS* rīki ‖ *OFr.* rīke

S

sacan, *sv. 6* – to fight, strive, disagree, accuse; *ME* only with prefixes: for – wið – saken ‖ *Gth.* sakan ‖ *OHG* sahhan ‖ *OS* sakan ‖ *ON* saka

sāwol, *n. f. ō* – soul

sǣ, *n. m/f, i; pl.* **sǣs** – the sea; *ME* se, see, sea, sei ‖ *Gth.*saiws ‖ *OHG* sēo ‖ OS sēo ‖ *OFr.* sē ‖ *ON* sǣr, sjōr

sǣde – *s.* **secgan**

sǣ-draca, *n. m. n* – sea dragon

sǣȝon – sēon

sǣl – *s.* **sēl, sǣliȝ**

sǣne, *adj.* – slow, dull, inactive ‖ *Gth.* sainjan – to tarry ‖ *OHG* seine ‖ *ON* seinn

– scapen, *v.* – escape ‖ *OF.* escaper ‖ *MnF.*échapper ‖ *Lat.* ex + cappa – cap

scaþa, sceaþa, sceþþu, *n. m. n* – harm, injury; **sceaþa,** *n. m. n* – enemy; *ME* scaðe, scathe; *MnE* only unscathed (*adj.*) ‖ *Gth.* skaþis = wrong ‖ *OHG* scado = harm ‖ *MnG* Schaden

sceaȝa, *n. m. n* – shaw, small copse, small wood encompassing, a close; *ME* shawe ‖ *ON* skagi – low cape ‖ *OFr.* skage

sceal – *s.* **sculan,** *v. prt. prs.*

scēap, *n. n. a* – sheep; *ME* scep, scheep, shep ‖ *OHG* scāf ‖ *MnG* Schaf ‖ *OFr.* skēp

scearu *n. f. ō* – cutting, shearing, the ecclesiastical tonsure ‖ *OHG* scara – troop ‖ *OHG* skeran – to divide ‖ *MnG* Schere ‖ *ON* skari

scēat *n. m. a* – corner, region, nook, lap, bosom, garment; *ME* schete, scet; *MnE* sheet ‖ *Gth.* skauts ‖ *OHG* skōz ‖ *MnG* Schoss ‖ *OFr.* skāt ‖ *ON* skaut

scēawian, scēawiȝan, *wv. 2* – to look, observe, consider, inspect, examine

T

talu, *n. f. ō* – tale, story, talk; account; *ME* tale ‖ *OHG* zala ‖ *MnG* Zahl
tapur, *n. m. a* – taper, light; *ME* taper
tǣcean, tǣcan, *wv. 1 irr., p. t.* tāhte – to teach; *ME* techen, taute, teite; *rel. to* tācen (*s.*)
teche – *s.* **tǣcan**
teon, *sv. 2, p. t.* teah, tuʒon, *ptple* toʒen – to draw, pull; bring up; proceed; *ME* teon, ten; *ptple* the ‖ *Gth.* tiuhan ‖ *OHG* ziohan ‖ *MnG* ziehen ‖ *Lat.* duco, ducere
theorik, *n.* – theory ‖ *OF* theorique ‖ *Lat.* theoria ‖ *Gr.* theoria
though – *s.* **þēan**
thre – *s.* **þreō**
tima, *n. m. n* – time, period of time ‖ *ON* timi
timbrian, timbran, *wv. 2* – to build; *ME* timbre; *der. fr. subst. stem* timbre = building material, wood; M*nE* timber ‖ *Gth.* timrjan ‖ *OHG* zimbaren ‖ *MnG* zimmern
tin – *s.* **tēne**
tyrnan, *wv. 1* – to turn; *ME* turnen ‖ *OHG* turnen ‖ *Lat.* tornāre
tō, *prp., adv.* – to; *ME* to ‖ *OHG* zuo ‖ *MnG* zu
to-dælan, *wv. 1* – to divide, separate, distribute; *pref.* tō- + dælan
treo, trēow, *n. f. ō* – tree; *ME* tre, tree ‖ *Gth.* triu ‖ *OS* trio ‖ *OFr.* trē ‖ *ON* trē ‖ *OSl.* древо
trēow, trȳw, *adj.* – true; *ME* trewe, truwe ‖ *Gth.* triggws ‖ *OHG* triuwi ‖ *MnG* Treue
treowþu, trywþ, *n. f. ō/i* – truth, good faith, honour; *ME* theuthe, trewthe ‖ *OHG* ga-triuwida ‖ *ON* trygoo ‖ *s.* **trēow**
tūn, *n. m. a* – town, dwelling-plase, village, enclosed piece of ground, yard; *ME* tour, tun, town ‖ *OHG* zūn ‖ *MnG* Zaun = a fence
turnen, *v.* – *s.* **tyrnan**
twiwa, *adj.* – twice
twā – *s.* **tweʒen** = two
twām – *s.* **tweʒen**
tweʒen, *adj. m.*; **twā** *f.;* **tu** *n.* = two; *ME* tweʒen, tweine; twa, two ‖ *Gth.* twai, twōs, twā ‖ *OHG* zwēne, zwā, zwei ‖ *MnG* zwei ‖ *Lat.* duo ‖ *Russ.* два

Þ (= Ð)

þā, *adv., conj.* – then, when; *ME* tho, thoo ‖ *OHG* dō
þā – *dem. prn., pl.*
þanne, þonne, þeonne, *adv.* – then, when; *ME* þan, þenne ‖ *Gth.* þan ‖ *OHG* dann, denne ‖ *MnG* dann
þǣr, þār, *adv.* – there, where; *ME* þer, ther, there, þare ‖ *Gth.* þār ‖ *OHG* dār
þæt – 1) that – *dem. prn.*; 2) that – *conj.*; *ME* that, thet ‖ *Gth.* þata ‖ *OHG* daz ‖ *MnG* das ‖ *Russ.* то
þe – *relative particle, often enclitically joined to pronouns or adverbs*
þē – *s.* **þū**
þēah, *adv., conj.* – though, yet; *ME* theigh, *superseded by* ‘though’, *fr. Scand.* þōh ‖ *Gth.* þauh ‖ *OHG* dōh ‖ *MnG* doch
þeʒn, þeʒen, *n. m. a* – thane, retainer, follower, servant, man, warrior; *ME* theine, þeign

‖ *OHG* degan ‖ *MnG* Degen

þeh – *s.* **þēah**

þencan, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* þōhte – to think; *ME* þenchen, thenkan, þinken ‖ *Gth*. þagkjan, *p. t.* þāhta ‖ *OHG* denchen, dahta ‖ *MnG* denken, dachte ‖ *OS* thenkian ‖ *OFr*. thanka ‖ *ON* þekkja

þēod, þīod, *n. f. ō* – people, nation, language (*but more often* ȝeþēode); *ME* þēod, þede ‖ *Gth*. þiuda ‖ *OHG* diota, diot (*cf*. diutisc > deutsch)

þēos, þis, *dem. prn.* – this

þeostru, þiestru, *n. f. ō* – darkness (*often used in the plural*); *ME* þestere, þustre, þeostre ‖ *MHG* diustri ‖ *MnG* Düster

þēow, *n. m. a, or* **þēowa,** *n. m. n* – servant; *ME* þewe, þeu ‖ *Gth*. þius ‖ *OHG* dēo

þider, þyder, *adv*. – to that place, thither ‖ *ON* þaora

þin, *poss. prn.* – thy, thine; *ME* thene, thy, thi ‖ *Gth*. þeins ‖ *OHG* din ‖ *MnG* dein ‖ *OFr*. thin ‖ *ON* þinn

þyncan, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **þūhte** – to seem, appear; *in MnE merged with* þencan; *ME* þunchen, þenche ‖ *Gth*. þygkjan ‖ *OHG* dunchan ‖ *OS* thunkina ‖ *ON* þykkja ‖ *MnG* dünken

þing, *n. n. a.* – thing, object, conduct, meeting, cour; *ME* thing, thinge ‖ *OHG* ding ‖ *MnG* Ding

þonne, *adv*. – then, than; *s.* **þanne**

þrāwan, *sv. 1, p. t.* **þrēow** – to turn, twist, torture; *cf*. to throw, twist; *ME* thrawen, throwe – to turn, throw; *MnE* to throw ‖ *OHG* drājan ‖ *MnG* drehen

þrēo, *num*. – three; *ME* three, thre, thrie ‖ *Gth*. þreis ‖ *OHG* dri ‖ *MnG* drei ‖ *Lat*. trēs ‖ *Russ*. три

þrȳ – *s.* **þrēo**

þridda, *num*. – third; *s.* **þrēo**

þritiȝ, *num*. – thirty; **þrēo** (*s.*) + suff. -tiȝ

þurfan, *v., prt. – prs.* **þearf; þurfon; þorfte** – to de in need of smth., need to do smth. ‖ *Gth*. þarf, þaúrbum; þaúrfta ‖ *OHG* darf, durfan, dorfta ‖ *MnG* dürfen ‖ *OS* tharf, thurbun ‖ *OFr*. thurf, thurvon ‖ *ON* þurfa

þurh, þuruh, *prp., adv.* – through ‖ *Gth*. þairh ‖ *OHG* duruh; pu ‖ *The metathetic forms* (þruh, throught) *appear since 1300; become universal in XV.*

U

under, *prp., adv.* – under; *ME* under ‖ *Gth*. under ‖ *OHG* untar ‖ *MnG* unter ‖ *OS* undar ‖ *OFr*. under ‖ *ON* under

underȝeat – *s*. **underȝietan**

underȝietan, **underȝetan**, *sv. 5* – to understand, perceive

unlifiȝend, *adj*. – lifeless

unlūcan, *sv. 2* – to unlock; un + lūcan, *sv*. 2; *ME* loken ‖ *OHG* lūhhan

unnan, ann, unnon, *v., prt. -prs., p. t.* **uþe** – to grant, do a favour; *ME* unnen ‖ *OHG* unnan ‖ *MnG* gönnen ‖ *ON* unna

unspēdiȝ, *adj*. – without means, poor

upp, ūp, *adv*. – up; *ME* up ‖ *Gth*. iup ‖ *OHG* ūf ‖ *MnG* auf

uppon, *prp*. – upon; *ME* upon ‖ *OHG* uffan ‖ *influenced by Scand. prp.* uppa + *prp*. on.

In OE the first syllable was stressed.
ūt, *adv*. – out; *ME* out, oute ‖ *Gth*. ūt ‖ *OHG* ūz ‖ *MnG* aus ‖ *ON* ūt
ūtan, ūton, *adv*., *prp*. – from without, on the outside
ūtbrinʒan, *v. irr*. – to bring out; *s.* **ūt + brinʒan**

W

welcan, *sv. 7, p. t.* **wēolc** – to roll, toss (of water), move; walk; *ME* walken ‖ *OHG* gevalchen
wǣron = were; *s*. **bēon**
wæs = was; *s*. **bēon**
wē, *prs. prn*. – we ‖ *MnG* wir ‖ *ON* ver ‖ *cf. dat. and acc.* us *with Lat*. nōs ‖ *Russ*. нас
weald, *n. m. a* – forest; *ME* walde ‖ *OHG* walt, wald ‖ *MnG* Wald
weall, *n. m. a* – wall; *ME* wall ‖ *Lat*. vallum
weʒ, *n. m. a* – way; on weʒ – away; *ME* wey, way ‖ *Gth*. wigs ‖ *OFr*. wei ‖ *ON* verg
wel, *adv*. – well, quite; *ME* wel, wæl ‖ *Gth*. waila ‖ *OHG* wela, wola ‖ *MnG* wohl
wendan, *wv. 1* – to turn, move, change; go; translate; *ME* wenden – to go, turn, change one's course (*caus*. to windan); *MnE* went; *also* to wend one's way ‖ *Gth*. wandjan ‖ *OHG* wenten ‖ *MnG* wenden ‖ *In XVI the past tense* 'went' *began to be used as the past tense of the verb* 'to go'.
weorc, *n. n. a* – work, performance, labour, fortress; *ME* werk, work ‖ *OHG* werah ‖ *MnG* Werk ‖ *OS* werk ‖ *OFr*. werk ‖ *ON* verk
weorold, woruld, *n. f. i* – world, state of existence, men and things upon earth; an age, a person's lifetime; *ME* world, werld; *fr.* *wer(l)man + ald = old age ‖ *OHG* weralt ‖ *MnG* Welt
weorold-cund, *adj*. – earthly, temporal
weorþan, *sv. 3* – to become, come to be, arise, happen; *ME* wurþen, *refers to future; later disappears* ‖ *Gth.* wairþan ‖ *OHG* werdan ‖ *MnG* warden ‖ *Lat*. vertere ‖ *Russ*. вертеть
weorpan, *sv. 3* – to throw, fling; *ME* werpen; *MnE* warp (*for change of meaning cf.* **þrāwan**) ‖ *Gth*. wairpan ‖ *OHG* werfan ‖ *MnG* werfen
wesan, *sv. 5* (*no ptple*) – to be; *only p. t. forms are preserved, the present tense forms are suppletive to* wesan; *ME only finite p. t. forms*: wes, was, weren, were, wæren ‖ *Gth*. wisan ‖ *OHG* wesan
wīcian, *wv. 2* – to dwell; *ME* wikien (*fr*. wīc, *n. n. a* – dwelling-place)
wīd, *adj*. – wide, broad; *ME* wide ‖ *OHG* wīt ‖ *MnG* weit ‖ *OS* wīd ‖ *OFr*. wīd ‖ *ON* vīðr
widuwe, wuduwe, weoduwe, *n. f. n* – widow; *ME* widewe ‖ *Gth*. widuwō ‖ *OHG* witjwa ‖ *MnG* Witwe ‖ *Os* witowa ‖ *OFr*. widwe ‖ *Russ*. вдова
wīf, *n. n. a* – wife, woman; *ME* wife, wif ‖ *OHG* wīp ‖ *MnG* Weib
wīfman, *n. m. cons*. – woman; *ME* wummon, wifmon, wimman; *s*. **wīf, man**
willan, wyllan, *v. irr., p. t.* **wolde** – to wish, will, intend, to be about to (*of future action*); *ME* willen ‖ *Gth*. willan ‖ *OHG* wellen, wollan ‖ *MnG* wollen ‖ *Lat*. volo ‖ *Russ*. неволить
window, *n*. – window, *ME* windoʒe; *perhaps rel. to ON* vindauga – the eye of the wind
winnan, *sv. 3* – to toil hard, labour; make war, fight; win; *ME* winnen ‖ *Gth*. winnan ‖ *OHG* winnan

winter, *n. m. a* – winter; a year; *ME* winter ‖ *Gth*. wintrus ‖ *OHG* wintar ‖ *MnG* Winter
wyrcan, wircan, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **worhte** – to work, labour, make, construct, perform; *ME* wirken, wirchen, wurchen; *MnE* work – *by conversion fr.* noun ‖ *Gth*. waúrkjan ‖ *OHG* wurchen, wirchen ‖ *MnG* wirken
wyrsa/wiersa, *adj*. (*comp. to* **yfel**) – worse; *ME* wurs, wars ‖ *Gth*. wairsiza
wis, *adj*. – wise, judicious; *ME* wise ‖ *Gth*. weis ‖ *OHG* wis ‖ *MnG* weise ‖ *s*. **witan**
wīse, *n. m. a* – way, manner, mode, state; *ME* wise; *MnE* otherwise ‖ *OHG* wīsa ‖ *MnG* Weise ‖ *OS* wīsa ‖ *OFr*. wīs ‖ *ON* vīsa
wisdōm, *n. m. a* – wisdom; *ME* wisdom; *fr*. **wis** + *suff*. **-dōm**
wita, *n. m. a* – a wise man; counselor; *ME* wite; *s*. **witan** ‖ *Gth*. un-wita = foolish ‖ *OHG* wizzo
witan, *v. prt. -prs., prt*. **twāt, witon**, *p. t.* **wiste** – to know; *ME* witen ‖ *Gth*. witan ‖ *OHG* wizzan ‖ *MnG* wissen ‖ *Russ*. ведать
wið, *prp*. – against, with; *ME* wið, with
word, *n. n. a* – word; *ME* word ‖ *Gth*. waúrd ‖ *OHG* wort ‖ *MnG* Wort ‖ *Lat*. verbum
word-ȝyd, *n. n. i* – a lay, song
worhte – *s*. **wyrcan**
worold – *s*. **weorold**
wrecan, *sv. 5* – to drive, press, punish, take vengeance on; *ME* wreken ‖ *Gth*. wrikan ‖ *OHG* rechan ‖ *MnG* rächen
wreccan, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **wreathe** – to raise, lift, rouse; ME wrecchen
– wrecche, *abj*. – wretched; *s*. **wrecan**
wrītan, *sv. 1* – to write; *ME* written ‖ *OHG* rīzan ‖ *MnG* reißen – tear, draw ‖ *ON* rīta scratch, cut, write
wrītere, *n. m. ja* – written; scribe; *s*. **writan** + *suff*. **-ere**
wudu, wiodu, widu, *n. m. a* – wood; forest; *ME* wude, wode ‖ *OHG* witu ‖ *ON* vidr
wulf, *n. m. a* – a wolf; *ME* wolf ‖ *OHG* wolf ‖ *Gth*. wulfs ‖ *Lat*. lupus ‖ *Russ*. волк
wundian, ȝewundian, *wv. 2* – to wound; *ME* wunden, woundi ‖ *Gth*. ga-wun-dōn ‖ *OHG* wuntōn ‖ *MnG* wunden
wundor, *n. n .a* – wonder, smth. that excites wonder, feeling of wonder, admiration; *ME* wunder, wonder ‖ *OHG* wuntar
wundorlic, *adj*. – wonderful: **wundor**(s.) + *suff*. **-līc**
wundrian, *wv. 2* – to wonder, feel surprise; *ME* wundrie, wondren ‖ *OHG* wuntaron ‖ *MnG* wundern

KEY TO SELF-STUDY TESTS

Check your answers to the exercises in the **Self-Study** tests.

SELF-STUDY TEST 1(the 1st theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **a**	1. **B**
2. **T**	2. **c**	2. **E**
3. **F**	3. **d**	3. **F**
4. **T**	4. **b**	4. **I**
5. **T**	5. **c**	5. **C**
6. **T**	6. **a**	6. **G**
7. **F**	7. **c**	7. **D**
8. **F**	8. **d**	8. **A**
9. **T**	9. **a**	9. **H**
10. **F**	10. **b**	10. **J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 2(the 2nd theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **c**	1. **B**
2. **T**	2. **a**	2. **E**
3. **F**	3. **c**	3. **F**
4. **F**	4. **b**	4. **I**
5. **F**	5. **d**	5. **C**
6. **F**	6. **a**	6. **G**
7. **T**	7. **b**	7. **D**
8. **T**	8. **a**	8. **A**
9. **T**	9. **c**	9. **H**
10. **T**	10. **a**	10. **J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 3 (the 3rd theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **b**	1. **B**
2. **F**	2. **a**	2. **E**
3. **T**	3. **c**	3. **F**
4. **T**	4. **d**	4. **I**
5. **F**	5. **a**	5. **C**
6. **T**	6. **d**	6. **G**
7. **T**	7. **b**	7. **D**
8. **F**	8. **c**	8. **A**

9. **T**	9. **d**	9. **H**
10. **T**	10. **a**	10. **J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 4 (the 4th theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **a**	1. **B**
2. **F**	2. **c**	2. **E**
3. **T**	3. **b**	3. **F**
4. **F**	4. **d**	4. **I**
5. **T**	5. **a**	5. **C**
6. **T**	6. **a**	6. **G**
7. **T**	7. **c**	7. **D**
8. **F**	8. **d**	8. **A**
9. **F**	9. **a**	9. **H**
10. **T**	10. **b**	10. **J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 5 (the 5th theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **b**	1. **B**
2. **F**	2. **d**	2. **E**
3. **T**	3. **a**	3. **F**
4. **F**	4. **c**	4. **I**
5. **F**	5. **a**	5. **C**
6. **T**	6. **b**	6. **G**
7. **T**	7. **d**	7. **D**
8. **F**	8. **a**	8. **A**
9. **T**	9. **b**	9. **H**
10. **T**	10. **c**	10. **J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 6 (the 6th theme)

TRUE OR FALSE	MULTIPLE CHOICE	MATCHING
1. **T**	1. **b**	1. **B**
2. **T**	2. **c**	2. **E**
3. **T**	3. **a**	3. **F**
4. **F**	4. **c**	4. **I**
5. **T**	5. **a**	5. **C**
6. **F**	6. **b**	6. **G**
7. **F**	7. **c**	7. **D**
8. **F**	8. **d**	8. **A**
9. **T**	9. **a**	9. **H**
10. **T**	10. **d**	10. **J**

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МАТКОВСЬКА Марія Василівна

AN INTRODUCTION TO OLD ENGLISH

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