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AN INTRODUCTION TO MIDDLE AND EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

Навчально-методичний посібник

видання 10-е, виправлене і доповнене

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*Друкується за ухвалою вченої ради
Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка
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Навчально-методичний посібник спрямований на формування у здобувачів першого бакалаврського рівня мовно-мовленнєвої компетентності, яка дозволяє аналізувати та пояснювати лінгвістичні явища з точки зору їх історичного розвитку. Структурно посібник складається з 8 тематичних модулів: *An Introduction to Middle English* (1066–1475), *Middle English Phonology, Middle English Grammar, Middle English Vocabulary; An Introduction to Early Modern English* (1475–1660), *Early Modern English Phonology, Early Modern English Grammar, Early Modern English Vocabulary;* у зазначених вище модулях викладено основні етапи розвитку фонетичної і граматичної будови середньоанглійської та ранньоновоанглійської 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 здобувачів першого бакалаврського рівня з історії англійської мови.
Для здобувачів-філологів вищих навчальних закладів.

CONTENTS

PREFACE

"… the powers of a mature and well-balanced English style … and possessing in itself timeless attributes of all good speech: sincerity, clarity and vigour.
The English language has grown in a hundred ways".

(John Bunyan, Daniel Defoe, Jonathan Swift)

The present educational manual *"An Introduction to Middle and Early Modern English"* outlines the development of the English language from the 11th to the 17th c.

The constituent parts of the internal structure of Middle and Early Modern English – the sounds, spelling, grammar and vocabulary, as well as the relevant historical conditions – are treated separately, through all the periods so as to show their uninterrupted evolution and gradual transition from Middle to Modern English. However, our purpose is not historical study for its own sake. Historical perspective is considered in so far as it has a close bearing on the state of things in the English language of today and it has been attempted throughout to make clear its relevance to the facts of present-day English.

The course is taught through 8 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 Middle and Early Modern English texts.

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

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

In general, this course will supply students with an overview of the history of Middle and Early Modern 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.

This handbook would not have been possible without the help of many people.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 1

AN INTRODUCTION TO MIDDLE ENGLISH (1066–1475)

LECTURE 1

> *To call Middle English a 'dialect age', as some do, is not meant to suggest that dialects were any more or any less frequent or important than in Anglo-Saxon times or in later periods of the language.*
>
> David Crystal. *The Stories of English.* – London: Penguin Books, 2004: 105

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

Points for discussion:

Introduction
1.1. Social History
1.2. The Norman Conquest of 1066 and its influence on English culture and life
1.3. The decline of French
1.4. Middle English dialects
1.5. Middle English writing
1.6. Towards a new written standard for English
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

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

| East Midland dialect | Magna Carta |

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1995. P. 30–39.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 111–117.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 2–5.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 16–21.

Additional:

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

Introduction

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

1. Social History

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

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

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

The Anglo-Saxon period drew to an end with the ascendance of Danish kings to

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

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

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

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

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

In the five or so generations that separated Hlófr and William, the Vikings had assimilated in significant measure to their French 'host'. They also became French speakers, although their variety, known as Norman French, retained Scandinavian influences. But the desire for conquest and land which had driven their forefathers remained, and Emma's sons may well has been encouraged by their Norman guardians to stake their claim to the English throne. In 1036, they arrived in England to consult with their mother on this prospect. Edward, more politically sensitive than his brother,

managed to escape the hostility to his claim by returning to Normandy. Alfred, however, stayed – a decision that cost him his life at the hands of Godwine and Harold's men (Singh, 2005: 105).

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

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

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

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

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

> *When Edward died, **Harold** was offered the throne, and 'the funeral of one king on the Feast of Epiphany 1066 was followed, later that same day, by the coronation of another, **Harold II'*** (Schama, 2000: 89).

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

Figure 1.1. The Norman Conquest of 1066

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

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

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

It is likely that the new Norman aristocracy staffed their households with their own retainers and guards, and soldiers from the Continent, as mentioned above, were garrisoned around the country. Merchants and craftsmen also moved their businesses to England. It is impossible to quantify exactly how many of these newcomers, in all walks of life, settled in England under William and his sons, but what is certain is that they never outnumbered the general English population. However, because the Normans

13

largely became members of the governing classes, their 'influence was out of all proportion to their number' (ibid.: 114).

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

14

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. The decline of French

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

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

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

4. Middle English dialects

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

The lack of a written standard in Middle English is a natural consequence of the low status of English during this period. After the Norman Conquest in 1066, the ruling classes spoke (Norman) French, while English lived on as the spoken language of the lower classes. In the absence of a high-prestige variety of English which might serve as a target for writers of English, each writer simply used his own variety of the language. The Old English dialects evolved and became ME dialects: Kentish, Southern, East-Midland and West-Midland, Northern, stretched from the middle of Yorkshire to Scotland and so subsumed Scots, the English variety of the lowlands. Scots came to be used as a literary standard in Scotland from the late fourteenth century onwards, and has been especially noted as the medium for the work of the fifteenth-century 'Chaucerian poets' of the Scottish court. We will not pursue the history of Scots here, but the interested student is referred to Barber (2009).

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

variety (Fennell, 2001: 109).

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

Figure 1.2. A map of Middle English dialects

Note: All dialect borders merely suggestive!

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

Thus the year 1066 is the date of the Norman Conquest in England. The conquest symbolizes the beginning of a new social, cultural and linguistic era in Great Britain, i.e. the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th c. Undoubtedly French as the language of conquerors influenced English greatly. French or Norman French was immediately established as the dominant language of the ruling class. Strikingly but Anglo-Saxon dialects were not suppressed. During the following 300 years communication in England went on in three languages: 1) at the monasteries learning was

conducted in Latin; 2) **Norman French** was spoken at court and in official institutions; 3) the common people held firmly to their mother tongue.

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

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

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

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

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

The ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*** is not a single text, but a compilation from several sources which differ in date and place of origin. It takes the form of a year-by-year diary, with some years warranting extensive comment, some a bare line or two and many nothing at all. Most ancient European chronicles were kept in Latin. There are seven

surviving chronicle manuscripts, six of which are completely in Old English, the seventh partly in Latin. The scholars have given each text a distinguishing letter name, but they are commonly known by the name of their source location or that of an early owner (David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language,* 1995: 15).

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

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

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

5. Middle English writing

Obviously, the advent of Norman French did not determine the use of Old English dialects. Conservative forms of English were still in use until about 1150. For instance, the archbishopric of Canterbury was fairly resistant to linguistic changes.
The move from Old to Middle English was not a drastic but a gradual development. Nevertheless, there is a recognizable gap in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus. This is the consequence of the political changes after the Norman Conquest. Written English was basically non-existent for about 100-150 years.

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

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

The development of the national language was greatly promoted by the work of **Geoffrey Chaucer** (1340–1400), an outstanding poet, *"father of English Poetry"* as

many historians style him. Chaucer's best-known work ***The Canterbury Tales*** is the variety of the written language which has been carefully crafted. It contains many variations in word order and frequent literary allusions. Chaucer has managed to capture so vividly the intriguing characters, and to reflect so naturally the colloquial features of their speech. And it is acknowledged by many scholars that no other author, except Chaucer, who would have better supported for the view that there is an underlying correspondence between the natural rhythm of English poetry and that of English everyday conversation (David Crystal's *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* 1995: 38).

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

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

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

Figure 1.3. Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400), *The Canterbury Tales*

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

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

21

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

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

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

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

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

6. Towards a new written standard for English

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

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

In summary, we may conclude that with the emergence of English as a standard

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

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

Chancery comes from the word *chancel,* or chapel of the king, where the chaplains of the court originally spent their time between services, writing the king's letters. **Chancery English** contributed to the development of a form of writing that was a standard, irrespective of the speech or dialect of the writer. Spelling was standardized without regard for pronunciation. Writing became truly conventional and arbitrary. The term **Chancery** first appears in English in the late fourteenth century, referring to an additional court, presided over by the Lord Chancellor of England. Chancery English established special forms of spelling and handwriting that were taught to scribes for the production of official documents. Among the features which have been suggested as typical of Chancery style are:

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

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

Summary

Middle English is the name given to the English language spoken in Great Britain from the 11th century to the 15th century (1066–1475). The English, or rather, Anglo-Norman literary monuments of Medieval England reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: religious works were written in Latin; chivalric poetry was predominantly French, while folk-lore continued to develop in English. Thus, without losing its native basis, the English language was becoming in the 14th century more flexible and profiting by the trilingual situation to have been finally turned into a general

language for all layers of society. By using Chancery English, **William Caxton** established a national literary standard in printing based on the written standard of official documentation. This was a radical change in the notion of a standard and in a standard's relationship to regional dialect and official forms.

Questions for self-control

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

SELF-STUDY 1

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

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

1.1.1. *History of English – The ME Period*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vLFihdWwmfw
1.1.2. *Middle English – Transitions from Old English with added diversity*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tQmaD0UMDjo
1.1.3. *Geoffrey Chaucer– The Canterbury Tales*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MpVAuQUlI-k
1.1.4. *Chaucer, Lesson 1– Historical Context for the Canterbury Tales*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1epKYZURHB
1.1.5. *Chaucer, Lesson 2 – Middle English-Introduction to the Canterbury Tales*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZLKAD0tESUc
1.1.6. *The Middle English Period, Part 1*
   http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5Z_oI7L9ODA

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:
   ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 30–39.
   ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 111–117.
   ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition, 2008. Part II. –P. 2–5.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 16–21.

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

1.2. Computer tests in e-learning

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

1. *Middle English*, in the words of Barbara Strang, is *"'par excellence'*, the dialectal phase of *English"*, i.e. the period in which dialectal variation was represented in writing.
2. The languages of *Latin, French* and *English* were functioning in medieval England.
3. *The Norman Conquest* of 1166 changed the whole course of *the English language*.
4. *Middle English* (1066–1475) was the period of transition from feudalism to capitalism.
5. The historical event that triggered very few changes in the *Middle English* period was *the Norman Conquest* of England.
6. At the time of *the Conquest*, the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms were politically strong due to internal quarrels.
7. The Normans brought the *feudal system* to *the British Isles* and took the key positions in the state and church.
8. The Normans imported their language – *Norman French* to the British soil.
9. *English* was the dominant language in medieval England, while *French* was spoken by the majority of the population.
10. *The Norman Conquest* marked the conventional *transition* from *Old English* to *Middle English.*

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.
1. There is a recognizable … in the transition from the Old English to the Middle English text corpus.
   A evidence   **B** sign   **C** trace   **D** gap
2. The Norman French ruling class used ….
   A French or Latin   **B** Latin or English
   C English or French   **D** French or English
3. The West Saxon written standard was replaced by ….
   A Latin and English texts   **B** French and Latin texts
   C French and English texts   **D** English and French texts
4. Due to the absence of a written standard for English, this literature is highly ….
   A hypothetical   **B** conventional
   C traditional   **D** dialectal
5. The development of the national language was greatly promoted by the work of … an outstanding poet, *"father of English Poetry".*
   A Geoffrey Chaucer   **B** William Caxton
   C King Alfred   **D** William Shakespeare
6. Chaucer's best-known work … is the variety of the written language which has been carefully crafted.

    A The Cambridge Encyclopedia   **B** The Ecclesiastical History
    C The Canterbury Tales   **D** The Stories of English

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

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

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

10. English literature was flourishing gradually in the 14th c., reflecting the culmination of the medieval genres and promoting the way to the $\underline{\dots}$.
    A the Romanticism   **B** the Enlightenment
    C the Renaissance   **D** the Classicism;

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

A The Old English dialects evolved and became ME dialects:

B South-Western (SW) (or simply Southern) is $\underline{\dots}$.

C South-Eastern (SE) $\underline{\dots}$.

D East Midland (EM $\underline{\dots}$.

E West Midland (WM) $\underline{\dots}$.

F Northern (N) $\underline{\dots}$.

G The London dialect $\underline{\dots}$.

H The Conquest of 1066 $\underline{\dots}$.

I During the following 300 years communication in medieval England went on $\underline{\dots}$.

J Norman-French or Anglo-French, the language of the ruling class in medieval history of English, was $\underline{\dots}$.

    1. $\underline{\dots}$ a continuation of OE West Saxon.
    2. $\underline{\dots}$ Kentish, Southern, Northern, East-Midland and West-Midland.
    3. $\underline{\dots}$ or Kentish.
    4. $\underline{\dots}$ north of the Humber.
    5. $\underline{\dots}$ became the written form of official and literary papers in the late 14th century; thus constituting the famous literary and cultural London – Oxford – Cambridge triangle.
    6. $\underline{\dots}$ symbolizes the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th c.
    7. $\underline{\dots}$ in three languages.
    8. $\underline{\dots}$ the variety of the Northern dialect of French, spoken predominantly by -speaking noblemen and their descendants in Britain.
    9. $\underline{\dots}$ the western part of the OE Mercian area.
    10. $\underline{\dots}$ the eastern part of the OE Mercian area.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 2

MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

LECTURE 2

> *"A language is a structural system of arbitrary vocal sounds which is used, or can be used, in interpersonal communication" by an aggregation of human beings, and which rather exhaustively catalogues the things, events and processes in the human environment".*
>
> (J. Carrol)

Aims:

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

Points for discussion:

Introduction

2.1. Middle English Spelling Changes

2.2. Changes in Unstressed Vowels

2.3. Changes in Stressed Vowels

    2.3.1. Quantitative Changes

    2.3.2. Qualitative Changes

        2.3.2.1. *Monophthongs*

        2.3.2.2. *Old Diphthongs*

        2.3.2.3. *New Diphthongs*

2.4. Changes in Consonants

Summary

Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

Unstressed Vowels	Vocalization
Quantitative Changes	Loss of Initial **h**
Qualitative Changes	Weakening of the Final Nasal
Monophthongization	Simplification of Double Consonants
"the period of levelled endings"	Growth of New Diphthongs
Palatalized Consonants	*"lax"/"tense"; "checked"/"free"*

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 40–43.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 117–120.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 34–39.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 111–117.

Introduction

An important point to be borne in mind in reviewing the vowel changes that took place during the Middle English period is the ever **more pronounced effect** of the **strong word-stress** on the phonetic structure of words, the increasing difference between the articulation of vowels in stressed syllables, on the one hand, and in unstressed position, on the other.

According to the **Germanic-stress** rule, most words in the Middle English period were stressed on the first syllable. Loan-words first retained their original stress, but gradually they were assimilated to the English system of word stress. Though there are cases when loan words preserve their alien pronunciation as well as the native one, for example, the older English speakers pronounce *garáge* with the stress on the second syllable (the French system of accentuation), whereas the younger generation stresses the first syllable *gárage* (the English system of accentuation). Such mixed patterns seem to have existed in Middle English.

In polysyllabic words, a special stress-pattern existed, known as **Countertonic** Principle (Horodin, 2002: 53), that is the *'balancing of the main stress'*. Countertonic Principle reflects a regular alteration between stress and non-stress within a polysyllabic lexeme, one of these was less prominent than the other and thus stressed as secondary, e.g. *ótherwìse, líkehòod.*

2.1. Middle English Spelling Changes

The **orthographic** system of Middle English may be characterised as unstable, inconsistent and heterogeneous mainly because of dialectal diversity, and lack of literary standards. After the period of Anglo-Norman dominance (11th–13th c.), the writing tradition was in the hands of those, who knew French. So, French scribes introduced the European in form, manner of writing. In the ME period, quite a few changes were made to spelling conventions, one of the results of which, for the modern reader, is to make English seem much more familiar. Some of these resulted from the influence of Norman scribes, and others were re-introductions of orthographic practice which had become

obsolete during the OE period.

One of the consequences of the Norman Conquest was the **French influence** on **English spelling.** Those letters which the French did not employ gradually went out of use. They were the letters **æ, þ, ð, 3**. New letters were introduced, such as **g, j, k, q, v.**

Many new digraphs and combinations of letters came into use, such as **th, sh, ch, gh, ph, dg, ck, gu, qu, ou,** or **ow.** The digraphs **ou, ie**, and **ch** which occurred in many French borrowings and were regularly used in Anglo-Norman texts were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:] and [tʃ].

E.g. OE *wiþ,* ME *wi**th**;*
OE *fisc,* ME *fi**sh**;*
OE *cin,* ME *ch**in**;*
OE *niht*, ME *ni**ght**;*
OE *ec3*, ME *e**dg**e;*
OE *loc,* ME *lo**ck**;*
OE *gæst,* ME *g**u**est;*
OE *cwēn,* ME *q**u**een;*
OE *hūs,* ME *ho**u**s,* ModE *house;*
OE *nū,* ME *now.*

The letters **j, k, v**, and **q** were probably first used in imitation of French manuscripts. The twofold use of **g** and **c** owes its origin to French: these letters usually stood for **[d3]** and **[s]** before front vowels and for [**g**] and [**k**] before back vowels.

E.g. ME *gentil* [d3en'til], *mercy* [mer'**s**i] and *good* [**g**o:d], *cours* [**k**u:rs], ModE *gentle, mercy, good, course.*

There was a tendency to use **ow** at the end of a word and **ou** in other positions. It became usual to mark the length of a vowel by doubling it, especially in closed syllables. Thus **ee** and **oo** were used to denote **[ē]** and **[ō].**

E.g. OE *swēt,* ME *sweet,* ModE *sweet;*
OE *3ōd,* ME *good,* ModE *good.*

Sometimes the sound **[ē]**, chiefly in French borrowings, was denoted by the digraphs **ie** or **ei**.

E.g. ME *chief* < OF *chef;* ME *deceiven* (ModE *deceive*) < OF *deceveir.* Many letters changed their signification.

The letter **u**, for instance, which had denoted only one sound in OE, **[u],** was employed, after the French fashion, to denote also the labial front vowel **[ü]** formerly expressed by **y.**

E.g. OE *bysi3,* ME *busy.*
The corresponding long vowel was usually marked **ui.**
E.g. OE *fÿr,* ME *fuir,* ModE *fire.*
The letter **y** came to denote the sounds **[i]** and **[j].**
E.g. OE *his,* ME *his, hys;*
OE *dǣ3,* ME *day.*

There was a tendency to use the letter **i** at the beginning and in the middle of words, and the letter **y** at the end of a word to separate it from the next one, as there were often no intervals between words.

The letter **c** began to signify not only the sound **[k]** as in OE *cōc,* but also, in accordance with French usage, the sound **[s]** before the letters **i, e, y.** So, OE *cēpan,* for instance, could no longer be written with the letter **c**, for it would be read [**s**ēpan]. It

became necessary to employ the letter **k** in similar cases, e.g. *keepen,* (ModE *keep*), *king.*

The letter **k** was not unfrequently substituted for **c** in other cases.

E.g. OE *bōc,* ME *book;*

OE *cnāwan,* ME *knowen,* ModE *know.*

Sometimes after short consonants the sound **[k]** was denoted by the digraph **ck**, e.g. OE *bæc,* ME *back.*

The letter **o** came to be used not only for the sound **[o]**, but also for the sound **[u].** That happened mostly in such words as ME *cumen* for instance, where too many vertical lines made reading difficult. This is why words like ModE *come, some, son* have the letter **o** instead of **u.**

All these spelling changes weakened the more or less phonetic character of the OE orthography. They gave rise to fluctuations in the graphic presentations of sounds and words. In OE the sound **[e:],** for instance, had only one graphic equivalent, the letter **ē.** In ME **[e:]** could be represented by **e, ee, ei, ie.** In OE the word *fisc* had only one spelling. In ME it could be written *fish, fysh, fissh, fisch, fyssh, fysch.*

2.2. Changes in Unstressed Vowels

The **weakening of unstressed vowels**, which was characteristic of all the Germanic languages and continued during the Old English period became much more intensive in Middle English, especially in the Northern dialects, owing to Scandinavian influence. Since both Old English and Old Scandinavian belonged to the Germanic group of languages, they had many features in common, which facilitated the process of communication. It often occurred that the root of a word and its meaning were nearly the same in both languages, while its endings differed.

E.g. OSc. *sunr* – OE *sunu* (ModE *son*);

OSc. *oxe* – OE *oxa* (ModE *ox*);

OSc. *tīme* – OE *tīma* (ModE *time*);

Osc. *binda* – OE *bindan* (ModE *to bind*).

Such words were, naturally, freely used by the representatives of both peoples in their conversations. Only the endings were some hindrance. Linguists are of the opinion that such cases accelerated the weakening of the unstressed endings. Most unstressed vowels were levelled and reduced to a sound of the [ə] type; written **e.**

E.g. OE *standan* > ME *standen* (ModE *stand*);

OE *sunu* > ME *sone* (ModE *son*);

OE *seofon* > ME *seven* (ModE *seven*).

The leveling of endings is so peculiar a feature of the Middle English period that H. Sweet called it *"the period of levelled endings"*. Many of such levelled endings were lost during the later part of the Middle English period.

The unstressed OE **[i]** often remained in ME, e.g. OE Enʒlisc > ME Englɪsh (ModE English).

In unaccented prefixes OE **[o]** and **[u]** mostly remained unchanged, **[æ]** and **[ā]** became **[a]**, **[e]** usually became **[i].**

E.g. OE *forʒyfan,* ME *foryiven* (ModE *forgive*);

OE *fulfyllan,* ME *fulfille(n),* (ModE *fulfill*);

OE *ārisan,* ME *arise(n),* (ModE *arise*);

OE *beforan,* ME *bifore(n),* (ModE *before*).

In certain phonetic situations, especially between **[r]** or **[l]** and **[w]** there appeared new unstressed vowels.

E.g. OE *folȝian,* ME *folwen* > *folowe(n),* (ModE foll**o**w);

OE *boeȝian,* ME *borwen* > *borowe(n),* (ModE borr**o**w).

Unstressed long vowels were shortened in ME, e.g. OE *-dōm* (as in *frēodōm, cyninȝdōm, wīsdōm*) > ME *-dom* (*freedom, kyngdom, wisdom*).

The OE preposition t**ō** > ME t**o**.

The unstressed OE numeral **ā**n (E one) > ME **a**n, the indefinite article. The same process took place in French loan-words when the shift of stress left the original long vowels unstressed, e.g. *honour* [honú:r > hónu:r > hónur].

The reduced vowels of unstressed final syllables were lost altogether by the end of the Middle English period. But the letter **e** which used to stand for reduced vowels continued to be written in most cases.

2.3. Changes in Stressed Vowels

Rather early in Middle English a certain dependence of the **quantity** (length or shortness) of vowels on their phonetic position manifests itself: stressed vowels, are as a rule, short before a group of consonants and long in open syllables. It is this dependence that underlies the well-known rules for the 'short' and 'long' reading of vowel letters in Modern English.

*The emergence of the above principle regulating the **quantity** of stressed vowels is connected with the **increasing concentration** of **stress** on the **initial part** of a **word**. While unstressed syllables weaken and shorten, the **stressed** ones increase their **duration**.*

*In a **closed syllable** part of its duration falls to the consonant or consonants following the vowel. In an **open syllable**, on the other hand, the increased length is allotted to the vowel, so naturally the vowel is long.*

In accordance with the principle formulated above, long vowels were shortened when followed within a word by two or more consonants, no matter whether different or identical. This shortening of vowels before groups of consonants accounts for the vowel alternation **[i: / e]** in the principal parts of the verb *to keep* and a number of other verbs in Modern English: the shortened **e** in *kept* remains, while the long **e** of Middle English *kēpen* became **[i:]** in ModE *keep.* It also accounts for the short vowel in the first syllable of the numerals *fifteen* (OE *fiftēne*) and *fifty* (OE *fiftig*), which alternates with **[ai] (<ī)** in

the simple numeral *five* (OE *fīfe*).

The changes vowels underwent during the Middle English period may be divided into **quantitative** and q**ualitative**. **Quantitative** changes affected only the **length** of a vowel, while **qualitative** changes altered the **nature** of the sound.

2.3.1. Quantitative Changes

Beginning with the 9th century there occurred a series of **quantitative** changes which influenced greatly the rhythm of the English language.

a) As already described short vowels were **lengthened** in the **9th** century before the combinations **[ld, nd, mb, rd and rð)]**, unless followed by a third consonant. Thus, short **[i]** in words such as *milde, climben,* and *binden* became **[i:].** If the cluster was followed by a third consonant, however, lengthening did not occur. OE *cilde* **([i])** for example, therefore came to be pronounced with long **[i:]** in ME, but remained short in *children*.

b) Before all other combinations of consonants (geminates included) **long** vowels were **shortened** in the 11th century.

For instance, OE *dūst, wīsdōm, cēpte, mētte, fēdde* > ME *dust, wisdom, kepte* (ModE *kept*), *mette* (ModE *met*), *fedde* (ModE *fed*).

Cf. OE *wīs, cēpan, mētan, fēdan* > ME *wīs* (ModE *wise*), *kēpen* (ModE *keep*), *mēten* (ModE *meet*), *fēden* (ModE *feed*). There are exceptions, e.g. OE *ēast* > ME *ēst* (ModE *east*).

Long vowels also became short (and short vowels remained so) before a single consonant in a stressed syllable followed by two or more unstressed syllables, mostly in trisyllabic words or word-forms (**'the three-syllable rule'**).

Cf. OE *hāligdæg* > ME *holidai*

OE *sūþerne* > ME *southerne* ['suðərnə].

This explains the short stressed vowels in ModE *holiday* and *southern,* which differ from the corresponding vowels in *holy* (OE *hālig*) and *South* (OE *sūþ*), where no shortening took place.

By analogy with native trisyllables, numerous polysyllabic words of Latin and Greek origin with the stress on the third syllable from the end have a short vowel in that syllable, even if the latter looks open in writing, there being only one consonant between the stressed and the following unstressed vowel, e.g. *analogy, economy, heroism,* etc.

c) In the 13th century short vowels (chiefly **[a, o, e])** were **lengthened** in **open stressed syllables** of **disyllabic words,** unless the stressed vowel was followed by more than one unstressed syllable.

E.g. OE *talu* > ME *tāle* (ModE *tale*);

OE *open* > ME *ōpen* (ModE *open*);

OE *etan* > ME *ētan* (ModE *eat*).

Sometimes **[i]** and [u] were also lengthened in the same position, but with a simultaneous change in quality: **[i]** >[ē], [u]>[ō].

E.g. *wike* > *wēke* (ModE *week*);

bitel > *bētel* (ModE *beetle*);

dure > *dōre* (ModE *door*);

wude > *wōde* (ModE *wood*).

In the noun *bath* the vowel remained short in Middle English, since it was in a closed syllable: OE *bæþ* > ME *bath*. As a ME **ā** became ModE **[ei],** and ME **a** developed into ModE **[a:]** before **[θ]**, a vowel alternation **[ei/a:]** arose in the related words *bathe – bath*. Compare a similar development in *graze* **[ei]** (OE *grasian*) – *grass* **[a:]** (OE *græs*).

As a result of these changes too long syllables like *cēpt* became shorter, while too short syllables like **e-** in *etan* became longer, so that the rhythm of English speech became more measured.

> *In many learned words of **Latin** and **Greek** origin the shortness of the stressed vowel in the originally open syllable is to be explained by the extension of the **"three-syllable rule"** to the pronunciation of Latin in England. Thus words in **-ic,** such as alle'goric, bar'baric, 'cleric, 'critic, etc., as well as adjectives in **-id,** e.g. 'rapid, 'solid, 'timid and the like, have a short stressed vowel, because in the original Latin forms that vowel was followed by two unstressed syllables ('clericus, 'rapidus, etc.), which made it short.*

2.3.2. Qualitative Changes

Middle English changes in the quality of vowels for the most part do not depend on the nature of the neighbouring sounds: they are called "spontaneous" or "free". Both monophthongs and diphthongs underwent radical changes during the Middle English period.

The following vowels changed their quality early in Middle English.

2.3.2.1. *Monophthongs*

OE **[a, o, ō, u, ū, e, ē, i, ī]** remained more or less unchanged in Middle English, while OE **[ā, æ, ǣ, y, ÿ, å]** changed radically.

1. OE **[ā]** > ME **[ō]** everywhere but in the northern dialect. This new **[ō]** was of a much more open nature than the OE **[ō]** preserved in Middle English. In order to distinguish the two kinds of **[ō]** we shall use the symbol **ō̦ǭ̦** to denote the open **[ō]** and the symbol **ǫ** for the close **[ō].**

In Middle English manuscripts the two types of **[ō]** were mostly represented by the same symbols: **o** in open syllables and **oo** in closed ones. Later the two **[ō]**'s were distinguished not only in sound, but in spelling as well, **[ǫ]** being as a rule represented by the digraph **oo**, and **[ō]** by the digraph **oa** in closed syllables and the letter **o** in open ones.

E.g. OE *bāt, āc, nā* > ME *boot, ook, no* (ModE *boat, oak, no*);
OE *ʒōd, sōna* > ME *good, sone* (ModE *good, soon*).

2. OE. [**ǣ**] > ME. [**ę̄**] (more open than [**ę̄**] < OE [**ē**]). Thus in Middle English there were two types of long [**ē**]: an open [**ę̄**] and a close [**ė̄**].

In Middle English manuscripts they were often expressed in the same way: a single letter **e** in open syllables and a double **ee** in closed ones. Later these different sounds were distinguished also in writing: [**ę̄**] was represented by the digraph **ea** and [**ė̄**] by the digraph **ee**.

E.g. OE *sǣ, mǣl* > ME *se, meel* (ModE *sea, meal*);

OE *fēlan, fēt* > ME *felen, feet* (ModE *feel, feet*).

The sound [**ė̄**] developed in ME. also as a result of the lengthening of **[e]** in open syllables.

Thus, OE *etan, mete* > ME *ēten, mēte* (ModE *eat, meat*).

3. OE [**æ**] > ME [**a**].
E.g. OE *æt, pæt, dæӡ* > ME *at, that, day*.

4. OE [**å**] > ME [**o**] only in West Midland.
In all other dialects OE [**å**] > ME [**a**].

E.g. OE *lånd, mån, lånӡ*
→ ME *lond, mon, long*
(**West Midland** dialect)

→ ME *land, man, lang*
(**other dialects**)
(ModE *land, man, long*).
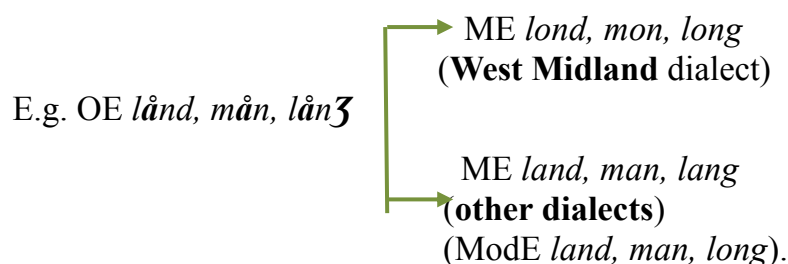
In most cases the Modern English form is based on that of the Eastern dialects. Only before **-ng-**forms with **o** predominate.

E.g. *long, strong, song*.

5. OE **y, ÿ** *fyllan*
→ **i, ī** in the North-East *fillen* ['fillən]
→ (written **u, ui** in the South-West *fullen* ['fyllən]
→ **e, ē** in the South-East (Kent) *fellen* ['fellən]
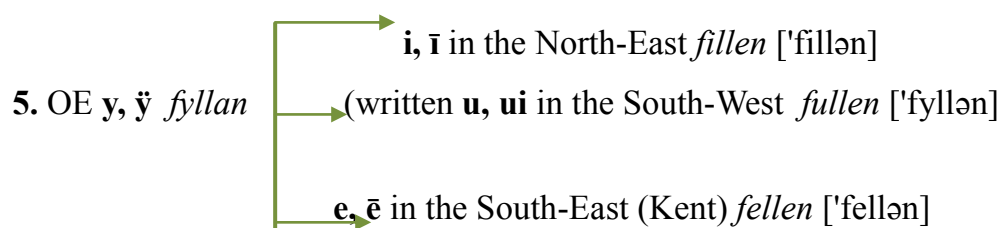
In the majority of cases Modern English has forms with **[ĭ].** But sometimes the influence of other dialects is felt. In the word *busy,* for instance, the spelling reflects the influence of the Western dialects. The same is true about the verb *to build.* The pronunciation of the verb *to bury* is due to the South-East dialects, while the spelling is of Western origin.

2.3.2.2. *Old Diphthongs*

All the Old English diphthongs were monophthongized as early as the 11th century, losing their second elements.

1. OE **ēa** and **ea** whose first element sounded **[æ]** were reduced to **[ẹ:]**.

OE **ēa** > ME **ǣ** > ME **ẹ:**

E.g. OE **ēast, strēam** > ME **eest, streem** (ModE *east, stream*).

OE **ea** > ME **æ** > ME **a**

E.g. OE **earm, heard** > ME **arm, hard.**

2. OE **ēo** and **eo** gradually became **ẹ:** and **e** respectively.

OE **ēo** > ME **ẹ:**

E.g. OE *dēop, sēon* > ME *deep, see* (ModE *deep, see*).

OE **eo** > ME **e**

E.g. OE *feor, deorc* > ME *fer, derk* (ModE *far, dark*).

2.3.2.3. *New Diphthongs*

As a result of the vocalization of **[j]** and **[w]** new diphthongs were formed whose second element was either **[i]** (written **i, y**) or **[u]** (mostly written **w**).

1. **[ei]** OE *we𝟛, se𝟛l* > ME *wey, seil* (ModE *way, sail*).

2. **[ai]** OE *dæ𝟛, fæ𝟛r* > ME *day, fair* (ModE *day, fair*).

3. **[au]** OE *sa𝟛u, clawe* > ME *saw(e), claw(e)* (ModE *saw, claw*)

4. **[ou]** OE *bo𝟛a, snāw* > ME *bowe, snow* (ModE *bow, snow*).

5. **[eu]** OE *dēaw, nēowe* > ME *dew, newe* (ModE *dew, new*).

Some linguists are of the opinion that the French long labial **[ü]** was replaced by the diphthong [eu] in those areas where OE **y [ü]** was not preserved, i.e. everywhere but the South-West. E. g. *fruit* was pronounced [freut] in ME, *due* – [deu]. This is the reason why ME *trewe* (< OE *trēowe*) has come to be written *true* and why the pronunciation of *dew* and *due* is the same.

Besides the above-mentioned diphthongs it is necessary to mention the diphthong **[oi]** mostly found in French borrowings like *poynt* (ModE *point*), *poison, vois* (ModE *voice*), etc.

2.4. Changes in Consonants

1. OE [γ] (denoted by 𝟛) > ME **[w]** *(Comp.* R его, where [[γ] > [в]).

E.g. OE *bo𝟛a, dra𝟛an, mo𝟛𝟛en* > ME *bowe, drawen, morwen* (ModE *bow, draw, morrow)*.

2. Initial **[h]** was dropped before **r, I, n**.

E.g. OE **hrinɜ, hlāford, hnutu** > ME *ring, lōverd, nute* (ModE *ring, lord, nut).*

3. Before **[w]** the sound **[h]** remained longer especially in the North where OE **[hw-]** came to be written **quh-** or **qwh-**. In the South **[h]** was dropped before **[w]** in late Middle English, and the combination **wh-** was substituted for OE **hw-**.
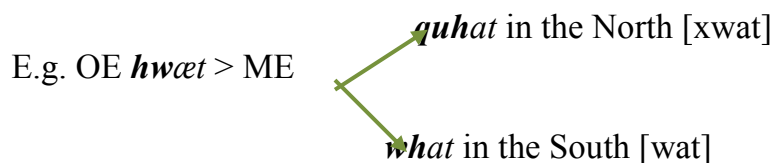
E.g. OE **hwæt** > ME

      quhat in the North [xwat]

      what in the South [wat]

4. A very important change was the vocalization of **[j]** and **[w]** after vowels, which brought about the appearance of new diphthongs.

    [j] > **[i]** (written **i, y**), e.g. OE *dæɜ, seɜl* ME *da**i*** (or *da**y***), *se**i**l* (ModE *day, sail*).

    [w] > **[u]** (written **w, u**), e.g. OE *dēaw, snāw* ME *dēw, dēu, snōu* (ModE *dew, snow.*

    OE **iɜ** > **ĭi** > **ī,** e.g. OE *māniɜ,* ME *many.*

    OE **uɜ** > **uu** > **ū** e.g. OE *fuɜol,* ME *fowel, fou**l*** [fu:l], (ModE *fowl*).

5. Final **[-n]** was often lost in unstressed syllables.

E.g. OE *brinɜan* > ME *bringe(n),* ModE *bring.*

6. Medial **[v]** was often dropped before consonants.
E.g. OE *hæfde* > ME *had.*

7. The OE **palatalized** (mediolingual) plosive consonants spelt **g, cg (ɜ, cɜ), c, cc** and the palatalized combination **[sk']** (spelt **sc)** developed in the course of the Old English period into **sibilant** sounds. This process was completed early in Middle English, and the digraphs **dg, ch, sh** were introduced for the new sibilant phonemes.

    [g', gg' > dʒ], e.g. *bry**cg*** > *bri**dge***
                *e**cg*** > *e**dge***
    [k', kk' > [tʃ], e.g. *cild* > *chi**ld***
                *cy**cen*** > *ki**chen*** (ModE *kitchen*)
    [sk'] > [ʃ],   e.g. *scip* > *ship*
                fisc > *fish*

Thus the English language came to possess the **affricates [tʃ], [dʒ]** and the simple **sibilant [ʃ],** none of which originally existed in Old English. On the other hand, the **palatal plosives** [**[k', kk']** and **[g', gg']** disappeared from the English consonant system.

Summary

The **vowel system** of Middle English comprises some new vowel phonemes: the diphthongs in **i** and **u** and two new long vowels – the open **ę: [ɛ:]** (< OE **ǣ, ēa**) distinct from the long close **ẹ: [e:]** (in which OE **ē** and **ēo** had coincided), and the open **ǫ [ɔ:]** (< OE **ā**) distinct from the long close **ọ: [o:]** – which continues OE **ō.**

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.

Questions for self-control

1. Identify changes in ME unstressed vowels.
2. Account for quantitative / qualitative changes in ME stressed vowels.
3. Explain the emergence of new diphthongs in Middle English.
4. Figure out the process of monophthongization of Old English diphthongs.
5. Account for the process of vocalization of some Old English consonants.
6. Identify the main changes in ME consonants.
7. Define the characteristic features of ME phonological system as compared to that of Old English.

SEMINAR 1

Aims:

✓ be able to identify the vocalic changes in stressed vowels, such as quantitative and qualitative ones; the growth of new diphthongs;
✓ be able to identify the consonantal changes: development of sibilants, vocalization, loss of initial **h,** etc.

1.1. Study points:

1. Vowel changes in Middle English
2. Quantitative vowel changes in Middle English
3. Qualitative vowel changes in Middle English
4. Evolution of consonants in Middle English
5. Middle English diphthongs

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 40–43.
✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 117–120.
✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 34–39.

Additional:

✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 111–117.

1.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. The main trend in Middle English is consonant deletion and vowel shifting.
2. In Middle English the runic letters went out of use.
3. The ever more pronounced effect of the strong word-stress on the phonetic structure of words – is an important point in reviewing the vowel changes during the Middle English period.
4. Unstressed vowels are longer than those under stress.
5. Absence of stress on a vowel reduces its length.
6. Quantity (length or shortness) – is when stressed vowels are short before a group of consonants and long in open syllables.
7. The emergence of the principle regulating the quantity of stressed vowels is connected with the increasing concentration of stress on the initial part of the word.
8. While unstressed syllables weaken and shorten, the stressed ones increase their duration.
9. Long vowels were lengthened when followed within a word by two or more consonants.
10. Vowels remained long before **ld, mb, nd** in ME.
11. Long vowels became short before a single consonant in a stressed syllable followed by two or more unstressed syllables.
12. In the 13th c. most short vowels were reduced in stressed open syllables.
13. Long vowels became short before a single consonant in a stressed syllables followed by two or more unstressed syllables (the three-syllable rule).
14. By analogy with native trisyllables, numerous poly-syllabic words of Latin and Greek origin do not have the stress on the third syllable.
15. Middle English changes in the quality of vowels for the most part do not depend on the nature of the neighboring sounds.
16. Middle English qualitative changes are called "spontaneous" or "free", as they do not depend on the nature of the neighbouring sounds.
17. Middle English *y, ỹ* unrounded to *ī* in the North-East (including the East-Midland dialect).
18. ME *y, ỹ* lowered to *ē* in the South East, but remained in the Western dialects (spelt *u* or *ui* after the French fashion).
19. After the unrounding of *ỹ* the letter *y* came to be regarded as a variant of the letter *i.*
20. The increasing difference between the articulation of vowels in stressed and unstressed syllables – is the main peculiarity of the ME vocalic system.

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

1. One of the consequences of the Norman Conquest was the:
   A more pronounced effect of the strong word-stress
   B French influence on English spelling
   C Reduction of unstressed vowels
   D Absence of stress on a vowel

2. Those letters which the French did not employ were as follows:
   A æ, ð, þ, ʒ
   B c, ð, ʒ, w
   C þ, ʒ, s, a
   D b, ʒ, d, þ

3. In Middle English such new letters as ... were introduced
   A g, j, k, q, v
   B k, q, w, f, d
   C d, h, t, g, j
   D l, s, g, t, v

4. It became usual to mark the length of a vowel by ... it, especially in closed syllables.
   A changing
   B stressing
   C doubling
   D reducing

5. The letter *c* began to signify not only the sound **[k],** as in Old English, but also in accordance with French usage, the sound **[s]** before the letters ....
   A e, o, a
   B ў, e, u
   C i, a, y
   D i, e, y

6. Initial **[h]** was dropped before ....
   A r, l, n
   B l, m, b
   C y, i, a
   D æ, l, w

7. A very important change was the vocalization of ... after vowels, which brought the appearance of new diphthongs.
   A [j] and [w]
   B [c] and [j]
   C [w] and [h]
   D [q] and [v]

8. Final **[-n]** was often lost in ... syllables.
   A stressed
   B unstressed
   C shortened
   D lengthened

9. Medial **[v]** was often dropped before ....
   A vowels

B diphthongs
C monophthongs
D consonants

10. <u>...</u> become much more intensive in Middle English, especially in the Northern dialects.
   A The reducing of stressed vowels
   B The strengthening of unstressed vowels
   C The weakening of unstressed vowels
   D The lengthening of unstressed vowels

11. The voiced fricatives <u>...</u> became phonemic in Middle English (in Old English they had been allophones of **[f, θ, s].**
   A z, ð, k
   B f, g, z
   C v, ð, z
   D ð, f, v

12. Final consonants in unstressed words / syllables tend <u>...</u> in Middle English.
   A be lost
   B be lengthened
   C be weakened
   D be inserted

13. **/y/** and **/y:/** unrounded to /<u>...</u>/ and /<u>...</u>:/ in all dialects by the end of the Middle English period.
   A /e/ and /e:/
   B /ɪ/ and / ɪ:/
   C /æ/ and / æ:/
   D /a/ and /a:/

14. / **æ/** lowered to /<u>...</u>/ in all dialects.
   A /e/
   B /e:/
   C /a/
   D / ɪ:/

15. Old English **ā** was rounded to <u>...</u>.
   A /a/
   B / o/
   C /e/
   D /ī/

16. Old English monophthongs <u>...</u> changed radically in ME.
   A ā, æ, ǣ, y, ÿ, å
   B a, o, ō, u, y, e
   C e, ē, i, ī, y, a
   D i, ī, y, a, o, e

17. All original Old English diphthongs were ….
   A remained
   B lost
   C monophthongized
   D unchanged

18. Vocalization of **/w, j, v/** between vowels leads to creation of new ….
   A vowels
   B consonants
   C monophthongs
   D diphthongs

19. At the beginning of Middle English short vowels were lengthened before certain consonant clusters ….
   A lg, ng, mf
   B ld, mb, nd
   C kl, ld, ml
   D nk, mb, ld

20. In late Middle English unstressed syllables with **schwa** were ….
   A lost
   B stressed
   C voiced
   D increased

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

1. ME Phonology accounts for …
2. The tendency towards reduction of unstressed vowels …
3. The reduced vowels of unstressed final syllables …
4. Quantitative Changes account for …
5. The Quantitative principle regulates …
6. Vowels remained long …
7. Unstressed syllables become …
8. The stressed syllables began …
9. Long vowels became short …
10. Qualitative Changes affected …
11. OE [ā] > …
12. OE [æ] > …
13. OE [å] > …
14. OE [ǣ] > …
15. OE [y], [ý] > …
16. OE [y], [ý] > …
17. All the OE diphthongs *eo, ea, ie, ēo, ēa, īe* …
18. As a result of vocalization of [j], and [w] new diphthongs …
19. The weakening of unstressed vowels …

20. The levelling of endings is such a peculiar feature of the ME period that H. Sweet called it …

      A … 'the period of levelled endings'.
      B … lengthening and shortening of vowels.
      C … ME [ó] everywhere, but the Northern dialect, e.g. OE bāt > ME boot.
      D … weaken and shorten.
      E … the nature of the following sounds [ā,æ,ǣ,y,ý,å].
      F … increasing their duration.
      G … the concentration of stress on the initial part of a word.
      H … before **ld, nd, mb.**
      I … before a single consonant in a stressed syllable followed by two or more unstressed syllables.
      J … ME [a], e.g. OE þæt > that.
      K … ME [o] only in West Midland. In all other dialects OE[å] > ME[a]. E.g. OE land → ME (West Midland) > lond; ME (Other dialects) > land.
      L … ME [ē] in all dialects, except West Midland, e.g. OE mǣl > meel.
      M … vowel shifting and consonant deletion.
      N … [ei], [ai], [au], [ou], [eu].
      O … became especially apparent in ME.
      P … was characteristic of all the Germanic languages.
      Q … were monophthongized in ME.
      R … ME [e], [ē] in the South-East, Kent, e.g. OE hyll > ME hell
      S … ME [i], [ī] in the North-East, e.g. OE hyll > ME hill.

IV. a) Explain the development of the **indicated vowels** in the following ME words:
|h*e*rte, OE heorte, (E heart); sh*a*l, OE sceal, (E shall); d*ē*th, OE dēaþ, (E death); wh*a*n, OE hwånne, (E when); st*ō*n, OE stān, (E. stone); *a*l, OE eal, (E all); b*e*sy, OE bysiʒ, (E busy); b*ẹ*:n, OE bēon, (E be); f*ē*we, OE fēawe, (E few); br*ē*ken, OE brecan, (E break); th*a*t, OÉ þæt, |(E that); f*i*r, OE fÿr, (E fire); g*o*n, OE ʒān, (E go); cl*ē*ne, OE clǣne, (E clean); kn*ē*, OE knēo, (E knee); m*ā*ken, OE macian, (E make); h*ē*vy, OE hefiʒ, (E heavy).

b) Explain the origin of the **italicized letters** and the **sounds** they denote in the following ME words:
bo*we*, OE boʒa, (E bow); *chik*en, OE cicen, (E chicken); br*oun*, OE brun, (E brown); *k*nig*h*t, OE cniht, (E knight); c*o*men, OE cuman, (E. come); *quyk*, OE cwic, (E quick); dr*y*ven, OE drīfan, (E drive); l*ou*d, OE hlūd; la*we*, OE laʒu, E law); b*oo*k, OE bōc; f*ie*ld, OE feld; br*idg*e, OE brycʒ

c) Read the text, translate it into ModE. Make a **phonetic** analysis of it, using the model of **text 1** (beneath Table 2.1.).

    Text 1
  And therfor, hoste, I warne thee biforn,
  My jolly body shal a tale telle,
  And I shal clinken yow so merry a belle,
  That I shal waken al this companye.
        (*The Shipman's Tale, Prologue*)

Glossary to *Text 1*

therfor – therefore; OE þārfore
hoste – host (< OF)
warnen – warn; OE wearninan; OHG warnōn
body – body; OE bodiʒ; OHG potah
tale – tale; OE talu; OHG zala
telle – to tell; OE tellan; OHG zellan
clinken – to clink, to tinkle (borr. from Dutch)
merry – merry; OE myriʒ, myrʒe; Gth. ga-maúrgian
belle – bell; OE belle, *rel.* to bellan, *wv*.1; OHG bellan; Skt. bhash (to bark)
waken – to wake; OE wacan, wv 1; Gth. wakan; wōk, wakans; OHG wachen
al – all; OE eal; Gth. alls; OHG all
companye – company (< OF)

Table 2.1. The Middle English Sounds and Letters: (*The London Dialect of the second half of the 14th c.*)

1. Vowels

Sounds	Letters	Examples
a, ā	a, aa	land, maken (E make), caas (E case)
e	e	dress, bed
ē	e, ee, ie, ei	he, sweet, piece, deceiven (E deceive)
ę:	e, ee	speken (speak), breeth (E breath)
i, ī	i, y, ii	is, ys, lif, lyf, liif (E life)
o	o	on, long
ǫ:	o, oo	do, doo, book
ǭ	o, oo	no, rood, (E road), ooth (E oath)
u	u, v, o	us, vp, (E up), comen (E come)
u:	ou, ow	hous, (E house), now

ə	e	place, lawe (E law)
ü	u, ui	just, fruit, builde (E build)
ai	ai, ay	day, failen, (E fail)
au ei	au, aw ei, ey	cause, drawen (E draw) peine (E pain), wey (E way)
eu	ew, u	fewe (E few), cruel, crewel (E cruel)
oi	oi, oy	joie, joye (E joy)
ou	ou, ow	knowen (E know), soule (E soul)

2. Consonants

b	b, bb	by, rubben (E to rub)
p	p, pp	pite (E pity), happen, cuppe (E cup)
d	d, dd	deed (E dead), hadde (E had)
t	t, tt	tyme, (E time), sitten (E sit)
g	g, gg	goon (E go), daggere (E dagger)
k	c, k, kk, ck	callen (E call), speken (E speak), nekke, cock
f	f, ff, ph	for, effect, philosophie (E philosophy)
v	v, u	hevy, heuy, (E heavy), vertu (E virtue)
s	s, ss, c, sc	smoke, kysse (E kiss), place, science
z	s, z	bisy (E busy), duzeyne (E dozen)
h	h	help, half

x (as in Russian **хлеб**)	**gh, h**	thou**gh**, my**gh**t (E might), ri**h**t (E right)
∫	**sch, ssh, sh**	fi**sch**, fi**ssh**, fi**sh**
t∫	**ch, cch**	whi**ch**, ca**cch**en (E catch)
dʒ	**g, j, i, dg**	a**g**e, **j**oye (E joy), bri**dg**e, iu**gg**e (E judge)
θ	**th**	**th**is [θis]
ð	**th**	ra**th**er
j	**y, i**	**y**et, condic**i**oun (E condition)
w	**w, v**	**w**ith, **v**ith
r	**r, rr**	ha**r**m, ste**rr**es (E stars)
l	**l, ll**	a**l**, a**ll**e (E all)
m	**m, mm**	**m**any, wo**mm**an (E woman)
n	**n, nn**	**n**o, a**n**, the**nn**e (E then)
kw	**qu**	**qu**een
ks	**x**	a**x**en (E ask), si**x**

Text 1. From **"The Canterbury Tales"** by G. Chaucer, the London dialect, the late 14th c.
Our hoste sey well that the brighte sonne
Th'ark of his artificial day had ronne
The fourthe part, and half an houre, and more;
And though he were not depe expert in lore,

He wiste it was the eightetethe day
Of April, that is messager to May.
                    (*The Man of Law's Tale*)

Model of Phonetic Analysis

Words that used in the text	Changes of spelling and sounds	
	ME	ModE
our	**ou**r [u:r]	our ['auə]
hoste	Ho**s**te [hostə]	Ho**s**t [həust]
sey	s**ey**[sei]	saw
that	**tha**t [θat]	**tha**t [ðæt]
brighte	br**igh**te **[brixtə]**	br**i**ght [br**ai**t]
sonne	s**on**ne [sunə] (o >[u], close to *n, m* or *v*	sun
ark	**ar**k [ark]	**ar**k [a:k] (ковчег)
artificial	artifi**ci**al [arti'fisjəl]	artificial [a:ti'fiʃəl]
day	d**ay** [dai]	d**ay** [ei]
had	h**a**d [had]	h**a**d [hæd], [həd], [əd], [d]
ronne	r**on**ne [runə]	r**u**n [rʌn]
fourthe	**fourth**e [fu:rðə]	**fourth** [fo:θ]
part	p**ar**t [part]	p**ar**t [pa:t]
and	**a**nd [and]	**a**nd [ænd], [ənd]
houre	**hou**re [hu:r(ə)	**hou**r [auə]
more	m**ore** [mor(ə)]	m**ore** [mo:]
though	th**ough** [θu:x]	th**ough** [ðəu]
he	h**e** [he]	h**e** [hi:]
were	w**ere** [werə]	w**ere** [wə:], [wə]
depe	d**epe** [depə]	d**ee**p [di:p]
expert	**ex**pert [eks'pert]	**exper**t ['ekspə:t]

lore	**lor**e [lorə]	**lor**e [loː]
wiste	**wi**ste [wistə]	knew
was	w**a**s [was]	w**a**s [woz], [wəz], [wə]
the	th**e** [θe], [θə],	th**e** [ðiː], [ði], [ðə]
eightetethe	**eigh**tete**th**e [exˈteteðə]	**eigh**teenth [eiˈtiːnθ]
of	**o**f [of]	**o**f [ov], [əv]
April	**A**pril [apˈril]	**A**pril [ˈeipr(ə)l]
messager	messa**g**er [mesad**ʒ**(ə)r]	messen**g**er [ˈmes(ə)nd**ʒ**ə]
to	t**o** [toː]	t**o** [tuː], [tu], [tə]
May	**May** [mai]	**May** [mei]

SELF-STUDY 2

Aims:

✓ to review once again the sound changes within the phonemic system of Middle English with its relation to Present-Day English;

✓ to perceive the phenomenon of alternation of stressed and unstressed vowels which constitutes the rhythm of the English intonation.

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

2.1.1. *History of English – The Sound System of ME*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_GFmtn3OZsQ

2.1.2. *ME 1 introducing ME pronunciation*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y4L1wOxL56s

2.1.3 *ME 2 all the letters*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=os2ZYYuQPmQ

2.1.4. *ME 3 short vowels*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NgPvTLiNQnQ

2.1.5. *ME 4 long vowels*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X2SzpiB50D8

2.1.6. *ME 5 stress*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FoBrmKmozNU

2.1.7. *ME 6 Canterbury Tales beginning*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U5lCjzLXRTE

2.1.8. *ME 7 Piers beginning*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6C6FbdX-UFQ

2.1.9. *How to Pronounce the General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales in Middle English Slow to Fast!*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HXMypzdWxsc

2.1.10. *How to Speak Middle English – Part 1*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rbjqzWex1uw

2.1.11. *The first 18 lines of the General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales in Middle English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0X2oDRWnqwo

Rec

Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 40–43.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 117–120.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 34–39.

Additional:
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 111–117.
- ✓ 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. Most words in the Middle English period were stressed on the last syllable.

2. ME sound-system can be organized into the following categories: vowels in stressed syllables (short, long, diphthongs), vowels of unstressed syllables and consonants.

3. The short vowels **[i, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ]**, were generally spelt **(i/y, e, a, o, u)** respectively.

4. A very important change was the vocalization of **[j]** and **[w]** after vowels, which brought about the appearance of new diphthongs.

5. The strengthening of unstressed vowels became much more intensive in Middle English, especially in the Northern dialects, owing to Scandinavian influence.

6. The long vowels **[iː, eː, ɛː, aː, ɔː, oː, uː]**, were generally spelt **(i/y/ij, e/ee, e/ee, a/aa, o/oo, o/oo, ou/ow).**

7. Quantitative changes affected the nature of a vowel, while qualitative – altered the length of the sound.

8. Long vowels were lengthened in the 9th century before the combinations **[ld, nd, mb]**, unless followed by a third consonant.

9. Middle English does not seem to have had any 'silent' letters. Thus the words *sweete, knyf* were pronounced [sweːtə, kniːf].

10. Quantitative changes influenced the rhythm of the English language greatly.
II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.
  1. Name the causes of vowel interchange in ModE *keep, kept; kneel, knelt; meet, met; sleep, slept; sweep, swept; weep, wept?*
  A stressed vowels –short before a group of consonants
  B stressed vowels – long in open syllables
  C vowels remained long before *ld, mb, nd*

D short vowels (chiefly [a, o, e]) became long in open syllables

2. The ME digraph **gh** was pronounced as ... in the following words: *night, knight, myght, brighte.*
    A [g]
    B [gh]
    C [x]
    D [j]

3. Identify the words with OE diphthongs being monophthongized: ... .
    A care, dēp, streem
    B se, meel, feet
    C lond, long, mon
    D at, that, day

4. Define the qualitative changes in the following words: ... .
    A tāle, nōse, streem
    B mild, wild, child
    C fillen, stōn, after
    D comen, driven, risen

5. Recognize the process of vocalization in the given samples: ... .
    A day, wey, saw(e)
    B boot, felen, sone
    C hyll, land, arm
    D bēn, feld, quik

6. State the quantitative changes in: ... .
    A fellen, corn, child
    B se, care, feet
    C bāthern, nōse, door(e)
    D at, word, day

7. Identify the examples with ME diphthongs: ... .
    A bed, back, kepen
    B grey, bowe, may
    C deep, long, heren
    D at, he, chesen

8. Name a set of consonantal sounds ... appeared in ME at first.
    A affricates and sibilants [tʃ, dʒ, ʃ]
    B sonorants [m, n, l]
    C palatal plosives [k', g']
    D plosives [p, b, t, d]

9. Identify the instances with sibilants and affricates ... .
    A might, help, yet
    B alle, many, thenne

C techen, joye, fish
D queen, axen, sterres

10. ME *ring, lōverd, nute* demonstrate convincingly __.
A simplification of double consonants
B vocalization of [j] and [w] after vowels
C weakening of the final nasal [n]
D loss of initial [h] before r, l, n, w

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

1. The OE palatalized plosive consonants spelt *g, cg* (**ȝ**, c**ȝ**), *c, cc* and the palatalized combination [sk'] (spelt *sc*) developed into __
2. The following words *dai, blowen, drawen, wey, foul, bowe, besy, hēvy lawe* are __
3. The *indicated vowels* in the following ME words: *e*ghte, *ei*ghte, h*e*rte, sh*a*l, d*ē*th, d*ē*d, *a*l, b*ę*:n, f*ē*we, kn*ē*, h*e*rte, d*ē*p, w*a*l, thr*ee* __
4. The *indicated vowels* in the following ME words: wh*a*n, st*ō*n, b*e*sy, th*a*t, f*i*r, cl*ē*ne, kn*ō*w, d*a*y, r*e*ady __
5. The *indicated vowels* in the following ME words: br*ē*ken, m*ā*ken, h*ē*vy, *ē*tan, *ō*pen, t*ā*le, d*u*st, k*e*pte, m*e*tte __
6. The following examples, e.g., s*ei*l, f*ai*r, s*aw*(e), cl*aw*(e), b*ow*e, sn*ow*, d*ew*, n*ew*e, l*aw*e, kn*ow*en __
7. ME innovations in spelling from 2 lines of *"The Man of Law's Tale"* by G. Chaucer
Our hoste sey well that the brighte sonne
Th'ark of his artificial day had ronne may be characterized as follows: __
8. Lines 3–4 *The fourthe part, and half an houre, and more;*
And though he were not depe expert in lore present some instances of __
9. Line 5 *He wiste it was the eightetethe day* includes an example of __
10. Line 6 *Of April, that is messager to May* contains __
   A __ constitute the quantitative changes in stressed vowels.
   B __ new digraphs and new signification of letters, such as: **th, gh, ou**, **u**, **y,** e.g., **ou**r [u:r], **tha**t [θat], br**igh**te **[**br**ix**tǝ], s**on**ne [s**u**nǝ] (o >[u], arti**fici**al [arti'fi**sj**ǝl], s**ey**[s**ei**], d**ay** [d**ai**].
   C __ represent the qualitative changes in stressed vowels.
   D __ signify the emergence of new diphthongs in ME. \

   E __ sibilant sounds **[dȝ, tʃ, ʃ],** e.g., *ecg >edge, cycen >kichen, fisc >fish.*

   F __ monophthongization of OE diphthongs, e.g., *half < healf, depe < dēop.*
   G __ the instances of vocalization of **[j]** and **[w]** after vowels.

   H __ the borrowing messa**g**er [mesa**d'ȝ(**ǝ)r from French which preserves its alien pronunciation in ME.
   I __ vocalization of **[j],** e.g., *day.*
   J __ became monophthongs due to the contraction of the OE diphthongs **ēa, ea, ēo, eo, iē, ie.**

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 3

MIDDLE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

LECTURE 3

"A language is not an assemblage of unconnected patterns but a system which is integrated in a high degree".
(H. Gleason)

Aims:
- ✓ to examine the principal features and peculiarities of Middle English morphology and syntax;
- ✓ to trace the evolution of the grammatical categories of gender and declension in the nominal parts of speech of Middle English;
- ✓ to define the development of the Middle English verbs from the historical perspective;
- ✓ to discuss Middle English word order and the increase in subject pronouns, auxiliaries and sentence connectors.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
3.1. Subsequent Evolution of the Noun Declension. The Possessive Form of the Noun
3.2. The Middle English Pronouns and Articles
3.3. Loss of the Adjective Declension. Degrees of Comparison in Adjectives and Adverbs
3.4. The Middle English Verb. Development of the Non-Finite Forms of the English Verb
3.5. Middle English Syntax
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

vocalic endings	conjoint / absolute forms	finite forms
the common case	the continuous aspect	non-finite forms
the genitive case	standard / regular	defective verbs
the possessive case	non-standard / irregular	the analytical forms

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 44– 45.
- ✓ Simon Horobin and Jeremy Smith. An Introduction to Middle English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. P. 89–125.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 56– 88; 89–115.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 118–143.

Additional:
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 120–132.

Introduction

One of the leading tendencies in the history of the English language in general, and the Middle English period in particular, was the gradual loss of synthetic ways of expressing the relations between words and the development of analytical means.

The loss of synthetic forms was especially manifest in the gradual reduction, levelling and loss of endings, a process closely connected with the fixation of the word-stress on the first or root syllable. The results of that process were already felt in Old English, where one has to speak of zero-endings in such forms as *man – men, stān, gōd,* etc. Many originally different case-forms coincided, as for instance, the **nominative** and the **accusative** of most declensions.

In the 11th century the levelling of endings grew much more intensive, which was partly due to Scandinavian influence.

3.1. Subsequent Evolution of the Noun Declension. The Possessive Form of the Noun

In the course of the Middle English period the **English noun declension** was further simplified through levelling and loss of endings.

Vocalic endings (those consisting of a vowel) were all reduced to **-e [-ə],** which was subsequently lost.

The endings **-an, -ena, -um** were levelled to **-en [-ən].** In the singular this ending was further reduced to **-e [-ə],** and finally dropped.

The **nominative** and **accusative plural** ending **-as** was reduced to **-es** and thus coincided with the **genitive singular** ending of the **a-**stems.

By the end of the Middle English period all the cases in the singular, except the genitive, merged in one form which had no grammatical ending. The **genitive** of most nouns took the -**es ending,** which had spread from the **a-**stems to other classes of nouns. In the plural most nouns came to have one ending **-es**, which sprang from the nominative and accusative ending -**as** of the masculine **a**-stems.

Thus distinctions between originally different declension types of nouns were finally obliterated, and a common declension type was established, which may be illustrated by these examples:

Singular	Plural
N. A. D. *stōn, care*	*stōnes, cares*
G. *stōnes, cares*	*stōnes, cares*

In Middle English two types of the plural ending prevail: -**es** (<OE -**as**, the ending of the masculine **a**-stems) and -**en** (< OE -**an**, the ending of the **n-**stems). Both penetrated from the noun classes they originally belonged to into other classes of nouns.

  -**es**, the most clearly marked and phonetically stable nominal ending, continues gaining ground at the expense of the -**en** plurals and other types of plural forms, and by the end of the Middle English period becomes the common plural suffix of nouns.

In Middle English the plural suffix -**es** seems to have been pronounced **[-es, -is]** (it was spelt -*es, -is, -ys*). Subsequently the final **s** of the suffix became voiced and the preceding unstressed vowel was lost **[-as/-is>-z].**

However, when the stem ends in a voiceless consonant, the suffix consonant, which came to follow it after the loss of the unstressed vowel, became voiceless again through assimilation, so that the suffix sounds **[-s].**

The unstressed vowel **i** remains between the sibilant consonant of the suffix and the final sibilant of the stem, so in this case the plural suffix sounds **[-iz].** That is how the plural suffix split into 3 phonetic variants: **[-s, -z, -iz].**

Since the fricatives **[f], [θ]** became voiced between vowels in Old English (and remained so in Middle English, nouns in -*f, -th* now show alternation of the voiceless sound **[f], [θ]** in the singular with the voiced **[v], [ð]** in the plural, where the consonant was followed by the vowel of the ending -**es/-is** in Middle English:

[f-v]		[θ-ð]
calf – calves	*knife – knives*	*bath – baths*
half – halves	*life – lives*	*path – paths*
wolf – wolves	*wife – wives*	*mouth – mouths*

However, some nouns in -*f, -th* have the voiceless consonant in the plural by analogy with the singular: *beliefs, proofs* (a French loan-word), *roofs, deaths, hearths*. Others have phonetic variants with the voiceless and the voiced consonant in the plural: **[f]** and **[v]** in *hoofs/hooves, scarfs/scarves, wharfs/wharves;* [θ] and [ð] in *truths, youths*. The word which in Old English had the forms N. A. Sg. *stæf –* N. A. Pl. *stafas*, ME *staf – staves,* has split into 2 separate words: *staff* (штаб, штат) – *staffs* and *stave* (клепка, перекладина, строфа) – *staves* (with the voiced consonant in the singular by analogy with the plural).

Of the numerous Middle English plural forms in -**en** only a few survive in present-day English: *oxen, children* and *brethren*. Of these only *oxen* belonged to the **n**-stems in Old English, while *children* and *brethren* come from other consonantal stem classes of nouns.

The earlier Middle English plural form of the noun *child*, to which the suffix -**en** was added, was *childre*(<0E *cildru)*. It survives today in dialectal speech as *childer*.

The form *brethren* was produced by adding the plural suffix -**en** to the Middle

English plural form *brether,* which had no ending, like the Old English plural *brōðor,* but showed a mutated root vowel – either under Scandinavian influence or by analogy with root-stem nouns

Of the Old English neuter **a**-stems with uninfected plural (i.e. the nominative and accusative plural without an ending, identical in sound with the nominative and accusative singular) most joined the common type of plural formation in later Middle English or in Modern English. However, the animal names *deer, sheep* and *swine* have kept uninflected plural forms coinciding with the singular, apparently because they denote animals which go together in herds (or flocks for that matter), so that a multitude of these animals can be regarded as a unit. The plurals ***deer, sheep*** usually have **a collective meaning** and *swine* is used only collectively, for a herd of the animals, while individual animals are called *a pig, pigs.* This explanation seems to be borne out by the fact that the noun ***fish,*** which in Old English had the inflection of the masculine **a**-stems (N. A. Sg. *fisc* – N. A. PI. *fiscas)* has developed an uninflected plural form (as in *A few gold-fish were swimming in the bowl),* presumably because of frequent collective use (*cf.* Ukr. морська риба, різна риба, багато риби).

In Middle English **grammatical gender** distinctions gradually disappear with the levelling of inflections both in nouns and in adjectives, and especially with the loss of gender forms in the article.

3.2. The Middle English Pronouns and Articles

1) the **dual** passed out of use.

2) The **genitive** case was lost. In Old English the genitive case forms of personal pronouns were used both in the object function and attributively. In attributive use, where they had possessive meaning and answered the question **"whose?",** they developed into possessive pronouns taking special endings to indicate agreement with the noun modified. In the object function they were replaced by prepositional phrases with the dative (later objective) case, e. g. ***of*** me, ***from*** me.

The **dative** and the **accusative** merged in one case form – the **objective** case, which phonetically continues the old dative form *(me, the,* etc.), except in the 3rd person singular neuter, where the former accusative form hit became the objective case. This, and the loss of the genitive, reduced the case system of the personal pronouns to two cases: the nominative and the objective.

In the **3rd person singular** the **feminine** form ***hēō > hē,*** which coincided with the masculine form, was replaced by ***shē,*** so as to distinguish the two genders. This resulted in a new series of suppletive forms, i.e. grammatical forms belonging to one word, but derived from different roots, in addition to the older suppletive series in the 1st person pronouns *(I – me, we – us),* which are of ancient Indo-European origin and have parallels in other languages, both Germanic and non-Germanic, e.g. ModG *ich – mir, wir – uns*, Ukr. *я – мені,* etc.).

Later in the period the 3rd person plural form ***hī,*** which tended to coincide with the 3rd person singular *hē,* as ē evolved towards **[i:],** was replaced by the synonymous form ***they*** of Scandinavian origin. The objective case of the same English pronoun *(hem <* OE *him)* was replaced by the corresponding Scandinavian form ***them.***

The native form ***hem*** survives as **[əm]** (with loss of aspiration – in dialectal and colloquial speech. It is often spelt *'em,* e.g. *give'em, take'em,* and is now regarded as a

weak (reduced) form of ***them.*** But historically speaking, it is not what tends to fall in English (and always does fall in weak forms, such as *'ve < have, 's < has,* etc.) is the initial **[h-],** not **[ð-].**

The form ***shē i*** s believed to have developed from OE ***sēo,*** the feminine form of a demonstrative pronoun, which probably got mixed with ***hēo.***

PRONOMINAL CHANGES IN DIACHRONY

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In the **Midlands** and **South** **s(c)he** is prototypical

The Fem. Nom. Sg. pronoun **hēo** was replaced by **sch-, sh-**. In the North the reflex was **scho**

The OE third plurals in **h-** gave way, ultimately, to forms in **þ-/th-**, which appear to derive from Old Norse

Again, **innovation** happened in the **North**

In ME the second singular becomes similar to French ***tu,*** and the plural becomes the polite form, similar to ***vous***

OE **ic** (ich) was replaced by **I** in ME. The form **I** was used in the North and Midlands from the 13th c. onwards.
OE **hit** survives in ME in the South and West; but in the North and East it is replaced by **it**

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Figure 3.1. The evolution of the ME personal pronoun **she**

As a result of the changes described above, the **personal pronouns** came to have the following forms:

Table 3.1. Declension of the **ME personal pronouns**

Singular					
Case	**First person**	**Second person**	**Third person**		
			Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ic, I, ik	thou	he	she	(h)it
Objective	me	thee	him	her	(h)it
Plural					
Case	**First person**		**Second person**	**Third person**	
Nominative	we		ye	they	
Objective	us		you	them	

The **possessive pronouns** became fully separated from the personal pronouns when the latter lost the genitive case early in Middle English. Later in the period they lost

their inflection, and the native form of the 3rd person plural was replaced by the form ***their,*** of Scandinavian origin (parallel with a similar development in the personal pronoun.

In the course of the Middle English period the **demonstrative pronouns** lost the distinctions of gender and case in connection with the reshaping of the noun system. The distinction of number remained, as it did in the noun. Thus the complicated grammatical system of the two demonstratives was reduced to the following forms:

Singular	Plural
that	*those*
this	*these*

In Middle English the use of the **articles** grew more regular. The **definite article** became formally distinct from the demonstrative pronoun. It assumed the indeclinable form *the* [ðē > ði:, ðə], while the demonstrative pronoun longer remained declinable and finally retained the "stronger" form ***that.***

The **definite article** is an outgrowth of the OE demonstr. pr. ***sē.*** The sound **[s]** of the OE Nom. Sg. M *(sē)* and F *(sēo)* was replaced by the sound **[θ]** on the analogy of the oblique cases (*þæs, þone,* etc). With the development of **ēo > ē** the forms **þē** and **þēo** fell together as **þe,** later spelt as **the.**

> ***That*** *retained its full demonstrative force, while **the** was weakened both in meaning and form. Gradually they became two different words.*

The **indefinite article**, which was always unstressed, had its vowel shortened to **a**, then reduced to **[ə],** and lost its final **n** before consonants. As a result, it became formally distinct from the numeral and the indefinite pronoun ***one,*** which developed in the following way: OE **ān** > ME **ōn** > ModE **one** [wʌn] *"one of many", "some".* The long **[ā]** was shortened in the unstressed **ān,** so that **ān > an.** Later the unstressed **[a]** was reduced in pronunciation to **[ə].**

Thus the **article** became a distinct part of speech. Both articles, like other determinatives of the noun (such as the demonstrative and the indefinite pronouns), lost gender distinctions in Middle English, in connection with the extinction of grammatical gender in nouns.

3.3. Loss of the Adjective Declension. Degrees of Comparison in Adjectives and Adverbs

In Middle English the inflectional endings of **adjectives** and **adjective-like words** were weakened through the reduction of unstressed vowels to **[ə]** (spelt *e*) and through the weakening and loss of the final nasal in unstressed syllables. They were further levelled to **-e [ə]** for the definite (weak) declension and the plural of the indefinite (strong) declension. The singular of the indefinite declension came to be represented by

one uninflected form. Thus the singular and the plural were still distinguished at least in the indefinite form of the adjective, while the distinctions of case and those of gender were gone.

By the end of the Middle English period the one remaining ending *-e* was lost, too. The adjective became unchangeable (except for the **degrees of comparison**) and so it remains in Modern English.

-ra > -re > -er   [-ər > ə]
-ost / -est > -est   [-ist]

In Middle English quite a number of new polysyllabic adjectives were coined or borrowed, chiefly from French (e.g., *beautiful, interesting, profitable,* etc.). Adding suffixes of comparison would make these words still longer, out of keeping with the usual type of English words. This circumstance favoured the development of the analytical way of expressing degrees of comparison by combining the adjective with the form-words *more* and *most* – the comparative and the superlative of *much.* These are used not only with polysyllabic adjectives, but also with those of two syllables, and now increasingly with monosyllabic words.

Degrees of comparison are expressed not only in adjectives, but also in qualitative adverbs.

In Middle English the adverbial suffixes of comparison coincided with those of the adjective (owing to reduction of unstressed vowels). In general, the development of degrees of comparison in the two classes of words runs parallel, including the increasing use of the analytical means of expressing comparison (the form-words *more* and *most).*

Chaucerian **adverbs** end in – **e, ly** and (rarely-**liche**: e.g., *brighte, unkyndely, roialliche, (royally).* Adverbs, like adj., have **comparative** and **superlative** forms.

Adverbs related in origin and meaning to adjectives with suppletive degrees of comparison also have suppletive forms:

3.4. The Middle English Verb

The most important feature of the **Middle English verb** is the development of analytical forms to express new grammatical meanings. There were: the strong verbs (diminishing); the weak verbs (increasing); and the irregular verbs (overlapped with verbal categories – subjunctivity and modality).

Let's look at the conjugation samples of strong and weak verbs:

Conjugation of strong verbs in ME

present	indicative	subjunctive	imperative
1st person Sg.	binde	binde	bind
2nd person Sg.	bindest	binde	bind
3rd person Sg.	bindeth	binde	bind
All persons Pl.	binde(n)	binde(n)	bindeth

Preterite
All persons Sg. bounde *(Ind./Subjunctive)*
All persons Pl. bounde(n) *(Ind./Subjunctive)*;
Participles: Pr. bindyng(e), Past (y)bounde(n)

Conjugation of weak verbs in ME

present	indicative	subjunctive	imperative	preterit	indicative	subjunctive
1st person Sg.	loue	loue	loue	1st person Sg.	louede	louede
2nd person Sg.	louest	loue	loue	2nd person Sg.	louedest	louede
3rd person Sg.	loueth	loue	loue	3rd person Sg.	louede	louede
All persons Pl.	loue(n)	loue(n)	loueth	All persons Pl.	louede(n)	louede(n)

Participles
Present louyng(e)
Past (y)louede

Strong verbs include **seen, knowen** *see, know*, and nearly any other verb that still changes (through "ablaut") its root vowel in Modern English.

Weak verbs are the majority.

The imperative mood uses a verb as a command. In the singular, the bare verb occurs (**bind!**), while the plural ends in **-(e)th** (**bindeth!**).

The **subjunctive** mood is found more frequently than in Modern English. It occurs in contrary-to-fact statements. In the singular, we find a form with **-e** (**she singe** *she (may or may not) sing*), while the plural has -en (**ye singen** *all of you (may or may not) sing*).

When talking about the future, making conditional statements, or for other moods, **modal** verbs are used as auxiliary or helping verbs: ***I shal singe, thou mightest come, we***

sholde goon I will sing, you might come, we should go.

The **present participle** ends in -**ing** or -**inge -inde, -ende, ande** (like **bathinge**).

The **past participle of weak verbs** ends in -**d** or -**t**, while **strong verbs** modify their stem vowel and take -**e(n).** Both weak and strong past participles often take the prefix **y**- (like **bathed** or **y-sungen** *bathed, sung,* OE ӡe- was weakened to **i**- or **y-** in ME). E.g. *He herde foweles singinge. That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.*

A **new non-finite form** of the verb began developing from the verbal noun in Middle English. Unlike a verbal noun, this form**, the gerund,** takes a direct object (when the verb is transitive), e.g. *in usinge hem (Chaucer). I felt severely the having no occasion for it (Dickens.*

The infinitive is by origin a kind of noun derived from a verb stem. OE forms (**wrītan** and **(tō) wrītanne)** gradually coincided (ME **wrīten**). The preposition **to** was used to express direction and purpose. E.g. *To lyven in delit was evere his wone* (Chaucer).

Negative sentences use the particle *ne* before the verb and, increasingly common in Chaucer's day, **nat** after the verb: **I ne wol, I wol nat** *I don't wish (to)*; **he ne wot, he wot nat** *he didn't know*; **tarieth nat!** *don't wait!*

It is quite common to find **ne** contracted with the verb: **nis** (ne + s) *isn't*; **not** (ne + wot) *didn't know* (from the verb **witen** *to know (facts or information)*).

3. 5. Middle English Syntax

For the most part, Middle English syntax (or sentence structure) is similar to Modern English. The basic, word order is **Subject-Verb-Object.** Still, you will find that word order is somewhat less rigid than in the current tongue. The object and even the "rest of sentence" (adjuncts, prepositional phrases) may precede the verb: *Whan he his papir soghte when he sought his paper*.

The famous first lines of the Canterbury Tales have the auxiliary and main verb after the object but before the adjunct: *Whan that Aprille ... the droghte of March hath perced to the roote When April ... has pierced the drought of March to the root.*

Thus, the preference for **VO** word-order evident in the OE corpus continued into the ME period, as did the comparatively less frequent use of **OV** structures. If the **object of a sentence** was a **pronoun,** word order was typically **OV.**

(a) Object pronoun

> Yef thou   me   zayst
>   **S**   **O**   **V**
> *if you say to me*

Subject verb inversion (in structures with basic **VO** order) occurred in **imperatives** and after **adverbs** of **place, time** and **manner.**

(b) Imperatives

> Clothe   ye   him, brynge   ye   a fat calf …
> **V**   **S**   **O/**   **V**   **S**   **O**
>
> *(you) clothe him and (you) bring a fatted calf*

(c) After adverbs of place, time, manner

here lieþ counforte
　　　　　V　　　**S**
here lies comfort

Another ME structural feature we should note concerns the placement of modifying adjectives in noun phrases. Adjectives tended to pre-modify nouns (as they do in modern English), but in ME verse they sometimes followed them, as in *sceld deore* 'beloved shield'. In cases where more than one adjective was used in a noun phrase, one would typically function as a pre-modifier, and the other (or others) as post-modifiers, as in *he milde man was and softe and god* ('he was a gentle man and soft and good').

The ME corpus also shows an increasing use of **to be** as the auxiliary verb in passive constructions, as well as the use of **by** to introduce the agent of the action (as in modern *my car **was** destroyed **by** my little brother*). Alternative structures did, however, exist: *worthe* ('to be', 'to come to be'), as in *blessid þou worth* ('may you be blessed'), was used, for example, until the fourteenth century. In early ME, an indefinite pronoun *men* (in unstressed form *me)* was often used to express the passive, as in *me henged up bi the fet and smoked heom mid ful smoke* ('they were hung up by the feet and smoked with foulsmoke'; *The Peterborough Chronicle,* Final Continuation 1154) (Singh, 2005: 124).

The verb **do** also began to develop a variety of functions in ME. It retained its OE function as a 'substitute verb' in sentences such as modern *Mark loves watching TV and I do too.* In some ME dialects, **do** also meant 'make' or 'have' – a usage still retained in phrases such as *let's do lunch.* The past tense form did was sometimes used to signal past tense (as in *did carye* 'carried'), a construction which was used productively in Early Modern English. Its other uses, such as an auxiliary in negative statements and questions, which have become part of modern English usage (as in *they don't eat liver and do you hate cats too?),* had begun to appear, but would not become a consistent part of usage until approximately the seventeenth century.

Finally, as the importance of **prepositions grew** in ME (as the synthetic nature of English diminished), new creations joined this word class. Many emerged through semantic change, as in the case of *among,* whose OE antecedent *gemong* meant 'in a crowd', or through compounding (as in *in + to*) and borrowing, as in the case of *till* (borrowed from Old Norse) and *except,* from Latin (Fennell, 2001: 102).

Summary

The main trend of historical changes in the morphological structure of English may be summed up as **levelling** and **loss** of **grammatical endings.** The famous English scholar Henry Sweet even named the main periods in the history of the English language after these characteristic developments in morphology: Old English 'the Period of Full Endings', Middle English 'the Period of Levelled Endings', Modern English 'the Period of Lost Endings'.

In Middle English most originally distinct grammatical endings were reduced to one common shape the weak vowel **[ə]** (spelt *e),* which was subsequently lost, or **[-ən]** … *(-en),* which remained in some forms (such as the plural of some nouns and the participle II form of strong verbs), but was further reduced and finally lost in others (as in the infinitive) or replaced by a different ending (as in the plural of a number of nouns).

The reduction (weakening) and subsequent loss of an unstressed ending is a change in the sound structure of words, largely due to the increasing stress on the root syllable.

However, it would be wrong to assume that the simplification of the inflection system in English was caused by phonetic development alone. To a large extent it was due to the fact that old formal distinctions lost their "semantic value": either they no longer meant anything to the language users, as happened with the grammatical gender in nouns, or the distinctions in grammatical meaning which they indicated came to be expressed more clearly and explicitly by other means   a graphic example is the increasing use of prepositions to express those relations that used to be conveyed by means of case inflection. It is worthy of noting that while *-en* as a case ending of nouns and adjectives and as the infinitive suffix has been lost, the word-building suffix *-en,* which has preserved its "semantic value", i.e. its own meaning and distinctive force (it serves to distinguish the derivative from the initial word), survives, for instance, in the verbs *blacken, gladden, redden,* and in the adjectives *flaxen, golden, silken, waxen, wooden, woolen* (Singh, 2005: 122–124).

Certain historical circumstances favoured and accelerated the loss of inflections in English. The most important was the close contact of English with the Scandinavian language after the Scandinavian ("Danish") conquest of England (late in the Old English period). The Scandinavian settlers were able to communicate without much difficulty with the native English population they mixed and merged with in the course of time, as the two languages were rather closely related and had a large proportion of the vocabulary in common. Both the Anglo-Saxons and the Scandinavians usually found it easy to identify the roots or bases (stems) of such common words in the speech of the other community with those of their own language, and so to grasp the meaning, while the endings, which in many instances did not coincide in the two languages, did not seem to matter much and therefore tended to be dropped or blurred. This explains why in the Northern dialects of English the simplification of inflection took place at an earlier date than in the other dialects (Barber, 2009: 167–173).

Most other innovations in English grammar, such as the **-(e)s** ending of the 3rd person singular present indicative and the common plural suffix of nouns **-es,** also spread from the North.

The massive borrowing of words from French in Middle English "as a result of the Norman Conquest of England" may have accelerated the loss of grammatical gender in nouns, attributive words and the articles: the English naturally felt uncertain about the gender of foreign nouns and usually classed them according to their lexical meaning (living things masculine and feminine, lifeless things neuter). But of course it was not the primary cause of the weakening and loss of the feeling for English, before the Norman Conquest.

An important factor in the **simplification** of the English i**nflection** system is **grammatical analogy.** It is natural for the speaker of any language to follow usual and familiar patterns in speech. In accordance with this tendency, the inflection of a familiar, commonly used form may be transferred by analogy to another form of the same word

or, which happens more frequently, to forms of other words expressing the same grammatical meaning. It is this latter kind of analogy that brings about **unification** of the originally distinct types of declension and conjugation. In fact, the variety of declension types of nouns characteristic of Old English was reduced in the course of the Middle English period to a common type of two-case system, and plural formation in nouns was also unified with a few exceptions. As for adjectives, their declension became uniform way back in Old English (Horodin, 2002: 89–125).

Parallel with the simplification of inflection and in close connection with it, other important changes have taken place in the grammatical structure of English. Instead of expressing grammatical meanings of words **synthetically,** by modifying the words through addition of various endings and through sound alternations, as was usual in Old English, the English language to an increasing extent expresses them **analytically,** that is by combining notional words with special form-words, such as prepositions and auxiliary verbs, and through position of words with regard to each other in connected speech (word-order).

Questions for self-control

1. Identify the grammatical categories of ME nouns.

2. Compare the development of case and number in nouns, adjectives and pronouns.

3. Illustrate the process of replacement by tracing the history of the pronouns *she, they, their, him, you, its.*

4. What is the connection between the growth of articles and the history of pronouns?

5. Account for the evolution of the grammatical categories of gender and declension in the nominal parts of speech of Middle English.

6. Define the development of the Middle English verbs from the historical perspective.

7. Examine the principal features and peculiarities of Middle English morphology and syntax.

SEMINAR 2

Aims:
- ✓ be able to identify the main changes in morphology and syntax from the historical perspective;
- ✓ be able to trace the origin of some morphological irregularities, inasmuch as they affect words in wide current use.

2.1. Study points:

1. The Noun. Decay of Noun Declensions. Grammatical Categories
2. The Pronoun
3. Development of Articles
4. The Adjective. Degrees of Comparison
5. The Verb. Simplifying Changes in the Verb Conjugation. Verbals
6. The Middle English Syntax

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. P. 120–132.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 51–88; 89–115.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English language. Vinnitsa, 2004. P. 118–143.

Additional:
- ✓ Lecture 3.

2.2. Tests: review of theory

I.

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

1. The main trend of the ME morphology is towards a loss of endings.
2. The history of English grammar may be classified as a complicated evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable features.
3. The synthetic forms of the ME and Early NE periods were, but few, the same as before: suppletive form-building, sound interchanges, inflections.
4. The analytical way of form-building was an old device, developed in Late OE.
5. The main characteristic of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history can be defined as morphological complication.
6. The reduction and subsequent loss of an unstressed ending is a change in the sound structure of words, largely due to the increasing stress on the root syllable.
7. In the course of the ME period the English noun declensions were further simplified through levelling and loss of endings.
8. The ME noun case endings **-an, -ena, -um** were levelled to -**in** [-ən].
9. The nominative, accusative and dative case forms merged together and formed the **common case.**
10. The second form has developed from the genitive case in – **es**, narrowed its meaning, expressing possessive relations, so that it could be properly be called the **accusative case.**
11. In ME grammatical gender distinctions gradually disappear with the levelling of inflections.
12. In the ME personal pronouns the dual number passed out of use.
13. The ME personal pronouns in the genitive case, obtaining the possessive meaning and answering the question "whose", developed into the **demonstrative pronouns.**
14. The dative and the accusative cases merged into one case form—the **possessive case.**
15. The possessive pronouns became fully separated from the personal pronouns when the latter lost the genitive case early in Middle English.

16. In the ME period the OE demonstrative pronouns (sē *m*, sēo *f*, þæt *n*; and þēs *m*, þēos *f*, þis *n*), lost the distinctions of gender and case and were reduced to the following forms: this that *sg,* these, those *pl.*
17. In ME the use of articles grew more regular.
18. Articles lost gender distinctions in ME, in connection with the extinction of grammatical gender in nouns.
19. In ME the inflectional endings of adjectives were weakened through the reduction of unstressed vowels to [ə], spelt *e.*
20. The levelling of endings and the increasing use of prepositions played an increasingly important role in the subsequent history of English.

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

1. The loss of ... forms was closely connected with the levelling and loss of endings due to the fixation of the word-stress on the first or root syllable.
   - **A** analytical
   - **B** synthetic
   - **C** syntactic
   - **D** combined

2. In the 11th the ... of endings grew much more intensive, which was partly due to ... influence.
   - **A** strengthening … Roman
   - **B** unification … Celtic
   - **C** levelling … Scandinavian
   - **D** retaining … Norman

3. By the end of the ME ... distinctions were lost nearly everywhere.
   - **A** tense
   - **B** mood
   - **C** number
   - **D** gender

4. With the loss of case inflections the role of ... grew ever more important.
   - **A** articles
   - **B** prepositions
   - **C** pronouns
   - **D** nouns

5. The dative and accusative cases of the ME personal pronouns had fallen together and as a result one – the ... case appeared.
   - **A** nominative
   - **B** possessive
   - **C** genitive
   - **D** objective

6. The ME nouns distinguished only two cases:
    A the common and the possessive
    B the nominative and the objective
    C the genitive and the objective
    D the common and the objective

7. The ME personal pronouns obtained the following cases:
    A the nominative and the objective
    B the nominative and the possessive
    C the nominative and the genitive
    D the nominative and the dative

8. An innovation was the introduction of the analytical ways of building up the degrees of comparison of adjectives with the help of _..._.
    A -ra ... -est
    B -er ... -est
    C more … most
    D -es … -an

9. The ME verb had lost the category of _..._.
    A tense
    B aspect
    C mood
    D number

10. The most characteristic feature of the ME verb was the development of _..._ forms to express new grammatical meanings.
    A analytical
    B synthetic
    C suppletive
    D inflexional

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.
1. Synchronic approach –
2. Internal linguistics –
3. Diachronic approach –h
4. Grammar –
5. Morphology –
6. Morpheme –
7. Word –
8. Paradigm –
9. Pronoun –
10. Verb –
11. Syntax –

12. Declension –

13. Case –

14. Mood –

15. Aspect –

16. Voice –

17. Tense –

18. Number –

19. Noun –

20. Dual –

A the division of language into linguistic levels.

B the language is regarded as fixed in time.

C every linguistic fact is interpreted as a step in the never-ending evolution of language.

D the study or use of the rules by which words change their forms and are combined into sentences.

E the smallest meaningful unit in a language, consisting of a word or part of a word that cannot be divided without its meaning.

F the study of the morphemes of a language and of the way in which they are joined together to make words.

G one or more sounds which can be spoken to represent an idea, object, action;

H a list of all the various inflected forms of a declinable word.

I the rules of grammar which are used for ordering and connecting to form phrases of sentences.

J a word or (group of words) that is used in describing an action, experience or state.

K a part of speech used instead of a noun or a noun phrase.

L a grammatical category of number to two items.

M the list of all possible inflected forms of a noun, pronoun or adjective.

N a word or (group of words) that is the name of a person, a place, a thing, or activity, or a quality or idea.

O the form of a word showing its relationship with other words in a sentence.

P change in the form of words, esp. of nouns and verbs, depending on whether one or more than one thing is talked about.

Q 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.

R any of the various sets of verb forms to express a fact or action, a command or a doubt, wish, etc.

S the form of the verb which shows whether the subject of a sentence acts or is acted on.

T 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.

3.3. Reading practice

1. Read text 1, translate it into ModE (use the Glossary). Define the main idea.

> And therfor, hoste, I warne thee biforn,
> My jolly body shal a tale telle,
> And I shal clinken you so merry a belle,
> That I shal waken al this companye.
>   *(The Shipman's Tale, Prologue)*

Glossary to text 1

therfor – therefore; *OE* þǣrfore
hoste – host (< *OF*)
warnen – warn; *OE* wearninan; *OHG* warnōn
body – body; *OE* bodiʒ; *OHG* potah
tale – tale; *OE* talu; *OHG* zala
telle – to tell; *OE* tellan; *OHG* zellan
clinken – to clink, to tinkle (*borr. fr. Dutch*)
merry – merry; *OE* myriʒ, myrʒe
belle – bell; *OE* belle, *rel. to* bellan
waken – to wake; *OE* wacan, *wv.1*; *Gth.* wakan
al – all; *OE* eal; *Gth.* alls
companye – company (< *OF*)

2. Read and translate the text into ModE. Define the characteristic features of the Middle English grammar.

> Whan folk laughen at this nyce cas
> Of Absolon and hende Nicholas,
> Diverse folk diversely they seyde;
> But, for the more part, they loughe and pleyde,
> Ne at his tale I saugh no man him greve…
>   *(The Reeve's Tale)*

SELF-STUDY 3

Aims:

✓ to perceive the main changes in morphology and syntax from the historical perspective once again;
✓ to trace the origin of some morphological irregularities, inasmuch as they affect words in wide current use in practice.

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

3.1.1. *History of English – ME Morphology*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cx_X8gYWtAQ&index=16&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63
3.1.2. *History of English – ME Syntax*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3oq3x3oqjqY&index=17&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63
3.1.3. *ME 8 thou*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wsl8atrBKvM

- David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Cambridge, 1994. P. 44–45.
- Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia, 2006. P. 120–132.
- Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 51–88; 89–115.
- L. Verba. History of the English language. Vinnitsa, 2004. P. 118–143.

Additional:
- Simon Horobin and Jeremy Smith. An Introduction to Middle English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. P. 89–125.
- 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. Strong and weak noun declensions can be found in ME.
2. The Nominative, Dative and Accusative cases of the ME nouns merged and formed the Common case.
3. Of the numerous ME plural forms in **-en** only a few survive in PDE: oxen.
4. The ME verb has lost the greatest number of grammatical categories.
5. The ME Adjective has acquired new categories: Voice, Time Correlation (or Phase) and Aspect.
6. The OE 3rd person plural pronouns with the initial **h-** are gradually replaced by ones with an initial **th-,** which derived from Old Norse.
7. In ME the second personal pronoun Sg. (*thou*) becomes the familiar form, similar to French *tu,* and the Pl. (*ye(e)*) becomes the polite form similar to French *vous*. Later, around 1600 *ye* is lost, *thou* and *thee* are used less frequently, and *you* (from OE *eow*) becomes the common form.
8. The OE personal pronoun **ic** (ich) was replaced by **I** in ME. The form **I** was used in the North and Midlands from the 13th c. onwards.
9. The OE **hit** survives in ME in the South and West; but in the North and East it is replaced by **they.**
10. Norse has supplied English with the third person pronoun: *YE(E)/ YOU/ YOUR.*

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.
1. Identify the nouns of strong declension in the genitive case singular:
   A care, stōn, wolf
   B cares, fishes, endes
   C lond, foot, mon
   D footes, mices, house
2. Identify the nouns of weak declension in the genitive case plural:
   A feetes, mices, oxen(es)
   B horses, mouses, wolves
   C lives, paths, roofs
   D faderes, thinges, ladys

3. Indicate the nouns whose plural forms fully coincided with the singular:
   A calf, knife, bath
   B foot, goose, mouse
   C deer, sheep, swine
   D man, tooth, louse
4. Identify the forms of the ME personal pronouns in the 2nd person singular:
   A he, she
   B thou, thee
   C we, us
   D ye, you
5. Define the ME demonstrative pronouns:
   A his, hers its, ours
   B mine, yours, theirs
   C we/us, they/them
   D this/these, that/those
6. Determine the ME strong declension of adjectives:
   A yong/yonge
   B yonge/yonge
   C yonger/yongest
   D more yonge/most yonge
7. Identify the forms of the infinitive:
   A engende, dyinde, writende
   B fillen, filde, filled
   C wrīten, bīnden, loven
   D usinge, binde, bindeth
8. The syntactical combinations of OE *sculan* and *willan* with the infinitive developed into analytical forms of the ....
   A subjunctive mood
   B future tense
   C passive voice
   D past tense
9. The syntactical combinations of OE *habban* and participle II developed into analytical forms of the ....
   A imperative mood
   B present tenses
   C active voice
   D perfect tenses
10. The syntactical combinations of OE *bēon/wesan* and the past participle developed into analytical forms of the ....
    A indicative mood
    B future tenses
    C passive voice
    D past tenses

III. Matching: Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning. Pay attention to the underlined words (to a certain extent they are prompts):

1. Line 1 of *"The Man of Law's Tale"* by G. Chaucer *"And therfor, hoste, I warne thee biforn"* presents the following forms of the ....
2. The analytical forms of the future tense are introduced in lines ....
3. The use of articles in lines ... in the age of Chaucer is often similar to what we find in English today.
4. The following examples show the use of strong and weak forms of adjectives indiscriminately:
5. The line *"For every man, save thou, hath told his tale"* demonstrates the usage ....
6. The double negation was still widely spread in ME:
7. *"That oon of hem, in sleeping as he lay"* introduces the form of ...
8. *"The angel ys tolde the words"* inserts ...
9. ME possessive pronouns occurring in the literary texts of the late 14th and 15th c. are given in lines ...
10. Except personal and possessive pronouns the text introduces reflexive, indefinite and demonstrative ones ...

A ... the gerund in ME.
B ... ME personal pronouns (I – 1st p. N. Sg., *thee* – 2nd p. O. Sg.).
C *"That noon of us ne speke nat a word"*.
D *"My jolly body shal a tale telle,"*
   And I shal clinken yow so merry a belle.
E ... the form of the passive construction.
F *"Our hoste sey well that the brighte sonne…*
   My jolly body shal a tale telle".
G *"Non other message wolde they thider sende,*
   But comen hemself to Rome, this is the ende".
H ... *"Withinne oure yerde, wher-as I saugh a beste*
   Upon my body, and wolde han had me deed".
I ... of the analytical form of present perfect.
J *"And I shal clinken yow so merry a belle,*
   That I shal waken al this companye".

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 4

MIDDLE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

LECTURE 4

"Language is the expression of thought by means of words, that is by means of signs of particular sort made with the vocal organs".
(J. Greenough)

Aims:
- ✓ to discuss the types and sources of ME lexical changes;
- ✓ to explore the Latin influence up to the end of the Middle English period;
- ✓ to present evidence for extensive Scandinavian influence during Middle English;
- ✓ to discuss the influx of French loans after 1066;
- ✓ to examine new types of word formation.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
4.1. The Origins of ME Lexicon
4.2. Types and Sources of Changes
4.3. Scandinavian Influence on the Vocabulary
4.4. French Influence on the Vocabulary in Middle English
4.5. Borrowings from Latin in the Middle English period
4.6. New Word Formation
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

losses	French influence	polysemy
replacements	Latin influence	homonymy
additions	kennings	connotation
Scandinavian influence	Chaucerian English	semantic shift

Recommended Literature
Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 46–49.
- ✓ Simon Horobin and Jeremy Smith. An Introduction to Middle English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. P. 69–88.

- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 122–123; 127–130.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 144–151.

Additional:
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 95–106; 132–133.

Introduction

According to the estimates made by modern philologists, in the course of the thousand years – from OE to modern times – the English vocabulary has multiplied tenfold. Perhaps, if it were possible to count all the meanings expressed by lexical items in different historical periods, the figure would be much higher.

Borrowings played a much greater role in Middle English than in Old English. They came from two sources: Scandinavian and French.

4.1. The Origins of ME Lexicon

Reasons of hospitality of loan-words are as follows:
a) large-scale contact between English-speakers and users of other languages, notably varieties of Norse and French;
b) the 'Latin renaissance' of the 12th c. meant widespread use of Latin for documentary purposes, and thus the potential for greater 'leakage' from Latin into ME;
c) Since ME was a much less inflected language than OE, it was easier to adopt words from foreign languages (Horobin, 2002: 71).

4.2. Types and Sources of Changes

Among the changes in the vocabulary we can distinguish **losses** of words or their meanings, **replacements** and **additions.**

Like many other lexical changes **losses** were connected with events in external history: with the changing conditions of life and the obsolescence of many medieval concepts and customs.

Some regulations and institutions of OE kingdoms were cancelled or forgotten in the ME period. OE *witenaʒemot* 'assembly of the elders' ceased to exist under the Norman rule; OE *Daneʒeld,* the tax paid to the Scandinavians, was not collected after the collapse of the Danish Empire – both words have survived only as historical terms. OE *werʒeld* was a fine paid by the murderer to the family of the murdered man; the word became obsolete together with the custom.

Some rituals of the heathen religion were abandoned – after the introduction of Christianity – and their names dropped out of use, e.g. OE *tiber, blōt* which meant

'sacrifice' (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 296).

In OE there were many groups of synonyms whose differentiation became irrelevant in ME; therefore some of the synonyms fell out of use. For instance, OE *here, fierd, werod* indicated an armed force, an army *(here* must have had a negative connotation as it was used only in reference to a hostile army, the Danes). The distinction between the synonyms was lost when they were all replaced by the ME borrowings from French *army, troop.*

The English vocabulary suffered considerable losses when a whole stylistic stratum of words, the specific OE poetic vocabulary, went out of use together with the genre of OE poetry; those were numerous poetic synonyms of ordinary, neutral words, stock metaphors and traditional **"kennings"** (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 296).

The **replacements** came as a result of the coexistence and rivalry of synonyms and the ultimate selection of one of the rivals. Thus OE *clipian* came to be replaced by ME *callen,* ModE *call;* OE *niman* was ousted by ME *taken,* NE *take,* the pronouns *hie* and *hēo* were substituted for by *they* and *she;* OE *weorðan* was replaced by *become;* ModE *table* – the place of OE *bord* and so on and so forth.

Replacements could also occur in the sphere of content: the word was retained but its meaning was changed or was replaced by a new meaning. Thus OE *dream* meant 'joy' but acquired an entirely different meaning, formerly rendered by OE *swefn;* OE *cniht* 'boy, servant' changed its meaning to ME and NE *knight;* OE *cleric* 'clergyman' developed into ME *clerk* 'student, scholar' and ModE 'secretary in an office'. Sometimes the meanings of the word changed when its referent (the thing it denoted) underwent some kind of changes, for instance, ME *carre* 'wheeled vehicle' now indicates a motor car or part of a train *(sleeping car),* ModE *car,* Early ME *carriage; coche* denoted an old form of carriage pulled by four horses, while its descendant, NE *coach,* has acquired the meaning of 'car, carriage' in a train (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 297).

Additions embrace a large number of vocabulary changes. The sum total of this type of change far offsets the process of obsolescence and decay. Among additions we can find pure innovations, that is entirely new words which did not take the place of any other items but were created to name new things, new ideas and new qualities, e.g. ME *citee* 'town with a cathedral'', *duke, duchesse, prynce* – new ranks and titles; ModE *bourgeois, potato, nylon* (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 297–298; Singh, 2005: 124).

The influx of borrowings was directly dependent on the linguistic situation in the country, on the extent of bilingualism in the community, and on the position and role of the foreign language. The linguistic situation in ME was most favourable for strong foreign influence – **first Scandinavian** then **French** and undoubtedly **Latin**. Foreign words were adopted in large numbers in the succeeding periods as well and their sources became more diverse: English freely borrowed both from classical and modern sources though at no other time the immediate effect of the foreign impact was as manifest as in ME.

Figure 4.1. The general outline of borrowings in ME
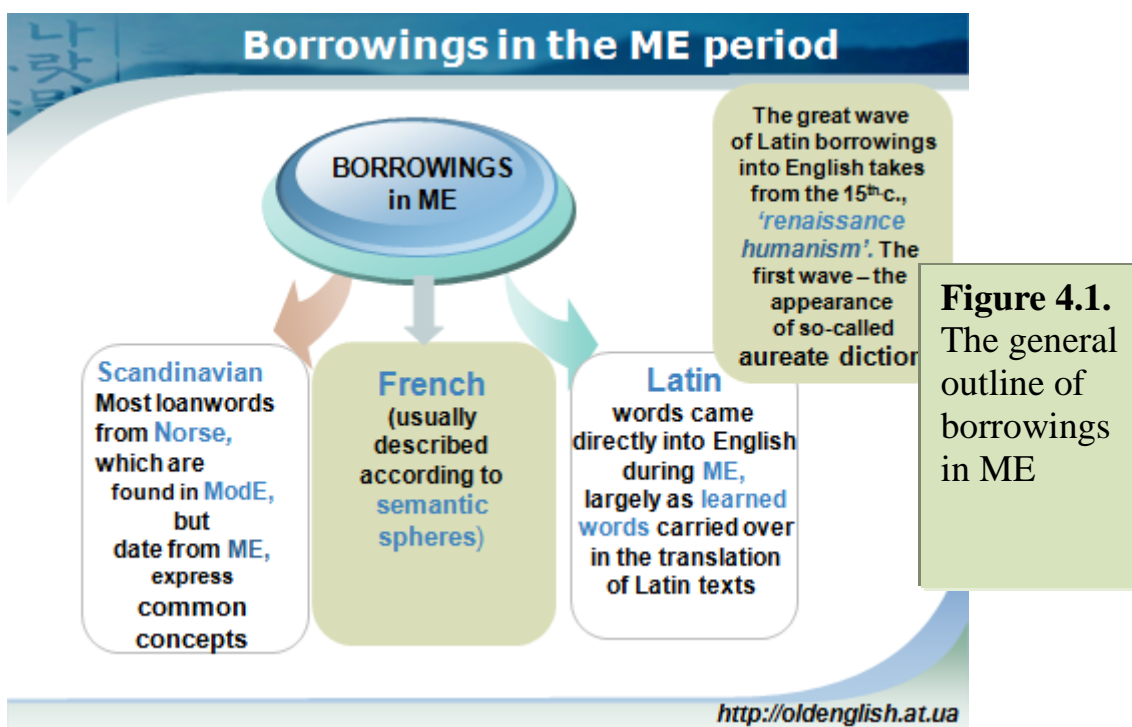
4.3. Scandinavian Influence on the Vocabulary

Apart from many place names (over 1400) in -**by,** -**thorpe, -thwaite,** etc. the number of Scandinavian borrowings was not very great, but they were mostly everyday words of very high frequency.

Scandinavian influence on English went a good deal further than place-names, however. The English were not exterminated by the Scandinavian settlers, but the latter were sufficiently numerous to influence English speech.

Most of the Scandinavian loanwords first appear in writing in the Middle English period, but their form shows that they had been taken into English in the late OE period, for they have undergone the sound changes that mark the transition from Old to Middle English. They do not appear earlier in writing because at that time there was no literary tradition in the Danelaw, and most surviving texts are in the West Saxon dialect, which was the one least influenced by Old Norse. A few loans, however, do occur in OE texts (Barber, 2009: 143).

But what is most striking about the Scandinavian loanwords as a whole is that they are such *ordinary* words. The English and the Scandinavians had very similar cultures, and the fusion of the two peoples was a close one; many of the words taken over, in consequence, were homely everyday ones, words belonging to the central core of the vocabulary. Thus the word *sister* is Scandinavian (the Old English is *sweostor*) and the names of such close family relationships are part of the central core of vocabulary.

So are the names of the body, yet the words *leg* and *neck* are Scandinavian. Other common **nouns** include *bag, cake, dirt, fellow, fog, knife, skill, skin, sky and window.*

Everyday **adjectives** include *fat, loose, low, odd, ugly* and *wrong,* and among everyday **verbs** are *call, drag, get, give, raise, smile, take* and *want.* Moreover, some grammatical words are from Scandinavian, namely the **conjunctions** *though, till* and *until,* and the **pronouns** *they, them* and *their;* which in Old English were *hīe, him* and

74

hiera. Some of these forms are found in Chaucerian English.

The Present-Day English pronoun **she** seems to derive from a blend of OE *hēo* with a Norse-type pronunciation *hjō,* which subsequently developed into **ME scho** (Northern) and **sche** (Southern). The borrowing of such central grammatical words as **personal pronouns** shows the strength of the Scandinavian influence.

The total number of Scandinavian loans is in fact rather small, compared with the number of words later borrowed from French and Latin; on the other hand, many of them are words in very frequent use, and there is a Scandinavian enclave in the very central regions of the English vocabulary. In the main areas of Viking settlement, a larger vocabulary of Scandinavian loanwords is preserved in regional dialects, so that there are still parts of England and Scotland where you can hear Scandinavian words like *big* 'to build', *hoast* 'cough', *laik* 'to play', *lait* 'to search', *lathe* 'barn' and *lie* 'scythe' (Barber, 2009: 143–144).

Scandinavian loans cause a meaning shift in the original: e.g. *gift* originally meant *'payment for a wife'* but the ON had shifted and caused the change; *dream* means 'joy' in OE, but becomes 'vision in sleep' in ME; *plow* 'measure of land ' in OE – *plow* in ME.

Other shifts: N *die* – E *starve*; N *skill* – E *craft*; N *skin* – E *hide*; N *ill* – E *sick.*
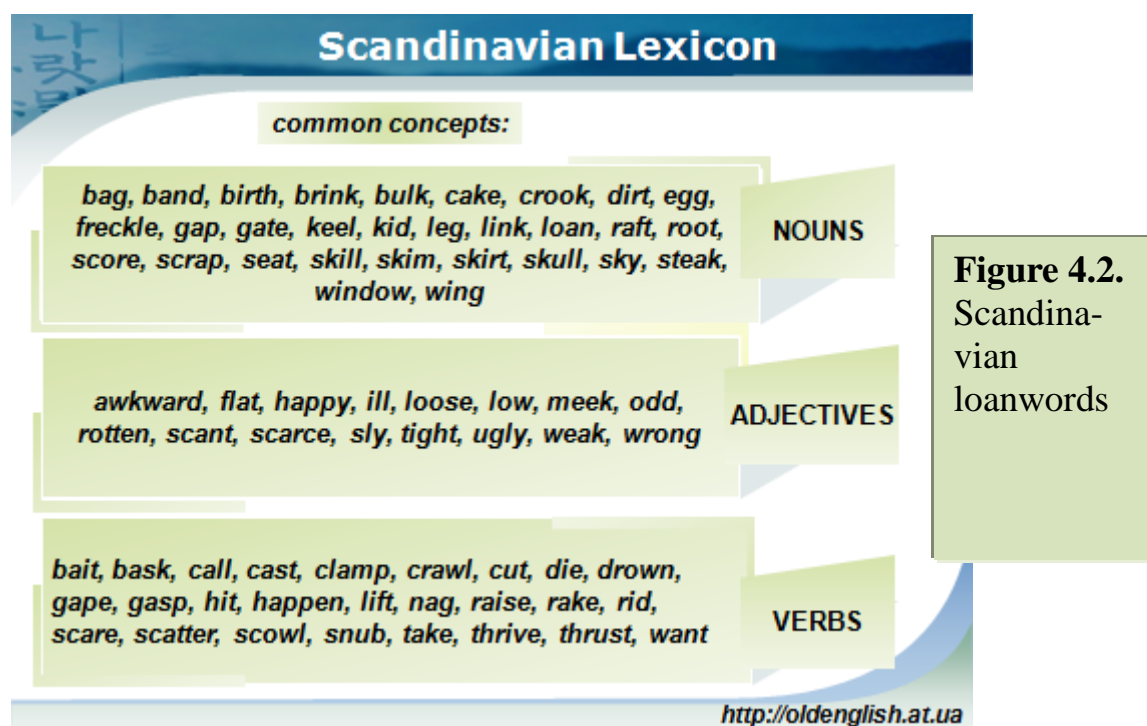
Figure 4.2. Scandinavian loanwords

Lists of words such as these suggest better than any explanation the familiar, everyday character of the words that the Scandinavian invasions and subsequent settlement brought into English.

4.4. French Influence on the Vocabulary in Middle English

Whereas the lexical stock of Old English had been largely Germanic, that of

Middle English was somewhat more Romance in nature. English borrowed significantly from French in this period (a typical estimate is about 10,000 loans), and it is traditionally held that these loanwords entered the language in two main phases divided approximately by 1250. In the first early stage of borrowing, a relatively small number of loanwords entered English primarily from Norman French, their nature reflecting the social positions held by the newcomers from the Continent.

After 1250, it is thought that the majority of loanwords derived from the fashionable French of the Parisian court (or Central French), in vogue at most thirteenth-century European courts as a symbol of 'chivalrous society in its most polished form' (Baugh and Cable, 2002: 134).

Various sources state that ME speakers sometimes borrowed the same word twice, once in each phase. This is based on the assumption that regular sound correspondences obtained between the two varieties of **Norman** and **Central French,** which resulted in the same word having somewhat different phonetic forms. Thus, where **Norman** French had **[w], Central** French had **[g];** and **Norman** French **[k]** and **[ʧ]** corresponded to **Central** French **[ʧ]** and **[s]** respectively. English therefore borrowed *warranty* and *warden* from Norman French and later, their Central French counterparts *guarantee* and *guardian; catch* and *launch* from the Normans and *chase* and *lance* from the Parisian court. Whereas the difference between these forms in the two varieties of French was purely phonetic, the primary distinction in English is semantic: *to catch,* for example, is not the same as *to chase,* even if both activities are related (Baugh and Cable, 2002; Fennell, 2001; Pyles and Algeo, 1982).

The influx of French words differed in several ways from the influx of Scandinavian words. We have already seen that Scandinavian words spread down from the Danelaw, whereas French words may have tended to spread from London and the court, and locally from the lord's castle. Moreover, the French words were on the whole not such homely ones as the Scandinavian words: the Vikings had mixed in with the English on more or less equal terms, but the Normans formed a separate caste that imposed much of their culture on their subordinates. Many of the French loanwords reflect this cultural and political dominance: they are often words to do with war, ecclesiastical matters, the law, hunting, heraldry, the arts and fashion. For the same reason, French words tended to penetrate downwards in society, whereas the Scandinavian words came in on the ground floor. Finally, the French words were entirely new ones, with no obvious resemblance to anything in English, whereas many of the Scandinavian loans were merely dialectal variants of their English counterparts (Barber, 2009: 155–159).

Thus, the French borrowings of the Middle English period are usually described according to semantic spheres:

Figure 4.3. French semantic spheres
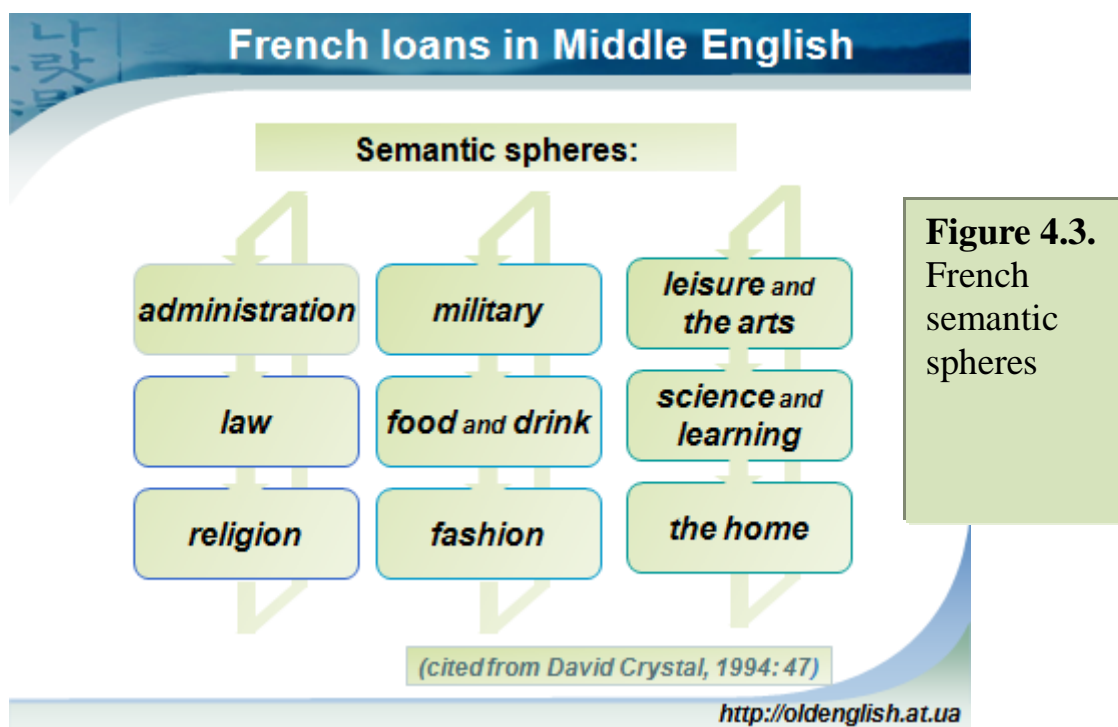
To this day nearly all the words relating to the *government* and *administration* of the country are French by origin:

Figure 4.4. French administra-tive, juridical, religious terms

These borrowings show that the Normans possessed a far more elaborate *administrative* system.

A still greater number of words belong to the domain of *law* and *jurisdiction,* which were certainly under the control of the Normans. For several hundred years court procedure was conducted entirely in French, so that to this day native English words in this sphere are rare. Many of the words first adopted as juridical terms belong now to the common everyday vocabulary.

A large number of French words pertain to the *Church* and *religion,* for in the 12th and 13th c. all the important posts in the Church were occupied by the Norman clergy.

The host of *military* terms adopted in ME is a natural consequence of the fact that military matters were managed by the Normans and that their organisation of the army and military service was new to the English

Besides these spheres which reflect the dominant position of the Normans in Britain as conquerors and rulers, there are many others which reveal the influence of the Norman way of life on the English (*food and drink, fashion*).

French Loans 2

military
ambush, army, armour, banner, battle, besiege, captain, combat, defend, defeat, dragoon, enemy, ensign, escape, garrison, guard, lance, lieutenant, navy, peace, regiment, retreat, sergeant, siege, soldier, spy, troops, vessel, victory

food and drink
appetite, bacon, beef, biscuit, cream, dinner, feast, fig, fruit, grape, gravy, herb, jelly, lemon, mustard, mutton, olive, orange, oyster, pigeon, plate, pork, poultry, roast, salad, sardine, saucer, sausage, spice, stew, sugar, supper, taste, toast, veal, vinegar

fashion
boots, brooch, button, chemise, collar, diamond, dress, embroidery, emerald, fashion, fur, gown, jewel, lace, mitten, ornament, pearl, train, veil, wardrobe

Figure 4.5. French military, food and drink, fashion terms

http://oldenglish.at.ua

Many French loan-words belong to the domain of *leisure, the arts and the home,* which is natural enough, for the Norman nobles amused themselves with various pastimes. Also borrowed were many abstract nouns, especially the names of mental and moral qualities, such as *charity, courtesy, cruelty, mercy, obedience.*

We can single out words relating to the sphere of *science* and *learning leisure* and *the arts, the home.*
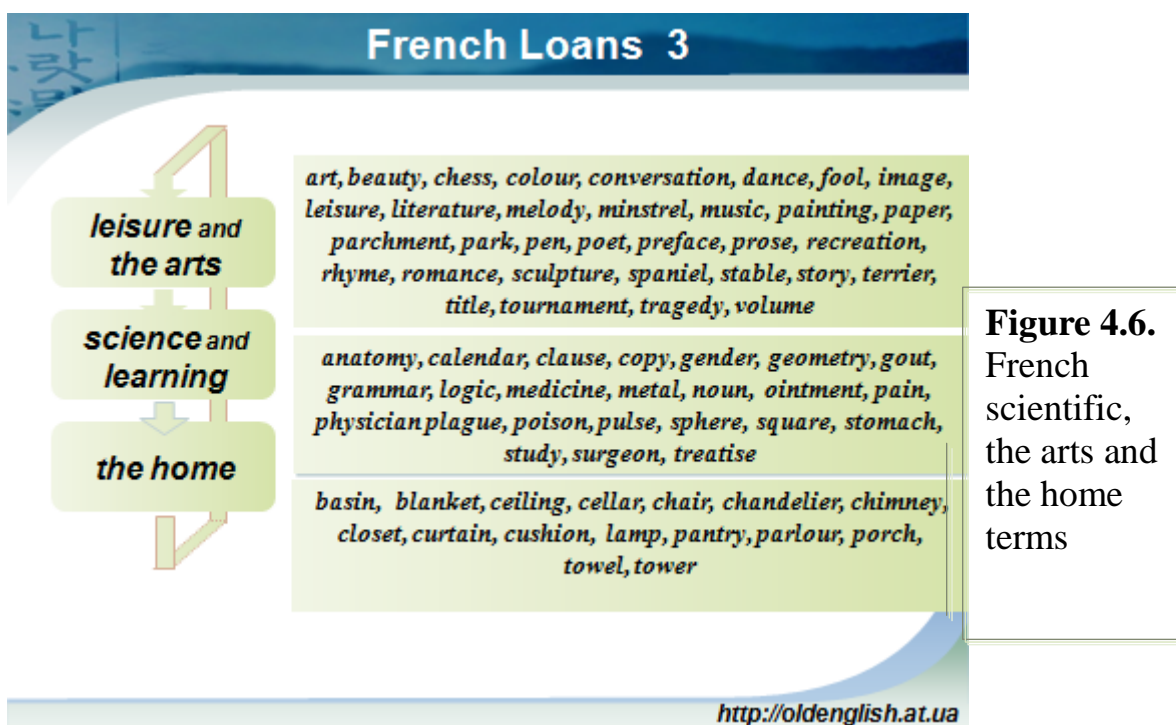
Figure 4.6. French scientific, the arts and the home terms

Finally, many French loan-words cannot be referred to a definite semantic sphere and can only be listed as miscellaneous:
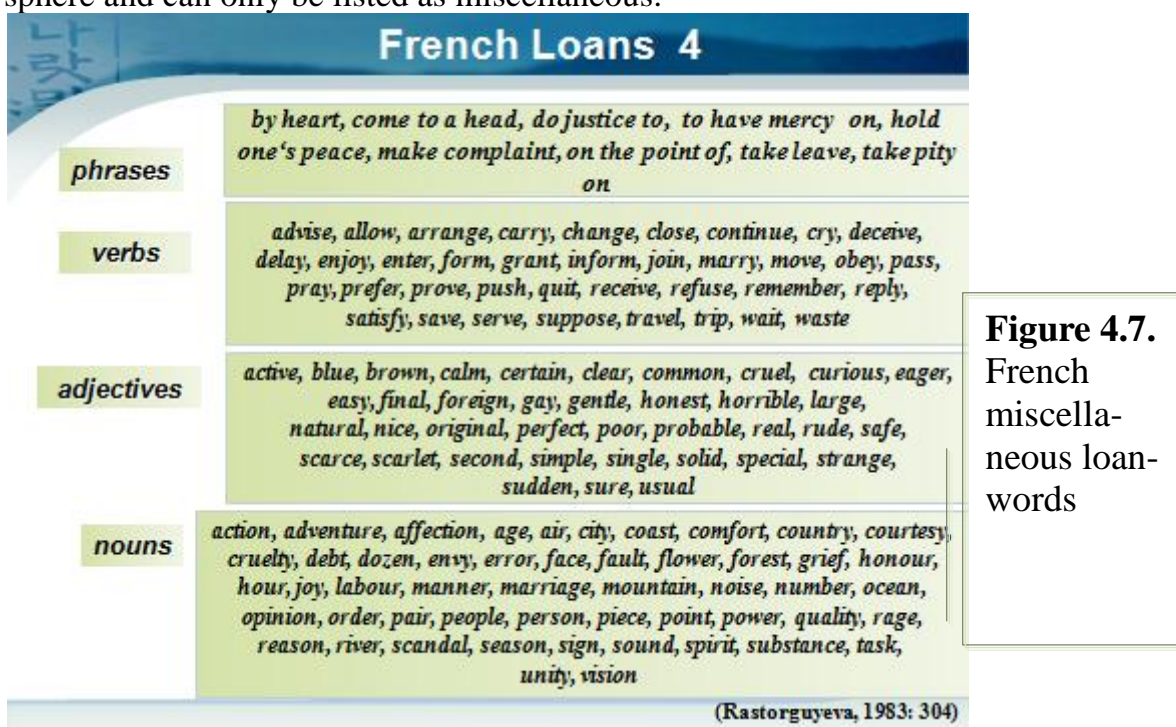
Figure 4.7. French miscella-neous loan-words

There are other indications of the aristocratic stamp of medieval French loanwords. Things connected with ordinary people tend to retain their English names, whereas upper-class objects often have French names. Thus we have English *home* and *house* but French *manor* and *palace;* English *child, daughter* and *son,* but French *heir* and *nurse;* English *maid, man* and *woman,* but French *butler* and *servant;* English *calf, ox, sheep* and *swine,* but French *veal, beef, mutton* and *pork.* In Modern English we often have French and Germanic words surviving side-by-side with similar meanings; in such cases the Germanic word tends to be more popular, and perhaps

more emotionally charged, while the French word is often more formal, refined or official. Thus we have such pairs as *doom* and *judgment, folk* and *nation, hearty* and *cordial, holy man* and *saint, stench* and *odour.*

French influence led to different kinds of changes in the vocabulary. **Firstly,** there were many innovations, i.e. names of new objects and concepts, which enlarged the vocabulary by adding new items.

Secondly, there were numerous replacements of native words by French equivalents, which resulted in a shift in the ratio of Germanic and Romance roots in the language, e.g. the loan-words *very, river, peace, easy* displaced the native OE *swipe, ea, frip, eape.* The adoption of a word synonymous with a native word did not necessarily lead to replacement. Most frequently the co-existence of a borrowed and native synonym ended in their differentiation, they were both retained as they differed in style, dialect, shades of meaning or combinability.

The **third** kind of influence enriched the English vocabulary even more than the adoption of pure innovations. The **influx** of **French** words – as well as the **later** borrowing of **Latin** words – is one of the main historical reasons for the abundance of **synonyms** in **ModE.** The difference between the native and borrowed words often lies in their stylistic connotations: French loan-words, particularly those which were adopted in Late ME (and later) preserve a more bookish, literary character; hence such pairs of words as French *commence* – native *begin, conceal – hide, prevent – hinder, search – look for, desire – wish.*

The impact of French upon the English vocabulary was not limited to the borrowing of words or roots.

The vocabulary was also enriched by the adoption of French **affixes.** Derivational affixes could not be borrowed as such; they entered the language in scores of loan words, were unconsciously or consciously separated by the speakers and used in derivation. They could become productive in English only after the loan-words with those affixes were completely assimilated by the language; that is why the use of borrowed French affixes dates largely from the Early ModE period

Assimilation of **French** words by the speakers of English was a more difficult **process** than assimilation of Scandinavian words. The French language belonged to a different linguistic group and had very little in common with English.
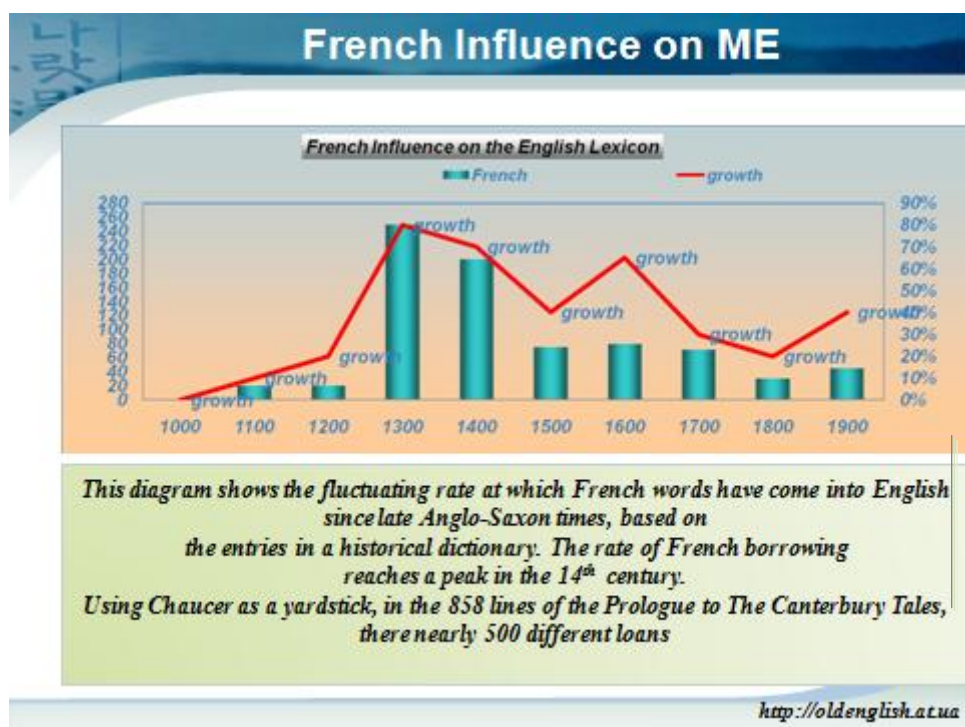
Figure 4.8. French influence on ME in percentage terms

4.5. Borrowings from Latin in the Middle English period

The **Latin** language continued to be used in England all through the OE and ME periods in religious rituals, in legal documents, and in texts of a scientific and philosophical character**.** After the Norman Conquest it was partly replaced by official Anglo-Norman. The main spheres of the **Latin** language were the **Church,** the **law courts** and **academic activities.**

The semantic spheres of Latin borrowings in ME are the following ones: *administration* and *law, science* and *learning, religion, general terms,* etc.

Table 4.1. The semantic spheres of Latin borrowings in ME

semantic spheres	loans
administration and law	arbitrator, client, conspiracy, gratis, implement, incumbent, legal, memorandum, pauper, summary, testify
science and learning	comet, contradiction, discuss, dislocate, equator, essence, explicit, formal, genius, history, index, inferior, innumerable
religion	immortal, incarnate, infinite, Magnificat, Mediator, memento, diocese, requiem, scripture, the (Holy) Scripture
general terms	adjacent, combine, conclude, exclude, include, incredible, individual, interrupt, solitary, subjugate, substitute, tolerance

Latin words were borrowed in all historical periods. In ME they were certainly less numerous than borrowings from French; their proportion was high only in religious texts translated from Latin.

John Wyclif (the late 14th c.), one of the most prolific borrowers from classical languages, introduced about a thousand Latin words in his translation of the Bible.

4.6. New Word Formation: Compounding and Affixation

In ME **compounding** was less productive than in OE. New compounds in -**er** were especially frequent in the 14th c. For instance*, bricklayer, housekeeper, moneymaker, soothsayer.*

Compounds of the type **he**-lamb date from c.1300. Adjectives examples include: *luke-warm, moth-eaten, new-born, red-hot*. Phrasal verbs: *go out,* (alongside *outgo*), *fall by-befallen*.

Affixation: Only a few **prefixes** of OE continued into ME. But new **affixes** appeared instead. The suffix -**able** from such French borrowings as *admirable, tolerable,* came to be used with native Germanic roots as well*: eatable, readable, bearable*. Similarly, the Romance prefixes **re-, en**- in the words *rewrite, endear.*

Conversely, the native affixes were used with foreign roots: *beautiful, charming, unfaithful.*

One of the most important Middle English innovations was the development of **conversion** as a new type of derivation. Owing to the levelling of endings and the loss of **-n** in unstressed syllables, OE *ende* and *endian* fell together as ME *ende* ['endə]. OE *lufu* and *lufian* as ME *love* ['luvə]. Such cases of **homonymy** served as models for the creation of new nouns from verbs (*smile* **v.**→*smile* **n.**) and vice versa (*chance* **n.** →*chance* **v.**).

Words which came into the language through prefixation can de seen in ***dis**-* items found in Chaucer: e.g. *disceyven* – deceive; *discorden* – disagree; *discuren* – discover; *disgysen* – disguise.

Summary

This lecture explored the influence of Scandinavian, French, and Latin on Middle English. Each of these languages has a unique relationship with English, noticeable in all the kinds of borrowings. French has an enormous influence on different spheres of Middle English vocabulary, which makes Middle English look very different from Old English. Scandinavian influences the grammar, especially personal pronouns. Latin went on influencing the religious and educational life of Middle English.

Questions for self-control

1. Identify the origins of the ME vocabulary.
2. Account for the types of changes in the ME lexicon.
3. Exemplify some common concepts of Scandinavian borrowings.

4. Define the semantic spheres of French loans.

5. Compare the French and Scandinavian influence on the ME vocabulary.

6. Compare the French and Latin influence on the ME vocabulary.

7. Comment on the English-Scandinavian etymological doublets – *skirt – shirt; scatter – shatter.*

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SEMINAR 3

</div>

Aims:

✓ to trace the Latin influence up to the end of the Middle English period;

✓ to present evidence for extensive Scandinavian influence during Middle English;

✓ to perceive the influx of French loans after 1066;

✓ to differentiate new types of semantic changes.

3.1. Study points:

1. The Origins of ME Lexicon
2. Types and Sources of Changes
3. Scandinavian Influence on the Vocabulary
4. French Influence on the Vocabulary in Middle English
5. Latin Influence on the Vocabulary in Middle English
6. New Word Formation

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 46–49.

✓ Simon Horobin and Jeremy Smith. An Introduction to Middle English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. P. 69–88.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 122–123; 127–130.

✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 144–151.

Additional:

✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 95–106; 132–133.

✓ Lecture 4.

3.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. Internal ways of developing the vocabulary such as word-formation and semantic changes are productive in all the historical periods.

2. Among the changes in the ME vocabulary we can distinguish losses of words or their meanings, replacements and additions.

3. It is commonly acknowledged that one of the most drastic changes in the English lexicon – the change in its etymological composition – is definitely connected with the role of external sources.
4. The language of ME absorbed very few foreign words and even made use of foreign word components in word formation.
5. The linguistic situation in ME was for the most part favourable for strong foreign influence – first Scandinavian then French and undoubtedly Latin.
6. The proportion of Germanic words in the English language has risen mostly in the ME period due to the great absorption of borrowings, mainly Romance.
7. Borrowings in Middle English came predominantly from two sources: Scandinavian and French.
8. Since ME was a much less inflected language than OE, it was easier to adopt words from foreign languages.
9. The importance of the surviving native words is borne out by the fact that they belong to the least frequent layer of words, and that native components are widely used in word-building, in word phrases and phraseological units.
10. The influx of borrowings was directly dependent on the linguistic situation in the country and on the position and role of the foreign language.

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

1. Identify the nouns/verbs of Scandinavian origin:
   A care, brother, cry, wolf
   B birth, scrap, raft, skill
   C faith, jury, heir, virtue
   D hand, face, help, word
2. Identify the adjectives of Scandinavian origin:
   A awkward, flat, happy, ill
   B cut, die, raise, snub
   C clear, true, cruel, fine
   D parson, penance, prayer, prelate
3. Define the French loans in ME (semantic spheres: *administration, law, religion)*:
   A ermine, button, lace, cape
   B feast, mutton, olive, orange
   C garrison, siege, peace, vanquish
   D authority, exchequer, plaintiff, savior
4. Determine the French loans in ME (semantic spheres: *military, food* and *drink, fashion)*:
   A crown, exchequer, government, liberty
   B depose, justice, larceny, pardon
   C besiege, repast, lettuce, apparel
   D crucifix, divine, convent, creator
5. Indicate the French loans in ME (semantic spheres: *leisure* and *the arts, science* and *learning, the home)*:
   A minstrel, treatise, clause, parlour
   B cruet, date, dinner, feast
   C emerald, gown, jewel, frock

        D lieutenant, moat, navy, peace
6. Identify the nouns / verbs of French origin:
    A gasp, hit, happen, lift
    B bulk, cake, freckle, gap
    C affection, courtesy, prefer, suppose
    D think, tell want, be
7. Identify the adjectives of French origin:
    A meek, odd, ugly, weak
    B perfect, scarlet, gentle, honest
    C affrighted, black, white, sick
    D sharp, keen, acute, greedy
8. Identify the adjectives of English origin:
    A good, glad, high, bad
    B blue, poor, real, single
    C evident, felon, fine, sure
    D flat, low, odd, sly
9. Define the Latin loans in ME (presented largely as *learned words)*:
    A explicit, formal, genius, essence
    B see, get, give, take
    C hour, joy, labour, manner
    D skill, rid, thrive, scowl
10. Identify the words of English origin in ME:
    A bag, egg, kid, loan
    B say, come, go, know
    C pass, pray, save, trip
    D cry, close, push, cast

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.
1. ME words *hoste, sey, brighte, sonne* originated from < ...
2. ModE *skirt – shirt; scatter – shatter; ship* and *skipper*; represent ...
3. *Losses of words* or their meanings are connected with events in external history, e.g. ...
4. *Replacements* came as a result of the co-existence and rivalry of synonyms and the selection of one of them, e.g. ...
5. *Additions* – pure innovations, i.e. new words, being created to make new things, new ideas and new qualities e.g. ...
6. Scandinavian loans cause a meaning shift in the original: e.g. ...
7. The following examples: OFr *journée* related to jour 'a day's work or a day's journey' = 20m., – ModE *journey;* OE *holiday* 'religious festival' from OE *hāliʒ,* ModE holy – *holiday* represent the semantic change ...
8. The following examples: OE *dēor* 'animal'ModE *deer;* OE *mete* 'food' ModE *meat;* OE *sellan* 'give, sell' ModE *sell;* ME *accident* 'event' ModE *accident* represent the semantic change – ...
9. The following examples: *'grasp'* (comprehend); *'drive'* (manipulate, motivate); *'school of fish'* group of fish can be related to the senses of school represent the figurative meaning of ...
10. The following example: *school* as a 'learning institution for a group of people' – *(the pupils, the staff),* etc. represents the figurative meaning of ...

A _…_ *narrowing.*

B ... hoste – O Fr *hoste*, L. *hostis (host);* sey – OE *sēon (see)*; brighte – OE *beorht (bright)*; sonne – OE *sunne (sun).*

C _…_ ME *duke, duchesse, prynce* – new ranks and titles*;* OE *heard,* ME *hard, ferme, solide;* ME *journee* meant *'day's work'*, sometimes *'day's march',* later *'travel, journey'.*

D _…_ *widening.*

E _…_ the English-Scandinavian *doublets.*

F _…_ OE *here, fierd, werod* were all replaced by the ME borrowings from French *army, troop.*

G _…_ *gift* originally meant *'payment for a wife'* but the ON had shifted and caused the change; other *shifts*: *dream* means *'joy'* in OE, but becomes '*vision in sleep'* in ME; *plow 'measure of land'* in OE – *plow* in ME.

H _…_ *metaphoric shifts* – (from Greek metapherein 'carry over').

I _…_ OE *clipian* came to be replaced by ME *callen*; OE *niman* was ousted by ME *taken*; OE *clerec 'clergyman'* – into ME *clerk 'student, scholar'* and ModE *'secretary in an office'.*

J _…_ *metonymic shift* – (from Greek *meta* 'change' and *onoma* 'name').

SELF-STUDY 4

Aims:
- ✓ to trace the Latin influence up to the end of the Middle English period;
- ✓ to present evidence for extensive Scandinavian influence during Middle English;
- ✓ to perceive the influx of French loans after 1066;
- ✓ to differentiate new types of semantic changes.

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

4.1.1. *How to Speak Middle English – Vocabulary*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vbjjxprLPEw

4.1.2. *Geoffrey Chaucer – The Founder of Our Language*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uxqAwT5IpL8

4.1.3. *Chaucer, The General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, read aloud in Middle English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3lGJntNFFqo

4.1.4. *Beautiful Canterbury Cathedral and The Canterbury Tales*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EegJRt1xwJk

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 46–49.
- ✓ Simon Horobin and Jeremy Smith. An Introduction to Middle English. Edinburgh University Press, 2002. P. 69–88.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 122–123; 127–130.

✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 144–151.

Additional:
✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 95–106; 132–133.
✓ Lecture 4.

4.2. Computer tests in e-learning

True/False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement. Comment on your choice and supply your answer with examples of your own.

1. In ME compounding was more productive than in OE.
2. ME new compounds in -**er** were especially frequent in the 14th c.
3. ME compounds of the type **he**-lamb date from c.1500.
4. Many prefixes of OE continued into ME.
5. The suffix -**able** from such French borrowings as *admirable, tolerable,* came to be used with native Germanic roots.
6. One of the most important Middle English innovations was the development of conversion as a new type of derivation.
7. Such cases of synonymy served as models for the creation of new nouns from verbs (*smile* **v.**→*smile* **n.**) and vice versa (*chance* **n.** →*chance* **v.**).
8. Words which came into the language through prefixation can de seen in *dis*- items found in Shakespeare.
9. Owing to the levelling of endings and the loss of **-n** in unstressed syllables, OE *ende* and *endian* fell together as ME *ende* ['endə].
10. OE *lufu* and *lufian* as ME *love* ['luvə].

4.3. Reading practice

III. a) Read *(mind the rules of ME pronunciation – Seminar 1(table))*and translate into ModE and Ukrainian text 1. Identify the borrowings and the words of Germanic origin. Express the main idea.

> And therfor, hoste, I warne thee biforn,
> My jolly body shal a tale telle,
> And I shal clinken yow so merry a belle,
> That I shal waken al this companye.
> *(The Shipman's Tale, Prologue)*

Glossary to text 1
therfor – therefore; *OE* þǣrfore
hoste – host (< *OF*)
warnen – warn; *OE* wearninan; *OHG* warnōn
body – body; *OE* bodiʒ; *OHG* potah
tale – tale; *OE* talu; *OHG* zala
telle – to tell; *OE* tellan; *OHG* zellan

clinken – to clink, to tinkle (*borr. fr. Dutch*)
merry – merry; *OE* myriȝ, myrȝe
belle – bell; *OE* belle, *rel. to* bellan
waken – to wake; *OE* wacan*, wv.1*; *Gth.* wakan
al – all; *OE* eal; *Gth.* alls
companye – company (*< OF*)

b) Read and translate (ModE/Ukrainian) text 2. Identify the borrowings and the words of Germanic origin. Express the main idea.

> When folk had laughen at this nyce cas
> Of Absolon and hende Nicholas,
> Diverse folk diversely they seyde;
>
> *(The Reeve's Tale)*

Glossary to text 2

laughen – to laugh; *OE* hlyhhan (hlæhhan, *sv. 6*); *Gth.* hlahjan; *OHG* lichen
nyce – nice (*< OF < Lat.* nescius – ignorant); *ME* nice, stupid, wanton
cas – case (*< OF < Lat*. casus
hende – courteous
seyen, seggen – to say; *OE* secȝan, *wv. 3; Gth.* sagen; *OHG* sagen
but – but; *OE* būton (*prp.*)
part – part (*< OF < Lat*. pars, partis
pleyen – to play; *OE* pleȝian, *wv. 2; OHG* pflegen
greven – to grieve (*< OF* grever *< Lat.* gravāre)

c) Read and translate (PDE/Ukrainian) text 3. Make a complete (phonetic and grammatical) analysis of the development of words from OE to ME. Identify the borrowings and the words of Germanic origin. Express the main idea.

> With hym ther was a Plowman, was his brother,
> That hadde y-lad of dong ful many a fother.
>
> *(Prologue)*

Glossary to Text 3

plow, plough – plough; *OE* plōȝ, plōh, *m.a; OHG* pflug
brother – brother; *OE* brōþor, *m.cons.; Gth.* brōþar; *OHG* bruodar; *Lat.* frater; *Ukr./Russ.* брат
leden (*p.t.* **ledde, ladde**) – to lead; *OE* lǽdan, *wv.1; OHG* leiten
dong – dung; *OE* dunȝ, *f.o.*
many – many; *OE* maniȝ; *OHG* manag
fother – load; *OE* fōðr, *n.a; OHG* fuoder
trewe – true; *OE* trēōwe, trȳwe; *Gth.* triggws; *OHG* gitrium
swynkere – to swink; *OE rel. to* swincan, *sv. 3*
liven – to live; *OE* libban (lifde), *wv. 3; Gth.* liban; *OHG* leben
parfit – perfect; (*< OF* parfit; *Lat.* perfectus)
charitee – charity; (*< OF* charite; *Lat.* caritatem)

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 5

AN INTRODUCTION TO EARLY MODERN ENGLISH (1475–1660)

LECTURE 5

> *"… the language which so many love and so few know how to use".*
>
> R.W. Chapman

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

Points for discussion:

Introduction
5.1. Economic and Political Unification. Conditions for Linguistic Unity
5.2. Sea Trade and Expansion
5.3. The Protestant Reformation
5.4. Introduction of Printing
5.5. The Elisabethan Age. Flourishing of Literature in Early Modern English. Literary Renaissance
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

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

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

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

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

Introduction

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

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

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

5.1. Economic and Political Unification. Conditions for Linguistic Unity

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

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

In England, this system was subject to gradual transformation from the mid-14ᵗʰ

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

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

5.2. Sea Trade and Expansion

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

Figure 5.1. The centres of the Hanseatic League

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

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

More importantly, the Renaissance constituted the basis for the Spanish and

Portuguese exploration and colonization of the Americas and Africa. Both of these sea powers brought enormous riches from these far-away continents to Europe. To start with, England did not play a major role in this process. However, the privateer, merchant, and seaman **Francis Drake** interfered with the Spanish sea dominion by pirating Spanish merchant ships coming from the Americas, which caused him to be regarded as a national hero in England. Also, he won an important sea battle against the 'invincible' Spanish armada, which earned him the favour of Queen Elizabeth I.

Figure 5.2. Sir Francis Drake, an English navigator

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

5.3. The Protestant Reformation

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

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

Supreme Head of the **Church** of **England**.

Figure 5.3. Henry VIII, the most famous English king

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

Figure 5.4. The bloody quarrels between Protestants and Catholics

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

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

5.4. Introduction of Printing

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

Thereby we may indicate again and again a number of events at the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries that make **1476** an appropriate date for the start of the Early Modern English period (1476–1660). The introduction of printing press by William Caxton in 1476 became a landmark as for the history of English so the English themselves. As far as the history of English is concerned, it was supposed to have been unified and standardized in the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order, etc. Undoubtedly the printing books were subdued to the idea of literacy. Literacy, however, was already spreading rapidly and increasingly in the Middle English period, despite strong opposition to it.

Figure 5.5. William Caxton, the first English printer
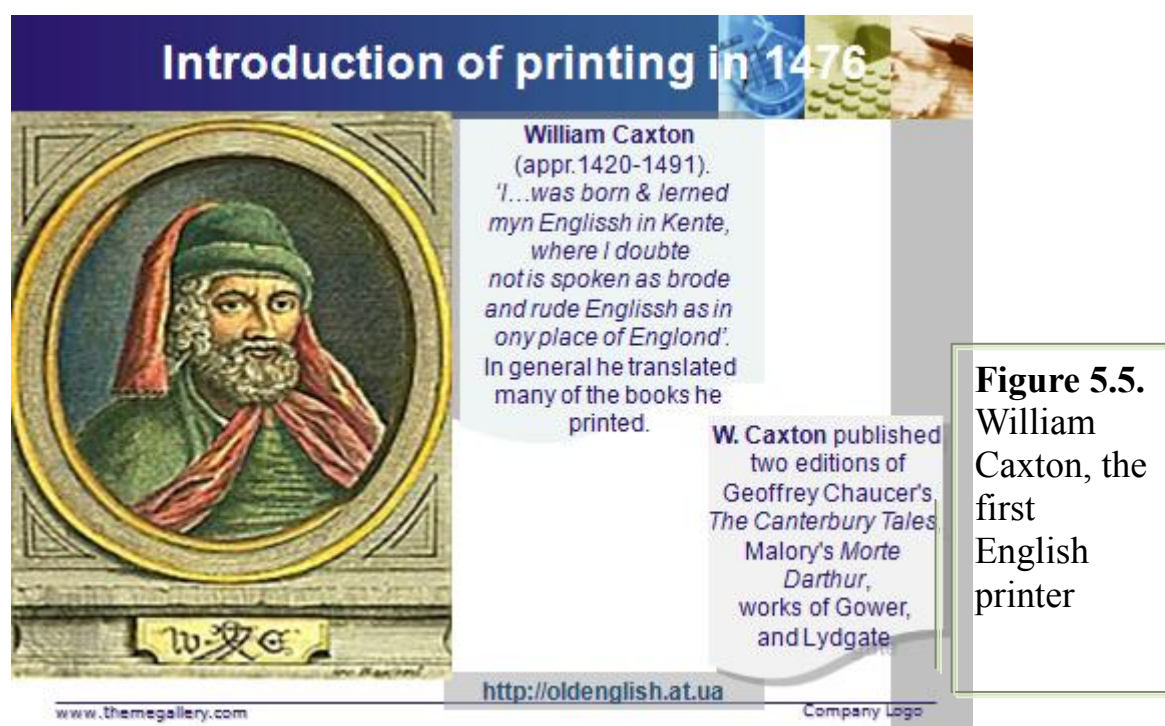
William Caxton opened his print shop in Westminster, the site of Chancery, to establish the idea that his documents were printed in 'official' English (**Chancery English**). Naturally in 1476 Caxton set up the first printing-press there. Two years later, after Caxton had attracted public notice, a second printing-press was set up at Oxford. The **East Midland dialect** became the literary standard of English; many features of

Chancery English as standard in its orthography and usage were adopted by mutual convention. As a result, a rudimentary orthographic system emerged. So we have the first inklings of modern Standard English. Undoubtedly, it became the standard written form of a national government that began addressing all of its subjects in Chancery English. Accordingly the introduction of printing by Caxton in 1476, being a milestone in the spread of written English definitely correlated with the new spirit of pre-Renaissance.

Thus, the **introduction** of **printing** by **Caxton** in **1476** – is in the mainstream of the history of English, as it affected the development of the language greatly, especially its written form. Printed books, being accessible to the greater mass of people, prioritized literacy, which, apparently, caused the impact of learning and thinking that in its turn gave the English language the level of prestige, progress, and a choice of national presence.

5.5. The Elisabethan Age. Flourishing of Literature in Early Modern English. Literary Renaissance

The period to define the historical context of Early Modern English is the Renaissance. While the Renaissance had already begun in Italy in the 14th century, its beginning in Northern Europe was around 1500. The English Renaissance lasted from about 1500 to 1650.

But what does **Renaissance** mean? The name for this historical era simply means **rebirth**; it was coined by the French historian Jules Michelet and was later used by Jacob Burckhardt, a Swiss historian. The notion of **'rebirth'** tries to capture the fact that the cultural and political ideas that shaped this period were fundamentally influenced by a new interest in the classical cultures and civilizations of ancient Rome and Greece. This conceptual rebirth triggered a great number of cultural and political changes that mark the transition from medieval to modern life. These changes concern the structure and organization of society, people's world-views and national identity, the organization of religious life, and the development of literature and art.

So the **Renaissance** or the **Revival** of **Learning** is the great era of intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th and 17th centuries, when art, literature, and ideas of ancient Greece and Italy were discovered again and widely studied, causing a rebirth of activity and aspiring minds, freedom in creating words and meanings. In England the Renaissance began a little before 1500. Undoubtedly it was a time of radical changes occurred in the spiritual life of the newly-arising nation with its new-born culture that was taking an unmistakably national shape. During the Renaissance English began acquiring the prevalent analytic features.

The outgrowth of Early Modern English was much influenced by **Elizabethan literature,** notably by Thomas More, Edmund Spenser, Ben Jonson, William Shakespeare, (Hamlet's famous soliloquy, written by Shakespeare in the late 16th century) and by the texts of many Bibles, especially those of Tyndale (1525) and **King James** (1611).

Table 5.1. The Great Classics of the Elizabethan Age

Sir Thomas More (1478–1535) *"Utopia"*
Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586) *"Apology for Poetry", "Astrophel and Stella"*
Edmund Spenser (1552–1599) *"The Faerie Queene", "Amoretti"*
Thomas Kid (1557? –1595?) *"Spanish Tragedy"*
Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593) *"Tamburlaine", "The Massacre at Paris", "The Jue of Malta", "The Tragical History of Dr. Faustus", "Edward II"*
Ben Jonson (1573–1637) *"Volpone, or the Fox", "The Silent Woman", "The Alchemist", "Bartholomew Fair"*
William Shakespeare (1564–1616) *"Twelfth Night", "Henry VI", "Richard III", "Henry IV", "Henry V", "Julius Caesar", "Romeo and Juliet", "Othello", "Hamlet", "All's Well That Ends Well", "Macbeth", "King Lear", "Antony and Cleopatra", "The Winter's Tale", sonnets, "The Tempest", "Henry VIII",* etc

Among the classics of Early Modern English whom we would like to single out in detail are **William Tyndale**, and without any doubt, **William Shakespeare**.

Figure 5.6. William Tyndale (1494–1536), the first translator of the Bible in the English vernacular
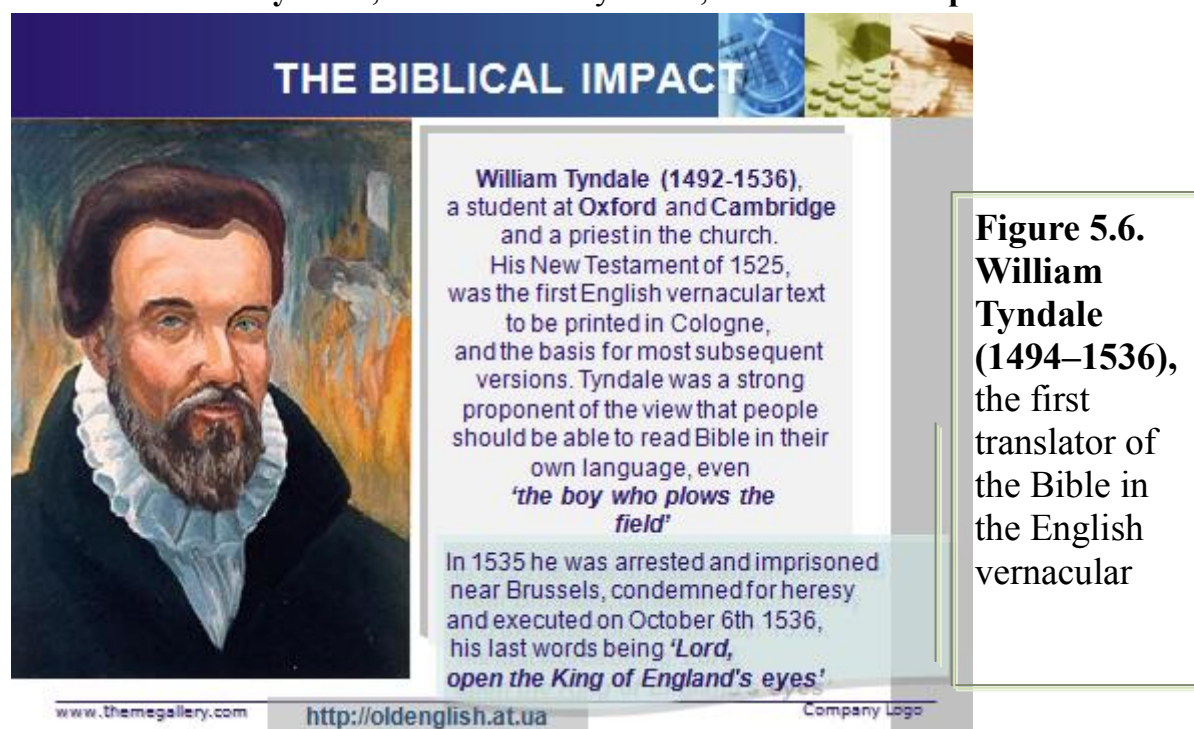
William Tyndale wrote: *"I had perceaved by experyence, how that it was impossible to stablysh the laye people in any truth, excepte the scripture were playnly layde before their eyes in their mother tonge, that they might se the processe, ordre and meaning of the texte".*

Tyndale's last words being *'Lord, open the King of England's eyes'* – a death-wish full of irony, as Coverdale's translation had been published the year before. The irony lies in the fact that Coverdale had been Tyndale's assistant, and his translation closely

followed Tyndale's. The 1534 Convocation of Canterbury had petitioned Henry VIII *'that the whole scripture should be translated into the vulgar English tongue',* and the Coverdale Bible contained a dedication to the king. As a result, ten years after Tyndale's translation was banned in England, Coverdale's translation was welcomed (Crystal, 2005: 271–273).

Most memorable biblical allusions are Tyndale's – such as *let there be light, the truth shall make you free, blessed are the peacemakers, the signs of the time, eat, drink and be merry.* Only 120 entries of *Oxford English Dictionary* have a recorded use attributed to Tyndale. The figure includes a number of compounds, which have an everyday flavour, such as *broken-hearted, fellow-soldier, house-top, long-suffering, rose-coloured, sea-shore, stumbling-block, two-edged* (of a sword), and *wine-press.* Several already existing words are found in new grammatical uses: *abrogate* as a verb, *beggarly* as an adjective, *brotherly* as an adverb, *nurse* as a verb ('bring up'). It is difficult to say how many genuine Tyndalisms there might be. **Tyndale**, interested in reaching the ploughboy rather than the professor, was no lexical innovator (Crystal, 2005: 271–273).

William Shakespeare (1564–1616), *the founder of the national literary English language,* is the greatest of the great creators of the language: in the sphere of vocabulary, syntax, and semantics he is absolutely innovative, unsurpassed and unrivalled.

Shakespeare managed to convey through his masterpieces the **Renaissance** spirit of optimistic hopefulness and joy, of ultimate triumph of love and freedom over dark forces of hatred and lust for power. Some special lectures will be devoted to the language of William Shakespeare. We will try to examine how 'the canonical writer of the English language' deploys lexical and grammatical resources in his language, while creating his concepts and characters, offering new treatment of words and giving additional meanings to them.

Table 5.2. Shakespeare's influencing idioms

your lord and master	*I never stood on ceremonies*
my salad days	*play fast and loose*
neither rhyme nor reason	*cold comfort*
too much of a good thing	*more sinned against than sinning*
the game is up	*the be all and the end all*
in one's mind's eye	*stretch out to the crack of doom*
to the manner born	*at one fell swoop*
brevity is the soul of wit	*with bated breath*
caviare to the general	*mine own flesh and blood*
hold the mirror up to nature	*green-eyed jealousy*
send (someone) packing	*let us not be laughing -stocks*
set my teeth on edge	*what the dickens*
give the devil his due	*pomp and circumstance*

it was Greek to me	*a foregone conclusion*
make a virtue of necessity	*a tower of strength*
a good riddance	*melted into thin air*
'tis fair play	*with bag and baggage*

The influence of Shakespeare

'Shakespeare, above all, shows us how to dare with language. It is our main linguistic legacy...' (Crystal)

(1564–1616)

www.themegallery.com   http://oldenglish.at.ua   Globe Theatre
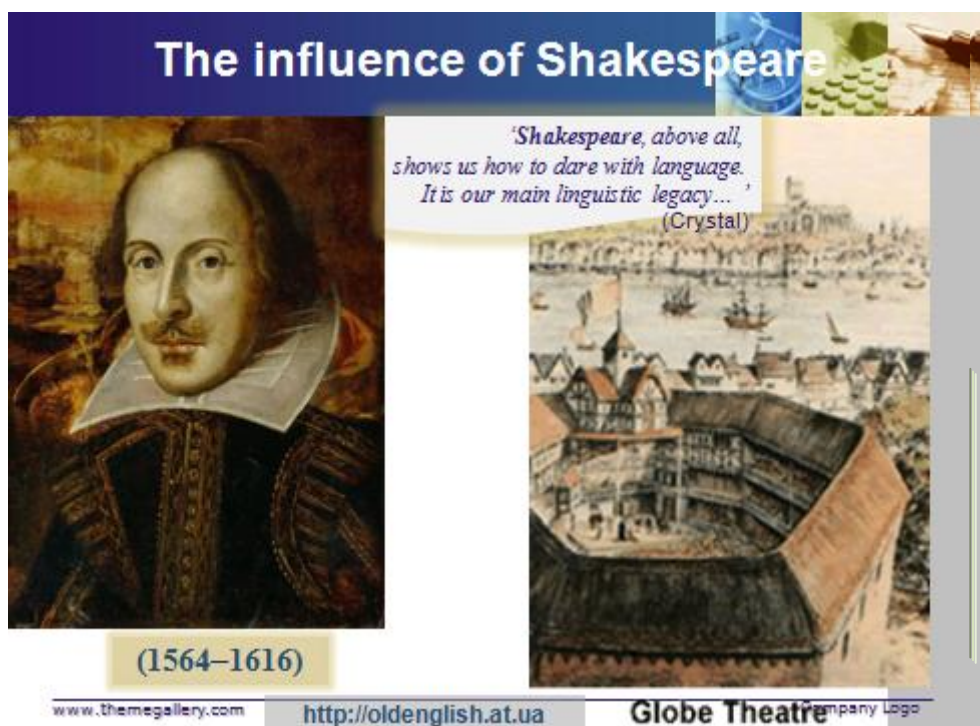
Figure 5.7. William Shakespeare, *the founder of the national literary English language*

Through the analysis of some texts we will try to trace the changing nature of the English language, defining mainly which of these peculiarities remained only the characteristics of Early Modern English and sound as archaic to us, but which can be easily interwoven in the language of our contemporaries.

Another important event which contributed greatly to English in the way of idiomatic expressions was the first **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (also known as the **King James Bible**), published in 1611. Its verbal beauty and status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.

In the next lectures we will look in more detail at linguistic phenomena, being typical for Early Modern English. The 16th c. was the time when, with the advent of capitalism, radical changes occurred in the basis of English society which led to the creation of the national language. This way we are trying to concentrate on personalities, having contributed much to the development of history in general and the history of the English language in particular.

Table 5.3. Extracts from the King James Version of **St Matthew's Gospel,** from

which **Standard** English expressions have been derived (Crystal, 2005: 277).

man shall not live by bread alone (4: 4)	*straight ... and narrow* (7: 14)
the salt of the earth (5: 13)	*built his house upon the sand* (7: 27)
the light of the world (5: 14)	*new wine into old bottles* (9: 17)
an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth (5: 38)	*lost sheep* (10: 6)
let not thy left hand know what thy right hand doeth (6: 3)	*the blind lead the blind* (15: 14)
our daily bread (6: 11)	*the signs of the times* (16: 3)
treasures in heaven (6: 20)	*take up his cross* (16: 24)
ye cannot serve God and mammon (6: 24)	*two or three are gathered together in my name* (18: 20)
the mote ... in thine own eye (7: 3)	*the last shall be the first, and the first last* (20: 16)
cast your pearls before swine (7: 6)	*many are called, but few are chosen* (22: 14)
seek and ye shall find (7: 7)	*the spirit ...is willing, but the flesh is weak* (26: 41)

The above mentioned sacred words of biblical content are worthy of one's attention as they have a considerable impact on the spiritual and intellectual regeneration of the English nation and the continuity of evolution of the English language. No other factor can cause the emerging standard of language to be so widely respected and circulated, influential and prestigious.

Summary

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

Questions for self-control

2. Comment on the introduction of printing and its effect on the linguistic

situation.

3. Identify the events of external history which favoured the growth of the national literary language.
4. Identify social events that contributed to the flourishing of literature in EModE.
5. Dwell on the Biblical impact on the history of English. Supply your answer with examples.
6. Compare the EModE dialect with the ME ones.
7. Identify the best representatives of the EModE literary tradition. Exemplify.

SELF-STUDY 5

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1995. P. 56–65.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 155–159.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. – P. 20–37.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 16–18.

Additional:
✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Vinnitsa: Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 152–163.
✓ 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. The unification of the country and the progress of culture favoured the rise of the national language and the literary standards.

2. Early Modern English (1475–1660 (2000)) is the period of the formation of the national literary English language.

3. New economic relations (emergence of the middle class, guilds and powerful trade unions) established to a certain extent conditions for linguistic unity.

4. In the late Middle Ages London constituted one of the centres of the early form of coordinated international trade.

5. The Renaissance constituted the basis for the Spanish and Portuguese exploration and colonization of the British Isles.

6. In the domain of religion, the Renaissance experienced the protestant movement and reformation, the reformation of church in England was triggered by idiosyncratic political factors.

7. The introduction of printing by William Caxton in 1476 did not support the standardization of the linguistic process in the country.

8. English was supposed to have been unified and standardized in the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order etcetera due to the introduction of printing.

9. The printing books were subdued to the idea of literacy being spread rapidly and increasingly in the Middle English period, despite the strong opposition to it.

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

II. Multiple choice: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements.
1. The formation of the national literary English language covers:
   A the Old English period

B the Middle English period
   C the Early Modern English period
   D the Modern English period

2. Major external factors that contributed greatly to the rise of the national language are:
   A increased foreign contacts
   B sea trade and expansion
   C the protestant movement and reformation
   D the unification of the country and the progress of culture

3. The landmark of the history of Early Modern English in particular and in the history of English in general is:
   A introduction of printing
   B flourishing of literature
   C exploration of the Americas and Africa
   D the expansion of England to America

4. William Caxton (appr.1420–1491) wrote preface and printed:
   A David Crystal's *The Stories of English*
   B Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*
   C William Shakespeare's *Hamlet*
   D William Tyndale's *New Testament*

5. The literary standard of English in Early Modern English became:
   A the East Midland dialect
   B the West Midland dialect
   C the Southern dialect
   D the Northern dialect

6. The period that characterizes the historical context of Early Modern English is:
   A the Renaissance
   B the Reformation
   C the Romanticism
   D the Enlightenment

7. The Renaissance or the Revival of Learning is the great era of:
   A a religious and political movement of the 16th century
   B the romantic art, music and literature of the late 18th and the early 19th c.
   C the 18th c. philosophical movement stressing the importance of reason
   D intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th–17th c.

8. The classics of Early Modern English without any doubt are:
   A William Shakespeare and William Tyndale
   B King Henry VIII and Coverdale
   C Malory and Gower
   D Mary Stuart and Elizabeth I

9. *The founder of the National Literary English Language,* the greatest of all the great creators of the English language is:
   A William Caxton
   B William Shakespeare
   C William Tyndale
   D Geoffrey Chaucer

10. The great geniuses of the Renaissance gave the English language:
   A a choice of national presence at all the levels of its usage
   B changes in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift)
   C patterns of word order
   D peculiarities of word endings

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

1. The 'national' language embraces ....

2. The 'national literary language' applies ....

3. Hanseatic League was ....

4. Francis Drake is regarded as a national hero in England as he ....

5. King Henry VIII is connected with the Reformation of church in England as he ....

6. Chancery English became 'official' English of the royal administrative documents, id est ....

7. Renaissance means ....

8. William Tyndale (1494–1536) a priest in the church, being educated at Oxford and Cambridge, was the strong proponent of the idea that people ....

9. William Shakespeare (1564–1616), 'the canonical writer of the English language' ....

10. The first Authorized Version of the Bible (also known as the King James Bible), published in 1611 was a verbal beauty ....

   A .... the standard written form of the national government that began addressing all of its subjects in Chancery English.

B .... broke with the Catholic church (on condition that pope Clement VII refused to annul his marriage to Catherine of Aragon) and declared himself Supreme Head of the Church of England.

C .... *rebirth;* a great number of cultural and political changes that mark the transition from medieval to modern life.

D .... only to recognized standard forms of the language, written and spoken.

E .... should be able to read the Bible in their own language, he wanted a translation which ordinary people would understand, even 'the boy who plows the field'.

F .... a commercial association of towns in North Germany formed in the late Middle Ages to protect and control trade.

G .... all the varieties of the language used by the nation including dialects.

H .... pirated Spanish merchant ships coming from the Americas and won an important sea battle against the 'invincible' Spanish armada.

I .... and had status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.

J .... deploys lexical and grammatical resources in his language, while creating his concepts and characters; offering new treatment of words and giving additional meanings to them.

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 6

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH PHONOLOGY

LECTURE 6

> *"This remarkable shuffle, now generally known as the Great Vowel Shift, modified the entire vowel harmony of our language".*
> (S. Potter)

Aims:

- ✓ to examine Early Modern English spelling and sound changes;
- ✓ to distinguish among the changes – free development of vowels reflecting some general trend;
- ✓ to identify the scholarly hypotheses on the Great Vowel Shift;
- ✓ to present evidence for the development of vowels influenced or caused by the neighbouring sounds (combinative changes);
- ✓ to trace the evolution of ME diphthongs in Early Modern English;
- ✓ to denote the influence of consonants on the following vowel.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
6.1. The Emerging Orthographic System
6.2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift
6.3. Development of ME Short Vowels in EModE
6.4. Diphthongs in Early Modern English
6.5. Vowel Changes under the Influence of Consonants
6.6. Consonants in Early Modern English
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

free development of vowels	*influence of neighbouring sounds*
The Great Vowel Shift	Development of Vowels in EModE
ME Short Vowels in EModE	Shortening of Long Vowels
Evolution of ME Diphthongs in EModE	Influence of Labial Consonants

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 39–45; 48–49.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 164–170.

Introduction

The changes discussed in this lecture are those occurring in stressed vowels. They are clearly of more interest to the students of English than developments in unstressed vowels. The most significant change in unstressed vowels that took place between Middle and Early Modern English – the loss of the reduced vowel in final syllables, was completed by the end of the Middle Period.

It appears useful to distinguish among the changes under consideration free development of vowels reflecting some general trend, and development influenced or caused by the neighbouring sounds (combinative changes).

6.1. The Emerging Orthographic System

The introduction of printing at the very beginning of the Modern English period greatly contributed to the unification and fixation of English spelling. Begun by Caxton in the last quarter of the 15th century, this process practically ended in the first half of the 18th century, after which the orthography altered but little. In general the spelling changes during the Modern English period were less radical than those of the previous one. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

In fact most phonetic changes of the Early Modern English period were not reflected in spelling, which accounts a good deal for the present discrepancy between spoken and written English.

The phonetic change which had the most disturbing effect upon the spelling of that period was the loss of ME **[ə]** written **e.**

a In many cases the letter disappeared as well as the sound.

E.g. ME *sone, nute* > ModE *son, nut.*

b In many other cases the letter remained, though the sound disappeared, as in *name, write, love.*

c The letter **e** in a final position came to be regarded as a sign indicating the length of a preceding vowel *(comp, hat – hate, bit – bite)* and was added in such capacity to many words which had never before had the letter.

E. g. ModE *stone, mice, toe* < ME *stoon, mis*, *to* < OE *stān, mỹs, tā.*

d The addition or retention of the so-called silent **e** was often quite superfluous or even misleading. Thus, the ME form *hous* showed quite plainly that the vowel was long and the addition of **e** (ModE *house*) was unnecessary. The retention of **e** after **v** in such words as *live, give, have* is misleading as it conceals the difference in the vowels of *live* and *alive, have* and *behave,* etc.

Of the other changes in spelling we shall mention the following ones:

a New digraphs **oa** and **ea** were introduced to represent the long open **[ǫ]** and **[ę:].** ME *rood, boot, se, deel* came to be written *road, boat, sea, deal* in the 16th century. It was an improvement on ME spelling which had mostly made no difference in representing **[ǫ]** and **[ọ:], [ę:]** and **[ę:].**

b Most double consonants preceding the final weak **[ə]** were simplified after the loss of the latter.

Comp. ME *lette, stoppe, dogge, sunne* and ModE *let, stop, dog, sun.*

The combinations **ss, ff, ll** and **ck (-kk)** were, however, retained.

Comp. ME *kisse, stuffe, pulle, locke* and ModE *kiss, stuff, pull, lock.*

Moreover, these combinations were transferred to other words with originally a single final letter.

Comp. ME *glas, staf, smal, sik* and ModE *glass, staff, small, sick.*

Medially, all consonants were usually doubled after a short vowel just as a sign that the vowel was short.

Comp. ME *super, felow, sumer, bery, matere* and ModE *supper, fellow, summer, berry, matter.*

c The written forms of many words, especially those borrowed from French, were altered in order to render their Latin or Greek origin more obvious to the eye. Thus the letter **b** was inserted in ME *dette, doute,* (ModE *debt, doubt*) under the influence of Latin *debitum* and *dubitare.* French *rhithme* was changed to *rhythm* under the influence of Latin *rhythmus. Scool* was replaced by *school* and thus made to conform to Latin *schola.* Not unfrequently the supposed connection with Latin was false. The **s** in *island,* for instance, is due to false association with Latin *insula,* whereas it is a native English word, ME *īland* < OE. *īȝlând, iȝ-* denoting 'island'.

6.2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift

The most important among the vowel changes which took place during the transition from Middle to Early Modern English and in the Modern Period is the so-called **"Great Vowel Shift".** It is a series of changes which affected all the Middle

English long vowels and played a decisive part in transforming the phonetic shape of English words and the relation between pronunciation and spelling. All these changes reveal a general trend towards narrowing and diphthongization of long vowels.

All the ME long vowels **[ī, ẹ:, ę:, ū, ọ, ǫ:, ā]** changed during the Early Modern English period. This change began, apparently, in the 15th century. There <u>is no</u> unanimity among linguists as to the phases each sound passed in the course of its development, nor as to the exact time the sound reached a certain phase. According to some authors the present articulation of some of these sounds was reached only in the 19th century, whereas others think that the vowel shift took place between the 14th and 16th centuries i.e., the set of long vowels in English went through a systematic process of *raising* and *diphthongization* between 1300 and 1700. *Raising* and *diphthongization* created structural gaps that were filled by shifting the proximate vowels into those gaps.
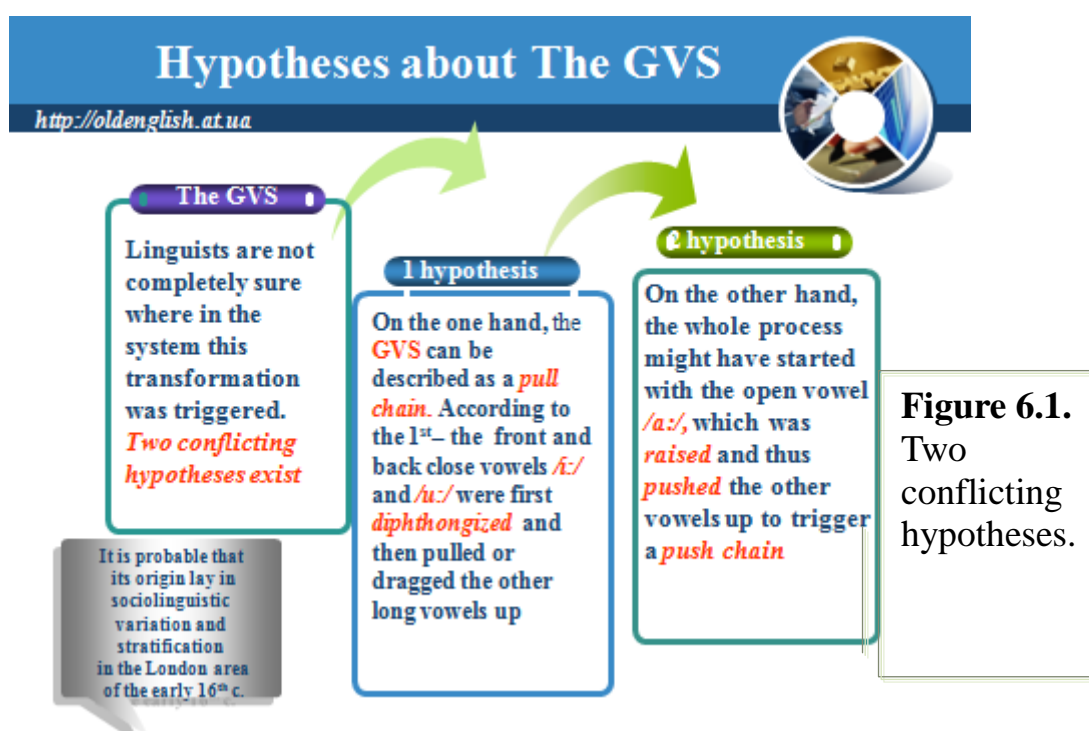
Figure 6.1. Two conflicting hypotheses.

The Great Vowel Shift consists of a combination of *pull* and *push* factors related to the social stratification of linguistic variables. Linguists are not completely sure where in the system this transformation was triggered. Two conflicting hypotheses exist.

On the one hand, the GVS can be described as a *pull chain.* According to the **1st hypothesis** the front and back close vowels */i:/* and */u:/* were first *diphthongized* and then pulled or dragged the other long vowels up.

On the other hand, the whole process might have started with the open vowel */a:/,* which was *raised* and thus *pushed* the other vowels up to trigger a *push chain.*
It is probable that its origin lay in sociolinguistic variation and stratification in the London area of the early 16th c.

The following diagram shows the initial and final stages in the articulation of each sound. The circles contain the ME long vowels before the Shift. The squares display the

resulting Modern English Sounds.

Figure 6.2. Stages of articulation
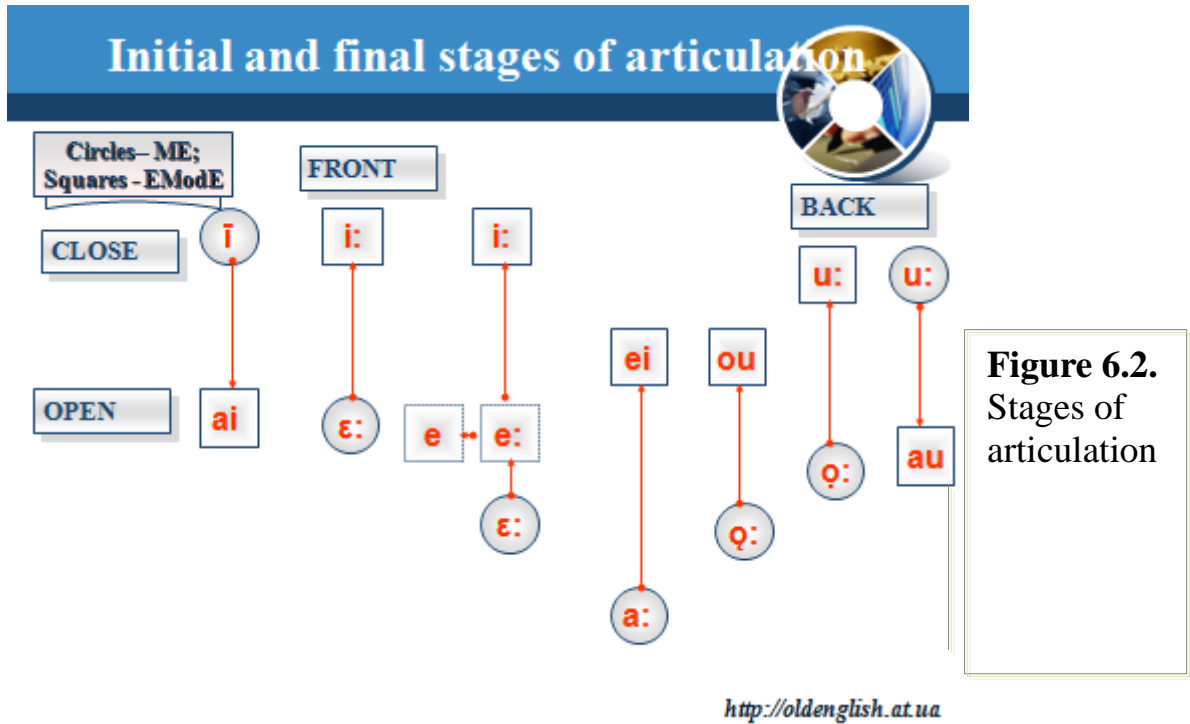
As we see, 5 out of 7 vowels became closer in their articulation, and only the two closest sounds – **[ī]** and **[ū]** – developed into diphthongs with an open first element.
Examples:

ME	1300	1400	1500	1600	1700	ModE
[i:] rise(n)	[ii]	[ai]				[ai] rise
[u:] mouth	[uu]	[au]				[au] mouth
[e:] feet		[i:]				[i:] feet
[ɛ:] beeme				[e:]		[i:] beam
[ọ:] goos		[u:]				[u:] goose
[ǫ:] ston				[o:]	[ou]	[əu] stone
[a:] name		[æ:]	[ɛ:]	[e:]		[ei] name

Table 6.1. Dates of the GVS changes

The names of the letters of the English alphabet also serve as examples. The Latin letter **a** was, as in other languages, called **[a:]** before the Vowel Shift. The letter **k** was called **[ka:]** and the letter **h** was **[a:tʃ]**. After the Shift they became **[ei]**, **[kei]** and **[eitʃ]** respectively. The letter **b** was **[bē]**, the letter **d** was **[dē]**, **p** was **[pē]**. Now they are **[bi:]**, **[di:],** and **[pi:]** respectively. In the same way **o** became **[ou]**, **i** became **[ai],** etc.

In words like *head, bread, sweat, breath* etc., where the digraph **ea** shows that the vowel before the Shift was **[ę:],** we should have expected **[i:].** But the fact is that in some

109

cases, chiefly before **[d], [t]** or **[θ],** the sound was shortened in its **[ē]** stage and did not develop into **[i:].** Similarly, **[u:]** was later shortened before [**d], [t], [k]** in words like *good, foot, book,* etc.

The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes greatly to the present discrepancy between spoken and written English.

6.3. Development of ME Short Vowels in EModE

Two short vowels changed their quality in Early Modern English:

a) As already mentioned, ME **[ə]** (written **e**), which was often dropped even in Middle English, was in most cases lost altogether in Early Modern English.

Comp. ME *helpe, sone, bookes, rides* and EModE *help, son, books, rides.*

This process is so characteristic of the EModE, that Henry Sweet called it "the period of lost endings".

The sound **[ə],** or its variant **[i],** was preserved in a limited number of cases, mostly between sibilants or between dentals, as in *glasses, ashes, pages, wanted, decided,* etc., also in *beloved, naked, learned* and some other words.

b) ME **[a]** normally changed into **[æ].**

E.g. ME *cat, glad, man,* EModE *cat [kæt], glad [glæd], man [mæn]*.
After **[w]** the development of **[a]** was different. It was rounded and coincided with **[o]** from ME **[o].**

E.g. EModE *was* [woz], *want, what, quantity.*

The influence of **[w]** was neutralized by a following guttural, e.g., *wax* [wæks], *wag* [wæg].

c) ME **[o]** was delabialized in Early Modern English and sounded like **[a]** in other languages.

Comp. EModE *frock,* F *frac,* Russ. *фрак.* Later on the rounding was partly restored in E **[o]** though it is still less rounded than, for instance, Russian or Ukrainian **[o].**

Comp. E *pot* and Russ. *nom.*

In the United States the vowel in *pot, not,* etc. is not labialized in most regions.

d) Short **[u]** was delabialized in the 17th century and it developed into a new sound **[ʌ]** as in *cup, son, sun, up.* The same sound is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which **[u:]** (< ME **ō**) was shortened (before the 17th century): ME *blōd* > EModE [blu:d > blud > blʌd].

A preceding labial consonant usually prevented the delabialization of [u], as in E *full, pull, bull, push* etc. Still sometimes delabialization took place even after a labial, as in *bug, bulb,* etc.

Short vowels in EModE

http://oldenglish.at.ua

ME [ə] (written e) was lost in EModE
ME *helpe, sone, bookes* >help, son, books. ME [ə]-was preserved mostly between *sibilants or dentals: glasses, ashes, wanted, beloved, learned*

ME [a] normally changed into EModE [æ]
ME *cat, glad, man* >cat [kæt], glad [glæd], man [mæn]. After [w] –[a] was rounded and coincided with [o]. E.g., E *was [woz], want, what, quantity*

ME [o] sounded like [a] in EModE
Comp. E *frock*, F *frac*, R *фрак.* Later on the rounding was partly restored in English, though it is still less rounded than, for instance, R. or Ukr. [o], e.g., E *pot*

ME [u] developed in a new sound [ʌ] in EModE
E.g., *cup, son, sun, up.* The same sound is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which [u:] (<ME ō was shortened before the 17th c.: [blu:d >blud > blʌd]

Figure 6.3. Short vowels in EModE

6. 4. Diphthongs in Early Modern English

In place of most Middle English diphthongs we find similar diphthongs in Early Modern English.

Table 6.2. Evolution of ME diphthongs

Middle English	Early Modern English
oi	ɔi, as in *choice, joy*
ai ei	ei, as in { *tail, day* / *eight, way* }
ou	ou, as in *know*
au	ō, as in *cause, draw*
iu, eu	ju:, as in *few*

a) As it is shown in the table above, the ME diphthongs **[ai]** and **[ei]** were gradually levelled under one sound **[ei],** the spelling being mostly **ay** or **ai**.

Comp. ME *wey, seil* and ModE *way* [wei], *sail* [seil].

b) ME **[au]** was monophthongized and became **[o:]** as in *paw, law, cause, pause.*

c) ME. **[eu]** > **[iu]** which soon became **[ju:],** as in *new, dew, view.* The sound **[ü]** in French loan-words was usually replaced by the diphthongs **[iu],** later **[ju:].** This is the reason why the letter **u** is called **[ju:],** the letter **q** – **[kju:],** the word *due* is pronounced **[dju:],** etc.

After **[r], [dʒ], [tʃ], [l]** the first element **[j]** is often lost in ModE, e.g.,
rude, jury, blue, chew, crew

6. 5. Vowel Changes under the Influence of Consonants

So far we have spoken chiefly of vowels developing independently of the other sounds in their neighbourhood. But a great many vowel changes depended on a neighbouring sound, most often the consonants **[r]** and **[1].**

a) To begin with the sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to **[a]** in the 15th century, so that **[er] > [ar].** This change was in most cases reflected in spelling.

Comp. ME *derk, ferm, sterre* and ModE *dark, farm, star.*

In some words like *clerk, sergeant* the older spelling has been preserved.

b) Now before we proceed with the influence of **[r]** on the development of new English vowels we have to bear in mind that the articulation of the sound **[r]** changed. From being a vibrating sound (like the Russian [p]) it became more liquid and in the 17th century it was vocalized to **[ə]** after vowels. In most cases this **[ə]** and the preceding short vowel were fused into one long vowel:

ar > [a:], as in *dark, part, star, heart;*

or > [o:], as in *port, form, more, war;*

ir
ur ──────> **[ɜ:],** as in *bird, burden, person.*
er

As a result, new long vowels have appeared in English. In most regions of the United States the sound **[r]** is still heard after vowels.

c) If the sound **[r]** happened to follow a long vowel, the result was a diphthong with **[ə]** as the second element (sometimes a triphthong).

ME **ēr** > ModE **[iə],** as in *here, beer.*

ME **ēr** > ModE **[ɛə]** or **[iə],** as in *bear, wear,* or *dear, beard.*

ME **ōr** > ModE **[uə],** as in *poor, moor.*

ME **ōr** > ModE **[oə; o:]** as in *oar, board.*

ME **ār** > ModE **[ɛə],** as in *hare, dare.*

ME **īr** > ModE **[aiə],** as in *hire, fire.*

ME **ūr** > ModE **[auə],** as in *our, flower.*

Thus a whole set of new diphthongs and triphthongs have appeared.

c) Of great consequence was also the influence of the consonant **[l]** on the preceding vowels, especially **[a].** This influence is connected with the development of an **u-**glide before **[l],** mostly after **[a],** sometimes after **[o].** Thus, **[al > aᵘl > aul > o:l],** as in *all, fall, salt, bald;* **[ol > oᵘl >oul],** as in *folk, bowl* (< ME bolle).

d) The consonant **[l]** was often lost, especially before **[k, m, f].** When **[1]** was lost before **[k]** the glide remained and the diphthong **[au]** normally developed into **[o:],** as in

walk, talk, chalk.

When **[l]** was lost before **[m]** or **[f]** the labial glide disappeared before the labial consonants and the preceding **[a]** was lengthened, as in *palm, calm, half, calf.*

e) ModE **[a:]** has also developed from ME **[a]** before the voiceless fricatives **[s], [f],** and **[θ],** as in *grass, grasp, past, ask, after, staff, path.* The process of development seems to have been: **[a > æ > æ: > a:].** In most regions of the United States the vowel here is still **[æ].**

Figure 6.4. Vowel changes under the influence of consonants

6. 6. Consonants in EModE

One of the most important changes of the 15th century was the voicing of **[f], [s], [θ], [t∫]** and **[ks]** in weakly stressed words and syllables. The phenomenon is somewhat similar to that discovered by K. Verner in the Old Germanic languages, and is sometimes referred to as **Verner's Law in English.** For instance:

ME **[f] > [v],** as in *of, acti**v**e* (< ME acti**f**), *pensi**v**e* (< pensi**f**).

ME **[s] > [z],** as in *is, his, comes, stones, possess.*

ME **[θ > [ð],** as in *wi**th**, **th**e, **th**ey.*

ME **[t∫] > [dʒ],** as in *knowle**dg**e* (< ME knowle**ch**e), *Greenwi**ch*** ['grinidʒ].

ME **[ks] > [gz],** as in *e**x**amine, e**x**hibit, e**x**act.*

Final **[ng]** has been reduced to **[ŋ].**

E.g. ME *thing* [θing] > EModE *thing* [θiŋ].

Final **[b]** has been lost after **[m],** as in *climb, dumb, comb.*

'Silent' **b** has been wrongly inserted in *thumb, crumb.*

In the 15th c. **[d]** before **[r]** often changed into **[ð].**

E.g. ME *fader* > *father*

ME *weder* > *weather*

New sibilants developed in the 17th century from the combinations **[s], [z], [t], or [d] + [j], [sj] > [ʃ], [zj] > [ʒ], [tj] > [tʃ], [dj] > [dʒ].** This change took place mostly after stressed vowels.

Examples:

[sj] > [ʃ] as in *Russian, Asia, physician, nation* (ME ['nãsjon] > ['neisjən] > ['neiʃ(ə)n). This change did not take place in such words as *suit, assume, pursue,* etc., because the stress followed the combination **[sj].** There are, however, some exceptions like *sure* and *sugar.*

[zj] > [ʒ], as in *decision, usual, measure.*

Not in *resume,* where the stress follows.

[tj] > [tʃ], as in *nature* (ME ['nātiur] > ['neitjə] > ['neitʃə]), *century, question.*

Not in *tune, tutor* etc., where the stress follows.

[dj] > [d3], as in *soldier, India* (in careless speech).

Not in *duty, induce,* where the stress follows.

Table 6.3. Some phonological changes in the historical development of English

IE	Germanic	OE	ME	EModE		ModE
5000 BC	2000 BC	450 AD	1066 (1150)	1400	1500	1700
Grimm's Law		palatalization		GVS starts		
		breaking				
		i-umlaut				

Summary

As a result of changes described above, the PDE vowel and consonant system differs in a number of essential points from that of Middle English.

The number of short vowel phonemes has increased by one – the vowel phoneme **[ʌ].** Another new short vowel phoneme **[æ]** has replaced ME **a.**

An entirely new long vowel phoneme **[ə:]** and a new type of diphthongs with the **[ə]-**glide have emerged, while the two long **e-**phonemes and the long close **[ọ:]** do not exist longer (having changed to **[i:]** and **[u:]** respectively), nor do the diphthongs **eu, iu.**

The rest of the PDE long vowels and diphthongs have counterparts in Middle English.

The EModE consonant system includes the new phonemes **[ʃ, ʒ, ʧ, ʤ],** which did not exist in OE.

The sounds **[f, v, θ, ð, s, z]** came to occur in positions they did not occupy previously, which changed the voiceless and voiced members of pairs **[f – v], [θ – ð]** and **[s – z]** from variants of the three fricative phonemes.

<div style="background:#dde7b8;padding:10px">Questions for self-control</div>

1. Account for the series of long vowel changes known as 'the Great Vowel Shift'.
2. Identify the development of ME short vowels in EModE.
3. Trace the evolution of ME diphthongs in EModE.
4. Comment on the vowel changes under the influence of consonants.
5. What is meant by 'discrepancy' between spelling and pronunciation in EModE?
6. Account for the emergence of new palatal-alveolar sibilants.
7. Comment on the voicing of fricatives.

SEMINAR 4

Aims:
- ✓ to examine Early Modern English spelling and sound changes in detail;
- ✓ to distinguish among the changes – free development of vowels reflecting some general trend;
- ✓ to identify the scholarly hypotheses on the Great Vowel Shift once more;
- ✓ to implement the theory about the Great Vowel Shift into practice;
- ✓ to trace the evolution of ME diphthongs in Early Modern English;
- ✓ to denote the influence of the consonants on the following vowels;
- ✓ trace the phonological underpinnings of the main-stream accents of the period.

<div style="background:#dde7b8;padding:10px">4.1. Study points:</div>

1. The Emerging Orthographic System
2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift
3. Development of ME Short Vowels in EModE
4. Diphthongs in Early Modern English
5. Vowel Changes under the Influence of Consonants
6. Consonants in Early Modern English

Recommended Literature
Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 159–166.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 39–45; 48–49.

Additional:
✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 164–170.
✓ Lecture 6.

4.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. Early Modern English pronunciation clearly had many stable features but also underwent a series of sound changes.

2. Standards of pronunciation are not fixed like orthographic standards but continue to change with time.

3. Vowels changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects.

4. The introduction of printing at the very beginning of the Early Modern English period greatly contributed to the unification and fixation of English spelling and pronunciation.

5. The spelling changes during the Early Modern English period were more radical than those of the Middle English period.

6. The phonetic change which had the most disturbing effect upon the spelling of that period was the loss of ME **[ə]** written **e.**

7. The letter **e** disappeared as well as the sound **[ə].** E.g. ME *sone, nute* > EModE *son, nut.*

8. The letter **e** in a final position came to be regarded as a sign indicating the length of a following vowel.

9. One of the phonological developments that obliterated earlier sound – spelling correspondences were changes in short vowels known as the Great Vowel Shift (GVS).

10. The changes included in the Great Vowel Shift affected regularly every stressed long vowel in any position.

11. During the Great Vowel Shift all the long vowels became closer or were diphthongised.

12. The changes included in the Great Vowel Shift can be defined as 'dependent', as they were not caused by any apparent phonetic conditions in the syllable or in the word.

13. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound and comprehensive change in the history of English vowels: every long vowel was 'shifted', and the pronunciation of all the words with these sounds was altered.

14. The front and back close vowels ī and ū were first monophthongized and then pulled or dragged the other long vowels up.

15. During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed, for they contained long vowels.

16. From a sociolinguistic perspective the Great Vowel Shift consists of a combination of pull and push factors related to the social stratification of linguistic

variables.

17. Although it is difficult to reconstruct the actuation of this sound change, it is probable that its origin lay in sociolinguistic variation and stratification in the London area of the early 16th century.

18. The whole process might have started with the open vowel **ā,** which was raised and thus pushed the other vowels up to trigger a pull chain.

19. Since the lower-class dialects were stigmatized, upper-class speakers unconsciously started to raise the long vowels in ME words in order to maintain the social difference.

20. Three conflicting hypotheses concerning the GVS exist.

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

1. The ME long vowels changed in the Shift are as follows:
   A ī, ẹ:, ę:, ā, ǫ, ọ:, ū
   B i:, a, o, u, i, o:, e
   C a, o, o:, e, e:, i, i:
   D e, e:, u, o, a, o:, i

2. The two closest sounds ... developed into diphthongs with an open first element.
   A ē and ū
   B ī and ū
   C ē and a
   D a and ū

3. After the Shift the sound **[ī]** became:
   A [i:]
   B [e:]
   C [ai]
   D [ei]

4. After the Shift the sound **[ū]** became:
   A **[**au]
   B [e:]
   C **[**ai]
   D [ei]

5. After the Shift the sound **[ę:]** became:
   A [i:]
   B [e:]
   C [ai]
   D [ei]

6. After the Shift the sound **[ǫ:]** became:
   A **[**i:]
   B [e:]
   C **[**u:]
   D [ei]

7. After the Shift the sound **[ɛ:]** became:
   A **[**ə]
   B [e:]
   C **[**ai]
   D **[**i:]

8. After the Shift the sound **[ǭ]** became:
   A [əu
   B [e:]
   C [ai]
   D [ei]
9. After the Shift the sound **[ā]** became:
   A [i:]
   B [e:]
   C [ai]
   D [ei]
10. The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes greatly to the present ... between spoken and written English.
    A agreement
    B consistency
    C coordination
    D discrepancy
11. ME **[ə]** (written **e**) was ... in EModE.
    A appeared
    B functioned
    C denoted
    D lost
12. ME **a** normally changed into EModE ....
    A [æ]
    B [e:]
    C [ai]
    D [ei]
13. ME [**o**] sounded like ... in EModE.
    A [æ]
    B [a]
    C [ai]
    D [ei]
14. ME **[au**] was monophthongized and became ....
    A [æ]
    B [a]
    C [o:]
    D [ei]
15. Final **[b]** has been lost after ....
    A [n]
    B [p]
    C [m]
    D [v]
16. In the 15th c. **[d]** before **[r]** often changed into ....
    A [z]
    B [s]
    C [ð]
    D [t]
17. Final **[ng]** has been reduced to ....
    A [n]

B [s]

C [ŋ]

D [g]

18. The voicing of <u>...</u> in weakly stressed words and syllables became one of the most important changes of the 15th c.

    A [n]**,** [s], [f], [h], [k]

    B [f], [s], [θ], [tʃ], [ks]

    C [p]**,** [t], [f], [r], [l]

    D [c] [n]**,** [w], [h], [k]

19. Sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to <u>...</u> in the 15th c.

    A [a]

    B [ei]

    C [o]

    D [er]

20. EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME <u>...</u> before the voiceless fricatives **[s]**, **[f]**, and **[θ]**

    A [a]

    B [e

    C [o]

    D [u]

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

1. The Great Vowel Shift is <u>...</u>
2. The Great Vowel Shift displays <u>...</u>
3. Early Modern English witnessed the greatest event in the history of English vowels <u>...</u>
4. ME sound **[ə]** was preserved mostly between <u>...</u>
5. After **[w] – [a]** was rounded and coincided with <u>...</u>
6. Sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to **[a]** in the 15th c., <u>...</u>
7. The drastic changes of long vowels <u>...</u>
8. ME letter **e** was added to many words <u>...</u>
9. Phonetic alphabet: <u>...</u>
10. ME letter **e** in a final position <u>...</u>
11. The combinations **ss, ff, ll** and **ck (-kk)** <u>...</u>
12. The transition from Middle to Modern English is not marked by any specific cultural event but rather by a linguistic event: <u>...</u>
13. Most double consonants preceding the final weak **[ə]** <u>...</u>
14. The combinations ss, **ff, ll** and **ck (-kk)** were transferred <u>...</u>
15. ME letter **e** remained and <u>...</u>
16. Medially, all consonants were usually doubled <u>...</u>
17. If the sound **[r]** happened to follow a long vowel <u>...</u>
18. ME letter **e** and the sound **[ə]** <u>...</u>
19. EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME **[a]** before the voiceless fricatives **[s], [f],** and **[θ]** <u>...</u>
20. ME **[u]** developed in a new sound **[ʌ]** in EModE, e.g. cup, son, sun, up <u>...</u>

    A   <u>...</u> the name given to a series of changes of long vowels between the 14th

and the 18th c.

B … which involved the change of all ME long monophthongs, and probably some of the diphthongs.

C … a growing discrepancy between letters and sounds.

D … were not reflected in spelling.

E … the Great Vowel Shift.

F … an alphabet used to study speech sounds in which every symbol corresponds to one and only one sound.

G … the sound **[ə]** disappeared. E.g., *name, write, love.*

H … disappeared. E.g., ME *sone, nute* > EModE *son, nut.*

I … which had never before had the letter, e.g. EModE *stone, mice* < ME *stoon, mis.*

J … indicates the length of a preceding vowel. E.g. *hat – hate, bit – bite.*

K … were simplified after the loss of the latter. E.g., ME *lette, stoppe – let, stop.*

L …were retained. E.g., ME *kisse, stuffe, pulle, locke – kiss, stuff, pull, lock.*

M … after a short vowel just as a sign that the vowel was short. e.g., ME *super, felow, sumer – supper, fellow, summer.*

N … to other words with originally a single final letter. E.g. ME *glas, small – glass, small.*

O … sibilants or dentals*: glasses, ashes, wanted, beloved, learned.*

P … **[o],** E.g. ModE *was* [woz], *want, what, quantity.*

Q … so that **[er] > [ar]**. *Comp.* ME *derk, ferm, sterre* and EModE *dark, farm, star.* In some words like *clerk, sergeant* the older spelling has been preserved.

R … the result was a diphthong (triphthong) with **[ə]** as the second element. E.g. ME **ēr** > EModE **[iə],** as in *here, beer;* ME **ōr** > EModE **[ue],** *poor;* ME **ār** > EModE **[ɛə],** *hare, dare;* ME **īr** > EModE **[aiə],** *hire, fire;* ME **ūr** > EModE **[auə],** *our, flower.*

S … as in *grass, grasp, past, ask, after, staff, pass.* In most regions of the United States the vowel here is still **[æ]**.

T The same sound **[ʌ]** is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which **[u:]** (< ME **ō** was shortened before the 17th c.: **[blu:d > blud > blʌd].**

IV. Exercises.

1. Show the historical development of the following **OE** words. *Model:*

> OE feor > ME fer > E far [fa:]
> OE **eo** > ME **e**; ME **er** > ModE **ar**; **r > ə; ar > a:**

æfter, āჳan, āჳān, ǽniჳ, rīsan, bæc, baþian, bēatan, bindan, bysiჳ, bītan, blōd, bodyჳ, boჳa, cald, brēad, brōþor, brūn, cearu, caru, cēpan, cild, cnāwan, cniht, cneoht, cuman, cwēn, dæჳ, dǽl, dēor, dēop, deorc, draჳan, ჳræs, hēdan, hebban.

2. Show the historical development of the following **ME** words. *Model:*

ME caughte > ModE caught [ko:t]
ME [**au**] (au) > ModE [**o:**] (au);
ME [**x**] (gh) > ModE [–] (gh);
ME [ə] (e) > ModE [–] (–)

able, abusen, apperen, blamen, biten, blowen, breeth, cause, chambre, chamber, cun, klene, cleene, knowen, col, knight, cove, cleven, corn, cutten, day, derk, dep, deep, dor, door, English.

3. Show the historical development of the following **ModE** words. *Model:*

ModE ground [graund] < ME ground [grūnd] < OE ʒrund
ModE [**au**] (ou) < ME [**ū**] (ou) < OE u (+ nd)

half, hard, lead, like, love, meal, meet, mighty, mild, morning, night, pound, port, read, ride, rise, say, small, speak, star, son, tale, work, wide, write.

4.3. Reading practice

William Shakespeare, Sonnet 7. Supply a historical explanation: probable origin, spelling, pronunciation, grammatical forms and their meanings.
Model of the analysis: Sonnet 2 (1).

When forty winters shall besiege thy brow,
And dig deep trenches in thy beauty's field,
Thy youth's proud livery so gazed on now,
Will be a tatter'd weed of small worth held
Then being asked, where all thy beauty lies,

Model of the phonetic analysis	
when	the ME combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*
forty	the ME sound [**or**] > the EModE sound [**o:**] – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of **r**)
shall	the ME sound [**a**] is a monophthongization of the OE diphthong [**ea**] in the word *sceal* (the 11th c.); *sh* – the development of the sibilant [**ʃ**] (the 17th c.)
besiege	the ME digraph *ie* denoted the sound [**e:**]. ME [**e:**] > [**i:**] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.); the ME palatal consonant [**g**] > the EModE sibilant [**dʒ**]
thy	the ME voiceless fricative [**θ**] > the EModE voiced [**ð**]; the ME letter **y** >

121

	the EModE diphthong **[ai]** (The GVS – the pull chain)
brow	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
deep	the monophthongization of the OE diphthong **[ēo]** in the word *dēop* (the 11th c); **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
field	the ME digraph *ie* denoted the sound **[e:].** ME **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
gaze	the ME sound **[a] > [ei**] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the push chain; the 15th c.)
now	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
be	the ME sound **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
weed	the monophthongization of the OE diphthong **[ēo]** in the word *wēod* (the 11th c); **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
small	the influence of the consonant **[l]** on the preceding vowel, especially **[a],** which resulted in the development of an **u**-glide before **[l],** mostly after **[a],** sometimes after **[o]: [al > aul > o:l]**
worth	the ME sound **[or]** > the EModE sound **[o:]** – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of **r**)
all	the influence of the consonant **[l]** on the preceding vowel, especially **[a],** which resulted in the development of an **u**-glide before **[l],** mostly after **[a],** sometimes after **[o]: [al > aul > o:l]**
lies	the ME digraph *ie* denoted the sound **[e:].** ME **[e:] > [i:]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
proud	the ME sound **[u:] > [au]** during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.)
where	the ME combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*

Model of the grammatical and etymological analysis	
when	conj., OE origin *hwænne*
winters	n, the Common case, plural, originated from OE *wintar*
shall	the auxiliary verb is used to denote the future tense, OE origin *sculan*
besiege	v, originated from French
thy	pron. possessive, the 2nd person singular conjoint form of the possessive pronouns, *thine* is the 2nd person singular absolute form of the possessive pronouns. The forms *thy* and *thine* are now archaic, having been replaced in common use by the plural forms *your* and *yours*
brow	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from OE *brū*
trenches	n, the Common case, Plural, originated from French *trenche*
beauty's	n, the Possessive case, Singular, from French origin *biauté*
field	n, the Common case, Singular of the Old English noun *feld*
youth's	n, the Possessive case, Singular of the noun youth of Old English origin *geogoth*

and	conjunction of Old English origin *and* [and]
livery	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from French *livrée*
so	adverb of Old English origin *swā*
gazed	Past Indef., originated from Scandinavian *gasa*
will	the auxiliary verb is used to denote the future tense, OE origin *willan*
be	the Infinitive, OE origin *beon*
tatter'd	the contracted form of Past Indef., originated from Old English *tealtrian*
weed	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from Old English *wēod*
of	prep., originated from Old English *af*
small	adj., the Positive degree, originated from Old English *smæl*
held	Past Indef., originated from Old English *healdan*
worth	n, the Common case, Singular, originated from Old English *weorth*
then	adverb of Old English origin *thenne*
being	Participle I of OE *beon*
asked	Past Indef., originated from Old English *āscian*
all	pron. defining originated from Old English *eall*
where	adverb of Old English origin *hwær*
thy	pron. possessive, the 2nd person singular conjoint form
lies	Pres. Indef., originated from Old English *lēogan*

Sonnet № 7

Lo! in the orient when the gracious light
Lifts up his burning head, each under eye
Doth homage to his new-appearing sight,
Serving with looks his sacred majesty;
And having climbed the steep-up heavenly hill,
Resembling strong youth in his middle age,
Yet mortal looks adore his beauty still,
Attending on his golden pilgrimage:
But when from highmost pitch, with weary car,
Like feeble age, he reeleth from the day,
Like feeble age, he reeleth from the day,
The eyes, 'fore duteous, now converted are
From his low tract, and look another way:
So thou, thyself outgoing in thy noon
Unlooked on diest unless thou get a son.

The Modern English system of sounds and letters:

1. Stressed vowels.

sounds	letters	examples
i:	e, ee, ea, ie, ei, i	we, feel, speak, chief, receive, machine

i	i, y, ui	pin, synonym, build
e	e, ea	pen, head
æ	a	man
a:	ar, al (+m, f), a (+ss, st, ft, th, etc.)	dark, calm, half, pass, past, grasp, after, path
o	o, a (after w, qu)	hot, was, quantity
o:	or, au, aw, a (+ l + cons.)	port, cause, law, walk, fall, salt
u	u, oo (+ k)	pull, look
u: (ju)	oo, u, o, ui, ew	moon, rule, do, fruit, duty, suit, new
ʌ	u, o, ou	sun, come, rough
ə:	er, ir, ur, ear	person, bird, turn, earth
ei	a, ai, ay, ei, ey	late, sail, day, vein, they
ou	o, oa, ow, ou	no, cold, oak, know, though
ai	i, y	time, find, light, my
au	ou, ow	house, now
oi	oi, oy	coin, boy
iə	eer, ere, ear	beer, here, dear
ɛə	ar (+ vowel), ear	parent, care, bear
ɔə, o:	oar, ore	roar, more
uə, (juə)	oor, ure	poor, pure

2. Consonants

t	t, tt, ed	cat, bottom, asked
k	k, c, ck, ch	book, king, cup, back, school
f	f, ff, ph, gh	fire, stuff, photograph, laugh
z	z, s, ss	zoo, rose, possess
ʃ	sh, ch, si, ssi, ci, ti	ship, machine, pension, profession, academician, nation

SELF-STUDY 6

Aims:

- ✓ to review afresh the sound changes within the phonemic system of Early Modern English with its relation to Present-Day English;
- ✓ to perceive the phenomenon of the Great Vowel Shift and its changes once again;
- ✓ to trace the evolution of ME diphthongs and the development of vowels influenced or caused by the neighbouring sounds in Early Modern English in practice.

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

6.1.1. *History of English – The Sound System of EMnE*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pWTFcUZVAlY

6.1.2. *History of English – The Great Vowel Shift*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zyhZ8NQOZeo

6.1.3. *The Great Vowel Shift*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gLMpTdAsGH0

6.1.4. *History of the English Language – 12 To Modern English The Great Vowel Shift {audio book}*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hEoV71a748U

6.1.5. *Shakespeare – Original pronunciation*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gPlpphT7n9s

6.1.6. *Early Modern English*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YEqb7WGupW0

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 39–45; 48–49.

Additional:

- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 164–170.
- ✓ Lecture 6.

6.2. Computer tests in e-learning

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

1. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by

125

Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

2. Vowels changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects.

3. All the long vowels became closer or were diphthongized between the 16th and the 20th c.

4. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound change in the history of the English vocalic system: the vowels being shifted led to the great changes in the pronunciation.

5. The ME digraph **ee** [ẹ:] was used to denote **[i:]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME deep [dẹ:p] > ModE deep [di:p].

6. The ME digraph **ea [ɛ:]** was used to denote [ẹ:] after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sea [sẹ:] > ModE sea [si:].

7. The ME digraph **oo** [ọ:] stands for **[u:]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sōne [so:nə] > ModE soon [su:n].

8. The ME digraph **oa** [ọ̄] stands for **[ou]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME open ['ɔ:pən] > ModE open ['əup(ə)n].

9. The letter **x** stands for **[gz]** in the following words: *oxen, axes, execute, exercise, oxidation, excuse, exclusive, exceptional, extraordinary.*

10. The letter **x** stands for **[ks]** in the following words: *executor, examine, exact, exist, exemplify, exert, exhaust.*

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

1. Identify the sound value of the **ee-**digraph (**ee, ei, ie**) after the GVS in the following words:
  - **A** sleep, street, deed, weep
  - **B** time, line, wipe, tide
  - **C** shift, chin, ship, pin, written
  - **D** hand, face, help, word

2. Determine the sound value of the **ea**-digraph after the GVS in the following words:
  - **A** feel, seek, feet, beet
  - **B** black, nap, stand, bathe
  - **C** east, wheat, feat , lea, meat
  - **D** d instead, expect, certain, phonetic

3. Define the sound value of the digraph **oo** as a result of the GVS in the following words:
  - **A** bold, cold, old, comb
  - **B** go, no, oak, know
  - **C** do, lose, prove, to
  - **D** coin, oil, boy, toy

4. Identify the sound value of the digraph **oa** as a result of the GVS in the following words:
  - **A** show, alone, below, promote
  - **B** come, become, welcome, some

C embolden, encourage, foster, support

D got, not, forgot, blot, thought

5. Denote the exceptions to the **ea**-digraph sound value in the following words:

    A altitude, height, eight tail

    B bear, pear, there, where

    C break, steak, great

    D creak, dread, dream, drear

6. Define the quality of ME short vowel **o** in ModE in the following words:

    A above, honey, tongue, wonder

    B who, lose, move, whom

    C don't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't

    D coup, group, rouge, soup

7. Identify the lengthening of ME **a** before voiceless fricatives in the following words:

    A alphabet, alto, altitude, aptitude

    B aghast, cast, task, staff, raft

    C small, tall, wall, walk, talk

    D wander, what, swallow, wasp

8. Define the quality of ME **a** under the influence of labial consonants in the following words:

    A wag, pat, back, hand

    B want, wand, wash, was

    C base, chaste, haste, paste

    D father, mother, rather, another

9. Identify the loss of consonants in the following words:

    A desert, exact, though, that

    B pull, put, butcher, push

    C swagger, quality, quantity

    D comb, hymn, solemn, tomb

10. The present-day system of vowels should be regarded as something:

    A final and permanent

    B constant and decisive

    C determined and invariable

    D continuing and durative

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

1. Phonetic changes, especially those after the fixation of spelling in 1476 ...

2. Two or more sounds may coincide in one phoneme ...

3. Sounds which at one time belonged to one phoneme and were represented by one and the same graphic symbol ...

4. The loss of a sound makes its graphic symbol silent in those positions where the lost sound occurred ...

5. The silent *e* was added in some words ...

6. The simplification of double consonants has resulted in doubled letters being written for single sounds …

7. Through convergence of originally different sounds a number of English words have become identical in pronunciation that is …

8. The relation between sound and spelling in the English language was complicated by other factors, e.g. …

9. Sometimes the divergence between spelling and pronunciation is due to the fact that …

10. There is a tendency in ModE to conform spelling to pronunciation that is …

A … homophones: being pronounced in the same way but differing in meaning or spelling or both, as for example *bear* and *bare, meet* and *meat, stare* and *stair*.

B … either to indicate the shortness of the preceding vowel, as in *copper, hotter, running,* or simply by tradition, as in *bell, egg, community.*

C … that is the main reason why the same phoneme is spelt differently in different words, e.g. [ʌ] is spelt *u* (ME **u**) in *cut*, but *oo* (ME ǫ:) in *blood,* and *ou* (for ME ū) in *couple*.

D … to indicate the "long" reading of the preceding vowel and some silent letters are written by analogy or on etymological grounds (sometimes mistakenly) though no corresponding sound was ever pronounced.

E … have been the main cause of the increasing discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling.

F … the introduction of numerous loan-words from other languages, as these words often keep their foreign spellings, e.g. *ou* for [u:], *i* for [i:], *ch* for [ʃ] and *g* for [ʒ] in some ModE borrowings from French*: group, machine, charade, regime*; *ch* for [k] and *ph* [f] in Greek loans: *character, philosophy, chorus, physics*, etc.

G … may develop in different ways depending on their phonetic position and may in the end be identified as different phonemes, e.g. ME **a** before **r, l,** and voiceless fricatives and after **w**.

H … to pronounce a word as it is spelt, e.g. ['ɔftən] for [ɔfn] (often), ['fɔ:hed] instead of ['fɔrid] (forehead).

I … that is how the final *e* became silent in many words and a number of silent consonant letters as well as the silent digraph *gh* appeared, e.g. *delight*.

J … the spelling and the sound form of the word come from two parallel ME forms, usually belonging to different dialects, e.g. the word *eye,* where the digraph *ey* is read [ai], and not [ei]. The spelling *eye* comes from ME < OE *ēage* (West Saxon dialect), with ēa > ē and [j] (spelt g (ʒ) in OE, *y* in ME changing to *i* and forming the diphthong [ei]. The pronunciation [ai] goes back to the ME form *īe*, from OE *ēge,* a northern form, where ē narrowed to *ī* under the influence of the following [j], which then merged with *ī.*

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 7

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

LECTURE 7

> *"The English sentence ... is something of a paradox. Word order has become far more important than in Old or Middle English, and yet it has retained enough of its elasticity to give to the skilful speaker all the scope and power he needs".*
>
> (S. Potter)

Aims:

✓ to discuss the changes in the nominal and the pronominal parts of speech;
✓ to examine Early Modern English verbal functions;
✓ to familiarize the students with the elements of the ritual language in EModE;
✓ to trace the peculiar features of EModE syntax.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
7.1. EModE Nouns and Pronouns
   7.1.1. *Personal pronouns*
   7.1.2. *Possessive pronouns*
   7.1.3. *Relative pronouns*
7.2. EModE Adjectives and Adverbs
7.3. EModE Verbs
   7.3.1. *Tense and Aspect*
   7.3.2. *Mood*
7.4. Early Modern English Syntax
   Summary
   Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

prescriptivism	**metropolitan standard**
descriptivism	EModE language of ritual
grammaticalisation	punctuation
analytic language	fixed word order

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1994. P. 70–71.

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. P. 166–175.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 52; 54–55; 81–82; 112–115.

Additional:
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 170–191.

Introduction

EModE Morphology is characterized by a further loss of inflections, which was artificially stopped by **prescriptive** grammarians. If that had not happened, we might have lost the third person **-s** ending, case endings on personal pr., (*I/me, she/her,* etc.) and relative pronouns (*who/whom,* etc.).

Prescriptivism is the belief that the study of language should lead to certain prescriptions or rules of advice for speaking and writing.

EModE Grammar is characterized by an increase in the number of *prepositions* and *auxiliaries* (*Grammaticalisation*), as expected of a language becoming more *analytic.*

The period between c. 1000 and 1300 has been called an "age of great changes" (A. Baugh), for it witnessed one of the greatest events in the history of English grammar: the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system. Some nominal categories were lost – *gender* and *case* in adjectives, *gender* in nouns; the number of forms distinguished in the surviving categories was reduced – *cases* in nouns, *numbers* in personal pronouns. Morphological division into types of *declension* practically disappeared.

The evolution of the verb system was a far more complicated process. The number of verbal grammatical categories increased. The verb acquired the categories of *voice, time correlation* (or *phase*) and *aspect.* In the category of *mood* there arose new forms of the Subjunctive. The *infinitive* and the *participle,* having lost many nominal features, developed verbal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb.

Thus the history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up of stable and changeable features. Some grammatical characteristics remained absolutely or relatively stable; others were subjected to more or less extensive modification.

7.1. EModE Nouns and Pronouns

The **Early Modern English** system of **noun** inflections is essentially that of Present-day English, and the same regular forms are found in number and case endings. The Old English four-case system has been reduced to two, the **genitive** and the **common**

case, which appears in both subject and object positions in the sentence. Some more variability, however, exists in Early Modern number and case marking than in Standard English today.

The Modern English noun has two forms that are regarded as cases. The first form, which has resulted from the merging of the nominative, accusative and dative case forms, is called the **common case.**

The second form, which has developed from the genitive case in -**es**, is still called the **genitive case** by many grammarians. It differs, however, from the Old English genitive case in meaning. The fact is that this form narrowed its meaning and application in the course of the Middle English and especially the Modern English period. It came to be more and more restricted to expressing possessive relation (as in the phrase *the girl's hat*), so that it should more properly be called the **possessive case** or **possessive form** of the noun. This specialization of meaning of the former genitive case was favoured by the phonetic coincidence of the genitive ending (pronounced **[-əs, -is]** or **[-əz, -iz]** in the 15th c.) with the possessive pronoun *his,* where the initial **h** was usually dropped, in constructions like *'the peinter ys nam'* (*'the painter his name', that is 'the painter's name'*), which were quite common in the 15th – 16th c. Perhaps it is due to confusion with this kind of construction that the possessive morpheme came later (in the 17th c.) to be spelt with the apostrophe: it may have been regarded as a weak form of the possessive pronoun. Possibly, however, the apostrophe was intended to mark the loss of the unstressed vowel of the old genitive ending. In the plural, where the possessive morpheme coincided with the plural suffix, the possessive began to be marked by the apostrophe after the final **s**.

> *The possessive form is used chiefly with nouns denoting animate (living) things – people and animals – and almost exclusively in the attributive function.*

Thus it covers only a fraction of the semantic and functional range of the genitive case.

> *One of the broad trends in the history of English is a tendency to level inflections to zero endings or to replace them by alternative (periphrastic) expressions.*

The genitive, the sole surviving nominal case ending, also has zero representation with regular plural nouns in **-s** (the apostrophe is only a spelling device). In many cases the genitive is replaced by an *of-construction*. In *ye forces of ye King of Denmark* could in principle have been *ye King of Denmark's forces.*

The *of*-construction gained ground in Middle English as many functions of the Old English genitive were taken over by this prepositional phrase. The genitive case came to be confined largely to personal nouns, and the *of*-construction to non-personal nouns. In

131

a large database of seventeenth-century possessive constructions, the genitive occurred in two out of three animate nouns (persons, animals), but only in one in ten inanimate nouns; the genitive was also much more frequent in informal than formal prose (Nevalainen, 2006: 74–76). These differences may reflect the subject matter – focusing on people – and the stylistic preferences of informal prose, which favour the use of the genitive rather than the *of*-construction.

In Early Modern English, the plural of nouns was regularly formed with the **-(e)s** ending. There were a few exceptions, most of them the same as now such as *men, women, children, oxen, feet, mice* and *sheep*. But there were also forms no longer in current use such as *eyen* ('eyes'), *shoon* ('shoes'), *chicken*, often used as the plural of *chick*, and *kine*, the plural of *cow*. *Kine* is still more frequent than *cows* in texts in the first half of the seventeenth century; see examples (1) and (2).

(1) *Touching the gentlenesse of <u>kine,</u> it is a vertue as fit to be expected as any other; for if she bee not affable to the maide, gentle, and willing to come to the paile . . . shee is vtterly vnfitte for the Dayrie* (HC, Gervase Markham, *Countrey Contentments,* 1615: 107).

(2) *Wee lost in the service and prey about 100 serviceable <u>horse,</u> ye draught oxen, and 130 cowes; I lost an horseman and my best horse* (CEEC, John Jones, 1651: Jones, 181).

Example (2) also illustrates the form *horse* after a numeral. It may be a sign of the noun being treated collectively (cf. *a hundred pound*), or the unchanged relic plural of the word. It occurs in Shakespeare, for instance, together with other similar cases such as *year* and *winter*.

Historically uninflected plurals such as *deer, sheep* and *swine* also survived intact from OE into EModE and, indeed, are still used in modern English. Some such as *folk*, however, came to be re-interpreted during the EModE period as singular, and acquired the plural form *folks* (still used today). Conversely, and very likely by analogy with nouns like *deer* and *sheep,* other animal-labelling nouns which historically had had plural forms came to acquire an unmarked, *collective sense* in certain contexts. These too have survived into modern usage: *fish, fowl* and *boar*.

In Modern English the form *brethren* differs in meaning and usage from the unmutated form *brothers,* which has joined the common type of the plural. *Brethren* now sounds rather solemn, sometimes ironically and is used with reference to fellow members of a religious or other kind of society, creed, order or profession. Thus male children of the same parents are brothers, but a priest may address his congregation as 'brethren'.

Pronouns can basically assume the same functions in sentences as nouns and phrases made up of nouns. But unlike nouns, pronouns are closed-class items as their number cannot be increased freely. Only **one personal pronoun** form was introduced into Early Modern English, the possessive **its.** It was motivated by animacy, the distinction between personal and non-personal reference, which also largely lay behind the division of labour between the **-s** genitive and the *of*-construction.

7.1.1. *Personal pronouns*

Personal pronouns are used to indicate the speaker *I* and the addressee *you* or others involved in the text or discourse context *he/she/it, they*. English personal pronouns show number (singular v. plural) and case, but mark personal as opposed to non-personal reference only in the third-person singular (*he/she v.   it*). Apart from the possessive, the case system distinguishes between forms used as subjects and those used as objects in the sentence. Possessive forms are used either as independent pronouns (*it's ours*) or, more often, as determiners of nouns, that is, alongside *a*(*n*) and *the* (*it's our cat;* cf. *it's a cat;*) for determiners.

Throughout the Early Modern period *you* vastly outnumbers *thou* in personal letters, which reflect everyday language use. By the beginning of the EModE period, subject *ye* and object *you* had fallen together in pronunciation as **[jə],** resulting in what seems to be the indiscriminate use of either pronoun in either function. By 1600, *ye* had largely dropped out of use. The contexts where *thou* typically occurs in seventeenth-century correspondence include a mother writing to her child, or spouses expressing their mutual affection. Even these writers alternate between the two pronouns within one and the same letter. The excerpt in (3 is from Lady Katherine Paston's letter to her young son, a student in Cambridge, and the one in (4) from Henry Oxinden's letter to his beloved wife. Both writers come from rural areas, Katherine Paston from Norfolk and Henry Oxinden from Kent. The use of *thou* continues in regional dialects until the present day especially in the north and west of England (Nevalainen, 2006: 79–82).

(3) *My good Child the Lord blese the ever more in all thy goinges ovtt and thy Cominges in. euen in all thy ways works and words, for his mercy sake: I was very glad to heer by your first letter that you wer so saffly arriued at your wished port* (HC, Katherine Paston, c. 1624: 65).

(4) *I read thy Letters over and over and over, for in them I see thee as well as I can. I am thine as much as possible. I hope our Children are well. My service to all you think fitting to speake it to* (HC, Henry Oxinden, 1662: 274).

EModE personal pronouns

	1st p. Singular		2nd p.
NOM	I [ī > ai]		thou [θū > ðau]
OBJ	me [mē > mi:]		thee [θē > ði:]

3rd p.

NOM	he [hē > hi:]	she [ʃē > ʃi:]	(h)it
OBJ	him	her [her > hə:]	(h)it

Plural

NOM	we [wē > wi:]	ye [jē > ji:]	they [θei > ðei]
OBJ	us [us > ʌs]	you [ju:]	them [θem > ðem]

http://oldenglish.at.ua
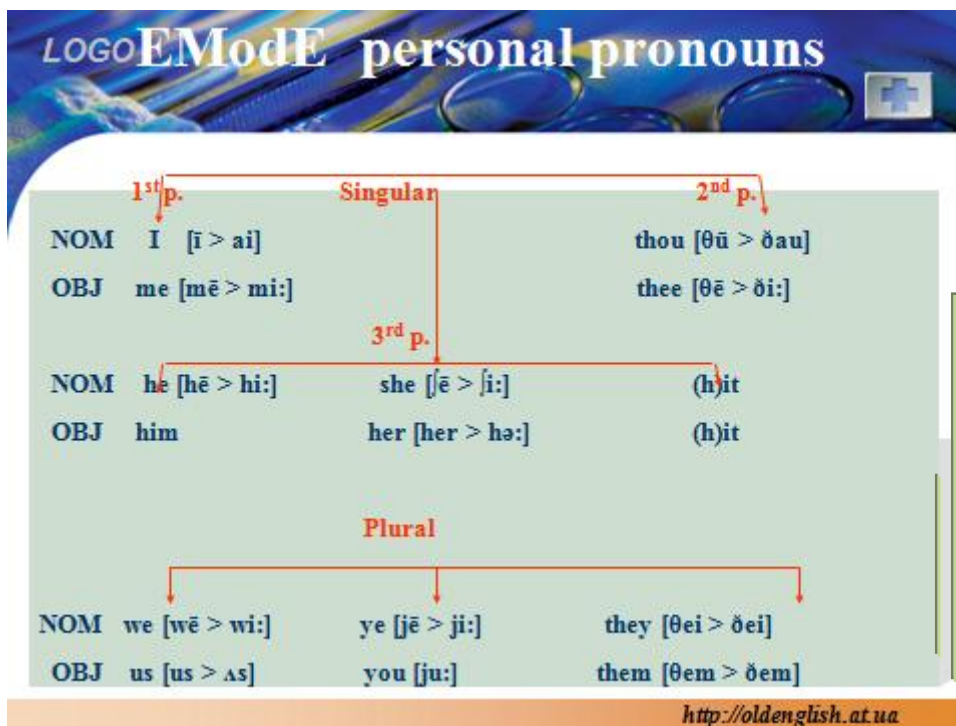
Figure 7.1. The EModE personal pronouns

Thou is regularly included in the personal-pronoun paradigm by Early Modern English grammarians, but John Wallis (1653) notes that using the singular form in addressing someone usually implies disrespect or close familiarity (Nevalainen, 2006: 80). According to Singh, the distinction between *thou/thee* and *ye/you* became increasingly less associated with number and more so with social dynamics of interaction. The use of French in the ME period meant that, as in the **T/V** (*tu/vous*) distinction of the Romance languages, the *thou/thee* forms came to be used as a term of address to social inferiors and (*ye*)/*you* to social superiors. At the same time, equals of the upper classes exchanged mutual **V** and equals of the lower classes exchanged **T** (Singh, 2005: 158). Eventually and, according to the author, very gradually, a distinction developed between the 'T of intimacy and the V of formality': a manifestation of use on the dimension of solidarity (ibid.: 158). Thus, those who felt socially, emotionally and/or intellectually equal (regardless of class boundaries) would address each other as *thou,* whereas those who did not, but who wanted to maintain a respectful but distant relationship, would use reciprocal *you.* By the late seventeenth century, the use of *thou* had declined (Singh, 2005: 158).

In his *Short Introduction to English Grammar* (1762: vi), Robert Lowth remarks that *thou* is disused even in the familiar style. Another change that simplified the Early Modern English second person pronoun system was the loss of the subject form *ye* when the object form *you* was generalized in the subject position in the London dialect. This levelling of case forms took place in the sixteenth century, spreading from informal contexts to more formal ones. It never made it to the King James Bible, however, which retained the traditional subject form *ye.* Among the early adopters of *you* was King Henry VIII, who consistently used it in the subject function in his personal correspondence (Nevalainen, 2006: 79–81).

(5) *Myne awne good Cardinall, I recomande me unto <u>you</u> with all my hart, and thanke <u>yow</u> for the grette payne and labour that <u>yow</u> do dayly take in my bysynes and maters, desyryng <u>yow</u> (that wen <u>yow</u> have well establyshyd them) to take summe pastyme and comfort, to the intent <u>yow</u> may the longer endure to serve us* (CEEC, King Henry VIII, 1520s: Original 1, 269).


Figure 7.2. The second person pronoun changes (FAM. – familiar; POL. – polite)

A notable asymmetry arose in the personal pronoun system when the singular *thou (thee, thy, thine)* retreated from the London dialect and, with the generalization of the originally plural *you (ye, you, your, yours)*, the number distinction between the second-person singular and plural was lost. This gradual process started in Middle English, when the plural *you* spread as the polite form in addressing one person (cf. French *vous*, German *Sie*). Social inferiors addressed their superiors by using *you*, and in the upper ranks you came to be established as the norm even among equals. *Thou* retreated to the private sphere, but could surface in public discourse when emotions ran high. Around 1600, *thou* is found in fiction, drama and poetry and in religious contexts of all kinds, especially with reference to God, as well as in trial records. The passage in (6) shows how *you* and *thou* varied in Sir Walter Raleigh's trial in 1603, where Sir Edward Coke, the Attorney General, combined *thou* with terms of abuse, and even used it as a verb. By the early eighteenth century *thou* gradually disappeared from most kinds of writing, including trial records (Nevalainen, 2006: 79).

(6) Raleigh: *I do not hear yet, that <u>you</u> have spoken one word against me; here is no Treason of mine done: If my Lord Cobham be a Traitor, what is that to me?*

Attorney: *All that he did was by <u>thy</u> Instigation, <u>thou</u> Viper; for I thou thee, <u>thou</u> Traitor.*

Raleigh: *It becometh not a Man of Quality and Virtue, to call me so: But I take comfort in it, it is all <u>you</u> can do.*

Attorney: *Have I anger'd <u>you</u>?* (HC, *The Trial of Sir Walter Raleigh,* 1603: 209).

Figure 7.3. The EModE 2nd person pronoun changes in the literary tradition of William Shakespeare, an early adopter of **you**

7.1.2. *Possessive pronouns*

Another significant change occurred with the use of the possessive pronouns *my/mine* and *thy/thine*. In ME the use of each alternant had been phonologically determined: *my/thy* were used before nouns beginning with a consonant (*my sweet*) and *mine/thine* before those with an initial vowel (*thine apple*). In the EModE period, the distribution became grammatical: *my* and *thy* functioned as **possessive pronouns** in attributive use (that is, they modified the noun that names the object which is 'possessed') and *mine/thine* as possessives in **nominal** use. Although *thine* has disappeared from modern English, *my/mine* are still used in this way – we say that's ***my car*** (attributive) but *that's* ***mine*** (nominal). This distinction also held for the other possessive pronouns in the system apart from *his,* which has always served both attributive and nominal functions. Interestingly, however, analogical 'n-forms' such as *hisn* and *hern* developed in the EModE period, but because of stigmatization, disappeared from 'correct' usage relatively quickly (Singh, 2005: 158).

The neuter possessive *his* remained in use until the early seventeenth century (as in: *But value dwells not in particular will/It holds **his** estimate and dignitie* (*Troilus and Cressida* II.II)) but of course was potentially ambiguous in its likeness to the possessive masculine *his*. Attempts to counter this ambiguity included the use of ***it*** (as in *Great was the fall of it* (*Matthew* 7.27)) and *thereof* (as in *the leaues **thereof** be long & broade* (Hortop 1591, *The Trauiales of an Englishman*)). The more popular alternative, however, proved to be an EModE creation – ***its,*** which first surfaced in the late sixteenth century, possibly in analogy with the other possessive 's-forms' of the third person singular. Its use spread rapidly throughout the seventeenth century, and by the beginning of the

eighteenth had become thoroughly established (Singh, 2005: 158).

Table 7.1. Early Modern English possessive pronouns

Person	Singular	Plural
1st p.	my/mine	our, ours
2nd p.	thy/your/thine/yours	your, yours
3rd p.	his, her, his/its	their, theirs
	his, hers, his/its	

The 16th century also saw the beginning use of **self** compounds to signal reflexivity. Possessive (attributive) pronouns served as the first element of these compounds (as in *myself, yourself, herself, ourselves*), as did object pronouns (as in *himself, themselves*). Notice too that *self* has been marked for number, which means that this is now the only part of the standard pronoun system where a singular ~ plural distinction holds for the second person pronoun (as in yourself ~ yourselves).

In OE forms such as *himself* and *myself* do not exist. Even at the time of the F1 edition of Shakespeare simple pronouns are used; *my / thy* and *self* are always printed separately, e.g. I dresse *my selfe* handsome (2 Henry 4 II, iv, 303).

7.1.3. *Relative pronouns*

Relative pronouns introduce relative clauses, which modify nouns and noun phrases. English has three basic relativisation strategies: *wh-, th-* and *zero* (*a person who*(*m*)/ *that/* [0]/ *I know*). *Wh-* pronouns distinguish personal from non-personal referents (*who* v. *which*), but do not show number contrast (*a person/ persons who; a thing/things which*), and only who inflects for case (subjective, objective and possessive). *That* has the same functions as *wh-* relative pronouns in the subjective and objective case, but it is uninfected and does not distinguish between personal and non-personal referents or number (a person/things that I know). The *zero strategy* is found in cases where the relative clause does not have an overt relative marker (*a person/things* [0] *I know*).

Table 7.2. Early Modern English relativisers

Gender	Subjective case	Objective case	Possessive, determiner	Determiner
personal	*which* ➝*who*	*whom*	*whose*	*which*
	that	*that*		
	(zero)	(zero)		

non-personal	*which*	*which*	*whose*	*which*
	that	*that*	*(whereof)*	
	(zero)	(zero)	*(of which)*	

7.2. EModE Adjectives and Adverbs

By the beginning of the EModE period, adjectives carried only *comparative* and *superlative* inflections (**-er** and **-est** respectively) but these degrees of comparison were also signalled by the respective use of **more** and **most.** Both options survived into EModE and indeed, were often used simultaneously. Singh (2005: 157) states that the use of *more* or *most + uninflected adjective* was encouraged, and therefore more common, in educated writing, but numerous textual examples of doubly marked forms (such as *most unkindest*), which provided a useful emphatic device, also exist.

In the late seventeenth century, however, such forms came to be derided as illogical and were proscribed. By the late 1600s, the use of *-er* and *-est* was largely restricted to monosyllabic and certain disyllabic adjectives (that is, those ending in a vowel sound), and *more* and *most* to polysyllabic – rules which are still observed today.

English **adjectives** have three characteristics. They can modify nouns (*a happy day*), and complement the subject (*the day was happy*) and the object of the sentence (*it made me happy*). Adjectives can be modified by adverbs like very (*very happy*), and they can be compared (*she was happier; she was the happiest of them all*).

As it has been mentioned above, adjectives are only inflected for comparison, and have forms for the **comparative (-er)** and **superlative** degrees **(-est).** Early Modern English also makes full use of the periphrastic system of comparison by means of **more** and **most** established in Late Middle English (*more beautiful; most beautiful*). This is yet another instance of the rivalry between traditional inflectional endings and more transparent, analytic forms.

The same basic principle holds for Present-day and Early Modern English alike that short, mono- and disyllabic adjectives are usually compared by means of inflectional endings, and longer ones periphrastically with *more* and *most*. Both these means of comparison are illustrated by comparative forms in (7) and (8). Some native irregular forms such as (*good*) *better, best* and (*bad*) *worse, worst* are still in use (Nevalainen, 2006: 98–100).

(**7**) *those meates and drinkes that are of grosser substance and hoter than others be, cause and breede the stone rather than other meates and drinkes that are thinner, finer and of a colder complexion, but both French, Clared and Gascone Clared wine are of grosser and thicker substaunce, and hoter of complexion than white Rhennish wine and white french wines be of* (HC, William Turner, *A New Boke of the Natures and Properties of All Wines,* 1568: B7v–8r).

(**8**) *but for as much as those tables be not altogether truely Printed, and for that*

they haue beene lately corrected, and made <u>more perfect</u> by Clauius, who doth set downe the saide Tables in quarto and not in folio, whereby they are the <u>more portable,</u> and the <u>more commodious,</u> as well for that they are more truely Printed (HC, Thomas Blundeville, *The Tables of the Three Speciall Right Lines,* 1597: 51r).

The periphrasis is preferred in literary genres such as philosophical and religious treatises in Early Modern English. By contrast, inflectional forms are favoured in texts reflecting the spoken language, where even long adjectives can take inflectional endings (cf. *confidentest*).

One of the functions of **adverbs** is to modify adjectives (*very smooth*). They can also modify other adverbs (*very smoothly*), and most importantly, they can complement or modify verbs (*his life has not been running smoothly*). The regular way of forming an adverb in Early Modern English is to add the suffix -**ly** to an adjective. Zero derivation resulting in suffixless adverbs is no longer as productive in the General dialect as it had been in Middle English; although suffixless adverbs are more frequent than in Present-day Standard English (cf. *The course of true loue neuer did run <u>smooth,</u>* from *A Midsummer Night's Dream,* I. i. 134).

However, many suffixless adverbs common in Early Modern texts such *as even, long, right, still and very go still* and *very* go back to earlier times and continue in frequent use today (Nevalainen, 2006: 100).

Early Modern English **-ly** adverbs are normally compared by means of **more** and **most.**

Mostly in EModE the mutated forms changed their root vowels on the analogy of the positive degree. Only the adjective *old* has kept the mutated forms *elder, eldest* alongside with the later forms *older, oldest.* The two sets of forms now differ in meaning and use. The forms *older, oldest* refer to age and duration: *I am older than you. She is my oldest friend. Elder, eldest* mostly refer to distinctions of age within a family or superiority in rank and authority: *his elder son; the eldest member of the community.* Sometimes the difference is not one of meaning, but of syntactic pattern: cf. *She is older than I = She is my elder.*

Both the adjective and the adverb *far* have in Modern English two variants of the comparative and the superlative: *farther, farthest* and *further, furthest.* Historically speaking, the forms with **u** are derived not from *far,* but from the adverb *forth* 'ahead, forward', yet they are now associated with *far,* to which they are related in meaning, rather than with *forth,* which has practically ceased being used as a fully notional word. The forms *farther* and *farthest* are indeed derived from *far* (ME *fer,* OE *feor*) on the analogy of *further, furthest.*

7.3. EModE Verbs

EModE verbs have changed more than nouns between the 15th century and the present day. With the loss of the second-person singular pronoun *thou, person* and *number* marking was reduced in verbs. The third-person present-tense singular suffix

changed in the London dialect as **-(e)th** gave way to **-(e)s** by the middle of the Early Modern period. There was also a great deal of variation in the *tense forms* of irregular verbs, and new developments were under way in the *mood* and *aspect* systems. Early Modern English verbs typically mark **person** and **number** contrast in the second **(-(e)st)** and third person singular **(-(e)th/-s**) as opposed to zero marking in the first person singular and the whole of the plural. But the third-person singular ending applies only in the present tense.

In EModE there were **2** basic types of verbs: the **standard** or **regular** and the **non-standard** or **irregular**. Among non-standard there are a few verbs – **defective** and **suppletive.**

From the historical point of view, the **standard** verbs comprise most of the old weak verbs, as well as later formations and loan-words, e.g. *realise,* and some former strong verbs which came to follow the 'weak' pattern of past tense and participle II formation, e.g. *glide, climb.* The **non-standard** verbs include, besides the old strong verbs, some former weak verbs, which came to deviate from the 'standard pattern' either by developing *sound alternations* (as *keep – kept,* etc.); or merging the *dental suffix* with the *final root consonant,* e.g. *cut – cut, send –sent;* or taking the *voiceless variant of the suffix* (**t**) *after a consonant,* e.g. *learn – learnt;* or, in a few cases, forming their *principal parts on the analogy of strong verbs* (as happened with *wear, hide, stick*).

Table 7.2. Early Modern English verbs

Person / number	Present tense	Past tense	Present / past perfective aspect	Present / past progressive aspect
1st sing.	*I pray*	*I prayed*	*I have / had prayed*	*I am / was praying*
1st pl.	*we pray*	*we prayed*	*we have / had prayed*	*we are / were praying*
2nd sing.	*thou pray(e)st*	*thou prayedst*	*thou hast / hadst prayed*	*thou art / wert praying*
2nd sing. and 2nd pl.	*you (ye) pray*	*you (ye) prayed*	*you (ye) have / had prayed*	*you (ye) are / were praying*
3rd sing.	*he / she prayeth → prays*	*he / she prayed*	*he / she hath → has / had prayed*	*he / she is / was praying*
3rd pl.	*they pray*	*they prayed*	*they have / had prayed*	*they are / were praying*

In ModE **6** of the old preteritive presents survive as modal (**defective** – lack non-finite forms) verbs: *can, dare, may, must, ought, shall* and 2 **suppletive** verbs*: to be* (bēon/ wesan)*, to go* (gān/ wendan).

The verbs *be* and *have* distinguish the first, second and third person in the present tense in the singular (*am, art, is; have, hast, hath/has*), but not in the plural (*be/are; have*). The present-tense plural of *be* became distinct from the base form in the London dialect when the originally northern plural form are replaced the southern be-form (cf. *the powers that be* in the Tyndale Bible, 1534: 38). *Have* and *be* are not only lexical verbs but, also auxiliaries, *have* in the perfect and *be* in the progressive aspect, which gains ground in the course of the Early Modern period.

The only person inflection that is found in Standard English today is the third-person singular present-tense suffix **-(e)s.** Of northern origin, **-(e)s** had largely replaced the southern **-(e)th** in the London dialect by the early 17th century, although **-(e)th** prevailed in some regional dialects and formal genres much longer.

Early Modern English showed the tendency found in many present-day regional dialects to level person marking in the third person singular. It was not a very prominent trend, but instances of it occur especially in private writings (2 per cent of all the instances of the third-person singular in the HC; Kytö 1993: 118) (Nevalainen, 2006: 90–100).

7.3.1. *Tense and aspect*

Tense marking relates the action of the verb to the time of the utterance. The *present tense* is unmarked in Early Modern and Present-day English alike: verbs appear in their base forms in the present tense, and person and number are singled out only in the second- and third-person singular. But the *past tense* is marked *-ed)*, and so are the two aspectual categories. The auxiliary *have* followed by the past participle (**have** + **-ed)** expresses the **perfective** aspect, completed action, whereas action in progress, the **progressive** aspect, is expressed by the auxiliary **be** and the **present participle (be + -ing).** Besides the regular or weak forms in -ed, a number of verbs have irregular past-tense and past-participle forms.

The past-tense and past-participle forms of the great majority of verbs were formed by means of the regular **-ed** suffix in Early Modern English. The vowel sound in the suffix was usually deleted in colloquial language especially in the second half of the period, but in formal styles **-ed** was pronounced as a separate syllable until the end of the 17th century.

The simple past could sometimes be used where the speaker of modern standard British English (but not necessarily of American English) would expect the perfective. This is particularly the case when the action of the sentence is limited by a time adverbial such as *never.*

In the latter half of the 17th century, the progressive construction **be going to** developed a special meaning indicating **future** time.

(**1**) Mis Ford: *Mistris Page, trust me, I was going to your house.*

Mis Page: *And trust me, I <u>was comming to</u> you:* (HC, William Shakespeare, *The Merry Wives of Windsor,* 1623: 43).

(**2**) *Sir John Walter <u>is going to</u> be marryed to my Lady Stoel, which will be very happy for him* (HC, Anne Hatton, 1695: 214).

Unlike in (1), no *physical action of going* is implied in example (2), but only the future fulfilment of Sir John Walter's present intention is being referred to (cf. Quirk et al., 1985: 214). The new construction is an instance of **Grammaticalization,** a process in which **lexical** material comes to be fixed in a given **grammatical function.** This is a way of creating grammatical 'short-cuts' from existing lexical resources. In Present-day English *going to* has grammaticalised even further and been reduced *to gonna* (*we're gonna go there*) (Nevalainen, 2006: 94–95).

7.3.2. *Mood*

The **mood** system records the distinction between real and hypothetical verbal activity. It can be signalled inflectionally by a contrast between the **indicative** and the **subjunctive.** In Modern English the present subjunctive is indicated by the base form of the verb, and the past subjunctive by the past-tense form. Inflectional mood marking is therefore neutralised except in the second- and third person singular, or if the verb is be. So in the third-person singular the suffixed verb form represents the **indicative** mood (*he goes*), and the base form the **subjunctive** (*they insist that he go*). The uninfected *be* functions as the present subjunctive of *be* and *were* as its past form in all persons.

The subjunctive had a more significant role to play in the Early Modern English verbal system than it has now especially in British English, where the indicative mood and modal auxiliaries have taken over many of its former contexts of use (*they insist that he goes/that he should go*). The subjunctive mood is used in American English (*they insist that he go*). In Early Modern English it was routinely triggered by certain hypothetical, conjectural and volitional contexts. These include nominal that-clauses in demands and suggestions, intentions and wishes, as well as in expressions of possibility, non-desirability and surprise.

The subjunctive also occurred in wishes and exhortations in main clauses. Some such collocations became fixed phrases (*As help me God; How be it; God forbid!*).

The subjunctive was also used to mark hypothetical or unreal meaning in clauses indicating condition, concession and time. Even hypothetical main clauses could take a subjunctive in Early Modern English, although it was more typical of subordinate clauses beginning *with (al)though, as though, before, except* (*'unless'*), *if, lest, provided, till, unless, until and whether* (f*or example, if I were*).

7.4. Early Modern English Syntax

The most important phrasal categories are the noun phrase **(NP)** and the verb phrase **(VP)**. The **noun phrase** is a group of words (e.g. article + adjective + noun) which acts as a subject, object or complement of a clause, e.g. *the last bus.* The **verb phrase** is a verb that has several parts, e.g. *would have been forgotten.*

The key element or head of a noun phrase is a noun or a pronoun, and the head of a verb phrase is a verb. The verb in the VP is the hub of the sentence on which the other core elements depend.

Syntactically Early Modern English resembles Present-day English more than Middle English both in terms of phrase structure and word-order. Special attention will be paid to syntactic innovations such as the rise of the auxiliary **do**.

Unlike the rest of the auxiliaries, *do* is regularly introduced into the VP in certain contexts in Present-day Standard English when there is no other auxiliary present. It is triggered by *not*-negation (*They did <u>not</u> see it*); by inversion especially in questions (<u>*Did*</u> *they see it?*) and by emphasis (*They <u>did</u> see it*). It is also used as a prop-word in reduced clauses (*They saw it, and we <u>did</u> too*). All these uses of do are generalized in the Early Modern period.

In all these constructions the use of *do* was arbitrary, not compulsory. In Early Modern English one could still say either *I do sing* or simply *I sing, I do not know* or I know not. Here are a few examples of Early Modern English usage (interrogative and negative forms without do) from Shakespeare's "Hamlet":

Looks it not like the king? (Act I, Scene I)
Go not to Wittenberg. (Act I, Scene II)
Then saw you not his face? (Ibid)
I heard it not. (Act I, Scene IV)
How like you this play? (Act III, Scene II)
It touches us not. (Ibid)

Figure 7.4. The functions of the Early Modern English auxiliary **do**
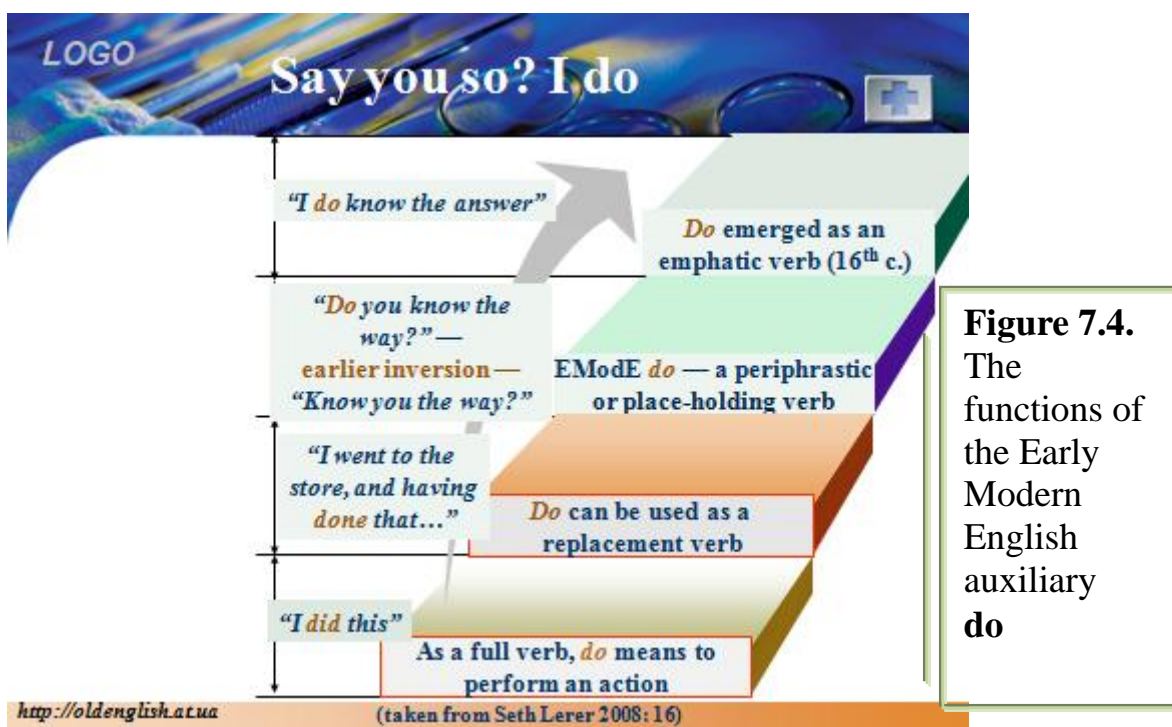
Later on, the use of *do* as an auxiliary in affirmative sentences was restricted to those cases where particular emphasis is laid on the predicate verb, the speaker insisting emphatically that the action really takes (or took) place.

On the other hand, the use of the auxiliary *do* became compulsory in interrogative and negative constructions. That is to say, **do** has become a regular auxiliary of the interrogative and negative present and past indefinite forms, except with the verbs **be** and **have** and the **modal verbs.** As an interrogative auxiliary it has proved useful in solving the conflict between two tendencies of Modern English word-order – the tendency not to separate the object from the verb and that of making the verb precede the subject in an interrogative construction: while the notional verb remains close to the object, the auxiliary verb *do* is placed before the subject. In negative constructions this auxiliary is a convenient means of attaching the negative particle not to the predicate.

In questions, and especially in negative interrogatives, *do* became the rule by the end of the 17th century.

EModE texts indicate that word order, in both main and subordinate declarative clauses, generally followed the (S)VO pattern predominant in both OE and ME usage and typical of present-day English usage. There were, however, instances of subject verb and (more commonly) **subject auxiliary inversion** after **adverbials,** as can be seen in Example 1 (a) – (b), as well as in utterances where the Object had been topicalized, as in Example 1 (c) (examples of EModE sentences from Singh, 2005: 161).

Example1: *subject~verb/subject~auxiliary inversion*

144

(a)

heere <u>hung</u>	*<u>those lipps</u>*
V	**S**

(b)

greeuously	*<u>hath</u>*	*<u>Caesar</u>*	*<u>answer'd</u>*	*it*
	Aux	**S**	**V**	

(c)

<u>plots</u>	*<u>have</u>*	*<u>I</u>*	*<u>laide</u>*
O	**Aux**	**S**	**V**

Ishtla Singh (2005: 162) also notes the occurrence of recapitulation in EModE, through which a noun phrase is recapitulated by a pronoun later in an utterance, as in <u>*my two Schoole fellowes,*</u>*/Whom I will trust as I will Adders fang'd, /*<u>*They*</u> *beare the mandat;* non-inclusion of subject pronouns in contexts where they are obligatory in modern English, as in *nor do we finde him forward to be sounded,/But with a crafty Madnesse [he] keepes aloofe;* and the placement of one of two or more adjectives after the noun they modify, as in *an honest mind and plaine.* The latter construction, however, is rare in EModE texts, which favour the modern use of adjectives as pre-modifiers (as in *such insociable and poynt deuise companions*).

Summary

The main trend of the historical changes in the morphological structure of English may be summed up as **leveling** and **loss** of grammatical **endings.**

The reduction and subsequent loss of an unstressed ending is a change in the sound structure of words, largely due to the increasing stress on the roof syllable.

Certain historical circumstances favoured and accelerated the loss of inflections in English. The most important was the close contact of English with the Scandinavian language after the Scandinavian conquest of England. Both the Anglo-Saxons and the Scandinavians usually found it easy to identify the roots or bases (stems) of such common words in the speech of their community with those of their own language. The endings, which in many instances did not coincide in the two languages, did not seem to matter much and therefore tended to be dropped or blurred. This explains why in the Northern dialects of English the simplification of inflection took place at an earlier date than in the other dialects.

Most other innovations in English grammar, such as the **-(e)s** ending of the 3rd pers. sg. present indicative and the common plural suffix of nouns **-es,** also spread from the North.

The massive borrowing of words from French may have accelerated the loss of grammatical gender in nouns. Early Modern English **nouns** do not basically differ from

Present-day English. More changes took place in **pronouns**. The number distinction began to erode in the second-person pronouns when **you** became common for singular as well as plural addressees; the process was completed when **thou** went out of use in the General dialect in Early Modern English. The case contrast between the subjective **ye** and objective **you** was similarly lost with the generalisation of **you** in both functions.

Both linguistic and external factors contributed to changes in the Early Modern English verb. An external factor was dialect contact producing variable regional input into the mainstream variety preserved in writing.

Verbal inflections marking person and number have been greatly reduced in English in the course of time. In Early Modern English, this process continued with the loss of the second-person pronoun **thou.** In the mood system, the **subjunctive** was losing ground as many of its functions were taken over by modal auxiliaries. New periphrastic systems also evolved as a result of grammaticalisation, including the progressive aspect (**be + -ing)** and **be going to** as an indicator of future time.

The subject-verb-object order was firmly established as the basic word-order type in Early Modern English. Despite the relative commonness of subject/verb inversion in many sixteenth-century genres, and the new pattern of negative inversion, the verb typically followed the subject in Early Modern English declarative sentences. At the same time, the use of the passive to rearrange the information conveyed by the subject and the object gained ground in new constructions. The regulation of word-order supported the rise of periphrastic **do:** in interrogatives, the presence of an auxiliary prevented the inversion of the subject and the main verb, and in negatives it maintained the verb-object order. The introduction of **do** and other auxiliaries into the verb phrase formed part of the **analytic** tendency of English to mark such verb-phrase features as tense and mood in the auxiliary. The frequency of **do** in affirmative statements in Early Modern English could be linked with this tendency.

Questions for self-control

1. Which part of speech has lost the greatest number of grammatical categories?
2. Which part of speech has acquired new categories?
3. Compare the development of case and number in nouns, adjectives and pronouns.
4. Illustrate the process of replacement by tracing the history of the pronouns *she, they, their, him, you, its.*
5. Define the main direction of development for the nominal parts of speech in all the periods of history.
6. Comment on the evolution of the verb system.
7. Identify the main changes at the syntactical level.

SEMINAR 5

Aims:

✓ to perceive the main changes in EModE morphology and syntax from the historical perspective once again;

✓ to examine the elements of the ritual language in EModE;

✓ to trace the peculiar features of EModE syntax in practice.

5.1. Study points:

1. EModE Nouns and Pronouns
2. EModE Adjectives and Adverbs
3. EModE Verbs
4. Early Modern English Syntax

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1995. P. 70–71.

✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. – P. 15–19.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 52; 54–55; 81–82; 112–115.

✓ L. Verba. History of the English language. Vinnitsa, 2004. P. 170–191.

Additional:

✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 166–175.

✓ Lecture 7.

5.2. Tests: review of theory

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

1. EModE Morphology is characterized by a further loss of inflections.
2. EModE Morphology is characterized by an increase in the number of prepositions and auxiliaries, as expected of a language becoming more synthetic.
3. The Old English four-case system has been reduced to two, the common and the genitive case.

4. The genitive case came to be more and more restricted to expressing possessive relation (as in the phrase *the girl's hat*), so that it should more properly be called the possessive case or possessive form of the noun.

5. The possessive form is used chiefly with nouns denoting inanimate things.

6. In Early Modern English, the plural of nouns was regularly formed with the **- (e)s** ending.

7. There were a few exceptions of the plural of nouns, most of them the same as now such as *men, women, children, oxen, feet, mice and sheep*.

8. Only one personal pronoun form was introduced into Early Modern English, the possessive **its.**

9. EModE personal pronouns show number (singular v. dual) and case (the nominative case and the objective case, but mark personal as opposed to non-personal reference only in the third-person singular (*he/she* v. *it*).

10. Throughout the Early Modern period *you* vastly outnumbers *thou* in personal letters, which reflect everyday language use.

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

1. Identify the 2nd p. sg. of the EModE personal pronouns among the following ones:
   A I – me
   B we – us
   C thou – thee
   D ye – you

2. The contexts where *thou* typically occurs in the seventeenth-century correspondence include:
   A personal letters
   B official letters
   C governmental talks
   D state debates

3. Around 1650 the Personal Pronoun of the second person plural *(ye, you)* and the corresponding possessive pronoun *(your)* have gradually ousted the corresponding singular pronouns:
   A my / me / mine
   B his / her(s) / (h)it
   C thou / thee / thine
   D him / her / (h)it

4. The EModE verb has lost the ending of the infinitive and all the inflections of the present tense but that of:
   A the first person sg.
   B the first person pl.
   C the third person sg.
   D the third person pl.

5. Two basic types of verbs: the standard or regular and the non-standard or irregular.

148

Among non-standard – a few verbs – defective and suppletive:

    A constitute the EModE verbal paradigm

    B diminish the EModE verbal paradigm

    C decline the EModE verbal paradigm

    D deteriorate the EModE verbal paradigm

6. In ModE 6 of the old preteritive presents survive as modal (defective – lack non-finite forms) verbs:

    A could, might, should, would, shall, will

    B can, dare, may, must, ought, shall

    C must, ought, will, could, would, should

    D might, could, may, can, shall, will

7. In the following example identify the form of the underlined word: *And so had god holpen them, yt ye mischief turned vpon them yt wold haue done it* (HC, Thomas More, *The History of King Richard III,* 1514–18: 53).

    A Past indefinite

    B Past participle

    C Present participle

    D Past tense form

8. In the following example identify the form of the underlined word: *My french hood is bought already, and my silke gowne is a making, likewise the Goldsmith hath brought home my chayne and bracelets:* (HC, Thomas Deloney, *Jack of Newbury,* 1619: 70).

    A a progressive construction with the passive sense

    B a progressive construction

    C Present participle passive

    D Present perfect continuous

9. In the latter half of the seventeenth century, the progressive construction *be going to* developed a special meaning indicating:

    A present time

    B past time

    C future time

    D future in the past

10. In the following example identify the meaning of the underlined construction: *Sir John Walter is going to be marryed to my Lady Stoel, which will be very happy for him* (HC, *Anne Hatton,* 1695: 214).

    A the future fulfillment of an action

    B the present fulfillment of an action

    C the future in the past fulfillment of an action

    D the past fulfillment of an action

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning. Pay attention to the underlined words (to a certain extent they are prompts):

1. The following example *"Al thes are come (sayde he,) to see yow suffer deathe; there*

ys some here that <u>ys come</u> as farre as Lyengkecon [Lincoln], *but I truste ther commynge shal be yn vayne"* (HC, Thomas Mowntayne, *Narratives of the Days of the Reformation* 1553: 203) presents the following forms of the <u>….</u>

2. The analytical forms of the future tense generally expressed by means of the auxiliaries *shall* are introduced in the lines <u>….</u>

3. The use of *will*, with *will* gaining ground in the first person in EModE is similar to what we find in English today <u>….</u>

4. The following example shows, as at present, the use of the simple present to express future when the future event was associated with a high degree of certainty: <u>….</u>

5. The line *"Next week Lady Ann Churchill <u>is to be married</u> to Lord Spencer"* (HC, Alice Hatton, 1699: 242) demonstrates the usage of <u>….</u>

6. The subjunctive *were* occurred in a hypothetical main clause in EModE <u>….</u>

7. *"After that a childe is come to seuen yeres of age, I holde it expedient that <u>he be taken</u> from the company of women"* (HC, Thomas Elyot, *The Boke Named the Gouernour,* 1531: 23) introduces the form of <u>….</u>

8. The introduction of **do** and other auxiliaries into the verb phrase formed part of the analytic tendency of English <u>….</u>

9. The same basic principle holds for Present-day as for Early Modern English mono- and disyllabic adjectives that are usually compared by means of *er* and *est*, and polysyllabic ones by – *more* and *most*, e.g. <u>….</u>

10. During the Early Modern period, **do** first spreads to negative questions, then to affirmative questions and most negative statements as well as, to a certain extent, to affirmative statements, e.g. <u>….</u>

A <u>…</u> of the subjunctive mood in EModE, expressing possibility.

B <u>…</u> the perfective structure, being well established in EModE with one difference that EModE normally preferred the auxiliary **be** with verbs of **motion.**

C <u>…</u> *"That **were** strange, if they should die of naturall causes, and fall out so fit at the time after he was sent?"* (HC, George Gifford, *A Dialogue Concerning Witches and Witchcraftes,* 1593: E2r).

D <u>…</u> *"Miss. Why then we <u>will be married</u> again"* (HC, John Vanbrugh, *The Relapse or Virtue in Danger,* 1697: 64).

E <u>…</u> to mark such verb-phrase features as tense and mood in the auxiliary. The frequency of **do** in affirmative statements in Early Modern English could be linked with this tendency.

F <u>…</u> *"Yesterday the Quene feasted all that gave presents to her last bride, andon Shrove-Sonday she <u>marries</u> another of her maides, (one of the Lady Southwells daughters,) to Radney a man of goode living in Somerset-shire"*(CEEC, *John Chamberlain,* 1614: Chamberlain, 512).

G <u>…</u> *"Why <u>do ye not knowemy</u> speache?"* HC, William Tyndale (transl.), *The New Testa ment.,* 1534: VIII, 20).

H <u>…</u> *"<u>Seest thou not</u> his eyes, how they bee fylled with blood and bytter teares?"* (HC, John Fisher, *Sermons,* 1521: 400).

I <u>…</u> *"those meates and drinkes that are of <u>grosser</u> substance and <u>hoter than</u> others be, cause and breede the stone rather than other meates and drinkes that are <u>thinner, finer</u> and of a <u>colder</u> complexion, but both French, Clared and Gascone Clared wine are of <u>grosser</u> and <u>thicker</u> substaunce, and <u>hoter</u> of complexion than white Rhennish wine and white french wines be of"* (HC, William Turner, *A New*

Boke of the Natures and Properties of All Wines, 1568: B7v–8r).

J ... the quasi-auxiliary **be to** is used to express the future tense.

IV. Read, guess the meanings of the words, translate and define the main idea of text 1.

> Our hoste sey well that the brighte sonne
> Th'ark of his artificial day had ronne
> The fourthe part, and half an houre, and more;
> And though he were not depe expert in lore,
> He wiste it was the eightetethe day
> Of April, that is messager to May.
>
> (*The Man of Law's Tale*)

V. Read, guess the meanings of the words, translate and define the main idea of text 2.

> But of a thing I warne thee ful right,
> Be wel avysed, on that like night
> That we ben entered in-to shippes bord
> That noon of us ne speke nat a word.
>
> (*The Miller's Tale*)

VI. Read, guess the meanings of the words, translate and define the main idea of text 3.

> Be what thou are, ne breke thou nat our pley,
> For every man, save thou, hath told his tale.
>
> (*The Parson's Tale*)

VII. Read, guess the meanings of the words, translate and define the main idea of text 4.

> Thou shalt na-more, thurgh thy flaterye,
> Do me to sing and winke with myn ȳe.
>
> (*The Nun's Priest's Tale*)

SELF-STUDY 7

Aims:

> ✓ to perceive the main changes in EModE morphology and syntax from the historical perspective once again.

<div style="background:green;">

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

</div>

7.1.1. *History of English – EMnE Morphology*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RaDd2f40hV4
7.1.2. *History of English – EMnE Syntax*
    http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JzA-QDGKR2w

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:
- ✓ David Crystal. The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language. Holyheard, 1995. P. 70–71.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. – P. 15–19.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 52; 54–55; 81–82; 112–115.
- ✓ L. Verba. History of the English language. Vinnitsa, 2004. P. 170–191.

Additional:
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. P. 166–175.
- ✓ Lecture 7.

7.2. Computer tests in e-learning

I. True / False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.
1. The greatest event in the history of English grammar is the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system.
2. Some nominal categories were retained – *gender* and *case* in adjectives, *gender* in nouns.
3. Morphological division into types of *declension* practically disappeared.
4. The number of verbal grammatical categories reduced.
5. The infinitive and the participle developed nominal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb.
6. The Old English four-case system has been reduced to two, the genitive and the common case.
7. In Early Modern English, the plural of nouns was regularly formed with the **-(a)s** ending.
8. The possessive form is used chiefly with nouns denoting inanimate things – people and animals – and almost exclusively in the attributive function.
9. In the plural, where the possessive morpheme coincided with the plural suffix, the possessive began to be marked by the apostrophe after the final **s**.
10. The history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up only of changeable features.

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

questions/statements.

1. The range of the possessive case of nouns has been ....
  A narrowed
  B increased
  C complicated
  D lost

2. The personal pronoun of the 2nd person pl. *ye, you* and the corresponding possessive pronoun *your* have gradually ousted the corresponding singular pronouns ....
  A *thou, me, thee*
  B *thou, thee, thine*
  C *thou, thee, you*
  D *thou, thee, ye*

3. The pronoun *hit* has ... its initial letter.
  A retained
  B changed
  C lost
  D developed

4. The adjective has lost all its inflections but those of the ....
  A number
  B case
  C degrees of comparison
  D gender

5. The verb has lost all the inflections of the present tense but that of the ....
  A first person singular
  B third person singular
  C first person plural
  D second person plural

6. The four basic forms of the strong verbs have been ....
  A reduced to three
  B reduced to two
  C retained to four
  D retained to two

7. Only one personal pronoun form was introduced into Early Modern English, the possessive ....
  A me
  B its
  C him
  D his

8. The possessive pronouns split into two sets of forms:
  A conjoint and absolute
  B conjoint and dependent
  C absolute and independent
  D absolute and objective

9. The relative pronouns are:
  A who, whose, which, that, as
  B each other, one another

C each, every, all, both, other

D some, any, one, another

10. The personal pronouns have two cases:

    A the nominative case and the common case

    B the nominative case and the possessive case

    C the nominative case and the objective case

    D the nominative case and the genitive case

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

1. Possessive (attributive) pronouns served as the first element of these compounds …

2. English personal pronouns show …

3. The Modern English noun has two forms that are regarded as cases. The first form, which has resulted from the …

4. The new construction is an instance of grammaticalisation, …

5. Syntactically Early Modern English …

6. EModE auxiliary *do* also came to be increasingly used in the formation of questions and negative statements when no other auxiliary was present. In questions, and especially in negative interrogatives, *do* …

7. EModE texts indicate that word order, in both main and subordinate declarative clauses, …

8. The subjunctive mood is used …

9. The subjunctive had a more significant role to play in the Early Modern English verbal system than it has now especially in British English, …

10. Even hypothetical main clauses could take a subjunctive in Early Modern English, although it was more typical of subordinate clauses …

    A … resembles Present-day English more than Middle English both in terms of phrase structure and word-order.

    B … generally followed the (S)VO pattern predominant in both OE and ME usage and typical of present-day English usage.

    C … became the rule by the end of the 17th century.

    D … (as in *myself, yourself, herself, ourselves*), as did object pronouns (as in *himself, themselves*).

    E … merging of the nominative, accusative and dative case forms, is called the common case.

    F … in American English (*they insist that he go*).

    G … number (singular v. plural) and case, but mark personal as opposed to non-personal reference only in the third-person singular (*he/she v. it*).

    H … a process in which lexical material comes to be fixed in a given grammatical function.

    I … where the indicative mood and modal auxiliaries have taken over many of its former contexts of use (*they insist that he goes/ that he should go*).

    J … beginning *with* (*al*)*though, as though, before, except* ('*unless*'), *if, lest, provided, till, unless, until and whether* (*for example, if I were*).

EDUCATIONAL MODULE 8

EARLY MODERN ENGLISH VOCABULARY

LECTURE 8

> *"We shall vary our style, our vocabulary and our speech-level to suit the occasion and … following the wise counsel of Aristotle, we keep three things constantly in mind – our subject-matter, our purpose and our audience".*
>
> (S. Potter)

Aims:
- ✓ to explore the significant increase in vocabulary in the EModE period;
- ✓ to identify words borrowed from the disciplines of experimental science, classical scholarship and practical technology;
- ✓ to examine new words being coined from Latin and Greek to express technical concepts;
- ✓ to trace how words, both new and old, were changing in meaning, and how the phenomenon of polysemy affected the English writing.

Points for discussion:

Introduction
8.1. The Common Core of the EModE Lexis
8.2. English versus Latin
8.3. Borrowings from Classical Languages, with Special Reference to the Age of the Renaissance
8.4. Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in EModE
8.5. New Word-Formation
Summary
Questions for self-control

Key words to know:

semasiology	**synonymy**
onomasiology	antonymy
concept	specialization
polysemy	contiguity
homonymy	periphrastic

Recommended Literature
Obligatory:
- ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. – P. 11–14.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 129–130.
✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 203–221.

Additional:
✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. P. 175–184.

Introduction

The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was tremendous. Thousands upon thousands of foreign words were borrowed. The **inkhorn** (inkwell) terms were coined from Latin or Greek for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).

Many of the intelligentsia who advocated writing in the vernacular in the EModE period also had, for want of a better term, a kind of love-hate relationship with Latin; simultaneously pushing English forward as the 'rightful' medium for the nation with one hand and yet keeping Latin firmly on its pedestal with the other. The continuing veneration of Latin was not only a consequence of its ancient, classical heritage but also an accolade of its practicality – its centuries of use in various disciplines had led to the development of stylistic conventions and in particular, terminology, which English simply did not possess. For many, this seeming inadequacy of their native tongue needed redress if English was to be a worthy usurper of Latin's reign (Singh, 2005: 162).

Concerns about the shortcomings of English became primarily focused on filling the 'gaps' in its vocabulary and a variety of solutions, encompassing borrowing, coinage and revival, were employed. So productive were these attempts that sources such as the *Chronological English Dictionary,* for example, indicate that the 'fastest growth of the vocabulary in the history of the English language' took place roughly between 1530 and 1600, 'both in absolute figures as well as in proportion to the total' (Singh, 2005: 162–163). This rapid expansion, and the processes through which it was achieved, were often commented upon by EModE writers, as can be seen in the following excerpt:

"Since Learning began to flourish in our Nation, there have been more than ordinary Changes introduced in our Language; partly by new artificial Compositions; partly by enfranchising strange forein words, for their elegance and significancy ... and partly by refining and mollifying old words for the more easie and graceful sound".

(Wilkins (1668) *An Essay Towards a Real Character, and a Philosophical Language,* quoted in Singh, 2005: 163)

8.1. The Common Core of the EModE Lexis

The **common core** of English consists of frequent everyday vocabulary used in all registers in speech and in writing. This core, which largely goes back to Old English, forms the backbone of the language. It includes the names of everyday

objects and actions; terms for family and social relationships; the commoner verbs, adjectives and adverbs; and the central **grammatical** or **function** words (*articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs*). The ten most frequent word-form tokens in a million-word corpus of Standard Present-day British English are all **grammatical:** *the, of, and, to, a, in, that, is, was* and *it* (Hofland and Johansson, 1982). It is interesting to see that the top ten most frequent word-forms in the Early Modern English section of the *Helsinki Corpus of English Texts* are the same as in the Present-day corpus except that they include *I* but not *was*. These words are all native Germanic in origin.

In the course of time, the core vocabulary has also absorbed a number of loan words but, according to some estimates, roughly 50 per cent of the core vocabulary items of English remains Germanic (Scheler, 1977: 73). The ten most frequent lexical or content verbs (lexeme tokens) in a large corpus of Present-day British and American speech and writing are: *say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take* and *want* (Biber et al., 1999: 373). All go back to the native Old English stock except for *take,* which is a Scandinavian loan word in late Old English and *want,* another word of Scandinavian origin, first attested in Early Middle English.

If we compile a similar top ten for the last Early Modern English period (1640–1710) in the Helsinki Corpus, the ten most frequent lexical verbs in order of frequency are: *say, make, come, go, know, see, take, think, tell* and *give*.

As in the Present-day study, *do* is excluded, as it is more typical as an auxiliary than as a main verb. Incidentally, the Shakespeare extract in (1) also has two instances of the lexemes *say* and *go*, and one of *know*. The Early Modern English list based on the *Helsinki Corpus* contains two lexemes, *tell* and *give*, which do not show up in the Present-day list. *Give*, (the eleventh most frequent verb in the Present-day data) also goes back to Old English, although the initial /g/ may be attributed to Scandinavian influence on northern Middle English. *Get* and *wan*t do not appear among the Early Modern English top ten, although both are frequent in the data (.

These high-frequency verbs mostly come from three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*), and mental verbs (*know, think*). In Present-day English they are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, *say,* in fiction, newspapers and academic writing (Biber et al., 1999: 373). Long-term evidence like this illustrates the primacy of speech over writing as a means of human communication. It partly explains how a sizable part of the common core can reach back to the earliest stages of a language.

Another lexical domain that is interesting to look at in this context is proper names. Although these do not strictly speaking belong to the core vocabulary of English, they display considerable diachronic continuity.

Top ten Early Modern English names (1538–1700):

John	*Elizabeth*
William	*Mary*
Thomas	*Anne*
Richard	*Margaret*
Robert	*Jane*
Edward	*Alice*
George	*Joan*
James	*Agnes*
Henry	*Catherine*

Nicholas   Dorothy

By way of comparison, the ten most common first names, all male, of the members of the American Congress born between 1721 and 1960 were: *John, William, James, Thomas, Charles, George, Robert, Joseph, Henry* and *Samuel* (Kjellmer, 2000: 144). As many as seven of them also appear among the Early Modern English top ten in (2); only *Charles, Joseph* and *Samuel* do not. In England these three names gained in popularity in the seventeenth century with especially *Joseph* and *Samuel* in the ascendant after 1620. The Congress statistics suggest that the Early Modern English pattern of giving names to boys continued across the Atlantic after the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

8.2. English versus Latin

In the supplanting of Latin and the final establishment of **English** as the *sole literary medium* in England, a considerable part was played by the religious disputes that raged from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. During the Reformation, people engaged in controversy wanted to be read by as large a public as possible. When Sir Thomas More wrote for the entertainment of the learned men of Europe, as in the *Utopia* (1516), he wrote in Latin, but when he was drawn into the domestic religious argument against the Reformers he wrote books and pamphlets in English. Milton, similarly, over a century later, wrote defences of the English republic which were intended for the learned men of Europe, and these were in Latin; but the bulk of his controversial prose (on episcopacy, divorce, the freedom of the press and so on) was intended to have an immediate impact on English politics, and was written in English. The translation of the Bible into English, moreover, and the changeover from Latin to English in church services, raised the prestige of English.

The more extreme Protestants, indeed, regarded Latin as a 'popish' language, designed to keep ordinary people in ignorance and to maintain the power of priests.

Another factor in favour of English was the *increase in national feeling* which accompanied the rise of the modern nation-state in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. This national feeling led to a greater interest and pride in the national languages, whiles the language of international Christendom, Latin, slowly fell into the background.

Nationalism led to conscious efforts to create a vernacular literature to vie with that of Greece and Rome, and both Spenser's Faerie Queene (1590) and Milton's Paradise Lost (1667) were conscious attempts to do for English what Homer and Virgil had done for Greek and Latin.

A third factor in favour of English was the *rise of social and occupational groups* which had *little or no Latin,* but which were eager to read and to learn, and wanted books in English. Such were many of the practical men of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century England – skilled craftsmen, instrument makers, explorers, navigators, soldiers – often from the citizen or yeomen classes. Here an important part was played by the spread of literacy and the expansion of the reading-public which followed the introduction of printing in the late fifteenth century.

On the other hand, there were social groups which fought hard for the retention of Latin, because their professional monopoly depended on excluding ordinary people from the mysteries of their art; physicians appear to have been particularly bitter in their

attacks on medical works published in English. This led to fierce controversy about the suitability of English for works of science and scholarship, which raged especially in the second half of the sixteenth century. This controversy was gradually won by the supporters of English, as more and more fields of study were successfully invaded by it (Barber, 2009: 185–187).

## 8.3. Borrowings from Classical Languages, with Special Reference to the Age of the Renaissance

One result of this Latin influence on English was the introduction of a large number of Latin loanwords into the language. We have already seen that the influx of French words in the Middle English period had predisposed English speakers to borrow words from abroad. In Renaissance England this predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of **Latin** loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660. The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from Latin. When English invaded a field of discourse (for example, rhetoric, logic, geometry, classical history, warfare), the first stage usually took the form of translations of standard Latin works; in the second stage, there were original English works deeply indebted to Latin originals; and in the third stage there were entirely independent English works. In this process, there was a strong tendency for writers to invent English technical terms by adapting those of the Latin originals. It must be added, however, that there was also a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements.

Such a purist was Ralph Lever, who in a textbook of logic published in 1573 invented such words as endsay 'conclusion', foresays 'premisses', saywhat 'definition', witcraft 'logic' and yeasay 'affirmation'.

It is striking, however, that none of these coinages caught on, and that we use words derived from the Latin expressions that Lever rejected (affirmation, conclusion, etc.) (Barber, 2009: I88).

The Renaissance loans were not, of course, the first Latin words to be borrowed by English. We have already seen how words like *mint, street* and *wine* were borrowed while the English were still on the continent and words like *bishop* and *minster* during the OE period. A few Latin words were borrowed, too, into Middle English: they include religious terms, like *gloria* and *requiem;* words from the law courts, like *client, conviction* and *memorandum;* medical and scientific words, like *dissolve, distillation, equator* and *recipe;* and numbers of abstract words, like *conflict, dissent, imaginary* and *implication.*

There are a number of Latin loans in Old and Middle English, but in Early Modern English this increases considerably, and by 1600 Latin is the greatest source of loanwords in English.

Latin borrowings in EModE

http://oldenglish.at.ua

Latin 1500–1600:
abdomen, arbiter, aborigines, alias, animal, appendix, axis, cadaver, caesura, cerebellum, circus, compendium, cornea, corona, decorum, delirium, folio, fungus, genius, genus, hiatus, innuendo, integer, medium, miser, multiplex, pollen, peninsula, radius, regalia, species, stratum, terminus, torpedo, vacuum, vertigo

Latin 1600–1700:
agendum, affidavit, album, alumnus, apparatus, arena, calculus, census, cerebrum, complex, copula, curriculum, data, desideratum, dictum, equilibrium, fiat, honorarium, impetus, insignia, lacuna, minimum, pendulum, plus, premium, query, series, specimen, spectrum, stimulus veto

Latin 1700-
alibi, auditorium, bonus, deficit, extra, habitat, humus, imbue, inertia, insomnia, investigate, maximum, militia, moratorium nucleus, propaganda, prospectus, referendum, relaxation, relegation, relevant, squalor, tedium, torpor, ultimatum

Figure 8.1. Latin loans in the EModE period

The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Latin contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675, when it contributed more than 13,000 new words. Overall, some 35 per cent of the new lexis recorded for sixteenth century in the OED was loans, overwhelmingly Latinate, and the figure rose to 40 per cent in the seventeenth century.

Early Modern English loans from Latin are mostly bookish. Some of them were short-lived, but a large number remained in the language as technical terms, while others made their way into general use. Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs.

In considering classical borrowings a distinction must be made between genuine Latin and Greek words. A great many **Greek** words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek. Borrowings from Greek like those from Latin go back to an early period. But the influx of Greek words on a large scale did not begin until the time of the Revival of Learning. These are mostly bookish borrowings.

It is interesting to note that modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.

In natural sciences the preponderance of Greek words is striking. It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the Greek language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies.

Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form. They are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them. When, for instance, after the Roman time the Latin *c* changed its pronunciation before *e, i, y (k)* the pronunciation of many Greek words was changed. Thus we got a word like the modern *cycle* which is very unlike the Greek *kyklos* – circle.

Quite a number of proper names are also Greek in origin, e.g. *George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, Theodor* and still others.

Among numerous Greek borrowings in the English vocabulary we find the following ones:

Figure 8.2. Greek loans in the EModE period

8.4 Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in EModE

Although Latin was by far the main source of loanwords in the early modern period, a great number were borrowed from other languages too. The next largest source after Latin was French. The influx of **French** words continued and reached new peaks in the late 15th and in the late 17th c.

The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary. French remained the international language of diplomacy for several hundred years. Examples of diplomatic terms are: *attaché, communiqué, dossier.*

Recent borrowings from French carry an unequivocally French appearance; but their number is far less than the number of borrowings direct from Latin.

The following phonetic peculiarities are indicative of later adoptions from French:

a) keeping the accent on the last syllable, e.g. *cravat, finance, finesse, supreme,* etc.;

b) *ch* pronounced as [ʃ]: *avalanche, chandelier, chaperon, chaise, charade, chauffeur, charlatan, chic, douche, machine,* etc.;

c) *g* before *e* and *i* pronounced as [ʒ]: *beige, blindage, bourgeois, camouflage, massage, prestige, regime, rouge,* etc.;

d) *ou* is pronounced as [u], e.g. *coup, rouge, sou.*
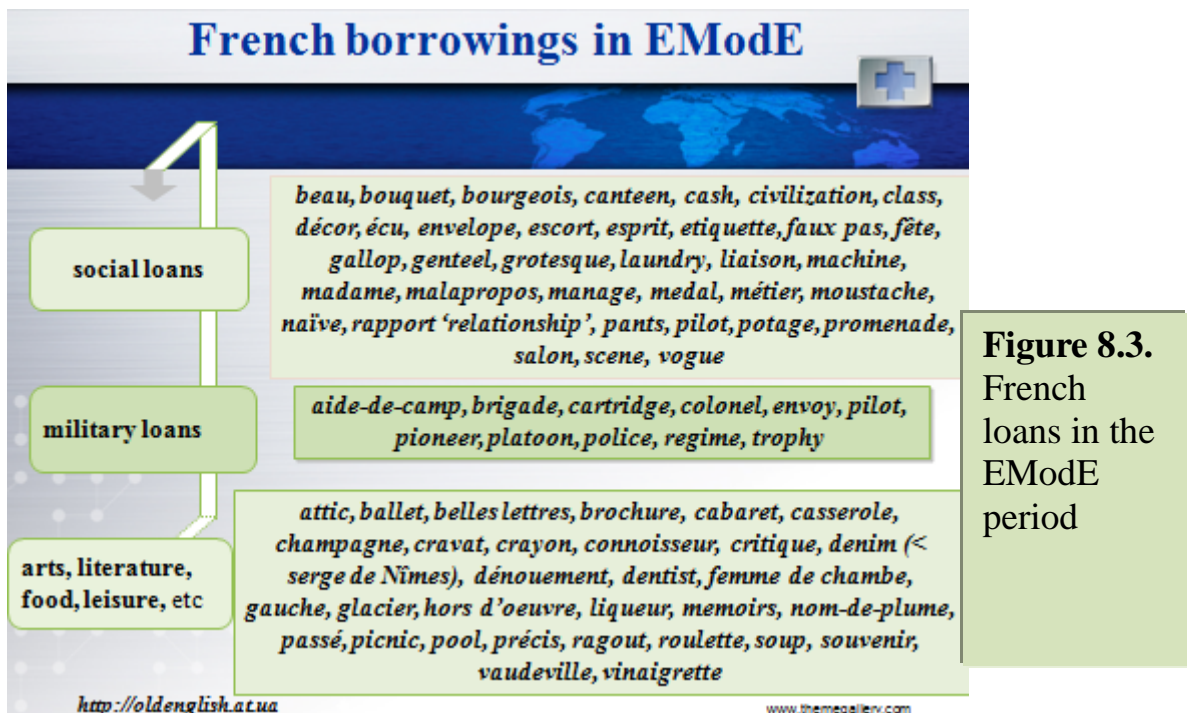
Figure 8.3. French loans in the EModE period

Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, **Italian,** Spanish and Portuguese.

The English travelled frequently in Italy, observed Italian life and culture and brought back not only Italian manners but Italian words, such as:

Figure 8.4. Italian loans in the EModE period

Spanish loans are often concerned with commerce or warfare.

Since the early European exploration of America was largely carried out by the Spaniards and the Portuguese, many early words for specifically American things came into English via **Spanish** or **Portuguese.**

Figure 8.5. Spanish and Portuguese loans in the EModE period

Borrowings from Germanic languages are of special interest as English is a Germanic language too. By the 15th – 16th c. the Germanic languages had driven far apart; their linguistic affinities were disguised by the changes of the intervening periods (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 312). Therefore loan-words from related Germanic tongues were no less foreign to English speakers than those from other linguistic groups. Yet their sound form was somewhat closer to English and their assimilation progressed rapidly (ibid.: 312).

Dutch made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the 15th and 16th c. The Netherlands had had close commercial contacts with England ever since the Norman Conquest and many of the words borrowed by English have to do with seafaring, trade and art. The whole number of Dutch words in English is uncertain, approximately 200 words.

Among **Dutch** borrowings in the English vocabulary we find such:

> *brandy, cookie, cruise, deck, dock, dollar, easel, filibuster, guilder, gulden, jib, keel, knapsack, landscape, onslaught, reef, schooner, skate, sketch, skipper, smuggler, steady, tattoo, yacht, Yankee, wagon, walrus*

Borrowings from **German** reflect scientific and cultural achievements of Germany. There is also a group of miscellaneous words borrowed directly or indirectly and quite a number of literal translation-loans from German in the domain of philosophy.

Among **German** borrowings in the English vocabulary we find such as:

> *allopathy, bismuth, blitzkrieg, carouse, cobalt, dynamics, fatherland, feldspar, gneiss, halt, hamster, homeopathy, iceberg, kapellmeister, kindergarten, landgrave, leitmotif, lobby, nickel, plunder, quartz, poodle, sauerkraut, shale, stroll, swindler, transcendental, teleology, tuberculin,*

> *waltz, zinc*

The earliest **Russian** loan-words entered the English language as far as the 16th c., when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company) established the first trade relations with Russia (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 313). Russian borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia:

> *altine, astrakhan, beluga, balalaika, bolshevik, borzoi, boyar, copeck, cossack, Decembrist, duma, intelligentsia, kvass, Narodnik, nihilist, pogrom, rouble, samovar, steppe, taiga, tundra, troika, tsar, tsarina, tsarevich, verst, vodka, voivode, volost, ukase, uyezd, zemstvo*

English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

We can exemplify some **Indian** borrowings:

> *aniline, bungalow, calico, candy, cot, curry, guru, jungle, jute, khaki, loot, pariah, punch, rupee, sapphire, shampoo, sugar, typhoon*

Among **Persian** words borrowed directly may be mentioned:

> *bazaar, caravan, mullah, pilau, shah, turban*

From the **Polish** language the following words were borrowed directly and indirectly:

> *mazurka, polack, polka*

The role of borrowing as one of the principal means of enriching Early Modern English is clearly borne out by the data. Table 1 testifies that borrowings had a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general.

NEW LOANWORDS between 1500 and 1700

New loanwords in the OED

Altogether about 70% of all the words to be found in unabridged dictionary of Modern English are said to have been fully or partially borrowed from other languages, especially French, Latin and Greek

Table 8.1. Percentage of new loans in OED

Words from non-European languages entered through travel, trade and conquest. Examples of these borrowings are presented in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2. Examples of borrowings from non-European languages

languages	borrowings
Turkish	*aga, bey, caftan, coffee, dolman, horde, kiosk, vizier, jackal, janizary, pasha, sherbet, uhlan, yogurt*
Hungarian	*coach, tokay*
Arabic	*Allah, arrack, emir, fakir, harem, hashish, henna, khalif, Koran, mohair, Moslem, Ramadan, sheikh, simoom, sofa*
African	*baobab, chimpanzee, gnu, Mumbo Jumbo, zebra*
Chinese	*bamboo, bohea, cockatoo, cogou, ginseng, hyson, ketchup, orangutan(g), sago, sake, soy, tea*
Japanese	*geisha, kimono, Mikado, rickshaw, samurai*
N American languages	*raccoon, moose, skunk, hickory, totem, canoe*

8.5 New Word Formation

While large numbers of loanwords entered the language in the Early Modern English period, especially from Latin, words nevertheless continued to be coined from

165

existing English language-material by traditional methods of word-formation, especially **affixation, compounding** and **conversion.** Indeed, it is probable that more words were produced in this way than were borrowed from foreign languages, though this fact was not noticed by contemporaries, who were obsessed with *inkhorn* terms. In fact, any loanword entering the language is soon likely to have other words derived from it by the normal native processes of word-formation. For example, in the fourteenth century the adjective *comfortable* was borrowed from French; by the end of the century the adverb *comfortably* had been derived from it, followed by the adjective *uncomfortable* (1592) (Barber, 2009: 192).

By far the commonest method of word-formation in the Early Modern English period was **affixation,** that is, the coining of new words by the use of **prefixes** and **suffixes.** Most of the words thus formed were nouns or adjectives, though there were also some adverbs and a few verbs. The two suffixes most frequently used for forming nouns were *-ness* and *-er,* the former being added to adjectives (*bawdiness, briskness*) and the latter to verbs (*feeler, murmurer*). Adjectives were often formed by the use of *-ed* (*latticed*) or of *-y* (*batty, briny*). Adverbs were normally formed from adjectives with the suffix *-ly* (*bawdily*), but occasionally the ending *-wise* is found (*sporting-wise*). The usual suffix for forming verbs was *-ize* (*anathematize*). There were also many prefixes, of which by far the commonest was *un-,* which was used freely with nouns, adjectives, participles, verbs and adverbs (*uncivility, unclimbable, unavailing, unclasp, uncircumspectly*).

A considerable number of words were formed by **compounding,** that is, the combination of two or more free morphemes. They are nearly all nouns, and the commonest type is **Noun + Noun** (*sheep-brand, water dock*). There are also a fair number of the type **Adjective + Noun** (*Frenchwoman, freshman*) and of the type **Verb + Object** (*scrape-penny* 'miser').

The third reasonably common type of word-formation was **conversion,** the process by which one word is derived from another with no change of form. Three types were especially common: the formation of verbs from nouns (*to bayonet, to gossip, to invoice*); the formation of nouns from adjectives (*an ancient* 'an old man', *a brisk* 'a fop'); and the formation of nouns from verbs (*an invite, a laugh*).

The words formed by affixation, compounding and conversion are often ordinary everyday words, or words to do with practical affairs like farming, fishing and handicrafts. By contrast, as we have seen, Latin loanwords tend to be more formal and literary, and often concern specialized fields of discourse like science, medicine, religion, classical culture and the liberal arts. Figure 8.6. summarizes the traditional methods of word-formation in the Early Modern English period.
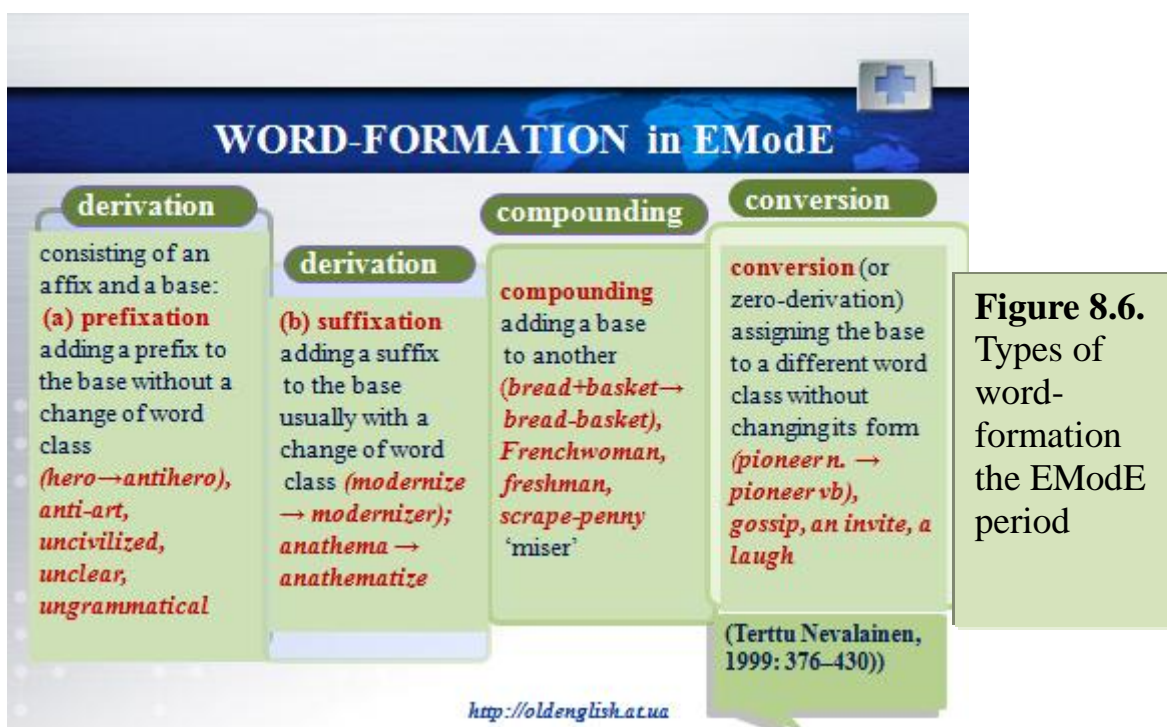
Figure 8.6. Types of word-formation the EModE period

Summary

Early Modern English borrowed heavily from the classical languages, Latin in particular, as well as from French and other Romance languages. Foreign borrowing provided the language with much needed technical terminology and increased its lexical variability. At the same time Latinate loans also increased the opaqueness of English vocabulary introducing semantically related words from different sources. Heavy borrowing did not, however, disrupt native continuity, the Germanic element remaining the backbone of English vocabulary even after the Early Modern English period.

Questions for self-control

1. Identify the notion 'inkhorn terms'.
2. Exemplify Latin loans.
3. Exemplify Greek loans.
4. Exemplify French loans.
5. Exemplify Spanish and Portuguese loans.
6. Exemplify Italian loans.
7. Exemplify Germanic loans.

SEMINAR 6

Aims:
   ✓ to trace the Latin and Greek influence up to the end of the Early Modern English period;
   ✓ to present evidence for extensive Germanic influence during EModE period;

✓ to perceive the influx of French loans.

6.1. Study points:

1. The Common Core of the EModE Lexis
2. English versus Latin
3. Borrowings from Classical Languages
4. Borrowings from Contemporary Languages in EModE
5. New Word-Formation

Recommended Literature
Obligatory:
  ✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. P. 11–14.
  ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 129–130.
  ✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 203–221.

Additional:
  ✓ Elly van Gelderen. A History of the English Language. Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. P. 175–184.
  ✓ Lecture 8.

6.2. Tests: review of theory

I. True / false: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement.
  1. The common core of English consists of frequent everyday vocabulary used in all registers in speech and in writing.
  2. The common core of English is exclusively the language of printed matter.
  3. The common core of English includes the names of everyday objects and actions; terms for family and social relationships; the commoner verbs, adjectives and adverbs; and the central grammatical or function words (*articles, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliary verbs*).
  4. The core vocabulary has also absorbed a number of loan words but, according to some estimates, roughly 50 per cent of the core vocabulary items of English remains Germanic.
  5. The ten rarest lexical or content verbs (lexeme tokens) in a large corpus of Present-day British and American speech and writing are: *say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take and want.*
  6. The ten most frequent lexical verbs for the last Early Modern English period (1640–1710) in the Helsinki Corpus are: *say, make, come, go, know, see, take, think, tell and give.*

7. High-frequency verbs mostly come from three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*), and mental verbs (*know, think*).
8. In Present-day English high-frequency verbs are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, in fiction, newspapers and academic writing.
9. The inkhorn (inkwell) terms, being coined from Scandinavian for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).
10. Long-term evidence illustrates the primacy of speech over writing as a means of human communication that partly explains how a sizable part of the common core can reach back to the earliest stages of a language.

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

1. Identify the Latin loans in EModE:
   A ballet, boulevard, canteen, champagne
   B addiction, assert, customary, hallucinate
   C hammock, maize, potato, tobacco
   D jungle, nirvana, polo, punch
   Define the French loans in EModE:
   A bungalow, cashmere, china, cot, curry
   B barbecue, cannibal, chili, chocolate
   C cohesion, connoisseur, coquette, dentist
   D skipper, yacht, dock, cruise
2. Determine the Dutch loans in EModE:
   A landscape, easel, sketch, tattoo
   B sofa, harem, emir, Moslem
   C sombrero, guitar, embargo, cargo
   D publicity, routine, soubrette, syndicate
   Define the Italian loans in EModE:
   A mulatto, caste, canoe, lasso, mustang
   B zemstvo, ukase, knout, pogrom, rouble
   C violin, opera, piano, libretto, sonata, tempo
   D chinchilla, condor, dorado, guano
3. Identify the Spanish loans in EModE:
   A honour, colour, traveller, waggon
   B Madonna, casino, zero, manage
   C accommodation, chocolate, excitement
   D cocoa, tobacco, banana, maize, cigar
4. Identify the Russian loans in EModE:
   A charqui, guanaco, quipu
   B taiga, tundra, samovar, balalaika
   C colonel, pilot, cartridge, trophy
   D radioactive, hydrogen bomb, chain
5. Define *native* Germanic loans in EModE:
   A affrighted, black eye, galled, hint
   B blotch, gibber, hush, phew

C cordon, livre, indigo, vase, portmanteau

D reaction, black holes, quarks

6. Determine the Greek loans in EModE:

    A bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame

    B mathematics, physics, psychiatry, lexicology

    C axe, tyre, storey, labour, habour, organise

    D robot, mazurka, Tokay, tea, bamboo, shawl

7. Define the German loans in EModE:

    A coffee, kiosk, rickshaw, jinrikisha,boomerang

    B decor, beau, ménage, naïve, liaison, malapropos

    C plunder, poodle, swindler, blitzkrieg, transcendental

    D buoy, deck, freight, keel, spool, tub, scum

8. The Renaissance and the revival of classical learning intensified borrowings from:

    A Latin, Greek and French

    B Latin, Greek and Germanic

    C Latin, Greek and Scandinavian

    D Latin, Greek and Celtic

III. Match each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

1. The role of borrowing as one of the principal means of enriching Early Modern English is clearly borne out by the data: …

2. Latin technical terms preserve their original plurals: …

3. Greek loans provided mostly technical terms in various fields ranging from: …

4. At a time of intense borrowing of terminology, fields such as medicine, psychology and theology gained most: …

5. Unlike Latin, French loan words indicated the fashion among the cultivated upper ranks of introducing French words and phrases into ordinary conversation, e.g. …

6. French loans often undergo some sound substitutions and stress shifts, e.g. …

7. The 16th century borrowings from French include military and naval terms, mainly: …

8. 'Social' French loans such as: …

9. Other areas where French borrowing made an impact are the arts and literature, dress, entertainment and food, e.g. …

10. Borrowings having a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general did not, however, disrupt native continuity: …

    A … about 60 per cent of the new words recorded for 1604 come from Latin and French, whereas native Germanic patterns of word-formation only cover some 20 percent of the new words.

    B … *bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame, minion, vogue, class, decor, beau, faux pas, liaison, malapropos, ménage, naïve, rapport, repartee,* etc. became particularly frequent in the 17th century.

    C … *It may well be that I am in this particular likewise beholden to Mr. Gayers, of whose generous freedome and <u>bonté</u> I have had divers testimonies heretofore* (CEEC, John Cosin, 1659: 288).

D … anglicisation takes place with affixes: **contre**- changes into **counter**- (*counterpoint*), -**té** into -**ty** (*fidelity*), and verbs in -**er** take the suffix -**ise** (*anathemise*).

E … *formula – formulae, fungus – fungi, genius – genii, genus– genera.*

F … *catastrophe* and *crisis* to *hyperbole* and *praxis*, from *dialysis*, *hypothesis* and *coma* to *cosmos, narcosis* and *psyche.*

G … *colonel, pilot, cartridge* and *trophy*, as well as trade loans such as *cordon, livre, indigo, vase* and *portmanteau.*

H … *anemia, appendicitis, arteriosclerosis, bronchitis, diphtheria, aspirin, insulin, morphine, extrovert* and *introvert, behaviorism, inhibition, defense mechanism, inferiority complex, psychoanalysis, ozone, natural selection, stratosphere,* etc.

I … *ballet, cabaret, champagne, denim (< serge de Nîmes), memoirs, nom-de-plume, rôle, crayon, soup, vinaigrette,* etc.

J … the Germanic element remaining the backbone of the English vocabulary even after the Early Modern period.

SELF-STUDY 8

Aims:

✓ to identify the concept 'English versus Latin';

✓ to identify borrowings from contemporary languages in EModE.

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

8.1.1. *Academic English – Prof. David Crystal on standard vs. non-standard English*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hGg-2MQVReQ

8.1.2. *Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 1 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFci7BMAX88

8.1.3. *Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 2 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mB6V6JniMJk

8.1.4. *To Be Or Not To Be- Shakespeare – Professor Sallie DelVecchio*
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eet4u8MUVtM

8.1.5. Prof. Peter Saccio destroys the Shakespeare authorship question
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2YHLjE1Wh4

8.1.6. Shakespeare's Trial for fraud (Bishop's University)
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BR53TuDZ4k4

8.1.7. Was Marlowe Shakespeare Much Ado about Something
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OsJTbWF1-lg

Recommended Literature

Obligatory:

✓ Seth Lerer. The History of the English Language, 2nd Edition. Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. Part II. P. 11–14.

✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English. Chernivtsi, 1999. P. 116–118; 129–130.
✓ L. Verba. History of the English Language. Nova KNYHA, 2004. P. 203–221.

8.2. Computer tests in e-learning

True/False: Write **'T'** for true or **'F'** for false beside each of the following statement. Comment on your choice and supply your answer with examples of your own.

1. In Renaissance England the predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of Latin loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660.
2. The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from Latin.
3. There wasn't a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements.
4. By 1600 French is the greatest source of loanwords in English.
5. The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Spanish contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675.
6. Early Modern English loans from Portuguese are mostly bookish terms.
7. Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs.
8. A great many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek.
9. The influx of Greek words on a large scale began until the time of the Revival of Learning.
10. Greek words are mostly bookish borrowings.
11. Modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency.
12. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.
13. In natural sciences the preponderance of Dutch words is striking.
14. It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the German language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies.
15. Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form.
16. Greek borrowings are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them.
17. Quite a number of proper names are Russian in origin, e.g. *George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, Theodor* and still others.
18. The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary.
19. Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, Greek, Spanish and Portuguese.
20. English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

Test1.

I. TRUE OR FALSE: Write **"T"** for true or **"F"** for false beside each of the following statement:

1. Proto-Indo-European is believed to be the descendant of most European languages.
2. Most European languages of that period include the languages that became Ancient Greek, Ancient German *(Germanic)* and Ancient Sanskrit.
3. 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.
4. Through the years Angles, Saxons and Jutes mixed their different languages, the result – what is called Anglo-Saxon or Old Frisian.
5. Old English is extremely easy to understand.
6. Several written works have survived from the OE period; perhaps the most famous is called Beowulf.
7. The name of the person who wrote Beowulf is known.
8. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound change in the history of the English vocalic system: the vowels being shifted led to the great changes in the pronunciation.—
9. The ME digraph **ee** [ẹ:] was used to denote **[i:]** after the Great Vowel Shift.
10. The ME digraph **ea [ɛ:]** was used to denote [ẹ:] after the Great Vowel Shift.
11. The ME digraph **oo** [ọ:] stands for [**u:**] after the Great Vowel Shift.
12. The ME digraph **oa** [ọ̄] stands for **[ou]** after the Great Vowel Shift.

II. MULTIPLE CHOICE: Select the best response for each of the following questions/statements

1. The Angles were a ... tribe who crossed the English Channel.

    A Celtic
    B Roman
    C Germanic
    D Scandinavian

2. 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

3. Many English words such as ... used today 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

4. About 5000 of modern words are derived from OE, remained unchanged and in common use today, e.g.....
   A wire, from, teach, hide, no
   B brogue, claymore, plaid, clan
   C anger, bull, flat, ill, low
   D plum, pea, dish, kettle, pear

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

6. Later two more groups crossed to Britain – they were the ...
   A Saxons and the Celts
   B Jutes and the Romans
   C Angles and the Vikings
   D Saxons and the Jutes

7. 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

8. ... 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"

9. The ME long vowels changed in the Shift are as follows:
   E ī, ẹ:, e:, ā, ọ, o:, ū
   F i:, a, o, u, i, o:, e
   G a, o, o:, e, e:, i, i:
   H e, e:, u, o, a, o:, i

10. The two closest sounds ... developed into diphthongs with an open first element.
   E ē and ū

F ī and ū

G ē and a

H a and ū

11. After the Shift the sound **[ī]** became:

   E [iː]

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [ei]

12. After the Shift the sound **[ū]** became:

   E [au]

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [ei]

13. After the Shift the sound **[ẹː]** became:

   E [iː]

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [ei]

14. After the Shift the sound **[ọː]** became:

   E [iː]

   F [eː]

   G [uː]

   H [ei]

15. After the Shift the sound **[ɛː]** became:

   E [ə]

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [iː]

16. After the Shift the sound **[ǭ]** became:

   E [əu

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [ei]

17. After the Shift the sound **[ā]** became:

   E [iː]

   F [eː]

   G [ai]

   H [ei]

18. The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes

greatly to the present ... between spoken and written English.

E agreement

F consistency

G coordination

H discrepancy

Test2.

I. True /False. Identify whether the italicized principles are true or false in the following examples:

1. F. de Saussure is regarded as the founder of modern linguistics.

1. Modern linguistics favors *synchronic* approach because it is less difficult and concerned with the current existence of language. =

2. *Prescriptive linguistics* is a linguistic study which aims to describe and analyze the language people actually use. =

3. *Descriptive linguistics* is a linguistic study which aims to lay down rules for "correct and standard" behavior in using language, i.e. to tell people what they should say and what they should not say. =

4. Modern linguistics is mainly *descriptive*. =

5. Synchronic linguistics is the description of a language at some point of time in history. =

6. Diachronic linguistics is the description of a language as it changes through time. It is also termed historical linguistics. =

7. The difference between synchronic and diachronic linguistics is that the former deals with language at some point of time in history, while the latter over a period of time. =

8. Modern linguistics favors synchronic approach because it is less difficult and concerned with the current existence of language. =

9. The two major media of linguistic communication are speech and writing. =

10. Modern linguistics regards as primary speech, or the spoken language. =

II. Multiple Choice: Identify the correct meanings

1. ... is regarded as the founder of modern linguistics.

    A W. Caxton

    B F. de Saussure

    C G. Chaucer

2. ... refers to the abstract linguistic system shared by all the members of a speech community.

    A Langue

    B Speech

    C Writing

3. ... refers to the realization of langue in actual use. It is the concrete use of the conventions and the application of the rules, or the naturally occurring language events.

    A Langue

    B Parole

    C Writing

4. ... is an American linguist, who is famous for his syntactic studies all over the world, and who focuses on the ideal user's knowledge of the rules of his language.

A John Searle

B Noam Chomsky

C John Austin

5. Sound changes tend to be ___.

    A systematic

    B arbitrary

    C drastic

6. The word *'home'* was written as *'hām'* in ___.

    A Old English

    B Middle English

    C Early Modern English

7. The word *'mice'*, which is pronounced as [mais], was pronounced as [mi:s] in ___.

    A Old English

    B Middle English

    C Early Modern English

8. In Chaucer's *"The Canterbury Tales"*, we can find '*his*' to replace '*...*' in Modern English, as in '*Whan that Aprille with his shoures sooth'*. This reflects the change in the 'agreement' rule.

    A *he*

    B *him*

    C *it*

9. *'I love thee not.'* before the 16th century, has now become *'I do not love you.'* This means the change in ___ rule.

    A negation

    B affirmative

    C interrogative

10. The recent trends of the English language include moving towards greater informality, the influence of ___, and the influence of science and technology.

    A Black English

    B British English

    C American English

III. Matching. Match terms (1-10) with their definitions (a-j):

1. The three processes for semantic change are: ___.

2. Widening of lexical meaning refers to the case when ___

3. The word *'tail'* once referred to *'the tail of a horse'*, ___

4. It is clear to us that the rapid development of science and technology has led to ___ .

5. Social and political changes and political needs have supplied ___.

6. Women have taken up activities formerly reserved for men ___

7. Another source of language change which can be regarded as ___ .

8. Computer language is one of the sources that ___ .

9. The use of the expressions 'to update', 'to host' and 'to check up' indicates ___ .

10. One possible account of the increasing use of *'cheap'* instead of *'cheaply'* in *'He got it cheap'* – is that of the ...

    (a) the creation of many new words (such as *'telecom'*, *'fax'*). –

    (b) more neutral job titles (such as *'chairperson'*, *'police officer'*) have been created –

    (c) but now it is used to mean '*the tail of any animal'* –

    (d) *'economy of memory'* results in grammar simplification (such as

177

'agendum—agenda/agendums'). –
(e) have influenced the English language. –
(f) the meaning of a word becomes broader, that word means everything it used to mean, and then more. –
(g) the influence of American English. –
(h) *'theory of least effort'*. –
(i) widening, narrowing, and shift in meaning. –
(j) the English vocabulary with a great quantity of new words and expressions (such as *'hot line', 'shuttle diplomacy'*, etc.). –

Test3.

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

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

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

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

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

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

}

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

}

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

~constrictive noise plosive
}

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

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

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

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

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

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

Identify the following consonants {
~/p/ -> voiceless, bilabial, occlusive
~/b/ -> voiced, bilabial, occlusive

~/d/ -> voiced, lingual, alveolar, occlusive
~/t/ -> voiceless, lingual, alveolar, occlusive
}

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

182

~alveolar
}

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

In the articulation of _____ the lips are pressed together and form a complete

obstruction {

~/m/

~/n/

~/k /

}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge {

~/n/

~/m/

~/b/

}

In the articulation of _____ the back part of the tongue touches the soft palate or velum {

~/ŋ/

~/n/

~/m/

}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue rises to the alveolar ridge {

~/s, z/

~/p, b/

~/k, g/

}

In the articulation of _____ the lower lip makes a light contact with the upper front teeth {

~/f, v/

~/p, b/

~/k, g/

}

In the articulation of _____ the tip of the tongue should be slightly projected between the teeth {

~/θ, ð/

~/p, b/

~/k, g/

}

In the articulation of _____ a strong stream of air is passing through the open glottis {

~/h/

~/p /

~/g/

}

In the articulation of _____ the front part of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate {

~/ʃ, ʒ/
~/p, b/
~/k, g/
}

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

}

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

Test4.

Carina _____ hospital dramas so she _____ ER every week {
~enjoys, watches
~is enjoying, is watching
~has enjoyed, has watched
}

Japanese cooking _____ a lot of dairy food {
~doesn't use
~didn't use
~hasn't used
}

_____ the interest rate _____ because of inflation? {
~Does, usually change
~Did, usually change
~Has, usually change
}

Graham won't give up cigarettes. He _____ about fifty a day {
~smokes
~smoked
~has smoked
}

Britney Spears _____ in the Waldorf Astoria on this visit to New York {
~is staying
~stays
~stayed
}

We _____ a two-week winter holiday in Gstaad every year {
~take
~took
~is taking
}

I _____ the neighbour's cat this week while she's in hospital {
~am feeding

~feed
~have fed
}

The court _____ first-time offenders to prison, but it is possible in exceptional
circumstances {
~does not usually send
~did not usually send
~has not usually sent
}

Then you _____ all the ingredients together quickly and _____ the mixture in a hot
oven for twenty minutes {
~mix, put
~has mixed, put
~mix, has put
}

I can see the leaders. The three front runners _____ the corner into the stadium
complex now {
~are turning
~turn
~has turned
}

Julie, listen to this. It's Thursday evening and I _____ home really late from the club,
and she _____ to me … {
~get, says
~got, said
~have got, says
}

Hewitt certainly _____ his best tennis at the moment {
~isn't playing
~doesn't play
~hasn't play
}

Hurry up and buy your sandwich! Here _____ the bus! {
~comes
~is coming
~has come
}

'Sorry I haven't phoned, I lost my address book'. Oh, you _____ your address book!
Why don't you keep everything on the computer?' {
~are always losing
~always lose

~have always lost
}

The part-time philosophy course _____ of twenty evening lectures and five full-day seminars {
~consists of
~is consisting of
~has consisted of
}

_____ we should allow more than an hour to get to the station? {
~Do you think
~Are you thinking
~Have you thought
}

We can't leave a ten-year-old child on her own. What on earth _____ of? {
~are you thinking
~do you think
~have you thought
}

Don't ask him! He _____ really difficult at the moment {
~is being
~is
~has been
}

Would you like to try these champagnes? We _____ them to write a review for the wine club newsletter {
~are tasting
~taste
~has tasted
}

We _____ that you won't be disappointed with the performance of our new washing machine {
~guarantee
~are guaranteeing
~have guaranteed
}

The pool in the hotel was absolutely filthy so we didn't _____ in it {
~swim
~swam
~swimming
}

We _____ at the first service station we came across {
~stopped
~have stopped
~stop
}

The thieves ran out of the bank, _____ into their car and sped away up the high street {
~jumped
~were jumping
~have jumped
}

Rameses II _____ over ancient Egypt for more than fifty years {
~ruled
~was ruling
~had rule
}

Intervention was urgently required – the starving children _____ weaker by the day and there _____ little sign of an end to the drought {
~were growing, was
~grew, was being
~were growing, was being
}

By the middle of the nineteen sixties many parts of Europe _____ a tremendous economic boom {
~were experiencing
~experienced
~experience
}

Jim _____ on the early flight the next morning so he made his excuses and left the party before midnight {
~was leaving
~left
~has left
}

Many of the survivors _____ in the fields when the earthquake struck {
~were working
~worked
~work
}

Phil stood at the door soaked from head to toe; he _____ in the rain {
~had been running

~was running
~run
}

Denise had to leave school early on Wednesday because she _____ her driving test {
~was taking
~took
~had taken
}

By the third month of the war rebel forces _____ most of the province {
~had taken
~took
~were taking
}

At the time of the trial last summer Hinkley _____ in prison for eight months {
~had been
~was
~has been
}

We missed the first act of the play because when we arrived at the theatre the performance _____ {
~had already started
~already started
~already had started
}

At midnight Mr Rochester _____ the stairs and went into his bedchamber {
~climbed
~had climbed
~has climbed
}

The early ruins were a disappointment as we _____ to reach the coast before the monsoon set in {
~had expected
~expected
~have expected
}

At the time of the take-over the company's shares _____ in value for several months {
~had been declining
~had declined
~declined
}

Brendan was surprised to find the gas tank empty as he _____ the truck twice that week {
~had only used
~had only been using
~has only used
}

Before the advent of satellite television viewers didn't _____ a very wide selection of channels {
~use to have
~used to have
~using to have
}

The staff _____ to be paid weekly but now they receive a monthly salary {
~used
~were used
~have used
}

Things have certainly changed – there _____ loads of small shops around here when I was young {
~used to be
~would be
~have used
}

We still hold meetings in the old manor house, which _____ on the same spot for over two hundred years {
~has stood
~stood
~stands
}

Beethoven _____ some of the most accomplished symphonies you will ever listen to {
~wrote
~has written
~writes
}

I _____ Keith at all yesterday morning {
~didn't see
~haven't seen
~saw
}

The nurses' strike _____ the current waiting time for minor surgery by two to three weeks {
~has increased
~increased
~is increasing
}

Only one British female astronaut _____ time on a space station {
~has spent
~spent
~spends
}

News is coming in of an incident in Parliament. A group of armed men _____ the building and is holding hostages {
~has surrounded
~surrounded
~is surrounding
}

He's really much more handsome in flesh than I _____ {
~thought
~have thought
~am thinking
}

We _____ much less beef recently because of the crisis, but we think it's safe to start again now {
~have been eating
~eat
~ate
}

This country _____ the latest influx of political refugees from the Balkans {
~has welcomed
~has been welcoming
~welcomes
}

The incidence of street crime _____ by five per cent in the last two months {
~has risen
~has been rising
~rose
}

Hurry up! We _____ for you for twenty minutes! {
~have waited/have been waiting
~have been waited

~are waiting
}

We have been using this supplier _____ and we've never had problems before {
~for two years
~since two years
~in two years
}

There _____ seven police dramas on TV so far this week – and it's on Thursday {
~have been
~were
~are
}

Only halfway through the financial year and British Aerospace _____ that its pre-tax profits will be down by seventy per cent {
~has already announced
~already announced
~is already announcing
}

The Indian Government _____ a ban on tiger hunting five years ago {
~imposed
~has imposed
~had imposed
}

Several drivers _____ badly injured during the 1999 racing season {
~were
~have been
~had been
}

This farm _____ organic vegetables for more than ten years now {
~has been growing/has grown
~is growing
~grows
}

She _____ with the symphony orchestra three times this season {
~has played
~has been playing
~plays
}

'I haven't seen you for ages'. 'No, _____ in South-East Asia {
~I've been travelling

~I've travelled
~I'm travelling
}

Oasis _____ a new album. It was a great success on its release last week {
~has recorded
~has been recording
~is recording
}

I've taken the 10.40 to Bristol every Friday for three years and it's always half empty. Believe me, you _____ a seat {
~will find
~find
~are finding
}

My father's approaching retirement age, so he _____ the business next year {
~'ll probably sell
~probably sells
~is probably selling
}

Going by all of the recent polls, the social democrats _____ next week's election by a huge majority {
~are going to win
~win
~'ll win
}

Look at those black clouds. It _____ this afternoon {
~'s going to rain
~rain
~'ll rain
}

I'm going on holiday tomorrow. This time next Tuesday afternoon I _____ down a mountain! {
~'ll be skiing
~'ll ski
~'m skiing
}

At our next wedding anniversary we _____ for twenty-five years {
~'ll have been married
~'ll be married
~'ll have married
}

'You speak very good Chinese'. 'Thank you. It's not surprising; I _____ in Beijing for eight years next month' {
~'ll have been living/'ll have lived
~'ll be living
~'ll been living
}

Sit down and watch the TV; I _____ this letter quickly before I join you {
~'ll just finish/'m just going to finish
~'ll be finishing
~'ll have been finished
}

Your driving test is next Tuesday, so _____ a two-hour session on Monday? {
~shall we have
~do we have
~have
}

'Have your parents decided whether you can come to the festival next weekend? 'Not yet, but they can't stop me. I _____ with you' {
~will come/am going to come
~come
~will have come
}

I've won the jackpot on the lottery and I _____ it all straight away! {
~'m going to spend
~'m spending
~spend
}

I've just been to the council meeting. It looks like they _____ a new shopping centre in town {
~'re going to build
~'re building
~build
}

I've just heard a rumour that your favourite jazz singer _____ to give a concert in our village! {
~is coming
~comes
~come
}

'Have you looked at the new financial report yet?' 'No, but I _____ at home this

195

evening so I can study it then' {
~'m staying
~stay
~staying
}

The takeover is going ahead, I'm afraid, so we _____ some redundancies in the New Year {
~'ll be making/'re going to make
~'re making
~make
}

Erm, I don't want to be rude, but _____ with us for long when you come over to Britain? {
~will you be staying/are you going to stay
~are you stay
~do you stay
}

The plane _____ at 10.45, so we had better check in by 8.45 {
~takes off
~take off
~has taken off
}

Sunrise _____ at 6.40 a.m. tomorrow {
~will be/is
~be
~will have been
}

Mr Fellows _____ golf tomorrow afternoon, as usual, so you can catch him on the golf course {
~will be playing
~plays
~is playing
}

The decorator won't finish the work until you _____ him what you owe {
~pay
~are paying
~will pay
}

The Mayor of Paris _____ attend the service tomorrow before leaving the city {
~is to
~is about to

~is on the point of
}

These pills are _____ with any other medicine {
~not to be taken
~not take
~due to be taken
}

The timetable _____ be published on the 1st May {
~is due to
~is about to
~is on the point of
}

Hurry! Run! The train's just _____ leave without us! {
~about to
~to
~due to
}

Because of the erosion of their habitats, some species are _____ extinction {
~on the verge of
~about to
~likely to
}

He's very _____ to accept the position as we can't match his current salary {
~unlikely
~likely
~sure
}

We _____ promote trainees within two to three years of qualifying {
~expect to
~are about to
~anticipate to
}

'I'm sorry about spilling wine on your dress last week'. 'Don't worry. I _____ take it to the cleaner's anyway' {
~was going to
~would
~was to
}

As he raised his arm she realized that he _____ strike her again {
~was about to

~was due to
~was to
}

I'm really sorry. We _____ to stop at a service station and phone you, but we didn't want to waste any more time {
~were going to
~were due to
~were to
}

Crash investigators _____ release their findings to the press later today {
~are due to/are to
~are about to
~are about to/are to
}

The exam starts at three. _____ arrive at the hall at least five minutes before the start {
~Be sure to/You are to
~Be bound to
~Be bound to/Be sure to
}

Hurry up! The tour group is _____. If you don't come now, they'll go without us {
~about to leave/on the point of leaving
~to leave
~to leave/about to leave
}

Do you believe we are _____ a really exciting breakthrough here? {
~on the point of/on the verge of
~forthcoming
~forthcoming/on the verge of
}

Standing underneath the stricken building, no one seemed aware of the _____ danger {
~impending/imminent
~bound
~bound/imminent
}

'Do you think the judges will like my entry? 'Of course. They're _____ to like it {
~sure/bound
~unlikely
~unlikely/sure
}

We _____ one hundred per cent customer satisfaction with this new vacuum cleaner!
{
~guarantee/anticipate
~hope
~hope/anticipate
}

The society _____ expand its membership by twenty per cent in the next year {
~hopes to/may
~envisages
~envisages/may
}

Look, I didn't put the rubbish out this morning because I thought you _____ do it {
~were going to/would
~were to
~were to/would
}

The new department store _____ on 2nd January, but the explosion prevented this {
~was to open/was to have opened
~would open
~would open/was to have opened
}

Test5.

_____ was supposed to have been unified and standardized in the system of spelling, grammatical constructions, word order etcetera due to the introduction of printing {
=EModE
~ME
~OE
}

Introduction of _____ by Caxton in 1476 – is in the mainstream of the history of English, as it affected the development of the language greatly, especially its written form {
=printing
~writing
~reading
}

The formation of the national literary English language covers: _____ {
=the Early Modern English period
~the Old English period

~the Middle English period
}

Major external factors that contributed greatly to the rise of the national language are: _____ {
=the unification of the country and the progress of culture
~increased foreign contacts
~sea trade and expansion
}

The landmark of the history of Early Modern English in particular and in the history of English in general is: _____ {
=introduction of printing
~flourishing of literature
~the expansion of England to America
}

William Caxton (appr.1420–1491) wrote preface and printed: _____ {
=Geoffrey Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*
~David Crystal's *The Stories of English*
~William Shakespeare's *Hamlet*
}

The literary standard of English in Early Modern English became: _____ {
=the East Midland dialect
~the West Midland dialect
~the Southern dialect
}

The period that characterizes the historical context of Early Modern English is: _____ {
=the Renaissance
~the Reformation
~the Enlightenment
}

The Renaissance or the Revival of Learning is the great era of:
=intellectual and cultural development in Europe between the 14th–17th c.
~a religious and political movement of the 16th century
~the romantic art, music and literature of the late 18th and the early 19th c
}

The classics of Early Modern English without any doubt are: _____ {

     =William Shakespeare and William Tyndale

     ~King Henry VIII and Coverdale

     ~Mary Stuart and Elizabeth I

     }

The founder of the National Literary English Language, the greatest of all the great creators of the English language is: _____ {

     =William Shakespeare

     ~William Tyndale

     ~Geoffrey Chaucer

     }

The great geniuses of the Renaissance gave the English language: _____ {

     =a choice of national presence at all the levels of its usage

     ~changes in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift)

     ~patterns of word order

     }

Very many words in _____ are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago {

=ModE

~ME

~OE

}

_____ changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects {

=Vowels

~Consonants

~Diphthongs

}

_____ was the most profound change in the history of the English vocalic system: the vowels being shifted led to the great changes in the pronunciation {

=The Great Vowel Shift

~The Consonant Shift

~The Diphthong Shift

The ME digraph ee [ẹ:] was used to denote _____ after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME deep [dẹ:p] > ModE deep [] {

=i :

~e :

~i

}

The ME digraph oo [ǫ:] stands for _____ after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sōne [so:nə] > ModE soon [su:n] {

=u :

~o:

~o

}

The ME digraph oa [ǭ] stands for _____ after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME open ['ɔ:pən] > ModE open _____

=ou :

~o:

~o

}

Identify the sound value of the ee-digraph (ee, ei, ie) after the GVS in the following words: _____ {

    =sleep, street, deed, weep

    ~time, line, wipe, tide

    ~shift, chin, ship, pin, written

}

Determine the sound value of the ea-digraph after the GVS in the following words: _____ {

    =east, wheat, feat , lea, meat

    ~feel, seek, feet, beet

    ~black, nap, stand, bathe

}

Define the sound value of the digraph oo as a result of the GVS in the following words: _____ {

    =do, lose, prove, to

    ~bold, cold, old, comb

    ~go, no, oak, know

    }

Identify the sound value of the digraph oa as a result of the GVS in the following words: _____ {

    =show, alone, below, promote

    ~come, become, welcome, some

~embolden, encourage, foster, support

}

Denote the exceptions to the ea-digraph sound value in the following words: _____ {

=break, steak, great

~bear, pear, there, where

~creak, dread, dream, drear

}

Define the quality of ME short vowel o in ModE in the following words: {

=above, honey, tongue, wonder

~who, lose, move, whom

~don't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't

}

Identify the lengthening of ME a before voiceless fricatives in the following words: _____ {

=aghast, cast, task, staff, raft

~small, tall, wall, walk, talk

~wander, what, swallow, wasp

}

Define the quality of ME a under the influence of labial consonants in the following words: _____ {

=want, wand, wash, was

~base, chaste, haste, paste

~father, mother, rather, another

}

Identify the loss of consonants in the following words: _____ {

=comb, hymn, solemn, tomb

~desert, exact, though, that

~pull, put, butcher, push

}

The range of the possessive case of nouns has been .... {

=narrowed

~increased

~complicated

}

The personal pronoun of the 2nd person pl. *ye, you* and the corresponding possessive pronoun *your* have gradually ousted the corresponding singular pronouns .... {

  =*thou, thee, thine*

  ~*thou, thee, you*

  ~*thou, thee, ye*

  }

The pronoun *hit* has ... its initial letter {

   =lost

   ~retained

   ~changed

   }

The adjective has lost all its inflections but those of the ....{

   =degrees of comparison

   ~gender

   ~case

   }

The verb has lost all the inflections of the present tense but that of the .... {

   =third person singular

   ~first person plural

   ~second person plural

   }

The four basic forms of the strong verbs have been ....{

   =reduced to three

   ~reduced to two

   ~retained to four

   }

Only one personal pronoun form was introduced into Early Modern English, the possessive .... {

   =its

   ~him

   ~his

   }

The possessive pronouns split into two sets of forms: _____ {

   =conjoint and absolute

   ~conjoint and dependent

   ~absolute and independent

}

The relative pronouns are: _____ {
=who, whose, which, that, as
~each other, one another
~each, every, all, both, other
}

The personal pronouns have two cases: _____ {
=the nominative case and the objective case
~the nominative case and the common case
~the nominative case and the possessive case
}

Identify the Latin loans in EModE: _____ {
=addiction, assert, customary, hallucinate
~ballet, boulevard, canteen, champagne
~hammock, maize, potato, tobacco
}

Define the French loans in EModE: _____ {
=cohesion, connoisseur, coquette, dentist
~barbecue, cannibal, chili, chocolate
~skipper, yacht, dock, cruise
}

Determine the Dutch loans in EModE: _____ {
=landscape, easel, sketch, tattoo
~sombrero, guitar, embargo, cargo
~publicity, routine, soubrette, syndicate
}

Define the Italian loans in EModE: _____ {
=violin, opera, piano, libretto, sonata, tempo
~mulatto, caste, canoe, lasso, mustang
~chinchilla, condor, dorado, guano
}

Identify the Spanish loans in EModE: _____ {
=cocoa, tobacco, banana, maize, cigar
~honour, colour, traveller, waggon
~Madonna, casino, zero, manage

}

Define *native* Germanic loans in EModE: _____ {
=affrighted, black eye, galled, hint
~blotch, gibber, hush, phew
~reaction, black holes, quarks
}

Determine the Greek loans in EModE: _____ {
=mathematics, physics, psychiatry, lexicology
~axe, tyre, storey, labour, habour, organise
~robot, bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame
}

Define the German loans in EModE: _____ {
=plunder, poodle, swindler, blitzkrieg, transcendental
~coffee, kiosk, rickshaw, jinrikisha,boomerang
~decor, beau, ménage, naïve, liaison, malapropos
}

The Renaissance and the revival of classical learning intensified borrowings from: _____ {
=Latin, Greek and French
~Latin, Greek and Germanic
~Latin, Greek and Scandinavian
}

The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from _____ {
=Latin
~Germanic
~Scandinavian
}

In Renaissance England the predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of Latin loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660 {
=True
~False
}

The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from French {

=False

~True

}

There wasn't a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements {

=False

~True

}

By 1600 French is the greatest source of loanwords in English {

=False

~True

}

The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Spanish contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675 {

=False

~True

}

Early Modern English loans from Portuguese are mostly bookish terms {

=False

~True

}

Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs {

=True

~False

}

A great many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek {

=True

~False

}

The influx of Greek words on a large scale began until the time of the Revival of Learning {

=False

~True
}

Greek words are mostly bookish borrowings {
=True
~False
}

Modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency {
=True
~False
}

Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology {
=True
~False
}

In natural sciences the preponderance of Dutch words is striking {
=False
~True
}

It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the German language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies {
=False
~True
}

Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form {
=True
~False
}

Greek borrowings are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them {
=True
~False
}

Quite a number of proper names are Russian in origin, e.g. *George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, Theodor* and still others {
=False
~True
}

The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary {
=True
~False
}

Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, Greek, Spanish and Portuguese {
=True
~False
}

English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America {
=True
~False
}

The greatest event in the history of English grammar is the decline and transformation of the nominal morphological system {
=True
~False
}

Some nominal categories were retained – *gender* and *case* in adjectives, *gender* in nouns {
=False
~True
}

Morphological division into types of *declension* practically disappeared {
=True
~False
}

The number of verbal grammatical categories reduced {
=False
~True
}

The infinitive and the participle developed nominal features: they acquired new analytical forms and new categories like the finite verb {
=False
~True
}

The Old English four-case system has been reduced to two, the genitive and the common case {
=True
~False
}

In Early Modern English, the plural of nouns was regularly formed with the -(a)s ending {
=False
~True
}

The possessive form is used chiefly with nouns denoting inanimate things – people and animals – and almost exclusively in the attributive function {
=False
~True
}

In the plural, where the possessive morpheme coincided with the plural suffix, the possessive began to be marked by the apostrophe after the final s {
=True
~False
}

The history of English grammar was a complex evolutionary process made up only of changeable features {
=False
~True
}

Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by

Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago {

=True

~False

}

The letter x stands for [gz] in the following words: *oxen, axes, execute, exercise, oxidation, excuse, exclusive, exceptional, extraordinary* {

=False

~True

}

The letter x stands for [ks] in the following words: *executor, examine, exact, exist, exemplify, exert, exhaust* {

=False

~True

}

The introduction of printing by William Caxton in 1476 did not support the standardization of the linguistic process in the country {

=False

~True

}

Such cases of synonymy served as models for the creation of new nouns from verbs (*smile* v.→*smile* n.) and vice versa (*chance* n. →*chance* v.) {

=False

~True

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word shall {

=the ME sound [a] is a monophthongization of the OE diphthong [ea] in the word *sceal* (the 11th c.); *sh* – the development of the sibilant [ʃ] (the 17th c.)

~the OE sound [a] is a monophthongization of the OE diphthong [ea] in the word *sceal* (the 11th c.); *sh* – the development of the sibilant [ʃ] (the 17th c.)

~the EModE sound [a] is a monophthongization of the OE diphthong [ea] in the word *sceal* (the 11th c.); *sh* – the development of the sibilant [ʃ] (the 17th c.)

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *besiege* {

=the ME digraph *ie* denoted the sound [e:]. ME [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15th c.); the ME palatal consonant [g] > the EModE sibilant [dʒ]

~the OE digraph *ie* denoted the sound [e:]. ME [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period

due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.); the ME palatal consonant [g] > the EModE sibilant [dʒ]

~the EModE digraph *ie* denoted the sound [e:]. ME [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.); the ME palatal consonant [g] > the EModE sibilant [dʒ]

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *brow* {

=the ME sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the OE sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the EModE sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *be* {

=the ME sound [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the OE sound [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the EModE sound [e:] > [i:] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *gaze* {

=the ME sound [a] > [ei] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the push chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the OE sound [a] > [ei] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the push chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the EModE sound [a] > [ei] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the push chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *proud* {

=the ME sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~the OE sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

~theEModE sound [u:] > [au] during the EModE period due to the Great Vowel Shift (the pull chain; the 15ᵗʰ c.)

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *where* {

=the ME combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*

~the OE combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*

~the EModE combination of letters *wh* was substituted for OE *hw*

}

Identify the phonetic value of the word *worth* {
=the ME sound [or] > the EModE sound [o:] – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of r)
~the OE sound [or] > the EModE sound [o:] – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of r)
~the EModE sound [or] > the EModE sound [o:] – (the process of vowels changes under the influence of r)
}

Most words in the Middle English period were stressed on the last syllable {
=False
~True
}

ME sound-system can be organized into the following categories: vowels in stressed syllables (short, long, diphthongs), vowels of unstressed syllables and consonants {
=True
~False
}

The short vowels [i, ɛ, a, ɔ, ʊ], were generally spelt (i/y, e, a, o, u) respectively {
=True
~False
}

A very important change was the vocalization of [j] and [w] after vowels, which brought about the appearance of new diphthongs {
=True
~False
}

The strengthening of unstressed vowels became much more intensive in Middle English, especially in the Northern dialects, owing to Scandinavian influence {
=False
~True
}

The long vowels [i:, e:, ɛ:, a:, ɔ:, o:, u:], were generally spelt (i/y/ij, e/ee, e/ee, a/aa, o/oo, o/oo, ou/ow) {
=True

~False
}

Quantitative changes affected the nature of a vowel, while qualitative – altered the length of the sound {
=False
~True
}

Long vowels were lengthened in the 9th century before the combinations [ld, nd, mb], unless followed by a third consonant {
=False
~True
}

Middle English does not seem to have had any 'silent' letters. Thus the words *sweete, knyf* were pronounced [swe:tə, kni:f] {
=True
~False
}

Quantitative changes influenced the rhythm of the English language greatly {
=True
~False
}

Test6

'Nonsense,' said Caroline in replay. 'You'll see. Ten to one she's left a letter _____ everything' {
    ~confessing
    ~being confessed
    ~to confess
    }

_____ slowly, holding on to the wall, he dragged his way back into his room {
    ~Turning
    ~Having turned
    ~To turn
    }

The following evening, _____ Elliot's telephoned order to fetch me, I arrived quite safely at Mrs Bradley's house {
    ~having refused
    ~refusing
    ~to refuse
    }

_____ the people aside, he made his way through the crowd {
    ~Pushing
    ~Having pushed
    ~To push
    }

And for a moment they all three stood silently _____ at one another {
    ~looking
    ~being looked
    ~to look
    }

Quickly _____ her handkerchief, she hid her face in it and began to sob broken-heartedly {
    ~taking
    ~having taken
    ~to take
    }

_____ his own room, he returned speedily with a heavy bound volume {
    ~entering
    ~having entered
    ~to enter
    }

And _____ Collings now through Tony's eyes she realized _____ {
    ~seeing
    ~being seen
    ~to see
    }

He paused, _____ from one to another {
    ~looking
    ~being looked
    ~to look
    }

Nick looked at the moon, _____ up over the hills {
    ~coming
    ~having come
    ~to come

}

I got a telegram from Bill's uncle _____ me to come {
    ~asking
    ~being asked
    ~to ask
    }

_____ his son back like this, he felt he must know what was his financial position {
    ~Having got
    ~Getting
    ~To get
    }

I saw Blanche little by little _____ all her tricks {
    ~trying
    ~to try
    ~having tried
    }

He turned _____ me from beneath his enormous eyebrows {
    ~inspecting
    ~to inspect
    ~having expected
    }

I came down here, _____ that I would get over it {
    ~hoping
    ~to hope
    ~having hoped
    }

She drank deeply, and, _____ so, sighed with satisfaction {
    ~having done
    ~doing
    ~to do
    }

Again the hands rose eloquently, _____ better than words could do Mr Hercule Poirot's sense of utter outrage {
    ~expressing
    ~to express
    ~having expressed
    }

Sam, feeling that the interview, _____ this point might be considered over, got up {

~having reached
~reaching
~to reach
}

'This is your grandmother,' Dora was saying _____ the boy's hair gently {
~smoothing
~having smoothed
~to smooth
}

His father, _____, lived in an unpretentious, but not mean, house {
~having retired
~to retire
~retiring
}

_____ these and other matters in my mind, I went mechanically on my round {
~Resolving
~Having resolved
~To resolve
}

It was about ten o'clock at night; I had been dining by myself at a restaurant, and _____ to my small apartment, was sitting in my parlour, reading {
~having returned
~returning
~to return
}

He decided to speak to her in the train _____ home {
~coming
~to come
~having come
}

The next minute the front door was flung open and he was in the lighted hall _____ by a short, plump, smiling woman of about forty {
~being welcomed
~having welcomed
~to welcome
}

_____ down to this place for a visit, he found himself requested by his host to go and tell his uncle bedtime stories {
~Having been invited
~Having invited

~Being invited
}

I stood for a moment at the window, _____ at the gaiety of the day {
     ~looking
     ~having looked
     ~to look
     }

_____ his toilet, he wrapped himself in a thick overcoat and wound a muffler round his neck {
     ~Having finished
     ~Finishing
     ~To finish
     }

And _____ the conclusion, he gave no further thought to the matter {
     ~having reached
     ~to reach
     ~reaching
     }

_____ the door with only the lightest slam, they went out together {
     ~closing
     ~to close
     ~having closed
     }

Julia sat eating rolls and drinking coffee in her room next morning, _____ what she should do {
     ~thinking
     ~having thought
     ~to think
     }

'Come along quickly', said Nick _____ the door of the driving cabin, 'you're coming too' {
     ~holding
     ~having hold
     ~to hold
     }

He got up from his chair and _____ to a shelf brought me a large album {
     ~coming
     ~having come
     ~to come
     }

I kept silence for a while, _____ of what Stroeve had told me {
        ~thinking
        ~having thought
        ~to think
        }

When she had finished she sat _____ in front of her for some minutes {
        ~staring
        ~having stared
        ~to stare
        }

I went out on to the landing, and cautiously down the stairs, _____ that one of the
doors would be open {
        ~hoping
        ~having hoped
        ~to hope
        }

Snow was falling now in soft, large flakes, _____ the red roofs {
        ~covering
        ~having covered
        ~to cover
        }

Men wandered about, _____ at the women _____ at their windows
reading or sewing {
        ~looking, sitting
        ~having looked, sitting
        ~to look, sitting
        }

_____ the pipe he inspected it as though it demanded all his attention {
        ~Having knocked out
        ~Knocking out
        ~To knock
        }

I overheard Dale _____ something about it {
        ~saying
        ~having said
        ~to say
        }

Then she heard the stranger _____ quietly, and his footsteps came across the room {
        ~laughing
        ~having laughed
        ~to laugh

}

He found her _____ some plants, her face expressed her surprise at his unusual presence. {
     ~watering
     ~having watered
     ~to water
     }

At his home, he let himself in, and to his surprise, found his wife _____ towards him in the hall {
     ~coming
     ~having come
     ~to come
     }

They could hear the Invisible Man _____ {
     ~breathing
     ~having breathed
     ~to breath
     }

Mike saw him _____ in the doorway {
     ~standing
     ~having stood
     ~to stand
     }

Then her charming face grew eager, and _____ round, Young Jolyon saw Bosinney _____ across the grass {
     ~glancing, striding
     ~having glanced, striding
     ~to glance, to stride
     }

She found herself _____ from asleep and _____, but what she was weeping for she had no idea at all {
     ~waking, crying
     ~having waken, crying
     ~to wake, to cry
     }

I saw him _____ briskly through the crowd {
     ~walking
     ~having walked
     ~to walk
     }

She could hear Bart _____ about outside, whistling as he worked {
~moving
~having moved
~to move
}

He noticed a girl _____ listlessly by a pillar and he slowed his pace {
~standing
~having stood
~to stand
}

I thought I saw something _____ along the track {
~moving
~having moved
~to move
}

As Nick came up to Toby he turned and saw Michael _____ them from other side {
~watching
~having watched
~to watch
}

He found the old man still _____ grim in the darkness {
~sitting
~to sit
~being sat
}

He could see a man _____ on the pavement, facing the swing doors {
~standing
~to stand
~being stood
}

When he opened the window he heard the birds _____ in the garden {
~singing
~having sung
~to sing
}

In a minute or two I noticed her eyes stealthily _____ at me over the top of the book {
~peeping
~to peep
~being peeped

}

I could feel the room _____ under my feet {
        ~rocking
        ~being rocked
        ~to rock
        }

I noticed now his eyes _____ on me with a faint smile of amusement {
        ~resting
        ~being rested
        ~to rest
        }

Paul was seen _____ his silver watch {
        ~consulting
        ~being consulted
        ~to consult
        }

He was heard _____ if I was in {
        ~asking
        ~being asked
        ~to ask
        }

He was heard _____ the doctor, _____ the gravity and urgency of the case {
        ~telephoning, stressing
        ~being telephoned, being stressed
        ~to telephone, to stress
        }

He was heard _____ up and down in the room long after the rest of the family had gone to bed {
        ~pacing
        ~being passed
        ~to pass
        }

She was seen _____ in that direction about a quarter of an hour ago {
        ~going
        ~having gone
        ~to go
        }

She looked around, her eye _____ upon the litter in the room {
        ~dwelling

~being dwelt
~to dwell
}

At last the preparation _____, his eyes surveyed the scene with satisfaction
{
~ being completed
~having completed
~to complete
}

The examination _____close at hand, a queer calmness settled upon him {
~being
~having
~be
}

His brain _____ inactive, almost dull, he felt that he knew nothing {
~being
~having
~be
}

The moment _____, he felt it difficult to speak {
~coming
~having come
~being come
}

They _____ he sat _____ the matter over {
~having gone, thinking
~going, thinking
~to go, think
}

He woke during the still hot night his hand _____ automatically for a cigarette
{
~reaching
~being reached
~having reached
}

When he went back he found his wife _____ already {
~dressed
~dressing
~dress
}

On entering his room I found him _____ in a detective novel {
> ~absorbed
> ~absorbing
> ~absorb
> }

He felt his cheeks _____ by the fever {
> ~flushed
> ~flushing
> ~flush
> }

He found Leila _____ and _____ {
> ~calmed, delighted
> ~calming, delighting
> ~calm, delight
> }

I want this letter _____ {
> ~typed
> ~typing
> ~type
> }

His thoughts wandered and he found his mind _____ with memories of the past {
> ~filled
> ~filling
> ~fill
> }

I heard his name _____ several times during the conversation {
> ~mentioned
> ~mentioning
> ~mention
> }

I saw Mrs Brown's advertisement _____ in the local newspaper {
> ~printed
> ~printing
> ~to print
> }

When Mary returned home she found a telephone _____ in their flat {
> ~installed
> ~installing
> ~install
> }

I tried to handle and found the door _____ {
        ~unlocked
        ~unlocking
        ~unlock
        }

That police business _____, he had come to call upon M. Poirot {
        ~having been accomplished
        ~being accomplished
        ~be accomplished
        }

Fleur _____ that it was 'simply too wonderful to stay indoors', they all went out {
        ~having declared
        ~being declared
        ~declare
         }

It _____ a hot day, and all of us thirsty, she suggested that we should have a glass of beer {
        ~being
        ~been
        ~to be
        }

She never was a great talker. Often when the night _____ fine, we decided to walk back from the music-hall at which we had been spending the evening, she never opened her mouth {
        ~being
        ~been
        ~to be
        }

'You know any of them?' I whispered. 'Yes', he said simply, his voice _____ a little {
        ~trembling
        ~trembled
        ~tremble
        }

It was quite light. A few miners were already in the street: the first of the night shift _____ out. As Andrew walked with them, spent and slow, his footsteps _____ with the others under the morning sky, he kept thinking blindly: 'I've done something …' {
        ~moving, echoing
        ~moved, echoed

~move, echo
}

All _____, he went to bed and slept soundly {
    ~being settled
    ~having settled
    ~be settled
    }

She turned, losing her restraint, her eyes _____ with honest indignation {
    ~sparkling
    ~sparkled
    ~sparkle
    }

He found that Anne had advanced into the hall, her hands folded upon her apron, her eyes _____ him {
    ~contemplating
    ~contemplated
    ~contemplate
    }

She counted out the money from her bulging purse, her fingers _____, her eyes _____ at him {
    ~trembling, snapping
    ~trembled, snapped
    ~tremble, snap
    }

As she approached the end of the bundle of notes she went slower and slower, her sly black eyes _____ {
    ~twinkling
    ~twinkled
    ~twinkle
    }

Mrs Bramwell's evening began at nine o'clock, the late hour _____ out of consideration for the medical gentlemen who might be detained at their surgeries {
    ~being chosen
    ~having chosen
    ~chosen
    }

They walked silently through the street, Tom very grave, Lisa _____ bitterly {
    ~weeping
    ~being wept
    ~wept
    }

The Strand, it _____ the hour when the theatres began to empty themselves, was a roaring torrent of humanity and vehicles {

~being

~been

~to be

}

Very soon they lost sight of the other machines, each _____ its own course {

~having taken

~being taken

~taken

}

He glared at Tom with outrage, his eyes _____ with excitement {

~glittering

~glittered

~being glittered

}

The waltz in the back room _____, three couples … _____ for the bar, caught Daylight's eyes {

~being finished, heading

~having finished, heading

~finished, heading

}

When I called on her in the morning I found her _____ {

~gone

~went

~go

}

I had my hair _____ {

~cut

~being cut

~having cut

}

I want the letter _____ at once {

~posted

~being posted

~having posted

}

He looked at me, as if _____ by my question {

~bewildered

~being bewildered

~having bewildered
            }

Test7.

Three nights later, Theresa _____ that she would be out for the evening,
Quigly arranged to have dinner with his mother {
            ~having announced
            ~announcing
            ~announce
            }

But I wasn't listening, _____ the atmosphere of canvases I now knew so
well {
            ~absorbing
            ~having absorbed
            ~absorb
            }

'Twenty-five minutes past five', said Mr Rycrolf _____ at the clock {
            ~glancing
            ~having glanced
            ~glance
            }

'Tea', I said, _____ the big white cup in front of him {
            ~setting
            ~having set
            ~set
            }

_____ her raincoat up to her throat and _____ a scarf round her hair
she went to Victoria Street {
            ~Buttoning, knotting
            ~Having buttoned, having knotted
            ~Button, knot
            }

_____, I ran impulsively across the room and flung my arms round her neck
{
            ~Getting up
            ~Having got up
            ~Get up
            }

I kept silence for a while, _____ of what Stroeve had told me {
            ~thinking

~having thought

~think

}

He looked like a man, who has fallen into the water with all his clothes on, and, _____ from death, frightened still, feels that he only looks a fool {

~being rescued

~having rescued

~rescued

}

She was lying in the dark, _____ to a piano _____ several rooms away {

~listening, being played

~having listened, having played

~listened, played

}

Liza walked back, _____ to get home in time to cook the dinner {

~wishing

~having wished

~wished

}

Sally saw the advertisement of a play _____ at the neighbouring town {

~being acted

~having acted

~acted

}

Through the open door came a low, groaning sound, _____ out of the dark mist which covered shore and sea alike {

~being issued

~having issued

~issued

}

She is working in a laundry on the East Side, _____ to keep her child's body and soul together {

~trying

~having tried

~tried

}

_____ various topics of conversation, I asked her to tell me who all the people at table were {

~Having tried

~Trying

~Tried
}

She walked down the aisle, not _____ her expression, and went to the tail of the plane and sat down there {
~changing
~having changed
~changed
}

He started the motor and drove off, _____ gaily, to go towards his parents' house {
~waving
~having waved
~waved
}

He found the studio without difficulty, _____ himself, from the hotel letter-rack, with a folding map of Paris {
~having equipped
~equipped
~equipping
}

_____ the way from one of the group of youths _____ outside the Valley Ice Cream Saloon, he (Andrew) set out for the dentist's house {
~Having inquired, lounging
~Inquired, lounging
~Inquiring, lounging
}

He went out quickly, _____ the door behind him {
~shutting
~having shut
~shut
}

She didn't return with us, _____ to a supper party {
~having been asked
~asking
~asked
}

In the provinces, you not only know everybody, but you know all their life histories, and can give advice at a drop of a hat on anyone's love problem, _____ to all their telephone conversations and read most of the correspondence _____ to the affair {
~having listened, relating

~listening, relating
~listened, related
}

Then she got up and the man _____ her gave an _____ shout {
      ~seeing, astonished
      ~saw, astonished
      ~seeing, astonishing
      }

There was another silence; Liza sat _____, and Tom at the window, _____ at her {
      ~thinking, looking
      ~thought, looked
      ~having thought, looking
      }

When Ashendon, _____ their hands, closed the door behind the pair he heaved a great sigh of relief {
      ~having warmly shaken
      ~being warmly shaken
      ~was warmly shaken
      }

_____ as the sun crept over his pillow, he yawned, sat up and perceived that another day that arrived {
      ~Waking
      ~Having woken
      ~Woken
      }

Stella stood openly _____ with the look of one for whom the ordinary rules did not apply {
      ~waiting
      ~having waited
      ~waited
      }

_____ with sympathy, _____ the play of light upon those clean-cut features, Stephen was conscious of a deep surge of affection for his brother {
      ~Listening, watching
      ~Having listened, watching
      ~Listened, watched
      }

One evening in the following spring Apothecary Hay, _____ up his shop, took his customary stroll towards the road {
      ~having shut

~being shut

~shut

}

_____ his bag, Manson leaped from the train and walked quickly down the platform, _____ eagerly for some sign of welcome {

~Gripping, searching

~Having gripped, having searched

~Gripped, searched

}

I was sitting in a café, _____ a newspaper {

~reading

~having read

~read

}

I wandered about _____ at the pictures I knew so well and let my fancy play idly at the emotions they suggested {

~looking

~having looked

~looked

}

_____ back to the first page he wrote at the top: "Ballet Shoes" {

~Turning

~Having turned

~Turned

}

"Why did you invite Barry?" Gil Tullock asked, _____ {

~reddening

~having reddened

~reddened

}

A moment later the other sailor climbed beside him, then both stood idly _____ and _____ {

~smoking, talking

~Having smoked, talked

~Smoked, talked

}

She felt as if she could sit there all through the night _____ out into the cool, dark street {

~looking

~having looked

~looked

}

_____ in front of the house, she put her hands to her mouth in trumpet form and shouted: "I! I! I! Sally!" {
    ~Having arrived
    ~Arriving
    ~Arrived
    }

Charles, as if _____ that even then I might back off and drive away, came purposefully out of his front door and strode across the gravel {
    ~sensing
    ~having sensed
    ~sensed
    }

He peered at her, _____ {
    ~blinking
    ~having blinked
    ~blinked
    }

He got up out of his seat and walked over and stood in front of Janet and Mary, _____ down at them {
    ~looking
    ~having looked
    ~looked
    }

He writes a long letter to his critic, _____ him he is very sorry he thought his book was bad {
    ~telling
    ~having told
    ~told
    }

He liked to hear his children _____ {
    ~praised
    ~praising
    ~having praised
    }

I heard these topics _____ between the scientists for years {
    ~argued
    ~arguing
    ~having argued
    }

Although Harold knew the facts so well he felt himself _____ away by the rising current of excitement in the air {
    ~carried
    ~carrying
    ~having carried
    }

With satisfaction Simon saw his friend's face _____ {
    ~relaxed
    ~relaxing
    ~having relaxed
    }

He felt himself _____ to bring this action {
    ~compelled
    ~compelling
    ~having compelled
    }

She has found me _____; but I found her _____ {
    ~unaltered, changed
    ~having unaltered, having changed
    ~unaltered, changing
    }

About an hour had passed when he heard the key softly _____, and the door _____ {
    ~turned, opened
    ~having turned, having opened
    ~turning, opening
    }

_____ at the edge of the pond he stood, _____ another water-lily _____ since yesterday {
    ~Arrived, noting, opened
    ~Arriving, noting, opening
    ~Arrived, noted, opened
    }

Hester, suppose you were to find yourself _____ from the faculty? {
    ~discharged
    ~discharging
    ~to discharge
    }

Hope felt the bag _____ away from her {
    ~drawn
    ~drawing

~to draw
}

Test8.

I avoid _____ in the rush hour whenever possible {
      ~travelling
      ~to travel
      ~travel
      }

Can you imagine Jemima _____ that dress! {
      ~wearing
      ~to wear
      ~wear
      }

In 'Hamlet' the prince discovers Polonius _____ behind the curtains {
      ~hiding
      ~to hide
      ~hide
      }

The doctor advised _____ a course of antibiotics {
      ~taking
      ~to take
      ~take
      }

The doctor advised him _____ a course of antibiotics {
      ~to take
      ~taking
      ~take
      }

She's decided _____ for the job {
      ~to apply
      ~applying
      ~apply
      }

He doesn't really expect her _____ the exam {
      ~to pass
      ~passing
      ~pass
      }

We spent ages waiting for them _____ {
    ~to arrive
    ~arriving
    ~arrive
    }

They forced us _____ our suitcases {
    ~to open
    ~opening
    ~open
    }

I can't stand _____ animals in pain {
    ~to see/seeing
    ~see/seeing
    ~to see/seen
    }

He wanted to start _____ lessons {
    ~taking
    ~to take
    ~take
    }

When we get there I would like _____ a nap {
    ~to take
    ~taking
    ~take
    }

Because of my weight problem I like _____ to the gym at least twice a week {
    ~to go
    ~going
    ~go
    }

Do you remember _____ to school for the first time? {
    ~going
    ~to go
    ~go
    }

I'll never forget _____ him {
    ~meeting
    ~to meet
    ~meet
    }

I must remember _____ to set my alarm clock tonight {
          ~to set
          ~setting
          ~set
          }

Don't forget _____ the back door {
          ~to lock
          ~locking
          ~lock
          }

They went on _____ despite the bad weather {
          ~playing
          ~to play
          ~play
          }

After opening the hospital the Prince went on _____ the staff {
          ~to meet
          ~meeting
          ~meet
          }

This new job means _____ abroad {
          ~living
          ~to live
          ~live
          }

The builders mean _____ by Friday {
          ~to finish
          ~finishing
          ~finish
          }

I really regret _____ that tattoo when I was eighteen {
          ~getting
          ~to get
          ~get
          }

We regret _____ you of delays in today's service {
          ~to inform
          ~informing
          ~inform
          }

They stopped _____ fax machines about ten years ago {
   ~making
   ~to make
   ~make
   }

We stopped _____ petrol {
   ~to get
   ~getting
   ~get
   }

Try _____ a screwdriver to get the lid off {
   ~using
   ~to use
   ~use
   }

We tried _____ tickets but the show was sold out {
   ~to get
   ~getting
   ~get
   }

As I walked past the church I heard someone _____ Handel's 'Messiah' on the organ {
   ~playing
   ~to play
   ~play
   }

I saw a young mother _____ her child {
   ~slapping
   ~to slap
   ~slap
   }

We saw a young mother _____ her child in the supermarket {
   ~slap
   ~slapping
   ~to slap
   }

Last week I heard them _____ the fifth symphony {
   ~play
   ~playing
   ~to play
   }

The young mother was seen _____ her child {
        ~to slap
        ~slapping
        ~slap
        }

The man _____ upstairs is very noisy {
        ~living
        ~live
        ~to live
        }

The portrait _____ by my brother was lovely {
        ~painted
        ~painting
        ~paint
        }

The house which we _____ in is over a century old {
        ~live
        ~living
        ~lived
        }

The man who Trudy was _____ to has disappeared {
        ~engaged
        ~engaging
        ~engage
        }

Not _____ qualified, she will be unable to answer your questions {
        ~being
        ~to be
        ~been
        }

Not _____ asked, I didn't really want to interfere {
        ~having been
        ~being
        ~been
        }

_____ gently, the fabric should last for years {
        ~Treated
        ~Treating
        ~To treat
        }

The corporation shut down the plant, _____ many workers unemployed {
~leaving
~leave
~left
}

_____ the corner, we saw the hospital in front of us {
~Turning
~To turn
~Turn
}

_____ the motorway, we noticed an overturned truck on the verge {
~Leaving
~Leave
~To leave
}

_____ off the lights, I turned over and buried my head in the pillow {
~Switching
~Switch
~To switch
}

_____ my driving test, I was able to buy my first car {
~Having passed
~Passed
~To pass
}

_____ to take my keys, I had to borrow a set from my landlord {
~Having forgotten
~Forgotten
~To forget
}

The tax bill will be the first item to be _____ in the next parliament {
~debated
~debate
~debating
}

Their proposal was the first one to be _____ at yesterday's planning meeting {
~debated
~debate
~debating
}

Not _____ sooner is his greatest regret {
  ~to have acted
  ~acting
  ~to act
  }

Her greatest claim to fame is _____ for the last Olympic squad {
  ~to have been chosen
  ~to have chosen
  ~to be chosen
  }

The youngest person _____ the programme was just fourteen {
  ~to enter
  ~enter
  ~entering
  }

The window seat is usually the first one _____ {
  ~to be taken
  ~to take
  ~taken
  }

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* [yunéskow] from *United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization*; *emcee* from *'master of ceremonies'*; *radar* from *'radio direction and ranging'*; *scuba* (diving) from *'self contained underwater breathing apparatus'*; *Gestapo* from *German Geheime Staatspolizei 'secret state's police'*. Acronym also refers to abbreviations where the letters are spelled out: *ASAP 'as soon as possible'*, *CD 'compact disc'*, *DJ 'disc jockey'*, *VCR* from *'video cassette recorder'* **Adjective** – a part of speech used to describe or qualify a noun either as a subordinate member of a noun phrase or predicatively.

3. **Allophone,** a variant of a phoneme which does not discriminate the phonemic structure of words.

4. **Amalgamation** (sometimes also misleadingly referred to as agglutination), the fusion of two or more words occurring in a phrase into a single word with a more idiomatic meaning; for example, English *never the less > nevertheless*; German *nicht desto weniger > nichtdestoweniger* 'nonetheless'; Spanish *tan poco > tampoco* 'neither'.

5. **Analogy,** a process whereby one form of a language becomes more like another with which it is somehow associated; that is, analogical change involves a relation of similarity in which one piece of a language changes to become more like another pattern in that language when speakers perceive the changing part as similar to the pattern which it changes to become like. For example, earlier English *brethren 'brothers'* changed to *brothers,* with *brother/brothers* coming in line with the pattern of many nouns that have **-s** plurals as in *sister/sisters, mother/mothers, son/sons* etc.

6. **Analytical grammar meanings** are those which are expressed outside the word form (word order, functional words, link and auxiliary verbs).

7. **Anglo-Saxon English** developed in England as a consequence of the Anglo-Saxons invasions in the 5th century and is often accordingly referred to as **Anglo-Saxon;** however, its oldest extant form, found in texts from the 7th century, is generally called **Old English.**

8. **Anglo-Saxons,** the Germanic peoples who settled the British Isles beginning in the 5th and 6th centuries A.D. and who spoke Old English. Conquered by the Normans in 1066, they were gradually absorbed into the Norman French-speaking population.

9. **Anthropomorphy**, transference of the name of a certain art of the human body on an inanimate object.

10. **Antonomasia**, metaphoric transition of proper names into common ones to denote a person possessing the characteristic features of the original bearer of the name.

11. **Archaism**, a word which is no longer in general use but not absolutely obsolete.

12. **Assimilation**, a partial or total conformation to the phonetical, graphical and morphological standards of the receiving language and its semantic system.

13. **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (the **King James Bible),** an important event which contributed greatly to English in the way of idiomatic expressions was the first **Authorized Version** of the **Bible** (also known as the **King James Bible**), published in 1611. Its verbal beauty and status as that by which all subsequent Bible translations in English have been measured set it apart as an acclaimed landmark in the evolution of the English language.

14. **Bede, Venerable** [*the*] of Northumbria (673-735) lived in a monastery all his life, teaching and writing. He wrote on problems of science, such as geography, astrology, climate, seasons, etc. Bede also wrote on orthography, metrics and rhetoric. His greatest work was the Latin *"Historia Ecclesiastica Gentis Anglorum"*, the crowning work of his life, written in Latin and completed four years before his death. This work was translated a century and a half later by **King Alfred.**

15. **Borrowing**, resorting to the word-stock of other languages for words to express new concepts, to further differentiate the existing concepts and to name new objects, phenomena, etc.

16. **Borrowings** are words which came to English from other languages.

17. **Bound morphemes**, those which cannot occur alone (i.e. are not words).

18. **Brothers Grimm** (Jacob Grimm (1785-1863) and Wilhelm Grimm (1786-1859), the German linguists, lexicographers and folklorists. They collected stories of the German people into well-known volumes of fairy tales. Brothers Grimm produced the major historical dictionary of the German language. Jacob Grimm formulated the sound relationships for Indo-European languages that come to be known as **Grimm's Law.**

19. **Catachresis**, misusage of the original meaning of one of the stems of the compound word.

20. **Cædmon** (c. late 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**) which is available for a language, the choice and mastery of a particular medium of expression (usually handwriting or typing) and the product which emerges (the piece of writing or composition).

155. **Zoozemy**, metaphoric usage of names of animals to denote human beings.

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 **ȝe-**.
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 ʿchanged to, becomes, developed intoʾ
<   stands for ʿchanged from, derived from, developed fromʾ
*   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	*ModE, MnE* – Modern English
adj. – adjective	*ModF, MnF* – Modern French
AN – Anglo-Norman	*ModG, MnG* – Modern German
arch. – archaic	*n.* – neuter gender
adv. – adverb	*negat.* – negative
anom. – anomalous	*nom.* – nominative
art. – article	*num.* – numeral
borr. fr. – borrowed from	*ODa.* – Old Danish
c. – century; circa	*OE* – Old English
cf. – confer, compare	*OF* – Old French
coll. – collective	*OFr.* – Old Frisian
comp. – comparative	*OHG* – Old High German
conj. – conjunction	*OLG* – Old Low German

cons. – consonantal (root) declension

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

ON – Old Norse

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

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

ābreʒdan, *sv. 4* – to tear away; **breʒdan** (*s.*)

ābroʒden, – *ptple of* ābreʒdan

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**

ādrēōʒan – *s.* **drēōʒan**

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.* **onʒean**

āʒan, *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.*)

andʒit, *n. n. a* – understanding, intellect, knowledge; and, *prp.* + ʒit/ʒitan, ʒietan (*s.*

      beʒietan)

andʒytfullic, *adj.* – clearly understood, meaningful; andʒyt (*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-ʒeblond, *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* ariuer ‖ *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-smēaʒean, āsmēade, āsmēad, *wv.2* – to consider, reflect, examine; ā + smēaʒean; *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.* **astīʒan**

– **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

āstīʒan, *sv. 1* – to climb up, ascend; s. **stīʒan**

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 + weʒ (*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

ǣʒþer, *pron.* – either, each, both; *ME* either, aither; (ā-ʒihwæþer)

ǣʒðer…ʒe… ʒe…, *conj.* – both…and

ǣʒhwǣm, *pron.* – *dat. pl. of* æʒhwā (æʒ-any – hwā) – any

ǣʒhwylc, *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.* **ǣr, dæʒ**

ǣrest, *adv.* – first, earliest; *superl. of* ǣr (*s.*)

ǣrfe, *n., adj.* – inheritance; heritable ‖ *cf.* yrfe – cattle, property ‖ *OHG* erbi ‖ *ON* arft ‖ *Lat.* orbus – orphan

ǣrfenuma, *n. m. n.* – heir; ærfe (*s.*) + numa; *rel. to* niman, *ptple II*

ǣrfeuard, *n. m. a* – heir; ærfe (*s.*) + weard, ward = guard, guardian

ǣrist – *s.* **ǣrest**

ǣrlīc, *adj.* – early; ǣr (*s.*) + līc

ǣrnan – *s.* **iernan**

ǣrðe – 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 ‖ *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 ‖ *Gth.* 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 ‖ *Gth.* dauþs ‖ *OHG* tōt ‖ *MnG* tot

dēaþ, *m. n. a* – death; *ME* deþ ‖ *Gth.* 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.* dÿde, *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

Ʒ, G

gān, *irr. suppl. v.* – eode, ʒegān – to go; *ME* gon, goon, gan ‖ *OHG* gān ‖ *MnG* gehen

ʒē , *prn.* – you; *ME* yee, ye ‖ *Gth.* jus ‖ *OS* gi, ge ‖ *OFr.* gi ‖ *OHG* ir

ʒē … ʒē, *conj.* – both ... and; and ‖ *OS* ge, gi

ʒear, *n. n. a* – year; *ME* yere, yer, yeer ‖ *Gth.* jēr ‖ *OHG* jār ‖ *MnG* Jahr

ʒebēorscipe, *n. m. a* – feast

ʒebīdan—*s.* **bidan**

ʒeboʒen—*s.* **ʒebūʒan**

ʒebūʒan, *sv, 2* – to submit

ʒebyran, *wv. 1* – 1) to happen by chance; 2) *impers.* – it is suitable, fitting; It becomes; *ME* birrþ, burde, bird ‖ *OHG* gaburjan ‖ *MnG* gebühren

ʒecnāwan, *sv. 7* – to know, perceive, understand; *ME* cnowen, gecnowen, iknawe ‖ *ON* knācan ‖ *Lat.* novi < *gnovi; *fr.* noscere, cognoscere ‖ *Russ.* знать ‖ *Ukr.* знати

ʒedȳdon – *s.* **ʒedōn**

ʒedōn, *irr. v.* – to do, perform, reach; *s.* **dōn**

ʒedrync, *n. n. a* – drinking; *s.* **drincan**

ʒefeaht – *s.* **feohtan**

ʒeftieman, *wv. 1* –to cause to flee, drive away

ӡehawian, *wv.* 2 – to look at, observe

ӡehētan – *s.* **hātan**

ӡemǣne, *adj.* – common, general

ӡemynd, *n. f. i* – mind, memory, remembrance; *ME* minde, ӡeminde ‖ *Gth.* gamunds ‖ *OHG* gimunt ‖ *Lat.* mentem (mens) ‖ *Russ.* память ‖ *Ukr.* пам'ять ‖ *cf.* ӡemunan

ӡemunan, *v. prt.-prs., prs. t.* ӡeman – to think of, remember; *ME* imunen; *s.* **ӡemynd**

ӡenoh, ӡenog, *adj., adv.* – enough, sufficient; *ME* inoh, enowe ‖ *Gth.* ganohs ‖ *OHG* ginuog ‖ *MnG* genug ‖ *OS* ginog ‖ *OS* gnogr

ӡeo, ӡio, ӡiu, *adv.* – formerly of old, before; *Gth.* ju ‖ *OHG* giu

ӡeoguþ, ӡioguþ, ӡeogaþ, juguþ, *n. f. ō* – youth; young people; *ME* youthe ‖ *Gth.* junda ‖ *OHG* jugund ‖ *MnG* Jugend ‖ *Lat.*juventa ‖ *Russ.* юность ‖ *Ukr.* юність

ӡeond, ӡiond, *prp.* – through, beyond, among, across; *ME* ӡeond, yond, yend, yonder ‖ *Gth.* jaind ‖ *MLG* gent, jint

ӡeong, jung, *adj.* – young; *ME* young, yunge, yenge ‖ *Gth.* juggsj ‖ *OHG* jung ‖ *Lat.* juvenis ‖ *Russ.* юный ‖ *Ukr.* юний

ӡeorn, *adj.,* **ӡeorne,** *adv.* – eagerf(ly), diligent(ly), willing(ly); *ME* yeme, yeorne ‖ *Gth.* gairns ‖ *OHG* gern, gerni ‖ *MnG* gern

ӡeornfulie, *adv.* – willingly, eagerly; *s.* **ӡeorn + full + e**

ӡēre – *s.* **ӡear**

ӡereord, *n .n. a* – language, speech; *rel. to* rǣdan, *sv.* 7, *p.t.* reord – to read

ӡerīpan, *sv. 1* – to reap; *ME* repen, ripen

ӡesǣliӡ, sǣliӡ, *adj.* – happy, prosperous; *ME* i-sæle, seely ‖ *MnE* silly ‖ *OHG* sālig ‖ *MnG* selig

ӡesæliӡlic, *adj.* – happy

ӡeseon – *s,* **seon**

ӡewāt – *s.* **ӡewitan**

ӡeweorc, *n. n. a* – work; fortress; fort; *Gth.* gawaurk ‖ *OHG* giwerk ‖ *rel. to* wyrcan (s.)

ӡewītan, *sv. 1* – to go; *ME* iwiten

ӡiefan, *sv. 4* – *to* give; *ME* yiven, yeven, given ‖ *Gth.* giban ‖ *OHG* geban ‖ *MnG* geben ‖ *ON.* geba

ӡiefu, ӡlfu, ӡeofu, *n. f. ō* – gift; *ME* gifu, geve, yeve ‖ *Gth.* giba ‖ *OHG* geba ‖ *OS* geba ‖ *OFr.* jeve ‖ *ON* gjōf

ӡieman, ӡyman, *wv, 1* – to take care of ‖ *Gth.* gaumjan ‖ *OHG* goumon

ӡyf, ӡif, *conj.* – if; *ME* yif, if ‖ *Gth.* ibai, iba ‖ *OHG* oba ‖ *MnG* ob

ӡymen, *n. f. ō* – care, solicitude; *ret. to* ӡyman, ӡieman (s.)

ӡynge, *adj.* – *s.* **ӡeong**

ӡiond – *s.* **ӡeond**

ӡisel, ӡysel, *n. m. a/i* – hostage; *ME* yisles *(pl.)* ‖ *OHG* kisal ‖ *MnG* Geisel

ӡlæd, *adj.* – glad, joyful, bright; *ME glad* ‖ *OHG* glat ‖ *MnG* glatt rel. to *Lat.* glaber – smooth

ӡleow, gleo, gliӡ, *n. n. a* – glee, joy, music; *ME* gleo, gleu, gle – gnawen, a. – gnaw

ӡod, *n. m. a* – god, deity; *ME* god ‖ *Gth.* guþ, got ‖ *MnG* Gott

ʒōd, *adj.* – good; *ME* god, good ‖ *Gth.* gōþs, gōds ‖ *OHG* guot ‖ *MnG* gut

godcund, *adj.* – sacred, divine; *ME* godcund ‖ *OHG* gotchundl ‖ *OS* godkund ‖ *s.* **ʒod, cunnan**

ʒrētan, *wv. 1* – to greet, call, welcome, bid farewell, approach, visit; *ME* greten, grætan ‖ *OHG* gruossanf ‖ *MnG* grüssen

ʒuma, *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

halʒa, *n. m. a* – saint; *ME* halwe; *MnE* in All Hallows' Day

hāliʒ *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

hǣlo, hǣlu, *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.* aȝ

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

mǣd, *n. f. wo.* – **mǣdwe** – 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

mǣnan, *wv. 1* – to tell of , to declare, relate

maniȝfealdic, *adj.* – manifold; meniȝ, maniȝ + *suff.* ~ feald + -līc

maniȝ, moniȝ, mǣneȝ, *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

mǣnan, *wv. 1* – to tell of , to declare, relate

mǣrdo, *n. f. o.* – dreatness, honour, glory

mǣst – *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.* **mǣd, mǣdwe**

   – **mehti** – *s.* **miht**, *n.*

mehton – *s.* **maʒan**

   – **meʒnee, 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.* **ʒemǣne**

   – **menen**, *v.* – to mean; *s.* **mǣnan**

mengan, *wv. 1* – to mix, mingle; *ME* mengen, meynen ‖ *OHG* mengan ‖ *MnG* mengen ‖ *OS* mengian ‖ *OFr.* mengin

   – **menʒe** – *s.* **meʒnee**

meniʒu, 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, nāʒht, nauʒht, *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

pleʒa, *n. m. n* – play, game, fight; *ME* pleʒe, pleye; *s.* **pleʒian**

plōʒ, *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, rǣdiʒ, ʒerǣde, *adj.* – ready, prompt; *ME* readiʒ, 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

sǣʒon – sēon

sǣl – *s.* **sēl, sǣliʒ**

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

sceaʒa, *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, scēawiʒan, *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* ʒeþēode); *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

þritiʒ, *num.* – thirty; þrēo (*s.*) + suff. -tiʒ

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

underჳeat – *s.* **underჳietan**

underჳietan, **underჳetan,** *sv. 5* – to understand, perceive

unlifiჳend, *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

unspēdiჳ, *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

ūtbrinჳan, *v. irr.* – to bring out; *s.* **ūt + brinჳan**

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

weჳ, *n. m. a* – way; on weჳ – 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* windoȝe; *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, *adj.* – 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

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INDEX

Key to Self-Study Tests

Check your answers to the exercises in the **Self-Study** tests.

SELF-STUDY TEST 1

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. T	1. D	1. B
2. T	2. A	2. A
3. F	3. B	3. C
4. T	4. D	4. F
5. F	5. A	5. G
6. F	6. C	6. H
7. T	7. B	7. I
8. T	8. A	8. J
9. F	9. B	9. E
10. T	10. C	10. D

SELF-STUDY TEST 2

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. F	1. A	1. E
2. T	2. C	2. G
3. T	3. A	3. J
4. T	4. C	4. C
5. F	5. A	5. A
6. T	6. C	6. D
7. F	7. B	7. B
8. F	8. A	8. F
9. T	9. C	9. I
10. T	10. D	10. H

SELF-STUDY TEST 3

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. T	1. B	1. B
2. T	2. A	2. J
3. F	3. C	3. D
4. F	4. B	4. F
5. F	5. D	5. I
6. T	6. A	6. C
7. T	7. C	7. A
8. T	8. B	8. E

9. F	**9. D**	**9. H**
10. F	**10. C**	**10. G**

SELF-STUDY TEST 4

True / False	
1. F	**6. T**
2. T	**7. F**
3. F	**8. F**
4. F	**9. T**
5. T	**10. T**

SELF-STUDY TEST 5

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. T	**1. C**	**1. G**
2. F	**2. D**	**2. D**
3. T	**3. A**	**3. F**
4. T	**4. B**	**4. H**
5. F	**5. A**	**5. B**
6. T	**6. A**	**6. A**
7. F	**7. D**	**7. C**
8. T	**8. A**	**8. E**
9. T	**9. B**	**9. J**
10. T	**10. A**	**10. I**

SELF-STUDY TEST 6

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. T	**1. A**	**1. E**
2. T	**2. C**	**2. C**
3. F	**3. C**	**3. G**
4. T	**4. A**	**4. I**
5. T	**5. C**	**5. D**
6. F	**6. A**	**6. B**
7. T	**7. B**	**7. A**
8. T	**8. B**	**8. F**
9. F	**9. D**	**9. J**
10. F	**10. D**	**10. H**

SELF-STUDY TEST 7

True / False	Multiple choice	Matching
1. T	**1. A**	**1. D**

2. F	**2. B**	**2. G**
3. T	**3. C**	**3. E**
4. F	**4. C**	**4. H**
5. F	**5. B**	**5. A**
6. T	**6. A**	**6. C**
7. F	**7. B**	**7. B**
8. F	**8. A**	**8. F**
9. T	**9. A**	**9. I**
10. F	**10. C**	**10. J**

SELF-STUDY TEST 8

True / False	
1. T	**11. T**
2. T	**12. T**
3. F	**13. F**
4. F	**14. F**
5. F	**15. T**
6. F	**16. T**
7. T	**17. F**
8. T	**18. T**
9. F	**19. T**
10. T	**20. T**

МАТКОВСЬКА Марія Василівна

AN INTRODUCTION TO MIDDLE AND EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

Навчально-методичний посібник

видання 10-е, виправлене і доповнене