Матковська М.В.

# AN INTRODUCTION TO MIDDLE AND EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

**Навчальний посібник**

***видання 6-те стереотипне***

**Кам'янець-Подільський**
**2020**

**УДК 811.111.04(075.8)**
**М 33**

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*Друкується за ухвалою вченої ради*
*Кам'янець-Подільського національного університету імені Івана Огієнка*
*(протокол №7 від 27.06.2014)*

Матковська М.В.
М 33 **An Introduction to Middle and Early Modern English** : Навчальний посібник / М.В. Матковська. – 6-те видан. стереотипне – Кам'янець-Подільський: ФОП Буйницький О.А., 2020. – 224 с.

**ISBN 978-617-608-055-8**

Навчальний посібник спрямований на формування у студентів 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 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 студентів з історії англійської мови.

Для студентів-філологів вищих навчальних закладів.

УДК 811.111.04(075.8)

ISBN 978-617-608-055-8

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# PREFACE

*In memory of Professor Oleksandr D. Oguy*

*"... 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 Modern 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.

My best thanks are to **Professor Nina G. Ischenko** Ph.D., D.Sc. (NTUU *"Kyiv Polytechnic Institute"*) for reviewing the manuscript and offering useful advice and remarks.

I owe a great debt to **Professor Valery V. Mykhailenko**, Ph.D., D.Sc. (*Bukovinian State University of Finance and Economics*) for his constructive remarks on draft of the material that were very beneficial in improving the manuscript. Thanks to Professor Valery V. Mykhailenko, the SELF-STUDY activities in e-learning have been successfully practised at our university.

I am very grateful to **Associate Professor Victoria R. Lichkevich**, my best friend and colleague, for her constant help, continued support and encouragement.

I would like to thank **TA Oleksandr Pushkar** and **Yulya Domitrak** for their willingness to assist during the writing of this book.

And I would like to thank **my students** who have helped me improve the way of teaching, especially those who took the course of history of English in 2010–2014 and happily submitted to testing the SELF-STUDY activities in e-learning.

# 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 students 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 149–163.

***Additional:***

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

## Introduction

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

## 1.1. 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 language 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 ascendancy of Danish kings over the English throne. During the four years 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 have 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.

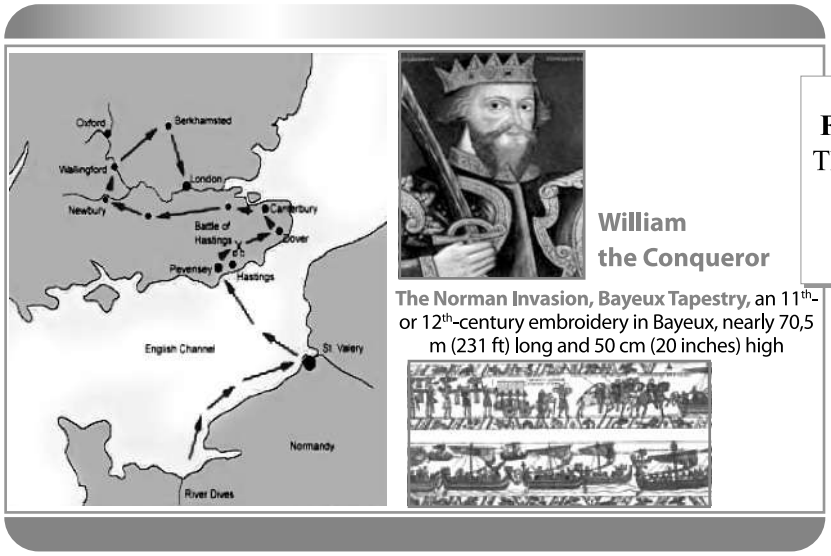



**Figure 1.1.** The Norman Conquest of 1066

## 1.2. The Norman Conquest of 1066 and its Influence on English Culture and Life

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

> *"Thus came, lo, England into Normandy's hand: and the Normans then knew how to speak only their own language, and spoke French as they did at home, and also had their children taught it, so that noblemen of this land, that come of their stock, all keep to the same speech that they received from them; for unless a man knows French, people make little account of him. But low men keep to English and to their own language still. I think that in the whole world there are no countries that do not keep their own language, except England alone. But people know well that it is good to master both, because the more a man knows the more honoured he is"* (Schama, 2000: 115).

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: Singh (2005: 108) 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.: 111).

> *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 see became intimately associated with notions of distinctive national identity – a process in which French could have no role.*

## 1.3. The Decline of French

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

At the end of the 14th c. and at the beginning of the 15th c., English was practically established as the official language of records. The following historical events certify this process. King Henry V (1413–1422) proclaimed English as the official language. By 1423, records of Parliament 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, but an example 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).

## 1.4. 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 is derived from OE Kentish and South-Western is from OE West Saxon. Mercian was the OE antecedent of Midland (stretching from London to Gloucestershire), which is traditionally separated into East Midland and West Midland. Barber also distinguishes a sixth dialect, East Anglian, stating that texts from that particular area show marked differences from its neighbouring East Midlands variety (Barber, 2009: 147–250).

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 the Middle English dialects

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

Thus the year 1066 is the date of the Norman Conquest in England. The conquest symbolizes the beginning of a new social, cultural and linguistic era in Great Britain, i.e. the conventional transition from Old English to Middle English, the language spoken and written in England from the end of the 11th c. to the end of the 15th c. Undoubtedly French, as the language of conquerors, influenced English greatly. French or Norman French was immediately established as the dominant language of the ruling class. Strikingly but Anglo-Saxon dialects were not suppressed. During the following 300 years communication in England went on in three languages: 1) at the monasteries learning was conducted in **Latin**; 2) **Norman French** was spoken at court and in official institutions; 3) the common people held firmly to their **mother** tongue.

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

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

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

Traditionally linguists look for written evidence showing a level of literacy high enough to record sounds and forms that they can find many signs of ongoing changes. Both David Crystal and Seth Lerer assert that the Middle English period has a much richer documentation than Old English (D. Crystal's *The Stories of English,* 2004: 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 until 1131. 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 (Crystal, 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 (Crystal, 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.

## 1.5. 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.

**Geoffrey Chaucer** 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,* ***The Canterbury Tales****, became a herald of the Renaissance.*

*Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote*
*The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,*
*And bathed every veyne in swich licour*
*Of which vertu engendred is the flour;*
*Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth*
*Inspired hath in every holt and heeth*
*The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne*
*Hath in the Ram his half cours yronne,*
*And smale foweles maken melodye,*
*That slepen al the nyght with open ye*
*(So priketh hem nature in hir corages),*
*Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,*
*And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,*
*To ferne halwes, folk to 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'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-Norman** literature of the 11th–13th centuries. reflected the complicated linguistic situation quite faithfully: church literature was in Latin, chivalric poetry was for the most part in French while folklore 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 Carta*), 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).

## 1.6. 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 folklore 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 its and in a standard's relationship between 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, 1995. – P. 30–39.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam/Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 111–117.
- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 2–5.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 16–21.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 149–163.

***Additional:***

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – 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 … picture of the history of the English language of that time.
**A** trilingual
**B** bilingual
**C** polylingual
**D** multilingual

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

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

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

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

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

# 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:



### 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"* |

2

## Recommended Literature

***Obligatory:***

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* – Holyheard, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 184–200.

***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. Loanwords first retained their original stress, but gradually they were assimilated to the English system of word stress. Though there are cases when loanwords 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 (Horobin, 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 (11$^{th}$–13$^{th}$ 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**, **ȝ**. 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 *wi**þ***, ME *wi**th***;
OE *fi**sc***, ME *fi**sh***;
OE ***c**in*, ME ***ch**in*;
OE *ni**h**t*, ME *ni**gh**t*;
OE *e**c3***, ME *e**dg**e*;
OE *lo**c***, ME *lo**ck***;
OE *g**æ**st*, ME ***gu**est*;
OE *c**w**ēn*, ME ***qu**een*;
OE *h**ū**s*, ME *h**ou**s*, ModE *house*;
OE *n**ū***, ME *n**ow***.

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 **[dʒ]** and **[s]** before front vowels and for **[g]** and **[k]** before back vowels.

E.g. ME ***g**entil* [**dʒ**en´til], *mer**c**y* [mer´**s**i] and ***g**ood* [**g**o:d], ***c**ours* [**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 *sw**ē**t*, ME *sw**ee**t*, ModE *sw**ee**t*;
OE *3**ō**d*, ME *g**oo**d*, ModE *g**oo**d*.

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

E.g. ME *ch**ie**f* < OF *ch**e**f*; ME *dec**ei**ven* (ModE *dec**ei**ve*) < OF *dec**e**veir*. 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 *b**y**si3*, ME *b**u**sy*.

The corresponding long vowel was usually marked **ui**.

E.g. OE *f**ȳ**r*, ME *f**ui**r*, ModE *fire*.

The letter **y** came to denote the sounds **[i]** and **[j]**.

E.g. OE *h**i**s*, ME *h**i**s*, *h**y**s*;
OE *d**æ**3*, ME *da**y***.

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 c**ō**c, 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**ē**pan]. It became necessary to employ the letter **k** in similar cases, e.g. ***k**eepen*, (ModE *keep*), *king*.

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

E.g. OE *bō**c***, ME *boo**k***;

OE ***c**nāwan*, ME ***k**nowen*, ModE ***k**now*.

Sometimes after short consonants the sound **[k]** was denoted by the digraph **ck**, e.g. OE *b**æ**c*, ME *ba**ck***.

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 the 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 the 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. *sun**r*** – OE *sun**u*** (ModE *son*);

OSc. *ox**e*** – OE *ox**a*** (ModE *ox*);

OSc. *tīm**e*** – OE *tīm**a*** (ModE *time*);

Osc. *bind**a*** – OE *bind**an*** (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 *stand**a**n* > ME *stand**e**n* (ModE *stand*);

OE *sun**u*** > ME *son**e*** (ModE *son*);

OE *seof**o**n* > ME *sev**e**n* (ModE *seven*).

The leveling of endings is a feature so peculiar 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 En**ʒ**l**i**sc > ME Engl**i**sh (ModE English).

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

E.g. OE *for**ʒ**yfan*, ME *for**y**iven* (ModE *for**g**ive*);
OE *f**u**lfyllan*, ME *f**u**lfille(n)*, (ModE *f**u**lfill*);
OE ***ā**risan*, ME ***a**rise(n)*, (ModE ***a**rise*);
OE *b**e**foran*, ME *b**i**fore(n)*, (ModE *b**e**fore*).

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

E.g. OE *fol**ʒ**ian*, ME *folwen* > *fol**o**we(n)*, (ModE *foll**o**w*);
OE *bor**ʒ**ian*, ME *borwen* > *bor**o**we(n)*, (ModE *borr**o**w*).

Unstressed long vowels were shortened in ME, e.g. OE *-dōm* (as in *frēodōm*, *cynin**ʒ**dōm*, *wīsdōm*) > ME *-dom* (*freed**o**m*, *kyngd**o**m*, *wisd**o**m*).

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 loanwords 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 was 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 k**ee**p* and a number of other verbs in Modern English: the shortened **e** in *k**e**pt* remains, while the long **e** of Middle English *k**ē**pen* became **[i:]** in ModE *keep*. It also accounts for the short vowel in the

first syllable of the numerals *fifteen* (OE *fīftēne*) and fifty (OE fīftig), 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 **qualitative**. **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 *d**ū**st*, *wīsdōm*, *c**ē**pte*, *m**ē**tte*, *f**ē**dde* > ME *d**u**st*, *w**i**sdom*, *k**e**pte* (ModE *kept*), *mette* (ModE *met*), *f**e**dde* (ModE *fed*).

*Cf.* OE *wīs*, *c**ē**pan*, *m**ē**tan*, *f**ē**dan* > ME *wīs* (ModE *wise*), *k**ē**pen* (ModE *keep*), *m**ē**ten* (ModE *meet*), *f**ē**den* (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* [ˊsuðərnə].

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 *t**a**lu* > ME *t**ā**le* (ModE *tale*);
OE *o**o**pen* > ME *ō**o**pen* (ModE *open*);
OE *e**e**tan* > ME *ē**e**tan* (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. *w**i**ke* > *w**ē**ke* (ModE *week*);
*b**i**tel* > *b**ē**tel* (ModE *beetle*);
*d**u**re* > *d**ō**re* (ModE *door*);
*w**u**de* > *w**ō**de* (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 *gr**a**ze* **[ei]** (OE *grasian*) – *gr**a**ss* **[a:]** (OE *græs*).

As a result of these changes too long syllables like *cēpt* became shorter, while too short syllables like ***e-*** in ***e**tan* 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 **ǭ** to denote the open **[ō]** and the symbol **ǭ̣** 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, **[ǭ]** being as a rule represented by the digraph **oo**, and **[ǭ̣]** 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 *ȝōd*, *sōna* > ME *good*, *sone* (ModE *good*, *soon*).

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

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: **[ę]** was represented by the digraph **ea** and **[ẹ]** 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 **[ę]** 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*, *dæȝ* > 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*, *lånȝ* →
- 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* [ˊfillən]
- written **u**, **ui** in the South-West *fullen* [ˊfyllən]
- **e**, **ē** in the South-East (Kent) *fellen* [ˊfellən]

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 **[ǣ]** were reduced to **[ę:]**.
OE **ēa** > ME **ǣ** > ME **ę̄**
E.g. OE *ēa**s**t*, *str**ēa**m*** > ME ***ee**st*, *str**ee**m*** (ModE *east*, *stream*).
OE **ea** > ME **æ** > ME **a**
E.g. OE ***ea**rm*, *h**ea**rd*** > ME ***a**rm*, *h**a**rd*.

**2.** OE **ēo** and **eo** gradually became **ę̄** and **e** respectively.
OE **ēo** > ME **ę̄**
E.g. OE *d**ēo**p*, *s**ēo**n*** > ME ***dee**p*, *s**ee*** (ModE *deep*, *see*).
OE **eo** > ME **e**
E.g. OE ***feo**r*, *d**eo**rc*** > ME ***fe**r*, *d**e**rk*** (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 *we**ʒ***, *se**ʒ**l*** > ME ***wey***, ***sei**l*** (ModE *way*, *sail*).
**2. [ai]** OE *dæ**ʒ***, *fæ**ʒ**r*** > ME ***day***, ***fai**r*** (ModE *day*, *fair*).
**3. [au]** OE *sa**ʒ**u*, *cl**aw**e*** > ME ***saw**(e)*, *cl**aw**(e)*** (ModE *saw*, *claw*).
**4. [ou]** OE *bo**ʒ**a*, *snā**w*** > ME ***bow**e*, *sn**ow*** (ModE *bow*, *snow*).
**5. [eu]** OE *dē**a**w*, *nē**o**we*** > ME ***dew***, ***new**e*** (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 [ɣ] (denoted by **ʒ**) > ME **[w]** (Comp. Russ. ero, where [**[ɣ]** > [в]).
E.g. OE *bo**ʒ**a*, *dra**ʒ**an*, *mor**ʒ**en*** > ME ***bow**e*, *dra**w**en*, *mor**w**en*** (ModE *bow*, *draw*, *morrow*).

**2.** Initial **[h]** was dropped before **r**, **I**, **n**.
E.g. OE ***h**rinʒ*, ***h**lāford*, ***h**nutu*** > 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 ***hw****æt* > ME → ***quh****at* in the North [xwat]
→ ***wh****at* 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 *dæʒ*, *seʒl*, ME *dai* (or *day*), *seil* (ModE *day*, *sail*).

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

OE **iʒ** > **ĭi** > **ī**, e.g. OE *māniʒ*, ME *many*.

OE **uʒ** > **uu** > **ū** e.g. OE *fuʒol*, ME *fowel*, *foul* [f**u**:l], (ModE *fowl*).

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

E.g. OE *brinʒan* > 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*** (**ʒ**, **cʒ**), ***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****dg****e*
*e****cg*** > *e****dg****e*

**[k', kk' > [t∫]**, e.g. ***c****ild* > ***ch****ild*
*cycen* > ***kich****en* (ModE *kitchen*)

**[sk'] > [∫]**, e.g. ***sc****ip* > ***sh****ip*
*fisc* > *fi****sh***

Thus, the English language came to possess the **affricates [t∫]**, **[dʒ]** and the simple **sibilant [∫]**, 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 **ę̄ [ɛ:]** (< OE **ǣ**, **ēa**) distinct from the long close **ę̄ [e:]** (in which OE **ē** and **ēo** had coincided), and the open **ǭ [ɔ:]** (< OE **ā**) distinct from the long close **ǭ [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 the 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 the 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, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 184–200.


***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 polysyllabic 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***, ***ý*** unrounded to ***ī*** in the North-East (including the East Midland dialect).
18. ME ***y***, ***ý*** 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 ***ý*** 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, Ȝ
**B** c, ð, Ȝ, w
**C** þ, Ȝ, s, a
**D** b, Ȝ, 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.** … 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 … 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 to … in Middle English.
**A** be lost
**B** be lengthened
**C** be weakened
**D** be inserted

**13.** /**y**/ and /**y:**/ unrounded to /…/ and /…:/ 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 /…/ in all dialects.
**A** /e/
**B** /e:/
**C** /a/
**D** / ɪ:/

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

**16.** Old English monophthongs … changed radically in ME.
**A** ā, æ, ǽ, 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 [ō] 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); dēth, OE dēaþ, (E death); wh*a*n, OE hwånne, (E when); stōn, OE stān, (E stone); *a*l, OE eal, (E all); b*e*sy, OE bysiʒ, (E busy); bę̄n, OE bēon, (E be); fē̄we, OE fēawe, (E few); brē̄ken, OE brecan, (E break); th*a*t, OE þæt, (E that); f*ī*r, OE fȳr, (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*ou*n, 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* 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.* 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** | l**a**nd, m**a**ken (E make), c**aa**s (E case) |
| **e** | **e** | dr**e**ss, b**e**d |
| **ē** | **e, ee, ie, ei** | h**e**, sw**ee**t, p**ie**ce, dec**ei**ven (E deceive) |
| **ę:** | **e, ee** | sp**e**ken (speak), br**ee**th (E breath) |
| **i, ī** | **i, y, ii** | **i**s, **y**s, l**i**f, l**y**f, l**ii**f (E life) |
| **o** | **o** | **o**n, l**o**ng |
| **ǭ** | **o, oo** | d**o**, d**oo**, b**oo**k |
| **ǭ** | **o, oo** | n**o**, r**oo**d, (E road), **oo**th (E oath) |
| **u** | **u, v, o** | **u**s, **v**p, (E up), c**o**men (E come) |
| **u:** | **ou, ow** | h**ou**s, (E house), n**ow** |
| **ə** | **e** | plac**e**, law**e** (E law) |
| **ü** | **u, ui** | j**u**st, fr**ui**t, b**ui**lde (E build) |
| **ai** | **ai, ay** | d**ay**, f**ai**len, (E fail) |
| **au** | **au, aw** | c**au**se, dr**aw**en (E draw) |
| **ei** | **ei, ey** | p**ei**ne (E pain), w**ey** (E way) |
| **eu** | **ew, u** | f**ew**e (E few), cr**u**el, cr**ew**el (E cruel) |
| **oi** | **oi, oy** | j**oi**e, j**oy**e (E joy) |
| **ou** | **ou, ow** | kn**ow**en (E know), s**ou**le (E soul) |

## 2. Consonants

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **b** | **b, bb** | **b**y, ru**bb**en (E to rub) |
| **p** | **p, pp** | **p**ite (E pity), ha**pp**en, cu**pp**e (E cup) |
| **d** | **d, dd** | **d**ee**d** (E dead), ha**dd**e (E had) |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **t** | **t, tt** | **t**yme, (E time), si**tt**en (E sit) |
| **g** | **g, gg** | **g**oon (E go), da**gg**ere (E dagger) |
| **k** | **c, k, kk, ck** | **c**allen (E call), spe**k**en (E speak), ne**kk**e, **c**o**ck** |
| **f** | **f, ff, ph** | **f**or, e**ff**ect, **ph**iloso**ph**ie (E philosophy) |
| **v** | **v, u** | he**v**y, he**u**y, (E heavy), **v**ertu (E virtue) |
| **s** | **s, ss, c, sc** | **s**moke, ky**ss**e (E kiss), pla**c**e, **sc**ience |
| **z** | **s, z** | bi**s**y (E busy), du**z**eyne (E dozen) |
| **h** | **h** | **h**elp, **h**alf |
| **x** (as in Russian **хлеб**) | **gh, h** | thou**gh**, my**gh**t (E might), ri**h**t (E right) |
| **ʃ** | **sch, ssh, sh** | fi**sch**, fi**ssh**, fi**sh** |
| **tʃ** | **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, condici**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 | **our** [u:r] | our [auə] |
| hoste | H**o**ste [hostə] | H**o**st [həust] |
| sey | s**ey**[sei] | saw |
| that | **tha**t [θat] | **tha**t [ðæt] |
| brighte | br**igh**te [br**ix**tə] | br**igh**t [br**ai**t] |
| sonne | s**on**ne [sunə] (o > [u], close to *n*, *m* or *v* | sun |
| ark | **a**rk [ark] | **a**rk [a:k] (ковчег) |
| artificial | artifi**ci**al [arti´fi**sj**əl] | artificial [ˌa:ti´fiʃəl] |
| day | d**ay** [dai] | d**ay** [dei] |
| had | h**a**d [had] | h**a**d [hæd], [həd], [əd], [d] |
| ronne | r**on**ne [runə] | r**u**n [rʌn] |
| fourthe | f**ourth**e [fu:rðə] | f**ourth** [fo:θ] |
| part | p**ar**t [part] | p**ar**t [pa:t] |
| and | **a**nd [and] | **a**nd [ænd], [ənd] |
| houre | h**ou**re [hu:r(ə)] | h**ou**r [auə] |
| more | m**o**re [mor(ə)] | m**o**re [mo:] |
| though | th**ough** [θu:x] | th**ough** [ðəu] |
| he | h**e** [he] | h**e** [hi:] |
| were | w**ere** [werə] | were [wə:], [wə] |
| depe | d**e**p**e** [depə] | d**ee**p [di:p] |
| expert | **ex**pert [eks´pert] | **exper**t [´ekspə:t] |
| lore | l**or**e [lorə] | l**or**e [lo:] |
| wiste | w**i**ste [wistə] | knew |
| was | w**a**s [was] | w**a**s [woz], [wəz], [wə] |
| the | th**e** [θe] | th**e** [ði:], [ði], [ðə] |
| eightetethe | **eigh**tet**eth**e [ex´teteðə] | **eigh**teenth [ˌei´ti:nθ] |
| of | **o**f [of] | **o**f [ov], [əv] |
| April | **A**pril [ap´ril] | **A**pril [´eipr(ə)l] |
| messager | messa**g**er [mesa**d´ʒ**(ə)r] | messen**g**er [´mes(ə)nd**ʒ**ə] |
| to | t**o** [to:] | t**o** [tu:], [tu], [tə] |
| May | M**ay** [mai] | M**ay** [mei] |

## SELF-STUDY 2

***Aims:***

- ✓ to review once again the sound changes within the phonemic system of Middle English with its relation to Modern 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 canterbury tales beginning
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FoBrmKmozNU

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

2.1.8. ME 7 stress
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

2.1.12. How to Speak Middle English – Special Characters
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bnMGUPSgRCQ

2.1.13. How To Speak Middle English – Part 2. – Consonants
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AUs4Ufo_GpM

## Recommended Literature

***Obligatory:***

- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* – Holyheard, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 184–200.

***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)**.
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 the Scandinavian influence.
6. 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)**.
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 [swe:tə, kni:f].
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 (ʒ, cʒ), 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*ę̄*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*ea*dy …
**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: …
**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**tə], s**on**ne [s**u**nə] (o > [u], artifi**ci**al [arti´fi**sj**əl], 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 **[dʒ, 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 *messager* [mesa**d´ʒ**(ə)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, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 220–294.
- ✓ 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 manifested 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 the 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* | *stōn**es**, car**es*** |
| **G.** *stōn**es**, car**es*** | *stōn**es**, car**es*** |

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.

The inflexion **-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] |
|---|---|---|
| *cal**f** – cal**v**es* | *kni**f**e – kni**v**es* | *ba**th** – ba**th**s* |
| *hal**f** – hal**v**es* | *li**f**e – li**v**es* | *pa**th** – pa**th**s* |
| *wol**f** – wol**v**es* | *wi**f**e – wi**v**es* | *mou**th** – mou**th**s* |

However, some nouns in ***-f***, ***-th*** have the voiceless consonant in the plural by analogy with the singular: ***beliefs***, ***proofs*** (a French loanword), ***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. PI. ***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 Modern 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*** (< OE ***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 the 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 goldfish 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

In Middle English a number of changes took place in the personal pronouns:

**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 ***hēo*** > ***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 ME 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*** is believed to have developed from OE ***sēo***, the feminine form of a demonstrative pronoun, which probably got mixed with ***hēo***.

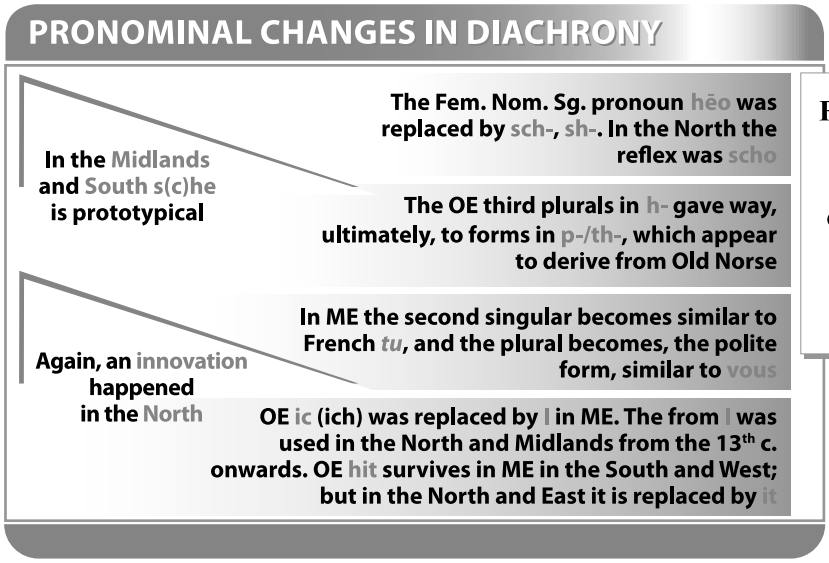



**Figure 3.1.** The evolution of the ME personal pronoun **she**

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 pronouns).

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 of 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 of 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. Development of the Non-Finite Forms of the 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 person 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) | | |

**Table 3.2.** The conjugation of the ME strong verb *'binde(n)'* – to bind

**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 person Pl. | loue(n) | loue(n) | loueth | All person Pl. | louede(n) | louede(n) |

**PARTICIPLES** *Present* louyng(e), *Past* (y)louede

**Table 3.3.** The conjugation of the ME weak verb *'love(n)'* – to love

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 **y-bathed** or **y-sungen** *bathed*, *sung*, OE **ʒe-** 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 smok*e ('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 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 (Singh, 2005: 120).

## 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 **inflection** 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 with another form of the same word or, which happens more frequently, with 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 (Horobin, 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 it was usual in Old English, the English language to an increasing extent expresses them **analytically**, that is by combining notional words with special forms of 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.

3

## 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 a 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.
- ✓ T. A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 220–295.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English language.* – Vinnitsa, 2004. – P. 118–143.

***Additional:***

- ✓ В.Д. Аракин. *История английского языка.* – М., 1985. – С. 123–153.
- ✓ 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 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 **C** syntactic
   **B** synthetic **D** combined

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

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

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

**III. Match** each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

**1.** Synchronic approach –
**2.** Internal linguistics –
**3.** Diachronic approach –
**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 an activity, a quality or an 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 an 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.

## 2.3. 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* bodiȝ; *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*)

**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)*

### *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* secʒan, *wv. 3*; *Gth.* sagen; *OHG* sagen
**but –** but; *OE* būton (*prp.*)
**part –** part (< *OF* < *Lat.* pars, partis)
**pleyen –** to play; *OE* pleʒian, *wv. 2*; *OHG* pflegen
**greven –** to grieve (< *OF* grever < *Lat.* gravāre)



## 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

## Recommended Literature

***Obligatory:***


- ✓ David Crystal. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language.* – Cambridge, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 220–294.
- ✓ 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

## 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 the 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 the 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 the 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, wheras 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 the 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, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–306.
- ✓ 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 loanwords 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.

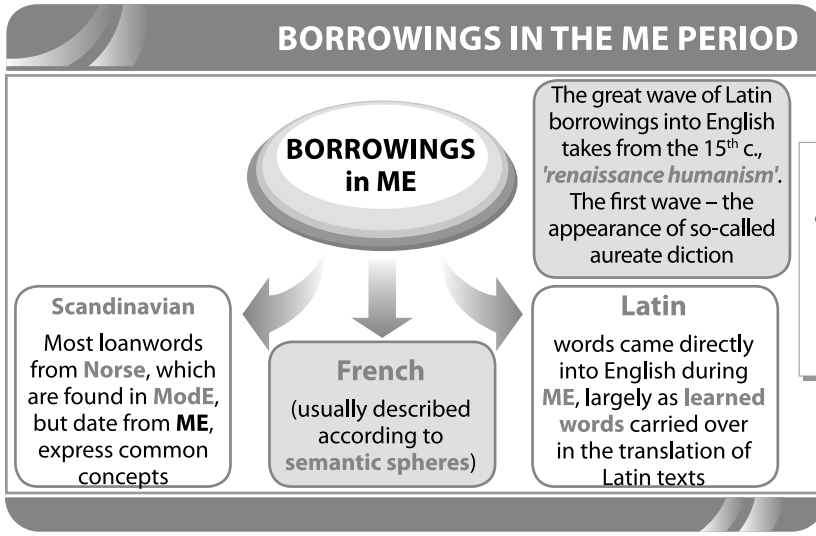



**Figure 4.1.** The general outline of borrowings in ME

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

The Modern 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 a 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*.

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.

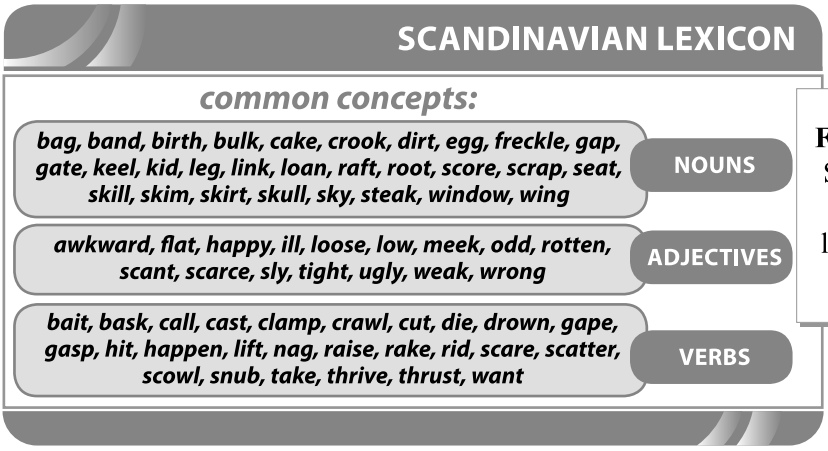



**Figure 4.2.** Scandinavian loanwords

## 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: 136).

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:

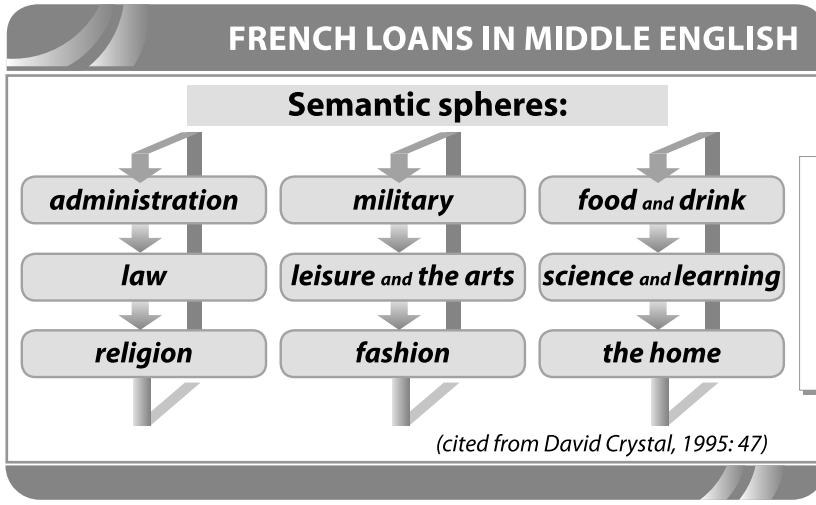



**Figure 4.3.** French semantic spheres

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

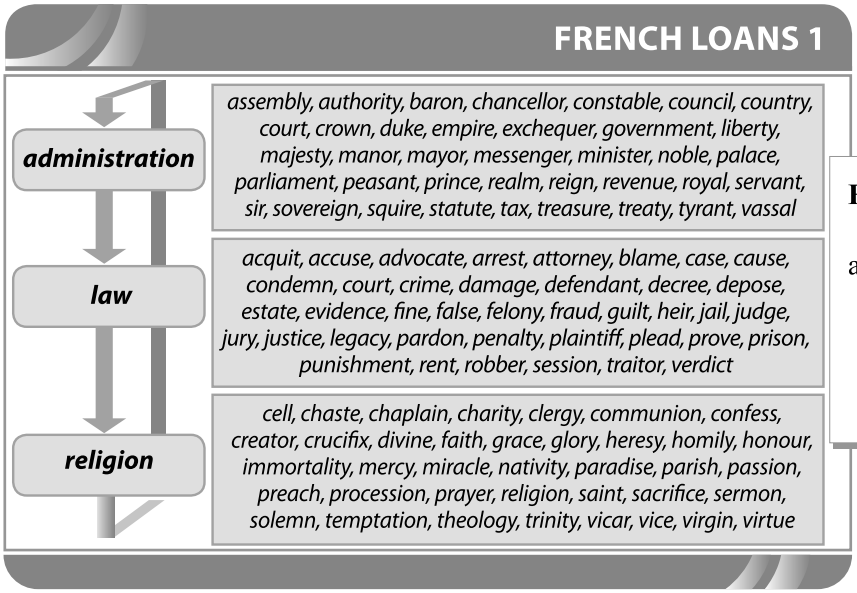



**Figure 4.4.** French administrative, juridical, religious terms



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.

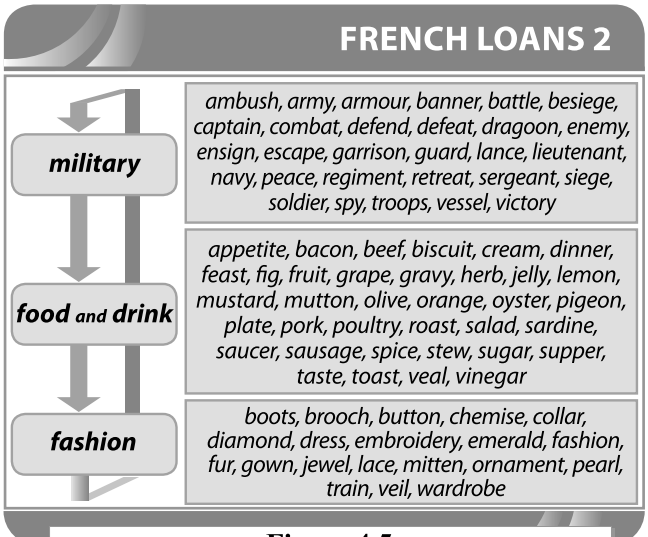



**Figure 4.5.**
French military, food and drink, fashion terms

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*).

Many French loanwords 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*.

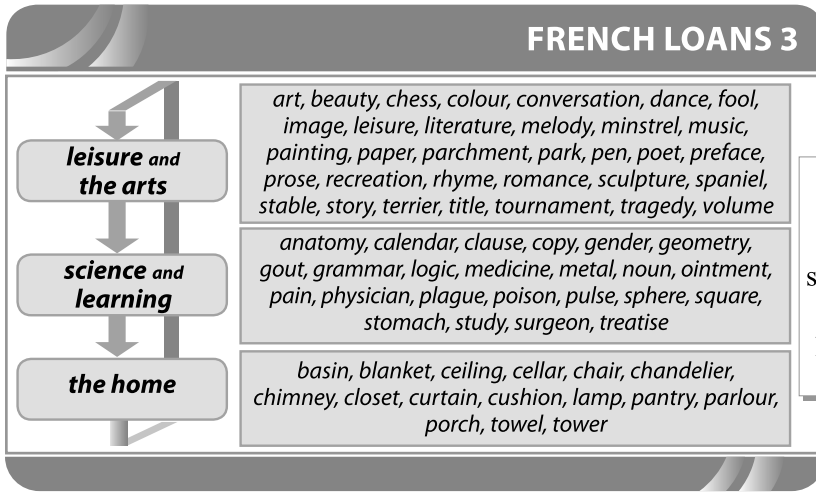



**Figure 4.6.** French scientific, the arts and the home terms

Finally, many French loanwords cannot be referred to a definite semantic sphere and can only be listed as miscellaneous:

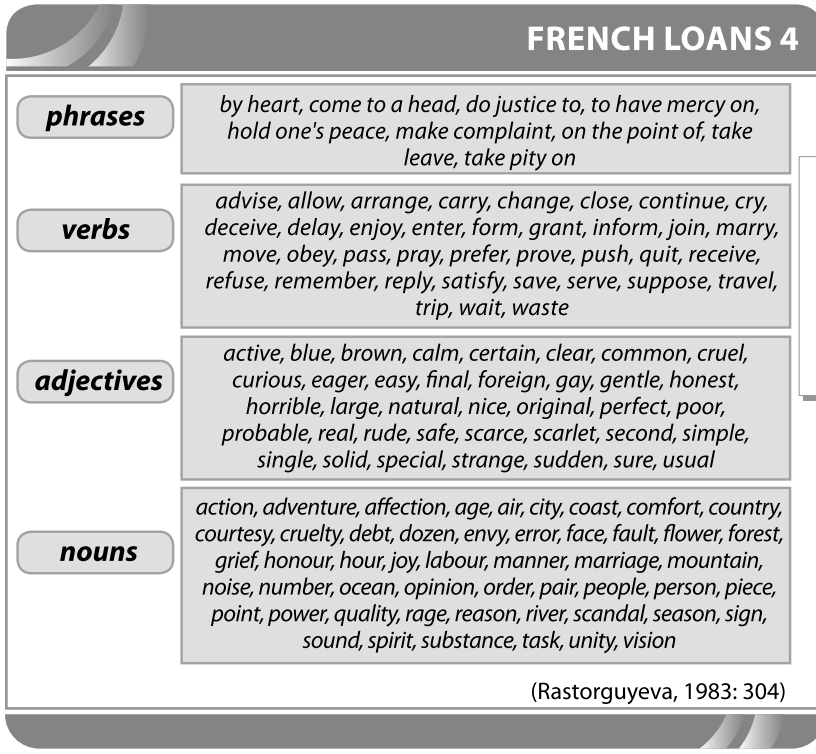



**Figure 4.7.** French miscellaneous loanwords

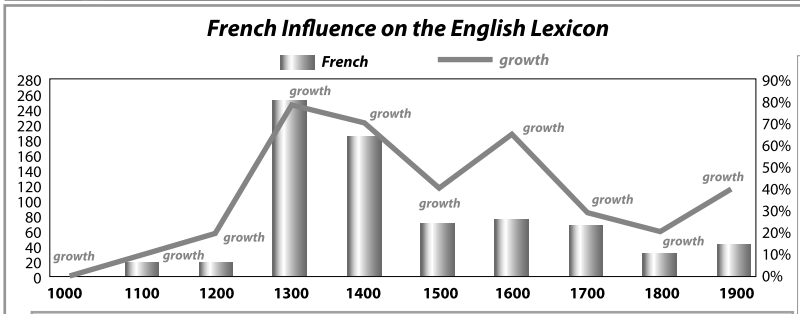
There are other indications of the aristocratic stamp of medieval French loanwords. Things connected with ordinary people tend to retain their English names, whereas upper-class objects often have French names. Thus we have English *home* and *house* but French *manor* and *palace*; English *child*, *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 loanwords *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 loanwords, 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*.

## FRENCH INFLUENCE ON ME




*This diagram shows the fluctuating rate at which French words have come into English sinse late Anglo-Saxon times, based on the entries in a historical dictionary. The rate of French borrowing reaches a peak in the 14th century. Using Chaucer as a yardstick, in the 858 lines of the Prologue to The Canterbury Tales there are nearly 500 different loans*

**Figure 4.8.** French influence on ME in percentage terms

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 loanwords, were unconsciously or consciously separated by the speakers and used in derivation. They could become productive in English only after the loanwords 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.

## 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 14$^{th}$ 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* [ˈendə], OE *lufu* and *lufian* as ME love [ˈluvə]. 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, seen in **dis-** items, can be 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*.

## SEMINAR 3

***Aims:***

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

4

### 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, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–306.
- ✓ 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: OF *journée* related to jour 'a day's work or a day's journey' = 20 m., – ModE *journey*; OE *holiday* 'religious festival' from OE *hāliȝ*, 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, 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 – OF *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 the 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, 1995. – 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–306.
- ✓ 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, seen in ***dis-*** items, can be 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* fell together 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* 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*)

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

Whan folk had 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)*

### *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* secʒan, *wv. 3*; *Gth.* sagen; *OHG* sagen
**but –** but; *OE* būton (*prp.*)
**part –** part (< *OF* < *Lat.* pars, partis)
**pleyen –** to play; *OE* pleʒian, *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.
> A trewe swynkere and a good was he,
> Lyvinge in pees and parfit charitee.
>
> *(Prologue)*

### *Glossary to Text 3*

**plow, plough –** plough; *OE* plōʒ, 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* lǣdan, *wv.1*; *OHG* leiten
**dong –** dung; *OE* dunʒ, *f.o.*
**many –** many; *OE* maniʒ; *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 students 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 164–179.



***Additional:***

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

## Introduction

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

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

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

## 5.1. Economic and Political Unification. Conditions for Linguistic Unity

As early as the 13$^{th}$ 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 14$^{th}$ and 15$^{th}$ 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 subjected 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.

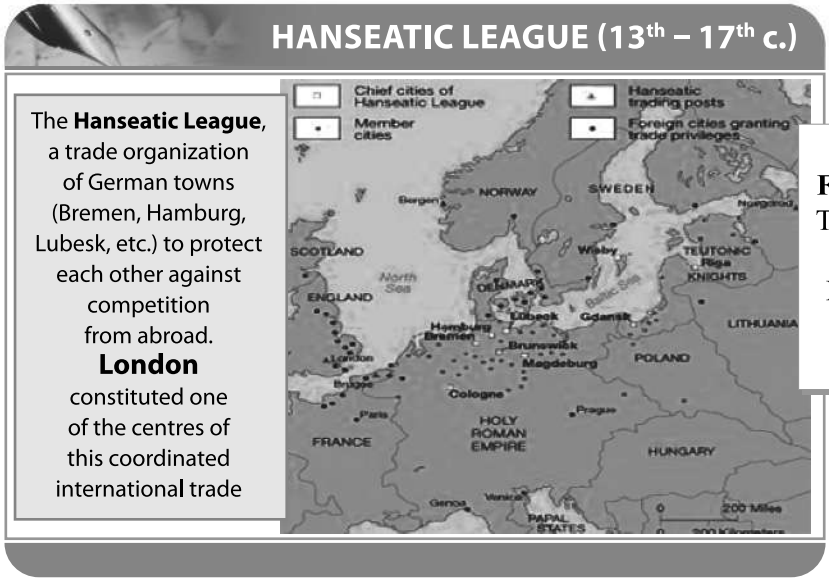



**Figure 5.1.** The centres of the Hanseatic League

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.

**FRANCIS DRAKE (1540-96)**

**Drake, Sir Francis** (1540-1596), an English NAVIGATOR who was the first Englishman to sail around the world and who led the English navy to victory against the **Spanish Armada**.
By interfering with the Spanish sea power, **Drake** kept the way open for the **expansion** of **England** to **America** and the **Southern hemisphere**.


**Figure 5.2.** Sir Francis Drake, an English navigator

Drake's achievements on sea are of great importance for the history of England. 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**.

## THE PROTESTANT REFORMER

**Henry VIII** (1491-1547) – the most famous English king (1509-47).
Having received the refusal to annul the marriage with Catherine of Aragon, the queen of Spanish origin who did not give birth to a male successor, Henry chose te 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's successors to the throne.

## PROTESTANTS AND CATHOLICS

**Elizabeth I**, **Queen** (1533-1603), the daughter of **HENRY VIII**. While she was Queen, **CATHOLICS** were attacked, the Spanish **ARMADA** was defeated, and **MARY**, **Queen of Scots** was murdered

**Mary Stuart**, **Queen of Scots** (1542-87), the daughter of **James V** of Scotland and COUSIN of Elizabeth I of England. She was killed by having her head cut off. She is often thought of as a brave and beautiful woman

**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.

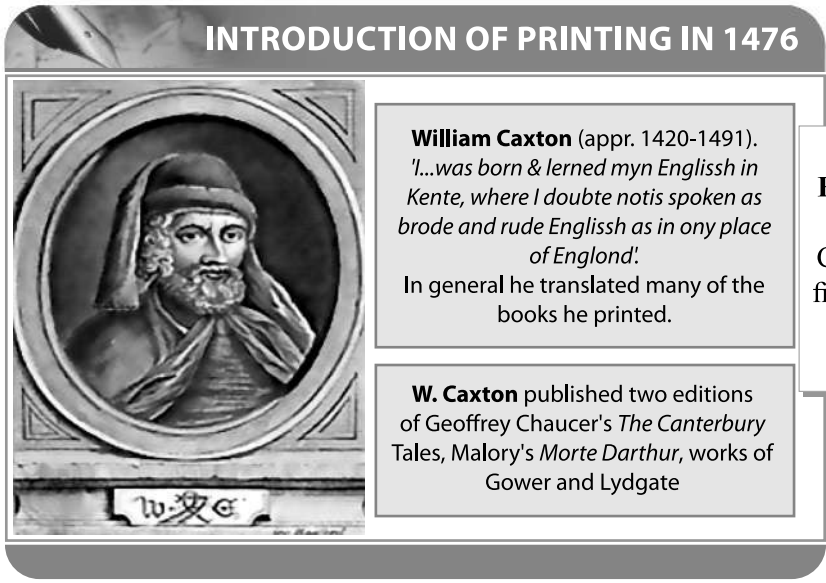



**Figure 5.5.** William Caxton, the first English printer

**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"*<br>**Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586)** *"Apology for Poetry", "Astrophel and Stella"*<br>**Edmund Spenser (1552–1599)** *"The Faerie Queene", "Amoretti"*<br>**Thomas Kid (1557? –1595?)** *"Spanish Tragedy"*<br>**Christopher Marlowe (1564–1593)** *"Tamburlaine", "The Massacre at Paris", "The Jue of Malta", "The Tragical History of Dr. Faustus", "Edward II"*<br>**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**.

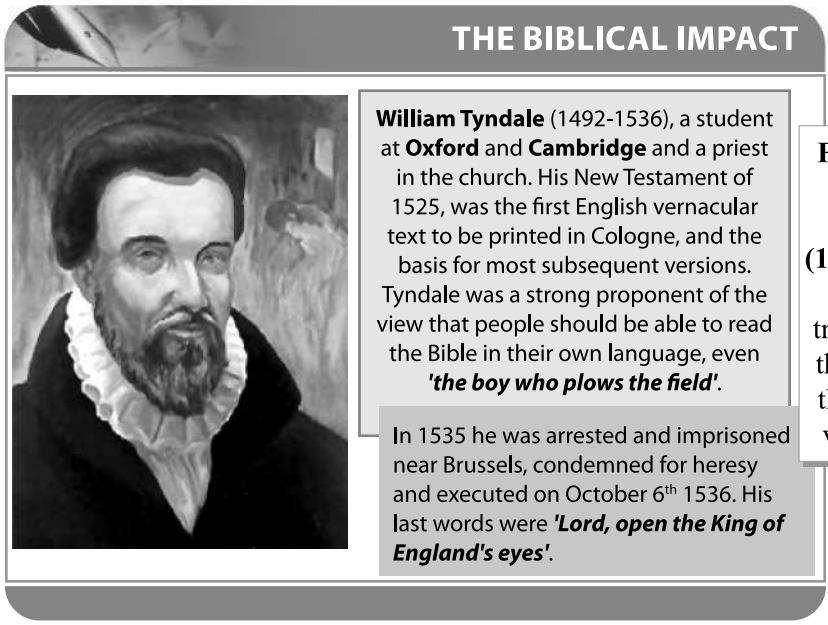



**Figure 5.6. William Tyndale (1494–1536),** the first translator of the Bible in the English vernacular

**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* |

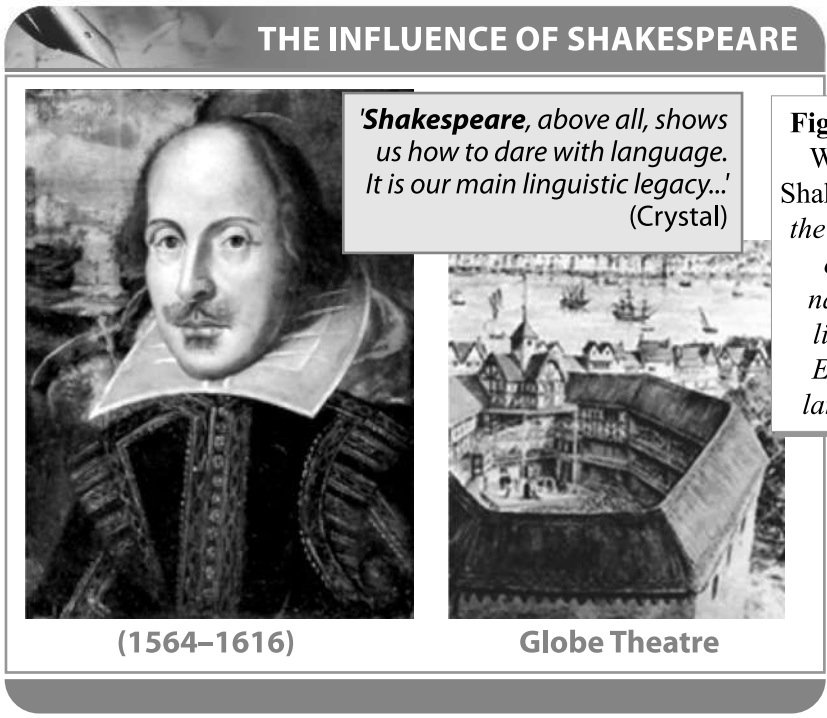



**Figure 5.7.** William Shakespeare, *the founder of the national literary English language*

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

1. Account for the term "Early Modern English".
2. Comment on the introduction of printing and its effect on the linguistic situation.
3. Identify the events of external history which favoured the growth of the national literary language.
4. Identify social events that contributed to the flourishing of literature in EModE.
5. Dwell on the Biblical impact on the history of English. Supply your answer with examples.
6. Compare the EModE dialect with the ME ones.
7. Identify the best representatives of the EModE literary tradition. Exemplify.

## SELF-STUDY 5

***Aims:***

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

***Additional:***

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



### 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, 1995. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.

***Additional:***

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

6

## 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 Early 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 Early Modern English period were less radical than those of the previous one. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 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 **"The Great Vowel Shift"**. It is a series of changes which affected all the Middle English long vowels and played a decisive part in transforming the phonetic shape of English words and the relation between pronunciation and spelling. All these changes reveal a general trend towards narrowing and diphthongization of long vowels.

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

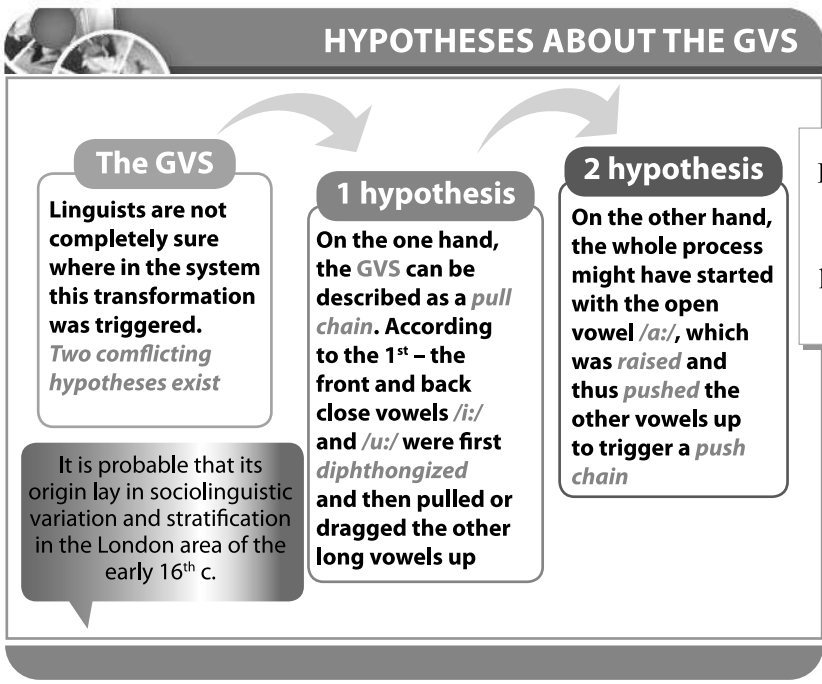



**Figure 6.1.** Two conflicting hypotheses

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.

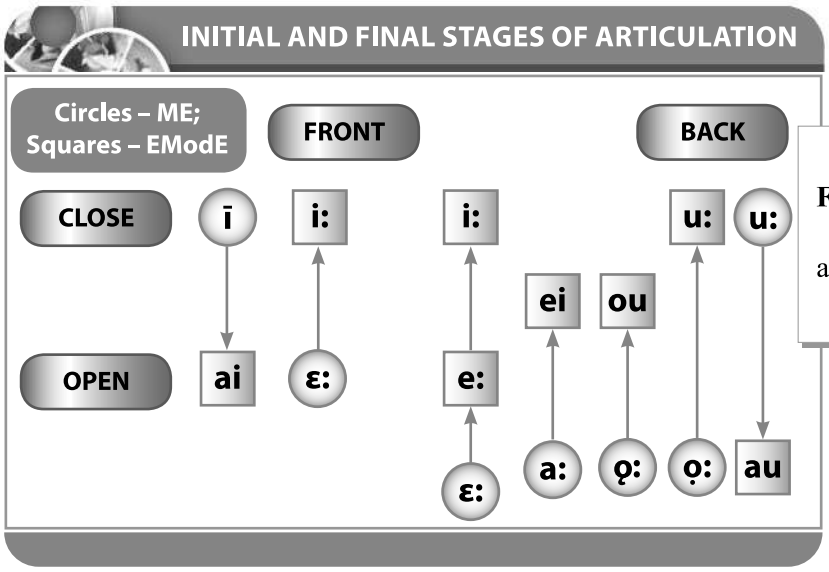



**Figure 6.2.** Stages of articulation



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.

**Table 6.1.** Dates of the GVS changes

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

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:t∫]**. After the Shift they became **[ei]**, **[kei]** and **[eit∫]** respectively. The letter **b** was **[bē]**, the letter **d** was [**dē**], **p** was **[pē]**. Now they are **[bi:]**, **[di:]** and **[pi:]** respectively. In the same way **o** became **[ou]**, **i** became **[ai]**, etc.

In words like *head*, *bread*, *sweat*, *breath* etc., where the digraph **ea** shows that the vowel before the Shift was **[ę:]**, we should have expected **[i:]**. But the fact is that in some cases, chiefly before **[d]**, **[t]** or **[θ]**, the sound was shortened in its **[ē]** stage and did not develop into **[i:]**. Similarly, **[u:]** was later shortened before **[d]**, **[t]**, **[k]** in words like *good*, *foot*, *book*, etc.

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

## 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**), being 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.

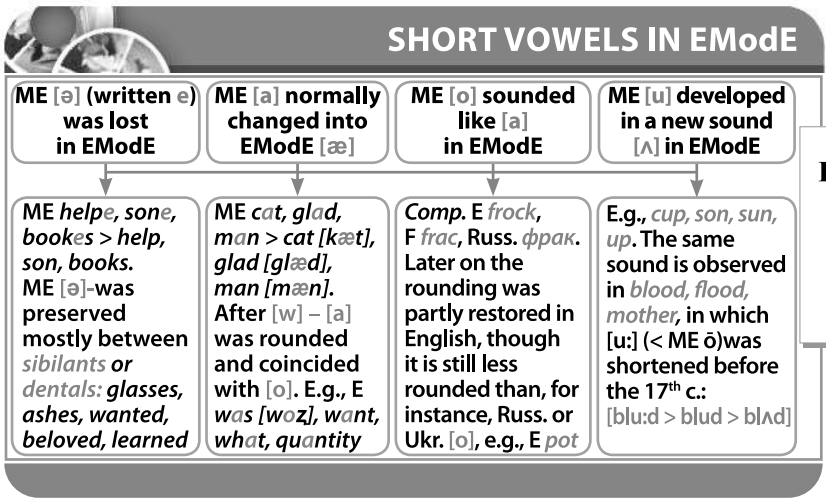



**Figure 6.3.** Short vowels in EModE

## 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** | **ɔ̄**, 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 loanwords 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 [р]) 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** > **[ə:]**, 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;

**d)** 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 > a$^{u}$l > aul > o:l]**, as in *all, fall, salt, bald*; **[ol > o$^{u}$l > oul]**, as in *folk, bowl* ( < ME bolle);

**e)** 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*;

**f)** 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]**.

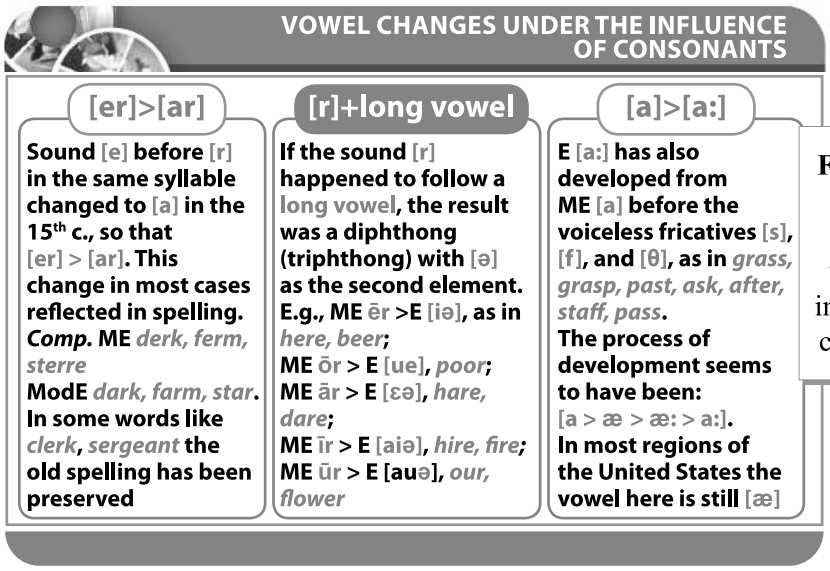



**Figure 6.4.** Vowel changes under the influence of consonants

## 6.6. Consonants in EModE

One of the most important changes of the 15th century was the voicing of **[f]**, **[s]**, **[θ]**, **[tʃ]** and **[ks]** in weakly stressed words and syllables. The phenomenon is somewhat similar to that discovered by K. Verner in the Old Germanic languages, and is sometimes referred to as **Verner's Law in English**. For instance:

ME **[f] > [v]**, as in *o**f**, acti**v**e* (< ME acti**f**), *pensi**v**e* (< pensi**f**).

ME **[s] > [z]**, as in *i**s**, hi**s**, come**s**, stone**s**, po**ss**ess*.

ME **[θ > [ð]**, as in *wi**th**, **th**e, **th**ey*.

ME **[tʃ] > [dʒ]**, as in *knowle**dg**e* (< ME knowle**ch**e), *Greenwi**ch*** [ˈgrini**dʒ**].

ME **[ks] > [gz]**, as in *e**x**amine, e**xh**ibit, e**x**act*.

Final **[ng]** has been reduced to **[ŋ]**.

E.g. ME *thing* [θing] > EModE *thing* [θiŋ].

Final **[b]** has been lost after **[m]**, as in *climb, dumb, comb*.

'Silent' **b** has been wrongly inserted in *thumb, crumb*.

In the 15thc. **[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 [ˈnãsjon] > [ˈneisjən] > [ˈneiʃ(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 [ˈnātiur] > [ˈneitjə] > [ˈneitʃə]), *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 **[o:]** do not exist longer (having changed to **[i:]** and **[u:]** respectively), nor do the diphthongs **eu**, **iu**.

The rest of the PDE long vowels and diphthongs have counterparts in Middle English.

The EModE consonant system includes the new phonemes **[ʃ, ʒ, ʧ, ʤ]**, which did not exist in OE.

The sounds **[f, v, θ, ð, s, z]** came to occur in positions they did not occupy previously, which changed the voiceless and voiced members of pairs **[f – v]**, **[θ – ð]** and **[s – z]** from variants of the three fricative phonemes.

## Questions for self-control

1. Account for the series of long vowel changes known as 'the Great Vowel Shift'.
2. Identify the development of ME short vowels in EModE.
3. Trace the evolution of ME diphthongs in EModE.
4. Comment on the vowel changes under the influence of consonants.
5. What is meant by 'discrepancy' between spelling and pronunciation in EModE?
6. Account for the emergence of new palatal-alveolar sibilants.
7. Comment on the voicing of fricatives.

## SEMINAR 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 mainstream accents of the period.

## 4.1. Study points:

1. The Emerging Orthographic System
2. Free Development of Vowels. The Great Vowel Shift
3. Development of ME Short Vowels in EModE
4. 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, 1995. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.

***Additional:***

- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 164–170.
- ✓ 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 diphthongized.
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, ę:, ę:, ā, ǭ, 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 … 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], [t͡ʃ], [ks]
**C** [p], [t], [f], [r], [l]
**D** [c] [n], [w], [h], [k]

**19.**Sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to … in the 15th c.

**A** [a]
**B** [ei]
**C** [o]
**D** [er]

**20.** EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME … before the voiceless fricatives **[s]**, **[f]**, and **[θ]**.
**A** [a]
**B** [e]
**C** [o]
**D** [u]



**III. Match** each of the following linguistic terms with the correct meaning.

**1.** The Great Vowel Shift is …
**2.** The Great Vowel Shift displays …
**3.** Early Modern English witnessed the greatest event in the history of English vowels …
**4.** ME sound **[ə]** was preserved mostly between …
**5.** After **[w] – [a]** was rounded and coincided with …
**6.** Sound **[e]** before **[r]** in the same syllable changed to **[a]** in the 15th c., …
**7.** The drastic changes of long vowels …
**8.** ME letter **e** was added to many words …
**9.** Phonetic alphabet: …
**10.** ME letter **e** in a final position ...
**11.** The combinations **ss**, **ff**, **ll** and **ck (-kk)** …
**12.** The transition from Middle to Modern English is not marked by any specific cultural event but rather by a linguistic event: …
**13.** Most double consonants preceding the final weak **[ə]** …
**14.** The combinations **ss**, **ff**, **ll** and **ck (-kk)** were transferred …
**15.** ME letter **e** remained and …
**16.** Medially, all consonants were usually doubled …
**17.** If the sound **[r]** happened to follow a long vowel …
**18.** ME letter **e** and the sound **[ə]** …
**19.** EModE **[ā]** has also developed from ME **[a]** before the voiceless fricatives **[s]**, **[f]**, and **[θ]** …
**20.** ME **[u]** developed in a new sound **[ʌ]** in EModE, e.g. *cup, son, sun, up* …

**A** ... the name given to a series of changes of long vowels between the 14th and the 18th c.
**B** … which involved the change of all ME long monophthongs, and probably some of the diphthongs.
**C** … a growing discrepancy between letters and sounds.
**D** … were not reflected in spelling.
**E** … the Great Vowel Shift.

**F** ... an alphabet used to study speech sounds in which every symbol corresponds to one and only one sound.
**G** … the sound **[ə]** disappeared. E.g., *name*, *write*, *love*.
**H** … disappeared. E.g., ME *sone, nute* > EModE *son, nut*.
**I** … which had never before had the letter, e.g. EModE *stone, mice* < ME *stoon, mis*.
**J** … indicates the length of a preceding vowel. E.g. *hat – hate, bit – bite*.
**K** … were simplified after the loss of the latter. E.g., ME *lette, stoppe – let, stop*.
**L** … were retained. E.g., ME *kisse, stuffe, pulle, locke – kiss, stuff, pull, lock*.
**M** … after a short vowel just as a sign that the vowel was short. e.g., ME *super, felow, sumer – supper, fellow, summer*.
**N** … to other words with originally a single final letter. E.g. ME *glas, small – glass, small*.
**O** … sibilants or dentals: *glasses, ashes, wanted, beloved, learned*.
**P** … **[o]**. E.g. ModE *was* [woz], *want, what, quantity*.
**Q** … so that **[er] > [ar]**. *Comp.* ME *derk, ferm, sterre* and EModE *dark, farm, star*. In some words like *clerk, sergeant* the older spelling has been preserved.
**R** … the result was a diphthong (triphthong) with **[ə]** as the second element. E.g. ME **ēr** > EModE **[iə]**, as in *here, beer*; ME **ōr** > EModE **[ue]**, *poor*; ME **ār** > EModE **[ɛə]**, *hare, dare*; ME **īr** > EModE **[aiə]**, *hire, fire*; ME **ūr** > EModE **[auə]**, *our, flower*.
**S** … as in *grass, grasp, past, ask, after, staff, pass*. In most regions of the United States the vowel here is still **[æ]**.
**T** … the same sound **[ʌ]** is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which **[u:]** (< ME **ō** was shortened before the 17th c.: **[blu:d > blud > blʌd]**.

**IV. Exercises.**

**1.** Show the historical development of the following **OE** words. *Model*:

> OE feor > ME fer > ModE far [fa:]
> OE **eo** > ME **e**; ME **er** > ModE **ar**; **r** > **ə**; **ar** > **a**:

æfter, āʒan, āʒān, æniʒ, rīsan, bæc, baþian, bēatan, bindan, bysiʒ, bītan, blōd, bodyʒ, boʒa, cald, brēad, brōþor, brūn, cearu, caru, cēpan, cild, cnāwan, cniht, cneoht, cuman, cwēn, dæʒ, dæl, dēor, dēop, deorc, draʒan, ʒræs, hēdan, hebban.

**2.** Show the historical development of the following **ME** words. *Model*:

> ME caughte > ModE caught [ko:t]
> ME **[au]** (au) > ModE **[o:]** (au);
> ME **[x]** (gh) > ModE [–] (gh);
> 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** > 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 | w**e**, f**ee**l, sp**ea**k, ch**ie**f, rec**ei**ve, mach**i**ne |
| i | i, y, ui | p**i**n, s**y**nonym, b**ui**ld |
| e | e, ea | p**e**n, h**ea**d |
| æ | a | m**a**n |
| a: | ar, al (+ m, f), a (+ ss, st, ft, th, etc.) | d**ar**k, c**al**m, h**al**f, p**a**ss, p**a**st, gr**a**sp, **a**fter, p**a**th |
| o | o, a (after w, qu) | h**o**t, w**a**s, qu**a**ntity |
| o: | or, au, aw, a (+ l + cons.) | p**or**t, c**au**se, l**aw**, w**al**k, f**a**ll, s**a**lt |
| u | u, oo (+ k) | p**u**ll, l**oo**k |
| u: (ju) | oo, u, o, ui, ew | m**oo**n, r**u**le, d**o**, fr**ui**t, d**u**ty, s**ui**t, n**ew** |
| ʌ | u, o, ou | s**u**n, c**o**me, r**ou**gh |
| ə: | er, ir, ur, ear | p**er**son, b**ir**d, t**ur**n, **ear**th |
| ei | a, ai, ay, ei, ey | l**a**te, s**ai**l, d**ay**, v**ei**n, th**ey** |
| ou | o, oa, ow, ou | n**o**, c**o**ld, **oa**k, kn**ow**, th**ou**gh |
| ai | i, y | t**i**me, f**i**nd, l**i**ght, m**y** |
| au | ou, ow | h**ou**se, n**ow** |
| oi | oi, oy | c**oi**n, b**oy** |
| iə | eer, ere, ear | b**eer**, h**ere**, d**ear** |
| ɛə | ar (+ vowel), ear | p**ar**ent, c**ar**e, b**ear** |
| oə, o: | oar, ore | r**oar**, m**ore** |
| uə, (juə) | oor, ure | p**oor**, p**ure** |

### *2. Consonants*

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| t | t, tt, ed | ca**t**, bo**tt**om, ask**ed** |
| k | k, c, ck, ch | boo**k**, **k**ing, **c**up, ba**ck**, s**ch**ool |
| f | f, ff, ph, gh | **f**ire, stu**ff**, **ph**otogra**ph**, lau**gh** |
| z | z, s, ss | **z**oo, ro**s**e, po**ss**ess |
| ʃ | sh, ch, si, ssi, ci, ti | **sh**ip, ma**ch**ine, pen**si**on, profe**ssi**on, academi**ci**an, na**ti**on |

## SELF-STUDY 6

***Aims:***

- ✓ to review afresh the sound changes within the phonemic system of Early Modern English with its relation to Modern 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, 1995. – P. 66–69.
- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam / Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 159–166.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 39–45; 48–49.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 200–214.


***Additional:***


- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 164–170.
- ✓ Lecture 6.


### 6.2. Computer tests in e-learning

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

1. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

2. Vowels changed a good deal more than consonants in Early Modern English, especially in the southern dialects.
3. All the long vowels became closer or were diphthongized between the 16th and the 20th c.
4. The Great Vowel Shift was the most profound change in the history of the English vocalic system: the vowels being shifted led to the great changes in the pronunciation.
5. The ME digraph **ee [ęː]** was used to denote **[iː]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME deep [dęːp] > ModE deep [diːp].
6. The ME digraph **ea [ɛː]** was used to denote **[ęː]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sea [sęː] > ModE sea [siː].
7. The ME digraph **oo [ǫː]** stands for **[uː]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME sōne [soːnə] > ModE soon [suːn].
8. The ME digraph **oa [ǭ]** stands for **[ou]** after the Great Vowel Shift, e.g. ME open [ʻɔːpən] > ModE open [ʻəup(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** instead, expect, certain, phonetic

3. Define the sound value of the digraph **oo** as a result of the GVS in the following words: ....
   **A** bold, cold, old, comb
   **B** go, no, oak, know
   **C** do, lose, prove, to
   **D** coin, oil, boy, toy

4. Identify the sound value of the digraph **oa** as a result of the GVS in the following words: ....
   **A** show, alone, below, promote
   **B** come, become, welcome, some
   **C** embolden, encourage, foster, support
   **D** got, not, forgot, blot, thought

**5.** Denote the exceptions to the **ea-**digraph sound value in the following words: ....
**A** altitude, height, eight, tail
**B** bear, pear, there, where
**C** break, steak, great
**D** creak, dread, dream, drear

**6.** Define the quality of ME short vowel **o** in ModE in the following words: ....
**A** above, honey, tongue, wonder
**B** who, lose, move, whom
**C** don't, won't, shouldn't, wouldn't
**D** coup, group, rouge, soup

**7.** Identify the lengthening of ME **a** before voiceless fricatives in the following words: ....
**A** alphabet, alto, altitude, aptitude
**B** aghast, cast, task, staff, raft
**C** small, tall, wall, walk, talk
**D** wander, what, swallow, wasp

**8.** Define the quality of ME **a** under the influence of labial consonants in the following words: ....
**A** wag, pat, back, hand
**B** want, wand, wash, was
**C** base, chaste, haste, paste
**D** father, mother, rather, another

**9.** Identify the loss of consonants in the following words: ....
**A** desert, exact, though, that
**B** pull, put, butcher, push
**C** swagger, quality, quantity
**D** comb, hymn, solemn, tomb

**10.** The present-day system of vowels should be regarded as something ....
**A** final and permanent
**B** constant and decisive
**C** determined and invariable
**D** continuing and durative

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

1. Phonetic changes, especially those after the fixation of spelling in 1476 …
2. Two or more sounds may coincide in one phoneme …
3. Sounds which at one time belonged to one phoneme and were represented by one and the same graphic symbol …
4. The loss of a sound makes its graphic symbol silent in those positions where the lost sound occurred …

**5.** The silent ***e*** was added in some words …
**6.** The simplification of double consonants has resulted in doubled letters being written for single sounds …
**7.** Through convergence of originally different sounds a number of English words have become identical in pronunciation that is …
**8.** The relation between sound and spelling in the English language was complicated by other factors, e.g. …
**9.** Sometimes the divergence between spelling and pronunciation is due to the fact that …
**10.** There is a tendency in ModE to conform spelling to pronunciation that is …



**A** … homophones: being pronounced in the same way but differing in meaning or spelling or both, as for example *bear* and *bare*, *meet* and *meat*, *stare* and *stair*.
**B** … either to indicate the shortness of the preceding vowel, as in *copper*, *hotter*, *running*, or simply by tradition, as in *bell*, *egg*, *community*.
**C** … that is the main reason why the same phoneme is spelt differently in different words, e.g. [ʌ] is spelt *u* (ME **u**) in *cut*, but *oo* (ME **o:**) in *blood*, and *ou* (for ME **ū**) in *couple*.
**D** … to indicate the 'long' reading of the preceding vowel and some silent letters are written by analogy or on etymological grounds (sometimes mistakenly) though no corresponding sound was ever pronounced.
**E** … have been the main cause of the increasing discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling.
**F** … the introduction of numerous loanwords 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. [ˊɔftən] for [ɔfn] (often), [ˊfɔ:hed] instead of [ˊfɔrid] (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 students with the elements of the ritual language in EModE;
- ✓ to trace the peculiar features of EModE syntax.

### Points for discussion:



### 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, 1995. – 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.
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7

## 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 Modern 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 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 kine, 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 horse, 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).

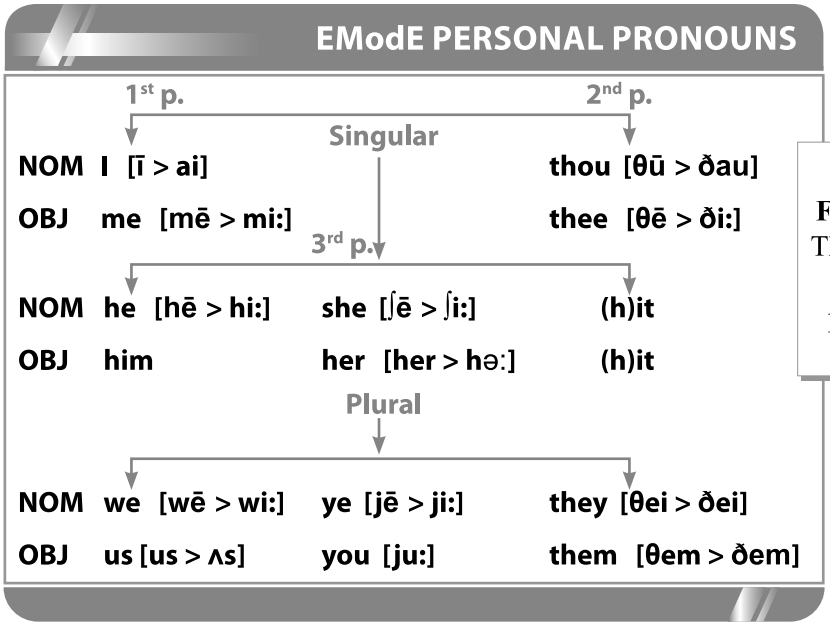


**Figure 7.1.** The EModE personal pronouns

*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).

**SECOND PERSON PRONOUN CHANGES (1)**

| | OE and | EME | late ME (1400) | | | EModE (1650) | ModE |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sg. | NOM | þu | FAM. | NOM | thou | you (thou) | Sg. you |
| | ACC/DAT | þe(c) | | ACC | thee | you (thee) | |
| Pl. | NOM | ȝe | POL. | NOM | yee | you | Pl. you (all) |
| | ACC/DAT | eow(ic) | | ACC | yee | you | |

The choice between EModE *thou (thee)* and *yee (you)* is often discussed in the sociolinguistic literature (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Even in ME, the system is never as rigid as the *tu-vous* distinction in French: *vous* 'you' is used in formal situations and is a marker of politeness. Speaking to friends, a French speaker would use *tu* 'thou' (taken from Elly van Gelderen 2006: 167).

**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 you 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 thy Instigation, thou Viper; for I thou thee, thou Traitor.*

Raleigh: *It becometh not a Man of Quality and Virtue, to call me so: But I take comfort in it, it is all you can do.*

Attorney: *Have I anger'd you?* (HC, *The Trial of Sir Walter Raleigh*, 1603: 209).



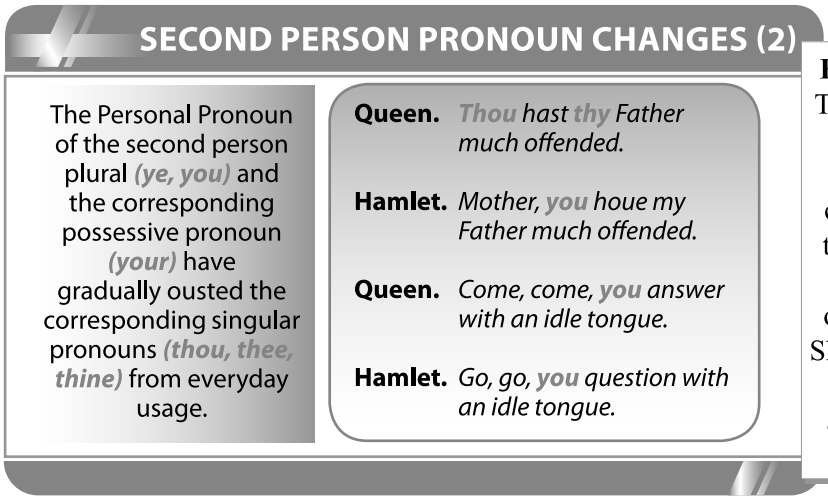


**Figure 7.3.** The EModE 2nd person pronoun changes in the literary tradition of William Shakespeare, an early adopter of **you**

## 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<br>his, hers, his/its | their, theirs |

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 more perfect by Clauius, who doth set downe the saide Tables in quarto and not in folio, whereby they are the more portable, and the more commodious, 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 London 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 smooth*, 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 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** and 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 loanwords, 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 7.3.** 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 forms 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. 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 Modern 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 <u>was going to</u> 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 is going to 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 **grammaticalisation**, 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 Modern 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 of 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; 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 (*for 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 Modern 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 not see it*); by inversion especially in questions (*Did they see it?*) and by emphasis (*They did see it*). It is also used as a prop-word in reduced clauses (*They saw it, and we did 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).

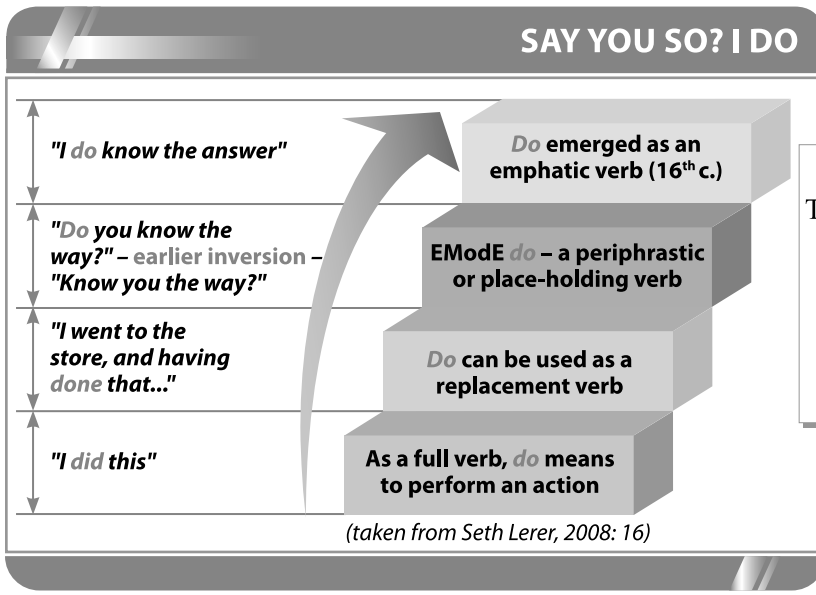


**Figure 7.4.** The functions of the Early Modern English auxiliary **do**

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 taken from Singh, 2005: 161).



Example1: ***subject~verb/subject~auxiliary inversion***

**(a)**

| *heere hung* | *those lipps* |
|---|---|
| **V** | **S** |

**(b)**

| *greeuously* | *hath* | *Caesar* | *answer'd* | *it* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Aux** | **S** | **V** | |

**(c)**

| *plots* | *have* | *I* | *laide* |
|---|---|---|---|
| **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 *my two Schoole fellowes,/Whom I will trust as I will Adders fang'd, /They 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 Modern 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 London 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.
- ✓ T. A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 220–294.
- ✓ 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. 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 ys come 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 ….
2. The analytical forms of the future tense generally expressed by means of the auxiliaries *shall* are introduced in the lines ….
3. The use of *will*, with *will* gaining ground in the first person in EModE is similar to what we find in English today ….
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: ….
5. The line *"Next week Lady Ann Churchill is to be married to Lord Spencer"* (HC, Alice Hatton, 1699: 242) demonstrates the usage of ….
6. The subjunctive were occurred in a hypothetical main clause in EModE ….
7. *"After that a childe is come to seuen yeres of age, I holde it expedient that he be taken from the company of women"* (HC, Thomas Elyot, *The Boke Named the Gouernour*, 1531: 23) introduces the form of ….
8. The introduction of **do** and other auxiliaries into the verb phrase formed part of the analytic tendency of English ….
9. The same basic principle holds for Modern 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. ….
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. ….

**A** … of the subjunctive mood in EModE, expressing possibility.

**B** … the perfective structure, being well established in EModE with one difference that EModE normally preferred the auxiliary **be** with verbs of **motion**.

**C** … *"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** … *"Miss. Why then we will be married again"* (HC, John Vanbrugh, *The Relapse or Virtue in Danger*, 1697: 64).

**E** … 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** … *"Yesterday the Quene feasted all that gave presents to her last bride, andon Shrove-Sonday she marries 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** … *"Why do ye not knowemy speache?"* HC, William Tyndale (transl.), *The New Testa ment.*, 1534: VIII, 20).

**H** … *"Seest thou not his eyes, how they bee fylled with blood and bytter teares?"* (HC, John Fisher, *Sermons*, 1521: 400).

**I** … *"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).

**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.

### 7.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

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.
- ✓ T. A. Rastorguyeva. A History of English. – Moscow, 1983. – P. 220–294.
- ✓ 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 Modern 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:



### Key words to know:

| | |
|---|---|
| semasiology | synonymy |
| onomasiology | antonymy |
| concept | specialization |
| polysemy | contiguity |
| homonymy | periphrastic |

## Recommended Literature

***Obligatory:***

- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 11–14.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–118; 129–130.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.

***Additional:***

- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.

## Introduction



The foreign influence on the English vocabulary in the age of the Renaissance and in the succeeding centuries was tremendous. Thousands upon thousands of foreign words were borrowed. The **inkhorn** (inkwell) terms were coined from Latin or Greek for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).

Many of the intelligentsia who advocated writing in the vernacular in the EModE period also had, for want of a better term, a kind of love-hate relationship with Latin; simultaneously pushing English forward as the 'rightful' medium for the nation with one hand and yet keeping Latin firmly on its pedestal with the other. The continuing veneration of Latin was not only a consequence of its ancient, classical heritage but also an accolade of its practicality – its centuries of use in various disciplines had led to the development of stylistic conventions and in particular, terminology, which English simply did not possess. For many, this seeming inadequacy of their native tongue needed redress if English was to be a worthy usurper of Latin's reign (Singh, 2005: 162).

Concerns about the shortcomings of English became primarily focused on filling the 'gaps' in its vocabulary and a variety of solutions, encompassing borrowing, coinage and revival, were employed. So productive were these attempts that sources such as the *Chronological English Dictionary*, for example, indicate that the 'fastest growth of the vocabulary in the history of the English language' took place roughly between 1530 and 1600, 'both in absolute figures as well as in proportion to the total' (Singh, 2005: 162–163). This rapid expansion, and the processes through which it was achieved, were often commented upon by EModE writers, as can be seen in the following excerpt:

> *"Since Learning began to flourish in our Nation, there have been more than ordinary Changes introduced in our Language; partly by new artificial Compositions; partly by enfranchising strange forein words, for their elegance and significancy … and partly by refining and mollifying old words for the more easie and graceful sound".*
> (Wilkins (1668) *An Essay Towards a Real Character, and a Philosophical Language*, quoted in Singh, 2005: 163)

## 8.1. The Common Core of the 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* (Barber, 2009: 191–192). 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. 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* (ibid.: 191). 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, Shakespeare's 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 the Scandinavian influence on northern Middle English. *Get* and *want* do not appear among the Early Modern English top ten, although both are frequent in the data).

These high-frequency verbs mostly come from three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*), and mental verbs (*know, think*). In Modern English they are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, *say*, in fiction, newspapers and academic writing (ibid.: 192). 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* (ibid.: 187). As many as seven of them also appear among the Early Modern English top ten; 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 the 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.

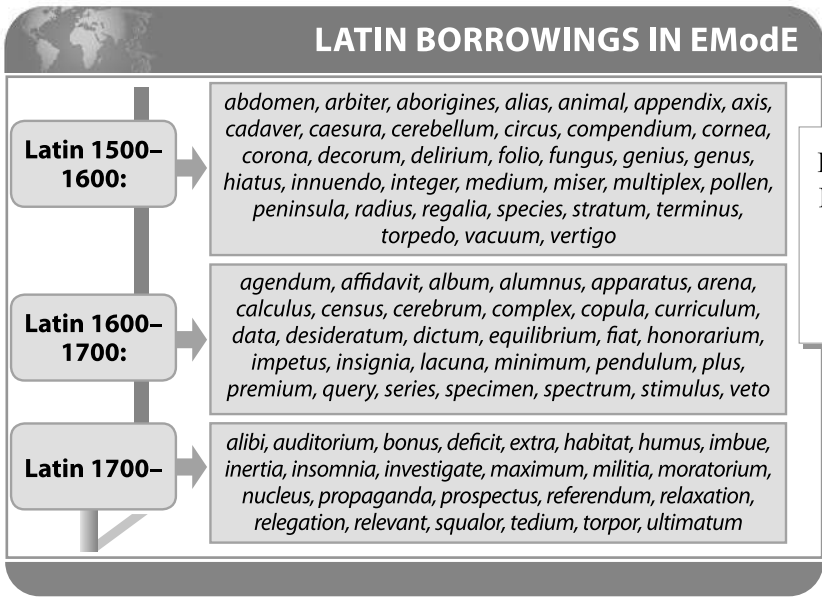


**Figure 8.1.** Latin loans in the EModE period

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 were 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:

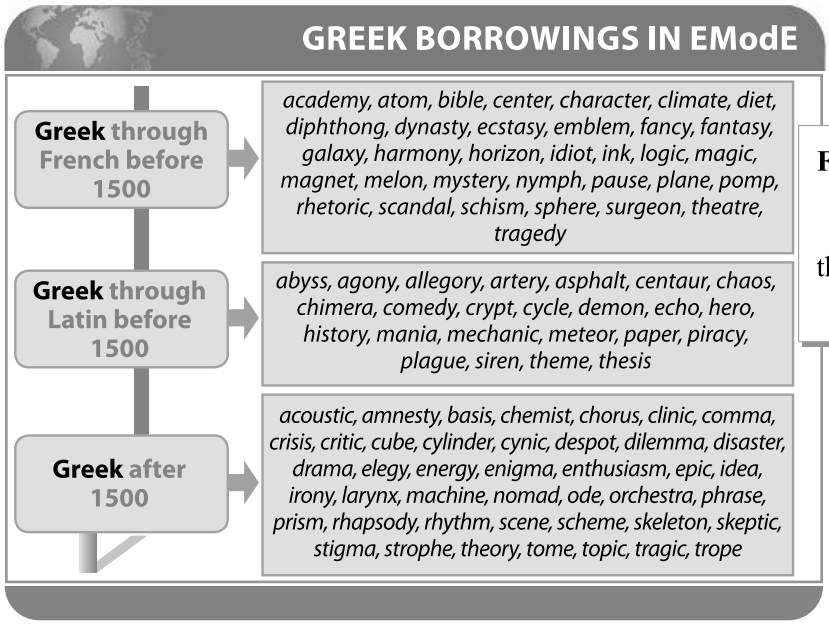


**Figure 8.2.** Greek loans in the EModE period



## 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*.

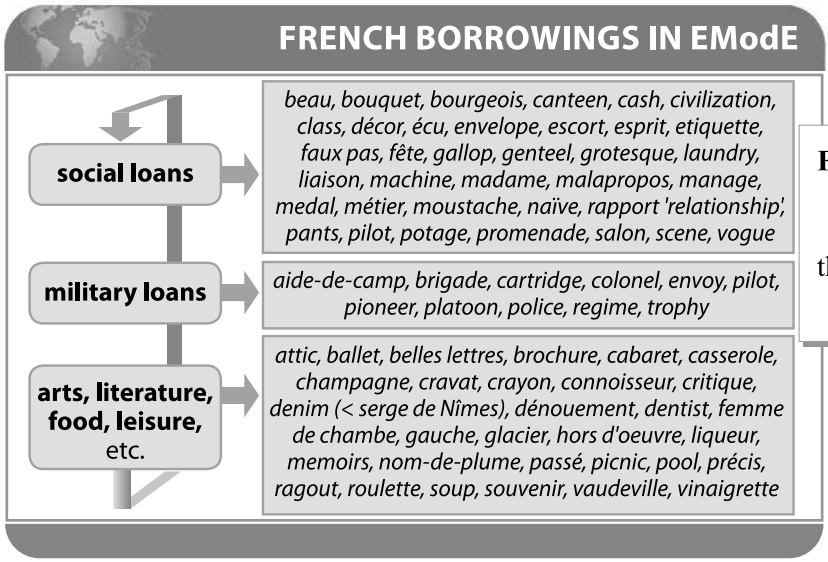


**Figure 8.3.** French loans in the EModE period

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:

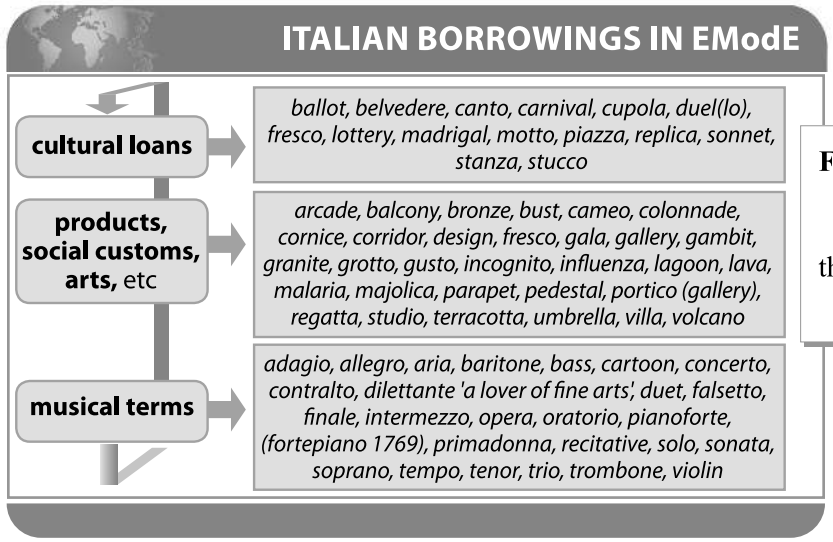


**Figure 8.4.** Italian loans in the EModE period

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**.

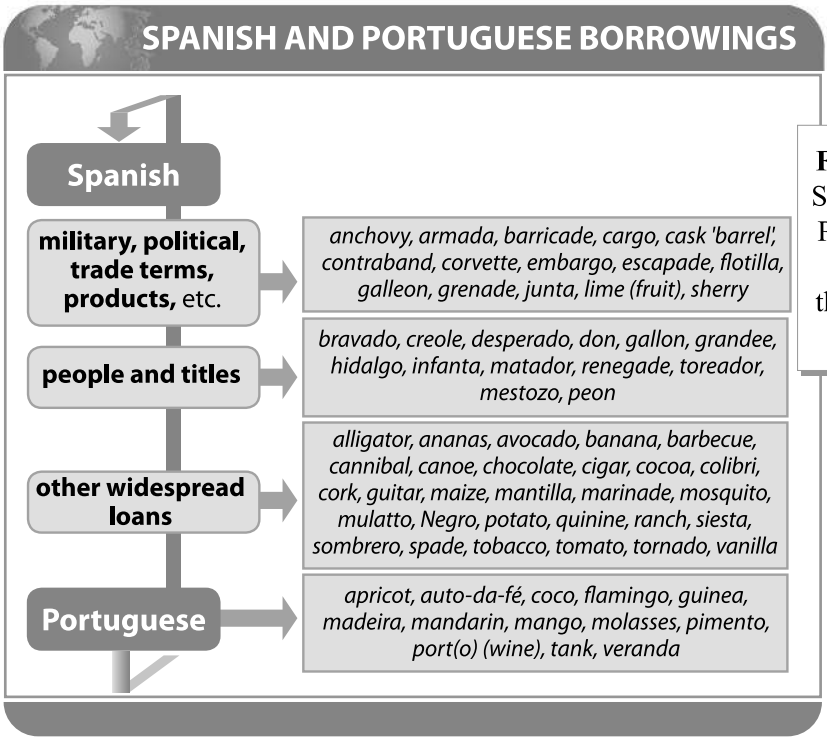


**Figure 8.5.** Spanish and Portuguese loans in the EModE period



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 loanwords 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** loanwords entered the English language as far as the 16th c., when the English trade company (the Moskovy Company) established the first trade relations with Russia (Rastorguyeva, 1983: 313). Russian borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia:

*altine, astrakhan, beluga, balalaika, bolshevik, borzoi, boyar, copeck, cossack, Decembrist, duma, intelligentsia, kvass, Narodnik, nihilist, pogrom, rouble, samovar, steppe, taiga, tundra, troika, tsar, tsarina, tsarevich, verst, vodka, voivode, volost, ukase, uyezd, zemstvo.*

English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

We can exemplify some **Indian** borrowings:

*aniline, bungalow, calico, candy, cot, curry, guru, jungle, jute, khaki, loot, pariah, punch, rupee, sapphire, shampoo, sugar, typhoon.*

Among **Persian** words borrowed directly may be mentioned:

*bazaar, caravan, mullah, pilau, shah, turban.*

From the **Polish** language the following words were borrowed directly and indirectly:

*mazurka, polack, polka.*

The role of borrowing as one of the principal means of enriching Early Modern English is clearly borne out by the data. Table 1 testifies that borrowings had a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general.

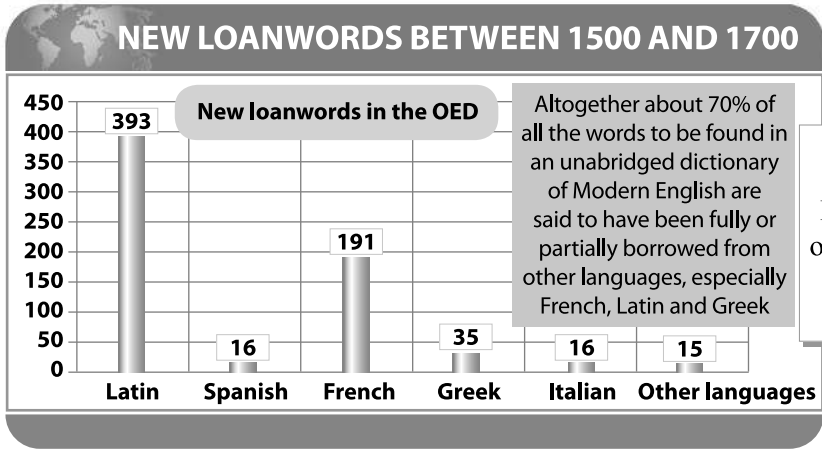


**Table 8.1.** Percentage of new loans in OED

Words from **non-European** languages entered through travel, trade and conquest. Examples of these borrowings are presented in Table 8.2.

**Table 8.2.** Examples of borrowings from non-European languages

| languages | borrowings |
|---|---|
| Turkish | *aga, bey, caftan, coffee, dolman, horde, kiosk, vizier, jackal, janizary, pasha, sherbet, uhlan, yogurt* |
| Hungarian | *coach, tokay* |
| Arabic | *Allah, arrack, emir, fakir, harem, hashish, henna, khalif, Koran, mohair, Moslem, Ramadan, sheikh, simoom, sofa* |
| African | *baobab, chimpanzee, gnu, Mumbo Jumbo, zebra* |
| Chinese | *bamboo, bohea, cockatoo, congou, ginseng, hyson, ketchup, orangutan(g), sago, sake, soy, tea* |
| Japanese | *geisha, kimono, Mikado, rickshaw, samurai* |
| N American languages | *raccoon, moose, skunk, hickory, totem, canoe* |

## 8.5 New Word-Formation



While large numbers of loanwords entered the language in the Early Modern English period, especially from Latin, words nevertheless continued to be coined from existing English language-material by traditional methods of word-formation, especially **affixation**, **compounding** and **conversion**. Indeed, it is probable that more words were produced in this way than were borrowed from foreign languages, though this fact was not noticed by contemporaries, who were obsessed with *inkhorn* terms. In fact, any loanword entering the language is soon likely to have other words derived from it by the normal native processes of word-formation. For example, in the fourteenth century the adjective *comfortable* was borrowed from French; by the end of the century the adverb *comfortably* had been derived from it, followed by the adjective *uncomfortable* (1592) (Barber, 2009: 192).

By far the commonest method of word-formation in the Early Modern English period was **affixation**, that is, the coining of new words by the use of **prefixes** and **suffixes**. Most of the words thus formed were nouns or adjectives, though there were also some adverbs and a few verbs. The two suffixes most frequently used for forming nouns were ***-ness*** and ***-er***, the former being added to adjectives (*bawdiness, briskness*) and the latter to verbs (*feeler, murmurer*). Adjectives were often formed by the use of ***-ed*** (*latticed*) or of ***-y*** (*batty, briny*). Adverbs were normally formed from adjectives with the suffix ***-ly*** (*bawdily*), but occasionally the ending ***-wise*** is found (*sporting-wise*). The usual suffix for forming verbs was ***-ize*** (*anathematize*). There were also many prefixes, of which by far the commonest was ***un-***, which was used freely with nouns, adjectives, participles, verbs and adverbs (*uncivility, unclimbable, unavailing, unclasp, uncircumspectly*).

A considerable number of words were formed by **compounding**, that is, the combination of two or more free morphemes. They are nearly all nouns, and the commonest type is **Noun + Noun** (*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.



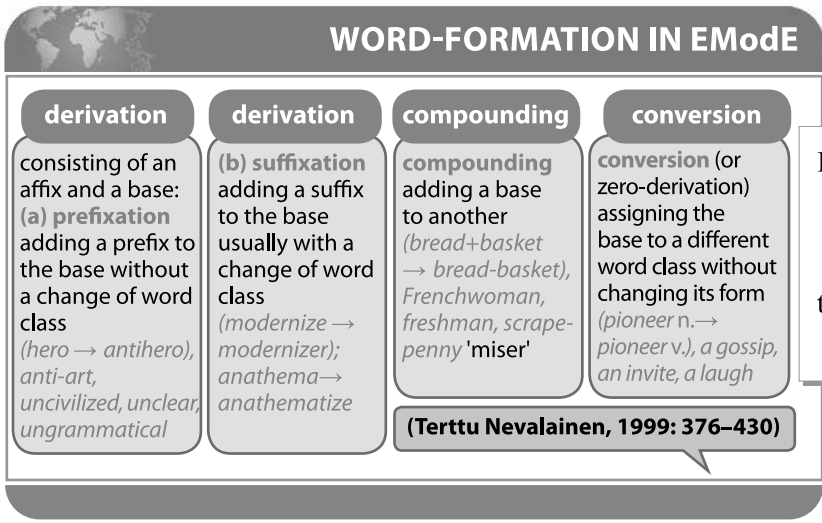


**Figure 8.6.** Types of word-formation the EModE period

## 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 the 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.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.


***Additional:***


- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.
- ✓ Lecture 8.

## 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 loanwords; but according to some estimates, roughly 50 per cent of the core vocabulary items of English remain 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. The high-frequency verbs mostly come from the three principal semantic domains: activity verbs (*come, go; make, get, give, take*), communicative verbs (*say, tell*) and mental verbs (*know, think*).
8. In Modern English the high-frequency verbs are proportionately more frequent in conversational data than, in fiction, newspapers and academic writing.
9. The inkhorn (inkwell) terms, being coined from Scandinavian for educated effect, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech (the middle of the 15th c.).
10. Long-term evidence illustrates the primacy of speech over writing as a means of human communication that partly explains how a sizable part of the common core can reach back to the earliest stages of a language.

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

1. Identify the Latin loans in EModE: ...
   **A** ballet, boulevard, canteen, champagne
   **B** addiction, assert, customary, hallucinate
   **C** hammock, maize, potato, tobacco
   **D** jungle, nirvana, polo, punch

2. Define the French loans in EModE: ...
   **A** bungalow, cashmere, china, cot, curry
   **B** barbecue, cannibal, chili, chocolate
   **C** cohesion, connoisseur, coquette, dentist
   **D** skipper, yacht, dock, cruise

**3.** Determine the Dutch loans in EModE: ....
**A** landscape, easel, sketch, tattoo
**B** sofa, harem, emir, Moslem
**C** sombrero, guitar, embargo, cargo
**D** publicity, routine, soubrette, syndicate

**4.** Define the Italian loans in EModE: ....
**A** mulatto, caste, canoe, lasso, mustang
**B** zemstvo, ukase, knout, pogrom, rouble
**C** violin, opera, piano, libretto, sonata, tempo
**D** chinchilla, condor, dorado, guano

**5.** Identify the Spanish loans in EModE: ....
**A** honour, colour, traveller, waggon
**B** Madonna, casino, zero, manage
**C** accommodation, chocolate, excitement
**D** cocoa, tobacco, banana, maize, cigar

**6.** Identify the Russian loans in EModE: ....
**A** charqui, guanaco, quipu
**B** taiga, tundra, samovar, balalaika
**C** colonel, pilot, cartridge, trophy
**D** radioactive, hydrogen bomb, chain

**7.** Define native German loans in EModE: ....
**A** affrighted, black eye, galled, hint
**B** blotch, gibber, hush, phew
**C** cordon, livre, indigo, vase, portmanteau
**D** reaction, black holes, quarks

**8.** Determine the Greek loans in EModE: ....
**A** bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame
**B** mathematics, physics, psychiatry, lexicology
**C** axe, tyre, storey, labour, habour, organise
**D** robot, mazurka, Tokay, tea, bamboo, shawl

**9.** Define the German loans in EModE: ....
**A** coffee, kiosk, rickshaw, jinrikisha, boomerang
**B** decor, beau, ménage, naïve, liaison, malapropos
**C** plunder, poodle, swindler, blitzkrieg, transcendental
**D** buoy, deck, freight, keel, spool, tub, scum

**10.** The Renaissance and the Revival of Learning intensified borrowings from ....
**A** Latin, Greek and French
**B** Latin, Greek and German
**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 loanwords indicated the fashion among the cultivated upper ranks of introducing French words and phrases into ordinary conversation, e.g. …
6. French loans often undergo some sound substitutions and stress shifts, e.g. …
7. The 16th century borrowings from French include military and naval terms, mainly: …
8. 'Social' French loans such as: …
9. Other areas where French borrowing made an impact are the arts and literature, dress, entertainment and food, e.g. …
10. Borrowings having a great impact on Early Modern English vocabulary in general did not, however, disrupt native continuity: …

**A** … about 60 per cent of the new words recorded for 1604 come from Latin and French, whereas native Germanic patterns of word-formation only cover some 20 percent of the new words.

**B** … *bourgeois, genteel, esprit, madame, minion, vogue, class, decor, beau, faux pas, liaison, malapropos, ménage, naïve, rapport, repartee,* etc. became particularly frequent in the 17th century.

**C** … *It may well be that I am in this particular likewise beholden to Mr. Gayers, of whose generous freedome and bonté I have had divers testimonies heretofore* (CEEC, John Cosin, 1659: 288).

**D** … anglicisation takes place with affixes: **contre-** changes into **counter-** (*counterpoint*), **-té** into **-ty** (*fidelity*), and verbs in **-er** take the suffix **-ise** (*anathemise*).

**E** … *formula – formulae, fungus – fungi, genius – genii, genus– genera*.

**F** … *catastrophe* and *crisis* to *hyperbole* and *praxis*, from *dialysis*, *hypothesis* and *coma* to *cosmos*, *narcosis* and *psyche*.

**G** … *colonel, pilot, cartridge* and *trophy*, as well as trade loans such as *cordon, livre, indigo, vase* and *portmanteau*.

**H** … *anemia, appendicitis, arteriosclerosis, bronchitis, diphtheria, aspirin, insulin, morphine, extrovert* and *introvert, behaviorism, inhibition, defense mechanism, inferiority complex, psychoanalysis, ozone, natural selection, stratosphere,* etc.

**I** … *ballet, cabaret, champagne, denim (< serge de Nîmes), memoirs, nom-de-plume, rôle, crayon, soup, vinaigrette,* etc.

**J** … the Germanic element remaining the backbone of the English vocabulary even after the Early Modern English period.

## SELF-STUDY 8

***Aims:***

- ✓ to identify the concept 'English versus Latin';
- ✓ to identify borrowings from contemporary languages in EModE.

### 8.1. Video films (either on CD or You Tube)

8.1.1. Academic English – Prof. David Crystal on standard vs. non-standard English
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hGg-2MQVReQ

8.1.2. Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 1 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFci7BMAX88

8.1.3. Biography – SW – Shakespeare. Part 2 of 2 of William Shakespeare – English Writer
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mB6V6JniMJk

8.1.4. To Be Or Not To Be – Shakespeare – Professor Sallie DelVecchio
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eet4u8MUVtM

8.1.5. Prof. Peter Saccio destroys the Shakespeare authorship question
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2YHLjE1Wh4

8.1.6. Shakespeare's Trial for fraud (Bishop's University)
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BR53TuDZ4k4

8.1.7. Was Marlowe Shakespeare Much Ado about Something
http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OsJTbWF1-lg



### Recommended Literature

***Obligatory:***


- ✓ Seth Lerer. *The History of the English Language*, 2nd Edition. – Stanford: The Teaching Company, 2008. – Part II. – P. 11–14.
- ✓ Valery V. Mykhailenko. *Paradigmatics in the Evolution of English.* – Chernivtsi, 1999. – P. 116–118; 129–130.
- ✓ T.A. Rastorguyeva. *A History of English.* – Moscow, 1983. – P. 296–328.
- ✓ L. Verba. *History of the English Language.* – Nova KNYHA, 2004. – P. 203–221.


***Additional:***


- ✓ Elly van Gelderen. *A History of the English Language.* – Amsterdam /Philadelphia, 2006. – P. 175–184.
- ✓ Lecture 8.

## 8.2. Computer tests in e-learning

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

1. In Renaissance England the predisposition was given full scope, and there was a food of Latin loans, the peak period being between about 1580 and 1660.
2. The introduction of loans was encouraged by the large number of translations made from Latin.
3. There wasn't a 'purist' movement (another manifestation of English nationalism) which attacked the use of loanwords, and advocated the coining of new technical terms from native elements.
4. By 1600 French is the greatest source of loanwords in English.
5. The absolute frequencies of loans suggest that, throughout the Early Modern English period, Spanish contributed more new words to the English lexicon than French. Latin borrowing peaked between 1575 and 1675.
6. Early Modern English loans from Portuguese are mostly bookish terms.
7. Most of the Latin loans are nouns, adjectives and verbs.
8. A great many Greek words introduced into English came in chiefly through the medium of Latin, for the Latin language itself was largely indebted to Greek.
9. The influx of Greek words on a large scale began until the time of the Revival of Learning.
10. Greek words are mostly bookish borrowings.
11. Modern scientific and technical terms of Greek origin are nearly all of international currency.
12. Greek terms added much to the precision of scientific terminology.
13. In natural sciences the preponderance of Dutch words is striking.
14. It is perhaps sufficient to mention merely the names of such fields as bacteriology, botany, histology, physiology, physics, zoology, etc., in order to suggest how the German language has permeated their various specialized vocabularies.
15. Greek borrowings were more or less Latinized in form.
16. Greek borrowings are spelt and pronounced not as Greek but as the Romans spelt and pronounced them.
17. Quite a number of proper names are Russian in origin, e.g. *George, Eugene, Helene, Sophie, Peter, Nicholas, Theodor* and still others.
18. The French loans of the later periods mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions and also many words from the general vocabulary.
19. Large scale borrowings in the English vocabulary came from other Romance languages, Greek, Spanish and Portuguese.
20. English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe: Arabic, Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

# LINGUISTIC TERMS

1. **Ablaut** (also sometimes called **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 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.
45. **Euphemism**, metaphoric transference of the name based on the usage of conventionally acceptable words instead of unpleasant, rough ones.
46. **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.
47. **Free morphemes**, those which can occur alone (i.e., which are also free forms of words).
48. **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.
49. **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.
50. **Geminate**, a geminate can be defined phonetically as a sequence of identical articulation.
51. **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, 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.

52. **Grammar**, the term grammar refers to generalized statements of the regularities and irregularities found in language.
53. **Grammar category**, one of the most general characteristics of linguistic units or their classes which is expressed grammatically in a language (case, number, tense, etc.).
54. **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.
55. **Historical (**or **diachronic) linguistics** studies the development of a language from one stage in its history to the next.
56. **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.
57. **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.
58. **Historism**, a word which has become obsolete because the thing named is outdated and no longer used.
59. **Hybrid**, a word different elements of which are of etymologically different origin.
60. **Hyperbole**, metaphoric shift of the name based on hyperbolic exaggeration of a certain quality or property.
61. **International words**, words of identical origin that occur in several languages as a result of simultaneous or successive borrowings from one ultimate source.
62. **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.
63. **Kindred languages** are these which have the same source of origin and are usually united into groups and families.
64. **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.

65. **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*).

66. **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.

67. **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.

68. **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.

69. **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.

70. **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.

71. **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.

72. **Lexical morpheme**, generalized term for root and derivational morphemes, as expressing lexical meanings in contrast to flexional (morphemes) that express grammatical meanings.
73. **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.
74. **Linguistic causes**, factors acting within the language system.
75. **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).
76. **Loan translations** (calques), borrowing by means of literally translating words (usually one part after another) or word combinations, by modeling words after foreign patterns.
77. **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.
78. **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.
79. **Metathesis**, an interchange of sounds or syllables in a word (Old English *hwat* – Modern English *what*).
80. **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 folklore 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.
81. **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.

82. **Monophthong**, a single vowel sound with no change in quality from beginning to end of its production.

83. **Morpheme**, the smallest indivisible two-facet (possessing sound form and meaning) language unit.

84. **Morphological segmentation** (morphologic divisibility), the ability of a word to be divided into such elements as root, stem and affix (or affixes).

85. **Morphology** describes the form and function of word-forms with respect to their grammatical relevance.

86. **Mutation**, the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable.

87. **Neologism**, a word or a word combination that appears or is specially coined to name a new object or express a new concept.

88. **Nominative-derivative meanings**, other meanings in a polysemantic word which are characterized by free combinability and are connected with the main nominative meaning.

89. **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**.

90. **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.

91. **Obsolete word**, a word which has dropped out of the language altogether.

92. **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.

93. **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.

94. **Opposition,** a difference between two (or more) homogeneous units which is capable of fulfilling a semiological function, i.e. a semiologlcally relevant difference.

95. **Palatalization**, the raising of the tongue towards the hard palate, normally as a secondary feature of articulation.

96. **Palatal mutation** (i -umlaut), a series of combinative changes in vowels when there is an *i* or *j* in the following syllable.

97. **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.

98. **Paradigm** is a total amount of word forms possible for a speech in a definite language.

99. **Paradigm**, the system of the grammatical forms of a word.

100. **Pejorative development**, the acquisition by the word of some derogatory emotive charge.

101. **Person**, a deictic category relating participants one to another in a linguistic situation.

102. **Personal pronoun**, a pronoun referring to one of the categories of person.

103. **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.

104. **Phonological distribution**, an amount of contexts a phoneme occurs in.

105. **Phonological principle of spelling**, based on a very close correlation between spoken and written traditions in a language.

106. **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.

107. **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.

108. **Plosive**, a stop released with a regressive pulmonic air stream.

109. **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.

110. **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.

111. **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.

112. **Pronoun**, a part of speech used instead of noun or noun phrase.

113. **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.

114. **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.

115. **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.

116. **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**.

117. **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.

118. **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.

119. **Rhotacism**, the occurrence of [r] in place of some other speech sound.

120. **Root** is a part of a word bearing its lexical meaning.

121. **Root**, the semantic nucleus of a word with which no grammatical properties of the word are connected.

122. **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.

123. **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.

124. **Semantic extension** (widening of meaning), application of the word to a wider variety of referents.

125. **Semantic field**, part ('slice') of reality singled out in human experience, and, theoretically, covered in language by more or less autonomous lexical microsystem.

126. **Semantic restriction** (narrowing of meaning), restriction of the types or range of referents denoted by the word.

127. **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"*).

128. **Similarity of meaning** or **metaphor**, semantic process of associating two referents, one of which in some way resembles the other.

129. **Sociolinguistics**, branch of linguistics studying causation between language and the life of the speaking community.

130. **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.

131. **Sonority**, a resonant quality of a sound such as 'loudness' or 'length' which makes it more prominent than another.

132. **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.

133. **Stem**, a part of a word without a flexion.

134. **Stem**, the part of a word which remains unchanged throughout its paradigm and to which grammatical inflexions and affixes are added.

135. **Strong declension**, an indefinite declension.

136. **Strong verbs** are those which express, past forms by means of changing the root vowel.

137. **Substratum**, under-layer.

138. **Synchronic studies** are concerned with the structure of a language at one (usually the contemporary) stage only.

139. **Synchrony,** a conventional isolation of a certain stage in the development of language.

140. **Synecdoche**, semantic process consisting in giving the name of the part for the whole or the name of the whole for the part.

141. **Syntagmatics**, linear (simultaneous) relationship of words in speech as distinct from associative (non-simultaneous) relationship of word in language (paradigmatics).

142. **Synthetical grammar meanings** expressed within the word form (flexions, changing the root vowel, affixation, suppletive forms, etc.).

143. **Taboo**, prohibition of the usage of a word caused by prejudices, superstitions as a safeguard against supernatural forces.

144. **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.

145. **Tribe**, a racial group, especially one united by language and custom, living as a community under one or more chief.

146. **Velar**, a speech sound articulated with the tongue touching or approaching the velum.

147. **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**.

148. **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.

149. **Vocabulary**, the totality of words in a language.

150. **Weak verbs** are those which express past forms by means of a dental suffix.

151. **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.

152. **Word-forming pattern**, a certain type of a stable structure with a generalizing lexico-categorial meaning.

153. **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).

154. **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 ***ʒe-***.
6. In the abbreviations of the type: ***n.m.a*** – the first letter means **noun**, the second denotes the gender of this noun – **masculine**, the third denotes the **stem** suffix.
7. Middle English words are preceded by a dash.

## SIGNS

**ŏ** over a vowel letter indicates that the vowel is short
**ō** over a vowel letter indicates that the vowel is long
**ọ** (dot) under a vowel letter indicates the close articulation of the vowel
> stands for 'changed to, becomes, developed into'
< stands for 'changed from, derived from, developed from'
* marks hypothetical (i.e. supposed) forms
\+ followed by
‖ corresponds to
/ in phonetics it marks alternation of sounds;
in grammar it is placed between variants of a grammatical form or a morpheme

## PRINCIPAL ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

*acc.* – accusative
*adj.* – adjective
*AN* – Anglo-Norman
*arch.* – archaic
*adv.* – adverb
*anom.* – anomalous
*art.* – article
*borr. fr.* – borrowed from
*c.* – century; circa
*cf.* – confer, compare
*coll.* – collective
*ModE*, *MnE* – Modern English
*ModF*, *MnF* – Modern French
*ModG*, *MnG* – Modern German
*n.* – neuter gender
*negat.* – negative
*nom.* – nominative
*num.* – numeral
*ODa.* – Old Danish
*OE* – Old English
*OF* – Old French
*OFr.* – Old Frisian

*comp.* – comparative
*OHG* – Old High German
*conj.* – conjunction
*cons.* – consonantal (root) declension
*Dan.* – Danish
*dat.* – dative
*dem.* – demonstrative
*denom. fr.* – denominative from
*der. fr.* – derived from
*dial.* – dialectal
*Du.* – Dutch
*E* – English
*Eccl. Lat.* – Ecclesiastical Latin
*EModE* – 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., L.* – 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
*N* – Norse
*OF* – Old French
*OLG* – Old Low German
*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

(Иванова et al., 1999: 132–157)

# A

**ā**, *adv.* – ever, always; *ME* o, oo, ai ‖ *Gth.* aiw ‖ *OHG* eo, io ‖ *ON* ā, ey
**a**, *art.* – *ME*, *ModE*; < *OE* ān; *ME* also an
**abbe** – *s.* **habban**
**abhominable**, *adj.*, *ME*; < *OF* abhominable; *Lat.* abominābilis – abominable
**– abillite**, *n.* – ability ‖ *OF* habilité ‖ *Lat.* habilitatem *f.* habilis – able
**ābreȝdan**, *sv. 4* – to tear away; **breȝdan** *(s.)*
**ābroȝden**, – *ptple of* ābreȝdan
**ābūtan**, *adv.*, *prep.* – about, around; *ME* abouten
**ac**, *conj.* – but
**ā-cerran**, **ācierran**, **ācyrran**, *wv. 1* – to turn; *denom. fr.* cierr, cyrr, cerr – time, occasion; *cf. ModE* charwoman ‖ *OHG* keran ‖ *ModG* kehren
**– accorden**, *v.* – to agree; reconcile ‖ *OF* acorder ‖ *Lat.* ad+cordare (after *concordare*)
**– accounte**, *n.* – reckoning; estimation ‖ *AN* acunt ‖ *OF* acont
**ācōlian**, *wv. 2* – to cool; *denom. fr.* **cōl** *(s.)*
**acolmōd**, *adj.* – of a fearful mind, timid; **acol**, *adj.* – frightened+mōd *(s.)*
**acsian**, **ahsian**, **askian**, *wv. 2* – to ask; *ME* asken, axien ‖ *OHG* eiscon ‖ *ModG* heischen ‖ *Russ.* искать
**ād**, *n.m.a.* – funeral pile, pile ‖ *OHG* eit
**ādēle** – *s.* **dǣlan**
**ādrang** – *f.* **ādrincan**
**ādrēōȝan** – *s.* **drēōȝan**
**ādrincan**, *sv. 3* – to drown; ā + drincan *(s.)*
**ādūne**, *adv.* – ā + dūn, *n.* – a mountain, hill
**– adversitee**, *n.* – adversity, misfortune ‖ *OF* adversite ‖ *Lat.* adversitas – opposition
**ā-feallan**, *sv. 7* – to fall; a + feallan *(s.)*
**ā-feorran**, *wv. 2* – to remove; *denom. fr.* feorr *(s.)*
**– aferd**, *adj.* – afraid; *adjectivized ptple of OE* ā-fǣran
**āfierran**, **āfyrran** – *s.* **afeorran**
**āfyrð** – *s.* **ā-feorran**
**– after** – *s.* **æfter**
**agayne** – *s.* **onȝean**
**āȝan**, *v. prt. prs.* (āhte) – to own, possess; *ME* owen, āgen ‖ *Gth.* aigan ‖ *OHG* eigan ‖ *ModG* eigan ‖ *OS* ēgan ‖ *ON* eiga
**āgān**, *irr. v .suppl.* – to go away; ā + gān *(s.)*
**– agaste**, *adj.* – dumbfounded; *prt. prs of* agaste, *v.* – to frighten ‖ *OE* gæstan – to torment
**– agat** – on gate = on the way; *s.* **gate**, **ȝeat**
**– age**, *n.* – time of life, age ‖ *OF* oge ‖ *Lat.* ætas, ætates
**āȝen**, *prt. prs. II of* agan *(s.)* – own
**āȝiefan**, **aȝefan**, *sv. 5* – to give up; ā + giefan *(s.)*
**– agrisen**, *v.* – to be horrified; *OE* agrisan; *rel. to ModE* grisly

**ā-hebban**, *sv. 5* – to lift, raise; ā + hebban *(s.)*
**āhȳdan**, *wv. 1* – to hide, conceal; ā + hydan *(s.)*
**āhyrdan**, *wv. 1* – to grow hard; *der. fr.* heard
**āhlēōp** – *s.* **hleapan**
**ā-hōf** – *s.* **ā-hebban**
**ā-hreddan**, *wv. 1* – to snatch away, set free, liberate; ā + hreddan *(s.)*
**– ay**, *adv.* – *s.* **ā**
**– a-yens** – 1) towards; 2) in opposition to; *OE* on-ȝean + es; *ModE* against
**aige** – *s.* **age**
**al**, **eall** *adj.* – all; *ME* al ‖ *Gth.* alls ‖ *OHG* al ‖ *OS* al ‖ *ON* allr
**– alas**, *interj.* – alas; ‖ *F.* helas – a + ‖ *Lat.* lassus – tired, weary
**ald** *adj.* – *s.* **eald**
**alderman**, **aldorman**, **ealdorman**, *n. m. cons.* – alderman, nobleman, chief; ealdra (*s.* **eald**) + man *(s.)*
**aldor**, **ealdor**, *n. m. a.* – life; age, parent; *der. fr.* ald, eald, *adj. (s.)*
**– ale**, *n.* – *s.* **ealu**, **ealo**
**ā-lecgan**, *wv. 1* – to lay; **ā+lecgan** *(s.)*
**āled** – *s.* **alecgan**
**– alighten**, *v.* – to alight, descend, make light; *OE* alihtan, *wv.1*; *der. fr.* leoht, liht – not heavy ‖ *Gth.* leihts ‖ *OHG* lihti ‖ *ModG* leicht ‖ *OS* lihts ‖ *ON* littr, lettr
**– allane** – alone < al +ane, al + one; *s.* **eall**, **ān**
**allmehtiȝ**, **alimihtiȝ**, *adj.* – almighty; all, eall *(s.)* + mihtig *(s.)*
**– almenak**, *n.* – almanac ‖ *Med. Lat.* almanac
**– āmærran**, **amerran**, **amyrran** – to spoil, destroy, mar; *OE* amerran; *ModE* mar ‖ *Gth.* marzjan ‖ *OHG* marren, merren ‖ *OS* merrian ‖ *ON* merja
**ambyr**, *adj.* – what is happening; even or equal; fair, favourable; am, *pref.* – equal + byr – happening
**ān**, *num.* – one; *ME* on, o, an (*indef. art.*) ‖ *Gth.* ains ‖ *OHG* ein ‖ *ON* ein-n ‖ *Lat.* unus
**– ancre**, *n.* – nun; anchorite; *OE* ancra; *ModE* anchor *(obs.)* ‖ *Lat.* anachoreta
**and**, *prp.* + *dat.* – with; + *acc.* – against, on, into ‖ *Lat.* ante ‖ *OHG* ant ‖ *Gth.* and – against ‖ *ON* and = against
**and**, *conj.* – and, along with, if ‖ *OHG* anti, enti, inti, unti ‖ *OFr.* anda, enda ‖ *OS* ande, endi ‖ *ON* enda – if
**anda**, *n. m. n.* – malice, malevolence ‖ *OHG* anado ‖ *ON* andi – spirit, soul
**andefn**, *n. n. a.* – equality, measure; and, *prp.* + efn *(s.)*
**andȝit**, *n. n. a.* – understanding, intellect, knowledge; and, *prp.* + ȝit/ȝitan, ȝietan (*s.* **beȝietan**)
**andȝytfullic**, *adj.* – clearly understood, meaningful; andȝyt *(s.)* + ful, *suff.*
**andlang**, *prp.* – along; and + lang *(s.)*
**andswarian**, **andswerian**, *wv. 2* – to answer; *denom. fr.* **andswaru** *(s.)*
**andswaru**, *n. f. ō.* – answer; *ME* andsware, ondswere, answere ‖ *OS* antswor ‖ *rel. to OE* swarian ‖ *ON* svara ‖ *Germ.* *andswaro ‖ *Mod.G* Antwort
**andwyrdan**, *wv. 1* – to answer; *denom. fr.* andwyrde = **and + word**, *n. n. a*
**Angelcynn**, *n. n. i.* – the Angles – Englishmen; **Angel**, **Angle + cynn** *(s.)*

**anginn**, **angyn**, *n. n. a.* – a beginning; **an**, **on** + **gin** … (**ginnan**) (*s.* **onginnan**)
**ānhaga**, *n. m. n.* – a lone dweller, recluse; ān (one) + haga (a closed-in place) ‖ *ModE* 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 ‖ *ModG* 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 ‖ *ModE* appeal ‖ *OF* apeler ‖ *Lat.* appellare
– **apostolic**, *adj.* – apostolical; *OE* apostol; *borr. fr.* ‖ *Gk.* apostolos – messenger
**ār**, *n. f. ō.* – oar ‖ *ON* ār ‖ *ModDan.* oare ‖ *ModSw.* āra
**ārædan**, *sv. 7* – to take counsel, care for, determine; interpret, guess; ā + rædan *(s.)*
**ārēd** – *s.* **ārædan**
**āræran** – to rear, construct, build up, establish; ā + ræran *(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.* **ær**
**āreccean**, *wv. 1* – to tell, relate, express; ā + reccan *(s.)*
– **aresten**, *v.* – to capture, seize ‖ *OF* arrester ‖ *Rom.* ad + restare = stop
**ār-ȝeblond**, *n. n. a.* – the sea disturbed by oars
**ārās** – *s.* **ā-rīsan**
**ā-rīsan**, *sv. 1* – to arise; a + rīsan *(s.)*
– **ariuen**, *v.* – to arrive ‖ *OF* ariver ‖ *Lat.* ad +ripa = shore
**ārlīc**, *adj.* – honourable; ar, *n. f. ō.* – honour + līc ‖ *Gth.* aistan – to be shy ‖ *OHG* ēra – honour
– **arming**, *n.* – arms, weapons ‖ *OF* armes, *n.*; armer, *v.* ‖ *Lat.* arma, *n.*; armare, *v.*
**āsendan**, *wv. 1* – to put down, lower; ā + sendan *(s.)*
**āsettan**, *wv. 1* – to set up, establish; appoint; make a journey; ā + settan *(s.)*
**ā-smēaȝean**, **āsmēade**, **āsmēad**, *wv. 2* – to consider, reflect, examine; ā + smēaȝean; *denom. fr.* smēah, *adj.* subtle, crafty ‖ *OHG* smiegen
– **aspect**, *n.* – appearance; way of looking ‖ *Lat.* aspectus
**āspendan**, *wv. 1* – to spend entirely; ā + spendan *(s.)*
– **assoilen**, *v.* – to absolve, acquit ‖ *AN* as(s)oilier ‖ *OF* assoil, asoldre ‖ *Lat.* absolvere
**ā-stāh** – *s.* **astīȝan**
– **astat**, *n.* – state, condition, status – XIII; class of the body politic – XV; landed property – XVIII ‖ *Mod.E* estate ‖ *OF* estat ‖ *Mod.F* etat ‖ *Lat.* status
**āstīȝan**, *sv. 1* – to climb up, ascend; *s.* **stīȝan**

**āstōd** – *s.* **standan**
– **astrolable**, *n.* – astrolabe (instrument formerly used to take altitudes) ‖ *fr.* astrolabe ‖ *Lat.* astrolabium
**at**, *prp.* – to, towards (*cf.* æt) ‖ *Gth.* at ‖ *OFr.* et ‖ *OS* at ‖ *OHG* az
**ā-tēon**, *sv. 2* – to draw out, lead out; dispose of; make a journey; *s.* **tēon**
**ā-teorian**, **āteorjan**, *wv. 2* – to fail, cease, leave off; *s.* **teorian**
**ater-tān**, *n. m. a.* – a poisonous twig; *s.* **ator**, **ater**; tān – *rel.to* **tēon**
**atol**, *adj.* – terrible, horrid, loathsome ‖ *ON* atall ‖ *Lat.* odium
– **atones** – at once
**ator**, *n. n. a.* – poison; *ME* atter, attor; *ModE* atter – venom of reptiles ‖ *OHG* eitar ‖ *ModG* Eiter ‖ *ON* eitr
**atte** – at the
**ātwām** – in two (*s.* **twā**)
**āþ**, *n. m. a.* – oath; *ME* oth ‖ *Gth.* aiþs ‖ *OHG* eid
**auere** – *s.* **æfre**
– **auisen**, *v.* – to take thought, reflect ‖ *OF* aviser
– **aungel**, *n.* –angel ‖ *Lat.* angelus ‖ *Gk.* angelos ‖ *Gth.* aggelus
– **aventure**, *n.* – chance, occurrence; risk, chance of danger; exciting occurrence ‖ *OF* aventure ‖ *Lat.* ad + venturum – something due to take place
– **awappen**, *v.* – to astonish; *orig. unknown*
– **awhaped** – *s.* **awappen**
**āwendan**, *wv. 1* – to turn away, change, translate; *s.* **wendan**
– **awnen**, *v.* – to show ‖ *MHG* ougenen ‖ *cf OE* eawan *with n-infix*
**āworpennys**, *n. f. ō.* – rejection, casting away; *der. fr.* weorpan *(s.)*
**āwrītan**, *sv. 1* – to write, transcribe, compose, inscribe, carve; *s.* **wrītan**
**axian** – *s.* **acsian**
– **away** – *s. OE* on + weȝ *(s.)*

## Æ

**æce** – *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
**æfre**, *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
**æȝþer**, *pron.* – either, each, both; *ME* either, aither; (ā-ȝihwæþer)
**æȝðer**…**ȝe**… **ȝe**…, *conj.* – both…and
**æȝhwæm**, *pron.* – *dat. pl. of* æȝhwā (æȝ-any – hwā) – any
**æȝhwylc**, *pron.* – everyone, everything
**ælc**, *pron.* – each; *ME* ech ‖ *OHG* eogalih ‖ *Mod.G* jeglich ‖ *rel. to* ‖ *Gth.* aiws ‖ *Lat.* aevum

**ǣlch(e)** – *s.* **ǣlc**
**æld** – *s.* **eald**
**ælmeslīc**, *adj.* – charitable ‖ *der. fr.* ælmesse ‖ *fr.* – charity ‖ *ME* almesse ‖ *Eccl. Lat.* ellemosyna ‖ *fr .Gk.* elemosyna
**ælmihtiʒ** – *s.* **allmehtiʒ**
**æmynde** – jealousy, *etym. unknown; rel. to* ʒemynd – mind
**ǣniʒ**, **ǣneʒ**, *pron.* – any (ān + *suff.*- iʒ); *ME* any, eny
**ǣnlīc**, *adj.* – noble, unique (ān + līc) ‖ *Gth.* ana-leiks ‖ *OHG* einlih ‖ *Mod.G* ähnlich
**ǣr**, *adv.* – before, earlier; *ME* er ‖ *Gth.* airis ‖ *OHG* ēr
**ǣrdæʒ**, *n. m. a.* – dawn, sunrise; *s.* **ær**, **dæʒ**
**ǣrest**, *adv.* – first, earliest; *superl. of* ǣr *(s.)*
**ærfe**, *n.*, *adj.* – inheritance; heritable ‖ *cf.* yrfe – cattle, property ‖ *OHG* erbi ‖ *ON* arft ‖ *Lat.* orbus – orphan
**ærfenuma**, *n. m. n.* – heir; ærfe *(s.)* + numa; *rel. to* niman, *ptple II*
**ærfeuard**, *n. m. a.* – heir; ærfe *(s.)* + weard, ward = guard, guardian
**ǣrist** – *s.* **ǣrest**
**ǣrlīc**, *adj.* – early; ǣr *(s.)* + līc
**ærnan** – *s.* **iernan**
**ærðe** – erede, erode; *s.* **erian**
**ǣrþon**, *conj.* – before; ǣr + þon, *instr. of* sē
**ǣspring**, *n. n. a.* – fountain, spring; ǣ – water + spring – fountain
**æstel**, *n. m. a.* – tablet for writing, a waxed tablet; *borr. fr.* ‖ *Lat.* astula
**æt**, *prp.* + dat. – at, in, with; from ‖ *Gth.* at ‖ *OHG* az ‖ *ON* at
**æt**, *n. m. a.* – food, eating; *rel. to* etan *(s.)* ‖ *OHG* az ‖ *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 ‖ *ModG* 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* bet ‖ *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* nieder

**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

**cǣʒ**, *n. f. jō.* – key *(origin unknown)*
**cēap**, *n. m. a.* – cattle
**cyninʒ**, *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.* dȳde, *ptple* gedōn – to do, perform, make, cause; *ME* don, doon, do ‖ *OHG* tuoan, tuon ‖ *MnG* tun ‖ *Russ.* деять, делать ‖ *Ukr.* діяти

**dor**, *n. n. a.* – door, a large door; *ME* dor, door ‖ *Gth.* daura ‖ *MnG* Tür ‖ *Russ.* дверь ‖ *Ukr.* двері

**doutte**, *n.* – doubt, uncertainty, fear ‖ *OF* doter, duter ‖ *MnF* doute ‖ *Lat.* dubitum ‖ *the letter* b *was inserted in XVI etymologically*; b *was never pronounced in this word in English*

**drēam**, *n. m. a.* – 1) joy, pleasure, mirth; 2) what causes mirth – a musical instrument; *ME* dremen (to rejoice) ‖ *OS* drom – noise ‖ *OHG* troum (dream) ‖ *MnG* Traum ‖ *ON* draumr ‖ *MnE* dream *rel. to ON*

**drēam-lēas**, *adj.* – joyless, sad

**drifan**, *sv. 1* – to drive, force, pursue; *ME* dryven, driven ‖ *Gth.* dreiban ‖ *OHG* triban ‖ *MnG* treiben

**dryft**, *n.* – driven snow; course, direction; driving or being driven; *MnE* drift ‖ *OFr.* drift *in* urdrift – expulsion ‖ *MnG* trift – passage for cattle, pasturage; *rel. to* drifan

**dryge**, *adj.* – dry; *ME* drie; *hence* drugian – to dry; drugaþ – drought ‖ *OHG* trockan ‖ *MnG* trocken

**driht-guma**, *n. m. n.* – a warrior

**drihten**, *m. n. a.* – lord, creator, judge; *ME* drihten ‖ *OHG* truhtin ‖ *OFr.* drochten ‖ *ON* drottin; *rel. to* drēogan. *sv. 2* – to accomplish, carry through, suffer.

**drincan**, *sv. 3* – to drink; *ME* drinken, drincan ‖ *Gth.* drigkan ‖ *OHG* trinchan ‖ *MnG* trinken

**durran**, *v. prt.-prs., prs.* dearr, durron, *p. t.* dorste – dare, presume; *ME* durren; *MnE* dare, durst ‖ *Gth.* ga-daursan ‖ *OHG* giturran, gitorsta ‖ *Russ.* дерзать

**duru**, *n. f. n.* – door; *ME* dure, dor, dore ‖ *Gth.* daur ‖ *OHG* tor ‖ *MnG* Tür ‖ *ON* dyrr ‖ *Russ.* дверь ‖ *Ukr.* двері

**dwellan**, *wv. irr. 1* – to lead astray, delay; *ME* dwellen – to stay ‖ *OHG* twaljan ‖ *OFr.* dwelia ‖ *ON* dvelja – to delay, tarry; *Mn* meaning *fr. ON*

## E

**ēa**, *n. f. cons.* – water; river; *ME* æ; *in MnE traced in river-names* ‖ *Gth.* ahva ‖ *OHG* aha ‖ *Lat.* aqua ‖ *of. Russ.* Ока

**ēac**, *conj.* – also, moreover; *ME* eac, ec, eke ‖ *MnE* eke *(arch.)* ‖ *Gth.* auk ‖ *OHG* ouh

**ēadig**, *adj.* – happy, upright; *ME* eadi, edi ‖ *Gth.* audags ‖ *OHG* ōtag
**ēage**, *n. n. n.* – eye; *ME* eye ‖ *Gth.* augo ‖ *OHG* ouga, auga ‖ *Lat.* oculus ‖ *OSl.* око
**eahta**, *num.* – eight; *ME* eighte, aughte ‖ *Gth.* ahtau ‖ *OHG* ahto ‖ *MnG* acht ‖ *OFr.* ahta ‖ *Lat.* octo
**eald**, *adj., comp.* yldra, *sup.* yldest – old, ancient; great ‖ *Gth.* alþeis ‖ *OHG* alt
**eall**, *adj.* – all; *ME* al, eal ‖ *Gth.* alls ‖ *OHG* all ‖ *MnG* all
**ealweg**, *adv.* – always, quite; eal + weg *(s.)*
**earm**, *n. m. a.* – arm; *ME* arm, ærm ‖ *Gth.* arms ‖ *OHG* arm, aram ‖ *OS* arm ‖ *OFr.* arm, erm ‖ *ON* armr
**ēast**, *n. m. a.* – east; *ME* est, eest, æst ‖ *OHG* ost, ostan ‖ *OS* ost ‖ *OFr.* asta, ost ‖ *MnG* Ost, Osten ‖ *ON* austr; *cf.* austro-goti
**ēastan**, **ēstan**, *adv.* – from the East; *s.* ēast
**ēc** = ēac *(s.)*
**ecg**, *n. f. jō.* – edge, blade, sword; *ME* ecge, egge ‖ *OHG* ekka ‖ *MnG* Ecke ‖ *OS* eggia ‖ *Lat.* acies
**efn**, *adj.* – even; *ME* even ‖ *Gth.* ibns ‖ *OHG* eban ‖ *MnG* eben
**efne**, *adv.* – even; precisely; exactly; *s.* **efn**, *adj.*
**efstan**, *wv. 1* – to hasten, hurry; *denom. fr.* ofost – hurry
**eit**, *adv.* – again; *ME* eft, efte
**efter** – *s.* **æfter**
**ende**, *n. n. ja.* – end; *ME* ende, end ‖ *Gth.* andeis ‖ *OHG* enti ‖ *MnG* Ende
**englisc**, *adj.* – English; Angel, Angle + *suff.* **-**isc; *ME* English ‖ *MnG* engelisch ‖ *MnE* English
**eny** – any; *s.* **ænig**
**ēode** – *s.* **gān**
**eorþe**, *n. f. ō.* – earth; *ME* erthe, eorþe, earþe ‖ *Gth.* airþa ‖ *OHG* erda ‖ *MnG* Erde ‖ *OS* ertha ‖ *ON* jorð
**ēow**, **eow** – 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.* піст

**fēa**, **fēawa**, *adj.* – few; *ME* fewe, feue, fæwe ‖ *Gth.* fawai ‖ *OHG* fōh ‖ *Lat.* paucus, paulus

**fealdan**, *sv. 7 – p. t.* fēold – to fold, wrap; give way, alter; *ME* falden ‖ *Gth.* falþan ‖ *OHG* faldan ‖ *MnG* falten ‖ *ON* falda

**feallan**, *sv. 7 – p. t.* fēoll – to fall; *ME* fallen, falle ‖ *OHG* fallen ‖ *MnG* fallen

**fela**, **fæla**, **feala**, *adj.*, *adv.* – many; very much; *ME* fele, feole, vele ‖ *Mn Scotch* feil, fiel ‖ *Gth.* filu ‖ *OHG* filo ‖ *MnG* viel ‖ *Lat.* plus

**fēlan**, *wv. 1* – to feel; *ME* fele, felen ‖ *OHG* fuljan, fuolen ‖ *MnG* fühlen

**felawe**, **fellawe**, *n.* – fellow, partner ‖ *ON* fēlagi, fē ‖ *OE* fēoh (cattle) + lag (base of lay) – putting money (cattle) in a joint enterprise

**felawshipe**, *n. m. a.* – fellowship; felawe *(s.)* + suff. **-**shipe

**feld**, *n. n. a.* – field; *ME* feld, felde ‖ *OHG* feld ‖ *MnG* Feld ‖ *Gr.* platus – broad

**felen** – *s.* **fēlan**

**fēo**, **feoh**, *n. n. a.* – cattle; money, value, fee, reward; property; *ME* fee, fe, feo(h) ‖ *Gth.* faihu ‖ *OHG* feha ‖ *MnG* Vieh ‖ *Lat.* pecus

**feohan**, *sv. 5* – to rejoice

**feohtan**, *sv. 3* – to fight; *ME* fehten, fihten ‖ *OHG* fechtan ‖ fechten

**fēond**, **fiend**, *n. m. nd.* – enemy; *ME* feond, feend, fiend; *MnE* fiend (*der. fr. ptple 1* of fēon – to hate) ‖ *Gth.* fijands ‖ *OHG* fiant ‖ *MnG* Feind ‖ *ON* fiandi

**feor**, *adv.* – far; *ME* ferre, feor ‖ *Gth.* fairra ‖ *OHG* ferr ‖ *Lat.* porro *(pref.)*

**feorran**, *adv.* – far off, from far; feor + adv., suff. **-**an

**fēower**, *num.* – four; *ME* foure; feour, fower ‖ *Gth.* fidwor ‖ *OHG* fior ‖ *MnG* vier ‖ *Lat.* quattuor

**fēowertig**, *num.* – forty; fēowe *(s.)* + tig; *cf. MnG* –zig ‖ *Gr.* dekas

**fīf**, *num.* – five; *ME* fif, five ‖ *Gth.* fimf ‖ *OHG* fimf, finf ‖ *MnG* fünf ‖ *Lat.* quinque ‖ *Gr.* pente

**fīftēne**, **fīftŷne**, *num.* – fifteen; *ME* fifteen; fīf *(s.)* + tēne; rel. < tēn, tiene *(s.)*

**fīftig**, *num.* – fifty; *ME* fiftig; fīa *(s.)* + tig; *cf. G* ~ zig ‖ *Gth.* ~ tigus ‖ *Gr.*~ dekas

**fil**, *p. t. of* fallen – *s.* **feallan**

**fylþ**, *v., 3rd prs.* – *s.* **feallan**

**findan**, *sv. 3* – to find; *ME* finden, fynden, uinden ‖ *Gth.* finþan ‖ *OHG* findan

**fierd**, **fyrd**, *n. f. i.* – army, military expedition; *ME* ferd, ferde, verd, furde ‖ *OHG* fart ‖ *MnG* Fahrt

**fisc**, *n. m. a.* (pl. fiscas, fixas) – fish; *ME* fisch, fish, fisc, fiss ‖ *Gth.* fisks ‖ *OHG* fisk ‖ *MnG* Fisch ‖ *Lat.* piscis

**fōlc**, *n. n. a.* – folk, people, tribe; *ME* folk, uolc ‖ *OHG* folk, folch

**folgian**, **fylgan**, *wv. 2* – to follow; *ME* folwen, folghenn ‖ *OHG* folgen ‖ *MnG* folgen

**folye**, *n.* – folly ‖ *OF* folie ‖ *MnF* folie ‖ fōl

**folk** – *s.* **folc**

**foresprecan**, *sv. 5* – to foretell; fore + sprecan *(s.)*

**foreswigian**, *wv. 2* – to pass over in silence, to be silent; fore (adv.) + swigian – to be silent ‖ *OHG* swigen ‖ *MnG* schweigen, verschweigen
**foreweard**, *adj., adv.* – forward, to the fore, former; fore + suff. – weard
**forhwæga**, *adv.* – at least
**forlætan**, *sv. 7* – to leave; omit; forgive; permit ‖ *MnG* verlassen ‖ *s.* **lætan**
**fōron** – *s.* **faran**
**forwiernan**, *wv. 1* – to prevent
**forwyrcan**, *wv. 1 irr.* – to do wrong
**forþ**, *adv.* – completely, away, forth; *ME* forth ‖ *MHG* vort ‖ *MdG* fort
**forðan**, **forðām**, *conj.* – for that, for that reason which, because: for + ðām, *dat. pl. of* sē
**forþgenge**, *adj.* – progressive, increasing, effective; forþ + genge; *rel. to* gān, gangan
**fremman**, *wv. 1* – to advance, make, do persorm; *ME* fremmen, vremmon ‖ *OHG* gafremjan
**frēo**, **frīo**, *adj.* – free; *ME* free, fre, freo ‖ *Gth.* freis ‖ *OHG* fri ‖ *MnG* frei ‖ *OS* fri ‖ *OFr.* fri
**frēodōm**, **friodōm**, *n. n. a.* – freedom, *ME* freodom, freedom: frēo *(s.)* + suff. – dōm
**frēogan**, *wv. 1, p. t.* frēode – to free, make free; honour, love; *ME* freoien, freogen ‖ Gth. frijōn ‖ *MHG* vrien ‖ *MnG* freien
**frēond**, *n. m. md.* – friend; *ME* freond, frend, vrend ‖ *Gth.* frijōnds ‖ *OHG* friont, friunt ‖ *MnG* Frend ‖ *Russ.* при'ятель ‖ *Ukr.* 'приятель ‖ *s.* **frēogan**
**frēodlīce**, *adv.* – in a friendly way
**from**, **fram**, *adv., prp.* – from; *OHG* from
**fugol**, **fugel**, *n. m. a.* – bird; *ME* fowel, foule; *MnE* fowl ‖ *Gth.* fugls ‖ *OHG* fogal, fugal
**frut**, *n.* – fruit ‖ *OF* fruit ‖ *MnF* fruit ‖ *Lat.* fructus
**ful**, *adv.* – very; *s.* **full**
**fūl**, *adj.* – foul, dirty, rotten, corrupt; *ME* ful, foule ‖ *Gth.* fuls ‖ *OHG* ful ‖ *MnG* faul ‖ *ON* full

## ȝ, G

**gān**, *irr. suppl. v.* – eode, ȝegān – to go; *ME* gon, goon, gan ‖ *OHG* gān ‖ *MnG* gehen
**ȝē**, *prn.* – you; *ME* yee, ye ‖ *Gth.* jus ‖ *OS* gi, ge ‖ *OFr.* gi ‖ *OHG* ir
**ȝē** … **ȝē**, *conj.* – both ... and; and ‖ *OS* ge, gi
**ȝear**, *n. n. a.* – year; *ME* yere, yer, yeer ‖ *Gth.* jēr ‖ *OHG* jār ‖ *MnG* Jahr
**ȝebēorscipe**, *n. m. a.* – feast
**ȝebīdan** – *s.* **bidan**
**ȝeboȝen** – *s.* **ȝebūȝan**
**ȝebūȝan**, *sv. 2* – to submit

**ȝebyran**, *wv. 1* – 1) to happen by chance; 2) *impers.* – it is suitable, fitting; It becomes; *ME* birrþ, burde, bird ‖ *OHG* gaburjan ‖ *MnG* gebühren

**ȝecnāwan**, *sv. 7* – to know, perceive, understand; *ME* cnowen, gecnowen, iknawe ‖ *ON* knācan ‖ *Lat.* novi < *gnovi; *fr.* noscere, cognoscere ‖ *Russ.* знать ‖ *Ukr.* знати

**ȝedȳdon** – *s.* **ȝedōn**

**ȝedōn**, *irr. v.* – to do, perform, reach; *s.* **dōn**

**ȝedrync**, *n. n. a.* – drinking; *s.* **drincan**

**ȝefeaht** – *s.* **feohtan**

**ȝeftieman**, *wv. 1* – to cause to flee, drive away

**ȝehawian**, *wv. 2* – to look at, observe

**ȝehētan** – *s.* **hātan**

**ȝemǣne**, *adj.* – common, general

**ȝemynd**, *n. f. i.* – mind, memory, remembrance; *ME* minde, ȝeminde ‖ *Gth.* gamunds ‖ *OHG* gimunt ‖ *Lat.* mentem (mens) ‖ *Russ.* память ‖ *Ukr.* пам'ять ‖ *cf.* ȝemunan

**ȝemunan**, *v. prt.-prs., prs. t.* ȝeman – to think of, remember; *ME* imunen; *s.* **ȝemynd**

**ȝenoh**, **ȝenog**, *adj., adv.* – enough, sufficient; *ME* inoh, enowe ‖ *Gth.* ganohs ‖ *OHG* ginuog ‖ *MnG* genug ‖ *OS* ginog ‖ *OS* gnogr

**ȝeo**, **ȝio**, **ȝiu**, *adv.* – formerly of old, before; *Gth. ju* ‖ *OHG* giu

**ȝeoguþ**, **ȝioguþ**, **ȝeogaþ**, **juguþ**, *n. f. ō.* – youth; young people; *ME* youthe ‖ *Gth.* junda ‖ *OHG* jugund ‖ *MnG* Jugend ‖ *Lat.* juventa ‖ *Russ.* юность ‖ *Ukr.* юність

**ȝeond**, **ȝiond**, *prp.* – through, beyond, among, across; *ME* ȝeond, yond, yend, yonder ‖ *Gth.* jaind ‖ *MLG* gent, jint

**ȝeong**, **jung**, *adj.* – young; *ME* young, yunge, yenge ‖ *Gth.* juggsj ‖ *OHG* jung ‖ *Lat.* juvenis ‖ *Russ.* юный ‖ *Ukr.* юний

**ȝeorn**, *adj.*, **ȝeorne**, *adv.* – eagerf(ly), diligent(ly), willing(ly); *ME* yeme, yeorne ‖ *Gth.* gairns ‖ *OHG* gern, gerni ‖ *MnG* gern

**ȝeornfulie**, *adv.* – willingly, eagerly; *s.* **ȝeorn + full + e**

**ȝēre** – *s.* **ȝear**

**ȝereord**, *n. n. a.* – language, speech; *rel. to* rǣdan, *sv. 7, p.t.* reord – to read

**ȝerīpan**, *sv. 1* – to reap; *ME* repen, ripen

**ȝesǣliȝ**, **sǣliȝ**, *adj.* – happy, prosperous; *ME* i-sæle, seely ‖ *MnE* silly ‖ *OHG* sālig ‖ *MnG* selig

**ȝesæliȝlic**, *adj.* – happy

**ȝeseon** – *s.* **seon**

**ȝewāt** – *s.* **ȝewitan**

**ȝeweorc**, *n. n. a.* – work; fortress; fort; *Gth.* gawaurk ‖ *OHG* giwerk ‖ *rel. to* wyrcan *(s.)*

**ȝewītan**, *sv. 1* – to go; *ME* iwiten

**ȝiefan**, *sv. 4* – *to* give; *ME* yiven, yeven, given ‖ *Gth.* giban ‖ *OHG* geban ‖ *MnG* geben ‖ *ON.* geba

**ȝiefu**, **ȝlfu**, **ȝeofu**, *n. f. ō.* – gift; *ME* gifu, geve, yeve ‖ *Gth.* giba ‖ *OHG* geba ‖ *OS* geba ‖ *OFr.* jeve ‖ *ON* gjōf

**ȝieman**, **ȝyman**, *wv. 1* – to take care of ‖ *Gth.* gaumjan ‖ *OHG* goumon
**ȝyf**, **ȝif**, *conj.* – if; *ME* yif, if ‖ *Gth.* ibai, iba ‖ *OHG* oba ‖ *MnG* ob
**ȝymen**, *n. f. ō.* – care, solicitude; *ret. to* ȝyman, ȝieman *(s.)*
**ȝynge**, *adj.* – *s.* **ȝeong**
**ȝiond** – *s.* **ȝeond**
**ȝisel**, **ȝysel**, *n. m. a/i.* – hostage; *ME* yisles *(pl.)* ‖ *OHG* kisal ‖ *MnG* Geisel
**ȝlæd**, *adj.* – glad, joyful, bright; *ME* glad ‖ *OHG* glat ‖ *MnG* glatt rel. to *Lat.* glaber – smooth
**ȝleow**, **gleo**, **gliȝ**, *n. n. a.* – glee, joy, music; *ME* gleo, gleu, gle – gnawen, a. – gnaw
**ȝod**, *n. m. a.* – god, deity; *ME* god ‖ *Gth.* guþ, got ‖ *MnG* Gott
**ȝōd**, *adj.* – good; *ME* god, good ‖ *Gth.* gōþs, gōds ‖ *OHG* guot ‖ *MnG* gut
**godcund**, *adj.* – sacred, divine; *ME* godcund ‖ *OHG* gotchundl ‖ *OS* godkund ‖ *s.* **ȝod**, **cunnan**
**ȝrētan**, *wv. 1* – to greet, call, welcome, bid farewell, approach, visit; *ME* greten, grætan ‖ *OHG* gruossanf ‖ *MnG* grüssen
**ȝuma**, *n. m. n.* – man; *ME* gume, gome; *MnG* Groom, *with epenthetic* ‘r’ ‖ *Gth.* gums ‖ *OHG* goma ‖ *MnG* Brāutigam ‖ *Lat.* homo

## H

**habban**, *wv. 3* – to have; *ME* haven, han, hafen ‖ *Gth.* haban ‖ *OHG* haben ‖ *MnG* haben
**hād**, *n. m. a.* – rank, degree, state, condition; *ME* had, hed; *also* hod, hed *as second parts of composits*; *perhaps, it is more correct to regard them as suffixes already*. *In EMnE only suffixes* -hood, -head ‖ *Gth.* haidus ‖ *OHG* hait ‖ *MnG suff.* -heit
**hāl**, *adj.* – whole, well, in good health; *ME* hal, hiæl, hol; *MnE* whole, *hale* ‖ *Gth.* hails ‖ *OHG* heil ‖ *MnG* heil ‖ *Russ.* целый ‖ *Ukr.* цілий
**halȝa**, *n. m. a.* – saint; *ME* halwe; *MnE* in All Hallows’ Day
**hāliȝ**, *adj.* – holy; *ME* hali, holy, hooli ‖ *Gth.* hailagst ‖ *OHG* heflag ‖ *MnG* heilig ‖ *OS* helag ‖ *OFr.* helich ‖ *ON* heilagr
**hām**, *n. m. a.* – home, house, residence; *ME* ham, hom ‖ *Gth.* haims ‖ *OHG* haim ‖ *MnG* heim, *adv.* ‖ *OS* hēm ‖ *ON* heimr
**hātan**, *sv. 7, p. t.* heht – to order, call; hātte – was called; *ME* hight (*OE* heht), haten, hoten ‖ *Gth.* haitan ‖ *OHG* heizzan ‖ *MnG* heissen
**hælo**, **hælu**, *n. indecl. fem.* – health, safety, salvation; *s.* **hāl**
**hærfest**, *n. m. a.* – harvest, autumn ‖ *OHG* herbiest
**hæðen**, *adj., der. fr.* hæþ – heathen, pagan; *ME* heþin, heðene, heðen ‖ *Gth.* haiþno ‖ *OHG* heidan ‖ *MnG* Heide
**hæðeness**, *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. 3rd prs.* – they; *ME* hi, he, heo; *in the North already replaced by* 'the'

**hȳran**, *wv. 1* – 1) to hear; 2) to follow, obey, serve; *ME* heren; huren, hire ‖ *Gth.* hausjan ‖ *OHG* horen, horian ‖ *MnG* hören ‖ *Lat.* curtus ‖ *Russ.* чуять ‖ *Ukr.* чути

**hlæfdiȝe**, *n. f. n.* – lady, mistress of the house; **hlāf + *diȝe** – to knead

**hlāford**, *n. m. a.* – lord; *ME* laverd, loverd, lord; orig. **hlāf + weard** – the guardian of bread

**hlisa**, *n. m. a.* – rumour, report, reputation; *rel. to* hlīȝan – to allow one a reputation, give glory

**hors**, *n. n. a.* – horse; *ME* hors ‖ *OHG* hros ‖ *MnG* Ross

**horsian**, *wv. 2* – to provide with horse; *s.* **hors**

**– hour**, *n.* – hour ‖ *OF* (h)ure *fr. Lat.*, *fr. Gr.* hōra – hour, season

**hū**, *adv.* – how; *ME* hu, how, hou ‖ *Gth.* hwēo ‖ *MnG* wie

**hund**, *num.* – hundred; *ME* hund ‖ *Gth.* hund ‖ *OHG* hunt ‖ *MnG* hundert ‖ *Lat.* centum ‖ *Ukr.* сто

**hund**, *n. m. a.* – hound, dog; *ME* hounde ‖ *Gth.* hunds ‖ *OHG* hunt ‖ *MhG* Hund

**hundeahtatiȝ**, *num.* – eighty

**hundred** – *s.* **hund**, *num.*

**huniȝ**, *n. n. a.* – honey; *ME* huniz, honi ‖ *OHG* honag, honig ‖ *MnG* Honig

**huntian**, *wv. 2* – to hunt; *ME* honten; *rel. to OE* hentan

**hūs**, *n. n. a.* – house; *ME* hus, hous, house ‖ *Gth.* hūs ‖ *OHG* hüs ‖ *MnG* Haus

**hwām** – *dat. of hwā (s.)*

**hwanne**, **hwan**, **hwon**, *adv.* – when; *ME* whenne, whonne ‖ *Gth.* hwan ‖ *OHG* hwanne, hwenne ‖ *MnG* wann

**hwanon**, *adv.* – from where

**hwǣr**, *adv.* – where ‖ *Gth.* hvar ‖ *OHG* (h)war, wa ‖ *MnG* wo
**hwæt**, *adj.* – brave, quick, active; *ME* hwat, wat ‖ *OS* hwat ‖ *ON* hvatr
**hwæt**, *prn.* – what; *ME* hwat, huet, wat ‖ *Gth.* hwa ‖ *OHG* hwaz ‖ *MnG* was ‖ *Lat.* quid
**hwæþer**, *prn.* – which of the two, either; *ME* whader, whether ‖ *Gth.* hwaþar ‖ *OHG* hwedar
**hwæþer þe**, *conj.* – or
**hwelc**, hwilc, hwylc, *prn.* – which; *ME* hwilche, hwuch, whulc ‖ *Gth.* hwēleiks ‖ *OHG* hwēlich ‖ *MnG* welche
**hwīl**, *n. f. i.* – a while, space of time; *ME* hwile, hwule, while ‖ *Gth.* hveila ‖ *OHG* hwila ‖ *MnG* Weile
**hwīlum**, *adj.* – from time to time, at times; *ME* whilom ‖ *MnE arch.* whilom, *dat. of hwile (s.)* ‖ *OHG* hwilon

## I, Y

**ic**, *prn.* – I; *ME* ich, I, Icc ‖ *Gth.* ik ‖ *OHG* ih ‖ *MnG* ich ‖ *Lat.* ego ‖ *OSl.* aʒ
**iernan**, **irnan**, **yrnan**, **ærnan**, *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; t*he 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.* **maȝan**
**– meȝnee**, **meynee**, *n.* – household ‖ *OF* maisnee ‖ *MnF* maisonnée
**– melodie**, *n.* – melody ‖ *OF* mélodie ‖ *L. Lat.* melōdia ‖ *Gr.* melōidiā – singing men – *s.* **man**, **mon**
**– menden**, *wv.* – to mend, improve, repair ‖ *AN* mender ‖ *rel. to Lat.* emendāre
**– mene**, *adj.* – *s.* **ȝemǣne**
**– menen**, *v.* – to mean; *s.* **mǣnan**
**mengan**, *wv. 1* – to mix, mingle; *ME* mengen, meynen ‖ *OHG* mengan ‖ *MnG* mengen ‖ *OS* mengian ‖ *OFr.* mengin
**– menȝe** – *s.* **meȝnee**

**meniȝu**, **mengu**, *n. indecl. or n. f. i.* – crowd, multitude, great number ‖ *Gth.* managel ‖ *OHG* managi, manegi ‖ *MnG* Menge ‖ *OS* menegi ‖ *OFr.* meni ‖ *Russ.* много

**meole**, **meolus**, *n. f. ō.* – *ME* milk, melk ‖ *Gth.* milukus ‖ *OHG* miluh ‖ *MnG* Milch ‖ *Russ.* молоко

**meole**, **melu**, **mela**, *n. n. wa.* – meal, flour; *ME* mele, melu ‖ *OHG* mala ‖ *MnG* Mehl ‖ *OS* melo ‖ *OFr.* mel ‖ *ON* mjo ‖ *rel. to Gth.* malan – grind ‖ *Lat.* molere ‖ *Russ.* молоть

**meotud**, **metud**, **meotud**, *n. m. a.* – lord, creator; *rel.* to metan, *sv. 5 + suff.* **-ud**

**– mersy**, *n.* – tranks, pity, compassion ‖ *OF* mersi ‖ *MnF* merci ‖ *Lat.* mersedem – pay, recompense

## N

**nāht**, **nāȝht**, **nauȝht**, *prn.* – nothing, naught

**nama**, *n. m. n.* – name; *ME* name ‖ *Gth.* namo ‖ *OHG* namo ‖ *MnG* Name ‖ *Lat.* nomen

**nān = ne ān**, *prp.* – none, no, not one; *ME* nane, none

**nǣre** = ne wǣre

**ne**, *negat. part.* – not; *ME* ne ‖ *OHG* ni, ne ‖ *Gth.* ni

**nēah**, **nēh**, **nīgh**, *adv., prep.* – nigh, near; *ME* neh, neih, nigh ‖ *Gth.* nēhv ‖ *OHG* nāh ‖ *MnG* nah

**nele** = ne wille

**nēh**, *adv.* – near; *s.* **nēah**

## O

**ofer**, *prp.* – over; *ME* over ‖ *Gth.* ufar ‖ *OHG* ubar ‖ *MnG* über ‖ *OFr.* over ‖ *ON* yfir

**oferwinnan**, *sv. 3* – to conque; **ofer + winnan** *(s)*

**ofslēan**, *sv. 6* – to kill; to slay; *ME* ofslen, ofslayen; *s.* **slēan**

**onbūtan**, *prp.* – about; *ME* abouten, aboute

**ōþre**, **ōþres** – *s.* **ōþer**

**ōððæt**, *conj.* – until

**oððe**, *conj.* – or

## P

**– peas**, **pais**, *n.* – peace ‖ *OF* pais, peis, pes ‖ *MnF* paix ‖ *Lat.* pax, pacem

**– peple**, *n.* – people, nation ‖ *AN* pueple, people ‖ *OF* pople ‖ *MnF* people ‖ *Lat.* populus

**pleȝa**, *n. m. n.* – play, game, fight; *ME* pleȝe, pleye; *s.* **pleȝian**

**plōȝ**, *n. m. a.* – plough; measure of land; *ME* plow, *ON* plōgt
**pund**, *n. n. a.* – pound, measure, weight; money; *ME* pund ‖ *Gth.* pund ‖ *OHG* pfunt ‖ *MnG* Pfund ‖ *fr. Lat.* pondo – 'by weight'; pondus, *n.* – weight

## R

**rædan**, *sv. 7, p. t.* **reord**, **rēd**, **rædde** – to read; give advice; consult; take counsel; deliberate, guess; *ME* reden ‖ *Gth.* garēdan ‖ *OHG* rātan ‖ *OS* rādan ‖ *OFr.* rēda
**ræde**, **rædiȝ**, **ȝerædе**, *adj.* – ready, prompt; *ME* readiȝ, ready, redy ‖ *Gth.* garaiþs ‖ *OHG* reiti
**reccan**, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **reahte** – 1) to reach, stretch, 2) to tell a story, speak; rule, govern; *ME* recchen ‖ *Gth.* uf-rakjan ‖ *OHG* recohen, reckian
**– rest**, *n.* – rest, relief, repose; *ME* rest, reste; *OE* ræst ‖ *OS* rasta ‖ *OHG* rasta ‖ *MnG* Rast
**rīce**, *adj.* – rich, powerful; *ME* riche ‖ *Gth.* reiks ‖ *OHG* riche
**rīce**, *n. n. ja.* – kingdom, power, rule, authority, dominion; *ME* riche ‖ *Gth.* reiki ‖ *OHG* rīchi ‖ *MnG* Reich ‖ *OS* rīki ‖ *OFr.* rīke

## S

**sacan**, *sv. 6* – to fight, strive, disagree, accuse; *ME* only with prefixes: for – wið – saken ‖ *Gth.* sakan ‖ *OHG* sahhan ‖ *OS* sakan ‖ *ON* saka
**sāwol**, *n. f. ō.* – soul
**sæ**, *n. m/f., i.; pl.* **sæs** – the sea; *ME* se, see, sea, sei ‖ *Gth.* saiws ‖ *OHG* sēo ‖ *OS* sēo ‖ *OFr.* sē ‖ *ON* sær, sjōr
**sæde** – *s.* **secgan**
**sæ-draca**, *n. m. n.* – sea dragon
**sæȝon** – sēon
**sæl** – *s.* **sēl**, **sæliȝ**
**sæne**, *adj.* – slow, dull, inactive ‖ *Gth.* sainjan – to tarry ‖ *OHG* seine ‖ *ON* seinn
**– scapen**, *v.* – escape ‖ *OF.* escaper ‖ *MnF.* échapper ‖ *Lat.* ex + cappa – cap
**scaþa**, **sceaþa**, **sceþþu**, *n. m. n.* – harm, injury; **sceaþa**, *n. m. n* – enemy; *ME* scaðe, scathe; *MnE* only unscathed *(adj.)* ‖ *Gth.* skaþis = wrong ‖ *OHG* scado = harm ‖ *MnG* Schaden
**sceaȝa**, *n. m. n.* – shaw, small copse, small wood encompassing, a close; *ME* shawe ‖ *ON* skagi – low cape ‖ *OFr.* skage
**sceal** – *s.* **sculan**, *v. prt. prs.*
**scēap**, *n. n. a.* – sheep; *ME* scep, scheep, shep ‖ *OHG* scāf ‖ *MnG* Schaf ‖ *OFr.* skēp
**scearu** *n. f. ō.* – cutting, shearing, the ecclesiastical tonsure ‖ *OHG* scara – troop ‖ *OHG* skeran – to divide ‖ *MnG* Schere ‖ *ON* skari

**scēat** *n. m. a.* – corner, region, nook, lap, bosom, garment; *ME* schete, scet; *MnE* sheet ‖ *Gth.* skauts ‖ *OHG* skōz ‖ *MnG* Schoss ‖ *OFr.* skāt ‖ *ON* skaut
**scēawian**, **scēawiȝan**, *wv. 2* – to look, observe, consider, inspect, examine

## T

**talu**, *n. f. ō.* – tale, story, talk; account; *ME* tale ‖ *OHG* zala ‖ *MnG* Zahl
**tapur**, *n. m. a.* – taper, light; *ME* taper
**tǣcean**, **tǣcan**, *wv. 1 irr., p. t.* tāhte – to teach; *ME* techen, taute, teite; rel. to tācen *(s.)*
**teche** – *s.* **tǣcan**
**teon**, *sv. 2, p. t.* teah, tuȝon, *ptple* toȝen – 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; *MnE* 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.* **tweȝen** = two
**twām** – *s.* **tweȝen**
**tweȝen**, *adj. m.*; **twā** *f.*; **tu** *n.* = two; *ME* tweȝen, tweine; twa, two ‖ *Gth.* twai, twōs, twā ‖ *OHG* zwēne, zwā, zwei ‖ *MnG* zwei ‖ *Lat.* duo ‖ *Russ.* два

## Þ (= Đ)

**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 – c*onj.*; *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

**þeȝn**, **þeȝen**, *n. m. a.* – thane, retainer, follower, servant, man, warrior; *ME* theine, þeign ‖ *OHG* degan ‖ *MnG* Degen

**þeh** – *s.* **þēah**

**þencan**, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* þōhte – to think; *ME* þenchen, thenkan, þinken ‖ *Gth.* þagkjan, *p. t.* þāhta ‖ *OHG* denchen, dahta ‖ *MnG* denken, dachte ‖ *OS* thenkian ‖ *OFr.* thanka ‖ *ON* þekkja

**þēod**, **þīod**, *n. f. ō.* – people, nation, language (*but more often* ȝeþēode); *ME* þēod, þede ‖ *Gth.* þiuda ‖ *OHG* diota, diot (*cf.* diutisc > deutsch)

**þēos**, **þis**, *dem. prn.* – this

**þeostru**, **þiestru**, *n. f. ō.* – darkness (*often used in the plural*); *ME* þestere, þustre, þeostre ‖ *MHG* diustri ‖ *MnG* Düster

**þēow**, *n. m. a.* or **þēowa**, *n. m. n.* – servant; *ME* þewe, þeu ‖ *Gth.* þius ‖ *OHG* dēo

**þider**, **þyder**, *adv.* – to that place, thither ‖ *ON* þaora

**þin**, *poss. prn.* – thy, thine; *ME* thene, thy, thi ‖ *Gth.* þeins ‖ *OHG* din ‖ *MnG* dein ‖ *OFr.* thin ‖ *ON* þinn

**þyncan**, *wv. 1, irr., p. t.* **þūhte** – to seem, appear; *in MnE merged with* þencan; *ME* þunchen, þenche ‖ *Gth.* þygkjan ‖ *OHG* dunchan ‖ *OS* thunkina ‖ *ON* þykkja ‖ *MnG* dünken

**þing**, *n. n. a.* – thing, object, conduct, meeting, cour; *ME* thing, thinge ‖ *OHG* ding ‖ *MnG* Ding

**þonne**, *adv.* – then, than; *s.* **þanne**

**þrāwan**, *sv. 1, p. t.* **þrēow** – to turn, twist, torture; *cf.* to throw, twist; *ME* thrawen, throwe – to turn, throw; *MnE* to throw ‖ *OHG* drājan ‖ *MnG* drehen

**þrēo**, *num.* – three; *ME* three, thre, thrie ‖ *Gth.* þreis ‖ *OHG* dri ‖ *MnG* drei ‖ *Lat.* trēs ‖ *Russ.* три

**þrȳ** – *s.* **þrēo**

**þridda**, *num.* – third; *s.* **þrēo**

**þritiȝ**, *num.* – thirty; **þrēo** *(s.)* + suff. **-**tiȝ

**þurfan**, *v., prt.* – *prs.* **þearf**; **þurfon**; **þorfte** – to be 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

**underʒeat** – *s.* **underʒietan**

**underʒietan**, **underʒetan**, *sv. 5* – to understand, perceive

**unlifiʒend**, *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

**unspēdiʒ**, *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

**ūtbriŋʒan**, *v. irr.* – to bring out; *s.* **ūt + briŋʒan**

## W

**welcan**, *sv. 7, p. t.* **wēolc** – to roll, toss (of water), move; walk; *ME* walken ‖ *OHG* gevalchen

**wǣron** = were; *s.* **bēon**

**wæs** = was; *s.* **bēon**

**wē**, *prs. prn.* – we ‖ *MnG* wir ‖ *ON* ver ‖ *cf. dat. and acc. us with Lat.* nōs ‖ *Russ.* нас

**weald**, *n. m. a.* – forest; *ME* walde ‖ *OHG* walt, wald ‖ *MnG* Wald

**weall**, *n. m. a.* – wall; **ME** wall ‖ *Lat.* vallum

**weʒ**, *n. m. a.* – way; on weʒ – away; *ME* wey, way ‖ *Gth.* wigs ‖ *OFr.* wei ‖ *ON* verg

**wel**, *adv.* – well, quite; *ME* wel, wæl ‖ *Gth.* waila ‖ *OHG* wela, wola ‖ *MnG* wohl

**wendan**, *wv. 1* – to turn, move, change; go; translate; *ME* wenden – to go, turn, change one's course (*caus.* to windan); *MnE* went; also to wend one's way ‖ *Gth.* wandjan ‖ *OHG* wenten ‖ *MnG* wenden ‖ *In XVI the past tense 'went' began to be used as the past tense of the verb* 'to go'.

**weorc**, *n. n. a.* – work, performance, labour, fortress; *ME* werk, work ‖ *OHG* werah ‖ *MnG* Werk ‖ *OS* werk ‖ *OFr.* werk ‖ *ON* verk

**weorold**, **woruld**, *n. f. i.* – world, state of existence, men and things upon earth; an age, a person's lifetime; *ME* world, werld; *fr.* *wer(l)man + ald = old age ‖ *OHG* weralt ‖ *MnG* Welt

**weorold-cund**, *adj.* – earthly, temporal

**weorþan**, *sv. 3* – to become, come to be, arise, happen; *ME* wurþen, *refers to future; later disappears* ‖ *Gth.* wairþan ‖ *OHG* werdan ‖ *MnG* warden ‖ *Lat.* vertere ‖ *Russ.* вертеть

**weorpan**, *sv. 3* – to throw, fling; *ME* werpen; *MnE* warp (*for change of meaning cf.* **þrāwan**) ‖ *Gth.* wairpan ‖ *OHG* werfan ‖ *MnG* werfen

**wesan**, *sv. 5 (no ptple)* – to be; *only p. t. forms are preserved, the present tense forms are suppletive to* wesan; *ME only finite p. t. forms:* wes, was, weren, were, wæren ‖ *Gth.* wisan ‖ *OHG* wesan

**wīcian**, *wv. 2* – to dwell; *ME* wikien (*fr.* wīc, *n. n. a* – dwelling-place)

**wīd**, *adj.* – wide, broad; *ME* wide ‖ *OHG* wīt ‖ *MnG* weit ‖ *OS* wīd ‖ *OFr.* wīd ‖ *ON* vīðr

**widuwe**, **wuduwe**, **weoduwe**, *n. f. n.* – widow; *ME* widewe ‖ *Gth.* widuwō ‖ *OHG* witjwa ‖ *MnG* Witwe ‖ *OS* witowa ‖ *OFr.* widwe ‖ *Russ.* вдова

**wīf**, *n. n. a.* – wife, woman; *ME* wife, wif ‖ *OHG* wīp ‖ *MnG* Weib

**wīfman**, *n. m. cons.* – woman; *ME* wummon, wifmon, wimman; *s.* **wīf**, **man**

**willan**, **wyllan**, *v. irr., p. t.* **wolde** – to wish, will, intend, to be about to *(of future action)*; *ME* willen ‖ *Gth.* willan ‖ *OHG* wellen, wollan ‖ *MnG* wollen ‖ *Lat.* volo ‖ *Russ.* неволить

**window**, *n.* – window, *ME* 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**, *abj.* – wretched; *s.* **wrecan**

**wrītan**, *sv. 1* – to write; *ME* written ‖ *OHG* rīzan ‖ *MnG* reißen – tear, draw ‖ *ON* rīta scratch, cut, write

**wrītere**, *n. m. ja.* – written; scribe; *s.* **writan** + *suff.* **-ere**

**wudu**, **wiodu**, **widu**, *n. m. a.* – wood; forest; *ME* wude, wode ‖ *OHG* witu ‖ *ON* vidr

**wulf**, *n. m. a.* – a wolf; *ME* wolf ‖ *OHG* wolf ‖ *Gth.* wulfs ‖ *Lat.* lupus ‖ *Russ.* волк

**wundian**, **ȝewundian**, *wv. 2* – to wound; *ME* wunden, woundi ‖ *Gth.* ga-wun-dōn ‖ *OHG* wuntōn ‖ *MnG* wunden

**wundor**, *n. n. a.* – wonder, smth. that excites wonder, feeling of wonder, admiration; *ME* wunder, wonder ‖ *OHG* wuntar

**wundorlic**, *adj.* – wonderful: **wundor** *(s.)* + *suff.* **-līc**

**wundrian**, *wv. 2* – to wonder, feel surprise; *ME* wundrie, wondren ‖ *OHG* wuntaron ‖ *MnG* wundern

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## Internet Resources

77. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vLFihdWwmfw
78. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tQmaD0UMDjo
79. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MpVAuQUlI-k
80. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1epKYZURHB
81. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZLKAD0tESUc
82. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5Z_oI7L9ODA.
83. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_GFmtn3OZsQ
84. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Y4L1wOxL56s
85. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=os2ZYYuQPmQ
86. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NgPvTLiNQnQ
87. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X2SzpiB50D8
88. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FoBrmKmozNU
89. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=U5lCjzLXRTE
90. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6C6FbdX-UFQ!
91. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HXMypzdWxsc
92. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rbjqzWex1uw

93. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0X2oDRWnqwo
94. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bnMGUPSgRCQ
95. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AUs4Ufo_GpM
96. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Cx_X8gYWtAQ&index=16&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63
97. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3oq3x3oqjqY&index=17&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63
98. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wsl8atrBKvM
99. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=vbjjxprLPEw
100. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uxqAwT5IpL8
101. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=3lGJntNFFqo
102. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EegJRt1xwJk
103. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bciUXRAUpHk&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63&index=15
104. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8LyXW0pozQk
105. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=rJYZq4DMBAA&index=22&list=PL2A32854721F7AF63
106. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=s7e0otnS5kI
107. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qDAp_KTQewY
108. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Qm2QwsJDbLo
109. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lgSDd6Bkatg
110. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h2KeALDmztQ
111. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pWTFcUZVAlY
112. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=zyhZ8NQOZeo
113. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gLMpTdAsGH0
114. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hEoV71a748U
115. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gPlpphT7n9s
116. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=YEqb7WGupW0
117. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RaDd2f40hV4
118. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JzA-QDGKR2w
119. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hGg-2MQVReQ
120. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cFci7BMAX88
121. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mB6V6JniMJk
122. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eet4u8MUVtM
123. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D2YHLjE1Wh4
124. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BR53TuDZ4k4
125. http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OsJTbWF1-lg

# 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 |

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**Навчальний посібник**

***видання 6-те стереотипне***

Підписано до друку 01.12.2020.
Формат 70x100 $^{1}/_{16}$. Гарнітура Times.
Умов. друк. арк. 18,06. Друк офсетний. Папір офсетний.
Зам. №1985. Наклад 300 прим.

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32300, Хмельницька обл., м. Кам'янець-Подільський,
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Свідоцтво про внесення до Державного реєстру
від 28.04.2006 р. серія ДК №2477