МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ

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A CONCISE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

with a Supplement

(Diachronic Text Analysis)

Краткий курс

истории английского языка

с приложением по диахронической интерпретации текста

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Предлагаемое учебное пособие предназначено для студентов, обучающихся по программам бакалавриата, магистратуры и аспирантуры по направлению подготовки «Лингвистика» в качестве базового учебника по курсу «История английского языка и введение в спецфилологию». Оно может быть использовано для самостоятельной и аудиторной работы студентов очного, заочного и очно-заочного отделений при подготовке лингвистической интерпретации текста в диахроническом аспекте.

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(1924 - 1994)

Кузьма Васильевич Сизов родился 25 октября 1924 г. в Уренском районе Горьковской области в семье крестьянина. В 1942 году после окончания Уренской средней школы он был призван в армию, где проходил службу в частях 56-го Западного артиллерийского полка Чебоксарской дивизии. После демобилизации в 1947 году он поступил на факультет английского языка Горьковского педагогического института иностранных языков. По окончании обучения с отличием он стал аспирантом Ленинградского пединститута им. А.И. Герцена, где в 1954 году успешно защитил кандидатскую диссертацию на тему «Развитие средств подчинения дополнительного придаточного предложения в английском языке». После присвоения ученой степени кандидата филологических наук К.В. Сизов был распределен в Ставропольский педагогический институт иностранных языков. Проработав там старшим преподавателем кафедры английской филологии в течение 1954-1957 гг., он переехал в г. Горький и поступил на должность доцента в Горьковский государственный педагогический институт иностранных языков (ГГПИИЯ). Всю оставшуюся жизнь К.В. Сизов отдал своей Alma Mater: с 1958 г. по 1962 г. он – заведующий кафедрой английской филологии, с 1963 г. – проректор института по научной работе, с 1968 г. по 1987 г. – ректор ГГПИИЯ.

К.В. Сизов удостоен многих правительственных наград: в 1946 г. – медали «За победу над Германией в Великой Отечественной войне 1941-1945 гг.»; в 1963 г. – знака «Отличник народного просвещения РСФСР»; в 1971 г. – ордена «Знак почета»; в 1976 – ордена “Трудового Красного Знамени”; в 1980 – знака «Отличник просвещения СССР»; в 1985 г. – медали К.Д. Ушинского. В 1983 году руководимый им коллектив получил высокую награду: переходящее Красное знамя Министерства просвещения РСФСР за значительные успехи в совершенствовании методики комплексной организации учебного процесса, подготовке педагогических кадров, создании научных школ, аспирантуры и факультета повышения квалификации преподавателей высшей школы, а также расширении материальной базы института.

На протяжении многих лет К.В. Сизов являлся членом ЦК профсоюза работников просвещения, высшей школы и научных учреждений, представителем Министерства просвещения СССР в комиссии ЮНЕСКО.

К.В. Сизов – автор учебника по истории английского языка *A Concise History of the English Language,* впервые изданного в ГГПИИЯ в 1968 г. Всего им опубликовано более 30 трудов по вопросам английской филологии и педагогики высшей школы.

CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

Acc.	Accusative	lit.	literally
adj.	adjective	Md.E.	Modern English
adv	adverb	M.E.	Middle English
A.D.	anno Domini	Mod. Germ.	Modern German
AgS.	Anglo-Saxon	N.E.	New English
B.C.	before Christ	Nom.	Nominative
Brit.	British	O.E.	Old English
Dan.	Danish	pers.	person
Dat.	Dative	pl.	plural
Gen.	Genitive	Russ.	Russian
Germ.	German	Scr.	Sanscrit
Goth.	Gothic	sg.	singular
Gr.	Greek	Sw.	Swedish
I.- E.	Indo-European	US	United States
Instr.	Instrumental	e.g. (Lat. exempli gratis	for example
Lat.	Latin.		

SYMBOLS

>	became, developed into
<	developed from, is derived from
/ /	indicate phonetic transcriptions

INTRODUCTION

THE OBJECT OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

§ 1. Modern English is a language that is spoken or at least understood by a very large percentage of the world's population, even thought originally it was the native tongue of only a few tribes inhabiting a comparatively small territory.

§ 2. English originated by the end of the 5th century A.D. when a number of Germanic tribes began to settle on the British Isles. Judging from the earliest documents that have preserved the language spoken in Britain the difference between the English of those times and modern English is quite striking.

This point is easily proved by a comparison of the following Old English excerpt and its literal translation into modern English[1].

Þæt Estland is swȳþe mycel, and þǣr biþ swȳþe manig burh, and on ælcere byrig biþ cynigc And þǣr biþ swȳþe mycel hunig and fiscnaþ. And sē cyning and þā rīcostan men(n). drincaþ myran meolc, and þā unspēdigan and þā þēowan drincaþ medo.

The said Estland is very large and there are very many boroughs (there), and in each borough reigns a king and there is very much honey and fishing (there). And the king and the richest men drink the milk of mares and the poor and the slaves drink mead.

Judging from the spelling which was on the whole phonetic[2] the sounding of Old English must have been greatly different from that of modern English. A number of words such as þæt, is, and, manig, hunig, fiscnaþ, etc. can be recognized more or less easily. Others, such as swȳþe, unspēdig, þēow have dropped out of use.

The morphological characteristics of the words and the syntactical features of the sentences resemble Modern German more than Modern English.

A description of how the English language developed from its early stages up to our days as well as the study of the laws that determine this development constitute the subject or the history of the English language.

§ 3. Language is a social phenomenon, and its development is conditioned by the inherent laws of the language itself as well as by the history of the people by whom the language is employed, by their social, economic, political and cultural development. A discussion of the history of any language thus has to

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[1] The excerpt cited above is part of an account that a Danish traveller, Wulfstan by name, made of his travels in the Baltic Sea. This account was inserted into one of the first English books, King Alfred's translation of Orosius's World History which was composed about 893 A.D.

[2] The symbol 'c' represents /k/, 'þ' and 'þ' represent in intervocalic positions /þ/, otherwise /ϑ/. All other symbols have the same sounding as in Latin.

take into consideration purely linguistic data alongside with material furnished by history, political economy, literature and other sciences.

§ 4. Thus the development of each separate language is ultimately determined by the interaction of a large number of factors both linguistic and extralinguistic. This process though extremely complicated is by no means irregular. The interrelation of the factors mentioned above results in the rise of certain tendencies and trends which can be observed. It is the task of the historian to define these tendencies, describe them and explain their origin and further development.

§ 5. There is one more point that should be made. From its very beginning English was not a uniform language. It always existed in several forms – dialects. English originated as a group of dialects reflecting the tribal division of the primitive community. The development of the feudal community was accompanied by the transformation of tribal dialects into territorial ones. Still later the development of the English nation conditioned the development of the national language with the territorial dialects gradually falling into disuse.

§ 6. Alongside of these developments another type of differentiation can be observed. This is the rise of a standard which comes to be used in literature, in official communication and which is taught at school.

It is this language form that we are concerned about mostly and the following will be a description primarily of the growth and development of the modern literary standard. Other language forms will be discussed only in so far as it is necessary to furnish a clear understanding of the origin of the literary standard and of the influences which were responsible for its development.

CHAPTER I

THE ANCESTRY OF ENGLISH

PLACE OF ENGLISH AMONG OTHER LANGUAGES OF THE WORLD

§ 7. English belongs to the Indo-European family of languages. Indo-European was spoken about 3500-3000 B.C.[1] by nomadic tribes which wandered in the lands about the Black Sea area and might have reached as far as Siberia. The number of people forming a primitive tribe cannot be large as their means of gathering food are extremely limited. Therefore each tribe has to split up after reaching a certain number of members. Thus the parent Indo-European tribe must have split gradually into sections which moved on their own and went in various directions across the continents of Europe and Asia. Losing contact with the parent language each section would develop its language along its own lines. Thus at first arose dialects of the parent language, which gradually turned into separate languages. It is believed that by 2000 B.C. the Original Indo-European had split up into 11 language groups or branches each of which developed independently and gave rise to a number of languages which partly disappeared, sometimes leaving behind inscriptions or other texts that were deciphered at a later period. The rest of these languages continued their development and in their turn gave rise to a number of modern languages. The following is a list of the eleven branches of the Indo-European parent language.

1. The Indian languages: Sanscrit (now obsolete), Hindustani, Gipsy.
2. The Iranian languages. These are spoken in Iran. To this group also belong Tajik, Ossetic, Kurdish, etc. spoken in the USSR.
3. The Slavonic languages. This group falls into three divisions:

a) Western Slavonic, including Polish, Czech and Slovakian;

b) Southern Slavonic, including Bulgarian, Serbian, Slovenian and Croation;

c) Eastern Slavonic, including Russian, Ukrainian and Belorussian.

4. The Baltic languages: Old Prussian (now obsolete), Lithuanian and Latvian.
5. The Romance languages: Latin (obsolete), French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Rumanian and Moldavian.
6. The Celtic languages: Scotch, Irish, Welsh, Breton and a number of languages (now obsolete) spoken in England, France and other territories before the Roman invasion.
7. The Greek language.
8. The Armenian language.
9. The Hittite language (now obsolete).

[1] B.C. – before Christ

10. The Tocharian language (now obsolete).

11. The Germanic languages. This group falls into three divisions:

a) East Germanic, including Gothic, Vandal and Burgundial (all obsolete);

b) North Germanic, including Old Scandinavian (obsolete), Danish, Swedish, Icelandic, Norwegian and Faroese;

c) West Germanic, including Old English, Old High German, Old Low German, etc. (all obsolete), English, Frisian, German, Dutch and Boer.

Thus, English stems from the West Germanic division of the Germanic group of the Indo-European family of languages. A wide-spread language, English is spoken on the British Isles, in the USA, Canada, India, Pakistan, Australia and New Zealand.

DATA ON OLD GERMANS

§ 8. The earliest information concerning the Germanic tribes who spoke different Germanic languages in the remote past was furnished by the Greek traveller Pytheas. In 325 B.C. after a journey to the Amber Shore (now Western Sleswig) Pytheas wrote about two Germanic tribes: the Teutons and the Guttons. A detailed description of the Germanic tribes and their way of life was given by Julius Caesar in his "Notes on the Gallic war" in the 1st century B.C. Very important data on the distribution, social organization and religious beliefs of the Germanic tribes are also found in the literary works of the famous Roman historian Cornelius Tacitus (55-120 A.D.)[1] and the Roman scholar Pliny (23-79 A.D.). The latter made a classification of the Germanic tribes according to which Old Germans can be grouped as follows:

1. The Vindils living in the basin of the Elbe river;
2. The Ingaevones living on the shore of the North Sea;
3. The Iscaevones living on the eastern shore of the Rhine;
4. The Herminones who settled on the territory of Southern Germany;
5. The Hillaeviones who settled on the Danish Isles and in Scandinavia;
6. The Pevkines living in the neighbourhood of present Rumania.

F. Engels in his work "On the History of the Old Germans" quotes Pliny's classification and commends it. The only amendment made by Engels was to reclassify the Vindils and the Pevkines as a single group. In all other respects Engels found Pliny's classification perfect for it proved to be strikingly compatible with the classification of the Germanic dialects made by linguists in the 19th century. This classification includes three groups of dialects:

1. East Germanic spoken by the Vindils;

2. West Germanic spoken by the Ingaevones, Iscaevones and Herminoaes;

[1] A.D. – anno Domini (Lat.).

3. North Germanic spoken by the Hillaeviones.

§ 9. The Germanic tribes in the time of Caesar had been at the stage of the primitive communal system. There were no clearly marked differences between the common people and the representatives of power. 150 years later in the epoch of Tacitus the social life of the Germanic tribes was marked by a higher level of development: they began to lead a settled life and to give preference to agriculture over animal husbandry. Common people began to be dominated by the tribal nobility whose development had been fostered by numerous wars and raids. Prisoners of war were turned into slaves and booty came to be a source of enrichment for the nobility. Thus in the time of Tacitus the primitive communal system of the Germanic tribes was marked by traces of social differentiation. The tribal system began to decay. However, class distinctions were still embrionic.

WRITING IN GERMANIC LANGUAGES

§ 10. At first all Germanic tribes used a common alphabet which varied slightly from tribe to tribe as to the number of characters and to their form. The characters of this alphabet were known as runes and were usually engraved on horn, stone, wood or metal. The runic alphabet is not of Germanic origin. It is most probably based on the Latin or Greek alphabet, or on both. Primarily the runes were used as characters having magic value. Hence their name: runes (Goth, 'rūna', AgS. 'rūn' means 'secret', 'mystery'). Runes were widely used in Scandinavia where they were known from the 3rd century A.D.

§ 11. After embracing Christianity the Germanic tribes began to use either the Greek or the Latin alphabet according to the variety of Christianity their missionaries adhered to. In both cases the alphabet had to submit to changes so as to render more or less adequately the peculiarities of Germanic pronunciation.

The Goths who were converted to Christianity by missionaries of the Greek Catholic church adopted an alphabet based on Greek characters. The Gothic alphabet was employed in the translation of some fragments of the New Testament undertaken by a Gothic bishop Wulfila about 350 A.D. Wulfila's translation of the Bible has been partially preserved until our days and constitutes one of the most ancient manuscripts existing in a Germanic language.

The Germanic tribes living on the continent were converted by Roman missionaries and for this reason they began to use for their writings the so-called continental variety of the Latin alphabet which is still used in many European countries.

The tribes inhabiting Britain were converted to Christianity by monks from Irish monasteries who preached their own variety of Christianity and introduced into England their own variety of the Latin alphabet, the British form.

OLD GERMANIC LANGUAGES

§ 12. According to the data obtained from the earliest language records, the Old Germanic languages fall into three groups:

1. East Germanic or Gothic;
2. North Germanic or Scandinavian;
3. West Germanic.

The East Germanic group consists of Gothic, Burgundial and Vandal (all obsolete). Gothic is preserved in the fragmentary translation of the New Testament made about 350 A.D. Burgundial and Vandil are represented by a few proper nouns.

The North Germanic group includes Old Swedish, Old Norwegian, Old Icelandic[1] and Old Danish dialects which all together are usually referred to as Old Norse or Old Scandinavian. Old Norse is preserved in a number of runic inscriptions dating from the 3rd century A.D. The above-mentioned dialects later gave rise to modern Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Icelandic.

The West Germanic group includes Old High German whose earliest written records go as far back as the 8th century; Old Saxon, Low Frankish, Old English and Frisian. The oldest written records in Old English date from the 7th century. Old English is represented by the dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes who migrated from the continent to the British islands in the 5th century A.D. These dialects have grown into the National English language.

PRINCIPAL DISTINGUISHING CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GERMANIC LANGUAGES

§ 13. The Germanic languages in the course of their development acquired some specific properties which differentiate them as a branch from the rest of the Indo-European languages. These properties may be treated as resulting from the tendencies inherent in these languages, or they might have arisen under the influence of languages belonging to non-Indo-European stock (the influence of the substratum)[2]. In our treatment of the subject we shall limit ourselves to the phonological system of the Germanic languages and their grammar.

§ 14. The first distinctive property of the Germanic languages in the domain of phonology is their almost regular shifting of certain Indo-European consonants. Rasmus Rask (1787-1832), one of the founders of the Neo-Grammarian school, was the first to notice this regularity. Afterwards it was itemized by the German linguist Jacob Grimm (1785-1863). Here are the principles formulated by the latter (Grimm's law):

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[1] Historically Old Icelandic appeared on the basis of the Old Norwegian dialect.

[2] On the theory of the substratum, see Б.А. Ильиш, История английского языка. М., 1958, p. 20-21.

1. The Indo-European voiceless stops p, t, k manifest themselves in the Germanic languages as fricatives – f, ϸ, h, e.g.:

Russ. полный — Md. E. full

Lat. pater — Md. E. father

Lat. cordis — Md. E. heart

2. The Indo-European voiced stops b, d, g manifest themselves in the Germanic languages as voiceless stops – p, t, k, e.g.:

Russ. болото — Md. E. pool

Russ. еда —Md. E. eat

Russ. иго — Md. E. yoke

3. The Indo-European voiced aspirated stops bh, dh, gh manifest themselves in the Germanic languages as voiced stops – b, d, g, e.g.:

Scr. bhrātar — Md. E. brother

Scr. madhu — O. E. medu (mead)

Lat. hostis (enemy) — Goth gasts (guest)[1]

The above-noted correspondences, however, were regular only if the non-fixed Indo-European accent fell on the vowel preceding the consonant or if the consonant stood at the beginning of the word, e.g.:

Gr. dēkā (ten) — Goth. taihun

k — h

If, however, the preceding vowel in the Indo-European and early Germanic was not accented, the Indo-European p, t, k appeared in the Germanic languages as voiced stops rather than voiceless fricatives, e.g.:

Gr. dekás (a ten) — Goth. Tigus

k — g

§ 15. These apparent exceptions to Grimm's law were explained by Karl Verner, a Danish linguist, and after him they have been called Verner's law. According to Verner's law the voiceless fricatives f, ϸ, h, which resulted from the shifting of the Indo-European p, t, k, first changed respectively to the voiced fricatives v, ƿ, y, then in the West Germanic languages ƿ was shifted to d, and the voiced fricative v at the end of the word changed into b. Similar modifications were also adhered to by the fricative s, which was first voiced into z, and then modified into r. The change of z into r was termed 'rhotacism'.

Verner's law accounts, for instance, for the consonant change in the modern forms of was-were (with the original stress of wás and wēsón).

§ 16. In the domain of vowels the most important property of the Germanic languages is gradation or ablaut. This is a spontaneous vowel variation mostly inside a root common to all Indo-European languages. So far as

[1] The shift of bh, dh can be illustrated only on the basis of the Sanscrit sound form because in other Indo-European languages (non-Germanic) bh, dh, appear in a different shape. For example, in Greek bh appears as ph, in Latin as f. As to the shift of gh, Sanscrit cannot furnish any illustrations here. Since Indo-European gh became h in Latin, such correspondences as Latin hostis, Gothic gasts have to be resorted to for the restoration of gh.

Germanic ablaut is concerned, it goes back to some regular phonetic processes inherent in the Indo-European parent language. This vowel variation became a very important grammatical means especially in the verb system where it is employed for the building of the principal forms, e.g.:

Goth.: reisan – rais – risum – risans

O. E.: rīson – rās – rison – risen

Md. E.: rise — rose – risen.

§ 17. Another distinctive feature of Germanic vocalism is so-called Germanic breaking (Fracture). This is an assimilative process not to be found in other Indo-European (non-Germanic) languages. It consists in the qualitative change of certain vowels depending on the sounds that follow. There are two vowels that are submitted to breaking:

1. The Indo-European e in the root corresponds in the Germanic languages to i if it is followed by i, j, or by a nasal plus another consonant, e.g.:

Lat. medias – OE. midde (middle)

Lat. ventus – OE. wind (wind)

2. The Indo-European u in the root corresponds in the Germanic languages to u if it is followed by u or by a nasal plus another consonant. Otherwise the Indo-European u corresponds in Germanic to o, e.g.:

Scr. sunus – OE. sunu (son)

Lat. iugum – OE. geoc <*goc (yoke)

§ 18. The number of back vowels in the Germanic languages is smaller than in the other Indo-European languages since the Indo-European short vowels o and a appear in the Germanic languages as the short vowel a. E.g.:

Lat. ager – Goth. akrs (field)

Lat. molere – Goth. malan (to meal)

On the other hand the Indo-European long vowels ō and ā appear in the Germanic languages as the long ō. E.g.:

Lat. frāter – Goth. brōþar (brother)

Lat. flōs – OE. blōma (bloom)

§ 19. The next distinctive feature of the Germanic languages concerns their word-stress. It follows from Verner's law that word-stress in Germanic, as well as in other Indo-European languages, has been free or variable: it might be on any part of a word. This free accent has been preserved in Sanscrit, Greek and in some other Indo-European languages. So far as the Germanic languages are concerned, this free accent in them in the times preceding the earliest available written records had later been replaced by a fixed stress falling regularly on the first syllable. The effect which this fixed accent has had on the structure of English is considerable: many important changes have taken place in the unstressed syllables. Unaccented vowels in inflexions tended to become weakened, and were eventually lost. All this has ultimately led to crucial simplifications in the system of English paradigms.

§ 20. The next two distinguishing characteristics of the Germanic languages bear upon the declension of the adjective and upon the verb system. Every adjective had to be declined according to the strong declension if it alone modified the noun it referred to, i.e. nouns preceded by strong adjectives denoted indefinite objects. When the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or any other defining element it had to be declined according to the weak declension. The strong declension corresponds to the inflexion of the adjective in the rest of the Indo-European languages whereas the weak form is regarded as a peculiarity of the Germanic languages since it was developed by the Parent Germanic.

This two-fold declension of the adjective cannot be illustrated by Modern English but it was retained in OE and has been preserved in German, e.g.:

STRONG	WEAK
O.E. gōde menn (good people):	þās gōdan menn (these good people)
Germ. gute Männer;	diese guten Männer

§ 21. The most prominent feature of the Germanic verb system is a special type of preterite with the dental suffix – d – (– t –). It is believed that the suffix – d – (– t –) is derived from the verb ‘делать’. The close relationship between the two can be illustrated by comparing the Gothic preterite plural suffix – dēdum (hausjan (to hear) – hausida – hausidēdum) with the past plural of the German verb tun – taten: the Gothic d corresponds to the German t and the Gothic ē corresponds to the German ā.

Verbs that formed their past tense by adding the suffix – d – (– t –) came to be termed weak verbs. In subsequent centuries weak verbs in the Germanic languages have been on the constant increase while the number of the so-called strong verbs which formed their past and past participle by means of different ablaut grades gradually diminished.

CHAPTER II

THE PRINCIPAL STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH IN CONNECTION WITH THE ENGLISH PEOPLE'S HISTORY

THE INVASION OF BRITAIN BY THE JUTES, SAXONS AND ANGLES AND THE BEGINNING OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

§ 22. The name of Britain originated from one of the Celtic tribes – the Britons – who had come to the islands long before the Christian era. In 55 B.C. Celtic Britain began to be raided by the Romans. Under the leadership of Julius Caesar the Roman troops in 54 B.C. reached the Thames but failed to subdue the Britons. In 43 A.D. under Emperor Claudius the Roman invasion of Britain was more successful. By the end of the first century A.D. under Domitian Britain became a Roman province. During the Roman occupation which lasted until the beginning of the 5th century the Latin language had supposedly spread over some parts of Britain, especially over urban areas. Such elements of Roman civilization as paved roads and strongly fortified military camps which were introduced into Britain had greatly changed the looks of the country. Some of the Roman military camps later became centres of many English towns.

§ 23. At the beginning of the Vth century the Roman legions had to be withdrawn from Britain to defend the city of Rome as the latter was invaded and ruthlessly plundered by the Goths. Not long after, about 450 A.D., Britain began to be attacked by the Jutes, Saxons and Angles who had been living on the shore of the North Sea. After long and bloody fighting the Britons were completely subdued.

The first of the Germanic tribes to invade Britain were the Jutes who settled in Kent and the Isle of Wight. The Saxons occupied the territory south of the Thames and partly north of it. The Angles settled the northern part of Britain. The Celts were partially exterminated, some of them were driven to the western and north-western parts of the islands: Cornwall and Wales, some crossed the English Channel and the Irish Sea and fled to France and Ireland.

The time of the conquest of Britain by the Jutes, Saxons and Angles (about 450 A.D.) is regarded as the starting point of the history of English on the British Isles.

THE ENGLISH OF THE 7th-11th CENTURIES AS THE LANGUAGE OF A NATIONALITY IN THE MAKING

§ 24. The social order of the Germanic tribes at the time of their invasion of Britain was that of a primitive communal system in its transitional stage to feudalism. At first the invaders founded a number of small kingdoms which later crystallized into seven: Kent, Sussex, Wessex, Essex, Mercia, East England and

Northumbria. After a long struggle for supremacy the victory was gained at the beginning of the 9th century by Wessex which occupied the territory south-west of London. Its capital was the town of Winchester. Thus, the former tribal communities were step by step replaced by territorial divisions more or less linked with one another. Gradually the numerous tribal dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes developed into four similar but nevertheless differing territorial West-Germanic dialects: the Northumbrian dialect (spoken by the Angles north of the Humber): the Mercian dialect (that of the Angles south of the Humber up to the Thames): the West Saxon dialect (spoken by the Saxons) and the Kentish dialect (spoken by the Jutes). With the victory of Wessex in the 9th century the Wessex dialect came to be regarded as a sort of literary model. For this reason it is much more fully represented in OE literature than any other dialect.

§ 25. The dialects of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in spite of the peculiarities inherent in each of them had very much in common, so that people belonging to different kingdoms could understand each other. These common features possessed by the dialects constituted what people themselves used to call English. We may say that in the 7th-11th centuries socio-economic and linguistic conditions in England were favourable for the former tribal communities to gradually grow into a nationality. Therefore the English language of that period is regarded as the language of a nationality in the making. In the 7th-11th centuries English had definite characteristics which distinguish it from what it later became. This chronological division, preferred to as the Old English period, was characterized by Henry Sweet, an English linguist, as the period of full endings. It is obvious that this characterization is based upon the morphological properties of the language.

THE SCANDINAVIAN INVASION OF ENGLAND AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH

§ 26. By the end of the Old English period Britain had grown into a feudal country, though with a feudal system less developed than those on the continent.

Britain had suffered much from the Scandinavians who in the 8th century had begun to raid the British coast and eventually founded extensive settlements in the North and East of England. This territory was named Danelag (lit. the territory of the Danish law). In 1013 the whole of England was subjected to the conquerors. The level of the social development and culture of both the Scandinavians and the English was almost the same. The languages of the two peoples were also structurally similar since they both belonged to the Germanic group of the Indo-European family. Many common words of both languages were identical and a Scandinavian and an Englishman could practically understand each other even though each of them was speaking his own language. The process of language intermingling, which was more intensive in

the North and East of England, ended in the disappearance of the Scandinavian tongue in Britain, English remaining the only language spoken there. English was exposed to Scandinavian influence for a long time, which is especially noticeable in its vocabulary (about 650 borrowed Scandinavian words) and extended to other aspects of the language as well.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ENGLISH

§ 27. The Scandinavian rule in England lasted for about 30 years (1013-1042). In 1066 the country was invaded by the Normans. By origin the Normans were a Scandinavian people (Norman < North + man 'северный человек') who, in the 9th century, occupied a large territory on the northern coast of France and named it Normandy. In the course of time the invaders adopted French culture and learned the French language. Besides, they embraced Christianity so that by the time of the Norman conquest their civilization was in fact French.

On the 14th of October 1066 William, the Duke of Normandy, won the battle of Hastings and soon after became king of England.

§ 28. The Norman invasion caused great changes of a social and political character in the life of Britain and, of course, influenced the development of the English language as well. After the invasion the key positions in government began to be held by French speaking Normans. The British nobility that had survived also had to use French and adjust itself to the French way of life if it wanted to remain part of the ruling class. Thus French gradually began to be used in governmental offices, in courts of justice and in schools. All writing was done in French for about a century and a half and English writing practically disappeared. So far as spoken English is concerned, its domain was restricted to the regions populated by common people and soldiers.

Under such circumstances the process of intermingling went on much slower than was the case with the Scandinavians. At first the number of bilingual people in the community grew, then due to subsequent historical events French began to be ousted first in everyday communication, then in schools, courts of justice and government institutions. By 1385 the practice of English had been totally reestablished. Out of the struggle with French English emerged victorious but its vocabulary was replenished by a great number of French borrowings. The Norman conquest also had a definite influence on English spelling and pronunciation.

§ 29. Before and after the Norman conquest the development of the OE dialects had to some extent been checked by the dominant position of the Wessex dialect which had been developing into a sort of literary koine. But, on the other hand, the Norman conquest put an end to the unifying role of a common literary written language because English for more than a century had become a spoken language only. For this reason dialectal differences came to be felt especially clearly. Consequently when writing in English reappeared at the

beginning of the 14th century the texts showed great diversity in spelling, pronunciation and grammar. These differences are felt most when comparing northern and southern texts because the southern texts were practically a continuation of the Old English Wessex dialect while the northern texts, besides reflecting the peculiarities of the Old English northern dialects, revealed also the properties conditioned by the influence of the Scandinavian language.

§ 30. By the 14th century the four territorial dialects spoken by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the 7th-11th centuries had undergone regrouping in accordance with the redistribution of territories, possessed by feudal lords[1]. There emerged three main groups of dialects:

1. The northern dialects which extended as far as the Humber river. In the northern group, based on the Old English Northumbrian dialect, it is necessary to single out the Scottish dialect. In the 14th-15th centuries it developed into a national literary language (Scots). Among the writers who employed Scots were John Barbour (ab. 1316-1395), the author of "The Bruce", and King James I (1395-l437), the author of "The Kinges Quhair". But it was not fated that Scots should exist long. With the subjugation of Scotland by the English, in the 17th century, it was again brought down to the position of a dialect.

2. On the basis of the Old English Mercian dialect there appeared the Midland dialects which are subdivided into East Midland and West Midland. The area of the use of these dialects is between the Humber and the Thames.

3. The Southern dialects (south of the Thames) arose on the basis of the West Saxon and Kentish dialect groups.

§ 31. After the Norman conquest the capital of England was transferred to the city of London which had by that time become an important economic and political centre.

Linguistically London's position was rather peculiar. The language of London (originally a form of the South-western literary language) was, by the 14th century, largely shaped on the basis of the East Midland dialect. On the other hand, London was on the borders of the West Saxon area and Kent. The latter circumstance accounts for a considerable Southern and Kentish admixture in the London dialect.

The solid economic and administrative position of London ensured the transformation of its speech into a basis for a standard national language. The dialects of the provincial areas began to yield to the language of the capital city.

§ 32. The English language of the 11th-15th centuries, as compared to that of the 5th-11th centuries, had acquired a number of new properties which make it possible to observe a new stage in its development. In the history of English this period is referred to as the Middle English period or, according to Henry Sweet, the period of levelled endings. That was the language of the English nationality which had come to be towards the end of the Old English period.

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[1] В.Д. Аракин. Очерки по истории английского языка. М., 1955, p. 33-34.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE NATIONAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE ON THE BASIS OF THE DIALECT OF LONDON

§ 33. The 14th-15th centuries were marked by the gradual decline of feudalism and the growth of capitalism in England.

The development of production and the rapid growth of towns gave rise to a new class, that of the bourgeoisie.

The Wars of the Roses which lasted from 1455 to 1485 resulted in the establishment of a monarchy in the country. The concentration of political power in the hands of a monarch and the purposes of a well-regulated administration called for a generally accepted national language.

The introduction of printing in England in 1476 by William Caxton and as a consequence the gradual stabilization of spelling, grammatical norms and vocabulary facilitated the emergence of a standard language for use throughout the country. Besides that, having defeated Spain by 1588, England had extended its political authority over other territories, which in turn had led to the consolidation of the new class – the bourgeoisie, by that time the leading force in the country.

The ever growing economic contacts between different areas of the country in the 16th century resulted in the formation of a national market and consequently ensured the rise of the English nation.

All the above factors accelerated the development of the dialect of London into the national language. By the 16th century the London standard had spread all over the country and had been established as the English national language. As to the territorial dialects, they remained as remnants of the epoch of feudalism.

THE EXPORT OF ENGLISH

§ 34. Britain was one of the first capitalist countries to acquire colonies and dependent territories. The colonization of North America, begun in the 17th century, the penetration into India, then into Africa, Australia, New Zealand and other territories resulted in the exporting of English to foreign territories. On the other hand political, economic and religious contacts of Great Britain with her colonies and also with her capitalist partners led to a considerable influx of words into English from the languages of India, Africa, Australia, Spain, North America.

§ 35. The fate of English outside the borders of Britain largely depends on the historic development of the territory where it is spoken. Roughly two possible ways of development can be distinguished: in a number of territories English became not only the official, but in fact the only language in use. This happened in North America (the USA), in Canada and Australia, partially in New Zealand as the aboriginal population was practically stamped out by the settlers. It must be noted, however, that the language spoken in these territories

nowadays is not quite identical with that which is spoken in Britain. This is because the former continued to develop under new conditions and acquired peculiarities in phonology, word stock and partly in accidence varying from territory to territory. Thus, the term ‘variant’ is applied to different types of English: the American variant, the Canadian variant, etc.

§ 36. In the territories where the native population and their languages remained, English was made the official language. It also became the language of schools and colleges. If we take into consideration that most of the school and college teachers were British or American and that the curricula did not include anything connected with the history of the country or people concerned, it is easy to see that the real aim of these schools was to make use of the English language as an instrument of educating faithful and obedient servants of British or American imperialism. History has proved, however, that this policy was doomed to fail.

§ 37. The following are the chief peculiarities typical of the American variant which is, of course, the most important of all variants of English:

1. The US variant did not experience the change of æ > a: which took place in Britain in the 17th century.

Cf. US: glass, grass, ask, etc. / æ /

Brit.: glass, grass, ask, etc. / a: /.

2. The US variant retains words which have become archaic in Britain, e.g. fall (Brit. autumn).

3. The US variant retains several grammatical forms which have become archaic in Britain, e.g. the use of the conjunctive mood in subordinate clauses like: I wish he go..., He said that I do... (in British English: I wish he would go..., He said that I should do...).

4. On the other hand in the US there appeared changes in pronunciation which did not affect British English. The most important are the retroflexive ‘r’ and the typical American intonation.

5. In the US there appeared a number of new words and collocations which mostly denote either things or notions characteristic of this new country, or things and notions which came into being after the settlement of this territory, e.g.

US: candy, movie, elevator, etc.

Brit.: sweet, cinema, lift, etc.

§ 38. Another result of Britain’s policy of colonization was that English became a language of international trade. In the Pacific and Atlantic where a large amount of trade was carried on with the islands and continents furnishing most of the colonial raw materials and agricultural products there appeared a number of jargons which were used by the native population in their dealings with the colonizers. Roughly speaking these were English words submitted to the rules of pronunciation of the corresponding native language and used in accordance with the grammar structure of those languages.

The role of these jargons is decreasing with the appearance of new independent states. Thus, in China a jargon called “Pidgin English” which was used there at the beginning of the 20th century completely disappeared after the foundation of the Chinese People’s Republic.

§ 39. The period of the history of English from the 15th century and up to our days is the period of the national English language. The grammar system, phonology and vocabulary of the language have during this period acquired a number of new features which distinguish it from what it was in the previous period (Middle English). From the viewpoint of the periodization of English this period is termed the New English period or, according to Henry Sweet, the period of lost endings.

CHAPTER III

THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH SOUND SYSTEM

OLD ENGLISH VOWEL PHONEMES

§ 40. The Old English vowel system consisted of both monophthongs and diphthongs. There was rather a strict borderline between short and long phonemes.

Short front vowel phonemes

§ 41. Not labialized:

/i/ represented in writing by the letter i, e.g. bindan (to bind), drincan (to drink).

/e/ represented by the letter e, e.g. helpan (to help), metan (to measure).

/ɤ/ represented by the letter ɤ, e.g. dɤg (day), wɤter (water).

§ 42. Labialized:

/y/ represented by the letter y and pronounced like Modern German /y/ in the word Mütter, e.g. fyllan (to fill), wyllen (woollen).

Long front vowel phonemes

§ 43. Not labialized:

/ɟ/ represented by the letter ī, e.g. wrītan (to write), hīe (they).

/ɇ:/ represented by the letter ē, e.g. dēman (to deem), fēt (feet).

/ɤ:/represented by the letter ǣ, e.g. þǣr (there), bǣron (bore).

§ 44. Labialized:

/y:/ represented by the letter ȳ and pronounced like Modern German /y:/ in the word Gemüt, e.g. cȳᵭan (to make known), fȳr (fire).

Short back vowel phonemes

§ 45. Not labialized:

/a/ represented by the letter a, e.g. habban (to have), faru (journey).

§ 46. Labialized:

/u/ represented by the letter u, e.g. sunu (son), hulpon (helped).

/o/ represented by the letter o, e.g. coren (chosen), open (open).

Long back vowel phonemes

§ 47. Not labialized:

/a:/ represented by the letter ā, e.g. bāt (boat), gān (to go).

§ 48. Labialized:

/u:/ represented by the letter ū, e.g. hūs (house), lūcan (to look).

/o:/ represented by the letter ō, e.g. gōd (good), dōn (to do).

The labialized short /o/ spelt a, o is a variant of the /a/ phoneme. It occurs before the nasals n, m, e.g. mann, monn (man), land, lond (land).

Short diphthongs

§ 49. Old English short diphthongs /ea/, /eo/, /ie/, /io/ spelt respectively ea, eo, ie, io sprang up as a result of different phonetic processes, such as mutation, fracture and palatalization.[1]

Long diphthongs

§ 50. /e:a/ represented by the letters ēa, e.g. bēam (beam), stēap (steep).
/e:o/ represented by the letters ēo, e.g. cēosan (to choose), dēop (deep).
/i:o/ represented by the letters īo, e.g. līof (dear), dīor (beast). /i:o/ alternates with /e:o/.

The Old English diphthong /i:e/ spelt īe was originated by the process of mutation.

§ 51. On the whole, only two of the Old English diphthongs have their counterparts in other Germanic languages. These are /e:a/ and /e:o/ which correspond to the Gothic /au/ and /iu/, e.g. Goth: dauþus – OE: dēaþ (death)

Goth: diups – OE: dēop (deep)

The rest are of Old English descent.

OLD ENGLISH CONSONANT PHONEMES

§ 52. Labial:
/p/ represented in writing by the letter p, e.g. pullian (pull).
/b/ represented by the letter b, e.g. bōc (book), bīndan (to bind).
/w/ represented by the letter w, e.g. wyrcan (to work), wīf (wife).
/m/ represented by the letter m, e.g. mīn (mine), macian (to make).

§ 53. Labio-dental, interdental and dental:
/f/ – labio-dental represented by the letter f, e.g. fæder (father).

In the position between two vowels or between a vowel and a voiced consonant /f/ formed its voiced variant /v/ spelt f, e.g. seofon /v/ (seven), hɣfde /v/ (had).
/Ŧ/ – interdental represented by the letters þ and Ꝺ, e.g. Ꝺæt, þæt (that).

In the position between two vowels or between a vowel and a voiced consonant /Ŧ/ formed its voiced variant /Ꝺ/ spelt þ or Ꝺ, e.g. cȳꝺan /Ꝺ/ (to make known), oþer /Ꝺ/ (other).
/t/ – dental represented by the letter t, e.g. talu (tale).

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[1] The phonemic status of these diphthongs is problematic since their use is determined by the phonetic context. See on this point: Б.А. Ильиш, История английского языка, М., 1968, p. 72.

/d/ – dental represented by the letter d, e.g. dōn (to do), ēode (went).

/n/ – dental represented by the letter n, e.g. nǣfre (never), munuc (monk).

/s/ – dental represented by the letter s, e.g. stelan (to steal), sōna (soon).

In the position between two vowels or between a vowel and a voiced consonant / s / formed its voiced variant /z/ spelt s, e.g. wesan /z/ (to be), rīsan (to rise).

§ 54. Medio-Lingual:

/k'/ represented by the letter c, e.g. cild (child), scip (ship).

/g'/ represented by the letters cg in non-initial positions, e.g. bricg (bridge), ecg (edge).

/j/ represented by the letter g, e.g. gēar (year), dæg (day).

G was used for / j / in the position before and after front vowels.

/x'/ represented by the letter h in non-initial positions before a consonant, e.g. niht (night), liht (light).

§ 55. Back-lingual:

/k/ represented by the letter c, e.g. cuman (to come), castel (castle).

/g/ represented by the letter g, e.g. guma (man), gān (to go).

The letter g was used for / g / at the beginning of words before consonants as well as before back vowels and in the middle of words after / n /.

/γ/ represented by the letter g, e.g. magan (may), dagas (days), dragan (to draw), sorge (care).

The letter g was used for /y/ in the middle of words after back vowels and after /r/, /l/.

/x/ represented by the letter h, e.g. brōhte (brought), þohte (thought).

/r/ represented by the letter r, e.g. rād (road), rēad (red).

/l/ represented by the letter l, e.g. lǣfan (to leave), ælc (each).

§ 56. Glottal:

/h/ represented by the letter h, e.g. his (his), hwīt (white), hund (hound).[1]

§ 57. One of the peculiarities of the OE consonant system was that one and the same graphic symbol was capable of rendering several sounds, e.g. g, h.

Besides, Old English was doing without the sibilants /ʃ/, /ʒ/ as well as without the affricates /ʧ/ and /ʤ/ which came into existence in passing to the Middle English period.

THE MAIN PROCESSES IN THE OLD ENGLISH VOWEL SYSTEM

[1] The phonemic status of the sounds represented by the graphic symbols sc, g, c, h is problematic. John Nist, for instance, claims the existence in OE of such independent phonemes represented by the above referred to symbols as /k'/, e.g. in cēap (cattle); /s/, e.g. in scēap (sheep); /g'/, e.g. in ecg (edge); /k'/, e.g. in ceald (cold); /h'/, e.g. in heald (custody); /x'/, e.g. in cniht (boy); /g/, e.g. in gār (spear); /j/, e.g. in gear (year). J. Nist. A Structural History of English. New York, 1966, p. 113.

§ 58. Among the most outstanding processes in the Old English sound system, the process of assimilation has perhaps had the most important consequences.

It has already been mentioned that almost all the Old English diphthongs were originated by various assimilative processes such as fracture, mutation and palatalization.

Each of these processes requires fuller explanation.

OE fracture

§ 59. Fracture occurred most regularly in the Wessex dialect. It consisted in the diphthongization of front vowels before certain consonants. As a result a glide-sound appeared as a transitional element from a front vowel to a consonant.

1. Fracture of /æ/

/æ/ > /ea/ before r + a consonant, e.g. *ærm > earm (arm);[1]

1 + a consonant, e.g. *sælt > sealt (salt);

h + a consonant, e.g. *æhta > eahta (eight);

final h, e.g *sæh > seah (saw).

2. Fracture of /e/

/e/ > /eo/ before r + a consonant, e.g. *herte > heorte (heart);

1 + a consonant (/k/, /x/),

e.g. *melcan > meolcan (to milk);

h + a consonant, e.g. *fehtan > feohtan > fiehtan (to fight);

final h, e.g. *feh > feoh (cattle).

Umlaut (mutation)

§ 60. The process of umlaut, which took place in the 6th-7th centuries, consisted in the change of a root vowel through the influence of a vowel in the following syllable.

There were two varieties of umlaut in OE: /i/ or /j/ (front) umlaut and back umlaut.

1. /i/ or /j/ umlaut. Under the influence of /i/ or /j/ the root vowel is rendered more front and close. Having caused umlaut the /i/ or /j/ either disappears or turns into an unaccented vowel spelt e or i, e.g.

/a/ > /e/: *sandian > sendan (to send);

/æ/ > /e/: *lægian > lecgan (to lay);

/o:/ > /e:/: *dōmian > dēman (to deem);

/u/ > /y/: *fullian > fyllan (to fill);

/u:/ > /y:/: *cūþian > cȳþan (to make known, to proclaim);

[1] The asterisk * here and elsewhere denotes hypothetical forms.

/a:/ > /æ:/: *ānig > ænig (any);
/o/ > /e/: *ofstian > efstan (to hurry).

Umlauted diphthongs

/ea/ > /ie/: *hleahian > hliehnan (to laugh);
/eo/ > /ie/: *āfeorrian > āfierran (move off);
/æ:o/ > /i:e/: *hēarian> hīeran (to hear);
/e:o/ > /i:e/: cēosan; cīesþ (chooses) < (*cēosiþ).

2. Back umlaut. The root vowel was diphthongized under the influence of /u/, /o/, /a/ in the next by syllable, e.g.:
/e/ > /eo/: *herot > heorot (hart);
/a/ > /ea/: *saru > searu (armour);
/i/ > /io/: *hira > hiora (their).

Influence of palatalisation

§ 61. After the palatalized c /k'/, g /j/ and the cluster sc /sk'/ vowels turned into diphthongs[1], e.g.:
/e/ > /ie/: gefan > giefan (to give);
/æ/ > /ea/: gæf > geaf (gave);
/o/ > /eo/: scort > sceort (short);
/u/ > /eo/: gung > geong (young).

Vowel lengthening

§ 62. In the 9th century short vowels were lengthened before the combinations nd, mb, ld, rd, e.g.:
bindan > bīndan (to bind);
climban > clīmban (to climb);
cild > cīld (child);
word > wōrd (word).

If nd, mb, ld, rd were followed by a third consonant the lengthening did not take place, e.g.:
cild > cīld (child),
but: cildru (children).

[1] g /j/, c /k'/ had effect on front vowels only.

THE MAIN CHANGES IN ENGLISH SPELLING IN THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 63. After the Norman conquest the literature written in Britain fell under control of French scribes who introduced considerable changes in English spelling. These traces of French influence remain up to our days:

1. The letters ou were introduced for the OE phoneme /u:/ spelt ū

OE: hūs (house) ME: hous /hu:s/

OE: mūs (mouse) ME: mous /mu:s/

2. The OE letter u /u/ was supplanted by o /u/ before and after the letters n, m, u, v to avoid confusion:

OE: sum (some) ME: som /sum/

OE: sunu (son) ME: sone /'sunɋ/[1]

3. After the analogy of the spelling in French borrowings, such as chief /ʧe:f/ (chief), the letters ie began to be used in some native English words for the OE /e:/:

OE: feld (field) ME: field /fe:ld/

OE: þēof (thief) ME: thief /ϑe:f/

4. The OE / y: / which remained in use in West Midland began to be represented by the symbols u, ui:

OE: fȳr (fire) ME: fur, fuir /fy:r/

OE: byldan (to build) ME: builden /'byldɋn/

5. The OE allophone phoneme / v / which occurred in intervocalic positions or between a vowel and a voiced consonant began to be represented by the letter v instead of the OE f:

OE: ofer (over) ME: over /'ɔvɋr/

OE: seofon (seven) ME: seven /'sevɋn/

The ME letter v often alternates with u, e.g. over, ouer.

6. The OE letters ð, þ for the consonants /ð/ and /ϑ/ were supplanted by the symbol th:

OE: þis (this) ME: this

OE: þæt (that) ME: that

7. The digraph ch was introduced for /ʧ/:[2]

OE: cild (child) ME: child /ʧild/

8. The digraph sh was Introduced for /ʃ/:

OE: scip (ship) ME: ship /ʃip/

9. The symbols j, dg, gg were introduced for /ʤ/:

OE: bricg (bridge) ME: bridge /briʤ/

OE: secgan (to say) ME: seggen /'seʤɋn/

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[1] These facts mark the beginning of a rent between English spelling and pronunciation which is so characteristic of Present day English.

[2] On the origin of / ʧ /, / ʃ / and / ʤ /, see p. 40.

10. The OE letter c / k / is preserved only before back vowels:

OE: cuman (to come) ME: comen /ˈkumɋn/

In the position before a front vowel the c was supplanted by the letter k:

OE: cyning (king) ME: king /king/

The letter k also began to be used for /k/ before the letter n:

OE: cnāwan (to know) ME: knowen /ˈknouɋn/

11. The OE /h/ continued to be spelt h while /x'/ and /x/ began to be represented by the letter combination gh:

OE: liht /lix't/ (light) ME: light /lixˈt/

OE: brōhte /bro:xte/ (brought) ME: broughte /brouxtɋ/

OE: hund /hund/ (hound) ME: hound /hu:nd/

12. In OE /g/, /j/, /y/ were all represented by the letter g. In Middle English the consonant /g/ continued to be spelt g:

OE: gōd (good) ME: good /go:d/

The consonant /j/ came to be represented by the symbol y:

OE: geong (young) ME: yong / jung /

The consonant /y/ when occurring after back vowels began to form the diphthongs /au/, /ou/ spelt aw, ōw:

OE: dragan (to draw) ME: drawen /ˈdrauɋn/

OE: āgen (own) ME: ōwen /ˈouɋn/

When preceded by the vowels /u/ and /u:/ /y/ formed /u:/ spelt ou, ow:

OE: fugol (foul) ME: foul /fu:l/

OE: bugan (to bow) ME: bowen /ˈbu:ɋn/

After the consonants 1 and r /y/ changed into /w/, e.g.:

OE: morgen (morrow) ME: morwen /ˈmorwɋn/

13. The Old English letter combination cw was substituted by qu:

OE: cwēn (queen) ME: queen /kwe:n/

14. For graphical reasons the letter i in final positions began to be replaced by the letter y. For the same reasons the letter u in final positions was supplanted by the letter w.[1]

THE MAIN CHANGES IN THE VOWEL SYSTEM IN THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 64. The Middle English period is marked with crucial developments in the phonological system. The most important of these may be summed up under the following headings:

1. The rise of new phonemes.

[1] After the introduction of printing by W. Caxton in 1476 English spelling was stabilized. Only a few changes have been introduced since then. Thus W. Caxton, the first printer in Britain, laid the foundation for the historical principle in English spelling.

2. The weakening of vowels in unaccented syllables and their subsequent loss in passing from ME to MdE. This process is closely related to the gradual loss of inflexions.

3. The change of the language rhythm consisting in the lengthening of short vowels in open syllables and in the shortening of long vowels before certain consonants.

4. The loss of the OE diphthongs.

5. The formation of diphthongs of a new type.

§ 65.The Old English vowels /i/, /i:/, /e/, /e:/, /o/, /a/, /o:/, /u/, /u:/ did not suffer any change during the Middle English period. The rest of the OE vowels underwent various qualitative or quantitative changes. These were as follows:

1. The OE /ọ/, which occurred as a variant of the phoneme /a/ before m, n, was retained only in the West-Midland dialect, e.g.:

OE: månn (man) ME: mon /mọn/

OE: lång (long) ME: long /lọng/

Some of the West Midland forms: long, song, etc. survive in Modern English.

2. The OE /a:/ changed into /ɔ:/ in ME and was spelt oo, o except in the Northern dialect where it remained unchanged, e.g.:

OE: stān (stone) > ME: stoon /stɔ:n/[1]

OE: bān (bone) > ME: boon /bɔ:n/

OE: hwā (who) > ME: who /hwɔ:/

3. The OE /ɣ/ changed into ME /a/, e.g.:

OE: æfter (after) >ME: after /'after/

OE: þæt (that) > ME: that /ƭat/

In Kent /æ/ changed to /e/, e.g. efter, wes.

4. OE /æ:/ changed to ME long open /ɛ:/ spelt e, ea, ee[2], e.g.:

OE: slǣpan (to sleep) > ME: slepen /'slɛ:pɳ/

OE: lǣtan (to let) > ME: leten /'lɛ:tɳ/

5. The OE /y/ appears in ME as /i/ in the Northern and East Midland dialects, as /e/ is Kent and remains unchanged in the West Midland dialect. In writing it is represented by i, e, u respectively.

6.

OE: byrgan (to bury)	North, E. Midland	birien /'biriɳ/
	West Midland	burien /byriɳ/
	Kent	berien /'beriɳ/

Cf. Md. E. bury /'beri/ the pronunciation of which originated from the Kentish dialect while the spelling came from West Midland.

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[1] The OE /o:/, which remained unchanged in ME, is written o, oo.

[2] The OE /e:/, which remained unchanged in ME, is written e, ee.

7. The OE /y:/ developed parallel with the short /ȳ/. In writing it was represented by i, ee, u (ui) respectively.

8.

OE: fȳr (fire)	⟶	North, E. Midland	fir /fi:r/
	⟶	West Midland	fur (fuir) /fy:r/
	⟶	Kent	feer /fe:r/

§ 66. An important development of the Middle English period was the change of the language rhythm brought about by the levelling of the time unit used for the pronouncing of the English syllable whether short or long. It is a well-known fact that in Modern English long as well as short syllables are pronounced in approximately the same time unit. This typically English trait developed in the Middle English period after vowels in long syllables were shortened while in short syllables they were lengthened.

1. In OE short vowels were already lengthened before the consonantal combinations nd, mb, ld, rd. In ME short vowels were lengthened in open syllables:

OE /a/ > ME /a:/

e.g. OE: macian (to make) > ME: maken /'ma:kɋn/

OE /e/ > ME /ɛ:/

e.g. OE: sprecan (to speak) > ME: speken /'spɛ:ken/

OE /o/ > ME /ɔ:/

e.g. OE: hopian (to hope) > ME: hopen /'hɔ:pɋn/

Lengthening in open syllables also took place in loan words.

2. The shortening of long vowels before two or more consonants had already begun in OE and continued into the Middle English period, e.g.:

OE: hūsbōnda (husband) > ME: husbonde

OE: wīfman (woman) > ME: wimman

OE: cepan (to keep) > ME: kepen /'ke:pɋn/: but kepte (kept)

§ 67. Vowels in unaccented syllables were reduced to a weak e /ɋ/. This process was closely connected with the development of the morphological system. E.g.

The OE infinitive suffix -an changed to -en, e.g.:

OE: wrītan (to write) ME: writen.

The OE plural suffix of the noun -as changed to -es, e.g.:

OE: stānas (stones) > ME: stones

The OE suffix -a changed to -e.

The OE suffix -u changed to -e.

§ 68. The OE diphthongs were monophthongized.

The OE: /e:a/ was simplified into /ɛ:/, e.g.:

OE: lēaf (leaf) > ME: leef /ɛ:/

OE: bēam (bēam) > ME: beem /ɛ:/

The OE /e:o/ was monophthongized into a tense /e:/, e.g.:

OE: cēosan (to choose) > MS: chesen /e:/

OE: dēop (deep) > ME: deep /e:/

Most short diphthongs appeared in the Wessex dialect as a result of OE fracture . In the Middle English period they returned to their original form.

The OE /ea/ changed to ME /a/, e.g.:

OE: eald (old) > ME: ald

OE: healf (half) > ME: half.

There was practically no fracture in the Northern and Midland dialects. In the Northern dialect the non-fractured /a/ lengthened before ld, e.g. ald > ald /a:ld/ and was retained as such. In the Midland dialect the non-fractured /a/ lengthened before ld, then /a:/ changed to /ɔ:/, e.g.:

ald > ald /a:ld/ > old /ɔ:ld/

The OE Wessex diphthongs correspond in the London dialect to non-fractured monophthongs based upon the OE Mercian forms, i.e. in London /a/ was also lengthened before ld, then it developed into /ɔ:/, e.g. ald > ald /a:ld/ > old /ɔ:ld/.

The OE /eo/ changed to ME /e/, e.g.:

OE: heorte (heart) > ME: herte

OE: steorra (star) > ME: sterre.

§ 69. In Middle English a number of diphthongs of a new type arose through the development of a glide between a vowel and one of the following semi-vowels /j, h, y, w/. The second element of these newly formed diphthongs, unlike that of the OE diphthongs, came to be narrower than the first.

The glide took the form of /i/ before /j/ and the form of /u/ before /w, y, h/, e.g.:

OE: rōwan (to row) > ME: rowen /ˈrouqn/

OE: dɣg (day) > ME: day /dai/

OE: cnāwan (know) > ME: knowen /ˈknouqn/

OE: dragan (draw) > ME: drawen /ˈdrauqn/

Oe: dēaw (dew) > ME: dew /deu/

OE: cnēow (knew) > ME: knew /kneu/

OE: þōhte (thought) > ME: thoughte /ˈƭouxtq/

OE: tāhte (taught) > ME: taught /ˈtauxtq/.

THE MAIN CHANGES IN THE VOWEL SYSTEM IN THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

Short vowel changes

§ 70. The final weak -e /q/ was totally lost in passing from ME to NE (in the 15th century). In the Northern dialect -e had disappeared by the 14th century.

Distinctly mute in spoken English the -e lingered on in written English to signalize the length of the root-vowel.

Furthermore it began to be added to a number of words which had never had it to show the length of the root-vowel, e.g.:

ME: hous /hu:s/ > NE: house /haus/

ME: stoon /stɔ:n/ > NE: stone /stoun/

§ 71. The ME /a/ changed in the early 16th century into /ɑ/ e.g.:

ME: land /a/ > HE: land /ɑ/

ME: hand /a/ > NE: hand /ɑ/

ME: that /a/ > NE: that /ɑ/

Yet in certain environments this vowel developed in a different way. The sound combination /a/ + /l/ + a consonant changed into /au/ + /l/ + a consonant in the 15th century , e.g.:

ME: salt /a/ > sault /au/

ME: talken /a/ > taulk /au/

ME: calf /a/ > caulf /au/

The sound combination /wa/ changed into /wɔ/ at about the end of the 16th century, e.g.:

ME: washen /a/ > wash /ɔ/

ME: wanten /a/ > want /ɔ/

In the late 17th century or in the early 18th century the vowel /ɑ/ was lengthened before s, ss, st, sp, sk, ch, sh, etc. and then turned into /a:/, e.g.:

ME: fast /a/ > NE: fast /ɑ/ > fast /ɑ:/ > fast /a:/

ME: glass /a/ > NE: glass /ɑ/ > glass /ɑ:/ > glass /a:/

ME: staff /a/ > NE: staff /ɑ/ > staff /ɑ:/ > staff /a:/

American English still has the short /ɑ/. That was how the vowel was pronounced by the first English colonists who emigrated to North America in the 17th century. American English, therefore, has retained a more archaic pronunciation of /ɑ/ than British English.

§ 72. In the 17th century ME /u/ changed to /ʌ/. The words sun (sun), cut (cut), hunt (to hunt), love (to love), son (son), etc. in Middle English and in Shakespeare's writings were pronounced /sun/, /kut/, /hunt/, /luv/, /sun/. In the 17th century they came to be pronounced /sʌn/, /kʌt/, /hʌnt/, /lʌv/, /sʌn/. Both letters o and u have been retained for /ʌ/ in Modern English. This change did not effect /u/ in the words: full /u/, bush /u/, wood /u/, push /u/, pudding /u/, etc.

§ 73. In the 15th century /e/ changed to /a/ before /r/. This sound change in some cases was accompanied by a change in spelling, i.e. er came to be written ar, e.g.:

ME: sterre /'sterɋ/ (star) > 15th c.: star /star/ > 17th c. /sta:/

ME: ferm /ferm/ (farm) > 15th c.: farm /farm/ > 17th c. /fa:m/

In a number of words, however, /e/ did not change into /a/ when before /r/, e.g. certain, perfect, university, etc.

Long vowel changes

§ 74. The whole system of Middle English long vowels underwent a readjustment known as the Great Vowel Shift which consisted in the raising of all the vowels that could be raised and in the diphthonging of the highest ones /i:/, /u:/. This readjustment came about very gradually. On the whole it began in the middle of the 14th century and lasted up to the 18th century, though the most important changes were already completed by the end of the 16th century.

Here are the final results of the shift:

1. The ME /a:/ changed to NE (18th-19th centuries) /ei/, e.g.:

ME: lake /ˈla:kǫ/ (lake) > NE: /leik/

ME: name /ˈna:mǫ/ (name) > NE: /neim/

This change of /a:/ into /ei/ did not affect the spelling.

2. The ME /e:/ changed to NE (16th century) /i:/, e.g.:

ME: see /se:/ (to see) > NE: /si:/

ME: kepen /ˈke:pǫn/ (to keep) > NE: /ki:p/

The spelling ee for /i:/ was established in the 16th century. The digraph ie for /i:/ < ME long, close /e:/ in native English words such as field, thief, etc. is the result of French influence.

3. The ME /ɛ̄:/ changed toNE (16th century) /e:/ then to 17th century /i:/, e.g.:

ME: clene /ˈklɛ̄:nǫ/ (clean) > 16th c. /kle:n/ > 17th e. /kli:n/

ME: beem /bɛ̄:m/ (beam) > 16th c. /be:m/ > 17th c. /bi:m/

ME: speken /ˈspɛ̄:kǫn/ (to speak) > 16th c. /spe:k/ > 17th c. /spi: k/.

The digraph ea for /i:/ and /e:/ (<ME /ɛ̄:/) was introduced in the 16th century.

4. The ME /o:/ changed to NE (15th century) /u:/, e.g.:

ME: mone /ˈmo:nǫ/ (moon) > NE: /mu:n/

ME: fool /fo:l/ (fool) > NE: /fu:l/

In Md. E. the digraph oo is used for /u:/ (< ME /o:/).

5. The ME /ɔ̄:/ changed to NE (18th century) /ou/, e.g.:

ME: hope /ˈhɔ̄:pǫ/ (hopȩ) > NE: /houp/

ME: boon /bɔ̄:n/ (bone) > NE: /boun/

ME: boot /bɔ̄:t/ (boat) > NE: /bout/.

In Modern English spelling o, oo, oa are used for /ou/ (< ME /ɔ̄:/).

6. The ME /i:/ changed to NE (16th century) /ai/, e.g.:

ME: tīme /ˈti:mǫ/ (time) > NE: /taim/

ME: līke /ˈli:kǫ/ (like)> NE: /laik/.

7. The ME /u:/ changed to NE (16th century) /au/, e.g.:

ME: hous /hu:s/ (house) > NE: /haus/

ME: noun /nu:n/ (noun) > NE: /naun/

ME: cow /ku:/ (cow) > NE: /kau/.

In Modern English ou, ow are used for /au/ (< ME /u:/).

Thus, one of the consequences of the Great Vowel Shift was as the disappearance of the Middle English phoneme /ɔ:/ and /a:/. The Modern English /ɔ:/ and /a:/ arose in the Early New English from different sources.

§ 75. The vowel shift proved to be different in character if the long vowel was followed by /r/. Examples are:

1. The ME /a:/ followed by /r/ did not change into /ei/ but combining with /r/ formed the diphthong /ɐə/ spelt are, e.g. ME: hare /'ha:rə/ NE: (16^{th} -17^{th} centuries) hare /hɐə/.

2. The ME /ɐ:/ in combination with /r/ does not change into /i:/ but forms the diphthongs /ɐə/, /iə/, spelt air, ear, e.g.:

ME: teren /'tɐ:rən/ > NE: tear /tɐə /

ME: bere /bɐ:r/ > NE: bear /bɐə /

ME: pair /pɐ:r/ > NE: pair /pɐə/

3. The ME /e:/ in combination with /r/ is not narrowed to /i:/ but developed into the diphthong /iə/ spelt eer, er, ear, e.g.:

ME: beer /be:r/ > NE: beer /biə/

ME: near /ne:r/ > NE: near /niə/

4. The ME /o:/ in combination with /r/ was not narrowed to /u:/ but formed the diphthong /uə/, e.g.:

ME: poore /'po:rə/ > NE: poor /puə/

5. The ME /u:/ followed by /r/ was not diphthongized but developed into /ɔ:/ (in the 18^{th} century) or into a triphthong, e.g.:

ME: power /'pu:ər/ > NE: power /'pauə/

ME: court /ku:rt/ > NE: court /kɔ:t/

ME: jour /ju:r/ > NE: your /jɔ:/.

As a result of the above-noted phonetic changes the new phonemes /ɐə/, /iə/ and /uə/ came into being in the English language.

6. In a number of cases the vowels were shortened before the vowel shift was completed, or after its completion. Thus, the vowel /ɐ:/ in a number of words was shortened apparently in the 16^{th}-17^{th} centuries before it was changed to /i:/.

Therefore these words now contain the short /e/ while the spelling ea which was used for /ɐ:/ in the 16^{th} century was retained, e.g. bread /bred/, head /hed/, tread /tred/, etc.

7. Ordinarily the vowel /o:/ shifts to /u:/, e.g. moon /mu:n/, soon /su:n/, noon /nu:n/. Yet in a number of words this vowel was shortened early in the 16^{th} century and later changed into /ɅI/, e.g. glove /glɅIv/, done /dɅIn/, etc. In other words the /u:/ was shortened in the position before /k/ and before dentals but was not changed into /ɅI/, e.g. foot /fut/, look /luk/, book /buk/, took /tuk/, etc.

In the 17^{th} century there appeared the phoneme /ɑ:/ from the combinations /i/ + /r/; /e:/ + /r/; /u/ + /r/; /o/ + /r/ after /w/; /e:/ + /r/; e.g. dirty /'dɑ:ti/, thirst

/ʈɑ:st/, berth /bɑ:ʈ/, hurt /hɑ:t/, worse /we:s/, learn /lɑ:n/. The formation of the phoneme /ɑ:/ was above all due to the process of the vocalization of /r/.

Diphthong changes

§ 76. The ME diphthong /au/ which appeared between a vowel and /x/ or /y/ changed into /ɔ:/.

ME: taughte /'tauxtɑ/ > NE: taught /tɔ:t/ (16th century)[1]

ME: drawen /'drauen/ > NE: draw /drɔ:/ — ” —

Also in words of Latin and French origin, e.g.:

ME: sauce /'sause/ > NE: sauce /sɔ:s/ (16th century)

Lat: applaudere > NE: applaud /ɑ'plɔ:d/ — ” —

The ME spelling au, aw did not change.

§ 77. The diphthong /au/, which appeared in the 15th century from /a/ + /l/ + a consonant developed into /ɔ:/ or into /a:/, e.g.:

15th century		16th century
aull /aul/	>	all /ɔ:l/
caull /kaul/	>	call /kɔ:l /
taulk /taulk/	>	talk /tɔ:k/
caulf /kaulf/	>	calf /ka:f/[2]
paulm /paulm/	>	palm /pa:m/

§ 78. The ME diphthong /ou/, which appeared between a vowe1 and /x/, changed into /ɔ:/. The Middle English spelling ough remained unchanged, e.g.:

ME: thoughte /'ʈouxtɑ/ > NE: thought /ʈɔ:t/

ME: boughte /'bouxtɑ/ > NE: bought /bɔ:t/.

§ 79. The ME diphthong /eu/ spelt eu, ew was changed into /ju:/, e.g.:

ME: knew /kneu/ > NE: knew /nju:/

ME: dew /deu/ > NE: dew /dju:/.

§ 80. The ME diphthongs /ai/ and /ei/ through the transitional stage /ɤi/ were levelled under /ei/ spelt ai, ay or ei, e.g.:

ME: wey /wei/ > NE: way /wei/

ME: day /ai/ > NE: day /ei/

ME: nail /ai/ > NE: nail /ei/

ME: weien /ei/ > NE: weigh /ei/

THE MAIN PROCESSES IN THE OE CONSONANT SYSTEM

[1] The guttural /x/ before /t/ was lost in the 15th century.

[2] The consonant /l/ before /k/, /f/, /m/ dropped out.

Doubling of consonants

§ 81. After the disappearance of /i/ or /j/ the preceding consonant (except r) was doubled if the root-vowel was short, e.g.:

*sɣtian > settan (to set)

*lɣgian > lecgan (to lay)

Simplification of initial hl, hn, hr

§ 82. By the end of the Old English period the initial clusters hi, hn, hr had got simplified by losing their first consonant, e.g.:

hnutu > nute (a nut)

hring > ring (a ring)

hlāford > loverd (a lord)

Palatalization

§ 83. In the position before a front vowel the consonant /k/ c and the cluster /sk/ sc were palatalized and approximated, respectively, the affricate /ʧ/, e.g. in the word cild /k'ild/, and the sibilant /ʃ/, e.g. in the word scip /sk'ip/.

The consonant /g/ g was also palatalized in the position before a front vowel and at the end of a word. It approximated the affricate /ʤ/, e.g. in the word bricg /brig'/.

Syncopation of consonants

§ 84. The consonant /j/ g dropped out before d or n and the preceding vowel was lengthened, e.g.:

sɣgde (said) > sǣde

mɣgden (maiden) > mǣden

The consonant /x/ h dropped out in the position between vowels, e.g.:

*tīhan (accuse) > tēon

The consonant /n/ n dropped out before h, f,s, þ, e.g.:

fīf (five) (cf. Germ, fünf)

gōs (goose) (cf. Germ. Gans)

mūþ (mouth) (cf. Germ. Mund).

Syncopation was often a result of various assimilative processes which occurred in sounds close to one another by their place of formation.

THE MAIN CHANGES IN THE CONSONANT SYSTEM IN THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 85. One of the characteristic features of the OE consonantal system was the absence of sibilants. In the Middle English period the Old English palatal /k'/ sc /sk'/ and /g'/ became assibilated into /ʧ/ written ch, /ʃ/ written sh and /ʤ/ written dg, gg, j respectively, e.g.:

OE: cīld /'ki:ld/ (child) > ME: child /ʧi:ld/

OE: bisēcan /bi'se:k'an/ (beseech) > ME: bisēchen /bi'se:ʧqn/

OE: scēap /sk'ɣ:ap/ (sheep) > ME: sheep /ʃe:p/

OE: scip /sk'ip/ (ship) > ME: ship /ʃip/

OE: brycg /bryg'/ (bridge) > ME: bridge /briʤ/

OE: ecg /eg'/ (edge) > ME: edge /eʤ/.

THE MAIN CHANGES IN THE CONSONANT SYSTEM IN THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 86. In the 15th century the guttural /x/ and the mediolingual /x'/, which occurred after /i/, were lost, the spelling remaining unchanged, e.g.:

ME: night /nix't/ > NE: night /ni:t/

ME: light /lix't/ > NE: light /li:t/

ME: thought / ϴouxt/ > NE: thought / ϴout/

ME: taughte /'tauxtq/ NE: taught /taut/.

In the words night, light, right, etc. after the disappearance of the consonant /x'/ the preceding vowel was lengthened and underwent the vowel shift by changing into /ai/: in the words thought, taught the /ou/ and /au/ developed into /o:/.

In final position after back vowels the consonant /x/ changed into /f/, e.g.:

ME: rough /ru:x/ > NE:/ruf/ > /rʌf/

ME: enough /i'nu:x/ > NE: /i'nuf/ > /i'nʌf/

ME: cough /koux/ > NE: /kɔ:f/

ME: laugh /laux/ > NE: /la:f/.

§ 87. The consonant /l/ dropped out when followed by k, m, f, v: e.g. calf /ka:f/, chalk /ʧɔ:k/, walk /wɔ:k/, halves /ha:vz/, etc.

§ 88. In unaccented syllables the consonants /ϴ/, /f/, /s/ and the affricate /ʧ/ were voiced. This voicing took place mostly in form words since they usually occurred in unstressed positions, e.g.:

ME: of /of/ > NE: of /qv/

ME: is /is/ > NE: is /iz/

ME: the /ϴq/ > NE: the /ðq/

ME: that /ϴɣt/ > NE: that /ðɣt/

ME: though /ϴou/ > NE: though /ðou/

ME: knowleche /'knoulets/ > NE: knowledge /'nɔliʤ/

The consonant cluster /ks/ was also voiced if it occurred in unstressed syllables, e.g. example /ig'za:mpl/, exhibit /ig'zibit/, luxurious /lʌg'zuqriqs/.

§ 89. The consonant /r/ was vocalized in the 17th-18th centuries. The vowel preceding the /r/ was lengthened, e.g.:

ME: farm /farm/ > NE: farm /fa:m>/

ME: hors /hors/ > NE: horse /hɔ:s/

ME: hard /hard/ > NE: hard /ha:d/

§ 90. In the 17th century the dentals /d/, /t/, /a/, /z/ before /j/ became palatalized and turned into the sibilants /ʤ/, /ʧ/, /ʃ/, / ʒ/ respectively, the /j/ dropping out, e.g.:

soldier /'souldjɑr/ > soldier /'soulʤɑ/

session /'sesjɑn/ > session /seʃn/

nature /'naitjɑr/ > nature /'neiʧɑ/

pleasure /'plezjɑr/ > pleasure /'pleʒɑ/

This development resulted in the appearance of a new phoneme /ʒ/.

§ 91. In certain consonant clusters one or even two consonants were lost.

1. In the 16th century the clusters /mb/, /mn/, lost /b/ and /n/ respectively, e.g.:

ME: lamb /lamb/ > NE: lamb /lɤm/

ME: dumb /dumb/ > NE: dumb /dʌm/

ME: autumne /'autumn/> NE: autumn /'ɔ:tɑm/

ME: condemn /kon'demn/ > NE: condemn /kɑn'dɑm/.

In the above-given words and their like the letters b and n have been preserved in Modern English spelling.

2. The clusters /stl/, /stn/, /ftn/, containing two or three consecutive consonants, lost their /t/ in the 16th century, e.g.

ME: rustle /'rustl/ > NE: rustle /'rʌsl/

ME: bustle /'bustl/ > NE: bustle /'bʌsl/

ME: castle /'kastl/ > NE: castle /'ka:sl/

ME: listen /'listɑn/ > NE: listen /'lisn/

ME: often /'oftɑn/ > NE: often /'ɔfn/.

3. Initially the clusters /kn/, /gn/, /wr/ lost their first consonants in the 17th century, e.g.

ME: knowen /'knouɑn/ > NE: know /nou/

ME: knee /kne:/ > NE: knee /ni:/

ME: gnawen /'gnauɑn/ > NE: gnaw /nɔ:/

ME: writen /'wri:tɑn/ > NE: write /rait/.

§ 92. In such Middle English words as fader (father), moder (mother), gaderen (gather), etc. with -der-, the /d/ changed into /ð/. Cf. NE: father /'fa:ðɑ/, mother /'mʌðɑ /, gather /'gɤðɑ/.

CHAPTER IV

THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH MORPHOLOGY

THE NOUN

§ 93. The historical grammar of all Indo-European languages bases its description of the noun on the original Indo-European noun-system. The Indo-European noun conformed to a three-part structure: root – stem-suffix – inflexion, cf. Russ: реб-ят-а; Goth: dag-a-m (дням). Nouns were divided into classes according to the type of their stem-suffix, which, perhaps, had been of certain semantic significance to the ancient mind. From the viewpoint of the further development of the Germanic noun the most important of these Indo-European stems are:

o-stems i-stems n-stems root-stems
ā-stems u-stems other consonantal stems

§ 94. By the beginning of the historic period of the Germanic languages stem-suffixes had evidently lost their former significance and the distinctions between different classes of nouns had become obliterated, which resulted in the reshaping of the noun structures: the stem-suffixes and the inflexion merged into one. Nevertheless the above-given classification continues to be adhered to. It has to be taken into consideration though, that not all Indo-European sounds were retained in the parent Germanic language. Thus, for example, the two Indo-European back vowels /o/ and /ā/ appear in the Germanic languages as /a/ and /ō/ respectively , for which reason the Indo-European stems correspond in Germanic to:

a-stems i-stems n-stems root-stems
ō-stems u-stems other consonantal stems

The noun in the Old English period and its further development

§ 95. In Old English there are to be found just a few traces of the old stem suffixes. Nevertheless, in historical grammar nouns continue to be grouped under the same 7 heads.

It must be noted that the first two stems are labelled o-steas and ā-stems if the Indo-European parentage has to be stressed in the noun-system. On the other hand the terms a-stea and ō-stem are employed if the actual state of affairs in the Germanic languages is to be proceeded from, i.e. if the change of Indo-European o into Germanic a and of Indo-European ā into Germanic ō is to be taken into account.

§ 96. The noun in OE has gender, number and case distinctions. The OE gender is on the whole grammatical, i.e. male beings need not necessarily be denoted by nouns of the masculine gender. The same applies to nouns denoting female beings. Thus, for example, the OE noun wīf (wife) is neuter (cf. Mod.

Germ, das Weib) and the OE noun wīfmann (woman) is masculine. Very often, however, OE gender corresponds to natural sex distinctions, e.g.

Masculine: fχder (father); cyning (king); man (man).

Feminine: mōdor (mother); cwēn (queen); dohtor (daughter).

Contrary to the rule in Russian the Old English gender is not distinguished either by the noun's inflection or type of declension, the only exception being the ō-stems, which include only nouns of the feminine gender. All other declensions include nouns of two (masculine and neuter) or all three genders. To a certain extent the gender of Old English nouns could be identified by the demonstrative pronoun or adjective preceding the noun.

Old English nouns were inflected to show number. There were two numbers: singular and plural. All the types of declension comprise four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. The Dative case is also used for the Old Instrumental.

§ 97. It is customary to distinguish three types of noun declension in Old English. A-stems, ō-stems, i-stems and u-stems, i.e. vocalic stems form the strong declension; n-stems form the week declension and all other consonantal stems and root-stems belong to the irregular or minor declension.

We shall further deal with the stems which proved to be of most importance for the subsequent development of the English noun system.

A-stems (strong declension)

§ 98. The a-stem declension includes masculine and neuter nouns only. The plural neuter Nominative and Accusative inflections depend upon the number of syllables the noun contains and on whether the root syllable is short or long. Monosyllabic nouns with a short root syllable have the inflexion -u in the plural Nominative and Accusative cases. Monosyllabic nouns with a long root syllable have no inflexion in these cases. In the same cases disyllabic nouns with a short root syllable do not take any inflexion while disyllabic nouns with a long root syllable take -u .

Masculine	Singular	Plural
Nom.	stān (stone)	stānas
Gen.	stānes	stāna
Dat.	stāne	stānua
Acc.	stān	stānas

Neuter[1]	Singular		Plural	
Nom.	scip (ship)	scēap (sheep)	scipu	scēap
Gen.	scipes	scēapes	scipa	scēapa
Dat.	scipe	scēape	scipum	scēapum
Acc.	scip	scēap	scipu	scēap

[1] Scip is a monosyllabic noun with a short root syllable; scēap is a monosyllabic noun with a long root syllable.

N-stems (weak declension)

§ 99. The n-stem declension comprises masculine, feminine and neuter nouns. In the Nominative singular masculine nouns take the inflection -a and feminine and neuter nouns take the inflection -e. In all the other cases the inflections are alike for all the three genders. The Nominative case neuter always coincides with the Accusative case.

		Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular	Nom.	nama (name)	tunge (tongue)	ēage (eye)
	Gen.	naman	tungan	ēagan
	Dat.	naman	tungan	ēagan
	Acc.	naman	tungan	ēagan
Plural	Nom.	naman	tungan	ēagan
	Gen.	namena	tungena	ēagena
	Dat.	namum	tungum	ēagum
	Acc.	naman	tungan	ēagan

Root-stems

§ 100. The root-stem declension includes masculine, feminine and neuter nouns which do not contain any stem suffix, i.e. in which inflections are added straight to the root (the steam = the root). Feminine nouns with a short root syllable have in the Nominative singular the inflexion –u: nouns with a long root syllable do not take any inflection in this case.

		Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Singular	Nom.	fōt (foot)	mūs (mouse)	scrūd (shroud)
	Gen.	fōtes	mūse, mȳs	scrūde
	Dat.	fēt	mȳs	scrȳd
	Acc.	fōt	mūs	scrūd
Plural	Noa.	fēt	mȳs	scrūd, scrȳd
	Gen.	fōta	mūsa	scrūda
	Dat.	fōtum	mūsum	scrūdum
	Acc.	fēt	mȳs	scrūd, scrȳd

§ 101. In the above-given paradigms the root vowels in the Dative singular and in the Nominative and Accusative plural are umlauted. The fact is that originally the inflections in these cases contained the element -i-. As the inflection lmmediately followed the root in such nouns, the -i- element brought about an i-mutation of the root vowel and later dropped out.

This phonetic process later established itself as a grammatical means signalling case and number distinctions.

§ 102. In the Middle English period the noun declension developed towards a gradual loss of inflexions. This process is usually treated as a continuation of the inherent Germanic tendency that was in operation already in Parent Germanic.

In Old English this tendency is evident from the fact that the declension of different noun steams showed signs of levelling and unification. Thus, the noun feld (field), which belonged to the u-stem declension, sometimes took the inflections after the pattern of the a-stems. On the other hand, an instability of some of these inflections could be observed inside a single declension. For example, the noun sunu (son) (the u-stem declension) besides the form sunu might have in the Nominative and Accusative singular the forms suna, suno.

Facilitated by the appearance in OE of a number of homonymous case forms the tendency towards a gradual loss of inflections further manifested itself weakening the functional importance of inflections: some of their syntactical functions were beginning to be expressed by prepositions and word order, i.e. by analytical means.

The functional devaluation of inflections was accompanied by their phonetical reduction which in Middle English continued to gain in scope.

§ 103. Another important factor which promoted the decay of the noun inflections was the intermingling of the native English population with the Scandinavian invaders. After the Scandinavian invasion the North and East Midland areas became bilingual. Both languages spoken in the country were closely related: at times it was difficult to guess whether this or that word was of English or of Scandinavian origin because the roots in both languages often sounded alike. The two languages in the main differed in inflectional elements which must have been an obstacle to the intercourse of the mixed population.

As a result the inflections were often ignored by the speakers for which reason they tended to grow vague and gradually disappeared. And it was not by chance that the process of levelling began and was completed in the North and East Midlands earlier than elsewhere.

§ 104. Finally, the loss of a feeling for grammatical gender in Middle English came to be conducive to the unification of the declensional types. It has already been stated that the grammatical gender of the OE noun was chiefly supported by the agreement of the noun with adjectives or demonstrative pronouns. After this means of distinguishing gender was lost there remained no formal signs that could maintain grammatical gender. Consequently, in the Northern dialects it had been lost by the 11^{th} century. This brings us to the conclusion that the gradual decay of inflections and the loss of grammatical gender were two processes supplementing each other.

§ 105. In the 11^{th}-12^{th} centuries in the North of the country the suffix -n, the distinctive mark of the weak declension, disappeared. With its disappearance the differences between the weak and the strong declensions vanished. On the other hand the declension of vowel stems began to be levelled out under the a-

stem of the masculine gender: the inflection -es of the Genitive singular and -es of the Nominative and Accusative plural were extended to all vowel stems and also to the weak declension. By the end of the 13th century the noun in the Northern and the Midland dialects had the following system of declension:

	Singular	Plural
Nom., Dat., Acc.	-	-es < OE -as
Gen.	-es	-es

§ 106. In the Southern dialects the process of simplification of the declensional types went on slower. Here the grammatical gender and the strong and weak declensions lingered on for some time, yet the differences between various stems disappeared. Thus the masculine and neuter nouns of all vowel stems began to take the inflections after the analogy of the a-stems while the feminine nouns of all declensions passed over to the weak declension and began to take -en in the plural. This inflection was also extended to the neuter noun chīld which belonged in OE to the es-stems with -ru in the plural.

OE plural: cildru; ME plural: children.

§ 107. By the times of Chaucer the system of the noun declension in literary English was as follows:

Singular:	Nom., Dat., Acc.	stōn, ship, nāme
	Gen.	stōnes, shipes, nāmes
Plural:	Nom., Dat., Acc.	stōnes, shipes, nāmes
	Gen.	stōnes, shipes, nāmes.

§ 108. In the paradigm of the root-stems a new Dative singular without umlaut was established (after the analogy of the Nominative, Genitive and Accusative singular). The Old English umlauted Nominative and Accusative plurals were extended to the Genitive and Dative plural cases also. The inflection -es was adopted for the Genitive plural case.

	Singular	Plural
Nom., Dat., Acc.	man	men
Gen.	mannes	mennes.

§ 109. Speaking on the declensional system of the noun in Middle English it is necessary to note one important development in the plural inflexion -es. In OE -as (> -es) expressed both plurality and case distinctions while in Middle English its function is confined solely to the expression of plurality.

§ 110. The two-case system of the noun established by the times of Chaucer was retained throughout the New English period. In the 15th-16th centuries the inflexion of the Genitive case had the forms: -es; -is; -ys. The scope of the meanings of the Genitive case was narrowed: it began to express possession most often. The use of this case form, termed the Possessive case, came to be restricted mainly to nouns denoting living beings.

The apostrophe as a marker of the possessive case was introduced in the 17th century for the singular and a hundred years later its use was extended to the plural as well.[1]

§ 111. At the same time the plural form with -es was still more extended so as to include those nouns whose plurals had previously been formed in a different way. In the 15th-16th centuries the Middle English plural forms: eyen, fōn and kneen, survivals of the OE weak declension, were ousted by the forms in -es: foes, eyes, knees. Only the noun ox has retained the old plural form in -en (oxen). Other survivals of the kind are the poetic kine and the mixed plurals children and brethren.

Some other words have also preserved the old plural forms. The nouns sheep, deer, swine have a zero inflexion in the plural; man – men, woman – women, foot – feet, goose – geese, tooth – teeth, mouse – mice, louse – lice are survivals of the old plurals with umlauted vowels.

But nouns loaf – loaves, knife – knives, wolfe – wolves, etc. have retained consonant interchange.

The OE form of the noun penny was pening (plural peningas). In Middle English peningas changed into peniyes. Hence Modern English pennies. Besides this plural form there appeared the contracted form pence. Both forms are used in Modern English: pennies means coins, while pence means a sum of money.

THE PRONOUN

§ 112. Etymologically the Modern English pronoun is a rather heterogenous part of speech. The personal and the demonstrative pronouns are of Common Indo-European stock. Others originated only in the Old English and Middle English periods, e.g. possessive and relative pronouns.

It must be noted that the paradigms of the pronoun show no traces of influence exercised by the nominal declension which is a proof that the pronoun followed a path autonomous from that of the noun or the adjective.

The preservation of the dual number in OE personal pronouns and of numerous suppletive forms in the paradigms of personal and demonstrative pronouns, e.g. wit (we two); jit (you two);

OE	ic (I)	–	wē (we)	sē (that)
	mīn (of me)	–	ūs	Þȝt (that)

is a manifestation of the ancient origin of these pronouns.

[1] There also exists a theory according to which the –'s- form was derived from the possessive pronoun his. The latter might have been reduced to -'s in constructions like "Mr. Careless his love".

Personal pronouns in Old English and their further development

§ 113. Old English personal pronouns are inflected for gender, number and case. They have four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative; three numbers: singular, plural and dual (for the 1st and 2nd persons only) and three genders: masculine, feminine and neuter.

Singular

	1 person	2 person	3 person		
			mascul.	feminine	neuter
Nom.	ic (I)	þū (thou)	hē (he)	hēo (she)	hit (it)
Gen.	mīn	þīn	his	hire	his
Dat.	mē	þē	him	hire	him
Acc.	mē, mec	þē, þec	hine	hīe	hit

Dua1

	1 person	2 person	1 person	2 person
Nom.	wit (we two)	git (you two)	Dat. unc	inc
Gen.	uncer	incer	Acc. unc, uncit	inc, incit

Plural

	1 person	2 person	3 person
Nom.	wē (we)	gē (ye)	hīe, hī, hȳ, hēo (they)
Sen.	ūre	ēower	hiera, hira, hyra, hiora, heora
Dat.	ūs	ēow	him, heom
Acc.	ūs, usic	ēow, ēowic	hīe, hī, hȳ, hēo.

§ 114. In the Middle English period the inflectional system of the personal pronouns underwent simplification. The remnants of the dual number disappeared in the second half of the 12th century. The OE plural hīe began to be ousted by the pronoun they, of Scandinavian origin. It first came into use in the Northern and Midland dialects and by the 15th century spread to the Kentish dialect also.

The Genitive case of the personal pronouns gave rise to the group of possessive pronouns.

The Old English feminine form of the 3rd person singular hēo was ousted by a new one – shē. The origin of this new form is not quite clear. Supposedly it developed from the OE demonstrative pronoun sēo (sīo). The introduction of the pronoun shē helped to avoid ambiguity: the masculine hē from the OE hē and the feminine hē from the OE hēo would have become identical in form and sounding.

The Accusative and the Dative cases fused into the Objective case. The Dative and Accusative forms of the pronouns ich, thow, wē, yē were identical already in the OE period. In the 3rd person singular masculine and feminine

(him, hir) and in the 3rd person plural (hem, them) the functions of the OE Accusative case were absorbed by the OE Dative case. In the 3rd person singular neuter the OE Accusative case (hit) absorbed the OE Dative case (him). By the 15th century the initial h in hit had dropped off.

The pronoun ich, when unstressed, often loses the final consonant /ċ/.

In the Middle English period the personal pronoun had the following paradigm:

	Singular					Plural		
	1 pers.	2 pers.	3 pers.			1 pers.	2 pers.	3 pers.
			masc.	*fem.*	*neuter*			
Nom.	I, ich	thow	hē	hē, shē	hit, it	wē	yē	hī, the
Obj.	mē	thē	him	hir, her	hit, it	us	yow	hem, them

§ 115. In the New English period (by the 16th centuiy) the Modem two-case system of the personal pronoun had established itself all over the country. In this period the personal pronoun suffered the following changes:

1. After the loss of /ċ/ in the pronoun ich the i began to be used in both stressed and unstressed positions. Where stressed it was lengthened to ī. Thus the Modern English I /ai/ came into use.

2. The form of the Objective case plural you was substituted for the Nominative case ‘ye’. In Modern English ‘ye’ has survived only in poetry and in dialects, e.g. ‘Arise, ye, prisoners of starvation!’

3. The forms of the 2nd person singular thow and thē were gradually replaced by you. In Middle English the plural ye, you were already used instead of thow, thē in polite and respectful address to a single person.

In Early Modern English the singular was used only in addressing inferiors and in intimate or affectionate speech.

In Modern English ‘thou’ and ‘thee’ are used only in poetry and religious speech.

4. By the end of the 16th century hit was totally ousted by it; the form of the Objective case plural hem was ousted by them, though hem reappears in the 17th century as ‘em and can be heard in colloquial speech in Modern English, e.g. I like’em , take’em, etc.

Possessive pronouns in Old English and their further development

§ 116. In Old English the Genitive cases of personal pronouns were used in the function of possessive pronouns. They were indeclinable in the third person, while the first and second persons: mīn, þīn, uncer, ūre, ēower, incer were declined as strong adjectives. Thus the Genitive case of personal pronouns in OE had a double function: on the one hand it played the role of an indirect object, on the other, expressing the notion of possession, it was used as an attribute.

§ 117. In Middle English distinction was made between the pronouns mīn and mī, thīn and thī. At first the difference was purely phonetic: mīn, thīn were used before words beginning with a vowel: mī and thī – before words beginning with a consonant. The form of the 3rd person plural hire occurred alongside the Scandinavian their.

The forms of possessive pronouns in Middle English were:

Singular					Plural		
1 pers.	2 pers.	3 pers.			1 pers.	2 pers.	3 pers.
		masc.	femin.	neut.	our	your	hire, their
mīn, mī	thīn, thī	his	hir, her	his			

§ 118. The form ‘hire’ had been ousted by ‘their’ in the 16th century. The possessive pronoun of the 3rd person neuter ‘his’ continued to be used till about 1600. It was supplanted by ‘its’ only in the 17th century.

The plurals: our, your, their at the beginning of the New English period took the inflection -es, supposedly after the analogy of the Genitive case, and changed into oures, youres, theires. They began to be used as noun pronouns. But it was not until the 17th century that my-mine, our-ours, your-yours, their-theirs were differentiated grammatically: the forms my, our, etc. began to be used only as adjective-pronouns while mine, ours, etc. as noun pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns in Old English and their further development

§ 119. The Old English demonstrative pronouns sē (тот), sēo (та), þæt (то) and þēs (этот), þēos (эта), þis (это) had three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter), two numbers (singular and plural) and five cases (Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative and Instrumental).

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Nom.	sē	sēo	þ᛭t	þā
Gen.	þǣs	þǣre	þǣs	þāra, þǣra
Dat.	þǣm, þām	þǣre,	þǣm, þām	þǣm, þām
Acc.	þone	þā	þ᛭t	þā
Instr.	þȳ, þon		þȳ, þon	þǣm, þām
Nom.	þēs	þēos, þīos	þis	þās
Gen.	þisses	þisse	þisses	þissa
Dat.	þissum	þisse	þissum	þissum
Acc.	þisne, þysne	þās	þis	þās
Instr.	þȳs, þis		þȳs, þis	þissum

The pronouns sē, sēo, þæt even in Old English were often used with a weakened demonstrative meaning in which case their function was very close to that of the definite article: sē mann (= the man), þæt land (= the land), etc.

§ 120. In the Middle English period the inflected forms of both pronouns at first blended and finally were lost.

The OE masculine and feminine singular sē and sēo began to take th, like the rest of the demonstratives. With the disappearance of grammatical gender in Middle English and with the loss of inflections these two forms coincided.

The forms 'the' and 'that' with the plural thō (< OE þā) were employed for some time with a double function: as demonstrative pronouns pointing out an object at some distance and as a definite article. Eventually the form 'the' became established for the definite article only, while 'that' began to be used for the demonstrative pronoun for all genders singular.

The plural 'tho' towards the end of the Middle English period took on the ending -s, the prevailing plural inflexion of the noun. Most probably the form in -s originated in the substantival use of the pronoun. Hence the Modern English 'those' with -e added to signalize the length of the root vowel.

§ 121. In the pronoun þēs – þēos – þis, the inflected form of which had been lost by the end of the 14th century, the neuter Nominative and Accusative singular 'this' established itself as a demonstrative pronoun pointing out an object near at hand for all genders with the plurals thos, thes – these and this – thise. In the latter forms -e appears on the analogy of the adjectival plural.

Eventually the plural 'these', which was preferred to other plurals in the London and Southern dialects, spread all over the country.

The history of relative pronouns

§ 122. Old English had no special relative pronouns. The functions of relative pronouns were expressed by an uninflected þe, sometimes in combination with the demonstrative sē, e.g.

and for gif mē Ðām men þe mīn mōd mē tō spenþ[1]

(and give me to that man, to whom I feel drawn by my heart)

he Ðone heals-beah Hygde gesealde wrχtlīcne wundur

maþþum Ðone þe him Wealh-þeo geaf þēodnes dohtor

(he that necklace to Hygde gave up, wonderfully made lovely wealth, that which gave him Welhteo, the king's daughter).

Relative clauses were also introduced by the demonstrative pronoun sē, sēo, þχt, e.g. thæs dæles sē dæl sē thæt flōd ne grētte (out of those parts that part which was not reached by the flood).

[1] The quotations are borrowed from В.А.Пелевина's dissertation "Развитие определительного придаточного предложения в английском языке", Л., 1953.

§ 123. In Middle English these makeshift relative pronouns were supplanted by relative pronouns in the strict sense of the word. The relative pronoun ‘that’ emerged from the OE demonstrative pronoun. From the 12th century on it began to be used as a relative pronoun for any gender or number, e.g. take hede of every word that i you seye (listen attentively to what I am telling you).

By the end of the Middle English period the interrogatives which, who (whose, whom) were widely employed as relative pronouns. The pronoun ‘which’ was used both for persons and things, e.g. this meyde of which I wal this tale expresse (this maid about whom I want to tell this story).

About the 17th century ‘which’ was confined to things only. The Modern English differentiation of the functions of that, who (whom, whose) and which became settled only in the 18th century.

THE ADJECTIVE

§ 124. Originally in all Indo-European languages the adjective declension practically coincided with the noun declension. This fact suggests that Indo-European did not primarily distinguish between the formal status of words denoting objects and words denoting the qualities of objects. Depending on the context the same word (we would call it the nomen) could denote either the object or its most outstanding quality. Only later on did the nomen, when denoting quality, attain a specific paradigm.

§ 125. One of the features distinguishing Germanic languages from the rest of the Indo-European family is that they have developed a two-fold declension of adjectives: the strong declension and the weak declension.

The adjective is strong in the context: adjective + noun, e.g.

OE: gōd mann (good man) or when it is used predicatively, e.g.

OE: wȣs sēo fæmne geong (that woman was young).

In the context: determinative + adjective + noun, e.g.

OE: sē gōda mann (that good man) the adjective is weak.

Strong adjectives of the masculine and neuter genders have a-stems, feminine adjectives have ō-stems. It is to be noted, however, that the strong declension paradigm includes some inflections pronominal in character (derived from pronouns of the 3rd person) – that is why the strong declension is also referred to as ‘pronominal’.

Weak adjectives of all three genders are declined according to the n-stem declension pattern of the noun.

The system of the adjective declension in Old English and its further development

§ 126. In Old English the adjective has the following morphological characteristics:

It has distinctions of the masculine, feminine and neuter genders.

It also has two numbers: singular and plural and five cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative and Instrumental.

A characteristic feature of the OE adjective is that it agrees with the noun in gender, number and case, e.g.:

Singular	Nom.	gōd mann
	Gen.	gōdes mannes
Plural	Gen.	gōdra manna

The strong declension (-a, -ō stems)

§ 127. One-syllable adjectives with a short root syllable take the inflection -u in the feminine Nominative singular and in the neuter Nominative and Accusative plural; adjectives with a long root syllable have no inflexions in the cases noted above.

The underlined inflections are of pronominal character.

		Masculine		Feminine	Neuter
Singular	Nom.	blχc (black)		blacu	blχc
	Gen.	blχces	blχcre	blχces	
	Dat.	blacum		blχcre	blacum
	Acc.	blχcne		blχce	blχc
	Instr.	blace			blace
Plural	Nom.	blχce		blaca	blacu
	Gen.	blacra		blχcra	blacra
	Dat.	blacum		blacum	blacum
	Acc.	blace		blaca	blacu
	Instr.	blacum			blacum

The weak declension

§ 128. The weak declension of adjectives coincides with the -n stem declension of the noun except for the Genitive case plural inflection -ra, which displaced the inflection of the noun -ena. The inflection -ra is borrowed from the strong declension.

	Singular			Plural
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	
Nom.	blaca	blχce	blχce	blacan
Gen.	blacan	blacan	blacan	blχcra
Dat.	blacan	blacan	blacan	blacum

Acc.	blacan	blacan	blχce	blacan

§ 129. In the Middle English period the declension of the adjective developed towards simplification and unification. Syntactically, the inflection of the adjective is determined by that of the noun since the adjective should agree with the noun in gender, number and case.

As soon as the noun lost its grammatical gender and most of its inflections in Middle English analogical developments took place with the adjective, too.

In the 13th century the weak declension began to lose its inflection -en (<OE -an) which was gradually reduced to an -e. As a consequence the difference between the singular and the plural vanished. In the strong declension the only remaining inflection was a weak -e in the plural. By and large, the OE paradigm of the adjective was reduced to the following:

	Strong declension	Weak declension
Singular	yong (young)	yonge
	yonge	yonge

§ 130. In passing from Middle English to the New English period the adjective lost its only inflection -e and became an uninflected part of speech, except for the degrees of comparison.

Comparison of adjectives

§ 131. The Old English degrees of comparison were built with the help of two suffixes: -r- for the comparative degree and -st- for the superlative degree. Originally both could be preceded either by the vowel sounds ō or i. An adjective in the comparative degree was declined as weak and in the superlative degree both as weak and strong.

The root vowel of those adjectives which contained i before -r- or -st- was umlauted in the comparative and superlative forms.

Several adjectives had suppletive forms of comparison.

Thus, all adjectives may be sorted out into three groups according to how they formed degrees of comparison:

1. Adjectives with an unchanged root vowel:

glχd (glad) – glχdra – glχdost

blχc (black) – blχcra – blχcost

wīd (wide) – wīdra – wīdost

2. Adjectives with an umlauted root vowel:

long (long) – lengra (< *longira) – lengest (< *longist)

eald (old) – ieldra (< *ealdira) – ieldest (< *ealdist)

feor(r) (far) – fierra (< *feor(r)ira) – fierrest (< *feor(r)ist).

3. Adjectives having suppletive forms of comparison:

gōd (good) – betera – betst

yfel (evil) – wiersa – wierst

micel (much) – māra – mǣst

lȳtel (little) – lǣssa – lǣst

Suppletive forms, representing a very old technique of comparing various degrees of a quality, have survived in all Indo-European languages, cf.

gōþs	–	batira	–	batists in Gothic;
хороший	–	лучше	–	наилучший in Russian;
gut	–	besser	–	best in German;
guot	–	bezziro	–	bezzisto in Old High German;
гарний	–	кращий	–	наикращий in Ukrainian, etc.

§ 132. The Old English forms of comparison remained throughout the Middle English period, but underwent the following changes.

The Old English suffix -ra changed into -re. Then the final weak -e was lost altogether and the vowel sound -e appeared before -r. The OE suffix -ost changed into -est and coincided with the -est (< *-ist), inherited from Old English, e.g.:

glad (glad) – gladder – gladdest.

The OE umlauted forms were preserved in Middle English, but their number diminished, e.g.:

ōld (old)	–	elder	–	eldest;
strong (strong)	–	strenger	–	strengest.

The suppletives were also preserved, e.g.:

gōd (good)	–	bettre	–	best;
evil (evil)	–	werse	–	werst;
muchel (much)	–	mōre	–	mōst (mēst);
litel (little)	–	lasse	–	lēst.

In Middle English ‘evil’ began to be ousted by the adjective ‘bad’.

Alongside the synthetic forms of comparison in Middle English there appeared analytic ones built by means of mōre and mōst, e.g.:

beautiful – mōre beautiful – mōst beautiful

§ 133. In the New English period the mutated forms levelled out the root vowel of the positive degree into the comparative and superlative degrees, e.g. long – longer – longest. The only adjective which retains the mutated root-vowel in Modern English is old: old – elder – eldest alongside old – older – oldest. Elder and eldest are used with reference to members of one family or to people higher in authority.

In the suppletive forms evil was ousted by the word bad. Four adjectives with suppletive forms of comparison have survived in Modern English:

good – better – best;

bad – worse – worst;

little – less – least;

much (many) – more – most.

§ 134. It is necessury to note that at the beginning of the New English period both the synthetic and the analytic forms occurred combined in one and the same adjective, e.g.:

strong – more stronger – most strangest.

Only in the period of Modern English do the synthetic forms become typical of one and partly two-syllable adjectives, while the analytical forms of comparison are confined, as a rule, to three and more syllable adjectives and partly to disyllabic ones. But it is difficult to define a strict borderline between synthetic and analytical forms in two-syllable adjectives.

THE VERB

§ 135. The Indo-European verb is one of the oldest parts of speech. Therefore the development of the verb in any of the Indo-European languages can be understood only if the Old Indo-European verb system and its peculiarities are taken into consideration.

The Indo-European verb stem had the structure: consonant – vowel – consonant. The sounding of the vowel used to vary depending on the conditions of the stress falling upon it. This vowel variation, termed gradation or Ablaut was primarily a phonetic process. In Germanic languages it is widely employed as a grammatical means, particularly in the verb system.

Indo-European gradation was primarily dependent on the quallty of the stress falling on the root vowel. The root vowel either changed its quality (qualitative gradation), or changed its length (quantitative gradation).

Possible changes of sounding were:

o – fully stressed vowel (timbre grade)
e – weakly stressed vowel (normal grade)
Ø – unstressed vowel (zero-grade)
} Qualification gradation

ō – prolonged grade
o – normal grade
Ø – zero grade
} Quantitative gradation

§ 136. Gradation was first widely used in the category of aspect which represented actions as completed, non-completed, repeated many times, etc. There existed many aspect forms in Indo-European, but the forms that we are most concerned with are: the durative aspect, the perfective aspect and the momentary aspect. Each of these forms was characterized by a certain grade of the root-vowel.[1]

There were the following vowel grades in different aspect forms:

Qualitative gradation Quantitative gradation

[1] The root vowel could be followed by another vowel not subject to gradation.

Durative – e (normal grade)	– o (normal grade)
Qualitative gradation	Quantitative gradation
Perfective – o (timbre grade)	– ō (prolonged grade)
Momentary – zero (zero grade)	– ō (prolonged grade)

§ 137. In time both the sounding and the grammatical meaning of these forms changed. The changes in sounding took place in accordance with the common phonetic laws, e.g.:

I.-E. e came to appear in Germ. as e or i;

I.-E. o came to appear in Germ. as a.

Thus, phonetically the gradation formula in Germanic was:

a – timbre grade e, i – normal grade Ø – zero grade	Qualitative gradation
ō – prolonged grade a – normal grade Ø – zero grade	Quantitative gradation

Grammatically, the aspects changed into tenses, i.e. the categories expressing the time of the action in its relation to the time of the utterance.

Though the Indo-European tonic stress which caused gradation was replaced in Germanic by the expiratory stress and, consequently, the main factor bringing about ablaut was removed, the primary verbs with ablaut as a grammatical means survived.

§ 138. For derived or borrowed verbs a new system of conjugation with a special type of preterite formed by means of the dental suffix -d- (-t-) came into existence in Germanic languages.[1] Verbs that formed their preterite by means of the suffix -d (-t) cane to be termed weak. The weak conjugation is a specific Germanic formation, one of the distinguishing features of the Germanic languages.

§ 139. In Old English as well as in other Germanic languages there were two principal groups of verbs: the strong and the weak. A third group was represented by the preterite-present and anomalous verbs.

Strong verbs in Old English and their further development

§ 140. There are seven classes of strong verbs in OE differing in the root vowels[2] of their four stems (except for the 7th class); these four stems are:

1. The stem of the Infinitive and the Present tense.
2. The stem of the 1st and 3rd persons singular, Past tense, Indicative.

[1] On the origin of the dental suffix -d- (-t-), see § 21.

[2] The graded vowel in classes III, IV and V was followed by a root consonant characteristic of a given class. Thus the above-noted classes also differed in their root consonants.

3. The stem of the 2nd person singular Past tense, all the persons Past tense plural, and all the persons Past Subjunctive.

4. The stem of the Past Participle.

The first five classes are made up of strong verbs with qualitative gradation. The vowel of the first stem in these five classes corresponds to the original reduced grade (Indo-European ‘e’, Germanic ‘e’, ‘i’). The vowel of the second stem corresponds to the original full grade (Indo-European ‘o’, Germanic ‘a’). It must be noted that in Old English the original Germanic system of gradation underwent various complications brought about by phonetic changes.

In the third stem the accent originally fell on the suffix and consequently the root had a zero grade of the vowel. Yet in the first two classes it always contained a short vowel belonging to the root. In class III the third stem had an epenthetic vowel[1] and in classes IV and V it had a long vowel the origin of which is not clear. The fourth stem in the first two classes contained a short vowel belonging to the root and in classes III, IV and V it had an epenthetic vowel.

Class VI is made up of strong verbs with quantitative gradation and class VII includes strong verbs with reduplicated stems.

§ 141. The four stems are best seen in the principal forms of strong verbs: the infinitive, the past singular, the past plural and the past participle[2].

Infinitive	**Past singular**	**Past plural**	**Past participle**
Class I			
The gradation-row: ī – ā – Ø – Ø			
rīsan (to rise)	rās	rison	risen

The graded vowel in this class originally was followed by the vowel i belonging to the root. In Old English the latter in conjunction with the graded vowel i (< e) of the first stem merged into a long ī, in the second stem the graded vowel a coupled with the i, producing the diphthong ai which was contracted into a long ā in OE. The third and the fourth stems contained the i alone, as the graded vowel here had always had a zero grade.

Class II			
The gradation row: ēo – ēa – Ø – Ø			
cēosan (to choose)	cēas	curon	coren

In the first stem the original graded vowel e in combination with the vowel u belonging to the root form the diphthong eu which had changed into ēo in Old English. In the second stem the graded vowel a and the u merged into the diphthong au which changed into ēa in OE. The third and the fourth stems had a

[1] Epenthetic vowels appeared in the 3rd and the 4th stems after the stress in Germanic languages had been shifted to the root syllable.

[2] The description of the seven classes of strong verbs in OE is based on the respective section of В.Д. Аракин’s Очерки по истории английского языка. М., 1995, p.199.

zero grade, therefore they contained only the u belonging to the root. In OE the u of the fourth stem had changed into o.

In the past plural and the past participle (3rd and 4th stems) the change of s into r is in accordance with Verner's law (grammatical alternation).

Class III

A. The gradation row: i – a(o) – Ø – Ø

drincan (to drink) – dranc – druncon – druncen

The graded vowel is followed by the nasals n, m. The 3rd and the 4th stems contain an epenthetic u.

B. The gradation row: e – ea – u – Ø

helpan (to help) – healp – hulpon – holpen

The graded vowel is followed by a liquid l. In the 2nd stem ea appears from a as a result of OE breaking. The epenthetic u in the 4th stem changed into o in OE.

C. The gradation row: eo – ea – Ø – Ø

steorfan (to starve) – stearf – sturfon – storfen

The graded vowel is followed by a sonorous r. The diphthong eo in the first stem and ea in the second one appeared from e and a respectively as a result of OE breaking before r + a consonant. The epenthetic u in the 4th stem appears in OE as o.

Class IV

The gradation row: e – ɣ – ǣ – Ø

beran (to bear) – bɣr – bǣron – boren

The graded vowel is followed by a sonorous consonant. The Germanic graded vowel a of the 2nd stem appears in OE as ɣ (in a close syllable). The 3rd stem originally had a long ē, alternating with a short e of the 1st stem. This ē in West Germanic changed into a long ā which in OE appears as ǣ . In the 4th stem the epenthetic u before r and 1 alternates with o.

Class V

The gradation row: e – ɣ – ǣ – e

sprecan (to speak) – sprɣc – sprǣcon – sprecen

The graded vowel is followed by a consonant other than n, m, r, l. In the 2nd stem the Germanic graded vowel a appears in OE as ɣ. The origin of the ǣ in the 3rd stem is the same as that af the ǣ in the IVth class. The epenthetic e in the 4th stem appeared after the analogy of the e in the 1st stem.

Class VI

The gradation rows: a – ō – ō – a

sceacan / scacan (to shake) – scōc – scōcon – sceacen / scacen

faran (to go) – fōr – fōron – faren

In this class the vowel a (< I.-E. o) of the 1st and the 4th stems alternates with ō of the 2nd and the 3rd stems (quantitative gradation).

Class VII

The stem vowels: æ, ā, ea – ē, ēo – e, ēo – ā, æ

cnāwan (to know) – cnēow – cnēowon – cnāwen

lætan (to let) – lēt – lēton – 1æten

The verbs of this class originally had reduplicated stems in the past singular and past plural. Reduplicated preterites were preserved in Gothic, e.g.

lētan (to let) – lailōt – lailōtum – lētans

In OE a few remains of reduplication survived only in the Northumbrian dialect, e.g.

heht (< *hehāt) from hātan (to name)

leolc from lācan (to jump)

reord from rædan (to advise).

§ 142. The chief changes in the forms of strong verbs that took place in passing from OE to ME were caused by regular sound changes and also by the general tendency towards the gradual loss of inflections and partly by the action of analogy. Thus, for example, the inflexions of the OE infinitive -an and of the past tense plural -on were reduced to -en. The prefix ge- was first reduced to i- and then lost altogether. The grammatical alternation of consonants was also lost. The monophthongization of the OE diphthongs entailed phonetic changes in the gradation rows of the 2nd, 3rd and partly of the 7th classes.

The four principal forms of the OE strong verb began to be reduced to three. This process most probably started in the VIth and the VIIth classes where the past singular and the past plural forms already had identical stem vowels in Old English. Besides, in Middle English the past plural begins to be levelled along the pattern of the past singular (IV and V classes) and the graded vowel of the past participle passes over to the past plural (II and III classes) thus furthering the above-mentioned process.

§ 143. The seven classes of OE strong verbs changed in Middle English as follows:

	Infinitive	**Past Sg.**	**Past Pl.**	**Participle II**
			Class I	
OE:	rīsan	rās	rison	risen
ME:	rīsen	rōs /ɔ:/	risen	risen
			Class II	
OE:	cēosan	cēas	curon	coren
ME:	chēsen /e:/	chēs /ɸ:/	chōsen /ɔ:/	chōsen /ɔ:/

Class III

OE:	drincan	dranc	druncon	druncen
ME:	drinken	drank	drunken	drunken
OE:	helpan	healp	hulpon	holpen
ME:	helpen	halp	holpen	holpen
OE:	steorfan	stearf	sturfon	storfen
ME:	sterven	starv	sturven	storven

Class IV

OE:	beran	bχr	bǣron	boren
ME:	bēren /ɸ:/	bar	bēren /ɸ:/ (bar)	bōren /ɔ:/

Class V

OE:	sprecan	sprχc	sprǣcon	sprecen
ME:	sp(r)ēken /ɸ:/	sp(r)ak	sp(r)ēken /ɸ:/	sp(r)ōken /ɔ:/

Some of the verbs originally belonging to this class take ē in the past participle after the analogy of class IV thus passing over into class IV, e.g. the verb sp(r)ēken.

Class VI

OE:	scacan	scōc	scōcon	scācen
ME:	shāken	shōk /o:/	shōken /o:/	shāken

Class VII

OE:	cnāwan	cnēow	cnēowon	cnāwen
ME:	knōwen /ɔ:/	knēw	knēwen	knōwen /ɔ:/

In Middle English some of the strong verbs tended to build their forms on the analogy of the weak ones, e.g. the verbs grīpen (to grip) (class I); crēpen (to creep) (class II); slēpen (to sleep) (class VII).

§ 144. The process of reducing the four principal form to three which began in the Middle English period reached its climax in the New English period. In the 15th-16th centuries the distinctions of number in the past tense of strong verbs disappeared and the four principal forms were reduced to three: the infinitive, the past tense, the past participle. This levelling of the two past forms was taking place along the pattern of either the past singular or the past plural. In some cases the form of the past participle displaced both the past singular and the past plural.

Class I

ME:	rīsen	rōs /ɔ:/	risen	risen
NE:	rise	rose		risen

The past singular is levelled out into the plural.

Class II

ME:	chesen /ɛ:/	ches /ɸ:/	chōsen /ɔ:/	chōsen /ɔ:/

NE: choose chose chosen

The past plural is levelled out into the singular.

Class III

ME: drinken drank drunken drunken

NE: drink drank drunk

The past singular is levelled out into the plural.

Class IV

ME: bēren /ɾ:/ bar bēren /ɾ:/ (bar) bōran /ɔ:/

NE: bear bore born(e)

The vowel of the past participle is levelled out into both the past singular and the past plural.

Class V

ME: sp(r)ēken /ɾ:/ sp(r)ak sp(r)ēken /ɾ:/ sp(r)ōken/ɔ:/

NE: speak spoke spoken

The vowel of the past participle is levelled out into both the past singular and the past plural.

Class VI

ME: shaken shōk /o:/ shōken /o:/ shāken

NE: shake shook shaken

The vowels of the past singular and the past plural fell together in ME.

Class VII

ME: knōwen /ɔ:/ knēw knēwen knōwen /ɔ:/

NE: know knew known

The vowels of the past singular and the past plural fell together in ME.

A large number of strong verbs (about 90) passed over into the class of weak verbs, e.g. glide (class I), seethe (class II), help (class III), fret (class V), shove (class VI), leap (class VII), etc.

Weak verbs in Old English and their futher development

§ 145. OE weak verbs were divided into classes distinguishable by the primary stem-suffix inherent in all verbs of a class. Only a few traces of the old stem suffixes had survived by the times of the earliest written records in Old English. Nevertheless in Gothic, one of the oldest Germanic languages, the classes of weak verbs (four in number) distinctly demonstrate their stem suffixes:

Infinitive Past Sg. Past Pl. Participle II

Class I

hausjan (to hear) hausida hausidēdum hausiþs

haus- is the root;

-an; -da; -dēdum are inflectional suffixes;
-j- (i) is a stem suffix.

Class II

miton (to measure)	mitōda	mitōdēdum	mitōþs

The stem suffix is -ō-.

Class III

habban (to have)	hebaida	habaidēdum	habaiþs

The stem-suffix is -ai-.

Class IV

fullnan (to get fill)	fullnōda	fullnōdēdum

The stem-suffix is -n(ō)-.

§ 146. Only the fourth division has no counterpart in Old English. The first three correspond to the three classes of weak verbs found in Old English.

Class I

§ 147. To this class belong verbs whose stem-suffix was originally -i- / -j-. These verbs were mostly derived from substantival, adjectival and verbal stems. The first class also includes the so called causative verbs (< Lat: causa) derived from the second stem of strong verbs, e.g.:

drincan (to drink) – dranc – druncon – druncen, – strong verb, class III;
drenc(e)an (< *drancian) (make smb drink), – causative verb.

The weak verbs of the 1st class fall into two subdivisions: regular verbs and irregular ones.

1. Regular verbs. The root-vowel of these verbs is mutated in forms due to the influence of the stem-suffix -i- / -j-. In long-syllable stems the -i- / -j- dropped out no matter what consonant preceded it, e.g.:

Infinitive	Past	Participle II
dēman (to deem)	dēmde	dēmed.

In short-syllable stems in -r the stem-suffix was retained for the infinitive and the present forms as an unstressed -i-. The r was not doubled in this case, e.g.:

styrian (to stir) styrede styred.

If, however, a short-syllable stem ended in a consonant other than r the stem-suffix -i- / -j- dropped out and the consonant was doubled, e.g.

fremman (to perform) fremede fremed.

After a stem ending in a voiceless consonant the dental -d- was changed into-t- in the preterite and the past participle though in the latter case the -d- was sometimes retained, e.g.:

cēpan (to keep) cēpte cēpt, cēped.

In the event of a stem ending in a consonant + d or + t in the preterite, the -dde changed into -de, the -tte into -te while the form of the past participle ended either in -d, -t or -ded, -ted, e.g.

sendan (to send)	sende	send, sended
restan (to rest)	reste	rest, rested.

2. Irregular verbs. In this subdivision the stem-suffix -i- / -j- was contained only in the stem of the infinitive and the present tense. In the past and the past participle the dental suffix was added straight to the root. Consequently the root vowel of the infinitive and the present tense was regularly mutated while the stems of the past and the past participle retained the original vowel unchanged, e.g.

sellan (to give)	sealde	seald
tellan (to tell)	tealde	teald

A number of stems ended in c /k/ which in the past and past participle changed into /x/ before the /t/ of the dental suffix, that is to say /kt/ > /xt/, e.g.

sēcan (to seek)	sōhte	sōht
wyrcan (to work)	worhte	worht
tǣcan (to teach)	tāhte	tāht

Class II

§ 148. The primary stem suffix of thle class was *-ōj- in the present and * ō- in the past and the past participle. In OE *-ōj- appears as -i- (hence the infinitive in -ian) and *-ō- as a short -o-. Though the present stem had -i- (< *-ōj) the root vowel was not subject to mutation since -i- appeared from *-ōj- after the process of mutation had already been completed.

macian (to make)	macode	macod
lōcian (to look)	lōcode	lōcod
wundrian (to wonder)	wundrode	wundrod

Class III

§ 149. Verbs of this class originally had the stem-suffix -ai-. Only a few of them survived in OE. The greater part had passed over into classes I and II.

habban (to have)	hɣfde	hɣfd
libban (to live)	lifde	lifd
secgan (to say)	sɣgde	sɣgd, sǣd

The root vowel in the infinitive of the verb secgan is umlauted due to the influence of -i- (< -ai-). In habban there is no umlaut since the -i- was lost before umlaut could have taken place. The consonant b, however, is geminated.

In the past and the past participle the dental suffix was added straight to the root without the linking -i- for which reason the root vowel of secgan in these two stems is not umlauted.

§ 150. In Middle English the differences between the three classes of weak verbs tended to disappear. This tendency, already at work in Old English, was facilitated by the following changes in the forms of weak verbs:

1. In the 14th century the unvoicing of the dental suffix -d- from the verbs kepte, mette spread over to verbs whose stems ended in -nd, -ld, -rd and also in -l, -m,-n, -v, e.g.:

OE:	sendan (to send)	sende	send
ME:	senden	sente	sent
OE:	leornian (to learn)	leornode	leornod
ME:	lernen	lernte	lernt
OE:	gyldan (to gild)	gylde	gyld
ME:	gilden	gilte	gilt
OE:	fēlan (to feel)	fēlde	fēled
ME:	fēlen	felte	felt
OE:	lǣfan (to leave)	lǣfde	lǣfed
ME:	lēven	lefte	left, etc.

2. The stem suffix -o- of the second class was reduced to -e-. Preceding the dental suffix -d in the past tense this -e- remained the only feature distinguishing class II from class I.

OE:	lufian (to love)	lufode	lufod
ME:	loven	lovede	loved.

3. The infinitive of classes I and II lost the -i-, e.g.

OE: styrian (to stir), class I – ME: stiren;

OE: macian (to make), class II – ME: māken.

After the syncopation of -i- the forms of the infinitive in these two classes fell together.

4. The double consonants in habban (to have), secgan (to say), libban (to live) were contracted; b in habban and libban was replaced by v after the analogy of the forms with /v/, e.g. haven, seven, liven.

5. The irregular verbs of class I preserved their umlauted forms in the infinitive and the present tense, e.g.

bring brought brought.

In ME the number of weak verbs grew speedily because most of the newly formed verbs and those borrowed from Anglo-Norman and Scandinavian came to be conjugated according to the pattern of the weak class.

§ 151. In the New English period after the syncopation of the unstressed -e- in the past tense of class II the differences between classes I and II disappeared.

A number of weak verbs whose roots ended in -d or -t formed a group of invariables also including some strong verbs, e.g:

ME:	setten	sette	sett
NE:	set	set	set
ME:	shutten	shutte	shutt
NE:	shut	shut	shut

Also: let – let – let (formerly a strong verb of class VII).

A few verbs of the weak conjugtion became strong, e.g. to hide (OE: hȳdan); to show (OE: scēawian); to wear (OE: werian) etc.

§ 152. If, then, we summarize what has been said about the development of strong and weak types of verbs we arrive at a new regrouping of them. On the one hand there is a majority of verbs which build their main forms by only adding the dental suffix -ed. On the other hand, a comparatively small number build their past and past participle forms otherwise: by means of a vowel change (to write – wrote – written); with the help of the suffix -t, sometimes in conjunction with a root vowel alternation, e.g. send – sent – sent; feel – felt – felt.

Hereto also belong the former irregular weak verbs of the 1st class, e.g. buy – bought – bought; teach – taught – taught; and the invariables, e.g. put – put – put; set – set – set; let – let – let.

It was only logical to consider the major first division as regular verbs and to unite the smaller second group under the title of irregular verbs. That is how they are regarded up to date. It must be born in mind, however, that the group of regular verbs includes etymologically both weak and strong verbs while in the group of the New English irregular verbs there are a number of etymologically weak verbs, such as teach, seek, keep, put, send, etc. All of them have retained their original weak verb characteristic – the dental suffix -d (-t). Their irregularities can mostly be explained by the normal sound changes that have taken place in the course of their development. The group of irregular (non-standard) verbs in Modern English includes also the defective verbs, e.g. can – could, shall – should, etc. and the suppletive verbs, e.g. be – was (were) – been, go – went – gone.[1]

Preterite-present verbs in Old English and their further development

§ 153. There are a few verbs in OE whose present tense, the way the tense form is expressed, is homonymous to the past tense of strong verbs. This type of homonymy can be illustrated, for instance, by comparing the verb cunnan (can) with the strong verb singan (to sing).

Present singular: can (I can)	Past singular: sang (sang)
Present plural: cunon (we can)	Past plural: sungon (we sang).

These verbs are referred to as preterite-presents.

Preterite-present verbs in the Indo-European period probably had only two aspect forms: the perfective and the momentary ones. When the aspect forms developed into tense forms these verbs evolved their former perfective and momentary aspect forms into the present tense forms. This helps to explain the meaning of the present tense of the preterite-present verbs. For instance, the meaning of ic can (I can) was originally this: ‘I have learnt to do smth’, ‘I have

[1] For a detailed morphological classification of the Modern English verb, see А.И. Смирницкий, Морфология английского языка, М., 1959, p. 400-432.

gained some experience of doing smth'. When a new, weak conjugation of verbs came into being in the period of the Parent Germanic language, the preterite-present verbs added past tense forms to the existing present ones following the pattern of the weak verbs, i.e. forms with the dental suffix -d- (-t-).

Although the preterite-present verbs are closely related to the strong verbs it is difficult to fit some of them into the ablaut series of strong verbs because their forms reveal a system of root vowels different from that of strong verbs.

§ 154. In OE the preterite-present verbs were 12 in number: wītan (to know), cunnan (to know, be able), magan (be able), mōtan (be able, have power), sculan (to owe, be obliged), āgan (possess), durran (to dare), þurfan (to need), dūgan (to be fit for), unnan (to grant), munnan (to remember), genēah (to be enough). Here is the conjugation system of the verb cunnan (can):

	Present		Past		
	Indicative	Subjunctive	Indicative	Subjunctive	
Sing.	1 p.	can		cūþe	
	2 p.	canst	cunne	cūþest	cūþe
	3 p.	can		cūþe	
Plural		cunnon	cunnen	cūþon	cūþen

Infinitive: cunnan; Past participle: cunnen, cūþ.[1]

In this paradigm the 3rd person singular has no inflection. This fact explains why the Modern English modal verbs which are historically preterite-presents do not have the -s inflection in the 3rd person present tense singular.

§ 155. In Middle English the verb geneah was lost. The rest of the preterite-present verbs are well preserved though with some changes in their meanings and phonetic structure.

Later, in the New English period, their number was reduced to six: can – could, may – might, must, shall – should, owe – ought, dare – durst. Of these the verbs: can, may, must, dare, ought form the group of modal verbs having different shades of modal meaning.

The verb dare has developed another form of the past tense: dared, after the analogy of the regular verbs. Nowadays it tends to become a regular verb.

The verb owe gradually lost its primary meaning and began to denote 'be in debt', 'be indebted' with owed as the past tense.

The verb witan was ousted by its synonym to know. The old infinitive wit has survived only in 'to wit' (namely).

The form of the present singular wot has survived in the expression 'God wot'.

The development of anomalous verbs

[1] For the paradigms of other preterite-presents, see Б.А. Ильиш, История английского языка, М., 1968, p. 124-125.

§ 156. The anomalous verbs in Old English are bēon / wesan (to be), dōn (to do), gān (to go) and willan (will).

The verbs bēon wesan and gān are suppletive, i.e. their forms are built up from different roots.

In Old English the verb to be has two infinitives used parallel: bēon and wesan, that is a two-fold system of the present tense forms:

Singular:				Plural:		
ic	eom	bēo	wē	sint		
þū	eart	bist	gē	sindo	bēoþ	
hē	is	biþ	hīe	n		
(hēo, hit)						

and two forms of the present participle: wesende and bēonde. The forms of the past tense indicative and subjunctive are built with the help of the root wes-:

		Indicative	Subjunctive
Singular:	ic	wχs	
	þū	wǣre	wǣre
	hē (hēo, hit)	wχs	
Plural	wē (gē, hīe)	wǣron	wǣren

Thus, the forms of the verb to be are derived from three roots: wes-, be- and es-. There was no past participle form in OE.

The forms of the verb gān are derived from two roots: one for the present tense and the infinitive and the other for the past: gān – ēode – gegān.

The verbs dōn and willan combine dental suffixes with a change of the root vowel in the past tense, e.g.

dōn – dyde – gedōn

willan — wolde

It must be noted that the present indicative of the verb willan was submitted to the influence of the subjunctive. In Gothic, for example, wiljan is the form of the past optative having the meaning of the present indicative.

§ 157. In the Middle English period the verb bēon remains suppletive but it loses the parallel forms: the infinitive wesan, for one, falls into disuse. The present participle wesende was ousted by the form beinde (< OE: bēonde) which later on took -ing.

The past participle bēn came into use providing the missing form.

The plural forms of the present indicative sint, sindon were gradually displaced by aren (< OE: Northern aron).

In Chaucer's works the plurals bē(n) and are occur side by side. In the New English period are becomes standard throughout England.

The verb gān also remains suppletive, but its past tense ēode was substituted in Middle English by went, the past tense stem of the verb wenden (поворачиваться).

The verb dōn underwent only phonetic changes. The verb will would developed into an auxiliary and is used as a means of building the Future, the Future in the Past and the Conditional mood forms. In Modern English will, when used in its original meaning of volition, is also a modal verb.

The chief categories of the Old English verb and their further development

§ 158. The Old English verb has three persons: 1st, 2nd and 3rd; two numbers: singular and plural; two tenses: present and past; three moods: the indicative, the subjunctive and the imperative. There are two verbals: the infinitive and the participle (Participle I and Participle II). Below is given the system of conjugation of the verb in Old English.

The strong verb

Present tense.		Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
Singular	ic	wrīt-e		–
	þū	wrīt-est, wrīt-st	wrīt-e	wrīt
	hē	wrīt-eþ		–

Present tense.		Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative
Plural	wē	wrīt-aþ		–
	gē	wrīt-aþ	wrīt-en	wrīt-aþ
	hīe	wrīt-aþ		–

Past tense	Indicative	Subjunctive
Singular	ic wrāt	
	þū writ-e	writ-e
	hē wrāt	
Plural	wē writ-on	
	gē writ-on	writ-en
	hīe writ-on	

Infinitive	Present participle	Past participle
wrīt-an (to write)	wrīt-ende	(ge) writen
Dative: tō wrīt-enne (-anne)		

The weak verb

Present tense			Past tense	
Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative	Indicative	Subjunctive

Sg.	ic luf-i-e	luf-i-e	–	luf-o-de	luf-o-de
	þū luf-ast		lufa	luf-o-dest	
	hē luf-aþ		–	luf-o-de	
	wē luf-i-aþ	luf-i-en	–	luf-o-don	luf-o-den
	gē luf-i-aþ		luf-i-aþ	luf-o-don	
	hīe luf-i-aþ		–	luf-o-don	

Infinitive	Present participle	Past participle
luf-i-an (to love)	luf-i-ende	(ge) luf-o-d

Person and number

§ 159. As can be seen from the paradigns in Old English there are actually no distinctions of person in the plural present and past indicative and subjunctive and in the singular present and past subjunctive. In these cases a personal pronoun in the function of the subject becomes necessary to indicate the category of person in the verb.

§ 160. The inflexion -eþ of the 3rd person singular is retained in the Midland and Southern dialects throughout the Middle English period: he wrīteth. In the Northern dialect -eth was ousted by -es: he wrītes. In Chaucer's works -es(-s) is a mark of the Northern dialect, e.g. hom fares thy faire daughter (home goes your fair daughter).

The inflexion -aþ of the Plural present tense indicative also changes according to dialect. In the South -eth (< OE-aþ) was retained: hi wrīteth. In the Midland dialect -aþ was displaced by -en, which apparently was borrowed from the plural forms in -en (present and past subjunctive plural and past indicative plural < OE -on), e.g. hi wrīten. In the North the inflexion of the plural present tense indicative in Old English was -as which in Middle English was reduced to –es: hi wrītes. Thus the personal endings of the present indicative in Middle English may be tabulated as follows:

Sg.	i	wrīte
	thow	wrītest (North. wrītes)
	hē	wrīteth (North. wrītes)
Pl.	wē (yē, hī)	wrīten (North. wrītes, South. wrīteth)

In the past plural of weak verbs the inflexion -on was reduced to -en.

§ 161. In the 15th century the Northern -s of the 3rd person singular begins to appear in use in the Midland as well as in the Southern dialects and later becomes firmly established in the national language. In Shakespeare's works -s and -eth alternate, but by the 17th century -s had become the standard form while -eth was restricted to liturgical and stately styles only.

The inflexion of the 2nd person present tense singular -est (in the Northern dialects -es) which was also common to the 2nd person past tense singular of weak verbs continued to be used with the pronoun thou until the 17th century

when it began to be ousted by the plural form with the pronoun you. The latter circumstance in the end led to the disappearance of number distinctions in the 2nd person.

The plural form of the Midland dialect -en emerged victorious out of the competition with other dialectal forms.

In the New English period -en was reduced to -e and ultimately lost.

After the loss of -e in the forms of the infinitive and in the 1st person singular and in all the persons plural of the present tense these forms lost the inflexional morphemes altogether.

What remains in the Modern English verb, except for the modal verbs and the verb to be, is the opposition:

writes – 3rd person singular

write – all other persons.

The problem of the category of aspect

§ 162. As earlier pointed out the original aspects of Old Germanic languages developed into tenses. By the historic period of English its old aspect forms had become extinct. Therefore the question of whether Old English texts reveal any special grammatical means to express aspect distinctions is of prime importance.

There existed in Old English pairs of verbs in which one member was distinguished from the other only by one formal characteristic: the use or non-use of it with the prefixes ge-, ā- and some others, e.g.

wrītan (to write)	ge-wrītan
rīsan (to rise)	ā-rīsan.

The function of the prefix was very close to that of the perfective aspect in the Slavonic languages, while the prefixless form had a meaning that corresponded to the imperfective aspect. Are these facts sufficient to claim the existence of the category of aspect in the Old English verbs? We ought to answer this question in the negative. Apart from the fact that not all verbs could take the prefix ge-, a prefixless verb as well as one with a prefix was capable of expressing an action in its entirety and thus, from the viewpoint of the category of aspect, it could be synonymous to the corresponding verb with a prefix. It follows from this that though the prefixes ge- and ā- expressed the way the action was presented in certain verbs, they failed as it were to cater for all the verbs. Consequently they cannot be treated as forming up a grammatical category of aspect.

The use of prefixes as a means of expressing aspect distinctions did not become more systematic in passing from OE to ME either. On the contrary, the prefix ge- in Middle English gradually fell into disuse and one could judge only by the context whether the action was complete or not. In other words the rudiments of morphological aspect that were outlined in Old English had disappeared.

The Modern English aspect based on the contrast of continuous and non-continuous forms e.g. writes – is writing, begins to take root in the Middle English period. The continuous form as a means of expressing the continuous aspect goes back to the Old English free phrase: bēon / wesan + present participle, e.g. in the sentence ‘onfeohtende wǣron oþ niht’ (were fighting till night) ‘onfeohtende wǣron’ had the function of a compound nominal predicate expressing the state the subject happened to be in. Another Old English phrase that might have been a source of the continuous form was: bēon / wesan + a verbal noun, e.g. ‘hē is on huntinge’ (he was in the process of hunting) in which ‘is on huntinge’ denoted the process. The preposition on in this phrase was gradually reduced to a: ‘he is a-huntinge’ and was eventually lost: ‘he is huntinge’.

It is probably under the influence of the verbal noun that the present participle in -ing emerges in Middle English ousting the Old English form in -ende. Due to the effect exerted by the verbal noun phrase the present participle in conjunction with the verb ‘to be’ began to denote an action (process) going on continuously at a definite period of time, thus turning into an analytical aspect form of the verb.

The perfect continuous form is a very rare occurrence in Middle English, e.g. ‘we han ben waytinge al this fourtenight’ (we have been waiting all this fortnight)[1]. The full development of this form as well as of the perfect continuous passive took place in the New English period.

The category of tense

§ 163. In Old English there existed two tenses: the present and the past. There was no special tense form for the future. Actions referring to the future used to be expressed by the form of the present tense often in conjunction with adverbial modifiers, e.g. ic gā (I go; I am going)

ic gā sōna (I shall soon go).

Very often the idea of futurity becomes clear from the context only, e.g. ‘Of þē forþ gǣþ sē heretoga, seþe rēcþ mīn folc’ (From you there will be begotten a chieftain who will save my people)[2].

According to a hypothesis propounded by scholars Germanic originally had more tenses, but gradually lost them except for these two. The argument given in support of this point of view is that the general tendency in the development of the verb in the Germanic languages was towards simplification and English was not an exception.

If, then, this hypothesis is true, one can draw only one conclusion: that the lost synthetic tense forms were gradually replaced by new analytical formations. One of these arose in Old English to denote future actions. The starting point of

[1] Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. М., 1968, p. 245.
[2] Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. М., 1968, p. 131.

this form was the free phrase: sculan / willan + the infinitive, e.g. Wille ic āsecgan ... mīn ærende (I will tell you of my mission). ic þæm gōdan sceal for his mōd-þrȳce māƿmas bēodan (I will offer treasures to this brave man for his courage)[1].

In these phrases, which evidently represent compound modal verbal predicates, the original meaning of volition or determination involved in the verb wilian and of obligation involved in the verb sculan is weakened to such a degree that either phrase denotes the idea of futurity.

The development of the future form belongs to the Middle English period when the verbs willan and sculan gradually lose their original lexical meaning and become auxiliaries. Yet in Middle English as well as in New English the auxiliaries shall and will may under certain conditions have a more or less strong connotation of modal meaning, e.g. I will tell you. You shall do it.

The category of mood

§ 164. In Old English the moods fall into three divisions: the indicative, the imperative and the subjunctive.

The indicative mood shows that the actions or states expressed by the predicate are represented by the speaker as being real, e.g. Fyrst forþ gewāt: flota wȳs on ȳƿum (Time went on, the ship was on the waves), or: Ān preost wes on leoden, Lagamon wes i-hoten (A priest was among the people, Lagamon by name).

The imperative mood is represented by two forms: the one for the 2nd person singular coincides with the uninflected present stem[2]; the form for the 2nd person plural is identical with the present indicative plural, e.g.:

	Indicative	Imperative
Singular	ic wrīte	
	þū wrītest	þū wrīt (Пиши!)
	hē wrīteþ	
Plural	wē wrītaþ	gē wrītaþ (Пишите!)

The imperative mood is used to denote commands and requests addressed to the 2nd person both singular and plural, e.g. Cedmon, sing me hwȳt-hwugu! (Cȳdmon, sing me something!): far tō ƿære heorde (go to that herd!).

The subjunctive mood shows that the action is considered by the speaker as being possible, desirable, doubtful or conditional. It is especially frequent in subordinate clauses, above all in indirect discourse, e.g. He sæde þēah þȳt þȳt land sīe swiþe lang norþ þonan (He said also that that land apparently was very far north of that place).

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[1] Ibid. p. 130.

[2] For the weak verbs of the 1st class, which have a short root syllable, the form of the 2nd person singular imperative mood has the ending -e: Þū styre! (Thou stir!).

The same meaning of doubt or uncertainty is expressed by the subjunctive in indirect questions, e.g. hīe woldon witan hū hēah wǣre to þām heofone... (They wanted to find out how high it was to heaven)[1].

In complex sentences with subordinate clauses of unreal condition the subjunctive is used in both principal and subordinate clauses, e.g. gif þū wǣre hēr, nǣre mīn brōþor dēad (if you were here my brother wouldn't be dead)[2].

The subjunctive is also used to express commands, orders, e.g. ic Ꝑē bebīode þæt þū dō, swǣ ic gelīefe, þχt Ꝑū wille (I order that you should do what I believe you will do)[3].

§ 165. In Middle English, as in Old English, the subjunctive is very frequent in subordinate clauses. It is used to express different shades of doubt, wishes, supposition, etc.

In subordinate clauses of unreal condition the past subjunctive is used to express an unreal condition referring to the present; the past subjunctive is used to express an unreal condition referring to the past.

In the principal clause the construction wolde + infinitive is used to denote unreal actions referring to the present and the past subjunctive or wolde + perfect infinitive is used to express unreal actions referring to the past, e.g. she wolde wepe if that she saw a mous caught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde (she would weep if she saw a mouse caught in a trap, if it were dead or bleeded); if it nere to long to here, I wolde han told you fully the manere, how wonnen was the regne (if it were not too long to listen to, I would have told you fully how the kingdom was conquered)[4].

§ 166. In the New English period the analytical forms of the oblique moods gradually gain ground while the synthetic forms of the old subjunctive fall into disuse. After the 17th century the conditional mood expressed by the analytical form should / would+Infinitive displaces the synthetic forms of the subjunctive in the principal clause in complex sentences with subordinate clauses of condition.

The origin of the passive form

§ 167. In Old English there existed the free phrases built after the pattern:

bēon / weorþan + past participle of a transitive verb, e.g.

hē was ofslχgen (he was killed)

hē weorþ ofslχgen (he became killed).

Here the verbs bēon and weorþan are link verbs. The past participle together with the link verb form a compound nominal predicate. The subject and the past participle (= predicative) in OE agree in number.

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[1] Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. М., 1968, p. 132.

[2] Ibid, p. 132.

[3] Ibid, p. 132.

[4] Ильиш Б.А. История английского языка. М., 1968, p. 47.

In the phrase with the verb bēon the subject possesses a quality, the result of the action performed on it. The phrase with weorþan has a somewhat different meaning. It indicates that the subject acquires a certain characteristic expressed by the past participle. Later on this semantic difference between the two phrases disappears and they both come to have a passive meaning.

§ 168. In Middle English the form of the passive voice develops towards the abandonment of weorþan as the first component of this phrase. The verb bēon gradually turns into a pure auxiliary and together with the past participle merge into one sense unit: an analytical form of the verb denoting an action performed upon the subject of the sentence. But the combination of the verb ben with the past participle does not always form the passive voice. Depending upon the lexical character of the verb and on the context this combination is either a simple verbal predicate or a compound nominal predicate. Thus in Middle English arises the problem of defining the boundaries between the passive voice and the compound nominal predicate.

The full development of the passive form belongs to the New English period.

The origin of the perfect form

§ 169. The perfect form which in Modern English is claimed to express the category of correlation[1] originates from the phrase habban + past participle. In Old English the verb habban sometimes has a direct object followed by the past participle of a transitive verb. The past participle, having the function of a predicative adjective, agrees in gender, number and case with the direct object, e.g. þā hē Ꝑā hχfde þā wīsan onfongne, þā ēode hē hām (when he had those directions received, then he went home).

Originally the meaning of the phrase is: the subject possesses something which has a characteristic that resulted from an accomplished action. Very often, however, the original meaning of the verb habban is weakened, e.g. nχbbe ic mærþa fela ongunnen on geogoþe (I have many exploits undertaken in my youth) and the phrase practically expresses an action accomplished before a given time.

Further on habban loses its lexical meaning still more and turns into an auxiliary. The past participle in its turn loses its forms of agreement with the object and syntactically becomes connected immediately with the verb habban. Consequently both the verb habban and the past participle merge into one sense unit, an analytical form of the verb.

§ 170. In Middle English the perfect form steadily gains ground. Both present perfect and past perfect are of frequent occurrence: the future perfect is less frequent, e.g. I have wepte many a teere (I have wept many tears); As I have told it you (as I have told it to you); So hadde I spoken with hem everichon (Thus I had spoken with every one of them).

[1] B. Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M.-L., 1965, p. 96 ff.

As can be seen from the last quotation the auxiliary verb in Middle English could precede the subject. It could also be placed after the past participle, e.g. In youthe he lerned hadde a good mister (in his youth he had learnt a good trade). It was not until the 17th century that the final stabiliza- tion of tne perfect form came about. The development of the perfect passive and the perfect continuous forms belongs to a still later period.

§ 171. The perfect form of intransitive verbs originally had the verb bēon (wesan) as its first component, e.g. is his eafora nū heard hēr cumen (now his brave son here has come).

In the above phrase the past participle is used as a predicative, the verb wesan as a link verb. The participle agrees with the subject in number, gender and case. On the whole the phrase denotes the state, the subject acquires as the result of an action performed by it.

The perfect form with the verb to be occurs in Middle English and in Early New English. But since it, in fact, had the same meaning as the form with have, the latter gradually displaced the verb to be and began to be used as an auxiliary with intransitive verbs as well.

There are some remnants of the perfect with the verb to be occasionally met with in Modern English, e.g. When I came, the man was gone. The phrase ‘was gone’ denotes a state.

The infinitive in Old English and its further development

§ 172. The infinitive stems from a verbal noun. In Old English it has two forms:

1. The uninflected infinitive representing the Nominative and the Accusative of a verbal noun, e.g. wrītan (to write), secgan (to say). This form has the suffix -an added to the stem of the verb;

2. The inflected form used mostly after the preposition tō. This form has the suffix -anne (or the older type with mutation -enne) and represents the Dative case of a verbal noun, e.g. tō wrītanne (in order to write), tō secganne (in order to say).

The inflected infinitive with the preposition tō expressed direction or purpose, e.g. hīe cōmon þȳt land tō scēawienne (they have come for the purpose of seeing that land). Sometimes, however, the infinitive governed by tō loses its primary meaning of purpose or direction, e.g. ne biþ þǣr ēþe þīn spor tō findanne (it will not be easy there thy track to find) where tō findanne is the subject of the sentence.

On the other hand the preposition tō can often govern the uninflected form of the infinitive, e.g. micel is tō secgan (much is to be said).

The preterite-present verbs as a rule are used with the uninflected form of the infinitive, e.g. Hwȳt sceal ic singan? (What shall I sing?).

In Old English there are rudiments of an infinitival construction in which a transitive verb has a direct object expressed by a noun or a pronoun with an

infinitive connected with it, e.g. ic hȳrde hīe secgan. This construction (accusativus cum infinitivo) is commonly used with verbs expressing perceptions: sēon (to see), hȳran (to hear) and others.

§ 173. When in the Middle English period -ne, the mark of the Dative case of the infinitive, was lost the two Old English forms merged into one: wrītan > written; tō wrītanne > tō wrīten. The preposition tō came to be used more freely when there was no purpose or direction to be expressed. Gradually tō loses its lexical meaning and turns into a particle, a formal sign of the infinitive, e.g. he bigan to ryden out (he began to ride out); ther com this boor to see a mayde (this boor happened to see a maid).

The infinitive is sometimes used without to, e.g. playen he began (he began to play).

If, however, the infinitive has the function of an adverbial modifier of purpose it is always preceded by to, e.g. And gaf him gold to mayntene his degree (and gave him the gold to maintain his degree).

The perfect form of the infinitive appears in Middle English to express precedence, e.g. Ye sholde han warned me, er I had gone (you should have warned me before I had gone away).

§ 174. In the New English period the infinitive develops the categories of aspect and voice.

Returning, now, to the Accusative with the infinitive construction we must accentuate its ever growing use throughout the Middle English and the New English periods. The growth of this construction is conditioned above all by the increase in the number of verbs that may bring it about.

The participle in Old English and its further development

§ 175. In Old English there are the first participle and the second participle.

The first participle is formed from the present stem of the verb by adding the suffix -ende, e.g. slǣpan (to sleep) – slǣpende (sleeping). So far as the syntactical functions of the first participle are concerned, it was mostly used as an attribute or a predicative e.g. swōpendum windum (to blowing winds); ond ūt wȣs gongende to nēata scipene (and out was going to the cattle-shed).

The second participle of strong verbs ends in -en, e.g. wrītan (to write) – writen (written). The second participle of weak verbs ends in -d (-t), e.g. hȳrian (to hear) – hȳred (heard). The second participle of transitive verbs is passive in meaning.

§ 176. In the Middle English period the Old English suffix of the first participle -ende varies according to dialects. In the Northern dialects it appears as –ande; the Midland dialects retain -ende while the Southern areas have the suffix -inde.

Towards the end of the Middle English period -ing appears in the first participle under the influence of the verbal noun in -ung (-ing). From the

Southern dialects where it comes into use earlier than in other parts of England it spreads to the Midland dialects and becomes a generally accepted form.

§ 177. Semantically the first participle, being intermediate between verbs on the one hand and adjectives and adverbs on the other, acquires more verbal properties: it begins to be modified by an adverb or takes an object. Accordingly it develops the categories of correlation and voice:

having invited
being invited
having been invited.

The suffix -en of the second participle of strong verbs is often neutralized and lost altogether. Consequently in the New English period there are a number of verbs retaining -en in the second participle, e.g. write – written; drive – driven; speak – spoken, etc. as well as those without it, e.g. to drink – drunk; dig – dug; find – found, etc.

The origin of the gerund and its development

§ 178. The appearance of the gerund is a very important innovation in the system of the Middle English verb. The chief source of this new category is the Old English verbal noun in -ing (-ung). After the first participle adopted the form in -ing, borrowed from the verbal noun, the two forms (first participle and verbal noun) became alike. Under the influence of the present participle the verbal noun begins to develop the properties of a verb: it takes a direct object and adverbial modifiers, e.g. Than schal we alle have ynogh to done in lifting up his hevy dronken cors (then all of us shall have enough to do in lifting up his drunken body).

Thus, the verbal noun gets more and more attracted to the system of the verb itself. At first, though, these properties of verbs were combined with characteristics of the noun, e.g. take him the kepying þe coroune of Jerusalem (give him an opportunity of keeping the crown of Jerusalem). But later on the gerund loses the article and getting more and more verbal in character acquires in Early Modern English the categories of aspect and correlation.

THE ADVERB IN OLD ENGLISH AND ITS FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

§ 179. There are two major types of adverbs in Old English distinguished by their origin. One group is made up of primary adverbs such as þā (then), nū (now), oft (often), swā (so), etc. Some of the primary adverbs descend from pronominal roots, e.g. hwǣr? (where?), hēr (here), þǣr (there), etc. The other group, which is undoubtedly much more numerous, consists of adverbs derived from other parts of speech, mostly from nouns and adjectives.

Most derived adverbs represent fossilized case forms of:

1. the noun:

dӕges (by day), nihtes (by night) – the Genitive case;

styccemӕ1um (here and there), hwīlum (sometimes) – the Dative case;

cf. Russian adverbs: сегодня, верхом, летом.

In Modern English adverbs of this kind constitute quite a large group, e.g. always, once, since, sometimes, etc.

2. the adjective. In Old English most of these were derived from the Instrumental case of strong, neuter adjectives whose inflection was given another meaning and turned into a derivational suffix, e.g.

Adj. Nom. case: dēop (deep) Adv: deope (deep)

Instr.: dēope

§ 180. In Old English there was a widespread type of adjectives with the suffix -līc (< noun lic – образ, вид) derived from nouns,

e.g. frēond (friend) – frēondlīc (friendly)

lufu (love) – luflīc (lovely).

Some of them occurred both with the suffix -līc and without it, e.g. dēad (dead) – dēadlīc (deadly). The corresponding adverbs built by means of the suffix -e were: dēade, dēadlīce (deadly). The latter might have been considered as being derived from the adjective dēad with the help of the suffix -lice. Thus the suffix -lice was adopted as an adverbial suffix.

One more and rather important type of adverbs was formed by composition, i.e. by combining two stems, e.g. tō – dӕg (today), georstan – dӕg (yesterday), on – weg (away), etc.

§ 181. Adverbs ending in -e continue to be used throughout the Middle English period, e.g. long (long, adj) – longe (long, adv). Yet, the suffix -ly (< OE līce) is preferred to -e if the form of the adjective and the adverb are identical, e.g. newe (new) – newe (anew).

In Middle English there appeared a tendency to extend the use of the suffix -es, the fossilized inflexion of the Genitive case, by adding it to such adverbs which were not descended from the Genitive case, e.g.

OE: hwanon (whence) – ME: whannes

twīwa (twice) – twīes

siþ – þan (since) – sithens, etc.

§ 182. With the loss of the unaccented -e it becomes often practically impossible to draw a distinction between the adjective and the adverb (e.g. hard, fast, loud) unless the context is taken into account. In a number of cases such grammatical homonyms have survived in Modern English. To avoid ambiguity, however, the more strongly marked suffix -ly is steadily gaining ground and becomes the only productive suffix of the adverb in Modern English. As a matter of fact, -ly may be added to any adjective to form an adverb.

In some cases double forms have been retained each of which has a meaning of its own, e.g. hard – hardly. There are also some adjectives with the suffix -ly that survived in Modern English, e.g. lovely, friendly, only, etc.

Comparison of adverbs

§ 183. Adverbs derived from adjectives can form degrees of comparison. The comparative degree is built by adding the suffix -r and the superlative degree by adding the suffix -st to the form of the positive degree, e.g.

wīde (wide) – wīdor – wīdost.

Some adverbs form their degrees of comparison by means of umlaut, e.g.

feorr (far) – fierr – fierrest

sōfte (softly) – sēft – sēftest.

A few adverbs have suppletive forms of comparison, e.g.

wel (well) – betre – betst

micle (much) – māre – mæst

yfele (badly) – wierse – wierst

lȳtle (little) – læsse – læst

The above-mentioned ways of forming degrees of comparison were retained by the adverb throughout the Middle and up to the New English period. Perhaps the most important novelty that sprang up in the Middle English adverb was the use of more and most to form the comparative and the superlative degrees, e.g. lat us see the whiche of hem han spoken most resonably (let us see which of them have spoken most reasonably) and for to withholden it the more esily in herte (and to retain it more easily in heart).

THE ORIGIN OF THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE

§ 184. The Indefinite article appears from the numeral ān (one) in the Middle English period. In Old English the numeral ān already loses to a certain degree its primary meaning and acquires the connotation ‘a certain’ thus referring a thing to a certain class, e.g. þā lȝg þær ān micel ēa (there lay a big river there).

When used in its primary meaning the Middle English ōn (< OE ān) was always accented, while an, when used in the meaning ‘a certain’, did not bear an accent. (Being unstressed the OE ān did not change into ōn, but was weakened to an).

The unstressed form separated from the numeral and came to be used for the indefinite article. An before a consonant was often reduced to a. That is how the two variants of the indefinite article a and an were formed.

CHAPTER V

THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH SYNTAX

§ 185. From the angle of diachronic approach many problems of English syntax have not been solved yet. They await further careful investigation. Yet, the fundamentals of the phenomenon have been outlined, which makes it possible to comment on such essential aspects of the historical syntax of English as the development of word order in the sentence, the ways of expressing relationships between words, the development of the composite sentence, and some others.

In dealing with the historical development of English syntax we set out from the fact that Old English was largely a synthetic type of language and its syntax was based on inflections. But in the course of time analytical tendencies which most clearly manifested themselves in the Middle English period have actually reshaped the syntactic structure of English both by generating a new scope of syntactic distinctions and of new means of expressing them.

THE WORD ORDER IN OLD ENGLISH DECLARATIVE AND INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES AND ITS FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

§ 186. Old English texts reveal a variety of types of sentences: simple, compound and complex. According to the aims of the communication they may be declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory. In other words, all the basic types of sentences that occur in Modern English have their counterparts in the Old English period. But the syntax of the OE sentence is characterized by a number of peculiarities which distinguish it from the Modern English sentence. We shall selectively comment on these peculiarities.

Old English can build sentences that do not include any formal subject, e.g. mē þūhte (it seemed to me). The subject may also be omitted if the subject of the action can be guessed from the context, e.g. syþþan ǣrest wearþ fēasceaft funden, hē þǣs ā frōfre gebād (after he was found helpless, he always found consolation in this). It is evident from the context of this complex sentence that the subject of the action in the subordinate clause is the person denoted by the subject of the principal clause.

There may be more than one negation referring to one and the same predicate group which is impossible in Modern English, e.g. Ne mētte hē ǣr nān gebūn land (he did not meet any inhabited land before).

§ 187. One of the most important characteristic features of the Old English sentence is that its word order can be relatively free. Since syntactic relationships were fairly well shown by inflections, word order was of less importance for this purpose. It plays a grammatical role only in interrogative sentences in which the subject normally occupies the position after the predicate,

e.g. Hwχt sceal ic singan? (What shall I sing?) or hū mihtest þū hit swā hrχd-lice findan? (how could you find this so soon?).

In declarative sentences the common order of words is: subject – predicate, e.g. Strǽt wχs stānfāh, stīg wīsode gumum χtgχdere (The street was paved with stones of various colours; the path directed the men together) though inversion is frequent in this type of sentence, e.g. Ne seah ic elþēodige þus manige men mōdīglīcran (I did not see so many brave warriors from strange lands).

Inversion is especially frequent if the sentence begins with a secondary part: either with an object or an adverbial modifier. The inverted word-order is used when something new or unexpected is introduced into the narration[1], e.g. Fela spella him sǽdon Beormas (Many stories told him those Beormas). In this sentence the first position is occupied by the direct object. Then follow the indirect object, the predicate and in the final position stands the subject. Similar examples are: Hēr cuōm sē here tō Rǽdingum (Here came that force to Reading); þā ārās hē from þǽm slǽpe (then arose he from that sleep). Such a word-order pattern, however, cannot be considered binding for all sentences of this kind. Sometimes a whole group of adverbial modifiers opens a sentence, nevertheless the subject comes before the predicate, e.g. þǽs IIII niht, Æþerēd cyning ond Ælfrēd his brōþur þǽr micle fierd tō Rēadingum gelǽddon (four nights after King Æthered and his brother Ælfred a big force to Reading brought).

One more word-order pattern is found in subordinate clauses. Here there is a tendency to place the predicate-verb at the end of the clause, e.g. Ōhthere sǽde his hlāforde Ælfrede cyninge, þχt hē ealra Norþmanna norþmest būde (Ohthere told his lord King Ælfred that he north of all Normans (had) lived). In English this pattern has become extinct while in German it has come to be a standard, cf. Ohthere sagte seiners Herrn, dem König Alfred, daß er nördlicher lebe, als alle anderen Skandinavier.

In Old English the attribute normally comes before the noun which it modifies, e.g. in gelimplīce tīde (at a convenient time); hrones bān (whalebone). But some attributes come after the nouns which they modify, for example quantitative ones, e.g. his suna twēgen (his two sons) and those in apposition and in direct address, e.g. Ælfrede cyninge (to king Alfred); Sunu mīn, gang hider and cysse me (My son, come here and kiss me).

§ 188. With the development of analytic tendencies in the language a rather fixed and rigid word-order began to establish itself. This change in the structure of English was largely determined by the gradual disappearance of

[1] Old English word order from the viewpoint of the functional sentence perspective was investigated by J. Firbas. (See J. Firbas, Some Thoughts on the Function of Word-Order in Old English and Modern English. Sborník prací filosofické fakulty Brnenské university, 1959).

case forms. In Old English it was the inflection that showed what part of the sentence the respective word was. In Middle English the syntactical functions of the lost inflections had to be expressed by some other means. Now the position of the word in the sentence came to be the main factor determining its syntactical function, i.e. word-order was becoming grammatical by taking over some of the functions of lost inflections.

For some period in passing from Old English to Middle English the word order remained unfixed even after the loss of inflections and the function of the word in the sentence could be identified only if a more or less broad context was taken into consideration, but in the 14th and 15th centuries the sequense: subject – predicate – object was becoming more and more regular, e.g. The clergy graunted him a dyme (the clergy granted him a dime); He knew the cause of everich maladye (he knew the cause of every malady); And thus they been departed til a-morwe (and thus they parted till morrow).

If, however, the sentence opened with an adverbial modifier, inversion was still very frequent, e.g. wel coude he sitte on hors and faire ryde (well could he sit on horse and ride well).

In the sentence: Ful many a deyntee hors hadde he in stable (very many good horses had he in his stable) the direct object attracts the predicate, and the subject comes after the predicate.

The attribute in Middle English is usually placed before the noun which it modifies. Only some adjectives of French origin follow their head-nouns according to the attribute-noun sequence pattern in the French language, e.g. court martial, knight errant, cousin german, etc.

§ 189. At the beginning of the New English period the word order: subject – predicate – object was firmly established in most declarative sentences, e.g. a light wife doth make a heavy husband (a light-minded wife makes an unhappy husband).

In Modern English this word-order pattern can be deviated from in declarative sentences beginning with the words: there is ..., there came ..., there stood ... and with adverbial modifiers, e.g. On the terrace stood a knot of distinguished visitors (A. Huxley, quoted by B.A. Ilyish[1]).

Other cases of inversion in declarative sentences may be accounted for from the viewpoint of the functional sentence perspective: the predicate is often placed before the subject if some member of the sentence is put in a prominent position so as to be made the rheme of the sentence, e.g.

Only then did he realize the danger.

Away rolled a wheel, and over went the chaise.

[1] B. Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M.-L. 1965, p. 249.

TYPES OF SYNTACTICAL RELATIONS BETWEEN WORDS IN THE OE PHRASE AND THEIR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

§ 190. Old Englitsh has three major types of syntactical bond: coordination, subordination and predication or a predicative bond. Accordingly there exist coordinate phrases, subordinate phrases and predicative phrases[1].

In a coordinate phrase the components are not dependent on one another, e.g. in the sentence: þā Finnas, him þūhte, and þā Beormas sprǣcon nēah ān geþēode (the Finns, he thought, and Beormas spoke nearly the same language) the words 'Finnas' and 'Beormas' are joined in a phrase by means of coordination.

The component members of a predicative phrase predetermine each other, e.g. cwɣþ hē (said he)[2]. The distinctive feature of the predicative bond is that it is capable, so to speak on its own, of producing a sentence.

In a subordinate phrase one word (adjunct) is subordinated to the other (head). The relations between the head and the adjunct fall under two main heads: agreement and government.

§ 191. By agreement we mean such a syntactical relationship in which the inflection of the head is repeated in the latter's adjunct. In Old English agreement in gender, number and case occurs:

1. Between noun (head) and adjective (adjunct), e.g. hīe cōmon mid langum scipum (they arrived in long ships) (Dative case, plural); micle meras fersce (big lakes with fresh water) (Nom. case, plural).

2. Between demonstratives and other attributive pronouns (adjuncts) and noun (head), e.g. hē būde on þǣm lande (he lived on that land) (Dative case, singular, neuter); mīne dagas (my days) (Nom. case, plural); ond ic for-þon of þēossum gebēorscipe ūt ēode (and I therefore from that feast went away) (Dative case, singular, masculine).

It must be noted that the forms of agreement of the adjective are wholly dependent on those of the noun. They exist so far as they are necessary to serve the noun as it were.

§ 192. The components of a phrase are connected by means of government if the adjunct takes a grammatical form required by the head. Government does not imply any coincidence in form of the governing word and its adjunct. As Old English has a rather developed system of inflexions, government is widely used as a means of syntactical bond.

In Old English a verb may govern:

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[1] For the same types of syntactical bond in Modern English, see Л.С. Бархударов. Структура простого предложения современного английского языка. М. 1966, p. 45.

[2] On the problem of whether or not there is agreement of the verb with the noun or pronoun in a predicative phrase, see Б.А. Ильиш. История английского языка. Москва. 1968, p. 155.

1. the Accusative case of the object, expressed by a noun or a pronoun. The latter is then termed ‘direct’, e.g. þā Deniscan þone cyning ofslōgon (the Danes that king killed);

2. the Dative case of the object (indirect object), e.g. Ōhthere sæde his hlāforde (Ohthere told his lord); swā-swā wē forgyfaþ ūrum gyltendum (as we forgive our offenders);

3. the Genitive case of the object (partitive complement), e.g. hē þǣr sceolde bīdan westanwindes (he was obliged to wait for the western wind there).

An adjective may govern the Genitive or the Dative case of the object, e.g. morþres scyldig (guilty of killing); wχs gehwæƿer ōþrum lāƿ (was everyone hateful to the other).

The notion of government also applies to a noun, which may govern the Genitive case of another noun, e.g. hwales bān (whalebone) and to some of the pronouns and numerals, e.g. dāgra gehwilc (each of the days), þāra ān (one of them).

Prepositional government can also be found in Old English, Thus, the preposition tō governs the Dative case, e.g. hē ēode tō his hūse (he went to his house); the preposition ymb governs the Accusative case, e.g. hū giorne hīe wǣron ... ymb liornunga (how zealous they were ... concerning learning). In the sentence: þā ārās hē from þǣm slǣpe (then arose he from that sleep) the preposition ‘from’ goes with the Dative case of the noun slǣp.

The above examples are sufficient for us to come to the conclusion that prepositions play rather an important role in indicating syntactical relations in Old English.

§ 193. There are two other ways of expressing syntactical relations between the components of a phrase in Old English: adjoinment and enclosure (or closing-in).

Adjoinment implies such subordination of the adjunct to its head which is achieved by their position and their meanings, but not by agreement or government or by any other special forms. The most typical example of adjoinment in Old English is the relation between an adverb and a verb, e.g. Ælfric munuc grēt Æƿelwχrd ealdorman ēadmōdlīce (monk Ælfric greets alderman Æhelward humbly). The adverb ‘ēadmodlīce’ is subordinated to the verb grētan.

In the phrase hām ēode (went home) the word ‘hām’ is adjoined to the verb gān.

Enclosure as a means of expressing syntactical relations is of minor importance in Old English. By enclosure we understand the putting of a component of a phrase between two constituent elements of another component. In Old English an attribute may be put between a preposition or an article (a weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun) and the noun to which the article refers or which is governed by the preposition, e.g. lēt him ealne weg þχt wēste

land on þȳt stēor-bord (/he/ left all way that desolate land to the right); on fēowum stōwum (in a few places).

§ 194. The gradual weakening and the eventual loss of many of the inflexional elements and on the whole the great changes that took place in the morphological system of the language during the Middle English period brought about modification in the means of expressing syntactical relations.

Agreement is reduced to a small number of cases. An adjective or a pronoun is no longer able to agree with its head in gender and case. Occasionally agreement in number between a noun and an adjective or a pronoun is found in Middle English texts, e.g. in alle the gramere scoles of England (in all the grammar schools of England); hise parisshens (his parishioners); fresshe floures (fresh flowers). Agreement in number is also retained between the demonstrative pronoun and the noun.

Government is retained in Middle English in so far as case inflections are preserved. A verb may govern the Objective case of a pronoun or the Common case of a noun, e.g. some gentlymen which late blamed me (some gentlemen who blamed me not long ago); slee my felawe in the same wyse (/I/ shall kill my fellow in the same manner). A noun may govern the Genitive case of another noun, e.g. in his hertes botme (in the bottom of his heart).

Adjoinment gains ground in the Middle English period since not only are adverbs subordinated to verbs by means of it, but also some adjectives and pronouns, used as attributes, are merely adjoined to their heads, e.g. she understode him wel (she understood him well); his schoures sote (its sweet showers); hir fingres (her fingers).

The role of enclosure also increases. It becomes more and more important in the identification of the attributive function of the word which happens to be enclosed between an article or a preposition and the head word.

§ 195. In the New English period, with the ultimate decay of the adjective declension, agreement was totally lost except between the demonstrative pronoun and the noun, e.g. this book – these books which agree in number. Government, too, decreased greatly. It applies only to the Objective case of personal pronouns, i.e. to the forms: me, him, her, us, them which are required by a verb or a preposition, and to the form whom (relative or interrogative). The latter, however, is very often replaced in Modern English by the Nominative case who, e.g. Who did you see? in which case the concept of government can hardly be applied. Adjoinment, unlike government or agreement, is on the increase in the New English period. As no agreement is possible between the adjective and the noun, adjoinment becomes the only means of syntactical bond between them. Thus, the domain of adjoinment includes syntactical relations between an attribute and its head and also between an adverbial modifier and its head word whether it is an adverb, an adjective or a verb.

Enclosure becomes as significant in Modern English as adjoinment. Not only adjectives and nouns, but also other classes of words and even entire

phrases can be found enclosed between a preposition or an article and the noun to which they refer, e.g the then government; He went on in a more-matter-of-fact tone.

FUNCTIONS OF THE OLD ENGLISH CASES AND THEIR FURTHER DEVELOPMENT

§ 196. The Nominative case in Old English has the function of either a subject or a predicative, e.g. strǽt wχs stānfah (the street was paved with stones of various colours); wē synt Higelāces bēodgenēatas (we are Higelac's table-companions).

The Genitive case expresses above all the relation of possession, e.g. þǽs cyninges brōþor (that king's brother); þǽs gārsecges earm (arm of that ocean). It can also be used in a partitive meaning, e.g. micel dǽl þāra burgwara (the greater part of those inhabitants). In the above-given examples the Genitive case is used in the function of an attribute. The noun in the Genitive case may be an object or an adverbial modifier, e.g. morÞres scyldig (guilty of killing); hē þǽr bād westanwindes (he awaited there the western wind); gif þēof brece mannes hūs nihtes (if a thief breaks in a man's house at night).

The Dative case is used in the function of an indirect object or an adverbial modifier, e.g. Ōhthere sǽde his hlāforde, Ælfrede cyninge (Ohthere told his lord King Alfred); on þǽm ōþrum þrīm dagum (in the course of those other three days).

The main function of the Accusative case is to express a direct object, e.g. guman ūt scufon weras on wilsīÞ wudu bundenne (the men pushed out the heroes for a desired journey the bound ship); on lχnd stigon (alight on land).

Duration can be expressed by the Accusative case of such words which by their lexical meaning imply a period of time, e.g. lēt him ealne way þǽt wēste land (left him all the way that desolate land).

§ 197. The crucial changes in the morphology of the noun that took place during the Middle English period reduced the four-case system of the noun declension to a two case system. The Common case began to incorporate the functions of the Old English Nominative, Dative and Accusative cases. As to the Genitive case the sphere of its functioning is growing narrower due to the fact that some of its functions were taken over by the of-phrase. With reference to the pronoun (personal, demonstrative) we now have to discriminate also two cases: the Nominative case and the Objective case.

A noun in the Common case or a pronoun in the Nominative case continues to be employed as a subject or predicative, e.g. This olde man ful mekely hem grette (This old man greeted him most meekly); thou art a worthy knight (you are a worthy knight); For this is he that cam un to thy gate (for this is he that came to thy gate). The Common case of the noun is also used in the functions of direct or indirect objects which in Old English were expressed by

the Accusative and the Dative case respectively, e.g. See ye that ook? (do you see that oak?); And ther fore every man this tale I telle (and therefore I tell this story to every man. In case both direct and indirect objects occur in one and the same sentence the latter is placed between the direct object and the predicate, e.g. If I be daungerous, God yeve me sorwe! (If I be dangerous, God give me sorrow!).

The indirect object is often expressed by a noun in the Common case in conjunction with the preposition tō, e.g. to loud and Inglis man i spell (I am telling /it/ to /an/ uneducated and English man). The preposition 'tō' is normally used when the indirect object follows the direct object, e.g. that no man telle his conceil to his wyf (that no man tell his intentions to his wife).

Inherited from the OE Accusative case is an adverbial function of the noun in the Common case, e.g. that slepen al the night with open ye (that sleep all the night with /an/ eye open); and hoom wente every man the righte way (and every man went home the right way); and also with a preposition: that no drope ne fille upon hire brest (that no drop fell on her breast).

The Genitive case in Middle English becomes restricted in the main to possessive functions, thus developing gradually into what is traditionally called the Possessive case, e.g. Myn hertes lady (the lady of my heart); that they been enemys of Cristes croys (that they are enemies of Christ's cross); Goth now your wey (go now your way) this is the lordes will (such is God's will); from every shires ende (from the end of every shire).

Some of the functions of the Genitive case in Middle English, however, began to be expressed by the of-phrase. The of-phrase came to be used to express the relations of:

1. possessivity, e.g. at requeste of Saturne (by Saturn's request); the droghte of Marche (the drought of March);

2. genitivus partitivus, e.g. oon of the gretest men (one of the greatest men);

3. genitivus quantitatis, e.g. a thousand pound of wight (a thousand pound of weight).

§ 198. The above-listed functions of the noun in the Common case and the pronoun in the Nominative case have been retained in Modern English. As to the Objective case of the pronoun, there is a strong tendency to employ it as a predicative after a link verb, e.g. It is me. The Nominative case 'who', on the contrary , is very often found in the function of an object, e.g. Who did you see? Who did you call on?

If we recognize the existence of the possessive case in Modern English (which is open to debate), we shall have to state that the chief meaning of this case remains to be that of possessivity. Some other meanings of the –'s correspond to what is termed in inflected languages as 'subjective Genitive', 'objective Genitive'. The –'s may have also a qualitative meaning in Modern English[1].

[1] On this problem, see B.A. Ilyish. The Structure of Modern English. M.-L., 1965, p. 44 ff.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPOSITE SENTENCE

§ 199. It is common knowledge that historically subordination (hypotaxis) as a kind of syntactical bond between clauses appears later than coordination and on the basis of coordination. For the Old English period it is not always easy to draw the line between the two phenomena. We often run into difficulties as we try to find out whether the clauses of a composite sentence are joined together by means of coordination or subordination. If we take, for instance, such a composite sentence as: Ic wāt Ꝺæt þū eart wlitig (I know that you are wonderful) and try to identify the function of the word Ꝺæt, we at once face an alternative. It may be part of the first clause, in which case it will be a demonstrative pronoun and the composite sentence will be a compound one. Or the word Ꝺæt may be a conjunction introducing a subordinate object clause. Then the composite sentence will be a complex one.

Nevertheless already in Old English there exists a rather distinct system of both compound and complex sentences which do yield to classification and description.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE

§ 200. The clauses of a compound sentence in Old English are linked together by means of coordinative conjunctions the most frequent of which are: and , ac (but), oþþe (or), e.g. þā hēt sē cyning hīe sīttan, and hīe swā dȳdon (then the king invited them to sit down, and they did so); Hē sæde þēah þȸt þȸt land sīe swīþe lang norþ þonon; ac hit is eal weste (he said though that that land was supposedly very far north of that place, but it is all desolate); Hē sæde þȸt hē ȸt sumum cirre wolde fandian hū longe þȸt land norþryhte læge oþþe hwȸꝺer ænig mon benorꝺan þæm wēstenne būde (he said that once he wanted to find out how far north that land was and whether any man lived north of that desolate land).

It is necessary to remark that the structure of the composite sentence on the whole is often dependent on the requirements of style. Thus, in the Old English compound sentence frequent repetition of the connective and is characteristic of the narrative style of chronicles, e.g. Ond þæs ofer Ēastron gefōr Æþerēd cyning; ond hē rīcsode fīf gēar; ond his līc līþ ȸt Winburnan (and after that Easter died King Æthered, and he ruled five years and his body lies in Winburn).

The constituent clauses of a compound sentence can be joined together without any special connectives such as conjunctions or conjunctive words, e.g. Fyrst forꝺ gewāt: flota wȸs on ȳꝺum, bāt under beorge (Time passed on, /the/ ship was on /the/ waves, /the/ boat under the hill). The relation between the clauses here are expressed above all by intonation and by the lexical meaning of the words they consist of.

§ 201. In subsequent periods of the history of English with the appearance of new conjunctions and the use of the old ones for expressing new relations between clauses it became possible to specify these relations and to clarify the sentence structure.

The coordinative conjunctions: and, not only ... but, neither ... nor, or, either ... or, otherwise, else, but, yet, still, for, therefore, etc. are employed in present-day English to express copulative, adversative, disjunctive, resultative and other types of relations between the clauses of the compound sentence.

On the other hand the lexical meaning of the words contained in the clauses are believed to be an important factor in expressing semantic relations between the clauses.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE

§ 202. There were different types of complex sentences in Old English. Subordinative conjunctions were of major importance in making possible a variety of syntactical relations between the principal and the subordinate clauses. As an additional means signalizing interdependence of the clauses there should be mentioned the use of the subjunctive mood in indirect discourse for forming different types of subordinate object clauses and also in causal, resultative, conditional and some other clauses.

The subordinate subject clause is introduced in the main by the conjunctions Ðæt, gif, hwɣþer, e.g. Ðā wɣs ɣfter monegum dagum, þɣt þe cyning cōm tō þām ēalonde (it was after many days, that the king came to that island).

The subordinate object clause is found in Old English texts most often. It usually depends upon the words: secgan (to say); cweÐan (to speak); þyncan (to think); witan (to know); etc.

Subordinate object clauses are introduced by the conjunctions: Ðæt, gif, hwɣþer and the conjunctive pronouns and adverbs: hwā, hwɣt, hwilc, hū, hwær, hwider, e.g. Hē cwɣÐ þɣt hē būde on þæm lande norþweardum wiþ þā Westsæ (He said that he lived on that land north of the Atlantic Ocean); hē nāt hwɣþer hē wyrþe is (he does not know whether he is worthy); Ic wāt nū hwɣt þū woldest (I know now what you wanted).

Subordinate attributive clauses are introduced in Old English by the relative particle þe; by a combination of ‘þe’ with a demonstrative pronoun sē þē, þɣt þe, sēo þe; and by the demonstrative pronoun sē.

Attributive clauses introduced by the particle þe are mostly of a limiting character, e.g. forgif mē Ðām men þe mīn mōd mē tō spenÐ (give me to the man to whom I am drawn by my heart).

Here is an example of a descriptive attributive clause: Swā swā sēo bōc secgÐ sē is āwriten be his līfe (so says that book which is written about his life).

Among subordinate adverbial clauses those of time, place, cause, result, purpose, condition, concession are most common in Old English.

§203. The Old English complex sentence reveals traits which attest to a lack of accuracy in the means of subordination. Correlation above all must be mentioned as a transitional construction from parataxis to hypotaxis. It is a widespread phenomenon in complex sentences with subordinate adverbial and object clauses. In adverbial clauses of time, for one, the subordinate conjunctions þā, þonne, hwanne, siþþan, etc. often correlate with the adverbs þā or þonne in the main clause, e.g. þā hē þā hꝡfde þā wīsan onfongne, þā ēode hē hām to his hūse (when he got those directions (then) he went to his house).

The conjunction Þꝡt and other connectives introducing subordinate object clauses may be correlated with the demonstrative pronoun Þꝡt or the pronoun hit functioning as objects in the main clause, e.g. Ne wiÞcweÞe ic þām nānwīht Þꝡt þū swā dō (I am not at all against that that you should do so). This anticipation of the dependent clause by a demonstrative signalising the function of the clause was evidently wanted to clarify the syntactic relations between the clauses.

Some other traces of earlier parataxis are evident from frequent cases of shifting from indirect to direct discourse within the framework of one complex sentence, e.g. And cwædon þꝡt māre witega on ūs ārās (and said that a great prophet arose among us) and from the pleonastic use of pronouns, e.g. Alle þā þe here synnen forlēton and beted hē hēlde here synwunda (all those who their sins abandoned, he healed their sin wounds).

§ 204. Asyndetic subordination is not frequent in Old English. Such composite sentences as: and mid heora cyningum, Rꝡdgota and Eallerica wæron hatne, Romane byrig ābrǣcon and eal Italia (and with their kings Radgot and Eallaric by name /they/ plundered the city of Romans and all Italy); wiste ūre sē heofonlīca Fꝡder his þā lēofan bearn on myclum ymbhygdum wæron ꝡfter him (our Heavenly Father got to know /that/ his beloved offsprings were anxious about him) obviously have to be looked upon as remnants of an epoch when hypotactic relations were expressed by a mere juxtaposition of clauses, since connectives as formal means of subordination had not yet evolved.

Thus, Old English asyndetic subordination should be treated side by side with such phenomena (described above) as correlation, pleonastic use of pronouns, shifting from direct to indirect discourse, etc. which testify, as it were, to immaturity of formal expression in the sphere of subordination.

§ 205. Although the Middle English complex sentence preferred many features inherited from Old English which illustrated incomplete subordination, it had at the same time acquired new properties attesting to the gradual elaboration of subordinate clauses. The development of hypotaxis was largely predetermined by the emergence of the national language in general and the rise of a written controlling pattern of usage, in particular.

Correlation in Middle English still occurs on a large scale though in comparison with the Old English period it is undoubtedly diminishing. Its

nature, too, very often appears to be different from what it used to be. Now the correlated elements in the main and the subordinate clauses often do not coincide in form, e.g. Auh forgif hit me nu, þet ich hit habbe itold þe (forgive me /it/ that I have told you about it); þurrh whott magg icc nu witenn þiss þatt it me mughe wurrþenn (how may I now know /this/ that it may happen to me); or: as an ook cometh of a litel spyr, go through this lettre, which that she him sente encresen gan desyr (as an oak comes of a little sprout, so due to the letter which she had sent him increased desire).

It is perhaps correct to presume that this type of correlation is a step made towards its total abandonment as a means reinforcing the subordinative conjunction. In Modern English correlation would appear redundant at all except for its stylistic value, e.g. ... he wondered more and more whether she could see his eagerness to get back to that which she had brought him away from. Here emphasis is achieved by putting the correlative that in the main clause.

The system of connectives in Middle English and later on underwent a number of changes too. Some of the Old English conjunctions had fallen into disuse, e.g. oþ þā (до того как), mid þām (с тем чтобы). Others continued to be used in their former meanings. Certain connectives became specialized as indicators of new relationships from the viewpoint of their Old Engliah functioning. Thus, for example, the OE temporal conjunction sith (с тех пор как) began to express causal relationships as well. And, finally, a large number of new connectives came into being, e.g. save, except, in case, because, till, before, etc.

The appearance of relative pronouns derived from the interrogatives hwō, what, whōs, whōm (14th century) and the differentiation of that, who and which in their functions by the 18th century made it possible to indicate various kinds of structural and semantic relationships in the complex sentence with subordinate attributive clauses.

The long periodic statements with many subordinate clauses which were typical of the Middle English and Early New English complex sentence gradually give way to what can be termed conventional English sentence structure. The means of expressing subordination are growing more and more stabilized. In certain types of subordinate clauses, first of all in object clauses and in adverbial clauses of purpose, the tense form becomes conditioned by the tense form of the predicate verb in the main clause. This phenomenon, termed ‘sequence of tenses’, is commonly considered now one of the means of expressing subordination.

The Old English conjunctive mood forms used as a means of subordination in some varieties of complex sentences, e.g. Hē sǣde þēah þχt þχt land sīe swīþe lang norþ þonan (He said though that that land supposedly was very far north of that place) are already going out of use in Middle English. The conjunctive is retained, though, in conditional clauses due to the specific semantic relations existing between the subordinate and the main clauses in this type of complex sentence.

CHAPTER VI

SOURCES OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY

§ 206. It is common knowledge that the vocabulary of any living language is highly responsive to changes which are taking place in the life of the language community. Socio-economic, political and cultural developments call forth new notions which have to be named. Thus, new words constantly come into being to denote these new notions. But some notions are no longer needed by the language community and words denoting them become obsolete, they drop out of the vocabulary. It often happens, however, that actual things and notions continue to exist but they undergo various changes which entail respective changes in the meanings of words denoting them. This type of causes which bring about changes in the vocabulary of a language are commonly referred to as extra-linguistic.

On the other hand, both quantitative and semantic changes may take place due to purely linguistic causes[1].

A word may drop out of the vocabulary because a new name appeared for the notion that remains unchanged, e.g. the Md. E. word ‘before’ took the place of the word ‘ere’. The verb ‘to starve’ gradually changed its meaning in connection with ellipsis. In Old English ‘steorfan’ meant ‘to die’. As this verb usually occurred in the phrase ‘starve of hunger’ it began to be used in a specialized meaning ‘to die of hunger’[2].

It should be underlined that though a certain number of obsolete words drop out of the vocabulary, a much greater number of new words come into being. Thus, the vocabulary of any living language appears to be on the constant increase which can never be stopped.

ETYMOLOGICAL STRUCTURE OF THE OLD ENGLISH WORD-STOCK

§ 207. The Old English vocabulary is estimated to comprise about 30-40 thousand words. From the point of view of etymology it consists of two main elements: native words and borrowed words[3].

The native element is composed of three major groups of words:

1. Words of the Indo-European stock, i.e. those which have cognates in different Indo-European languages, e.g.

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[1] For more details, see I. Arnold, The English Word. Moscow, 1966, p. 288 ff. and P.S. Ginsburg, S.S. Khidekel, G. Knyazeva, A.A. Sankin, A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1966, p. 41 ff.

[2] The illustration is borrowed from: A Course in Modern English Lexicology by P.S. Ginsburg and others, p. 43.

[3] The New Oxford Dictionary contains over 400 thousand words.

sunu (Germ. Sohn; Mod. E. son; Russ. сын)
niht (Lat. nox; Germ. Nacht; Russ. ночь)
etan (Lat. edere; Germ. essen; Russ. есть)
neowe (Lat. novus; Greek neos, Russ. новый)
twā (Lat. duo; Greek dyo, Russ. два).

2. Words of the Common Germanic stock, i.e. words having cognates in other Germanic languages, but none in the rest of the Indo-European family. Examples are:

land (land) (Germ. Land; Sw. land; Goth. land)
hūs (house) (Germ. Haus; Sw. hus; Dan. hus)
hēafod (head) (Germ. Haupt; Sw. huvud; Goth. haubiþ)
eald (old) (Germ. alt; Dutch oud; Goth. alþeis)
hīeran (to hear) (Germ. hören; Sw. höra; Goth. hausjan)
drincan (to drink) (Germ. trinken; Sw. dricka; Goth. drincan)

3. Words of the Old English word-stock, i.e. words found in no other Germanic language, except Old English, e.g. hlāford (lord), freca (hero), clipian (call).

Borrowed words in Old English are very few in number and their role in the Old English vocabulary is considered to be insignificant.

MAIN SOURCES OF REPLENISHING THE OLD ENGLISH VOCABULARY

§ 208. The Old English vocabulary was enlarged as a result of A. word-formation, i.e. the process of making new words from the material available in the language; B. borrowing from other languages.

Word formation

§ 209. Among the morphological, syntactic and semantic types of word-formation existing in Old English the morphological type appears to be the most productive. For this reason our treatment of word formation will be centered on the morphological type.

Within this type distinction is further made between affixation and word-composition or compounding.

Affixation

§ 210. The principal way of making new words in word-derivation in Old English is affixation, i.e. the formation of new words by adding derivational affixes (prefixes and suffixes) to stems.

We shall begin our review of the Old English derivational morphemes with suffixes, the classification of which is based on the part of speech formed.

1. Noun-forming suffixes:

the suffixes -ere (for masculine gender) and -estre (for feminine gender) were added to noun or verbal stems to form nouns denoting the agent of an action or occupation, e.g. fiscere (fisherman) (from fisc (fish)); wrītere (writer) (from wrītan (to write)); webbestre (weaver) (from wefan (to weave);

the suffix -ing was used in forming nouns denoting origin or appertenance, e.g. cyning (king) (from cyn / n / (kin); ɣþeling (a nobleman). The extended form of -ing is the suffix -ling which was attached to noun, adjective and verbal stems to make nouns with diminutive meaning having a connonation of endearment or contempt, e.g. dēorling (darling) (from dēor (dear)); hȳrling (hireling) (from hȳrian (hire);

the suffix -þu (<*iþu) in combination with the mutation of the root vowel (cf. p. 64) was used to form abstract nouns of the feminine gender, e.g. lengþu (length) (from lång long)); strengþu (strength) (from strång (strong);

the suffix -scipe was used to make abstract nouns denoting state, e.g. frēondscipe (friendship) (from frēond (friend)); gebēorscipe (festivity) (from bēor (beer)). -scipe originates from the noun scipe (form, state);

the suffixes -ing and -ung were affixed to verbal stems to build nouns of feminine gender denoting action, state, result or product, e.g. leornung (learning) (from leornian (to learn)); offrung (offering) (from offrian (to offer)); hātung (hatred) (from hātian (to hate);

the suffix -nis, -nes was used to build abstract nouns from adjectives denoting quality, e.g. gōdnis (goodness) (from gōd (good)); swētness (sweetness) (from swēte (sweet)).

The Old English nouns: dōm (doom, judgement, decision); rǣden (agreement, advice, reason); hād (rank, state, manner); lāc (gift) gradually lost their quality of being independent words and turned into derivational morphemes forming abstract nouns, e.g. wīsdōm (wisdom) (from wīs (wise)); cildhād (childhood) (from cild (child)); trēowrǣden (truth) (from trēow (true)); rēoflāc (robbery) (from rēafian (to rob)). Originally the nouns cildhād, wīsdōm were compound words.

2. Adjective-forming suffixes:

the suffix -en in conjunction with the mutation of the root-vowel forms adjectives denoting matter, e.g. gylden (golden) (from gold (gold)); fliexen (flaxen) (from fleax (flax);

the suffix -ful(l) (from the adjective full (full)) forms qualitative adjectives from noun-stems, e.g. carfull (careful) (from care (care)); mōdful (courageous) (from mōd (courage);

the suffix -ig was most productive in OE. It was combined with noun and adjective stems to coin new adjectives, e.g. mihtig (mighty) (from miht (might)); hālig (holy) (from hāl (whole)); īsig (icy) (from īs (ice);

the suffix -līc (from the noun līc (body)) was used to build qualitative adjectives from noun and adjective stems, e.g. dēadlīc (deadly) (from dēad (dead)); wundorlīc (wonderful) (from wundor (wonder);

the suffix -lēas (from the adjective lēas (less)) was added to noun-stems to form adjectives with the meaning ‘without’, ‘not having’, e.g. fēohlēas (without property) (from fēoh (property)); slǣplēas (sleepless) (from slǣp (sleep);

the suffix -isc in conjunction with the mutation of the root-vowel formed relative adjectives, e.g. Englisc (English) (from Engle (Angles)); cildisc (childish) (from cild (child)).

3. Verb-forming suffixes:

-sian, e.g. bletsian (bless) (originally: consecrate the altar with the blood of the sacrified) (from blōd (blood);

-lǣcan, e.g. nēalǣcan (to near) (from neah (near);

-ettan, e.g. sporettan (to spur) (from spora (spur)).

4. Numeral-forming suffixes:

-tiene -the suffix of cardinal numerals from 13 to 19, e.g. fēowertīene (fourteen) (from fēower (four)); nigontīene (nineteen) (from nigon (nine);

-tig – the suffix of cardinal numerals from 20 on, e.g. þrītig (thirty) (from þrīe (three)); siextig, sixtig (sixty) (from siex, six (six);

-(teo) þa – the suffix of ordinal numerals, e.g. eahtoþa (eighth) (from eahta (eight)); nigontēoþa (nineteenth) (from nigon (nine);

Among Old English prefixes the most productive are:

mis- meaning bad, ‘badly, wrongly, e.g. misdōn (misdo) (from dōn (do)); mislīcian (dislike) (from līcian (to like)); misdǣd (misdeed) (from dǣd (deed);

un- having a negative meaning, e.g. unfriᵹ (enmity) (from friᵹ (peace)); undǣd (misdeed) (from dǣd (deed);

for- expressing the idea of destruction or loss, e.g. fordōn (to destroy) (from dōn (to do)); forfaran (to block the way) (from faran (to go);

ge- meaning ‘together with’ or conveying the idea of an action being complete, e.g. gefylc (a detachment of warriors) (from folc (people); gewrītan (to have written) (from wrītan (to write);

to- expressing the idea of destruction e.g. tōbrecan (to break down) (from brecan (to break)).

Word-composition (compouding)

§ 211. Word-composition, i.e. the formation of new words by the joining together of at least two stems, was one of the productive ways of replenishing the Old English vocabulary.

The compounds listed below are arranged according to the part of speech they belong to:

1. a) compound nouns built after the formula: noun stem + noun stem, e.g. goldsmiþ (goldsmith) < gold (gold) + smiþ (smith); hwɣlhunta (whaler) < hwɣl (whale) + hunta (hunter); gūᵹ-searu (armour)< gūᵹ (battle) + searu (armour, device).

b) compound nouns built after the formula: adjective stem + noun stem, e.g. hāligdɣg (holiday) < hālig (holy) + dɣg (day); cwic-seolfor (quicksilver) < cwic (quick) + seolfor (silver).

c) compound nouns built after the formula: noun stem + present participle stem, e.g. sǣ-līÞend (seaman) < sǣ (sea) + līÞend (travelling).

2. a) compound adjectives built after the formula: noun stem + adjective stem, e.g. wīn-sǣd (drunk)< win (wine) + sǣd (be satiated); stān-fāh (paved with stones of various colours) < stān (stone) + fāh (coloured).

b) compound adjectives built after the formula: adjective stem + adjective stem, e.g. wīd-cūÞ (wide-known) < wīd (wide) + cūÞ (known).

c) compound adjectives built after the fomula: adjective stem + noun stem, e.g. glɣd-mōd (in a merry mood) < glɣd (glad, bright, merry) + mōd (mood).

3. compound adverbs built after the formula: noun stem + noun stem, e.g. stycce-mǣlum (here and there) < stycce (piece) + mǣl (one).

§ 212. Some Old English compounds originate from free phrases. The compound wītenagemōt (state council), for example, goes back to a word group consisting of the noun witena (the Genitive case plural from wīta (wise)) and the noun gemōt (council) (the literal meaning of the word is ‘council of the wise’).

In the course of time semantic and structural changes in compounds of this kind may grow so great that it is only by etymological analysis that the initial components of a compound can be identified. For instance, the word ‘daisy’ goes back to the Old English compound dɣges-ēage (day’s eye) originating from a free phrase: dɣges – the Genitive case singular of the noun dɣg + the noun ēage.

Old English borrowings

§ 213. During the early years of its history the English language came in contact with the languages of the Celts and with Latin. As a result the English vocabulary was added to by Celtic and Latin elements.

§ 214. The Celtic element. After the occupation of Britain by the Angles, Saxons and Jutes in the 5th century A.D. the Celts, the native population of the British Isles, were dispossessed of their lands and turned into serfs. Their languages, too, were reduced to minor tongues spoken in the western extremities of the British Island – Cornwall and Wales. Nevertheless a number of Celtic words found their way into English, e.g. the nouns: dūn (dune); binn (bin); cradle (cradle); bannock (bannock); the adjective: dun (dun) and some others.

Some of the Celtic borrowings have survived in place-names: Celtic avon (river) in Avon (Stratford on the Avon – Shakespeare’s birthplace); Celtic aber (mouth of the river) in Aberdeen; Celtic uisge (water) in Exe, Esk, Usk, Ux (also in the word whiskey); Celtic dūn (dune) in Dundee, Dunstable, Dunedin, Llyn-

dūn (afterwards Londinium > London); Celtic loch (loch, lake) in Loch Lomond, Loch Katrine; Celtic kil (church) in Kilbride, Kilmacolm; Celtic weald (wood) in Cetswold; Celtic inbher (hill) in Inverness, etc.

§ 215. The Latin element. Unlike Celtic borrowings the Latin element in Old English was much more numerous since it was a result of the commercial, military and religious contact of Anglo-Saxons with a people of a higher civilization.

Latin borrowings in Old English are customarily divided into two groups:

A. the continental borrowings, i.e. those words which were borrowed by the Anglo-Saxons through their contact with the Romans on the continent. Hereto also belong a comparatively small number of Latin words adopted from the celtic population of Britain after the end of the Roman rule[1].

B. the borrowings conditioned by the christianization of Britain, the beginning of which refers to the 6th century (597 A.D.).

Among continental borrowings the most common are words connected with various fields of Roman culture and ways of living. A large group of these are names of trade articles. Here are a few examples of continental borrowings:

cēap (bargain)< Lat. caupō (winedealer)
wīn (wine) < Lat. vīnum
mynet (coin) < Lat. monēta
ynce (ounce) < Lat. uncia
cealc (chalk) < Lat. calx
copor (copper)< Lat. cuprum
pund (pound) < Lat. pondō
mīl (mile) < Lat. millia passum
pipor (pepper) < Lat. piper
cycene (kitchen) < Lat. coquina
mylen (mill) < Lat. molina.

During the Roman conquest of Britain the conquerors built paved roads hitherto unknown to the Celts. The Latin strāta (via) (paved road) was adopted by the Celts and from them by Anglo-Saxons. Hence in Old English: strǣt.

The Latin word vallum (вал, укрепление) was the name of a kind of military fortification erected by Romans. In Old English it came through Celtic transmission: OE: weall > Mod. E. wall.

The stem of the Latin word castra (camp) has been preserved in the names of some English towns, formerly military fortifications, e.g. Chester, Manchester, Winchester, etc.

The stem of the Latin word vīcus (settlement) has been preserved in the Md. E. words Greenwich, Woolwich, Norwich, etc.

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[1] Latin words borrowed by Anglo-Saxons from the Celtic population of Britain are sometimes treated as a single group. See, for example, Ю.П. Костюченко, История английской мови. «Радянска школа», 1953, p. 136.

In the 7th century a group of Roman missionaries sent by Pope Gregory I arrived in England with a view to converting Anglo-Saxons to Christianity. Now Latin reappeared on British soil as the language of learning and religion. The introduction of Christianity meant an influx of new notions associated with the new religion and words denoting them.

It should be noted that some of the Latin borrowings of this period had at one time come into Latin from Greek, e.g.

abbad (abbot)	<	Lat. abbas	<	Gr. abbā
biscop (bishop)	<	Lat. episcopus	<	Gr. episcopos
munuc (monk)	<	Lat. monachus	<	Gr. monachos
pāpa (pope)	<	Lat. papa	<	Gr. pap(p)as
cleric (clerk)	<	Lat. clericus	<	Gr. klērikos
magister (master)	<	Lat. magister		
apostol (apostle)	<	Lat. apostolus	<	Gr. apostolos
mχsse (mass)	<	Lat. missa		
dēofol (devil)	<	Lat. diabolus	<	Gr. diabolos
prēost (priest)	<	Lat. presbyter	<	
mynster (monastery)	<	Lat. monasterium	<	Gr. monasterion
nunne (nun)	<	Lat. nonna		
scrīfan (shrive)	<	Lat. scrībere, etc.		

Some of the stems in the above words were combined with noun suffixes of Germanic origin to form new nouns, e.g. prēosthād, biscophād, biscoprīce, biscepung. Such hybrid words suggest that the borrowings are assimilated sufficiently enough to conform with the morphological structure of a given language.

Old English also adopted some loan-translations formed from Latin words by way of literal translation, e.g. gōdspell (Gospel, literally: good spell); hundred-man (centurion, literally: a commander of 100 men).

On the whole foreign borrowings constitute a very small portion of the Old English vocabulary. The latter was enlarged far more by new words coined from the material already available in the language.

THE REPLENISHMENT OF THE VOCABULARY IN THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 216. The enlargement of the English vocabulary in the Middle English period caused by both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors was a result of affixation, word-composition, conversion and borrowing from abroad. The latter source of replenishing the Middle English vocabulary was connected mainly with the Scandinavian and Norman conquests of England.

Affixation

§ 217. The Old English system of affixation underwent some changes in the Middle English period. Some of the Old English prefixes and suffixes remained productive throughout the Middle English period. Some were gradually falling into disuse. Besides, a number of derivational affixes entered the English language alongside with words borrowed from French. Some of these affixes began to be used in building new words, not only from French, but also from English roots.

Among the Old English suffixes which preserved their ability to coin new words in the Middle English period it is necessary to mention:

1. the noun-forming suffixes:

-er (< OE -ere) e.g. in the nouns: leader, worker;

-ing (< OE -ing, -ung) e.g. in the nouns: hunting, fighting, bigynyng (beginning);

-th (< OE -þu) e.g. in the nouns: treuthe (truth), wealth;

-ship (< OE -scipe) e.g. in the nouns: felawschip (fellowship), governership;

-ness, e.g. in the nouns: siknesse (sickness), dronkenesse (drunkenness), humbleness;

-hood (< OE -hād) e.g. in the nouns: wyfhode (wifehood), manhod (manhood), brotherhod (brotherhood);

-dom (< OE -dōm) e.g. in the noun: martirdom (martyrdom).

Less productive were the suffixes:

-red (< OE rǣden);

-ster (< OE -estre); -lock (< OE -lāc).

2. the adjective-forming suffixes:

-y (< OE -ig) e.g. in the adjectives: hearty, asshy (ashy), cowardye (cowardly);

-ly (< OE -lic) e.g. in the adjectives: manly, poorly;

-ish (< OE -isc) e.g. in the adjectives: heavenish (heavenly), bluish (in the latter example -ish limits the quality denoted by the adjective blue);

-less (< OE -leas) e.g. in the adjectives: gilteleas (guiltless), resteleas (restless), fearless;

-ful (< OE -full) e.g. in the adjectives: dredful (dreadful), doubtful, blisful (blissful);

-some (< OE -sum) e.g. in the adjectives: gladsom (gladsome), tiresome.

3. the adverb-forming suffix -ly (< OE -lice), e.g. in the adjectives thriftily, proudly.

4. the verb-forming suffix -en, e.g. in the verbs happen, blacken, engendren (engender).

Along with suffixation prefixation played an important part in replenishing the Middle English vocabulary. The Old English prefix for- remained in the words: forcleave (to cut into pieces), forhang (to hang up) and

some others. It was also used for making words from French roots, e.g. for-pynchen (to split into pieces).

The prefix mis- occurs in the words: misunderstand, mistrust, etc.

The prefix un- was used to form new words with a negative meaning, e.g. unbind, unwise, etc.

The Old English prefix ge- gradually ceased to be productive and fell into disuse in Middle English already.

The prefix be- was used to coin new verbs, e.g. betray, belong.

Word-composition

§ 218. A large number of new words were formed in Middle English by means of compounding, e.g.

1. compound nouns: football (< noun stem 'foot' + noun stem 'ball'); grandfather (< adjective stem 'grand' + noun stem 'father'); afternoon (< preposition stem 'after' + noun stem 'noon'); breakfast (< verb stem 'break' + noun stem 'fast');

2. compound pronouns: everything (< adjective stem 'every' + noun stem 'thing'); anyone (< pronoun stem 'any' + pronoun stem 'one');

3. compound adverbs: everywhere (< pronoun stem 'every' + adverb stem 'where'); already (< pronoun stem 'al(l)' + adjective stem 'ready'); tomorrow (< preposition stem 'to' + noun stem 'morrow').

Conversion

§219. Conversion, which is defined as the formation of a new word from one already existing through its adoption of a changed paradigm[1], was widely employed in Middle English.

Diachronically, the use of a paradigm as a means of word-derivation was predetermined by the disappearance of inflexions. Conversion pairs appeared on the analogy of so-called historical homonyms, e.g. love (n) and love (v). These two resulted from the Old English noun lufu (love) and the verb lufian (to love). In the course of time these two different parts of speech lost inflexions in their initial forms, i.e. in the common case singular for the noun and in the infinitive for the verb and fell together as to their pronunciation.

In conversion pairs, e.g. dust (dust) and dust (to dust), the initial forms of both the primary and the derived words coincide all along owing to the structural identity of the root and the stem in each member of the pair. In Middle English a large number of new verbs came into being through conversion. For example, the verb 'to land' was converted from the noun 'land'; the verb 'to

[1] See, for example, R.S. Ginsburg, S.S. Khidekel and others. A Course in Modern English Lexicology, p. 158: "... we may define conversion as the formation of a new word through changes in its paradigm".

comb' was converted from the noun 'comb'. On the other hand, new nouns were formed through conversion from verbs, e.g. the noun 'stare' was converted from the verb 'to stare'; the noun 'move' was converted from the verb 'to move'.

Middle English borrowings

The Scandinavian element[1]

§ 220. Scandinavian borrowings made a substantial contribution to the English vocabulary. The influence of Scandinavian on English was facilitated by the high degree of their genetical kinship and the structural proximity that existed between the two languages. Close kinship also existed between the social systems and the cultures of the two peoples. Many English and Scandinavian words differed only in their inflexional elements, the roots being identical, e.g. OE 'sunu (son)', 'fisc (fish)' – Old Scandinavian 'sunr' and 'fiscr'. It is therefore often difficult to say whether this or that English word was indeed native or borrowed from Scandinavian.

Sometimes it was the phonetic shape of the English word that proved to be affected by its Scandinavian cognate. Thus, for example, the Scandinavian counterpart for the Old English verb 'giefan (to give)' (with a palatal g) is 'gefa') (with a hard, back-lingual 'g'). It is obvious that the verb 'to give' with a hard, back-lingual 'g', which was established after the 15th century, could not have developed from the Old English 'giefan'.

The hard 'g' in the verb 'to give' without doubt originated from the Scandinavian 'gefa'.

The hard g in the verb 'to get' (< OE gietan) is also of Scandinavian origin (< Old Scandinavian geta).

Sometimes there coexist words of English and Scandinavian origin slightly varying in form. Though they have developed slightly differing meanings, their common origin (a common Germanic root) is beyond doubt. Such pairs of words are termed etymological doublets, e.g. shirt (< OE sceorte) and skirt (< Old Scandinavian skyrte (a long shirt)).

Many words were undoubtedly of Scandinavian descent because they did not show any properties common with any layers of the English vocabulary. Most of these words denote the notions of everyday life; some are connected with naval warfare and law; e.g. words denoting things and notions of everyday life:

a) nouns: egg, feolaga (fellow), husbonda (husband), süster (sister), skye (sky), vindauga (window), angr (anger), lagu (law), wrang (wrong);

b) adjectives: illr (ill), mjukr (meek), veijr (weak), lagr (low);

c) verbs: kalla (to call), taka (to take), kasta (to cast).

All these words entered the English vocabulary as a result of rivalry with and victory over native English words of the same meaning.

[1] The historical events which conditioned Scandinavian borrowings were accounted for in § 26.

The personal pronouns þeir (they), þeirra (their) and þeim (them), borrowed from Old Scandinavian, displaced the English pronouns hīe (Nominative case plural), hira (Genitive case plural) and him (Dative case plural).

The Scandinavian conjunction þo (though) displaced the Old English þeah. The pronouns same, both and the preposition till also came from Old Scandinavian.

A considerable number of Scandinavian borrowings are placenames, e.g. by (village, town) (Scand. bȳr) in Derby, Grimsby, Kirkby, Holmby, Whitby; thorp (village) (Scand. torp) in Althorp, Linthorp; toft (a plot of land covered with grass) (Scand. toft) in Eastoft, Brimtoft, Nortoft; beck (brook) (Scand. bekkr) in Troutbeck; ness (cape) (Scand. nes) in Inverness, Caithness; thwait (forest glade) (Scand. veiti) in Applethwait, Crossthwaite, Bralthwaite, etc.

The French element

§ 221. The number of French borrowings that entered the English vocabulary as a result of the Norman conquest was very large. It is noteworthy that the influx of French words into English did not begin immediately after the Norman conquest, but only in the second half of the 12th century. The period of the most extensive borrowing was the end of the 14th century.

After William, the Duke of Normandy, attained the English crown (1066) the Normans became the ruling class in the country. They began to hold the most important positions in the government, in the church, in the courts of justice and in other spheres of life. It is obvious that most of the new words borrowed into English were associated with the social system of the conquerors (developed feudalism) and also with such fields as government, religion, law, art, literature, etc.

It is customary to divide the French borrowings of this period into several semantic groups:

1) government and administration: state, government, country, county, parliament, council, prince, baron, court, justice, feudal, noble, servant, govern, reign, administer, etc.;

2) law and justice: attorney, prison, ransom, verdict, evidence, judge, jury, sentence, accuse, condemn, advocate;

3) religion and church: religion, parish, saint, sermon, prayer, conscience, chapel, cloister, parson, pray, etc.;

4) army and navy: army, enemy, battle, banner, defence, garrison, navy, soldier, war, siege, regiment, victory, harness, vessel, officer, captain, etc.;

5) art and literature: art, literature, beauty, colour, image, figure, column, ornament, volume, story, paint, design, etc.;

6) pleasures, feasts, meals, fashions: pleasure, comfort, leisure, feost (feast), luxury, dainty, dinner, supper, soup, pastry, roast, toast, dress, gown, costume, etc.;

7) other borrowings: table, chair, place, air, river, cause, change, catch, use, cover, large, etc.

A number of French words expressed notions for which English had native words, e.g. the French word ‘paix’ (peace) and the English word ‘friþ’ (peace). Under such conditions it sometimes happened that the native word was ousted by the borrowed one. Thus, the English word ‘ēa’ (river) was displaced by the French ‘rivière’. Sometimes the rivalry of the two synonyms ended in the victory of the English word, e.g. the French word ‘amity’ (friendship) was ousted by the English word ‘friendship’. Very often, however, both the borrowed word and its English synonym remained in the language, but became differentiated either in meaning or in usage, e.g. the English word ‘calf’ and the French ‘veal’ became differentiated in meaning: the first came to denote the animal, the second the meat of the animal. Another pair of synonyms: English ‘feed’ and French ‘nourish’ became differentiated in meaning and usage. Some words came into English through French from other languages:

1) from Celtic: attack, garter, carry, baggage, etc.;

2) from Germanic languages: ward, guard, war, marshal, bank, garden; also proper nouns: Charles, Richard, etc.

§ 222. Alongside with words the English language borrowed from French a number of derivational morphemes[1]. Among these are

a) prefixes, such as

dis-, des-, e.g. in the word ‘disappoint’ and in words with English roots, e.g. ‘disburden’, ‘dismiss’;

en-, em-, e.g. in the words: encage, enlarge, endure; and in words with English roots, e.g. endear, embed;

b) suffixes, such as

-ment, e.g. in the words: government, agreement; and in words with English roots, e.g. fulfilment, amazement;

-age, e.g. in the words: courage, carriage, marriage; and in words with English roots, e.g. leakage, breakage;

-able, e.g. in the words: admirable, flexible; and in words with English roots, e.g. readable, eatable, drinkable;

-ess, e.g. in the words princess, baroness; and in words with English roots, e.g. goddess, shepherdess;

Also the suffixes: -ance, -ence; -ard; -al and some others.

§223. Speaking about the French borrowings which resulted from the Norman conquest one has to make a distinction between the two waves of this French influence. The majority of the borrowed words came from the Norman dialect. The other wave came from the French of Paris in the 14th century. Consequently, some loan words borrowed both from the Roman dialect and

[1] The affixes borrowed from French began to be employed for the formation of new words from English roots in the 16th century.

Parisian French formed doublets. Some such doublets survive in Modern English, e.g. cattle (from the Norman dialect) and chattel (from the French of Paris). Both go back to the Latin capitale. In English they became differentiated in meaning: cattle means 'livestock', chattel means 'a movable possession'.

In conclusion it must be noted that the French borrowings in the course of time went through the process of phonetic and lexico-grammatical assimilation in accordance with the norms of the English language. The degree of this assimilation depends on a number of factors which are not dwelt upon here.

THE REPLEHISHMENT OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY IN THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD

§ 224. The influx of new words into the English vocabulary continued throughout the New English period on a large scale. It can be accounted for by the new changes and developments which had taken place in English society: the growth of capitalism, the development of culture, science and technology, the introduction of the printing press, the expansion of trade and cultural contacts with neighbouring countries, etc.

The formation of new words on the basis of those already available in the language continues along the same lines as in the Middle English period, i.e. by means of affixation, composition, conversion. Apart from these means a constant inflow of new vocabulary items has been kept up by numerous borrowings from abroad.

Affixation

§ 225. Productive in the New English period are:

1. Noun-forming suffixes:

-er combined with both native and borrowed stems (of Germanic origin), e.g. steamer (steamship), printer, villager;

-ist (of Greek origin), e.g. communist, pacifist, violinist, etc. The suffix -ist was borrowed into English from Latin in the 19th century. It is mostly added to stems of non-Germanic origin;

-ess (borrowed from French after the Norman conquest), e.g. in the words: actress, hostess:

-ism (of Greek origin), e.g. Communism, baptism, heroism, Americanism;

-ness (of Germanic origin), e.g. happiness, roughness;

-ing (of Germanic origin), e.g. stocking, hearing.

Less productive noun-suffixes are: -ese (Chinese, Portuguese), -ling (starveling, duckling), -ster (gangster), -let (circlet), -ite (Stakhanovite).

The suffixes -th (breadth), -lock (wedlock) and some others have grown non-productive and turned into fossils.

2. Adjective-forming suffixes:

-ly (of Germanic origin), e.g. weekly, manly;

-y (of Germanic origin), e.g. handy, healthy;
-ed (of Germanic origin), e.g. bearded, long-legged;
-ful (of Germanic origin), e.g. beautiful, grateful;
-ish (of Germanic origin), e.g. girlish, foolish;
-less (of Germanic origin), e.g. useless, painless;
-able (of Romanic origin), e.g. distinguishable, changeable.

3. Verb-forming suffixes:

-ize (of Greek origin), e.g. activize, harmonize.

Less productive are the verb-suffixes -en and -fy.

4. Adverb-forming suffixes:

-ly (of Germanic origin), e.g. nicely, happily.

The most productive prefixes in the New English period are:

re- (of Romanic origin), e.g. repeat, reappear;
un- (of Germanic origin), e.g. unhappy, unknown;
dis- (of Romanic origin), e.g. dislike, disagree;
sub- (or Romanic origin), e.g. subgroup, subdivide;
anti- (of Greek origin), e.g. antifascist, antitank;
pre- (of Romanic origin), e.g. prewar, prerevolutionary;
extra- (of Romanic origin), e.g. extra-linguistic, extraordinary.

Less productive are the prefixes: mis-, be-, out-, co- and some others.

The prefixes for- and a- (forgive, arise) are dead in New English: they merged with the stem of the word and are no longer recognized as derivational morphemes.

Word-composition

§ 226. Word-composition gains ground throughout the New English period. New nouns continue to be formed by the compounding of:

1. noun stem with noun stem, e.g. fireplace (< fire + place), newspaper (< news + paper);
2. gerund stem with noun stem, e.g. writing-table (< writing + table) (literary: a table for writing);
3. adverb stem with noun stem, e.g. passer-by (< passer + by);
4. verb stem with noun stem, e.g. breakstone (< break + stone), etc.

Compound adjectives are formed by joining together:

1. noun-stem with adjective stem, e.g. life-long (< life + long);
2. noun-stem and present participle stem, e.g. peace-loving (< peace + loving);
3. adjective stem and present participle stem, e.g. good-looking (< good + looking);
4. adverb stem and past participle stem, e.g. well-read (< well + read);
5. adjective stem and adjective stem, e.g. dark-blue (< dark + blue).

Derivational compound adjectives are formed on the pattern / (a +n) + -ed /, e.g. blue-eyed, good-natured.

Compound verbs are built after the formulas:

1. noun stem + verb stem, e.g. kidnap;

2. adjective stem + verb stem, e.g. whitewash.

A number of new components have appeared in the New English period from free word-groups (cf. p. 90), e.g. merry-go-round, forget-me-not, out-of-doors, mad-doctor, etc.

Conversion

§ 227. Conversion has become a highly productive way of word-formation in the New English period. Words belonging to almost all parts of speech can practically be formed by conversion; especially numerous are verbs converted from nouns, e.g. to hand (< hand), to skate (< skates), to fish (< fish), to dust (< dust), to lunch (< lunch) and nouns converted from verbs, e.g. laugh (< to laugh), talk (< to talk), help (< to help), walk (< to walk), find (< to find), etc.

Semantic changes in words

§ 228. Semantic changes may be caused by both linguistic and extra-linguistic factors. Yet the nature of any semantic change is based on various associations between the meaning already possessed by the word and its new meaning. The most common of these are the associations of similarity of meaning (metaphor) and associations of contiguity of meaning (metonymy).

If the denotational side of the meaning is changed the result of such a semantic change will be the extension or the restriction of the meaning. Thus, for example, the semantic change in the OE word fugol (bird) based on the association of similarity of meaning, resulted in the restriction of the meaning: cf. OE fugol (any bird) – MdE fowl (domestic birds).

If, however, the connotational component of the meaning is subjected to change the result is either degradation or amelioration of the meaning. For example, the semantic change in the OE word ‘cnafa’ (a boy) based upon the association of contiguity of meaning resulted in the degradation of the meaning: cf. OE cnafa – ‘a boy’, then ‘a servant’ and finally ‘a dishonest or deceiving person’ – MdE knave.

The final result of the above semantic processes is a qualitative growth of the vocabulary[1].

§ 229. It is necessary to make mention of the ever developing process of the formation of phraseological units as a means of replenishing the English vocabulary. Already in the Middle English period a number of phrases

[1] It is the so-called split of polysemy that leads to the quantitative replenishment of the vocabulary. Two meanings of a polysemantic word diverge to such an extent as to form two independent vocabulary units (homonyms), e.g. ME flour – ‘a flower’ and ‘a fine substance made of wheat’ originated MdE flower and flour. The treatment of semantic changes in § 228 is based upon the book: H.S. Ginsburg, S.S. Khidekel, G.Y. Knyazeva, A.A. Sankin, A Course in Modern English Lexicology. Moscow, 1966. §§22-26, 41-43.

underwent the process of lexicalization and transformed into word-equivalents. They acquired the quality of being inseparable semantically and became capable of performing the function of a separate member of the sentence, e.g. to take ensaumple (to follow one's example), to make songes (to sing), etc. In the New English period the number of phraseological units has been on the constant increase. They are an important component of the vocabulary.

English borrowings of the epoch of the Renaissance

§ 230. The revival of classical learning in the epoch of the Renaissance, numerous translations from Latin and Greek resulted in a new influx of borrowings from the classical languages. At the same time the discovery and the exploration of the New World and other territories, the development and the expansion of economic, cultural and scientific ties with Italy and Spain caused the borrowing of words from Italian, Spanish and French.

§ 231. Most of the Latin borrowings of this period are so-called learned words referring to various fields of science, literature and religion. They may be grouped as follows:

1. verbs in -ate from the past participle stems (in -atus) of the 1st Latin verb conjugation, e.g. separate, create, decorate, operate, etc.

2. verbs in -ute from the past participle stems (in -utum) of the 3rd Latin verb conjugation, e.g. constitute, persecute, contribute, execute, etc.

3. verbs from the past participle stems containing the element -ct- of the 3rd Latin verb conjugation, e.g. elect, neglect, protect, correct, etc.

4. verbs from the infinitive stems of the 3rd Latin conjugation, e.g. to admit, deduce, include.

5. adjectives from the present participle stems (in -ant of the 1st conjugation and in -ent of the 2nd, 3rd and 4th conjugations), e.g. important, arrogant, permanent, evident, etc.

6. adjectives from the stems of the comparative degree, e.g. junior, senior, inferior, superior.

7. adjectives from the past participle stems (in -atus) of the 1st Latin verb conjugation, e.g. obstinate, desperate, private.

Some of the Latin words borrowed in the epoch of the Renaissance had earlier entered the English language through French. Such pairs, differing in form, meaning and usage, but which have a common source, formed doublets of Latin-French origin (cf. § 220 for doublets of Anglo-Scandinavian origin), e.g. 'ransom' and 'redemption' originate from the Latin 'redemptionem'. But the immediate source of the word 'ransom' is the French word 'ranson' while the noun redemption was borrowed straight from Latin in the epoch of the Renaissance.

§ 232. Most of the Greek borrowings of this period are scientific and political terns, in fact international in character, e.g. atmosphere, aristocracy,

prologue, epoch, metaphor, dogma, botany, etc. Many Greek words came into English through Latin and French.

§ 233. Italian borrowings represented in the main such fields as music and architecture, e.g. violin, finale, cornice, fresco, balcony, cupola. There was also a group of words connected with social life, e.g. carnival, cavalcade, gondola, motto, bandit.

§ 234. Spanish borrowings include such words as don, senora, hidalgo, armada, desperado, sombrero, comrade, Negro, tornado, mosquito, sherry, etc.

§ 235. French borrowings are represented by a miscellaneous group including military terms, such as trophy, pilot, corsair, colonel, sentinel, havoc, and words connected with art and culture, e.g. scene, rondeau, grotesque, vase, vogue, etc.

Borrowings of the 17th century

§ 236. A new influx of French borrowings came in the 17th century. This was connected with the revival of French influence after the Restoration (1660). Most of these borrowings refer to court and upper society relations, e.g. coquette, hall, intrigue, caprice, surtout, ballet, billet-doux, symphony, serenade, memoir, etc. Some of them have preserved traits of French pronunciation. The words intrigue, caprice and others retain final accentuation. The final ‘t’ is not pronounced in ‘buffet’, ‘ballet’.

The colonization of North America and the expansion of trade and cultural exchange with the New World resulted in the importation of such words from the languages of North and South America as: canoe, potato, tobacco, maize, mahogany, colibri, cayman, jaguar, puma, guano, caotchouk. Most of the above words entered English through Spanish.

Borrowings of the 18th–20th centuries

§ 237. The colonial expansion of England in the 18th–19th centuries and ever increasing trade and cultural contact with colonial and dependent territories entailed further lexical borrowings. These were words denoting the articles of trade hitherto unknown in England.

On the other hand, numerous borrowings which have come into English from various languages of the world express new ideas called forth by socio-economic and political developments, by the rapid progress of science, technology and culture, among the borrowings of this period there are words from:

1. French: revolution, royalism, bureaucracy, morale, demagogie, propaganda, garage;
2. German: intuition, objective, subjective; also: kindergarten, waltz, rucksack, lobby, Blitz-Krieg, anschluss;

3. Chinese: coolie, kowtow;

4. Hungarian: tokay, goulash;

5. Italian: isolate, confette, vendetta;

6. Indian languages: bungalow, calico, punch, dinghy.

§ 238. Russian borrowings fall into two divisions: words borrowed before the Great October Socialist Revolution and words borrowed in the Soviet epoch. The borrowings belonging to the first division are connected with the way of life in tzarist Russia, e.g. knout, verst, pogrom, borzoi, tzar, samovar, duma, troika, droshky.

In the Soviet epoch from Russian there have come words reflecting the socialist way of life, the great achievements of Soviet science, technology and culture, e.g. Soviet, Bolshevik, bolshevism, politburo, udarnik, kolkhoz, shock-worker, sputnik, synchrophasotron; also Russian loan-translations, such as: self-criticism, worker's control, house of rest.

§ 239. The English vocabulary has also been added to by words (mostly scientific terms) formed from morphemes of Latin and Creek origin, e.g. microscope, telephone, cyclotron, penicillin, oxygen, hydrogen, periscope, television.

§ 240. The above formations and a number of direct borrowings from Greek and Latin constitute in Modern English a group of what is called international words. These words occur in many European languages in identical form since they were borrowed from one common source, e.g. English democracy, Russian демократия, French democratie, German Densokratie (< Greek: demokratia).

To sum up the treatment of the sources of the English vocabulary it is necessary to accentuate the fact that though a large portion of the Modern English word-stock is represented by foreign element, borrowing must not be considered the chief source of enriching of the English vocabulary. It is word-formation, i.e. the process of making new words from the material already existing in the language that has been by far a more productive means throughout the entire history of English.

The vast majority of borrowed words underwent the process of phonetic, grammatical and lexical assimilation according to the English language pattern so that the vocabulaly of present day English constitutes one solid system.

CONCLUSION

§ 241. In the process of its historical development the English language has undergone fundamental changes brought about by both extra-linguistic and linguistic causes. Changes in the life of society such as the development of means of production, the emergence of classes, the progress of science and technology, etc. are reflected to a great extent in the vocabulary. As far as other aspects of the language are concerned their development has been mostly due to factors working inside their systems.

§ 242. The phonological system of Modern English is the result of a long and complicated development in the course of which it was replenished with new phonemes. At the same time numerous sound changes have led to a sharp break between Modern English spelling and pronunciation.

§ 243. The chief result of the development in the sphere of vocabulary is perhaps its considerable enlargement. It is estimated that the vocabulary of Modern English contains about 500 thousand words while the Old English vocabulary consisted of no more than 30-40 thousand words. The English vocabulary was replenished as a result of word-formation, semantic changes in words already available in the language and borrowing from abroad. In spite of the great influx of borrowed words the core of the English vocabulary has remained Germanic.

§ 244. In the sphere of grammar the development has been towards analytical structure. With the gradual disappearance of inflexions a prominent role in denoting grammatical relations has come to belong to syntactical means.

§ 245. Knowledge of the tendencies that are at work within the language system will help students of English in their practical work of language teaching. It will enable the teacher of English to make distinctions between elements that are dying off and those which are gaining ground in the language system and eventually will guide him in the selection of language material adequate for teaching purposes. This knowledge thus, is expected to add to the philological grounding of the teacher and to help him to gain an intuitive feeling of the English language.

SUPPLEMENT

LINGUISTIC INTERPRETATION OF THE TEXT

Introduction

Students specializing in English philology should be able to analyse Modern English texts from the angle of historical development of different linguistic phenomena, much more so because of the fact that Present-Day English preserves in its structure a number of peculiarities which appear unintelligible when viewed synchronically. Remnants of older epochs may be observed at different levels of language structure; in its phonetics and orthography, grammar and vocabulary. Thus, one and the same grapheme may indicate different sounds in Modern English, cnf. cat, fate, ask, hall; not, note, love, do, etc.; and vice versa, one and the same sound may be represented graphically in different ways, e.g. tall, awe, horse, haughty, nautical; heart, art, sergeant, etc. These and many other peculiarities of Modern English spelling can only be explained by resorting to the history of the language.

There are many remnants of Old English in Modern English morphology. These remnants in the system of nominal pares of speech are represented by irregular plurals of some New English nouns: foot-feet, tooth-teeth, man-men, woman-women, goose-geese, mouse-mice, louse-lice - all these nouns retain the peculiarities of the Old English root-stem declension; the plurals with -en as in child- children, ox-oxen, brother-brethren may be traced back to the Old English weak declension of nouns; we meet uninflected plurals in sheep-sheep, deer-deer, swine-swine, etc. that preserve peculiar features of Old English monosyllabic nouns of the neuter gender containing a long root-vowel.

There are many remnants of Old English morphology in the system of verbs as well. Thus many irregular verbs that are used in Modern English go back to different classes of Old English strong verbs: write-wrote-written, rise rose-risen, etc. retain the vowel gradation that was characteristic of Old English strong verbs belonging to the first class; choose-chose-chosen was originally a strong verb of the second class; sing-sang-sung, ring-rang-rung, etc. preserve phonetic peculiarities of strong verbs of the third class, etc.

Specific features of modal verbs (can, may, must, and others), such as the absence of the inflection -s in the third person singular, present indicative, the absence of the infinitival particle ‘to’ with the modals, etc. cannot be accounted for without a diachronica1 approach to the problem.

There is considerable likeness between English and German in the sphere of vocabulary. For instance, the words: E. man – G. Mann; E. house – G. Haus; E. winter – G. Winter; E. drink – G. trinken; E. sing – G. singen; E. blue –

G. blau; E. green – G. grün; etc. sound almost alike and are similar in their meaning. What is more, we may find a whole number of words of this type in English, German, Russian, Latin and many other Indo-European languages, for example: E. mother, R. мать, G. Mutter, L. mater; E. sister, R. сестра, G. Schwester, L. soror; E. brother, R. брат, G. Bruder, L. bror; E. sun, R. сын, G. Sohn, L. sunus; E. night, G. Nacht, R. ночь, L. nox, noctis; E. sit, R. сидеть, G. sitzen, E. sedere; E. eat, R. есть, G. essen, L. edere; E. red. R. рыжий, G. rot; E. two, R. два, G. zwei, L. duo; E. three, R. три, G. drei, L. tres; etc. All these are cognate words and their affinity may be proved by different phonetic laws, including Grimm's law which holds good in reference to many examples given above.

Thus the knowledge of the history of English helps us to throw light on a number of peculiarities of Modern English which seem unintelligible without the diachronic approach to the description and investigation of Present-Day English Structure.

In the sections below you will find the samples (patterns) of Modern English text analysis based on the history of English data. The retrospective analysis is done on the material of different levels of language structure.

Plan of Text Analysis

I. Phonology (commentaries on the action of phonetic laws which affected Modern English phonology).

1. Traces of Verner's law and Grimm's law in the text.
2. Remnants of the process of Ablaut.
3. Traces of Old English phonetic changes (i-Umlaut, etc.).
4. The role of Middle English phonetic changes: the lengthening of accented vowels in open syllables, the shortening of vowels in closed syllables, the reduction of unstressed vowels, monophthongization of Old English diphthongs, the development of new phonemes in Middle English.
5. Traces of New English phonetic changes: the action of the Great Vowel Shift, the formation of new vowels and consonants.

II. Orthography (the history of English spelling: the influence of French, the conservative character of Modern English orthography).

III. Morphology (commentaries on remnants of Old English morphology, the history of analytical forms).

1. The remnants of Old English morphology in the system of nouns: the history of nominal inflections, irregular plurals such as 'foot' – 'feet', 'goose' – 'geese', 'child' – 'children', etc.

2. The remnants of Old English morphology in the system of other nominal parts of speech (adjectives, pronouns, numerals); the development of articles.
3. The remnants of Old English morphology in the system of verbs:

Modern English irregular verbs, their origin; remnants of Old English strong verbs; remnants of Old English weak verbs, Modal verbs, their origin and archaic features; the history of inflected and analytical verb forms; archaic grammatical forms of verbs such as 'was gone' used in sentences of the type 'After he was gone she started thinking', etc.

4. The role of functional words in English; prepositions expressing case relations.

IV. Syntax (commentaries connected with the history of phrase and sentence structure).

1. Change of free word order in Old English to fixed word order in New English.
2. Changes in the types of syntactic relation between components of subordinate phrases.
3. The development of phrase patterns of the type 'state forest fire losses'.
4. The tendency towards the completeness of phrase and sentence structure.
5. The formation of the structure of negative sentences.
6. The development of hypotaxis.

V. Vocabulary (commentaries on changes in the structure and meaning of vocabulary items).

1. Transition of vocabulary items from polymorphic structure to monomorphic structure.
2. The history of most productive native and borrowed suffixes and prefixes in English.
3. Types of semantic change (narrowing and widening of meaning, elevation and degradation of meaning) and its causes.
4. The historical background of etymological structure of Modern English vocabulary.
5. The interrelation between the morphemic structure of English and types of word formation used at different periods of its history.

Text Analysis Based on the History of English Data

Mark Twain. A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court. Moscow, 1955. Ch.II, p.33-39.

Mark Twain's (1835-1910) novel 'A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court' (1889) is a political satire where describing the English country of the 5th century the author tries to expose the vices of the bourgeois society in which he lived.

The moment I got a chance I slipped aside privately and touched an ancient common-looking man on the shoulder and said, in an insinuating, confidential way:

«Friend, do me a kindness. Do you belong to the asylum, or are you just on a visit or something like that?»

He looked me over stupidly, and said:

«Marry, fair sir, me seemeth –»

«That will do,» I said; «I reckon you are a patient.»

I moved away, cogitating, and at the same time keeping an eye out for any chance passenger in his right mind that might come along and give me some light. I judged I had found one, presently; so I drew him aside and said in his ear:

«If I could see the head keeper a minute – only just a minute–»

«Prithee do not let me.»

«Let you *what* ?»

«*Hinder* me, then, if the word please thee better». Then he went on to say he was an under-cook and could not stop to gossip, though he would like it another time; for it would comfort his very liver to know where I got my clothes. As he started away he pointed and said yonder was one who was idle enough for my purpose, and was seeking me besides, no doubt. This was an airy slim boy in shrimp-colored tights that made him look like a forked carrot, the rest of his gear was blue silk and dainty laces and ruffles; and he had long yellow curls, and wore a plumed pink satin cap tilted complacently over his ear. By his look, he was good-natured; by his gait, he was satisfied with himself. He was pretty enough to frame. He arrived, looked me over with a smiling and impudent curiosity; said he had come for me, and informed me that he was a page.

«Go ‘long,» I said; «you ain’t more than a paragraph.»

It was pretty severe, but I was nettled. However, it never fazed him; he didn’t appear to know he was hurt. He began to talk and laugh, in happy, thoughtless, boyish fashion, as we walked along, and made himself old friends with me at once; asked me all sorts of questions about myself and about my clothes, but never waited for an answer – always chattered straight ahead, as if he didn’t know he had asked a question and wasn’t expecting any reply, until at last he happened to mention that he was born in the beginning of the year 513.

It made the cold chills creep over me! I stopped and said, a little faintly:

«Maybe I didn’t hear you just right. Say it again – and say it slow. What year was it?»

«513.»

«513! You don’t look it! Come, my boy, I am a stranger and friendless; be honest and honorable with me. Are you in your right mind?»

He said he was.

«Are these other people in their right minds?»

He said they were.

«And this isn’t an asylum? I mean, it isn’t a place where they cure crazy people?»

He said it wasn’t.

«Well, then,» I said, «either I am a lunatic, or something just as awful has happened. Now tell me, honest and true, where am I?»

«*In King Arthur’s Court*.»

I waited a minute, to let that idea shudder its way home, and then said:

«And according to your notions, what year is it now?»

«528 – nineteenth of June.»

I felt a mournful sinking at the heart, and muttered: «I shall never see my friends again – never, never again. They will not be born for more than thirteen hundred years yet.»

I seemed to believe the boy, I didn’t know why. *Something* in me seemed to believe him– my consciousness, as you may say; but my reason didn’t. My reason straightway began to clamor; that was natural. I didn’t know how to go about satisfying it, because I knew that the testimony of men wouldn’t serve – my reason would say they were lunatics, and throw out their evidence. But all of a sudden I stumbled on the very thing, just by luck. I knew that the only total eclipse of the sun in the first half of the sixth century occurred on the 21st of June, A.D. 528, O.S., and began at 3 minutes after 12 noon. I also knew that no total eclipse of the sun was due in what to *me* was the present year – i.e., 1879. So, if I could keep my anxiety and curiosity from eating the heart out of me for forty-eight hours, I should then find out for certain whether this boy was telling me the truth or not.

Wherefore, being a practical Connecticut man, I now shoved this whole problem clear out of my mind till its appointed day and hour should come, in order that I might turn all my attention to the circumstances of the present moment, and be alert and ready to make the most out of them that could be made. One thing at a time, is my motto – and just play that thing for all it is worth, even if it’s only two pair and a jack. I made up my mind to two things: if it was still the nineteenth century and I was among lunatics and couldn’t get away, I would presently boss that asylum or know the reason why; and if, on the other hand, it was really the sixth century, all right, I didn’t want any softer thing: I would boss the whole country inside of three months; for I judged I would have the start of the best-educated man in the kingdom by a matter of thirteen hundred years and upward. I’m not a man to waste time after my mind’s made up and there’s work on hand; so I said to the page:

«Now, Clarence, my boy – if that might happen to be your name – I’ll get you to post me up a little if you don’t mind. What is the name of that apparition that brought me here?»

«My master and thine? That is the good knight and great lord Sir Kay the Seneschal, foster-brother to our liege the king.»

«Very good; go on, tell me everything.»

He made a long story of it; but the part that had immediate interest for me was this. He said I was Sir Kay's prisoner, and that in the due course of custom I would be flung into a dungeon and left there on scant commons until my friends ransomed me – unless I chanced to rot, first. I saw that the last chance had the best show, but I didn't waste any bother about that; time was too precious. The page said, further, that dinner was about ended in the great hall by this time, and that as soon as the sociability and the heavy drinking should begin, Sir Kay would have me in and exhibit me before King Arthur and his illustrious knights seated at the Table Round, and would brag about his exploit in capturing me, and would probably exaggerate the facts a little, but it wouldn't be good form for me to correct him, and not oversafe, either; and when I was done being exhibited, then ho for the dungeon; but he, Clarence, would find a way to come and see me every now and then, and cheer me up, and help me get word to my friends.

Get word to my friends! I thanked him; I couldn't do less; and about this time a lackey came to say I was wanted; so Clarence led me in and took me off to one side and sat down by me.

Well, it was a curious kind of spectacle, and interesting. It was an immense place, and rather naked – yes, and full of loud contrasts. It was very, very lofty; so lofty that the banners depending from the arched beams and girders away up there floated in a sort of twilight; there was a stone-railed gallery at each end, high up, with musicians in the one, and women, clothed in stunning colors, in the other. The floor was of big stone flags laid in black and white squares, rather battered by age and use, and needing repair. As to ornament, there wasn't any, strictly speaking; though on the walls hung some huge tapestries which were probably taxed as works of art; battle-pieces, they were, with horses shaped like those which children cut out of paper or create in gingerbread; with men on them in scale armor whose scales are represented by round holes – so that the man's coat looks as if it had been done with a biscuit-punch. There was a fireplace big enough to camp in; and its projecting sides and hood, of carved and pillared stonework, had the look of a cathedral door. Along the walls stood men-at-arms, in breastplate and morion, with halberds for their only weapon – rigid as statues; and that is what they looked like.

In the middle of this groined and vaulted public square was an oaken table which they called the Table Round. It was as large as a circus-ring; and around it sat a great company of men dressed in such various and splendid colors that it hurt one's eyes to look at them. They wore their plumed hats, right along, except that whenever one addressed himself directly to the king, he lifted his hat a trifle just as he was beginning his remark.

Mainly they were drinking – from entire ox horns; but a few were still munching bread or gnawing beef bones. There was about an average of two dogs to one man; and these sat in expectant attitudes till a spent bone was flung to them, and then they went for it by brigades and divisions, with a rush, and

there ensued a fight which filled the prospect with a tumultuous chaos of plunging heads and bodies and flashing tails, and the storm of howlings and barkings deafened all speech for the time; but that was no matter, for the dog-fight was always a bigger interest anyway; the men rose, sometimes, to observe it the better and bet on it, and the ladies and the musicians stretched themselves out over their balusters with the same object; and all broke into delighted ejaculations from time to time. In the end, the winning dog stretched himself out comfortably with his bone between his paws, and proceeded to growl over it, and gnaw it, and grease the floor with it, just as fifty others were already doing; and the rest of the court resumed their previous industries and entertainments.

As a rule, the speech and behavior of these people were gracious and courtly; and I noticed that they were good and serious listeners when anybody was telling anything – I mean in a dog-fightless interval. And plainly, too, they were a childlike and innocent lot; telling lies of the stateliest pattern with a most gentle and winning naiveté, and ready and willing to listen to anybody else's lie, and believe it, too. It was hard to associate them with anything cruel or dreadful; and yet they dealt in tales of blood and suffering with a guileless relish that made me almost forget to shudder.

I was not the only prisoner present. There were twenty or more. Poor devils, many of them were maimed, hacked, carved, in a frightful way; and their hair, their faces, their clothing, were caked with black and stiffened drenchings of blood. They were suffering sharp physical pain, of course; and weariness, and hunger and thirst, no doubt; and at least none had given them the comfort of a wash, or even the poor charity of a lotion for their wounds; yet you never heard them utter a moan or a groan, or saw them show any sign of restlessness, or any disposition to complain. The thought was forced upon me: «The rascals – *they* have served other people so in their day; it being their own turn, now, they were not expecting any better treatment than this; so their philosophical bearing is not an outcome of mental training, intellectual fortitude, reasoning; it is mere animal training; they are white Indians.»

Sample Analysis

To create a true-to-life atmosphere of the previous epochs Mark Twain makes a wide use of archaic words and grammatical constructions, such as may be seen in the following passage: 'He looked me over stupidly, and said: Marry, fair sir, me seemeth−'. 'That will do,' I said: 'I reckon you are a patient'.

The sentence 'Marry, fair sir, me seemeth' contains a number of archaic words and grammatical archaisms. Thus, the word 'marry' opening the sentence is an archaic interjection expressing surprise. 'Me seemeth' [mɛ: sɛ:mɛT] is a Middle English impersonal sentence retaining the archaic verb form with the inflection -th; the Modern English equivalent of 'Me seemeth' ... is 'It seems to me'.

Another extract in the same chapter abounds in archaic forms used for the same stylistic purpose – to create the language atmosphere of the past: ‘If I could see the head keeper a minute – only just a minute–’. ‘Prithee do not let me.’ ‘Let you *what*?’ ‘*Hinder* me, then, if the word please thee better.’ (Ch. II, p. 33). The archaic form of the personal pronoun of the 2nd person singular is used here twice in the form of the Objective case -thee. The Nominative Case Singular of the pronoun had the form Þū [ϴϮ] in Old English, (Þū is an Indo-European word, its cognate in Russian is ‘ты’; [t] shifted into [ϴ] due to the action of Grimm’s law; in Middle English the pronoun retained its pronunciation unchanged but became different in spelling – thou [ϴϮ]. In New English the spelling of the word remained the same as it was in Middle English, as for its pronunciation it changed considerably; the initial consonant [ϴ] became voiced due to the action of Verner’s law in New English as a result of which three consonants: [ϴ], [f], [s] became voiced in minor classes of words when used as initial or final; as for the long vowel [u:] , it was diphthongized according to the Great Vowel Shift; as a result of these phonetic changes which affected both, the consonant and the vowel, [ϴu:] gradually turned into [Ðəʊ] preserving its graphical form unaltered – thou. The objective case form of the pronoun underwent similar phonetic changes: Þē [ϴɛ:] > thee [ϴɛ:] > thee [ÐJ].

The pronoun ‘thou’ and its forms ‘thee’, ‘thine’ went out of general usage in the 17th century being ousted by the plural form ‘you’ and its derivatives ‘your’, ‘yours’. Nowadays ‘thou’ is used only in religious texts and in works of fiction where it functions as a special stylistic device.

It should be noted here that archaization does not mean complete reproduction of the speech of past epochs; it is affected by the use of separate archaic words. Very often archaization is relative. So, in his description of the 12th century events M. Twain resorts to words which existed not in the XIIth but in the 16th -17th centuries.

The use of archaic words in the satirical novels by M. Twain ‘A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur’s Court’ depicting the events of the 4th -5th centuries of A.D. era is merely conventional. We know that the English language was not known in Britain at that time. King Arthur and his subjects spoke Celtic, not English, yet the ‘couleur historique’ is created by the use of English archaisms. A humorous effect is achieved through the use of the verb ‘to let’ in the meaning of ‘to hinder’ (p. 33), ‘мешать, препятствовать’ where ‘let’ may be traced back to the Old English ‘letan’ ‘мешать’, ‘препятствовать’ whereas its homonym ‘to let’ in the meaning of ‘to allow’ goes back to the Old English lǣtan ‘позволять, оставлять’. In course of time these two verbs became homonymous and the first of them is regarded as an archaic word nowadays. The word ‘to let’ in the meaning of ‘to hinder’ was obsolete at the time when Mark Twain lived which made it possible for the writer to create the following passage:

‘Prithee do not let me.’
‘Let you what?’
‘Hinder me, then, if the word please thee better.’

(Op. cit., p. 33)

The extract given above represents a conversation between an under-cook at King Arthur’s court and the Yankee.

It is clear that the Yankee misunderstood the under-cook because the archaic word ‘let’ was not known to him. Grammatical archaisms should be noted in the last sentence: the first is the subjunctive mood – form of ‘please’ in the if-clause; the second – the archaic pronoun of the 2-nd person singular in the Objective case form: thee.

The phonetic and graphical history of words is of interest, indeed. For instance, the history of the words ‘night’, ‘knight’, ‘right’, ‘light’, ‘fight’, ‘bright’ deserves attention as considerable discrepancy between spelling and pronunciation is observed everywhere here which may be explained only diachronically.

As the phonetic and graphical history of the words above is analogous it will suffice to deal with the development of one of them. Let us trace up the history of ‘night’ for that matter; its Old English form was ‘niht’ [nix’t], in Middle English the word remained unchanged in pronunciation but became different in spelling – nyght [nix’t] (the diagraph gh was introduced in Middle English to indicate a spirant and differentiate it in this way from an aspirate both of which were represented graphically in the same way in Old English, namely, by the letter ‘h’). The spirant [x′] was lost in Early New English, after that the root vowel lengthened which in its turn resulted in the development of the diphthong [ai] in accordance with the action of the Great Vowel Shift, hence is the New English pronunciation of the word [nait]; as far as the spelling of the word is concerned, it remained unchanged since the Middle English period.

Of considerable interest are all those cases in which identical graphemes are pronounced differently in different distribution. Let’s compare the pronunciation of the grapheme ‘o’ in such words as ‘do’, ‘more’, ‘so’, ‘over’, ‘come’, ‘some’, ‘not’, ‘stop’, ‘or’, ‘for’, ‘word’, ‘one’, ‘to’, where it is pronounced correspondingly as [ʧ], [ɒ], [ʊu], [ɐ], [ɔ], [ᗯ], [q].

The phoneme [ʧ] in the word ‘do’ may be traced back to the long close phoneme [ō] that was used in the Old English verb dōn [dōn]. The Old English phoneme [ō] remained unchanged in the Middle English form of the word ‘doon’ which, developed into ‘do’ [dʧ] in New English with the long phoneme [ō] being narrowed into [u:] due to the action of the Great Vowel Shift.

The word ‘move’ is of French origin, is was borrowed from French in Middle English and retained the long root phoneme [u:]. The word ‘so’ originates from the Old English ‘swā’. In Middle English the long open phoneme [ā] gave rise to the long open sound [ɒ] which in its turn was gradually diphthongized into [ou] as a result of the Great Vowel Shift.

The word ‘over’ developed from the Old English ‘ofer’ ['ɔver]. In passing from Old English to Middle English the word changed its pronunciation and spelling to ‘over’ ['ouvɋ], the original short phoneme [o] turning into a long vowel as it was accented and constituted an open syllable, the development of the long open sound [ɹ] resulted in the rise of the diphthong [ou] which appeared here under the influence of the Great Vowel Shift.

The history of the words ‘come’ and ‘some’ is analogous in respect to the development of their root-vowels. The Old English forms of the words were correspondingly ‘cuman’ and ‘sum’. In Middle English the sound [u] remained unchanged but its graphical representation became different: in position before ‘m’, ‘n’, ‘v’ and some other letters consisting of vertical lines the grapheme ‘u’ was replaced by ‘o’. In the 17th century the short phoneme [u] gave rise to a new phoneme [ʌ]. The short phoneme [ɔ] remained unchanged when used in closed syllables which accounts for its reading in the words ‘not’ and ‘stop’.

The reading of ‘o’ in ‘or’ and ‘for’ is influenced by ‘r’ which was vocalized in Early New English and together with the preceding vowel gave rise to a new pnoneme [ɹ] .

The same letter combination ‘or’ is read as [ɯ] in ‘word’ where the reading of the root-vowel was influenced by the initial bilabial phoneme [w].

The reading of ‘one’ [wʌn] is peculiar. The word ‘one’ originates from the Old English numeral ‘ān’ which changed into ‘oon’ in Middle English, the long open phoneme [ō] became short in a closed syllable and gradually narrowed to [ɬ] in position before the nasal sound [n] , the form [un] turned into [wun] which became [wʌn] in the XVIIth century with the regular transition of the short phoneme [u] into [ʌ].

The preposition ‘to’ [tɬ, tu, tɋ] which is usually unstressed is pronounced with the final neutral vowel although the full form of the word has the long phoneme [u:].

A number of words in the text bear the traces of the action of Grimm’s law. Thus, the words ‘that’, ‘I’, ‘head’ may be taken for the illustration of this phonetic change.

The Old English form of ‘that’ which was ‘Þæt’ may be compared with the Russian word ‘то’: the change of the original phoneme [t] into [ṯ] took place in Germanic languages according to the first act of Grimm’s law. The Old English ‘ic’ (Md. E.: I) taken versus the Latin word ‘ego’ illustrates the second act of Grimm’s law; ‘head’ as compared with its Latin cognate ‘caput’ illustrates the first act of the same law.

Any other text may be used for the kind of diachronic linguistic analysis suggested above.

Practice assignments

Text 1. M. Twain. A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court, M., 1955. p. 275-279.

He was right. He knew more about hunting than I did. The noise approached steadily, but not with a rush. The king said:

«They reason that we were advantaged by no parlous start of them, and being on foot are as yet no mighty way from where we took the water.»

«Yes, sire, that is about it, I am afraid, though I was hoping better things.»

The noise drew nearer and nearer, and soon the van was drifting under us, on both sides of the water. A voice called a halt from the other bank, and said:

«An they were so minded, they could get to yon tree by this branch that overhangs, and yet not touch ground. Ye will do well to send a man up it.»

«Marry, that we will do!»

I was obliged to admire my cuteness in foreseeing this very thing and swapping trees to beat it. But, don't you know, there are some things that can beat smartness and foresight? Awkwardness and stupidity can. The best swordsman in the world doesn't need to fear the second best swordsman in the world; no, the person for him to be afraid of is some ignorant antagonist who has never had a sword in his hand before; he doesn't do the thing he ought to do, and so the expert isn't prepared for him; he does the thing he ought not to do; and often it catches the expert out and ends him on the spot. Well, how could I, with all my gifts, make any valuable preparation against a near-sighted, cross-eyed, pudding-headed clown who would aim himself at the wrong tree and hit the right one? And that is what he did. He went for the wrong tree, which was, of course, the right one by mistake, and up he started.

Matters were serious now. We remained still, and awaited developments. The peasant toiled his difficult way up. The king raised himself up and stood; he made a leg ready, and when the comer's head arrived in reach of it there was a dull thud, and down went the man floundering to the ground. There was a wild outbreak of anger below, and the mob swarmed in from all around, and there we were treed, and prisoners. Another man started up; the bridging bough was detected, and a volunteer started up the tree that furnished the bridge. The king ordered me to play Horatius and keep the bridge. For a while the enemy came thick and fast; but no matter, the head man of each procession always got a buffet that dislodged him as soon as he came in reach. The king's spirits rose, his joy was limitless. He said that if nothing occurred to mar the prospect we should have a beautiful night, for on this line of tactics we could hold the tree against the whole country-side.

However, the mob soon came to that conclusion themselves; wherefore they called off the assault and began to debate other plans. They had no weapons, but there were plenty of stones, and stones might answer. We had no objections. A stone might possibly penetrate to us once in a while, but it wasn't very likely; we were well protected by boughs and foliage, and were not visible

from any good aiming-point. If they would but waste half an hour in stone-throwing, the dark would come to our help. We were feeling very well satisfied. We could smile; almost laugh.

But we didn't; which was just as well, for we should have been interrupted. Before the stones had been raging through the leaves and bouncing from the boughs fifteen minutes, we began to notice a smell. A couple of sniffs of it was enough of an explanation: it was smoke! Our game was up at last. We recognized that. When smoke invites you, you have to come. They raised their pile of dry brush and damp weeds higher and higher, and when they saw the thick cloud begin to roll up and smother the tree, they broke out in a storm of joy-clamors. I got enough breath to say:

«Proceed, my liege; after you is manners.»

The king gasped:

«Follow me down, and then back thyself against one side of the trunk, and leave me the other. Then will we fight. Let each pile his dead according to his own fashion and taste.»

Then he descended, barking and coughing, and I followed. I struck the ground an instant after him; we sprang to our appointed places, and began to give and take with all our might. The pow-wow and racket were prodigious; it was a tempest of riot and confusion and thick-falling blows. Suddenly some horsemen tore into the midst of the crowd, and a voice shouted:

«Hold – or ye are dead men!»

How good it sounded! The owner of the voice bore all the marks of a gentleman: picturesque and costly raiment, the aspect of command, a hard countenance, with complexion and features marred by dissipation. The mob fell humbly back, like so many spaniels. The gentleman inspected us critically, then said sharply to the peasants:

«What are ye doing to these people?»

«They be madmen, worshipful sir, that have come wandering we know not whence, and– »

«Ye know not whence? Do ye pretend ye know them not?»

«Most honored sir, we speak but the truth. They are strangers and unknown to any in this region; and they be the most violent and bloodthirsty madmen that ever– »

«Peace! Ye know not what ye say. They are not mad. Who are ye? And whence are ye? Explain.»

«We are but peaceful strangers, sir,» I said, «and traveling upon our own concerns. We are from a far country, and unacquainted here. We have purposed no harm; and yet but for your brave interference and protection these people would have killed us. As you have divined, sir, we are not mad; neither are we violent or bloodthirsty.»

The gentleman turned to his retinue and said calmly: «Lash me these animals to their kennels!»

The mob vanished in an instant; and after them plunged the horsemen, laying about them with their whips and pitilessly riding down such as were witless enough to keep the road instead of taking to the bush. The shrieks and supplications presently died away in the distance, and soon the horsemen began to straggle back. Meantime the gentleman had been questioning us more closely, but had dug no particulars out of us. We were lavish of recognition of the service he was doing us, but we revealed nothing more than that we were friendless strangers from a far country. When the escort were all returned, the gentleman said to one of his servants:

«Bring the led-horses and mount these people.»

«Yes, my lord.»

We were placed toward the rear, among the servants. We traveled pretty fast, and finally drew rein some time after dark at a road-side inn some ten or twelve miles from the scene of our troubles. My lord went immediately to his room, after ordering his supper, and we saw no more of him. At dawn in the morning we breakfasted and made ready to start.

My lord's chief attendant sauntered forward at that moment with indolent grace, and said:

«Ye have said ye should continue upon this road, which is our direction likewise; wherefore my lord, the earl Grip, hath given commandment that ye retain the horses and ride, and that certain of us ride with ye a twenty mile to a fair town that hight Cambenet, whenso ye shall be out of peril.»

We could do nothing less than express our thanks and accept the offer. We jogged along, six in the party, at a moderate and comfortable gait, and in conversation learned that my lord Grip was a very great personage in his own region, which lay a day's journey beyond Cambenet. We loitered to such a degree that it was near the middle of the forenoon when we entered the market-square of the town. We dismounted, and left our thanks once more for my lord, and then approached a crowd assembled in the center of the square, to see what might be the object of interest. It was the remnant of that old peregrinating band of slaves! So they had been dragging their chains about, all this weary time. That poor husband was gone, and also many others; and some few purchases had been added to the gang. The king was not interested, and wanted to move along, but I was absorbed, and full of pity. I could not take my eyes away from these worn and wasted wrecks of humanity. There they sat, grounded upon the ground, silent, uncomplaining, with bowed heads, a pathetic sight. And by hideous contrast, a redundant orator was making a speech to another gathering not thirty steps away, in fulsome laudation of «our glorious British liberties!»

I was boiling. I had forgotten I was a plebeian, I was remembering I was a man. Cost what it might, I would mount that rostrum and–

Click! the king and I were handcuffed together! Our companions, those servants, had done it; my lord Grip stood looking on. The king burst out in a fury, and said:

«What meaneth this ill-mannered jest?»

My lord merely said to his head miscreant, coolly:

«Put up the slaves and sell them!»

Slaves! The word had a new sound – and how unspeakably awful! The king lifted his manacles and brought them down with a deadly force; but my lord was out of the way when they arrived. A dozen of the rascal's servants sprang forward, and in a moment we were helpless, with our hands bound behind us. We so loudly and so earnestly proclaimed ourselves freemen, that we got the interested attention of that liberty-mouthing orator and his patriotic crowd, and they gathered about us and assumed a very determined attitude. The orator said:

«If, indeed, ye are freemen, ye have nought to fear – the God-given liberties of Britain are about ye for your shield and shelter! (Applause.) Ye shall soon see. Bring forth your proofs.»

«What proofs?»

«Proof that ye are freemen.»

Ah – I remembered! I came to myself; I said nothing. But the king stormed out:

«Thou'rt insane, man. It were better, and more in reason, that this thief and scoundrel here prove that we are *not* freemen.»

You see, he knew his own laws just as other people so often know the laws; by words, not by effects. They take a *meaning*, and get to be very vivid, when you come to apply them to yourself.

All hands shook their heads and looked disappointed; some turned away, no longer interested. The orator said – and this time in the tones of business, not of sentiment:

«An ye do not know your country's laws, it were time ye learned them. Ye are strangers to us; ye will not deny that. Ye may be freemen, we do not deny that; but also ye may be slaves. The law is clear: it doth not require the claimant to prove ye are slaves, it requireth you to prove ye are not.»

I said:

«Dear sir, give us only time to send to Astolat; or give us only time to send to the Valley of Holiness – »

«Peace, good man, these are extraordinary requests, and you may not hope to have them granted. It would cost much time, and would unwarrantably inconvenience your master– »

«*Master*, idiot!» stormed the king. «I have no master, I myself am the *m*–»

«Silence, for God's sake!»

I got the words out in time to stop the king. We were in trouble enough already; it could not help us any to give these people the notion that we were lunatics.

There is no use in stringing out the details. The earl put us up and sold us at auction. This same infernal law had existed in our own South in my own time,

more than thirteen hundred years later, and under it hundreds of freemen who could not prove that they were freemen had been sold into lifelong slavery without the circumstance making any particular impression upon me; but the minute law and the auction block came into my personal experience, a thing which had been merely improper before became suddenly hellish. Well, that's the way we are made.

Yes, we were sold at auction, like swine. In a big town and an active market we should have brought a good price; but this place was utterly stagnant and so we sold at a figure which makes me ashamed, every time I think of it. The King of England brought seven dollars, and his prime minister nine; whereas the king was easily worth twelve dollars and I as easily worth fifteen. But that is the way things always go; if you force a sale on a dull market, I don't care what the property is, you are going to make a poor business of it, and you can make up your mind to it. If the earl had had wit enough to–

However, there is no occasion for my working my sympathies up on his account. Let him go, for the present; I took his number, so to speak.

The slave-dealer bought us both, and hitched us onto that long chain of his, and we constituted the rear of his procession. We took up our line of march and passed out of Cambenet at noon; and it seemed to me unaccountably strange and odd that the King of England and his chief minister, marching manacled and fettered and yoked, in a slave convoy, could move by all manner of idle men and women, and under windows where sat the sweet and the lovely, and yet never attract a curious eye, never provoke a single remark. Dear, dear, it only shows that there is nothing diviner about a king than there is about a tramp, after all. He is just a cheap and hollow artificiality when you don't know he is a king. But reveal his quality, and dear me it takes your very breath away to look at him. I reckon we are all fools. Born so, no doubt.

I. Phonetics and orthography

1. Find examples illustrating the action of Grimm's law and Verner's law.
2. Explain the use of different vowels in irregular verb forms (keep-kept, take-took, speak-spoke, begin-began, sit-sat, sell-sold, etc.).
3. Account for the use of different vowels in the noun forma 'man' vs. 'men'; 'foot' vs. 'feet'.
4. Comment on different readings of the letters 's', 'f' and the diagraph 'th' in: 'stranger', 'stone', 'sir' vs. 'is', 'was', 'has'; 'beautiful', 'foliage', 'follow', 'feel' vs. 'of'; 'think', 'thirsty', 'thing' vs. 'they', 'then', 'that'.
5. Compare the graphical representation of the sound [f] in 'after', 'freemen', 'cough', 'enough', 'philosophy', give reasons for identical pronunciation of different graphemes.
6. Compare the pronunciation of the digraph 'ch' in 'cheap', 'chief', 'characteristic', 'machine'; explain different readings of the diagraph.

7. Find come examples illustrating the action of the Great Vowel Shift.
8. Explain the pronunciation of the grapheme ‘i’ in such words as ‘right’, ‘might’, ‘fight’, ‘sight’, ‘with’, ‘king’, ‘distance’, ‘I’, ‘ride’, ‘mile’, ‘died’, ‘sir’, ‘admire’.
9. Compare the reading of the grapheme ‘o’ in ‘stop’, ‘not’ ‘tones’, ‘no’, ‘go’, ‘do’, ‘prove’, ‘lovely’; explain the differences in reading.
10. Give reasons for different readings of the digraph ‘ou’ in ‘bound’, ‘group’, ‘country’.
11. Explain the history of the mute letter ‘e’ in such words as ‘time’, ‘made’, ‘became’, ‘these’, ‘swine’, etc.
12. Compare the distribution of the letters ‘i’ and ‘y’ used for representing the sound [ı], make necessary conclusions.
13. Give examples from the text illustrating the conservative character of Modern English orthography.
14. State the degree of phonetic and graphical assimilation in the following words of French origin: picturesque, chief, personage, arrive, servant, auction, etc.

II. Morphology

1. Why does the word ‘man’ have the irregular plural form ‘men’? Give other irregular plurals of the same origin.
2. Why does the noun ‘swine’ remain uninflected for plural? Give examples of other uninflected plurals.
3. Recall the origin of the plural inflection -s in nouns and the inflection -’s of the Possessive Case.
4. What archaic forms of personal pronouns are used in the text? What is the purpose of their usage? Do you often meet the forms ‘ye’ and ‘thou’ in Present-Day English?
5. Comment on the verb forms ‘art’ (‘Thou’rt insane, man’, p. 277). ‘doth’ (‘it doth not require’ ... , p. 278), ‘requireth’ (p. 278), ‘hath given’ (... my lord ... hath given commandment, p. 276), ‘meaneth’ (‘What meaneth this ill-mannered jest?’ p. 277).
6. Define the morphological status of the form ‘was gone’ used in the sentence ‘That poor husband was gone and also many others’ (p. 276).
7. Find remnants of Old English strong verbs in the text, define their original classes.
8. Explain the use of different root-vowels in ‘sell-sold’, ‘tell-told’; give other verbs of the same type.
9. Recall the history of modal verbs used in the text.
10. Dwell on the origin of the infinitival particle ‘to’.
11. Recall the history of verb inflections (-s, -ed, -ing).
12. Comment on the origin of analytical verb forms used in the text.

III. Syntax

1. Comment on the structure of the following negative sentences used in the text: ‘You know not whence?’ ‘Do you pretend you know them not? (p. 275), ‘You know not what you say’ (p. 275).
2. Describe the reasons because of which the word-order in English sentences became fixed.
3. Comment on different types of syntactic relation between phrase components, compare it with the state of things in Old English.
4. Dwell on the origin of the subordinative conjunction ‘that’ and other types of subordinators used in the text.
5. Comment on inversion used in the sentence: ‘Then will we fight? (p. 274).

IV. Vocabulary

1. Point out obsolete words used in the text and comment on their usage end history.
2. Dwell on the history of most productive English suffixes of native origin (-er, -ly, -less, -ish, etc.).
3. Give etymological survey of the vocabulary units used in the text.
4. Comment on semantic changes in the words ‘lord’, ‘room’.
5. Dwell on the history of the following historically compound words: ‘breakfast’, ‘woman’, ‘window’.

Text 2. Ch. Dickens. Posthumous Papers of the Pickwick Club, M., 1998, p. 209-210.

Here it was that Mr. Tupman and Mr. Snodgrass were seated on the evening after the conclusion of the election, with several other temporary inmates of the house, smoking and drinking.

«Well, gents,» said a stout, hale personage of about forty, with only one eye – a very bright black eye, which twinkled with a roguish expression of fun and good-humour, «our noble selves, gents. I always propose that toast to the company, and drink Mary to myself. Eh, Mary?»

«Get along with you, you wretch,» said the hand-maiden, obviously not ill-pleased with the compliment, however.

«Don’t go away, Mary,» said the black-eyed man.

«Let me alone, imperence,» said the young lady.

«Never mind,» said the one-eyed man, calling after the girl as she left the room. «I’ll step out by and by, Mary. Keep your spirits up, dear.» Here he went through the not very difficult process of winking upon the company with his

solitary eye, to the enthusiastic delight of an elderly personage with a dirty face and a clay pipe.

«Rum creeters is women,» said the dirty-faced man, after a pause.

«Ah! no mistake about that,» said a very red-faced man, behind a cigar.

After this little bit of philosophy there was another pause.

«There's rummer things than women in this world though, mind you,» said the man with the black eye, slowly filling a large Dutch pipe, with a most capacious bowl.

«Are you married?» inquired the dirty-faced man.

«Can't say I am.»

«I thought not.» Here the dirty-faced man fell into ecstasies of mirth at his own retort, in which he was joined by a man of bland voice and placid countenance, who always made it a point to agree with everybody.

«Women, after all, gentlemen,» said the enthusiastic Mr. Snodgrass, «are the great props and comforts of our existence.»

«So they are,» said the placid gentleman.

«When they're in a good humour,» interposed the dirty-faced man.

«And that's very true,» said the placid one.

«I repudiate that qualification,» said Mr. Snodgrass, whose thoughts were fast reverting to Emily Wardle, «I repudiate it with disdain – with indignation. Show me the man who says anything against women, as women, and I boldly declare he is not a man.» And Mr. Snodgrass took his cigar from his mouth, and struck the table violently with his clenched fist.

«That's good sound argument,» said the placid man.

«Containing a position which I deny,» interrupted he of the dirty countenance.

«And there's certainly a very great deal of truth in what you observe too, Sir,» said the placid gentleman.

«Your health, Sir,» said the bagman with the lonely eye, bestowing an approving nod on Mr. Snodgrass.

Mr. Snodgrass acknowledged the compliment.

«I always like to hear a good argument,» continued the bagman, «a sharp one, like this; it's very improving; but this little argument about women brought to my mind a story I have heard an old uncle of mine tell, the recollection of which, just now, made me say there were rummer things than women to be met with, sometimes.»

«I should like to hear that same story,» said the red-faced man with the cigar.

«Should you?» was the only reply of the bagman, who continued to smoke with great vehemence.

«So should I,» said Mr. Tupman, speaking for the first time. He was always anxious to increase his stock of experience.

«Should *you*? Well then, I'll tell it. No, I won't. I know you won't believe it,» said the man with the roguish eye, making that organ look more roguish than ever. «If you say it's true, of course I shall,» said Mr. Tupman.

«Well, upon that understanding I'll tell you,» replied the traveller. «Did you ever hear of the great commercial house of Bilson & Slum? But it doesn't matter though, whether you did or not, because they retired from business long since. It's eighty years ago, since the circumstance happened to a traveller for that house, but he was a particular friend of my uncle's; and my uncle told the story to me. It's a queer name; but he used to call it THE BAGMAN'S STORY and he used to tell it, something in this way.

I. Phonetics and orthography

1. Trace up the history of reading of the grapheme 'a' used in the words below:
   am, and, black, man, married, than; indignation, made, placid, (the) same; qualification, was, what; after, fast; about, agree, another, company, woman; all, always, warder; are, large, sharp.
2. Give reasons for different readings of the grapheme 'o' in the following words:
   compliment, not, on, Snodgrass, stock, story; boldly, most, noble, only, process, propose, smoking; for, forty, organ; another, comforts, company, other, sometimes; conclusion, observe, temporary; good, room, took; approving, whose, woman; women.
3. Explain the history of reading of the grapheme 'i' in the words below:
   it, ill, mistake, this, twinkle; bit, little, solitary, which; I, like, mine, pipe, time; behind, bright, delight, mind; dirty, first, mirth;
4. Comment on the reading of the grapheme 'e' in:
   elderly, ever, gents, never, pense, process, step, went; agree, evening, he, keep, me, the; behind, declare, delight, deny, enthusiastic, reply; certainly, observe, personage, reverting, were; dear, here, imperence; since, like; whether, traveller, ever, matter; lonely, mistake, pipe, table, true, twinkled.
5. Explain the reading of the digraph 'ou' ('ow') in:
   about, house, however, out, sound, stout; know, though; brought, thought; young; should, through, you; course; humour.
6. Illustrate the process of i-Umlaut by some examples from the text.
7. Find illustrations of the action of the Great Vowel Shift in the text.
8. Comment on the origin of the phoneme [ℜ] in: after, are, argument, can't, cigar, fast, large, sharp.
9. Comment on the origin of the phoneme [ɬ] in: brought, calling, forty, thoughts.
10. Illustrate the action of Grimm's law and Verner's law by some examples from the text.

11. Compare the origin of the phoneme [ʃ] in such words as ‘shall’, ‘should’, ‘show’ on the one hand and ‘election’, ‘expression’, ‘capacious’, ‘indignation’, ‘position’ on the other hand.
12. Explain different readings of the grapheme ‘c’ in ‘clay’, ‘company’, ‘compliment’ vs. ‘cigar’, ‘placid’, ‘voice’.

II. Morphology

1. Speak on the history of the verbs ‘shall’, ‘should’.
2. Comment on the cause of vowel gradation in verbs: bring-brought; drink-drank-drunk; keep-kept; speak-spoke-spoken; take-took-taken; think-thought.
3. Account for vowel gradation in the plurals of the nouns ‘man’ (‘men’), ‘woman’ (‘women’).
4. Prove the fact that the verb ‘to fill’ is derived from the adjective ‘full’.
5. Comment on the comparatives ‘older’ and ‘elder’.
6. Trace up the history of the auxiliaries ‘to be’ and ‘to have’.

III. Vocabulary

1. Speak on the history of words: evening, lady, always.
2. Comment on the origin of the ordinal numeral ‘first’.
3. Give semantic classification of native words of Germanic and Indo-European origin.

Text 3. O.Henry. ‘The Last Leaf’ (O. Henry. Short Stories, M., 1951, p. 105-111).

In a little district west of Washington Square the streets have run crazy and broken themselves into small strips called «places». These «places» make strange angles and curves. One street crosses itself a time or two. An artist once discovered a valuable possibility in this street. Suppose a collector with a bill for paints, paper and canvas should, in traversing this route, suddenly meet himself coming back, without a cent having been paid on account!

So, to quaint old Greenwich Village the art people soon came prowling, hunting for north windows and eighteenth-century gables and Dutch attics and low rents. Then they imported some pewter mugs and a chafing dish or two from Sixth avenue, and became a «colony».

At the top of a squatty, three-story brick Sue and Johnsy had their studio. «Johnsy» was familiar for Joanna. One was from Maine; the other from California. They had met at the *table d’hôte* of an Eighth Street «Delmonico’s», and found their tastes in art, chicory salad and bishop sleeves so congenial that the joint studio resulted.

That was in May. In November a cold, unseen stranger, whom the doctors called Pneumonia, stalked about the colony, touching one here and there with his icy fingers. Over and on the east side this ravager strode boldly, smiting his victims by scores, but his feet trod slowly through the maze of the narrow and moss-grown «places».

Mr. Pneumonia was not what you would call a chivalric old gentleman. A mite of a little woman with blood thinned by California zephyrs was hardly fair game for the red-fisted, short-breathed old duffer. But Johnsy he smote; and she lay, scarcely moving, on her painted iron bedstead, looking through the small Dutch window-panes at the blank side of the next brick house.

One morning the busy doctor invited Sue into the hallway with a shaggy, gray eyebrow.

«She has one chance in – let us say, ten,» he said; as he shook down the mercury in his clinical thermometer. «And that chance is for her to want to live. This way people have of lining-up on the side of the undertaker makes the entire pharmacopoeia look silly. Your little lady has made up her mind that she's not going to get well. Has she anything on her mind?»

«She – she wanted to paint the Bay of Naples some day,» said Sue.

«Paint? – bosh! Has she anything on her mind worth thinking about twice – a man, for instance?»

«A man?» said Sue, with a jew's-harp twang in her voice. «Is a man worth – but , no, doctor; there is nothing of the kind.

«Well, it is the weakness, then,» said the doctor. «I will do all that science, so far as it may filter through my efforts, can accomplish. But whenever my patient begins to count the carriages in her funeral procession I subtract 50 per cent from the curative power of medicines. If you will get her to ask one question about the new winter styles in cloak sleeves I will promise you a one-in-five chance for her, instead of one in ten.»

After the doctor had gone Sue went into the work-room and cried a Japanese napkin to a pulp. Then she swaggered into Johnsy's room with her drawing board, whistling ragtime.

Johnsy lay, scarcely making a ripple under the bedclothes, with her face toward the window. Sue stopped whistling, thinking she was asleep.

She arranged her board and began a pen-and-ink drawing to illustrate a magazine story. Young artists must pave their way to Art by drawing pictures for magazine stories that young authors write to pave their way to Literature.

As Sue was sketching a pair of elegant horse-show riding trousers and a monocle on the figure of the hero, an Idaho cowboy, she heard a low sound, several times repeated. She went quickly to the bedside.

Johnsy's eyes were open wide. She was looking out the window and counting – counting backward.

«Twelve,» she said, and a little later «eleven;» and then «ten,» and «nine;» and then «eight» and «seven,» almost together.

Sue looked solicitously out the window. What was there to count? There was only a bare, dreary yard to be seen, and the blank side of the brick house twenty feet away. An old, old ivy vine, gnarled and decayed at the roots, climbed half way up the brick wall. The cold breath of autumn had stricken its leaves from the vine until it's skeleton branches clung, almost bare, to the crumbling bricks.

«What is it, dear?» asked Sue.

«Six,» said Johnsy, in almost a whisper. «They're falling faster now. Three days ago there were almost a hundred. It made my head ache to count them. But now it's easy. There goes another one. There are only five left now.»

«Five what dear. Tell your Sudie.»

«Leaves. On the ivy vine. When the last one falls I must go, too. I've known that for three days. Didn't the doctor tell you?»

«Oh, I never heard of such nonsense,» complained Sue, with magnificent scorn. «What have old ivy leaves to do with your getting well? And you used to love that vine so, you naughty girl. Don't be a goosey. Why, the doctor told me this morning that your chances for getting well real soon were – let's see exactly what he said – he said the chances were ten to one! Why, that's almost as good a chance as we have in New York when we ride on the street cars or walk past a new building. Try to take some broth now, and let Sudie go back to her drawing, so she can sell the editor man with it, and buy port wine for her sick child, and pork chops for her greedy self.»

«You needn't get any more wine,» said Johnsy keeping her eyes fixed out the window. «There goes another. No, I don't want any broth. That leaves just four. I want to see the last one fall before it gets dark. Then I'll go, too.»

«Johnsy, dear,» said Sue, bending over her, «will you promise me to keep your eyes closed, and not look out the window until I am done working? I must hand those drawings in by to-morrow. I need the light, or I would draw the shade down.»

«Couldn't you draw in the other room? asked Johnsy, coldly.

«I'd rather be here by you,» said Sue. «Besides, I don't want you to keep looking at those silly ivy leaves.»

«Tell me as soon as you have finished,» said Johnsy, closing her eyes, and lying white and still as a fallen statue, «because I want to see the last one fall. I'm tired of waiting. I'm tired of thinking. I want to turn loose my hold on everything, and go sailing down, down, just like one of those poor, tired leaves.»

«Try to sleep,» said Sue. «I must call Behrman up to be my model for the old hermit miner. I'll not be gone a minute. Don't try to move 'till I come back.»

Old Behrman was a painter who lived on the ground floor beneath them. He was past sixty and had a Michael Angelo's Moses beard curling down from the head of a satyr along the body of an imp. Behrman was a failure in art. Forty years he had wielded the brush without getting near enough to touch the hem of his Mistress's robe. He had been always about to paint a masterpiece, but had

never yet begun it. For several years he had painted nothing except now and then a daub in the line of commerce or advertising. He earned a little by serving as a model to those young artists in the colony who could not pay the price of a professional. He drank gin to excess, and still talked of his coming masterpiece. For the rest he was a fierce little old man, who scoffed terribly at softness in any one, and who regarded himself as especial mastiff-in-waiting to protect the two young artists in the studio above.

Sue found Behrman smelling strongly of juniper berries in his dimly lighted den below. In one corner was a blank canvas on an easel that had been waiting there for twenty-five years to receive the first line of the masterpiece. She told him of Johnsy's fancy, and how she feared she would, indeed, light and fragile as a leaf herself, float away when her slight hold upon the world grew weaker.

Old Behrman with his red eyes plainly streaming, shouted his contempt and derision for such idiotic imaginings.

«Vass!» he cried. «Is dere people in de world mit der foolishness to die because leafs dey drop off from a confounded vine? I haf not heard of such a thing. No, I vill not bose as a model for your fool hermit-dunderhead. Vy do you allow dot silly pusiness to come in der prain of her? Ach, dot poor lettle Miss Yohnsy.»

«She is very ill and weak,» said Sue, «and the fever has left her mind morbid and full of strange fancies. Very well, Mr. Behrman, if you do not care to pose for me, you needn't. But I think you are a horrid old – old flibbertigibbet.»

«You are just like a woman!» yelled Behrman. «Who said I vill not bose? Go on. I come mit you. For half an hour I haf peen trying to say dot I am ready to bose. Gott! dis is not any blace in which one so goot as Miss Yohnsy shall lie sick. Some day I vill baint a masterpiece, and ve shall all go avay. Gott! yes.»

Johnsy was sleeping when they went upstairs. Sue pulled the shade down to the window-sill, and motioned Behrman into the other room. In there they peered out the window fearfully at the ivy vine. Then they looked at each other for a moment without speaking. A persistent, cold rain was falling, mingled with snow. Behrman, in his old blue shirt, took his seat as the hermit-miner on an upturned kettle for a rock.

When Sue awoke from an hour's sleep the next morning she found Johnsy with dull, wide-open eyes staring at the drawn green shade.

«Pull it up; I want to see,» she ordered, in a whisper.

Wearily Sue obeyed.

But, lo! after the beating rain and fierce gusts of wind that had endured through the livelong night, there yet stood out against the brick wall one ivy leaf. It was the last on the vine. Still dark green near its stem, but with its serrated edges tinted with the yellow or dissolution and decay, it hung bravely from a branch some twenty feet above the ground.

«It is the last one,» said Johnsy. «I thought it would surely fall during the night. I heard the wind. It will fall to-day, and I shall die at the same time.»

«Dear, dear!» said Sue, leaning her worn face down to the pillow, «think of me, if you won't think of yourself. What would I do?»

But Johnsy did not answer. The lonesomest thing in all the world is a soul when it is making ready to go on its mysterious, far journey. The fancy seemed to possess her more strongly as one by one the ties that bound her to friendship and to earth were loosed.

The day wore away, and even through the twilight they could see the lone ivy leaf clinging to its stem against the wall. And then, with the coming of the night the north wind was again loosed, while the rain still beat against the windows and pattered down from the low Dutch eaves.

When it was light enough Johnsy, the merciless, commanded that the shade be raised.

The ivy leaf was still there.

Johnsy lay for a long time looking at it. And then she called to Sue, who was stirring her chicken broth over the gas stove.

«I've been a bad girl, Sudie,» said Johnsy. «Something has made that last leaf stay there to show me how wicked I was. It is a sin to want to die. You may bring me a little broth now, and some milk with a little port in it, and – no; bring me a hand-mirror first, and then pack some pillows about me, and I will sit up and watch you cook.»

An hour later she said.

«Sudie, some day I hope to paint the Bay of Naples.»

The doctor came in the afternoon, and Sue had an excuse to go into the hallway as he left.

«Even chances,» said the doctor, taking Sue's thin shaking hand in his. «With good nursing you'll win. And now I must see another case I have downstairs. Behrman, his name is – some kind of an artist, I believe. Pneumonia, too. He is an old, weak man, and the attack is acute. There is no hope for him; but he goes to the hospital to-day to be made more comfortable.»

The next day the doctor said to Sue: «She's out of danger. You've won. Nutrition and care now – that's all.»

And that afternoon Sue came to the bed where Johnsy lay, contentedly knitting a very blue and very useless woolen shoulder scarf, and put one arm around her, pillows and all.

«I have something to tell you, white mouse,» she said. «Mr. Behrman died of pneumonia to-day in the hospital. He was ill only two days. The janitor found him on the morning of the first day in his room downstairs helpless with pain. His shoes and clothing were wet through and icy cold. They couldn't imagine where he had been on such a dreadful night.

And then they found a lantern, still lighted, and a ladder that had been dragged from its place, and some scattered brushes, and a palette with green and

yellow colors mixed on it, and – look out the window, dear, at the last ivy leaf on the wall. Didn't you wonder why it never fluttered or moved when the wind blew? Ah, darling, it's Behrman's masterpiece – he painted it there the night that the last leaf fell.»

I. Phonetics and orthography

1. Explain the change of the root vowels in the plural forms of the following nouns: foot, man, woman.
2. Account for the use of different root-vowels in blood-bleed.
3. Comment on vowel interchange in the root-morphemes of verbs:

a) write-wrote-written, ride-rode-ridden, smite-snots-smitten, find-found-found, begin-began-begun, cling-clang-clung, win-won-won, come-came-come, wear-wore-worn, sit-sat-sat, meet-met-met, get-got-got, speak-spoke-spoken, shake-shook-shaken, take-took-taken, awake-awoke-awoken, draw-drew-drawn, stand-stood-stood, fall-fell-fallen, know-knew-known; b) leave-left-left, keep-kept-kept, sleep-slept-slept; c) put-put-put; d) bring-brought-brought, buy-bought-bought, sell-sold-sold, tell-told-told, think-thought-thought.

4. Explain the use of different consonants in 'leaf' n. (Sg.) – 'leaves' (Pl.), 'leave' v (inf.) – 'left' (Past Tense).
5. Trace up the history of pronunciation and spelling of the word 'eye'.
6. Prove that the groups of words given below comprise cognate words: two, duo (Lat.), два (Russ.), zwei (Germ.); three, три (Russ.); ten, десять (Russ.), taihun (Goth.), zehn (Germ.); cold, kalt (Germ.), gelidus (Lat.). etc.
7. Trace up the history of pronunciation of the verb forms 'was' – 'were'.

II. Morphology and syntax

1. Dwell on the origin of suppletivity in the verbs 'to be' and 'to go'.
2. Comment on the history of analytical verb-forms in the text.
3. Explain the use of the verb form 'am done' used in the sentence: 'Johnsy, dear', said Sue, bending over her, 'will you promise me to keep your eyes closed, and not look out the window until I <u>am done</u> working?' (p. 108).
4. Recall the origin of the mood form used in the subordinate object clause of the following sentences 'When it was light enough, Johnsy, the merciless, commanded that the shade be raised.' (p. 110)
5. Give the Old English form of the word 'woman', define its gender form in Old English, recall the history of gender distinctions in the system of English nouns.
6. Comment on the meaning of the indefinite article in the sentences: 'One street crosses itself a time or two' (p. 105), 'An hour later she said ...' (p. 111). Speak on the history of the indefinite article in English.

7. Define the morphological and the syntactic status of the word ‘one’ and dwell on the history of its development taking into account sentences of the type: ‘There goes another one’ (p. 107), ‘I want to see the last one fall before it gets dark’ (p. 108).
8. What historic change has made the following phrase type productive in Modern English: a pen-and-ink drawing, a magazine story, skeleton branches, shoulder scarf, cloak sleeves, etc.
9. Recall whether complex object constructions that are rather frequent in Modern English (e.g ‘Something has made that last leaf stay there’, were known in Old English.

III. Vocabulary

1. Identify words of Indo-European origin in the text and give their cognates in other Indo-European languages; follow the pattern: ‘two’, a cardinal numeral, is an Indo-European word; its cognates in other Indo-European languages are ‘два’ in Russian, ‘duo’ in Latin, ‘zwei’ in German. The sounds [t] (in ‘two’) and [d] (in ‘два’, ‘duo’) illustrate the action of Grimm’s law; the sound [ts] (in ‘zwei’) is the result of the second shifting of consonants which separated the German language from all the other languages of the Germanic group.
2. Point out all the words of Germanic origin and give their cognates.
3. Write out native and foreign (Latin, Greek, French, German, Italian) words, define their typical features and the degree of assimilation of foreign words.
4. Give examples of native and borrowed suffixes and prefixes (substantival, adjectival and verbal).
5. Why are such words as ‘woman’ and ‘window’ regarded as historically compound words?

Text 4. O. Henry. The Cop and the Anthem (O. Henry. Short Stories, M., 1951, p. 62-69).

On his bench in Madison Square Soapy moved uneasily. When wild geese honk high of nights, and when women without sealskin coats grow kind to their husbands, and when Soapy moves uneasily on his bench in the park, you may know that winter is near at hand.

A dead leaf fell in Soapy’s lap. That was Jack Frost’s card. Jack is kind to the regular denizens of Madison Square, and gives fair warning of his annual call. At the corners of four streets he hands his pasteboard to the North Wind, footman of the mansion of All Outdoors, so that the inhabitants thereof may make ready.

Soapy’s mind became cognizant of the fact that the time had come for him to resolve himself into a singular Committee of Ways and Means to provide against the coming rigour. And therefore he moved uneasily on his bench.

The hibernatorial ambitions of Soapy were not of the highest. In them there were no considerations of Mediterranean cruises, of soporific Southern skies drifting in the Vesuvian Bay. Three months on the Island was what his soul craved. Three months of assured board and bed and congenial company, safe from Boreas and bluecoats, seemed to Soapy the essence of things desirable.

For years the hospitable Blackwell's had been his winter quarters. Just as his more fortunate fellow New Yorkers had bought their tickets to Palm Beach and the Riviera each winter, so Soapy had made his humble arrangements for his annual hegira to the Island. And now the time was come. On the previous night three Sabbath newspapers, distributed beneath his coat, about his ankles and over his lap, had failed to repulse the cold as he slept on his bench near the spurting fountain in the ancient square. So the Island loomed big and timely in Soapy's mind. He scorned the provisions made in the name of charity for the city's dependents. In Soapy's opinion the Law was more benign than Philanthropy. There was an endless round of institutions, municipal and eleemosynary, on which he might set out and receive lodging and food accordant with the simple life. But to one of Soapy's proud spirit the gifts of charity are encumbered. If not in coin you must pay in humiliation of spirit for every benefit received at the hands of philanthropy. As Caesar had his Brutus, every bed of charity must have its toll of a bath, every loaf of bread its compensation of a private and personal inquisition. Therefore it is better to be a guest of the law, which though conducted by rules, does not meddle unduly with a gentleman's private affairs.

Soapy, having decided to go to the Island, at once set about accomplishing his desire. There were many easy ways of doing this. The pleasantest was to dine luxuriously at some expensive restaurant; and then, after declaring insolvency, be handed over quietly and without uproar to a policeman. An accommodating magistrate would do the rest.

Soapy left his bench and strolled out of the square and across the level sea of asphalt, where Broadway and Fifth Avenue flow together. Up Broadway he turned, and halted at a glittering café, where are gathered together nightly the choicest products of the grape, the silkworm and the protoplasm.

Soapy had confidence in himself from the lowest button of his vest upward. He was shaven, and his coat was decent and his neat black, ready-tied four-in-hand had been presented to him by a lady missionary on Thanksgiving Day. If he could reach a table in the restaurant unsuspected success would be his. The portion of him that would show above the table would raise no doubt in the waiter's mind. A roasted mallard duck, thought Soapy, would be about the thing – with a bottle of Chablis, and then Camembert, a demi-tasse and a cigar. One dollar for the cigar would be enough. The total would not be so high as to call forth any supreme manifestation of revenge from the café management; and

yet the meat would leave him filled and happy for the journey to his winter refuge.

But as Soapy set foot inside the restaurant door the head waiter's eye fell upon his frayed trousers and decadent shoes. Strong and ready hands turned him about and conveyed him in silence and haste to the sidewalk and averted the ignoble fate of the menaced mallard.

Soapy turned off Broadway. It seemed that his route to the coveted island was not to be an epicurean one. Some other way of entering limbo must be thought of.

At a corner of Sixth Avenue electric lights and cunningly displayed wares behind plate-glass made a shop window conspicuous. Soapy took a cobblestone and dashed it through the glass. People came running around the corner, a policeman in the lead. Soapy stood still, with his hands in his pockets, and smiled at the sight of brass buttons.

«Where's the man that done that?» inquired the officer excitedly.

«Don't you figure out that I might have had something to do with it?» said Soapy, not without sarcasm, but friendly, as one greets good fortune.

The policeman's mind refused to accept Soapy even as a clue. Men who smash windows do not remain to parley with the law's minions. They take to their heels. The policeman saw a man half way down the block running to catch a car. With drawn club he joined in the pursuit. Soapy, with disgust in his heart, loafed along, twice unsuccessful.

On the opposite side of the street was a restaurant of no great pretensions. It catered to large appetites and modest purses. Its crockery and atmosphere were thick; its soup and napery thin. Into this place Soapy took his accusive shoes and telltale trousers without challenge. At a table he sat and consumed beefsteak, flapjacks, doughnuts and pie. And then to the waiter he betrayed the fact that the minutest coin and himself were strangers.

«Now, get busy and call a cop,» said Soapy. «And don't keep a gentleman waiting.»

«No cop for youse,» said the waiter, with a voice like butter cakes and an eye like the cherry in a Manhattan cocktail. «Hey, Con!»

Neatly upon his left ear on the callous pavement two waiters pitched Soapy. He arose, joint by joint, as a carpenter's rule opens, and beat the dust from his clothes. Arrest seemed but a rosy dream. The Island seemed very far away. A policeman who stood before a drug store two doors away laughed and walked down the street.

Five blocks Soapy travelled before his courage permitted him to woo capture again. This time the opportunity presented what he fatuously termed to himself a «cinch.» A young woman of a modest and pleasing guise was standing before a show window gazing with sprightly interest at its display of shaving mugs and inkstands, and two yards from the window a large policeman of severe demeanour leaned against a water plug.

It was Soapy's design to assume the role of the despicable and execrated «masher.» The refined and elegant appearance of his victim and the contiguity of the conscientious cop encouraged him to believe that he would soon feel the pleasant official clutch upon his arm that would insure his winter quarters on the right little, tight little isle.

Soapy straightened the lady missionary's ready-made tie, dragged his shrinking cuffs into the open, set his hat at a killing cant and sidled toward the young woman. He made eyes at her, was taken with sudden coughs and «Hems,» smiled, smirked and went brazenly through the impudent and contemptible litany of the «masher.» With half an eye Soapy saw that the policeman was watching him fixedly. The young woman moved away a few steps, and again bestowed her absorbed attention upon the shaving mugs. Soapy followed, boldly stepping to her side, raised his hat and said:

«Ah there, Bedelia! Don't you want to come and play in my yard?»

The policeman was still looking. The persecuted young woman had but to beckon a finger and Soapy would be practically en route for his insular haven. Already he imagined he could feel the cozy warmth of the station-house. The young woman faced him and, stretching out a hand, caught Soapy's coat sleeve.

«Sure, Mike,» she said joyfully, «if you'll blow me to a pail of suds. I'd have spoke to you sooner, but the cop was watching.»

With the young woman playing the clinging ivy to his oak Soapy walked past the policeman overcome with gloom. He seemed doomed to liberty.

At the next corner he shook off his companion and ran. He halted in the district where by night are found the lightest streets, hearts, vows and librettos. Women in furs and men in greatcoats moved gaily in the wintry air. A sudden fear seized Soapy that some dreadful enchantment had rendered him immune to arrest. The thought brought a little of panic upon it, and when he came upon another policeman lounging grandly in front of a transplendent theatre he caught at the immediate straw of «disorderly conduct.»

On the sidewalk Soapy began to yell drunken gibberish at the top of his harsh voice. He danced, howled, raved and otherwise disturbed the welkin.

The policeman twirled his club, turned his back to Soapy and remarked to a citizen.

«'Tis one of them Yale lads celebratin' the goose egg they give to the Hartford College. Noisy; but no harm. We've instructions to leave them be.»

Disconsolate, Soapy ceased his unavailing racket. Would never a policeman lay hands on him? In his fancy the Island seemed an unattainable Arcadia. He buttoned his thin coat against the chilling wind.

In a cigar store he saw a well-dressed man lighting a cigar at a swinging light. His silk umbrella he had set by the door on entering. Soapy stepped inside, secured the umbrella and sauntered off with it slowly. The man at the cigar light followed hastily.

«My umbrella,» he said, sternly.

«Oh, is it?» sneered Soapy, adding insult to petit larceny. «Well, why don't you call a policeman? I took it. Your umbrella! Why don't you call a cop? There stands one on the corner.»

The umbrella owner slowed his steps. Soapy did likewise, with a presentiment that luck would again run against him. The policeman looked at the two curiously.

«Of course,» said the umbrella man – «that is – well, you know how these mistakes occur – I – if it's your umbrella I hope you'll excuse me – I picked it up this morning in a restaurant – if you recognize it as yours, why – I hope you'll–»

«Of course it's mine,» said Soapy, viciously.

The ex-umbrella man retreated. The policeman hurried to assist a tall blonde in an opera cloak across the street in front of a street car that was approaching two blocks away.

Soapy walked eastward through a street damaged by improvements. He hurled the umbrella wrathfully into an excavation. He muttered against the men who wear helmets and carry clubs. Because he wanted to fall into their clutches, they seemed to regard him as a king who could do no wrong.

At length Soapy reached one of the avenues to the east where the glitter and turmoil was but faint. He set his face down this toward Madison Square, for the homing instinct survives even when the home is a park bench.

But on an unusually quiet corner Soapy came to a standstill. Here was an old church, quaint and rambling and gabled. Through one violet-stained window a soft light glowed, where, no doubt, the organist loitered over the keys, making sure of his mastery of the coming Sabbath anthem. For there drifted out to Soapy's ears sweet music that caught and held him transfixed against the convolutions of the iron fence.

The moon was above, lustrous and serene; vehicles and pedestrians were few; sparrows twittered sleepily in the eaves – for a little while the scene might have been a country churchyard. And the anthem that the organist played cemented Soapy to the iron fence, for he had known it well in the days when his life contained such things as mothers and roses and ambitions and friends and immaculate thoughts and collars.

The conjunction of Soapy's receptive state of mind and the influences about the old church wrought a sudden and wonderful change in his soul. He viewed with swift horror the pit into which he had tumbled, the degraded days, unworthy desires, dead hopes, wrecked faculties and base motives that made up his existence.

And also in a moment his heart responded thrillingly to this novel mood. An instantaneous and strong impulse moved him to battle with his desperate fate. He would pull himself out of the mire; he would make a man of himself again; he would conquer the evil that had taken possession of him. There was time; he was comparatively young yet; he would resurrect his old eager

ambitions and pursue them without faltering. Those solemn but sweet organ notes had set up a revolution in him. To-morrow he would go into the roaring downtown district and find work. A fur importer had once offered him a place as driver. He would find him to-morrow and ask for the position. He would be somebody in the world. He would–

Soapy felt a hand laid on his arm. He looked quickly around into the broad face of a policeman.

«What are you doin' here?» asked the officer.

«Nothin',» said Soapy.

«Then come along,» said the policeman.

«Three months on the Island,» said the Magistrate in the Police Court the next morning.

I. Phonetics and Orthography

1. Find illustrations of the action of Grimm's law and Verner's law.
2. Look for the traces of i-Umlaut in the text.
3. Compare the reading of the grapheme 'o' in the following words: so, to, not, move, come, month, provide, hospitable, for; dwell on the history of sounds indicated by the letter 'o'.
4. Compare the pronunciation of the digraph 'ea' in the words: bread, dead, ready vs. leaf, meat, uneasily.
5. Trace up the history of the diphthong [al] in the words: high, kind, mind, night, time.
6. Dwell on the history of spelling and pronunciation of the words: 'busy' and 'eye'.
7. Comment on the instances of the mute letter 'l'.

II. Morphology

1. Comment on the history of the plurals of the following nouns: foot (feet), goose (geese), man (men), woman (women); leaf (leaves), loaf (loaves); life (lives); name (names, cnf. with OE naman); mother (mothers).
2. Trace up the history of personal pronouns used in the text.
3. Trace up the history of the demonstrative pronouns 'this' and 'that' and the history of the definite article.
4. Comment on the following forms of degrees of comparison of adjectives: pleasantest, choicest, lowest, highest, better, older vs. elder.
5. Trace up the history of the following verb-forms: fill-filled-filled; hope-hoped-hoped; look-looked-looked; make-made-made; have-had-had; say-said-said; set-set-set; leave-left-left; sleep-slept-slept; buy-bought-bought; catch-caught-caught; think-thought-thought; do-did-done; go-went-gone; be-was-were; arise-arose-arisen; run-ran-run; come-came-come; give-gave-

given; speak-spoke-spoken; sit-sat-sat; take-took-taken; shake-shook-shaken; stand-stood-stood; may-might; can-could.

6. Define the morphological status of the verb-form ‘was come’ used in the sentence ‘And now the time was come’ (p. 63).
7. Dwell on the history of analytical verb-forms used in the text (had come, has been, are gathered, was shaven, would show, was standing, will excuse, are doing, etc.)

III. Vocabulary

1. Find words of Latin origin in the text and classify them according to periods of borrowing.
2. Speak on fully and partially assimilated borrowings in the text.
3. Trace up the history of most productive nominal and verbal suffixes and prefixes used in the text.

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with a Supplement

(Diachronic Text Analysis)

Краткий курс

истории английского языка

с приложением по диахронической интерпретации текста

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