NIGAR VALIYEVA

An Introduction to the History of Global English

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An Introduction to the History of Global English

A Sociolinguistic Approach

A Resource Book for Masters of the Azerbaijan University of Languages

Author **Prof. Nigar Chingiz q. Valiyeva**
Azerbaijan University of Languages

Reviewers: **Prof. Oleq Yuriyevich Kuznetsov**
Honorary Doctor of the Institute of History and the Institute of Human Rights of ANAS of Russian Federation

Prof. Ema Petrović-Miljković,
Faculty of Philology
Belgrade University

Prof. Qazanfar Pashayev
Honored Scientist of ANAS

An Introduction to the History of the Modern English Language is very actual band useful for research as English is Global International language. The course will offer an overview of important changes within each period of the history of English at different levels of language, including spelling, grammar and vocabulary. Linguistic changes will be studied in conjunction with historical and cultural events, such as the Norman Conquest or the introduction of printing in England by William Caxton.

An Introduction provides a chronological analysis of the linguistic, social, and cultural development of the English language from before its establishment in Britain around the year 450 to the present, that is it represents a linguistic subject of history, origin, development and future of English based on the method of linguistic analysis.

An Introductory Course to the History of Modern Global English aims at emphasizing on the major, most influential and interesting events within each period, such as the adoption Latin writing by Anglo-Saxons, the multilingual situation in England after the Norman Conquest, the Great Vowel Shift, standardization efforts in Early Modern English, and the development of English as an international language and as a language of electronic media.

An Introduction to the History of Global English provides an intelligent and accessible synthesis of modern sociolinguistic approaches to the development of the English language.

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P R E F A C E

There is no future without the history.

Dear Students of the Azerbaijan University of Languages, presented to your attention the "An Introduction to the History of Global English" in former times was the Compulsory Subject as "History of English", but nowadays it is selective subject and appropriately it is a Resource Book today.

Gradual transition to modern higher education in the Azerbaijan Republic, particularly the successful application of the Master's Degree in higher education institutions, provided the opportunity for more in-depth training of the "Introduction to the History of Global English". For this reason, while preparing the program of the "Introduction to the History of Global English", we have tried to incorporate the German Linguistics into the program with full details of all the stages of the English language history, beginning with its ancient relationships.

Undoubtedly, "An Introduction to the History of Global English" has theoretical and practical significance. It helps to increase the linguistic outlook of students and provides a more comprehensive understanding of the language development trends. The author approaches the study of language history as an interdisciplinary field, in which various aspects: ethnolinguistic, typological, systemic, complement each other.

The textbook provides a system of concepts for such a study with respect to the interaction between ethnogenetic (external) and linguistic (internal) phenomena shaping the structural type of the English language system. The author applies these concepts to the description of typologically relevant changes in phonology,

morphology, syntax, and lexicon as well as the developmental stages of ethnogenetic influences.

The organization of materials enables the reader to reveal and trace the logic of the language history through analyses of textual evidence. The textbook is supplemented with carefully selected materials: summarizing tables and pictures, maps, a glossary and bibliographical references.

The textbook is intended for university teachers, graduate and post-graduate students specializing in Linguistics or doing interdisciplinary research as well as all learners of English who are interested in the subject.

The object of the proposed subject is the historical development stages of the English language from the common German period to the present time. The "An Introduction to the History of Global English" is being taught only at Azerbaijan University of Languages.

The aim of the course "An Introduction to the History of Global English" is a description of the historical changes in the English language, as a continuous process of language system's internal and external factors.

During the course, the master is not only satisfied with learning basic English Phonetics, Grammar and Lexicon, but also has the ability to describe the specific features of the modern language from the point of view of historical development.

In the process of teaching the course, modern linguistic sciences use the General Linguistics, including the achievements of the German Linguistics, and clarifications from the works of foreign linguists during the review and interpretation of specific problems.

"An Introduction to the History of Global English" teaches the 45-hours - 6 credit lessons, with more advanced and detailed language skills taught by students at the bachelor's theoretical and practical courses.

The history of the English language, of course, dates back to the time when the writing sources of this language (VII century) were very ancient. It is necessary to get acquainted with some facts of the history of the German language before the written period in order to find out where and where the English language is, which languages it is, when and how it has its own particular qualities.

Such facts include the work of ancient historians, geographers, especially Romans, in traveler's memories, and so on. It is possible to come across. However, the main source is the scientific analysis of old English texts, which have come to the modern era, and the historical reconstruction processes on their basis. Comparison of existing and reconstructed forms helps to clarify the historical similarities and differences between languages, including the subsequent development of the English language.

By studying the historical development of the language, every master, as well as a future teacher, can explain the incompatibility between the spelling and orthoepian rules that do not clarify the contemporary English language from the historical perspective of its grammatical rules.

In order to prepare highly qualified future specialists for independent scientific and pedagogical activity, students also have the ability to interpret the historical substitution, changes in the English language, the historical interpretation of this or that language phenomenon, the critical approach to their theoretical and methodological considerations great attention is paid.

Students will get acquainted with the current state of English language study, common problems and methodology of language phenomena, and interconnection between contemporary English and ancient or medieval English.

The purpose of the subject is to teach students how to systematize and analyze some of the changes they are making, to interpret them on the background of common language development, to understand the basic concepts of the subject, to develop masters' ability to use scientific literature and various historical

dictionaries, to observe events and to draw conclusions on specific language material and to instill knowledge and skills on this path.

Suggested to your attention this monograph is devoted to the learning of the specific peculiarities of the the analysis of the ancient and middle English texts written in different historical stages, is explained by the saliencies and delicacy of the language phenomena taking place in the historical development stages of English. At the same time, the main theoretical problems that are difficult to describe in this lesson are discussed. After every lecture there are several questions on topic.

Masters, who are interested in the German Philology and historical problems of the English language, continue to study the individual subjects of this subject in depth. They prepare scientific reports for the Student Scientific Society conferences and write a dissertation on this or that problem.

The list of literature recommended at the end of the book on the "An Introduction to the History of Global English" subject is given. The list of the most important literature in terms of importance is shown in the main section.

The Master's Degree aims to study the subject of "An Introduction to the History of Global English" in a more profound and purposeful manner in line with the goals and objectives of the education.

The monograph is comprehensive, sophisticated, but accessible text with number of current controversies in this field. This book communicates to the student that the field is ongoing and vital, and introduces various issues which are not settled yet.

"An Introduction to the History of Global English" is written for the modern English language teachers, linguists, masters, postgraduates, respondents, scientists and all people who is interested in English learning due to the intercultural communication while the process of globalization and its influence on the national

language, culture and consciousness. It is also useful mean for the specialists of the Lexicology, Grammar, Stylistics, Pragmatics, Logic, Linguaculturology, Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics.

Up to now several historic monographs were brought out. But we must point out the difference of the some Historic Linguistics. It aims to construct Language Families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages, also to maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts.

Summarizing all the above-said it is necessary to emphasize that the modern teaching of the History of Global English during intercultural communication is very actual today. This material is a collection of lectures on in-depth study of the historical development of modern global English.

Presented to Your attention material is compendium of the Lectures on the History of Global English.

Course Description:

This is a course in which we will examine the origin and development of the English language, from its earliest beginnings in the misty past, through Old English or Anglo-Saxon, Middle English, Early Modern English, and Present Day English, and across the post-modern globe.

This course will provide students with a foundation in the History and Linguistics of the English language. The course will emphasize social, political, and other external historical events influencing language change, as well as the internal history of the language.

Attention will be given to the various language systems (personal identity, phonetics, phonology, morphology, graphics, syntax, lexicon, language variation, historical linguistics, language and the brain, and semantics), as well as to the literature from the different historical periods.

The course offers an introduction to English language history, paying attention to language changes, language contact, and the development into a modern national language in particular. An introduction is also given to the main characteristics of Old English and Middle English.

Each chapter represents a new stage in the development of the language from Old English through Middle English to Modern Global English, with diverse selection of primary texts showing changes in language resulting from contact, conquest and domination, and the expansion of English around the world.

An Introduction to the History of Global English goes beyond the usual focus on English in the UK and the USA to include the wider global course of the language during and following the Early Modern English period. This perspective therefore also includes a historical review of English in its pidgin and creole varieties and as a native or second language in the Caribbean, Africa, Asia, and Australasia.

Course Scope:

Over the course of the semester, you will learn how English emerged as a distinct language from a mix of various Germanic forms with later influences from a wide variety of language groups.

We will touch on the development of the lexicon, pronunciation, spelling, and grammar from Old English to the various dialects that span the globe today. Particular attention will be given to gender differentiation, social variation, and regional variation in preparation for the final essay.

Course Outline:

The course consists of **twenty five** topics, which represent introduction and conclusion to assist study.

Course Overview:

This syllabus provides a general outline proposal for creating courses for the II-year Masters to provide them with comprehensive knowledge of the Introductory Course to the History of Modern Global English.

Course Objectives:

The main tasks of the course are:

* To illustrate the historical change in the English language as a manifestation of general laws.

* To reconstruct the pre-history of languages and determine their relatedness, grouping them into language families.

* To study the history of words.

* To explain the characteristics and trends of such facts in an integral context with the existence of the English language.

* To provide a historical explanation of the main features of the modern language system that has been generated since centuries of development.

* To increase understanding of language resources and structures.

* To describe and account for observed changes in English.

* To evaluate the main influences that combined to push Old English forward as a distinct language.

* To demonstrate familiarity with advanced linguistic terminology as a foundation for further study.

* To assess the key ways in which the language continues to evolve to meet the needs of different communities of speakers.

* To categorize and justify the ways in which cultural, social, and historical differences have influenced the development of modern English.

* To appraise the various influences on spelling and language reform.

* Through short reading and writing assignments, build skills in linguistic analysis.

* To engage in thoughtful discussion with academic peers via discussion forum posts.

* To write a thoughtful, well-organized essay that analyzes language in one (or two) works of literature, for instance, the ways language defines gender, social class, and region.

Learning Outcomes:

By the end of the course the masters should be able to:

* have a fair knowledge of the main lines of development of written English from approimately 700 AD to modern times;

* know the most important changes in the fields of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics;

* know the basic structure of Old English, Middle English and Early Modern English grammar; to this end, you will have studied the most central characteristics of the language of the syllabus texts;

* be able to describe and date linguistic changes;

* know various approaches to historic investigations of the German languages;

* discuss the concepts of various different historic approaches critically;

* define the different historic classifications of the related languages;

* choose units of different levels of the language in accordance with appropriate linguistic contexts;

* be philologically competent to apply linguistic, especially historic analysis to different levels of the language.

Instructional Methods:

Methods of instruction might include the following:

1. Drills and question-answer sessions.

2. Frequent quizzes and objective tests which help students to build skills and understanding in the areas of greatest need.

Language of examination:

The examination text is given in English, and you submit your response in English.

Special examination arrangements:

Application form, deadline and requirements for special examination arrangements.

Evaluation:

The course is subject to continuous evaluation. At regular intervals we also ask students to participate in a more comprehensive evaluation.

GENERAL NOTES on the HISTORY of the MODERN GLOBAL ENGLISH

The modern world is developing towards globalization. In this regard, the issues about the role and the place of intercultural communication become an integral part of life both the humankind in general, as well as for the individual. Intercultural communication between peoples is an integral attribute of the human society development. Not a single country, even the one considered most powerful in political and economic aspect, can meet cultural and aesthetic requests and needs of the humankind without applying to the world cultural heritage, spiritual heritage of other countries and peoples.

Two lines of evidence converge to suggest that the origins of human language lie in the very, very deep past.

First, all humans, no matter how isolated they are or how primitive their society is, have language, and the languages of primitive societies are not structurally any less developed or complex than those of more technologically advanced cultures.

Second, casts of the insides of fossil skulls showthe presence of Broca's and Wernicke's areas, key brain structures devoted to language, in very early hominid skulls that are up to two million years old.

Most researchers conclude that humans have had language as long as there have been humans, and some even hypothesize that the development of language was the major evolutionary leap that separated humans from their closest ape relatives. But the sounds of language disappear as soon as they are uttered, so there

are no records of all those millennia of talking until we reach the relatively recent past, in which writing was developed. And because writing was only developed once, possibly twice, and then spread throughout human culture, many cultures only had memory and oral tradition with which to preserve their languages.

Even though oral tradition can preserve some information about old languages, it cannot preserve very much when the language changes sufficiently. Thus, most of the information we would like to have about human language and history is lost due to want of writing.

Interaction of the History of English course with other disciplines and sciences is obvious. History is a study of the various facts of human life and is closely linked with other social sciences which make a specific study of different facts of human life.

Today we use English, the origin and development of which begins from 450 AD to the modern global language. The story of English from its start in jumble of West Germanic dialects to its role today as a global language is both fascinating and complex.

For a long time the histories of languages seemed to have been lost forever. But several remarkable developments in the late XVIII-th and XIX-th centuries allowed researchers to reconstruct long-lost languages and to begin piecing together a history of human migration and conquest that had never been written down.

It began with ***Sir William Jones*** in 1786. Jones, who had worked with ***Benjamin Franklin*** at one point to try to negotiate the differences between the colonies and England, was a judge in India and ancient Indian language of Sanskrit and recognized that it must be in someway related to both Latin and Greek and also to Persian, Gothic, and the Celtic languages. His “The Third Anniversary Discourse, on the Hindus” is often seen as the beginning of Comparative Historical Linguistics:

The Sanscrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong, indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists.

Jones's work implied that all of the various languages he had mentioned had once been connected, and he inspired subsequent researchers to attempt to deduce the relationships of the languages and the form of the language that must have been their common ancestor.

Scholars called this proto-language Indo-European to indicate that the language family included most of the languages of Europe: Hungarian, Finnish, and Estonian are exceptions, and those of India.

The German scholar ***Franz Bopp*** was the first to work out some of the relationships between languages, demonstrating not just that Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit were related, but showing how they were related: he focused on comparative grammar, analyzing the way the different languages accomplished similar grammatical tasks.

Rasmus Rask, a Danish philologist, recognized that there were regular sound shifts between languages, but it was left to a German scholar, ***Jakob Grimm***, who with his brother ***Wilhelm*** is now remembered for his Fairy-Tale collection, to deduces that there were regular rules of sound change.

Grimm's Law, which we discussed in lecture nine, explains the systematic ways that sounds changed between languages. For example, the evolution of Indo-European into various other language groups was characterized by certain specific sound changes: Words that begin in "p" in Italic languages such as Latin begin with "f" in Germanic languages.

Grimm's Law, and its subsequent elaborations by other scholars, most importantly the Danish linguist ***Karl Verner***, who deduced Verner's Law, gave scholars the tools to reconstruct the family tree of the Indo-European languages.

The basic strategy was to figure out the ancestral sound-changes, such as that from "p" to "f" in Germanic languages, and then run them in reverse: If you had a word beginning in "f" in English, it was likely to have begun with a "p" in Proto-Indo-European. Through years and years of painstaking work, scholars were ableto figure out how most European languages related to each other and what their ancestors must have been.

We can look at the history of a language in two main ways:

1) **Externally,** where, why and by whom the language was used; the political and social factors causing change;

2) **Internally**, i.e. the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and written appearance of the language; the motivations for change arising from the structure of the language itself.

I'll structure my discussion around the conventional division of the History of English into four main periods: Old, Middle, Early Modern English and Present-Day English.

The **Old English** (OE) period can be regarded as starting around AD 450, with the arrival of West Germanic settlers (Angles, Saxons and Jutes) in southern Britain. They brought with them dialects closely related to the continental language varieties which would produce modern German, Dutch and Frisian.

This Germanic basis for English can be seen in much of our everyday vocabulary – compare "heart" (OE "heorte"), "come" (OE "cuman") and "old" (OE "eald") with German "Herz", "kommen" and "alt".

Many grammatical features also date back to this time: irregular verbs such as “drink ~ drank ~ drunk” (OE “drincan~ dranc ~ (ge)druncen”) parallel German “trinken ~ trank ~ getrunken”. Similarly, many OE pronunciations are preserved in modern spellings e.g. “knight” (OE “cniht”, German “Knecht”), in which “k” would have been pronounced and “gh” sounded like “ch” in Scots “loch”.

OE, also called Anglo-Saxon, was not heavily influenced by the Celtic languages spoken by the native inhabitants of the British Isles, borrowing only a few words, like: “brock, tor”, associated with local wildlife and geography, but many place and river names, like: “Dover, Avon”.

However, Latin, introduced to Britain by the Romans, and reinforced in its influence by the conversion of the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity during the VII-th century, had a significant impact, providing both vocabularies, like: “master, mass, school”, and the basis for the writing system.

OE was mostly written using the Latin alphabet, supplemented by a few Germanic runic letters to represent sounds not found in Latin, for example: “þ”, which represented the “th” sounds in “thin” or “this”. A relic of “þ” survives as “y” in modern signs like “Ye Olde Tea Shoppe”.

The later Viking settlements in many parts of the British Isles also resulted in substantial borrowing of basic vocabulary: “sky”, “get” and “they” derive from Old Norse. An example of Old English text can be seen in the Start of Anglo-Saxon epic poem Beowulf (manuscript c.1000 AD).

Norse influence may also have contributed to an important grammatical change, which mainly occurred in English between the XI-th and XIV-th centuries, and which marked the transition to **Middle English** (ME) conventionally dated c.1100-1500. OE had indicated many grammatical categories and relationships by attaching inflections (endings) to word roots, in a similar way to Latin or German.

Thus, in the OE clause “wolde guman findan” - “he wanted to find the man”, the “-e” on “wolde” indicates a third person singular subject: “he wanted”; the “-n” on “guman” indicates that “the ma” is the object, not the subject of the verb; and the “-an” on “findan” indicates an infinitive: “to find”.

In ME, changes in the pronunciation of unstressed syllables, mainly occurring at the ends of words, caused most inflections to merge indistinguishably, or be dropped altogether. This inflectional breakdown could have created ambiguity, for example: “wanted man find”, but speakers compensated by using more rigid word order, like: “subject – verb – object”, usually, among other strategies.

Another important feature of the early ME period was the influence of Norman (and later, central) French, following the Norman conquest of 1066. French dominance and prestige in such contexts as the royal court, law, the church and education encouraged extensive borrowing of vocabulary, like: French words for farmed animals “pork”, “beef” and “mutton” (modern French “porc”, “bœuf” and “mouton”) were adopted alongside native words “swine”, “cow” and “sheep”. “Who are you calling pork?” “Pig in the New Forest”.

The borrowed words came to signify only the meat of these animals, mainly eaten by wealthier French speakers, whereas the words inherited from OE came to refer only to the living animals. Norman scribes also influenced the way English was written, respelling words using conventions from French; thus OE “îs” became “ice”, “cwçn” became “queen”.

However, by the XIV-th and XV-th centuries, French influence in Britain had begun to wane, being replaced for many purposes by English. An example of Middle English text can be seen in the start of Chaucer’s Canterbury Tales (manuscript early XV-th century).

Modern English (ME) can be regarded externally as starting with the introduction of printing. Caxton’s selection of an East Midlands, London variety of

English for the first printed books at the end of the XV-th century, contributed to the development of a standardised variety of the language with fixed spelling and punctuation conventions and accepted vocabulary and grammatical forms.

The perception of this standard variety as correct, "good" English was also supported by attempts at codification, notably Johnson's dictionary and many prescriptive grammars of the XVIII-th century.

The vocabulary of English was consciously elaborated as it came to be used for an increasing variety of purposes, including translations of classical works rediscovered in the Renaissance, a burgeoning creative literature, and the description of new scientific activities. Thousands of words were borrowed from Latin and Greek in this period, for example "education, metamorphosis, critic, conscious".

An internal feature which characterised the movement towards ME was the Great Vowel Shift – an important series of linked pronunciation changes, which mainly took place between the XV-th and XVII-th centuries.

In ME, the sound system had contained broadly corresponding series of long and short vowels, represented in writing by the same letters. For instance, the vowel in "caas" – "case" was simply a longer version of the vowel in "blak" – "black"; similarly "mete" - "meat" (long vowel) and "hell" (short vowel), or "fine" (long) and "pit" (short).

In early ME, people began to pronounce the long vowels differently from the corresponding short vowels: long [e] ended up sounding like long [i], leaving a gap in the sound system; this was filled by shifting the pronunciation of long [a] to sound like long [e], and so on.

These changes were not reflected in ME spelling, already largely fixed by standardisation, adding to the disparity between pronunciation and writing which differentiates English today from most other European languages. An example of

early Modern English can be seen in the start of W.Shakespeare's "Hamlet"; First Folio (printed 1623).

In the present day, English is used in many parts of the world, as a first, second or foreign language, having been carried from its country of origin by former colonial and imperial activity, the slave trade, and recently, economic, cultural and educational prestige.

It continues to change at all linguistic levels, in both standard and non-standard varieties, in response to external influences, for example: modern communications technologies; contact with other world languages, and pressures internal to the language system, for instance: the continuing impulse towards an efficient, symmetrical sound-system; the avoidance of grammatical ambiguity.

We need not fear or resist such change, though many people do, since the processes operating now are comparable to those which have operated throughout the observable and reconstructable history of English, and indeed of all other languages.

Lecture 1. Introduction to the Course.

1. The Origin and History of the English Language.

2. The Historical Study of Language, Methods and Approaches.

The chief reason for grouping the Indo-European languages together is that they share a number of items of basic vocabulary, including grammatical affixes, whose shapes in the different languages can be related to one another by statable phonetic rules. Especially important are the shared patterns of alternation of sounds.

It is well-known that the foundations of language are brain, development, and acquisition. Six speakers of non-Asian languages even to hear; Khoi-san and other African languages rely on click sounds that are not phonemes in many other languages. English has numerous exceptions to all of its rules and adopts new vocabulary so readily that dictionaries must be constantly updated. And yet take a tiny child from any linguistic environment, bring him or her to another linguistic environment, and essentially do nothing except carry on normal behavior and the child will grow up as a fluent speaker of the new language.

Before the age of six children learn new languages effortlessly. There seems to be no upper limit to the number of languages that can be learned this way, and not only can children learn as many languages as they are exposed to, but they also never seem to confuse languages: A child growing up in a bilinguall environment can switch easily from, say, Azerbaijani to English, Azerbaijani to Russian, Finnish to Swedish or Spanish to English or Polish to Russian without confusing the two languages or making fundamental mistakes in grammar. Multilingual people can do this switching without confusion. And yet adults can study languages for decades and not achieve perfect pronunciation.

Where does language come from? If it is a completely “natural” phenomenon, why do we have six thousand world languages? If language is a completely “cultural” phenomenon, why is it the common capability of every human? Why can even people who are unable to hear or speak develop complex language? Why do we speak a language different from that of our ancestors? Why do some people, even within America, speaking English, use different words for the same things?

Tracing language from the brain, through the throat and mouth and out into the world, examining the ways it changes over time and space, in the end, although we will not have all the answers, we will have a much better idea about how language works and how this supremely human achievement helps make us what we are.

We will start off with the very big picture - the logical structures of languages, the ways linguistic sounds are produced, the connection between sound and meaning, the power of syntax, and then zoom in to the particular ways English puts together sound and meaning. Interwoven throughout the entire argument will be the history of English, a language that began among a small group of relatively primitive forest-dwellers many thousands of years ago in the north of Europe and has expanded to become the first truly global language.

We could begin our discussion of language with mathematics, with the types of communications systems that can be described mathematically. The key ideas in this field were developed by ***Claude Shannon*** and ***Warren Weaver***, who were researchers for Bell Labs (the telephone company) in 1949.

C.Shannon and W.Weaver demonstrated mathematically how much information could be transmitted through a wire; in other words, what was the maximum amount of information that could be conveyed through a certain “bandwidth.”

Other mathematicians and logicians took up where ***C.Shannon*** and ***W.Weaver*** left off and developed the discipline of information theory. But

information theory is a bit beyond the scope of this course, particularly since we are able to do most of our thinking about language without having to rely upon information theory. Instead, we will begin with the brain, where language begins. Surprisingly, language study did not always start with the brain.

In the Middle Ages, language was thought to be a gift from God, and for about two thousand years the explanation for the existence of multiple languages came pretty much unchanged from Genesis and the Tower of Babel story. But in 1861 the French physician ***Pierre Paul Broca*** discovered that a certain part of the brain (in the inferior frontal gyrus of the frontal lobe of the cortex) was connected to speech.

P.P.Broca dissected the brain of a person with aphasia and noticed a lesion in that particular area. People with damage to Broca's area are able to produce words, but not grammatical speech. People with damage to another part of the brain called Wernicke's area (in the left posterior section of the superior temporal gyrus) have a different kind of aphasia: They produce normal-sounding speech that makes no sense; it has the rhythm of regular speech but has no meaning.

The discovery of Broca's and Wernicke's area, and the study by many doctors and linguists of speech impairments, led to the understanding that language is not simply produced in the brain, but in very specific parts of the brain. In other words, we have a "language organ."

The neurobiological study of language is one of the fastest-moving areas in contemporary linguistic researches. PET (positron emission tomography) and FMRI (functional magnetic resonance imaging) scans allow researchers to see which areas of the brain are functioning when an individual does different kinds of linguistic processing. Studies of stroke victims and sufferers of brain injuries have also allowed neurolinguists to map the brain in more detail.

So the brain generates language in some way that we are still figuring out. Then what happens? The signals from the brain travel down to the throat, mouth,

lips, and lungs. We produce sounds by forcing air out of the chest and through folds in the throat the vocal cords, and then modifying the sounds thus produced by changing the arrangements of the vocal tract, which includes the throat, tongue, mouth, lips, and palate.

Further we will discuss this movement called articulation, in much more detail, but for now it is simply important to note that the brain generates impulses that are then transmuted into sound by the movement of air through the vocal tract. These sounds travel through the air into the ears of a listener, where the sound impulses are converted back into electrical impulses in the brain.

Of course, this really does not explain very much, as it leaves out the really important elements of which sounds are chosen by the brain, how they are arranged, and how the hearer decodes them. The brain obviously chooses sound combinations that are meaningful in some language, but how does the brain know this?

By being exposed to that language enough to learn it. Thus, we get to the biggest "which came first, the chicken or the egg?" problem since the original "chicken and the egg" problem: How did language arise? There are a variety of theories, and they are all bad.

Some researchers think that language came from imitation of sounds (the "ding dong") theory, others from the need to keep groups of people in rhythm (the "yo hee ho" theory).We simply do not know, as humans have been using spoken language far, far longer than they have been using writing.

We do know that once a language exists, exposing a young child's mind to that language results in the child learning the language. The language organ is clearly universal: Take a baby from an American family to China and put that child with a Chinese-speaking family and that child will grow up speaking fluent Chinese.

But wait too long, and bring an adult to China, and that adult will not even be able to distinguish key aspects of Chinese, such as rising and falling tones. The difficulty that adult Japanese speakers have in distinguishing “L” and “R”, for example, has led to many unpleasant ethnic jokes and also World War II-era attempts to separate out Japanese Americans from potential spies based on the pronunciation of “L” and “R” words. So we can conclude that the language organ is both hard-wired and programmable.

Our best research suggests that the brain’s language capability is completely open until the age of six. Then, between six and puberty, there is a bit less flexibility. After puberty something hardens in the brain and it becomes far more difficult to learn new languages without a great deal of complex intellectual material (i.e., memorizing paradigms, figuring out parallels, understanding rules) that children do not need in order to pick up a language.

But, as anyone who has spent time around a young child knows, children do not pick up language completely and immediately. The field of Developmental Linguistics investigates the ways children learn languages, and this investigation has shown us much about how the brain works in general.

It all begins with sounds. Babies babble, repeating sounds like “da, da, da,” or “ma, ma, ma.” Research shows that babies can babble any sound in any of the world’s languages, but they rapidly restrict their babbling to the sounds that make up the language that is spoken around them.

Sound acquisition continues throughout language development. Although babies can babble any given sound from any language, they cannot combine all of these sounds in any order. Neither can older children, which is why “baby talk” is often characterized by phenomena such as consonant cluster simplification, in which groups of consonants, such as those at the beginning of the word “squirrel,” are simplified; “squirrel” becomes “skel,” “truck” becomes “tuck.”

These processes of substitution are the same as those that go into language change in general. Around the age of one year, children begin to use one-word utterances, moving from sounds to words. These words are, at the beginning, nearly all nouns. Then follow the verbs, and then other words that can be combined with nouns and verbs: adjectives and adverbs.

The two-word stage lasts for a while, with children able to communicate through expressions like “my book”or “more milk” or “Daddy give.” There is no separate three- or four-word stage, but at around the age of two and a half years, expressions very rapidly become more complex. The child learns to use single clauses and (in English) distinguishes between subjects and objects: “Mitchell bites sister” is distinct from “Sister bites Mitchell.”

The child is thus moving from merely words to rules (to use the language break down given by linguist ***Steven Pinker*** in his book by the title). Rules apply not only to the large-scale structure of the sentence, like the difference between subject and object, but also to the words themselves.

Thus, children first learn to make a present progressive verb (running, playing, going), then to use the prepositions “in” and “on,” then to make plurals, and then to use irregular forms like “went” or “came.” Later they pick up possessives, use “is” and “was,” then articles “a” and “the” and so on through a predictable sequence.

We know children are not just memorizing what they hear and repeating it back because of the mistakes they make: the adults around them are not making the mistakes, so the children cannot be imitating them. For instance, children will somehow learn the rule that you make a past-tense verb in English by adding “-ed” (this is called a dental preterite) and for a while they add the “-ed” ending everywhere, so you get “he eated” or “sister runned” or “kitty sleeped.”

Likewise children learn that an “s” ending means a plural, so they produce “tooths,” “mans,” “gooses,” and “foots.” Many of the more amusing language errors made by children come from the over generalization of rules.

Eventually, of course, children learn all the rules of the language and produce perfectly grammatical and well-pronounced sentences as native speakers. But on their way to achieving that virtuosity, they produce a great deal of malformed, incorrect words and sentences.

Some theorists believe that these errors are the raw material from which language change arises. There is some good evidence to suggest that new languages arise in groups of children, rather than among adults. Hawaiian Creole is the most famous example. During the colonization of Hawaii, speakers of Spanish, Portuguese, Chinese (Cantonese), Japanese, and other languages mingled on the island with native Hawaiian speakers.

A “pidgin” language soon developed so that all of these different speakers could communicate, “pidgin” languages usually lack complex syntax and vocabulary. But the children of these workers of many languages began to communicate in a different language entirely: Hawaiian Creole has all the complexity and richness of any other language, and it appears to have arisen in a single generation.

Linguists theorize that children who spoke different languages at home were exposed to so many different languages at their play that they began to spontaneously develop an entirely new language out of the old ones. Many theorists believe that language evolves this way among children.

Others believe that languages develop the same ways as biological species: some event or a geographic barrier separates person from each other and each spoken language accumulates a variety of changes. After a long enough separation, the new language is so different from its source and from other languages that have developed separately that the languages are no longer mutually understandable.

The best evidence for this theory comes from the languages of Papua New Guinea, a relatively small island in which 820 languages are currently spoken. Mountain ranges, difficult terrain, and climate variation divide New Guinea into numerous well-defined smaller areas, in which cultural isolation was very strong for very long periods of time, and New Guinea thus seems to have developed the greatest linguistic diversity per square mile of any place on Earth.

Isolation, acquisition, conquest, borrowing, and development are all processes that have made English what it is today. In studying the history of the English language, we will see how English developed in both ways, both through internal evolution and external influence.

But first we need to understand in more detail how language works. We will begin with the connections between words and meanings and then link these to the fundamental particles of language: the individual sounds made by the vocal tract, the ways in which they are linked to meanings, and the ways they change. Then we examine the rules by which words can be combined to create sentences, and discuss words, their creation, and their change.

The course then examines the specifics of the development of English, beginning with the very deepest roots of the language and moving from Gothic to Old English. We investigate the influences of the Vikings, Celts, and Romans before analyzing the linguistic cataclysm of the Norman Conquest.

Next lecture shows how Chaucer's language became Shakespeare's language because of an event called the Great Vowel Shift. Then we cross the sea from England to America for a discussion of the development of American English, investigating why some people say "soda" and others "pop," and why you can "pahk acah" in Boston but not in Tennessee. Our final lecture discusses the present and future of English, the first truly global language and most widely used tongue in the history of the planet.

1. Introduction to the course.

The course will offer an overview of important changes within each period of the history of English at different levels of language, including spelling, grammar and vocabulary. Linguistic changes will be studied in conjunction with historical and cultural events. The course also offers an introduction to English language history, paying attention to language changes, language contact, and the development into a modern national language in particular. An introduction is also given to the main characteristics of Old English, Middle English and Early Modern English, Present-Day English, World-Wide Global English.

We explore the growth of English as an international language, and are at the forefront of current developments in English language teaching and learning.

2. The Origin and History of the English Language.

It is important to note that the Parent Language is Proto-Indo-European. By comparing the recorded Indo-European languages, especially the most ancient ones, much of the parent language from which they are descended can be reconstructed. This reconstructed parent language is sometimes called simply Indo-European.

English is a West Germanic language that originated from Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain in the middle of the V-th to VII-th centuries AD by Anglo-Saxon settlers. With the end of Roman rule in 410 AD, Latin ceased to be a major influence on the Celtic languages spoken by the majority of the population.

Modern English is an official language in 54 countries, 27 non-sovereign entities, and various organizations.

It was first spoken in early medieval England and is now the most widely used language in the world. It is spoken as a first language by the majority

populations of several sovereign states, including the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, Ireland, New Zealand and a number of Caribbean nations.

It is the third-most-common native language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese and Spanish. It is widely learned as a second language and is an official language of the European Union, many commonwealth countries and the United Nations, as well as in many world organizations.

English arose in the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of England and what is now southeast Scotland. Following the extensive influence of Great Britain and the United Kingdom from the XVII-th century to the middle of the XX-th century, through the British Empire, and also of the United States since the middle of the XX-th century, it has been widely propagated around the world, becoming the leading language of international discourse and the **lingua franca** in many regions.

Historically, English originated from the fusion of closely related dialects, now collectively termed Old English, which were brought to the eastern coast of Great Britain by Germanic settlers – Anglo-Saxons by the V-th century with the word "English" being derived from the name of the Angles, and ultimately from their ancestral region of Angeln in what is now Schleswig-Holstein.

A significant number of English words are constructed on the basis of roots from Latin, because Latin in some form was the "lingua franca" of the Christian Church and of European intellectual life. The language was further influenced by the Old Norse language because of Viking invasions in the IX-th and X-th centuries.

The Norman conquest of England in the XI-th century gave rise to heavy borrowings from Norman-French, and vocabulary and spelling conventions began to give the appearance of a close relationship with Romance languages to what had then become Middle English.

The Great Vowel Shift that began in the south of England in the XV-th century is one of the historical events that mark the emergence of Modern English from Middle English. Owing to the assimilation of words from many other languages throughout history, modern English contains a very large vocabulary, with complex and irregular spelling, particularly of vowels.

Modern English has not only assimilated words from other European languages, but from all over the world. “The Oxford English Dictionary” lists over 250,000 distinct words, not including many technical, scientific, and slang terms.

When we think: **What are the origins of the English Language?**

The history of English is conventionally, if perhaps too neatly, divided into three periods usually called Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English. The earliest period begins with the migration of certain Germanic tribes from the continent to Britain in the V-th century A.D., though no records of their language survive from before the VII-th century, and it continues until the end of the XI-th century or a bit later.

By that time Latin, Old Norse (the language of the Viking invaders), and especially the Anglo-Norman French of the dominant class after the Norman Conquest in 1066 had begun to have a substantial impact on the lexicon, and the well-developed inflectional system that typifies the grammar of Old English had begun to break down.

The following brief sample of Old English prose illustrates several of the significant ways in which change has so transformed English that we must look carefully to find points of resemblance between the language of the X-th century and our own. It is taken from Aelfric’s “Homily on St. Gregory the Great” and concerns the famous story of how that pope came to send missionaries to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity after seeing Anglo-Saxon boys for sale as slaves in Rome: “Eft he axode, hu ðære ðeode nama wære þe hi of comon. Him wæs geandwyrd, þæt hi Angle genemnode wæron. Þa cwæð he, Rihtlice hi sind Angle

gehatene, for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað, and swilcum gedafenað þæt hi on heofonum engla geferan beon".

A few of these words will be recognized as identical in spelling with their modern equivalents: "he, of, him, for, and, on" and the resemblance of a few others to familiar words may be guessed "nama" to "name", "comon" to "come", "wære" to "were", "wæs" to "was", but only those who have made a special study of Old English will be able to read the passage with understanding.

The sense of it is as follows: Again he (St. Gregory) asked what might be the name of the people from which they came. It was answered to him that they were named Angles. Then he said, "Rightly are they called Angles because they have the beauty of angels, and it is fitting that such as they should be angels' companions in heaven".

Some of the words in the original have survived in altered form, including "axode" (asked), "hu" (how), "rihtlice" (rightly), "engla" (angels), "habbað" (have), "swilcum" (such), "heofonum" (heaven), "beon" (be).

Others, however, have vanished from our lexicon, mostly without a trace, including several that were quite common words in Old English: "eft" - "again","ðeode" - "people, nation", "cwæð" – "said, spoke", "gehatene" - "called, named", "wlite" – "appearance, beauty", "geferan" - "companions".

Recognition of some words is naturally hindered by the presence of two special characters, "þ", called "thorn", and "ð", called "edh", which served in Old English to represent the sounds now spelled with "th".

Other points worth noting include the fact that the pronoun system did not yet, in the late X-th century, include the third person plural forms beginning with "th-" and "hi" appears where we would use "they".

The spelling is often peculiar by modern standards and even inconsistent within these few sentences, for example: "contré" and "contree", "o griffoun" and

“a gret hors”, “þanne” and “þan”. Moreover, in the original text, there is in addition to thorn another old character “ȝ”, called “yogh”, to make difficulty.

It can represent several sounds but here may be thought of as equivalent to “y”. Even the older spellings, including those where “u” stands for “v” or vice versa, are recognizable, however, and there are only a few words like “ipotaynes” – “hippopotamuses” and “sithes” – “times” that have dropped out of the language altogether.

We may notice a few words and phrases that have meanings no longer common such as “byttere” – “salty”, “o this half ” on this side of the world, and “at the poynt “ – “to hand”, and the effect of the centuries-long dominance of French on the vocabulary is evident in many familiar words which could not have occurred in Aelfric’s writing even if his subject had allowed them, words like “contree, ryueres, plentee, egle, lyoun”.

The period of Modern English extends from the XVI-th century to our own day. The early part of this period saw the completion of a revolution in the phonology of English that had begun in late Middle English and that effectively redistributed the occurrence of the vowel phonemes to something approximating their present pattern.

Other important early developments include the stabilizing effect on spelling of the printing press and the beginning of the direct influence of Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek on the lexicon. Later, as English came into contact with other cultures around the world and distinctive dialects of English developed in the many areas which Britain had colonized, numerous other languages made small but interesting contributions to our word-stock.

The historical aspect of English really encompasses more than the three stages of development just under consideration. English has what might be called a prehistory as well.

As we have seen, English did not simply spring into existence; it was brought from the Continent by Germanic tribes who had no form of writing and hence left no records. Philologists know that they must have spoken a dialect of a language that can be called West Germanic and that other dialects of this unknown language must have included the ancestors of such languages as German, Dutch, Low German, and Frisian. They know this because of certain systematic similarities which these languages share with each other but do not share with, say, Danish. However, they have had somehow to reconstruct what that language was like in its lexicon, phonology, grammar, and semantics as best they can through sophisticated techniques of comparison developed chiefly during the last century.

Similarly, because ancient and modern languages like Old Norse and Gothic or Icelandic and Norwegian have points in common with Old English and Old High German or Dutch and English that they do not share with French or Russian, it is clear that there was an earlier unrecorded language that can be called simply Germanic and that must be reconstructed in the same way.

Still earlier, Germanic was just a dialect, the ancestors of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit were three other such dialects, of a language conventionally designated Indo-European, and thus English is just one relatively young member of an ancient family of languages whose descendants cover a fair portion of the globe.

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the V-th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany. At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from “Englaland” [sic] and their language was called “Englisc” - from which the words “England” and “English” are derived.

Thus, English is a West Germanic language that originated from the Anglo-Frisian dialects brought to Britain by Germanic invaders or settlers from various parts of what is now northwest Germany and the Netherlands. Initially, Old English was a diverse group of dialects, reflecting the varied origins of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms of Britain. One of these dialects, Late West Saxon, eventually became predominant.

The English language underwent extensive change in the middle ages. Written Old English of AD 1000 is similar in vocabulary and grammar to other old Germanic languages such as Old High German and Old Norse, and completely unintelligible to modern speakers, while the modern language is already largely recognizable in written Middle English of AD 1400.

Germanic invaders entered Britain

on the east and south coasts in the V-th century

The transformation was caused by two further waves of invasion: the first by speakers of the Scandinavian branch of the Germanic language family, who conquered and colonized parts of Britain in the VIII-th and IX-th centuries; the second by the Normans in the XI-th century, who spoke Old Norman and ultimately developed an English variety of this called Anglo-Norman. A large proportion of the modern English vocabulary comes directly from Anglo-Norman.

Close contact with the Scandinavians resulted in a significant grammatical simplification and lexical enrichment of the Anglo-Frisian core of English. However, these changes had not reached South-West England by the IX-th century AD, where Old English was developed into a full-fledged literary language.

The Norman invasion occurred in 1066, and when literary English rose anew in the XIII-th century, it was based on the speech of London, much closer to the centre of Scandinavian settlement. Technical and cultural vocabulary was largely derived from Old Norman, with particularly heavy influence in the church, the courts, and government. With the coming of the Renaissance, as with most other developing European languages such as German and Dutch, Latin and Ancient Greek supplanted Norman and French as the main source of new words. Thus, English developed into very much a “borrowing” language with an enormously disparate vocabulary.

English is a member of the Indo-European family of languages. This broad family includes most of the European languages spoken today. The Indo-European family includes several major branches: Latin and the modern Romance languages (French, etc.); the Germanic languages (English, German, Swedish, etc.); the Indo-Iranian languages (Hindi, Urdu, Sanskrit, etc.); the Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech, etc.); the Baltic languages of Latvian and Lithuanian; the Celtic languages (Welsh, Irish Gaelic, etc.); Greek.

The influence of the original Indo-European language can be seen today, even though no written record of it exists. The word for “father”, for example,

is “vater” in German, “pater” in Latin, and “pitr” in Sanskrit. These words are all cognates, similar words in different languages that share the same root.

Of these branches of the Indo-European family, two are, as far as the study of the development of English is concerned, of paramount importance, the Germanic and the Romance, called that because the Romance languages derive from Latin, the language of ancient Rome.

English is a member of the Germanic group of languages. It is believed that this group began as a common language in the Elbe river region about 3,000 years ago. By the II-nd century BC, this Common Germanic language had split into three distinct sub-groups:

- East Germanic was spoken by peoples who migrated back to south-eastern Europe. No East Germanic language is spoken today, and the only written East Germanic language that survives is Gothic.
- North Germanic evolved into the modern Scandinavian languages of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, and Icelandic, but not Finnish, which is related to Hungarian and Estonian and is not an Indo-European language.
- West Germanic is the ancestor of modern German, Dutch, Flemish, Frisian, and English.

3. The Historical Study of Language, Methods and Approaches.

When we speak about the approaches to the study of language, first of all, we had to answer the question: What is Linguistics?

The scientific study of human language, including: **Phonetics** (physical nature of speech); **Phonology** (use of sounds in language); **Morphology** (word formation); **Syntax** (sentence structure); **Semantics** (meaning of words and how they combine into sentences); **Pragmatics** (effect of situation on language use).

Or, carving it up another way: **Theoretical Linguistics** (pure and simple: how languages work); **Historical Linguistics** (how languages got to be the way they are); **Sociolinguistics** (language and the structure of society); **Psycholinguistics** (how language is implented in the brain); **Applied Linguistics** (teaching, translation, etc.); **Computational Linguistics** (computer processing of human language).

The field of Historical Linguistics has traditionally been made up of the theoretical study of the various levels of linguistic analysis: phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary and semantics.

However, scholars have increasingly become aware of the significance of other methods of applied, culturally aware research, which were initially introduced to examine present day English, for instance, Stylistics, Sociolinguistics, Pragmatics, Code-switching and other language contact phenomena. This has produced exciting new avenues for exploration but has inevitably led to specialization and fragmentation within the field.

As it is known, all methods include prescriptions for the teacher and the learners. All methods are a pre-packaged set of specifications of how the teacher should teach and how the learner should learn derived from a particular theory of language and a theory of language learning. For the teacher, methods prescribe what materials and activities should be used, how they should be used and what the role of the teacher should be. For learners, methods prescribe what approach to learning the learner should take and what roles the learner should adopt in the classroom.

What is an approach? Underlying each method is a theory on the nature of language and a theory on the nature of language learning both of which comprise the approach. These theories are derived from the areas of Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, and Psycholinguistics and are the source of principles and practices of language teaching.

Different theories about the nature of language and how languages are learned (the approach) imply different ways of teaching language (the method) and different methods make use of different kinds of classroom activities (the techniques).

The Direct Method: In this method the teaching is done entirely in the target language. The learner is not allowed to use his or her mother tongue. Grammar rules are avoided and there is emphasis on good pronunciation.

Grammar-translation: Learning is largely by translation to and from the target language. Grammar rules are to be memorized and long lists of vocabulary learned by heart. There is little or no emphasis placed on developing oral ability.

Audio-lingual: The theory behind this method is that learning a language means acquiring habits. There is much practice of dialogues of every situation. New language is first heard and extensively drilled before being seen in its written form.

The structural approach: This method sees language as a complex of grammatical rules which are to be learned one at a time in a set order. So for example the verb "to be" is introduced and practised before the present continuous tense which uses "to be" as an auxiliary.

Suggestopedia: The theory underlying this method is that a language can be acquired only when the learner is receptive and has no mental blocks. By various methods it is suggested to the student that the language is easy - and in this way the mental blocks to learning are removed.

Total Physical Response (TPR): TPR works by having the learner respond to simple commands such as "Stand up", "Close your book", "Go to the window and open it". The method stresses the importance of aural comprehension.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): The focus of this method is to enable the learner to communicate effectively and appropriately in the various

situations she would be likely to find herself in. The content of CLT courses are functions such as inviting, suggesting, complaining or notions such as the expression of time, quantity, location.

The Silent Way: This is so called because the aim of the teacher is to say as little as possible in order that the learner can be in control of what he wants to say. No use is made of the mother tongue.

Community Language Learning: In this method attempts are made to build strong personal links between the teacher and student so that there are no blocks to learning. There is much talk in the mother tongue which is translated by the teacher for repetition by the student.

Immersion: This corresponds to a great extent to the situation we have at our school. ESL students are immersed in the English language for the whole of the school day and expected to learn math, science, humanities, etc. through the medium of the target language, English. Foreign students who attend local schools find themselves in an immersion situation; for example, refugee children from Bosnia attending German schools, or Puerto Ricans in American schools.

Task-based language learning: The focus of the teaching is on the completion of a task which in itself is interesting to the learners. Learners use the language they already have to complete the task and there is little correction of errors.

The Natural Approach: This approach stresses the similarities between learning the first and second languages. There is no correction of mistakes. Learning takes place by the students being exposed to language that is comprehensible or made comprehensible to them.

The Lexical Syllabus: This approach is based on a computer analysis of language which identifies the most common and hence most useful words in the language and their various uses. The syllabus teaches these words in broadly the

order of their frequency, and great emphasis is placed on the use of authentic materials.

It is necessary to mention that **Western Modern Historical Linguistics** dates from the late XVIII-th century. It grew out of the earlier discipline of philology, the study of ancient texts and documents dating back to antiquity.

At first, **Historical Linguistics** served as the cornerstone of comparative linguistics primarily as a tool for linguistic reconstruction. Scholars were concerned chiefly with establishing language families and reconstructing prehistoric proto-languages, using the comparative method and internal reconstruction.

The focus was initially on the well-known Indo-European languages, many of which had long written histories; the scholars also studied the Uralic languages, another European language family for which less early written material exists. Since then, there has been significant comparative linguistic work expanding outside of European languages as well, such as on the Austronesian languages and various families of Native American languages, among many others.

Comparative Linguistics is now, however, only a part of a more broadly conceived discipline of historical linguistics. For the Indo-European languages, comparative study is now a highly specialized field. Most research is being carried out on the subsequent development of these languages, in particular, the development of the modern standard varieties.

Some scholars have undertaken studies attempting to establish super-families, linking, for example, Indo-European, Uralic, and other families into Nostratic. These attempts have not been accepted widely. The information necessary to establish relatedness becomes less available as the time depth is increased.

The time-depth of linguistic methods is limited due to chance word resemblances and variations between language groups, but a limit of around 10000 years is often assumed. The dating of the various proto-languages is also difficult; several methods are available for dating, but only approximate results can be obtained.

Initially, all modern linguistics was historical in orientation. Even the study of modern dialects involved looking at their origins. ***Ferdinand de Saussure***'s distinction between synchronic and diachronic linguistics is fundamental to the present day organization of the discipline. Primacy is accorded to synchronic linguistics, and **diachronic linguistics** is defined as the study of successive synchronic stages. Saussure's clear demarcation, however, has had both defenders and critics.

In Linguistics, a **synchronic analysis** is one that views linguistic phenomena only at a given time, usually the present, though a synchronic analysis of a historical language form is also possible. This may be distinguished from diachronic, which regards a phenomenon in terms of developments through time.

Diachronic analysis is the main concern of Historical Linguistics; however, most other branches of Linguistics are concerned with some form of synchronic analysis. The study of language change offers a valuable insight into the state of linguistic representation, and because all synchronic forms are the result of historically evolving diachronic changes, the ability to explain linguistic constructions necessitates a focus on diachronic processes.

In practice, a purely synchronic linguistics is not possible for any period before the invention of the gramophone, as written records always lag behind speech in reflecting linguistic developments. Written records are difficult to date accurately before the development of the modern title page. Often dating must rely on contextual historical evidence such as inscriptions, or, modern technology such as carbon dating can be used to ascertain dates of varying accuracy.

Also, the work of sociolinguists on linguistic variation has shown synchronic states are not uniform: the speech habits of older and younger speakers differ in ways that point to language change. Synchronic variation is linguistic change in progress.

Synchronic and diachronic approaches can reach quite different conclusions. For example, a Germanic strong verb like English "sing – sang – sung" is irregular when viewed synchronically: the native speaker's brain processes these as learned forms, whereas the derived forms of regular verbs are processed quite differently, by the application of productive rules, for example, adding "-ed" to the basic form of a verb as in "walk – walked".

This is an insight of psycholinguistics, relevant also for language didactics, both of which are synchronic disciplines. However, a diachronic analysis will show that the strong verb is the remnant of a fully regular system of internal vowel changes, in this case, namely, the Indo-European ablaut; historical linguistics seldom uses the category "irregular verb".

The principal tools of research in diachronic linguistics are the comparative method and the method of internal reconstruction. Less-standard techniques, such as mass lexical comparison, are used by some linguists to overcome the limitations of the comparative method, but most linguists regard them as unreliable.

The findings of historical linguistics are often used as a basis for hypotheses about the groupings and movements of peoples, particularly in the prehistoric period. In practice, however, it is often unclear how to integrate the linguistic evidence with the archaeological or genetic evidence. For example, there are numerous theories concerning the homeland and early movements of the Proto-Indo-Europeans, each with its own interpretation of the archaeological record.

Comparative Linguistics, originally **comparative philology**, is a branch of Historical Linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages in order to establish their historical relatedness. Languages may be related by convergence

through borrowing or by genetic descent, thus languages can change and are also able to cross-relate.

Genetic relatedness implies a common origin or proto-language. Comparative Linguistics has the goal of constructing language families, reconstructing proto-languages, and specifying the changes that have resulted in the documented languages. To maintain a clear distinction between attested language and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts.

Etymology is the study of the history of words: when they entered a language, from what source, and how their form and meaning have changed over time. A word may enter a language as a loanword (as a word from one language adopted by speakers of another language), through derivational morphology by combining pre-existing elements in the language, by a hybrid of these two processes called **phono-semantic matching**, or in several other minor ways.

In languages with a long and detailed history, etymology makes use of philology, the study of how words change from culture to culture over time. Etymologists also apply the methods of comparative linguistics to reconstruct information about languages that are too old for any direct information, such as writing, to be known.

By analyzing related languages with a technique known as the comparative method, linguists can make inferences, about their shared parent language and its vocabulary. In that way, word roots that can be traced all the way back to the origin of, for instance, the Indo-European language family has been found. Although originating in the philological tradition, much current etymological research is done in language families for which little or no early documentation is available, such as Uralic and Austronesian.

Dialectology is the scientific study of linguistic dialect, the varieties of a language that are characteristic of particular groups, based primarily on geographic

distribution and their associated features. This is in contrast to variations based on social factors, which are studied in Sociolinguistics, or variations based on time, which are studied in historical linguistics. Dialectology treats such topics as divergence of two local dialects from a common ancestor and synchronic variation.

Dialectologists are concerned with grammatical features that correspond to regional areas. Thus, they are usually dealing with populations living in specific locales for generations without moving, but also with immigrant groups bringing their languages to new settlements.

Studies in Historical Linguistics often use the terms “conservative” or “innovative” to characterize the extent of change occurring in a particular language or dialect as compared with related varieties. In particular, a conservative variety changes relatively less than an innovative variety. These variations in plasticity are often related to the socio-economic situation of the language speakers.

An example of an innovative language would be the American English language because of the vast number of speakers and the open interaction these speakers have with other language groups; these changes can be seen in the terms developed for business and marketing, among other fields such as technology. The converse of the innovative language is the conservative language, and these are generally defined by their static nature and imperviousness to outside influences.

Most of these languages are spoken in secluded areas that lack any other primary language speaking population; however this is not a guarantee. These descriptive terms carry no value judgment in linguistic studies, and are not used to determine any form of worthiness a language has compared to any other language.

A particularly conservative variety that preserves features that have long since vanished elsewhere is sometimes said to be “archaic”. While there are few examples of archaic language in modern society, some have survived in set phrases or in nursery rhymes.

Questions:

What areas of the brain are most closely tied to language production?

What are the key stages of language acquisition in children?

Which foundations of language do you know?

What is the object of the course?

What is the origin of the English language?

Which methods and approaches of the language study do you know?

Lecture 2. Proto English. The Earliest Period of Germanic History.

1. General Notes on Indo-European Language Family and Peoples.

2. Interaction of Language History to the History of People Who Are Carriers of Language.

3. Branches of the Indo-European Languages.

4. Indo-European Historical Linguistics.

5. The Divergence of the Indo-European Languages.

1. General Notes on Indo-European Language Family and Peoples.

The chief reason for grouping the Indo-European languages together is that they share a number of items of basic vocabulary, including grammatical affixes, whose shapes in the different languages can be related to one another by statable phonetic rules. Especially important are the shared patterns of alternation of sounds.

Thus, the agreement of Sanskrit “ás-ti”, Latin “es-t”, and Gothic “is-t”, all meaning “is” is greatly strengthened by the identical reduction of the root to “s-” in the plural in all three languages: Sanskrit “s-ánti”, Latin “s-unt”, Gothic “s-ind” - “they are”. Agreements in pure structure, totally divorced from phonetic substance, are, at best, of dubious value in proving membership in the Indo-European family.

The statable phonetic rules referred to earlier are not always obvious without careful observation. Note that the English dental consonants “t”, “d”, and “th” do not correspond in a straight forward manner to the Greek dental sounds “t”, “d”, and “th”; that is, English “t” does not occur where Greek “t” appears, nor English “d” where Greek has “d”. But the relationships between the sounds are not random either. Where Greek has initial “t”, English has “th”, as in “that” and

“three”; where Greek has “d”, English has “t”, as in “tree, two, ten”; and where Greek has “th”, English has “d”, as in “daughter”.

Note also that phonetic similarity as such is not needed to establish relationship. Thus, many of the Armenian words look quite different from the related words in other Indo-European languages, but regular rules of correspondence can be found. For example, Greek initial “p” corresponds to Armenian “h” or zeros (lack of a consonant) in the words meaning “fire, father, foot, five”.

The Indo-European languages have a large number of branches: Anatolian, Indo-Iranian, Greek, Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Armenian, Tocharian, Balto-Slavic and Albanian. This branch of languages was predominant in the Asian portion of Turkey and some areas in northern Syria. The most famous of these languages is Hittite.

The Indo-European languages are a family of related languages that today are widely spoken in the Americas, Europe, and also Western and Southern Asia. Just as languages such as Spanish, French, Portuguese and Italian are all descended from Latin; Indo-European languages are believed to derive from a hypothetical language known as Proto-Indo-European, which is no longer spoken.

It is highly probable that the earliest speakers of this language originally lived around Ukraine and neighbouring regions in the Caucasus and Southern Russia, then spread to most of the rest of Europe and later down into India. The earliest possible end of Proto-Indo-European linguistic unity is believed to be around 3400 BCE.

Since the speakers of the Proto-Indo-European language did not develop a writing system, we have no physical evidence of it. The science of linguistics has been trying to reconstruct the Proto-Indo-European language using several methods and, although an accurate reconstruction of it seems impossible, we have today a general picture of what Proto-Indo-European speakers had in common,

both linguistically and culturally. In addition to the use of comparative methods, there are studies based on the comparison of myths, laws, and social institutions.

The English language is spoken by 750 million people in the world as either the official language of a nation, a second language, or in a mixture with other languages, such as pidgins and creoles. English is the official language in England, Canada, Australia and New Zealand; however, the United States has no official language.

Indo-European language and people. English is classified genetically as a Low West Germanic language of the Indo-European family of languages. The early history of the Germanic languages is based on reconstruction of a Proto-Germanic language that evolved into German, English, Dutch, Afrikaans, Yiddish, and the Scandinavian languages.

At the close of the XVIII-th century, scholars posted to colonial positions in the British Empire began to notice something recognizable in the exotic languages they encountered. At the end of the XVIII-th century, the English scholar and diplomat ***William Jones***, working in India, noticed certain features in the vocabulary and grammar of Sanskrit, the ancient classical language of India, that were shared with Latin and Greek and the modern European languages.

In particular, he noticed certain words, such as Sanskrit “raj”, Latin “rex”, German “Reich”, and Celtic “rix” that seemed similar in sound and meaning; they were all words relating to a kingdom or ruler. He also noticed certain grammatical features, such as forms of the verb “to be” and certain case endings that were shared in the different languages.

Indo-European languages also have similar words for “heart, lung, foot, hand, head” and “star, sun, moon”. What’s interesting here are that these languages share a core vocabulary? The Indo-Europeans developed a vocabulary for the basics of the body and the concepts of the cosmos, and these words traveled with them in their migrations.

Thus, in 1786, ***Sir William Jones*** discovered that Sanskrit contained many cognates to Greek and Latin. He conjectured a Proto-Indo-European language had existed many years before. Although there is no concrete proof to support this one language had existed, it is believed that many languages spoken in Europe and Western Asia are all derived from a common language. A few languages that are not included in the Indo-European branch of languages include Basque, Finnish, Estonian and Hungarian; of which the last three belong to the Finno-Ugric language family.

William Jones publicized his work in his third anniversary address to the Asiatic Society in 1799. This address brings together many of the myths of language, but it is also an important document in the history of language. Jones believed that the Indo-European languages descended from an original, and that the original must be more perfect than the later languages.

In other words, he seemed to subscribe to the myth of linguistic decay. His descriptions of Sanskrit are not descriptions of the language but of his attitude toward antiquity and language change. Jones's discovery of Indo-European is as much a product of his time, and phrased as much in the rhetoric of his age, as the discovery of the ruins of Pompeii.

In the XIX-th century, following up on Jones's discovery, language scholars began to develop the study of comparative grammar. Scholars, particularly in Germany, began to codify relationships of sounds among different languages. They also proposed lines of descent among the different languages, introducing the metaphor of the "language tree," modeled on biological or evolutionary trees.

At this time, the development of language was the sole subject of linguistics. This is very different from what a linguist does today; in the XIX-th century, however, the study of language was the historical study of comparative philology.

By the 1870s, scholars had formulated a series of sound relationships among the languages that were recognized as having historical meaning; that is, they

showed not only relationships among living languages but also lines of descent from earlier forms of the languages.

The neo-grammarians of the 1870-s formulated laws of language change, which we will explore in subsequent lectures. One of these laws was formulated by the Brothers Grimm and provides us with valuable empirical evidence, in spite of its imperfections, for reconstructing words and sounds.

Speakers of Proto-Indo-European (PIE) lived in Southwest Russia around 4,000 to 5,000 BCE. They had words for animals such as bear or wolf, as evidenced in the similarity of the words for these animals in the modern Indo-European languages. They also had domesticated animals, and used horse-drawn wheeled carts. They drank alcohol made from grain, and not wine, indicating they did not live in a warm climate. They belonged to a patriarchal society where the lineage was determined through males only, because of a lack of words referring to the female's side of the family. They also made use of a decimal counting system by 10's, and formed words by compounding. This Proto-Indo-European language was also highly inflectional as words had many endings corresponding to cases.

The spread of the language can be attributed to two theories. The Indo-Europeans people either wanted to conquer their neighbors or look for better farming land. Either way, the language spread too many areas with the advancement of the people. This rapid and vast spread of the Indo-European people is attributed to their use of horses for transportation.

The Indo-European languages also preserve certain words that are clearly not from Indo-European. Any word that ends in the sound "-inth" is not Indo-European, examples include "plinth, labyrinth, Corinth, hyacinth". Scholars have shown that these words come from the pre-Indo-European inhabitants of the Greek peninsula and were later absorbed by Indo-European conquerors and settlers. Interestingly, many of these words are related to myth.

It's also interesting to note words that Indo-European languages do not have in common. For example, Indo-European languages do not have a common word for the sea. Thus, scholars believe that groups of Indo-Europeans discovered the sea separately in their migrations. In contrast, all Indo-European languages have words beginning with the "nav-" sound, such as "navigate" and "navy". This unit of language connotes "boat" or "ship". All these languages also have a unit of language that means "to row". Thus, we can hypothesize that these peoples must have known water in the form of lakes or rivers.

The Indo-Europeans also were able to reconstruct some of the history of the otherwise dark prehistoric period in Europe. The original Indo-Europeans had no words forthings like "monkeys, lions, bamboo, rice, parrots, palm trees", or "camels".

They did have words for "snow", "ice", and "bitter cold", suggesting that they came originally from somewhere toward the north of Europe. The patterns of languages, and recently discovered genetic characteristics of peoples suggests that the Indo-Europeans lived originally in the north east of Europe, possibly in the foothills of the Ural mountains, around 3500 to 2500 BCE. From their language, scholars have deduced that they lived in or near forests of beech, oak, pine, and birch trees, encountered bears, wolves, and deer, raised pigs, goats, and sheep, and searched the forest for honey from bees.

They mostly used stone tools, for example: the word "kamy," which means "stone" in Indo-European, evolved into Modern English "hammer", but they cultivated land and raised cattle in addition to hunting. They had kings, and they believed in the existence of their own souls and of various supernatural beings or gods. Over the next millennia, these Indo-Europeans spread throughout Europe, settling in different areas. Over time, their languages changed and diversified into those we have today. Scholars infer that the Indo-European migration throughout Europe occurred as a process of branching and splitting.

The Indo-European family could be broken into two large groups, the "Satem" languages and the "Centum" languages. This terminology is based on the words for "one hundred" in the various languages and indicates a very early consonant shift.

These two large groups probably indicate an original divide of the Indo-Europeans in two large groups. The Satem group includes the Indo-Iranian, Armenian, Albanian, and Balto-Slavic families. The Centum group includes the Tocharian, Anatolian, Hellenic (Greek), Italic (Latin), Celtic, and Germanic languages families. The exact relationships between the language families is somewhat disputed, but because we are examining English in this course, we can quickly move to the Germanic branch of the Centum family, the branch and family to which English belongs.

The subgroup of **Germanic languages** contains many differences that set them apart from the other Indo-European languages.

1. **Grimm's Law** (or the First Sound Shift) helps to explain the consonant changes from Proto-Indo-European to Germanic:

a) Aspirated voiced stops became Unaspirated voiced tops: b^h, d^h, g^h became b, d, g;

b) Voiced stops became Voiceless stops: b, d, g became p, t, k;

c) Voiceless stops became Voiceless fricatives: p, t, k became f, θ, x (h).

Verner's Law explains other exceptions that Grimm's Law does not include.

2. **Two Tense Verbal System**: There is a past tense marker ("-ed") and a present tense marker ("-s") on the verb (without using auxiliary verbs.)

3. **Weak Past Tense**: Used a dental or alveolar suffix to express the past, such as "-ed" in English, "-te" in German, or "-de" in Swedish.

4. **Weak and Strong Adjectives**: Each adjective had a different form whether it was preceded by a determiner or no determiner.

5. **Fixed Stress**: The stress of words was fixed on the first syllable.

6. **Vowel Changes** (Proto Germanic). Short [o] to short [a], for instance: Latin: "hortus", English: "garden". Long [a] to long [o], like: Latin: "mater", OE: "modor".

7. **Common Vocabulary**: Words developed that hadn't been used before, such as nautical terms "sea". Others include: "rain, earth, loaf, wife, meat" and "fowl".

The languages of Germanic peoples gave rise to the English language, the best known are the Angles, Saxons, Frisii, Jutes, and possibly some Franks, who traded, fought with and lived alongside the Latin-speaking peoples of the Roman Empire in the centuries – long process of the Germanic peoples' expansion into Western Europe during the Migration Period. Latin loan words such as "wine, cup, bishop" entered the vocabulary of these Germanic peoples before their arrival in Britain and the subsequent formation of England.

Tacitus' Germania, written around 100 AD, is a primary source of information for the culture of the Germanic peoples in ancient times. Germanics were in contact with Roman civilization and its economy, including residing within the Roman borders in large numbers in the province of Germania and others and serving in the Roman military, while many more retained political independence outside of Roman territories.

Germanic troops served in Britannia under Roman command. Except for the Frisians, Germanic settlement in Britain, according to Bede, occurred largely after the arrival of mercenaries in the V-th century. Most Angles, Saxons and Jutes arrived in Britain in the VI-th century as Germanic pagans, independent of Roman control.

Pre-English Period (before 600 AD)

ca.3000B.C. or 6000 B.C.	**Proto-Indo-European spoken in Baltic area (or Anatolia) Excurses: Indo-European lnguages / Proto Indo-European**
ca.1000 B.C.	**After many migrations, the various branches of Indo-European have become distinct. Celtic becomes most widespread branch of I.E. in Europe; Celtic peoples inhabit what are now Spain, France, Germany and England.**
55 B.C.	**Beginning of Roman raids on British Isles.**
43 A.D.	**Roman occupation of Britain. Roman colony of "Britannia" established. Eventually, many Celtic Britons become Romanized. (Others continually rebel). Excursus: History of Latin**
200 B.C.- 200A.D.	**Germanic peoples move down from Scandinavia and spread over Central Europe in successive waves. Supplant Celts. Come into contact: at times antagonistic, at times commercial, with northward-expanding empire of Romans.**
Early V-th century.	**Roman Empire collapses. Romans pull out of Britain and other colonies, attempting to shore up defense on the home front; but it's useless. Rome sacked by Goths.** **Germanic tribes on the continent continue migrations west and south; consolidate into ever larger units. Those taking over in Rome call themselves "Roman emperors", even though the imperial administration had relocated to Byzantium in the 300-s. The new Germanic rulers soon adopt the Christianity of the late Roman state, and begin what later evolves into the not-very-Roman "Holy Roman Empire".**
ca. 410 A.D.	**First Germanic tribes arrive in England.**
410-600	**Settlement of most of Britain by Germanic peoples: Angles, Saxons, Jutes, some Frisians, speaking West Germanic dialects descended from Proto-Germanic. These dialects are distantly related to Latin, but also have a sprinkling of Latin borrowings due to earlier cultural contact with the Romans on the continent.** **Celtic peoples, most of whom are Christianized due to the late Roman adoption of Christianity, are pushed increasingly, despite occasional violent uprisings, into the marginal areas of Britain: Ireland, Scotland, Wales. Anglo-Saxons, originally sea-farers, settle down as farmers, exploiting rich English farmland. By 600 A.D., the Germanic speech of England comprises dialects of a language distinct from the continental Germanic languages.**

The Anglo-Saxon “Chronicle” relates that around the year 449 Vortigern, King of the Britons, invited the “Angle kin”, Angles allegedly led by the Germanic brothers Hengist and Horsa, to help repel invading Picts. In return, the Anglo-Saxons received lands in the southeast of Britain. In response “came men of Ald Seaxum of Anglum of Iotum” (Saxons, Angles and Jutes). The “Chronicle” refers to waves of settlers who eventually established seven kingdoms, known as the heptarchy. Modern scholars view Hengist and Horsa as Euhemerised deities from Anglo-Saxon paganism, who ultimately stem from the religion of the Proto-Indo-Europeans.

2. Interaction of Language History to the History of People Who Are Carriers of Language.

Language is a system that consists of the development, acquisition, maintenance and use of complex systems of communication, particularly the human ability to do so; and **a language** is any specific example of such a system.

Cunei form is the first known form of written language, but spoken language predates writing by at least tens of thousands of years. **Braille writing** is a tactile variant of a writing system.

Estimates of the number of human languages in the world vary between 5,000 and 7,000. However, any precise estimate depends on a partly arbitrary distinction between languages and dialects. Natural languages are spoken or signed, but any language can be encoded into secondary media using auditory, visual, or tactile stimuli, for example, in whistling, signed, or braille. This is because human language is modality-independent.

Depending on philosophical perspectives regarding the definition of language and meaning, when used as a general concept, “language” may refer to the cognitive ability to learn and use systems of complex communication, or to

describe the set of rules that makes up these systems, or the set of utterances that can be produced from those rules.

All languages rely on the process of semiosis to relate signs to particular meanings. Oral, manual and tactile languages contain a phonological system that governs how symbols are used to form sequences known as words or morphemes, and a syntactic system that governs how words and morphemes are combined to form phrases and utterances.

Human language has the properties of productivity and displacement, and relies entirely on social convention and learning. Its complex structure affords a much wider range of expressions than any known system of animal communication. Language is thought to have originated when early hominins started gradually changing their primate communication systems, acquiring the ability to form a theory of other minds and a shared intentionality. This development is sometimes thought to have coincided with an increase in brain volume, and many linguists see the structures of language as having evolved to serve specific communicative and social functions.

Language is processed in many different locations in the human brain, but especially in Broca's and Wernicke's areas. Humans acquire language through social interaction in early childhood, and children generally speak fluently by approximately three years old. The use of language is deeply entrenched in human culture. Therefore, in addition to its strictly communicative uses, language also has many social and cultural uses, such as signifying group identity, social stratification, as well as social grooming and entertainment.

Languages evolve and diversify over time, and the history of their evolution can be reconstructed by comparing modern languages to determine which traits their ancestral languages must have had in order for the later developmental stages to occur. A group of languages that descend from a common ancestor is known as a language family.

The scientific study of language is called **Linguistics**. Questions concerning the philosophy of language, such as whether words can represent experience, have been debated at least since Gorgias and Plato in ancient Greece. Thinkers such as ***Jean-Jacques Rousseau*** have argued that language originated from emotions while others like ***Immanuel Kant*** have held that it originated from rational and logical thought.

XX-th century philosophers such as ***Ludwig Wittgenstein*** argued that philosophy is really the study of language. Major figures in Linguistics include ***Ferdinand de Saussur***e and ***Noam Chomsky***.

When there is evidence for the languages spoken in Europe at the end of the prehistoric period, it is clear that with few exceptions, such as Basque or Etruscan, they belonged to the Indo-European language group, which also extended to India and Central Asia. This raises the question of when these languages, or their ancestral prototype, were first spoken in Europe.

One theory links these languages with a particular population of the **Indo-Europeans** and explains the expansion of the languages as the result of invasion or immigration; their origin is sought in the east, perhaps in the area north of the Black and Caspian seas. The invasion is associated with the new patterns of settlement, economy, material culture, burial, and social organization seen about 3000 B.C.

These innovations, however, may be better attributed to internal developments. An alternative explanation for the origin of Indo-European languages associates it with the immigration of the first farmers from Anatolia at the beginning of the Neolithic Period, but the spread of farming does not seem to have been a uniform process or to have been achieved everywhere by population migration.

There is, however, no single archaeological pattern that might correspond to a migration on an appropriate geographic scale throughout Europe, and all these

explanations raise fundamental questions about the development, spread, and adoption of languages, the relationship of language to ethnic groups, and the correspondence of archaeologically recognizable patterns of material culture to either language or ethnicity.

The Indo-European family is the most widely spoken and includes languages as diverse as English, Russian and Hindi; the Sino-Tibetan family includes Mandarin, Bodo and the other Chinese languages, and Tibetan; the Afro-Asiatic family includes Arabic, Somali, and Hebrew; the Bantu languages include Swahili, and Zulu, and hundreds of other languages spoken throughout Africa; and the Malayo-Polynesian languages include Indonesian, Malay, Tagalog, and hundreds of other languages spoken throughout the Pacific. The languages of the Dravidian family, spoken mostly in Southern India, include Tamil Telugu and Kannada. Academic consensus holds that between fifty and ninety percent of languages spoken at the beginning of the XXI-st century will probably have become extinct by the year 2100. Today native speakers of English are 400 million.

3. Branches of the Indo-European Languages.

The Indo-European languages have a large number of branches: Anatolian, Indo-Iranian, Greek, Italic, Celtic, Germanic, Armenian, Tocharian, Balto-Slavic and Albanian.

Anatolian

Now extinct, Anatolian languages were spoken during the I-st and II-nd millennia B.C. in what is presently Asian Turkey and northern Syria. By far the best-known Anatolian language is Hittite, the official language of the Hittite Empire, which flourished in the II-nd millennium. Very few Hittite texts were known before 1906, and their interpretation as Indo-European was not generally accepted until after 1915. These texts date back to the mid to late II-nd millennium B.C.

The integration of Hittite data into Indo-European comparative grammar was, therefore, one of the principal developments of Indo-European studies in the XX-th century. A large amount of Hittite finds were made on the site of Hattusas, the capital of the Hittite Kingdom, where about 10,000 cuneiform tablets and various other fragments were found in the remains of a royal archive.

Luvian, Palaic, Lycian, and Lydian are other examples of families belonging to this group. The oldest Hittite texts date from the XVII-th century B.C., the latest from approximately 1200 B.C. All languages of this branch are currently extinct. This branch has the oldest surviving evidence of an Indo-European language, dated about 1800 B.C.

Indo-Iranian

This branch includes two main sub-branches: Indo-Aryan or Indic and Iranian. Today these languages are predominant in now northern and central India, Pakistan and Iran since before 1000 B.C., and its vicinity and also in areas from the Black Sea to western China. Aside from a very poorly known dialect spoken in or near northern Iraq during the II-nd millennium B.C., the oldest record of an Indo-Aryan language is the Vedic Sanskrit of the Rigveda, the oldest of the sacred scriptures of India, dating roughly from 1000 B.C.

Sanskrit, which belongs to the Indic sub-branch, is the best known among the early languages of this branch; its oldest variety, Vedic Sanskrit, is preserved in the Vedas, a collection of hymns and other religious texts of ancient India. Indic speakers entered into the Indian subcontinent, coming from central Asia around 1500 BCE: In the Rig-Veda, the hymn 1.131 speaks about a legendary journey that may be considered a distant memory of this migration.

Examples of modern Indo-Aryan languages are Hindi, Bengali, Sinhalese (spoken in Sri Lanka), and the many dialects of Romany, the language of the Roma. Iranian languages were spoken in the I-st millennium BCE in present-

day Iran and Afghanistan and also in the steppes to the north, from modern Hungary to East (Chinese) Turkistan (now Xinjiang).

The only well-known ancient varieties of Iranian languages are Avestan, the sacred language of the Zoroastrians (Parsis), and Old Persian, the official language of Darius I (ruled 522-486 BCE) and Xerxes I (486-465 BCE) and their successors. Among the modern Iranian languages are Persian (Farsi), Pashto (Afghan), Kurdish, and Ossetic.

Avestan is a language that forms part of the Iranian group. Old Avestan, sometimes called Gathic Avestan, is the oldest preserved language of the Iranian sub-branch, the "sister" of Sanskrit, which is the language used in the early Zoroastrian religious texts.

Another important language of the Iranian sub-branch is Old Persian, which is the language found in the royal inscriptions of the Achaemenid dynasty, starting in the late VI-th century BCE. The earliest datable evidence of this branch dates back to about 1300 BCE.

Today, many Indic languages are spoken in India and Pakistan, such as Hindi-Urdu, Punjabi, and Bengali. Iranian languages such as Farsi - modern Persian, Pashto, and Kurdish are spoken in Iraq, Iran, Afghanistan, and Tajikistan.

Greek

Greek, despite its numerous dialects, has been a single language throughout its history. It has been spoken in Greece since at least 1600 BCE and, in all probability, since the end of the III-rd millennium BCE.

Rather than a branch of languages, Greek is a group of dialects: During more than 3000 years of written history, Greek dialects never evolved into mutually incomprehensible languages. Greek was predominant in the southern end of the Balkans, the Peloponnese peninsula, and the Aegean Sea and its vicinity. The earliest surviving written evidence of a Greek language is Mycenaean, the dialect

of the Mycenaean civilization, mainly found on clay tablets and ceramic vessels on the isle of Crete. Mycenaean did not have an alphabetic written system; rather it had a syllabic script known as the Linear B script.

The earliest texts are the Linear B tablets, some of which may date from as far back as 1400 BCE and some of which certainly date to 1200 BCE. This material, very sparse and difficult to interpret, was not identified as Greek until 1952. The Homeric epics - the “Iliad” and the “Odyssey”, probably dating from the VIII-th century BCE are the oldest texts of any bulk.

The first alphabetic inscriptions have been dated back to the early VIII-th century BCE, which is probably the time when the Homeric epics, the Iliad and the Odyssey, reached their present form. There were many Greek dialects in ancient times, but because of Athens cultural supremacy in the V-th century BCE, it was the Athens dialect, called Attic, the one that became the standard literary language during the Classical period (480-323 BCE).

Therefore, the most famous Greek poetry and prose written in Classical times were written in Attic: Aristophanes, Aristotle, Euripides, and Plato are just a few examples of authors, who wrote in Attic.

Italic

This branch was predominant in the Italian peninsula. The Italic people were not natives of Italy; they entered Italy crossing the Alps around 1000 BCE and gradually moved southward.

The principal language of the Italic group is Latin, originally the speech of the city of Rome and the ancestor of the modern Romance languages: Italian, Romanian, Spanish, Portuguese, French, and so on.

Latin, the most famous language in this group, was originally a relatively small local language spoken by pastoral tribes living in small agricultural settlements in the centre of the Italian peninsula.

The first inscriptions in Latin appeared in the VII-th century BCE and by the VI-th century BCE it had spread significantly. The earliest Latin inscriptions apparently date from the VI-th century BCE, with literature beginning in the III-rd century. Scholars are not in agreement as to how many other ancient languages of Italy and Sicily belong in the same branch as Latin.

Rome was responsible for the growth of Latin in ancient times. Classical Latin is the form of Latin used by the most famous works of Roman authors like Ovid, Cicero, Seneca, Pliny, and Marcus Aurelius. Other languages of this branch are: Faliscan, Sabellic, Umbrian, South Picene, and Oscan, all of them extinct.

Today Romance languages are the only surviving descendants of the Italic branch.

Celtic

This branch contains two sub-branches: Continental Celtic and Insular Celtic. By about 600 BCE, Celtic-speaking tribes had spread from what today are southern Germany, Austria, and Western Czech Republic in almost all directions, to France, Belgium, Spain, and the British Isles, then by 400 BCE, they also moved southward into northern Italy and southeast into the Balkans and even beyond.

During the early I-st century BCE, Celtic-speaking tribes dominated a very significant portion of Europe. On 50 BCE, Julius Caesar conquered Gaul, ancient France, and Britain was also conquered about a century later by the Emperor Claudius.

As a result, this large Celtic-speaking area was absorbed by Rome, Latin became the dominant language, and the Continental Celtic languages eventually died out. The chief Continental language was Gaulish.

Insular Celtic developed in the British Isles after Celtic-speaking tribes entered around the VI-th century BCE. In Ireland, Insular Celtic flourished, aided

by the geographical isolation which kept Ireland relatively safe from the Roman and Anglo-Saxon invasion.

The only Celtic languages still spoken today: Irish Gaelic, Scottish Gaelic, Welsh and Breton, all come from Insular Celtic.

Germanic

In the middle of the I-st millennium BCE, Germanic tribes lived in southern Scandinavia and northern Germany, i.e. in an area stretching from southern Scandinavia to the coast of the North Baltic Sea. Their expansions and migrations from the II-nd century BCE onward are largely recorded in history. The oldest Germanic language of which much is known is the Gothic of the IV-th century CE. Other languages include English, German, Dutch, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Icelandic.

During prehistoric times, the Germanic speaking tribes came into contact with Finnic speakers in the north and also with Balto-Slavic tribes in the east. As a result of this interaction, the Germanic language borrowed several terms from Finnish and Balto-Slavic.

The Germanic branch is divided in three sub-branches: East Germanic, currently extinct; North Germanic, containing Old Norse, the ancestor of all modern Scandinavian languages; and West Germanic, containing Old English, Old Saxon, and Old High German.

Dutch, English, Frisian, and Yiddish are some examples of modern survivors of the West Germanic sub-branch, while Danish, Faroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish are survivors of the North Germanic branch.

Several varieties of Old Norse were spoken by most Vikings. Native Nordic pre-Christian Germanic mythology and folklore has been also preserved in Old Norse, in a dialect named Old Icelandic.

Armenian

The origin of the Armenian-speaking people is a topic still unresolved. Armenian, like Greek, is a single language. Speakers of Armenian are recorded as being in eastern Turkey and Armenia as early as the VI-th century BCE, but the oldest Armenian texts date from the V-th century CE.

The alphabet of the Armenian language was formed in 440 CE. In the XI-th century the syntactical system of the Armenian language was changed under the influence of the French.

It is probable that the Armenians and the Phrygians belonged to the same migratory wave that entered Anatolia, coming from the Balkans around the late II-nd millennium BCE. The Armenians settled in an area around Lake Van, in Turkey; this region belonged to the state of Urartu during the early I-st millennium BCE.

In the VIII-th century BCE, Urartu came under Assyrian control and in the VII-th century BCE, the Armenians took over the region. The Medes absorbed the region soon after and Armenia became a vassal state.

During the time of the Achaemenid Empire, the region turned into a Persian satrap. The Persian domination had a strong linguistic impact on Armenian, which mislead many scholars in the past to believe that Armenian actually belonged to the Iranian group.

Tocharian

The history of the Tocharian-speaking people is still surrounded by mystery. We know that they lived in the Taklimakan Desert, located in western China. Most of the Tocharian texts left are translations from well-known Buddhist works, and all of these texts have been dated between the VI-th and the VIII-th centuries CE. None of these texts speak about the Tocharians themselves.

Two different languages belong to this branch: Tocharian A and Tocharian B. Remains of the Tocharian A language have only been found in places where Tocharian B documents have also been found, which would suggest that Tocharian A was already extinct, kept alive only as a religious or poetic language, while Tocharian B was the living language used for administrative purposes.

Many well-preserved mummies with Caucasoid features such as tall stature, red, blonde, and brown hair have been discovered in the Taklimakan Desert, dating between 1800 BCE to 200 CE. The weaving style and patterns of their clothes is similar to the Hallstatt culture in central Europe. Physical analysis and genetic evidence have revealed resemblances with the inhabitants of western Eurasia.

This branch is completely extinct. Among all ancient Indo-European languages, Tocharian was spoken farthest to the east.

The Tocharian languages, now extinct, were spoken in the Tarim Basin, in present-day north-western China, during the I-st millennium CE. Two distinct languages are known, labeled A (East Tocharian, or Turfanian) and B (West Tocharian, or Kuchean). One group of travel permits for caravans can be dated to the early VII-th century, and it appears that other texts date from the same or from neighbouring centuries.

These languages became known to scholars only in the first decade of the XX-th century. They have been less important for Indo-European studies than Hittite has been, partly because their testimony about the Indo-European parent language is obscured by 2,000 more years of change and partly because Tocharian testimony fits fairly well with that of the previously known non-Anatolian languages.

Balto-Slavic

The grouping of Baltic and Slavic into a single branch is somewhat controversial, but the exclusively shared features outweigh the divergences. At the

beginning of the Common Era, Baltic and Slavic tribes occupied a large area of Eastern Europe, east of the Germanic tribes and north of the Iranians, including much of present-day Poland and the states of Belarus, Ukraine, and western most Russia. This branch contains two sub-branches: Baltic and Slavic.

During the late Bronze Age, the Balts' territory may have stretched from around western Poland all the way across to the Ural Mountains. Afterwards, the Balts occupied a small region along the Baltic Sea. Those in the northern part of the territory occupied by the Balts were in close contact with Finnic tribes, whose language was not part of the Indo-European language family: Finnic speakers borrowed a considerable amount of Baltic words, which suggests that the Balts had an important cultural prestige in that area.

Archaeological evidence shows that from 1500 BCE, either the Slavs or their ancestors occupied an area stretching from near the western Polish borders towards the Dnieper River in Belarus. The Slavic area was in all likelihood relatively small, perhaps centred in what is now southern Poland.

Under the pressure of Gothic and Slavic migrations, the territory of the Balts was reduced towards the V-th century CE. In the V-th century CE the Slavs began expanding in all directions. During the VI-th century CE, the Slav-speaking tribes expanded their territory, migrating into Greece and the Balkans: this is when they are mentioned for the first time, in Byzantine records referring to this large migration. Either some or all of the Slavs were once located further to the east, in or around Iranian territory, since many Iranian words were borrowed into pre-Slavic at an early stage. Later on, as they moved westward, they came into contact with German tribes and again borrowed several additional terms.

The earliest Slavic texts, written in a dialect called Old Church Slavonic, date from the IX-th century CE, the oldest substantial material in Baltic dates to the end of the XIV-th century, and the oldest connected texts to the XVI-th century.

By the end of the XX-th century Slavic languages were spoken throughout much of Eastern Europe and northern Asia. The Baltic-speaking area, however, contracted, and by the end of the XX-th century Baltic languages were confined to Lithuania and Latvia.

Only two Baltic languages survive today: Latvian and Lithuanian. A large number of Slavic languages survive today, such as Bulgarian, Czech, Croatian, Polish, Serbian, Slovak, Russian, and many others.

Albanian

Albanian is the last branch of Indo-European languages to appear in written form. There are two hypotheses on the origin of Albanian. The first one says that Albanian is a modern descendant of Illyrian, a language which was widely spoken in the region during classical times. Since we know very little about Illyrian, this assertion can be neither denied nor confirmed from a linguistic standpoint.

From a historical and geographical perspective, however, this assertion makes sense. Another hypotheses says that Albanian is a descendant of Thracian, another lost language that was spoken farther east than Illyrian.

Albanian, the language of the present-day republic of Albania, is known from the XV-th century CE. It presumably continues one of the very poorly attested ancient Indo-European languages of the Balkan Peninsula, but which one is not clear. Today Albanian is spoken in Albania as the official language, in several other areas in of the former Yugoslavia and also in small enclaves in southern Italy, Greece and the Republic of Macedonia.

In addition to the principal branches just listed, there are several poorly documented extinct languages of which enough is known to be sure that they were Indo-European and that they did not belong in any of the groups enumerated above, for example: Phrygian, Macedonian, of a few, too little is known to be sure whether they were Indo-European or not.

Unaffiliated Languages

All languages in this group are either extinct or they are a former stage of a modern language. Examples of this group of languages are Phrygian, Thracian, and Ancient Macedonian, not to be confused with Macedonian, a language currently spoken in the Republic of Macedonia, part of the Slavic branch, Illyrian, Venetic, Messapic, and Lusitanian.

4. Indo-European Historical Linguistics.

Up to now there have been a number of good books published on Indo-European in English in the last ten years. To my mind, ***Benjamin W. Fortson IV*** gives a very clear and readable picture of Proto-Indo-European, the language, which is hypothesised to be parent of Latin, Greek, Sanskrit and the rest of the Indo-European family. He also provides a great deal of information about all the languages of the Indo-European family and about the changes, which have undergone in their evolution from Proto-Indo-European. B.W.Fortson IV is very up-to-date with current thinking and research on PIE and the daughter languages, and much of the material deftly presented is otherwise hard to access in such a convenient form.

In ancient times it was noticed that some languages presented striking similarities: Greek and Latin are a well-known example. During classical antiquity it was noted, for example, that Greek “héks”- “six” and “heptá” - “seven” were similar to the Latin “sex” and “septem”. Furthermore, the regular correspondence of the initial “h-” in Greek to the initial “s-” in Latin was pointed out.

The explanation that the ancients came up with that, the Latin language was a descendant of Greek language. Centuries later, during and after the Renaissance, the close similarities between more languages were also noted, and it was understood that certain groups of languages were related, such as Icelandic and

English, and also the Romance languages. Despite all of these observations, the science of linguistics did not develop much further until the XVIII-th century CE.

During the British colonial expansion into India, a British orientalist and jurist named ***Sir William Jones*** became familiar with the Sanskrit language. Jones was also knowledgeable in Greek and Latin and was surprised by the similarities between these three languages. During a lecture on February 2, 1786 CE, Sir William Jones expressed his new ideas:

The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists; there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the old Persian might be added to the same family, if this were the place for discussing any question concerning the antiquity of Persia (B.W. Fortson, p.9).

It is necessary to mention that Sanskrit studies and their impact have a great importance today. The ancient Greeks and Romans readily perceived that their languages were related to each other, and, as other European languages became objects of scholarly attention in the late Middle Ages and the Renaissance, many of these were seen to be more similar to Latin and Greek than, for example, to Hebrew or Hungarian. But an accurate idea of the true bounds of the Indo-European family became possible only when, in the XVI-th century, Europeans began to learn Sanskrit.

The massive similarities between Sanskrit and Latin and Greek were noted early, but the first person to make the correct inference and state it conspicuously

was the British orientalist and jurist ***Sir William Jones***, who in 1786 said in his presidential address to the Bengal Asiatic Society that Sanskrit bore to both Greek and Latin a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs, and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong, indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three, without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists.

There is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothick, i.e. Germanic, and the Celtick, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Sanscrit; and the Old Persian might be added to the same family.

XIX-th century linguists firmly established the connections that ***Sir William Jones*** had elucidated and broadened the family to include Slavic, Baltic, and other language groups. In 1816 ***Franz Bopp***, the German philologist, presented his "Über das Conjugations system der Sanskritsprache in Vergleichung mit jenem der griechischen, lateinischen, persischen und germanischen Sprache" ("On the System of Conjugation in Sanskrit, in Comparison with Those of Greek, Latin, Persian, and Germanic"), in which the relation of these five languages was demonstrated on the basis of a detailed comparison of verb morphology (structure).

Two years later there appeared the "Undersøgelse Om det gamle Nordiske eller Islandske Sprogs Oprindelse" (Investigation of the Origin of the Old Norse or Icelandic Language), by the Danish philologist ***Rasmus Rask***, completed in 1814. This work demonstrated methodically the relation of Germanic to Latin, Greek, Slavic, and Baltic. R.Rask included Celtic a few years later.

In 1822 the second edition of the first volume of ***Jacob Grimm***'s "Deutsche Grammatik" ("Germanic Grammar") was published. In this grammar were discussed the peculiar Indo-European vowel alternations called "Ablaut" by ***Grimm***, for example, in English "sing, sang, sung"; or Greek "peíth-ō" – "I persuade", "pé-poith-a" – "I am persuaded", "é-pith-on" – "I persuaded".

In addition, ***Jacob Grimm*** tried to find the principle behind the correspondences of Germanic stop and spirant consonants, the first made with complete stoppage of the breath, and the second made with constriction of the breath but not complete stoppage, to the consonants of other Indo-European languages.

The sound changes implied by these correspondences have become known as **Grimm's Law**. Examples of it include the stop consonant "p" in Latin "pater" corresponding to the spirant consonant "f" in "father", and the correspondences between English and Greek "t,d, th" discussed above.

Franz Bopp demonstrated in 1839 that the Celtic languages were Indo-European, as had been asserted by ***Jones***. In 1850 the German philologist ***August Schleicher*** did the same for Albanian, and in 1877 another German philologist ***Heinrich Hübschmann***, showed that Armenian was an independent branch of Indo-European, rather than a member of the Iranian subbranch.

Since then the Indo-European family has been enlarged by the discovery of Tocharian languages and of Hittite and the other Anatolian languages and by the recognition, with the aid of Hittite, that Lycian, known and partly deciphered already in the XIX-th century, belongs to the Anatolian branch of Indo-European.

The Indo-European character of Tocharian was announced by the German scholars ***Emil Sieg*** and ***Wilhelm Siegling*** in 1908. The Norwegian Assyriologist ***Jorgen Alexander Knudtzon*** recognized Hittite as Indo-European on the basis of two letters found in Egypt, translated in "Die zwei Arzawa-briefe" 1902; ("The Two Arzawa Letters"), but his views were not generally accepted until 1915, when ***Bedřich Hrozný*** published the first report of his own decipherment of the much more copious material that had meanwhile been found in the ruins of the Hittite capital itself.

The first full comparative grammar of the major Indo-European languages was ***F.Bopp***'s "Vergleichende Grammatik des Sanskrit, Zend, Griechischen,

Lateinischen, Litthauischen, Altslawischen, Gotischen und Deutschen" (1833-1852); "Comparative Grammar of Sanskrit, Zend, Greek, Latin, Lithuanian, Old Slavic, Gothic, and German".

But this and ***August Schleicher***'s shorter "Compendium der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen" (1861-1862); "Compendium of the Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European Languages" were rendered obsolete by the major breakthrough of the 1870-s, when scholars prompted largely by the discoveries of a group of German scholars known as Neogrammarians realized that sound correspondences are not merely rules of thumb that do not have to be strictly observed, but that apparent exceptions to sound laws can often be accounted for by stating them more accurately or by reconstructing additional different sounds in the parent language.

The difference between Gothic "d" in "fadar" - "father" and and "þ" in "broþar" – "brother", for example, both corresponding to "t" in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, proved to be correlated with the original position of the accent, a discovery known as **Verner's Law** named for the Danish linguist ***Karl Verner***. Thus, "d" appears when the preceding syllable was originally unaccented ("fadar": Greek "patér-", Sanskrit "pitár-"), and "þ" occurs when the preceding syllable was originally accented ("broþar": Greek "phrā́ter" – "member of a clan", Sanskrit "bhrā́tar").

The knowledge and opinions that had accumulated by the end of the XIX-th century are largely incorporated in the German linguist ***Karl Brugmann***'s "Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen" (2-nd ed., 1897–1916; "Outline of Comparative Indo-European Grammar"), which remains the latest full-scale treatment of the family.

The idea that Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, and Persian were derived from a common source was revolutionary at that time. This was a turning point in the history of linguistics. Rather than the "daughter" of Greek, Latin was for the first

time understood as the "sister" of Greek. By becoming familiar with Sanskrit, a language geographically far removed from Greek and Latin, and realizing that chance was an insufficient explanation for the similarities between these languages, ***Sir William Jones*** presented a new insight which triggered the development of Modern Linguistics.

5. The divergence of the Indo-European languages.

Linguists have not found a reliable and precise way to determine from linguistic evidence alone the date at which any set of related languages must have begun diverging. Computational methods for calculating the "time depths" of language families have been proposed, but they have not been shown to yield reliable results. The best that can be done is to estimate the degree of difference between the languages in question, taking into account all that is known about them, and then compare this estimate with the estimated degrees of difference within families of languages, such as the Romance family, whose actual time of divergence is approximately known.

Using this sort of "dead reckoning," most linguists agree that the earliest attested Indo-European languages Anatolian, Indo-Iranian, and Greek - are different enough that the parent language must have been split into several distinct languages before 3000 BCE, but similar enough that the first split into separate languages is not likely to have been much earlier than about 4500 BCE.

For further progress the linguistic findings must be correlated with archaeological evidence. Linguistic, historical, and geographic considerations suggest that the speakers of Proto-Indo-European were a relatively small and homogeneous Eurasian population group that underwent significant expansion and fragmentation in the period around 4000 BCE.

Many scholars identify the Indo-Europeans with the bearers of what has been called the “Kurgan (Barrow) culture” of the Black Sea and the Caucasus and west of the Urals. The Kurgan culture, however, was only one of a number of related steppe cultures extending across the entire Black Sea - Caspian Sea region, an area that was transformed after 4000 BCE by the advent of horse-drawn wheeled vehicles and related innovations.

It is probably best, therefore, to follow ***J.P. Mallory*** “In Search of the Indo-Europeans” (1989) in locating the speakers of Proto-Indo-European among the populations of this region but not to attempt a more precise identification until further evidence is available. A radically different theory, according to which the Indo-European spread began in Asia Minor about 7000 BCE, is difficult to square with the linguistic facts.

A remote relationship of Indo-European to the Uralic languages is possible. Geographically, the earliest reconstructible locations of the two families are contiguous; there are strong resemblances in a number of basic grammatical elements, including personal, demonstrative, interrogative, and relative pronouns, personal endings of verbs, the accusative case ending “-m”, and a very few words, such as those for “water” and “name”; typologically, the families are fairly similar, for example, both have many suffixes, but few or no prefixes or infixes: elements inserted within words.

On the whole, however, the lexical resemblances between Indo-European and Uralic are very sparse; the two families, if they are related at all, must have separated thousands of years before the breakup of Proto-Indo-European.

Indo-European languages are family of the languages spoken in most of Europe and areas of European settlement and in much of Southwest and South Asia. The term “Indo-Hittite” is used by scholars who believe that Hittite and the other Anatolian languages are not just one branch of Indo-European but rather a branch coordinate with all the rest put together; thus, Indo-Hittite has been used for

a family consisting of Indo-European proper plus Anatolian. As long as this view is neither definitively proved nor disproved, it is convenient to keep the traditional use of the term “Indo-European”.

If Indo-European is related to other language families, for example, to Afro-Asiatic, which includes the Semitic languages, or to Kartvelian, which includes Georgian, it must have diverged from them much earlier than it diverged from Uralic, because the number of cogent resemblances is still smaller. There is no significant evidence at present for a “Nostratic” superfamily embracing these and other groups.

Questions:

What do you know about Indo-European Language Family and Indo-European Peoples?

What are the two major branches of Indo-European?

What are English’s a closest relative on the West branch of the Germanic language family?

Describe the peculiarities of the Indo-European Historical Linguistics.

What is the main divergence of the Indo-European languages?

Lecture 3. The Time Periods of English.

1. The Prehistory of English.

2. The Problem of Division of English History into Periods.

The ultimate origins of English lie in Indo-European, a family of languages consisting of most of the languages of Europe as well as those of Iran, the Indian subcontinent, and other parts of Asia. Because little is known about ancient Indo-European, which may have been spoken as long ago as 3.000 B.C., we'll begin our survey in Britain in the first century A.D.

43 - The Romans invade Britain, beginning 400 years of control over much of the island.

410 - The Goths speakers of a now extinct East Germanic language sack Rome. The first Germanic tribes arrive in Britain.

Early V-th century - With the collapse of the empire, Romans withdraw from Britain. Britons are attacked by the Picts and by Scots from Ireland. Angles, Saxons, and other German settlers arrive in Britain to assist the Britons and claim territory.

V-th – VI-th centuries - Germanic peoples (Angles, Saxons, Jutes, Frisians) speaking West Germanic dialects settle most of Britain. Celts retreat to distant areas of Britain: Ireland, Scotland, and Wales. 500-1100: The Old English or Anglo-Saxon Period: The conquest of the Celtic population in Britain by speakers of West Germanic dialects, primarily Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, eventually determined many of the essential characteristics of the English language. The Celtic influence on English survives for the most part only in place names: London, Dover, Avon, and York. Over time the dialects of the various invaders merged, giving rise to what we now call "Old English".

Late VI-th century - Ethelbert, the King of Kent, is baptized. He is the first English king to convert to Christianity.

VII-th century - Rise of the Saxon Kingdom of Wessex; the Saxon Kingdoms of Essex and Middlesex; the Angle Kingdoms of Mercia, East Anglia, and Northumbria. St. Augustine and Irish missionaries convert Anglo-Saxons to Christianity, introducing new religious words borrowed from Latin and Greek. Latin speakers begin referring to the country as Anglia and later as Englaland.

673 - Birth of the Venerable Bede, the monk who composed in Latin.The Ecclesiastical History of the English People (c.731), a key source of information about Anglo Saxon settlement.

700 - Approximate date of the earliest manuscript records of Old English.

Late of the VIII-th century - Scandinavians begin to settle in Britain and Ireland; Danes settle in parts of Ireland.

Early IX-th century - Egbert of Wessex incorporates Cornwall into his kingdom and is recognized as overlord of the seven kingdoms of the Angles and Saxons (the Heptarchy): England begins to emerge.

Middle of the IX-th century - Danes raid England, occupy Northumbria, and establish a Kingdom at York. Danish begins to influence English.

Late of the IX-th century - King Alfred of Wessex (Alfred the Great) leads the Anglo-Saxons to victory over the Vikings, translates Latin works into English, and establishes the writing of prose in English. He uses the English language to foster a sense of national identity. England is divided into a kingdom ruled by the Anglo-Saxons (under Alfred) and another ruled by the Scandinavians.

X-th century - English and Danes mix fairly peacefully, and many Scandinavian or Old Norse loanwords enter the language, including such common words as “sister”, “wish”, “skin”, “die”.

1000 - Approximate date of the only surviving manuscript of the Old English epic poem "Beowulf", composed by an anonymous poet between the VIII-th century and the early XI-th century.

Early of the XI-th century - Danes attack England and the English King Ethelred the Unready escapes to Normandy. The Battle of Maldon becomes the subject of one of the few surviving poems in Old English. The Danish King Canute rules over England and encourages the growth of Anglo-Saxon culture and literature.

Middle of the XI-th century - Edward the Confessor, King of England who was raised in Normandy, names William, Duke of Normandy as his heir.

1066 - The Norman Invasion: King Harold is killed at the Battle of Hastings, and William of Normandy is crowned King of England. Over succeeding decades, Norman French becomes the language of the courts and of the upper classes; English remains the language of the majority. Latin is used in churches and schools. For the next century, English, for all practical purposes, is no longer a written language.

1100-1500: The Middle English period saw the breakdown of the inflectional system of Old English and the expansion of vocabulary with many borrowings from French and Latin.

1150 - Approximate date of the earliest surviving texts in Middle English.

1171 - Henry II declares himself overlord of Ireland, introducing Norman French and English to the country. About this time the University of Oxford is founded.

1204 - King John loses control of the Duchy of Normandy and other French lands; England is now the only home of the Norman French and English.

1209 - The University of Cambridge is formed by scholars from Oxford.

1215 - King John signs the Magna Carta – "Great Charter", a critical document in the long historical process leading to the rule of constitutional law in the English-speaking world.

1258 - King Henry III is forced to accept the Provisions of Oxford, which established a Privy Council to oversee the administration of the government. These documents, though annulled a few years later, are generally regarded as England's first written constitution.

Late XIII-th century - Under Edward I, royal authority is consolidated in England and Wales. English becomes the dominant language of all classes.

Middle to late XIV-th century - the Hundred Years War between England and France leads to the loss of almost all of England's French possessions. The Black Death kills roughly one-third of England's population. ***Geoffrey Chaucer*** composes "The Canterbury Tales" in Middle English. English becomes the official language of the law courts and replaces Latin as the medium of instruction at most schools. ***John Wycliffe***'s English translation of the Latin Bible is published. The Great Vowel Shift begins, marking the loss of the so-called "pure" vowel sounds, which are still found in many continental languages, and the loss of the phonetic pairings of most long and short vowel sounds.

1362 - The Statute of Pleading makes English the official language in England. Parliament is opened with its first speech delivered in English.

1399 - At his coronation, King Henry IV becomes the first English monarch to deliver a speech in English.

Late of the XV-th century - William Caxton brings to Westminster from the Rhineland the first printing press and publishes Chaucer's "The Canterbury Tales". Literacy rates increase significantly, and printers "begin" to standardize English spelling. The monk Galfridus Grammaticus, also known as Geoffrey the

Grammarian, publishes "Thesaurus Linguae Romanae et Britannicae", the first English-to-Latin wordbook.

1500 to the Present: The Modern English Period. Distinctions are commonly drawn between the Early Modern Period (1500-1800) and Late Modern English (1800 to the present).

During the period of Modern English, British exploration, colonization, and overseas trade hastened the acquisition of loanwords from countless other languages and fostered the development of new varieties of English (World English), each with its own nuances of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. Since the middle of the XX-th century, the expansion of North American business and media around the world has led to the emergence of Global English as a lingua franca.

Early of the XVI-th century - The first English settlements are made in North America. William Tyndale's English translation of the Bible is published. Many Greek and Latin borrowings enter English.

1542 - In his "Fyrst Boke of the Introduction of Knowledge", Andrew Boorde illustrates regional dialects.

1549 - The first version of the Book of Common Prayer of the Church of England is published.

1553 - Thomas Wilson publishes "The Art of Rhetorique", one of the first works on logic and rhetoric in English.

1577 - Henry Peacham publishes "The Garden of Eloquence", a treatise on rhetoric.

1586 - The first Grammar of English - William Bullokar's "Pamphlet for Grammar" is published.

1587 - Elizabeth I begins her 45-year reign as queen of England. The British defeat the Spanish Armada, boosting national pride and enhancing the legend of Queen Elizabeth.

1589 - "The Art of English Poesie", attributed to George Puttenham, is published.

1590-1611 - William Shakespeare writes his "Sonnets" and the majority of his plays.

1600 - The East India Company is chartered to promote trade with Asia, eventually leading to the establishment of the British Raj in India.

1603 - Queen Elizabeth dies and James I (James VI of Scotland) accedes to the throne.

1604 - Robert Cawdrey's "Table Alphabeticall", the first English dictionary, is published.

1607 - The first permanent English settlement in America is established at Jamestown, Virginia.

1611 - The Authorized Version of the English Bible (the "King James" Bible) is published, greatly influencing the development of the written language.

1619 - The first African slaves in North America arrive in Virginia.

1622 - "Weekly News", the first English newspaper, is published in London.

1642 - The First Folio edition of Shakespeare's plays is published.

1642 - Civil War breaks out in England after King Charles I attempt to arrest his parliamentary critics. The war leads to the execution of Charles I the dissolution of parliament and the replacement of the English monarchy with a Protectorate (1653–59) under Oliver Cromwell's rule.

1660 - The monarchy is restored; Charles II is proclaimed King.

1661 - The Royal Society of London appoints a committee to consider ways of "improving" English as a language of science.

1666 - The Great Fire of London destroys most of the city of London inside the old Roman City Wall.

1667 - John Milton publishes his epic poem "Paradise Lost".

1670 - The Hudson's Bay Company is chartered for promoting trade and settlement in Canada.

1688 - Aphra Behn, the first woman novelist in England, publishes "Oroonoko", or "the History of the Royal Slave".

1697 - In his "Essay upon Projects", Daniel Defoe calls for the creation of an Academy of 36 "gentlemen" to dictate English usage.

1702 - "The Daily Courant", the first regular daily newspaper in English, is published in London.

1707 - The Act of Union unites the Parliaments of England and Scotland, creating the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

1709 - The first Copyright Act is enacted in England.

1712 - Anglo-Irish satirist and cleric Jonathan Swift proposes the creation of an English Academy to regulate English usage and "ascertain" the language.

1719 - Daniel Defoe publishes "Robinson Crusoe", considered by some to be the first modern English novel.

1721 - Nathaniel Bailey publishes his "Universal Etymological Dictionary of the English Language", a pioneer study in English lexicography: the first to feature current usage, etymology, syllabification, clarifying quotations, illustrations, and indications of pronunciation.

1755 - Elisabeth Elstob publishes the first grammar of Old English.

1755 - Samuel Johnson publishes his two-volume "Dictionary of the English Language".

1760-1795 - This period marks the rise of the English grammarians: Joseph Priestly, Robert Lowth, James Buchanan, John Ash, Thomas Sheridan, George Campbell, William Ward, and Lindley Murray, whose rule books, primarily based on prescriptive notions of grammar, become increasingly popular.

1776 - Robert Lowth publishes his "Short Introduction to English Grammar".

1776 - The Declaration of Independence is signed, and the American War of Independence begins, leading to the creation of the United States of America, the first country outside the British Isles with English as its principal language.

1783 - George Campbell publishes "The Philosophy of Rhetoric".

1785 - Noah Webster publishes his "American Spelling Book".

1785 - "The Daily Universal Register", renamed "The Times" in 1788, begins publication in London.

1789 - The English first settle in Australia, near present-day Sydney.

1789 - Noah Webster publishes "Dissertations on the English Language", which advocates an American standard of usage.

1791 - "The Observer", the oldest national Sunday newspaper in Britain, begins publication.

Early XIX-th century – Grimm's Law, discovered by Friedrich von Schlegel and Rasmus Rask, later elaborated by Jacob Grimm, identifies relationships between certain consonants in Germanic languages, including English, and their originals in Indo-European. The formulation of Grimm's Law marks a major advance in the development of linguistics as a scholarly field of study.

1803 - The Act of Union incorporates Ireland into Britain, creating the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

1810 - The British occupy Cape Colony in South Africa.

1810 - William Hazlitt publishes "A New and Improved Grammar of the English Language".

1816 - John Pickering compiles the first dictionary of Americanisms.

1828 - Noah Webster publishes his "American Dictionary of the English Language". Richard Whateley publishes "Elements of Rhetoric".

1842 - The native Maori in New Zealand cede sovereignty to the British.

1844 - The London Philological Society is founded.

1844 - The telegraph is invented by Samuel Morse, inaugurating the development of rapid communication, a major influence on the growth and spread of English.

Middle of the XIX-th century - A standard variety of American English develops. English is established in Australia, South Africa, India, and other British colonial outposts.

1866 - The first edition of "Roget's Thesaurus" is published.

1866 - James Russell Lowell champions the use of American regionalisms, helping to end deference to the Received British Standard. Alexander Bain publishes "English Composition and Rhetoric". The transatlantic telegraph cable is completed.

1876 - Alexander Graham Bell invents the telephone, thus modernizing private communication.

1879 - James A.H. Murray begins editing the Philological Society's "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles", later renamed the Oxford English Dictionary.

1884/1885 - Mark Twain's novel "The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn" introduces a colloquial prose style that significantly influences the writing of fiction in the U.S. (Mark Twain's Colloquial Prose Style.)

1901 - The Commonwealth of Australia is established as a dominion of the British Empire.

1906 - Henry and Francis Fowler publish the first edition of "The King's English".

1919 - New Zealand is established as a dominion of the British Empire.

1919 - H.L.Mencken publishes the first edition of "The American Language", a pioneer study in the history of a major national version of English.

1920 - The first American commercial radio station begins operating in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

1921 - Ireland achieves Home Rule, and Gaelic is made an official language in addition to English.

1922 - The British Broadcasting Company, later renamed the British Broadcasting Corporation, or BBC, is established.

1925 – "The New Yorker" magazine is founded by Harold Ross and Jane Grant.

1925 - George P. Krapp publishes his two-volume "The English Language in America", the first comprehensive and scholarly treatment of the subject.

1926 - Henry Fowler publishes the first edition of his "Dictionary of Modern English Usage".

1927 - The first speaking motion picture, "The Jazz Singer", is released.

1928 - "The Oxford English Dictionary" is published.

1936 - British linguist C.K. Ogden introduces Basic English.

1939 - The first television service is established by the BBC.

1945 - World War II begins.

1945 - World War II ends. The Allied victory contributes to the growth of English as a lingua franca.

1946 - The Philippines gains its independence from the U.S.

1947 - India is freed from British control and divided into Pakistan and India. The constitution provides that English remain the official language for 15 years. New Zealand gains its independence from the U.K. and joins the Commonwealth.

1949 - Hans Kurath publishes "A Word Geography of the Eastern United States", a landmark in the scientific study of American regionalisms.

1950 - Kenneth Burke publishes "A Rhetoric of Motives".

1950-s - The number of speakers using English as a second language exceeds the number of native speakers.

1957 - Noam Chomsky publishes "Syntactic Structures", a key document in the study of generative and transformational grammar.

1967 - "Webster's Third New International Dictionary" is published.

1967 - The Welsh Language Act gives the Welsh language equal validity with English in Wales, and Wales is no longer considered a part of England. Henry Kucera and Nelson Francis publish "Computational Analysis of Present-Day American English", a landmark in modern corpus linguistics.

1969 - Canada officially becomes bilingual: French and English. The first major English dictionary to use corpus linguistics "The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language" is published.

1972 - "A Grammar of Contemporary English" by Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik is published. The first call on a personal cell phone is made. The first email is sent.

1978 - "The Linguistic Atlas of England" is published.

1985 - The first issue of the journal "World Englishes" is published.

1985 - "A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language" is published by Longman. The first edition of M.A.K. Halliday's "An Introduction to Functional Grammar" is published.

1988 - The Internet, under development for more than 30 years, is opened to commercial interests.

1993 - The second edition of "The Oxford English Dictionary" is published.

1993 - Mosaic, the web browser credited with popularizing the World Wide Web, is released. Netscape Navigator becomes available in 1994, Yahoo! in 1995, and Google in 1998.

1994 - Text messaging is introduced, and the first modern blogs go online.

1995 - David Crystal publishes "The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language".

1997 - The first social networking site (SixDegrees.com) is launched. (Friendster is introduced in 2002, and both MySpace and Facebook begin operating in 2004).

2000 - The Oxford English Dictionary Online (OED Online) is made available to subscribers.

2002 - Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum publish "The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language". Tom McArthur publishes "The Oxford Guide to World English".

2003- The Harvard Dictionary of Music.

2006 - Twitter, a social networking and microblogging service, is created by Jack Dorsey.

2009 - The two-volume "Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary" is published by Oxford University Press.

2012 - The fifth volume (SI-Z) of the "Dictionary of American Regional English" *(*DARE*)* is published by Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

2013 - "Oxford Word of the Year 2013". "Oxford Dictionaries" just announced that their Word of the Year for 2013 is selfie, which means "a photograph that one taken with a smartphone or webcam and uploaded to a social media website".

2014 - Encarta Dictionary; British National Corpus - A Sociolinguistic book is out "Linguistics and English Language". Corpus Approaches to Contemporary British Speech – Sociolinguistic Studies of the Spoken BNC 2014, edited by Vaclav Beezina, Robbie Love and Karin Aijener. This book offers a series of studies that provide a unique insight into a number of topics ranging from Discourse, Pragmatics and Interaction to Morphology and Syntax.

2015 - The UK Cognitive Linguistics Association – UK-CLA's journal "Language & Cognition". The central objectives of the UK-CLA are to develop and promote the multi-disciplinary field of Cognitive Linguistics within the UK, as well as contribute to the research – and event-based synergy currently growing across Europe, and to foster initiatives and exchanges at the wider international level. To this end, the Association organises a biennial UK-based conference in Cognitive Linguistics.

2016 - Mark the 400-th anniversary of Shakespeare's death.

2017 - The IX-th International Corpus Linguistics Conference took place from Monday 24 to Friday 28 July at the University of Birmingham.

2018 - The University of Westminster - Forum for Language and Linguistics is the home of the London Linguistics Calendar.

2019 - UCL Historical Linguistics Network.

2021 – Cambridge Learner's Dictionary.

2022 – Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary.

2022 – The Merriam-Webster Dictionary, Newest Edition.

Questions:

What is the main problem of division of English history into periods?

When did the Romans invade Britain?

When was established the London Philological Society?

When was the first television service established by the BBC? Do you remember the full name of it?

When was published "A Grammar of Contemporary English"?

Lecture 4. Old English.

1. Old English – from the Middle of the V-th century to the Middle of the XI-th century.

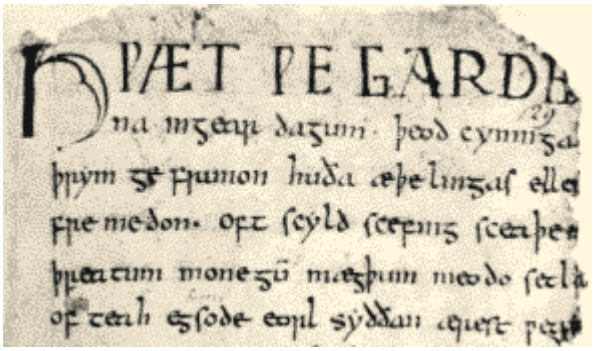
2. Anglo-Saxon England.

3. English Dialects in the Ancient Times.

4. The Role of the Kingdom of Wessex and the Wessex Dialect.

1. Old English – from 450-1100 AD.

The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call **Old English**. Old English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words "be, strong, water", for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.



Part of "Beowulf", a poem written in Old English

Old English (449 - 1066 CE). The Old English language, also called Anglo-Saxon, dates back to 449 CE. The Celts had been living in England when the

Romans invaded. Although they invaded twice, they did not conquer the Celts until 43 CE and Latin never overtook the Celtic language. The Romans finally left England in 410 CE as the Roman Empire was collapsing, leaving the Celts defenseless.

Then the Germanic tribes from the present-day area of Denmark arrived. The four main tribes were the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians. These tribes set up seven kingdoms called the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy that included: Mercia, Northumbria, Kent, Wessex, Sussex, Essex, and East Anglia. Four dialects were spoken in these kingdoms: West Saxon, Kentish, Mercian and Northumbrian. The Celts moved north to Scotland, west to Ireland and south to France, leaving the main area of Britain.

In 731 CE, Bede wrote the "Ecclesiastical History of the English People" in Latin. It detailed the sophisticated society of the Germanic tribes. They had destroyed the Roman civilization in England and built their own, while dominance shifted among the kingdoms beginning with Kent and Northumbria. They aligned with the Celtic clergy and converted to Christianity. Laws and contracts were written down for a sense of permanence and control. The Tribal Hidage, a list of subjects who owed tribute to the king, was written during the Mercian period of power.

Alfred the Great was the king of Wessex from 871-899 while Wessex was the dominant kingdom. During his reign, he united the kingdoms together and commissioned the Anglo-Saxon chronicles, a historical record of important events in England that continued 200 years after his death. Alfred also settled a truce with the Vikings who repeatedly invaded the area.

The Treaty of Wedmore was signed in 878 CE and this "Danelaw" gave the northeast half of England to the Danes for settlement. However, because the languages were so similar, the Danes quickly assimilated and intermarried into the English society.

Although the Danes brought their own writing system with them, called the Futhorc, it was not used in England. It is commonly referred to as Runes. The Insular Hand was the name of the writing system used in England, and it contained many symbols that are no longer found in Modern English: the aesc, thorn, edh, yogh and wynn, as well the macron for distinguishing long vowels.

Analysing the phonological history of Old English, it is necessary to mention that Old English diphthongs have several origins, either from Proto-Germanic or from Old English vowel shifts.

Long diphthongs developed partly from the Proto-Germanic diphthongs [iu], [eu], [au] and partly from the Old English vowel shifts, while the short diphthongs developed only from Old English vowel shifts. These are examples of diphthongs inherited from Proto-Germanic, for example:

PG “biun” > Anglian [bīon], West Saxon [bēon] “be”;

PG “deur” > OE [dēor] “animal” > Modern English “deer”;

PG “dauþ” > OE [dēaþ] “death”.

There are three vowel shifts that resulted in diphthongs: breaking, palatal diphthongization, and back mutation. Through breaking, Anglo-Frisian short [i], [e], [æ] developed into the short diphthongs [io], [eo], [ea] before [h], [w] or a consonant cluster beginning with [r], [l], and Anglo-Frisian long [ī], [ǣ] developed into the diphthongs [īo] and [ēa] before [h].

Palatal diphthongization changed [e], [æ] and [a], [ǣ], [u] and [o], [ē] to the diphthongs [ie], [ea], [ēo], [ēa] respectively after the palatalized consonants [ġ], [sċ], and [ċ], though this may have only been a spelling change.

Back mutation changed [i], [e], and sometimes [a] to [io], [eo], and [ea] before a back vowel in the next syllable.

For instance: PG “liznōjaną” > Anglo-Frisian “lirnian” > Anglian “liornian”, West Saxon “leornian” - “learn” (breaking);

PG “nāh” > AF “nǣh” > Old English “nēah” - “near” (breaking);

PG “gebaną” > AF “jevan” > OE “ġiefan”-“give” (palatal diphthongization);

PG “sebun” > AF “sefon” > OE “seofon” - “seven” (back mutation).

Scholars disagree on whether short diphthongs are phonologically possible, and some say that Old English short diphthongs must actually have been centralized vowels.

Richard M. Hogg argues against this, saying that a length contrast in diphthongs exists in modern languages, such as Scots, in which the short diphthong in “tide” [təid] contrasts with the long diphthong in “tied” [taid].

Peter Schrijver has theorized that Old English breaking developed from language contact with Celtic. He says that two Celtic languages were spoken in Britain, Highland British Celtic, which was phonologically influenced by British Latin and developed into Welsh, Cornish, and Breton, and Lowland British Celtic, which was brought to Ireland at the time of the Roman conquest of Britain and became Old Irish.

Lowland British Celtic had velarization like Old and Modern Irish, which gives preceding vowels a back offglide, and this feature was loaned by language contact into Old English, resulting in backing diphthongs.

2. Anglo-Saxon England.

West Germanic invaders from Jutland and southern Denmark: the Angles, whose name is the source of the words England and English, Saxons, and Jutes, began to settle in the British Isles in the fifth and sixth centuries AD.

They spoke a mutually intelligible language, similar to modern Frisian - the language of the north-eastern region of the Netherlands - that is called Old English.

Four major dialects of Old English emerged, Northumbrian in the north of England, Mercian in the Midlands, West Saxon in the south and west, and Kentish in the Southeast.

These invaders pushed the original, Celtic-speaking inhabitants out of what is now England into Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland, leaving behind a few Celtic words.

The Celtic languages survive today in the Gaelic languages of Scotland and Ireland and in Welsh. Cornish, unfortunately, is, in linguistic terms, now a dead language. The last native Cornish speaker died in 1777.

Also influencing English at this time were the Vikings. Norse invasions and settlement, beginning around 850, brought many North Germanic words into the language, particularly in the north of England.

Some examples are “dream”, which had meant “joy” until the Vikings imparted its current meaning on it from the Scandinavian cognate “draumr”, and “skirt”, which continues to live alongside its native English cognate “shirt”.

The majority of words in modern English come from foreign, not Old English roots. In fact, only about one sixth of the known Old English words have descendants surviving today. But this is deceptive; Old English is much more important than these statistics would indicate.

About half of the most commonly used words in modern English have Old English roots. Words like “be, water, strong”, for example, derive from Old English roots. Old English, whose best known surviving example is the poem Beowulf, lasted until about 1100. Shortly, after the most important event in the development and history of the English language, was the Norman Conquest.

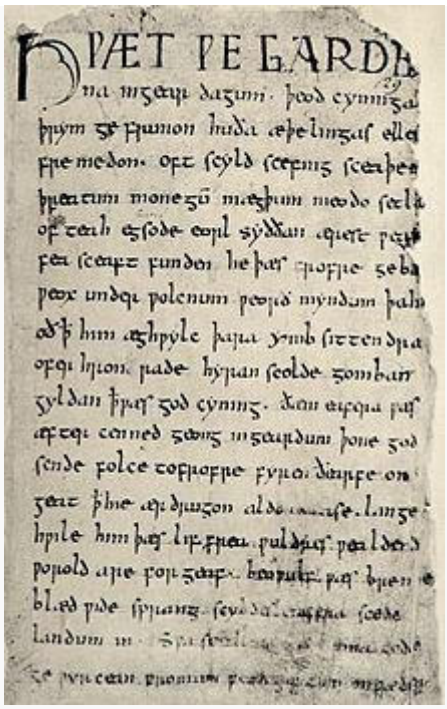
Old English Period (ca. 600-1100)

600-800	**Rise of three great kingdoms politically unifying large areas: Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex. Supremacy passes from one kingdom to another in that order.**
ca.600	**Christianity introduced among Anglo-Saxons by St. Augustine, missionary from Rome. At the same time, Irish missionaries bring the Celtic form of Christianity to mainland Britain from the northwest.**
793	**First serious Viking incursions. Lindisfarne monastery sacked.**
800	**Charlemagne, king of the Franks, crowned Holy Roman Emperor; height of Frankish power in Europe. Wessex kings aspire to similar glory; want to unite all England, and if possible the rest of mainland Britain under one crown (theirs).**
840s - 870s	**Viking incursions grow worse and worse. Large organized groups set up permanent encampments on English soil. Slay kings of Northumbria and East Anglia, subjugate king of Mercia. Storm York (Anglo-Saxon Eoforwic) and set up a Viking kingdom (Jorvik). Wessex stands alone as the last Anglo-Saxon kingdom in Britain.**
871	**Vikings move against Wessex. In six pitched battles, the English hold their own, but fail to repel attackers decisively. In the last battle, the English king is mortally wounded. His young brother, Alfred, who had distinguished himself during the battles, is crowned king.**
871-876	**Alfred builds a navy. The kings of Denmark and Norway have come to view England as ripe for the plucking and begin to prepare an attack.**
876	**Three Danish kings attack Wessex. Alfred prevails, only to be attacked again a few months later. His cause looks hopeless.**
878	**Decisive battle at Edington; Alfred and a large contingent of desperate Anglo-Saxons make a last stand (they know what awaits them if they fail). Alfred leads the Anglo-Saxons to decisive victory; blockades a large Viking camp nearby, starving them into submission; and exacts homage from the kings of Denmark and an oath that the Danes will leave Wessex forever.** **Under Alfred's terms of victory, England is partitioned into a part governed by the Anglo-Saxons (under the house of Wessex) and a part governed by the Scandinavians (some of whom become underlords of Alfred), divided by Watling Street. 15 years of peace follow; Alfred reigns over peaceful and prosperous kingdom, first called "Alfred the Great".**

925	**Athelstan crowned king. It was height of Anglo-Saxon power. Athelstan reconquers York from the Vikings, and even conquers Scotland and Wales, heretofore ruled by Celts. He continues Alfred's mission of making improvements in government, education, defense, and other social institutions.**
X-th century	**Danes and English continue to mix peacefully and ultimately become indistinguishable. Many Scandinavian loanwords enter the language; English even borrows pronouns like "them, their, they".**
978	**Aethelred "the Unready" becomes king at 11 years of age.**
991	**Aethelred has proved to be a weak king, who does not repel minor Viking attacks. Vikings experiment with a major incursion at Maldon in Essex. After losing battle, Aethelred bribes them to depart with 10,000 pounds of silver. Mistake. Sveinn, king of Denmark, takes note.**
994-1014	**After 20 years of continuous battles and bribings, and incompetent and cowardly military leadership and governance, the English capitulate to king Sveinn of Denmark (later also of Norway). Aethelred flees to Normandy, across the channel.**
1014	**Sveinn's young son Cnut (or Canute) crowned king of England. Cnut decides to follow in Alfred's footsteps, aiming for a peaceful and prosperous kingdom that encourages Anglo-Saxon culture and literature. Even marries Aethelred's widow Emma, brought over from Normandy.** **After Cnut's death his sons bicker over the kingdom. When they die without issue, the kingdom passes back to the house of Wessex, to young Edward, son of Aethelred and Emma, who had been raised in exile in Normandy.** **Edward is a pious, monkish man called "The Confessor". Edward has strong partiality for his birthplace, Normandy, a duchy populated by the descendents of Romanized Vikings, especially fond of young Duke William of Normandy.** **Edward is dominated by his Anglo-Saxon earls, especially powerful earl Godwin. Godwin's son, Harold Godwinson, becomes de facto ruler as Edward takes less and less interest in governing.**
1066 - January	**Edward dies childless, apparently recommending Harold Godwinson as successor. Harold duly chosen by Wessex earls, as nearest of kin to the crown is only an infant. Mercian and Northumbrian earls are hesitant to go along with choice of Harold. William of Normandy claims that Harold once promised to support HIM as successor to Edward. Harold denies it. William prepares to mount an invasion. Ready by summer, but the winds are unfavorable for sailing.**
1066 - September	**Harald Hardradi of Norway decides this is a good time to attack England. Harold Godwinson rushes north and crushes Hardradi's army at Stamford Bridge. The winds change, and William puts to sea. Harold rushes back down to the south coast to try to repel William's attack. Mercians and Northumbrians are supposed to**

	march down to help him, but never do. They don't realize what's in store for them.
1066 - October	**Harold is defeated and killed at the battle of Hastings.**
1066 - December	**William of Normandy crowned king of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day.**

3. English Dialects in the Ancient Times.



The first page of the Beowulf manuscript

After the Anglo-Saxon invasion, the Germanic language possibly displaced the indigenous Brythonic languages and Latin in most of the areas of Great Britain that later became England.

The original Celtic languages remained in parts of Scotland, Wales and Cornwall, where Cornish was spoken into the XIX-th century, although large numbers of compound Celtic-Germanic placenames survive, hinting at early language mixing.

Latin also remained in these areas as the language of the Celtic Church and of higher education for the nobility. Latin was later to be reintroduced to England

by missionaries from both the Celtic and Roman churches, and it would, in time, have a major impact on English.

What is now called Old English emerged over time out of the many dialects and languages of the colonising tribes. Even then, Old English continued to exhibit local variation, the remnants of which continue to be found in dialects of Modern English. The most famous surviving work from the Old English period is the epic poem Beowulf composed by an unknown poet.

Old English varied widely from modern Standard English. Native English speakers today would find Old English unintelligible without studying it as a separate language.

Nevertheless, English remains a Germanic language, and approximately half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words “be, strong, water”, for example, derive from Old English.

Many non-standard dialects such as Scots and Northumbrian English have retained features of Old English in vocabulary and pronunciation. Old English was spoken until some time in the XII-th or XIII-th century.

In the X-th and XI-th centuries, Old English was strongly influenced by the North Germanic language Old Norse, spoken by the Norsemen who invaded and settled mainly in the North-East of England.

Scandinavian York, also referred to as the Kingdom of York or the Kingdom of Jórvík, is a term used by historians for the kingdom Northumbrian for the period of the late IX-th century and first half of the X-th century, when it was dominated by Norse warrior-kings; in particular, used to refer to the city controlled by these kings.

The kingdom’s territory encompassed a large part of what is now northern England. With a few interruptions due to wars with Wessex, the Anglo-

Norse monarchy lasted from 875/876 to 954. It was closely associated with the much longer lived Kingdom of Dublin throughout this period.

The Anglo-Saxons and the Scandinavians spoke related languages from different branches of the Germanic family; many of their lexical roots were the same or similar, although their grammars were more divergent.

The Germanic language of the Old English-speaking inhabitants was influenced by extensive contact with Norse colonizers, resulting perhaps in cases of morphological simplification of Old English, including the loss of grammatical gender and explicitly marked case, with the notable exception of the pronouns.

English borrowed approximately two thousand lexical items from Old Norse, including “anger, bag, both, hit, law, leg, same, skill, take” and many others, possibly even including the pronuoun “they”.

The introduction of Christianity late in the VI-th century encouraged the addition of over 400 Latin loan words, such as “priest, paper, school”, and fewer Greek loan words.

The Old English period formally ended some time after the Norman Conquest, starting in 1066 AD, when the language was influenced to an even greater extent by the Normans, who spoke a French dialect called Old Norman. The use of Anglo-Saxon to describe a merging of Anglian and Saxon languages and cultures is a relatively modern development.

4. The Role of the Kingdom of Wessex and the Role of the Wessex Dialect.

The Germans formed seven kingdoms; counting from the north to the south these were Northumbria, consisting of two parts: Bernicia and Deira, in the central part - Mercia, and east of it - East England, to the south - Essex, Sussex, and Wessex, and to the south east - Kent. These seven states later united into four main

kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia, Wessex and Kent, in whose borders four dialects were formed: Northumbrian, Meri, Wessex and Kent.

Thus, we see that the tribal principle was violated after the Germans moved to Britain: one tribe - the Angles - formed two states - Northumbria and Mercia; respectively, the Northumbrian and Mercian dialects represented the continuation and branching of the tribal dialect of the Angles in the new conditions of territorially limited barbarian kingdoms.

On the other hand, the friezes as a tribe completely disappeared without forming a special state, and, accordingly, among the Old English dialects we do not find the Frisian.

In other words, the further development of dialects occurs within a territorial framework; the tribal principle is replaced by the territorial; the development of a dialect is determined by the borders of the state in which it is spoken. Celtic dialects of that time did not have a significant impact on the language of the winners.

The four Anglo-Saxon tribes waged a constant struggle for hegemony among themselves. Initially, the dominant position belonged to Northumbria, then Mercia, but in the first half of the XI-th century.

During the VIII-th century, as the hegemony of Mercia grew, Wessex largely retained its independence. Wessex was undoubtedly leading the way.

It was during this period that the system of shires was established. Under Egbert, Surrey, Sussex, Kent, Essex, and Mercia, along with parts of Dumnonia, were conquered. He also obtained the overlordship of the Northumbrian King. However, Mercian independence was restored in 830.

During the reign of his successor, Æthelwulf, a Danish army arrived in the Thames estuary, but was decisively defeated. When Æthelwulf's son, Æthelbald,

usurped the throne, the kingdom was divided to avoid war. Æthelwulf was succeeded in turn by his four sons, the youngest being Alfred the Great.

Wessex [ˈwɛsɪks] – "West Seaxe" - West Saxons, Westseaxna rīce - the Kingdom of the West Saxons was an Anglo-Saxon kingdom in the south of Great Britain, from 519 until England was unified by Æthelstan in the early of the X-th century.

The Anglo-Saxons believed that Wessex was founded by Cerdic and Cynric, but this may be a legend. The two main sources for the history of Wessex are the ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*** and the ***West Saxon Genealogical Regnal List***, which sometimes conflict.

Wessex became a Christian kingdom after Cenwalh was baptised and expanded under his rule. Cædwalla later conquered Sussex, Kent and the Isle of Wight. His successor, Ine, issued one of the oldest surviving English law codes and established a second West Saxon bishopric. The throne subsequently passed to a series of kings with unknown genealogies.

Wessex was invaded by the Danes in 871, and Alfred was compelled to pay them to leave. They returned in 876, but were forced to withdraw. In 878 they forced Alfred to flee to the Somerset Levels, but were eventually defeated at the Battle of Edington.

During his reign Alfred issued a new law code, gathered scholars to his court and was able to devote funds to building ships, organizing an army and establishing a system of burhs. Alfred's son, Edward, captured the eastern Midlands and East Anglia from the Danes and became ruler of Mercia in 918 upon the death of his sister, Æthelflæd.

Edward's son, Æthelstan, conquered Northumbria in 927, and England became a unified kingdom for the first time. Cnut the Great, who conquered England in 1016, created the wealthy and powerful earldom of Wessex, but in

1066 Harold Godwinson reunited the earldom with the crown and Wessex ceased to exist.

Modern archaeologists use the term "Wessex culture" for a Middle Bronze Age culture in this area (c. 1600–1200 BC). A millennium before that, in the Late Neolithic, the ceremonial sites of Avebury and Stonehenge were completed on Salisbury Plain; but the final phase of Stonehenge was erected in the Wessex culture phase, early in the Bronze Age.

This area has many other earthworks and erected stone monuments from the Neolithic and Early Bronze periods, including the Dorset Cursus, an earthwork 10 km (6 mi) long and 100 m (110 yd) wide, which was oriented to the midwinter sunset.

Although agriculture and hunting were pursued during this long period, there is little archaeological evidence of human settlements. From the Neolithic onwards the chalk downland of Wessex was traversed by the Harrow Way, which can still be traced from Marazion in Cornwall to the coast of the English Channel near Dover, and was probably connected with the ancient tin trade.

During the Roman occupation starting in the I-st century AD, numerous country villas with attached farms were established across Wessex, along with the important towns of Dorchester and Winchester, for instance, the ending "-chester" comes from Latin "castra", "a military camp".

The Romans, or rather the Romano-British, built another major road that integrated Wessex, running eastwards from Exeter through Dorchester to Winchester and Silchester and on to London.

The early IV-th century was a peaceful time in Roman Britain. However, following a previous incursion in 360 that was stopped by Roman forces, the Picts and Scots attacked Hadrian's Wall in the far north in 367 and defeated the soldiers stationed along it. They devastated many parts of Britain and laid siege

to London. The Romans responded promptly, and Count Theodosius had recovered the land up to the Wall by 368.

The Romans temporarily ceased to rule Britain on the death of Magnus Maximus in 388. Stilicho attempted to restore Roman authority in the late 390-s, but in 401 he took Roman troops from Britain to fight the Goths.

Two subsequent Roman rulers of Britain, appointed by the remaining troops, were murdered. Constantine III became ruler, but he then left for Gaul and withdrew more troops.

The Britons then requested assistance from Honorius, but when he replied in 410 he told them to manage their own defenses. By this point, there were no longer any Roman troops in Britain. Economic decline occurred after these events: circulation of Roman coins ended and the importation of items from the Roman Empire stopped.

In “An Introduction to Anglo-Saxon England” of ***Peter Hunter Blair*** divides the traditions concerning the Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain into two categories: Welsh and English.

“De Excidio et Conquestu Britanniae”, written by ***Gildas***, contains the best preservation of the Welsh tradition. In brief, it states that after the Romans left, the Britons managed to continue for a time without any major disruptions. However, when finally faced with northern invaders, a certain unnamed ruler in Britain called “a proud tyrant” by ***Gildas***, requested assistance from the Saxons in exchange for land. There were no conflicts between the British and the Saxons for a time, but following “a dispute about the supply of provisions” the Saxons warred against the British and severely damaged parts of the country.

In time, however, some Saxon troops left Britain; under Ambrosius Aurelianus, the British subsequently defeated those who remained. A lengthy conflict ensued, in which neither side gained any decisive advantage until the

Britons routed the Saxons at the Battle of Mons Badonicus. After this, there occurred a peaceful period for the Britons, under which ***Gildas*** was living at the time he wrote the "De Excidio et Conqestu Britanniae".

Saxon settlement

Imaginary depiction of Cerdic from John Speed's 1611 "Saxon Heptarchy"

One of the English traditions about the Saxon arrival is that of Hengest and Horsa. When Bede wrote his "Ecclesiastical History of the English People", he adapted ***Gildas***' narrative and added details, such as the names of those involved. To the "proud tyrant" he gave the name Vortigern, and the Saxon commanders he named Hengest and Horsa. Further details were added to the story in the "Historia Brittonum", which was partially written by ***Nennius***.

According to the "Historia", Hengest and Horsa fought the invaders of Britain under the condition of gaining the Island of Thanet. The daughter of Hengest, Rowena, later arrived on a ship of reinforcements, and Vortigern married her. However, a war arose in Kent due to a dispute between Hengest and Vortigern's son.

After losing several battles, the Saxons finally defeated the British by treacherously attacking them once the two parties had convened for a meeting. Some additional details of the Hengest and Horsa legend are found in the ***Anglo-Saxon Chronicle***. The "Chronicle" then records subsequent Saxon arrivals, including that of Cerdic, the founder of Wessex, in 495.

The "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle", the primary written source for the founding of Wessex, states that Cerdic and Cynric landed in Britain with five ships in 495. Although the entry mentions Cynric as Cerdic's son, a different source lists him as the son of Cerdic's son, Creoda. Their place of landing is believed to be the southern Hampshire coast, though Bede recorded that Wessex was inhabited by Jutes and was only annexed by Saxons in the late VII-th century, under Cædwalla, and there have been no definitive archaeological findings considered especially "suggestive of early Anglo-Saxon settlement".

The "Chronicle" continues, stating that "Port, and his two sons Bieda and Mægla", landed at Portsmouth in 501 and killed a high-ranking British nobleman.

In 508, Cerdic and Cynric slew British king Natanleod along with five thousand of his men (though the historicity of Natanleod has been disputed), and Cerdic became the first king of Wessex in 519.

The Saxons attacked Cerdicesford in 519, intending to cross the River Avon and block a road which connected Old Sarum and Badbury Rings, a British stronghold. The battle appears to have ended as a draw, and the expansion of Wessex ended for about thirty years. This is likely due to losses suffered during the battle and an apparent peace agreement with the Britons. The battle of Mons Badonicus is believed to have been fought around this time.

Gildas states that the Saxons were completely defeated in the battle, in which King Arthur participated according to Nennius. This defeat is not recorded in the "Chronicle". The thirty-year period of peace was temporarily interrupted

when, according to the “Chronicle”, the Saxons conquered the Isle of Wight in 530 at a battle near Carisbrooke.

Cynric became the ruler of Wessex after Cerdic died in 534, and reigned for twenty-six years. It is presumed that Ceawlin, who succeeded Cynric in about 581, was his son. Ceawlin's reign is thought to be more reliably documented than those of his predecessors, though the Chronicle’s dates of 560 to 592 are different from the revised chronology. Ceawlin overcame pockets of resisting Britons to the northeast, in the Chilterns, Gloucestershire and Somerset.

The capture of Cirencester, Gloucester and Bath in 577, after the pause caused by the battle of Mons Badonicus, opened the way to the southwest.

Ceawlin is one of the seven kings named in ***Bede***’s “Ecclesiastical History of the English People” as holding “imperium” over the southern English: the “Chronicle” later repeated this claim, referring to Ceawlin as a “bretwalda”, or “Britain-ruler”. Ceawlin was deposed, perhaps by his nephew, Ceol, and died a year later.

Six years later, in about 594, Ceol was succeeded by a brother, Ceolwulf, who was succeeded in his turn in about 617 by Cynegils. The genealogies do not agree on Cynegils’ pedigree: his father is variously given as Ceola, Ceolwulf, Ceol, Cuthwine, Cutha or Cuthwulf.

With the rise of Wessex, the sharp edges between the Anglo-Saxon states apparently begin to blur; at least, the word Angelcynn-literally, “the genus of English” - begins to be used in relation to all residents of Britain, regardless of their affiliation with the English or Saxon states, and Englelond - about the whole country, although this name originated as “country angles”.

Obviously, from this time we can talk about the education of the English people. The Christianization of Britain began at the end of the VI. Christianity was established throughout the country by the end of VII-th century. The introduction

of Christianity played a very important role in the further state and cultural development of the Anglo-Saxon states.

Christian Wessex and the rise of Mercia

The Celtic and Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in around 600

On the one hand, the Christian church from the very beginning led a constant struggle with the crown, which represented the secular power, for the extension of the church's rights to participate in governing the country; monasteries were built, seeking to obtain large plots of land; a special tax – "tithing" was introduced in favor of the church.

On the other hand, the monasteries became centers of education, which in England, as elsewhere in medieval Europe, were clerical. At monasteries, libraries were created from manuscripts copied by monks, chronicles were kept.

Thus, a very important fact of the cultural influence of the church was the creation of writing. It is in Cynegils' reign that the first event in West Saxon

history that can be dated with reasonable certainty occurs: the baptism of Cynegils by Birinus, which happened at the end of the 630-s, perhaps in 640.

Birinus was then established as bishop of the West Saxons, with his seat at Dorchester-on-Thames. This was the first conversion to Christianity by a West Saxon king, but it was not accompanied by the immediate conversion of all the West Saxons: Cynegils' successor, and probably his son, Cenwealh, who came to the throne in about 642, was a pagan at his accession.

However, he too was baptised only a few years later and Wessex became firmly established as a Christian kingdom. Cynegils's godfather was King Oswald of Northumbria and his conversion may have been connected with an alliance against King Penda of Mercia, who had previously attacked Wessex.

These attacks marked the beginning of sustained pressure from the expanding kingdom of Mercia. In time this would deprive Wessex of its territories north of the Thames and the (Bristol) Avon, encouraging the kingdom's reorientation southwards.

Cenwealh married Penda's daughter, and when he repudiated her, Penda again invaded and drove him into exile for some time, perhaps three years. The dates are uncertain but it was probably in the late 640-s or early 650-s.

He spent his exile in East Anglia, and was converted to Christianity there. After his return, Cenwealh faced further attacks from Penda's successor Wulfhere, but was able to expand West Saxon territory in Somerset at the expense of the Britons. He established a second bishopric at Winchester, while the one at Dorchester was soon abandoned as Mercian power pushed southwards.

After Cenwealh's death in 673, his widow, Seaxburh, held the throne for a year; she was followed by Æscwine, who was apparently descended from another brother of Ceawlin. This was one of several occasions on which the kingship of Wessex is said to have passed to a remote branch of the royal family with an

unbroken male line of descent from Cerdic; these claims may be genuine, or may reflect the spurious assertion of descent from Cerdic to legitimise a new dynasty.

Æscwine's reign only lasted two years, and in 676 the throne passed back to the immediate family of Cenwealh with the accession of his brother Centwine. Centwine is known to have fought and won battles against the Britons, but the details have not survived.

Centwine was succeeded by another supposed distant relative, Cædwalla, who claimed descent from Ceawlin. Cædwalla reigned for just two years, but achieved a dramatic expansion of the kingdom's power, conquering the kingdoms of Sussex, Kent and the Isle of Wight, although Kent regained its independence almost immediately and Sussex followed some years later. His reign ended in 688 when he abdicated and went on pilgrimage to Rome where he was baptised by Pope Sergius I and died soon afterwards.

His successor was Ine, who also claimed to be a descendant of Cerdic through Ceawlin, but again through a long-separated line of descent. Ine was the most durable of the West Saxon kings, reigning for 38 years. He issued the oldest surviving English code of laws apart from those of the kingdom of Kent, and established a second West Saxon bishopric at Sherborne, covering the area west of Selwood Forest, which formed an important boundary between east and west Wessex.

Near the end of his life he followed in Cædwalla's footsteps by abdicating and making a pilgrimage to Rome. The throne then passed to a series of other kings who claimed descent from Cerdic but whose supposed genealogies and relationship to one another are unknown.

The tradition embodied in the "Anglo-Saxon Chronicle", and in the genealogies of the West Saxon dynasty, is open to considerable doubt. This is largely because the founder of the dynasty and a number of his alleged descendants

had Brittonic Celtic, rather than Anglo-Saxon Germanic, names. The name Cerdic is derived from the British name Caraticos.

This may indicate that Cerdic was a native Briton, and that his dynasty became anglicised over time. Other members of the dynasty possessing Celtic names include Ceawlin and Cædwalla. Cædwalla, who died as late as 689, was the last West Saxon king to possess a Celtic name.

During the VIII-th century Wessex was overshadowed by Mercia, whose power was then at its height, and the West Saxon kings may at times have acknowledged Mercian overlordship. They were, however, able to avoid the more substantial control which Mercia exerted over smaller kingdoms. During this period Wessex continued its gradual advance to the west, overwhelming the British kingdom of Dumnonia (Devon).

In 802 the fortunes of Wessex were transformed by the accession of Egbert who came from a cadet branch of the ruling dynasty that claimed descent from Ine's brother Ingild. With his accession the throne became firmly established in the hands of a single lineage.

Early in his reign he conducted two campaigns against the "West Welsh", first in 813 and then again at Gafulford in 825. During the course of these campaigns he conquered the western Britons still in Devon and reduced those beyond the River Tamar, now Cornwall, to the status of a vassal.

In 825 or 826 he overturned the political order of England by decisively defeating King Beornwulf of Mercia at Ellendun and seizing control of Surrey, Sussex, Kent and Essex from the Mercians, while with his help East Anglia broke away from Mercian control.

In 829 he conquered Mercia, driving its King Wiglaf into exile, and secured acknowledgement of his overlordship from the king of Northumbria. He thereby became the Bretwalda, or high king of Britain. This position of dominance was

short-lived, as Wiglaf returned and restored Mercian independence in 830, but the expansion of Wessex across south-eastern England proved permanent.

Egbert's later years saw the beginning of Danish Viking raids on Wessex, which occurred frequently from 835 onwards. In 851 a huge Danish army, said to have been carried on 350 ships, arrived in the Thames estuary. Having defeated King Beorhtwulf of Mercia in battle, the Danes moved on to invade Wessex, but were decisively crushed by Egbert's son and successor King Æthelwulf in the exceptionally bloody Battle of Aclea. This victory postponed Danish conquests in England for fifteen years, but raids on Wessex continued.

In 855-856 Æthelwulf went on pilgrimage to Rome and his eldest surviving son Æthelbald took advantage of his absence to seize his father's throne. On his return, Æthelwulf agreed to divide the kingdom with his son to avoid bloodshed, ruling the new territories in the east while Æthelbald held the old heartland in the west.

Æthelwulf was succeeded by each of his four surviving sons ruling one after another: the rebellious Æthelbald, then Æthelbert, who had previously inherited the eastern territories from his father and who reunited the kingdom on Æthelbald's death, then Æthelred, and finally Alfred the Great.

This occurred because the first two brothers died in wars with the Danes without issue, while Æthelred's sons were too young to rule when their father died.

In 865, several of the Danish commanders combined their respective forces into one large army and landed in England. Over the following years, what became known as the Great Heathen Army overwhelmed the Kingdoms of Northumbria and East Anglia?

Then in 871, the Great Summer Army arrived from Scandinavia, to reinforce the Great Heathen Army. The reinforced army invaded Wessex and, although Æthelred and Alfred won some victories and succeeded in preventing the conquest

of their kingdom, a number of defeats and heavy losses of men compelled Alfred to pay the Danes to leave Wessex.

The Danes spent the next few years subduing Mercia and some of them settled in Northumbria, but the rest returned to Wessex in 876.

At this time Wessex took de facto control over much of Devon, although Britons retained a degree of independence in Devon until at least the X-th century. William of Malmesbury claimed that the Britons and Saxons inhabited Exeter "as equals" until 927.

As a result of the Mercian conquest of the northern portion of its early territories in Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire, the Thames and the Avon now probably formed the northern boundary of Wessex, while its heartland lay in Hampshire, Wiltshire, Berkshire, Dorset and Somerset.The system of shires, which was later to form the basis of local administration throughout England, and eventually, Ireland, Wales and Scotland as well, originated in Wessex, and had been established by the middle of the VIII-th century.

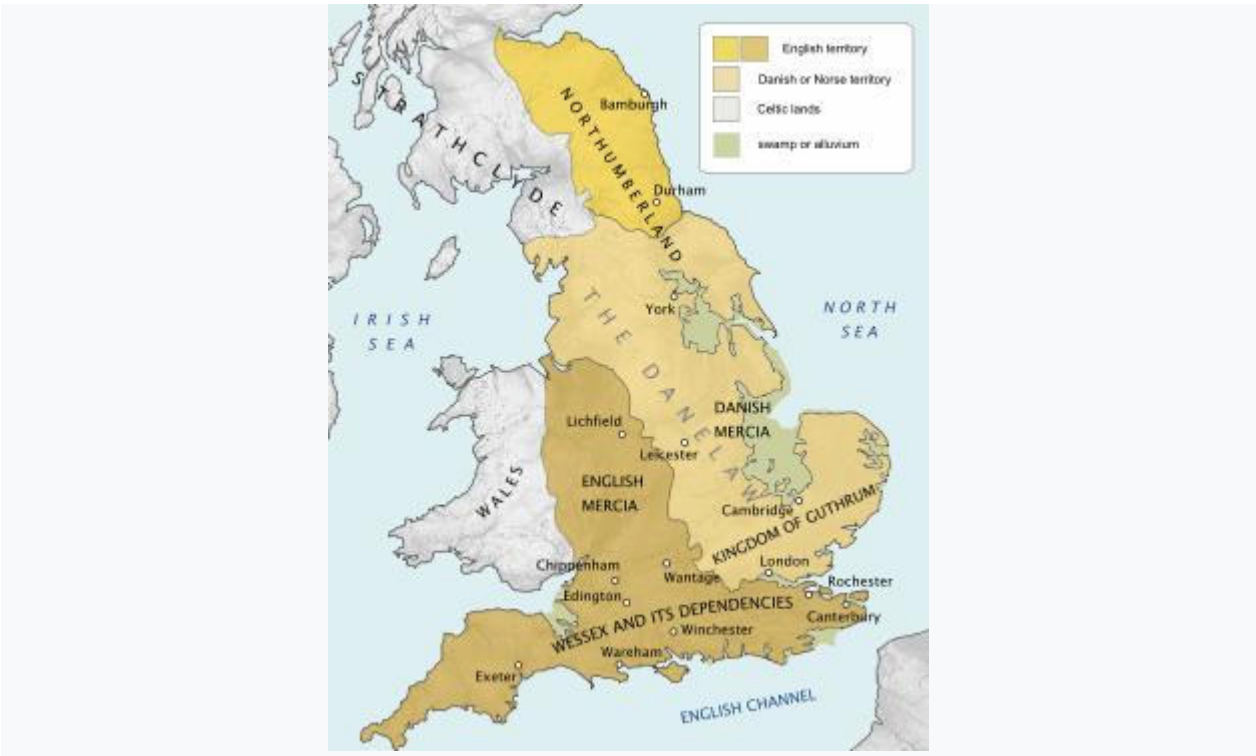
Below is an Anglo-Saxon-Viking coin weight, used for trading bullion and hacksilver. The material is lead and it weighs 36 g (1.3 oz). Embedded with an Anglo-Saxon sceat dating to 720-750 and minted in Kent. It is edged in a dotted triangle pattern. Its origin is the Danelaw region and dates to 870-930.

Hegemony of Wessex and the Viking raids

Alfred responded effectively and was able with little fighting to bring about their withdrawal in 877. A portion of the Danish army settled in Mercia, but at the beginning of 878 the remaining Danes mounted a winter invasion of Wessex, taking Alfred by surprise and overrunning much of the kingdom.

Alfred was reduced to taking refuge with a small band of followers in the marshes of the Somerset Levels, but after a few months he was able to gather an army and defeated the Danes at the Battle of Edington, bringing about their final withdrawal from Wessex to settle in East Anglia.

Last English kingdom



England in the late X-th century

Simultaneous Danish raids on the north coast of France and Brittany occurred in the 870-s , prior to the establishment of Normandy in 911, and recorded Danish alliances with both Bretons and Cornish may have resulted in the suppression of Cornish autonomy with the death by drowning of King Donyarth in 875 as recorded by the Annales Cambriae.

No subsequent “Kings” of Cornwall are recorded after this time, but Asser records Cornwall as a separate kingdom from Wessex in the 890-s.

In 879 a Viking fleet that had assembled in the Thames estuary sailed across the channel to start a new campaign on the continent. The rampaging Viking army on the continent encouraged Alfred to protect his Kingdom of Wessex.

Over the following years Alfred carried out a dramatic reorganisation of the government and defences of Wessex, building warships, organizing the army into two shifts which served alternately and establishing a system of fortified “burhs” across the kingdom.

This system is recorded in a X-th century document known as the Burghal Hidage, which details the location and garrisoning requirements of thirty-three forts, whose positioning ensured that no one in Wessex was more than a long day’s ride from a place of safety.

In the 890-s these reforms helped him to repulse the invasion of another huge Danish army, which was aided by the Danes settled in England, with minimal losses.

Alfred also reformed the administration of justice, issued a new law code and championed a revival of scholarship and education. He gathered scholars from around England and elsewhere in Europe to his court and with their help translated a range of Latin texts into English, doing much of the work personally, and orchestrated the composition of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.

As a result of these literary efforts and the political dominance of Wessex, the West Saxon dialect of this period became the standard written form of Old English for the rest of the Anglo-Saxon period and beyond.

After the invasions of the 890-s, Wessex and English Mercia continued to be attacked by the Danish settlers in England, and by small Danish raiding forces from overseas, but these incursions were usually defeated, while there were no

further major invasions from the continent. The balance of power tipped steadily in favour of the English.

In 911 Ealdorman Æthelred died, leaving his widow, Alfred's daughter Æthelflæd, in charge of Mercia. Alfred's son and successor Edward the Elder, then annexed London, Oxford and the surrounding area, probably including Middlesex, Hertfordshire, Buckinghamshire and Oxfordshire, from Mercia to Wessex.

Between 913 and 918 a series of English offensives overwhelmed the Danes of Mercia and East Anglia, bringing all of England south of the Humber under Edward's power.

In 918 Æthelflæd died and Edward took over direct control of Mercia, extinguishing what remained of its independence and ensuring that henceforth there would be only one Kingdom of the English.

In 927 Edward's successor Athelstan conquered Northumbria, bringing the whole of England under one ruler for the first time. The Kingdom of Wessex had thus been transformed into the Kingdom of England.

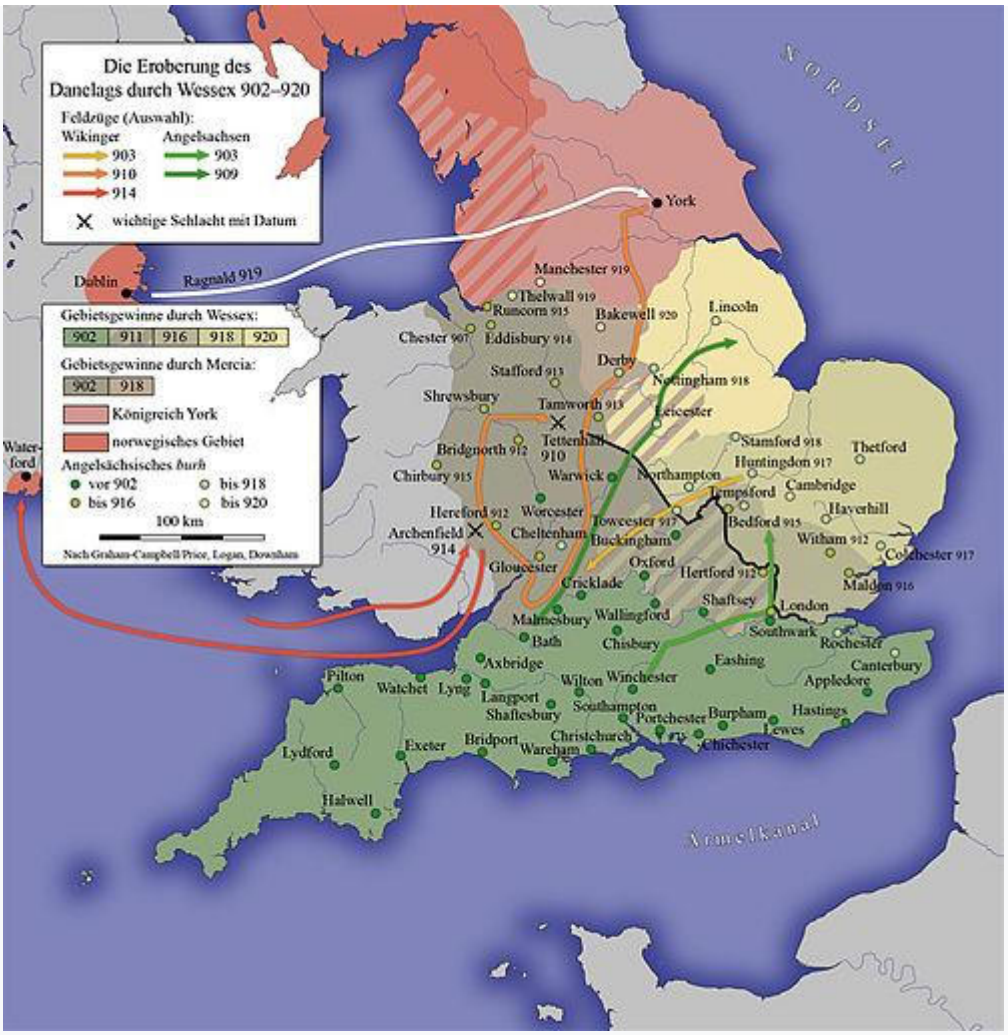
Although Wessex had now effectively been subsumed into the larger kingdom which its expansion had created, like the other former kingdoms, it continued for a time to have a distinct identity which periodically found renewed political expression.

After the death of King Eadred in 955, who had no legitimate heirs, the rule of England passed to his nephew, Edwig. Edwig's unpopularity with the nobility and the church led the thanes of Mercia and Northumbria to declare their allegiance to his younger brother, Edgar, in October 957, though Edwy continued to rule in Wessex. In 959, Edwy died and the whole of England came under Edgar's control.

After the conquest of England by the Danish king Cnut in 1016, he established earldoms based on the former kingdoms of Northumbria, Mercia and

East Anglia, but initially administered Wessex personally. Within a few years, however, he had created an earldom of Wessex, encompassing all of England south of the Thames, for his English henchman Godwin.

Unification of England and the Earldom of Wessex



Unification of England and Defeat of the Danelaw
in the X-th century under Wessex

For almost fifty years the vastly wealthy holders of this earldom, first Godwin and then his son Harold, were the most powerful men in English politics after the king. Finally, on the death of Edward the Confessor in 1066, Harold became king, reuniting the earldom of Wessex with the crown.

No new earl was appointed before the ensuing Norman Conquest of England, and as the Norman kings soon did away with the great earldoms of the late Anglo-Saxon period, 1066 marks the extinction of Wessex as a political unit.

Wessex - This entry suggests that the name was first used in 1868 by ***W. Barnes*** "Poems of Rural Life in Common Eng.", modelled on the county names Essex, East Seaxe East Saxons, and Sussex, Suth Seaxe South Saxons.

The name of a kingdom in south-west England in Anglo-Saxon times, used by ***Thomas Hardy*** as the name of the county in which his stories are set corresponding approximately to Dorset, Somerset, Hampshire, and Wiltshire, and since used as a name for south-west England or this part of it.

Wessex remains a commonly spoken term used to describe the area that it used to be officially. Many organisations that cover the area of Dorset, Somerset, Hampshire, and Wiltshire use the name Wessex in their company or organisation name.

Symbols of Wessex is often symbolised by a wyvern or dragon. Both ***Henry of Huntingdon*** and ***Matthew of Westminster*** talk of a golden dragon being raised at the Battle of Burford in 752 by the West Saxons.

The Bayeux Tapestry depicts a fallen golden dragon, as well as a red / golden / white dragon at the death of King Harold II, who was previously Earl of Wessex.

Dragon standards were in fairly wide use in Europe at the time, being derived from the "draco" standard employed by the later Roman army and there is no evidence that it explicitly identified Wessex.

A panel of XVIII-th century stained glass at Exeter Cathedral indicates that an association with an image of a dragon in south west Britain pre-dated the Victorians.

Nevertheless, the association with Wessex was only popularised in the XIX-th century, most notably through the writings of ***E.A.Freeman***.

By the time of the grant of armorial bearings by the College of Arms to Somerset County Council in 1911, a (red) dragon had become the accepted heraldic emblem of the former kingdom.

This precedent was followed in 1937 when Wiltshire County Council was granted arms. Two gold Wessex dragons were later granted as supporters to the arms of Dorset County Council in 1950.

In the British Army the wyvern has been used to represent Wessex: the 43-rd (Wessex) Infantry Division and postwar regional 43 (Wessex) Brigade adopted a formation sign consisting of a gold wyvern on a black or dark blue background.

The regular Wessex Brigade of the 1960-s adopted a cap badge featuring the heraldic beast, until the regiments took back up individual regimental badges in the late 1960-s.

The Territorial Army Wessex Regiment continued to wear the Wessex Brigade badge until the late 1980-s when its individual companies too readopted their parent regular regimental cap badges.

The now disbanded West Somerset Yeomanry adopted a Wessex Wyvern rampant as the centre piece for its cap badge, and the current Royal Wessex Yeomanry adopted a similar device in 2014 when the Regiment moved from wearing individual squadron county yeomanry cap badges to a unified single Regimental cap badge.

When Sophie, Countess of Wessex was granted arms, the sinister supporter assigned was a blue wyvern, described by the College of Arms as “a heraldic beast which has long been associated with Wessex”.

In the 1970-s William Crampton, the founder of the British Flag Institute designed a flag for the Wessex region which depicts a gold wyvern on a red field.

Attributed coat of arms

A coat of arms was attributed by medieval heralds to the Kings of Wessex. These arms appear in a manuscript of the XIII-th century, and are blazoned as "Azure, a cross patonce", alternatively a cross Fleury or cross Moline, between four martlets Or.

The attributed arms of Wessex are also known as the "Arms of Edward the Confessor", and the design is based on an emblem historically used by King Edward the Confessor on the reverse side of pennies minted by him. The heraldic design continued to represent both Wessex and Edward in classical heraldry and is found on a number of church windows in derived shields such as the Arms of the Collegiate Church of St. Peter at Westminster - Westminster Abbey, which was founded by the king.

Analyzing cultural and political identity in modern times it is necessary to mention that at its greatest extent Wessex encompassed the modern areas of Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Dorset and Wiltshire, as well as the western half of Berkshire and the eastern hilly flank of Somerset. This covers an area of about 11,500 km^2 (4,400 sq mi).

The English author ***Thomas Hardy Wessex*** used a fictionalised Wessex as a setting for many of his novels, adopting his friend William Barnes' term "Wessex" for their home county of Dorset and its neighbouring counties in the south and west of England.

Hardy's Wessex excluded Gloucestershire and Oxfordshire, but the city of Oxford, which he called "Christminster", was visited as part of Wessex in "Jude the Obscure". He gave each of his Wessex counties a fictionalised name, such as with Berkshire, which is known in the novels as "North Wessex".

The film ***W.Shakespeare*** in "Love" included a character called "Lord Wessex" – a title which did not exist in Elizabethan times.

The ITV television series "Broadchurch" takes place in the Wessex area, primarily the county of Dorset. It features government agencies such as Wessex Police and Wessex Crown Court, and several characters are seen attending South Wessex Secondary School.

Questions:

What is the date of Old English Period?

What do you know about the Earliest Period of Germanic History?

What is the object of study of Etymology?

Which course objectives of Dialectology can you explain?

When was Christianity introduced among Anglo-Saxons?

Lecture 5. Middle English.

1. Middle English – From the Late of the XI-th century to the Late XV-th century.

2. The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100-1500).

3. Literature. Influence of Anglo-Norman French on English.

1. Middle English – From the late of the XI-th century to the Late XV-th century.

For centuries following the Norman Conquest in 1066, the Norman kings and high-ranking nobles spoke one of the French langues d'oïl, that we call Anglo-Norman, a variety of Old Norman used in England and to some extent elsewhere in the British Isles during the Anglo-Norman period and originating from a northern langue d'oïl dialect.

The "langues d'oïl" or "langues d'oui", in English the Oïl or Oui-wi languages, are a **dialect continuum** that includes standard French and its closest **autochthonous** relatives spoken today in the northern half of France, southern Belgium, and the Channel Islands. They belong to the larger Gallo-Romance group of languages, which also covers most of southern France (Occitania), northern **Italy** and east Spain (Catalan Countries).

Linguists divide the Romance languages of France, and especially of Medieval France, into three geographical subgroups: Langues d'oïl and Langues d'oc, named after their words for "yes", with Franco-Provençal Franco-Provencal (Arpitan) considered transitional.

Oïl	
Langues d'oïl	
Geographic distribution:	Northern and central France, Belgium, Switzerland
Linguistic classification:	Indo-European Italic ○ Romance ▪ Western ▪ Gallo-Romance ▪ Oïl
Proto-language:	Old French

The geographical spread of the Oïl languages (other than French)

can be seen in shades of green and yellow on this map

In the singular, **Langue d'oïl** refers to the mutually intelligible linguistic variants of **romana lingua** spoken since the IX-th century in northern France and southern Belgium (Wallonia), since the X-th century in the Channel Islands, and between the XI-th and XIV-th centuries in England, the Anglo-Norman language.

“Langue d’oïl”, the term itself, has been used in the singular since the XII-th century to denote this ancient linguistic grouping as a whole. With these qualifiers, “langue d’oïl” sometimes is used to mean the same as Old French. In the plural, **Oïl dialects** refer to the varieties of the ancient “langue d’oïl”.

In the plural, Oïl languages refer to those modern-day descendants that evolved separately from the varieties of the ancient “langue d’oïl”. Consequently, langues d’oïl today may apply either: to all the modern-day languages of this family except the French language; or to this family including French.

“Oïl dialects” or “French dialects” are also used to refer to the Oïl languages except French, as some extant Oïl languages are very close to modern French. Because the term “dialect” is sometimes considered pejorative, there is a trend today among French linguists to refer to these languages as “langues d’oïl” rather than dialects.

Merchants and lower-ranked nobles were often bilingual in Anglo-Norman and English, whilst English continued to be the language of the common people. Middle English was influenced by both Anglo-Norman and, later, Anglo-French.

As a langue d’oïl, Anglo-Norman had developed collaterally to the central Gallo-Romance dialects which would eventually become Parisian French, in terms of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary - it being also important to remember that before the signature of the Ordinance of Villers-Cotterêts in 1539, and indeed for long after in practice, French had not been standardised as an official administrative language of the kingdom of France.

2. The Norman Conquest and Middle English (1100-1500).

In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, part of modern France, invaded and conquered England. The new conquerors, called the Normans,

brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes.

For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French. In the XIV-th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called **Middle English**. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (c.1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

Middle English was heavily influenced by both Anglo-Norman and, later, Anglo-French. W. Rothwell has called Anglo-French "the missing link" because many etymological dictionaries seem to ignore the contribution of that language in English and because Anglo-Norman and Anglo-French can explain the transmission of words from French into English, and fill the void left by the absence of documentary records of English (in the main) between 1066 and c. 1380.

Anglo-Norman morphology and pronunciation can be deduced from its heritage in English. Mostly this is done in comparison with continental French. English has many doublets as a result of this contrast: "warranty – guarantee"; "warden – guardian"; "glamour – grammar"; "catch – chase".

Compare also: "wage" (Anglo-Norman) – "gage" (French); "wait" – "guetter" (French, Old French "guaitier"); "war" (from Anglo-Norman "werre") – "guerre" (French); "wicket" (Anglo-Norman) – "guichet" (French, from Norman).

The palatalization of velar consonants before the front vowel produced different results in Norman to the central langue d'oïl dialects which developed into French. English therefore, for example, has "fashion" from Norman "féchoun" as opposed to Modern French "façon", both developing from Latin "fact**i**o, fact**i**ōnem".

The palatalization of velar consonants before [a] that affected the development of French did not occur in Norman dialects north of the Joret line. English has therefore inherited words that retain a velar plosive where French has a fricative:

English	**< Norman**	**= French**
cabbage	< caboche	= chou
candle	< caundèle	= chandelle
castle	< caste(l)	= château
cauldron	< caudron	= chaudron
causeway	< cauchie	= chaussée
catch	< cachi	= chasser
wicket	< viquet	= guichet
plank	< planque	= planche
pocket	< pouquette	= poche
fork	< fouorque	= fourche
garden	< gardin	= jardin
cattle	< cate(l)	= cheptel (Old French “chetel”)

Other words such as “captain, kennel, canvas” exemplify how Norman retained [a] / [k] sound from Latin that was not retained in French. However, Anglo-Norman also acted as a conduit for French words to enter England: for example, “challenge” clearly displays a form of French origin, rather than the Norman “calenge”.

There were also vowel differences: compare Anglo-Norman “profound” with Parisian French “profond, soun” “sound” – “son”, “round” – “rond”. The

former words were originally pronounced something like “profoond”, “soond”, “roond” respectively (compare the similarly denasalised vowels of modern Norman), but later developed their modern pronunciation in English.

Since many words established in Anglo-Norman from French via the intermediary of Norman were not subject to the processes of sound change that continued in parts of the continent, English sometimes preserves earlier pronunciations. For example, “ch” used to be [tʃ] in Medieval French; Modern French has [ʃ] but English has preserved the older sound, in words like “chamber, chain, chase, exchequer”.

Similarly, [j] had an older [dʒ] sound which it still has in English and some dialects of modern Norman, but which has developed into [ʒ] in Modern French. The word “veil” retains the [ei], as does modern Norman in “vaile” and “laîsi”, that in French has been replaced by [wɑ:] – “voile, loisir”. The word “mushroom” preserves a hush sibilant in “mousseron” not recorded in French orthography, as does “cushion” for “coussin”.

Conversely, the pronunciation of the word “sugar” resembles Norman “chucre” even if the spelling is closer to French “sucre”. It is possible that the original sound was an apical sibilant, like the Basque **s**, which is halfway between a “sibilant” and a “shibilant”.

Note: the doublets “catch” and “chase”, both deriving from Low Latin “captiare”. “Catch” demonstrates the Norman development of the velars, while “chase” is the French equivalent imported with a different meaning.

Distinctions in meaning between Anglo-Norman and French have led to many “faux amis”, words having similar form but different meanings, in Modern English and Modern French.

An interesting question arises when one considers English vocabulary of Germanic, and specifically Scandinavian, origin. Since, although a Romance

language, Norman contains a significant amount of lexical material from Norse, some of the words introduced into England as part of Anglo-Norman were of Germanic origin.

Indeed, sometimes one can identify cognates such as “flock” (Germanic in English existing prior to the Conquest) and “flloquet” (Germanic in Norman). The case of the word “mug” demonstrates that in instances, Anglo-Norman may have reinforced certain Scandinavian elements already present in English. “Mug” had been introduced into northern English dialects by Viking settlement.

The same word had been established in Normandy by the Normans (Norsemen) and was then brought over after the Conquest and established firstly in southern English dialects. It is therefore argued that the word “mug” in English shows some of the complicated Germanic heritage of Anglo-Norman.

Many expressions used in English today have their origin in Anglo-Norman, for instance, the expression “before-hand” derives from Anglo-Norman “avaunt-main”, as do many modern words with interesting etymologies. “Mortgage”, for example, literally meant “death-wage” in Anglo-Norman.

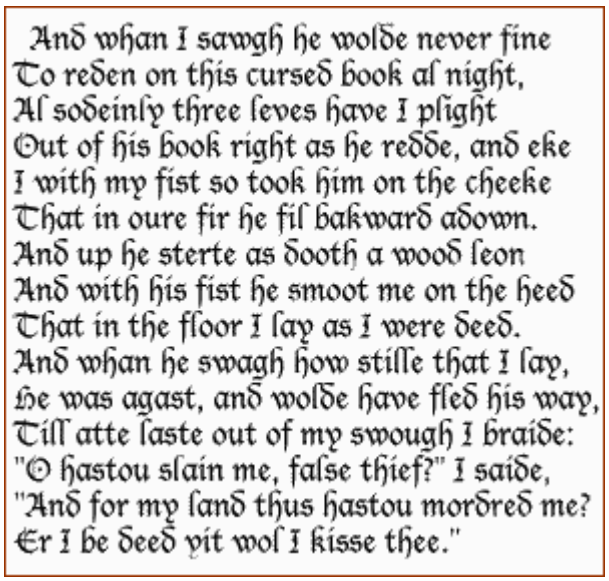
The word “curfew” derived from French word “couvre-feu”, which meant “cover-fire”, referring to the time in the evening when all fires had to be covered.

The word “glamour” is derived, unglamorously, from Anglo-Norman “grammeire”, the same word which gives us modern “grammar”; “glamour” meant first “book learning”, and then the most glamorous form of book learning, “magic” or “magic spell” in Medieval times.

The influence of Anglo-Norman was very asymmetric, in that very little influence from English was carried over into the continental possessions of the Anglo-Norman kings. Some administrative terms survived in some parts of mainland Normandy: the word “forlenc” derived from “furrow”, compare “furlong”, in the Cotentin Peninsula and Bessin, and a general use of the word

“acre” for “land measurement” in Normandy until metrication in the XIX-th century, but these words are probably linguistic traces of Saxon or Anglo-Scandinavian settlements between the IV-th and the X-th century in Normandy.

Otherwise the direct influence of English in mainland Norman, such as “smogler” – “to smuggle”, is because of direct contact in later centuries with English, rather than Anglo-Norman.


And whan I sawgh he wolde never fine
To reden on this cursed book al night,
Al sodeinly three leves have I plight
Out of his book right as he redde, and eke
I with my fist so took him on the cheeke
That in oure fir he fil bakward adown.
And up he sterte as dooth a wood leon
And with his fist he smoot me on the heed
That in the floor I lay as I were deed.
And whan he swagh how stille that I lay,
He was agast, and wolde have fled his way,
Till atte laste out of my swough I braide:
"O hastou slain me, false thief?" I saide,
"And for my land thus hastou mordred me?
Er I be deed yit wol I kisse thee."

An example of Middle English by Chaucer

William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy, invaded and conquered England and the Anglo-Saxons in 1066 AD. The new overlords spoke a dialect of Old French known as Anglo-Norman. The Normans were also of Germanic stock, for instance the word “Norman” comes from “Norseman”, and Anglo-Norman was a French dialect that had considerable Germanic influences in addition to the basic Latin roots.

Prior to the Norman Conquest, Latin had been only a minor influence on the English language, mainly through vestiges of the Roman occupation and from the conversion of Britain to Christianity in the VII-th century, ecclesiastical terms such

as “priest,vicar, mass” came into the language this way, but now there was a wholesale infusion of Romance (Anglo-Norman) words.

The influence of the Normans can be illustrated by looking at two words, “beef” and “cow”. “Beef”, commonly eaten by the aristocracy, derives from the Anglo-Norman, while the Anglo-Saxon commoners, who tended the cattle, retained the Germanic “cow”.

Many legal terms, such as “indict, jury, verdict” have Anglo-Norman roots because the Normans ran the courts. This split, where words commonly used by the aristocracy have Romantic roots and words frequently used by the Anglo-Saxon commoners have Germanic roots, can be seen in many instances.

Sometimes French words replaced Old English words, for example: “crime” replaced “firen” and “uncle” replaced “eam”. Other times, French and Old English components combined to form a new word, as the French “gentle” and the Germanic “man” formed “gentleman” or two different words with roughly the same meaning survive into modern English. Thus, we have the Germanic “doom” and the French “judgment”, or “wish” and “desire”.

It is useful to compare various versions of a familiar text to see the differences between Old, Middle, and Modern English. Take for instance this Old English (c. 1000) sample:

Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum si þin nama gehalgod tobecume þin rice gewurþe þin willa on eorðan swa swa on heofonum urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us to dæg and forgyf us ure gyltas swa swa we forgyfað urum gyltendum and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge ac alys us of yfele soþlice.

Rendered in Middle English (Wyclif, 1384), the same text is recognizable to the modern eye:

Oure fadir þat art in heuenes halwid be þi name; þi reume or kyngdom come to be. Be þi wille don in herþe as it is doun in heuene. yeue to us today oure eche

dayes bred. And foryeue to us oure dettis þat is oure synnys as we foryeuen to oure dettouris þat is to men þat han synned in us. And lede us not into temptacion but delyuere us from euyl.

Finally, in Early Modern English (King James Version, 1611) the same text is completely intelligible:

Our father which art in heauen, hallowed be thy name. Thy kingdom come. Thy will be done in earth as it is in heauen. Giue us this day our daily bread. And forgiue us our debts as we forgiue our debters. And lead us not into temptation, but deliuer us from euill. Amen.

In 1204 AD, King John lost the province of Normandy to the King of France. This began a process where the Norman nobles of England became increasingly estranged from their French cousins. England became the chief concern of the nobility, rather than their estates in France, and consequently the nobility adopted modified English as their native tongue.

About 150 years later, the Black Death (1349-1350) killed about one third of the English population. And as a result of this the labouring and merchant classes grew in economic and social importance, and along with them English increased in importance compared to Anglo-Norman.

This mixture of the two languages came to be known as Middle English. The most famous example of Middle English is Chaucer's Canterbury Tales. Unlike Old English, Middle English can be read, albeit with difficulty, by modern English-speaking people.

By 1362, the linguistic division between the nobility and the commoners was largely over. In that year, the Statute of Pleading was adopted, which made English the language of the courts and it began to be used in Parliament.The Middle English period came to a close around 1500 AD with the rise of Modern English.

The period of Middle English begins with the Norman invasion of 1066 CE. King Edward the Confessor had died without heirs, and William, Duke of Normandy, believed that he would become the next king. However, upon learning that Harold was crowned king, William invaded England, killed Harold and crowned himself king during the famous Battle of Hastings. Yet William spoke only French. As a result, the upper class in England began to speak French while the lower classes spoke English.

But by 1250 CE, French began to lose its prestige. King John had lost Normandy to the French in 1204 CE, and after him, King Edward I spoke only English. At this time, many foreigners entered England which made the nobility feel more "English" and so encouraged more use of the English language. The upper class tried to learn English, but they did still use French words sometimes, which were considered somewhat snobbish. French still maintained its prestige elsewhere, and the upper class did not want to lose it completely.

Nevertheless, the Hundred Year's War (1337-1453 CE) intensified hatred of all things French. The Black Death also played a role in increasing English use with the emergence of the middle class. Several of the workers had been killed by the plague, which increased the status of the peasants, who only spoke English.

By 1362 CE, the Statute of Pleading, although written in French, declared English as the official spoken language of the courts. By 1385 CE, English was the language of instruction in schools. 1350 to 1400 CE is known as the Period of Great Individual Writers; most famously Chaucer, but their works included an apology for writing in English.

Although the popularity of French was decreasing, several words (around 10,000) were borrowed into English between 1250 and 1500 CE, though most of these words were Parisian rather than Norman French. Many of the words were related to government (sovereign, empire), law (judge, jury, justice, attorney, felony, larceny), social life (fashion, embroidery, cuisine, appetite) and learning

(poet, logic, physician). Furthermore, the legal system retained parts of French word order (the adjective following the noun) in such terms as fee simple, attorney general and accounts payable.

Middle English Period (1066-1500)

1066-1075	**William crushes uprisings of Anglo-Saxon earls and peasants with a brutal hand; in Mercia and Northumberland, uses (literal) scorched earth policy, decimating population and lying waste the countryside. Anglo-Saxon earls and freemen deprived of property; many enslaved. William distributes property and titles to Normans (and some English) who supported him. Many of the English hereditary titles of nobility date from this period. English becomes the language of the lower classes (peasants and slaves). Norman French becomes the language of the court and propertied classes. The legal system is redrawn along Norman lines and conducted in French. Churches, monasteries gradually filled with French-speaking functionaries, who use French for record-keeping. After a while, the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is no longer kept up. Authors write literature in French, not English. For all practical purposes English is no longer a written language. Bilingualism gradually becomes more common, especially among those who deal with both upper and lower classes. Growth of London as a commercial center draws many from the countryside who can fill this socially intermediate role.**
1204	**The English kings lose the duchy of Normandy to French kings. England is now the only home of the Norman English.**
1205	**First book in English appears since the conquest.**
1258	**First royal proclamation issued in English since the conquest.**
ca.1300	**Increasing feeling on the part of even noblemen that they are English, not French. Nobility begin to educate their children in English. French is taught to children as a foreign language rather than used as a medium of instruction.**
1337	**Start of the Hundred Years' War between England and France.**
1362	**English becomes official language of the law courts. More and more authors are writing in English.**
ca.1380	**Chaucer writes the Canterbury tales in Middle English. The language shows French influence in thousands of French borrowings. The London dialect, for the first time, begins to be recognized as the "Standard", or variety of English taken as the norm, for all England. Other dialects are relegated to a less prestigious position, even those that earlier served as standards, like the Wessex dialect of southwest England.**

1474	**William Caxton brings a printing press to England from Germany. He publishes the first printed book in England. It was the beginning of the long process of standardization of spelling. Excursus: The Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye.**

Characteristics of Middle English. The writing system changed dramatically in Middle English:

- [þ] and [ð] were replaced by [th] (and sometimes [y], as in [ye] meaning the);
- [c] before [i] or [e] became [ch];
- [sc] became [sh];
- an internal [h] was added after [g];
- [hw] became [wh];
- [cw] became [qu];
- the new symbols [v] and [u] were added; [v] was used word initially, and [u] was used everywhere else;
- [k] was used much more often ("cyning" became "king");
- new values were given to old symbols too; [g] before [i] or [e] was pronounced [ǰ]; [ʒ] became [j], and [c] before [i] and [e] became [s] in some cases;
- a historical [h] (usually not pronounced) was added to some words (it was assumed that these words had once begun with an "h"): "honor, heir, honest, herb, habit";
- sometimes words were written with [o] but pronounced as [ʊ] but later were pronounced [ʌ]: "son, come, ton, some, from, money, honey, front, won, one, wonder, of".

Because of the stress shift to the beginning of the word, Middle English lost the case suffixes at the ends of nouns. Phonological erosion also occurred because of this, and some consonants dropped off while some vowels became əand dropped off too. The generalized plural marker became "-s", but it still competed with "-n".

Pronunciation changes:

- Loss of initial [h] in a cluster (“hleapan” – “to leap”; “hnutu” – “hut”);
- [w] lost between consonant and back vowel [w] is silent in “two, sword, answer”;
- [č] lost in unstressed syllable “ič” – “I”;
- [v] lost in middle of words (“heofod” – “head”; “hæfde” – “had”);
- Loss of final “-n” in possessive pronouns (“min fæder” – “mi fæder”) and the addition of “-n” to some words beginning with a vowel (“a napron” – “an apron”, “a nuncle” – “an uncle”);
- Voiced fricatives became phonemic with their voiceless counterparts;
- [ž] phoneme was borrowed from French as the voiced counterpart for [š];
- Front rounded vowels merged with their unrounded counterparts;
- Vowel length became predictable (lost phonemic status); an open syllable with no consonant following it contained a long vowel, while a closed syllable with at least one consonant following it contained a short vowel.

In addition, there were dialectal differences in the north and south. The north used “-(e)s” for the plural marker as well as for the third person singular; and the third person plural pronouns began with “th-” (borrowed from Scandinavian). The south used “-(e)n” for the plural, “-(e)th” for the third person singular, and “h-” for the third person plural pronouns. The north used [a] and [k] while the south used [o] and [č] for certain words. Eventually, the northern dialect would become the standard for modern English regarding the grammatical endings, but the southern pronunciation of [o] and [č] would also remain.

3. Literature. Influence of Anglo-Norman French on English.

When the Normans invaded England, the Anglo-Saxon literature had reached a very high level of development. The important Benedictine monasteries wrote Chronicles in Old English and guarded other works written in this language.

But with the arrival of the Normans, the Anglo-Saxon literature came to an end and the literature written in Britain was in Latin or in Anglo-Norman.

The Plantagenet kings encouraged this Anglo-Norman literature. Nevertheless, during the beginning of the XIV-th century, some authors chose to write in English, but it is only during the late XIV-th century that the English literature was at its best with Geoffrey Chaucer.

The authors of that period were influenced by the works of their contemporary French writers, whose language was culturally and literally prestigious. Chaucer is considered to be the father of the English language and the creator of English as a literary language.

The major Norman-French influence on English can still be seen in today's vocabulary. An enormous number of Norman-French words came into the language, and about three-quarters of them are still used today. Very often, the Norman-French word supplanted the Anglo-Saxon term. Or both words would co-exist, but with slightly different nuances, for example "ox" - describing the animal and "beef" - describing the meat. In other cases, the Norman-French word was adopted to signify a new reality, such as "judge", "castle" and "warranty".

In general, the Norman-French borrowings concerned the fields of culture, aristocratic life, politics and religion, and war, whereas the English words were used to describe everyday experience.

When the Normans arrived in England, their copyists wrote English as they heard it, not realizing the peculiarities of the relationship between Anglo-Saxon pronunciation and spelling, and in this way the spelling changed. There appeared different regional Modern-English written dialects, of which the one that the king chose in the XV-th century became the standard variety.

In this period the French language was regarded like an official language in England but this tendency will disappear in the XIV-th century. Even after the

decline of Norman-French, standard French retained the status of a formal or prestige language, as with most of Europe during the period, and had a significant influence on the language, which is visible in Modern English today.

A tendency for French-derived words to have more formal connotations has continued to the present day. For example, most modern English speakers consider a “cordial reception” from French to be more formal than a “hearty welcome” from Germanic.

Another example is the rare construction of the words for animals are being separate from the words for their meat, for instance: “beef” and “pork” from the French [bœuf] and [porc], being the products of “cows” and “pigs” - animals with Germanic names.

English was also influenced by the Celtic languages it was displacing, especially the Brittonic substrate, most notably with the introduction of the continuous aspect (to be doing or to have been doing), which is a feature found in many modern languages but developed earlier and more thoroughly in English.

While the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle continued until 1154, most other literature from this period was in Old Norman or Latin. A large number of Norman words were taken into Old English, with many doubling for Old English words. The Norman influence is the hallmark of the linguistic shifts in English over the period of time following the invasion, producing what is now referred to as Middle English.

English literature reappeared after 1200, when a changing political climate and the decline in Anglo-Norman made it more respectable. The Provisions of Oxford, released in 1258, was the first English government document to be published in the English language after the Norman Conquest.

In 1362, Edward III became the first king to address Parliament in English. By the end of the century, even the royal court had switched to English. Anglo-

Norman remained in use in limited circles somewhat longer, but it had ceased to be a living language.

Opening prologue of “The Wife of Bath’s Tale” – Canterbury Tales

Geoffrey Chaucer is the most famous writer from the Middle English period, and “The Canterbury Tales” is his best-known work. Although the spelling of Chaucer’s English varies from that of Modern English, his works can be read with minimal assistance.

The English language changed enormously during the Middle English period, both in grammar and in vocabulary. While Old English is a heavily inflected language (synthetic), an overall diminishing of grammatical endings occurred in Middle English (analytic). Grammar distinctions were lost as many noun and adjective endings were leveled to “-e”. The older plural noun marker “-en” largely gave way to “-s”, and grammatical gender was discarded. Approximately 10,000 French (and Norman) loan words entered Middle English,

particularly terms associated with government, church, law, the military, fashion, and food.

English spelling was also influenced by Norman in this period, with the [θ] and [ð] sounds being spelled “th” rather than with the Old English letters “þ” (thorn) and “ð” (eth), which did not exist in Norman. These letters remain in the modern Icelandic alphabet, having been borrowed from Old English via Western Norwegian.

Questions:

Which peculiarities of the Middle English can you describe?

Define the characteristic features of the Middle English.

When was the Norman Conquest?

Who was Geoffrey Chaucer?

Why is G.Chaucer considered to be the father of the English language?

Analyze the influence of Anglo-Norman French on English.

Lecture 6. Early Modern English - From the Late of the XV-th to the Late of the XVII-th century.

The English language underwent extensive sound changes during the 1400-s, while spelling conventions remained rather constant. Early Modern English Period (1500-1650) - The effects of the renaissance begin to be seriously felt in England. We see the beginnings of a huge influx of Latin, Greek French words, many of them learned words imported by scholars well versed in those languages.

Modern English is often dated from the Great Vowel Shift, which took place mainly during the XV-th century. English was further transformed by the spread of a standardized London-based dialect in government and administration and by the standardizing effect of printing. Consequent to the push toward standardization, the language acquired self-conscious terms such as “accent” and “dialect”.

Modern English (1650-present) is Period of major colonial expansion, industrial and technological revolution, and American immigration. By the time of Wiliam Shakespeare (middle of the XVI-th - early XVII-th century), the language had become clearly recognizable as Modern English. In 1604, the first English dictionary was published, the “Table Alphabticall”.

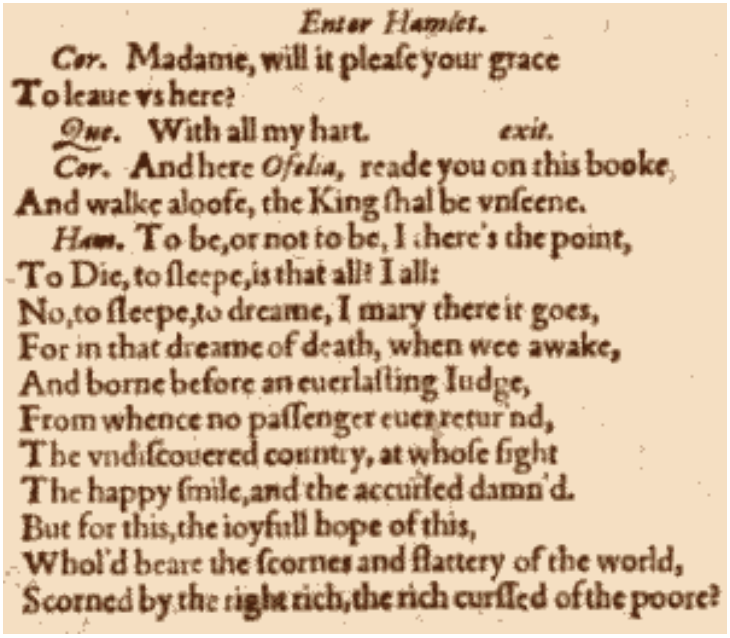
Increased literacy and travel have facilitated the adoption of many foreign words, especially borrowings from Latin and Greek since the Renaissance. In the XVII-th century, Latin words were often used with the original inflections, but these eventually disappeared.

As there are many words from different languages and English spelling is variable, the risk of mispronunciation is high, but remnants of the older forms remain in a few regional dialects, most notably in the West Country. During the period, loan words were borrowed from Italian, German, and Yiddish. British acceptance of and resistance to Americanisms began during this period.

Early Modern English (1500-1700 CE).

Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter. From the XVI-th century the British had contact with many peoples from around the world.

This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.



Enter Hamlet.

Cor. Madame, will it pleaſe your grace
To leaue vs here?
Que. With all my hart. *exit.*
Cor. And here *Ofelia*, reade you on this booke,
And walke aloofe, the King ſhal be vnſeene.
Ham. To be, or not to be, I there's the point,
To Die, to ſleepe, is that all? I all:
No, to ſleepe, to dreame, I mary there it goes,
For in that dreame of death, when wee awake,
And borne before an euerlaſting Iudge,
From whence no paſſenger euer retur nd,
The vndiſcouered country, at whoſe ſight
The happy ſmile, and the accurſed damn'd.
But for this, the ioyfull hope of this,
Whol'd beare the ſcornes and flattery of the world,
Scorned by the right rich, the rich curſted of the poore?

Hamlet's famous "To be, or not to be" lines,
written in Early Modern English by Shakespeare

The next wave of innovation in English came with the Renaissance. The revival of classical scholarship brought many classical Latin and Greek words into the Language. These borrowings were deliberate and many bemoaned the adoption of these "inkhorn" terms, but many survive to this day. Shakespeare's character

Holofernes in “Loves Labor Lost” is a satire of an overenthusiastic schoolmaster who is too fond of Latinisms.

Many students having difficulty understanding William Shakespeare would be surprised to learn that he wrote in modern English. But, as can be seen in the earlier example of the Lord’s Prayer, Elizabethan English has much more in common with our language today than it does with the language of Geoffrey Chaucer. Many familiar words and phrases were coined or first recorded by Shakespeare, some 2,000 words and countless idioms are his.

Newcomers to W.Shakespeare are often shocked at the number of cliches contained in his plays, until they realize that he coined them and they became cliches afterwards. “One fell swoop”, “vanish into thin air”, and “flesh and blood” are all Shakespeare’s. Words he bequeathed to the language include “critical”, “leapfrog”, “majestic”, “dwindle”, and “pedant”.

Two other major factors influenced the language and served to separate Middle and Modern English. The first was the Great Vowel Shift. This was a change in pronunciation that began around 1400.

While modern English speakers can read G.Chaucer with some difficulty, Chaucer’s pronunciation would have been completely unintelligible to the modern ear. Shakespeare, on the other hand, would be accented, but understandable.

Vowel sounds began to be made further to the front of the mouth and the letter “e” at the end of words became silent. Chaucer’s “Lyf” (pronounced “leef”) became the modern “life”.

In Middle English “name” was pronounced “nam-a”, “five” was pronounced “feef”, and “down” was pronounced “doon”. In linguistic terms, the shift was rather sudden, the major changes occurring within a century. The shift is still not over; however, vowel sounds are still shortening although the change has become considerably more gradual.

The last major factor in the development of Modern English was the advent of the printing press. William Caxton brought the printing press to England in 1476. Books became cheaper and as a result, literacy became more common.

Publishing for the masses became a profitable enterprise, and works in English, as opposed to Latin, became more common.

Finally, the printing press brought standardization to English. The dialect of London, where most publishing houses were located, became the standard. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the first English dictionary was published in 1604.

Modern English Period (ca. 1500-present)

1500-1650	**Early Modern English develops. The Great Vowel Shift gradually takes place. There is a large influx of Latin and Greek borrowings and neologisms.**
1552	**Thomas Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, publishes the "Book of Common Prayer", a translation of the church's liturgy into English.**
1611	**"King James Bible" published, which has influenced English writing down to the present day. Excursus: Common phrases from "The King James Bible".**
1616	**Shakespeare dies. Recognized even then as a genius of the English language. Wove native and borrowed words together in amazing and pleasing combinations. Excursus: Shakespeare's Legacy.**

William Caxton introduced the printing press to England in 1476 and the East Midland dialect became the literary standard of English. Ten thousand words were added to English as writers created new words by using Greek and Latin affixes.

Some words, such as devulgate, attemptate and dispraise, are no longer used in English, but several words were also borrowed from other languages as well as from Chaucer's works.

In 1582, Richard Mulcaster proposed in his treatise "Elementaire" a compromise on spelling and by 1623, Henry Cockrum published his English dictionary.

Characteristics of Early Modern English.

Adjectives lost all endings except for in the comparative and superlative forms. The neuter pronoun it was first used as well as who as a relative pronoun. The class distinctions between formal and informal you were decreasing, so that today there is no difference between them.

More strong verbs became weak and the third person singular form became "-(e)s" instead of "-(e)th". There was a more limited use of the progressive and auxiliary verbs than there is now, however. Negatives followed the verb and multiple negatives were still used.

The Great Vowel Shift (1400-1600) changed the pronunciation of all the vowels. The tongue was placed higher in the mouth, and all the verbs moved up. Vowels that were already high [i] and [u] added the dipthongs [aj] and [aw] to the vowels of English.

Several consonants were no longer pronounced, but the spelling system was in place before the consonant loss, so they are still written in English today. The consonants lost include:

- Voiceless velar fricative lost in night; pronounced as [f] in "laugh";
- [b] in final "-mb" cluster "dumb, comb";
- [l] between [a] or [o] and consonant in "half, walk, talk, folk";
- [r] sometimes before [s] in "Worcestershire";
- initial clusters beginning with [k] and [g] in "knee, knight, gnat";
- [g] in "-ing" endings, more commonly pronounced [ɪn].

Finally, assibilation occurred when the alveolars [s], [d], [t], and [z] preceded the palatal glide [j], producing the palatal consonants: [š], [ǰ], [č], [ž].

Questions:

Pinpoint the date of the Early Modern English.

When the extensive sound changes had been in the English language?

When did the effects of the renaissance feel seriously in England?

How can you describe the Great Vowel Shift? When it had happened?

What difference is between “accent” and “dialect”?

Which period is considered to be the Period of major colonial expansion?

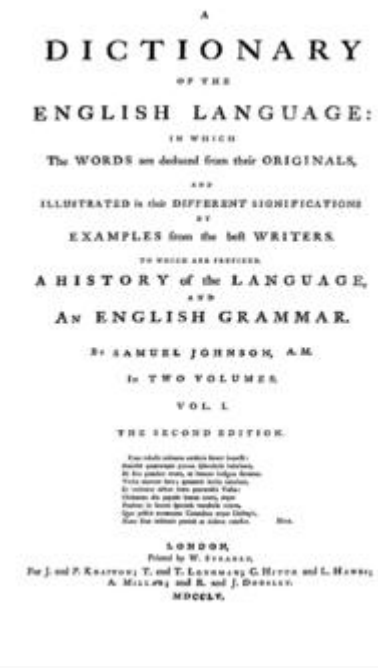
When the first English dictionary was published? What was the name of the “Table Alphabticall”.

Lecture 7. Late Modern English – From the Late of the XVIII-th century to the Present.

1. The Phonetics of Late Modern English.

2. Monophthongs and Diphthongs.

The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.


A
DICTIONARY
OF THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE:
IN WHICH
The WORDS are deduced from their ORIGINALS,
AND
ILLUSTRATED in their DIFFERENT SIGNIFICATIONS
BY
EXAMPLES from the beſt WRITERS.
TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED,
A HISTORY of the LANGUAGE,
AND
AN ENGLISH GRAMMAR.
By SAMUEL JOHNSON, A.M.
In TWO VOLUMES.
VOL. I.
THE SECOND EDITION.
LONDON,
Printed by W. STRAHAN,
For J. and P. KNAPTON; T. and T. LONGMAN; C. HITCH and L. HAWES;
A. MILLAR; and R. and J. DODSLEY.
MDCCLV.

Title page from the second edition of the "Dictionary"

The Dictionary of the English Languagewas the first full featured English dictionary. Samuel Johnson published the authoritative work in 1755. To a high

degree, the dictionary standardized both English spelling and word usage. Meanwhile, grammar texts by Lowth, Murray, Priestly, and others attempted to prescribe standard usage even further.

Early Modern English and Late Modern English vary essentially in vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from the Industrial Revolution and the technology that created a need for new words as well as international development of the language.

The British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the Earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries. British English and American English, the two major varieties of the language, are spoken by 400 million persons.

Received Pronunciation of British English is considered the traditional standard, while General American English is more influential. The total number of English speakers worldwide may exceed one billion.

The principal distinction between early-modern and late-modern English is vocabulary. Pronunciation, grammar, and spelling are largely the same, but Late-Modern English has many more words.

These words are the result of two historical factors. The first is the Industrial Revolution and the rise of the technological society. This necessitated new words for things and ideas that had not previously existed. The second was the British Empire. At its height, Britain ruled one quarter of the earth's surface and English adopted many foreign words and made them its own.

The industrial and scientific revolutions created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. For this, English relied heavily on Latin and Greek.

Words like "oxygen", "protein", "nuclear"and "vaccine" did not exist in the classical languages, but they were created from Latin and Greek roots. Such

neologisms were not exclusively created from classical roots though English roots were used for such terms as “horsepower”, “airplane” and “typewriter”.

This burst of neologisms continues today, perhaps most visible in the field of electronics and computers. “Byte”, “cyber-”, “bios”, “hard-drive”, and “microchip” are good examples.

Also, the rise of the British Empire and the growth of global trade served not only to introduce English to the world, but to introduce words into English. Hindi, and the other languages of the Indian subcontinent, provided many words, such as “pundit”, “shampoo”, “pajamas”, and “juggernaut”.

Virtually every language on Earth has contributed to the development of English, from Finnish “sauna” and Japanese “tycoon” to the vast contributions of French and Latin.

The British Empire was a maritime empire, and the influence of nautical terms on the English language has been great. Phrases like “three sheets to the wind” have their origins onboard ships.

Finally, the military influence on the language during the latter half of XX-th century was significant. Before the Great War, military service for English-speaking persons was rare; both Britain and the United States maintained small, volunteer militaries.

Military slang existed, but with the exception of nautical terms, rarely influenced Standard English. During the middle of the XX-th century, however, a large number of British and American men served in the military.

And, consequently, military slang entered the language like never before. “Blockbuster, “nose dive”, “camouflage”, “radar”, “roadblock”, “spearhead”, and “landing strip” are all military terms that made their way into Standard English.

Late-Modern English (1800-Present)

1700-s	**Classical period of English literature. The fashion for borrowing Latin and Greek words, and coining new words with Latin and Greek morphemes, rages unabated. Elaborate syntax matches elaborate vocabulary, for example, writings of Samuel Johnson. The rise of English purists, for exmple, Jonathan Swift, who decried the "degeneration" of English and sought to "purify" it and fix it forever in unchanging form.**
XVII-th – XIX-th centuries	**British imperialism. Borrowings from languages around the world. Development of American English. By XIX-th century, a standard variety of American English develops, based on the dialect of the Mid-Atlantic states. Establishment of English in Australia, South Africa, and India, among other British colonial outposts.Excursus: Borrowed words in English.**
XIX-th century	**Recognition (and acceptance) by linguistic scholars of the ever-changing nature of language. Discovery of the Indo-European language family. Late in century: Recognition that all languages are fundamentally the same in nature; no "primitive" or "advanced" languages.**
XIX-th – XX-th centuries	**Scientific and Industrial Revolutions. Development of technical vocabularies. Within a few centuries, English has gone from an island tongue to a world language, following the fortunes of those who speak it.**
XX-th century	**Communications revolution. Spread of a few languages at the expense of many. Languages of the world begin to die out on a large scale as mastery of certain world languages becomes necessary for survival. Classification and description of non-Indo-European languages by linguists continues, in many cases in a race against the clock.**
1945-present	**American political, economic, military supremacy. Borrowing patterns continue. English has greater impact than ever on other languages, even those with more native speakers. Becomes most widely studied second language, and a scientific lingua franca.** **By the 1990s, preferences begin to shift in many places from British to American English as the selected standard for second language acquisition. The twin influences of British and American broadcasting media make the language accessible to more and more people. Hollywood and the pop music industry help make English an irresistible medium for the transmission of popular culture.** **Even long-established European cultures begin to feel linguistically and culturally threatened, as English comes into use in more and more spheres and large numbers of English borrowings enter their languages.** **New waves of immigrants to the U.S. Linguistic diversity increases where the newcomers settle, but immigrants repeat the pattern of earlier settlers and lose their language within a generation or two.** **The culture at large remains resolutely monolingual, despite the fears of cultural purists. But as ever, the language continues to absorb loanwords, continually enriched by the many tongues of the newcomers to these shores.**

1. The phonetics of Late Modern English.

The pronunciation, grammar and spelling of Late Modern English are essentially the same as Early-Modern English, but Late Modern English has significantly more words due to several factors.

In the period of Late Modern English the standard of pronunciation which is aimed at by all the contemporary learners of English as a foreign language, namely Received Pronunciation (RP), emerged. Since that time Received Pronunciation has been a standard for noblemen and upper class of society in Great Britain. However, unlike nowadays in the Late Modern English RP the phoneme [r] was pronounced in all positions.

When it comes to the sources of Early Modern English loanwords what is interesting is the fact at that time the Englishmen opposed the influx of French words to their language. Thus, the major sources of lexis were Latin and Greek. According to current estimates about two thirds of loanword of Late Middle English have either Latin or Greek etymology.

The grammatical peculiarities of the Late Modern English are divided into two types: changes in syntax which begun in Early Modern English and continued till that time, and totally new aspects introduced in the XVIII-th and XIX-th centuries. The former include the use of “do” in questions and negatives which became a standard at that time.

Moreover, the rules regarding the use of “wh”-relatives: “who, whom, whose, which” became standardized and more stable. Innovations introduced in the Late Modern English include the “be + ing” construction not only in Present Continuous tense, but also in passives. Also at that time the two schools of approaching grammar emerged.

According to some linguists grammarians should only describe the language as it is actually used, while others provided rules that should be obeyed in the "correct" English.

The long discussion between the representatives of the two different schools of thought is still serious.

Modern English Language had been subdivided into Early Modern English which was used from the XV-th century, more or less up to end of the XVII-th century, or according to some scholars even in the XVIII-th century, and Modern English was used from that time till now.

Only recently was this division renewed as with the end of the XX-th century the time perspective enabled linguists to look at the English language from a different angle and thus nowadays Modern English is subdivided into Early Modern English and Late Modern English (more or less 1700-1900), while the language used in the XX-th and XXI-st century is called Contemporary English, or sometimes **Present Day English**.

There are numerous factors influencing the development of the English language in the XVIII-th and XIX-th centuries. The technological advances enabled faster travels, therefore people started visiting different parts of Britain more often and so the dialects blended.

At that time in America sound voices supported the division between British and American English. Dictionaries were published in the USA, which provided deliberately distinct norms of spelling to make the American variety more distinguishable. In addition to that many new words came from the British colonies with the new concepts, inventions customs and scientific discoveries.

We must also mention the industrial and scientific revolution. The dates may be rather arbitrary, but the main distinction between Early Modern and Late

Modern English, or just Modern English as it is sometimes referred to, lies in its vocabulary – pronunciation, grammar and spelling remained largely unchanged.

Late Modern English accumulated many more words as a result of two main historical factors: the Industrial Revolution, which necessitated new words for things, and ideas that had not previously existed; and the rise of the British Empire, during which time English adopted many foreign words and made them its own. No single one of the socio-cultural developments of the XIX-th century could have established English as a world language, but together they did just that.

Most of the innovations of the Industrial Revolution of the late XVIII-th and early XIX-th century were of British origin, including the harnessing of steam to drive heavy machinery, the development of new materials, techniques and equipment in a range of manufacturing industries, and the emergence of new means of transportation, for example, “steamships, railways”.

At least half of the influential scientific and technological output between 1750 and 1900 was written in English. Another English speaking country, the USA, continued the English language dominance of new technology and innovation with inventions like “electricity, the telegraph, the telephone, the phonograph, the sewing machine, the computer, etc.”

The industrial and scientific advances of the Industrial Revolution created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. To a large extent, this relied on the classical languages, Latin and Greek, in which scholars and scientists of the period were usually well versed.

Although words like “oxygen, protein, nuclear, vaccine” did not exist in the classical languages, they could be created from Latin and Greek roots. For example: “lens, refractio, electron, chromosome, chloroform, caffeine, centigrade, bacteria, chronometer, claustrophobia” are just a few of the other science-based words that were created during this period of scientific innovation, along with a

whole host of “-ologies” and “-onomies”, like “Biology, Petrology, Morphology, Histology, Palaeontology, Ethnology, Entomology, Taxonomy”, etc.

Many more new words were coined for the new products, machines and processes that were developed at this time, for example: “train, engine, reservoir, pulley, combustion, piston, hydraulic, condenser, electricicty, telephone, telegraph, lithograph, camera”, etc.

In some cases, old words were given entirely new meanings and connotation, for instance: “vacuum, cylinder, apparatus, pump, syphon, locomotive, factory”, etc. and new words created by amalgamating and fusing existing English words into a descriptive combination were particularly popular, for example: “railway, horsepower, typewriter, citycape, airplane”, etc.

2. Monophthongs and diphthongs.

Old English had seven or eight vowel qualities, depending on dialect, and each could appear as either a long or short **monophthong**. An example of a pair of words distinguished by vowel length is “god” [god] (“god”) and [gō] - [goːd] “good”.

	Front		**Back**	
	unrounded	**rounded**	**unrounded**	**rounded**
Close	**i iː**	**y yː**		**u uː**
Mid	**e eː**	**(ø øː)**		**o oː**
Open	**æ æː**		**ɑ ɑː**	

The front mid rounded vowels [ø øː] occur in the Northumbrian dialect, for instance, but merged into [e eː] in the best attested Late West Saxon dialect.

The long-short vowel pair [æ æː] developed into the Middle English vowels [a], [ɛː], with two different vowel qualities distinguished by height, so they may have had different qualities in Old English as well.

The short open back vowel [ɑ] before nasals was probably rounded to [ɒ]. This is suggested by the fact that the word for "man", for example, is spelled as "mann" or "monn".

In unstressed syllables, only three vowels [ɑ, e, u], were distinguished. Here [æ, e, i] were reduced to [e], [ɑ], [o] were reduced to [ɑ], and [u] remained. Unstressed [e], [u] were sometimes pronounced as [i], [o], as in "haliġ" and "heofon".

All dialects of Old English had **diphthongs**. Like monophthongs, diphthongs appear to have had short and long versions. In modern texts, long diphthongs are marked with a macron on the first letter. The short versions behave like short monophthongs, and the long versions like long monophthongs.

Most Old English diphthongs consist of a front vowel followed by a back offglide; according to some analyses they were in fact front vowels followed by a velarized consonant. The diphthongs tend to be height-harmonic, meaning that both parts of the diphthong had the same vowel height (high, mid or low).

The Anglian dialects had the following diphthongs:

First element	**Short (monomoraic)**	**Long (bimoraic)**	**Spelling (original)**	**Spelling (modern editions)**
High	**iu̯**	**iːu̯**	***io***	***io*, *īo***
Mid	**eo̯**	**eːo̯**	***eo***	***eo*, *ēo***
Low	**æɑ̯**	**æːɑ̯**	***ea***	***ea*, *ēa***

The high diphthongs [io] and [īo] were not present in Late West Saxon, having merged into [eo] and [ēo]. Earlier West Saxon, however, had an additional pair of long and short diphthongs written [ie], distinguished as [ie] and [īe] in modern editions, which developed from i-mutation or umlaut of [eo] or [ea], [ēo] or [ēa].

Scholars do not agree on how they were pronounced; they may have been [iẹ̯ iːẹ̯] or [iy̯ iːy̯]. They were apparently monophothongized by Alfred the Great's time, to a vowel whose pronunciation is still uncertain, but is known as "unstable" [i]. This later went on to merge with [y yː], according to spellings such as "gelyfan", for earlier "geliefan" and "gelifan" ("to believe").

According to another interpretation, however, the "unstable" [i] may simply have been [i], and the later [y] can be explained by the fact that Late West Saxon was not a direct descendant of Early West Saxon. See Old English dialects.

This produced additional instances of [y(:)] alongside those that developed from i-mutation and from sporadic rounding of [i(:)] in certain circumstances, for example: "myċel" - "much" from earlier "miċel", with rounding perhaps triggered by the rounded [m]. All instances of [y(:)] were normally unrounded next to [c], [g] and [h], hence "gifan" from earlier "giefan" – "to give".

Questions:

Define the date of Late Modern English.

Designate the specific phonetical features of Late Modern English.

Characterize the monophthongs and diphthongs of Late Modern English.

Describe the peculiarities of Military slang before the Great War in Britain.

Lecture 8. Old English Historical Phonetics.

1. Phonological Changes.

2. Spelling Changes in Modern English and New English.

3. Rules of Reading.

4. Linguistic Features of Germanic Languages: Consonants.

5. Phonetic Processes in Old English. The System of the Consonants.

1. Phonological changes.

Old English is no far removed from ME that one may take it for an entirely different language. This is largely due to the peculiarities of its pronunciation.

The survey of OE phonetics deals with word accention the systems of voweks and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the PG system. It underwent changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE. The diachronic description of phonetics in those early perods will show the specifically English tendencies of development and the immediate source of the sounds in the age of writing. The system of word accentuation inherited from PG underwent no changes in Early OE.

In OE a syllable was made pronominent by an increase in the force of articulation, in other words, a dynamic or a force stress was employed. In disyllabic and polysyllabic words the accent fell on the root-morpheme or on the first syllable. Word stress was fixed, it remained on the same syllable in defferent grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either.

Polysyllabic words, espacially compounds, may have had two stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, for instance: the compound noun “Norðmonna” from same extract, received the chief

stress upon its first component and the secondary stress on the second component, the grammatical ending "-a" was unaccented. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix "risan" (NE "arise"); "to-weard" (NE "toward").

If the words were deived from the same roor, word stress, together with other means, served [tj] distinguish the noun from verb: "Forwyrd" "n" – for-weorƀan - "destruction", "perish".

Pronunciation was characterized by a predictable stress pattern on the first syllable. The length of the vowels was phonemic as there were 7 long and 7 short vowels.

There were also two front rounded vowels that are no longer used in modern English [iː] and [ɪː]. The "i-mutation" occurred if there was a front vowel in the ending, and then the root vowel became fronted. For example, "fot" becomes "fot+i = fet". This helps to explain why "feet" is the plural of "foot".

The high long vowels [iː] and [uː] in words like "price" and "mouth" became diphthongized, first to [əɪ] and [əʊ], where they remain today in some environments in some accents such as Canadian English, and later to their modern values [aɪ] and [aʊ]. This is not unique to English, as this also happened in Dutch, first shift only, but in dialects and other non-standard varieties frequently both and German: both shifts.

The other long vowels became higher: [eː] became [iː], for example: "meet"; [aː] became [eː], later diphthongized to [eɪ], for example: "name"; [oː] became [uː], for example: "goose"; [ɔː] become [oː], later diphthongized to [əʊ] (RP) and [oʊ] (GA), for example "bone".

Later developments complicate the picture: whereas in Geoffrey Chaucer's time "food, good, blood" all had the vowel [oː] and in William Shakespeare's time

they all had the vowel [uː], in modern pronunciation "good" has shortened its vowel to [ʊ] and "blood" has shortened and lowered its vowel to [ʌ] in most accents.

In Shakespeare's day, late XVI-th – early XVII-th century many rhymes were possible that no longer hold today. For example, in his play "The Taming of the Shrew", "shrew" rhymed with "woe".

Around the late XIV-th century, English began to undergo the Great Vowel Shift, in which "æ-tensing".

æ-tensing is a phenomenon found in many varieties of American English by which the vowel [æ] has a longer, higher, and usually diphthongal pronunciation in some environments, usually to something like [eə]. Some American accents, for example those of New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, make a marginal phonemic distinction between [æ] and [eə] although the two occur largely in mutually exclusive environments.

The **bad-lad split** refers to the situation in some varieties of southern British English and Australian English, where a long phoneme [æː] in words like "bad" contrasts with a short [æ] in words like "lad".

The **cot-caught** merger is a sound change by which the vowel of words like "caught", "talk", and "tall" [ɔː], is pronounced the same as the vowel of words like "cot", "rock", and "doll" [ɒ] in New England [ɑː] elsewhere. This merger is widespread in North American English, being found in approximately 40 per cent of American speakers and virtually all Canadian speakers.

The **father-bother merger** is the pronunciation of the short O [ɒ] in words such as "bother" identically to the broad A [ɑː] of words such as "father", nearly universal in all of the United States and Canada save New England and the Maritime provinces; many American dictionaries use the same symbol for these vowels in pronunciation guides.

Thus, the development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones: after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place. It may result in the splitting of phonemes and their numerical growth, which fills in the "empty boxes" of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the merging of old phonemes, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together.

The vocalic system in OE included two subsystems: monophthongs, diphthongs. All vowels existed in the pairs: [æ] - [ǣ] long, [a] - [ā], [e] - [ē], [o] - [ō], [i] - [ī], [u] - [ū], [y] - [ў] long.

The major factor in OE was a category of quantity vowels. It means that all OE vowels, including diphthongs, could be both long and short. It is the system of vowels on the beginning of OE.

The new system came with Anglo-Saxon tribes: in most cases these new processes represent result of influence of the next sounds and called the **combinatory changes**.

1. Influence of the next consonant - **breaking** (diphthongization). Short vowels were diphthongsed before consonant. The short vowels: æ, e, a. Short vowels [æ] and [e] were diphnized**:** [æ] turn into ea before combinations [r] + [l] + [h] + consonant, and before "h" on the end of a word: "wearp, healp, eahta, seah", like: [e] > [eo] in OE "deorc", NE "dark"; [e] turn into [eo] before combinations [r] +consonant [l] + velar concordant [c] and [h], before [h] on the end of a word: "weorþan, meolcan, feoh".

The essence of breaking consists that front vowel assimilates with the subsequent firm consonants by development of a sound of glide, which forms a diphthong. The glide, together with the original monophthong formed a diphthong.

Palatalization. After the palatal consonants [k'], [sk'] and [j] short and long [e] and [æ] turned into diphthongs with a more front close vowel as their first element, for example: OE scæmu > sceamu (NE shame).

In the resulting diphthong the initial [i] or [e] must have been unstressed but later the stress shifted to the first element, which turned into the nucleus of the diphthong, to conform to the structure of OE diphthongs. This process is known as "diphthongisation after palatal consonants". It observes in Wessex dialect, for instance: [æ] – [ea] - sceal, cearu. [æ] [b] long – [ea] long – [scēāwian], [ʒēāfon], [a] – [ea] - [scacan] – [sceacan], [o] – [eo] – [sceort], [ceort], [e] – [ie] – [scield], [ʒ] – [iefan].

Contraction. The vowels contracted into "i" when they were separated by "h**"** and "h**"** disappeared, for example: [e] + [a] = [eo] "sehan" – "seon", [i] + [a] **=** [eo] – "tihan"- "teon", [a] + [a] = [ea] "slehan" – "slean", [o] **+** [a] **=** [o] long "fohan" – "fon".

Mutation is the change of one vowel to another through the influence of a vowel in the succeeding syllable: two types:

a) i-umlaut mutation (palatal mutation);

b) back mutation (guttural).

i-Umlaut - under its influence vowel moves ahead or narrowed, for instance: [æ] – [e] - [sætjan] – [settan]**,** [a] – [e] **-** [talu] – [tellan]**,** [o] – [e] **-** [ofost] **–** [efstan], [ō] – [ē] - [dōm] – [dēman], [u] – [y] – [fullian] – [fyllan], [u] – [y] – [cuþ]- [cŷþþan]. Changes in diphthongs: [ea] – [ie], [ea] long – [ie] long, [eo] – [ie], [eo] long – [ie] long.

Back mutation – U-Umlaut it is caused by back vowels "a, o, u". In Wessex dialect take place only before consonants [r, l, p, f, m]. [a] – [ea] - [saru] – [searu], [i] – [io] [hira] – [hioru], [e] – [eo] – [herot] – [heorot]. The words, which begin with [wi] – mutation occurred without dependence from the subsequent

concordant: [widu] – [wiodu]. U-umlaut was optional (facultative) and i-umlaut was the main (system-forming).

2. Spelling changes in Modern English and New English.

In England, several changes to English had occurred since 1700. These include a loss of the post-vocalic “r”, so that the “r” is only pronounced before a vowel and not after; an increase in the use of the progressive tenses; and a rise in class consciousness about speech - Received Pronunciation.

Since 1900, a very large amount of vocabulary words has been added to English in a relatively short period. The majority of these words are related to science and technology, and use Greek and Latin roots.

Sound change includes any processes of language change that affect pronunciation (phonetic change) or sound system structures (phonological change). Sound change can consist of the replacement of one speech sound or, more generally, one phonetic feature by another, the complete loss of the affected sound, or even the introduction of a new sound in a place where there previously was none.

Sound changes can be environmentally conditioned, meaning that the change in question only occurs in a defined sound environment, whereas in other environments the same speech sound is not affected by the change.

The term “sound change” refers to diachronic changes, or changes in a language’s underlying sound system over time; “alternation”, on the other hand, refers to surface changes that happen synchronically and do not change the language’s underlying system, for example, the “-s” in the English plural can be pronounced differently depending on what sound it follows; this is a form of alternation, rather than sound change.

Sound change is usually assumed to be **regular**, which means that it is expected to apply mechanically whenever its structural conditions are met, irrespective of any non-phonological factors, such as the meaning of the words affected. On the other hand, sound changes can sometimes be **sporadic**, affecting only one particular word or a few words, without any seeming regularity.

For regular sound changes, the term "sound law" is sometimes still used. This term was introduced by the Neogrammarian School in the XIX-th century and is commonly applied to some historically important sound changes, such as Grimm's Law.

While real-world sound changes often admit exceptions, for a variety of known reasons, and sometimes without one, the expectation of their regularity or "exceptionlessness" is of great heuristic value, since it allows historical linguists to define the notion of "regular correspondence".

Each sound change is limited in space and time. This means it functions within a specified area within certain dialects and during a specified period of time. For these and other reasons, some scholars avoid using the term "sound law", reasoning that a law should not have spatial and temporal limitations, replacing the term with **phonetic rule**.

Sound change which affects the phonological system, in the number or distribution of its phonemes, is covered more fully at phonological change.

Pronunciation of consonants:

F	**v** **f**	**between voiced vowels** **elsewhere**
C	**č** **k**	**next to a front vowel** **elsewhere**
G	**j** **ɣ** **g**	**next to a front vowel** **between other vowels** **elsewhere**
H	**h**	**at beginning of word**

	x, ç	elsewhere
S	**z** **s**	**between voiced vowels** **elsewhere**
D	**ð** **θ**	**between voiced vowels** **elsewhere**
R	**trilled**	**-**
Sc	**š**	**-**
Cg	**ǰ**	**-**

3. Rules of reading. Phonological rule.

A > B is to be read, "A changes into or is replaced by, is reflected as, etc. B". It goes without saying that A belongs to an older stage of the language in question, whereas B belongs to a more recent stage. The symbol ">" can be reversed:

B < A "(more recent) B derives from (older) A", for example, POc. t > Rot. f = "Proto-Oceanic "t" is reflected as [f] in the Rotuman language".

The two sides of such an equation indicate start and end points only, and do not imply that there are not additional intermediate stages. The example above is actually a compressed account of a sequence of changes: "t" changed first into a dental fricative [θ], like the initial consonant of English "thin", which has yielded present-day [f]. This can be represented more fully as:

t > θ > f unless a change operates unconditionally in all environments, the context in which it applies must be specified:

A > B / XY= A changes into B when preceded by X and followed by Y, for example: It. b > v [vowel] [vowel], which can be simplified to just.

It. b > v V V, where the capital V stands for any given vowel = Intervocalic [b] (inherited from Latin) became [v] in Italian, for instance: in "caballum", "dēbet" > "cavallo" "horse", "deve" "owe (3sg.)".

A second example: PIr. [-cont][-voi] > [+cont] /[C] [+cont] = Preconsonantal voiceless non-continuants (voiceless stops) changed into corresponding voiceless continuants (fricatives) in Proto-Iranian, when immediately followed by a continuant consonant (resonants and fricatives), for example: Proto-Indo-Iranian "pra" "forth" and Avestan "fra", "trayas" - "three" (masc.nom.pl.) > Av. [θrayō], [čatwāras] "four" (masc.nom.pl.) > Av. [čaθwārō], [pśaws] of a "cow" (nom. [paśu]) > Av. [fšāoš] (nom. [pasu]).

Note that the fricativization does not occur before stops, so "sapta" "seven" > Av. "hapta". However, in the variety of Iranian underlying Old Persian, fricativization occurs in all clusters, thus Old Persian "hafta" - "seven".

If the symbol "#" stands for a word boundary (initial or final), the notation /# = "word-finally", and "/#" = "word-initially", for example: Gk. [stop] >∅ /#= "Word-final stops were deleted in Greek", which can be simplified to Gk. P >∅ / #where capital "P" stands for any plosive.

There are the principles of sound change. The following statements are used as heuristics in formulating sound changes as understood within the Neogrammarian model. However, for modern linguistics, they are not taken as inviolable rules; rather, they are seen as guidelines.

Sound change has no memory: Sound change does not discriminate between the sources of a sound. If a previous sound change causes X, Y > Y (features X and Y merge as Y), a new one cannot affect only original X's.

Sound change ignores grammar: A sound change can only have phonological constraints, like X > Z in unstressed syllables. It cannot, for example, only affect adjectives. The only exception to this is that a sound change may or may not recognise word boundaries, even when they are not indicated by prosodic clues. Also, sound changes may be regularized in inflectional paradigms, such as verbal inflection, in which case the change is no longer phonological but morphological in nature.

Sound change is exceptionless: If a sound change can happen at a place, it will. It affects all sounds that meet the criteria for change. Apparent exceptions are possible, due to analogy and other regularization processes, or another sound change, or an unrecognized conditioning factor.

This is the traditional view, expressed by the Neogrammarians. In past decades it has been shown that sound change doesn't necessarily affect all the words it in principle could. However, when a sound change is initiated, it often expands to the whole lexicon given enough time, though not always. For example, in Spanish the fronting of Vulgar Latin [g] before [i e ɛ] seems to have reached every possible word it could, but the change involving voicing of word-initial Latin [k] to [g] as in "colaphus > golpe" and "cattus > gato" did not, for instance: "canna > caña".

Sound change is unstoppable: All languages vary from place to place and time to time, and neither writing nor media prevent this change.

4. Linguistic features of Germanic languages: consonants.

There are the terms for changes in pronunciation. There are a number of traditional terms in historical linguistics designating types of phonetic change, either by nature or result.

A number of such types are often or usually sporadic, that is, more or less accidents that happen to a specific form. Others affect a whole phonological system. Sound changes that affect a whole phonological system are also classified according to how they affect the overall shape of the system**.**

Assimilation: One sound becomes more like another, or much more rarely two sounds become more like each other. Example: in Latin the prefix "kom-" becomes "con-" before an apical stop [t, d] or [n]: "contactus" – "touched", "condere" – "to found, establish", "connūbium" – "legal marriage".

The great majority of assimilations take place between contiguous segments, and the great majority involve the earlier one becoming more like the later one, for example: in “connūbium”, “m-”+“n” becomes “-nn-” rather than “-mm-”. Assimilation between contiguous segments are, diachronically speaking, exceptionless sound laws rather than sporadic, isolated changes.

Dissimilation: The opposite of assimilation. One sound becomes less like another, or (much more rarely) two sounds become less like each other. Examples: Latin “quīnque” /kʷiːnkʷe/ “five” > Proto-Romance “kinkʷe”, whence French “cinq”, Italian “cinque”, etc.; Old Spanish omne “man” > Spanish “hombre”.

The great majority of dissimilations involve segments that are **not** contiguous, but as with assimilations, the great majority involves an earlier sound changing with reference to a later one.

Dissimilation is usually a sporadic phenomenon, but Grassmann’s Law (Sanskrit and Greek) is an example of a systematic dissimilation. If the change of a sequence of fricatives such that one becomes a stop is dissimilation, then such changes as Proto-Germanic [χs] to [ks] spelled [*x*] in English would count as a regular sound law: PGmc. [seχs] “six” > Old English [siex], etc.

Metathesis: Two sounds switch places. Old English “th**ri**dda” became Middle English “th**ir**d”; English “comfortable” pronounced as if spelled “comfterble”.

Most such changes are sporadic, but occasionally a sound law is involved, as Romance [tl] > Spanish [ld], thus “kapitlu”, “titlu” “chapter (of a cathedral)”, “tittle” > Spanish “cabildo”, “tilde”. Metathesis can take place between non-contiguous segments, as Greek “amélgō” “I milk” > Modern Greek “armégō”.

Tonogenesis: Syllables come to have distinctive pitch contours.

Sandhi: conditioned changes that take place at word-boundaries but not elsewhere. It can be morpheme-specific, as in the loss of the vowel in the enclitic

forms of English “is” [ɪz], with subsequent change of [z] to [s] adjacent to a voiceless consonant “Frank’s not here” [ˈfræŋksnɒtˈhɪər].

Or a small class of elements, such as the assimilation of the [ð] of English “the”, “this” and “that” to a preceding [n], including the [n] of “and” when the [d] is elided or [l:] “all the” often [ɔːllə], “in the often [ɪnnə], and so on.

As in these examples, such features are rarely indicated in standard orthography. A striking exception is Sanskrit, whose orthography reflects a wide variety of such features: thus [tat] “that” is written [tat], [tac], [taj], [tad], [tan] depending on what the first sound of the next word is. These are all assimilations, but medial sequences do not assimilate the same way.

Haplology: The loss of a syllable when an adjacent syllable is similar or (rarely) identical, for example: Old English “Englaland” became Modern English “England”, or the common pronunciation of “probably” as [ˈprɒbli]. This change usually affects commonly used words. The word “haplology” itself is sometimes jokingly pronounced “haplogy”.

Elision, aphaeresis, syncope, and apocope: **all losses of sounds**.

Elision is the loss of unstressed sounds, aphaeresis the loss of initial sounds, syncope is the loss of medial sounds, and apocope is the loss of final sounds. Elision examples: in the southeastern United States, unstressed schwas tend to drop, so “American” is not [əˈmɛɹəkən] but [ˈmɚkən]. Standard English is “possum < opossum”.

Syncope examples: the Old French word for “state” is “estat”, but then the “s” dropped, yielding, “état”. Similarly the loss of [t] in English “soften, hasten, castle”, etc.

Apocope examples: the final “-e” [ə] in Middle English words was pronounced, but is only retained in spelling as silent “E”. In

English [b] and[g] were apocopated in final position after nasals: “lamb”, “long” [læm], [loŋ].

Epenthesis, also known as anaptyxis: The introduction of a sound between two adjacent sounds. Examples: Latin “humilis” and English “humble”; in Slavic an “-l-“ intrudes between a labial and a following yod, as “zemya” – “land” and Russian “zemlya” – “земля”.

Most commonly epenthesis is in the nature of a “transitional” consonant, but vowels may be epenthetic: non-standard English “film” in two syllables, “athlete” in three. Epenthesis can be regular, as when the Indo-European “tool” suffix “-tlom” everywhere becomes Latin “-culum”, so “speculum” – “mirror” < “speḱtlom”, “pōculum” – “drinking cup” < poH_3-tlom. Some scholars reserve the term “epenthesis” for “intrusive” vowels and use “excrescence” for intrusive consonants.

Prothesis: The addition of a sound at the beginning of a word, for example: word-initial “s” + stop clusters in Latin gained a preceding “e” in Old Spanish and Old French; hence, the Spanish word for “state” is “estado”, deriving from Latin “status”.

Nasalization: Vowels followed by nasal consonants are usually nasalized. If the nasal consonant is lost but the vowel retains its nasalized pronunciation, nasalization becomes phonemic, that is, distinctive, for example: French “-in” words used to be pronounced [in], but are now pronounced [ɛ̃], and the [n] is no longer pronounced, except in cases of liaison.

5. Phonetic processes in Old English. The System of the Consonants.

There are examples of specific historical sound changes: Umlaut Grimm’s Law, Grassmann’s law, Verner’s Law, Great Vowel Shift (English), High German consonant shift, Anglo-Frisian nasal spirant Law, Kluge’s Law, Dahl’s Law.

A **phnoneme** of a language or dialect is an abstraction of a speech sound or of a group of different sounds which are all perceived to have the same function by speakers of that language or dialect. For example, the English word “through” consists of three phonemes: the initial “th” sound, the “r” sound, and an “oo” vowel sound.

Notice that the phonemes in this and many other English words do not always correspond directly to the letters used to spell them. English orthography is not as strongly phonemic as that of certain other languages.

The phonemes of English and their number vary from dialect to dialect, and also depend on the interpretation of the individual researcher.

The number of consonant phonemes is generally put at 24. The number of vowels is subject to greater variation; in the system presented on this page there are 20 vowel phonemes in Received Pronunciation, 14-16 in General American and 20-21 in Australian English.

The pronunciation keys used in dictionaries generally contain a slightly greater number of symbols than this, to take account of certain sounds used in foreign words and certain noticeable distinctions that may not be strictly speaking phonemic.

Consonants. The following table shows the 24 consonant phonemes found in most dialects of English. When consonants appear in pairs, fortis consonants (aspirated or voiceless) appear on the left and lenis consonants (lightly voiced or voiced) appear on the right:

Consonant phonemes of English

	Bila-bial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Post-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasal	**M**			**n**			**ŋ**	
Stop	**p b**			**t d**			**k g**	
Affricate					**tʃ dʒ**			
Fricative		**f v**	**θ ð**	**s z**	**ʃ ʒ**		**(x)**[2]	**h**
Appro-ximant				**r**[1, 5]	**j**	**w**[3]		
Lateral				**l**[1]				

1. Most varieties of English have syllabic consonants, for example at the end of “bottle” and “button”. In such cases, no vowel is pronounced between the last two consonants. It is common for syllabic consonants to be transcribed with a subscript mark, so that phonetic transcription of “bottle” would be [ˈbɒt̩] and for “button” [ˈbʌt̩n]. In theory, such consonants could be analyzed as individual phonemes. However, this would add several extra consonant phonemes to the inventory for English, and phonologists prefer to identify syllabic nasals and liquids phonemically as [ə]. Thus “button” is phonemically [ˈbʌtən] and “bottle” is phonemically [ˈbɒtəl].

2. The voiceless velar fricative [x] is mainly restricted to Scottish English; words with [x] in Scottish accents tend to be pronounced with [k] in other dialects. The velar fricative may appear in recently borrowed words such as “chutzpah”. Hiberno-English usually maintains [x], also.

3. The sound at the beginning of words spelt “wh”, for example: “which”, “why” is in some accents, as much of the American South, Scotland, and Ireland, a voiceless “w” sound, which is a voiceless labiovelar

fricative or voiceless labiovelar approximant, whereas other accents have the voiced approximant [w].

The phonemic status of the voiceless sound, for which the phonetic symbol is [w], is difficult to define. It would be possible to consider this sound to be a separate phoneme, but phonologists prefer to treat it as a combination of [h] and [w]". Thus, "which", as pronounced by speakers who have the "voiceless w", is transcribed phonemically as [hwɪtʃ]. This should not, however, be interpreted to mean that such speakers actually pronounce [h] followed by [w]: the phonemic transcription [hw] is simply a convenient way of representing a single sound [w] without analyzing such dialects as having an extra phoneme.

4. A similar case to the above is that of the sound at the beginning of "huge"; in accents in which the initial consonant is voiceless, a voiceless palatal fricative [ç] occurs, but the usual phonemic analysis is to treat this as [h] plus [j] so that "huge" is transcribed [hjuːdʒ]. This transcription often gives rise to the incorrect belief that speakers pronounce [h] followed by [j] in such contexts, but the symbols in fact represent a single sound [ç]. The yod-dropping found in Norfolk dialect means that the traditional Norfolk pronunciation of "huge" is [hʊudʒ] and not [çuːdʒ].

5. The phonotactic constraints regarding the phoneme [r] differ among accents. In non-rhotic accents, such as Received Pronunciation and Australian English, [r] only appears before a vowel, whereas in rhotic accents [r] occurs in all positions.

The following table shows typical examples of the occurrence of the above consonant phonemes in words.

/p/	**pit**	**/b/**	**Bit**
/t/	**tin**	**/d/**	**Din**

/k/	cut	/g/	Gut
/tʃ/	cheap	/dʒ/	Jeep
/f/	fat	/v/	Vat
/θ/	thin	/ð/	Then
/s/	sap	/z/	Zap
/ʃ/	she	/ʒ/	measure
/x/	loch	-	-
/w/	we	/m/	Map
/l/	left	/n/	Nap
/r/	run	/j/	Yes
/h/	ham	/ŋ/	Bang

The distinctions between the nasals are neutralized in some environments. For example, before a final [p], [t] or [k] there is only one nasal sound that can appear in each case: [m], [n] or [ŋ] respectively (as in the words "limp, lint, link" – note that the [n] of "link" is pronounced [ŋ] this effect can even occur across syllable or word boundaries, particularly in stressed syllables: "synchrony" is pronounced as [ˈsɪŋkrəni] whereas "synchronic" may be pronounced either as [sɪŋˈkrɒnɪk] or as [sɪnˈkrɒnɪk].

Allophones of consonants. An allophone is one of a set of multiple possible spoken sounds (or phones) used to pronounce a single phoneme. For example, the

phoneme [t] is pronounced differently in "**t**onsils" than in "bu**tt**on", and still differently in "ca**t**". All of these "t" sounds are allophones of the same phoneme, since no two words can be distinguished from each other solely on the basis of which of these pronunciations is used.

Although regional variation is very great across English dialects, certain instances of allophony can be observed in all or at least the vast majority of English accents.

Many dialects have two allophones of [l] – the "clear" L and the "dark" or velarized L. The clear variant is used before vowels, or sometimes only before stressed vowels, the dark variant in other positions. In some dialects, [l] may be always clear, for instance: Wales, Ireland, and the Caribbean or always dark, for example: Scotland, most of North America, Australia, and New Zealand.

Depending on dialect, [r] has at least the following allophones in varieties of English around the world: alveolar approximant [ɹ]; postalveolar or retroflex approximant [ɻ]; labiodental approximant [ʋ]; alveolar tap [ɾ]; post-alveolar flap [ɽ]; alveolar trill [r].

In the traditional Tyneside accent in the North of England, [r] was pronounced as a voiced uvular fricative [ʁ], but this is probably now extinct.

In some rhotic accents, such as General American, [r] when not followed by a vowel is realized as an r-coloring of the preceding vowel or its coda.

For many speakers, [r] is somewhat labialized, as in "reed" [rʷiːd] and "tree" [tʰrʷiː]. In the latter case, the [t] may be slightly labialized as well.

Postalveolar consonants are also usually labialized, for example: [ʃ] is pronounced [ʃʷ] and [ʒ] is pronounced [ʒʷ].

The voiceless stops [p], [t] and [k] are aspirated as [pʰ], [tʰ], [kʰ] at the beginnings of words, for example: "**t**omato" and at the beginnings of word-internal

stressed syllables, as in: “po**t**ato”. They are unaspirated [p], [t], [k] after [s] in “s**t**an, s**p**an, s**c**an” and at the ends of syllables.

In American English, both [t] and [d] can be pronounced as a voiced flap [ɾ] in certain positions: when they come between a preceding stressed vowel, possibly with intervening [r] and precede an unstressed vowel or syllabic L. Examples include “wa**t**er, bo**tt**le, pe**t**al, pe**dd**le”, the last two words sound alike.

The flap may even appear at word boundaries, as in “pu**t** it on”. When the combination [nt] appears in such positions, some American speakers pronounce it as a nasalized flap that may become indistinguishable from [n], so “winter” may be pronounced as similar or identical to “winner”.

In many accents of English, voiceless stops as [p], [t], [k] are glottalized. This may be heard either as a glottal stop preceding the oral closure “pre-glottalization” or “glottal reinforcement” or as a substitution of the glottal stop [ʔ] for the oral stop (glottal replacement).

Pre-glottalization normally occurs in British and American English when the voiceless consonant phoneme is followed by another consonant or when the consonant is in final position.

Thus, “football” and “catching” are often pronounced [ˈfʊʔtbɔːl] and [ˈkæʔtʃɪŋ], respectively. Glottal replacement often happens in cases such as those just given, so that “football” is frequently pronounced [ˈfʊʔbɔːl].

In addition, however, glottal replacement is increasingly common in British English when [t] occurs between vowels if the preceding vowel is stressed; thus “getting better” is often pronounced by younger speakers as [ˈgeʔɪŋ ˌbeʔə].

Final [t] as in “cat” is not usually audibly released. However, in speech with careful enunciation, in all situations [t] may be pronounced as [t] or [tʰ].

The foregoing features mean that English voiceless plosive consonants have a wide range of different allophones.

Treatment of fricatives. Hardening. Rhotacism. Voicing and Devoicing.

After the changes under Grimm's Law and Verner's Law had PG had the following two sets of fricative consonants: voiceless [f, Θ, x, s] and voiced [v, ð, γ, z].

In WG and in Early OE the difference between two groups was supported by new features. PG voiced fricatives tended to be hardened to corresponding plosives while voiceless fricatives, being contrasted to them primarily as fricatives to plosives, developed new voiced allophones. The PG voiced [ð], due to Verner's Law, was always hardened to [d] in OE and other WG languages, like: "Icel, gōðr" and OE "ʒōd".

The two other fricatives, [v] and [γ] were hardened to [b] and [g] initially and after nasals, otherwise they remained fricatives. PG [z] underwent a phonetic modification through the stage of [ʒ] into [r] and thus became a sonorant, which ultimately merged with the older IE [r]. This process is termed rhotacism. In the meantime or somewhat later the PG set of voiceless fricatives [f, Θ, x, s] and also those of the voiced fricaties which had not turned into plosives, that is, [v] and [γ], were subjected to a new process of voicing and devoicing.

In Early OE they became or remained voiced intervocally and between vowels, sonorants and voiced consonants; they remained or became voiceless in other environments, namely, initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants.

In all WG languages, at an early stage of their independent history, most consonants were lengthened after a short vowel before [l]. This process is known as "geminantion" or "doubling" of consonants, for example: [fuljan] > [fyllan] - NE "fill". The change did not affect the sonorant [r], like: OE [werian] - NE

“wear”; nor did it operate if the consonant was preceded by a long vowel, for instance: OE [dēman], [mētan] - NE “deem”, “meet”.

Velar consonants in Early Old English. Growth of New Phonemes.

The velar consonants [k, g, x, γ] were palatalized before a front vowel, and sometimes also after a front vowel, unless followed by a back vowel. Thus in OE [cild] - NE “child” the velar consonant [k] was softened to [k’] as it stood before the front vowel [i] – [kild] > [k’ild]; similarly [k] became [k’] in OE [spræc] - NE “speech” after a front vowel but not in OE [sprecan] - NE “speak”.

Loss of consonants in some positions.

Nasal sonorants were regularly lost before fricative consonants; in the process the preceding vowel was proably nasalized and lengthened, for example: OHG [fimf] – OE [fīf] - NE “five”.

It should be also mentioned the loss of consonants in unstressed final syllables. The consonant [j] was regularly dropped in suffixes after producing various changes in the root.

Spelling changes in ME and NE: rules of reading.

The most conspicuous feature of Late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms of the words in ME texts resemble their modern forms, though the pronunciation of the words was different.

In ME many new devices were introduced into the system of spelling; some of them reflected the sound changes which had been completed or were still in progress in ME; others were graphic replacements of OE letters by new letters and digraphs.In ME the runic letters passed out of use.

Thorn – [þ] – and the crossed [d – đ], [ð] – were replaced by the digraph “th”, which retained the same sound value: [Ɵ] and [ð]; the rune “wynn” was displaced by “double u” – w – ; the ligatures “æ” and “œ” fell into disuse.

After the period of Anglo-Norman dominance (XI-th –XIII-th centuries)

English regained its prestige as the language of writing. Though for a long time writing was in the hands of those who had a good knowledge of French. Therefore many innovations in ME spelling reveal an influence of the French scribal tradition.

The digraphs “ou”, “ie”, and “ch” which occurred in many French borrowings and were regularly used in Anglo-Norman texts were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:], and [tʃ].

Other alterations in spelling cannot be traced directly to French influence though they testify to a similar tendency: a wider use of digraphs.

In addition to “ch”, “ou”, “ie” and “th” Late ME notaries introduced “sh”, also “ssh” and “sch”, to indicate the new sibilant [ʃ], for instance: ME “ship” from OE “scip”, “dg” to indicate [dʒ] alongside “j” and “g”; the digraph “wh” replaced the OE sequence of letters “hw” as in OE “hwæt”, ME “what” [hwat].

Long sounds were shown by double letters, for example: ME “book” [bo:k], though long [e:] could be indicated by “ie” and “ee”, and also by “e”. Some replacements were probably made to avoid confusion of resembling letters.

Thus, “o” was employed not only for [o] but also to indicate short [u] alongside the letter “u”; it happened when “u” stood close to “n”, “m”, or “v”, for example: OE “lufu” became ME “love” [luvə].

The letter “y” came to be used as an equivalent of “i” and was evidently preferred when “i” could be confused with the surrounding letters “m”, “n” and others.

Sometimes, “y”, as well “w”, were put at the end of a word, so as to finish the word with a curve, for example: ME “very” [veri], “my” [mi:]; “w” was interchangeable with “u” in the digraphs “ou”, “au”, as ME “doun”, “down”

[du:n], and was often preferred finally, for instance: ME “how” [hu:], “now” [nu:]. For letters indicating two sounds the rules of reading are as follows.

“G” and “c” stand for [dʒ] and [s] before front vowels and for [g] and [k] before back vowels respectively. “Y” stands for [j] at the beginning of words, otherwise, it is an equivalent of the letter “i”, for example: ME “yet” [jet], “knyght” [knix’t].

The letters “th” and “s” indicate voiced sounds between vowels, and voiceless sounds – initially, finally and next to other voiceless consonants, for example: ME “worthy” [wurði].

To determine the sound value of o one can look up the origin of the sound in OE or the pronunciation of the word in NE: the sound [u] did not change in the transition from OE to ME (the OE for some was sum); in NE it changed to [Λ]. It follows that the letter o stood for [u] in those ME words which contain [Λ] today, otherwise it indicates [o].

Analyzing the linguistic features of Germanic languages, we must mention that **the consonants** in Germanic languages are characterized by a number of specific traits which constitute what is perhaps the most remarkable feature of the group.

At first sight it may appear that Germanic consonants are similar to those of other Indo-European languages. Yet, comparison of Germanic and non-Germanic words going back to the same Indo-European root shows that Germanic consonants do not correspond to the same consonants in other languages.

Thus, whenever we have the sound (p) in Latin or Russian, we find (f) in its place in parallel words from Germanic languages. On the other hand, wherever Germanic has (p), non-Germanic has (b), for example: “Sleep” and “слабеть”.

It appears that Germanic languages display regular correspondences of consonants with non-Germanic languages: voiceless consonants occur instead of voiced, for example: “p”, “b”, fricatives instead of plosives “f”, “p”.

These correspondences appeared as a result of specifically Germanic tendencies in the development of consonants. Sometimes the alterations were independent; at other times they were caused by phonetics conditions and took place only in certain positions. The most remarkable change, which affected the greatest number of consonants, refers to the Common Germanic period; its results are therefore to be found in all the languages of the group.

Questions:

Describe the phonological changes of Old English.

Characterize the spelling changes in Modern English and New English.

Tell the rules of reading of Old English.

What is Grimm’s Law?

How can laws of sound change be used to reconstruct lost languages?

Define the linguistic features of Germanic languages.

What do you know about the system of the Consonants of Old English?

Lecture 9. Modern English Phonetics.

1. Vowel Reduction, Shortening / Lengthening.

2. Development of Old English Monophthongs in Modern English.

3. Development of Old English Diphthongs in Modern English.

4. The Old English Vowel.

5. Major Vowel Changes in New English, the Great Vowel Shift.

6. Vocabulary.

7. New English Phonetics: Loss of Unstressed – [e], the Change of –[er] into [a] into [ae]. Rise of New Phonemes.

8. Historical Roots: Grimm's Law, Verner's Law, Breaking.

1. Vowel reduction, shortening / lengthening.

In the ME period a great change affected the entire system of vowel phonemes. OE had both short and long vowel phonemes, and each of these could occur in any phonetics environment, that is, they were absolutely independent phonemic units. But in the X-th-XII-th centuries, the ME vowel system was basically different.

Shortening - a long vowel occurring before two consonants, including doubled, i.e. long, consonants, is shortened. The vowels are shortened before two consonants, but remain long in other environments.

However, long vowels remain long before the "lengthening" consonant groups "ld, nd, mb", i.e. those consisting of two-voiced consonants articulated by

the same organ speech. Long consonants also remained long before such consonant clusters as belonged to the following syllable. This mainly affects the group "**-st"**.

Lengthening – short vowels were lengthened in open syllables. This was another item of the development which deprived quantity of its status as a phonetic feature. It affected the short vowels "a, e, o".

The narrow vowels "i" and "u" remained as a rule unaffected by this change, and thus the difference between short [ɪ] and long [ɪ] and also that between short [u] and long [u] retained its quality as a phonemically relevant feature.

The development of vowels in Early OE consisted of the modification of separate vowels, and also of the modification of entire sets of vowels. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous allophones: after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place.

It may result in the splitting of phonemes and their numerical growth, which fills in the "empty boxes" of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the merging of old phonemes, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together.

Monophthongization of OE Diphthongs – all OE diphthongs were monophthongized in ME. OE short ea became a passing through the stage of [ɶ], as in "eald" – "ald" "old", "healf" – "half".

The term "monophthong" is derived from Greek "monophthongos" from "mónos" - "single" and "phthóngos" - "sound". It is a pure vowel sound, one whose articulation at both beginning and end is relatively fixed, and which does not glide up or down towards a new position of articulation.

The monophthongs can be contrasted with diphthongs, where the vowel quality changes within the same syllable, and hiatus, where two vowels are next to each other in different syllables.

2. Development of Old English monophthongs in Modern English.

The PG short [a] and the long [a:], which had arisen in West and North Germanic, underwent similar alterations in Early OE: they were fronted, and in the process of fronting, they split into several sounds. The principal regular direction of the change – [a] > [æ] and [a:] > [æ:] – is often referred to as the fronting or palatalisation of [a, a:]. The other directions can be interpreted as positional deviations or restrictions to this trend: short [a] could change to [o] or [ā] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal; the preservation of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable.

The conversion of monophthongs to diphthongs (diphthongization) or of diphthongs to monophthongs (monophthongization) is a major element of language change and is likely the cause of further changes.

English. Some sounds that may be perceived by native speakers as monophthongs in English are, in fact, diphthongs; the vowel sound in "pay" - pronounced [ˈpeɪ] is an example of this. Some dialects of English make monophthongs out of former diphthongs.

For instance, Southern American English tends to alter the diphthong "aɪ" as in "eye" to an [aː] somewhere between [ɑ] and [æ]. On the other hand, former monophthongs have become diphthongs in American English, for example, the [ɪ] in words like "pin" changes to [ɪə] in some American dialects.

Sanskrit. Historically, some languages treat vowel sounds that were formerly diphthongs as monophthongs. Such is the case in Sanskrit, in whose grammar the sounds now realised as [e] and [o] are conceptually "ai" and "au", and are written that way in the Devanagari and related alphabets. The sounds [ai] and [au] exist in Sanskrit, but are written as if they were [āi] and [āu], with long initial vowels. Similar processes of the creation of new monophthongs from old diphthongs are

preserved in the traditional spellings of languages as diverse as French and Modern Greek.

Arabic. Classical Arabic has two diphthongs, [ai] and [au]. In the majority of modern Arabic dialects, these diphthongs are realised as the long vowels [e] and [o], respectively. One notable exception is the Lebanese dialect, which preserves the original pronunciations.

3. Development of Old English diphthongs in Modern English.

We had to analyse the phonological history of English diphthongs. The PG diphthongs: [ei, ai, iu, eu, au] underwent regular independent changes in Early OE; they took place in all phonetic conditions irrespective of environment. The diphthongs with the i-glide were monophthongised into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in [u] were reflected as long diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [ea:].

One of the most important sound changes of the Early ME period was the loss of OE diphthongs and the growth of new diphthongs, with new qualitative and quantitative distinctions. OE possessed a well developed system of diphthongs: falling diphthopgs with a closer nucleus and more open glide arranged in two symmetrical sets long and short: [ea:, eo:, ie:] and [ea, eo, ie]. Towards the end of the OE period some of the diphthongs merged with monophthongs: all diphthongs were monophthongised.

In Early ME the remaining diphthongs were also contracted to monophthongs: the long [ea:] coalesced with the reflex of OE [æ:] ME[ə]; the short [ea] ceased to be distinguished from OE [æ] and became [a] in ME; the diphthongs [eo:], [eo], as well as their dialectal variants [io:], [io], fell together with the monophthongs [e:], [e], [i:], [i].

Later they shared in the development of respective monophthongs. As a result of these changes e vowel system lost two sets of diphthongs, long and short. In the

meantime a new set of diphthongs developed from some sequences of vowels and consonants due to the vocalisation of OE [j] and [y], that is to their change into vowels.

In Early ME the sounds [j] and [y] between and after vowels changed into [i] and [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowels. These changes gave rise to two sets of diphthongs: with i-glides and u-glides. The formation of new diphthongs in ME was an important event in the history of the language.

Assimilative vowel changes are breaking and diphthongization. There was the tendency to assimilative vowel change, characteristic of later PG and of the OG languages, accounts for many modifications of vowels in Early Old English. Under the influence of succeeding and preceding consonants some Early OE monophthongs developed into diphthongs.

If a front vowel stood before a velar consonant there developed a short glide between them, as the organs of speech prepared themselves for the transition from one sound to the other. The glide, together with the original monophthong formed a diphthong.

Due to the reduction of final syllables the conditions which caused palatal mutation, that is [i] or [j], had disappeared in most words by the age of writing; these sounds were weakened to [e] or were altogether lost. The labialized front vowels [y] and [y:] arose through palatal mutation from [u] and [u:], respectively, and turned into new phonemes, when the conditions that caused them had disappeared (cf. mūs and mўs).

The diphthongs [ie, ie:] were largely due to palatal mutation and became phonemic in the same way, though soon they were confused with [y, y:]. Palatal mutation led to the growth of new vowel interchanges and to the increased variability of the root-morphemes: owing to palatal mutation many related words and grammatical forms acquired new root-vowel interchanges.

We find variants of morphemes with an interchange of root-vowels in the grammatical forms [mūs], [mў́s] - NE “mouse”, “mice”, [bōc], [bēc] - NE “book”, “books”, since the plural was originally built by adding “-iz”.

Traces of palatal mutation are preserved in many modern words and forms, for example: “mouse – mice, foot – feet, blood – bleed”; despite later phonetic changes, the original cause of the inner change is i-umlaut.

The vein-vain merger is the merger of the Middle English diphthongs [ei] and [ai] that occurs in all dialects of present English. The merger was complete by perhaps the XIV-th century. As a result of the merger, “vein” and “vain” are now homophones, but in early Middle English they were pronounced differently as [ˈvein] and [ˈvain]. Similarly “day” from Old English [dæġ]) and “way” from Old English [weġ] did not rhyme before the merger.

The merged vowel was a diphthong, often transcribed [ɛi]. It later merged (in most dialects) with the [e:] of words like “pane” in the “pane” – “pain” merger.

Diphthongs of Late Middle English.

The English of South-Eastern England in about 1400 had seven diphthongs:

With front endpoint:	**With back endpoint:**
[aɪ] as in “nail, day, eight, whey”	**[ɪu] as in “view, new, due, use, lute, suit, adieu”**
[ɔɪ] as in “joy, noise, royal, coy”	**[ɛʊ] as in “few, dew, ewe, shrewd, neuter, beauty”**
[ʊɪ] as in “boil, destroy, coin, join”	**[aʊ] as in “cause, caught, thought, law, salt, change, chamber, psalm, half, dance, aunt”**
	[ɔʊ] as in “low, soul”

Typical spellings are as in the examples above.

The spelling “Cew”, where “C” represents any consonant is ambiguous between [ɪu] and [ɛʊ] and the spellings [oi] and [oy] are ambiguous between [ɔɪ] and [ʊɪ]. The most common words with “cew” pronounced [ɛʊ] were “dew, few, hew, lewd, mew, newt, pewter, sew, shew, shrew, shrewd, strew”.

Words in which [ʊɪ] was commonly used included “boil, coin, destroy, join, moist, point, poison, soil, spoil, Troy, turmoil” and “voice”, although there was significant variation.

4. The Old English vowel.

It is necessary to mention that Germanic languages also have some peculiarities in the sphere of vowel sounds, which distinguish them from other Indo-European languages.

Their main characteristic feature in this sphere is the treatment of the Indo-European short vowels [o] and [a] and the long vowels [o] and [a]. Indo-European short [o] and [a] appear as short [a] languages, for example: [χιναμρεΓ] in IE Germanic; in Russian: “Яблоко”; in German: “Apfel”; in Latin: “Noctem”; in Gothic: “Nahts”; in Russian: “ночь”; in German: “Nacht”.

Indo-European long [o] and [a] appear as long o in Germanic languages: IE Germanic IE Germanic. For instance: in Latin: “Frater”; in Gothic: “Broθar”; in Latin: “Flos”, in OE: “bloma”; in Greek: “Phrator roδOE bro”.

Thus, as a result of these changes, there was neither a short [o] nor a long [a] in Germanic languages. Later on these sounds appeared from different sources.

Another phenomenon common for Germanic languages is gradation or ablaut-root vowel change in strong verbs, etc.

Another common phenomenon is Germanic Fracture that concerns two pairs of vowels: the pair [E] and [I] and the pair [U] and [O].

5. Major vowel changes in New English, the Great Vowel Shift.

Vowel Shift was a major change in the pronunciation of Germanic languages, generally accomplished in the XV-th century and early XVI-th century, both in Europe and England. It represented a change in the long vowels, i.e. a vowel shift.

In English, the shift began toward the end of the XV-th century and was mostly completed in the XVI-th century, although it continued for some time after that, spreading toward the non-metropolitan and non-port areas.

The values of the long vowels form the main difference between the pronunciation of Middle English and Modern English, and the Great Vowel Shift is one of the historical events marking the separation of Middle and Modern English.

Originally, these vowels had “continental” values much like those remaining in liturgical Latin. However, during the Great Vowel Shift, the two highest long vowels became diphthongs, and the other five underwent an increase in tongue height and one of them came to the front.

The principal changes are roughly the following: though exceptions occur, the transitions were not always complete, and there were sometimes accompanying changes in orthography: [a:] -> [e:] in “make”; [e:] -> [e:] or [i:] in “break, beak”; [e:] -> [i:] in “feet”; [i:] -> [ai] in “mice”; [o:] -> [o:] in “boat”; [o:] -> [u:] in “boot”; [u:] -> [au] in “mouse”.

This means that the vowel in the English word make was originally pronounced as in modern English father, but has now become a diphthong, as it is today in standard pronunciations of British English; the vowel in “feet” was originally pronounced as a long Latin-like [e] sound; the vowel in “mice” was originally what the vowel in “feet” is now; the vowel in “boot” was originally a

long Latin-like [o] sound; and the vowel in “mouse” was originally what the vowel in “moose” is now, but has now become [a] diphthong.

The Great Vowel Shift was first studied by the Danish linguist ***Otto Jespersen*** (1860 - 1943), who coined the term. The shift was remarkable for how widespread it was going through most of Europe and then Great Britain, as well as its rapidity. The effects of the shift were not entirely uniform, and differences in degree of vowel shifting can sometimes be detected in regional dialects, both in written and spoken English.

The surprising speed and the exact cause of the shift are continuing mysteries in linguistics and cultural history. Because English spelling was becoming standardized in the XV-th and XVI-th centuries, the Great Vowel Shift is responsible for many of the peculiarities of English spelling. Spellings that made sense according to Middle English pronunciation were retained in Modern English.

6. Vocabulary.

During the period of the Great Vowel Shift, the English language vocabulary was also changing dramatically, with words coming in from science, colonial exploration, and philosophy, and from all languages of the world. In this lecture, we’ll look at the raw increase in words in the English vocabulary, as well as how English came to be omnivorous in its verbiage.

In the middle of the XV-th century, we see what are known as “inkhorn terms” coming into the language. These are words coined from Latin or Greek for “educated” effect and sonic power. Such words were perceived to come right from the “inkhorn”, or “inkwell”, and thus were a mark of reading and writing rather than of speech. Although inkhorn terms also identified the user as educated, they were sometimes the object of derision by those who felt they had little rational basis in the history of the language. Some examples of inkhorn terms still in the

language include “allurement, anachronism, autograph, capsule, dexterous, disregard (first used by Milton), erupt, meditate”.

In poetry, the corresponding concept for inkhorn terms is “aureate diction,” a term that depicts new or unusual coinages as “glistening” or “golden” in their Latinity.

As we’ve seen thus far, Chaucer, Caxton, and other writers saw English as a mutable language; John of Trevisa went so far as to say that the English language had been “apeyred”, that is, watered down or corrupted.

Many early writers held the parallel view that Latin or the Romance languages were somehow immutable and, thus, of a higher level than English. For this reason, poets used an aureate diction that was highly polysyllabic and often relied on metaphors of beauty, visual splendor, sweetness, and purifi cation.

In the “Art of Rhetoric” (1553), ***Thomas Wilson*** uses terms from aureate and inkhorn diction to mock the affectation of writers of his day. His parody of a letter of application from a subordinate to a superior sounds like doubletalk.

Some inkhorn terms did not remain in the language, including “adepted (attained), adnichilate (reduced to nothing), obstupefact (to make unclear), temulent (drunk)”.

Words also entered the language from travel, commercial contact, and science. Commerce and contact with European countries brought new words into English. Examples include the following:

• France: “alloy, bigot, bombast, duel, entrance, equip, essay, explore, mustache, progress, talisman, tomato, volunteer”.

• Italy: “argosy” (itself an Italian coinage based on the Greek epic “The Odyssey”, “balcony, granite, stanza, violin, volcano”.

• Spain and Portugal: “anchovy, armada, banana, cannibal, cocoa, embargo, maize, mulatto, potato, tobacco, yam”.

• Dutch: “smuggler, cruise, jib, schooner, reef, walrus, blunderbuss, tattoo, knapsack”.

Notice how many of these words reflect colonial contact, especially in the Americas and Africa. These are not just words from different languages, but words that enter into the register of colonization and military engagement.

Words from non-European languages entered through travel, trade, and conquest. Examples include the following:

• Arabic: “sash, hashish, mohair, sherbet, sofa, henna”.

• Turkish: “dolman, coffee, caftan, kiosk”.

• Chinese: “ketchup”.

• African: “zebra”.

• North American languages: “raccoon, moose, skunk, hickory, totem, canoe”. Words also arrived from science and other intellectual pursuits, including:

• Natural sciences: “vertebra, torpor, specimen, spectrum, mica, lens”.

• Mathematics: “chord, cylinder, prism, calculus”.

• Philosophy: “dogma, critic, curriculum, crux, propaganda, alibi”.

The growth of the English vocabulary prompted several discussions about whether loan words or new coinages of these kinds were in keeping with what was called the “genius” of the English language.

In the XVI-th and XVIII-th centuries, many writers were concerned with the question of whether these new words were diluting the language. English was

known to be a Germanic language, and some scholars believed that the perceived encroachments from overly learned.

Latin or from the affected, even effeminate, French were changing the overarching structure of the language.

Such questions were also part of a larger turn in education toward an understanding of the "excellence" of English; in other words, the study of language became a way of reinforcing cultural politics by other means.

English schoolmasters of the XVI-th and XVII-th centuries frequently reflected on the nature of English. ***Alexander Gil*** (1564-1635), headmaster of St. Paul's School and Milton's teacher, was interested in pronunciation and developed a system of phonetic transcription with an eye toward spelling reform. He also advocated the exclusion of new words and inkhorn terms from the language.

In his "Logonomia Anglica (The English Language)" of 1619, ***Gil*** rails against ***Chaucer*** as a corrupter of language. According to Gil, "feral monsters of words" are being brought into English daily, so that the language is no longer a peaceable kingdom of Eden but a horrifi c zoo of the linguistic imagination.

Note the degree to which Gil's language seems Miltonic. Gil writes of "horrid, evil-sounding magpies," while Milton speaks of Satan's "horrid crew" and the "horrid silence of the fallen." For Gil, English now represents a bastard tongue, and in Book II of "Paradise Lost", Satan discovers his own bastard progeny, sin. The paradise that has been lost for Gil is a paradise of language, while Milton sees the loss of ethics and morality.

The changing vocabulary of English was affected not simply by this new world of words but also by a phenomenon known as "polysemy": As new words entered the language and as science and technology began to inform the discourses of poetry and prose, words began to change meaning and connotation.

During the XVI-th century, the rise in commercial vocabulary offered literary writers new possibilities for metaphorical relationships; in other words, social relationships and personal desire came to be expressed in commercial terms. We will see this later, especially in W.Shakespeare. As you may recall, the word “cheap” in the meaning “exchange” - a place of commerce, originated as a borrowing from Latin into the Germanic languages during the continental period.

But during the XV-th - XVII-th centuries, writers also discovered that the word could be used for punning or wordplay. The same is true of such words as “flagrant” or “ardent” originally meaning “on fire”, which gradually acquired emotional meanings associated with love.

Polysemy made possible greater ambiguities in vocabulary and a wider range of figurative or metaphorical diction in poetry and prose. We will see in the subsequent study of dictionaries how the problem of the literal versus the metaphorical use of a word comes to dominate the organization of word definitions, and how our dictionaries refl ect not so much a record of actual speech as a system of definitional organization worked out by XVII-th and XVIII-th century schoolmasters.

7. New English Phonetics: loss of unstressed – [e], the change of – [er] into [ar], [a] into [æ]. Rise of new phonemes.

At the outset of of the ME period the vowel [e] of unstressed endings was lost. This vowel was on the verge of loss in the XIV-th century already, in the XV-th century it disappeared.

The vowel [e] was lost when it was final and also when it was followed by a consonant, as in the plural forms of substantitives “tables, hats, books”, in the third person sing present indicative “likes, sits, begs”, and in the past tense second participle in “-ed” – “lived, filled”.

But the [e] was preserved and later changed in [yo, ə:, ɪ, eɪ] in some adjectives and adjectivized participle in "-ed" "learned, wicked, ragged". The letter [e] was also preserved in words with long root-vowel, in this way the so-called "mute" [e] arose, which denotes length of the preseding vowel "house, stone, wrote".

The change [-er] into [-ar] began in the XIV century and was completed in the XV-th century. Spelling in most cases reflected the change: "steorra – sterra – star, heorte – herte – heart". In some cases the spelling doesn't reflects the change "clerk, sergeant, Derby". The ME substantive person has yielded two variants in ME*:* "parson" and "person". In some words "-er" didn't developed in "-ar" – "certain, University". The change [a] into [ǽ] affected all words containing [a] except those where it was preceded by [w] "ƀǽt – that – that".

The rise of new phonemes [α:, o:, é:] took place in the XVI-th century:

1) [α: ǽ> ǽ: >α:] before fricatives and th 9[Ɵ]: "father, rather, aftermath"; [s]: "glass, gruss", but lass, mass [ǽ]; [st]: "last, cast", but "elastic, plastic" [ǽ]; [sk]: "ask, mask", but masculine[ǽ];

2) from [aʊ] + l + consonant: "calm, palm".

But in the XVI-th century [aʊ> o] but the spelling remained unchanged [au], [aw:] "cause, pdraw".

In the XVI-th century a new vowel appears [é:]. It rises in the following cases: "i + r" – "sir", "u + r" – "fur", "e + r" – "lern", "o + r" after "w" – "word, worse".

By the middle of the XVI-th century, the Great Vowel Shift had created two new diphthongs out of what were formerly close long vowels of Middle English. These were [əɪ] as in "tide", and [əʊ] as in "house".

At this period, the English of South-Eastern England could thus have had nine diphthongs.

Late XVI-th century. By the end of the XVI-th century, the inventory of diphthongs was reduced as a result of several developments, all of which took place in the mid-to-late XVI-th century:

The merger of [ɛu] with [iʊ], resulting in "dew" becoming homophonous with "due";

The pane-pain merger, by which [aɪ], having become raised to [ɛɪ], merged with [ɛː];

The monophthonging of [aʊ] to [ɒː];

The monophthonging of [ɔʊ] to [ɔː].This left [iu], [ɔɪ], [ʊi], [əɪ] and [əʊ] as the diphthongs of South-Eastern England.

Major vowel changes in NE.

Great Vowel Shift - the change that happened in the XIV-th - XVI-th century and affected all long monophthongs + diphthong [au]. As a result these vowels were: diphthongized; narrowed (became more closed); both diphthongized and narrowed.

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[i:] →	[ai]	time [‘ti:mə]	time [teim]
[e:] →	[i:]	kepen [‘ke:pən]	keep [ki:p]
[a:] →	[ei]	maken [‘ma:kən]	make [meik]
[o:] →	[ou]	stone [‘sto:nə]	stone [stoun]
→	[u:]	moon [mo:n]	moon [mu:n]
[u:] →	[au]	mous [mu:s]	mouse [maus]
[au] →	[o:]	cause [‘kauzə]	cause [ko:z]

This shift was not followed by spelling changes, i.e. it was not reflected in written form. Thus the Great Vowel Shift explains many modern rules of reading.

Short Vowels

ME Sounds	NE Sounds	ME	NE
[a] →	[æ]	that [θat] man [man]	that [ðæt] man [mæn]
→	[o] after [w]!!	was [was] water [‘watə]	was [woz] water [‘wotə]
[u] →	[Λ]	hut [hut] comen [cumen]	hut [hΛt] come [cΛm]

There were exceptions though, for example: “put, pull”, etc.

Vocalisation of [r] occurred in the XVI-th - XVII-th century. Sound [r] became vocalised (changed to [ə] (schwa)) when stood after vowels at the end of the word.

Consequences: new **diphthongs** appeared: [ɛə], [iə], [uə]; the vowels before [r] were lengthened, for example: “arm” [a:m], “for” [fo:], etc.; **triphthongs** appeared: [aiə], [auə], for instance: “shower” [‘ʃauə], “shire” [‘ʃaiə].

Late XVII-th century. By the end of the XVII-th century, the following further developments had taken place in the dialect of South-Eastern England:

The tow-toe merger, by which [ɔʊ], having already been monophthongized to [ɔ:] was raised to [o:];

The [iʊ] of “due/dew” changed from a falling to a rising diphthong, the result usually being written [ju:] and often analysed as a glide rather than a true diphthong;

The diphthongs [əɪ] and [əʊ] widen to [aɪ] and [aʊ] respectively;

The diphthong [ʊi] merges with [aɪ]. In literature from this period there frequently occur rhymes such as “Mind” / “join’d” (Congreve), “join” / “line” (Pope), “child” / “spoil’d” (Swift), “toils” / “smiles” (Dryden).

The present-day pronunciations with [ɔɪ] in these words result from regional variants which had always had [ɔɪ] rather than [ʊi], perhaps influenced by the spelling.

As a result of these changes, there remained only the three diphthongs [aɪ], [aʊ] and [ɔɪ].

Long mid mergers. The earliest stage of Early Modern English had a contrast between the long mid monophthongs [eː], [oː] (as in “pane” and “toe” respectively) and the diphthongs [ɛi], [ɔu] (as in “pain” and “tow” respectively).

In the vast majority of Modern English accents these have been merged, so that the pairs “pane” / “pain” and “toe” / “tow” are homophones. These mergers are grouped together by Wells as the long mid mergers.

The **pane-pain merger** is a merger of the long mid monophthong [eː] and the diphthong [ei] that occurs in most dialects of English. In the vast majority of Modern English accents the vowels have been merged; whether the outcome is monophthongal or diphthongal depends on the accent.

But in a few regional accents, including some in East Anglia, South Wales, even Newfoundland, the merger has not gone through, at least not completely, so that pairs like “pane” / “pain” are distinct.

A distinction, with the “pane” words pronounced with [eː] and the “pain” words pronounced with [æɪ], survived in Norfolk English into the XX-th century.

P.Trudgill (2017) describes the disappearance of this distinction in Norfolk, saying that “This disappearance was being effected by the gradual and variable transfer of lexical items from the set of [eː] to the set of [æɪ] as part of dedialectalisation process, the end-point of which will soon be (a few speakers even today maintain a vestigial and variable distinction) the complete merger of the two lexical sets under [æɪ] - the completion of a slow process of lexical diffusion”.

J.Walters (2001) reports the survival of the distinction in the Welsh English spoken in the Rhondda Valley, with [eː] in the "pane" words and [ɛi] in the "pain" words.

In accents that preserve the distinction, the phoneme [ei] is usually represented by the spellings [ai], [ay], [ei] and [ey] as in "day, play, rain, pain, maid, rein, they", etc. and the phoneme [eː] is usually represented by "aCe" as in "pane, plane, lane, late" etc. and sometimes by "ece" and "e" as in "re, cafe, Santa Fe", etc.

The "**toe-tow" merger** is a merger of the post-Early Modern English vowels [oː] (as in "toe") and [ou] (as in "tow") that occurs in most dialects of English. The vowels in Early Modern English itself were [ɔː] and [ɔu] respectively, but this changed with the Great Vowel Shift.

The merger occurs in the vast majority of Modern English accents; whether the outcome is monophthongal or diphthongal depends on the accent. The traditional phonetic transcription for General American and earlier Received Pronunciation in the XX-th century is [oʊ], a diphthong.

But in a few regional accents, including some in Northern England, East Anglia and South Wales, the merger has not gone through, at least not completely, so that pairs like "toe" and "tow","moan" and "mown", "groan" and "grown", "sole" and "soul", "throne" and "thrown" are distinct.

In XIX-th century England, the distinction was still very widespread; the main areas with the merger were in the northern Home Counties and parts of the Midlands. The distinction is most often preserved in East Anglian accents, especially in Norfolk.

Peter Trudgill discusses this distinction, and states that "...until very recently, all Norfolk English speakers consistently and automatically maintained the nose-knows distinction...

In the 1940-s and 1950-s, it was therefore a totally unremarkable feature of Norfolk English shared by all speakers, and therefore of no salience whatsoever".

In a recent investigation into the English of the Fens, young people in west Norfolk were found to be maintaining the distinction, with [ʊu] or [ɤʊ] in the "toe" set and a fronted [ʊ̟ʉ̟] in the "tow" set, with the latter but not the former showing the influence of Estuary English.

J.Walters (2001) reports the survival of the distinction in the Welsh English spoken in the Rhondda Valley, with [oː] in the "toe" words and [ou] in the "tow" words.

In accents that preserve the distinction, the phoneme descended from Early Modern English [ɔu] is usually represented by the spellings [ou], and [ow] as in "soul, dough, tow, know, though", etc. or through L-vocalization as in "bolt, cold, folk, roll", etc., while that descended from Early Modern English [ɔː] is usually represented by [oa], [oe] or [oce] as in "boat, road, toe, doe, home, hose, go, tone", etc.

The **cot-coat merger** is phenomenon occurring for some speakers of Zulu English where the phonemes [ɒ] and [oʊ] are not distinguished making "cot" and "coat" homophones. Zulu English also generally has a merger of [ɒ] and [ɔː], so that sets like "cot", "caught" and "coat" can be homophones.

Poet smoothing is a process occurring in many varieties of British English where bisyllabic [əʊ.ə] is pronounced as the diphthong [ɜɪ] in many words. In these varieties, "poet" is pronounced as monosyllabic [ˈpɜɪt] and "poem" is pronounced [ˈpɜɪm].

The **rod-ride merger** is a merger of [ɑ] and [aɪ] occurring for some speakers of African American Vernacular English (AAVE), in which "rod" and "ride" are merged as [rɑd]. Some other speakers of AAVE may keep the contrast, so that "rod" is [rɑd] and "ride" is [rad].

Scientific smoothing is a process that occurs in many varieties of British English where bisyllabic [aɪ.ə] becomes the triphthong [aɪə] in certain words with [aɪ.ə]. As a result, “scientific” is pronounced [saɪən.ˈtɪf.ɪk] with three syllables and “science” is pronounced [ˈsaɪəns] with one syllable.

The **pride-proud merger** is a merger of the diphthongs [aɪ] and [aʊ] before voiced consonants into monophthongal [ä] occurring for some speakers of African American Vernacular English making “pride” and “proud”, “dine” and “down”, “find” and “found”, etc. homophones.

Some speakers with this merger, may also have the **rod-ride merger** hence having a three-way merger of [ɑː], [aɪ] and [aʊ] before voiced consonants, making “pride”, “prod”, and “proud” and “find”, “found” and “fond” homophones.

The **line-loin merger** is a merger between the diphthongs [aɪ] and [ɔɪ] that occurs in some accents of Southern English, Hiberno-English, Newfoundland English, and Caribbean English. Pairs like “line” - “loin”, “bile” - “boil”, “imply” - “employ” are homophones in merging accents.

The **coil-curl merger** is a vowel merger, now moribund, which historically occurred in some dialects of English. It is particularly associated with the dialects of New York and New Orleans.

The merger caused the vowel classes associated with the General American phonemes [ɔɪ], as in “choice”, and [ɝ] as in “nurse”, to merge, making “coil” and “curl” homophones.

The merged vowel was typically a diphthong [ɜɪ], with a mid-central starting point, rather than the back rounded starting point of [ɔɪ] in most other accents of English. The merger happened only before a consonant; “stir” and “boy” never rhymed. The merger is responsible for the “Brooklynese” stereotypes of “bird” sounding like “boid” and “thirty-third” sounding like [toity-toid].

According to a survey, that was done by ***William Labov*** in New York in 1966, 100 per cent of the people over 60 used [ɜɪ] for "bird". With each younger age group, however, the percentage got progressively lower: 59 per cent of 50-59 year olds, 33 per cent of 40-49 year olds, 24 per cent of 20-39 year olds, and finally, only 4 per cent of people 8-19 years old used [ɜɪ].

Nearly all native New Yorkers born since 1950, even those whose speech is otherwise non-rhotic, now pronounce "bird" as [ˈbɜ˞d].

The **mare-mayor merger** is a process occurring in many varieties of British English, as well as the Philadelphia dialect and Baltimorese, where bisyllabic [eɪ.ə] is pronounced as the central diphthong [eə] in many words. In these varieties, "mayor" is pronounced [ˈmeə], homophonous with "mare".

In North American English accents with the merger, it also affects sequences without [r], where some words with the [eɪ.ə] sequence merge with [eə] associated with æ-tensing. Because this particular [eə] derived from [æ], such words are frequently hypercorrected with [æ]. The best known examples of this are "mayonnaise" [ˈmeəneɪz] ~ [ˈmæneɪz] and "graham" [ˈgreəm] ~ [ˈgræm], a homophone of "gram".

The **vowels** of English differ considerably between dialects. Because of this, corresponding vowels may be transcribed with various symbols depending on the dialect under consideration.

When considering English as a whole, lexical sets are often used, each named by a word containing the vowel or vowels in question. For example, the LOT set consists of words which, like "lot", have [ɒ] in Received Pronunciation and [ɑ] in Genaral American. The "LOT vowel" then refers to the vowel that appears in those words in whichever dialect is being considered, or (at a greater level of abstraction) to a diaphoneme which transcends all dialects.

A commonly used system of lexical sets is presented below; for each set, the corresponding phonemes are given for RP (first column) and General American (second column), using the notation that will be used on this page.

Trap	**æ**	**Kit**	**ɪ**	**Face**	**eɪ**	**Start**	**a:(r)/ar**	**Comma**	**ə**
Bath	**a:/æ**	**Fleece**	**i:/i**	**Price**	**aɪ**	**North**	**ɔ:(r)/ ɔr**	**Letter**	**ə/ər**
Palm	**a:/a**	**Dress**	**e/ɛ**	**Choice**	**ɔɪ**	**Force**	**ɔ:(r)/ɔr, oʊr**	**Happy**	**i:/ɪ/i**
Lot	**ɒ /a**	**Strut**	**ʌ**	**Goat**	**əʊ/oʊ**	**Near**	**ɪə(r)/ɪr**		
Cloth	**ɒ / ɔ**	**Foot**	**ʊ**	**Mouth**	**aʊ**	**Square**	**eə(r) /ɛr**		
Thought	**ɔ:/ ɔ**	**Goose**	**u:/u**	**Nurse**	**ɜ:(r)/ ɜr**	**Cure**	**ʊə(r)/ ʊr**		

The following tables show the vowel phonemes of three standard varieties of English.

The notation system used here for Received Pronunciation (RP) is fairly standard, the others less so. The feature descriptions given here (front, close, etc.) are abstracted somewhat; the actual pronunciations of these vowels are more accurately conveyed by the IPA symbols used.

Received Pronunciation

	Front		**Central**		**Back**	
	long	**short**	**long**	**short**	**long**	**short**
Close	**i**:	**ɪ**			**u**:	**ʊ**
Mid		**e**	**ɜ**:	**ə**	**ɔ**:	
Open		**æ**		**ʌ**	**ɑ**:	**ɒ**

General American

	Front		**Central**		**Back**	
	long	**short**	**long**	**short**	**long**	**short**
Close	**i**:	**ɪ**			**u**:	**ʊ**
Mid		**ɛ**	**(ɜ:)**	**ə**	**ɔ**:	
Open		**æ**		**(ʌ)**	**ɑ**:	

Diphthongs	**eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ əʊ** **ɪə eə ʊə**

Diphthongs	**eɪ aɪ ɔɪ aʊ oʊ** **(ɪə) (eə)**

The differences between these tables can be explained as follows:

In North American English accents with the merger, it also affects sequences without [r], where some words with the [eɪ.ə] sequence merge with [eə] associated with æ-tensing. Because this particular [eə] derived from [æ], such words are frequently hypercorrected with [æ]. The best known examples of this are "mayonnaise" [ˈmeəneɪz] ~ [ˈmæneɪz] and "graham" [ˈgreəm] ~ [ˈgræm], a homophone of "gram".

1. The absence of length marks in the General American table is largely a matter of notational convention.

2. In General American, the vowels [ə], [ʌ] and [ɜ] may be considered a single phoneme.

3. General American lacks a phoneme corresponding to RP [ɒ] in "lot", "cloth", instead using [ɑ] or [ɔ] in such words.

4. General American does not have the centering diphthong phonemes [ɪə], [ɛə], and [ʊə]; in "near", "square", and "cure" it has the combinations [ɪr], [ɛr], [ʊr]. However in some descriptions these words are analyzed as diphthongs even in rhotic dialects.

5. In certain General American dialects, the diphthongs [ɪə] and [eə] can be found in words such as "ideas" and "rail" respectively.

6. The different notations used for the vowel of "goat" in RP and General American [əʊ] and [oʊ] reflect a difference in the most common phonetic realizations of that vowel.

7. The different notations used here for some of the Australian vowels reflect the phonetic realization of those vowels in Australian: a central [ʉː] rather than [uː]

in “goose, a more closed [e] rather than [ɛ] in “dress”, an open-mid [ɔ] rather than RP’s [ɒ] in “lot” and “cloth”, a more close [oː] rather than [ɔː] in “thought”, “north” and “force”, a fronted [a] rather than [ʌ] in “strut”, a fronted [aː] rather than [ɑː] in “calm” and “start”, and somewhat different pronunciations of most of the diphthongs.

8. The Australian monophthong [eː] corresponds to the RP diphthong [ɛə] - “square”.

9. Australian has the bad-lad split, with distinctive short and long variants of [æ] in various words of the “trap” set.

10. The vowel [ʊə] is often omitted from descriptions of Australian, as for most speakers it has split into the long monophthong [oː] – “poor”, “sure” or the sequence [ʉː.ə] – “cure”, “lure”.

Other points to be noted are these:

Although the notation [ʌ] is used for the vowel of “strut” in RP, the actual pronunciation is closer to a near-open vowel [a]. The symbol [ʌ] continues to be used for reasons of tradition, it was historically a back vowel, and because it is still back in other varieties.

A significant number of words (the “bath” group) have [æ] in General American, but [ɑː] in RP and mostly [aː] in Australian.

Many American speakers do not distinguish [ɑ] from [ɔ].

In General American, which is a rhotic accent – [r] can occur in positions where it does not precede a vowel, many of the vowels can be r-colored by way of realization of a following [r]. This is often transcribed phonetically using a vowel symbol with an added retroflexion diacritic [˞]; thus the symbol [ɚ] has been created for an r-colored schwa (sometimes called “schwar”) as in “letter”, and the

vowel of "start" can be modified to make [ɑˑ] so that the word "start" may be transcribed [stɑˑt].

Alternatively, the "start" vowel might be written [stɑəˑt] to indicate an r-colored off glide. The vowel [ɜ] (as in "nurse") is generally always r-colored, and this can be written [ɜˑ] or as a syllabic [r].

In RP and other dialects, many words from the "cure" group are coming to be pronounced by an increasing number of speakers with the "North" vowel, so "sure" is often pronounced like "shore". Also the RP vowels [ɛə] and [ʊə] may be monophthongized to [ɛː] and [oː] respectively.

Long vowels are often not pronounced as pure monophthongs. In particular, the vowels of "fleece" and "goose" are usually pronounced as narrow diphthongs: [ɪi], [ʊu].

Allophones of vowels. Listed here are some of the significant cases of **allophony** of vowels found within Standard English dialects.

There is a tendency for many vowels to be pronounced with greater length in open syllables than closed syllables, and with greater length in syllables ending with a voiced consonant than with a voiceless one. For example, the [aɪ] in "advise" is longer than that in "advice".

In many accents of English, tense vowels undergo breaking before [l], resulting in pronunciations like [piəɫ] for "peel", [puəɫ] for "pool", [peəɫ] for "pail" and [poəɫ] for "pole".

In RP, the vowel [əʊ] may be pronounced more back, as [oʊ], before [l], as in "goal". In Australian English the vowel [əʉ/] is similarly backed to [oʊ] before [l].

The vowel [aɪ] may be pronounced less open before a voiceless consonant. Thus, “writer” may be distinguished from “rider” even when flapping causes the [t] and [d] to be pronounced identically.

The vowel [ə] is often pronounced [a] in open syllables.

Unstressed syllables in English may contain almost any vowel, but there are certain sounds – characterized by central position and weakness – that are particularly often found as the nuclei of syllables of this type. These include:

a) Schwa, [ə], as in “comma” and (in non-rhotic dialects) “lett**er**”; also in many other positions such as “**a**bout, phot**o**graph, padd**o**ck”, etc. This sound is essentially restricted to unstressed syllables exclusively. In the approach presented here it is identified with the phoneme [ə], although other analyses do not have a separate phoneme for schwa and regard it as a reduction or neutralization of other vowels in syllables with the lowest degree of stress.

b) R-colored schwa, [ɚ], as in “lett**er**” in General American and some other rhotic dialects, which can be identified with the underlying sequence [ər].

c) Syllabic consonants: [l̩] as in “bott**le”**, [n̩] as in “butt**on”**, [m̩] as in “rhyth**m”**. These may be phonemized either as a plain consonant or as a schwa followed by a consonant; for example “button” may be represented as [ˈbʌtn] or [ˈbʌtən].

d) [ɪ], as in “ros**e**s, mak**i**ng, **e**xpect”. This can be identified with the phoneme [ɪ], although in unstressed syllables it may be pronounced more centrally, in American tradition the barred [i] symbol [ɨ] is used here, and for some speakers, particularly in Australian and New Zealand and some American English, it is merged with [ə] in these syllables. Among speakers who retain the distinction there are many cases where free variation between [ɪ] and [ə] is found, as in the second syllable of “typ**i**cal”. The OED has recently adopted the symbol [ɨ] to indicate such cases.

e) [ʊ], as in "arg**u**ment, t**o**day", for which similar considerations apply as in the case of [ɪ]. The symbol [ʊ̈] is sometimes used in these cases, similarly to [ɨ]. Some speakers may also have a rounded schwa, [ɵ], used in words like "omission" [ɵˈmɪʃən].

f) [i], as in "happ**y**, coff**ee"**, in many dialects, others have [ɪ] in this position. The phonemic status of this [i] is not easy to establish. Contemporary accounts regard it as a symbol representing a close front vowel that is neither the vowel of "kit" nor that of "fleece"; it occurs in contexts where the contrast between these vowels is neutralized. Strictly speaking, therefore, [i] is not a phoneme but an archiphoneme.

g) [u], as in "infl**u**ence, t**o** each". This is the back rounded counterpart to [i] described above; its phonemic status is treated in the same works as cited there.

Vowel reduction in unstressed syllables is a significant feature of English. Syllables of the types listed above often correspond to a syllable containing a different vowel ("full vowel") used in other forms of the same morpheme where that syllable is stressed.

For example, the first "o" in "photograph", being stressed, is pronounced with the "goat" vowel, but in "photography", where it is unstressed, it is reduced to schwa.

Also, certain common words "a, an, of, for" are pronounced with a schwa when they are unstressed, although they have different vowels when they are in a stressed position.

Some unstressed syllables, however, retain full (unreduced) vowels, i.e. vowels other than those listed above. Examples are the [æ] in "**a**mbition" and the [aɪ] in "fin**i**te". Some phonologists regard such syllables as not being fully

unstressed, they may describe them as having “tertiary stress”; some dictionaries have marked such syllables as having secondary stress.

However linguists such as ***P.Ladefoged*** and ***D.Bolinger*** regard this as a difference purely of vowel quality and not of stress, and thus argue that vowel reduction itself is phonemic in English.

Examples of words where vowel reduction seems to be distinctive for some speakers include “chickar**ee”** vs. “chicor**y”** (the latter has the reduced vowel of “happy”, whereas the former has the “fleece” vowel without reduction), and “Phar**aoh”** vs. “farr**ow”,** both have the “goat” vowel, but in the latter word it may reduce to [ɵ].

Transcription variants. The choice of which symbols to use for phonemic transcriptions may reveal theoretical assumptions or claims on the part of the transcriber. English “lax” and “tense” vowels are distinguished by a synergy of features, such as “height, length, contour” (monophthong vs. diphthong); different traditions in the linguistic literature emphasize different features.

For example, if the primary feature is thought to be vowel height, then the non-reduced vowels of General American English may be represented according to the table to the left and below.

If, on the other hand, vowel length is considered to be the deciding factor, the symbols in the table to the below and center may be chosen. This convention has sometimes been used because the publisher did not have IPA fonts available, though that is seldom an issue any longer. The rightmost table lists the corresponding lexical sets.

General American full vowels, vowel height distinctive		
I		**u**
ɪ		**ʊ**
E	**ɚ**	**o**
ɛ	**ʌ**	**ɔ**
Æ		**ɑ**

General American full vowels, vowel length distinctive		
iː		**u**ː
i		**u**
eː	**r**ː	**o**ː
e	**ʌ**	**o**
a		**a**ː

Lexical sets representing General American full vowels		
FLEECE		**GOOSE**
KIT		**FOOT**
FACE	**NURSE**	**GOAT**
DRESS	**STRUT**	**THOUGHT**
TRAP		**PALM**

If vowel transition is taken to be paramount, then the chart may look like one of these:

General American full vowels, vowel contour distinctive		
Ij		**uw**
I		**u**
Ej	**ər**	**ow**
E	**ə**	**o**
Æ		**ɑ**

or

General American full vowels, vowel contour distinctive			
ɪi̯		**ʊu̯**	
ɪ		**ʊ**	
ɛɪ	**ɝr**	**ɔʊ̯**	
ɛ	**ʌ**	**ɔ**	
æ		**ɑ**	

The transcriber at left assumes that there is no phonemic distinction between semivowels and approximants, so that [ej] is equivalent to [eɪ]. Many linguists combine more than one of these features in their transcriptions, suggesting they consider the phonemic differences to be more complex than a single feature.

General American full vowels, height & length distinctive		
iː		**uː**
ɪ		**ʊ**
eː	**ɜː**	**oː**
ɛ	**ʌ**	**ɔ**
Æ		**ɑː**

or

General American full vowels, height & contour distinctive		
ij		**uw**
ɪ		**ʊ**
ej	**ɜr**	**ow**
ɛ	**ʌ**	**ɔ**
æ		**ɑ**

Lexical stress is phonemic in English. For example, the noun "**in**crease" and the verb "in**crease"** are distinguished by the positioning of the stress on the first syllable in the former, and on the second syllable in the latter. Stressed syllables in English are louder than non-stressed syllables, as well as being longer and having a higher pitch.

In traditional approaches, in any English word consisting of more than one syllable, each syllable is ascribed one of three degrees of stress: **primary, secondary or unstressed.**

Ordinarily, in each such word there will be exactly one syllable with primary stress, possibly one syllable having secondary stress, and the remainder unstressed. For example, the word "am**az**ing" has primary stress on the second syllable, while

the first and third syllables are unstressed, whereas the word "**or**ganiz**a**tion" has primary stress on the fourth syllable, secondary stress on the first, and the second, third and fifth unstressed.

This is often shown in pronunciation keys using the IPA symbols for primary and secondary stress (which are ˈ and ˌ respectively), placed before the syllables to which they apply. The two words just given may therefore be represented (in RP) as [əˈmeɪzɪŋ] and [ˌɔːgənaɪˈzeɪʃən].

Some analysts identify an additional level of stress - tertiary stress. This is generally ascribed to syllables that are pronounced with less force than those with secondary stress, but nonetheless contain a "full" or "unreduced" vowel.

Hence the third syllable of "organization", if pronounced with [aɪ] as shown above, rather than being reduced to [ɪ] or [ə] might be said to have tertiary stress. The precise identification of secondary and tertiary stress differs between analyses; dictionaries do not generally show tertiary stress, although some have taken the approach of marking all syllables with unreduced vowels as having at least secondary stress.

In some analyses, then, the concept of lexical stress may become conflated with that of vowel reduction. An approach which attempts to separate these two is provided by ***Peter Ladefoged***, who states that it is possible to describe English with only one degree of stress, as long as unstressed syllables are phonemically distinguished for vowel reduction.

In this approach, the distinction between primary and secondary stress is regarded as a phonetic or prosodic detail rather than a phonemic feature – primary stress is seen as an example of the predictable "tonic" stress that falls on the final stressed syllable of a prosodic unit.

Phonotactics is the study of the sequences of phonemes that occur in languages and the sound structures that they form. In this study it is usual to

represent consonants in general with the letter C and vowels with the letter V, so that a syllable such as “be” is described as having CV structure.

The IPA symbol used to show a division between syllables is the dot [.]. Syllabification is the process of dividing continuous speech into discrete syllables, a process in which the position of a syllable division is not always easy to decide upon.

Most languages of the world syllabify CVCV and CVCCV sequences as /CV.CV/ and /CVC.CV/ or /CV.CCV/, with consonants preferentially acting as the onset of a syllable containing the following vowel.

According to one view, English is unusual in this regard, in that stressed syllables attract following consonants, so that ˈCVCV and ˈCVCCV syllabify as /ˈCVC.V/ and /ˈCVCC.V/, as long as the consonant cluster CC is a possible syllable coda; in addition, [r] preferentially syllabifies with the preceding vowel even when both syllables are unstressed, so that CVrV occurs as CVr.V. This is the analysis used in the Longman Pronunciation Dictionary.

The **syllable structure** in English is $(C)^{3}V(C)^{5}$, with a near maximal example being “strengths” - [strɛŋkθs], although it can be pronounced [strɛŋθs].

From the phonetic point of view, the analysis of syllable structures is a complex task: because of widespread occurrences of articulatory overlap, English speakers rarely produce an audible release of individual consonants in consonant clusters.

This coarticulation can lead to articulatory gestures that seem very much like deletions or complete assimilations. For example, “hundred pounds” may sound like [ˈhʌndɹɪb pʰaʊndz] and “jumped back” in slow speech, [ˈdʒʌmptbæk], may sound like [ˈdʒʌmpbæk], but X-ray and electropalatographic studies demonstrate that inaudible and possibly weakened contacts or lingual gestures may still be made.

Thus, the second [d] in “hundred pounds” does not entirely assimilate to a labial place of articulation, rather the labial gesture co-occurs with the alveolar one; the “missing” [t] in “jumped back” may still be articulated, though not heard.

Division into syllables is a difficult area, and different theories have been proposed. A widely accepted approach is the maximal onsets principle: this states that, subject to certain constraints, any consonants in between vowels should be assigned to the following syllable.

So, the word “leaving” should be divided [ˈliː.vɪŋ] rather than [ˈliːv.ɪŋ], and “hasty” is [ˈheɪ.sti] rather than [ˈheɪs.ti] or [ˈheɪst.i]. However, when such a division results in an onset cluster which is not allowed in English, the division must respect this.

If the word “extra” were divided [ˈɛ.kstrə] the resulting onset of the second syllable would be [kstr], a cluster which does not occur in English. The division [ˈɛk.strə] is therefore preferred. If assigning a consonant or consonants to the following syllable would result in the preceding syllable ending in an unreduced short vowel, this is avoided.

Thus, the word “comma” should be divided [ˈkɒm.ə] and not [ˈkɒ.mə], even though the latter division gives the maximal onset to the following syllable, because English syllables do not end in [ɒ].

In some cases, no solution is completely satisfactory: for example, in British English (RP) the word “hurry” could be divided [ˈhʌ.ri] or [ˈhʌr.i], but the former would result in an analysis with a syllable-final [ʌ], which is held to be non-occurring, while the latter would result in a syllable final [r], which is said not to occur in this accent.

Some phonologists have suggested a compromise analysis where the consonant in the middle belongs to both syllables, resulting in an analysis of

“hurry” which comprises the syllables [hʌr] and [ri], and the medial [r] is described as ambisyllabic.

Where the division coincides with a word boundary, or the boundary between elements of a compound word, it is not usual to insist on the maximal onsets principle in a way that divides words in a counter-intuitive way. The word “hardware” would be divided [ˈhɑːˌdweə] by the M.O.P., but dictionaries prefer the division [ˈhɑːd.weə].

In the approach used by the Longman Pronunciation Dictionary, ***J.Wells*** claims that consonants syllabify with the preceding rather than following vowel when the preceding vowel is the nucleus of a more salient syllable, with stressed syllables being the most salient, reduced syllables the least, and full unstressed vowels (“secondary stress”) intermediate.

There are lexical differences as well, frequently but not exclusively with compound words. For example, in “dolphin” and “selfish”, ***J.Wells*** argues that the stressed syllable ends in [lf], but in “shellfish”, the [f] belongs with the following syllable: [ˈdɒlf.ɪn], [ˈsɛlf.ɪʃ] → [ˈdɒlfɨn], [ˈsɛlfɨʃ], but [ˈʃɛl.fɪʃ] → [ˈʃɛlˑfɪʃ], where the [l] is a little longer and the [ɪ] is not reduced.

Similarly, in “toe-strap” ***J.Wells*** argues that the second [t] is a full plosive, as usual in syllable onset, whereas in “toast-rack” the second [t] is in many dialects reduced to the unreleased allophone it takes in syllable codas, or even elided: [ˈtoʊ.stræp], [ˈtoʊst.ræk] → [ˈtʰoˑʊstɹæp], [ˈtoʊs(t̚)ɹʷæk]; likewise “nitrate” [ˈnaɪ.treɪt] → [ˈnʌɪtr̥ʷeɪt] with a voiceless [r] (and for some people an affricated “tr” as in “tree”), vs “night-rate” [ˈnaɪt.reɪt] → [ˈnʌɪt̚ɹʷeɪt] with a voiced [r].

Cues of syllable boundaries include aspiration of syllable onsets and (in the US) flapping of coda [t, d] “a tease” [əˈtiːz] → [əˈtʰiːz] vs. “at ease” [ætˈiːz] → [ærˈiːz], epenthetic stops like [t] in syllable codas “fence” [ˈfɛns] → [ˈfɛnts] but “inside” [ɪnˈsaɪd] → [ɪnˈsaɪd], and r-colored vowels when

the [r] is in the coda vs. labialization when it is in the onset "key-ring" [ˈkiː.rɪŋ]/ →[ˈkʰiːrʷɪŋ] but "fearing" [ˈfiːr.ɪŋ] → [ˈfɪərɪŋ].

We have to note that **Proto-Indo-European** probably had fifteen stop **consonants**. In the following grid these sounds are arranged according to the place in the mouth where the stoppage was made and the activity of the vocal cords during and immediately after the stoppage:

	labial	**dental**	**palatal**	**velar**	**labiovelar**
voiceless	**p**	**t**	**k**	**k**	**k^w**
voiced	**b**	**d**	**g**	**g**	**g^w**
voiced aspirated	**bh**	**dh**	**gh**	**gh**	**g^wh**

A labial sound is made with the lips, and a dental sound is made with the tip of the tongue against the back of the teeth. The palatal and velar sounds were probably made by contact between the back of the tongue and the soft palate, more toward the front of the mouth in the case of the palatals and more toward the back in the case of the velars; compare Arabic "kalb" – "dog" versus "qalb" – "heart". The labiovelar sounds were made by contact between the back of the tongue and the soft palate with concomitant rounding of the lips. Voiceless designates sounds made without vibration of the vocal cords; voiced sounds are pronounced with vibration of the vocal cords. The exact pronunciation of the voiced aspirates is somewhat uncertain; they were probably similar to the sounds transcribed [bh], [dh], and [gh] in Hindi.

Correspondences pointing to the voiced labial stop [b] are rare; leading some scholars to deny that [b] existed at all in the parent language. A minority view holds that the traditionally reconstructed voiced stops were actually glottalized sounds produced with accompanying closure of the vocal cords. The status of the velar stops [k], [g], and [gh] has likewise been questioned.

The earlier view that Proto-Indo-European had a series of voiceless aspirated stops [ph], [th], [ḱh], [kh], and [k^{w}h] has largely been abandoned. Aspirated consonants are sounds accompanied by a puff of breath. There was one sibilant consonant, [s], with a voiced alternant, [z] that occurred automatically next to voiced stops. The existence of a second apical spirant (that is, a spirant formed with the tip of the tongue), [þ] with a presumed pronunciation like that of [th] in English "thin", is extremely uncertain.

There is general agreement that Proto-Indo-European had one or more additional consonants, for which the label laryngeal is used. These consonants, however, have mostly disappeared or have become identical with other sounds in the recorded Indo-European languages, so that their former existence has had to be deduced mainly from their effects on neighbouring sounds.

Hence, the laryngeal sounds were not suspected until 1878, and even then they were rejected by most scholars until after 1927, when the Polish linguist ***Jerzy Kuryłowicz*** showed that Hittite often has [h̲], perhaps a velar spirant like the [ch] in German "ach" in places where a laryngeal had been posited on the evidence of the other Indo-European languages.

There is still considerable disagreement about how many laryngeals there were, what they sounded like, what traces they left, and how best to symbolize them. Most scholars now believe there were three, which can be written H_1, H_2, and H_3. Of these, H_1 may have been [h] or a glottal stop; H_2 was perhaps a pharyngeal spirant like Arabic [ḥ] in [ḥams] - "five"; H_3, whatever its other features, was probably voiced. The principal traces they left outside Anatolian are in the quality and length of neighbouring vowels, H_2 changing a neighbouring [e] to [a], and probably H_3 changing it to [o], while all laryngeals lengthened a preceding vowel in the same syllable. In Anatolian, H_2 and H_3 remained as [h̲], at least in some positions.

When laryngeals between consonants disappeared, a vowel sometimes remained, as in Greek “stásis”, Sanskrit “sthitis”, Old English “stede” – “a standing (place)” from Proto-Indo-European [stH_2tis]. Before the advent of the laryngeal theory, a separate Proto-Indo-European vowel [ə], called “schwa indogermanicum” was reconstructed to account for these correspondences.

Finally, there were the nasal sounds [n] and [m], the liquids [l] and [r], and the semivowels [y] and [w].When [y] and [w] occurred between consonants, they were replaced by the vowels [i] and [u]. The nasals and liquids functioning as nuclei of syllables in this position, like the final sounds of English “bottom, button, bottle, butter” are traditionally written [m̥, n̥, l̥, r̥].

Some scholars dispense with these diacritical marks and with the distinction between syllabic [i] and [u] and nonsyllabic [y] and [w], but this obscures certain distinctions, such as that between [-wn̥-] in [ḱwn̥su] – “among dogs”, Sanskrit [śvasu], and [-un-] in [tund-] –“shove”, Sanskrit “tundate”.

The vowel system of Proto-Indo-European consisted of the following sounds: [i, e, a, o, u].

In forming front vowels, the highest point of the tongue is in the front of the mouth; for back vowels that point is in the back. High vowels are those in which the tongue is highest closest to the roof of the mouth. Mid vowels are made with the tongue between the extremes of high and low.

The four mid vowels participated in a pattern of alternation called ablaut. In the course of inflection and word formation, roots and suffixes could appear in the “e-grade”, also called “normal grade”; compare Latin “ped-is” – “of a foot” - genitive singular, “o-grade”, for example: Greek “pód-es” – “feet”, “zero-grade” Avestan “fra-bd-a-” – “forefoot”, with “-bd-” from “-pd-”, “lengthened e-grade”, Latin [pēs] – “foot” - nominative singular from “pēd-s”, and “lengthened o-grade” like: English “foot”, Old English “fōt”.

The accent just before the breakup of the parent language was apparently mainly one of pitch rather than stress. Each full word had one accented syllable, presumably pronounced on a higher pitch than the others.

Onset. The following can occur as the onset:

All single consonant phonemes except [ŋ]	In the words
Stop plus approximant other than [j]: [pl], [bl], [kl], [gl], [pr], [br], [tr], [dr], [kr], [gr], [tw],[dw], [gw], [kw], [pw]	play, blood, clean, glove, prize, bring, tree, dream, crowd, green, twin, dwarf, language, quick, puissance
Voiceless fricative plus approximant other than [j]: [fl], [sl], [θl], [fr], [θr], [ʃr], [hw], [sw], [θw], [vw]	floor, sleep, thlipsis, friend, three, shrimp, what, swing, thwart, reservoir
Consonant plus [j] before [uː] or [ʊr]: [pj], [bj], [tj], [dj], [kj], [gj], [mj], [nj], [fj], [vj], [θj], [sj], [zj], [hj], [lj]	pure, beautiful, tube, during, cute, argue, music, new, few, view, thew, suit, Zeus, huge, lurid
[s] plus voiceless stop: [sp], [st], [sk]	speak, stop, skill
[s] plus nasal other than [ŋ]:[sm], [sn]	smile, snow
[s] plus voiceless fricative:[sf], [sθ]	sphere, sthenic
[s] plus voiceless stop plus approximant: [spl], [skl], [spr], [str], [skr], [skw], [smj], [spj], [stj], [skj]	split, sclera, spring, street, scream, square, smew, spew, student, skewer
[s] plus voiceless fricative plus approximant: [sfr]	sphragistics

For a number of speakers [tr] and [dr] tend to affricate, so that “tree” resembles “chree”, and “dream” resembles “jream”. This is sometimes transcribed as [tʃr] and [dʒr] respectively, but the pronunciation varies and may, for example, be closer to [tʂ] and [dʐ] or with a fricative release similar in quality to the rhotic, i.e. [trr], [drr], or [tʂr], [dʐr].

In some dialects, [wr], rather than [r] occurs in words beginning in “wr-” “write, wrong, wren”, etc.

Words beginning in unusual consonant clusters that originated in Latinized Greek loanwords tend to drop the first phoneme, as in [bd], [fθ], [gn], [hr], [kn], [ks], [kt], [kθ], [mn], [pn], [ps], [pt], [tm], and [θm], which have become [d] “bdellium”, [θ] “phthisis”, [n] “gnome”, [r] “rhythm”, [n] “cnidoblast”,

[z] “xylophone”, [t] “ctenophore”, [θ] “chthonic”, [m] “tmesis”, [m] “asthma”, [n] “mnemonic”, [n] “pneumonia”, [s] “psychology”, [t] “pterodactyl”. However, the onsets [sf], [sfr], [skl], [sθ], and [θl] have remained intact.

The onset [hw] is simplified to [w] in many dialects (wine-whine merger).

There is an on-going sound change (yod-dropping) by which [j] as the final consonant in a cluster is being lost. In RP, words with [sj] and [lj] can usually be pronounced with or without this sound, for instance: [suːt] or [sjuːt].

For some speakers of English, including some British speakers, the sound change is more advanced and so, for example, General American does not contain the onsets [tj], [dj], [nj], [θj], [sj], [stj], [zj], or [lj]. Words that would otherwise begin in these onsets drop the [j]: for example: “tube” [tuːb], “during” [ˈdʊrɪŋ], “new” [nuː], “Thule” [ˈθuːliː], “suit” [suːt], “student” [ˈstuːdənt], “Zeus” [zuːs], and “lurid” ˈlʊrɪd.

In some dialects, such Welsh English, [j] may occur in more combinations; for example: in [tʃj] “chew”, [dʒj] “Jew”, [ʃj] “sure”, and [slj] “slew”.

Many clusters beginning with [ʃ] and paralleling native clusters beginning with [s] are found initially in German and Yiddish loanwords, such as [ʃl], [ʃp], [ʃt], [ʃm], [ʃn], [ʃpr], [ʃtr] (in words such as “schlep, spiel, shtick, schmuck, schnapps, Shprintzen’s, strudel”.

[ʃw] is found initially in the Hebrew loanword “schwa”. Before [r] however, the native cluster is [ʃr]. The opposite cluster [sr] is found in loanwords such as “Sri Lanka”, but this can be nativized by changing it to [ʃr].

Other onsets. Certain English onsets appear only in contractions: for example: “zbl” ['sblood], and “zw” or “dzw” ['swounds] or ['dswounds]. Some, such as [pʃ] “pshaw”, [fw] “fwoosh”, or [vr] “vroom”, can occur in interjections. An archaic voiceless fricative plus nasal exists, [fn] “fnese”, as does an archaic [snj] “snew”.

A few other onsets occur in further (anglicized) loan words, including [bw] “bwana”, [mw] “moiré”, [nw] “noire”, [zw] “zwieback”, [kv] “kvetch”, [ʃv] “schvartze”, [tv] “Tver”, [vl] “Vladimir”, and [zl] “zloty”. Some clusters of this type can be converted to regular English phonotactics by simplifying the cluster, for example: [(d)z] “dziggetai”, [(h)r] “Hrolf”, [kr(w)] “croissan”, [(p)f] “pfennig”, [(f)θ] “phthalic”, and [(t)s] “tsunami”.

Others can be substituted by native clusters differing only in voice: [zb] ~ [sp] “sbirro”, and [zgr] ~ [skr] “sgraffito”.

Nucleus. The following can occur as the nucleus. All vowel sounds [m], [n] and [l] in certain situations; [r] in rhotic varieties of English (as General American) in certain situations.

Coda. Most in theory, all the following except those that end with [s], [z], [ʃ], [ʒ], [tʃ] or [dʒ] can be extended with [s] or [z] representing the morpheme – [s/z-]. Similarly, the following except those that end with [t] or [d] can be extended with [t] or [d] representing the morpheme [-t/d-].

J.Wells (1990) argues that a variety of syllable codas are possible in English, even [ntr, ndr] in words like “entry” [ˈɛntr.ɪ] and “sundry” [ˈsʌndr.ɪ], with “tr, dr” being treated as affricates along the lines of [tʃ], [dʒ]. He argues that the traditional assumption that pre-vocalic consonants form a syllable with the following vowel is due to the influence of languages like French and Latin, where syllable structure is CVC.

CVC regardless of stress placement. Disregarding such contentious cases, which do not occur at the ends of words, the following sequences can occur as the coda:

The single consonant phonemes except [h], [w], [j] and in non-rhotic [r]	In the words:
Lateral approximant plus stop or affricate: [lp], [lb], [lt], [ld], [ltʃ], [ldʒ], [lk]	help, bulb, belt, hold, belch, indulge, milk
In rhotic varieties, [r] plus stop or affricate: [rp], [rb], [rt, [rd], [rtʃ], [rdʒ], [rk], [rg]	harp, orb, fort, beard, arch, large, mark, morgue
Lateral approximant + fricative: [lf], [lv], [lθ], [ls], [lʃ]	golf, solve, wealth, else, Welsh
In rhotic varieties, [r] + fricative: [rf], [rv], [rθ], [rs], [rz], [rʃ]	dwarf, carve, north, force, Mars, marsh
Lateral approximant + nasal: [lm], [ln]	film, kiln
In rhotic varieties, [r] + nasal or lateral: [rm], [rn], [rl]	arm, born, snarl
Nasal + homorganic stop or affricate: [mp], [nt], [nd], [ntʃ], [ndʒ], [ŋk]	jump, tent, end, lunch, lounge, pink
Nasal + fricative: [mf], [mθ], [nθ], [ns], [nz], [ŋθ] in some varieties	triumph, gloomth, month, prince, bronze, length
Voiceless fricative plus voiceless stop: [ft], [sp], [st], [sk]	left, crisp, lost, ask
Two voiceless fricatives: [fθ]	fifth
Two voiceless stops: /pt/, /kt/	opt, act
Stop plus voiceless fricative: /pθ/, /ps/, /tθ/, /ts/, /dθ/, /ks/	depth, lapse, eighth, klutz, width, box
Lateral approximant + two consonants: /lpt/, /lfθ/, /lts/, /lst/, /lkt/, /lks/	sculpt, twelfth, waltz, whilst, mulct, calx
In rhotic varieties, /r/ + two consonants: /rmθ/, /rpt/, /rps/, /rts/, /rst/, /rkt/	warmth, excerpt, corpse, quartz, horst, infarct

Nasal + homorganic stop + stop or fricative: /mpt/, /mps/, /ndθ/, /ŋkt/, /ŋks/, /ŋkθ/ in some varieties	**prompt, glimpse, thousandth, distinct, jinx, length**
Three obstruents: /ksθ/, /kst/	**sixth, next**

For some speakers, a fricative before [θ] is elided so that these never appear phonetically: [ˈfɪfθ] becomes [ˈfɪθ], [ˈsiksθ] becomes [ˈsikθ], [ˈtwɛlfθ] becomes [ˈtwɛlθ].

Syllable-level rules:

a) Both the onset and the coda are optional;

b) [j] at the end of an onset cluster ([pj], [bj], [tj], [dj], [kj], [fj], [vj], [θj], [sj], [zj], [hj], [mj], [nj], [lj], [spj], [stj], [skj]) must be followed by /uː/ or /ʊə];

c) Long vowels and diphthongs are not found before [ŋ] except for the mimetic word “boing!”;

d) [ʊ] is rare in syllable-initial position (although, in the northern half of England, [ʊ] is used for [ʌ] and is common at the start of syllables);

e) Stop + [w] before [uː, ʊ, ʌ, aʊ], all presently or historically [u(ː)] are excluded;

f) Sequences of [s] + C_1 + $\breve{V}$ + C_1, where C_1 is a consonant other than [t] and $\breve{V}$ is a short vowel, are virtually nonexistent.

Word-level rules:

a) [ə] does not occur in stressed syllables;

b) [ʒ] does not occur in word-initial position in native English words although it can occur syllable-initial, for example: “luxurious” [lʌgˈʒʊəriəs];

c) [m], [n], [l] and, in rhotic varieties, [r] can be the syllable nucleus (i.e. a syllabic consonant) in an unstressed syllable following another consonant, especially [t], [d], [s] or [z];

d) Certain short vowel sounds, called checked vowels, cannot occur without a coda in a single-syllable word. In RP, the following short vowel sounds are checked: [ɪ], [ɛ], [æ], [ɒ], [ʌ], and [ʊ].

Prosody. The prosodic features of English "stress, rhythm, and intonation" can be described as follows. Prosodic stress is extra stress given to words or syllables when they appear in certain positions in an utterance, or when they receive special emphasis.

According to Ladefoged's analysis, English normally has prosodic stress on the final stressed syllable in an intonation unit. This is said to be the origin of the distinction traditionally made at the lexical level between primary and secondary stress: when a word like "admiration", traditionally transcribed as something like [ˌædmɨˈreɪʃən], is spoken in isolation, or at the end of a sentence, the syllable "ra" (the final stressed syllable) is pronounced with greater force than the syllable "ad", although when the word is not pronounced with this final intonation there may be no difference between the levels of stress of these two syllables.

Prosodic stress can shift for various pragmatic functions, such as focus or contrast. For instance, in the dialogue "Is it brunch tomorrow? No, it's **dinner** tomorrow", the extra stress shifts from the last stressed syllable of the sentence, "to**mor**row", to the last stressed syllable of the emphasized word, "**din**ner".

Grammatical function words are usually prosodically unstressed, although they can acquire stress when emphasized as in "Did you find the cat? Well, I found **a** cat". Many English function words have distinct strong and weak pronunciations; for example, the word "a" in the last example is pronounced [eɪ], while the more common unstressed "a" is pronounced [ə].

Rhythm. English is claimed to be a **stress-timed** language. That is, stressed syllables tend to appear with a more or less regular rhythm, while non-stressed syllables are shortened to accommodate this.

For example, in the sentence “One make of car is better than another”, the syllables “one”, “make”, “car”, “bett” and “noth” will be stressed and relatively long, while the other syllables will be considerably shorter.

The theory of stress-timing predicts that each of the three unstressed syllables in between “bett” and “noth” will be shorter than the syllable “of” between “make” and “car” because three syllables must fit into the same amount of time as that available for “of”. However, it should not be assumed that all varieties of English are stress-timed in this way.

The English spoken in the West Indies, in Africa and in India are probably better characterized as syllable-timed, though the lack of an agreed scientific test for categorizing an accent or language as stress-timed or syllable-timed may lead one to doubt the value of such a characterization.

Intonation. Phonological contrasts in intonation can be said to be found in three different and independent domains. In the work of ***Michael Alexander Kirkwood Halliday*** the following names are proposed:

a) Tonality for the distribution of continuous speech into tone groups.

b) Tonicity for the placing of the principal accent on a particular syllable of a word, making it the tonic syllable. This is the domain also referred to as prosodic stress or sentence stress.

c) Tone for the choice of pitch movement on the tonic syllable. The use of the term “tone” in this sense should not be confused with the tone of tone languages, such as Chinese.

These terms “the Three T’s” have been used in more recent work, though they have been criticized for being difficult to remember. American systems such as ToBI also identify contrasts involving boundaries between intonation phrases (Halliday’s “Tonicity”), placement of pitch accent (“Tonality”) and choice of tone or tones associated with the pitch accent (“Tone”).

Example of phonological contrast involving placement of intonation unit boundaries (boundary marked by |):

a) Those who ran quickly | escaped. (The only people who escaped were those who ran quickly)

b) Those who ran | quickly escaped. (The people who ran escaped quickly)

Example of phonological contrast involving placement of tonic syllable (marked by capital letters):

a) I have plans to LEAVE. (= I am planning to leave)

b) I have PLANS to leave. (= I have some drawings to leave)

Example of phonological contrast (British English) involving choice of tone (\ = falling tone, \/ = fall-rise tone)

a) She didn’t break the record because of the \ Wind. (= She did not break the record, because the wind held her up)

b) She didn’t break the record because of the \ / Wind. (= She did break the record, but not because of the wind).

It has been frequently claimed that there is a contrast involving tone between “wh-questions” and “yes/no” questions, the former being said to have falling tone, for example: “Where did you \put it?” and the latter a rising tone, for instance: “Are you going /out?”, though studies of spontaneous speech have shown frequent exceptions to this rule. “Tag questions” asking for information are said to carry rising tones, for instance: “They are coming on Tuesday, / aren’t they?”, while

those asking for confirmation have falling tone, for example: “Your name’s John, \isn’t it?”

Child acquisition. Typical developmental trajectory. Research in phonological development references articulatory and acoustic descriptions. Children’s acquisition of consonants differs both in where and how the vocal tract is closed. Children lack control of their articulatory muscles due to the immaturity of their vocal tract structure. This could explain why the alveolar approximant is one of the last sounds mastered by children, approximately at the age of four. Acoustically, children’s pronunciations of [r] revealed higher frequencies for F2 and F3 formants, and a larger distance between them than those of adults.

Gliding. As children age, they develop a systematic way in which to adjust the sounds of their target language in order to fit within the range of sounds they can produce. These systematic transformations are called phonological processes. One phonological process typically found in child phonological acquisition is gliding – a segment substitution process involving the alveolar approximant.

The gliding change is one in which sounds resembling [l] and [r] which are traditionally classified as liquids are replaced by the sounds [j] and [w] which are traditionally classified as glides. For example, the alveolar approximant [r] is replaced with the liquid consonant [w] so that “rabbit” is pronounced as [wabɪt] and [j] replaces [l] in “lamp”, and [w] replaces [r] in “red”.

There are the difficulties in acquisition of [r]: the alveolar [r] is among the last of the phonemes to develop normally, and is also one of the most commonly misarticulated sounds due to its difficult pronunciation and similarities to other sounds. The nature of the sound’s production requires the speaker to manipulate different parts of the tongue, lips, and pharyngeal wall in relation to the palate making it more complex than most English sounds.

In addition, the subtle contrast between [r] and [w] may be difficult for children to differentiate in adult speech. As the English alveolar approximant sound has various contributing articulations that are not often audible or obvious, articulatory-delayed children and children with hearing loss often have difficulty acquiring it.

In English, misarticulation is generally characterized by a high third formant and courses of treatment typically aim to lower the formant to normal levels. When a child misarticulates the alveolar approximant, they frequently substitute it for “w”, or distort it to a sound that falls somewhere between [r] and [w].

If difficulties articulating this approximant persist, an oral mechanism examination can be done to ensure the muscles of the mouth are working properly, and if they are and the errors are not caused by physiological limitations, the child might undergo articulation treatment.

In the circumstance that misarticulation is caused by physiological abnormalities such as the Pierre Robin Sequence or banded lingual frenulum, treatment may rarely involve surgical intervention, but further the rapeutic treatment is still necessary.

In either case, a typical course of treatment involves having the child produce affected words while being instructed on the correct articulation of alveolar [r] for a speech language pathologist.

Tasks designed to elicit use of the phoneme may involve the patient reading from a selected passage, verbally identifying objects in pictures, or producing spontaneous speech. Some errors that can be treated in the rapeutic speech may remain present in spontaneous or informal speech, so the use of both reading and spontaneous tasks in therapy is imperative.

8. Historical Roots: Grimm's Law, Verner's Law, Breaking.

When in 1786 ***William Jones*** informed the English-speaking world that Sanskrit was related to Germanic and Celtic languages as well as to Latin and Greek (he argued that Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit came from a common source), he began a research program that continues to this day.

It was not so much that Jones noticed similar words in the various languages but that he began to note regular correspondences. ***Rasmus Rask***, the Danish philologist, later was able to point out that these correspondences seemed to be based on regular rules.

R.Rask also was able to add Lithuanian into the mix, showing that there were regular correspondences between these languages and those previously linked by Jones. But it was ***Jakob Grimm*** who really managed to tie everything together.

Jacob Grimm took Rasmus Rask's observations and divined the underlying rule that explained both the similarities and the differences. His Deutsche Grammatik, first published in 1819, was as important for the humanities as Darwin's Origin of Species was to befor biology and in fact, Y.Grimm's work in part inspired ***Charles Darwin***.

Grimm's Law. Grimm's argument can be hard to follow, particularly because his linguistic terminology is sometimes different from ours, so rather than delving directly into XIX-th century "Vergleichende Philologie", we are going to simplify a bit and be more explanatory than historical. Y.Grimm himself did not call the consonant shift that he had explained a "law."

The German word he uses, "Regel," means "rule," and could just as easily mean "correspondence." It is also worth noting that Grimm could find no way of including the vowels in his scheme and did not have much luck with the liquids ("r", "l").

Y.Grimm began withthe assumption that had been in place since the time of Jones, that Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and other European languages, most importantly those in the Germanic branch, had a common ancestor. This common ancestor, which, following contemporary practice rather than Grimm's own, we will call Proto-Indo-European, could be reconstructed by examining its descendants.

Those elements that appeared in the majority of the descendant languages were assumed to be more likely to have appeared in the original language, they were ancestral rather than derived characteristics; alternately, they could be called homologies.

So, for example, we examine the words for "father" and"foot" in a variety of Indo-European languages: Sanskrit Latin Ancient Greek English "pitar - pater - father - pad - ped pu-s foot". Because the "p" sound appears in a wider variety of languages, it is assumed to be ancestral and the "f" in English to be derived from a consonant shift.

Y.Grimm concluded that the ancestral forms were "p, t, k, b, d, g, bh, dh, gh" - the "h" represents aspiration. They shifted, in the Germanic languages, in the following manner:

p ➔ f; t ➔ th; k ➔ h; b ➔ p; d ➔ t; g ➔ k; bh ➔ f; dh ➔ d; gh ➔ g

If you refer back to our chart of the consonants, or simply say these slowlyand note the voicing, place of articulation, and manner of articulation, youmay be able to reconstruct Grimm's Law on your own. "P" is a voiceless, bilabial stop. It becomes "f", a voiceless, labio-dental fricative. By itself this is not helpful, but remembers it: voicing stays the same, bilabial goes to labio-dental, and stop goes to fricative.

Now we move on to the next consonant. "T" is a voiceless alveolar stop. It becomes "th", a voiceless inter-dental fricative. "K" is a voiceless velar stop. It becomes "h", a voiceless glottal fricative.

Do you see the pattern? Although the voicing remains the same throughout the changes, they are all voiceless, and the place of articulation does not seem to change regularly, bilabial moves back in the mouth to labio-dental and velar moves back to glottal, but the alveolar “t” moves forward to become inter-dental, all ofthese stops become fricatives. This is a consistent pattern. So, the first part of Grimm’s Law is the following: the voiceless stops in Proto-Indo-European became voiceless fricatives in Germanic.

Let us continue down the list. “B” is a voiced bilabial stop. It becomes “p”, a voiceless bilabial stop. “D” is a voiced inter-dental stop. It becomes “t”, a voiceless inter-dental stop. “G” is a voiced velar stop. It becomes “k”, a voiceless, velar stop. This pattern is easier to notice because the only aspect of the sounds that changes is the voicing, with voiced sounds becoming voiceless.

So the second part of Grimm’s Law is the following: The voiced stops in Proto-Indo-European become voiceless stops in Germanic. The last three consonants on the list require some explanation. Say “cup” and then “pitcher,” paying close attention to the “p” sounds. You will note that the “p” in “cup” ends with the lips closed, while the “p” in “pitcher”, even if we do not say the rest of the word, ends with the lips open.

Aspiration is automatic in English: We do not think about it, and it is meaningless because it is simply a factor of the phonetic environment. But in Sanskrit, aspiration is significant, that is, it is phonemic as well as phonetic.

The third element of Grimm’s Law is the loss of this aspiration. “Bh”, the voiced, aspirated, bilabial stop, becomes simply “b”, a voiced bilabial stop. Likewise “dh” becomes “d” and “gh” becomes “g”. So we can generalize and say: The voiced, aspirated stops become voiced, un-aspirated stops.

Grimm also noted that these shifts are linked to one another. When the first part of the shift occurred, the voiceless stops becoming voiceless fricatives, the language would have no voiceless stops. But that gap is then filled by the voiced

stops becoming voiceless. That leaves another gap, since there would then be no voiced stops, but that gap is filled by the aspirated voiced stops becoming unaspirated voiced stops.

Sounds shuffle around, and in the endwe are left with the three groups of consonant changes and also the elimination of aspirated stops as meaningful units in the Germanic languages. Thus, we see that one shift can start a cascade that changes the phonological system of the entire language.

There were also some exceptions to this change. The voiceless stops did not become fricatives if they had been preceded by an “s”. This makes sense, if we note that “s” is a fricative also, and the fricative / fricative combination, although not impossible - is difficult to say.

We can thus say that the presence of the spirant “s” in a word immediately before a voiceless stop blocked the operation of Grimm’s Law. Grimm’s Law is so important not only because it demonstrated that there was logical regularity underlying language change, but also because it allowed researchers to reconstruct the lost Indo-European language.

Of course none of them agreed on this reconstruction and it is an old philological joke that no language changed as rapidly in the XIX-th century as Proto-Indo-European. Using Grimm’s Law, a scholar could take a word beginning in “f” in a Germanic language and reasonably infer that its ancestor in Proto-Indo-European began with “p.”

This kind of reconstruction could also be used to find the meanings of otherwise obscure words. Scholars can often reconstruct the meanings of words by using context or by using texts that are translations of known languages. But there are some words for which this is impossible. They might be hapax legomena, words that appear only one time in the written corpus of a language.

Now, scholars could apply the various sound-change laws and look for correspondences in other Indo-European languages. The corresponding words are called cognates: pater, pitar, father, and vater are all cognates. Scholars also learned that there are false cognates, words that appear to be related but, upon further investigation, turn out not to be.

Grimm's Law had remarkable explanatory power, but there were exceptions to it that were not easily explained. This did not bother Y.Grimm himself, who accepted the idea that there were exceptions to his rules, but subsequent linguists were determined to figure out additional regularities.

The most successful was the Danish linguist, ***Karl Verner*** (1846–1896), who in 1875 formulated **Verner's Law**. Verner examined words in which "p" did not become "f", "t" did not become "th", and "k" did not become "h" in the shift from Proto-Indo-Europeanto Germanic.

Thus, in Sanskrit, Latin, and Greek, as well as Baltic and Slavic languages, there were words that included "p" in which the cognates in Germanic languages also had "p", rather than "f". For example, the "p" in the Proto-Indo-European word for father does indeed become an "f", as Grimm's Law would predict. But in Proto-Germanic the word is "fæder," with a "d"rather than the "th" we would expect from Grimm's Law.

Even more confusing, the Proto-Indo-European word for "brother" does follow Grimm's Law, with the Proto-Germanic form being "brother" rather than "broder."

Verner studied these words very carefully and noted a correspondence: When the vowels before the "p", "t", or "k" (the unvoiced stops) were unstressed, Grimm's Law did not come into effect. In Proto-Indo-European, the stress was on the second syllable of "father", compare the Sanskrit pit-á, while it was on the first syllable of "brother", Sanskrit "bhrá-ta".

One reason it hadtaken so long for linguists to figure out Verner's Law was that somewhat later in the development of the Germanic languages stress had become fixed on the root syllable of a word; this had not been the case in Proto-Indo European or Proto-Germanic.

That early stress patterns, which are not usually represented in early writing systems, but have to be inferred, could modify major processes like consonant shifts was enormously important to philologists: they now had an additional tool for understanding language change.

I-mutation Grimm's and Verner's Law explained changes in the consonant systems ofthe Indo-European languages, but Grimm had been unable to figure out lawsfor the Indo-European vowel system.

Later linguists, however, were able toexplain various regular changes in vowel systems of Indo-European languages. The most important of the processes they described is i-mutation, also called umlaut. I-mutation occurs when a back vowel, such as that in"foot," is moved to the front of the mouth (fronted), as in "feet," or when a front vowel, such as that in Old English "strang" (strong) is moved higher in the mouth (raised) such as in Old English "strengthu" (strength).

I-mutation occurs when a syllable is followed by a syllable that contains short-i, long-i, or the y-sound in "yes." In each case the mouth, in preparing to say the next syllable, changes the first one, fronting it if it is a back vowel or raising it if it is already fronted. I-mutation is important for two reasons.

First, it changed the entire vowel systems of Old English, Old Norse, and Old High German from their predecessors, so understanding it is vital for understanding the ways that the two languages are related to each other.

Second, because we can date i-mutation to the IV-th or V-th centuries, we can use it to judge when certain words entered into English. If a Latin word shows the influence of i-mutation, we can conclude that it came into the language before

i-mutation had occurred. Thus “monet” from Latin gets i-mutated to “mynet” (mint and money), but “cometa” (comet) does not, suggesting that it was borrowed later.

The other vowel-related process we will discuss is called breaking, where asingle vowel is split into a diphthong: two combined vowel sounds. **Breaking** is important because it demonstrates the influence of consonants on vowels in the same way that Verner’s Law demonstrated the influence of vowels on consonants.

Breaking applies to short front vowels such as the “e” in “pet” and the “a” in “fat” when these vowels are followed by the consonants “h”, “r”, and “l” plus one more consonant, such combinations as “ht” or “rp”. These vowels become diphthongs, so when we find an Old English word like “weorpan” (to throw) we can conclude that its ancestor was “werpan.” Likewise Old English“feaht” (fought) had the ancestor “fæht”; the “æ” represents the short-a soundthat we pronounce in “bat” or “cat”.

This information about sound changes may seem exceptionally complex, but its great beauty was that it was completely logical: if you could understand the rules and apply them correctly, you could reconstruct the earlier versions of the language. And that was not just an abstract exercise.

A deep knowledge of phonology and sound-changes in Indo-European languages allowed scholars to recover lost information about the past and to better understand early literatures.

Questions:

Characterize the Old English vowel.

Describe the vowel reduction, shortening and lengthening.

Characterize the the development of Old English monophthongs in Modern English.

What was the Great Vowel Shift?

What are some of the theories for why the Great Vowel Shift occurred?

Characterize the the development of Old English diphthongs in Modern English.

Write up major vowel changes in New English.

Tell about the vocabulary of Old English.

Define the linguistic features of Germanic languages.

What do you know about the rise of new phonemes?

Why was Grimm's Law working sometimes and not others in words that were obviously equally old and closely related?

Lecture 10. Old English. Historical Background.

1. Chronological Division in the History of English.

2. Short Survey of Period.

Old English was not static, and its usage covered a period of approximately 700 years from the Anglo-Saxon migrations that created England in the V-th century to some time after the Norman Conquest of 1066, when the language underwent a dramatic transition.

During this early period it assimilated some aspects of the languages with which it came in contact, such as the Celtic languages and the two dialects of Old Norse from the invading Vikings, who occupied and controlled large tracts of land in northern and eastern England, which came to be known as the Danelaw.

The most important force in shaping Old English was its Germanic heritage in its vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar, which it shared with its sister languages in continental Europe. Some of these features are shared with the other West Germanic languages with which Old English is grouped, while some other features are traceable to the reconstructed Proto-Germanic language from which all Germanic languages are believed to have derived.

Like other Germanic languages of the period, Old English was fully inflected with five grammatical cases: nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, and instrumental, though the instrumental was very rare, which had dual plural forms for referring to groups of two objects, but only in the personal pronouns, in addition to the usual singular and plural forms.

It also assigned gender to all nouns, including those that describe inanimate objects: for example, “sēo sunne” - “the Sun” was feminine, while “se mōna” –

“the Moon” was masculine, for instance: in modern German “die Sonne” and “der Mond”.

One of the ways the influence of Latin can be seen is that many Latin words for activities came to also be used to refer to the people engaged in those activities, an idiom carried over from Anglo-Saxon but using Latin words. This can be seen in words like “militia, assembly, movement, and service”.

The language was further altered by the transition away from the runic alphabet, also known as “futhorc” or “fuþorc” to the Latin alphabet, which was also a significant factor in the developmental pressures brought to bear on the language.

Old English words were spelt as they were pronounced. The “silent” letters in many Modern English words were pronounced in Old English: for example, the “c” in “cniht”, the Old English ancestor of the modern knight, was pronounced. Another side-effect of spelling words phonetically was that spelling was extremely variable – the spelling of a word would reflect differences in the phonetics of the writer's regional dialect, and also idiosyncratic spelling choices which varied from author to author, and even from work to work by the same author. Thus, for example, the word and could be spelt either and or ond.

The second major source of loanwords to Old English was the Scandinavian words introduced during the Viking invasions of the IX-th and X-th centuries. In addition to a great many place names, these consist mainly of items of basic vocabulary, and words concerned with particular administrative aspects of the Danelaw, that is, the area of land under Viking control, which included extensive holdings all along the eastern coast of England and Scotland.

The Vikings spoke Old Norse, a language related to Old English in that both derived from the same ancestral Proto-Germanic language. It is very common for the intermixing of speakers of different dialects, such as those that occur during times of political unrest, to result in a mixed language, and one theory holds that

exactly such a mixture of Old Norse and Old English helped accelerates the decline of case endings in Old English.

Apparent confirmation of this is the fact that simplification of the case endings occurred earliest in the North and latest in the Southwest, the area farthest away from Viking influence. Regardless of the truth of this theory, the influence of Old Norse on the English language has been profound: responsible for such basic vocabulary items as “sky, leg”, the pronoun “they”, the verb form “are”, and hundreds of other words.

Old English should not be regarded as a single monolithic entity just as Modern English is also not monolithic. Within Old English, there was language variation. Thus, it is misleading, for example, to consider Old English as having a single sound system. Rather, there were multiple Old English sound systems.

Old English has variation along regional lines as well as variation across different times. For example, the language attested in Wessex during the time of Æthelwold of Winchester, which is named Late West Saxon or Æthelwoldian Saxon, is considerably different from the language attested in Wessex during the time of Alfred the Great’s court, which is named Early West Saxon or Classical West Saxon or Alfredian Saxon.

Furthermore, the difference between Early West Saxon and Late West Saxon is of such a nature that Late West Saxon is not directly descended from Early West Saxon, despite what the similarity in name implies.

The four main dialectal forms of Old English were Mercian, Northumbrian, Kentish, and West Saxon. Each of those dialects was associated with an independent kingdom on the island. Of these, all of Northumbria and most of Mercia were overrun by the Vikings during the IX-th century. The portion of Mercia and all of Kent that were successfully defended were then integrated into Wessex.

Old English was first written in runes (futhorc) but shifted to a (minuscule) half-uncial script of the Latin alphabet introduced by Irish Christian missionaries. This was replaced by insular script, a cursive and pointed version of the half-uncial script. This was used until the end of the XII-th century when continental Carolingian minuscule, also known as Caroline, replaced the insular.

The letter yogh was adapted from Irish ecclesiastical forms of Latin < g >; the letter ðæt < ð >, called “eth” or “edh” in modern English, was an alteration of Latin < d >, and the runic letters thorn and wynn are borrowings from futhorc.

Also used was a symbol for the conjunction and, a character similar to the number seven (<□>, called a Tironian note), and a symbol for the relative pronoun þæt, a thorn with a crossbar through the ascender (<□>). Macrons < ¯ > over vowels were rarely used to indicate long vowels. Also used occasionally were abbreviations for following m’s or n’s. All of the sound descriptions below are given using IPA symbols.

1. Chronological division in the history of English.

The history of the English language really started with the arrival of three Germanic tribes who invaded Britain during the V-th century AD. These tribes, the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes, crossed the North Sea from what today is Denmark and northern Germany.

At that time the inhabitants of Britain spoke a Celtic language. But most of the Celtic speakers were pushed west and north by the invaders - mainly into what is now Wales, Scotland and Ireland. The Angles came from England and their language was called English - from which the words England and English are derived.

Old English (450-1100 AD). The invading Germanic tribes spoke similar languages, which in Britain developed into what we now call Old English. Old

English did not sound or look like English today. Native English speakers now would have great difficulty understanding Old English. Nevertheless, about half of the most commonly used words in Modern English have Old English roots. The words “be, strong, water”, for example, derive from Old English. Old English was spoken until around 1100.

Middle English (1100-1500). In 1066 William the Conqueror, the Duke of Normandy conquered England. The new conquerors, called the Normans, brought with them a kind of French, which became the language of the Royal Court, and the ruling and business classes. For a period there was a kind of linguistic class division, where the lower classes spoke English and the upper classes spoke French.

In the XIV-th century English became dominant in Britain again, but with many French words added. This language is called Middle English. It was the language of the great poet Chaucer (1340-1400), but it would still be difficult for native English speakers to understand today.

Early Modern English (1500-1800). Towards the end of Middle English, a sudden and distinct change in pronunciation (the Great Vowel Shift) started, with vowels being pronounced shorter and shorter.

From the XVI-th century the British had contact with many people from around the world. This, and the Renaissance of Classical learning, meant that many new words and phrases entered the language. The invention of printing also meant that there was now a common language in print. Books became cheaper and more people learned to read. Printing also brought standardization to English. Spelling and grammar became fixed, and the dialect of London, where most publishing houses were, became the standard. In 1604 the first English dictionary was published.

Late Modern English (1800-Present). The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has

many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

Late Modern English (1800-Present). The main difference between Early Modern English and Late Modern English is vocabulary. Late Modern English has many more words, arising from two principal factors: firstly, the Industrial Revolution and technology created a need for new words; secondly, the British Empire at its height covered one quarter of the earth's surface, and the English language adopted foreign words from many countries.

A Brief Chronology of English

c.6000 BC	**Britain cut off from continental Europe by English Channel.**	
c.5000 BC	**Proto-Indo-Europeans living in Eastern Europe and Central Asia.**	
c.1000 BC	**Germanic Indo-European tribes living in parts of modern-day Germany.**	
c.500 BC	**Celts inhabit much of Europe, and beginning to colonize the British Isles.**	
55 BC	**First Roman invasion of Britain by Julius Caesar.**	**Local inhabitants speak Celtish**
43 AD	**Roman occupation of Britain under Emperor Claudius;beginning of Roman rule of Britain.**	
410-436	**Roman withdrawal from Britain complete.**	
449	**Anglo-Saxon settlement by Germanic invaders (Angles, Fisians, Saxons, Jutes) of Britain begins.**	
450-480	**Earliest known Old English inscriptions.**	**Old English**
597	**St.Augustine arrives in Britain (beginning of Christian conversion of the Anglo-Saxons).**	
c.600	**Anglo-Saxon language covers most of modern-day England.**	
c.660	**"Cædmon's Hymn" composed in Old English.**	
c.800	**Old English epic poem "Beowulf" composed.**	
1066	**William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, invades and conquers England.**	

c.1150	**Earliest surviving manuscripts in Middle English.**	**Middle English**
1167	**Oxford University established.**	
1209	**Cambridge University established.**	
1348	**English replaces Latin as the language of instruction in most schools.**	
1362	**English replaces French as the language of law, it is used in English Parliament for the first time.**	
1385	**English replaces Latin as main language in schools (except Universities of Oxford and Cambridge).**	
1388	**Chaucer starts writing "The Canterbury Tales".**	
1400	**The Great Vowel Shift begins.**	
1476	**William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.**	**Early Modern English**
1500	**Start of English Renaissance.**	
1564	**Shakespeare is born.**	
1604	**Table Alphabeticall, the first English dictionary, is published.**	
1607	**The first permanent English settlement in the New World (Jamestown) is established.**	
1616	**William Shakespeare dies.**	
1623	**Shakespeare's First Folio is published.**	
1702	**The first daily English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant, is published in London.**	
1755	**Samuel Johnson publishes his English dictionary.**	
1763	**Britain wrests control of Canada from the French.**	
1776	**Thomas Jefferson writes the American Declaration of Independence.**	
1782	**Britain abandons its colonies in what is later to become the USA.**	
1788	**First publication of "The Times" newspaper in London.**	
1828	**Noah Webster publishes his American English dictionary.**	**Late Modern English**
1865	**United States ends slavery after Civil War.**	
1922	**The British Broadcasting Corporation is founded.**	
1928	**The Oxford English Dictionary is published.**	

2. Short survey of period.

A Chronology of the English Language

449	**Anglo-Saxon settlement of Britain begins.**
450-480	**Earliest Old English inscriptions date from this period.**
547	**A kingdom was established in the north of England, north of the Humber River, by groups descended from the Angles, a Germanic tribe that became known as Anglians.**
597	**St. Augustine arrives in Britain.** **Beginning of Christian conversion.**
VI-VII c.	**The missionaries from Rome were sent to northern Europe and the British Isles to convert the Germanic peoples.**
731	**The Venerable Bede publishes The Ecclesiastical History of the English People in Latin.**
792	**Viking raids and settlements begin.**
871	**Alfred becomes king of Wessex. He has Latin works translated into English and begins practice of English prose.** **The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is begun.**
VII-IX c.	**The era of Northumbrian efflorescence, marked by a rich religious and literary culture; the monasteries of Northumbria produced beautiful manuscripts of the Bible and other literary texts.**
IX-X c.	**Wessex became the seat of Anglo-Saxon intellectual, literary, and political life.**
911	**Charles II of France grants Normandy to the Viking chief Hrolf the Ganger. The beginning of Norman French.**
c. 1000	**The oldest surviving manuscript of Beowulf dates from this period.**
1066	**The Norman conquest under William the Conqueror.**
1086	**"Domesday Book" compiled.**
XI c.	**During the so-called Benedictine Revival new schools were established for educating students in English and Latin.**
by the end of the XI-th c.	**Within a generation or two of the Norman Conquest, much of this literary and intellectual activity had disappeared; Anglo-Saxon bishops and priests were replaced by Norman French ones.**
c.1100	**London becomes de facto capital of England.**
c. 1150	**The oldest surviving manuscripts of Middle English date from this period.**
XII c.	**Old English was virtually gone.**
1171	**Henry II conquers Ireland.**
1204	**King John loses the province of Normandy to France.**

1348	**English replaces Latin as the medium of instruction in schools, other than Oxford and Cambridge which retain Latin.**
1362	**The Statute of Pleading replaces French with English as the language of law. Records continue to be kept in Latin. English is used in Parliament for the first time.**
1384	**Wyclif publishes his English translation of the Bible.**
c. 1388	**Chaucer begins The Canterbury Tales.**
1476	**William Caxton establishes the first English printing press.**
1492	**Columbus discovers the New World.**
c.1500	**Start of English Renaissance.**
c.1539	**"The Great Bible" published.**
1549	**First version of The Book of Common Prayer.**
1604	**Robert Cawdrey publishes the first English dictionary, Table Alphabeticall.**
1607	**Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement in the New World, established.**
1611	**The Authorized, or King James Version, of the Bible is published.**
1702	**Publication of the first daily, English-language newspaper, The Daily Courant, in London.**
1755	**Samuel Johnson publishes his dictionary.**
1770	**Cook discovers Australia.**
1928	**First edition of the "Oxford English Dictionary" is published.**
1945	**United Nations founded.**
1954	**Sir Ernest Gower's "The Complete Plain Words" is published.**
1989	**Second edition of the "Oxford English Dictionary" is published.**

Questions:

Characterize the chronological division in the history of English.

Describe short survey of period.

Define the date of Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English and Late Modern English.

Name the peculiarities of A Brief Chronology of English

Tell the date of the the first English dictionary.

Lecture 11. Historical Grammar.

1. Old and Modern Germanic Languages.

2. Grammatical Changes.

3. Basic Grammatical Features of Germanic Languages.

1. Old and Modern Germanic languages.

Old English also called **Anglo-Saxon**, “Englisc” by its speakers, is an early form of the English language that was spoken and written in parts of what are now England and south-eastern Scotland between the middle of the V-th century and the middle of the XII-th century.

What survives through writing represents primarily the literary register of Anglo-Saxon? It is a West Germanic language and is closely related to Old Frisian. It also experienced heavy influence from Old Norse, a member of the related North Germanic group of languages.

Old English was a synthetic or inflected type of language; it showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms Old English employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes and suppletive formation.

Grammatical endings were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all the parts of speech that could change their form.

Sound interchanges were employed on a more limited scale and were often combined with other form-building means, especially endings. The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs. The parts of speech:

nouns, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, interjections.

Inflected parts of speech possessed certain gram. Categories, which are usually subdivided into nominal categories, found in nominal parts of speech and verbal categories, found chiefly in the finite verbs).

There were five nominal grammatical categories: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison and the category of definiteness / indefiniteness.

All Germanic languages are thought to be descended from a hypothetical Proto-Germanic, united by subjection to the sound shifts of Grimm's Law and Verner's Law. These probably took place during the Pre-Roman Iron Age of Northern Europe from c. 500 BC.

Proto-Germanic itself was likely spoken after century 500 BC and Proto-Norse from the II-nd century AD and later is still quite close to reconstructed Proto-Germanic, but other common innovations separating Germanic from Proto-Indo-European suggest a common history of Pre-Proto-Germanic speakers throughout the Nordic Bronze Age.

From the time of their earliest attestation, the Germanic varieties are divided into three groups: West, East, and North Germanic. Their exact relation is difficult to determine from the sparse evidence of runic inscriptions, and they remained mutually intelligible throughout the Migration period, so that some individual varieties are difficult to classify.

The VI-th century Lombardic language, for instance, may be a variety originally either Northern or Eastern, before being assimilated by West Germanic as the Lombards settled at the Elbe.

The Western group would have formed in the late Jastorf culture; the Eastern group may be derived from the I-st century variety of Gotland, leaving southern Sweden as the original location of the Northern group.

The earliest coherent Germanic text preserved is the IV-th century Gothic translation of the New Testament by Ulfilas. Early testimonies of West Germanic are in Old Frankish (V-th century), Old High German: scattered words and sentences VI-th century, coherent texts IX-th century and Old English: oldest texts, 650, coherent texts X-th century.

North Germanic is only attested in scattered runic inscriptions, as Proto-Norse, until it evolves into Old Norse by about 800.

Longer runic inscriptions survive from the VIII-th and IX-th centuries (Eggjum stone, Rök stone), longer texts in the Latin alphabet survive from the XII-th century (İslendingabok), and some skaldic poetry held to date back to as early as the IX-th century.

By about the X-th century, the varieties had diverged enough to make inter-comprehensibility difficult. The linguistic contact of the Viking settlers of the Danelaw with the Anglo-Saxons left traces in the English language, and is suspected to have facilitated the collapse of Old English grammar that resulted in Middle English from the XII-th century.

The East Germanic languages were marginalized from the end of the Migration period. The Burgundians, Goths, and Vandals became linguistically assimilated by their respective neighbors by about the VII-th century, with only Crimean Gothic lingering on until the XVIII-th century.

During the Early Middle Ages, the West Germanic languages were separated by the insular development of Middle English on one hand, and by the High German consonant shift on the continent on the other, resulting in Upper German and Low Saxon, with graded intermediate Central German varieties.

By Early modern times, the span had extended into considerable differences, ranging from Highest Alemannic in the South to Northern Low Saxon in the North and, although both extremes are considered German, they are hardly mutually

intelligible. The southernmost varieties had completed the second sound shift, while the northern varieties remained unaffected by the consonant shift.

The North Germanic languages, on the other hand, remained unified until well past 1000 AD, and in fact the mainland Scandinavian languages still largely retain mutual intelligibility into modern times. The main split in these languages is between the mainland languages and the island languages to the west, especially Icelandic, which has maintained the grammar of Old Norse virtually unchanged while the mainland languages have diverged greatly.

English is an official language of Belize, Falkland Islands, New Zealand, Phillippines, Puerto Rico, Guam and former British colonies in Asia, Africa, and Oceania.

Although Germany also had some colonial possessions, its language did not remain official after the end of the colonial domination, resulting in German being spoken only as a minority or secondary language by immigrant communities in North, South America, Australia, and African countries notably former German colony Namibia, where it is spoken by educated people and in commerce, it was also former official language there. A German dialect, Pennylvanian Dutch, is still present amongst Anabaptist populations in Pennsylvania, USA.

Although the Netherlands has some colonial possessions, Dutch is only official in Suriname, Dutch Antilles, Belgium and the Netherlands.

Afrikaans is one of eleven official languages in South Africa and is a lingua franca of Namibia. Outside Denmark, Danish is an official language in its overseas territory of Faroe Islands and is a lingua franca and language of education in its other overseas territory of Greenland, where it was one of the official languages until 2009.

There are conflicting opinions on the classification of Lombardic. Contrary to its isolated position in the table above, it also has been classified as close to either Upper German or Old Saxon.

Late Middle Ages refers to the post-Black Death period. Especially for the language situation in Norway this event was important.

From Early Northern Middle English: McClure gives Northumbrian Old English. In the "Oxford Companion to the English Language" (p.894) the "sources" of Scots are described as "the Old English of the Kingdom of Bernicia" and "the Scandinavian-influenced English of immigrants from Northern and Midland England in the XII-XIII-th centuries".

The historical stages "Early-Middle-Modern Scots" are used, for example, in the "Concise Scots Dictionary" and "A Dictionary of the Older Scottish Tongue". The speakers of Norn were assimilated to speak the Moden Scots varieties. The Gutnish language today is practically a dialect of Swedish. Mainland Old Norwegian existed along a dialect continuum between West and East Old Norse.

All living Germanic languages belong either to the West Germanic or to the North Germanic branch. The West Germanic group is the larger by far, further subdivided into Anglo-Frisian on one hand and Continental West Germanic on the other. Anglo-Frisian notably includes English and all its variants, while Continental West Germanic includes German (standard register and dialects) as well as Dutch (standard register and dialects).

- West Germanic languages
- High Germanic languages (includes Standard German and its dialects)
- Upper German
- High Franconian
- Alemannic German
- Austro-Bavarian German
- Mocheno language

- Cimbrian language
- Hutterite German

    - Yiddish
    - Central German
    - East Central German
    - West Central German
    - Luxembourgish
    - Pennsylvania German (spoken by the Amish and other groups in southeastern Pennsylvania)
- Low German
- West Low German
- East Low German
- Low Franconian
- Dutch and its dialects
- Afrikaans (a separate standard language)
- Plautdietsch (Mennonite Low German)
- Anglo-Frisian
- Frisian group
- English group
- English and its dialects
- Scots in Scotland and Ulster
- Yola (extinct)
- North Germanic
- West Scandinavian Norwegian
- Norwegian (of Western branch origin, but heavily influenced by the Eastern branch)
    - Icelandic
    - Faroese
    - Greenlandic Norse (extinct)
    - Norn (extinct)
- East Scandinavian
- Danish
- Swedish
- Dalecarlian dialects
- Gutnish

The Germanic languages today are conventionally divided into three linguistic groups: East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic. This division had begun by the IV-th century A.D.

The East Germanic group, to which such dead languages as Burgundian, Gothic, and Vandalic belong, is now extinct. However, the oldest surviving literary text of any Germanic language is in Gothic.

The North Germanic languages, also called Scandinavian languages or Norse, include Danish, Faeroese, Icelandic, Norwegian, and Swedish. They are spoken by about twenty million people, chiefly in Denmark, the Faeroe Islands, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden.

The West Germanic languages are English, Frisian, Dutch, Flemish, Afrikaans, German, and Yiddish. They are spoken as a primary language by about 450 million people throughout the world.

Among the dead West Germanic languages are Old Franconian, Old High German, and Old English (or Anglo-Saxon) from which Dutch, German, and English respectively developed.

Modern Germanic languages genetically, English belongs to the Germanic or Teutonic group of languages, which is one of the twelve groups of the Indo-European linguistic family. The Germanic languages in the modern world are as follows:

English is used in Great Britain, Ireland, the USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the South African Republic, and many other former British colonies;

German is used in the Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, part of Switzerland;

Netherlandish is used in the Netherlands and Belgium, known also as Dutch and Flemish respectively;

Afrikaans is used in the South African Republic;

Danish is used in Denmark;

Swedish is used in Sweden and Finland;

Norwegian is used in Norway;

Icelandic is used in Iceland;

Frisian is used in some regions of the Netherlands and Germany;

Faroese are used in the Faroe Islands;

Yiddish is used in different countries.

We may compare vocabulary. As several of the terms in the table below have had semantic drift. For example, the form “Sterben” and other terms for “die” are cognates with the English word “starve”. There is also at least one example of a common borrowing from a non-Germanic source “ounce” and its cognates from Latin.

English	**apple**	**book**	**day**	**give**	**hand**	**many**	**who**
Scots	**aiple**	**beuk**	**day**	**gie**	**haund**	**mony**	**wha**
West Frisian	**apel**	**boek**	**dei**	**jaan**	**hân**	**mannich/ mennich**	**wa**
Afrikaans	**appel**	**boek**	**dag**	**gee**	**hand**	**baie / menige**	**wie**
Dutch	**appel**	**boek**	**dag**	**geven**	**hand**	**menig**	**wie**
Dutch Limburgish	**appel**	**Book**	**daag**	**geve**	**hand**	**minnig**	**wee**
Low German	**Appel**	**Book**	**Dag**	**geven**	**Hand**	**Mennig**	**wokeen**
Low German Groningen	**Abbel**	**Bouk**	**Dag**	**geven**	**Haand**	**Ìnde**	**wel**
Middle German Luxemburgish	**Apel**	**Buch**	**Do**	**ginn**	**Hand**	**-**	**wien**

German	Apfel	Buch	Tag	geben	Hand	manch	wer
Yiddish	עפל / epl	בוך / bukh	טאג / tog	געבן / gebn	האנט / hant	מאנכע / mankhe	ווער / ver
Gothic	aplus	bōka	dags	giban	handus	manags	Ƕas / hwas
Icelandic	epli	bók	dagur	gefa	hönd	margir	hver
Faroese	epli	bók	dagur	geva	hond	mangir/ nógvir	hvør
Swedish	äpple	bok	dag	ge/giva	hand	många	vem
Danish	æble	bog	dag	give	hånd	mange	hvem
Norwegian Bokmal	eple	bok	dag	gi	hånd	mange	hvem
Norwegian Nynorsk	eple	bok	dag	gie(va)	hand	mange	kven

2. Grammatical changes.

The oldest Germanic languages have the typical complex inflected morphology of old Indo-European languages, with four or five noun cases; verbs marked for person, number, tense and mood; multiple noun and verb classes; few or no articles; and rather free word order.

There were three moods: indicative, subjunctive, developed from the PIE optative mood, and imperative. Gothic verbs had a number of archaic features inherited from PIE that were lost in the other Germanic languages with few traces, including dual endings, an inflected passive voice, derived from the PIE mediopassive voice, and a class of verbs with reduplication in the past tense, derived from the PIE perfect.

The old Germanic languages are famous for having only two tenses (present and past), with three PIE past-tense aspects (imperfect, aorist, and perfect/stative) merged into one and no new tenses (future, pluperfect, etc.) developing.

The complex tense system of modern English is almost entirely due to subsequent developments, although paralleled in many of the other Germanic languages, for example: “In three months, the house will still be being built” or “If you had not acted so stupidly, we would never have been caught”.

Among the primary innovations in Proto-Germanic are the preterite present verbs, a special set of verbs whose present tense looks like the past tense of other verbs and which is the origin of most modal verbs in English; a past-tense ending, in the so-called “weak verbs”, marked with “-ed” in English, that appears variously as “d” or “t”, often assumed to be derived from the verb “to do”; and two separate sets of adjective endings, originally corresponding to a distinction between indefinite semantics (“a man”, with a combination of Proto-Indo-European (PIE) adjective and pronoun endings) and definite semantics (“the man”, with endings derived from PIE n-stem nouns).

Note that most modern Germanic languages have lost most of the inherited inflectional morphology as a result of the steady attrition of unstressed endings triggered by the strong initial stress.

Contrast, for instance: the Balto-Slavic languages, which have largely kept the Indo-European pitch accent and consequently preserved much of the inherited morphology. Icelandic and modern German best preserve the Proto-Germanic inflectional system, with four noun cases, three genders, and well-marked verbs. English is at the other extreme, with almost no remaining inflectional morphology.

Now analyse linguistic developments. The subgroupings of the Germanic languages are defined by shared innovations. It is important to distinguish innovations from cases of linguistic conservatism. That is, if two languages in a family share a characteristic that is not observed in a third language, that is evidence of common ancestry of the two languages only if the characteristic is an innovation compared to the family’s proto-language.

The following innovations are common to the Northwest Germanic languages, all but Gothic:

- The lowering of [u] to [o] in initial syllables before [a] in the following syllable, “a-Umlaut”, traditionally called “Brechung”;
- “Labial umlaut” in unstressed medial syllables, the conversion of [a] to [u] and [ō] to [ū] before [m], or [u] in the following syllable;

The conversion of [$\bar{e}_1$] into [ā], vs. Gothic [ē] in initial syllables:

- The raising of final [ō] to [u], Gothic lowers it to [a];
- The monophthongisation of [ai] and [au] to [ē] and [ō] in non-initial syllables, however, evidence for the development of [au] in medial syllables is lacking;
- The development of an intensified demonstrative ending in [s], reflected in English “this” compared to “the”;
- The use of [$\bar{e}_2$] in the preterite of Class VII strong verbs in North and West Germanic, while Gothic uses reduplication, for example: Gothic “haihait”; ON, OE “hēt”, preterite of the Gmc verb “haitan” - “to be called” as part of a comprehensive reformation of the Gmc Class VII from a reduplicating to a new ablaut pattern, which presumably started in verbs beginning with vowel or [h], a development which continues the general trend of de-reduplication in Gmc; there are forms, such as OE dial. “Heht” instead of “hēt”, which retain traces of reduplication even in West and North Germanic.

The following innovations are also common to the Northwest Germanic languages, but represent areal changes:

Proto-Germanic [z] > [r], for instance: Gothic “dius”; ON “dȳr”, OHG “tior”, OE “dēor”, “wild animal”; note that this is not present in Proto-Norse and must be ordered after West Germanic loss of final [z].

- Germanic umlaut;

The following innovations are common to the West Germanic languages:

- Loss of final [z], except in short monosyllables;
- Change of voiced dental fricative [ð] to stop [d];
- Change of voiceless dental fricative [þ] to stop [d] after [l], except when [þ] is word-final;
- West Germanic gemination of consonants, except [r], before [j] in short-stemmed words, gemination of [p], [t], [k] and [h] is also observed before liquids), but not if [j] or a liquid is vocalized (becomes syllabic) word-finally;
- The simplification of [ngw] to [ng];
- A particular type of umlaut [e-u-i] > [i-u-i];
- Loss of [j] before [i] and [w] before [u] in endings;
- The change of [b] or [g] to [w] before nasal consonant;
- Changes to the second person singular past-tense: replacement of the past-singular stem vowel with the past-plural stem vowel, and substitution of the ending "-t" with "-i";
- Short forms ("stān, stēn", "gān, gēn") of the verbs for "stand" and "go"; but note that Crimean Gothic also has "gēn";
- The development of a gerund.

The following innovations are common to the Ingvaeonic subgroup of the West Germanic languages, which includes English, Frisian, and to some extent Dutch and Low German, but not High German:

- The so-called Ingvaeonic nasal spirant law, with loss of [n] before voiceless friactives, for example: "munþ", "gans" > Old English "mūþ", "gōs" > "mouth", "goose", but German "mund", "gans";
- The loss of the Germanic reflexive pronoun;
- The reduction of the three Germanic verbal plural forms into one form ending in [-þ].

- The development of Class III weak verbs into a relic class consisting of four verbs, such as: “sagjan” – “to say”, “hugjan” – “to think”, “habjan” – “to have”, “libjan” – “to live”; for instance: the numerous Old High German verbs in [-ēn];
- The split of the Class II weak verb ending [ō] into [-ō-] /[-ōja-], for example: Old English [-ian] < [-ōjan], but Old High Geman [-ōn];
- Development of a plural ending [-ōs] in a-stem nouns (Gothic also has [-ōs], but this is an independent development, caused by terminal devoicing of [-ōz]; Old Frisian has [-ar], which is thought to be a late borrowing from Danish, for instance: modern English plural “-(e)s”, but German plural “-e”;
- Possibly, the monophthongization of Germanic [ai] to [ē] / [ā], this may represent independent changes in Old Saxon and Anglo-Frisian.

The following innovations are common to the Anglo-Frisian subgroup of the Ingvaeonic languages:

- Raising of nasalized [a], [ā] into [o], [ō];
- Anglo-Frisian brightening: fronting of non-nasal [a], [ā] to [æ],[ǣ] when not followed by [n] or [m];
- Metathesis of CrV into CVr, where C represents any consonant and V any vowel;
- Monophthongization of [ai] into [ā].

3. Basic grammatical features of Germanic languages.

Strong evidence for the unity of all the modern Germanic languages can be found in the phenomenon known as the first Germanic sound shift or consonant shift, also called Grimm’s Law, which set the Germanic subfamily apart from the other members of the Indo-European family. Consisting of a regular shifting of consonants in groups, the sound shift had already occurred by the time adequate

records of the various Germanic languages began to be made in the VII-th to IX-th cent.

According to Grimm's Law, certain consonant sounds found in the ancient Indo-European languages, such as Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, underwent a change in the Germanic tongue. For example, the sounds [p], [d], [t], and k in the former became [f], [t], [th], and [h] respectively in the "latter", as in Latin "pater", English "father"; Latin "dent", English "tooth"; and Latin "cornu", English "horn" (buynuz - por).

Before the VIII-th century a second shift of consonants took place in some of the West German dialects. For instance, under certain circumstances, [d] became [t], and [t] became [ss] or [z], as in English "bread", Dutch "brood", but German "Brot"; English "foot", Dutch "voet", but German "Fuss"; and English "ten", Dutch "tien", but German "zehn".

The dialects in which this second consonant shift took place were the High German dialects, so called because they were spoken in more mountainous areas. Standard modern German arose from these dialects. The West Germanic dialects not affected by the second shift were the Low German dialects of the lowlands, from which Dutch and English evolved.

Also peculiar to the Germanic languages is the recessive accent, whereby the stress usually falls on the first or root syllable of a word, especially a word of Germanic origin.

Another distinctive characteristic shared by the Germanic languages is the umlaut, which is a type of vowel change in the root of a word. It is demonstrated in the pair "foot" (singular), "feet" (plural) in English; "fot" (singular), "fötter" (plural) in Swedish; and "Kampf" (singular), "Kämpfe" (plural) in German.

All Germanic languages have strong and weak verbs; that is, they form the past tense and past participle either by changing the root vowel in the case of

strong verbs, as in English “lie”, “lay”, “lain” or “ring”, “rang”, “rung”; German “ringen”, “rang”, “gerungen” or by adding as an ending “-d” or “-t” or “-ed” in the case of weak verbs, as in English “care”, “cared”, “cared” or “look”, “looked”, “looked”; German “fragen”, “fragte”, “gefragt”.

Also typically Germanic is the formation of the genitive singular by the addition of “-s” or “-es”. Examples are English “man”, “man’s”; Swedish “hund”, “hunds”; German “Lehrer”, “Lehrers” or “Mann”, “Mannes”.

Moreover, the comparison of adjectives in the Germanic languages follows a parallel pattern, as in English: “rich, richer, richest”; German “reich, reicher, reichst”; and Swedish “rik, rikare, rikast”.

Lastly, vocabulary furnished evidence of a common origin for the Germanic languages in that a number of the basic words in these languages are similar in form; however, while word similarity may indicate the same original source for a group of languages, it can also be a sign of borrowing.

The Germanic languages have two adjective declensions, a strong and a weak. The weak forms are used generally after articles, demonstrative pronouns, and possessive adjectives; the strong are used independently.

The number of these forms is reduced greatly in Danish, Swedish, and Netherlandic. The comparison of adjectives and adverbs in Germanic differs from that in the Romance languages. Generally, “-r” and “-st” endings are added: “long, longer, longest”; Swedish “lang, langre, langst”.

The eight cases of Indo-European nouns, adjectives, and pronouns were reduced to four, and sometimes even fewer, in Germanic. Free stress (accent) became recessive, and precise accent rules became dominant, with the first root syllable in Germanic carrying the stress. Umlauting, a process of modifying vowel sounds, took place extensively “man - men”; “foot - feet”.

A system of strong verbs developed as the result of vowel alternation (ablaut), as in “sing, sang, sung”, and a unique way of forming the past tense using weak verbs “jump, jumped” was created, probably by adding a form of “did” to the verb “I jump” - did = “I jumped”.

The number of strong verbs in Germanic is steadily being reduced, and the system does not seem to permit the creation of new strong verbs. Conversely, the number of weak verbs is increasing.

The runic alphabet is a specifically Germanic alphabet, not to be found in languages of other groups. The word rune originally meant “secret”, “mystery” and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. The runes were used as letters, each symbol to indicate separate sound. This alphabet is called futhark after the first six letters.

Runic letters are angular; straight lines are preferred, curved lines avoided; this is due to the fact that runic inscriptions were cut in hard material: stone, bone or wood. The shapes of some letters resemble those of Greek or Latin, other has not been traced to any known alphabet, and the order of the runes in the alphabet is certainly original. The number of runes in different OG languages varied.

As compared to continental, the number of runes in England was larger: new runes were added as new sounds appeared in English from 28 to 33 runes in Britain against 16 or 24 on the continent.

The main use of runes was to make short inscriptions on objects, often to bestow on them some special power or magic. The two best known runic inscriptions in England are the earliest extant OE written records. One of them is and inscription on a box called the “Franks Casket”, the other is a short text on a stone cross near the village of Ruthwell known as the “Ruthwell Cross”.

The Germanic family tree itself is divided into three branches, based on thelocation in Europe in which the speakers of those languages had settled

andlived for long periods of time, so that their languages had time to split fromtheir common Germanic ancestor into separate languages.

Thus, we have the East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic branches. Only one language survives from the East Germanic family, and that only in a very few texts. Gothic was the language spoken by the Goths, and it is preserved in a few translations made by the missionary Ulfilas in the IV-th century. We have a few place names and proper names from Burgundian and Vandalic, but note enough material to reconstruct the languages.

Simplified Indo-European Family Tree, Proto-Indo-European "Satem" "Centum". Norman Conquest Loss of Normandy Scandinavian Influence.

Germanic Family Tree – Germanic - West North East, High Low Old Norse Gothic, Old High German West Norse East Norse, Modern German Icelandic Norwegian Danish Swedish.

Other Germanic speakers settled in the very north of Europe, in Denmarkand Scandinavia. Their language was Old Norse, but this language also began to change and diversify, splitting into East Norse and West Norse. East Norse eventually evolved into Swedish and Danish, and West Norsebecame Norwegian and Icelandic.

Old Icelandic is particularly important because so many of our most important medieval texts are preserved in this language. Old Norse is also significant because it would later influence the development of English.

But English itself belongs to the West Germanic group, which is divided into two branches, High and Low.

High German was spoken in the mountains and uplands of Germany and, after Martin Luther translated the Bible into this language, became the standard literary language of Germany.

The Low German languages include Old Saxon, which has evolved into modern Low German or Plattdeutsch, Old Low Franconian, which became Dutch and Flemish, Old Frisian, which became Frisian, still spoken in a few places in the Netherlands, and Old English.

Old English evolved on the continent, probably in what is today northern Germany or southern Denmark. In the early V-th century, after the Roman legions were withdrawn from Britain, three tribes of continental Germans migrated to England. They were called the Angles, the Saxons, and the Jutes.

Germanic Family Tree, West Low Germanic, Old Dutch, Modern Dutch Flemish Afrikaans, Old Saxon Old Frisian Old English, Modern Low German Modern Frisian Middle English.

The Angles settled the north of England, the Saxons settled the south, and the Jutes settled in Kent, to the east; each of the three tribes spoke Old English, but of a different dialect.

For several centuries, Old English, also called Anglo Saxon was the language of England. It was influenced by Latin, particularly inthe adoption of words having to do with the Church, and by Celtic; surprisingly little, however, but it was essentially a West Germanic language.

Then, beginning at the very end of the VIII-th century, England suffered through more than a century's worth of invasions by the Vikings, who came from Denmark and Scandinavia and who spoke a North Germanic language.

At first the Vikings were content with ravaging and pillaging, but soon they began to colonize England, settling throughout the north and east of the country. Whole sections of England were under Viking rule even after King Alfred withstood the harshest Viking attacks an area of the east and north of England was the Danelaw.

During this time Old Norse strongly influenced Old English. Many, many words were borrowed, not only nouns and verbs, whichwere borrowed in great numbers, but also such fundamental building blocks as pronouns and such language basics as pronunciation.

The Norman Conquest and Middle English. But even the massive influence of Old Norse pales before the cataclysm of 1066, when William the Conqueror invaded England from Normandy andmade Norman French the language of the aristocracy and the law courts for more than a century. People continued to speak Old English, of course: William replaced the nobility but he did not colonize England from France orinitiate wholesale massacres of the Anglo-Saxon inhabitants.

French was the language of the court, and people learned French to communicate with their rulers. But it seems that even among the nobility, forms of Old English werestill spoken well into the XII-th century. Still, we should not minimize the enormous influence of French on Old English.

Not only were hundreds and hundreds of words borrowed, but the entire grammatical structure of the language changed, although French grammar was not adopted. Around 1200, England lost control of Normandy and the French and English nobility began to be separated.

English came back into regular use among the upper classes, but this English was a very different language than the Old English that had been the language of England over a century before. Its grammar had changed: inflections at the ends of words were much less important, and the order of words in the sentence now conveyed most of the grammatical meaning. We call this new language **Middle English**.

For several centuries, Middle English persisted as the language of England. It had strong regional flavors, with very different dialects spread throughout England, and, like all languages, slowly changed and developed. Middle English

was the language of Chaucer, Langland, and the poet who wrote Sir Gawain and the Green Knight. It was still strongly influenced by French, particularly in its literary forms, and it had also begun to borrow more words fromcontinental Europe.

Questions:

Characterize the Historical Grammar of English.

Describe the peculiarities of Old Germanic languages.

Classify Modern Germanic languages.

Which grammatical changes of Old English do you know?

Speak about the basic grammatical features of Germanic languages.

Designate the specific features of the runic alphabet.

What do you know about the Germanic family tree?

Lecture 12. Old English Noun, its Grammatical Categories.

1. Strong and Weak Declension.

2. The Category of Case.

3. Middle and New English Noun: Morphological Classification Categories.

4. Origin of Modern Irregular Noun Forms. Irregular Plural Nouns.

5. The Rise of Articles.

Nouns in Old English had the categories of number, gender and case. There are two numbers: singular and plural, and four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, and Accusative. The number proved to be a stable category, relevant for rendering the meanings and expressing the true state of things in reality.

Old English nouns could be of three genders: masculine, feminine or neuter; but these were assigned arbitrarily. Gender is actually not a grammatical category in a strict sense of the word, for every noun with all its forms belongs to only one gender; but case and number had a set of endings. Nouns used to denote males are normally masculine – "mann", "*f*æder" (man, father). Naturally, those denoting females should be all feminine, - "modor", "sweostor" (mother, sister).

The English language once had an extensive declension system similar to Latin, modern German or Icelandic. Old English distinguished between the Nominative, Accusative, Dative, and Genitive cases and for strongly declined adjectives and some pronouns also a separate instrumental case, which otherwise and later completely coincided with the dative. In addition, the dual was distinguished from the more modern singular and plural.

Declension was greatly simplified during the Middle English period, when the Accusative and Dative cases of the pronouns merged into a single oblique case that

also replaced the Genitive case after prepositions. Nouns in Modern English no longer decline for case, except for the Genitive.

1. Strong and weak declension.

The Old English noun had two grammatical or morphological categories: number and case. In addition, nouns distinguished three genders, but this distinction was not a grammatical category.The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural.The noun had four cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative and Accusative. The, most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their elaborate system of declensions, which was a sort of morphological classification. The total number of declensions, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five.

The OE system of declensions was based on a number of distinctions: the stem-suffix, the gender of nouns, the phonetic structure of the word, phonetic changes in the final syllables.

The morphological classification OE nouns rested upon the most ancient grouping of nouns according to the stem-suffixes. Some groups of nouns had no stem-forming suffix or had a “zero-suffix”; they are usually termed “root-stems” and are grouped together with consonantal stems, as their roots ended in consonants, for example: OE “man”, “boc” - NE “man”, “book”. These substantives seem to represent the oldest type, stemming from the period when there were no stem-forming suffixes and the root was used as a stem without addition of any special stem-forming element.

This type of stem is represented in various Indo-European languages. Thus in Latin we find substantives of the 3-rd declension “rex” -“king”, gen. sing, “reg - is”, etc. In Gothic we find a clear example of a root stem in the substantive “baurgs” - “borough”, whose declension is only complicated by the adoption of the “-im” ending in the dative plural on the analogy of i-stems “baurgim”.

In OE there are a number of substantives of all three genders which wholly or partly belong to the root-stem declension.

The fact that the case endings were joined on immediately to the root in words of this type led to a change in the root vowel. Consequences of this change make themselves felt in several English substantives down to the present time.

The masculine substantives “hselep” - “hero”, compare: German “Held” and “monap” – “month” are close to this type in so far as they often have in the nominative and accusative plural forms without endings: “haslep”, “tnonap”.

Feminine root stems with a short syllable in the nominative singular has the ending “-u”; those with a long root syllable have no ending at all in this case.

The substantive “wifman”, “wimman” - “woman” is declined in the same way as “mann”. Other examples of root stems are: feminine “ac” - “oak”, “sat” - “goat”.

The OE root stems correspond to Latin third declension substantives, as “pes”, “pedis” - “foot”; “pax”, “pads” - “peace”.

The strong declension includes nouns that had had a vocalic stem-forming suffix, for example: a-stems may be either masculine “earm” – “arm”, “biscop” – “bishop”, “hām” – “home” or neuter “dōr” – “door”, “bearn” – “child”, “hūs” – “house”.

There are some peculiarities of declension of the nouns that had originally: “j” or “w” in the stem, they are called “-ja-” and “-wa-” stems; they may preserve this sound in declension; but otherwise the differences are minor. Also, some nouns might have become still clumsier when an inflection was added. So we may see the omission of such sound, the second root vowel in such words as “heafod – heafdes” – “head”; for example: of – “ja-stems” are: “fiscere” – “fisherman”, “net” – “net”; “-wa-” stems: “trēo” – “tree”, “cnēo” – “knee”.

Nouns belonging to “ō-stems” are all feminine. In the form of the Nominative case monosyllabic nouns with a short root vowel of this class have ending “–u”; if there are two and more syllables or the root vowel is long, there is no ending at all; for example: “caru” – “care”, “scamu” – “shame”, “lufu” – “love”.

In this group of nouns the suffix “-ō-” may also be accompanied by additional “i” and “w”, that is “-jō-” and “-wō-stems” will give variants of declension: “hild” – “battle”, “sceadu” – “shade”.

The nouns formerly having “-i-” suffix, now called “-i-stems” might belong to all the three genders, and the case endings are different for different genders - masculine and neuter have the same endings as masculine and neuter nouns of the a-stems, and feminine noun endings repeated the endings of the o-ending; for example: masculine: “mere” (sea), “mete” (food); neuter: “sife” (sieve), “mynster” (monastery); feminine: “wiht” (thing), “hyde” (hide).

Nouns belonging to “u-stems” may be of masculine “wudu – wood”, “medu – honey” or feminine gender “nosu – nose”, “flōr – floor”.

Weak declension. All the nouns can be classified according to the different principles. In traditional historical studies the nouns are divided into classes according to the former stem-forming suffixes. These stem-forming suffixes determined what inflections were taken by the nouns.

The nouns in OE are commonly classified as belonging to strong and weak declension, within each of these groups there are several subgroups.

This class of nouns consists of a rather numerous group of nouns originally having – “n-stems”; the suffix is well-preserved in declension of nouns in OE, but disappeared in the nom. Case “n-stem” nouns may be of all three genders. But actually no difference in declension of nouns of different genders can be found: masculine: “wita” (wise man), “steorra” (star); neuter: “cofa” (chamber); feminine: “heorte” (heart), “sunne” (sun).

Root stems. This group comprises the nouns that never had a stem suffix: “wimman” (woman), “tōð” (tooth), “mūs” (mouse).

The nouns belonging to r-stems were of masculine and feminine gender, the group is a closed system. It included only the terms of kinship. The endings here are scarce; a distinctive feature is that the dative case singular had a mutated vowel: “dohtor” (daughter), “sweostor” (sister).

Less numerous and less significant for the development of the present-day nominal system are the nouns that had other consonants as a stem-forming suffix. S-stems had this suffix in older times; they changed it into occasional appearance of r-sound in indirect cases. They are all neuter: “lamb” (lamb), “cealf” (calf), “cild” (child); -nd-stems are all masculine and their declension combines the peculiarities of the declension of a-stems and, to some extent, r-stems as they all denote persons: “frēond” (friend), “fēond” (accuser).

Strong and weak nouns and adjectives. Originally, adjectives in Proto-Indo-European followed the same declensional classes as nouns. The most common class (the “o/ā” class) used a combination of “o-stem” endings for masculine and neuter genders and “ā-stems” ending for feminine genders, but other common classes (the “i” class and “u” class) used endings from a single vowel-stem declension for all genders, and various other classes existed that were based on other declensions. A quite different set of “pronominal” endings was used for pronouns, determiners and words with related semantics (“all”, “only”).

An important innovation in Proto-Germanic was the development of two separate sets of adjective endings, originally corresponding to a distinction between indefinite semantics (“a man”) and definite semantics (“the man”).

The endings of indefinite adjectives were derived from a combination of pronominal endings with one of the common vowel-stem adjective declensions: usually the “o/ā” class often termed the “a/ō” class in the specific context of the

Germanic languages, but sometimes the "i" or "u" classes. Definite adjectives, however, had endings based on *n*-stem nouns.

Originally both types of adjectives could be used by themselves, but already by Proto-Germanic times a pattern evolved whereby definite adjectives had to be accompanied by a determiner with definite semantics (a definite article, demonstrative pronoun, possessive pronoun or the like), while indefinite adjectives were used in other circumstances, either accompanied by a word with indefinite semantics such as "a", "one" or "some", or unaccompanied.

2. The Category of Case.

Case is supplanted by other means to express the relations between words in an utterance, whereas gender disappeared altogether. There were four cases: Nominative, Accusative, Dative, and Genitive. In all, there were seven groups of declensions for nouns.

In the XIX-th century, the two types of adjectives: indefinite and definite were respectively termed "strong" and "weak", names which are still commonly used. These names were based on the appearance of the two sets of endings in modern German.

In German, the distinctive case endings formerly present on nouns have largely disappeared, with the result that the load of distinguishing one case from another is almost entirely carried by determiners and adjectives.

Furthermore, due to regular sound change, the various definite ("n"-stem) adjective endings coalesced to the point where only two endings ("-e" and "-en") remain in modern German to express the 16 possible inflectional categories of the language (masculine / feminine / neuter / plural crossed with Nominative / Accusative / Dative / Genitive - modern German merges all genders in the plural).

The indefinite (“a/ō”-stem) adjective endings were less affected by sound change, with six endings remaining “-, -e, -es, -er, -em, -en”, cleverly distributed in a way that is capable of expressing the various inflectional categories without too much ambiguity.

As a result, the definite endings were thought of as too “weak” to carry inflectional meaning and in need of “strengthening” by the presence of an accompanying determiner, while the indefinite endings were viewed as “strong” enough to indicate the inflectional categories even when standing alone.

This view is enhanced by the fact that modern German largely uses weak-ending adjectives when accompanying an indefinite article, and hence the indefinite / definite distinction no longer clearly applies. By analogy, the terms “strong” and “weak” were extended to the corresponding noun classes, with a-stem and ō-stem nouns termed “strong” while n-stem nouns termed “weak”.

However, in Proto-Germanic and still in Gothic, the most conservative Germanic language, the terms “strong” and “weak” are not clearly appropriate. For one thing, there were a large number of noun declensions. The “a-stem”, “ō-stem” and “n-stem” declensions were the most common, and represented targets into which the other declensions were eventually absorbed, but this process occurred only gradually.

Originally the “n-stem” declension was not a single declension but a set of separate declensions “-an, -ōn, -īn” with related endings, and these endings were in no way any “weaker” than the endings of any other declensions. For example, among the eight possible inflectional categories of a noun: singular / plural crossed with nominative / accusative / dative / genitive, masculine “an-stem” nouns in Gothic include seven endings and feminine “ōn-stem” nouns include six endings, meaning there is very little ambiguity of “weakness” in these endings and in fact much less than in the German “strong” endings.

Although it is possible to group the various noun declensions into three basic categories: vowel-stem, “n-stem” and other-consonant-stem, “aka”, also known as “minor declensions”, the vowel-stem nouns do not display any sort of unity in their endings that supports grouping them together with each other but separate from the “n-stem” endings.

It is only in later languages that the binary distinction between “strong” and “weak” nouns becomes more relevant. In Old English, the “n-stem” nouns form a single, clear class, but the masculine a-stem and feminine “ō-stem” nouns have little in common with each other, and neither has much similarity to the small class of “u-stem” nouns.

Similarly, in Old Norse, the masculine “a-stem” and feminine “ō-stem” nouns have little in common with each other, and the continuations of the masculine “an-stem” and feminine “ōn/īn-stem” nouns are also quite distinct. It is only in Middle Dutch and modern German that the various vowel-stem nouns have merged to the point that a binary strong / weak distinction clearly applies.

3. Middle and New English Noun: Morphological Classification Categories.

Nominal inflection: the inflectional categories of the noun were case, number, and gender. Eight cases can be reconstructed: nominative, for the subject of a verb; accusative, for the direct object; genitive, for the relations expressed by English “of”; dative, corresponding to the English preposition “to”, as in “give a prize to the winner”; locative, corresponding to “at, in”; ablative, “from”; instrumental, “with”; and vocative, used for the person being addressed.

The OE noun had the grammatical category of Number and Case. The Southern dialects simplified and rearranged the noun declensions on the basis of stem and gender distinctions.

In Early Modern English they employed only four markers “-es, -en, -e”, and the root-vowel interchange - plus the bare stem (the zero- inflection), but distinguished several paradigms.

Masculine and Neuter nouns had two declensions, weak and strong, with certain differences between the genders. Masculine nouns took the ending “-es” in the Nominative, Accusative plural, while Neuter nouns had variant forms: Masculine “fishes” –Neuter “land / lande / landes”.

Most Feminine nouns belonged to the weak declensions and were declined like weak Masculine and Neuter nouns. The root-stem declention had mutated vowels in some forms and that vowel interchange was becoming a marker of number rather than case.

In the Midlands and Northern dialects the system of declension was much simplier. There was only one major type of declension and a few traces of other types. The majority of nouns took the endings of Oemasc “a-stems”: “-(e)s” in the genitive singular, “-(e)s” in the plural irrespective of case.

Most nouns distinguished two forms: the basic form with the zero ending and the form in “-(e)s”.

The OE **Gender** disappeared together with other distinctive features of the noun declensions. The grammatical category of case was preserved but underwent profound changes in Early ME. The number of cases in the noun paradigm was reduced from four to two in Late ME.

In the XIV-th century the ending “-es” of the Genitive singular had become almost universal. In the plural the Genitive case had no special marker; it was not distinguished from the common case. Several nouns with a weak plural form in “-en” or a vowel interchange as in “oxen, men”added the marker of the Genitive case to these forms.

Number is the most stable of all the nominal categories. The number preserved the formal distinction of two numbers. “-es” was the prevalent marker of nouns in the plural.

Construction. With its simplified case-ending system, Middle English is much closer to modern English than its pre-Conquest equivalent.

Nouns. Despite losing the slightly more complex system of inflectional endings, Middle English retains two separate noun-ending patterns from Old English. Compare, for example, the early Modern English words “engel” – “angel” and “nome” – “name”.

First and second pronouns survive largely unchanged, with only minor spelling variations. In the third person, the masculine accusative singular became “him”. The feminine form was replaced by a form of the demonstrative that developed into “she”, but unsteadily “ho” remains in some areas for a long time. The lack of a strong standard written form between the XI-th and the XV-th century makes these changes hard to map.

Simplification of noun morphology affected the grammatical categories of the noun in different ways and to a varying degree. The grammatical category of Case was preserved but underwent profound changes: after a voiceless consonant. For example: ME bookes [ˊbo:kəs] > [bu:ks] > [buks], NE books; after sibilants and affricates [s, z, ʃ, tʃ, dʒ] ME dishes [ˊdiʃəs] > [ˊdiʃiz], NE dishes.

The ME plural ending “-en”, used as a variant marker with some nouns lost its former productivity, so that in Standard Modern English it is found only in oxen, brethren, and children. The small group of ME nouns with homonymous forms of number have been further reduced to three exceptions in Modern English: “deer, sheep, and swine”. The group of former root-stems has survived also only as exceptions: man, tooth and the like.

4. Origin of Modern Irregular Noun Forms. Irregular Plural Nouns.

All modern irregular noun forms can be subdivided into several groups according to their origin: Noun going back to the original a-stem declension, neuter gender which had no ending in the Nominative and Accusative plural even in OE.

Nominative	Accusative
sheep	**sheep**
sceap	**sceap**
deor	**deor**

In OE the forms of these nouns were homonimous bouth in the singular and plural. Nominative and Accusative Case, some nouns of n –stem declension preserving the plural forms, for example: “ox - oxen”; in OE “oxa - oxan”.

The original s-stem declension

OE	**cild**	**cildre**
ME	**child**	**children**
NE	**child**	**children**

In ME the final vowel was neutralized (or levelled) UE and the ending “-n” added on analogy with the nouns of the original N-stem declinsion. It shows that the power of the N-stem declinsion still relatively strong, for instance: cild + s / s-zr (the result of rotasism) = cild; or “foot-feet”, “tooth-teeth”, “mouse-mice” - the result of mutation in OE.

The structure of the Oenoun consists of three elements: “the root + stem-building suffix + the ending”; Root-stem nouns never had any stem-building suffix, that’s why the ending was added on immediately to the root of the noun and caused mutation of the root-vowel, for instance: “foot fot + iz fet”.

Words borrowed in early NE from Latin. These words were borrowed by teaching people from scientific books, who used them, trying to preserve the original form, for instance: “detum – deta”. When in the course of further history these words entered the language of the whole people they tended to add regular plural endings which gave rise to such doublets, for example: “molecula, molecular, moleculas”.

As a result, newer grammatical descriptions of the Germanic languages often avoid the terms “strong” and “weak” except in conjunction with German itself, preferring instead to use the terms “indefinite” and “definite” for adjectives and to distinguish nouns by their actual stem class.

In English, both two sets of adjective endings were lost entirely in the late Middle English period. The following shows a typical masculine “a-stem” noun, Proto-Germanic “fiskaz” – “fish”, and its development in the various old literary languages. For example: declension of a-stem noun “fiskaz” – “fish” in various languages. In singular:

	Nominative	**Vocative**	**Accusative**	**Genitive**	**Dative**	**Instrumental**
Proto-Germanic	**fisk-az**	**fisk**	**fisk-ą**	**fisk-as, -is**	**fisk-ai**	**fisk-ō**
Gothic	**fisk-s**	**fisk**	**fisk**	**fisk-is**	**fisk-a**	**-**
Old Norse	**fisk-r**	**fisk-r**	**fisk**	**fisk-s**	**fisk-i**	**-**
Old High German	**visk**	**visk**	**visk**	**visk-es**	**visk-a**	**visk-u**
Middle High German	**visch**	**visch**	**visch**	**visch-es**	**visch-e**	**-**
Modern German	**fisch**	**fisch**	**fisch**	**fisch-es**	**fisch-(e)**	**-**
Old English	**fisc**	**fisc**	**fisc**	**fisc-es < fisc-æs**	**fisc-e < fisc-æ**	**fisc-e < fisc-i**
Old Saxon	**fisc**	**fisc**	**fisc**	**fisc-as, -**	**fisc-a,**	**fisc-u**

				es	**-e**	
Old Frisian	**fisk**	**fisk**	**fisk**	**fisk-is, -es**	**fisk-a, -i, -e**	**-**

Irregular Plural Nouns. Most countable nouns form the plural by adding the ending "s/es". A limited number of nouns have irregular plural forms, for example, names of some animals, and some words of Greek or Latin origin.

Irregular plural forms. Some nouns form their plural not by adding the ending "s/es", but by changing the letters in the root of the word. For instance: "man – men, woman – women, child – children, ox – oxen, mouse – mice; louse – lice, foot – feet, tooth – teeth, goose – geese". In plural:

	Nominative	**Vocative**	**Accusative**	**Genitive**	**Dative**	**Instrumental**
Proto-Germanic	**fisk-ôs, -ôz**	**fisk-ôs, -ôz**	**fisk-anz**	**fisk-ǫ̂**	**fisk-amaz**	**fisk-amiz**
Gothic	**fisk-ōs**	**fisk-ōs**	**fisk-ans**	**fisk-ē**	**fisk-am**	**-**
Old Norse	**fisk-ar**	**fisk-ar**	**fisk-a**	**fisk-a**	**fisk-um, -om**	**-**
Old High German	**visk-a**	**visk**	**visk**	**visk-ō**	**visk-um**	**-**
Middle High German	**visch-e**	**visch-e**	**visch-e**	**visch-e**	**visch-e**	**-**
Modern German	**fisch-e**	**fisch-e**	**fisch-e**	**fisch-e**	**fisch-en**	**-**
Old English	**fisc-as**	**fisc-as**	**fisc-as**	**fisc-a**	**fisc-um**	**-**
Old Saxon	**fisc-ōs, -ās**	**fisc-ōs, -ās**	**fisc-ōs, -ās**	**fisc-ō, -ā**	**fisc-un, -on**	**-**
Old Frisian	**fisk-ar, -a**	**fisk-ar, -a**	**fisk-ar, -a**	**fisk-a**	**fisk-um, -on, -em**	**-**

5. The Rise of Articles.

An article is a word (or prefix or suffix) that is used with a noun to indicate the type of reference being made by the noun. Articles specify the grammatical definiteness of the noun, in some languages extending to volume or numerical scope.

The articles in the English language are “the” and “a” / “an”, and in some contexts “some”. “An” and “a” are modern forms of the Old English “an”, which in Anglian dialects was the number “one”, compare: “on”, in Saxon dialects, and survived into Modern Scots as the number “ane”. Both “on”, respelled “one” by the Normans, and “an” survived into Modern English, with “one” used as the number and “an” (“a”, before nouns that begin with a consonant sound) as an indefinite article.

Traditionally in English, an article is usually considered to be a type of adjective. In some languages, articles are a special part of speech, which cannot easily be combined with other parts of speech. It is also possible for articles to be part of another part of speech category such as a determiner, an English part of speech category that combines articles and demonstratives, such as “this” and “that”.

In languages that employ articles, every common noun, with some exceptions, is expressed with certain definiteness (definite or indefinite), just as many languages express every noun with a certain grammatical number (singular or plural).

Every noun must be accompanied by the article, if any, corresponding to its definiteness and the lack of an article, considered a zero article, it specifies certain definiteness. This is in contrast to other adjectives and determiners, which are typically optional. This obligatory nature of articles makes them among the most

common words in many languages, in English, for example, the most frequent word is “the”.

Articles are usually characterized as either “definite” or “indefinite”. A few languages with well-developed systems of articles may distinguish additional subtypes. Within each type, languages may have various forms of each article, according to grammatical attributes such as gender, number, or case, or according to adjacent sounds.

A **definite** article indicates that its noun is a particular one (or ones) identifiable to the listener. It may be something that the speaker has already mentioned, or it may be something uniquely specified. The definite article in English, for both singular and plural nouns, is “the”. For instance: “**The children** know **the fastest way** home”. The sentence above refers to specific children and a specific way home; it contrasts with the much more general observation that: “**Children** know **the fastest way** home”.

The latter sentence refers to children in general, perhaps all or most of them. Likewise, “Give me **the book**” refers to a specific book whose identity is known or obvious to the listener; as such it has a markedly different meaning from “Give me **a book”** which does not specify what book is to be given.

The definite article can also be used in English to indicate a specific class among other classes: “**The** cabbage white butterfly lays its eggs on members of **the** Brassica genus”.

The definite article is sometimes also used with proper names, which are already specified by definition, for example: “the Amazon, the Hebrides”. In these cases, the definite article is strictly speaking superfluous. Some languages also use definite articles with personal names, for example, such use is standard in Portuguese: “a Maria”, literally: “the Maria”. It also occurs colloquially in Spanish, German and other languages, and is sometimes heard in Italian. In Hungary it is considered to be Germanism.

An **indefinite** article indicates that its noun is not a particular one (or ones) identifiable to the listener. It may be something that the speaker is mentioning for the first time, or its precise identity may be irrelevant or hypothetical, or the speaker may be making a general statement about any such thing. English uses "a" / "an", from the Old English forms of the number "one", as its primary indefinite article. The form "an" is used before words that begin with a vowel sound, even if spelled with an initial consonant, as in "an hour", and "a" before words that begin with a consonant sound, even if spelled with a vowel, as in "a European". For instance: "She had **a** house so large that **an** elephant would get lost without **a** map".

Before some words beginning with a pronounced (not silent) "h" in an unstressed first syllable, such as "hallucination, hilarious, historic / (al), horrific, horrendous", some especially older British writers prefer to use "an" over "a" (an historical event, etc.).

"An" is also preferred before "hotel" by some writers of British English, probably reflecting the relatively recent adoption of the word from French, where the "h" is not pronounced. The use of "an" before words beginning with an unstressed "h" is more common generally in British English than American. American writers normally use "a" in all these cases, although there are occasional uses of "an historic / (al)" in American English.

According to the New Oxford Dictionary of English, such use is increasingly rare in British English too. Unlike British English, American English typically uses "an" before "herb", since the "h" in this word is silent for most Americans. The correct usage in respect of the term "hereditary peer" was the subject of an amendment debated in the UK Parliament.

The word "some" is used as a functional plural of "a" / "an". "An apple" never means more than one apple. "Give me *some* apples" indicates more than one is desired but without specifying a quantity. This finds comparison in Spanish,

where the singular indefinite article “un” / “una” (“one”) is completely indistinguishable from the unit number, except where it has a plural form (“unos” / “unas”), for example: “Dame una manzana” - “Give me an apple”) > “Dame unas manzanas” (“Give me some apples”). However, some also serves as a quantifier rather than as a plural article, as in “There are some apples there, but not many”.

“Some” also serves as a singular indefinite article, as in “There is some person on the porch”. This usage differs from the usage of “a(n)” in that “some” indicates that the identity of the noun is unknown to both the listener and the speaker, while “a(n)” indicates that the identity is unknown to the listener without specifying whether or not it is known to the speaker.

Thus, “There is some person on the porch” indicates indefiniteness to both the listener and the speaker, while “There is a person on the porch” indicates indefiniteness to the listener but gives no information as to whether the speaker knows the person’s identity.

A **partitive** article is a type of indefinite article used with a mass noun such as “water”, to indicate a non-specific quantity of it. Partitive articles are used in French and Italian in addition to definite and indefinite articles. The nearest equivalent in English is “some”, although this is considered a determiner and not an article. French: “Voulez-vous **du** café? Do you want (**some**) coffee?” or dialectally but more accurately “Do you want **some of this** coffee?”

Haida has a partitive article, suffixed “-gyaa” is referring to “part of something or... to one or more objects of a given group or category”, for example: “tluugyaa uu hal tlaahlaang” – “he is making a boat” (a member of the category of boats).

A **negative** article specifies “none” of its noun, and can thus be regarded as neither definite nor indefinite. On the other hand, some consider such a word to be a simple determiner rather than an article. In English, this function is fulfilled

by “no”, which can appear before a singular or plural noun, for instance: “**No** man is an island.**No** dogs are allowed here”.

A **zero article** is the absence of an article. In languages having a definite article, the lack of an article specifically indicates that the noun is indefinite. Linguists interested in X-bar theory causally link zero articles to nouns lacking a determiner. In English, the zero article rather than the indefinite is used with plurals and mass nouns, although the word “some” can be used as an indefinite plural article, for example: “**Visitors** end up walking in **mud”**.

Articles are found in many Indo-European and Semitic languages but are absent from some large languages of the world, such as Indonesian, Japanese, Hindi and Russian.

Linguists believe the common ancestor of the Indo-European languages, Proto-Indo-European, did not have articles. Most of the languages in this family do not have definite or indefinite articles.

There is no article in Latin, Sanskrit, nor in some modern Indo-European languages, such as the families of Slavic languages, not including Bulgarian, Macedonian, which are rather distinctive among the Slavic languages in terms of grammar anyway, and Baltic languages.

Although Classical Greek has a definite article, which has survived into Modern Greek and which bears strong resemblance to the German definite article, the earlier Homeric Greek did not. Articles developed independently in several language families.

Not all languages have both definite and indefinite articles, and some languages have different types of definite and indefinite articles to distinguish finer shades of meaning, for example: French and Italian have a partitive article used for indefinite mass nouns, while Colognian has two distinct sets of definite articles indicating focus and uniqueness, and Macedonian uses definite articles in a

demonstrative sense, distinguishing "this" from "that", with an intermediate degree.

The words "this" and "that" (and their plurals, "these" and "those") can be understood in English as, ultimately, forms of the definite article "the", whose declension in Old English included "thaes", an ancestral form of "this / that" and "these / those".

In many languages, the form of the article may vary according to the gender, number, or case of its noun. In some languages the article may be the only indication of the case. Many languages do not use articles at all, and may use other ways of indicating old versus new information, such as topic-comment constructions.

Articles used in the world's most widely spoken languages

Language	Arabic	Kurdish	Greek	English	German	Spanish	Portugese	French	Italian
definite article	al- or el ال (prefix)	-eke -ekan	ο, η, το οι, οι, τα	the	der, die, das des, dem, den	el, la, lo los, las	o, a os, as	le, la, l' les	il, lo, la, l' i, gli, le
indefinite article	---	-ek -anek	ένας, μια, ένα	a, an	ein, eine, einer, eines einem, einen	un, una unos, unas	um, uma uns, umas	un, une, des	un', uno, una, un
partitive article	---	hende, birre	---	some	---	---	---	du, de, la, l', des	del, dello, della, dell' dei, degli, degl', delle

In the above examples, the article always precedes its noun, with the exception of the Arabic. In some languages, however, the definite article is not always a separate word, but may be suffixed, attached to the end of its noun as a suffix. For example,

Albanian: “plis - a white fez” – “plis**i** - the white fez”;

Bengali: “Boi - book” – “Boi**ti** / Boi**ta** / Boi**khana** - the book”;

Romanian: “drum - road” – “drum**ul** - the road”; the article is just “l”, “u” is a “connection vowel”, for instance: “vocală de legătură”;

Icelandic: “hestur - horse” – “hestur**inn** - the horse”;

Persian: “sib - apple” – “sib**e** - the apple”;

Norwegian: “stol - chair” – “stol**en** - the chair”;

Swedish: “hus - house” – “hus**et** - the house”; if there is an adjective: “**det** gamla hus**et** - the old house”;

Bulgarian: “стол - stol - chair” – “стол**ът** - stolăt - the chair (subject); “стола - stol**a** - the chair” (object);

Macedonian: “стол - stol - chair” – “стол**от** - stolot - the chair”; “стол**ов** - stolov - this chair”, “стол**он** - stolon - that chair”.

This is example of prefixed definite article:

Hebrew: ילד, transcribed as “yeled - a boy; הילד, transcribed as “ha-yeled - the boy”.

A different way, limited to the definitive article, is used by Latvian. The noun doesn’t change but the adjective can be defined or undefined: “gald**s** - a table / the table”; “balt**s** galds - a white table”; “balt**ais** galds - the white table”.

When we analyze the evolutionof the articles we must pay attention that they have developed independently in many different language families across the globe. Generally, articles develop over time usually by specialization of certain adjectives.

Joseph Greenberg in “Universals of Human Language: Word structure” describes the cycle of the definite article: Definite articles (Stage I) evolve from demonstratives, and in turn can become generic articles (Stage II) that may be used in both definite and indefinite contexts, and later merely noun markers (Stage III) that are part of nouns other than proper names and more recent borrowings. Eventually articles may evolve anew from demonstratives.

Definite articles typically arise from demonstratives meaning “that”. For example, the definite articles in the Romance languages “el, il, le, la” derive from the Latin demonstratives “ille” (masculine) and “illa” (feminine).

The English definite article “the” , written “þe” in Middle English, derives from an Old English demonstrative, which, according to gender, was written “se” (masculine), “seo” (feminine) - “þe” and “þeo” in the Northumbrian dialect, or “þæt” (neuter). The neuter form “þæt” also gave rise to the modern demonstrative “that”. The “ye” occasionally seen in pseudo-archaic usage such as “Ye Olde Englishe Tea Shoppe” is actually a form of “þe”, where the letter in the word “thorn” (þ) came to be written as a “y”.

Multiple demonstratives can give rise to multiple definite articles. Macedonian, for example, in which the articles are suffixed, has “столот - stolot - the chair”; “столов - stolov - this chair”; and “столон - stolon - that chair”.

Colognian prepositions articles such as in “dat Auto”, or “et Auto - the car”; the first being specifically selected, focussed, newly introduced, while the latter is not selected, unfocussed, already known, general, or generic.

Indefinite articles typically arise from adjectives meaning "one". For example, the indefinite articles in the Romance languages "un, una, une" derive from the Latin adjective "unus". Partitive articles, however, derive from Vulgar Latin "de illo", meaning "some" of "the".

The English indefinite article "an" is derived from the same root as "one". The "-n" came to be dropped before consonants, giving rise to the shortened form "a". The existence of both forms has led to many cases of juncture loss, for example, transforming the original "a napron" into the modern "an apron".

The Persian indefinite article is "yek" meaning one.

Thus, In Proto-Indo-European no traces of definite or indefinite articles can be found, and the majority of ancient Indo-European languages lack it either. But still the article is considered a typical "late Indo-European" feature - it started appearing already when languages of the family existed separately.

In Homer's Greek language there was no article, not in Mycenaean Greek, but all classical Greek dialects already have the definite article in wide use. Later the difinite article appears in Romance languages, though Latin did not have it at all, Celtic languages: again – Gaulish had no, but all Insular Celtic tongues generated it, in late Germanic, but not in Gothic nor in Old English, and even in several Slavic languages, those which belong to the so-called "Balkan language alliance" (Macedonian, Bulgarian).

Old English did not use the article. It appeared later, coming, as it always happen, for the demonstrative pronoun. But even in this period the texts show us the frequent use of the demonstrative pronoun before nouns in the sentence: "...he heold þæt rice" – "he held the kingdom".

I do not know why it happens and, in general, why the article appears in the language, I think it could do well without any. As for the indefinite article, it was a product of the Old English numerals.

Questions:

Characterize the Old English Noun, its grammatical categories.

Analyze strong and weak declension.

Describe the category of case of English Noun.

What do you know about Middle and New English Noun: its morphological classification categories?

Name the origin of Modern Irregular Noun forms, irregular plural nouns.

When was marked the rise of the Articles?

Which peculiarities of the definite, indefinite, partitive, negative and zero articles do you differ?

Lecture 13. Old English Verb.

1. Grammatical Categories and Morphological Classification.

2. The Origin of Modern English Irregular Verbs. Strong and Weak Verbs.

3. The Category of Tense.

4. Grammatical Categories of the English Verb: Growth of the Future Tense and Continuous Forms in English.

5. Minor Groups of Verbs in Old English.

6. Grammatical Categories of the English Verb: Growth of the Passive Voice and Perfect Forms in English Language.

7. Growth of the Interrogative and Negative Forms with "Do" in the English Language.

1. Grammatical categories and morphological classification.

In Finite Forms of the verb they were: mood (three), tense (two), number (two), person (three).

There were 3 moods: **Indicative, Imperative** and **Subjunctive**. They had approximately the same meanings which they have today with the exception of the Subjunctive Mood, which was frequently used to express a problematic action and was found in indirect speech. It was much more often than in the Present.

The OE verbs had **two tenses**: the Present and the Past. The present form was used to denote both tenses present and future (to denote Present and Future actions as in other Germanic languages).

There were **no analytical forms**, only inflexion. Futurity was shown lexically with the help of adverbial modifiers and the context. It is true that in OE there were

combinations with the verbs: “sculan” - shall, “willan” - will, but they have there own lexical meaning. They were not auxiliary verbs. From these constructions the future forms (the future tense was) were formed later.

The category of **person** was represented only in the Indicative singular and in the Imperative in OE. There was no indication of person in the Indicative plural or in the Subjunctive forms. There was one form for all persons. Three persons were distinguished only in the present tense of the Ind Mood.

The Indicative and Subjunctive had **two numbers** in both tenses. The Imperative Mood also distinguished two numbers. No dual number. At that time they were homonymous forms. In the Subjunctive Mood the past and the present plural were the same and also in the sg present and past. In the Indicative they were homonymous forms in the singular and plural: “Lōcian” – look, wv2 - weak verb class 2.

Tense. Only two tenses are distinguished by inflexion, **present** and **past,** sometimes called **preterite** in the grammars; both cover a wider range of meanings than they would in Modern English. So, “he cymeth” - present tense, could mean “he comes”, “he is coming”, or “he will come”; “he com” - past tense, could mean “he came”, “he has come”, “he was coming”, or “he had come”.

However, the periphrastic tense-forms, i.e. forms with “have”, “will”, “be”, etc., plus infinitive or participle, illustrated in the translations here are already beginning to develop in Old English.

Mood. Old English verbs, like Modern English verbs, have three moods, **indicative** (for statements and questions), **imperative** (for commands), and **subjunctive** (for wishes, hypothetical conditions, etc.).

The main point of difference here is that in Modern English we use the subjunctive mood much less frequently, and have few distinctive subjunctive

forms; OE regularly indicates the subjunctive by inflexion, and you should learn to recognise subjunctive forms.

Verbal inflection: The Proto-Indo-European verb had three **aspects**: imperfective, perfective, and stative. Aspect refers to the nature of an action as described by the speaker, for example: an event occurring once, an event recurring repeatedly, a continuing process, or a state.

The difference between English simple and "progressive" verb forms is largely one of aspect, like: "John wrote a letter yesterday", implying that he finished it; versus "John was writing a letter yesterday", describing an ongoing process, with no implication as to whether it was finished or not.

The imperfective aspect, traditionally called "present," was used for repeated actions and for ongoing processes or states, for example: stí-stH_2-(e) - "stand up more than once, be in the process of standing up", mn̥-yé –"ponder, think", H_1es –"be".

The perfective aspect, traditionally called "aorist," expressed a single, completed occurrence of an action or process, like: steH_2 – "stand up, come to a stop", men – "think of, bring to mind".

The stative aspect, traditionally called "perfect," described states of the subject, for example: ste-stóH_2 – "be in a standing position", me-món - "have in mind".

Verb roots were by themselves either perfective, like: steH_2- "stand" and men – "think" or imperfective, like: H_1es – "be". This basic aspect, however, could be reversed by morphological devices such as ablaut, suffixation, and reduplication. The stative aspect was normally marked by reduplication and the 0-grade of the root in the indicative singular; it had personal endings that were partly distinct from those of the other two aspects.

From one aspect of a given verb the shape and even the existence of the other two aspects could not be predicted; for example, H_1es – "be" had only the imperfective aspect. Ways of forming imperfectives were especially numerous and often involved, in addition to their imperfective aspectual meaning, some other notion, such as performing the action habitually or repeatedly (iterative), or causing someone else to perform it (causative). One root could thus have several imperfective stems; so to the root H_1er- "move" there were at least a causative form, H_1r̥-new – "set in motion", and an iterative form, H_1r̥-sḱḥ - "go repeatedly".

The Proto-Indo-European verb was also inflected for mood, by which speakers could indicate whether they were making statements or inquiries about matters of fact; making predictions, surmises, or wishes about the future or about unreal but imagined situations; or giving commands. Compare: English "If John is home now" (he is eating lunch) with the verb "is" in the indicative mood, discussing a matter of fact, with "If John were home now" (he would be eating lunch) with the verb "were" in the subjunctive mood, describing an unreal situation.

There were two Proto-Indo-European suffixes expressing mood: "-e-" alternating with "-o-" for the subjunctive, corresponding roughly in meaning to the English auxiliaries "shall" and "will", and -yeH_1- alternating with -iH_1- for the optative, corresponding roughly to English "should" and "would". Verbs without one of these two suffixes were marked for mood and tense by their personal endings alone.

These personal endings basically expressed the person and number of the verb's subject, as in Latin "amō" – "I love", "amās" – "you (singular) love", "amat" – "he or she loves", "amāmus" – "we love", and so on.

In the imperfective and perfective aspects there were two sets of endings, distinguishing two voices: active, in which typically the subject was not affected

by the action, and mediopassive, in which typically the subject was affected, directly or indirectly.

Thus, Sanskrit active "yájati" and mediopassive "yájate" both mean "he sacrifices", but the former is said of a priest who performs a sacrifice for the benefit of another, while the latter is said of a layman who hires a priest to perform a sacrifice. In the stative aspect there was originally no distinction of voice.

To mark mood and tense, imperfective verbs that did not have a mood suffix distinguished three subtypes of active and mediopassive endings: imperative, primary, and secondary.

Verbs with imperative endings belonged to the imperative mood, used for commands, for example: H_1s-dhí – "be" (singular), H_1és-tu – "let him be". Verbs with primary endings were marked as non-past (present or future) in tense and indicative in mood, for instance: H_1és-ti – "he is". Indicative mood signifies objective statements and questions.

Verbs with secondary endings were unmarked for tense and mood but were normally used as past indicatives, like: H_1és-t – "he was", g^whén-t – "he slew" and to fill out gaps in the imperative paradigm, for example: H_1és-te or H_1s-té – "you (plural) were", but also "be" (plural); g^whén-te or g^whn̥-té – "you (plural) slew", but also "slay" (plural). To mark such forms unambiguously as past indicatives, an augment, usually consisting of the vowel [e], could be prefixed, like: é-g^when-t – "he slew", é-H_1es-t – "he was".

Verbs in the perfective aspect without a mood suffix did not occur with primary endings and thus lacked a true present tense. Verbs in the stative aspect substituted a distinctive set of endings for those of the primary set, but apparently used the imperative and secondary endings in the usual way to form a stative imperative and a stative past indicative.

2. The Origin of Modern English irregular verbs. Strong and weak verbs.

As far as the strong verbs were a non-productive class, some **strong verbs turned into weak** with time, i.e. started to employ "-t" / "-d" suffix in their form-building, for example: "to climb, to help, to swallow, to wash", etc. Thus, in New English only 70 strong verbs out of 300 in Old English remained.

Verbal Paradigms: As in every other Germanic language, the Old English verbal system had two principle divisions: the strong verbs, whose past-tense forms were formed via vowel gradation, and the weak verbs, whose past-tense forms were built by means of a suffix.

In the Old English verbal system, moreover, there are only two tenses: past and non-past (i.e. present and future), there was no inflected passive voice (except the past passive "hatte" was called <h'tan), three moods (indicative, imperative, and subjunctive.

Verbs are inflected for person (first, second, third) and number (singular and plural) in addition to tense. Dual subjects are treated as plurals. There are two participles, a present and a past.

The majority of OE verbs fell into two **great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs**. Besides these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as "minor" groups.

The main difference between the strong and weak verbs lay in the means of forming the principal parts, or "stems" of the verb.

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of ablaut and by adding certain suffixes; in some verbs ablaut was accompanied by consonant interchanges. The strong verbs had four stems, as they distinguished two stems in the Past Tense – one for the first and third person singular Indicative Mood, the other – for the other Past tense forms, Indicative and Subjunctive the weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and the stem of Participle II from the Present tense stem with the help

of the dental suffix “-d-“ or “-t-“; normally they did not interchange their root vowel, but in some verbs suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange.

Minor groups of verbs differed from the weak and strong verbs. Some of them combined certain features of the strong and weak verbs in a peculiar way (“preterite-present” verbs); others were suppletive or altogether anomalous.

The strong verbs were subdivided into seven classes according to the **type of vowel gradation / ablaut.** The strong verbs in OE are usually divided into **seven classes.** Classes from **1 to 6** use **vowel gradation** which goes back to the **IE ablaut-series** modified in different phonetic conditions in accordance with PG and Early OE sound changes. Class **7** includes **reduplicating** verbs, which originally built their past forms by means of repeating the root-morpheme; this doubled root gave rise to a specific kind of root-vowel interchange.

The principal forms of all the strong verbs have the same endings irrespective of class: “-an” for the Infinitive, no ending in the Past singular stem, “-on” in the form of Past plural, “-en” for Participle II.

Strong verb indicate tense by a change in the quality of a vowel. They are original (German). Restrictive group of verb:

Class 1 – with a long vowel in past tense and participle [aɪ̯-i:-i:] in: “bleiben, gedeihen, leihen, meiden, reiben, scheiden, scheinen, schreiben, schreien, schweigen, speiben, speien, steigen, treiben, weisen, zeihen”, also the originally weak verb “preisen” by analogy; with a short vowel in past tense and participle [aɪ̯-ɪ-ɪ] in: “beißen, bleichen, gleichen, gleiten, greifen, keifen, leiden, pfeifen, reißen, reiten, scheißen, schleichen, schleifen, schleißen, schmeißen, schneiden, schreiten, spleißen, streichen, streiten, weichen”, also the originally weak verb “kneifen” by analogy. The verbs “leiden” and “schneiden” preserved the verner alternation: “lei**d**en - li**tt** - geli**tt**en, schnei**d**en - schni**tt** – geschni**tt**en”.

Class 2 – [u] + root = diphthong; root consonant changed (rotasism); Participle II is generalised, eliminating older [-u-]. in Old High German: with a long vowel in past tense and participle [i:-o:-o:] in: “biegen, bieten, fliegen, fliehen, frieren, klieben, schieben, stieben, verlieren, wiegen, ziehen”; the verb “ziehen” has preserved the verner alternation: “ziehen - zog – gezogen”; with a short vowel in past tense and participle [i:-ɔ-ɔ] in: “fließen, genießen, gießen, kriechen, riechen, schießen, schliefen, schließen, sieden, sprießen, triefen”; the verb “sieden” has preserved the verner alternation: “sieden - sott – gesotten”; in: “krauchen, saufen, saugen”; two anomalous verbs in modern German are “lügen” - “to tell a lie” and “trügen” – “to deceive”; this no doubt arises from a desire to disambiguate Middle High German “liegen” from “ligen” (class 5), which would have sounded the same after vowel lengthening; “trügen” would have followed in its wake, because the two words form a common rhyming collocation.

Class 3 – Participle II is generalised. The “o” of the participle has been passed by analogy to some verbs, and also to the past of some verbs of both groups: “beginnen - begann – begonnen”, “bergen - barg – geborgen” - “to rescue”, “quellen - quoll – gequollen” – “to well up”, thus, there are now five subgroups: regular [ɪ-a-ʊ] in: “binden, dingen, dringen, finden, gelingen, klingen, ringen, schinden, schlingen, schwinden, schwingen, singen, sinken, springen, stinken, trinken, winden, winken, wringen, zwingen”; with substitution of [o] in participle [ɪ-a-ɔ] in: “beginnen, gewinnen, rinnen, schwimmen, sinnen, spinnen”; with substitution of [o] in preterite and participle [ɪ-ɔ-ɔ] in: “glimmen, klimmen”; regular [ɛ-a-ɔ] in: “bergen; bersten, gelten, helfen, schelten, sterben, verderben, werben, werfen”; with substitution of [o] in preterite [ɛ-ɔ-ɔ] in: “dreschen, fechten, flechten, melken, quellen, schmelzen, schwellen, zerschellen”; irregular: “werden” generalizes Participle instead of Participle II [ɛ-ʊ-ɔ], and also suffixes [-e]; “werden, wurde, geworden”; the original Participle II singular preterite “ward” is still recognizable to Germans, but is archaic; “löschen” replaced

the vowel of the infintive with “ö” [œ-ɔ-ɔ]; “schallen” can be declined with a strong past tense in “o”.

Class 4 - Participle II is generalised, eliminating older [-u-] here also. Example: “nehmen - nahm – genommen” – “to take”: with long vowels in present tense [eː-aː-oː] in: “befehlen, gebären, stehlen”; with long vowels and substitution with o in preterite [eː-oː-oː] in: “gären, scheren, schwären, wägen, weben, bewegen”; with a long vowel in present tense and short in the participle [eː-aː-ɔ] in: “nehmen”; with short vowels in present tense and participle [ɛ-aː-ɔ] in: “brechen, schrecken, sprechen, stechen, treffen”; anomalous: “kommen” - “to come” still has the anomalous *o* in the present stem, although some dialects have regularised it to “kemmen” in: “kommen - kam - gekommen”; the preterite of “sein” – “to be” is Old High German: “was” / “wârum”, but levelled in modern German: “war” / “waren”.

Class 3, 4 – the gradation was caused by consonant (breaking).

Class 5 – is little changed from Old High German with long vowels in present tense and participle [eː,-aː,-eː] in: “geben, genesen, geschehen, lesen, sehen, treten”; with short vowels in present tense and participle [ɛ-aː-ɛ] in: “essen, fressen, messen, vergessen”; the verb “essen” - “to eat” had Past Participle “giezzan” in OHG; in MHG this became “geezzen”, which was contracted to “gezzen” and then re-prefixed to “gegezzen”; j-presents: “bitten, liegen, sitzen”.

Class 6 – qualitative-quantities ablaut is also preserved in Modern German the [uo] is monophthongised to [u]: with long vowels in present tense and participle (aː-uː-aː) in: “fahren, fragen, graben, laden, schlagen, tragen”; with short vowels in present tense and participle [a-uː-a] in: “backen, schaffen, wachsen, waschen”; “backen” and “fragen” are usually weak nowadays; the j-presents “heben, schwören” have taken an [o] in the preterite and participle, perhaps by analogy with class 2: “heben hob gehoben”; the verb “schwören” has changed [e] to [ö]; the past tense and participle of “stehen” – “stand” -

older “stund”- “gestanden”, which derive from a lost verb “standen”, also belong to this class.

Class 7 – reduplication of the root-morpheme, the various past tense vowels have merged into a single uniform [-ie-]. Two verbs have back-formed new present stems from the past stem, and have eliminated “grammatischer Wechsel” and shortened the vowel in the past tense: “fangen - fing - gefangen” – “to catch”, “hängen - hing - gehangen” – “to hang”; in modern German are: “blasen, braten, fallen, halten, hauen, heißen, lassen, laufen, raten, rufen, schlafen, stoßen”; anomalous: “fangen, hängen”; the past tense and participle of German “gehen – ging – gegangen”, derive from a lost verb “gangen”, which belongs to this class; the verb still exists in other languages, such as the verb “gang” used in Scotland and northern England; with a strong participle only: “mahlen, salzen, spalten”.

They use form of conjugation known as ablaut. And this form of conjugation the stem of the word change to indicate the tense.

Strong Verbs and their Development

The classes that survived best through different periods of the history were classes 1, 3, 6:

Class 1	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Plural	Participle 2
OE	wrītan	wrāt	writon	writen
ME	writen	wrot	writen	writen
NE	write	wrote	---	written
Class 3	Infinitive	Past Sg	Past Pl	Participle 2
OE	findan	fand	fundon	funden
ME	finden	fand	founden	founden
NE	find	found	---	found
Class 6	Infinitive	Past Sg	Past Pl	Participle 2
OE	scacan	scoc	scōcon	scacen
ME	shaken	shook	shoken	shaken
NE	shake	shook	---	shaken

Analysing the table above, we can see that the following changes occurred:

In Modern English the inflections "-an, -on, -en" were all reduced to just one inflection → "-en".

In NE the ending "-n" was lost in the Infinitive and preserved in the Participle II in order to distinguish these two forms.

In NE Past Singular and Past Plural forms were unified, usually with the Singular form preferred as a unified form because Past Plural and Participle II often had similar forms and it was hard to distinguish them, for example: ME "writen" (Past PI) – "writen" (Part. II))→ the category of Number disappeared in the Verb.

In Modern English the subdivision into classes was lost though we still can trace some peculiarities of this or that class in the forms of the irregular verbs.

As in Modern English, verbs may be "strong", forming their past tense by vowel-change or "weak", forming their past tense by adding "-d"; but in Old English the proportion of strong verbs is higher. You should concentrate particularly on the endings of these forms.

Strong verbs. Verbs are known as "strong" that form their preterite tenses by means of a change in the stem-vowel, i.e. by "ablaut". Many of these changes still exist in modern English, reflected in verbs such as "sing" (past tense "sang", past participle "sung").

There are seven classes of strong verb in Old English, denoted on Wiktionary with Roman numerals. Each class has a different ablaut-series, though confusingly, there are three types of Class III.

Class I **ī · ā · i · i** eg scīnan, 1st pretscān, pret pl scinon, past ppl scinen

Class II **ēo · ēa · u · o** eg ċēosan, 1st pretċēas, pret plcuron, past ppl coren

Class III

III a: **i · a · u · u** eg bindan, 1st pretband, pret pl bundon, past ppl bunden

III b: **e/eo · ea · u · o** eg helpan, 1st pret healp, pret pl hulpon, past ppl holpen

III c: **e · æ · u · o** eg bregdan, 1st pret brægd, pret pl brugdon, past ppl brogden

Class IV **e · æ · ǣ · o** eg beran, 1st pretbær, pret pl bǣron, past ppl boren

Class V **e · æ · ǣ · e** eg cweþan, 1st pretcwæþ, pret pl cwǣdon, past ppl cweden

Class VI **a · ō · ō · a** eg standan, 1st pretstōd, pret pl stōdon, past ppl standen

Class VII **ea · ēo · ēo · ea** eg healdan, 1st pret hēold, pret pl hēoldon, past ppl healden.

Weak verbs are more predictable. They form their preterite tense by adding "-de" in the singular and "-don" in the plural. This is the root of the common English past-tense suffix "-ed". Weak verbs are often formed from nouns, or are in general "newer" words.

There are three classes of weak verb, denoted on Wiktionary with Arabic numerals.

Class 1 are weak verbs have an infinitive ending in "-an" or "-rian". 3-rd person singular present ends in "-eþ", and present plural ends in "-aþ".

Class 2 are weak verbs have an infinitive ending in "-ian", except "-rian". Their 3-rd person present singular ending is "-aþ", like Class 1 plurals. Class 2 present plurals end in "-iaþ".

Class 3 are weak verbs are more unpredictable, and often combine features of the first two weak classes. There are four Class 3 verbs: "habban, libban, secgan, hycgan".

"Weak" Verb classes: In contrast to the strong verbs and their ablaut, the weak verbs are primarily identified by the fact that they form the past tense by means of a suffix. The weak verbs, however, are further divided into three classes, depending on the relation ship between the infinitive and the past tense forms.

In Weak Class I, the infinitive ends in either “-an” or “-ian”, and always has an umlauted stem vowel, and the preterite suffix is either “-ed” or “-d-“.

Weak Class II verbs, on the other hand, have infinitives which always end in “-ian”, but do not have umlauted stem vowels, and the preterite suffix is always “-od-“.

The third class of weak verbs contains only four verbs: “habban” – “to have”, “libban” – “to live”, “secgan” – “to say”, and “hycgan” – “to think”.

The verb “to be” in Old English. Among all the anomolous verbs in OE, the most necessary, and most anomolous is “to be”, owing to the fact that it reflects three different PIE roots: “es” – “to be”, “bh” – “to become”, and “wes” – “to remain, dwell”. The forms from “es” and the forms from “bh” are distinguished from one another in that the “b” forms can have a sense of futurity to them.

Weak verbs are relatively stronger than strong verbs. They reflect a later stage in the development of the Germanic languages. There were open classes in OE as new verbs that entered the language generally formed their forms on analogie with the weak verbs. Whereas, the strong verbs used vowel interchange as means of differentiation among the principal verb tense, the weak verbs used for that purpose suffixation: suffixes “-t”, “-d” in words: “cēpan, cepte, cept”.

The weak verbs had a stem-forming suffix that followed the root and the grammatical endings. In accordance of the character of the stem-suffix the weak verbs are classified into three classes:

The stem suffix “i”, the class includes many words from other nouns, adjectives and verbs. All of them have a front- root vowel – the result of the palatal mutation due to the “i” element of the stem suffix, like: “dōn-deman”; “ful-fyllan”. In the cause of time this palatal suffix was lost. It was preserved only in some participles in the form of “e”, like: “dēman, demd, demed”. The stem-suffix “oi”. The “o” element of the suffix is preserved in the past tense and in the Participle II.

The root vowel of this class remained unchanged because of thr preceding ō (“lufo-ian”) in all forms. Only three verbs: “habban” – “have”; “libban” – “live”; “seezan” – “say”.

The main differences between the classes were as follows: in class I the Infinitive ended in “-an”, seldom “-ian”; the Past form had “-de”, “-ede” or “-te”; Participle II was marked by “- d”, “-ed” or “-t”.

Some verbs of **Class I** had a double consonant in the infinitive; others had a vowel interchange in the root, used together with suffixation.

The verbs of Class I, being i-stems, originally contained the element [-i] / [j] between the root and the endings. This caused palatal mutation of the root-vowel, and the lengthening of consonants.

In the Past tense the suffix “-i-” was weakened to “-e-” after a short root-syllable; if the preceding consonant was voiceless the dental suffix was devoiced to [t]. If the root ended in [t] or [d] with a preceding consonant the dental suffix could merge with the [t], [d] of the root and some forms of the Past and Present tense became homonymous. Participle II of most verbs preserved “-e-” before the dental suffix, though in some groups it was lost.

Class II had no subdivisions. In Class II the infinitive ended in “-ian” and the Past tense stem and Participle II had [o] before the dental suffix. This was the most numerous and regular of all the classes.

The verbs of Class II were built with the help of the stem-suffix “-ō”, or “-ōj” and are known as ō-stems. The Infinitives of all the verbs of Class II ended in “-ian”, but the root-vowel was not affected because at the time of palatal mutation, the verbs preserved the full stem-suffix “-ōj-” and the long [o:] protected the root-vowel from assimilation.

The verbs of **Class III** had an Infinitive in "-an" and no vowel before the dental suffix; it included only four verbs with a full conjugation and a few isolated forms of other verbs.

Class III was made up of a few survivals of the PG third and fourth classes of weak verbs, mostly "æj-stems". The doubling of the consonants in the Infinitive and the mutated vowels are accounted for by the presence of the element [-i] / [-j-] in some forms in Early OE.

Genetically, the division into classes goes back to the differences between the derivational stem-suffixes used to build the verbs or the nominal stems from which they were derived.

Weak verbs in OE

Principal forms **Classes**	**Infinitive**	**Past Tense**	**Participle II**	**NE**
I	**-an/-ian** **tellan**	**-de/-ede/-te** **tealde**	**-ed/-d/-t**	**tell**
II	**-ian** **lōcian**	**-ode** **lōcode**	**-od** **lōcod**	**look**
III	**-an** **libban**	**-de** **lifde**	**-d** **lifd**	**live**

3. The category of Tense.

The time of speaking is designated as present time and is the starting point for the whole scale of time measuring. The time that follows the time of speaking is designated as future time; the time that precedes the time of speaking is designated as past time. Accordingly there are three tenses in English - **the present tense,**

the future tense and the **past tense,** which refer actions to present, future or past time.

Besides these three tenses there is one tense in English, the so-called **future in the past**. The peculiarity of this tense lies in the fact that the future is looked upon not from the point of view of the moment of speaking (the present), but from the point of view of some moment in the past.

Each tense is represented by four verb forms involving such categories as aspect and perfect. Thus, there are four present tense forms: the present indefinite, the present continuous, the present perfect, the present perfect continuous; four past tense forms: the past indefinite, the past continuous, the past perfect and the past perfect continuous; four future tense forms: the future indefinite, the future continuous, the future perfect and the future perfect continuous; and four future in the past tense forms: the future in the past indefinite, the future in the past continuous, the future in the past perfect, the future in the past perfect continuous.

In the OE language there was no form of the future tense. The category of tense consisted of two members: past and present. The present tense could indicate both present and future actions, depending on the context. Alongside this form there existed other ways of presenting future happenings: modal phrases and the infinitive of the notional verb. In these phrases the meaning of futurity was combined with strong modal meanings of volition, obligation and possibility.

4. Grammatical categories of the English verb: growth of the future tense and continuous forms in English.

In Middle English the use of modal phrases, especially with the verb shall, became increasingly common. “Shall + infinitive” was now the principal means of indicating future actions in any context. One of the early instances of shall with a weakened modal meaning is found in the early Middle English poem “Ormulum” (1200, biblical exegesis, written by a monk named Orm).

In late ME texts shall was used both as a modal verb and as a future tense auxiliary, though discrimination between them is not always possible. In the age of Shakespeare the phrases with shall and will, as well as the present tense of notional verbs occurred in free variation; they can express “pure” futurity and add different shades of modal meanings.

The development of aspect is linked up with the growth of the continuous forms. In the OE verb system there was no category of aspect; verbal prefixes especially “ȝe-“, which could express an aspective meaning of perfectivity in the opinion of most scholars, were primarily word-building prefixes. The growth of continuous forms was slow and uneven.

Verb phrases consisting of “bēon” - NE “be” + Participle I are not infrequently found in OE prose. They denoted a quality, or a lasting state, characterizing the person or thing indicated by the subject of the sentence.

In early ME ben + Participle I fell into disuse; it occurs occasionally in some dialectal areas.

In the XV-th and XVI-th centuries “be” + Participle I was often confused with a synonymous phrase – “be” + the preposition “on” + a verbal noun.

It was not until the XVIII-th century that the continuous forms acquired a specific meaning of their own; to use modern definitions, that of incomplete concrete process of limited duration. Only at the stage the continuous and non-continuous made up a new grammatical category of aspect.

5. Minor groups of verbs in Old English.

Among them the most important group: Preterite – present verbs. Originally the Present Tense forms of these verbs were Past tense forms. Later these forms acquired a present meaning but preserved many formal features of the Past tense.

Most of these verbs had new Past tense forms built with the help of the dental suffix. Some of them also acquired the forms of the verbals: Participles and infinitives. Most verbs didn't have a full paradigm and were in this sense "defective".

The verbs were inflected in the Present like the Past tense of strong verbs: the forms of the first and third person sing. Unlike strong verbs had the same root-vowel in all the persons; the plural had a different grade of ablaut similarly with strong verbs. In the Past the preterite-presents were inflected like weak verbs: the dentak suffix + the endings "-e, -est, -e".

In OE there were twelve preterite-present verbs. Six of them have survived in Modern English, such as: "cunnun, sceal, mazan: ought, may, must". Most of the Preterite-presents did not indicate actions, but expressed a kind of attitude to an action, denoted by another verb-an infinitive which followed the preterit-present. They were used like modal verbs and eventually developed into modern modal verbs.

Among the verbs of the minor groups: anomalous verbs with irregular forms, like: "willan" – the meaning of volition and desire, indicated an attitude to an action and was often followed by an infinitive. Two OE verbs were suppletive, such as: "zān", "bēon" = "be".

6. Grammatical categories of the English verb: growth of the passive voice and perfect forms in English language.

In OE the finite verb had no category of voice. The analytical passive forms developed from OE verb phrases consisting of OE "bēon" (NE "be") and "weorðan" – "become" and Participle II of transitive verbs.

OE "bēon" was used as a link-verb with a predicative expressed by Participle II to denote a state resulting from a preveous action, while the

construction with OE “weorðan” - “become” indicated the transition into the state expressed by the Participle. The Participle in OE agreed with the subject in number and gender.

In ME “ben” + Past Participle developed into an analytical form. Now it could express not only a state but also an action. The new passive forms had a regular means of indicating the doer of the action or the instrument with the help of which it was performed.

Late Modern English saw the appearance of new types of passive constructions. Passive forms began to be built from intransitive verbs associated with different kinds of objects. The passive voice continued to spread to new parts the verb paradigm: the gerund and the continuous forms.

The perfect forms have developed from OE verb phrases.

The main source of the perfect form was the OE “possessive” construction, consisting of the verb habban (NE “have”), a direct object and Participle II of a transitive verb, which served as an attribute to the object. The Participle agreed with the noun-object in number, gender, case.

Originally the verb “habban” was used only with Participles of transitive verbs; than it came to be used with verbs taking genitival, dativa l and prepositional objects and even with intransitive verbs, which shows that it was developing into a kind of auxiliary.

Towards ME the two verb phrases turned into analytical forms and made up a single set of forms termed “perfect”. The Participles had lost their forms of agreement with the noun. The Participle usually stood close to the verb have and was followed by the object which referred now to the analytical form as a whole – instead of being governed by have.

In the perfect form from the auxiliary have had lost the meaning of possession and was used with all kinds of verbs, without restrictions.

By the age of the Literary Renaissance the perfect forms had spread to all the parts of the verb system, so that ultimately the category of time correlation became the most universal of verbal categories.

The infinitive of verbs ended in "-an". In the present tense, all verbs had markers for number and person. The weak past tense added "-de", while the strong past tense usually involved a vowel change. Old English also had many more strong verbs than modern English.

Characteristics of Middle English: verb infinitives dropped the "-an" ending, and used "to" before the verb to signify the infinitival form. The third person singular and plural was marked with "-(e)th"; but the singular also competed with "-(e)s" from the Northern dialect. More strong (irregular) verbs became weak (regular) as well.

7. Growth of the interrogative and negative forms with "do" in the English language.

The early NE period witnessed the development of a new set of analytical forms, which entered the paradigms of the present and past tense of the indicative mood: interrogative and negative forms with the auxiliary verb "do".

It first the "do" – periphrasis was more frequent in poetry, which may be attributed to the requirements of the rhythm. Then it spread to all kinds of texts. In the XVI-th and XVII-th centuries the periphrasis with "do" was used in all types of sentences – negative, affirmative and interrogative.

The growth of new interrogative and negative forms with do be accounted for by syntactic conditions. By that time the word order in the sentence had become fixed: the predicate of the sentence normally followed the subject. The use of "do" made it possible to adhere to this order in questions, for at least the notional part of the predicate could thus preserve its position after the subject.

Likewise, the place of negative particle not in negative sentences with modal phrases and analytical forms set up a pattern for the similar use of not with the do-periphrasis.

In the XVIII-th century the periphrasis with the do as an equivalent for the simple form in affirmative statements falls into disuse.

Questions:

Characterize the Old English verb, its grammatical categories and morphological classification.

Describe the origin of Modern English irregular verbs; strong and weak verbs.

What do you know about the grammatical categories of the English verb: growth of the future tense and continuous forms in English?

Analyze minor groups of verbs in Old English.

When was marked the growth of the passive voice and perfect forms in English language?

Name the grammatical categories of the English verb.

Mark the growth of the interrogative and negative forms with “do” in the English language.

Lecture 14. Old English Pronouns and Their Evolution.

1. Old English First, Second, Third Person Personal Pronouns.

2. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative Pronouns.

Old English Pronouns fell roughly under the same main classes as modern pronouns: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, definite and indefinite.

Demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns were inflected like adjectives, with some special endings. Personal pronouns were inflected very differently.

They lacked the category of gender, and they marked number and case (in part) not by endings but by different stems, as is still seen in English singular nominative “I,” but oblique “my,” “me”; plural nominative “we,” but plural oblique “our,” “us.” The oblique is any case other than nominative or vocative.

Old English Pronouns were the only part of speech in Old English which preserved the dual number in declension, but only this makes them more archaic than the rest parts of speech. Most of pronouns are declined in number; case and gender, in plural the majority have only one form for all genders.

Through the last 1500 years “mín” became “mine, gé” turned into “you”, “ye” as a colloquial variant. But changes are still significant: the second person singular pronouns disappeared from the language, remaining only in poetic speech and in some dialects in the north of England.

This is really a strange feature - I can hardly recall any other Indo-European language, which lacks the special pronoun for the second person singular, for example: French “tu”, German “du”, Russian “ty” – “ты”, etc.

Don’t they look much like Modern English ones?

1-st person	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	ic, íc	wé	wit
G	mín	úre	uncer
D	mé	ús	unc
A	mec, mé	úsic, ús	uncit, unc
2-nd person	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	þú	gé	git
G	þín	éower	incer
D	þé	éow	inc
A	þéc, þé	éowic, éow	incit, inc
3-rd person	Singular	Plural	Dual
N	hé (masc.), héo (fem.), hit (neut.)	híe (masc., neut.), héo (fem.)	---
G	his, hire, his	hiera, heora	---
D	him, hire, him	him	---
A	hine, híe, hit	híe, héo	---

The polite form replaced the colloquial one, maybe due to the English traditional “ladies and gentlemen” customs. Another extreme exists in Irish Gaelic, which has no polite form of personal pronoun, and you turn to your close friend the same way as you spoke with a prime minister - the familiar word, translated into French as “tu”. It can sound normal for English, but really funny for Slavic, Baltic, German people who make a thorough distinction between speaking to a friend and to a stranger.

The word “she” was “héo” in Old English. The word “she” probably comes from the feminine demonstrative pronoun “séo”, which derives from the Common Germanic “sjó”. But the exact origin of this simple word is unknown, and there is even a version that it came from Celtic languages, as Irish “sí” - [shee] or from Scandinavian.

1. Old English first, second, third person Personal Pronouns.

Personal: Old English Personal Pronouns had three persons, three numbers (singular, dual, plural) in the first and second persons, three genders (masculine,

feminine, neutral) in the third person. The pronouns of the first and second persons had suppletive forms; the pronouns of the third person had many affinities with the demonstrative pronouns, like: “ic, wē, wit”.

In OE personal pronouns began to lose some of their case distinctions: the forms of the Dative case were frequently used instead of the Accusative case: in fact the fusion of these two cases in the plural was completed in the West Saxon dialect already in Early OE: Accusative case “ēowic” and “ūsic” were replaced by Dative case “ēow” and “ūs”. In the singular, usage was variable but variant forms revealed the same tendency to generalize the form of the Dative case for both cases.

The Genitive Case of personal pronouns had two main applications: like other oblique cases of noun-pronouns it could be an object, but far more frequently it was used as an attribute or a noun determiner, for example: “sunu mīn”, NE “my son”; “his fæder” – “his father”.

The grammatical characteristics of the forms of the Genitive case that were employed as possessive pronouns were not homogeneous.

The forms of the first and second persons: “mīn, ūre” and others were declined like adjectives to show agreement with the nouns they modified, while the forms of the third person behaved like nouns: they remained uninflected and didn’t agree with the nouns they modified.

First person	**Case**	**singular**	**dual**	**plural**
	Nominative	**Ic**	**wit**	**wē**
	Genitive	**Mīn**	**uncer**	**ūre, ūser**
	Dative	**mē**	**unc**	**ūs**
	Accusative	**Mec, mē**	**uncit**	**ūsic, ūs**

Second person	**Nominative**	**ƕū**	**zit**	**zē**
	Genitive	**ƕīn**	**incer**	**ēower**
	Dative	**ƕē**	**inc**	**ēow**
	Accusative	**ƕēc, ƕē**	**incit, inc**	**ēowic, ēow**
Third person	**Nominative**	**hē**	**hēo, hīo hit**	**hīe, hī, hȳ, hēo**
	Genitive	**his**	**hire, hiere his**	**hira, heora, hiera**
	Dative	**him**	**hire, hiere him**	**him, heom**
	Accusative	**hine**	**hū, hī, hȳ hit**	**hū, hī, hȳ**

First person personal pronouns

Number	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Singular	**Nominative**	**iċ**	**I / ich / ik**	**I**
	Accusative	**mē / meċ**	**me**	**me**
	Dative	**mē**		
	Genitive	**mīn**	**min / mi**	**my, mine**
Plural	**Nominative**	**wē**	**we**	**we**
	Accusative	**ūs / ūsiċ**	**us**	**us**
	Dative	**ūs**	**us**	**us**
	Genitive	**ūser / ūre**	**ure / our**	**our, ours**

Old English also had a separate dual, “wit” - “we two”, etc.; however, no later forms derive from it.

Second person personal pronouns

Note that the “ye / you” distinction still existed, at least optionally, in Early Modern English: “Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free” from the “King James Bible”. Here the letter “þ” (interchangeable with “ð” in manuscripts) corresponds to “th”.

Old and Middle English singular to the Modern English archaic informal

Number	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Singular	**Nominative**	**iċ** **þū**	**I / ich / ik** **þu / thou**	**I** **Thou (you)**
	Accusative	**mē / meċ** **þē / þeċ**	**me** **þé / thee**	**me**
	Dative	**mē** **þē**	**me** **þé / thee**	**me** **thee (you)**
	Genitive	**mīn** **þīn**	**min / mi** **þi / þīn / þīne / thy /thin / thine**	**my, mine** **thy, thine (your)**
Plural	**Nominative**	**wē** **ġē**	**we** **ye / ȝe / you**	**we** **---**
	Accusative	**ūs / ūsiċ** **ēow / ēowiċ**	**us** **you, ya**	**us** **you**

	Dative	**ūs** **ēow**	**us**	**us**
	Genitive	**ūser / ūre** **ēower**	**ure / our** **your**	**our, ours** **your, yours**

2. Demonstrative, Indefinite and Interrogative pronouns.

There were **two demonstrative pronouns** in OE: the prototype of NE "That" which destinguished three genders in the singular and "ahd" one form for all the genders in the plural and the prototype of "This" with the same subdivisions: "ħes" (masculine), "ħēos" (feminine), "ħis" (neuter), "ħās" (plural).

They were declined like adjectives accordimg to a five-case system. Also, they were very important, as they were frequently used as noun determiners and through agreement with the noun, indicated its number, gender and case, for example: "on ħæm lande" – "on that land", "tō ħære heorde" – "to that herd".

Demonstrative pronouns, but the pronoun "I" means the instrumental case.

Case **Gender** **Number**

"se" - that	**Masculine**	**Feminine**	**Neuter**	**Plural**
N	**sé**	**séo**	**þæt**	**þá**
G	**þæs**	**þæ're**	**þæs**	**þára**
D	**þæ'm**	**þæ're**	**þæ'm**	**þám**
A	**þone**	**þá**	**þæt**	**þá**
I	**þý, þon**	**-**	**þý, þon**	**-**
"þes" – "this"	**Masculine**	**Feminine**	**Neuter**	**Plural**
N	**þes**	**þéos, þíos**	**þis**	**þás**
G	**þisses**	**þisse**	**þisses**	**þissa**
D	**þissum, þeossum**	**þisse**	**þissum**	**þissum**
A	**þisne, þysne**	**þás**	**þis**	**þás**
I	**þis, þys**	**-**	**þýs, þis**	**-**

Both demonstrative pronouns come from the same two Proto-Indo-European stems: “so-” / “sa-” and “to-”. Originally, in Indo-European languages there was a three-grade system of demonstrative pronouns, namely “this, next to me”, “this, next to you”, and “that, far from both of us”. But, as well as many branches of the family, Germanic languages left only two of them, simplifying the structure to just “this” and “that”.

All indirect case forms of the pronouns above begin with “þ-” [th]. It traces back to the Indo-European “t-” which became “þ” in Germanic.

Indefinite pronouns were a numerous class embracing several simple pronouns and a large number of compounds: “ān” and its derivative “æniz” (NE “one, any”); “nān” made up of “ān” and the negative particle “ne” (NE “none”); “nānþinz”, made up of the preceding and the noun “þing” (NE “nothing”); “nāwiht \ nōwiht \ nōht” (NE “not”); “hwæt-hwuzu” (“something”), etc.

Interrogative pronouns were: “hwā” (masculine, feminine) and “hwæt” (neuter) had a four-case Paradigm (NE who, what). The Instrumental case of hwæt was used as a separate interrogative word “hwỹ” (NE “why”). Some interrogative pronouns were used as adjective pronouns, for example: “hwelc, hwæþer”.

N	**hwá**	**hwæt**
G	**hwæs**	**hwæs**
D	**hwæ'm**	**hwæ'm**
A	**hwone**	**hwæt**
I	**---**	**hwý, hwí**

Translation is simple. For those who have not guessed yet, “hwá” means “who?”, “hwæt” is “what?” These pronouns, which actually mean the masculine and the neuter varieties of the same pronoun, derive from Proto-Indo-European “kwis”, with “kw” becoming “hw” in Germanic languages. In Gothic the combination “hw” was considered as one sound, which is another proof that the

Indo-European the labiovelar sound “kw” was a single sound with some specific articulation.

Later Germanic languages changed the sound in a different way: in Norwegian it remained as “hv”, in German turned into “w”, as in “wer” – “who”, “was” – “what”, in English finally changed into “wh” pronounced in most cases [w], but somewhere also like [h] or [hw].

Interesting that the instrumental case of the word “hwæt”, once being a pronoun form, later became the word “why” in English, so “why?” is originally an instrumental case of the interrogative pronoun?

Other interrogative pronouns, or adverbs, as they are sometimes called, include the following, all beginning with “hw”: “hwilc” - “which?” - is declined as the strong adjective; “hwonne” - “when?” - “this” and following are not declined, naturally; “hwæ'r” - “where?”; “hwider” - “whither?”; “hwonan” - “whence?”.

Old English Interrogative Pronouns are “who”and “whom”, “he” and “him”, “she” and “her”, etc. are a conflation of the old accusative and dative cases, as well as of the genitive case after prepositions.

This conflated form is called the Oblique case, or the object (objective) case because it is used for objects of verbs (direct, indirect, or oblique) as well as for objects of prepositions. The information formerly conveyed by having distinct case forms is now mostly provided by prepositions and word order.

In Old English as well as modern German and Icelandic as further examples, these cases had distinct forms. Although the traditional terms “accusative” and “dative” continue to be used by some grammarians, these are roles rather than actual cases in Modern English.

That is, the form “whom” may play accusative or dative roles (or instrumental or prepositional roles), but it is a single morphological form and therefore a single case, contrasting with nominative “who” and genitive “whose”.

Many grammarians use the more intuitive labels “subjective”, “objective”, and “possessive” for nominative, oblique, and genitive pronouns.

Modern English nouns distinguish only one case from the Nominative, the Possessive case, which some linguists argue is not a case at all, but a clitic.

Interrogative pronouns

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Masculine / Feminine (Person)	**Nominative**	**hwā**	**who**	**who**
	Accusative	**hwone / hwæne**	**whom**	**who / whom**
	Dative	**hwām / hwǣm**	**---**	**In some dialects “who” is used where Formal English only allows “whom”, though variation among dialects must be taken into account.**
	Instrumental	**---**	**---**	**---**
	Genitive	**hwæs**	**whos**	**whose**
Neuter (Thing)	**Nominative**	**hwæt**	**what**	**what**
	Accusative	**hwæt**	**what / whom**	**---**
	Dative	**hwām / hwǣm**	**what / whom**	**---**
	Instrumental	**hwȳ / hwon**	**why**	**why**
	Genitive	**hwæs**	**whos**	**whose** **Usually replaced by “of what” (postpositioned).**

Formal and informal forms of the second person singular and plural

	Old English		Middle English		Modern English	
Case	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
Nominative	**þū**	**ġē**	**thou**	**ye**	**---**	**---**
Accusative	**þē / þeċ**	**ēow / ēowiċ**	**you**	**you**	**you**	**---**
Dative	**þē**	**ēow**	**you**	**you**	**---**	**---**
Genitive	**þīn**	**ēower**	**your, yours**	**your, yours**	**your, yours**	**---**

Modern English nouns distinguish only one case from the Nominative, the Possessive case, which some linguists argue is not a case at all, but a clitic.

Old English also had a separate dual, “ȝit” - “ye two”, and etcetera; however, no later forms derive from it.

Third person personal pronouns

	Case	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
Masculine Singular	**Nominative**	**hē**	**He**	**he**
	Accusative	**hine**	**Him**	**him**
	Dative	**him**	**---**	**---**
	Genitive	**his**	**His**	**his**
Feminine Singular	**Nominative**	**hēo**	**heo / sche / ho / he / ȝho**	**she**
	Accusative	**hīe**	**hire / hure / her / heore**	**her**

	Dative	**hire**	**---**	**---**
	Genitive	**hire**	**hir / hire / heore / her / here**	**her, hers**
Neuter Singular	**Nominative**	**hit**	**hit / it**	**it**
	Accusative	**hit**	**hit / it / him**	
	Dative	**him**	**---**	**---**
	Genitive	**his**	**his / its**	**its**
Neuter Plural	**Nominative**	**hīe**	**he / hi / ho / hie / þai / þei**	**they**
	Accusative	**hīe**	**hem / ham / heom / þaim / þem / þam**	**them**
	Dative	**him**	**---**	**---**
	Genitive	**hira**	**here / heore / hore / þair / þar**	**their, theirs**

The origin of the modern forms is generally thought to have been a borrowing from Old Norse forms “þæir, þæim, þæira”. The two different roots co-existed for some time, although currently the only common remnant is the shortened form “em”.

In Middle English the dual number disappeared in the pronouns, and the dative and accusative became the object forms of the pronouns. The third person plural pronouns replaced the old pronouns with “th-” words (they, them, their) borrowed from Scandinavian. She started being used for the feminine singular

subject pronoun and “you” (plural form) were used in the singular as a status marker for the formal.

There are other kinds of pronouns. They include definite, indefinite, negative and relative, all typical for Indo-European languages. All of them still exist in Modern English, and all of them are given here:

a) Definite: “gehwá” - (every) - declined the same way as “hwa”; “gehwilc” - (each); “ægþer” - (either); “æ’lc” - (each); “swilc” - (such) – all declined like strong adjectives; “sé ylca” - (the same) - declined like a weak adjective;

b) Indefinite: “sum” - (some); “æ'nig” - (any) - both behave the same way as strong adjectives;

c) Negative: “nán, næ'nig” - (no, none) - declined like strong adjectives;

d) Relative: “þe” - (which, that); “séþe” - (which, that) - they are not declined.

In Proto-Indo-European and in many ancient Indo-European languages there was a special kind of declension calleed pronominal, using only by pronouns and opposed to the one used by nouns, adjectives and numerals.

Old English lost it, and its pronouns use all the same endings as the nouns and adjectives. Maybe the only inflection which remembers the Proto-language times is the neuter nominative –“t” in “hwæt” and “þæt”, the ancient ending for inanimate (inactive) nouns and pronouns.

Questions:

Characterize the Old English Pronouns and their Evolution.

Mark the development of the Old English first, second, third person Personal Pronouns.

Describe the origin of the Old demonstrative, indefinite and interrogative pronouns.

What do you know about the Old English Numeral?

Lecture 15. The Old English Adjective, Adverb, Numeral.

1. The Old English Adjective.

2. The Old English Adverb.

3. The Old English Numeral.

1. The Old English Adjective.

In all historical Indo-European languages adjectives possess practically the same morphological features as the nouns, the the sequence of these two parts of speech is an ordinary thing in Indo-European.

However, the Nostratic theory: the one which unites Altaic, Uralic, Semitic, Dravidian and Indo-European language families into one Nostratic super-family, once speaking a common Proto-Nostratic language, represented by ***V.M.Illych-Svitych*** and many other famous linguists, states that adjectives in this Proto-Nostratic tongue were morphologically closer to the verbs than to the nouns.

This theory is quite interesting, because even in Proto-Indo-European, a language which was spoken much later than Proto-Nostratic, there are some proofs of the former predicative function of the adjectives.

In other families of the super-family this function is even clearer. In Altaic languages, and also in Korean and Japanese, which are originally Altaic, the adjective plays the part of the predicate, and in Korean, for example, the majority of adjectives are predicative. It means that though they always denote the quality of the noun, they act the same way as verbs which denote action.

Adjectives were noun like words that varied in gender according to the gender of another noun with which they were in agreement, or, if used by themselves, according to the sex of the entity to which they referred; thus, Latin “bonus sermō” – “good speech” (masculine), “bona aetās” – “good age”

(feminine), “bonum cor” – “good heart” (neuter), or “bonus” – “a good man”, “bona” – “a good woman”, “bonum” – “a good thing”. The neuter of an adjective was often identical with the masculine except for having different endings in the nominative and accusative cases. Feminine gender was either completely identical with the masculine or derived from it by means of a suffix, the two commonest being -eH_2- and -iH_2- (-yeH_2-).

Adjective “red” is actually translated from Japanese as “to be red”, and the sentence “Bara-wa utsukusii” will mean “the rose is beautiful”, while “bara” is “a rose”, “-wa” is the nominative marker, and “utsukusii” is “to be beautiful”. So there is no verb, and here the adjective is a predicate. This structure is typical for many Altaic languages, and probably was normal for Proto-Nostratic as well.

The Proto-Indo-European language gives us some stems which are hard to denote whether they used to mean an adjective or a verb. Some later branches reflect such stems as verbs, but other made them adjectives. So it was the Proto-Indo-European epoch where adjectives as the part of speech began to transform from a verbal one to a nominal one.

And all Indo-European branches already show the close similarity of the structure of adjectives and nouns in the language. So does the Old English language, where adjective is one of the nominal parts of speech.

As well as the noun, the adjective can be declined in case, gender and number. Moreover, the instrumental case which was discussed before was preserved in adjectives much stronger than in nouns.

Adjectives must follow sequence with nouns which they define. That is why the same adjective can be masculine, neuter and feminine and therefore be declined in two different types: one for masculine and neuter, the other for feminine nouns.

The declension is more or less simple; it looks much like the nominal system of declension, though there are several important differences. Interesting to know

that one-syllable adjectives (“monosyllabic”) have different declension than two-syllable ones (“disyllabic”). See for yourselves:

Strong Declension “a, ó-stems” – the word “black”

Monosyllabic Singular **Monosyllabic Plural**

Case	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
N	blæc	blæc	blacu	blace	blacu	blaca
G	blaces	blaces	blæcre	blacra	blacra	blacra
D	blacum	blacum	blæcre	blacum	blacum	blacum
A	blæcne	blæc	blace	blace	blacu	blaca
I	blace	blace	---	---	---	---

Here “I” means that very instrumental case, answering the question by what?, with whom?, with the help of what? for example: the word “happy”.

Disyllabic Singular **Disyllabic Plural**

Case	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
N	éadig	éadig	éadigu	éadige	éadigu	éadiga
G	éadiges	éadiges	éadigre	éadigra	éadigra	éadigra
D	éadigum	éadigum	éadigre	éadigum	éadigum	éadigum
A	éadigne	éadig	éadige	éadige	éadigu	éadigu
I	éadige	éadige	---	---	---	---

So not many new endings: for accusative singular we have “-ne”, and for genitive plural “-ra”, which cannot be met in the declension of nouns.

The difference between monosyllabic and disyllabic is the accusative plural feminine ending “-a / -u”. That’s all.

For instance: “ja, jó-stems” – “swéte – sweet”.

	Singular			Plural		
Case	**Masculine**	**Neutral**	**Feminine**	**Masculine**	**Neutral**	**Feminine**
N	**swéte**	**swéte**	**swétu**	**swéte**	**swétu**	**swéta**
G	**swétes**	**swétes**	**swétre**	**swétra**	**swétre**	**swétre**
D	**swétum**	**swétum**	**swétre**	**swétum**	**swétum**	**swétum**
A	**swétne**	**swéte**	**swéte**	**swéte**	**swétu**	**swéta**
I	**swéte**	**swéte**	**---**	**---**	**---**	**---**

For instance: the word “narrow” - “ow” –stems:

	Singular			Plural		
Case	**Masculine**	**Neutral**	**Feminine**	**Masculine**	**Neutral**	**Feminine**
N	**nearu**	**nearu**	**nearu**	**nearwe**	**nearu**	**nearwa**
G	**nearwes**	**nearwes**	**nearore**	**nearora**	**nearora**	**nearora**
D	**nearwum**	**nearwum**	**nearore**	**nearwum**	**nearwum**	**nearwum**
A	**nearone**	**nearu**	**nearwe**	**nearwe**	**nearu**	**nearwa**
I	**nearwe**	**---**	**nearwe**	**---**	**---**	**---**

Actually, some can just omit all those examples - the adjectival declension is the same as a whole for all stems, as concerns the strong type. In general, the endings look the following way, with very few varieties (note that “-” means the null ending):

	Masculine		Feminine		Neutral	
Case	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**	**Singular**	**Plural**
N	**---**	**-e**	**-u**	**-a**	**---**	**-u**
G	**-es**	**-ra**	**-re**	**-ra**	**-es**	**-ra**
D	**-um**	**-um**	**-re**	**-um**	**-um**	**-um**
A	**-ne**	**-e**	**-e**	**-a**	**---**	**-u**
I	**-e**	**---**	**---**	**---**	**-e**	**---**

As for weak adjectives, they also exist in the language. The thing is that one need not learn by heart which adjective is which type - strong or weak, as you should do with the nouns. If you have a weak noun as a subject, its attributive adjective will be weak as well. So, a strong adjective for a strong noun, a weak adjective for a weak noun, the rule is as simple as that.

Thus, if you say “a black tree” that will be “blæc tréow” (strong), and “a black eye” will sound “blace éage”. Here is the weak declension example “blaca” – “black”:

	Singular			**Plural**
Case	**Masculine**	**Neutral**	**Feminine**	
N	**blaca**	**blace**	**blace**	**blacan**
G	**blacan**	**blacan**	**blacan**	**blæcra**
D	**blacan**	**blacan**	**blacan**	**blacum**
A	**blacan**	**blace**	**blacan**	**blacan**

Weak declension has a single plural for all genders, which is pleasant for those who don’t want to remeber too many forms. In general, the weak declension is much easier.

The last thing to be said about the adjectives is the degrees of comparison. Again, the traditional Indo-European structure is preserved here: three degrees (absolutive, comparative, superlative) - though some languages also had the so-called “equalitative” grade; the special suffices for forming comparatives and absolutives; suppletive stems for several certain adjectives.

The suffices we are used to see in Modern English, those “-er” and “-est” in “weak, weaker, the weakest”, are the direct descendants of the Old English ones. At that time they sounded as “-ra” and “-est”.

For example, the word “poor”: “earm - earmra - earmost”; and “black”: “blæc - blæcra - blacost”.

Many adjectives changed the root vowel another example of the Germanic ablaut: “eald (old) – ieldra – ieldest”; “strong – strengra – strengest”; “long – lengra – longest”; “geong (young) – gingra – gingest”.

The most widespread and widely used adjectives always had their degrees formed from another stem, which is called “suppletive” in Linguistics. Many of them are still seen in today’s English: “gód (good) - betera - betst (or sélra - sélest)”; “yfel (bad) - wiersa – wierest”; “micel (much) - mára – máést”; “lýtel (little) - læ'ssa – læ'st”; “fear (far) - fierra – fierrest, fyrrest”; “néah (near) - néarra - níehst, nýhst”; “æ'r (early) - æ'rra - æ'rest”; “fore (before) - furþra - fyrest (first)”.

Now you see what the word “first” means - just the superlative degree from the adjective “before, forward”. The same is with “níehst” from “néah” (near) which is now “next”.

For those who are fond of word composition we can offer some essential materials about the Old English affixation for adjectives:

1) “-ede” (group “adjective stem + substantive stem”) – micelhéafdede (large-headed);

2) “-ihte” (from substantives with mutation) - þirnihte (thorny);

3) “-ig” (from substantives with mutation) - hálig (holy), mistig (misty);

4) “-en, -in” (with mutation) - gylden (golden), wyllen (wóllen);

5) “-isc” (nationality) - Englisc, Welisc, mennisc (human);

6) “-sum” (from stems of verbs, adjectives, substantives) - sibbsum (peaceful), híersum (obedient);

7) “-feald” (from stems of numerals, adjectives) - þríefeald (threefold);

8) “-full” (from abstract substantive stems) - sorgfull (sorrowful);

9) “-léás” (from verbal and nominal stems) - slæpléás (sleepless);

10) “-líc” (from substantive and adjective stems) - eorþlíc (earthly);

11) “-weard” (from adjective, substantive, adverb stems) - inneweard (internal), hámweard (homeward).

Old English Adjectives lost agreement with the noun, but the weak ending “-e” still remained. The comparative form became “-er” and the superlative became “-est”.

Vowels tended to be long in the adjective form, but short in the comparative form (late - latter). The demonstratives these and those were added during this period. And the adverb ending “-lič” became “-ly”; however, some “flat” adverbs did not add the “-ly”: “fast, late, hard”.

Forms of the Old English adjective express the categories of gender (masculine, feminine, and neuter), number (singular and plural), and case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and, partly, instrumental).

Adjectives could be weak or strong. If preceded by a determiner, the weak ending was added to the adjective. If no determiner preceded the adjective, then the strong endings were used. They also agreed in gender, case and number with the nouns they described. The comparative was formed by adding “-ra” to the adjective, while the superlative had many endings: “-ost, -ist, -est, -m”. Eventually the “-ost” and “-m” endings combined to form the word “most” which is still used before adjectives in the superlative today.

Every adjective can be declined according to the strong and to the weak declension. The strong declension of adjectives as a whole is a combination of

substantival and pronominal forms. The pronominal forms are obviously element of the system.

The weak declension of adjectives does not differ from that of nouns, except in the genitive plural of all genders, which often takes the ending “-ra”: “blæcra”.

The comparatives are declined as strong adjectives; the superlatives rarely take the forms of the strong declension and mostly follow the weak declension: “earm (poor) - earmra - earmost”.

Several adjectives have suppletive forms of comparative and superlative: “zod (good) - betera – bets”; “yfel (bad) - wiersa – wierest”.

2. The Old English Adverb.

They can be either primary original adverbs or derive from the adjectives. In fact, adverbs appeared in the language rather late, and eraly Proto-Indo-European did not use them, but later some auxiliary nouns and pronouns losing their declension started to play the role of adverbial modifiers. That’s how thew primary adverbs emerged.

In Old English the basic primary adverbs were the following ones: “þa” (then); “þonne” (then); “þæ'r” (there); “þider” (thither); “nú” (now); “hér”(here); “hider” (hither); “heonan” (hence); “sóna” (soon); “oft” (often); “eft” (again); “swá” (so); “hwílum” (sometimes).

Secondary adverbs originated from the instrumental singular of the neuter adjectives of strong declension. They all add the suffix “e”: “wide” (widely), “déope” (deeply), “fæste” (fast), “hearde” (hard).

Another major sugroup of them used the suffixes “-líc, -líce” from more complexed adjectives: “bealdlíce” (boldly), “freondlíce” (in a friendly way).

Adverbs, as well as adjectives, had their degrees of comparison: “wíde - wídor – wídost” (widely - more widely - most widely); “long – leng” (long - longer); “feorr (far) – fierr”; “sófte (softly) – séft”; “éaþe (easily) – íeþ”; “wel (well)- betre – best”; “yfele (badly) - wiers, wyrs – wierst”; “micele (much) - máre - mæ'st”.

Some Old English adverbs are primary, that is, they have not been derived from any other part of speech, while others are secondary, derived from some other part of speech. Among the primary adverbs there are many pronominal words, such as hwonne (when), hwæĸ (where).

Much more numerous are the secondary adverbs, derived from substantives or adjectives. Sometimes some case form of a substantive or an adjective becomes isolated from the declension system and becomes a separate word.

Adverbs were formed by adding “-e” to the adjective, or “-lic”, the latter which still remains in modern English as “-like”.

Adverbs whose meaning admits of degrees of comparison derive them by means of the same suffixes that are used as degrees of comparison of adjectives “-r” for the comparative, and “-st” for the superlative.

These suffixes are preceded by the vowel “-o”: “wide (widely) - widor – widost”. Some adverbs derive their comparative without any suffix, by means of mutation of the root vowel: “lonz (long) – lenz”, “feorr (far) – fierr”.

3. The Old English Numeral.

It is obvious that all Indo-European languages have the general trend of transformation from the synthetic or inflectional stage to the analytic one. At least for the latest 1,000 years this trend could be observed in all branches of the family.

The level of this analitization process in each single language can be estimated by several features, their presence or absence in the language. One of them is for sure the declension of the numerals.

In Proto-Indo-European all numerals, both cardinal and ordinal, were declined, as they derived on a very ancient stage from nouns or adjectives, originally being a declined part of speech. There are still language groups within the family with decline their numerals: among them, Slavic and Baltic are the most typical samples.

They practically did not suffer any influence of the analytic processes. But all other groups seem to have been influenced somehow. Ancient Italic and Hellenic languages left the declension only for the first four cardinal pronouns (from 1 to 4), the same with ancient Celtic.

The Old English language preserves this system of declension only for three numerals. It is therefore much easier to learn, though not for English speakers I guess - Modern English lacks declension at all.

Here is the list of the cardinal numerals:

1 ***án***	20 ***twentig***
2 ***twá***	21 ***twentig ond án***
3 ***þríe***	30 ***þrítig***
4 ***féower***	40 ***féowertig***
5 ***fíf***	50 ***fíftig***
6 ***six, syx, siex***	60 ***siextig***
7 ***seofon, syofn***	70 ***siofontig***
8 ***eahta***	80 ***eahtatig***
9 ***nigon***	90 ***nigontig***
10 ***tien, týn***	100 ***hundtéontig, hund, hundred***
11 ***endlefan***	110 ***hundælleftig***
12 ***twelf***	120 ***hundtwelftig***
13 ***þríotíene***	200 ***tú hund***
14 ***féowertíene***	1000 ***þúsend***
15 ***fíftíene***...	2000 ***tú þúsendu***

And here is the declension of some of them:

1 “án” is declined just like a strong adjective, can be only singular, but has masculine, neuter and feminine genders. It is the source of the future indefinite article “a, an” in Modern English.

So “a house” in fact means “one house”, here “n” disappeared before a consonant. When at school, many of us thought that “an” derived from “a” and it appeares vice versa.

2 “twá”:

case	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
N	**twegen**	**tu / twa**	**twa**
G	**---**	**twegea**	**twegra**
D	**---**	**twæ'm**	**twam**
A	**twegen**	**tu / twa**	**---**

So the genders have differences only in nominative and accusative cases, and indirect cases (genitive and dative) have common forms for all three genders. No number can be changed for it, and originally this numeral was dual, which seems natural.

3 “þríe”:

case	Masculine	Neutral	Feminine
N	**þríe, þrí, þrý**	**þrío, þréo**	**þrío, þréo**
G	**---**	**þríora**	**þréora**
D	**---**	**---**	**þrím**
A	**þríe, þrí, þrý**	**þrío, þréo**	**þrío, þréo**

A typical “i-stem” noun. Strange is the following: while in the case of “two” the Modern English lost masculine and neuter forms and picked up the feminine

one for use (“two” < twá), here we have another case, when the feminine and neuter were forgotten, and today’s three comes directly from the masculine þríe.

And the last is the numeral “begen, bú, bá” – “both”, which is declined the same way as “twá” and is also dual. Ordinal numerals use the suffix “-ta” or “-þa”, etymologically a common Indo-European one (“-to-”).

1 ***forma, fyresta***	13 ***þreotéoþa***
2 ***óþer, æfterra***	14 ***féowertéoþa***
3 ***þridda, þirda***	15 ***fíftéoþa***
4 ***féorþa***	16 ***sixtéoþa***
5 ***fífta***	17 ***siofontéoþa***
6 ***siexta, syxta***	18 ***eahtatéoþa***
7 ***siofoþa***	19 ***nigontéoþa***
8 ***eahtoþa***	20 ***twentigoþa***
9 ***nigoþa***	30 ***þrittigoþa***
10 ***téoþa***	40 ***féowertigoþa***
11 ***endlefta***	50 ***fíftigoþa***
12 ***twelfta***	100 ***hundtéontiogoþa***

The two variants for the word “first” actually mean different attributes: “forma” is translated as “forward”, and “fyresta” is “the farthest”, “the first”. Again double variants for the second nominal mean respectively “the other” and “the following”.

Mainly according to Old English texts ordinal numerals were used with the demonstrative pronoun “þá” before them. This is where the definite article in “the first”, “the third” comes from. To say “the 22-nd”, for example, you should combine the following: either “twá” and “twenigoþa” – “two and twentieth”, or “óþer éac twentigum” – “second with twenty”. So the order is different from the modern English, but instead closer to Modern German where “the 22-nd” sounds like “zwei und zwanzig” – “two and twenty”.

At all, it is easy to notice that the words in English became much shorter, and therefore simpler in pronunciation and learning. It is much easier to pronounce “hundredth” than “hundtéontiogoþa”, “fourth” than “féowertéoþa”.

Modern English acquired words mainly having one or two syllables, but this was not the rule in the Old English period.

Thus, Old English Numerals are: an, eahtatiene, eahtoþa, endleofan, feorþa, feower, feowertiene, fifta, fiftiene, fiftig, nigontiene, nigoþa, seofon, seofontiene, seofoþa, siextiene, sixtig, syxta, teoþa, tien, tu, twa, þreo, þreotiene, þridda, þritig.

Old English Cardinal Numerals. Numerals from 1 to 3 are declined. Numerals from 4 to 19 are usually invariable, if used as attributes to a substantive, but they are declined if used without a substantive.

Numerals denoting tens have their genitive in “-es” or “-a”, “-ra”, their dative in “-um’. Numbers consisting of tens and units are denoting in the following way: 22 “twa and twentiz”, 48 “eahta and feowertiz”.

Old English Ordinal Numerals. The ordinal numerals are declined as weak adjectives. Numerals containing both tens and units are axpressed in the following way: 22 “twa and twentizoða” or “ōðer eac twentizum”, 48-th “eahta and feortizoða” or “eahtoða eac feowertizum”.

Questions:

Characterize the Old English Adjective and their Evolution.

Describe the origin of the Old Adverb.

What do you know about the Old English Numeral?

Lecture 16. Historic English Text Samples. Old, Middle, Early Modern, Modern English.

English Language Samples: Old English, Middle English, and Early Modern English.

Major historical Periods of the English Language

- Old English AD 450- AD 1100
- Middle English 1100-1500
- Early Modern English 1500-1800
- Present Day English 1800-present

The history of English is conventionally, if perhaps too neatly, divided into three periods usually called Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English. The earliest period begins with the migration of certain Germanic tribes from the continent to Britain in the V-th century A.D., though no records of their language survive from before the VII-th century, and it continues until the end of the XI-th century or a bit later.

By that time Latin, Old Norse (the language of the Viking invaders), and especially the Anglo-Norman French of the dominant class after the Norman Conquest in 1066 had begun to have a substantial impact on the lexicon, and the well-developed inflectional system that typifies the grammar of Old English had begun to break down.

The following brief sample of Old English prose illustrates several of the significant ways in which change has so transformed English that we must look carefully to find points of resemblance between the language of the X-th century and our own. It is taken from Aelfric's "Homily on St. Gregory the Great" and concerns the famous story of how that pope came to send missionaries to convert the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity after seeing Anglo-Saxon boys for sale as slaves in Rome:

“Eft he axode, hu ðære ðeode nama wære þe hi of comon. Him wæs geandwyrd, þæt hi Angle genemnode wæron”. Þa cwæð he, “Rihtlice hi sind Angle gehatene, for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað, and swilcum gedafenað þæt hi on heofonum engla geferan beon”.

A few of these words will be recognized as identical in spelling with their modern equivalents “he, of, him, for, and, on” and the resemblance of a few others to familiar words may be guessed “nama” to “name”, “comon” to “come”, “wære” to “were”, “wæs” to “was”, but only those who have made a special study of Old English will be able to read the passage with understanding. The sense of it is as follows:

Again he (St. Gregory) asked what might be the name of the people from which they came. It was answered to him that they were named Angles. Then he said, “Rightly are they called Angles because they have the beauty of angels, and it is fitting that such as they should be angels’ companions in heaven”.

Some of the words in the original have survived in altered form, including “axode (asked), hu (how), rihtlice (rightly), engla (angels), habbað (have), swilcum (such), heofonum (heaven), beon (be)”.

Others, however, have vanished from our lexicon, mostly without a trace, including several that were quite common words in Old English: “eft” – “again”, “ðeode” – “people, nation”, “cwæð” – “said, spoke”, “gehatene” – “called, named”, “wlite” – “appearance, beauty”, and “geferan” – “companions”. Recognition of some words is naturally hindered by the presence of two special characters, “þ”, called “thorn”, and “ð”, called “edh”, which served in Old English to represent the sounds now spelled with “th”.

Other points worth noting include the fact that the pronoun system did not yet, in the late X-th century, include the third person plural forms beginning with “th”: “hi” appears where we would use “they”.

Several aspects of word order will also strike the reader as oddly unlike ours. Subject and verb are inverted after an adverb “þa cwæð he” - “Then said he” - a phenomenon not unknown in Modern English but now restricted to a few adverbs such as “never” and requiring the presence of an auxiliary verb like “do” or “have”.

In subordinate clauses the main verb must be last, and so an object or a preposition may precede it in a way no longer natural: “þe hi of comon” - which they from came, “for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað” – “because they angels beauty have”.

Perhaps the most distinctive difference between Old and Modern English reflected in Aelfric’s sentences is the elaborate system of inflections, of which we now have only remnants.

Nouns, adjectives, and even the definite article are inflected for gender, case, and number: “ðære ðeode” - “(of) the people” is feminine, genitive, and singular, “Angle” – “Angles” is masculine, accusative, and plural, and “swilcum” – “such” is masculine, dative, and plural.

The system of inflections for verbs was also more elaborate than ours: for example, “habbað” – “have” ends with the “-að” suffix characteristic of plural present indicative verbs.

In addition, there were two imperative forms, four subjunctive forms (two for the present tense and two for the preterit, or past, tense), and several others which we no longer have. Even where Modern English retains a particular category of inflection, the form has often changed.

Old English present participles ended in “-ende” not “-ing”, and past participles bore a prefix “ge” (as “geandwyrd” - “answered” above).

The period of Middle English extends roughly from the XII-th century through the XV-th. The influence of French (and Latin, often by way of French)

upon the lexicon continued throughout this period, the loss of some inflections and the reduction of others, often to a final unstressed vowel spelled "-e", accelerated, and many changes took place within the phonological and grammatical systems of the language.

A typical prose passage, especially one from the later part of the period, will not have such a foreign look to us as Aelfric's prose has; but it will not be mistaken for contemporary writing either.

The following brief passage is drawn from a work of the late XIV-th century called "Mandeville's Travels". It is fiction in the guise of travel literature, and, though it purports to be from the pen of an English knight, it was originally written in French and later translated into Latin and English. In this extract Mandeville describes the land of Bactria, apparently not an altogether inviting place, as it is inhabited by "full yuele [evil] folk and full cruell".

In þat lond ben trees þat beren wolle, as þogh it were of scheep; whereof men maken clothes, and all þing þat may ben made of wolle. In þat contree ben many ipotaynes, þat dwellen som tyme in the water, and somtyme on the lond: and þei ben half man and half hors, as I haue seyd before; and þei eten men, whan þei may take hem. And þere ben ryueres and watres þat ben fulle byttere, þree sithes more þan is the water of the see. In þat contré ben many griffounes, more plentee þan in ony other contree. Sum men seyn þat þei han the body vpward as an egle, and benethe as a lyoun: and treuly þei seyn soth þat þei ben of þat schapp. But o griffoun hath the body more gret, and is more strong, þanne eight lyouns, of suche lyouns as ben o this half; and more gret and strongere þan an hundred egles, suche as we han amonges vs. For o griffoun þere wil bere fleynge to his nest a gret hors, if he may fynde him at the poynt, or two oxen oked togidere, as þei gon at the plowgh.

The spelling is often peculiar by modern standards and even inconsistent within these few sentences, for example: “contré” and “contree”, o (griffoun) and a (gret hors), “þanne” and “þan”.

Moreover, in the original text, there is in addition to thorn another old character, called “yogh”, to make difficulty. It can represent several sounds but here may be thought of as equivalent to “y”. Even the older spellings, including those where “u” stands for “v” or vice versa, are recognizable, however, and there are only a few words like “ipotaynes” - “hippopotamuses” and “sithes” - “times” that have dropped out of the language altogether.

We may notice a few words and phrases that have meanings no longer common such as “byttere” - “salty”, “o this half ” on this side of the world, and “at the poynt” – “to hand”, and the effect of the centuries-long dominance of French on the vocabulary is evident in many familiar words which could not have occurred in Aelfric’s writing even if his subject had allowed them, words like “contree, ryueres, plentee, egle, lyoun”.

In general word order is now very close to that of our time, though we notice constructions like “hath the body more gret” and “three sithes more þan is the water of the see”. We also notice that present tense verbs still receive a plural inflection as in “beren, dwellen, han, ben” and that while nominative “þei” has replaced Aelfric’s “hi” in the third person plural, the form for objects is still “hem”.

All the same, the number of inflections for nouns, adjectives, and verbs has been greatly reduced, and in most respects Mandeville is closer to Modern than to Old English.

The period of Modern English extends from the XVI-th century to our own day. The early part of this period saw the completion of a revolution in the phonology of English that had begun in late Middle English and that effectively redistributed the occurrence of the vowel phonemes to something approximating

their present pattern. Mandeville's English would have sounded even less familiar to us than it looks.

Other important early developments include the stabilizing effect on spelling of the printing press and the beginning of the direct influence of Latin and, to a lesser extent, Greek on the lexicon. Later, as English came into contact with other cultures around the world and distinctive dialects of English developed in the many areas which Britain had colonized, numerous other languages made small but interesting contributions to our word-stock.

The historical aspect of English really encompasses more than the three stages of development just under consideration. English has what might be called a **prehistory** as well. As we have seen, our language did not simply spring into existence; it was brought from the Continent by Germanic tribes who had no form of writing and hence left no records.

Philologists know that they must have spoken a dialect of a language that can be called West Germanic and that other dialects of this unknown language must have included the ancestors of such languages as German, Dutch, Low German, and Frisian. They know this because of certain systematic similarities which these languages share with each other but do not share with, say, Danish.

However, they have had somehow to reconstruct what that language was like in its lexicon, phonology, grammar, and semantics as best they can through sophisticated techniques of comparison developed chiefly during the last century.

Similarly, because ancient and modern languages like Old Norse and Gothic or Icelandic and Norwegian have points in common with Old English and Old High German or Dutch and English that they do not share with French or Russian, it is clear that there was an earlier unrecorded language that can be called simply Germanic and that must be reconstructed in the same way.

Still earlier, Germanic was just a dialect (the ancestors of Greek, Latin, and Sanskrit were three other such dialects) of a language conventionally designated Indo-European, and thus English is just one relatively young member of an ancient family of languages whose descendants cover a fair portion of the globe.

Old English.

Her for se here of East Englum ofer Humbremuþan to Eoforwicceastre on Norþhymbre, ond þær wæs micel ungeþuærnes þære þeode betweox him selfum, ond hie hæfdun hiera cyning aworpenne Osbryht, ond ungecyndne cyning underfengon Ællan; ond hie late on geare to þam gecirdon þæt hie wiþ þone here winnende wærun, ond hie þeah micle fierd gegadrodon, ond þone here sohton æt Eoforwicceastre, ond on þa ceastre bræcon, ond hie sume inne wurdon, ond þær was ungemetlic wæl geslægen Norþanhymbra, sume binnan, sume butan; ond þa cyningas begen ofslægene, ond sio laf wiþ þone here friþ nam. (Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, 867 A.D.)

BEOWULF – BEOPULF – “пчелиный волк” Anglo-Saxon Epic Poem between VIII-X c.; lines 1 to 11, approximately AD 900.

Hwæt! Wē Gār-Dena in geārdagum,
þēodcyninga þrym gefrūnon,
hū ðā æþelingas ellen fremedon.
Oft Scyld Scēfing sceaþena þrēatum,
monegum mægþum, meodosetla oftēah,
egsode eorlas. Syððan ærest wearð
fēasceaft funden, hē þæs frōfre gebād,
wēox under wolcnum, weorðmyndum þāh,
oðþæt him æghwylc þāra ymbsittendra

ofer hronrāde hȳran scolde,

gomban gyldan. Þæt wæs gōd cyning!

Which, as translated by Francis Gummere, reads:

Lo, praise of the prowess of people-kings
of spear-armed Danes, in days long sped,
we have heard, and what honor the athelings won!
Oft Scyld the Scefing from squadroned foes,
from many a tribe, the mead-bench tore,
awing the earls. Since erst he lay
friendless, a foundling, fate repaid him:
for he waxed under welkin, in wealth he throve,
till before him the folk, both far and near,
who house by the whale-path, heard his mandate,
gave him gifts: a good king he!

Here is a sample **prose** text, the beginning of "**The Voyages of Ohthere**" and "**Wulfstan**".

Ōhthere sæde his hlāforde, Ælfrēde cyninge, ðæt hē ealra Norðmonna norþmest būde. Hē cwæð þæt hē būde on þǣm lande norþweardum wiþ þā Westsǣ. Hē sæde þēah þæt þæt land sīe swīþe lang norþ þonan; ac hit is eal wēste, būton on fēawum stōwum styccemælum wīciað Finnas, on huntoðe on wintra, ond on sumera on fiscaþe be þǣre sǣ. Hē sæde þæt hē æt sumum cirre wolde fandian hū longe þæt land norþryhte lǣge, oþþe hwæðer ænig mon be norðan þǣm wēstenne būde. Þā fōr hē norþryhte be þǣm lande: lēt him ealne weg þæt wēste land on ðæt stēorbord, ond þā wīdsǣ on ðæt bæcbord þrīe dagas. Þā wæs hē swā feor norþ swā þā hwælhuntan firrest faraþ. Þā fōr hē þā giet norþryhte swā feor swā hē meahte on þǣm ōþrum þrīm dagum gesiglau. Þā bēag þæt land, þǣr ēastryhte, oþþe sēo sǣ in on ðæt lond, hē nysse hwæðer, būton hē wisse ðæt hē ðǣr bād westanwindes ond hwōn norþan, ond siglde ðā ēast be lande swā swā hē meahte on fēower dagum gesiglan. Þā sceolde hē ðǣr bīdan ryhtnorþanwindes, for ðǣm þæt land bēag þǣr sūþryhte, oþþe sēo sǣ in on ðæt land, hē nysse hwæþer. Þā

siglde hē þonan sūðryhte be lande swā swā hē meahte on fīf dagum gesiglan. Đā læg þǣr ān micel ēa ūp on þæt land. Đā cirdon hīe ūp in on ðā ēa for þǣm hīe ne dorston forþ bī þǣre ēa siglan for unfriþe; for þǣm ðæt land wæs eall gebūn on ōþre healfe þǣre ēas. Ne mētte hē ǣr nān gebūn land, siþþan hē from his āgnum hām fōr; ac him wæs ealne weg wēste land on þæt stēorbord, būtan fiscerum ond fugelerum ond huntum, ond þæt wǣron eall Finnas; ond him wæs āwīdsǣ on þæt bæcbord. Þā Boermas heafdon sīþe wel gebūd hira land: ac hīe ne dorston þǣr on cuman. Ac þāra Terfinna land wæs eal wēste, būton ðǣr huntan gewīcodon, oþþe fisceras, oþþe fugeleras.

This may be translated as:

Ohthere said to his lord, King Alfred, that he of all Norsemen lived north-most. He quoth (said) that he lived in the land northward along the North Sea. He said though that the land was very long from there, but it is all wasteland, except that in a few places here and there Finns encamp, hunting in winter and in summer fishing by the sea. He said that at some time he wanted to find out how long the land lay northward or whether any man lived north of the wasteland. Then he traveled north by the land. All the way he kept the waste land on his starboard and the wide sea on his port three days. Then he was as far north as whale hunters' furthest travel. Then he traveled still north as far as he might sail in another three days. Then the land bowed east (or the sea into the land - he did not know which). But he knew that he waited there for west winds (and somewhat north), and sailed east by the land so as he might sail in four days. Then he had to wait for due-north winds, because the land bowed south (or the sea into the land - he did not know which). Then he sailed from there south by the land so as he might sail in five days. Then a large river lay there up into the land. Then they turned up into the river, because they dared not sail forth past the river for hostility, because the land was all settled on the other side of the river. He had not encountered earlier any settled land since he travelled from his own home, but all the way waste land was

on his starboard (except fishers, fowlers and hunters, who were all Finns). And the wide sea was always on his port. The Bjarmians have cultivated their land very well, but they did not dare go in there. But the Terfinn's land was all waste except where hunters encamped, or fishers or fowlers.

Middle English

From "**Ayenbyte of Inwit**" by Dan Michel, 1340:

Nou ich wille þet ye ywite hou hit is ywent
þet þis boc is ywrite mid Engliss of Kent.
Þis boc is ymad vor lewede men
Vor vader and vor moder and vor oþer ken
ham vor to berȝe vram alle manyere zen
þet ine hare inwytte ne bleve no voul wen.
'Huo ase god' in his name yzed,
Þet þis boc made god him yeve þet bread,
Of angles of hevene, and þerto his red,
And ondervonge his zaule huanne þet he is dyad. Amen.

From "**The Canterbury Tales**" by Geoffrey Chaucer, 14-th century:

Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,
That slepen al the nyght with open yë
(So priketh hem Nature in hir corages);
Than longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
And specially from every shires ende
Of engelond to caunterbury they wende,

The hooly blisful martir for to seke,
That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.

Early Modern English

From "**Paradise Lost**" by John Milton, 1667:

Of Mans First Disobedience, and the Fruit
Of that Forbidden Tree, whose mortal tast
Brought Death into the World, and all our woe,
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful Seat,
Sing Heav'nly Muse, that on the secret top
Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
That Shepherd, who first taught the chosen Seed,
In the Beginning how the Heav'ns and Earth
Rose out of Chaos: Or if Sion Hill
Delight thee more, and Siloa's Brook that flow'd
Fast by the Oracle of God; I thence
Invoke thy aid to my adventrous Song,
That with no middle flight intends to soar
Above th' Aonian Mount, while it pursues
Things unattempted yet in Prose or Rhime.

From "**Hamlet**" of William Shakespeare, c. 1600, First Folio.

To be, or not to be, that is the Question:
Whether 'tis Nobler in the minde to suffer
The Slings and Arrowes of outragious Fortune,
Or to take Armes against a Sea of troubles,
And by opposing end them: to dye, to sleepe
No more; and by a sleepe, to say we end
The Heart-ake, and the thousand Naturall shockes
That Flesh is heyre too? 'Tis a consummation
Deuoutly to be wish'd. To dye to sleepe,
To sleepe, perchance to Dreame; I, there's the rub,
For in that sleepe of death, what dreames may come,
When we haue shuffel'd off this mortall coile,
Must giue vs pawse. There's the respect
That makes Calamity of so long life.

Modern English

Taken from "**Oliver Twist**", 1838, by Charles Dickens:

The evening arrived: the boys took their places; the master in his cook's uniform stationed himself at the copper; his pauper assistants ranged themselves behind him; the gruel was served out, and a long grace was said over the short commons. The gruel disappeared; the boys whispered each other and winked at Oliver, while his next neighbours nudged him. Child as he was, he was desperate with hunger and reckless with misery. He rose from the table, and advancing, basin and spoon in hand, to the master, said, somewhat alarmed at his own temerity - "Please, sir, I want some more".

The master was a fat, healthy man, but he turned very pale. He gazed in stupefied astonishment on the small rebel for some seconds, and then clung for support to the copper. The assistants were paralysed with wonder, and the boys with fear.

"What!" - said the master at length, in a faint voice.

"Please, sir", - replied Oliver, "I want some more".

The master aimed a blow at Oliver's head with the ladle, pinioned him in his arms, and shrieked aloud for the beadle.

Questions:

What are the origins of the English language?

Characterize the historic English text samples.

Analyse Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English, Modern English text samples.

Lecture 17. Old English Vocabulary.

1. History of the Ways of Word-Formation of the XV-th – XVII-th centuries.

2. Historical Background of Modern English.

3. Spelling Changes in Modern English and New English. Rules of Reading.

Modern estimates of the total OE vocabulary range from about 30.000-100.000 words. The last digit is probably too high, but it depends on the treatment of polysemy and homonymy. Word etymology throws light on the history of the speaking community. The OE vocabulary was almost purely Germanic; except for a small number of borrowings, it consisted of native words, inherited from Proto-Germanic or formed from native roots and affixes.

Native words can be subdivided into some etymological layers coming from different historical periods: three main layers in the native words:

1) Common Indo-European words. They constitute the oldest part of the OE vocab. Among these words: natural phenomena, plants, animals, agricultural terms, verbs denoting men's activities, pronouns, numerals, for example: "ƕæt, bēon, mōna, mōdor, ic".

2) Common Germanic words include words, which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. These words constitute an important distinctive mark of the Germanic lang. at the lexical level. Semantically these words are connected with nature, sea and everyday life, for instance: OE sand, OHG sant, O Icel sandr, NE sand. OE findan, OHG findan, GT finƕan, O Icel finna, NE find.OE fox, OHG fuhs, GT -, O Icel -, NE fox.

3) Specifically OE words do not occur in other Germanic or non-Germanic languages. These words are few, if we include here only the words whose roots

have not been found outside English: OE clipian (“call”), brid (“bird”), swapian (“swathe”). But we can also put into consideration OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England, for example: “hlāford”, made of “hlāf” (NE loaf, R хлеб). Old Icelandic “deigja” - “knead” – literally “bread-kneading”, NE “lady”.

The language we call English was first brought to the North Sea coasts of England in the V-th and VI-th centuries A.D., by seafaring people from Denmark and the northwestern coasts of present-day Germany and the Netherlands. These immigrants spoke a cluster of related dialects falling within the Germanic branch of the Indo-European language family. Their language began to develop its own distinctive features in isolation from the continental Germanic languages, and by 600 A.D. had developed into what we call Old English or Anglo-Saxon, covering the territory of most of modern England.

New waves of Germanic invaders and settlers came from Norway and Denmark starting in the late VIII-th century. The more violent of these were known as Vikings, sea-faring plunderers who retained their ancient pagan gods and attacked settlements and churches for gold and silver. They spoke a northern Germanic dialect similar to, yet different in grammar from Anglo-Saxon.

In the XI-th century, the attacks became organized, state-sponsored military invasions and England was even ruled for a time by the kings of Denmark and Norway. The Scandinavian influence on the language was strongest in the north and lasted for a full 600 years, although English seems to have been adopted by the settlers fairly early on.

The Norman Invasion and Conquest of 1066 was a cataclysmic event that brought new rulers and new cultural, social and linguistic influences to the British Isles. The Norman French ruling minority dominated the church, government, legal, and educational systems for three centuries. The Norman establishment used French and Latin, leaving English as the language of the illiterate and powerless

majority. During this period English adopted thousands of words from Norman French and from Latin, and its grammar changed rather radically.

By the end of that time, however, the aristocracy had adopted English as their language and the use and importance of French gradually faded. The period from the Conquest to the reemergence of English as a full-fledged literary language is called Middle English. Geoffrey Chaucer wrote his masterpiece, "The Canterbury Tales", in Middle English in the late 1300-s.

William Caxton set up the first printing press in Britain at the end of the XV-th century. The arrival of printing marks the point at which the language began to take the first steps toward standardization and its eventual role as a national language.

The period from 1500 to about 1650 is called Early Modern English, a period during which notable sound changes, syntactic changes and lexical enrichment took place. The Great English Vowel Shift, which systematically shifted the phonetic values of all the long vowels in English, occurred during this period.

Word order became more fixed in a subject-verb-object pattern, and English developed a complex auxiliary verb system. A rush of new vocabulary from the classical languages, the modern European languages, and more distant trading partners such as the countries of Asian minor and the Middle East entered the language as the renaissance influences of culture and trade and the emerging scientific community of Europe took root in England.

Shakespeare wrote prolifically during the late 1500-s and early 1600-s and, like ***Geoffrey Chaucer***, took the language into new and creative literary territory. His influence on English drama and poetry continued to grow after his death in 1616 and he has never been surpassed as the best known and most read poet, playwright of modern English.

The King James Bible was published in 1611, the culmination of at least a century of efforts to bring a Bible written in the native language of the people into the Church establishment and into people's homes.

Among the common people, whose contact with literature often did not go far past the Bible, the language of the scriptures as presented in this version commissioned by King James I was deeply influential, due in part to its religious significance, but also to its literary quality. Its simple style and use of native vocabulary had a surpassing beauty that still resonates today.

By the 1700-s almost all of the modern syntactic patterns of English were in place and the language is easily readable by modern speakers. Colonization of new territories by the newly united Kingdom of Great Britain spread English to the far corners of the globe and brought cargoes of still more loanwords from those far-flung places.

At this point English began to develop its major world dialectal varieties, some of which would develop into national standards for newly independent colonies. By the XXI-st century, as the language of international business, science, and popular culture, English has become the most important language on the planet.

1. History of the ways of word-formation of the XV-th – XVII-th centuries.

The growth of the English vocabulary from internal sources, through word-formation and semantic change, can be observed in all periods of history. In the XV-th – XVII-th centuries its role became more important though the influx of the borrowings from other languages continued. Word formation fell into two types: **word derivation and word composition.**

The means of derivation used in OE continued to be employed in later periods:

Suffixation, the most productive way: most of the OE product. Suffixes have survived, many added from internal and external sources.

Prefixation was less productive in ME, but later, in Early NE its productivity grew again.

Many OE prefixes dropped out of use: “a-, tō-, on-, of-, ze-, or-”. In some words the prefix fused with the root: OE on-zinna > ME ginnen > NE begin.

The negative prefixes “mis-” and “un-” produced a great number of new words: ME mislayen, misdemen (NE mislay, misjudge). OE “un-” was mainly used with nouns and adjectives: Early NE: “unhook, unload”.

Also, foreign prefixes were adopted by the English lang. as component parts of loan-words: “re-, de-, dis-”. Sound interchanges and the shifting of word stress were mainly employed as a means of word differentiation, rather than as a word-building means.

Modern estimates of the total OE vocabulary range from about 30.000-100.000 words. The last digit is probably too high, but it depends on the treatment of polysemy and homonymy. The bulk of the OE vocabulary was native words. In the course of the OE period it grew; it was mainly replenished from native sources, by means of word-formation.

According to their morphological structure OE words fell into 3 main types:

1) Simple words - “root-words”, containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes, for instance: “land, sinzan, zōd”, NE “land, sing, good”;

2) Derived words consisting of one root-morpheme and one or more affixes, for example: “be-zinnan, un-scyld-iz”, NE “begin, innocent”;

3) Compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme, for example: “mann-cynn, scir-ze-refa”, NE “mankind, sheriff”.

The system of OE word-formation is quite similar to the Modern one. One of the most unusual examples of the OE word-formation was the ability of a single root to be either among simple, derived and compound words. For example: OE “mōd” - NE “mood” produced about fifty words, derived: “mōdiz” – “proud”, compound: “mōd-caru” – “care”.

OE employed two ways of word-formation: derivation and word-composition. Derived words in OE were built with the help of affixes: prefixes and suffixes; but also words were distinguished with the help of sound interchanges and word stress.

Sound interchanges in the roots of related words were frequent, and nevertheless they were used more as an additional feature which helped to distinguish between words built from the same root. Sound interchanges were never used alone; they were combined with suffixation.

Vowel gradation was used in OE as a distinctive feature between verbs and nouns, between verbs derived from a single root: “rīdan” v – “rād” n [i: - a:] - NE “ride, raid”.

The use of consonant interchanges was far more restricted. They arose due to phonetic changes: “rhotacism, Verner’s Law”, for example: “talu-tellan” - NE “tale, tell” – gemination of the consonants.

The shifting of word stress also helped to differentiate between; parts of speech. The verb had unaccented prefixes while the corresponding nouns had stressed prefixes, for example: ond-‘swarian (verb) – ‘ond-swaru (noun).

Prefixation was a productive way of building new words. They were used widely with verbs; for example: “zān” – “go”; “ā-zān” – “go away”.

The most productive: “ā-, be-, for-, ze-, ofer-, un-”.

Suffixation was the most productive. Suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of the word, but could refer it to another part of speech.

Mostly applied in forming nouns, adjectives, rarely with verbs: “zōd-nis” - NE “goodness”, “zræd-iz” - NE “greedy”.

Word composition: nouns, adjectives, for example: “hām-cyme” - NE “home-coming”.

2. Historical background of Modern English.

The Scandinavian Conquest of England was a great military and political event, which also influenced the English language. Scandinavian inroads into England had begun as early as the VIII-th century. The Anglo-Saxons offered the invaders a stubborn resistance, which is seen in the narrations of Chronicle.

In the late IX-th century the Scandinavian had occupied the whole of English territory north of Thames. In 878 King Alfred made peace with the invaders. The territory occupied by the Scandinavian was to remain in their power. The northern and eastern parts of England were most thickly settled by Scandinavians.

In the late X-th century war in England was resumed, and in 1013 the whole country fell to the invaders. England became part of a vast Scandinavian empire in Northern Europe.

The Scandinavian conquest had far-reaching consequences for the English language. The Scandinavian dialects spoken by the invaders belonged to the North Germanic languages and their phonetic and grammatical structure was similar to that of OE. They had the same morphological categories, strong and weak declension of substantives, of adjectives, of verbes. Close relationship between English and Scandinavian dialects made mutual understanding without translation quite possible.

The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be the turning-point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe.

In the IX-th century they began inroads on the northern coast of France and occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine estuary.

Mixing with the local population and adopting the French language and in the middle of the XI-th century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language.

In 1066 King Edward the Confessor died. William, Duke of Normandy, who had long claimed the English throne, assembled an army with the help of Norman barons, landed in England, and rooted the English troops. William confiscated the estates of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and distributed them among the Norman barons. All posts in the church, from abbots upwards, were giving to persons of French culture. Frenchmen arrived in England in great numbers. During the reign of William the Conqueror about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England.

During several centuries the ruling language in England was French. It was the language of the court, the Government, the courts of laws, the English language was reduced to a lower social sphere. The relation between French and English was different from that between Scandinavian and English: French was the language of the ruling class.

Under the circumstances, with two languages spoken in the country, they were bound to struggle with each other, and also influenced each other. This process lasted for three centuries the XII-th – XIV-th.

Its results were twofold: the struggle for supremacy between French and English ended in favour of English, but its vocabulary was enriched by a great number of French words.

3. Spelling changes in Modern English and New English. Rules of reading.

The most conspicuous feature of Late ME texts in comparison with OE texts is the difference in spelling. The written forms in ME resemble modern forms, though the pronunciation was different.

In ME the runic letters passed out of use. Thorn "ƀ" and the crossed "d": "đ" were replaced by the digraph "-th-", which retained the same sound value: [Ɵ] and [ð]; the rune "wynn" was displaced by "double u": -w-; the ligatures [æ] and [œ] fell into disuse.

Many innovations reveal an influence of the French scribal tradition. The digraphs [ou], [ie] and [ch] were adopted as new ways of indicating the sounds [u:], [e:] and [tʃ], for example: OE "ūt", ME "out" [u:t]; OE Fr double, ME double [duble].

The letters "j, k, v, q" were first used in imitation of French manuscripts.

The two-fold use of "-g-" and "-c-" owes its origin to French: these letters usually stood for [dz] and [s] before front vowels and for [g] and [k] before back vowels: ME "gentil" [dzen'til], "mercy" [mer'si] and "good" [go: d].

A wider use of digraphs: "-sh-" is introduced to indicate the new sibilant [ʃ]: ME "ship" (from OE scip); "-dz-" to indicate [dz]: ME "edge" ['edze], "joye" ['dzoiə]; the digraph "-wh-" replaced "-hw-": OE "hwæt", ME "what" [hwat].

Long sounds were shown by double letters: ME "book" [bo:k].

The introduction of the digraph "-gh-" for [x] and [x']: ME "knight" [knix't] and ME "he" [he:].

Some replacements were made to avoid confusion of resembling letters: "o" was employed to indicate "u": OE "munuc" > ME "monk"; "lufu" > love. The letter "y" – an equivalent "og" "i": "very", "my" [mi:].

Questions:

Characterize the Old English vocabulary.

Describe the ways of word-formation of the 15-th – 17-th centuries.

What do you know about the historical background of Modern English?

Define the spelling changes in Modern English and New English. Speak about rules of reading.

Lecture 18. Development of the Syntactic System in Modern English and Early New English.

1. Characteristics of Middle English.

2. Development of the Syntactic System in ME and Early NE.

3. Definitions of Grammar.

The syntax of Old English was much more flexible than modern English becase of the declensions of the nouns. The case endings told the function of the word in the sentence, so word order was not very important. But as the stress began to move to the first syllable of words, the endings were not pronounced as clearly and began to diminish from the language.

So in modern English, word order is very important because we no longer have declensions to show case distinctions. Instead we use prepositions. The general word order was **subject – verb – object**, but it did vary in a few instances:

1. When an object is a pronoun, it often precedes the verb.

2. When a sentence begins with an adverb, the subject often follows the verb.

3. The verb often comes at the end of a subordinate clause.

Some notable features of Proto-Indo-European syntax were the non-ergative case system, in which the subject of an intransitive verb received the same case marking as the subject, rather than the object, of a transitive verb; concord (agreement) in case, number, and gender between adjective and noun; and the use of singular verbs with neuter plural subjects, as in Greek “pánta rheĩ” – “all things flow”, with the same (singular) verb as “ho pótamos rheĩ” – “the river (masculine)

flows", contrasting with "hoi pótamoi rhéousi" – "the rivers flow", indicating that neuter plurals were originally collectives and grammatically singular. Proto-Indo-European word order was flexible, but basic declarative sentences typically had the structure subject–object–verb (SOV).

1. Characteristics of Middle English.

Syntax was stricter and more prepositions were used. New compound tenses were used, such as the perfect tenses, and there was more use of the progressive and passive voice. The use of double negation also increased as did impersonal constructions. The use of the verbs will and shall for the future tenses were first used too. Formerly, will meant want and shall meant obliged to.

Several aspects of word order will also strike the reader as oddly unlike ours. Subject and verb are inverted after an adverb "þa cwæð he" – "Then said he" – a phenomenon not unknown in Modern English but now restricted to a few adverbs such as "never" and requiring the presence of an auxiliary verb like "do" or "have".

In subordinate clauses the main verb must be last, and so an object or a preposition may precede it in a way no longer natural: "þe hi of comon" – "which they from came", "for ðan ðe hi engla wlite habbað" – "because they angels' beauties have".

Perhaps the most distinctive difference between Old and Modern English reflected in Aelfric's sentences is the elaborate system of inflections, of which we now have only remnants.

Nouns, adjectives, and even the definite article are inflected for gender, case, and number: "ðære ðeode" – "(of) the people" is feminine, genitive, and singular, "Angle" – "Angles" is masculine, accusative, and plural, and "swilcum" – "such" is masculine, dative, and plural.

The system of inflections for verbs was also more elaborate than ours: for example, “habbað” – “have” ends with the “-að” suffix characteristic of plural present indicative verbs.

In addition, there were two imperative forms, four subjunctive forms (two for the present tense and two for the preterit, or past, tense), and several others which we no longer have. Even where Modern English retains a particular category of inflection, the form has often changed. Old English present participles ended in –“ende” not “-ing”, and past participles bore a prefix “ge” (as “geandwyrd” – “answered” above).

The period of Middle English extends roughly from the XII-th century through the XV-th. The influence of French and Latin, often by way of French, upon the lexicon continued throughout this period, the loss of some inflections and the reduction of others, often to a final unstressed vowel spelled “-e”, accelerated, and many changes took place within the phonological and grammatical systems of the language.

A typical prose passage, especially one from the later part of the period, will not have such a foreign look to us as Aelfric’s prose has; but it will not be mistaken for contemporary writing either.

The following brief passage is drawn from a work of the late XIV-th century called “Mandeville’s Travels”. It is fiction in the guise of travel literature, and, though it purports to be from the pen of an English knight, it was originally written in French and later translated into Latin and English. In this extract Mandeville describes the land of Bactria, apparently not an altogether inviting place, as it is inhabited by “full yuele [evil] folk and full cruell”.

“In þat lond ben trees þat beren wolle, as þogh it were of scheep; whereof men maken clothes, and all þing þat may ben made of wolle. In þat contree ben many ipotaynes, þat dwellen som tyme in the water, and somtyme on the lond: and þei ben half man and half hors, as I haue seyd before; and þei eten men, whan þei

may take hem. And þere ben ryueres and watres þat ben fulle byttere, þree sithes more þan is the water of the see. In þat contré ben many griffounes, more plentee þan in ony other contree. Sum men seyn þat þei han the body vpward as an egle, and benethe as a lyoun: and treuly þei seyn soth þat þei ben of þat schapp. But o griffoun hath the body more gret, and is more strong, þanne eight lyouns, of suche lyouns as ben o this half; and more gret and strongere þan an hundred egles, suche as we han amonges vs. For o griffoun þere wil bere fleynge to his nest a gret hors, 3if he may fynde him at the poynt, or two oxen 3oked togidere, as þei gon at the plowgh".

In general word order is now very close to that of our time, though we notice constructions like "hath the body more gret" and "three sithes more þan is the water of the see". We also notice that present tense verbs still receive a plural inflection as in "beren, dwellen, han, ben" and that while nominative "þei" has replaced Aelfric's "hi" in the third person plural, the form for objects is still "hem".

All the same, the number of inflections for nouns, adjectives, and verbs has been greatly reduced, and in most respects Mandeville is closer to Modern than to Old English.

2. Development of the Syntactic system in ME and Early NE.

The evolution of English syntax was tied up with profound changes in morphology: the decline of the inflectional system was accompanied by the growth of the functional load of syntactic means of word connection. The most obvious difference between OE syntax and the syntax of ME and NE periods is that the word order became more strict and the use of prepositions more extensive.

The growth of the literary forms of the language, the literary flourishing in Late ME and especially in the age of the Renaissance the differentiation of literary

styles and the efforts made by XVIII-th century scholars to develop a logical, elegant style – all contributed to the improvement and perfection of English syntax. The structure of the sentence and word phrase, on the one hand, became more complicated, on the other hand- were stabilized and standardized.

Syntax by ***Edward J. Vajda***. Let us now move on to another major structural aspect of language, syntax. The word syntax derives from the Greek word "syntaxis", which means "arrangement". Morphology deals with word formation out of morphemes; syntax deals with phrase and sentence formation out of words.

What is a sentence? Although everyone knows or thinks they know what a word is and what a sentence is, both terms defy exact definition. The sentence as a linguistic concept has been defined in over 200 different ways, none of them completely adequate. Here are the most important attempts at defining the sentence: The traditional or common sense definition states that a sentence is a group of words that expresses a thought. The problem comes in defining what a thought is. The phrase "an egg" expresses a thought but is it a sentence? A sentence like "I closed the door because it was cold" expresses two thoughts and yet it is one sentence.

Another definition is that a sentence is a group of words expressing a "topic" (old information) and some "comment" (new information) about that topic: "John left".

Notice how intonation, which is a part of phonology, interacts closely with syntax in delimiting topic from comment, another example of the grammatical interconnectedness of all the so called levels of language. The problem with the topic-comment definition is that many sentences have no clear topic and comment structure: "It's raining".

The grammatical definition of the sentence is the largest unit to which syntactic rules can apply. In terms of syntactic categories, most sentences, at least in English, can be divided into a subject and a predicate. This applies to sentences

with or without a clear topic/comment structure: “John left”. Many sentences have no clear topic and comment structure: “It is raining”. The word “it” here is the so-called dummy “it” used to fill the subject slot for impersonal verbs in English; cf. prshí, snezí.

Another problem with grammatical, or syntactic, definitions of the sentence is that not all sentences, even in English, are divisible into subject and predicate. Some sentence types make no internal syntactic structure; there is no distinction between subject and predicate:

a) Emotive sentences, such as: “Gee! Wow. Darn! Yes! No!”

b) Imperatives: “Go! Leave! Taxi! All aboard! Down with alcohol!”

c) Elliptic sentences: “Who took the car? - John”.

d) Small talk phrases: “Hello. Good-bye. Good morning”.

In polysynthetic languages the single word serves as a complete sentence much more frequently. In such languages, morphology rather than syntax usually expresses the distinction between subject and predicate.

Types of sentences containing a subject and a predicate. Syntax usually examines sentences that have a clear inner division into subject and predicate. There are three types of subject / predicate structured sentences:

a) A **simple sentence** contains at least one subject and one predicate: “John read Pushkin”.

b) A **compound sentence** is two or more simple sentences joined into a single sentence: “John read Pushkin and Mary read Updike”. Each simple sentence maintains its own internal syntactic structure. They may be joined by a coordinating conjunction such as “and” or “or”, or **asyndetically:** without a conjunction.

c) A **complex sentence** is a sentence in which one of the syntactic roles is played by an embedded sentence: "I made students read Noam Chomsky". The simple sentence "students read Noam Chomsky" plays the role of object of the verb "made". Because the syntax of the two parts of a complex sentence is intertwined, it is often not possible to divide them into two free-standing simple sentences. "I made. Students read Avram Noam Chomsky. I saw Mary run".

Complex sentences, then, are said to consist of a **main clause**, with a **subordinate clause** imbedded into its structure (the subordinate clause is often referred to as an **imbedded sentence**). In phrase structure notation a subordinate clause, or imbedded sentence, is notated as **S'**, pronounced "**s-bar"**.

The word that connects a subordinate clause to a main clause, such as the word "that" in the previous example, is known as a subordinate conjunction; in syntactic analysis a subordinate conjunction is known as a **complementizer**, and is notated as **Comp**.

In some English complex sentences the complementizer is optional, in others obligatory: "I know (that) you snore" vs. "I hate when you snore" (if the complementizer has a temporal meaning it can't be left out.)

Words and phrases can be grouped according to their sentence building functions. Syntactic classes of words are traditionally called **parts of speech**. English has the following parts of speech: **noun, adjective, verb, adverb, pronoun, preposition, verbal particle** (the "off" in "turn off the light"), and **article**.

Note the following test to determine what is a preposition and what is a verbal particle in English:

a) "The mouse ran up the clock" – "Up the clock he ran". Prepositional phrases can be fronted.

b) “The man ran up a big bill”. – “Up the big bill he ran”. Verbal particles cannot.

Also: “The mouse ran up it” (pronoun is object of the preposition and can follow the preposition) but not “The mouse ran it up”. But, “The man ran it up” (pronoun is object of the verb and follows the verb) not “The man ran up it”.

Not all languages have the same parts of speech. Many languages have postpositions rather than prepositions, like Georgian “skolashi”- “to school”; “skoladan” - “from school”.

Serbo-Croatian, Slovak and many other languages have **clitics.** Clitics are affixes attached to phrases instead of single words.

“Dal som knigu prijatel’ovi” / “Knigu som dal prijatel’ovi” / “Prijatel’ovi som dal knigu”. – “I gave it to my friend”. Spanish uses the object marking clitics “le” and “lo” after verbs: “Dice mi lo”.

A common assertion is that all languages have at least nouns and verbs. It is true that all languages have some means of conveying information as a concept or as an event, but what a noun or verb is differs from language to language. In the Salishan languages of the Puget Sound, a single word can be translated into English as “village” and “a village exist” or “there is a village”; in other words, morphemes denoting stationary concepts are often bound roots that require verbal affixes to stand as words.

So **parts of speech**, even nouns and verbs, turn out to be at best fuzzy categories across languages, not identical or even present in every language. Some people thing of parts of speech or grammatical categories as similar to protons, electrons and neutrons in how they contribute to the structure of languages, but such is not the case. The “form – meaning” connections differ from language to language. There are universal tendencies, but these do not seem to be absolute universal properties.

Parts of speech are based on syntactic function, not concrete, extra-linguistic meaning. Notice that words are different syntactic classes can have the same concrete meaning and differ only in their ability to combine with other words: "The sky darkens the darkening of the sky, a dark sky, the darkness of the sky".

Thus, syntactic patterns as well as syntactic categories cannot be said to be limited to any concrete real-world meaning; they are linguistic structures relevant for expressing meaning and yet have no specific meaning of their own.

Note ***Avram Noam Chomsky***'s famous semantically anomalous statement: "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously". This sentence is utter nonsense but it is nonsense stated in English and conforms perfectly to complex set rules of English syntax; thus one is tempted to devise a surrealist interpretation of it. The utterance "green sleep colorless furiously ideas" is not a sentence of English at all and even the most imaginative person could not devise a meaning for it.

Syntactic atoms. The basic unit of syntax is not the word, but the **syntactic atom**, defined as a structure that fulfills a basic syntactic function. Syntactic atoms may be either a single word or a phrase that fulfills a single syntactic function. For example: "Fido ate the bone. The dog ate the bone. The big yellow dog ate the bone. Our dog that we raised from a puppy ate the bone". Elements with syntactic equivalence all belong to the same type of syntactic atom (NP, VP).

A language also contains specific rules for properly connecting syntactic atoms to form sentences -these are called **phrase structure rules**. The sentence: "The big yellow dog ate the bone" is well formed because it uses the parts of speech in a way that conforms to the rules of English syntax. The string of words: "big the ate bone dog yellow the", is not a sentence because it violates syntactic rules. It is often not even possible to assign any meaning to a syntactically ill-formed utterance.

This is why the syntactic rules of a language can be followed perfectly to produce illogical or semantically highly improbable sentences: “The bone ate the big yellow dog”. Since a new context could be imagined to render such a statement at least fictionally logical, it is fortunate that our language has a ready made means of expressing it. The fact that syntactic structures are not restricted in the meanings they may express is one reason why we can so easily produce novel sentences never before heard. The semantic independence of the phrase structure rules is one of the main factors that provides for the infinite creativity of human language. Animal systems don’t have any structural units that are meaningful yet totally independent of meaning.

Syntactic Relations and phrase structure rules. Let’s examine syntactic relations within English sentences. One approach is to divide the words of a sentence into **phrases,** defined as words closely associated with one another syntactically. This technique is known as **parsing**. The most fundamental division is between subject and predicate, of course, this is because we are cheating and ignoring sentence types that lack this division. Phrases containing different parts of speech can serve one and the same function. For instance: “The big yellow dog //ate /bones. He //ate the old bone.The big yellow dog //slept.The dog //growled at John”.

Each of these sentences consists of a subject and a predicate. But in each sentence different syntactic types of words or combinations of words constitute subject and predicate. Different combinations of parts of speech fulfilling the same syntactic function are said to be **syntactically equivalent**. It is possible to write rules describing syntactic equivalence. These rules are called **phrase structure rules**.

These rules use special symbols designed exclusively for syntactic descriptions. Grammatical terms or graphic notation devices devised to describe language structure are examples of **meta-language**, defined roughly as language

about language. The syntactic metalanguage used in writing phrase structure rules involves mainly abbreviations from English words for parts of speech.

S--> NP VP. A sentence consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. These correspond to subject and predicate.

NP--> (art) (adj) N or NP --> pronoun

Phrase structure rules are said to be **recursive**. That is, identical elements in the structure of a phrase can repeat. These repeating elements are sometimes known as **parallel items in a series**:

Parallel subjects: the sentence "John came - John, Bill, and Mary came" is a simple sentence with a recursive subject. Compare "John came and Bill came" which is a compound sentence each part of which has a simple subject.

Parallel verbs: "Caesar came, saw, and conquered".

Parallel modifiers - adverbs: a very good book – "a very, very good book"; or adjectives: "a green and red and pink and blue book".

Parallel compound sentences: "I came and Bill came and Mary came and..."

Multiple subordinate clauses in a complex sentence: "I know an old lady who swallowed a fly which was chased by her cat who had been bored because there was nothing to do in the house that Jack built when he..."

Remember the ability of syntactic elements to occur in multiples is known as **recursion**.

It is possible to write an entire book consisting of just one single recursive complex sentence. The property of recursion means that it is impossible to propose limits on the length of sentences. No one will ever be able to state with certainty what the longest possible sentence can be. There are a limited number of words in each language, but a potentially infinite number of sentences.

This realization prompted XIX-th century German linguist ***Wilhelm von Humboldt*** to say: “Language makes infinite use of finite means”. Such a statement could not be made about animal systems of communication, in which the number of messages is strictly limited.

The syntactic atom is the basic unit of syntax; syntactic structures are made up of other syntactic structures; although syntax is separate from meaning we can have syntactically correct sentences which are utterly anomalous semantically, it is not possible to separate syntax from morphology compeletely: there are some instances where specific phrase structure rules are constrained semantically, for instance in “VP = V + NP” - Subcategorization rules for verbal complements.

Let’s take a closer look at verb phrases, which are more complex than noun phrases. First of all, VP can = a single verb (V) “He ate”; or the verb may have an auxilary (aux): “He was eating, He has eaten”; or the verb clause might contain verb + dependent words. There are several types of verb-dependent words, known collectively as verbal complements: “He ate yesterday” (Adv); “He ate meat” (NP); “He ate in the cafe”. (PP) Object noun phrases, prepositional phrases, and adverbs all fulfill the same syntactic function - the verb complement.

The noun phrase complements of action verbs are called direct objects: “He kicked the ball”. Verbs that can take a direct object are called transitive verbs. Some transitive verbs are obligatorily transitive: that is, they cannot be used without a complement: “He made”. Other transitive verbs may omit the object: “I write vs. I write a letter”.

Verbs that cannot take a direct object at all are called intransitive. For instance, the verb “sleep” cannot take a direct object complement: “He slept (yesterday, at home)”, but not “He slept a fish”.

The complements of linking verbs are called predicate nominals, which may be either nouns or adjectives: “John arrived healthy. We became ill”.

Sometimes the same verb can have two different meanings, one requiring a direct object, the other a predicate nominal: “We smelled the roses. The chef made (created) a good salad”. vs.“The roses smelled good. He made (became) a good chef”.

The study of what grammatical form may or may not be used after a verb is called verb government. It is also known as lexical subcategorization, the point being that it is not enough to know the meaning of a word and what part of speech the word belongs to. One must also know additional requirements about how the word may or must combine with other words in a phrase.

Mention that in polysynthetic languages this is part of morphology. The division between syntax and morphology varies across languages.

Phrases and heads. Since they cannot be defined as having specific meanings, syntactic atoms (single words or whole phrases) are defined by how they interact with syntactic rules.

1) They do not allow reordering of their constituents, “It’s the bone the dog ate. The bone, he ate it” - cleft sentences and sentences with left dislocation. You can’t front only part of a syntactic atom any more than you can change the order of morphemes in a word rewrite but not write-re: “The big, he ate the bone”. When used as examples, grammatically ill formed sentences and words are traditionally marked by an asterisk. This also applies to morphologically ill formed words: “ingrun, runre”.

2) One may not anaphorize, or substitutes for, only a part of a morphologically complex syntactic atom “I like the tea's flavor. I like its flavor. Here is coffee and here is a coffeepot I like its pot”.

3) Also, if a morphologically complex syntactic atom takes inflectional endings, then only the head can be so modified, not any of the subordinate constituents. “Workaholic - workaholic like, workedaholic, workingaholic”.

The head of a syntactic atom can sometimes be a zero morpheme: “withstand, grandstand, leaf > maple leaf Toronto Maple Leafs, fly > fly out (a window), a fly ball - to fly out (in baseball) He flied out”.

Notice that noun phrases often have internal rules. English noun phrases observe a strict word order: article, adverb, adjective, noun. Noun phrase structure rules differ from language to language: In French, Hawaiian, and many other languages the adjectives come after the noun.

In many languages the form of articles or adjectives changes to reflect the gender of the noun. When words in a phrase change grammatically to accommodate one another the process is called concord or agreement. French is a good example*:* “le petit garcon vs. la petite fille”; German: “das Haus; der Apfel; die Blume”.

In such cases we say that the noun is the head of the phrase, since it causes other words to change and yet remains unaffected by whatever adjective or article is added to it.

In English, the head of the syntactic unit called the sentence is the subject NP, since the verb agrees with it and not the other way around. Each syntactic atom has its head.

Diagramming sentences, how to deal with ambiguity. Let’s now turn to instances of ambiguity in syntax. Sometimes a sentence or phrase allows for two different syntactic interpretations.Parsing using parentheses to show syntactic relations can disambiguate such a phrase as: “old men and women”.

Other sentences do not lend themselves to such a linear approach. Sometimes the words that belong to the same syntactic unit are separated by other words: “The book that was lying under all the other books is the most interesting”. Tree diagrams can be used to show such “long distance” grammatical relations.

Consider also the sentence “The fish is too old to eat”. Here, parsing and even tree diagramming cannot separate out the two potential meanings. In such cases of semantic ambiguity, paraphrases can be used to express two meanings hidden in a single linear form: “The fish is too old for the fish to eat. The fish is too old to be eaten”.

Noam Chomsky, a linguist at MIT, became interested in the phenomenon of syntactic ambiguity. He noticed that languages contain systematic ways of paraphrasing sentences:

a) Active sentences can regularly be turned into passives: “The boy kicked the ball. > the ball was kicked by the boy”. - Passive transformation.

b) Statements can be regularly turned into questions: “He is there? Is he there?” - Interrogative transformation.

He came to believe that such parallel syntactic means of expressing the same meaning were simply surface manifestations of deeper structural units of language. To study and describe such deep structures, he devised the theory of transformational grammar. The three main tenets of this theory are:

1) The surface forms of a language are reducible to a limited number of deep structures. The same deep structure is manifested in several different ways in actual sentences. This is similar to the use of the principle of allomorphs to describe morpheme variants.

2) These deep structures are universal, in other words, the same for all languages of the world; only the rules for deriving the surface forms from the deep structures differ from language to language.

3) The reason these deep structures are universal is that they are inborn, part of the human genetic code; being inborn they help children discover the surface forms of language so quickly.

Transformational grammar has maintained its popularity since 1957 when ***Noam Chomsky*** published his first book, "Syntactic Structures". But major problems continue to dog the theory. The main problems are:

Transformational rules only work for sentences composed of separate noun and verb phrases. We have seen that not all sentences are of this type.

Mainly English data was used to find these supposedly universal deep structures. Usually one of the paraphrases is taken as the basic one and the other derived from it: active and passive. But active is not more basic in all languages; Japanese uses the passive as its more basic form.

No deep structures have been described that would apply across all languages. Structural universals tend to be proposed, then disgarded as data from new languages disprove them. There seem to be universal tendencies in syntax, but no universal has yet been proven to exist that would be more specific than the general creativity in humans.

Thus, no real progress has been made in writing a universal grammar that would be applicable to all human languages, a sort of in Chemistry we have the Periodic table of Elements, all substances on earth can be seen as compounds of a finite set of elements. Human language doesn't seem to work this way, and no such table of universal grammar elements has been found.

3. Definitions of Grammar.

Since sentence formation is the most obvious and frequent manifestation of creativity in any language, the syntactic rules of a language are often referred to as the grammar of the language. But morphology and phonology are also part of the grammar in that they, too, are creative tools.

Here it might be pertinent to mention a few other definitions of the term grammar that are widely used.

a) A descriptive grammar is a description of the structure of a language in all its aspects, morphology, syntax, phonology, which attempts do portray the language as accurately as possible in terms of how it is naturally used by speakers.

b) A prescriptive grammar is a description of a language which assigns value judgments to competing ways native speakers use in forming words or sentences. Prescriptive grammars do not attempt to describe the language as it is naturally spoken, but rather to tell the speakers how they best should speak it.

c) A third type, grammars of foreign languages written for second language learners fall in between the other two types. They represent attempts to describe a language as it is spoken by natives in order to tell non-natives how to speak it.

When thinking of grammar in the general, descriptive sense, remember that there is no absolute division between syntax, morphology, and phonology. Even in the same language these so called levels of language are not completely separate.

It is not always possible to separate phonology from syntax. For instance, certain phonological rules depend on syntax. Look at these examples from fast speech: “What are you doing?” where “are” = an auxiliary verb, becomes “Whacha doin?” But “What are you?” where “are” = the main verb of the predicate, can’t be run together as “Whacha?” Similarly, “I’m going to work now” in the sense of I am planning to work now > “I’m gonna work now”. But “I’m going to work now” in the sense of “setting out for work”, can’t be contracted. The phonetic environment is the same; but syntactic class the words belong to affect which of them can and cannot be contracted.

Morphology and syntax also interact, as we have seen. Compound words are part of morphology, yet they are dependent on syntactic parameters, as well. Compound words or adjective / noun combinations that act as single words

can express different syntactic functions. One must understand these underlying syntactic functions to understand the meaning of the words: “magnifying glass, falling star vs. looking glass, laughing gas”.

The difficulty of completely separating morphology, syntax, and phonology is especially evident when comparing different languages. What in one language is a part of syntax in another language will be a part of morphology, a fact particularly evident when comparing analytic languages like Chinese to polysynthetic languages like Eskimo.

Questions:

Characterize the development of the syntactic system in Modern English and Early New English.

Give characteristics of Middle English.

Tell the definitions of Grammar.

Describe the word order in Modern English.

What do you know about the syntax by Edward J. Vajda?

What is a sentence? Give the grammatical definition of the sentence.

Analyse the types of sentences containing a subject and a predicate.

Define the syntactic atoms and phrase structure rules.

Describe the peculiarities of the phrases and heads.

Lecture 19. The Age of the Dictionaries.

1. Old English Vocabulary.

2. Early Grammarians (XVIII-th century).

3. Semantic Change.

4. Dictionaries and the Histories of Words. Etymological Survey.

During the 1700-s, there was a great craze for books teaching “correct” grammar, pronunciation and spelling. Many scholars, teachers and fuddy-duddy old men felt that the British should follow strict rules when it came to the English language. They thought that all people should learn to use the language “properly”, and many books were published outlining new sets of rules.

1. Old English vocabulary.

Samuel Johnson published his famous dictionary in 1755. The dictionary took over eight years to compile, required six helpers, and listed 40,000 words. In Johnson’s view the English language was in a terrible mess, and was in great need of discipline. He hoped that his dictionary would help stabilize the rules governing the English language.

S.Johnson did recognise, however, that new words, pronunciations and spellings are constantly appearing, and that it is impossible to stop a language from changing and evolving - rules will always be bent and broken.

S.Johnson was a very pompous man and, in the process of compiling his dictionary, he decided that many words were not good enough for the book - words such as "bang, budge, fuss, gambler, shabby, touchy". Imagine that you were creating a dictionary. You have decided only to include the words you like. Which words would you put into the dictionary, and which would you leave out?

2. Early Grammarians (XVIII-th century).

A proposal for an Academy of the English Language was first brought forth by Jonathan Swift in 1712, but the Parliament voted against it. Nevertheless, several grammarians wrote dictionaries and grammar books in a prescriptive manner - telling people what to do or not to do with the language.

Samuel Johnson's "A Dictionary of the English Language" was published in 1755 and Robert Lowth's "Introduction to English Grammar" appeared in 1762.

Early grammarians felt that language should be logical, therefore, the double negative was considered incorrect (two negatives equal one positive) and should not be used. They also didn't like shortened or redundant words, borrowing words from other languages, except Latin and Greek, split infinitives, or prepositions at the end of the sentence.

A more scientifically minded attitude took hold by the XIX-th century when the Oxford English Dictionary was proposed in 1859. It was to be a factual account of every word in the English language since 1000 including its main form, pronunciation, spelling variations, part of speech, etymology, meanings in chronological order and illustrative quotations.

The project was begun in 1879 under its first editor, James AH Murray. The first edition was published in 1928, with supplements in 1933 and 1972-6. The second edition was published in 1989 and it recognized American and Australian English, as the International Phonetic Alphabet for pronunciation.

3. Semantic Change, Dictionaries and the Histories of Words.

Semantic change, also semantic shift, semantic progression or semantic drift, is the evolution of word usage - usually to the point that the modern meaning is radically different from the original usage.

In diachronic or historic Linguistics, semantic change is a change in one of the meanings of a word. Every word has a variety of senses and connotations, which can be added, removed, or altered over time, often to the extent that cognates across space and time have very different meanings. The study of semantic change can be seen as part of Etymology, Onomasiology, Semasiology, and Semantics.

There are different types of semantic change. A number of classification schemes have been suggested for semantic change. The most widely accepted scheme in the English-speaking academic world is from ***Leonard Bloomfield*** (1933):

Narrowing: Change from superordinate level to subordinate level. For example, “skyline” used to refer to any horizon, but now it has narrowed to a horizon decorated by skyscrapers.

Widening: Change from subordinate level to superordinate level. There are many examples of specific brand names being used for the general product, such as with Kleenex. Such uses are known as generonyms.

Metaphor: Change based on similarity of thing. For example, “broadcast” originally meant “to cast seeds out”; with the advent of radio and television, the word was extended to indicate the transmission of audio and video signals. Outside of agricultural circles, very few people use “broadcast” in the earlier sense.

Metonymy: Change based on nearness in space or time, for instance: “jaw” – “cheek” → “mandible”.

Synecdoche: Change based on whole-part relation. The convention of using capital cities to represent countries or their governments is an example of this.

Hyperbole: Change from weaker to stronger meaning, for example: “kill” – “torment” → “slaughter”.

Meiosis: Change from stronger to weaker meaning, for instance: “astound” – “strike with thunder” → “surprise strongly”.

Degeneration: for instance: “knave” – “boy” → “servant” → “deceitful or despicable man”.

Elevation: for example: “knight” – “boy” → “nobleman”.

However, the categorization of ***A.Blank*** (1998) has gained increasing acceptance:

Metaphor: Change based on similarity between concepts, for example: “mouse” – “rodent” → “computer device”.

Metonymy: Change based on contiguity between concepts, for instance: “horn” – “animal horn” → “musical instrument”.

Synecdoche: A type of metonymy involving a part to whole relationship, for example: “hands” from “all hands on deck” → “bodies”.

Specialization of meaning: Downward shift in taxonomy, for instance: “corn” – “grain” → “wheat” (UK) → “maize” (US).

Generalization of meaning: Upward shift in taxonomy, for example: “hoover” – “Hoover vacuum cleaner” → “any type of vacuum cleaner”.

Cohyponymic transfer: Horizontal shift in taxonomy, for instance: the confusion of “mouse” and “rat” in some dialects.

Antiphrasis: Change based on a contrastive aspect of the concepts, for example: “perfect lady” in the sense of “prostitute”.

Auto-antonymy: Change of a word’s sense and concept to the complementary opposite, for example: “bad” in the slang sense of “good”.

Auto-converse: Lexical expression of a relationship by the two extremes of the respective relationship, for instance: “take” in the dialectal use as “give”.

Ellipsis: Semantic change based on the contiguity of names, for example: “car” – “cart” → “automobile”, due to the invention of the “(motor) car”.

Folk-etymology: Semantic change based on the similarity of names, for instance: French “contredanse”, original English “country dance”.

A.Blank considers it problematic, though, to include amelioration and pejoration of meaning as well as strengthening and weakening of meaning. According to A.Blank, these are not objectively classifiable phenomena; moreover, Blank has shown that all of the examples listed under these headings can be grouped into the other phenomena.

There are forces triggering semantic change. A.Blank has tried to create a complete list of motivations for semantic change. They can be summarized as:

1) Linguistic forces;

2) Psychological forces;

3) Sociocultural forces;

4) Cultural / encyclopedic forces.

This list has been revised and slightly enlarged by ***J.Grzega*** (2004): fuzziness (i.e., difficulties in classifying the referent or attributing the right word to the referent, thus mixing up designations).

1) Dominance of the prototype (i.e., fuzzy difference between superordinate and subordinate term due to the monopoly of the prototypical member of a category in the real world);

2) Social reasons (i.e., contact situation with "undemarcation" effects);

3) Institutional and non-institutional linguistic pre- and proscriptivism (i.e., legal and peer-group linguistic pre- and proscriptivism, aiming at "demarcation");

4) Flattery;

5) Insult;

6) Disguising language (i.e., "mis-nomers");

7) Taboo (i.e., taboo concepts);

8) Aesthetic-formal reasons (i.e., avoidance of words that are phonetically similar or identical to negatively associated words);

9) Communicative-formal reasons (i.e., abolition of the ambiguity of forms in context, keyword: "homonymic conflict and polysemic conflict");

10) Word play / punning;

11) Excessive length of words;

12) Morphological misinterpretation (keyword: "folk-etymology", creation of transparency by changes within a word);

13) Logical-formal reasons (keyword: “lexical regularization”, creation of consociation);

14) Desire for plasticity (creation of a salient motivation of a name);

15) Anthropological salience of a concept (i.e., anthropologically given emotionality of a concept, “natural salience”);

16) Culture-induced salience of a concept (“cultural importance”);

17) Changes in the referents (i.e., changes in the world);

18) World view change (i.e., changes in the categorization of the world);

19) Prestige / fashion, based on the prestige of another language or variety, of certain word-formation patterns, or of certain semasiological centers of expansion.

There are some theoretical studies. Recent overviews have been presented by ***Andreas Blank*** and ***Peter Koch*** (1999). Semantic change had attracted academic discussions already in ancient times.

The first major works of modern times were ***Christian Karl Reisig*** (1839), ***James Darmesteter*** (1887), ***Michel Bréal*** (1899), ***Hermann Paul*** (1880), ***Gustav Stern*** (1931), ***Leonard Bloomfield*** (1933) and ***Stephen Ullmann*** (1951).

Studies beyond the analysis of single words have been started with the word-field analyses of ***Jost Trier*** (1931), who claimed that every semantic change of a word would also affect all other words in a lexical field. His approach was later refined by ***Eugenio Coseriu*** (1964). ***Perls Fritz*** (1964) introduced Generative Semantics.

More recent works including pragmatic and cognitive theories are those in Warren (1992), ***Dirk Geeraerts***, ***Elizabeth Traugott*** (1990) and ***Andreas Blank*** (1997).

As stated above, the most currently used typologies are those by ***L.Bloomfield*** (1933) and ***A.Blank*** (1998) shown above. Other typologies are listed below.

A special interest has typology by ***C.K.Reisig*** (1839). C.K.Reisig's ideas for a classification were published posthumously. He resorts to classical rhetorics and distinguishes between:

1) Synecdoche: shifts between part and whole;

2) Metonymy: shifts between cause and effect;

3) Metaphor.

But there is another typology by ***H.Paul*** (1880):

1) Specialization: enlargement of single senses of a word's meaning;

2) Specialization on a specific part of the contents: reduction of single senses of a word's meaning;

Transfer on a notion linked to the based notion in a spatial, temporal, or causal way.

Typology by ***J.Darmesteter*** (1887) is also essential:

1) Metaphor;

2) Metonymy;

3) Narrowing of meaning;

4) Widening of meaning.

The last two are defined as change between whole and part, which would today be rendered as synecdoche.

There is also typology by ***M.Bréal*** (1899):

1) Restriction of sense: change from a general to a special meaning;

2) Enlargement of sense: change from a special to a general meaning;

3) Metaphor;

4) "Thickening" of sense: change from an abstract to a concrete meaning.

There is the other typology by ***G.Stern*** (1931):

1) Substitution: Change related to the change of an object, of the knowledge referring to the object, of the attitude toward the object, for example: "artillery" – "engines of war used to throw missiles" → "mounted guns", "atom" - "inseparable smallest physical-chemical element" → "physical-chemical element consisting of electrons", "scholasticism" – "philosophical system of the Middle Ages" → "servile adherence to the methods and teaching of schools";

2) Analogy: Change triggered by the change of an associated word, for example: "fast" adj. – "fixed and rapid" ← "faste" adv. "fixedly, rapidly";

3) Shortening: for instance: "periodical" ← "periodical paper";

4) Nomination: "the intentional naming of a referent, new or old, with a name that has not previously been used for it" (G.Stern 1931, p.282), for instance "lion" – "brave man" ← "lion";

5) Regular transfer: a subconscious Nomination;

6) Permutation: non-intentional shift of one referent to another due to a reinterpretation of a situation, for instance: "bead" – "prayer" → "pearl in a rosary";

7) Adequation: Change in the attitude of a concept; distinction from substitution is unclear.

This classification does not neatly distinguish between processes and forces / causes of semantic change.

There is the other typology by S.Ullmann (1957, 1962).

Ullmann distinguishes between nature and consequences of semantic change:

1) Nature of semantic change;

2) Metaphor: change based on a similarity of senses;

3) Metonymy: change based on a contiguity of senses;

4) Folk-etymology: change based on a similarity of names;

5) Ellipsis: change based on a contiguity of names;

6) Consequences of semantic change;

7) Widening of meaning: rise of quantity;

8) Narrowing of meaning: loss of quantity;

9) Amelioration of meaning: rise of quality;

10) Pejoration of meaning: loss of quality.

4. Dictionaries and the Histories of Words. Etymological survey.

The "Oxford English Dictionary" (OED), published by the Oxford University Press, is the premier British dictionary of the English language.Work began on the dictionary in 1857, but it was not until 1884 that it started to be published in unbound fascicles as work continued on the project under the name "A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles; Founded Mainly on the Materials Collected by The Philological Society".

In 1895, the title "The Oxford English Dictionary" (OED) was first used unofficially on the covers of the series and in 1928 the full dictionary was republished in ten bound volumes.

In 1933, it fully replaced the name in all occurrences to "The Oxford English Dictionary" (OED) in its reprinting as twelve volumes with a one volume supplement and more supplements came over the years until in 1989 when the second edition was published in twenty volumes.

The Authors of this dictionary (publication date - 1989) are ***John Andrew Simpson*** (born 13 October 1953) is an English lexicographer and Chief Editor of the "Oxford English Dictionary" (OED), ***Edmund Weiner*** (born 1950 in Oxford, England) was co-editor of the Second Edition of the "Oxford English Dictionary" (1985–1989) and Deputy Chief Editor of the "Oxford English Dictionary" (1993–present). He originally joined the OED staff in 1977, becoming the dictionary's chief philologist.

As of 24 March 2011, the editors had completed the third edition "From M to Ryvita". With descriptions for approximately 600,000 words, the Oxford English Dictionary is the world's most comprehensive single-language print dictionary according to the "Guinness Book of World Records".

The first electronic version of the dictionary was made available in 1988. The online version has been available since 2000, and as of August 2010 was receiving two million hits per month from paying subscribers. The chief executive of Oxford University Press, Nigel Portwood, feels it unlikely that the third edition will ever be printed.

Analysing the age of the dictionaries, briefly speaking, the history of Lexicography we have to mention that the "de-emphasis of diachronics" tendency of modern linguistics is to downplay the importance of diachronics.

In “Linguistics and Biblical Interpretation” ***Peter Cotterell*** and ***Max Turner*** exemplify this tendency: The history of a word - a diachronic study of its use, may explain how a word came to be used with some particular sense at a specified time, but in order to find out what a lexeme means at that particular time we have only to look at the contemporary usage.

The state of a language, and of its lexical stock, can be understood entirely by direct observation of usage at the time in question - synchronous study. We no more need to know the history of the language, or of its lexical stock, to understand the sense of utterances today, than we need to know precisely what moves have been made in a game of chess in order to understand the state of the game and its potentialities now.

E.A.Nida echoes the same opinion: “Etymologies, whether arrived at by historical documentation or by comparative analysis, are all very interesting and may provide significant clues to meaning, but they are no guarantee whatsoever that the historical influence is a factor in the people’s actual use of such linguistic units”.

Moises Silva supports this opinion: “This whole discussion is of the greatest relevance for biblical studies. We must accept the obvious fact that the speakers of a language simply know next to nothing about its development; and this certainly was the case with the writers and immediate readers of Scripture two millennia ago.”

P.Cotterell and ***M.Turner*** even speak of the danger of diachronic study: “Appeal to etymology and to word formation, is therefore always dangerous. Even if a word did originally mean what etymology and word formation suggest, there is no guarantee whatever that the word has not changed meaning by the time a particular biblical writer comes to use it.”

M.Silva quotes ***F.de Saussure*** with apparent favor toward the latter’s endorsement of the exclusive use of synchronics: “The linguist who wishes to

understand a state must discard all knowledge of everything that produced it and ignore diachrony. He can enter the mind of speakers only by completely suppressing the past. The intervention of history can only falsify his judgment."

Modern linguists have little if any interest in the historical backgrounds of words. They argue that such history is absent from the immediate consciousness of speakers and writers and therefore has little or no contribution to understanding meaning.

Traditional grammatical-historical interpretation, however, sees such etymological input as of great value. ***Crowley Terry*** writes, "To understand ... the language of a speaker or writer, it is necessary, first of all to know the meaning of his words.

The interpreter especially, needs to keep in mind the difference, so frequently apparent, between the primitive signification of a word and that which it subsequently obtains. We first naturally inquire after the original meaning of a word, or what is commonly called etymology."

The modern linguist admits that such a history is interesting, but insists that the history was not a part of the direct consciousness of the biblical writer. To this, grammatical-historical hermeneutics would respond that it did not need to be part of his direct awareness to be relevant. The writer belonged to a culture in which this kind of awareness was intuitive, an intuition that the modern interpreter lacks. To atone for that missing intuition, an interpreter must reconstruct the history in order to appreciate what was subconsciously available for an ancient culture and therefore an implied element in his usage of a given word. This is the only way modern man has to "get into the minds" of the ancients and so better understand their intentions in the choice of words. Without knowing how word meanings have developed, the understanding of an exegete is impoverished.

An illustration of the difference in approaches to diachronics relates to the Greek noun "ekklisia" Crowley Terry (***Michael Crowley Terence***) devotes over a

page to discussing the historical background and make-up of the word along with its usage in various NT contexts, in other words both diachronics and synchronics.

P.Cotterell and ***M.Turner***, on the other hand, spend almost two pages telling why Barr disallowed the relevance of diachronics in determining what "ekklisia" means in any given context. Their final paragraph closes with their approval of the way "Barr mercilessly elucidates the etymologizing and related errors of panoply of scholars."

The traditional method is, of course, just as interested in synchronics as is the modern linguist, but not in the exclusive or near-exclusive use of synchronics. Leaving diachronics out of the interpretive process can lead only to an incomplete understanding of what is written.

Words versus concepts have a great interest to analyse. Another pronounced tendency of modern linguistic lexicography is to emphasize that a word cannot denote a concept. Only sentences and larger units of literature can specify concepts. The lexical concept of love instead of including the broader notion of the concept of love, ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner*** observe, "One suspects that the reason for this lack is the failure adequately to distinguish between words and concepts, and a resultant tendency to use the terms interchangeably."

The area of words / concepts is where modern linguists are critical of most established reference works dealing with lexical matters for this reason: those tools fail to distinguish between words and concepts. P.Cotterell and M.Turner broaden their criticism when they say, "It cannot be said there is much consensus as to the precise nature of the relations between words, senses, concepts and things-in-the-world. But that does not excuse Kittel's repeated failure M.Silva acknowledges that C.Terry was "the standard hermeneutical manual" at the turn of the XX-th century – to distinguish them".

M.Silva joins this line of critcism in naming TDNT, Cremer's Biblico-Theological Lexicon of New Testament Greek, and Bauer's Lexicon (BAGD).

D.A.Black extends the criticism to include other lexical tools that “arrange their material alphabetically according to individual words.”

Such a negative appraisal of standard lexical tools differs substantially from the perspective of traditional hermeneutics, which values such tools very highly.

Speaking of similar works coming from the nineteenth century, C.Terry calls parts of Cremer’s work “a very excellent treatment” and says Wilson’s Syntax and Synonymes of the Greek Testament (London, 1864) “is well worthy of consultation.”

Traditional approaches recognize that through extensive usage in various contexts, some words do equate to concepts and so would dispute the claims of modern linguistics that words and concepts must be distinct from each other.

Researching the theme “words and concepts” the section of “synonyms” is very actual. Representing traditional grammatical-historical principles, ***C.Terry*** offers the following in introducing a section on synonyms: The biblical interpreter needs discernment and skill to determine the nice distinctions and shades of meaning attaching to Hebrew and Greek synonymes.

Often the exact point and pith of a passage will be missed by failing to make the proper discrimination between synonymous expressions. There are, for instance, eleven different Hebrew words used in the Old Testament for kindling a fire, or setting on fire, and seven Greek words used in the New Testament forprayer; and yet a careful study of these several terms will show that they all vary somewhat in signification, and serve to set forth so many different shades of thought and meaning.

The importance of studying synonyms and allowing for their shades of meaning has long been a part of conservative evangelical interpretation. Yet this is an area where modern linguistics differs from traditional interpretation more than any other. Such an observation is shocking to those who hold to verbal inspiration

of Scripture. To substitute one word for another is to tamper with the words God used in inspiring the author. It is true that one may not press for distinctions in meaning of synonyms when synonyms occur in widely separated contexts, but to say that a substitution can be made "without any loss of meaning" veers off in the direction of dynamic inspiration rather than verbal inspiration.

David Alan Black's position is essentially the same as ***M.Silva***'s. He writes, "In each instance, i.e., of the use of synonyms, the principle of semantic neutralization informs us that any of the terms in these pairs may be used interchangeably without any significant difference in meaning, depending upon the purpose of the biblical author". Among such synonyms he includes pairs such as agapaç and phileç ("I love") and oida and ginçskç ("I know"). By contrast, ***C.Terry*** makes a major point of distinguishing the meanings of each of these two pairs.

M.Silva supports the modern-linguistic equating of the meanings of such synonyms as these: One question that arises generally in the Pauline corpus, but pointedly in Philippians, is whether the apostle intends clear semantic distinctions when similar terms are grouped together. Many commentators persuaded that Paul could not be guilty of redundancy, look for these distinctions and emphasize them. Linguists, drawing on the work of communication engineers, have long recognized that redundancy is a built-in feature of every language and that it aids, rather than hinders the process of communication.

He departs from a traditional approach to the text in light of "communication engineers" who side with the recognized tendency of human speech and writing toward redundancy. In other words, inspired Scripture has no more precision than everyday human communication. Here preunderstanding reads into biblical interpretation what is known about other forms of communication.

In other words, when God inspired the Word, He did so through incorporating human imprecision that requires the repetition of the same

generalized thought two or more times. This is one of the qualifications he makes in reference to the time-honored works.

This philosophy of substituting one word for another without changing the meaning of a sentence in the least bit lies behind the strong endorsement of ***J.P.Louw***'s and ***E.A.Nida***'s Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament Based on Semantic Domains. Here is a work that modern linguists see as offering alternatives to various words that Scripture does not distinguish from one another even when used together in the same context.

Questions:

What do you know about the Age of the Dictionaries?

Which Early Grammarians of the XVIII-th century have you heard ever?

What causes semantic change?

Characterize the forces triggering semantic change.

What is it called when words change meaning over time?

Which Old English vocabulary do you know?

What are the different semantic changes?

Speak about the dictionaries and the histories of the words.

What is the origin of the theoretical studies?

Describe the etymological survey.

Is English changing?

Why is the English language always changing?

Lecture 20. Borrowings and Influences, Making New Words.

1. Romans, Celts, Danes, Latin, Celtic, Scandinavian Borrowings.

2. Latin Borrowings in the Epoch of Renaissance.

3. The Enrichment of the Language.

4. French Loan-words.

5. Romanian Borrowings.

6. Azerbaijanian Borrowings.

7. Borrowings from Contemporary Language in NE.

Language seems to be influenced by two competing processes. Language change is slowed because all the speakers of a language need to understand each other. Language change is accelerated because of the factors we have discussed above, and also because of phenomena like the borrowing of words, the desire of children or other subgroups to speak distinctively different from others, and physical and cultural isolation.

The shifting balance between change and stasis leads to the development of languages at different rates and in different environments. The inventions of language-preserving technologies such as writing, tape-recording, and schools, along with language-spreading technologies like telecommunications and fast travel, all play a part in aprocess that has been going on since the first words were spoken.

Languages can also create new words through coinage; the deliberate invention of new words that are not built up out of preexisting morphemes.New

words can also enter the language by the combination of existing complete words, rather than the addition of morphemes to existing words.

Germanic languages, for reasons that are not entirely understood, have astrong tendency to create words by compounding, usually by linking togethertwo separate nouns to create a word that, while originally understood as the union of the two separate terms, eventually becomes recognized as a single lexical unit. “Fireplace” is a good example. Yes, it is a place for a fire, but it is now also a very specific thing, and if you build a nice bonfire on your lawn, you will not call the burned spot a “fireplace,” though it might be “the fireplace.” Likewise a “girlfriend” has a special meaning separate from a “girlfriend,” and “birthplace,” although it is indeed the place where someone wasborn, has a somewhat more specialized meaning.

Compounds can also be created from other parts of speech. Verbs can be compounded with verbs to create words like “sleepwalk.” Adjectives can be compounded with adjectives in words like “Anglo-Saxon”. Nouns compounded with verbs give us “proofread” and “babysit,” and a verb compounded with a noun gives us “payday.” “Waterproof” is a noun - adjective compound, and “strike out” combines a noun with a preposition.

The principle of compounding allows an immense number of new words to be created from a very limited original vocabulary: a mere twenty-six words can generate more than 4 x 1026 possible two-word compounds. Of course, many if not most of these would be non-sensical, but obviously with such a large set of possibilities, many, many new words can be generated.

The process of back-formation can be seen as the mirror-image of compounding. Speakers apply morphological analysis to words and generate from them new words that had not previously existed. For example, English uses the suffix “-er” as an “agentive”, it indicates that someone is doing something. Words

like “baker” and “firefighter” have this agentive. But regular nouns in Old Norse have a nominative ending of “r”, when the noun is the subject.

English speakers hear these words as having a suffix “-er” and assume thatthey have been created by adding the “-er” suffix to an existing word. English speakers then subtract the suffix, creating a word without “-er” that never actually existed. For example, a “berserk” is a crazy fighter who enters a kind of killing frenzy in which he cannot be controlled and seems to be immune to most attacks. English speakers created the back-formation of an adjective “berserk” from “berserk,” assuming it meant “one, who is berserk.”

The singular form of the word for the pea (the vegetable) was in fact “pease,” but some speakers took the “s” on the end of this word as indicating a plural and back-formed the word “pea.” “Edit,” “peddle,” and “swindle” were all created by back-formation, as was “enthuse” from “enthusiasm”.

If we want someone tobe less ruthless and say “have some ruths” or tell someone else to “be couth”or suggest that while I was unhappy at my job yesterday, today I am perfectly “gruntled,” we are creating words through back-formation.

Proper names can also be a source of new words in a language. If a person becomes famous or infamous for a particular thing, his or her name cangain immortality by becoming a common noun or verb. These eponyms are often not recognized as being related to proper nouns, outlasting the fame of the individual who inspired them. “Sandwich” is named after the Earl of Sandwich, as we all learned in grammar school, who wanted to be able to eat quickly while gambling.

“Algorithm,” “Caesarian,” “diesel,” “leotard,” “maverick,” “sadism,” “sideburns,” “teddy bear,” “valentine,” and “volt” are all nouns created from proper names. Verbs can also be eponymous.

Recently I overheard one student say to another, “Don’t Homer that donut,” telling him not to eat it in one bite. The proper noun “Homer” from “Homer Simpson”, of course, was changed into a verb. “To Bogart,” “to galvanize,” and “to guillotine” are also eponymous verbs. Brand names can also become verbs, such as “to Xerox” and “to Hoover.”

Languages also generate new words, or reassign meanings of words from within by processes called broadening and narrowing. Linguistic broadening occurs when a word that once had a specific meaning begins to include awider semantic range in its possible meanings. For instance, “holiday” was originally “halig dæg,” which translates as “holy day,” meaning a feast or celebration of the church. Some wags joke that English as a language makes no sense because, among other things, we can ship a car but not car a ship, but “ship” is a broadening of the original definition, to send by ship, to mean to transport in any way.

Narrowing can make a word more specific rather than less so. In Anglo-Saxon England you could kill a really nice deer and have some tasty pork for dinner: “Deor” meant any animal rather than the specific white-tailed beast with horns we think of today when we use the word. “Starve” simply meant “to die” in Chaucer’s time; to die due to lack of food is a narrowing that has occurred since the XIV-th century.

One form of narrowing is called **linguistic degradation**. If I were to say that my neighbour was spending an evening with her gossips, you might think I was a pretty obnoxious woman, and if she found out I said such a thing, she would probably be angry. But for the Puritans who used to live in town outside of Boston, saying that you had spent time with your “gossips” just meant that you had visited some close friends or relatives: Your “gossips” were your “god-sibs” (good-kinsmen). If I called my neighbour a “hussy” you would, I hope, beeven more scandalized.

But in the XVI-th century, a “hussy” was simply the woman in charge of the household. The word even had connotations of being a good economic manager, being thrifty and clever.

Processes of degradation are very frequently seen in words that reference women and members of minority groups. What was perfectly acceptable a generation ago, such as the term “colored”, which I can remember hearing elderly relatives using, has now become degraded enough that it is no longer within the range of socially acceptable discourse.

The neologism “person-of color” is already undergoing a process of degradation, as did the phrase“politically correct,” which was originally a positive description.

Another semantic field that seems to undergo continual degradation is references to the sense of smell. In Anglo-Saxon, a “stench” (stenc) was just asmell and could be good or bad. “Stench” became a very negative term, and was replaced by “smell,” which in turn is mostly negative, though it can take a modifier to be positive and might even at times be neutral.

“Smell” was replaced with the Latinate “odor” for polite conversation, but that word also underwent degradation. “Aroma” and “perfume” are probably the most positively connoted smell words today, but even these are being degraded.

1. Romans, Celts, Danes, Latin, Celtic, Scandinavian Borrowings.

All of the processes discussed above demonstrate the ways that a language of a completely isolated population could nevertheless grow in range, sophistication, and specialization. But most populations are not isolated; languages continually rub up against each other as people travel, trade, and conquer.

When there is language contact, languages change.This change mostly occurs through the process of borrowing. People hear a word in some language for which they do not have a simple equivalent in their own.

Some languages, such as English in the early Old English period, will reanalyze a foreign word in their own terms. Thus, the word “historigraphus” (historian, history writer) becomes in Anglo-Saxon “tidwritere” (time-writer). Butmore often than not the new word is simply taken into the language.

We will look at the many words borrowed by English in its early period, butthis process continues today. “Pajamas” and “jodhpurs” were both borrowed from Hindi to describe clothing forms not previously known in English.

German gave words for mining and specific minerals, such as “cobalt” and “quartz” and “feldspar.”

“Moose,” “chipmunk,” and “woodchuck” come from **American English**, as do many place names.

Japanese has given, among otherwords, “anime,” which is particularly interesting because the word was originally based on a Latin root (“anima”), brought into English in the XIV-th century as “animated,” meaning “alive,” then reapplied in the XVI-th century tomean “giving the appearance of being alive,” then applied to moving cartoons around 1910, then borrowed in Japan in the post-World War II era and converted to “animé” following the rules of Japanese phonology, and then recently re-borrowed back to English as “anime.”

As this particular example shows, languages weave a tangled web of borrowings and re-borrowings, and the resulting body of words has scattered through it the history of language contact, technology, conquest, trade, and art.

Most scholars think English is particularly eager both to borrow words and to coin new ones. So profligate is the language in its continued expansion that dictionaries cannot keep up: new words are added to spoken English more rapidly

than they can be recorded. And although words do dieout for various reasons, including technological change and the evolution of social customs, English at least, continued to increase the stock of new words, giving us new ideas and new ways to express them.

Celtic languages were most influential on Old English in the realm of placenames, hundreds of which are Celtic. The “Wor” in “Worcester,” “Win” in “Winchester”, “Ex” in “Exeter and Glou” in “Gloucester” are all Celtic. Rivers in England have a very high proportion of Celtic names, as do hills: “Bryn Mawr,” which means “great hill” is Welsh, as is “Barr”, which also means “hill”. “Comb” at the end of various place names means “deep valley.”

It seems that Celts named the permanent features of the landscape and thatthese names were adopted by the Anglo-Saxons who later migrated to England. This little bit of linguistic history also shows that there was at least enough contact for the Anglo-Saxons to learn the names: They did not arrive in a completely empty landscape.

A few Celtic words from agriculture and landscape in general, rather than specific places, also entered into Old English. “Binn” is the source for “bin”, originally “basket”, “crag” is “rock” and thus, the name “Craig,” whose consonants show that it is borrowed later from Welsh, “ass” meaning “donkey”, which is originally from Latin but which passed through Celtic before reaching Old English, and “dun,” “dark colored,” are among these. One of the very fewverbs to enter into Old English from Celtic is “cursian” - “to curse”.

When the Anglo-Saxons finally arrived in England through invasion or invitation, they met a Romano-British population that, although it had been influenced by Latin for four centuries, still had deep Celtic roots. Yet Celtic languages had surprisingly little influence on Old English.

Scholars used to think that Celtic languages might be so fundamentally different in phonology that words could not easily be adopted from them, but that conclusion is now mostly taken as being too speculative.

Recent work by archaeologists and DNA researchers suggests another, less whole some possibility: Although the Anglo Saxons did not practice widespread extermination of the native population, it is possible that they did create a social structure in which Anglo-Saxons did most of the marrying and producing of children, and native Celtic males were kept on the outskirts of society, many as slaves.

Another possibility is that the Romano-British inhabitants had been radically depleted by plague or economic decline: This interpretation does fit with some of the historical materials that we know. Possibly each explanation tells part of the truth.

The Germanic tribes were exposed to **Latin** before they invaded England, so the languages they spoke did have some Latin influence. After converting to Christianity, Latin had more influence, as evidenced in words pertaining to the church. Celtic did not have a large impact on English, as only a few place names are of Celtic origin, but **Danish** - **Old Scandinavian** did contribute many vocabulary words.

The ancestors of the Anglo-Saxons had borrowed **Latin** words from the Romans while the tribes were still living on the continent, and a few more Latin terms had entered into the language via Celtic, the "-chester" in various placenames comes from Latin by way of Celtic, as do "port" and "mount" and placenames ending in "-wic", but the greatest influence of Latin on Old English came from Christians rather than from Romans.

After Pope Gregory the Greatsent Augustine to Canterbury in 597, and particularly after the last heathen kingdom, Sussex, was converted in the middle of the VII-th century, the Roman Catholic Church was an enormously important

cultural presence in England. The English had been quick to convert to Christianity, and they almost immediately began to send missionaries to the continent to try to convert their heathen, Germanic cousins there, their success was mixed.

Because Latin was the language of the Roman Church, this tongue began to have an enormous influence on Old English. In the beginning of the Christian period, speakers of Old English translated key Latin terms into Old English, creating a variety of neologisms (newly invented words) and new compounds that are at times almost poetic.

The words that were created this way are not precisely borrowings, and their being translated into Old English suggests that Latinity was not particularly widespread. There were enough Latin speakers to invent the words, but the Latin did not simply cross into English: That would happen later.

A good representation of the situation is the story of Cædmon, the first named poet in English. “Cædmon was a herdsman. One evening, people were passing a harp around and taking turns singing. Cædmon left the feast and hid himself in the barn because he could not sing. He fell asleep, and in a dream an angel came to him. “Cædmon, sing for me,” the angel said. “I cannot,” said Cædmon, explaining that this is why he had left the feast”.

“Nevertheless, you must sing,” said the angel, instructing ***Cædmon*** to sing about the creation. Cædmon then awoke with the power to be told a story that was translated from Latin and to produce it in Old English verse. His poem, “Cædmon’s Hymn,” is preserved in the manuscript of the Venerable Bede’s Ecclesiastical History of the English People, but there is some controversy as to whether we have the original Old English composition: ***Saint Bede*** wrote down the poem in Latin, translating the original. At some point an Old English version was added to the manuscript.

Here is the poem as we have it:

Nu sculon herian heofon rices weard

meotodes meahte ond his mod ge†anc

weorc wuldorfæder swa he wundra gehwæs

ece dryhten or astealde

he ærest scop ielda bearnum

heofon to hrofe halig scyppend

a middangeard monncynnes weard

ece dryten æfter teode

firum foldan frea ælmihtig.

Translation: Now we must praise the keeper of the heavenly kingdom the might of the lord and his mind-wisdom, the work of the wonder-father, as he, each of wonders, the eternal lord, first established. He first made for the race of men heaven as a roof, the holy shaper, then middle-earth, the guardian of mankind the eternal lord, afterwards established theearth for men, the almighty lord.

Cædmon was supposedly able to translate any story into Old English poetry, once he had been told what the Latin source meant (he was himself illiterate).

Similarly, Aldhelm, Bishop of Sherborne, supposedly stood on a bridge and recited Old English poetry to the people in order to gather them together and encourage them to come to church. A century and a half later, the Old English poems of Aldhelm were said to be King Alfred's favorites, but none of them has survived to this day (as far as we know). Similarly, in the early years after the conversion we see Latin words translated into Old English.

Some examples of this translation process include "Evangelist," which became "godspellere" (teller of good stories) and "Trinity", which becomes "rynnes" (three-ness). A patriarch was an "ealdfæder" (old father) or "heahfæder"

(high father). To baptize was translated as “dyppan” (to dip) or “fulwihan”, to consecrate completely. Later, Latin words were imported directly into English and many of these translations were replaced by the original Latin words.

During the VIII-th century, the church became even more significant in English culture, and here was obviously enough interaction between Latin speakers in the church and Old English speakers outside of it for a plethora of Latin terms to be borrowed by English. A large proportion of these were words for the church, its rites, clothing, buildings, and people: “abbot, angel,candle, chalice, cleric, hymn, mass, noon, nun, priest, rule, shrine, and temple” all enter into English at this time and have never been replaced.

Latin words for other articles of clothing and food also were borrowed by English, including such terms as “cap, sock, sack, beet, pear, radish, lobster, and mussel” and the verb “to cook”. Words relating to education also suggest the vital influence of the church in this area: school, grammatical, notary, and the word Latin itself was borrowed at this time.

Scandinavian Influence. The greater part of lexical borrowings from Old Scandinavian was not recorded until the XIII-th century. The presence of the Scandinavians in the English population is indicated by a large number of place-names in the northern and eastern areas: more frequent are with such components:

-thorp <village> – Woodthorp;

-toft <piece of land> – Brimtoft;

-ness<cape> – Inverness.

The total number of Scandinavian borrowings in English is estimated at about 900 words. It is difficult to define the spheres of Scandinavian borrowings: they mostly pertain to everyday life and don’t differ from native words.

Only the earliest loan-words deal with military and legal matters: Late OE “barda”, “cnearr” – different types of ships, “cnif” – NE “knife”, “orrest” – “battle”, “lazu” – “law”, “hūsbonda” – “husband”, the verb “tacan” – “take”.

Everyday words, for instance:

a) Nouns: “bag, band, cake, egg, seat, sky, window”;

b) Adjectives: “happy, ill, odd, ugly, weak”;

c) Verbs: “call, die, hit, lift, take, want”.

It is difficult to distinguish Scandinavian loans from native words, the only criteria-phonetic features: the consonant cluster [sk]: “sky, skill”; [k] and [g]: before front-vowels: “kid, girth”. But, still, these criteria are not always reliable. The intimate relations of the languages resulted also in phonetic modification of native words: “give gift”.

Words from Scandinavian Germanic languages were borrowed after contact with the Vikings and the Danes during their raids on England in the VIII-th – IX-th centuries. These words were distinguished by special sounds in the Scandinavian languages, in particular, the sounds “sk” and “k”, which corresponded to the sounds “sh” and “ch” in Old English. Thus, Scandinavian “skirt, kirk, skip, dike” have Germanic family cognates in Old English “shirt, church, ship, ditch”.

Scandinavian languages also had a hard “g” sound that was not present in Old English. The words “muggy, ugly, egg, rugged” are Scandinavian borrowings; certain words with the “ll” sound, such as “ill”, were also borrowed.

In the X-th and XI-th centuries, during the period of the Benedictine Reform, more elaborate and learned Latin words came into Old English, including “Antichrist, apostle, canticle, demon, font, nocturne, Sabbath, synagogue, accent, history, paper”, and so on.

2. Latin Borrowings in the Epoch of Renaissance.

The mixed character of the English vocabulary facilitated an easy adoption of words from Latin. Many of these belong to certain derivational types. The most easily recognizable are the following:

1) Verbs in “-ate”, derived from the past participle of Latin verbs of the 1-st conjugation in “-are”: aggravate, irritate, abbreviate, narrate;

2) Verbs in “-ute”, derived from the past participle of a group of Latin verbs of the third conjugation in “-uere”: attribute, constitute, pollute, and from the Latin deponent verb sequi with various prefixes: persecute, execute, prosecute;

3) Verbs derived from the past participle of other Latin verbs of the third conjugation: dismiss, collect, affect, correct, collapse, contradict;

4) Verbs derived from the infinitive of Latin verbs of the third conjugation: permit, admit, compel, expel, produce, also introduce, reproduce, conclude, also include, exclude.

5) Adjectives derived from Latin present participles in “-ant” and “-ent”. Verbs of the second, third, fourth conjugation: arrogant, evident, patient.

6) Adjectives derived from the comparative degree of Latin adjectives with the “-ior” suffix: superior, junior, minor.

It is often hard or even impossible to tell whether a word was adopted into English from Latin or from French. Thus, many substantives in “-tion” are doubtful in this respect.

3. The Enrichment of the Language.

There are those who deplore the addition of French words to the English language. Writing manuals encourage students to use simple, “Anglo-Saxon

words" rather than French or Latinate forms, though such "simple" words as "face, cruel, grain, carry, tempt, strife, spirit, pure, real, and stout" are French borrowings.

But French did in fact enormously enrich the English language. France was the leading culture of Europe at this time, and the words that come in from French give English a greater semantic range and more poetic power. Yes, there is a spare beauty about Old English, and it deserves to bemore widely read and enjoyed.

But Middle English became a beautiful language in its own right, and in the hands of a genuine master like ***Geoffrey Chaucer***, one of the three greatest poets in the history of English, Middle English becomes both beautiful and poignant. Here are just Chaucer's most famous lines, but he wrote thousands of others that are also works of beauty, drawing as they do both on the English tradition and the techniques and vocabulary of the continent. Chaucer spoke French well and in fact could not have created his art without the contribution of French.

Yet he was proudly English, as he demonstrates when he describes "all God's plenty" in his "General Prologue" to the Canterbury Tales, using a mix of French and English words in a new, simplified Middle English grammar, that in later centuries would go on to take over the linguistic globe:

Whan that April with his shoures soote
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,
And bathed every veyne in swich licuor,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
Whan Zephyrus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tender croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halve cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,

That slepen al the night with open ye

(So priketh hem Nature in hir corages)

Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages.

And Chaucer was not the only great poet. ***William Langland's Piers Plowman*** is known more for its social commentary, but at times Langland soars to poetic heights. Likewise the anonymous author of Sir Gawain and the Green Knight was able to create beautiful art without ever avoiding French:

Sumwhyle wyth wormeȝ he werreȝ, and with wolues, als,

Sumwhyle with wodwos, at woned in e knarreȝ

Bo†e wiyth bulleȝ and bereȝ, and boreȝ oerquyle,

And etayneȝ, at him anelede of e heȝe felle.

4. French Loan-words.

Considering **French borrowings** it is important to note that the Conquest provided the impetus for the grammatical changes. But in fact English and French did not mix very much until after 1204. The vast majority of French words that enter English are borrowed after this date. Why?

Because when French was the main language, and even later when there was a significant bilingual population, there was no need to bring French words into English: A speaker could just switch to French. But once French and English separated, a massive influx of French words changed forever the English language, enriching its vocabulary with thousands of new words.

Through the XIII-th and XIV-th centuries, hundreds of French words poured into English. Entire semantic fields became dependent upon French vocabulary. For example, nearly all English words dealing with **government** and **law,** with the

exception of the word “law,” which is Scandinavian, come from French: “government, justice, crime, jury, felon, punishment, prison, attorney, mortgage, heir, legacy, sovereign, prince, princess, duke, duchess, count, countess, baron, squire, and page” are all French.

Many words for **war** also come from French, including “army”, “navy” and “soldier”. **Luxury goods** and words for **fashion** are predominantly French, including all of the major **gem stones** “diamond, ruby, sapphire, emerald, pearl, and amethyst”.

Food words also enter English from French, and it is here perhaps that these mantic spheres of French and English are most obvious. The words for **domestic animals** in English are all Old English words: “ox, pig, sheep”. But when these animals are cooked and their **meat** placed on the table, the words are French: “beef, pork, mutton”, as well as many, many other words for food and food preparation. Words for **art, literature, philosophy, architecture** and **medicine** are also heavily French.

Analysing **French Loan-words** we must mention that the loanwords are words adopted by the speakers of one language from a different language. French continues to be the largest single source of new words outside of very specialized vocabulary domains: scientific-technical vocabulary, still dominated by classical borrowings.

Law and government: attorney, bailiff, chancellor, chattel, country, court, crime, defendent, evidence, government, jail, judge, jury, larceny, noble, parliament, plaintiff, plea, prison, revenue, state, tax, verdict, justice, felon, punishment, mortgage, heir, legacy, sovereign, prince, princess, duke, duchess, count, countess, baron, squire, page.

Church: abbot, chaplain, chapter, clergy, friar, prayer, preach, priest, religion, sacrament, saint, sermon.

Nobility: baron, baroness; count, countess; duke, duchess; marquis, marquess;prince, princess; viscount, viscountess; noble, royal, contrast native words: king, queen, earl, lord, lady, knight, kingly, queenly.

High culture: ballet, bouillabaise, cabernet, cachet, chaise longue, champagne, chic, cognac, corsage, faux pas, nom de plume, quiche, rouge, roulet, sachet, salon, saloon, sang froid, savoir faire.

Culture and luxury goods: art, bracelet, claret, clarinet, dance, diamond, fashion, fur, jewel, oboe, painting, pendant, satin, ruby, sculpture.

War and Military: army, artillery, bastion, bayonet, battalion, battle, brigade, captain, cavalry, company, corporal, defense, enemy, grenade, infantry, marine, navy, pallisade, rebuff, sergeant, soldier, volunteer.

Cooking: beef, boil, broil, butcher, dine, fry, mutton, pork, poultry, roast, salmon, stew, veal.

Other: adventure, bigot, change, charge, chart, chassis, clique, courage, denim, devout, dignity, enamor, feign, female, fruit, garage, grotesque, jean(s), letter, literature, magic, male, mirror, niche, pilgrimage, proud, question, regard, shock, special.

French Canadian: chowder;

Louisiana French (Cajun): jambalaya.

Also Middle English French loans: a huge number of words in "-age, -ance / -ence, -ant / -ent, -ity, -ment, -tion, con-, de-, pre-".

Sometimes it's hard to tell whether a given word came from French or whether it was taken straight from Latin. Words for which this difficulty occurs are those in which there were no special sound or spelling changes of the sort that distinguished French from Latin.

5. Romanian borrowings.

These are words in the English language which come from Romanian:

“pastrami” is a type of cured meat, usually cited as being from the Romanian verb “a păstra” – “to keep” or “to preserve”, which entered into Yiddish and hence into English. Another theory suggests it is from the Turkish and entered into Romanian language, and another suggests connections with Greek “πσατώνως pastonos”, “I salt”;

“hora” is a type of circle dance, originating in the Balkans but also found in other countries, its English etymology includes Hebrew, Romanian and Turkish;

(Rom.) “spida” speed of the wind, vortex - (Eng.) “speed”;

(Rom.) “a prepara” - (Eng.) “to prepare”, both with the same meaning, also, French “preparer”;

(Rom.) “preerie” - (Eng.) “prairie”, same meaning, also, Old French “praierie”;

(Rom.) “pur” (pure) - (Eng.) “poor”, same pronounciation;

(Rom.) “plin” - (Eng.) “plenty”, same meaning;

(Rom.) “pita /e” (singular and plural) “bread” or “yeast dough baked in the oven” - (Eng.) “pie”;

(Rom.) “peticit”, vb. “a petici” - (Eng.) “patchy” where “-ci-“ (Rom.) is pronounced like “-chy-“ (Eng.), both with the same meaning;

(Rom.) “riulet” - (Eng.) “rivulet”, both carry the same meaning;

(Rom.) “rup” – “to tear” - (Eng.) “rip”;

(Old Rom.) “minci” eat - (Eng.) “munch”, “-ci-“ (Rom.) is pronounced like “-ch” (Eng.);

(Rom.) “ori” - (Eng.) “or”, like in “this or that”, with the same meaning in both languages;

(Rom.) “o liva” a breeze of air - (Eng.) “alive”;

(Rom.) “gard” fence - (Eng.) “guard”, also, (Fr.) “garde”;

(Old Rom.) “acu” - (Eng.) “ago” both with the same meaning.

6. Azerbaijanian borrowings.

The process of globalization, covering various spheres of life, is universal, as for thousands of years separated, remote to some extent, differential events - national or regional peculiarities, habits, complexes strongly influenced by modern technologies, approaching each other with incredible speed and combine as a result of multifaceted economic, socio-political, moral and ideological ties, limiting the kind of peculiarities, lead to the events and processes happening in the world.

English history is very rich in different types of contacts with other countries, that’s why it is very rich in borrowings. Today a rapid growth of the prestige of the English language is observed in the modern world, as well as in Azerbaijan and this can be explained by, at least, two reasons. The first: there exists a necessity for a universal means of communication, a common language for the whole mankind. The second: the advantages of the English language in comparison with other international languages in gratifying this need.

The destiny of the Azerbaijani language in a globalizing world depends on several factors: ensuring the development of Azerbaijani as a state language on the territory of the Azerbaijan Republic; dissemination of literary and standard quality of the Azerbaijani language as the main medium of communication among the Azerbaijanis of the world; at least, the growing interest in the Azerbaijani language in the world.

In fact, these factors have necessary conditions to enhance the status of the Azerbaijani language. It depends of the potential of the population, the intellectual and cultural opportunities of the people and quite perfect language policy of the independent Azerbaijan Republic.

Learning foreign languages gives the learners insight into the people, culture and traditions of other countries and helps them to understand their own language and culture. Language is the means of the forming, developing and keeping of the culture. Language and culture are closely interrelated. Culture is the foundation of communication. Cultures provide people with ways of thinking, seeing, hearing and interpreting the world. Thus, the study of cross-cultural communication is fast becoming a global research area. As a result cultural differences in the study of cross-cultural communication can already be found.

In present time intercultural communication is an inseparable part of the progressive mankind's life. Every cultural dialogue has taken a new meaning in the context of globalization and current international climate in politics. Thus it is becoming a vital meaning of maintaining peace and world unity.

I think we must pay a great attention to the integration of the Azerbaijan Republic into Europe and vice versa and devise a new cultural policy agenda for development and mutual understanding. Analyzing global context a great role plays a changing cultural landscape, new socio-cultural fabrics, trends of standardization of cultural patterns at the global level and cultural diversification at the local level, relating cultural diversity and intercultural dialogue: a virtuous cycle, rethinking cultural policy design, key objectives and strategies, and the two-tiered approach to rethinking cultural policy for development and mutual understanding.

In modern society intercultural dialogue is not a conversation between two cultures, but a close interaction of them. Intercultural dialogue is a process that comprises an open and respectful exchange of interaction between individuals,

groups and organizations with different cultural backgrounds or world views. Intercultural dialogue is the communication between the representatives of the various cultures from different countries. In multicultural society several cultures live together and co-exist.

We also pay attention that the Azerbaijan Republic is really multicultural as it is the acceptance and encouragement of many cultures in a society. In our multicultural society one can find people of different backgrounds or religions living together.

It is an undebatable fact that the close connection and the interaction of the languages influenced on the ways of the expression of the borrowings. Mutual influence among the world languages and the borrowings – all these processes has happened very often. So, it gives the reason to analyze all these processes.

It is very important to know that cultural awareness is the foundation of communication and it involves the ability of standing back from ourselves and becoming aware of our cultural values, beliefs and perceptions. I think, as we live in the XXI-st century we have to be a cultural awareness in order not to fall in cultural shock when we'll meet the different representatives of various nations. Cultural awareness becomes central when we have to interact with people from other cultures. Increasing cultural awareness means to see both the positive and negative aspects of cultural differences.

Cultural diversity is a defining feature of human societies, and different approaches to accommodating diversity have sparked heated debates all over Europe. Although the questions framed and discussed specifically as multicultural ones vary across time and place, the notion of culture equality has developed into site of controversy in several countries.

Cultural diversity could be a source of problems, in particular when the organization needs people to think or act in a similar way. Diversity increases the level of complexity and confusion and makes agreement difficult to reach. On the

other hand, cultural diversity becomes an advantage when the organization expands its solutions and its sense of identity, and begins to take different approaches to problem solving.

The words denoting Azerbaijani culture, art, music are loan-words in English. For example: “tar, keman, saz, zourna, daf (drum - musical instruments), mugham, rast, shur, bayati-shiraz, segakh, zabul, khanende (singer), buta, kalaghayi, armudu stakan (pear-shaped glass)”; “plov, ash, (fi-)sindjan, dolma, saj, qutab / kutab, dovgha, piti, kalla pacha, khash, baklava, shakarbura, firni, umac, kogal (culinary samples), Novruz, samani, khoncha, sandik (chest), (Turkish / Arabian) hammam, saray (palace)”.

7. Borrowings from Contemporary Language in NE.

The influx of **French** words reached new peaks in the late XV-th and XVII-th centuries. They mainly pertain to diplomatic relations, social life, art, fashions, for example: “attaché, dossier; hotel, restaurant, cortege; ballet, genre; manoeuvre, police, brigade; cravat, menu, soup, blouse; detail, machine, ticket, progress”.

Most of them have not been completely ssimilated and have retained a foreign appearance to the present day. Besides Greek, Latin, French, English speakers of the NE period borrowed freely from no less than 50 foreign tongues:

1) **Italian** (art, music, literature): XIV-th century, for instance: “ducato, million, florin, pistol, cartridge, aria, bass, cello, concerto, duet, piano, sonata, violin”. Some retained their Italian appearance; others assumed a French shape, like as: “intrigue, campaign”.

2) **Spanish** came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial and political fields, for example: “armada, barricade, cannibal, embargo, cargo”. Many loan-words indicated new objects and concepts

encountered in the colonies, like as: “banana, canoe, colibri, potato, tobacco, mosquito”.

3) **Dutch** made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the XV-th, XVI-th centuries, when the commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were at their peak. Trade, wool-weaving, for example: “pack, spool, stripe, tub”. Nautical terminology, like as: “cruise, deck, keel, skipper”.

4) **German** loan-words reflect the scientific and cultural achievements of Germany.

a) Mineralogical terms, such as: “cobalt, nickel”.

b) Philosophical terms, such as: dynamics, transcendental.

c) Other: kindergarten halts, stroll, plunder.

The most peculiar feature of German influence is the creation of translation-loans on German models from native English components: superman was naturalized by B.Shaw as a translation of Nietzsche’s Űbermensch; masterpiece from Meisterstück.

5) **Russian**. The earliest entered in the XVI-th century, when the English trade company established the first trade relations with Russia. They indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia, like as: “beluga, muzhik, samovar, tsar, vodka”. After 1917, such as: “komsomol, Bolshevik”.

Questions:

How can new words be created from existing words in a language?

What is the process called in which words enter one language from another?

Characterize Latin borrowings in the Epoch of Renaissance.

Describe Romans and Celts Influences.

What do you know about the Danes, Scandinavian Borrowings?

Distinguish French Loan-words.

Analyse the process of making new words.

Give examples of Romanian and Azerbaijanian borrowings.

Define the enrichment of the language: borrowings from contemporary language in Modern English.

Lecture 21. Main Dialects of Old English and Written Records.

1. English Dialects and Variants.

2. Development of American English and Other Varieties.

3. Black English, Pidgin Language, Gullah, Jamaican Creole.

4. Black English Vernacular or African-American English.

English has been subject to a large degree of regional dialect variation for many centuries. Its global spread now means that a large number of dialects and English-based creole languages and pidgins can be found all over the world.

Several educated native dialects of English have wide acceptance as standards in much of the world. In the United Kingdom much emphasis is placed on Received Pronunciation, an educated dialect of South East England.

General American, which is spread over most of the United States and much of Canada, is more typically the model for the American continents and areas, such as the Philippines, that have had either close association with the United States, or a desire to be so identified.

In Oceania, the major native dialect of Australian English is spoken as a first language by the vast majority of the inhabitants of the Australian continent, with General Australian serving as the standard accent.

The English of neighbouring New Zealand as well as that of South Africa have to a lesser degree been influential native varieties of the language.

Aside from these major dialects, there are numerous other varieties of English, which include, in most cases, several subvarieties, such as Cockney, Scouse and Geordie within British English; Newfoundland English within

Canadian English; and African American Vernacular English ("Ebonics") and Southern American English within American English.

English is a pluricentric language, without a central language authority like France's "Académie française"; and therefore no one variety is considered "correct" or "incorrect" except in terms of the expectations of the particular audience to which the language is directed.

Scots has its origins in early Northern Middle English and developed and changed during its history with influence from other sources. However, following the Acts of Union 1707 a process of language attrition began, whereby successive generations adopted more and more features from Standard English.

Whether Scots is now a separate language or is better described as a dialect of English, i.e. part of Scottish English is in dispute, although the UK government accepts Scots as a regional language and has recognised it as such under the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages.

There are a number of regional dialects of Scots, and pronunciation, grammar and lexis of the traditional forms differ, sometimes substantially, from other varieties of English.

English speakers have many different accents, which often signal the speaker's native dialect or language.

Within England, variation is now largely confined to pronunciation rather than grammar or vocabulary. At the time of the Survey of English Dialects, grammar and vocabulary differed across the country, but a process of "lexical attrition" has led most of this variation to die out.

Just as English, it has borrowed words from many different languages over its history; English loanwords now appear in many languages around the world, indicative of the technological and cultural influence of its speakers. Several pidgins and creole languages have been formed on an English base, such as

Jamaican Patois, Nigerian Pidgin, and Tok Pisin. There are many words in English coined to describe forms of particular non-English languages that contain a very high proportion of English words.

Register effects. It is well-established that informal **speech registers** tend to be made up predominantly of words of Anglo-Saxon or Germanic origin, whereas the Latinate vocabulary is usually reserved for more formal uses such as legal, scientific, and otherwise scholarly or academic texts.

Child-directed speech, which is an informal speech register, also tends to rely heavily on vocabulary rife in words derived from Anglo-Saxon. The speech of mothers to young children has a higher percentage of native Anglo-Saxon verb tokens than speech addressed to adults. In particular, in parents' child-directed speech the clausal core is built in the most part by Anglo-Saxon verbs, namely, almost all tokens of the grammatical relations subject-verb, verb-direct object and verb-indirect object that young children are presented with, are constructed with native verbs.

The Anglo-Saxon verb vocabulary consists of short verbs, but its grammar is relatively complex. Syntactic patterns specific to this sub-vocabulary in present-day English include periphrastic constructions for tense, aspect, questioning and negation, and phrasal lexemes functioning as complex predicates, all of which also occur in child-directed speech.

The historical origin of vocabulary items affects the order of acquisition of various aspects of language development in English-speaking children. Latinate vocabulary is in general a later acquisition in children than the native Anglo-Saxon one. Young children almost exclusively use the native verb vocabulary in constructing basic grammatical relations, apparently mastering its analytic aspects at an early stage.

We must mention that **formal written English** has its peculiarities. A version of the language almost universally agreed upon by educated English

speakers around the world is called formal written English. It takes virtually the same form regardless of where it is written, in contrast to spoken English, which differs significantly between dialects, accents, and varieties of slang and of colloquial and regional expressions.

Local variations in the formal written version of the language are quite limited, being restricted largely to minor spelling, lexical and grammatical differences between British, American, and other national varieties of English.

Simplified and constructed varieties. Artificially simplified versions of the language have been created that are easier for non-native speakers to read. **Basic English** is a **constructed language**, with a restricted number of words, created by ***Charles Kay Ogden*** and described in his book "Basic English: A General Introduction with Rules and Grammar" (1930).

Ch.K.Ogden said that it would take seven years to learn English, seven months for **Esperanto**, and seven weeks for Basic English. Thus, Basic English may be employed by companies that need to make complex books for international use, as well as by language schools that need to impart some knowledge of English in a short time.

Ch.K.Ogden did not include any words in Basic English that could be said instead with a combination of other words already in the Basic English lexicon, and he worked to make the vocabulary suitable for speakers of any other language. He put his vocabulary selections through a large number of tests and adjustments. Ogden also simplified the grammar but tried to keep it normal for English users. Although it was not built into a program, similar simplifications were devised for various international uses.

Simplified English is a controlled language originally developed for aerospace industry maintenance manuals. It employs a carefully limited and standardised subset of English. Simplified English has a lexicon of approved words and those words can only be used in certain ways. For example, the word "close"

can be used in the phrase “Close the door” but not “do not go close to the landing gear”.

Other constructed varieties of English include:

1) E-Prime excludes forms of the verb “to be”.

2) English reform is an attempt to improve collectively upon the English language.

3) Manually Coded English consists of a variety of systems that have been developed to represent the English language with hand signals, designed primarily for use in deaf education. These should not be confused with true sign languages such as British Sign Language and American Sign Language used in Anglophone countries, which are independent and not based on English.

4) Sea speak and the related Air speak and Police Speak, all based on restricted vocabularies, were designed by Edward Johnson starting from the 1980s to aid international cooperation and communication in specific areas.

Special English is a simplified version of English used by the Voice of America. It uses a vocabulary of only 1500 words.

It is necessary to mention that there are old English runic poems, for example: **Ruthwell Cross,** a religions poem on a tall stone cross near the village of Ruthwell in South-East Scotland; **Runic Casket,** made of whalebone, and found in France near the town Clermond-Ferrand, now in the British Muscum in London. The Runic text is a short poem about whalebone (of the IX-th century.)

After the Anglo-Saxon came into contact with the Roman culture the runic alphabet was superseded by the Latin. Since the very earliest times there were four dialects in OE:

Nourthumbrian (1), spoken by Angles living north of the Humber.

Mercian West-Saxon (2), spoken by Angles between the Humber and Thames. The Mercian dialect: Translation of the Psalter (IX-th century) and hymns. The runic texts of the Ruthwell Cross and Frank's Casket (Runic), translation of the gospels, Caedmon's **Humn** and Bede's **Dying Song.**

Kentish is the language of the Jutes and Frisians. The West dialect is represented by the works of kind Alfred (lived 849-900), both original compositions of translations of Latin texts, also by the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle** (till 891), works of the abbot Aelfric (X century) and sermons of Wultstan (early XI-th century).: Translations of Psalms L-LXX and old charters.

The superiority of the West - Saxon dialect both in quantity and importance of the documents using it contirms dominating position as the literary language of the period.

The epic poems of the OE period: **Beowulf, Genesis, Exodus, Judith,** and poems by the monk Gynewulf: **Eleng Andreas, Juliana** and other were written in Anglian dialect but have been kept in West-Saxon dialect.

All over the country in the Kingdoms of England, all kinds of legal documents were written and copied. At first they were made in Latin, with English names and place names spelt by means of Latin letters, later they were also written in the local dialects.

There is a great variety of prose texts, part of them translations from the Latin. Among the prose works we should first of all note the **Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,** (VII-IX centuries), the year book of the events in English history, starting at 787, writtenlater in West- Saxon.

King Alfred's "Orosius" is a long text based on the Historia adversus paganos (a History against the Heathens by the Spanish monk Paulus Orosius, V-th century). Translation made either by Alfred himself or on his orders is that of

Bede's "Ecclesiastical History of the English People"**.** We mention among Alfred's translations that of the Pastoral Care by Pope Gregory I (ab.540-604) and others.

As we know Old English scribes used two kinds of letters: the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet. Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. Some of OE letters indicated two or more sounds, according to their positional variants in the word.

Undoubtedly the most significant political development in the history of English after the Norman Conquest was the **spread of English to the new world**. And just as the development of the British Empire was a process of happenstance, so the conquest of English was too unplanned and haphazard.

England was not as early or effective as Spain or France at amassing territories. By the time the settlements on the east coast of America were founded, the Spanish, Portuguese, and French had already acquired the most desirable colonies for the purposes of exploitation. England ended upsettling in North America and India, putting down institutions and the English language. Colonies in Australia, New Zealand, and parts of Africa and East Asia came later. The colonies did three important things for the language:

First, they increased the spread of English, increasing both the number of English speakers and the regions in which English was spoken; second, they brought English into close contact with a wider variety of other cultures; third, they created more opportunities for variation.

All of these processes led to the evolution of different English dialects.

1. English Dialects and Variants.

There have always been English dialects. Even in the Old English period wecan recognize Anglian, Kentish, and Saxon variations of Old English from, respectively, the northern, the eastern, and the western sections of England.

Although there was broad dialect mixing after the Black Death, we know thatthere were recognizable dialects in Middle English not only from our ownanalysis of texts, but from the testimony of individuals who lived at the time. Much of the humor of Chaucer's The Reeve's Tale, for instance, is based onthe accents of the two main characters, Allen and John, who are northerners at Cambridge.

This is the same sort of joke that would be made by an author depicting two students with strong Mississippi accents getting the best of the towns' folk in Cambridge, Massachusetts. Chaucer himself later makes fun of northern accents or at least the tradition of alliterative poetry that he locates in the north, having his Parson say that he is a southern man and does not speak "rum, ram, ruf".

Dialects in Britain have been among the most studied linguistic phenomena since the XIX-th century. George Bernard Shaw was only somewhat exaggerating when he wrote, in Pygmalion, that Henry Higgins could, through a short sample of speech alone, "place a man within six miles. I can place him within two miles in London. Sometimes within two streets."

Or perhaps Shaw was just a little ahead of his time. In the late 1970s, Peter Sutcliffe, the "Yorkshire Ripper," murdered thirteen women and attempted to murder seven others. During this time a number of tapes were sent to the British police from "Wearside Jack" claiming to be responsible for the crimes. Because in part Sutcliffe's accent did not match that of the man on the tapes, he was released after being picked up for questioning and went on to murder three additional women before being caught and sent to prison for life in 1981.

Stanley Ellis, a British dialectologist at the University of Leeds, later analyzed the tapes of "Wearside Jack" and was able to trace the accent of the hoaxer to the specific village of Castletown in Sunderland. Police arrested the person who made the tapes for "perverting the course of justice" andsending police

on a wild-goose chase that perhaps allowed Sutcliffe to kill several additional victims.

Henry Higgins and Stanley Ellis are just extreme examples of what most ofus can do when we hear someone use our native tongue in a way different from us, and even within strictly set geographic boundaries such as London or the area around Boston, language can have such obvious (to insiders) variations that people can localize an accent to within a town or two.

I know many people in the Boston area who can tell if a person comes from South Boston, Lynn, or Fall River with no effort whatsoever, and likewise there are people in London who are proud of being able to localize an accent to specific London Underground stops and are correct surprisingly often, especially given the increased geographic mobility in today's world.

We can start with large groupings and slowly make finer distinctions. The firstwould be between England and everywhere else. You would think that the English of England, being the original source of all the other variants of English, would be the most traditional, but this is almost exactly the oppositeof the truth. English, particularly London English, has evolved more rapidly in pronunciation than has American English. Let us take the word "stone" as an example.

In Anglo-Saxon this was pronounced "stahn." The vowel changed somewhat around 1100 to be pronounced more like "stawn" before the Great Vowel Shift, after which it became "stone." But in the English of England, a further evolution occurred, producing a vowel with a slight u-glide: stoun.

From Germanic to Old English. As we know, English is one of the Low Germanic languages of the West Germanic branch of the great Germanic language family. It is thus most closely related to the living languages of Frisian and Low German (Plattdeutsch) and then Dutch, Flemish, and Afrikaans. Its nearest relatives on the High German branch of the West Germanic family are Modern German and Yiddish.

More distant relations are the Scandinavian languages: Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Faroese, and Icelandic. The more recent ancestors of these modern Germanic languages are relatively well known.

Old English, Old Norse, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, and Old High German all are recorded in written texts dating from the Middle Ages, sowe have a fairly good idea of how people were speaking in the various Germanic branches somewhat less than fifteen hundred years ago. The earliest Old English dates from approximately 700.

Before that time, we must relyon Latin chronicles and the techniques of the comparative method, vergleichende Philologie, because writing had not reached the Germans in the long period between the times that Germanic split from the main Indo-European tree and their contact with the Latin-speaking world.

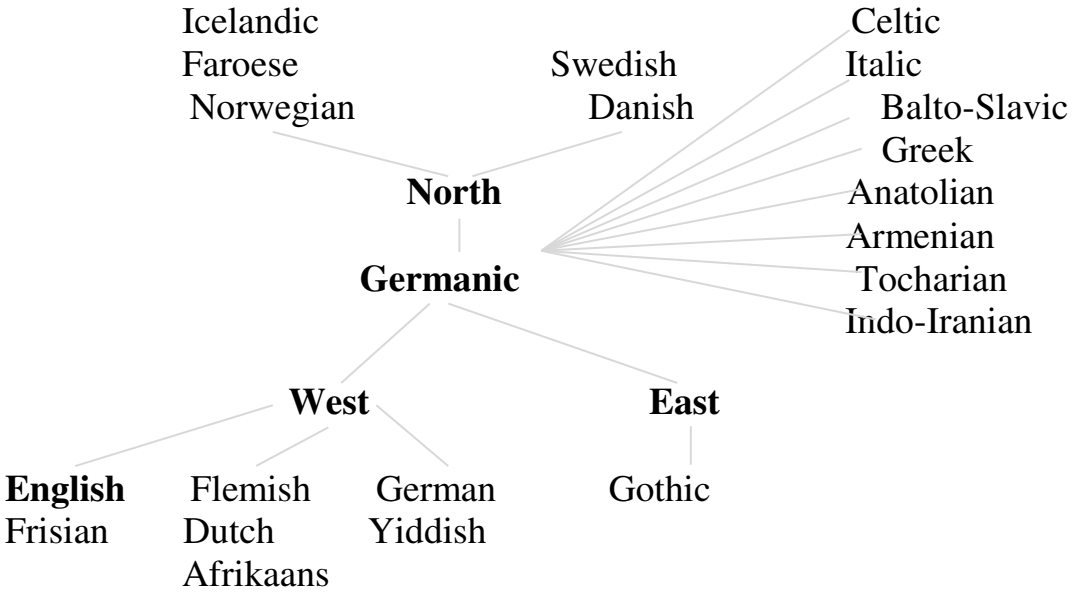
2. Development of American English and Other Varieties.

Varieties of English. Significant beginning from around 1600 was the English colonization of North America resulted in the subsequent creation of a distinct American variety of English. Some pronunciations and usages “froze” when they reached the American shore. In certain respects, some varieties of American English are closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern Standard English (“English **English**” or as it is often incorrectly termed “British English”) is.

The Earliest Period of Germanic History. English is a member of the Germanic family of languages. Germanic is a branch of the Indo-European language family. The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic (PG) language. It is supposed to have split from related Indo-European tongues sometime between the XV-th and X-th centuries BC. The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the Indo-European speech community.

As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place is regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

The Germanic Family of Languages



Proto-Germanic was never recorded in written form. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects.

Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG

language broke into parts. PG split into three branches: East Germanic (Vindili in Pliny's classification), North Germanic (Hilleviones) and West Germanic, which embraces Ingveones, Istsevones and Hermino-nes in Pliny's list. In due course these branches split into separate Germanic languages.

The **East Germanic** subgroup was formed by the tribes who returned from Scandinavia at the beginning of our era. The most numerous and powerful of them were the Goths. The Gothic language, now dead, has been preserved in written records of the IV-th – VI-th century. The Goths were the first of the Teutons to become Christian.

The other East Germanic languages, all of which are now dead, have left no written traces. Some of their tribal names have survived in placenames, which reveal the directions of their migrations: Bornholm and Burgundy go back to the East Germanic tribe of Burgundians; Andalusia is derived from the tribal name Vandals; Lombardy got its name from the Langobards, who made part of the population of the Ostrogothic kingdom in North Italy.

North Germanic. The Teutons who stayed in Scandinavia after the departure of the Goths gave rise to the North Germanic subgroup of languages. The speech of the North Germanic tribes showed little dialectal variation until the IX-th century and is regarded as a sort of common North Germanic parent-language called **Old Norse** or **Old Scandinavian**. It has come down to us in runic inscriptions dated from the III-rd to the IX-th century.

Runic inscriptions were carved on objects made of hard material in an original Germanic alphabet known as the runic alphabet or the runes. The runes were used by North and West Germanic tribes. The disintegration of Old Norse into separate dialects and languages began after the IX-th century, when the Scandinavians started out on their sea voyages.

The earliest written records in Old Danish, Old Norwegian and Old Swedish date from the XIII-th century. In the later Middle Ages Danish and then Swedish

developed into national literary languages. Nowadays Swedish is spoken not only by the population of Sweden; the language has extended over Finnish territory and is the second state language in Finland.

Norwegian was the last to develop into an independent national language. During the period of Danish dominance Norwegian intermixed with Danish. As a result in the XIX-th century there emerged two varieties of the Norwegian tongue: the state or bookish tongue "riksmal", later called "bokmal" and "landsmal". At the present time the two varieties tend to fuse into a single form of language "nynorsk" – "New Norwegian".

In addition to the three languages on the mainland, the North Germanic subgroup includes two more languages: Icelandic and Faroese, whose origin goes back to the Viking Age.

Faroese is spoken nowadays by about 30,000 people. For many centuries all writing was done in Danish; it was not until the XVIII-th century that the first Faroese records were made.

At present Icelandic is spoken by over 200 000 people.

Old Icelandic written records date from the XII-th and XIII-th centuries, an age of literary flourishing. The most important records are: the ELDER EDDA, also called the POETIC EDDA – a collection of heroic songs of the XII-th century, the YOUNGER (PROSE) EDDA – a text-book for poets compiled by Snorri Sturluson in the early XIII-th century and the Old Icelandic sagas.

West Germanic. The dialectal differentiation of West Germanic was quite distinct even at the beginning of our era since Pliny and Tacitus described them under three tribal names on the eve of their "great migrations" of the IV-th and V-th centuries the West Germans included several tribes.

The **Franconians** or **Franks**, subdivided into Low, Middle and High Franconians. The Angles and the Frisians, known as the Anglo-Frisian group, the Jutes and the Saxons inhabited the coastal area of the modern Netherlands, the Federal Republic of Germany and the southern part of Denmark.

A group of tribes known as High Germans lived in the mountainous southern regions of the Federal Republic of Germany (High Germans, Low Germans) The High Germans included a number of tribes whose names are known since the Early Middle Ages: the Alemanians, the Swabians, the Bavarians, the Thuringians and others.

The Franconian dialects were spoken in the extreme North of the Empire; in the later Middle Ages they developed into Dutch – the language of the Low Countries (the Netherlands) and **Flemish** – the language of Flanders. The earliest texts in Low Franconian date from the X-th century; XII-th century records represent the earliest Old Dutch.

The modern language of the Netherlands, formerly called **Dutch**, and Its variant m Belgium, known as the Flemish dialect, are now treated as a single languuge, Netherlandish. Netherlandish is spoken by almost twenty million people.

About three hundred years ago the Dutch Language was brought to South Africa. Their dialects in Africa eventually grew into a separate West Germanic language, Afrikaans. Today Afrikaans is the mother-tongue of over four million Afrikaners and coloured people and one of the state languages in the South African Republic.

The High German dialects consolidated into a common language known as Old High German (OHG). The first written records in OHG date from the VIII-th and IX-th centuries - glosses to Latin texts, translations from Latin and religious poems.

Towards the XII-th century High German, known as Middle High Germarn had intermixed with neighbouring tongues, especially Middle and High Franconian, and eventually developed into the Literary German language. The total number of German-speaking people approaches one hundred million.

The first English written records have come down from the VII-th century, which is the earliest date in the history of writing in the West Germanic subgroup. The Frisians and the Saxons who did not take part in the invasion of Britain stayed on the continent. Frisian has survived as a local dialect in Friesland (in the Netherlands) and Ostfriesland (the Federal Republic of Germany). It has both an oral and written form, the earliest records dating from the XIII-th century.

In the Early Middle Ages the continental Saxons formed a powerful tribe. Together with High German tribes they took part in the eastward drive and the colonization of the former Slavonic territories. Old Saxon known in written form from the records of the IX-th century has survived as one of the Low German dialects.

Some expressions that the British call “Americanisms” are in fact original British expressions that were preserved in the colonies while lost for a time in Britain, for example “trash” for “rubbish”, “loan” as a verb instead of “lend”, and “fall” as a synonym for “autumn”; another example, “frame-up”, was re-imported into Britain through Hollywood gangster movies.

The **American dialect** also served as the route of introduction for many Native American words into the English language. Most often, these were place names like “Mississippi, Roanoke, Iowa”.

Indian-sounding names like “Idaho” were sometimes created that had no native-American roots. But, names for other things besides places were also common. “Raccoon, tomato, canoe, barbecue, savanna, hickory” have Native American roots, although in many cases the original Indian words were mangled almost beyond recognition.

Spanish also had an influence on **American English** and subsequently British English, with words like "canyon, ranch, stampede, vigilante, mustang" being examples of Spanish words that entered English through the settlement of the American West.

French words through Louisiana and West African words through the slave trade also influenced American English and so, to an extent, British English.

A lesser number of words have entered American English from French and West African languages.

Likewise dialects of English have developed in many of the former colonies of the British Empire. There are distinct forms of the English language spoken in Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India and many other parts of the world.

Today, American English is particularly influential, due to the USA's dominance of cinema, television, popular music, trade and technology, including the Internet. But there are many other varieties of English around the world, including for example Australian English, New Zealand English, Canadian English, South African English, Indian English and Caribbean English.

Analysing American dialect it is necessary to mention that in 1813 ***Thomas Jefferson*** wrote in a letter: "The new circumstances under which we are placed call for new words, new phrases, and for the transfer of old words to new objects. An American dialect will therefore be formed".

As the settlers, including a good proportion of Irish and Scots, with their own distinctive accents and usages of English, pushed westward, new terms were indeed introduced, and these pioneers were much less reticent to adopt native words or, indeed, to make up their own.

The journals of Lewis and Clark, written as they explored routes to the west coast in 1804-1806, contain over 500 native words, mainly animals, plants and

food. The wild "outlands" west of the Mississippi River gave us the word "outlandish" to describe its idiosyncratic characters.

John Adams' much-vaunted "plain English" took a back seat in the hands of colourful characters like Davy Crockett, who was himself of Scots-Irish decent and others, who saw western expansion as an excuse to expand the language with new words and quirky Americanisms like "skedaddle, bamboozle, shebang, riff-raff, hunky-dory, lickety-split, rambunctious, ripsnorter, humdinger, shenanigan, doozy, discombobulate, absquatulate, splendiferous", etc. not to mention evocative phrases like "fly off the handle, a chip on the shoulder, no axe to grind, sitting on the fence, dodge the issue, knuckle down, make the fur fly, go the whole hog, kick the bucket, face the music, bite the dust, barking up the wrong tree, pass the buck, stack the deck, poker face, in cahoots, pull up stakes, horse sense, two cents' worth, stake a claim, strike it rich, the real McCoy" and even the phrase "stiff upper lip" in regard to their more hidebound British cousins.

From the deliberately misspelled and dialectical works of Artemus Ward and Josh Billings to popular novels like Harriet Beecher Stowe's "Uncle Tom's Cabin" (1852) and Mark Twain's "Huckleberry Finn" (1884), this American vernacular spread rapidly, and became in the process more publicly acceptable both in everyday speech and in literature.

Many Spanish words also made their way into American English during the expansion and settlement of the Spanish-influenced American West, including words like "armadillo, alligator, canyon, cannibal, guitar, mosquito, mustang, rodeo, rodeo, ranch, stampede, tobacco, tornado, vigilante", some of which were also originally derived from native languages.

To a lesser extent, French words, from the French presence in the Louisiana area and in Canada, contributed loan words like "gopher, prairie, depot, cache, cent dime", as well as French-derived place names like "Detroit, Illinois, Des Moines", etc.

The number of American coinings later exported back to the mother country should not be underestimated. They include commonly used word like “sag, snag, commuter, bedrock, soggy, belittle, lengthy, striptease, gimmick, teenager, jeans, hangover, teetotal, fudge, publicity, joyride, blizzard, stunt, movie, uplift, showdown, obligate, notify, redneck, businessman, cocktail, skyscraper, smooch, nearby, worthwhile, bootleg, highfalutin, guesstimate, raincoat, genocide, cloudburst, hindsight, graveyard” among many others.

Even the word “roundabout” originally came from America, even though traffic circles hardly exist there. Perhaps the quintessential Americanism is “OK” *(*okay), which has become one of the best known and most widespread terms throughout the whole world. Its origins are somewhat obscure and still hotly debated, but it seems to have come into common usage in America during the 1830s.

Many of these Americanisms were met with a certain amount of snobbery in Britain, and many words thought to be American in origin were vilified as uncouth and inferior by the British intelligentsia, even though many of those denigrated actually turned out to be of older English provenance in the first place.

Today, some 4,000 words are used differently in the USA and Britain “lift / elevator”, “tap / faucet”, “bath / tub”, “curtains / drapes”, “biscuit / cookie”, “boot / trunk” are just some of the better known ones and, increasingly, American usage is driving out traditional words and phrases back in Britain, for example: “truck” for “lorry”, “airplane” for “aeroplane”, etc.

American spelling is also becoming more commonplace in Britain, for instance: “jail” for “gaol”, “wagon” for “waggon”,“reflection” for “reflexion”, etc., although some Americanized spelling changes actually go back centuries, for example, words like: “horror, terror, superior, emperor, governor” were originally spelled as “horrour, terrour, superiour, emperour, governour” in Britain according

to Johnson's 1755 "Dictionary", even if other words like "colour, humour, honour" had resisted such changes.

3. Black English Vernacular, Pidgin Language, Gullah, Jamaican creole.

The practice of transporting cheap black labour from western Africa to the New World was begun by the Spaniards in the XVI-th century, and it had been also used by the Portuguese, Dutch and French, but it was adopted in earnest by the British in the early XVII-th century.

The British had established numerous outposts in the Caribbean, dubbed the "West Indies" by Columbus out of the conviction that he had reached the spice islands of the Indies, or Asia, by a western route, and had developed a whole trading empire to take advantage of the tropical climate of the region.

The labour-intensive work on tobacco, cocoa, cotton and particularly sugar plantations required large numbers of cheap workers, and the Atlantic slave trade triangle (Britain - West Africa - Americas) was developed to supply it, although soon a demand also grew for household servants.

The numbers of African slaves in the America alone grew from just twenty in 1619 to over 4 million at the time of the American abolition of slavery after the Civil War in 1865, the British had abolished the slave trade earlier, in 1807. The slaves transported by the British to work in the plantations of the American south and the islands of the West Indies were mainly from a region of West Africa rich in hundreds of different languages, and most were superb natural linguists, often speaking anywhere between three and six African languages fluently.

Due to the deliberate practice of shipping slaves of different language backgrounds together, in an attempt to avoid plots and rebellions, the captives developed their own English-based **Pidgin** language, which they used to

communicate with the largely English-speaking sailors and landowners, and also between themselves.

A pidgin is a reduced language that results from extended contact between people with no language in common. Verb forms in particular are simplified, for example: “me go run school”, “him done go”, etc., but adjectives are also often used instead of adverbs, verbs instead of prepositions, pronouns are no inflected, etc. The resulting stripped-down language may be crude but it is usually serviceable and efficient.

Once established in the Americas, these pidgins developed into stable creoles, forms of simplified English combined with many words from a variety of African languages. Most of the African slaves made landfall at Sullivan Island, near Charleston, South Carolina, and even today **Gullah** can be heard in many of the Sea Islands off the coast of the Carolinas and Georgia.

Gullah is an English-African patois, the name is possibly derived from the word “Angola”, thought to be remarkably unchanged from that spoken by African slaves two or three centuries ago.

Gullah and similar “plantation creoles” provided the basis of much of modern Black American English, street slang and hip-hop, but interestingly it also significantly influenced the language and accent of the aristocratic white owners, and the modern English of the southern states.

The popular Uncle Remus stories of the late XIX-th century, many of them based around the trickster character of Brer Rabbit and others like Brer Fox, Brer Wolf, etc., are probably based on this kind of creole, mixed with native Cherokee origins, although they were actually collections made by white Americans like Joel Chandler Harris.

The following passage is from Charles Colcock Jones Jr.’s 1888 story “Brer Lion an Brer Goat”: “Brer Lion bin a hunt, an eh spy Brer Goat duh leddown

topper er big rock duh wuk eh mout an der chaw. Eh creep up fuh ketch um. Wen eh git close ter um eh notus um good. Brer Goat keep on chaw. Brer Lion try fuh fine out wuh Brer Goat duh eat. Eh yent see nuttne nigh um ceptin de nekked rock wuh eh duh leddown on. Brer Lion stonish. Eh wait topper Brer Goat. Brer Goat keep on chaw, an chaw, an chaw. Brer Lion cant mek de ting out, an eh come close, an eh say: "Hay! Brer Goat, wuh you duh eat?" Brer Goat skade wen Brer Lion rise up befo um, but eh keep er bole harte, an eh mek ansur: "Me duh chaw dis rock, an ef you dont leff, wen me done long um me guine eat you." Dis big wud sabe Brer Goat. Bole man git outer diffikelty way coward man lose eh life".

Many of the words may look strange at first, but the meanings become quite clear when spoken aloud, and the spellings give a good approximation of a black / Caribbean accent, for example: "notus" for "notice", "bole" for "bold", "ansur" for "answer", "skade" for "scared", etc.

"Dis / dem / dey" are used for "this / them / they" in order to avoid the difficult English "th" sound, and many other usages are familiar from modern Caribbean accents, for instance: "mout" for "mouth", "ting" for "thing", "gwine" for "going", etc.

For simplicity, adjectives often stand in for adverbs, like: "coward man" and verbs may be simplified, as: "Brer Lion bin a hunt" or left out completely, for example: "Brer Lion stonish". Double adjectives, like: "big big" are often used as intensifiers, although not in this particular passage.

Jamaican creole, known locally as "Patwa", for patois, was one of the deepest in the Caribbean, partly because of the sheer numbers transported there, and the accent there is still so thick as to be almost undecipherable.

Variations of English Creoles gradually mixed with other creole forms based on French, Spanish and Portuguese, leading to a diverse range of English varieties throughout the Caribbean Islands, as well as adjacent areas of Central and South America. Familiar words like "buddy" for "brother", "palaver" for "trouble", and

“pikni” for “child”, arose out of these creoles, and words like “barbecue, savvy, nitty-gritty, hammock, hurricane, savannah, canoe, cannibal, potato, tobacco, maize” were also early introductions into English from the Caribbean, often via Spanish or Portuguese.

4. Black English Vernacular or African-American English.

“**Patois**” is an originally French term meaning “broken speech.” For many years it was a dismissive term used to describe vernacular Caribbean English as distinct from the more British English used by the elite, educated classes of the various Caribbean countries. Although there have been attempts in recent years to equate it “Creole English” or “West Indian Creole,” speakers of the dialect form itself have retained the term “patois” and the Creole designation is problematic, because creole is a technical term that means a language usually created from multiple languages that were not mutually understandable.

Patois has distinctive phonological, grammatical, and lexical features. For example, there is strong consonant cluster simplification at the ends of words, producing “tek” for “talked,” “wek” for “walked,” and “bes” for “best.” There is also a sound shift, where both voiced and voiceless interdental fricatives are shifted to voiced or voiceless alveolar stops: “think” thus become “tink,” “this” becomes “dis,” and “that” becomes “dat.”

Metathesis is also apparent in “aks” for “ask,” “deks” for “desk,” and “flim” for “film.”Grammatically, one of the more distinctive features is the use of “get” as a passive: “it get break.” Vocabulary includes nearly fifteen thousand items in a Jamaican / English lexicon, including “foot-bottom” for “sole,” “hand-middle” for“palm,” and “duppy” for “ghost.” It should not be at all surprising that many ofthe lexical items can at least plausibly be linked to West African roots.

In recent years the idea of a “Standard West Indian English” has grown, distinct from Standard British English but still of high prestige. “Patois” has been used as an insult; some educated West Indians often will not use it in mixed company (i.e., West Indians and outsiders), and they attempt to make their children speak Standard English. But among friends and in situations of social comfort, they use patois freely, almost certainly because its use communicates social cohesion and solidarity.

Black English Vernacular or African-American English or African-American Vernacular English is almost certainly the most stigmatized dialect form in modern America, partially because it is in fact very close to the next most stigmatized form, the speech of lower-middle and working-class southern whites.

Like patois, Black English Vernacular has characteristic phonological, morphological, lexical, and syntactic features. The most significant of these is probably consonant cluster simplification, which happens much more frequently in African-American English than in most other regional varieties.

“Tol” for “told” and “fitty” for “fifty” are just among the most obvious examples. African-American English also regularly deletes final consonants if they are stops, so “tired” becomes “tire.” In recent years another deletion rule has led to more and more speakers pronouncing “all right” as “a-ight,” with a glottal stop replacing the two liquids, the first of which has already been deleted from most casual American speech.

One of the most distinctive grammatical features of African-American English is the complete deletion of the copula (forms of the word “to be”) in situations in which in Standard English the form can be contracted. For example: “This is my friend. That’s my friend. That my friend. The girl is late. The girl’s late. The girl late”. – Hyper-correct Standard English **African American English**.

African-American English uses the verb “be” instead to indicate the aspect of a verb: “The girl be late” means that the girl is regularly or habitually late.

The“be” form is then inflected as a regular rather than an irregular verb, as in “Ilisten to the radio when I bees on my way to work” instead of changing the“be” to “am,” it gets an “-s” inflection. Double and triple negatives are also regular forms in African-American English, as they were in Old English and Middle (Shakespearean) English, indicating emphasis.

African-American English can communicate “authenticity,” honesty, or personal connection. In the entertainment industry it is obviously linked to the popularity and appeal of many figures. The dialect is certainly stigmatized in many sectors of society, and many African-Americans practice code switching, speaking one way in mixed-race groupings and another in mono-racial groups.

Questions:

Name the main dialects of Old English.Characterize the written records.

Describe the most distinctive characteristics of regional accents, give a complete list of regional English dialects.

Specify and give the following characteristic features of English variants.

What do you know about the development of American English and other varieties?

What is “patois”?

Explain and analyse Black English, Pidgin Language, Gullah, Jamaican Creole examples.

Characterize Black English Vernacular or African-American English.

Lecture 22. American English, its Development from Noah Webster to Henry Louis Mencken.

1. The Beginnings of American English.

2. Making the American Language from Noah Webster to Henry Louis Mencken.

3. The Rhetoric of Independence from Thomas Jefferson to Abraham Lincoln and the Language of the American Self.

1. The Beginnings of American English.

Immigrants from Southeastern England began arriving on the North American continent in the early 1600's. By the middle of 1800's, 3.5 million immigrants left the British Isles for the United States. The American English language is characterized by archaisms (words that changed meaning in Britain, but remained in the colonies) and innovations in vocabulary: borrowing from the French and Spanish, who were also settling in North America.

Noah Webster was the most vocal about the need for an American national identity with regards to the American English language. He wrote an American spelling book, "The Blueback Speller", in 1788 and changed several spellings from British English, for example: "colour" became "color", "theatre" became "theater", etc. In 1828, he published his famous "American Dictionary of the English Language".

Dialects in the United States resulted from different waves of immigration of English speakers, contact with other languages, and the slave trade, which had a profound impact on African American English. A dialectal study was done in 1920 and the findings are published in the "Linguistics Atlas of the U.S. and Canada".

The American pronunciation remains like that of Shakespeare's post – Great Vowel Shift "stone." Linguists now go out of their way to challenge the idea that Shakespeare's English sounded particularly similar to contemporary speech in the West Virginia mountains (for a while it was argued that Elizabeth and speech survived there), but it is not incorrect to say that American English preserves a great many pronunciations that have further evolved in British English. American English is in fact much more "conservative" than London English, which has changed rapidly even since World War II.

The great divisions in worldwide English pronunciation are nevertheless geographic, even if the most traditional forms are not necessarily found in England. The major regions are North America (the United States and Canada are classed together, although there are differences), Caribbean / South America, Australia / New Zealand, South Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh), East Asia (Hong Kong, Singapore, and other former British colonies), and Africa (particularly South Africa).

Speakers are generally muchbetter at localizing dialects within their own regions than they are at determining which region a person comes from. Thus, Americans are notoriously unable to separate Australian from New Zealand accents and South African speakers often do not easily hear the difference between American and Canadian accents, particularly if the American accents being compared are from the Upper Midwest.

Dialects within America are generally shaped by the same processes that drive linguistic evolution: inheritance from specific sources and geographic and social isolation and evolution. For example, the distinctive New England accent probably owes quite a bit to the fact that most of the people who originally settled in New England were from locations within a sixty-mile radius in East Anglia.

By 1776 there were three major varieties of North American English: Northern, which was spoken in New England and New York State, Midland,

spoken in Pennsylvania and New Jersey, and Southern, spoken from Maryland to Georgia. The famous dropped “r” in New England speech was already present at this time, inherited from pronunciation in the south of England, and this form was also spoken in the South. Later settlers came from the north of England, where “r” was still pronounced. Geographic expansion westward carried along dialects, and American English is still divided into bands of northern, middle, and southern forms.

However, there was some additional diversification. For example, the Northern dialect area is split, with an eastern and a western form with the dividing line in the Connecticut River Valley. West of this line is further separated into Upper North, including southern Vermont, parts of New York state, the very uppermost portions of Pennsylvania and Ohio, Michigan, northern Illinois, and eastern Wisconsin.

Then Upper Midwest includes the rest of Wisconsin, all of Minnesota, and the northern half of Iowa. Lower North, which is based upon the old Midland dialect range, includes New Jersey, most of Pennsylvania and Ohio, excepting the very northern parts of those states, Indiana, and southern Illinois. The Upper South includes most of western Maryland, western Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, northern Arkansas, and the very northern most parts of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and a tiny bit of east Texas.

Lower South includes most of North Carolina, all of South Carolina, and nearly all of Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, as well as part of southern Arkansas and east Texas. Within the Lower South, there are divisions between the Atlantic South, Southern Florida, Alabama, the Delta South, and Northernand Southern Louisiana. Things get less clear cut as one moves further west, but there are differences between Southwest, California, Colorado, the Utah West, and the Northwest.

Source: U.S. Census Bureau Linguists mark these dialect areas by constructing isoglosses: They interview many subjects and record their pronunciations and word usage, plotting the responses on a map. A boundary beyond which a form is never or always used is an isogloss. When many isoglosses line up, we can identify a dialect region. For example, the boundary between the Upper North and the Lower North dialect is marked by isoglosses for the pronunciation of “greazy” (with “az” pronunciation) versus “greasy” with the “s” unvoiced, calling an insect a “snake feeder” versus a “dragonfly,” calling “Sook!” to the cows or not, and calling a tree whose sap you get syrup from a “sugar tree” rather than a “maple tree.”

In each of these cases, the more southern term is listed first, andnone of these are consistently found above that Upper North or Lower North isogloss and the southern forms are found much more consistently in the southern dialect areas.

Here is an experiment: Ask various people whom you know to say the nameof the canine animal the “wolf” (you will have to figure out a clever way to do this without saying the name yourself). Listen carefully to how your respondents pronounce the word: If you have a big enough sample that covers avariety of regions, some will pronounce the word “wolf” and others “woof” (without the “l”). Those who drop the “l” will almost certainly be from the Upper North dialect zone. There may actually be quite a few speakers in the Upper North area who say “wolf” rather than “woof,” but nearly all who do say “woof” will be Upper Northern speakers.

Since the 1930s, linguists have been collecting isoglosses throughout America. Some seem to match up very well with settlement patterns. For example, my home dialect region, in Monmouth County, NJ, is on the onehand part of the Philadelphia dialect region. On the other hand it is linked to New York City. We say, for example, “water” as “wood-er,” we do not pronounce the “h” in “huge” or “human,” and we pronounce the words “orange,”“horrible,” and “forest” as if they were spelled “arr-inge,” “harr-ible,” and “farrest.” The last two pronunciations are

linked to New York and the first to Philadelphia, just as you might expect from the migratory patterns of the people who settled Monmouth County: some came south from New York, some came east from Philadelphia.

Other famous isoglosses are “bucket” / “pail,” “faucet” / “tap,” and “quarter of” versus “quarter to”. Various alternative names for “See-Saw” provide a particularly interesting example. Although the unmarked term “See-Saw” is recognized throughout America, there are alternative forms on the East Coast.

“Teeter-totter,” for example, is a heavily Northern word; the form is “Teeter” or “Teeter Board” in New England and New York State and “Teeter-Totter” in New Jersey. There are almost no “Teeter-” forms in Pennsylvania, and if yougo to western West Virginia and down into western North Carolina there is a band of “Ridey-Horse” that heads almost straight south.

This pattern suggests a New England origin or importation of the term that spread down thecoast and a separate development in Appalachia, where Scotts-Irish settlers did not come from New England. “Hickey-horse” in the coastal regions of North Carolina is consistent with other linguistic and ethnic variations.

For whatever reasons, the insect known most commonly as the dragonfly has a variety of names. In northern and eastern New Jersey it is a “Darning Needle”, but in Pennsylvania and West Virginia it is a “Spindle,” in Virginia a “Snake Doctor” and on the coast through Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina, a “Snake Feeder.”

Some migration patterns into Tennessee and even Texas are consistent with the variation in dragonfly names. When dialectologists plot all of their collected isoglosses, both those forword use and for pronunciation on the map, they generally confirm the major divisions discussed above. But there are some particularly interesting smallareas of dialects that are highlighted by the map, though early dialectologists, and simple observers of American English, had already noticed them.

The first is a pocket on the East Coast that includes the cities of Charleston, SC, and Savannah, GA, and is called the Charleston Dialect. One of its characteristic features is a pronunciation of “lawyer” that sounds so much like “liar” asalmost to be a social commentary. Charleston Dialect is often considered tobe the highest prestige dialect of all Southern English and has more in common with upper-class British English of the XVIII-th century than other dialects (New England dialects, despite their prestige in America, have more in common with middle- and lower-class East Anglian settlers).

Other distinctive dialect pockets include Providence, RI, with its very characteristic naming of a milkshake a “cabinet,” and Pittsburgh, PA, with a variety of nonstandard lexical items and pronunciations. There is also a dialect region around St.Louis, MO that separates this metropolitan area very firmly from the surrounding countryside.

All of this leads us to that earthshaking question debated by millions of American college students: Is a fizzy drink “soda” or “pop”? As the map at http://www.popvssoda.com shows, “soda” is used mainly on the East Coast, in California, and from Chicago north along Lake Superior and around St. Louis, MO. “Pop” is Midwestern and Northwestern, and “coke” is used in the south.

But all forms are used at least somewhat in all regions, not only demonstrating geographic mobility, but also suggesting that the reasons for preferring one term to another might be complex. Some studies suggest that “soda” is urban and suburban while “pop” is rural, but not in each term’shome range, i.e., in the Midwest, those who do use “soda” are far more likely to be found in the cities than in the countryside; likewise on the East Coast,“pop” is found in small towns more than in cities.

“Soda” is often considered the term with more prestige or social cachet, but it can also be interpreted as a pretentious or, in the South, a “Yankee” word. Pop

versus soda has led tomany a vigorous late-night debate over pizza and is related to other disputed topics such as the hero versus the grinder versus the sub.

2. Making the American Language from Noah Webster to Henry Louis Mencken.

Noah Webster Jr. (1758-1843) was an American lexicographer, textbook pioneer, English-language spelling reformer, political writer, editor, and prolific author. He has been called the "Father of American Scholarship and Education".

Noah Webster's forbearers migrated to America in the XVII-th century. The name Webster, English in origin, means female weaver. He taught school, did clerical work, and studied law, being admitted to the bar in 1781. While teaching in Goshen, New York, in 1782, Webster became dissatisfied with texts for children that ignored the American culture, and he began his lifelong efforts to promote a distinctively American education.

There was a great influence of Noah Webster in the process of formation of American English. Beginning with that at the time of the first settlement of America the rules of English orthography were beautifully vague, and so we find the early documents full of spellings that seem quite fantastic today. "Aetaernall" (for "eternal") is in the Acts of the Massachusetts General Court for 1646. But now and then a curious foreshadowing of later American usage is encountered. On July 4, 1631, for example, ***John Winthrop*** wrote in his journal that "the governour built a bark at Mistick which was launched this day".

During the XVIII-th century, however, and especially after the publication of Johnson's dictionary, there was a general movement in England toward a more inflexible orthography, and many hard and fast rules, still surviving, were then laid down. It was Johnson himself who established the position of the "u" in the "-our" words.

Laura Bailey, ***Thomas Dyche*** and other lexicographers before him were divided and uncertain; Johnson declared for the "u", and though his reasons were very shaky and he often neglected his own precept, his authority was sufficient to set up a usage which still defies attack in England. Even in America this usage was not often brought into question until the last quarter of the XVIII-th century.

True enough, "honor" appears in the Declaration of Independence, but it seems to have got there rather by accident than by design. In ***Jefferson***'s original draft it is spelled "honour". So early as 1768 ***Benjamin Franklin*** had published his "Scheme for a New Alphabet and a Reformed Mode of Spelling, with Remarks and Examples Concerning the Same, and an Enquiry into its Uses" and induced a Philadelphia type founder to cut type for it, but this scheme was too extravagant to be adopted anywhere, or to have any appreciable influence upon spelling.

It was ***Noah Webster*** who finally achieved the divorce between English example and American practise. He struck the first blow in his "Grammatical Institute of the English Language," published at Hartford in 1783. Attached to this work was an appendix bearing the formidable title of "An Essay on the Necessity, Advantages and Practicability of Reforming the Mode of Spelling, and of Rendering the Orthography of Words Correspondent to the Pronunciation," and during the same year, at Boston, he set forth his ideas a second time in the first edition of his "American Spelling Book."

The influence of this spelling-book was immediate and profound. It took the place in the schools of ***David Dilworth***'s "Aby-selpha," the favorite of the generation preceding, and maintained its authority for fully a century.

Until ***Lyman Cobb*** entered the lists with his "New Spelling Book," in 1842, its innumerable editions scarcely had any rivalry, and even then it held its own. I have a New York edition, dated 1848, which contains an advertisement stating that the annual sale at that time was more than a million copies, and that more than 30,000,000 copies had been sold since 1783.

In the late 40's the publishers, ***George F. Cooledge*** & Bro., devoted the whole capacity of the fastest steam press in the United States to the printing of it. This press turned out 525 copies an hour, or 5,250 a day. It was "constructed expressly for printing Webster's Elementary Spelling Book (the name had been changed in 1829) at an expense of $5,000." Down to 1889, 62,000,000 copies of the book had been sold.

The appearance of Webster's first dictionary, in 1806, greatly strengthened his influence. The best dictionary available to Americans before this was Johnson's in its various incarnations, but against Johnson's stood a good deal of animosity to its compiler, whose implacable hatred of all things American was well known to the citizens of the new republic. ***John Walker***'s dictionary, issued in London in 1791, was also in use, but not extensively.

A home-made school dictionary, issued at New Haven in 1798 or 1799 by one ***Samuel Johnson***, Jr., apparently no relative of the great Sam and a larger work published a year later by Johnson and John Elliott, pastor in East Guilford, Conn., seem to have made no impression, despite the fact that the latter was commended by ***Simeon Baldwin***, ***Chauncey Goodrich*** and other magnificoes of the time and place, and even by Webster himself. The field was thus open to the laborious and truculent Noah. He was already the acknowledged magister of lexicography in America, and there was an active public demand for a dictionary that should be wholly American.

The appearance of his first duodecimo, according to Williams, thereby took on something of the character of a national event. It was received, not critically, but patriotically, and its imperfections were swallowed as eagerly as its merits. Later on Webster had to meet formidable critics, at home as well as abroad, but for nearly a quarter of a century he reigned almost unchallenged.

Edition after edition of his dictionary, it was published, each new one showing additions and improvements. Finally, in 1828, he printed his great

“American Dictionary of the English Language,” in two large octavo volumes. It held the field for half a century, not only against Worcester and the other American lexicographers who followed him, but also against the best dictionaries produced in England. Until the appearance of the Concise Oxford in 1914, indeed, America remained far ahead of England in practical dictionary making.

A great many of his innovations, of course, failed to take root, and in the course of time he abandoned some of them himself. In his early “Essay on the Necessity, Advantage and Practicability of Reforming the Mode of Spelling” he advocated reforms which were already discarded by the time he published the first edition of his dictionary. Among them were the dropping of the silent letter in such words as “head, give, built, realm”, making them “hed, giv, bilt, relm”; the substitution of doubled vowels for decayed diphthongs in such words as “mean, zeal, near”, making them “meen, zeel, neer”; and the substitution of “sh” for “ch” in such French loan-words as “machine” and “chevalier”, making them “masheen” and “shevaleer”.

He also declared for “stile” in place of “style”, and for many other such changes, and then quietly abandoned them. The successive editions of his dictionary show still further concessions. “Croud, fether, groop, gillotin, iland, instead, leperd, soe, sut, steddy, thret, thred, thum, wimmen” appear only in the 1806 edition.

In 1828 he went back to “crowd, feather, group, island, instead, leopard, sew, soot, steady, thread, threat, thumb, women” and changed “gillotin” to “guillotin”. In addition, he restored the final “e” in “determine, discipline, requisite, imagine”, etc.

In 1838, revising his dictionary, he abandoned a good many spellings that had appeared in either the 1806 or the 1828 edition, notably “maiz” for “maize”, “suveran” for “sovereign” and “guillotin” for “guillotine”. But he stuck manfully to a number that were quite as revolutionary, for example, “aker” for “acre”, “cag”

for “keg”, “grotesk” for “grotesque”, “hainous” for “heinous”, “porpess” for “porpoise” and “tung” for “tongue” and they did not begin to disappear until the edition of 1854, issued by other hands and eleven years after his death. Three of his favorites, “chimist” for “chemist”, “neger” for “negro” and “zeber” for “zebra”, are incidentally interesting as showing changes in American pronunciation. He abandoned “zeber” in 1828, but remained faithful to “chimist” and “neger” to the last.

But though he was thus forced to give occasional ground, and in more than one case held out in vain, Webster lived to see the majority of his reforms adopted by his countrymen. He left the ending in “-or” triumphant over the ending in “-our”, he shook the security of the ending in “-re”, he rid American spelling of a great many doubled consonants, he established the “s” in words of the “defense” group, and he gave currency to many characteristic American spellings, notably “jail, wagon, plow, mold, ax”.

These spellings still survive, and are practically universal in the United States today; their use constitutes one of the most obvious differences between written English and written American. Moreover, they have founded a general tendency, the effects of which reach far beyond the field actually traversed by Webster himself.

New words, and particularly loanwords, are simplified, and hence naturalized in American much more quickly than in English. “Employè” has long since become “employee” in our newspapers and “asphalte” has lost its final “e”, and “manœuvre” has become “maneuver”, and “pyjamas” has become “pajamas”. Even the terminology of science is simplified and americanized.

In medicine, for example, the highest American usage countenances many forms which would seem barbarisms to an English medical man if he encountered them in the “Lancet”. In derivatives of the Greek “haima” it is the almost invariable American custom to spell the root syllable “hem”, but the more

conservative English make it "hæm", for example: in "hæmorrhage" and "hæmiplegia". In an exhaustive list of diseases issued by the United States Public Health Service the "hæm-" forms do not appear once. In the same way American usage prefers "esophagus, diarrhea, gonorrhea" to the English "æsophagus, diarrhæa, gonorrhæa".

In the style book of the Journal of the American Medical Association there are many other spellings that would shock an English medical author, among them "curet" for "curette", "cocain" for "cocaine", "gage" for "gauge", "intern" for "interne", "lacrimal" for "lachrymal", and a whole group of words ending in "-er" instead of in "-re".

Lyman Cobb and ***Joseph E.Worcester***, in the end, accepted the "-or" ending and so surrendered on the main issue, but various other champions arose to carry on the war. ***Edward S. Gould***, in a once famous essay, denounced the whole Websterian orthography with the utmost fury, and ***William Cullen Bryant***, reprinting this philippic in the "Evening Post", said that on account of Webster "the English language has been undergoing a process of corruption for the last quarter of a century," and offered to contribute to a fund to have Gould's denunciation "read twice a year in every school-house in the United States, until every trace of Websterian spelling disappears from the land."

But ***W.C.Bryant*** was forced to admit that, even in 1856, the chief novelties of the Connecticut schoolmaster "who taught millions to read but not one to sin" were "adopted and propagated by the largest publishing house, through the columns of the most widely circulated monthly magazine, and through one of the ablest and most widely circulated newspapers in the United States", which is to say, the "Tribune" under Greeley.

The last academic attack was delivered by Bishop Coxe in 1886, and he contented himself with the resigned statement that "Webster has corrupted our spelling sadly." ***Thomas R.Lounsbury***, with his active interest in spelling reform,

ranged himself on the side of Webster, and effectively disposed of the controversy by showing that the great majority of his spellings were supported by precedents quite as respectable as those behind the fashionable English spellings.

In ***T.R.Lounsbury***'s opinion, a good deal of the opposition to them was no more than a symptom of antipathy to all things American among certain Englishmen and of subservience to all things English among certain Americans.

Noah Webster had declared boldly for simpler spellings in his early spelling books; in his dictionary of 1806 he made an assault at all arms upon some of the dearest prejudices of English lexicographers. Grounding his wholesale reforms upon a saying by Franklin, that "those people spell best who do not know how to spell", i.e., who spell phonetically and logically, he made an almost complete sweep of whole classes of silent letters: the "u" in the "-our" words, the final "e" in "determine" and "requisite", the silent "a" in "thread, feather, steady", the silent "b" in "thumb", the "s" in "island", the "o" in "leopard", and the redundant consonants in "traveler, wagon, jeweler", etc. - English: "traveller, waggon, jeweller").

More, he lopped the final "k" from "frolick, physick" and their analogues. Yet more, he transposed the "e" and the "r" in many words ending in "re", such as "theatre, lustre, centre, calibre". Yet more, he changed the "c" in all words of the "defence" class to "s". Yet more, he changed "ph" to "f" in words of the "phantom" class, "ou" to "oo" in words of the "group" class, "ow" to "ou" in "crowd", "porpoise" to "porpess","acre" to "aker", "sew" to "soe", "woe" to "wo", "soot" to "sut", "gaol" to "jail", and "plough" to "plow".

Finally, he antedated the simplified spellers by inventing a long list of boldly phonetic spellings, ranging from "tung" for "tongue" to "wimmen" for "women", and from "hainous" for "heinous" to "cag" for "keg". A good many of these new spellings, of course, were not actually Webster's inventions. For example, the

change from "-our" to "-or" in words of the "honor" class was a mere echo of an earlier English uncertainty.

In the first three folios of ***William Shakespeare***, 1623, 1632 and 1663-1666, "honor" and "honour" were used indiscriminately and in almost equal proportions; English spelling was still fluid, and the "-our-" form was not consistently adopted until the fourth folio of 1685. Moreover, ***John Wesley***, the founder of Methodism, is authority for the statement that the "-or-" form was "a fashionable impropriety" in England in 1791.

But the great authority of Johnson stood against it, and Webster was surely not one to imitate fashionable improprieties. He deleted the "u" for purely etymological reasons, going back to the Latin "honor, favor, odor" without taking account of the intermediate French "honneur, faveur, odeur". And where no etymological reasons presented themselves, he made his changes by analogy and for the sake of uniformity, or for euphony or simplicity, or because it pleased him, one guesses, to stir up the academic animals.

Noah Webster, in fact, delighted in controversy, and was anything but free from the national yearning to make a sensation. Webster's reforms, it goes without saying, have not passed unchallenged by the guardians of tradition. A glance at the literature of the first years of the XIX-th century shows that most of the serious authors of the time ignored his new spellings, though they were quickly adopted by the newspapers.

Bancroft's "Life of Washington" contains "-our" endings in all such words as "honor, ardor, favor". Washington Irving also threw his influence against the "-or" ending, and so did Bryant and most of the other literary big-wigs of that day.

Webster's inconsistencies gave his opponents a formidable weapon for use against him, until it began to be noticed that the orthodox English spelling was quite as inconsistent. He sought to change "acre" to "aker", but left "lucre" unchanged. He removed the final "f" from "bailiff, mastiff, plaintiff, pontiff", but

left it in “distaff”. He changed “c” to “s” in words of the “offense” class, but left the “c” in “fence”. He changed the “ck” in “frolick, physick”, etc., into a simple “c”, but restored it in such derivatives as “frolicksome”. He deleted the silent “u” in “mould”, but left it in “court”. These slips were made the most of by Cobb in a furious pamphlet in excessively fine print, printed in 1831.

He also detected Webster in the frequent “faux pas” of using spellings in his definitions and explanations that conflicted with the spellings he advocated. Various other purists joined in the attack, and it was renewed with great fury after the appearance of Worcester’s dictionary, in 1846.

Worcester, who had begun his lexicographical labors by editing Johnson’s dictionary, was a good deal more conservative than Webster, and so the partisans of conformity rallied around him, and for a while the controversy took on all the rancor of a personal quarrel. Even the editions of Webster printed after his death, though they gave way on many points, were violently arraigned.

Jay Gould, in 1867, belabored the editions of 1854 and 1866 and complained that “for the past twenty-five years the Websterian replies have uniformly been bitter in tone, and very free in the imputation of personal motives, or interested or improper motives, on the part of opposing critics”.

At this time Noah Webster himself had been dead for twenty-two years. Schele de Vere, during the same year, denounced the publishers of the Webster dictionaries for applying “immense capital and a large stock of energy and perseverance” to the propagation of his “new and arbitrarily imposed orthography”.

Henry Louis “H.L.” Mencken became one of the most influential and prolific journalists in America in the 1920s and 1930s, writing about all the shams and con artists in the world. He attacked chiropractors and the Ku Klux Klan, politicians and other journalists. Most of all, he attacked Puritan morality. He called Puritanism, “the haunting fear that someone, somewhere, may be happy”.

"The American Language**"**, first published in 1919, is ***H.L.Mencken***'s book about the English language as spoken in the United States. H.L.Mencken was inspired by "the argot of the colored waiters" in Washington, as well as one of his favorite authors, Mark Twain, and his experiences on the streets of Baltimore.

In 1902, H.L.Mencken remarked on the "queer words which go into the making of United States". The book was preceded by several columns in "The Evening Sun". Mencken eventually asked "Why doesn't some painstaking pundit attempt a grammar of the American language... English, that is, as spoken by the great masses of the plain people of this fair land?" It would appear that he answered his own question.

In the tradition of Noah Webster, who wrote the first American dictionary, Mencken wanted to defend "Americanisms" against steady stream of English critics, who usually isolated Americanisms as borderline barbarous perversions of the mother tongue.

Mencken assaulted the prescriptive grammar of these critics and American "schoolmarms", arguing, like ***Samuel Johnson*** in the preface to his dictionary, that language evolves independently of textbooks.

The book discusses the beginnings of "American" variations from "English", the spread of these variations, American names and slang over the course of its 374 pages. According to Mencken, American English was more colorful, vivid, and creative than its British counterpart. The book sold exceptionally well by Mencken's standards -1400 copies in the first two months. Reviews of the book praised it lavishly, with the exception of one by Mencken's old nemesis, Stuart Sherman.

3. The Rhetoric of Independence from Thomas Jefferson to Abraham Lincoln and the Language of the American Self.

There are rhetorical devices in the Declaration of Independence of the United States of America. ***Thomas Jefferson*** builds the Declaration of Independence on the foundation of a set of truths about how humans ought to live and govern one another. The rest of the document, its claims and complaints, are all based on these truths. The truths are as follows, in paraphrased form: humans are of equal value, they inherently possess the rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; government ought to be built by its people in order to protect their collective rights, and that any government which fails to do so ought to be changed or destroyed and rebuilt - by its people. By setting forth these axioms at the start, Jefferson is able to build a logical case for American independence from Britain.

A significant portion of the Declaration of Independence consists of a list of grievances aimed at King George III of Britain. The list makes the overarching argument of the document more persuasive; it explicitly details numerous pieces of evidence against Britain. The grievances, in their volume and specificity, produce a great deal of rhetorical force.

One of the strongest moves in the Declaration of Independence is in its claiming of independence. After multiple paragraphs laying out the colonies' reasons for breaking free of Britain, the final paragraph declares "That these United Colonies are, and of Right ought to be Free and Independent States".

While the founders wished to explain their actions and intentions, the document is ultimately a decisive seizing of freedom and independence, not a request or an argument.

The Declaration of Independence employs all three of the rhetorical modes of persuasion Aristotle set forth: "ethos", the ethical appeal, "pathos", the emotional appeal, and "logos", the logical appeal. ***Thomas Jefferson*** uses ethos by presenting the American cause as serious, well-conceptualized and worthwhile, all qualities made clear by the honest tone and intellectual rigor of the declaration. He uses pathos to appeal to the shared roots and blood ties between the Americans and

the British. Finally, he uses logos to establish basic principles of political conduct and then build a powerful case against King Charles III.

Let us revere the Declaration of Independence. Those were the watch words of Abraham Lincoln's political life. In his 1863 Gettysburg Address, President Abraham Lincoln embraced the Declaration of Independence as the foundation of the Republic - a foundation, which had been undermined by the apologists for slavery.

The Declaration of Independence was significant because it declared the war between the colonists and the Brittish as not being simply a rebellion but a war of Independence. A.Lincoln referred back to the Declaration of Independence as he wrote his Gettysburg Address.

This Presidents and the Constitution e-lesson focuses on Abraham Lincoln and the Emancipation Proclamation. Though he had always hated slavery, President Lincoln did not believe the Constitution gave him the authority to bring it to an end, until it became necessary to free the slaves in order to save the Union.

Lincoln understood that the president could not constitutionally abolish slavery throughout the United States by issuing an Executive Order. He knew that an Amendment to the Constitution was required to achieve an immediate and comprehensive emancipation of slaves in America. In his speech, he borrowed a phrase of the Founding Fathers of the United States in saying, "the United States was conceived in Liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal." It is apparent A.Lincoln emphasized, "All men are created equal".

Questions:

What do you know about the dialects within America?

Tell about the beginnings of American English.

What led to the evolution of different English dialects?

What are the forces that shape dialects and linguistic evolution?

Characterize American English and its development from Noah Webster to Henry Louis Mencken.

What do you think about the rhetoric of independence from Thomas Jefferson to Abraham Lincoln?

Lecture 23. English in the United States.

1. American Literary Regionalism.

2. American Dialects in Literature.

Up to now the world-wide dominance of the English language is incontrovertible. But who is responsible for this: the British or the Americans?

Truly, the Yanks have been taking a beating on the language front for some time now. For ***H.L.Mencken***, ***Samuel Johnson***'s observation sums up the "tone of English criticism" of the "Amerian dialect" from colonial days right up until the time of Mencken's own ground-breaking publication, "The American Language", in the first half of this century. It should come as no surprise to H.L.Mencken that the "tone" has persisted, and will persist in all likelihood into the next century.

American English still warrants the attention of journalists, politicians, and scholars alike in the UK, not always in a kindly or objective way. Often it is regarded as an aberrant version of English. Most Americans would object to this latter classification, at least given the postwar global influence of American culture and vocabulary.

Still, the rather vociferouly-expressed comment from one audience member at a recent talk: "We gave you a perfectly good language. Why can't you speak proper English? – seems not far removed from Johnson's tone in spirit, however remote in time".

Nevertheless, it has to be admitted, as Mencken and other scholars do, that a certain amount of this hostility Americans called down upon themselves, thanks to statements made by the likes of ***John Adams*** and ***Noah Webster***. Adams was just as capable of adopting a superior tone as Johnson:

“The English language has been greatly improved in Britain within a century, but its highest perfection, with every other branch of human knowledge, is, perhaps, reserved for this land of light and freedom. As the people through this extensive country will speak English, their advantages for polishing their language will be great and vastly superior to what the people of England ever enjoyed”.

One cannot help but hear the slap of a gauntlet thrown down here. There was even some talk of an American Academy, along the lines of the Academie Française, charged with the task of preserving the purity of the language.

Then there was ***Noah Webster***, who regarded the form of English spoken in British Isles as having been corrupted by the English aristocracy. Webster worked with dogged determination to standardise and simplify the spelling of American English. He excised extraneous vowels: “colour / color”, “favour / favor”, although he resisted this change for quite a while in the face of Johnson’s example. And he transposed letters, most natably the final “-re”: “theatre / theater”, “centre / center”. Some of his changes remain an integral part of American spelling, where others have failed to survive “croud, hed, giv, meen”, etc.

And so the stand-off has continued, and despite the bickering between the two major factions, an international language has been born. And, of course, both sides would lay claim to its current world dominance. Exactly whose language is it, this current lingua franca?

Long before the United States became a superpower, it could lay claim to being a “land of light and freedom”, there was the British Empire which set its cultural tone on many parts of the world. Earlier still, British Isles themselves had been subject to invasion by Vikings and Normans.

But, as soon as the English experienced their first taste of relative freedom from foreign dominance, British English underwent a growth surge, most notably perhaps in the period immediately preceding the colonisation of America. In some

ways, the rapid changes in the language represent the movement toward a more unified English identity.

If the Middle English of Chaucer in the late 1300s is compared to Shakespearean English and then again to what begins to be Modern English in the late 1700s, the language is virtually transformed in a matter of only 400 years.

Current differences between British and American English pale in comparison: inflection is lost; verb conjugations become more uniform; thousands of new words flood the language, some 2000 alone attributed to Shakespeare. These are only some of the more prominent changes, as on many levels vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling and grammatical structure shift dramatically.

At about the time that England was experiencing this linguistic awakening, the spirit of exploration began to take hold. Of course, this exploration and colonization brought English to the Americas, to the southern hemisphere, to Africa, and to South Asia. In fact, India is exceeded only by the United States and the United Kingdom in numbers of English speakers.

The role that English literature played both in its contribution to vocabulary and to its contribution to world literature cannot be overemphasized, when considering the importance of the language.

The English Renaissance, William Shakespeare and the publication of the King James Bible particularly assisted the expansion and lent prestige to the language. And though the United States can lay claim to a literary tradition of its own that of the British Isles remains unparalleled.

Yet, even if the birthplace of the language and the imortance of cultural and social contributions are considered, its usefulness as a form on international communication depended on the number of English speakers.

True enough, the United Kingdom alone has been in the process of producing these numbers.

According to ***David Crystal*** "between the end of the reign of Elizabeth I (1588) and the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth II (1952) this figure (of five to seven million living within the British Isles) increased almost fifty-fold" to include emigrants and descendants.

This is an impressive inrease, but Americans can justifiably point out that the English language was not much used abroad before its introduction in North America. Only by turning their attention outward could the English make their full impression on the world culturally, linguistically, and politically.

Perhaps Bill Bryson puts it a bit harshly when he states that: "...without America's contribution English today would enjoy a global importance on a par Portuguese", (would that make India the UK's Brazil?), but it seems reasonable that the almost exponential population growth of the United States, along with its own brand of English, coupled with the ever-expanding nationalistic and cultural activities of the English, were what gave the language its current status as a means of international communication.

And what of the English exported to America? It has often been said that the English the colonists spoke was virtually Shakespearean or, more generally, Elizabethan. But, as ***J.L.Dillard*** points out, it would be difficult to define what exactly Shakespearean English is, considering Shakespeare's own variation in spelling and vocabulary. That it is equally difficult to describe Elizabethan English is evidenced by the varieties of regional dialect which were even more firmly entreched by the XVII-th century than they are currently.

Some people thought that the English did not give America "a perfectly good language", but rather a number of good languages or at least variations on a language, and those in a period of rather intense transition. Instead of the "two streams" or two separate languages that H.L.Mencken originally envisaged British and American English to be, it would be more accurate to consider Modern British

English to be one result of that period of linguistic transition, and American English to be another.

In fact English was not immediately dominant in the colonies: other languages, such as Dutch and French, figured prominently.

According to ***J.L.Dillard*** English was a virtual "interloper" in some regions, and "had to adapt linguistically". At one point during the colonial period, there were eighteen different languages spoken in the Hudson River Valley alone.

Scholars have frequently suggested that the later waves of immigration to the United States explain the disparity in vocabulary between British and American English. But it is plainly not the whole story. Nevertheless, with other languages along with the Pidgin English common among Native Americans, slaves, and sailors undoubtedly contributed toward making American English as a different branch from, and not a subset of, British English.

Although the United States is not, geographically-speaking, the colonial power that England was, it had some direct role before this century in exporting its own brand of English. ***J.L.Dillard***, citing Creole scholars, ***Marie Berry*** and ***Gladys Hancock***, maintains that, at least with the founding of Liberia by ex-slave repatriation, "it seems inescapable that, in a real sense, a variety of English that was in some sense "American" was transported overseas before the period of British domination had ended".

Of course, it is in the current century that American English has made its mark internationally. ***Albert Henry Marckwardt*** and ***Joey Lee Dillard*** highlight the efforts of such institutions and programs as the Fulbright Commission, the United States Information Agency, and the Peace Corps, as exporters of American culture and English. Technology has virtually assured the dominance of American English on a scientific as well as a popular level.

With a 250 million-strong block of first language English speakers, the rise of the United States as a military, industrial, and political superpower after World War II, Americans can certainly claim a prime responsibility for boosting English to world prominence.

The above is just an outline of how the two countries have ensured the position of English as the international language. There have been challengers to the title, none successful.

As many gloom and doomsayers as there are predicting the demise of English as the predominant language in the United States, and with as much resistance to English as there is expressed in individual countries, no change is status seems imminent.

So, "Whose language is it?" appears to be a question of no pertinence. ***David Crystal*** would give credit to the United States and its influence in the XX-th century, "much to the discomfiture of some in Britain who find the loss of historical linguistic preeminence unpalatable". But, the world dominance of the United States rests partially on what the British had achieved in the XIX-th century. With as many theories as there have been on the divergence of the "two streams of English", it is still virtually impossible to consider them separately or even sequentially.

It is true that the use of English predates the European settlement of America, but it has gained impetus concurrently with the rise of the United States to international status, as well as with the rise of the United Kingdom to that same status.

Today all varieties of English only in the United States are used by 230 million of people.

1. American Literary Regionalism.

In literature, **regionalism** or **local color** refers to fiction or poetry that focuses on specific features, including characters, dialects, customs, history, and landscape, of a particular region. American Literary Regionalism has been the subject of scholarship for the past several decades and has been a central site for scholarly debate on a variety of methodologies including Feminism and New Historicism. This sub-field of American literary studies has been traditionally located in the late XIX-th century.

Local color or regional literature is fiction and poetry that focuses on the characters, dialect, customs, topography, and other features particular to a specific region. Influenced by Southwestern and Down East humor, between the Civil War and the end of the XIX-th century this mode of writing became dominant in American literature.

According to the "Oxford Companion to American Literature": "In local-color literature one finds the dual influence of romanticism and realism, since the author frequently looks away from ordinary life to distant lands, strange customs, or exotic scenes, but retains through minute detail a sense of fidelity and accuracy of description" (p.439).

In his "Cultures of Letters" (1993) ***Richard Brodhead*** provides a short gloss on the genre: "It requires a setting outside the world of modern development, a zone of backwardness where locally variant folkways still prevail. Its characters are ethnologically colorful, personifications of the different humanity produced in such non-modern cultural settings. Above all this fiction features an extensive written simulation of regional vernacular, a conspicuous effort to catch the nuances of local speech" (p.115-116).

Josephine Donovan connects regionalist, or local color, literature to specific realistic representations. She specifies the genre as "depict(ing) authentic regional detail, including authentic dialect, authentic local characters, in real or realistic geographical settings".

Literary developments present a special interest. A vast number of novels (of varying quality and literary value) were published in the XIX-th century to satisfy the apparently insatiable appetite of Victorian Britain for romantic stories, ranging from the sublimity of Jane Austen's works to the florid excesses and hackneyed phrasing typified by ***Edward Bulwer-Lytton***'s famous opening lines "It was a dark and stormy night...".

Due to the strictures of prudish Victorian society, an inventive list of euphemisms were popularized for body parts and other unmentionable concepts, a prudery perhaps epitomized by ***Thomas Bowdler***'s "bowdlerization" of the works of William Shakespeare in which offending words like "*strumpet*, *whore*, *devil"*, etc., were removed or toned down.

The early XIX-th century language of ***Jane Austen*** appears to all intents and purposes to be quite modern in vocabulary, grammar and style, but it hides some subtle distinctions in meaning which have since been lost, for example: "compliment" usually meant merely polite or conventional praise; "inmate" connoted an inhabitant of any sort rather than a prisoner; "genius" was a general word for intelligence, and did not suggest exceptional prowess; "regard" encompassed a feeling of genuine affection; "irritation" did not carry its modern negative connotation, merely excitement; "grateful" could also mean gratifying; to "lounge" meant to stroll rather than to sit or slouch; to "essay" mean to attempt something; etc.

To ***Mary Austin***, and other writers of her generation, correct grammar and style, i.e. "correct" according to the dictates of ***Robert Lowth***'s "Grammar", were important social markers, and the use of non-standard vocabulary or grammar would have been seen as a mark of vulgarity to be avoided at all costs.

New ideas, new concepts and new words were introduced in the early science fiction and speculative fiction novels of ***Mary Shelley, Jules Verne*** and ***H.G.Wells***.

Lewis Carroll began to experiment with invented words, particularly blended or "portmanteau" words, in poems like "Jabberwocky" (1872). "Chortle" and "galumph" are two words from the poem that made the jump to everyday English, but the work is jam-packed with nonsense words as may be seen from its first few lines: "Twas brillig, and the slithy toves / Did gyre and gimble in the wabe: / All mimsy were the borogoves, / And the mome raths outgrabe".

But some truly revolutionary works were just around the corner in the early XX-th century, from ***Virginia Woolf*** to ***T.S.Eliot*** to ***William Faulkner*** to ***Samuel Beckett*** and, perhaps most emphatically, the innovations of the Irishman, ***James Joyce***, in "Ulysses" and "Finnegan's Wake", although, of the hundreds of new words in these works, only "monomyth" and "quark" have enjoyed any currency, and that rather limited. A single sentence from "Finnegan's Wake" (1939) may suffice to give a taste of the extent of Joyce's neologistic rampage:

"The all white poors guardiant, pulpably of balltossic stummung, was literally astundished over the painful sake, how he bursteself, which he was gone to, where he intent to did he, whether you think will, wherend the whole current of the afternoon whats the souch of a surch hads of hits of hims, urged and staggered thereto in his countryports at the caledosian capacity for ***Lieutuvisky*** of the caftan's wineskin and even more so, during, looking his big most astonishments, it was said him, aschu, fun the concerned outgift of the dead med dirt, how that, arrahbejibbers, conspuent to the dominical order and exking noblish permish, he was namely coon at bringer at home two gallonts, as per royal, full poultry till his murder".

Clearly, this is English taken to a whole new level, pushing the boundaries of the language, and it is considered one of the most difficult works of fiction in the English language. Although the Basic English grammar and syntax is more or less intact, it is written in an experimental stream-of-consciousness style, and contains masses of literary allusions, puns and dream-like word associations.

Almost half of the vocabulary consists of neologisms, particularly compound words like "allwhite, bigmost, countryports, outgift, portmanteau", or blended words, like "guardiant, wherend, conspuent", etc., and many of the words that are recognizable are used in an idiosyncratic and non-standard way.

Some of ***Joyce***'s word inventions (not in this sample) are 100 letters long. Initial reception of the work lurched between rabid praise and expressions of absolute incomprehension and disdain, and even today it remains a polarizing issue. The book continues to be more written about than read.

In the late XIX-th century, the Scottish lexicographer ***James Murray*** was given the job of compiling a "New English Dictionary on Historical Principles". He worked on this project for 36 years from 1879 until his death in 1915, and his results were completed by others and published in 1928 as the "Oxford English Dictionary". It contained 415,000 entries supported by nearly two million citations, and ran to over 15,000 pages in 12 volumes, and was immediately accepted as the definitive guide to the English language.

Interestingly, this version used the American "-ize" ending for words such as "characterize, itemize", etc., rather than the British practice (both then and now) of spelling them "characterise, itemise", etc. Although supplements were issued in 1933 and 1972-1976, it was not revised or added to until 1989, when the current (second) edition was published, listing over 615,000 words in 20 huge volumes, officially the world's largest dictionary.

2. American Dialects in Literature.

American dialects in literature are the dialects of the American variant of the English language in literature. In the late XIX-th and early XX-th century's dialect was not common in American Literature. Writers who attempted to accurately capture American dialect and slang often failed to make it believable.

Analysing “Dialects in American Literature”, we may compare and contrast three writers who used dialect in their writings and explain the difference between effective and ineffective use of dialect.

The writers, we will be discussing, are ***Mark Twain***, ***Bret Harte***, and ***William Dean Howells***. The use of dialect in American literature comes from using a combination of realism and regionalism.

According to dictionary.com “realism is an inclination toward literal truth and pragmatism and regionalism is the use of regional characteristics, as of locale, custom, or speech, in literature or art”.

Regionalism includes local language, which is often expressed by using dialect. Three examples of accurately capturing regionalism are: ***Bret Harte***’s “The Outcasts of Poker Flat” (1869), ***Mark Twain***’s “Adventures of Huckleberry Finn” (1884-1885), and ***William Dean Howells*** “A Hazard of New Fortunes” (1890).

The Biography of Bret Harte states that he was born in Albany New York on August 25, 1839. In 1854, his mother, a widow, moved him to California.

In California Harte worked as a miner, school teacher, express messenger, printer, and journalist. While Harte was in San Francisco writing for “The Californian” he worked with Mark Twain, Charles Warren Stoddard, Prentice Mulford and the editor, Henry Webb.

He contributed many poems and prose pieces to the paper. Bret Harte was appointed Secretary of the United States Branch Mint at San Francisco in 1864. He held that office until 1870. Harte then became the first editor of the “Overland Monthly”. “The Luck of Roaring Camp” published in the “Overland Monthly” brought him instant and wide fame. He was thereafter requested to contribute poems and articles to a number of publications.

Questions:

Characterize the English in the United States.

Who is responsible for world-wide dominance of the English: the British or the Americans?

Describe the origin of the American literary regionalism.

What do you know about the American dialects in literature?

Lecture 24. World-Wide English.

1. The Spread of English across the Globe.

2. British Colonialism and the British Empire.

3. English as a Global Language.

4. The Future of English.

1. The Spread of English across the Globe.

Although the United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand have English as an official language, the United States does not have an official language. This is how it's possible to become a US citizen without speaking English.

Canada also has French as an official language, though it is mostly spoken in the province of Quebec. Because many of the English speakers who originally inhabited Canada came from the US, there is little difference in the American and Canadian dialects of English.

Similarly, Australian and New Zealand English have few differences, except Australia was originally settled as a penal colony and New Zealand was not. New Zealanders were more attached to the Received Pronunciation of the upper class in England, so their dialect is considered closer to British English.

Cockney and its Ryhming Slang is an interesting dialect of English spoken in London's east end. The initial h of words is dropped, glottal stops are used frequently and labiodentals are used in place of interdentals. The Rhyming Slang refers to a word by referring to two things, the last of which rhymes with what is being referred to. For examples, money is "bees and honey", a glove is "turtle doves", suit is "whistle and flute" and trouble is "Barney Rubble". Even more

confusing, sometimes the second word, which rhymes with the word being referred to, is omitted, so that money is called just “bees”.

2. British Colonialism and the British Empire.

British colonialism had begun as early as the XVI-th century, but gathered speed and momentum between the XVIII-th and XX-th century. At the end of the XVI-th century, mother-tongue English speakers numbered just 5-7 million, almost all of them in the British Isles; over the next 350 years, this increased almost 50-fold, 80% of them living outside of Britain.

At the height of the British Empire in the late XIX-th and early XX-th century, Britain ruled almost one quarter of the earth’s surface, from Canada to Australia to India to the Caribbean to Egypt to South Africa to Singapore.

Although the English language had barely penetrated into Wales, Ireland and the Scottish Highlands by the time of Shakespeare, just two hundred years later, in 1780, John Adams was confident enough to be able to claim with a certain amount of foresight, but quite reasonably that English was “destined to be in the next and succeeding centuries more generally the language of the world than Latin was in the last or French is in the present age”.

In 1852, the German linguist, Jacob Grimm, called English “the language of the world”, and predicted it was “destined to reign in future with still more extensive sway over all parts of the globe”.

It was taken very much for granted by the British colonial mentality of the time that extending the English language and culture to the undeveloped and backward countries of Africa and Asia was a desirable thing. The profit motive may have been foremost, but there was a certain amount of altruistic motivation as well, and many saw it as a way of bringing order and political unity to these chaotic and internecine regions as well as binding them ever more strongly to the

Empire. To some extent, it is true that the colonies were happy to learn the language in order to profit from British industrial and technological advances.

But colonialism was a two-way phenomenon, and Britain's dealings with these exotic countries, as well as the increase in world trade in general during this time led to the introduction of many foreign loanwords into English. For instance, Australia gave a set of words, not particularly useful outside the context of Australia itself, like "boomerang, kangaroo, budgerigar", etc. But India gave us such everyday words as "pyjamas, thug, bungalow, cot, jungle, loot, bangle, candy, tank, shampoo" and many others.

The rise of so-called "New Englishes", i.e. modern variants or dialects of the language, such as Australian English, South African English, Caribbean English, South Asian English, etc., raised, for some, the spectre of the possible fragmentation of the English language into mutually unintelligible languages, much as occurred when Latin gave rise to the various Romance languages: French, Spanish, Italian, etc. centuries ago.

As early as 1789, for example, Noah Webster had predicted "a language in North America as different from the future language of England as the modern Dutch, Danish and Swedish are from the German or from one another". However, in retrospect, this does not seem to have happened and, in the age of instantaneous global communication, it now seems ever less likely to occur in the future.

It is a fact that British colonialism has spread English all over the world, and it still holds prestige in South Africa, India, and Singapore, among other nations. In South Africa, English became an official language, along with Afrikaans and 9 African languages, in the 1996 constitution. However, only 3 per cent of the country's thirty million people are native English speakers.

Twenty per cent are descendants of Dutch farmers who speak Afrikaans, and the rest are native Africans. Britain still promised the Boers self-government under

the Union of South Africa, although the British won the Boer Wars of 1899-1901 against the Dutch farmers (the Boers).

By 1948, these Afrikaners won state elections and remained in power through the 1990's. Apartheid, which segregated the Afrikaners and Africans, officially ended under Nelson Mandela's reign, and although Afrikaans was the language used more often, the Africans wanted English as the official language.

It is also one of the eleven official languages that are given equal status in South Africa (South African English). English is also the official language in current dependent territories of Australia: Norfolk Island, Christmas Island and Cocos Island and of the United States: American Samoa, Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, Puerto Rico, and the US Virgin Islands, and the former British colony of Hong Kong.

India became an independent from Britian in 1947, and the English language was supposed to be phased out by 1965. However, today English and Hindi are the official languages. Indian English is characterized by treating mass nouns as count nouns, frequent use of the "isn't it?" tag, use of more compounds, and a different use of prepositions.

In Singapore, Chinese, Malay and Indian languages have an impact on the form of English spoken. Everyone is taught English in the school system, but there are a few differences from British English as well. Mass nouns are treated as count nouns, "use to" means usually, and no articles are used before occupations.

Creoles of English can be found on the coast of West Africa, China, and on islands of the Pacific and Caribbean, especially the West Indies. Originally, these creoles were pidgins so that English-speaking traders could conduct business. Over time, they became the native languages of the children and evolved into creoles.

Up to now there are the many countries where English is a major language. English is the primary language in Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Australia,

the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bermuda, the British Indian Ocean Territory, the British Virgin Islands, Canada, the Cayman Islands, Dominica, the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, Grenada, Guam, Guernsey, Guyana, Ireland, the Isle of Man, Jamaica, Jersey, Montserrat, Nauru, New Zealand, Pitcairn Islands, Saint Helena, Ascension and Tristan da Cunha, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Singapore, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, the Turks and Caicos Islands, the United Kingdom and the United States.

In some countries where English is not the most spoken language, it is an official language; these countries include Botswana, Cameroon, the Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji, Gambia, Ghana, India, Kenya, Kiribati, Lesotho, Malta, Liberia, the Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines (Philippine English), Rwanda, Saint Lucia, Samoa, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, the Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, Sudan, South Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Also there are countries where in a part of the territory English became a co-official language, for example: Colombia's San Andrés y Providencia and Nicaragua's Mosquito Coast. This was a result of the influence of British colonisation in the area.

Although the United States federal government has no official languages, English has been given official status by thirty of the fifty state governments. Although falling short of official status, English is also an important language in several former colonies and protectorates of the United Kingdom, such as Bahrain, Bangladesh, Brunei, Cyprus, Malaysia, and the United Arab Emirates.

New World. It was largely during the Late Modern period that the United States, newly independent from Britain as of 1783, established its pervasive influence on the world. The English colonization of North America had begun as early as 1600. Jamestown, Virginia was founded in 1607, and the Pilgrim Fathers

settled in Plymouth, Massachusetts in 1620. The first settlers were, then, contemporaries of Shakespeare (1564-1616), Bacon (1561-1626) and Donne (1572-1631), and would have spoken a similar dialect.

The new land was described by one settler as "a hideous and desolate wilderness, full of wild beasts and wild men", and half of the settlers were dead within weeks of their arrival, unaccustomed to the harsh winter. In fact, the colony would probably have gone the way of the earlier ill-fated Roanoke Island settlement attempt of 1584 were it not for the help of an American native called **Squanto**, who had learned English from English sailors.

Parts of the New World had already been long colonized by the French, Spanish and Dutch, but English settlers like the Pilgrim Fathers and those who soon followed them went there to stay, not just to search for riches or trading opportunities. They wanted to establish themselves permanently, to work the land, and to preserve their culture, religion and language, and this was a crucial factor in the survival and development of English in North America.

The German "Iron Chancellor" Otto van Bismarck would later ruefully remark that "the most significant event of the XX-th Century will be the fact that the North Americans speak English".

Interestingly, some English pronunciations and usages "froze" when they arrived in America while they continued to evolve in Britain itself, sometimes referred to as "colonial lag", so that, in some respects, American English is closer to the English of Shakespeare than modern British English is. Perhaps the best-known example is the American use of "gotten", which has long since faded from use in Britain, even though "forgotten" has survived.

But the American use of words like "fall" for the British "autumn", "trash" for "rubbish", "hog" for "pig", "sick" for "ill", "guess" for "think", and "loan" for "lend" are all examples of this kind of anachronistic British word usage. America kept several words, such as: "burly, greenhorn, talented, scant" that had

been largely dropped in Britain, although some have since been recovered, and words like “lumber” and “lot” soon acquired their specific American meanings.

Something approaching Shakespearean speech can sometimes be encountered in isolated valleys in the Appalachian or Ozarks, where words like “afeard, yourn, sassy, consarn” and old pronunciations like “jine” for “join”, can still sometimes be heard.

The settlement of America served as the route of introduction for many Native American words into the English language. Most of the early settlers were austere Puritans and they were quite conservative in their adoption of native words, which were largely restricted to terms for native animals and foods, for example: “raccoon, opossum, moose, chipmunk, skunk, tomato, squash, hickory”, etc. In many cases, the original indigenous words were very difficult to render in English, and have often been mangled almost beyond recognition, for instance: “squash” is from the native “quonterquash” or “asquutasquash”, depending on the region; “racoon” is from “raugraughcun” or “rahaugcum”; “hickory” is from “pawcohiccora”; etc.

Some words needed to describe the Native American lifestyle were also accepted, for example: “canoe, squaw, papoose, wigwam, moccasin, tomahawk”, although many other supposedly Native-derived words and phrases, such as “brave, peace-pipe, pale-face, war-path”, etc. were actually spurious and a product of the fertile imaginations of XIX-th century American romantic novelists.

New words were also needed for some geographical features, which had no obvious English parallel in the limited experience of the settlers, for instance: “foothill, notch, bluff, gap, divide, watershed, clearing”, etc.

Immigration into America was not limited to English speakers, though. In the second half of the XIX-th century, in particular, over thirty million poured into the country from all parts of the world. At the peak of immigration, from 1901 to

1905, America absorbed a million Italians, a million Austro-Hungarians, half a million Russians and tens of thousands each from many other countries.

Many nationalities established their own centres: the Amish or Pennsylvania Dutch, actually Germans, as in Deutsch tended to stay in their isolated communities, and developed a distinctive English with a strong German accent and an idiosyncratic syntax; many Germans also settled in Wisconsin and Indiana; Norwegians settled in Minnesota and the Dakotas; Swedes in Nebraska; etc.

Often foreigners were despised or laughed at, and the newcomers found it in their best interests to integrate well and to observe as much uniformity of speech and language as possible. This, as well as the improvements in transportation and communication, led to fewer, and less distinct, dialects than in the much smaller area of Britain, although there are some noticeable, and apparently quite arbitrary, regional differences, even within some states.

A few isolated communities, like the so-called "Tidewater" communities around Chesapeake Bay in Virginia, who were mainly descended from settlers from Somerset and Gloucestershire in the West Country of England, unlike the Massachusetts settlers, who were largely from the eastern counties of England, have managed to retain the distinctive burring West Country accent of their forebears.

But, by the XIX-th century a standard variety of American English had developed in most of the country, based on the dialect of the Mid-Atlantic states with its characteristic flat "a" and strong final "r". Today Standard American English, also known as General American, is based on a generalized Midwestern accent, and is familiar to us from American films, radio and newscasters.

"American language" zealots like John Adams, Benjamin Franklin and Noah Webster revelled in the prospect of plain English, free of the regional dialects and class distinctions of Britain. Long before the Declaration of Independence, British visitors to America often remarked that the average American spoke much better

English than the average Englishman. After the American War of Independence of 1775 - 1783, there was some discussion about whether English should remain the national language, but it was never really in any doubt, and was not even mentioned in the new Constitution, even today, the USA does not have an “official language”, as indeed neither does Australia or Britain itself.

The colonization of Canada proceeded quite separately from that of America. There had been British, French and Portuguese expeditions to the east coast of Canada even before the end of the XV-th century, but the first permanent European settlement was by France in 1608. British interests in Canada did not coalesce until the early XVIII-th century but, after the Treaty of Paris of 1763, Britain wrested control of most of eastern Canada from the French, and it became an important British colony. It was the War of 1812 against the Americans, as much as Confederation and independence from Britain in 1867 that definitively cemented the separate identity of English Canada.

English in Canada has also been influenced by successive waves of immigration, from the influx of Loyalists from the south fleeing the American Revolution, to the British and Irish who were encouraged to settle the land in the early XIX-th century to the huge immigration from all over the world during the XX-th century.

But, more than anything, the speech of the Loyalists arriving in southern Ontario from states like Pennsylvania and New York formed the basis of Canadian speech and its accent, including the distinctive pronunciation of the “ou” in words like “house” and “out”, and the “i” in words like “light”.

Modern **Canadian English** tends to show very little regional diversity in pronunciation, even compared to the United States, the Irish-tinged dialect of Newfoundland being far and away the most distinctive dialect.

Canadian English today contains elements of British English and American English in its vocabulary: it also uses a kind of hybrid of American and British

spelling, as well several distinctive "Canadianisms", like: "hoser, hydro, chesterfield", etc. and the ubiquitous "eh?" at the end of many sentences. Its vocabulary has been influenced by loanwords from the native peoples of the north, for example: "igloo, anorak, toboggan, canoe, kayak, parka, muskeg, caribou, moose", etc., as well as the French influence, like: "serviette, tuque" from Lower Canada / Quebec.

Britain's Other Colonies. But North America was not the only "New World". In 1788, less than twenty years after James Cook's initial landing, Britain established its first penal colony in Sydney, Australia: once labelled merely as Terra Australis Incognita, the Unknown Southern Land. About 130,000 prisoners were transported there over the next 50 years, followed by other "free" settlers. Most of the settlers were from London and Ireland, resulting in a very distinctive and egalitarian accent and a Basic English vocabulary supplemented by some Aboriginal words and expressions, like: "boomerang, kangaroo, wallaby, koala, budgerigar", etc.

The Australian Aborigines were nomadic and reclusive, and their numbers relatively small, perhaps 200,000, speaking over 200 separate languages, so the loanwords they contributed to English were few and mainly limited to local plant and animal names.

Over time, the convicts who had served out their time became citizens of the emerging country, and became euphemistically known as "government men", "legitimates", "exiles" or "empire builders". Some British slang words, especially Cockney terms and words from the underground "Flash" language of the criminal classes, became more commonly used in Australia than in Britain, like: "chum, swag, bash, cadge, grub, dollop, lark, crack", and some distinctively Australian terms were originally old English words which largely died out outside of Australia, like: "cobber, digger, pom, dinkum, walkabout, tucker, dunny".

New Zealand began to be settled by European whalers and missionaries in the 1790s, although an official colony was not established there until 1840. New Zealand was keen to emphasize its national identity and particularly its differences from neighbouring Australia, and this influenced its own version of English, as did the incorporation of native Maori words into the language.

British settlement in South Africa began in earnest in 1820 and nearly half a million English-speaking immigrants moved there during the last quarter of the XIX-th century, eager to take advantage of the discoveries of gold and diamonds. The Dutch had been in South Africa since the 1650s, but the wave of British settlers soon began to anglicize the Afrikaans (Dutch) and black population.

English was made the official language in 1822 and, as in Australia, a distinctive homogeneous accent developed over time, drawing from the various different groups of settlers. Although English was always and remains a minority language, spoken by less than 10% of South Africans, Afrikaans was seen by the 80% black majority as the language of authority and repression: the word "apartheid", in addition to "trek", remains South Africa's best known contribution to the English lexicon, and English represented for them a means of achieving an international voice.

In 1961, South Africa became the only country ever to set up an official Academy to promote the English language. The 1993 South African constitution named no less than eleven official languages, of which English and Afrikaans are but two, but English is increasingly recognized as the lingua franca.

In West Africa, the English trading influence began as early as the end of the XV-th century. In this language-rich and highly multilingual region, several English-based pidgins and creoles arose, many of which, like Krio, the "de facto" national language of Sierra Leone, still exist today.

Sierra Leone, Ghana, Gambia, Nigeria and Cameroon were all run as British Crown Colonies in the XIX-th century, and the influence of the English language

remains of prime importance in the region. Liberia, founded in 1822 as a homeland for former American slaves, similar to the way in which Sierra Leone had been established by the British in the 1780s, is the only African country with an American influence.

In East Africa, British trade began around the end of the XVI-th century, although systematic interest only started in the 1850s. Six modern East African states with a history of XIX-th century British imperial rule: Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe, gave English official language status on achieving independence in the 1960s.

English is widely used in government, civil service, courts, schools, media, road signs, stores and business correspondence in these countries, and, because more British emigrants settled there than in the more difficult climate of West Africa, a more educated and standard English-speaking population grew up there, and there was less need for the development of pidgin languages.

The British East India Company established its first trading station in India in 1612, and it expanded rapidly. At first, the British traders had to learn the various languages of India in order to do business: Hindi, Bengali, Gujurati and others. But soon, schools and Christian missions were set up, and British officials began to impose English on the local populace.

During the period of British sovereignty in India (the “Raj”), from 1765 until partition and independence in 1947, English became the medium of administration and education throughout the Indian sub-continent, particularly following Thomas Macaulay’s famous or infamous “Minutes” of 1835. This was welcomed by some, particularly in the Dravidian speaking areas of southern India, who preferred English as a lingua franca to the Hindi alternative, but opposed and derided by others. A particularly florid and ornate version of English, incorporating an extreme formality and politeness, sometimes referred to as Babu English, grew up among Indian administrators, clerks and lawyers.

Although now just a “subsidiary official language”, one of fifteen official languages in a country which boasts 1,652 languages and dialects, and much less important than Hindi, English continues to be used as the lingua franca in the legal system, government administration, the army, business, media and tourism.

In addition to Britain’s contribution to the Indian language, though, India’s many languages, particularly Hindi, gave back many words such as “cot, pyjamas, bandanna, pundit, bungalow, veranda, dinghy, divan, ghoul, jungle, loot, cash, toddy, curry, candy, chit, thug, punch (the drink), cushy, yoga, bangle, khaki, shampoo, turban, tank, juggernaut”, etc.

English also became the language of power and elite education in South-East Asia, initially its trading territories in Penang, Singapore, Malacca and Hong Kong. Papua New Guinea developed differently, developing a pervasive English-based pidgin language known as Tok Pisin - “Talk Pidgin”, which is now its official language. The Philippines was an American colony for the first half of the XX-th Century and the influence of American English remains strong there.

The dates may be rather arbitrary, but the main distinction between Early Modern and Late Modern English or just Modern English as it is sometimes referred to, lies in its vocabulary - pronunciation, grammar and spelling remained largely unchanged.

Late Modern English accumulated many more words as a result of two main historical factors: the **Industrial Revolution**, which necessitated new words for things, and ideas that had not previously existed; and the rise of the British Empire, during which time English adopted many foreign words and made them its own. No single one of the socio-cultural developments of the XIX-th century could have established English as a world language, but together they did just that.

Most of the innovations of the Industrial Revolution of the late XVIII-th and early XIX-th century were of British origin, including the harnessing of steam to drive heavy machinery, the development of new materials, techniques and

equipment in a range of manufacturing industries, and the emergence of new means of transportation, for example: “steamships, railways”.

At least half of the influential scientific and technological output between 1750 and 1900 was written in English. Another English speaking country, the USA, continued the English language dominance of new technology and innovation with inventions like electricity, the telegraph, the telephone, the phonograph, the sewing machine, the computer, etc.

The industrial and scientific advances of the Industrial Revolution created a need for neologisms to describe the new creations and discoveries. To a large extent, this relied on the classical languages, Latin and Greek, in which scholars and scientists of the period were usually well versed.

Although words like “oxygen, protein, nuclear, vaccine” did not exist in the classical languages, they were created from Latin and Greek roots. For instance: “lens, refraction, electron, bacteria, chromosome, chloroform, caffeine, centigrade, chronometer, claustrophobia” are just a few of the other science-based words that were created during this period of scientific innovation, along with a whole host of “-ologies” and “-onomies”, like “biology, petrology, morphology, palaeontology, histology, ethnology, entomology, taxonomy, etc.

Many more new words were coined for the new products, machines and processes that were developed at this time, for example: “train, engine, reservoir, pulley, combustion, piston, hydraulic, condenser, electricity, telephone, telegraph, lithograph, camera, etc).

In some cases, old words were given entirely new meanings and connotation, for example: “vacuum, cylinder, apparatus, factory, pump, syphon, locomotive”, etc., and new words created by amalgamating and fusing existing English words into a descriptive combination were particularly popular, like: “railway, horsepower, typewriter, cityscape, airplane”, etc.

Language Reform: ***George Bernard Shaw*** or ***Oscar Wilde*** or ***Dylan Thomas*** or even ***Winston Churchill***, once quipped that "England and America are two countries separated by a common language", and part of the reason for the differences between the two versions of English lies in the American proclivity for reform and simplification of the language.

In the 1760s, ***Benjamin Franklin*** campaigned vigorously for the reform of spelling (he advocated the discontinuation of the "unnecessary letters "c", "w", "y" and "j" and the addition of six new letters"), as later did Noah Webster and Mark Twain. To be fair, there were also calls for reform in Britain, including from such literary luminaries as Alfred Lord Tennyson, Arthur Conan Doyle, George Bernard Shaw and even Charles Darwin, although the British efforts generally had little or no effect.

Both ***Thomas Jefferson*** and ***Noah Webster*** were totally convinced that American English would evolve into a completely separate language. Towards the end of the XIX-th century, the English linguist Henry Sweet predicted that, within a century, "England, America and Australia will be speaking mutually unintelligible languages, owing to their independent changes of pronunciation", as it has turned out, with the development of instantaneous global communications, the different dialects seem likely to converge rather than diverge, and American economic and cultural dominance is increasingly apparent in both British and, particularly Australian speech and usage.

Noah Webster is often credited with single-handedly changing American spelling, particularly through his dictionaries: "The American Spelling Book", first published in 1788, although it ran to at least 300 editions over the period between 1788 and 1829, and became probably the best selling book in American history after "The Bible", "The Compendious Dictionary of the English Language" (1806) and "The American Dictionary of the English Language" (1828).

In fact, many of the changes N.Webster put forward in his dictionaries were already underway in America, for instance, the spelling of “theater” and “center” instead of “theatre” and “centre” and many others may well have happened anyway. But he was largely responsible for the revised spelling of words like “color” and “honor” instead of the British “colour” and “honour”, “traveler” and “jeweler” for “traveller” and “jeweller”, “check” and “mask” for “cheque” and “masque”, “defense” and “offense” for “defence” and “offence”, “plow” for “plough”, as well as the rather illogical adoption of “aluminum” instead of “aluminium”.

Many of Webster’s more radical spelling recommendations, such as: “soop, groop, bred, wimmen, fether, fugitiv, tuf, thum, hed, bilt, tung, fantom, ile, croud, definit, examin, medicin”, etc. were largely ignored, as were most of his suggested pronunciation suggestions, like as: “deef” for “deaf”, “booty” for “beauty”, “nater” for “nature”, etc., although he was responsible for the current American pronunciations of words like “schedule” and “lieutenant”.

N.Webster also claimed to have invented words such as “demoralize, appreciation, expenditure, accompaniment, ascertainable”, even though these words had actually been in use for some centuries.

For many Americans, like N.Webster, taking ownership of the language and developing what would become known as American Standard English was seen as a matter of honour (honor) for the newly independent nation. But such reforms were fiercely criticized in Britain, and even in America a so-called “Dictionary War” ensued between supporters of Webster’s Americanism and the more conservative British-influenced approach of Joseph Worcester and others.

When the Merriam brothers bought the rights to Webster’s dictionaries and produced the first Merriam-Webster dictionary in 1847, they actually expunged most of Webster’s more radical spelling and pronunciation ideas, and the work and its subsequent versions bacame an instant success.

In 1906 the American philanthropist ***Andrew Carnegie*** tried to resurrect some of Webster's reforms. He contributed large sums of money towards the Simplified Spelling Board, which resulted in the American adoption of the simpler spellings of words such as: "ax, judgment, catalog, program", etc.

President Theodore Roosevelt agreed to use these spellings for all federal publications and they quickly caught on, although there was still stiff resistance to such recommended changes as "tuf, def, troble, yu, filosofy", etc.

3. English as a Global Language.

By the end of the XIX-th century, the USA had overtaken the UK as the world's fastest growing economy, and America's "economic imperialism" continued the momentum of the British Industrial Revolution into the XX-th century. The American dominance in economic and military power, as well as its overwhelming influence in the media and popular culture has ensured that English has remained the single most important language in the world and the closest thing to a global language the world has ever seen.

Perhaps in reaction to the perceived appropriation or co-option of English by the United States, a certain amount of language snobbery continued to grow in England. In 1917, ***Daniel Jones*** introduced the concept of Received Pronunciation, sometimes called the Queen's English, BBC English or Public School English, to describe the variety of Standard English spoken by the educated middle and upper classes, irrespective of what part of England they may live in.

The invention of radio in the 1920s, and then television in the 1930s, disseminated this archetypal English accent to the masses and further entrenched its position, despite the fact that it was only spoken by about 1 in 50 in the general population. At the same time, regional accents were further denigrated and marginalized. However, since the Second World War, a greater permissiveness

towards regional English varieties has taken hold in England, both in education and in the media.

There was a mid-century reaction within Britain against what ***George Orwell*** described as the "ugly and inaccurate" contemporary English of the time. In Orwell's dystopic novel "Nineteen Eighty-Fou", words like "doublethink, thoughtcrime, newspeak, blackwhite" give a nightmarish vision of where he saw the language going.

The "Plain English" movement, which emphased clarity, brevity and the avoidance of technical language, was bolstered by ***Sir Ernest Gowers***' "The Complete Plain Words", published in the early 1950s, and the trend towards plainer language, appropriate to the target audience, continued in official and legal communications, and was followed by a similar movement in the United Sates during the 1970s. Sir Ernest Gowers himself thought that legal language was a case apart, being more of a science than an art, and could not be subject to Plain English rules, but in more recent years there has been a trend toward plainer language in legal documents too.

The XX-th century was, among other things, a century of world wars, technological transformation, and globalization, and each has provided a source of new additions to the lexicon. For example, words like "blockbuster, nose-dive, shell-shocked, camouflage, barrage, boondocks, roadblock, brainwashing, snafu, radar, boffin, spearhead", etc. are all military terms which have made their way into standard English during the World Wars.

As an interesting aside, in 1941, when Sir Winston Churchill wanted to plumb the depths of the English soul at a particularly crucial and difficult time in the Second World War, almost all of the words in the main part of his famous speech: "we shall fight on the beaches... we shall never surrender", were of Anglo-Saxon origin, with the significant exception of "surrender" - a French loanword.

The speech is also a good example of what was considered Received Pronunciation at the time.

The push for political correctness and inclusiveness in the last third of the XX-th century, particularly by homosexuals, feminists and visible minority groups, led to a reassessment of the popular usage of many words. Feminists called into question the underlying sexism in language, like: "mankind, chairman, mailman", etc. and some have even gone to the lengths of positing "herstory" as an alternative to "history".

For a time, stong objections were voiced at the inherent racism underlying words like "blacklist, blackguard, blackmail", even "blackboard", and at the supposedly disparaging and dismissive nature of terms like "mentally handicapped, disabled, Third World", etc.

But there has also been a certain amount of positive re-branding and reclamation, also known as reappropriation, of many pejorative words, such as "gay, queer, queen, dyke, bitch, nigger", etc., by those very same marginalized segments of society.

The explosion in electronic and computer terminology in the latter part of the XX-th century, for instance: "byte, cyberspace, software, hacker, laptop, hard-drive, database, online, hi-tech, microchip", etc. was just one element driving the dramatic increase in new English terms, particularly due to the dominance of the USA in the development of computer technology, from IBM to Apple to Microsoft.

Parallel to this, science fiction literature has contributed it own vocabulary to the common word-stock, including terms such as: "robotics, hyperspace, warp-speed, cyberpunk, droid, nanotech, nanobot", etc.

Later, the Internet it gave rise to the word "Internet" itself is derived form Latin, as are "audio, video, quantum", etc. generated its own set of neologisms, for

example: “online, noob, flamer, spam, phishing, larping, whitelist, download, blog, vblog, blogosphere, emoticon, warez, trolling, hashtag, bitcoin, selfie, wifi, podcast”, etc.

In addition, a whole body of acronyms, contractions and shorthands for use in email, social networking and cellphone texting has grown up, particularly among the young, including the relatively well-known, like: “lol, ttfn, btw, omg, wtf, plz, thx, ur, l8ter”, etc. The debate (“db8”) continues as to whether texting is killing or enriching the English language.

It is neccessary to mention that in the modern world English is the first global language, and its variations are an incitement to study. But the various word choices that people make, unconsciously, can have social consequences in both the small and the large scale: some variations may be neutral, but others have the ability to express social class, cultural solidarity, and ethnic identity.

English has now inarguably achieved global status. Whenever we turn on the news to find out what’s happening in East Asia, or the Balkans, or Africa, or South America, or practically anywhere, local people are being interviewed and telling us about it in English. To illustrate the point when Pope John Paul II arrived in the Middle East recently to retrace Christ’s footsteps and addressed Christians, Muslims and Jews, the **pontiff** spoke not Latin, not Arabic, not Italian, not Hebrew, not his native Polish. He spoke in English.

Indeed, if one looks at some of the facts about the amazing reach of the English language many would be surprised. English is used in over 90 countries as an official or semi-official language. English is the working language of the Asian trade group ASEAN.

It is the de facto working language of 98 per cent of international research physicists and research chemists. It is the official language of the European Central Bank, even though the bank is in Frankfurt and neither Britain nor any other

predominantly English-speaking country is a member of the European Monetary Union.

It is the language in which Indian parents and black parents in South Africa overwhelmingly wish their children to be educated. It is believed that over one billion people worldwide are currently learning English.

One of the more remarkable aspects of the spread of English around the world has been the extent to which Europeans are adopting it as their internal lingua franca. English is spreading from northern Europe to the south and is now firmly entrenched as a second language in countries such as Sweden, Norway, Netherlands and Denmark.

Although not an official language in any of these countries if one visits any of them it would seem that almost everyone there can communicate with ease in English. Indeed, if one switches on a television in Holland one would find as many channels in English (albeit subtitled), as there are in Dutch.

As part of the European Year of Languages, a special survey of European attitudes towards and their use of languages have just published. The report confirms that at the beginning of 2001 English is the most widely known foreign or second language, with 43 per cent of Europeans claiming they speak it in addition to their mother tongue.

Sweden now heads the league table of English speakers, with over 89 per cent of the population saying they can speak the language well or very well. However, in contrast, only 36 per cent of Spanish and Portuguese nationals speak English.

What's more, English is the language rated as most useful to know, with over 77 per cent of Europeans who do not speak English as their first language, rating it as useful. French rated 38 per cent, German 23 per cent and Spanish 6 per cent. English has without a doubt become the global language.

4. The Future of English.

The language continues to change and develop and to grow apace, expanding to incorporate new jargons, slangs, technologies, toys, foods and gadgets. In the current digital age, English is going though a new linguistic peak in terms of word acquisition, as it peaked before during Shakespeare's time and then again during the Industrial Revolution, and at the height of the British Empire. According to one recent estimate, it is expanding by over 8,500 words a year, other estimates are significantly higher, compared to an estimated annual increase of around 1,000 words at the beginning of the XX-th century, and has almost doubled in size in the last century.

Neologisms are being added all the time, including recent inclusions such as "fashionista, metrosexual, McJob, McMansion, wussy, bling, pear-shaped, meme, unplugged, fracking, truthiness, locavore, parkour, sexting, crowdsourcing, regift, selfie, earworm, meh, nerd, diss, suss, emo, twerk, schmeat, chav, ladette, punked, vaping", etc.

In recent years, there has been an increasing trend towards using an existing words as a different part of speech, especially the "verbification" of nouns, like: the word "verbify" is itself a prime example; others include "to thumb, to parrot, to email, to text, to google, to medal, to critique, to leverage, to sequence, to interface, to tase, to speechify, to incentivize", etc., although some modern-sounding verbs have surprisingly been in the language for centuries, like "to author, to impact, to message, to parent, to channel, to monetize, to mentor, etc). "Nounification" also occurs, particularly in business contexts, for example: "an ask, a build, a solve, a fail", etc.

Compound or portmanteau words are an increasingly common source of new vocabulary, for instance: "stagflation, edutainment, flexitarian, Disneyfication, frenemy, confuzzle, gastropub, bromance, hacktivist, chillax, infomercial, gaydar, shareware, dramedy, wellderly, techlash", etc.

The meanings of words also continue to change, part of a process that has been going on almost as long as the language itself. For instance, to the disgust of many, “alternate” is now almost universally accepted in North America as a replacement for “alternative”, “momentarily” has come to mean “very soon” and not “for a very short period of time”; and the use of the modifier “literally” to mean its exact opposite has recently found it way into the Oxford English Dictionary, where one of its meanings is shown as “used for emphasis rather than being actually true”. In some walks of life, “bad, sick, dope, wicked” are all now different varieties of good.

In our faddy, disposable, Internet-informed, digital age, there are even word trends that appear to be custom-designed to be short-lived and epehemeral, words and phrases that are considered no longer trendy once they reach anything close to mainstream usage. Examples might be “bae, on fleek, YOLO (you only live once), fanute”, etc.

Thus, the development of regional and class-based variations of English, and the persistence of even those forms that are stigmatized, tells us something very important about the future of English, a language spoken in one form or another by nearly one fifth of the population of the earth. And there is a network effect with any one dominant language: The more people who speak it, the more valuable it is to learn to speak it.

For native English speakers this is obviously a good thing, as their natural linguistic ability, acquired with no effort in childhood, provides advantages in the worlds of commerce, entertainment, and technology, to name only three areas in which English is rapidly becoming a global standard.

But the success of English has come at the expense of many other languages: scholars and speakers rightly worry that the more than six thousand living languages will be radically reduced in the next century, with only relatively few

major languages, perhaps the top one hundred in numbers of speakers, surviving the next five hundred years.

This would be a tragedy, a loss of human accomplishment and invention no less important than the loss of species from the rainforests and tropical seas of the world.

But the spread of new dialect forms, the diversification of English, and the persistence of even the most stigmatized variants are cause for some optimism. It seems that we humans will preserve, even in the face of incessant and intense pressure, our home languages. We may switch codes, we may even choose to adopt prestige dialects, but somehow we retain the ability and the desire to speak in the languages that make us feel solidarity and comfort.

Even if our language starts from the same root, it seems to have built in a drive to branch out, to diversify, and to change continually. The story of English has been one of change and diversity, and we expect that its future will be also.

Questions:

Characterize the the Spread of English across the Globe.

Argue for World-Wide English.

What do you know about the British Colonialism and the British Empire?

Why English is considered as a Global Language?

What does the development of regional and class-based variations of English, and the persistence of stigmatized forms, tell us about the future of English?

Lecture 25. An Anglophone World.

1. English as a Lingua Franca.

2. English as a Language of Science.

3. Internet English.

4. The Present and Future of English.

5. Modern Linguistics and the Politics of Language Study.

Anglophone may refer to: An English-language - speaking person, group, or locality; English-speaking world - Anglosphere.

In the modern world (the first quarter of the XXI-st century) there are five languages that have the highest number of native speakers. Approximately 450 million people speak **English** as their first language, 983 million speakers as the second language.

Today English is probably the third largest language by number of native speakers, after **Mandarin Chinese** (955 million of native speakers; 1.1 billion speakers) and **Spanish** (405 million of native speakers).

The fourth language is **Hindi / Urdu** – 310 million of native speakers; 544 million speakers and the fifth language is **Arabic** – 295 million of native speakers; 422 million speakers. Arabic language has influenced many other common languages such as Spanish, which has approximately 4.000 words with Arabic roots. **Russian** – 267 million speakers.

Approximately 78 million people in the world speak **Turkish** natively, and several million more speak it as a second language. 14 million people in the world speak the **Azerbaijani** language.

However, when combining native and non-native speakers it is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world, though possibly second to a

combination of the Chinese languages, depending on whether or not distinctions in the latter are classified as “languages” or “dialects”.

Estimates that include second language English speakers vary greatly from 470 million to over a billion depending on how literacy or mastery is defined and measured. ***David Crystal*** calculates that non-native speakers now outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1.

The countries with the highest populations of native English speakers are, in descending order: the United States (226 million), the United Kingdom (61 million), Canada (18.2 million), Australia (15.5 million), Nigeria (4 million), Ireland (3.8 million), South Africa (3.7 million), and New Zealand (3.6 million) in a 2006 Census.

Countries such as the Philippines, Jamaica and Nigeria also have millions of native speakers of dialect continua ranging from an English-based creole to a more standard version of English. Of those nations where English is spoken as a second language, India has the most such speakers.

David Crystal claims that, combining native and non-native speakers, India now has more people who speak or understand English than any other country in the world.

It is reality that today English is the second or third most popular mother tongue in the world, with an estimated 400 million native speakers. But, crucially, it is also the common tongue for many non-English speakers the world over, and almost a quarter of the globe’s population - maybe 1½-2 billion people - can understand it and have at least some basic competence in its use, whether written or spoken.

It should be noted here that statistics on the numbers around the world who speak English are unreliable at best. It is notoriously difficult to define quite what

is meant by “English speaker”, let alone the definitions of first language, second language, mother tongue, native speaker, etc. What level of competency counts?

Does a thick creole, English-based, but completely incomprehensible to a native English speaker, count?

Just to add to the confusion, there are at least 65 million people in the nominally English-speaking United States who do not speak English. In addition, the figures, of necessity, combine statistics from different sources, different dates, etc. You may well see large variations on any statistics quoted here.

But best recent estimates of first languages suggest that Mandarin Chinese has around 800-850 million native speakers, while English and Spanish both have about 330-350 million each. Following on, Hindi speakers number 180-200 million, around 240 million, or possibly much more, when combined with Urdu, Bengali 170-180 million, Arabic 150-220 million, Portuguese 150-180 million, Russian 140-160 million and Japanese roughly 120 million.

If second-language speakers are included, Mandarin increases to around 1 billion, English to over 500 million, Spanish to 420-500 million, Hindi / Urdu to around 480 million, and so on, although some estimates for English as a first or second language rise to over a billion. In fact, among English speakers, non-native speakers may now outnumber native speakers by as much as three to one.

In terms of total population, in a world approaching 7 billion, the top three countries by population are China (1.3 billion), India (1.2 billion) and USA (about 310 million), followed by Indonesia, Brazil, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Nigeria, Russia and Japan.

Thus, the USA is by far the most populous English-speaking country and accounts for almost 25 per cent of native English speakers; Britain, by comparison has a population of just over 60 million, and ranks 22-nd in the world. India represents the third largest group of English speakers after the USA and UK; even

though only 4-5 per cent of its population speaks English - 4 per cent of over 1.2 billion is still almost 50 million.

However, by some counts as many as 23 per cent of Indians speak English, which would put it firmly in second place, well above Britain. Even Nigeria may have more English speakers than Britain according to some estimates.

English is the native mother-tongue of only Britain, Ireland, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and a handful of Caribbean countries. But in 57 countries, including Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, South Africa, India, Pakistan, Singapore, Philippines, Fiji, Vanuatu, etc., English is either as its "official language" or a majority of its inhabitants speak it as a first language.

These are largely ex-colonial countries which have thoroughly integrated English into its chief institutions. The next most popular official language is French, which applies in some 31 countries, followed by Spanish (25), Arabic (25), Portuguese (13) and Russian (10).

Although falling short of official status, English is also an important language in at least twenty other countries, inluding several former British colonies and protectorates, such as Bahrain, Bangladesh, Brunei, Cyprus, Malaysia and the United Arab Emirates.

It is the most commonly used unofficial language in Israel and an increasing number of other countries such as Switzerland, the Netherlands, Norway and Germany. Within Europe, an estimated 85 per cent of Swedes can comfortably converse in English, 83 per cent of Danes, 79 per cent of Dutch, 66 per cent in Luxembourg and over 50 per cent in countries such as Finland, Slovenia, Austria, Belgium, and Germany.

If the "inner circle" of a language is native first-language speakers and the "outer circle" is second-language speakers and official language countries, there is a third, "expanding circle" of countries which recognize the importance of English

as an international language and teach it in schools as their foreign language of choice.

English is the most widely taught foreign language in schools across the globe, with over 100 countries - from China to Russia to Israel, Germany, Spain, Egypt, Brazil, etc, etc - teaching it to at least a working level.

Over 1 billion people throughout the world are currently learning English, and there are estimated to be more students of English in China alone than there are inhabitants of the USA.

A 2006 report by the British Council suggests that the number of people learning English is likely to continue to increase over the next 10-15 years, peaking at around 2 billion, after which a decline is predicted.

1. English as a Lingua Franca.

Any number of other statistics may be quoted, none of them definitive, but all shining some light on the situation. However, absolute numbers aside, it is incontrovertible that English has become the lingua franca of the world in the fields of business, science, aviation, computing, education, politics and entertainment.

Over 90 per cent of international airlines use English as their language of choice, known as “Airspeak”, and an Italian pilot flying an Italian plane into an Italian airport, for example, contacts ground control in English. The same applies in international maritime communications - “Seaspeak”.

Two-thirds of all scientific papers are published in English, and the Science Citation Index reports that as many as 95 per cent of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries.

Up to half of all business deals throughout the world are conducted in English. Many international joint business ventures use English as their working language, even if none of the members are officially English-speaking. For example, it is the working language of the Asian trade group ASEAN and the oil exporting organization OPEC and it is the official language of the European Central Bank, even though the bank is located in Germany and Britain is not even a member of the Eurozone.

Popular music worldwide is overwhelmingly dominated by English, estimates of up to 95 per cent have been suggested, and American television is available almost everywhere.

Half of the world newspapers are in English, and some 75 per cent of the world mail correspondence is in English, the USA alone accounts for 50 per cent. At least 35 per cent of Internet users are English speakers, and estimated 70-80 per cent of the content on the Internet is in English.

For instance, Switzerland has three official languages: German, French and Italian and also, in some limited circumstances, Romansh, but it routinely markets itself in English in order to avoid arguments between different areas.

Wherever one travels in the world one see sees English signs and advertisements.

2. English as a Language of Science.

English is now used almost exclusively as the language of science. The adoption of a de facto universal language of science has had an extraordinary effect on scientific communication: by learning a single language, scientists around the world gain access to the vast scientific literature and can communicate with other scientists anywhere in the world. However, the use of English as the universal

scientific language creates distinct challenges for those who are not native speakers of English.

It is estimated that less than 15 per cent of the world's population speaks English, with just 5 per cent being native speakers. This extraordinary imbalance emphasizes the importance of recognizing and alleviating the difficulties faced by non-native speakers of English if we are to have a truly global community of scientists.

For scientists whose first language is not English, writing manuscripts and grants, preparing oral presentations, and communicating directly with other scientists in English is much more challenging than it is for native speakers of English. Communicating subtle nuances, which can be done easily in one's native tongue, becomes difficult or impossible.

A common complaint of nonnative speakers of English is that manuscript reviewers often focus on criticizing their English, rather than looking beyond the language to evaluate the scientific results and logic of a manuscript. This makes it difficult for their manuscripts to get a fair review and, ultimately, to be accepted for publication.

We believe that the communications advantage realized by native speakers of English obligates them to acknowledge and to help alleviate the extra challenges faced by their fellow scientists from non-English-speaking countries. Native speakers of English should offer understanding, patience, and assistance when reviewing or editing manuscripts of non-native speakers of English.

At the same time, non-native speakers of English must endeavor to produce manuscripts that are clearly written. We offer the following guidelines for writing and evaluating manuscripts in the context of the international community of scientists:

1. Non-native speakers of English can write effective manuscripts, despite errors of grammar, syntax, and usage, if the manuscripts are clear, simple, logical, and concise. We note that native speakers of English sometimes write manuscripts exhibiting good grammar, yet filled with muddled and confusing logic.

2. When possible, reviewers and editors of manuscripts should look beyond errors in grammar, syntax, and usage, and evaluate the science.

3. It is inappropriate to reject or harshly criticize manuscripts from non-native speakers of English based on errors of grammar, syntax, or usage alone. If there are language errors, reviewers and editors should provide constructive criticism, pointing out examples of passages that are unclear and suggesting improvements.

Reviewers and editors may also suggest that authors seek the assistance of expert English speakers or professional editing services in preparing revised versions of manuscripts. And finally, all involved should bear in mind that most journals employ copyeditors, whose job it is to correct any lingering errors in grammar, syntax, and usage before final publication of an article.

4. Non-native speakers of English must be aware that reviewers, editors, and journal staff do not have the time or resources to extensively edit manuscripts for language and that reviewers and editors must be able to understand what is being reported. Thus, it is essential that non-native speakers of English recognize that their ability to participate in the international scientific enterprise is directly related to their ability to produce manuscripts in English that are clear, simple, logical, and concise.

The fact that English is the universal language of science, the de facto global language of science is not likely to change anytime soon. Optimizing communication among members of the international community of scientists, and thus advancing scientific progress, depends on elimination of obstacles faced by

non-native speakers of the English language. This ideal can best be achieved when all members of the scientific community work together.

3. Internet English.

Most web pages on the Internet are in English. A study made by W3Techs shows that as of December 2011 more than 56 per cent of all websites use English as their content language.

Other top languages, which are used at least in 2 per cent of websites, are German, Russian, Japanese, Spanish, Chinese, French, Italian and Portuguese.

Note that those figures account for the one million web sites, for example: 0.27 per cent of the total web sites according to figures of December, 2019, the most visited, according to Alexa.com, and language is identified using only the home page of the sites in most of the cases.

As a consequence those figures offer a significantly higher percentage for many languages, especially for English, as compared to the real figures for the whole univers, which remain unknown as of today but that some sources estimate below 50 per cent for English - See for instance NET.LANG: Towards a multilingual cyberspace.

The use of English online has increased by around 281 per cent over the past ten years, however this is far less than Spanish (743 per cent), Chinese (1,277 per cent), Russian (1,826 per cent) or Arabic, showing a growth of 2,501 per cent over the same period. The foreign language internet is rapidly expanding, with English being used by only 27 per cent of users worldwide.

A study on the presence of Romance languages on the Internet, published by the Latin Union in collaboration with FUNREDES, showed that as of November 2007, 45 per cent of the webpages were written in English, 7.8 per cent in Spanish,

4.41 per cent in French, 2.66 per cent in Italian, 1.39 per cent in Portuguese, 0.28 per cent in Romanian and 5.9 per cent in German.

4. The Present and Future of English.

After centuries of acquisition, borrowing and adaptation, English has ended up with a vocabulary second to none in its richness and breadth, allowing for the most diverse and subtle shadings of meaning. No other language has so many words to say the same thing: consider the multiplicity of synonyms for “big”, which are in daily use, for example.

It is often considered to have the largest vocabulary of any language, although such comparisons are notoriously difficult, as an example, it is impossible to compare with Chinese, because of fundamental differences in language structure.

Just how many words there currently are in the English language is open to conjecture. The Global Language Monitor - a Tex as-based company that analyzes and tracks worldwide language trends, claims that the English language now boasts over a million words, but in reality it is almost impossible to count the number of words in a language, not least because it is so hard to decide what actually counts as a word. For instance, how are we to treat abbreviations, hypenated words, compound words, compound words with spaces, etc.?

The latest full revision of seven of the twenty volumes of printed second edition of the “Oxford English Dictionary”, published in 1989 (30 March) and considered the premier dictionary of the English language, contains about 615,000 word entries, listed under about 300,000 main entries. This includes some scientific terms, dialect words and slang, but does not include more specialized scientific and technical terms, nor the large number of more recent neologisms coined each passing year.

“Webster’s Third New International Dictionary”, published in 1961, lists 475,000 main headwords.

The working vocabulary of the average English speaker, though, is notoriously difficult to assess; it is hard enough to count the words used in written works - estimates of the number of words in the “King James Bible” range from 7,000 to over 10,000, and estimates of Shakespeare’s vocabulary range from 16,000 to over 30,000.

An average educated English speaker has perhaps 15,000 to 20,000 words at his or her disposal, although often only around 10 per cent of these are used in an average week’s conversation, typically, we “know” at least 25 per cent more words than we ever actually use. Some studies suggest that just 43 words account for fully half of the words in common use, and just 9: “and, be, have, it, of, the, to, will, you” account for a quarter of the words in any random sample of spoken English.

The English lexicon includes words borrowed from an estimated 120 different languages. Attempts have been made to put in context the various influences and sources of modern English vocabulary, although this is necessarily an inexact science.

Some studies have put Germanic, French and Latin sources more or less equal at between 26-29 per cent each, with the balance made up of Greek, words derived from proper names, words with no clear etymology and words from other languages. Other studies put the French input higher, the Latin lower and suggest that other languages have contributed as much as 10 per cent of the vocabulary. None of the studies is considered definitive.

As we have seen, English has throughout its history accumulated words from different sources which act as synonyms or near synonyms to native or traditional words, a process which started with the early invasions by Vikings and Normans, and continued with the embracing of the classical languages during the

Renaissance and the adoption of foreign words though trading and colonial connections.

Many of these developed different social connotations over time. For example, introduced Norman French words tended to be, and often still tend to be considered classier and more refined than existing Anglo-Saxon words, for instance, the Norman "desire" compared to the Anglo-Saxon "wish, odour" compared to "smell, chamber", to "room, dine" to "eat", etc.

It has also been suggested that many English words have three synonyms appropriate to the different levels of culture: popular / literary / scholarly, often corresponding to Old English / French / Latin roots, as illustrated by groups of words like "rise / mount / ascend, fear / terror / trepidation, think / ponder / cogitate, kingly / royal / regal, holy / sacred / consecrated, ask / question / interrogate", etc., sometimes referred to as "lexical triplets".

The sheer number of English synonyms can make for a rather unwieldy and untidy language at times, though, and its embarrassment of riches can sometime seem a little gratuitous and unnecessary.

This is particularly evident in the large number of redundant phrases, composed of two or more synonyms, which are in everyday use, for example: "beck" and "call", "law" and "order", "null" and "void","safe" and "sound","first" and "foremost","trials" and "tribulations","kith" and "kin","hale" and "hearty","peace" and "quiet","cease" and "desist","rack" and "ruin", etc.

Also, despite the sheer volume of words in the language, there are still some curious gaps, which have arisen through quirks in its development over the centuries, such as the unused positive forms of common negative words like "ineffable, dishevelled, disgruntled, incorrigible, incessant, ruthless, disastrous, inept, unkempt, most of which used to exist but have died out for unknown reasons.

Perhaps even stranger, given the generous availability of words, is English's tendency to load single words with multiple meanings. For example: "fine" has at least 14 definitions as an adjective, 6 as a noun, 2 as a verb and 2 as an adverb; "round" has 12 uses as an adjective, 19 as a noun, 12 as a verb, 1 as an adverb and 2 as a preposition; "set" has an incredible 58 uses as a noun, 126 as a verb and 10 as an adjective - the "Oxford English Dictionary" takes about 60,000 words - the length of a short novel - to describe them all.

As in any language, meanings have shifted over time, sometimes many times, but in some cases the same word can has even ended up with two contradictory meanings – "contronyms", examples being "sanction", which has conflicting meanings of permission to do something, or prevention from doing something, "cleave" – "to cut in half", or "to stick together", "sanguine" – "hot-headed" and "bloodthirsty", or "calm" and "cheerful", "ravish" – "to rape', or "to enrapture", "fast" – "stuck firm", or "moving quickly", etc.

Although a huge number of words have been imported into English from other languages over the history of its development, many English words have been incorporated, particularly in the last century, into foreign languages in a kind of reverse adoption process. Anglicisms such as "stop, sport, tennis, golf, weekend, jeans, bar, airport, hotel", etc., are among the most universally used in the world.

But a more amusing exercise is to piece together the English derivations of foreign words where phonetic spellings are used. To give a few random examples, "herkot" is **Ukrainian** for "haircut"; "muving pikceris" is **Lithuanian** for "movie" or "moving pictures"; "ajskrym" is Polish for "ice-cream"; "schiacchenze" is Italian for "shake hands"; etc.

Japanese has as many as 20,000 anglicisms in regular use ("Japlish"), including "apputodeito" – "up-to-date", "erebata" – "elevator", "raiba intenshibu" – "labour-intensive", "nekutai" – "neck-tie", "biiru" – "beer", "isukrimu" – "ice-cream", "esukareta" – "escalator", "mai-kaa" – "my car", "remon" – "lemon"

and “shyanpu setto” – “shampoo and set”, the meanings of which are difficult to fathom until spoken out phonetically.

“**Russlish**” uses phonetic spellings such as “seksapil” – “sex appeal”, “jeansi” - “jeans”, “striptiz” – “strip-tease”, “kompyuter” – “computer”, “shusi” – “shoes” and “chempion” – “champion” as well as many exact spellings like “rockmusic, discjockey, hooligan, supermarket”, etc.

German has invented, by analogy, anglicisms that do not even exist in English, such as “Pullunder” from “pullover”, “Twens” from “teens”, “Dressman” – a word for a male model and “handy” – a word for a cellphone.

After many centuries of one-way traffic of words from French to English, the flow finally reversed in the middle of the XX-th century and now anywhere between 1 per cent and 5 per cent of French words are anglicisms, according to some recent estimates. “Rosbif” – “roast beef” has been in the French language for over 350 years, and “ouest” – “west” for 700 years, but popular recent “Franglais” adoptions like “le gadget, le weekend, le blue-jeans, le self-service, le cash-flow, le sandwich, le babysitter, le meeting, le basketball, le manager, le parking, le shopping, le snaque-barre, le sweat, le marketing, cool”, etc., are now firmly engrained in the language.

There is a strong movement within France, under the stern leadership of the venerable Académie Française, to reclaim French from this onslaught of anglicisms, and the country has even passed laws to discourage the use of anglicisms and to protect its own language and culture.

New French replacements for English words are being encouraged, such as “le logiciel” instead of “le soft” –“software”, “le disc audio-numérique” instead of “le compact disc” (CD), “le baladeur” instead of “le walkman” – “portable music player”, etc.

In Québec, the neologism “le clavardage” – “a portmanteau” word combining “clavier” – “keyboard” and “bavardage” – “verbal chat” is becoming popular as a replacement for the common anglicism “le chat” in the sense of online “chat rooms”.

Norway and Brazil have recently adopted similar measure to keep English out, and this kind of lexical invasion in the form of loanwords is seen by some as the thin end of the wedge, to be strenuously avoided in the interests of national pride and cultural independence.

Henry Higgins in George Bernard Shaw’s “Pygmalion” said: “You see this creature with her kerbstone English: the English that will keep her in the gutter to the end of her days. Well, sir, in three months I could pass that girl off as a duchess at an ambassador’s garden party. I could even get her a place as a lady’s maid or shop assistant, which requires better English”.

“Pygmalion” and its even more entertaining musical adaptation, “My Fair Lady”, is a play about the interaction of language - from phonetics to grammar to syntax to word choice - and social class. It illustrates beautifully the complex nexus between what we speak and who we are and the difficulties of trying to change either.

The connection between language and identity, which is not a simple one, lies along a fault line in linguistics, one that is evident in the character of Henry Higgins as well, and it is a fitting topic for the end of ourcourse, for as English has become a world language with more variants than even scholars can track, the problems of identity and language change have become more and more evident.

On the one hand, Henry Higgins is a brilliant descriptive linguist. He has invented “Higgins’s Universal Alphabet” in order to transcribe accurately the speech of any person. Even Higgins’s friend and admirer Colonel Pickering (author of Spoken Sanscrit) cannot match Higgins’s ability to make fine discriminations among sounds: “I rather fancied myself because I can pronounce

twenty-four distinct vowel sounds," says Pickering, "But your one hundred and thirty beat me. I can't hear a bit of difference between most of them."

On the other hand, Higgins is a prescriptive linguist. He notes that Eliza's lower-class speech patterns will "keep her in the gutter to the end of her days," but he is not troubled existentially by this, arguing that she simply needs to change. That people judge others on language is simply a fact oflife to Higgins, and in fact, although he is aware of the language and social systems at play, he also supports them: "A woman who utters such depressing and disgusting sounds has no right to be anywhere - no right to live. Remember that you are a human being with a soul and the divine gift of articulate speech: that your native language is the language of Shakespeare and Milton and the Bible; and don't sit there crooning like a bilious pigeon."

Most linguists today would be rather horrified by Higgins's attitude toward language. Hardcore descriptive linguistics is pretty much the reigning paradigm. Linguists essentially believe that their job is to examine and understand what speakers say, not to tell those speakers how to speak.

The analogy we have heard a few linguists use is to field biologists: you study the animals; you do not try to teach them better ways to hunt or fish or groom their fur. The kinds of linguists who do actually try to change people's pronunciation have been pushed out into their own little enclave and called Speech Therapists. They do an enormous amount of good for people with genuine articulation problems, but as far as main stream linguistics text books go, they might as well be invisible, and the linguists we know would be very unwilling to work with someone to change a non-standard accent. Linguists have an ideological commitment to being descriptive rather than prescriptive.

In one sense, we agree very much with this approach. The development of English as a world language has probably destroyed once and for all any possibility of enforcing one "standard" English.

Speakers of different dialect varieties of English can express thoughts of the same richness and complexity as those who use the Queen's English or the American variant, Broadcaster's English, so there is no particular need for anyone to change his or her speech to meet some kind of norm. But if you read a variety of current linguistics textbooks, you will see that linguists view their roles as public intellectuals as working to convince the public that all variants of speech are interesting and worthy of respect.

This is a noble approach, but we would like to see linguists do more. The non-judgemental pose often does a disservice to people, who wish to change their social positions and cultural identities. No less a hoary old socialist than George Bernard Shaw, in his Preface to "Pygmalion", encourages people to study phonetics in order to improve their social situations.

Most lay people see nothing wrong with such an action, and linguists have the tools and knowledge to help people to make those changes they desire. I must emphasize it is extremely heterodox and would be looked upon with scorn by some of the linguists, is that regional variations would be more likely to be preserved if people were given more tools to be able to switch easily between "standard" dialects and their home forms.

5. Modern Linguistics and the Politics of Language Study.

An emerging field of study among evangelicals goes by the name Modern Linguistics. Its terminology, self-appraisal, approach to language analysis, and relationship to traditional exegesis furnish an introduction to a comparison with grammatical-historical hermeneutics.

Indispensable to an analysis of Modern Linguistics is a grasping of its preunderstanding, its placing of the language of the Bible into the same category as all human languages and its integration with other secular disciplines, and the effect that preunderstanding has on its interpretation of the biblical text.

Its conflicts with grammatical-historical principles include a questioning of the uniqueness of the biblical languages, its differing in the handling of lexical and grammatical elements of the text, its differing in regard to the importance of authorial intention, its lessening of precision in interpretation, its elevating of the primacy of discourse, its elevating of the impact of stylistic considerations, and a questioning of the feasibility of understanding the text in aliteral way. Such contrasts mark the wide divergence of modern linguistics from traditional grammatical-historical interpretation.

"Modern Linguistics" is the chosen title for an emerging field of studies thath as potential for radically affecting many long-held principles of biblical interpretation. Though it so recent that it does not yet have widespread-agreed-upon terminology, the discipline has adopted some terms that may not be familiar to most.

"Phonology" refers to the elementary sounds of language – phonemes; "morphology" to the smallest meaningful units of language – morphemes; "syntax" to the formation of phrases and sentences from these smaller units; and "semantics" to the meanings of morphemes and words and various ways to construct larger units; "discourse" is a structural portion of language longer than a sentence.

Modern linguists look upon their approach to language as indispensable to an interpretation of Scripture. They profess to trace a thought as it begins in the human mind to physiological abilities in making sounds to how these sounds become words, then sentences, paragraphs, and discourse. Following this sequence leads them to be strongly critical of what have been viewed as standard lexical works for NT study because of those works' neglect of discourse, sentences, and paragraphs.

At the present stage in the development of Modern Linguistics, much uncertainty prevails among its adherents regarding definitions and procedures. In

certain respects this relatively new field agrees partially with traditional principles of biblical interpretation, usually called Grammatical-Historical Hermeneutics.

The areas of agreement include matters like divine inspiration, the importance of literary context, the need for careful study of words in their developing usage, and thorough understanding of grammatical relationships and historical-cultural backgrounds. Proponents of modern linguistics recognize the overlap of their studies with traditional exegesis, but feel that their new discipline has additional contributions to make to biblical understanding.

With these brief facts in mind, the remainder of this essay will deal with principles that differentiate Modern Linguistics from Traditional Grammatical Historical Hermeneutics.

We must analyse the preunderstanding of Modern Linguistics. Modern Linguistic advocates accept the inevitability of the interpreter's bias affecting his interpretation of Scripture. In "God, Language and Scripture" Moises Silva's words typify the position of others in expressing this: "I take it as a valid assumption that the interpreter approaches any text with a multitude of experiences: "filed away" with some degree of coherence, that inform his or her understanding of that text".

It is impossible for the interpreter to evaluate the text without the point of reference provided by those presuppositions. But the interpreter may transcend, though not eliminate, that point of reference. This can be done not by assuming that we can set aside our presuppositions in the interest of objectivity, but rather by a conscious use of them. The moment we look at a text we contextualize it, but a self-awareness of that fact opens up Modern Linguistics Versus Traditional Hermeneutics.

He even goes so far as to call a quest for objectivity in interpretation a hindrance to good exegesis: "The usually implicit claim that proper exegesis may

be done, oreven can only be done, if one avoids commitments to broader issues seems to me notonly to be a delusion, but to create an obstacle for interpretation."

Likewise, ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner*** reject the possibility of objective exegesis when they write, "In fact, the criticism goes, the Cartesian or Baconian ideal of "objective" exegesis, an exegesis that is unaffected by the world of the analyst, is unattainable. Every attempt to define an author's intended meaning actually only discovers a meaning which is somehow related to "meaning-for-me".

They later add, "All that we can do is to infer the meaning, and that will in some measure be affected by our present understanding of our world."

This provision for preunderstanding contrasts distinctly with the grammatical-historical emphasis on maintaining objectivity in approaching the text of Scripture.

In representing Traditional Hermeneutics, ***M.C.Terry*** (1883) has written: "In the systematic presentation, therefore, of any scriptural doctrine, we are always to make a discriminating use of sound hermeneutical principles. We must not study themin the light of modern systems of divinity, but should aim rather to place ourselves in the position of the sacred writers, and study to obtain the impression their words would naturally have made upon the minds of the first readers. . . . Still less should we allow ourselves to be influenced by any presumptions of what the Scriptures ought to teach...".All such presumptions are uncalled for and prejudicial.

The fact that the goal of complete objectivity may never be reached does not relieve the interpreter of aiming for that goal. If an interpreter accepts his own preunderstanding as a starting point in exegesis, his bias will inevitably find a placein his conclusions about a passage's meaning. If, on the other hand, he seeks to repress any personal expectations regarding what he will find in the passage and uses sound hermeneutical principles, he can make great progress toward attaining that goal of objectivity. That will allow the passage to speak for itself rather than having its meaning colored by the interpreter's bias.

Two types of preunderstanding have great impact on the Hermeneutics of Modern Linguistics. One is the assumption that the language of the Bible will bear all the characteristics of human language in general as propounded by modern linguistic study. The other is that the hermeneutics of modern linguistics must be integrated with human discoveries in other secular fields. The following description will illustrate how these two presuppositions work their way into much of modern linguistic interpretation of Scripture.

Considering human language and the language of the Bible, we have to note that linguistic theory assumes many things regarding human language and through further anachronistic assumptions puts the language of the Bible into the same categories of usage as modern languages that have thus far been analyzed.

Eugene Albert Nida, for example, states the following: "The fact that language in discourse is approximately fifty percent redundant, whether on the phonological, syntactic, or semantic levels is important, and this helps one to realize why verbal communication cannot be one hundred percent efficient. Such a measure of redundancy is essential if verbal communication is to overcome physical and psychological noise".

Even if someone accepts E.A.Nida's statistic about redundancy as accurate, and this is open to question, how can he be assured that the same was true in ancient times when human memories were more highly developed and other different conditions existed? Even fellow linguist ***Moises Silva*** offers a precaution about such an anachronistic assumption.

Furthermore, even if the same linguistic principles are applicable to ancient languages, who would dare to say that words written by divine inspiration would show the same redundancy that allegedly characterizes modern communication?

To be sure, God used normal human language when He inspired the Bible, but the ultimately divine origin of that language certainly puts it into a unique category.

Yet Modern Linguistics proceeds under the assumption that biblical interpretation should fully endorse and utilize the newly developed principles delineated by its system. Even ***M.Silva***, in spite of his word of caution about doing such a thing, seems fully supportive of that anachronistic type of reasoning: "Moreover, we should keep in mind that, while we have no access to the spoken form of many ancient languages, including of course Old Testament Hebrew and New Testament Greek, General Linguistics seeks to formulate principles and rules that are characteristics of human language as such, not necessarily those that belong exclusively to specific languages. Therefore, many of the results arising from modern linguistic research are Modern Linguistics Versus Traditional Hermeneutics applicable even to communities in the past for which a spoken form is not extant".

Modern linguistic theories about the relationship of contemporary human language in general to language of the Bible are a significant preunderstanding that noticeably impacts principles of biblical interpretation.

A great importance presents the integration of Modern Linguistics with other secular disciplines.

Wrong views of general revelation have distorted biblical hermeneutics through attempts to integrate biblical hermeneutics with human discoveries invarious secular fields. The same problem arises in trying to integrate modern linguistics with biblical hermeneutics, because modern linguistics draws upon several secular fields of knowledge in building its own system of analyzing human language.

D.A.Black has listed some of these: "Linguistics is not, of course, wholly autonomous. It must draw upon such sciences as physiology, psychology, anthropology, and sociology for certain basic concepts and data."

He later adds philosophy to the list of integrated fields: "What language is and how it functions are also important philosophical concerns". The integration of

these with modern linguistics, which in turn is integrated with biblical hermeneutics, amounts to a formidable preunderstanding that drastically affects biblical interpretation not only in the direction of humanly derived linguistic principles, but also in the direction of various humanly derived principles in the other secular fields of specialization.

Without endorsing a particular psychological theory, ***E.A.Nida*** writes, "There is no generally recognized psychological theory which is adequate to explain all thatis involved in language acquisition, competence, and performance, but it is quite clear that many universal features of language point to a number of what may be called "predispositions" of mental activity and structure".

Through linguistic theory, can linguists actually understand the human mind and its functioning as Nida asserts? And if so, what effect does that have on interpretation of a divinely inspired book whose human authors had minds supernaturally impacted by the Holy Spirit?

Linguistics is closely related to anthropology, as ***D.A.Black*** notes, "Anthropologists and linguists have long enjoyed close ties with each other, especially in the United States".

Do anthropological theories of the present day tell us anything reliable about how man operated in ancient times? And if so, how does that help our understanding of the Bible at the time when God was granting direct revelation to writers of Scripture? Do current anthropologists agree with one another in their writings? Do those writings agree with what God says about man? Answers to those questions raise serious doubts about the practice of integration.

The effect of preunderstanding is very important too. The doubts of ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner*** that interpreters can ever reach a point of certainty regarding authorial intentions of biblical writers have already been noted. They later add: "The original meaning is hidden from us, and we have noway of

resurrecting it. . . . All that we can do is to infer the meaning, and that will in some measure be affected by our present understanding of our world."

Carrying the point a bit further, rather, awareness of the problem should generate the appropriate caution, both in respect of method and in the degree of certainty we attach to our conclusions. We need fully to recognize that our reading of the letter to Philemon or whatever, however certain wemay feel it is what Paul meant, is actually only a hypothesis, our hypothesis, about the discourse meaning.

With the approach of modern linguistics, the best an interpreter can hope for his own subjectively conceived impression of what the biblical text meant in its original setting. That prospect obliterates the possibility of deriving propositional truth from Scripture. Whatever one comes up with will be distinctly colored by what his preunderstanding has read into the text. It will not be divinely revealed meaning with absolute doctrinal implications. That, of course, is quite the opposite of the results yielded by grammatical-historical interpretation.

Traditional Hermeneutics is void of such sweeping statements of uncertainty as those coming from modern linguistics. ***M.C.Terry*** has written: "It is of fundamental importance that all formal statements of biblical doctrine, and the exposition, elaboration, or defence of the same, be made in accordance with correct hermeneutical principles. The systematic expounder of Scripture doctrine is expected to set forth, in clear outline and well-defined terms, such teachings as have certain warrant in the word of God. He must not import into the text of Scripture the ideas of later times, or build upon any words or passages a dogma which they do not legitimately teach...".

No man has a right to foist into his expositions of Scripture his own dogmatic conceptions, or those of others, and then insist that these are an essential part of divine revelation. Only that which is clearly read therein, or legitimately proved thereby, can be properly held as scriptural doctrine.

Incorporation of preunderstanding into the interpretive process directly violates the fundamental tenets of grammatical-historical interpretation and its goal of discerning the meaning of the text as intended by the author and as understood by the original readers.

We must mention that discourse analysis is the ultimate court of appeal for Modern Linguistics. The advocates refrain from deciding meaning based on the details of a text and even speak somewhat disparagingly of those who do emphasize those details. In speaking of traditional exegetical approaches, ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner*** have this to say: "English exegesis in the past has excelled in the study of the meaning of words, lexical semantics, rather than in the study of chunks of text, because of the assumed precision of such studies".

Yet among modern linguists' disagreement and confusion reigns regarding how to use discourse analysis, as noted by ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner***: "At the present there are no firm conclusions, no generally accepted formulae, no fixed methodology, not even an agreed terminology. If so much is unsettled regarding discourse analysis, a field looked upon as the determining factor in interpretation, it is no wonder that so much uncertainty prevails among modern linguists".

The Modern Linguistic View: ***M.Silva*** represents the linguists in writing, "At the most fundamental level, Greek, Hebrew, and Aramaic share all the features that constitute them, quite simply, as human languages". Elsewhere he is critical of those who grant special consideration to divine inspiration: "One common way of overemphasizing the biblical languages is by romanticizing them, by giving the impression that Greek and Hebrew have a unique and almost divine?"

D.A.Black joins M.Silva in this perspective: Linguists reject the notion that any one language can be more expressive than all other languages, an opinion incorrectly held by many teachers of New Testament Greek. God has undoubtedly conferred special honor upon Greek as the language chosen for the inscripturation

of the New Testament, but Greek is not inherently superior to the other languages of the world.

At present, both linguists and Bible translators agree that any language can express whatever ideas its speakers are capable of having, and that a language can and does expand and change to fit new needs or ideas those speakers may have.

This normalization of the biblical languages brings the proposal that biblical languages be studied in the same way as foreign languages are studied in modern times: “By concentrated approaches to the total structure of a language and with emphasis upon the distinctive features of language rather than on the subordinate mass of details, students have gained remarkable facility in modern languages. There is absolutely no reason why the biblical languages cannot be equally well taught, but in so many instances they are not”.

Yet anyone who learns to speak a foreign language by the method thus prescribed realizes that he/she has no depth of understanding of vocabulary and grammar that would permit a close scrutiny of that language. Such a superficial knowledge of Greek, Hebrew, and Aramaic renders fruitless efforts to probe the meaning intended by the author and understood by the first readers.

The Effect on Bible Translation: Modern linguists’ view of the biblical languages directly impacts their translation philosophy. It directs their attention away from divine inspiration of the thoughts and words to the contemporary readers of the translation: “Any legitimate analysis of the adequacy of a translation must accept as a primary criterion of correctness the manner in which such a translation is understood by the majority of persons for whom it is designed.”

It directs attention away from verbal inspiration, as Black reflects in these words: “One of the benefits of semantic classification is that the translator is liberated from the burden of always having to find nouns to translate nouns, verbs for verbs, and so on. He recognizes that while the semantic classes are universal, the parts of speech each language uses for surface expression are variable”.

M.Silva speaks of two types of translations: “The most fundamental difference, however, is that which pertains to philosophy of translation. We often speak of translations as being “literal” or “free”. More precisely some translations aim at representing the form of the original as closely as possible, without, however, doing violence to English grammar, while others, especially those influenced by linguistics, do not”.

He then acknowledges the preference of linguists: “The principle of dynamic equivalence is widely favored by professional linguists, and so it has become common to denounce versions such as the NASB as linguistically naive and inadequate. From the other side, it is just as common to hear complaints that the dynamic-equivalence, i.e., free-translation, approach reflects a low view of the authority of Scripture”.

Modern linguists have no interest in approximating the original languages of Scripture as closely as possible when they translate to a different language.

Though this may not reflect directly their stated view of inspiration, it does reflect their view that the languages of the Bible are no different from any other language that has ever been spoken or written. It reflects their persuasion that regular linguistic rules can apply to interpreting the Bible, with no special consideration being given to the divine input in the inspiration process.

Grammar: For modern linguists, the theory of substitution without change of meaning carries over into the area of grammar. ***E.A.Nida*** typifies the approach: One of the severe handicaps to objective analysis of grammatical structures has been the mistaken concept that there is something so uniquely individual about the grammatical structure of each language and so intimately connected with the entire thought processes of the speakers of such a language, that one cannot really comprehend the meaning of a message without being immersed in the syntactic formulations.

He adds, “The requirement that language provide for novelty means that conceptual determinism based on syntactic forms is basically false.” In other words, the biblical languages have nothing unique to say, based on their syntactical relationships. Divine inspiration did nothing for the Bible’s message that cannot be done by human imitation. Ultimately, that is the position of modern linguistics.

D.A.Black exemplifies the same posture as E.A.Nida: “The use of transformations, for example, permits us to change the overt grammatical structure of an expression in a variety of ways without materially altering the meaning.” Silva does the same: “One specific syntactical question that requires comment is that of tense (or better, aspectual) distinctions. The viewpoint adopted in this commentary is that the significance of such distinctions for biblical interpretation has been greatly overestimated by most commentators, particularly conservative writers.” As M.Silva’s statements imply, that represents a substantial departure from traditional hermeneutics.

He shows a bit more caution elsewhere: We would go too far if we were to argue that a writer’s decision between, say, an aorist and a present subjunctive never reflects a stylistic decision that may be of some interest to the interpreter. But we can feel confident that no reasonable writer would seek to express a major point by leaning on a subtle grammatical distinction, especially if it is a point not otherwise clear from the whole context and if it is clear from the context, then the grammatical subtlety plays at best a secondary role in exegesis.

Yet even here, he reflects the unimportance placed upon grammatical relationships found in inspired Scripture. He places himself at the opposite pole from ***M.C.Terry***, a foremost spokesman for traditional grammatical-historical interpretation. M.C.Terry has written: The significance of the presence or the absence of the article has often much to do with the meaning of a passage. The position of words and clauses, and peculiarities of grammatical structure, may often serve to emphasize important thoughts and statements.

The special usage of the genitive, the dative, or the accusative case, or of the active, middle, or passive voice, often conveys a notable significance. The same is also true of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositions. These serve to indicate peculiar shades of meaning and delicate and suggestive relations of words and sentences, without a nice apprehension of which the real sense of a passage may be lost to the reader. That is grammatical-historical interpretation in the traditional sense.

Authorial Intention: Much that was said above under the heading "The Preunderstanding of Modern Linguistics" applies to the discussion of "Authorial Intention". Barr observes, "Today it is increasingly realized that a written document does not necessarily give access to the intentions of the author and, correspondingly, cannot necessarily be interpreted on the basis of these intentions. A document takes on a sort of life of its own and has its own meaning, created and expressed by its own wording and its own shape".

He argues that readers must take into account not only what is written, but also what is only implied. That, he says, opens the door for a wide variety of understandings which may or may not represent authorial intention.

From this uncertainty he reasons that a quest for authorial intention is fruitless and that literal interpretation leads to different interpretations for different people. From a slightly different perspective, ***P.Cotterell*** and ***M.Turner*** see merit in seeking authorial intention up to a certain point, but beyond that point concede that an interpreter is never able to divorce his own circumstances from the authorial intention he is seeking. They write: However, when we come to the study of language as it is actually used, we find a second category of meaning intruding itself: connotative meaning. Here we move away from objectivity to subjectivity, away from cold grammar to flesh-and-blood utterances. Words are not, in fact, the neutral entities we might intuitively assume them to be.

We know the word “father” and we know also our own experience of “father”: a kindly figure, a bullying figure, an absent figure, a suffering figure or whatever. We also have some experience of other people’s fathers, and we have our attempt to formalize this diverse experience. Inevitably then the word “father” carries for each individual a connotation.

For P.Cotterell and M.Turner the “connotative meaning” is the obstacle that hides a pure understanding of authorial intention. They observe that getting back to the author’s intended meaning “is not only practically impossible: it is also theoretically impossible, as modern hermeneutical philosophers from ***Friedrich Daniel Ernst Schleiermacher*** and ***Hans-Georg Gadamer*** onwards have insisted”.

This is where subjectivity intervenes with the interpreter unable to separate a text’s significance for himself from what the author intended. Note the definition of interpretation offered by P.Cotterell and M.Turner: “the bringing to expression of the interpreter’s understanding of the significance for his own world of the discourse meaning of the text.” They include “the interpreter’s understanding of the significance for his own world” as a part of interpretation, which clearly confuses application with interpretation.

Earlier discussion has cited ***M.C.Terry***’s caution against allowing any contemporary considerations, whether doctrinal or practical, to infringe on the meaning intended by the author and comprehended by the original readers.

Precision: Modern Linguistics is more pessimistic about success in the interpretive task than traditional Hermeneutics. In writings of its proponents, one finds repeated statements about uncertainty in grasping the intention of the communicator.

M.Silva writes about his approach creating greater uncertainty: “Of course, it is arguable that every human communication is only more-or-less competent and might have been made more effectively, more precisely, less ambiguously” cases, our discussion will lead to greater uncertainty”. God’s purpose in granting biblical

revelation to the human race was to make His will known, not to create uncertainty among the recipients of His revelation. The tone of uncertainty is a far cry from the optimism of traditional hermeneutics about man's ability to receive communication accurately. Years ago Stuart penned these words:

"I venture . . . to aver that all men are, and ever have been, in reality, good and true interpreters of each other's language. Has any part of our race, in full possession of human faculties, ever failed to understand what others said to them, and to understand it truly? Or to make themselves understood by others, when they have in their communications kept within the circle of their own knowledge? Surely none".

Interpretation, then, in its basis or fundamental principles is a native art, if I may so speak. It is coeval with the power of uttering words. It is, of course, a universal art; it is common to all nations, barbarous as well as civilized.

In continuing, Stuart indicates that the ability to communicate and to receive communication is not dependent on acquired skill for discovering and developing principles of communication. In the case of modern linguistics, attempts to discover and develop principles of communication have clouded human understanding of God's Word rather than increasing it. Plagued with uncertainties about meaning, modern linguistics has the related problem of assuming imprecision in biblical communication, as indicated in the following words:

"It is, perhaps, a danger of exegesis that we tend to demand a precision in the use of words which our everyday experience should tell us is not to be expected, and to find differences in meaning where none is demonstrably intended. A case in point is John and the alternation between two Greek words for "love" in Jesus' questioning of Peter".

The change in word is significant. M.C.Terry's discussion of John contrasts sharply with this opinion. He goes to great lengths to discuss distinctions in meaning not only between the two words for "love," but also three other pairs of

synonyms that appear in the three verses, i.e. two words for “know,” three words for “sheep,” and two words for “feed.”

By assuming that the Bible has no more precision than everyday human speech, modern linguistics reduces exegesis to a “ballpark” estimate of what were the intentions of the human author and, ultimately, of God who inspired the Bible. In other words, God’s revelation to man furnishes only the “gist” of what God wanted man to know. Such an assumption, if implemented, results in a great loss of propositional truth for the church.

Discourse: Modern linguistics emphasizes the dominance of discourse considerations in determining meaning. ***D.A.Black*** writes, “Moreover, because macrostructures dominate the composition and structure of texts, discourse is analyzed from the top down.” In another place he indicates, “A spoken or written word in isolation may have many different possible meanings, but a discourse, which is the environment in which words exist, imposes limitations on the choice of possible meanings and tends to shape and define the meaning of each word.” Silva holds the same perspective: “In recent decades linguists have given increasing attention to the paragraph as a basic unit of language. This new approach, usually referred to as discourse analysis, has led to a renewed concern for the textual coherence of biblical writings.”

Thus, language defines people as human. In fact, all of humanity’s greatest cultural accomplishments are either made out of language or rely on language fortheir dissemination. All the other old clear separations between human and animal - social organization, tool use, altruism - have been seento be much less clear as more research has been done, but the possession of abstract language is thus far still uniquely human (some animals seem to possess the rudiments of language, but even the most advanced of these does not have the ability of a human two-year-old).

All of our greatest cultural achievements are either made out of language or rely upon language for their accomplishment and dissemination. Even when someone achieves something great in art, or athletics or music, we immediately turn to language totell other people about it. The massive proliferation of cell phones, instant messaging, podcasts, and voice mails simply illustrates a simple fact about humanity: we love to talk. In fact, we just cannot stop talking.

Language is our medium of communication, but it can also be a barrier to understanding. There are over six thousand languages in the world today, though we are rapidly losing the smaller ones the same way we are losing endangered species. Anyone who has been stranded in a place where noone around you speaks your language knows the frustration that arises from being unable to communicate in an articulate, complex fashion.

We spend billions of dollars and countless hours on translation, on attempting to learnnew languages and on developing machines that can translate for us, with surprisingly little success.

The six thousand living languages would need anentire library of dictionaries and grammars just to document them, not tomention that at the present state of our knowledge, each language needs a dictionary and grammar in terms of every other language: a book that teaches Japanese in Korean is no use to a speaker of English or German or Russian who wants to learn Japanese.

Some languages have reputations for being particularly difficult. Finnish has more than ten noun cases; the verb system of Spanish is exceedingly complex; Japanese has the most difficult alphabet system in the world; Chinese and many other Asian languages rely on tones that are very difficult for adult.

Language management is going on all the time: from the more obvious institutional attempts to legislate linguistic behaviour and mandate and proscribe language use to the more subtle choices individuals make about which language(s) or language varieties to use when and with whom.

The main issues involved in **language planning** and **language policy** and will explore the social and political consequences of institutional attempts to manage language. The main point is how language policy is deeply embedded in beliefs or ideologies people have about language, and examines the sources of these ideologies.

It addresses the central question of who has the ability or the authority to make choices, where language and its use are concerned, and whose will and whose choices will ultimately prevail. In a world where multilingualism and variation in language is the norm and monolingualism the exception, migration and technological advances have generated new challenges for language policy makers, causing new issues of language choice to emerge.

We met such questions as: How and why national and official languages are chosen and what this means politically in a society?; How language education policy can affect members of a society?; How the spread of English as a world language has affected the linguistic ecology of societies around the globe?, and how its spread is related to the proliferation of World Englishes?; How societies treat indigenous languages?; How minority language rights pose challenges for policy makers at the national and supranational level? Data from Australia as well as a variety of world contexts will be used to explore these core issues.

Questions:

What do you know about the Anglophone world?

Characterize the English a lingua franca: as a language of science, internet, business and etc.

Describe the present and future of English.

Your vision of modern Linguistics and the politics of language study.

R E V I S I O N

English in computing, International English, World Englishes, World language, and English as a second or foreign language, because English is so widely spoken, it has often been referred to as a "world language", the **lingua franca** of the modern era, and while it is not an official language in most countries, it is currently the language most often taught as a foreign language. It is, by international treaty, the official language for aeronautical and maritime communications. English is an official language of the United Nations and many other international organizations, including the International Olympic Committee.

English is the language most often studied as a foreign language in the European Union, by 89 per cent of schoolchildren, ahead of French at 32 per cent, while the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages among Europeans is 68 per cent in favour of English ahead of 25 per cent for French. Among some non-English-speaking EU countries, a large percentage of the adult population claims to be able to converse in English – in particular: 85 per cent in Sweden, 83 per cent in Denmark, 79 per cent in the Netherlands, 66 per cent in Luxembourg and over 50 per cent in Finland, Slovenia, Austria, Belgium, and Germany.

Books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in many countries around the world, and English is the most commonly used language in the sciences with Science Citation Index reporting as early as 2017 that 95 per cent of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries.

This increasing use of the English language globally has had a large impact on many other languages, leading to language shift and even language death, and to claims of linguistic imperialism. English itself has become more open to

language shift as multiple regional varieties feed back into the language as a whole.

Analysing English's evolution from the Great Vowel Shift to Modern English it is necessary to mention that no external event comparable to the Norman Conquest seems to have affected Middle English, but it changed radically nonetheless.

English consonants have been remarkably stable over time, and have undergone few changes in the last 1500 years. On the other hand, English vowels have been quite unstable. Not surprisingly, then, the main differences between modern dialects almost always involve vowels.

Around 1500, The Great Vowel Shift occurred: over the course of little more than a generation, lightning speed in linguistic time for a change of such magnitude, the pronunciation of nearly all English vowels shifted from their Middle English forms to the pronunciations that we now use.

This was the beginning of Modern English, which is essentially the English of today: there has been incremental change since then, of course, but there have been no more major upheavals in the development of English.

The invention of printing, the creation of dictionaries, and the spread of education, combined with the English language's tendency to borrow freely, led both to the standardization of English grammar and the vast expansion of the language's vocabulary.

Additional historical events: colonization, England's dominance of the high seas and of commerce, the rise of the United States, the wars of the XX-th century, and the developments of mass communications have all combined to spread English throughout the world, making it the first global language.

Thus, the story of English is that of the language of a primitive society, only slightly advanced beyond the hunter-gatherer stage, that eventually spread

throughout Europe, differentiating, adopting, blending, and being reshaped by history until it finally became the language that we know today and the tongue most widely spoken on the face of the earth.

I think that we must note other changes that brought about Modern English. The Great Vowel Shift rightfully dominates discussion of the change from Middle English to Modern English because it is systematic, logical, and comprehensive: all of the long vowels in words that were in Middle English were affected. But the Shift is not the only factor in changing Middle English into the language that we now speak.

Grammatically the language changed little. The old "-n" plural continued to lose ground: Chaucer uses "eyen" (for "eyes") and even Shakespeare uses a few "-n" plurals, but "-s" had won the battle. One additional inflectional endingthat deserves some discussion is the development of apostrophe s ('s) as the genitive ending.

The genitive case was the Old English method of indicating possession. For strong nouns, the genitive singular ending was "-es," thus "stan" (stone), "stanes", pronounced "stahn - ehs"; "of the stone". Because in Middle English the genitive ending was unaccented that lack of stress is one reason most of the inflectional endings were lost, it ends up being spelled with a variety of vowels, such as "-is" or "-ys" - the unstressed, mid central vowel in English, "schwa" does not have a specific orthographic symbol.

The pronoun "his" in English was pronounced "-is" because the "h" was not pronounced when it was not stressed. Thus, "stonis" – "stone's" and "ston[h]is" would be pronounced exactly the same. Some early grammarians, ignorant of Old English, were confused, and argued that the apostrophe "s" was a shortening of "his," and so the genitive was really a contracted form of the pronoun.

This makes absolutely no sense when applied to forms like "the queen's dress" - "the queen, his dress", but the error has persisted even to the point where it

is repeated in the popular book on grammar “Eats, Shoots and Leaves: The Zero Tolerance Approach to Punctuation” by Lynne Truss. The real reason for the apostrophe is that it marks the missing “e” in the “-es” ending.

The only other grammar changes of significance are in the pronouns and the verbs. In Old English, “ge” - pronounced “ye” and “u” - pronounced “thoo” indicated different numbers in the second person “ge” was plural and “u” was singular.

In the XIII-th century, however, the “th-” forms (thou, thy, thee) became familiar; they were used when addressing social inferiors, children, and close friends. The “ye” forms (ye, your, you) were used as a sign of respect.

It was either a social error or a form of rudeness accidentally to use“thou” in a formal situation: It either marked you as a boor or as being deliberately rude to an inferior. There are some Shakespearean jokes to this effect, for example in Twelfth Night, when Sir Toby Belch encourages Sir Andrew Aguecheek to write an insulting letter: “if thou thou’st him some thrice, it shall not be amisse”. Eventually the “thou” forms disappeared from polite speech and then from all speech, though they persisted longer in America among the Quakers than they did in England.

The ending of the third person singular verb was consistently “-eth” in Middle English. In Shakespeare’s time it is becoming “-s,” but Shakespeare actually uses “-eth” and “-s” in the same line, indicating that the two are interchangeable.

By the first half of the XVIII-th century, “-eth” had almost certainly been lost from all speech, but it continued to be written for many years afterwards, particularly in formal prose.There are still some minor changes from Shakespeare’s English to today, but when you compare, say, “Beowulf”, “The Canterbury Tales”, and “Hamlet”, you see that Shakespeare was far closer to Modern English.

English would continue to be enriched by new words: there was a massive influx of Greek and Latin terms into English in the XVI-th through XVIII-th centuries as these languages became standards of a widespread school curriculum - butthe basic structure and pronunciation of English was now set. As we will see, there was great growth in English, but not as much change.

In one technical sense, once we get past the Great Vowel Shift, almost everything interesting has already happened in the history of English. After1600, when the Shift was basically complete, there were no major developments in the phonology or grammar. The English lexicon kept expanding as English adopted new words from a variety of sources, but it was nothing compared to what had already happened with Scandinavian, Latin, and especially French.

There have been no more Norman Conquests or Great Vowel Shifts in the past four hundred years, and we can read Shakespeare's English almost as well as we read our own. The closest English has ever come to such a long period of stability is the beginning of the Old English period, from the V-th century to the beginning of the IX-th, and even then it is rather astretch to put together four hundred years without a major change.

But the story of English from the Great Vowel Shift to the present may seem boring. It is also unprecedented. Latin spread was trivial compared to that of English, which is spoken now on every continent, although Latin conquered Europe with the soldiers of the Roman army. How this came to be, and how English continued and continues to expand even after the end of the years of British military conquest is the story of our lectures.

Up until this point we have been examining the unity of English; now it is time to look at the internal diversity of this largest of languages.

Much less is known about the parent language's vocabulary than about its phonology and grammar. Sounds and grammatical categories do not easily disappear or undergo radical change in so many daughter languages that their

former existence can no longer be detected. It is relatively easy, however, for an individual word to disappear or shift meaning in so many daughter languages that its existence or meaning in the parent language cannot be confidently inferred. Hence, from the linguistic evidence alone, scholars can never say that Proto-Indo-European lacked a word for any particular concept; they can only state the probability that certain items did exist and from these items make inferences about the culture and location in time and space of the speakers of Proto-Indo-European.

Thus, is it supposed that the Proto-Indo-European community knew and talked about dogs “ḱwón-”, horses “Héḱwo-”, sheep “Héwi-”, and almost certainly cows “g^{w}ów-” and pigs “súH-”. Probably all these animals were domesticated.

At least, one cereal grain was known “yéwo-”, and one metal “Héyos”. There was vehicle “wóǵho-” with wheels “$k^{w}ék^{w}$lo-”, pulled by teams joined by yokes “yugó-”. “Honey” was known, and it probably formed the basis of an alcoholic drink “mélit-, médhu” related to the English “mead”. Numerals up through 100 “ḱmtóm” were in use.

All this suggests a people with a well-developed Neolithic, characterized by simple agriculture and polished stone tools, or even Chalcolithic, copper- or bronze-using technology.

In modern globalized world we must special note the prestige and solidarity of English dialects. As English has spread throughout the world and diversified throughout the major areas in which it is spoken, certain dialects and speech forms have become more prestigious than others.

In England Received Pronunciation (RP) is the dialect form of the Royal Family, the elite schools, the government, and the courts. Although it is somewhat less influential than it was inpast decades, RP still marks the speaker as educated and socially important. However, RP is also viewed with hostility or suspicion in some places.

Politicians who speak in RP in Parliament switch to the dialects of their own regions when speaking for the home audience. Some research has shown that people evaluating oral arguments in legal cases rated the arguments made in RP as being of a higher quality than identical arguments made in aregional accent. However, they rated the arguments made in the regional accent as more persuasive.

This last is exceptionally important and explains why prestige dialects have not overwhelmed other regional variants throughout the world, why, in fact, people persist in using stigmatized forms of language when they could conceivably switch to those, like Eliza's learned pronunciation in Pygmalion that would open up additional social opportunities for them. We have the potential and chance to illustrate it with a few examples:

1) A child of Jamaican descent said something to a friend in the dialect form that speakers from outside of the Caribbean would think of as "Jamaican", which Jamaicans call "patois". Her mother turned to her and said "Don't speak patois!" A few minutes later the mother was speaking on her cellphone, in perfect Jamaican patois.

2) The accent of presidential candidate John Kerry is that of a Boston Brahmin. It is the regional accent of an exceptionally high-prestige, privileged group in Massachusetts. Yet you could listen to radio commercials in Massachusetts all day and not hear one minute of Boston Brahmin speech. Instead, you would often hear the local accents of South Boston, Dorchester, Lynn, or Chelsea being used to sell cars, mattresses, and furniture.

3) In the Boston area, the stage in school before first grade is pronounced "kindy-garden," and topsoil, spelled "loam," is pronounced "loom." In Pittsburgh English, the words "to be" can be dropped after the word"needs": for example, "that homework needs done" or "that room needs cleaned," and the plural of "you" is not "you" or even "y'all", but "younz."

In parts of the Chicago land area, the university Loyola Chicago is pronounced “Ly-ola.” The complicated ties between language and identity can explain these three seemingly separate sets of observations.

In each case, the individuals involved recognize that there is a trade-off between prestige and solidarity.

On the one hand, you can adopt the prestige dialect or avoid the more stigmatized form, such as, for example, when the mother told her daughter not to speak patois to her friend. This signals social goods such as education, discipline, and cultural connections.

On the other hand, you can choose the dialects of solidarity, expressing trust worthiness, friendliness, and being from the same locality. When people change the forms of dialect that they use, they are said to practice code switching.

Code switching is a very complicated process that allows individuals to mediate their own identities. One of the reasons I never say “loom” or “Ly-ola”or “that needs done” is this may even be a defensive rationalization, because speakers native to the region might very well catch the fact that we were not native speakers from some other cues in our language and think that we were mocking them or putting on airs by using a dialect not our own.

A person’s attitude toward identity is also extremely significant in regional dialect performance. The great socio-linguist ***William Labov*** first made a name for himself by doing research on accent on the island of Martha’s Vineyard. W.Labov found that the traditional Martha’s Vineyard accent, to his surprise, did not reflect gender, ethnicity, or class. Instead, it was closely correlated to a person’s attitude toward traditional Martha’s Vineyard life.

The accent was weakest in those individuals who were planning on leaving the island and resettling on the mainland. It was strongest in those individuals who had left the island, lived on the mainland, and decided to re-settle on the Vineyard.

This conclusion was so extraordinary in part because W.Labov was able to mark specific, non-subjective linguistic features, i.e., they were phonetic, but also because most researchers had supposed that individuals whohad left the island for a time and mingled with other speakers would haveless of a traditional Martha's Vineyard accent. Instead, those who did come back had more of one, suggesting that even accent was closely tied to individual attitudes toward identity rather than individual experiences. These attitudes toward identity explain why dialect forms whose speakers are discriminated against nevertheless persist.

But there are conflicts with grammatical historical principles. Aside from the conflict with traditional interpretation at its starting point, i.e., the foundational level of preunderstanding, modern linguistics alters other longstanding principles in specific areas.

The Traditional View: granting that the Bible results from a combination of divine and human elements, traditional grammatical-historical principles have given due consideration to the divine side of inspiration.

M.C.Terry has expressed that consideration thus: We conceive that the language and style of a writer may be mightily affected by divine influences brought to bear upon his soul. Such influences would produce important effects in his thoughts and his words. To affirm, with some, that God supplied the thoughts or ideas of Scripture, but left the writers perfectly free in their choice of words, tends to confuse the subject, for it appears that the inspired penmen were as free and independent in searching for facts and arranging them in orderly narrative as they were in the choice of words. It seems better, therefore to understand that, by the inspiring impulse from God, all the faculties of the human agent were mightily quickened, and, as a consequence, his thoughts, his emotions, his style, and even his words, were affected.

In this sense only we affirm the doctrine of verbal inspiration. We have seen above, that form and style are often essential elements of an organic whole, and to

attempt to give the sentiment, without the form, of some compositions, is to rob them of their very substance and life.

M.C.Terry observes that inspiration impacted the form, style, and words of Scripture so that the result is not just another form of human communication. He sees the biblical use of Hebrew, Aramaic, and Greek not as an "accident of history, but a particular providence, grounded in highest wisdom." He also notes the special suitability of the biblical languages for conveying divine revelation to the human race. By contrast, modern-linguistic advocates see nothing special about the languages of the Bible and proceed to analyze biblical writings the same way they analyze an exclusively human communication.

Up to now modern English spelling is important for our society. Largely as a result of the vagaries of its historical development, modern English is a maddeningly difficult language to spell correctly. The inveterate borrowing from other languages, combined with shifts in pronunciation and well-meaning reforms in orthography have resulted in a language seemingly at odds with itself.

While Old English was about 90 per cent phonemic, i.e. words sound the same as they look, modern English is probably closer to 40 per cent phonemic. There are a large number of possible spelling rules, up to 100 by some counts, and a large number of exceptions to those rules, and the language continues to confound both native speakers and foreigners alike.

Often, the desire to standardize the language, such as occurred with the introduction of the printing press, has itself led to anomalies and inconsistencies in its spelling, or has at least frozen existing inconsistencies in place. Spelling reform, which took place at various times, both in Britain and particularly in the United States, has further complicated the picture, despite a professed desire for simplification, and we now have many differences between American and British spellings to add to its intrinsic difficulties, for instance: "realize – realise, center – centre, dialog – dialogue, aging – ageing, traveler – traveller", etc.

Although English has “only” forty to fifty different sounds, still much more than many languages, there are over 200 ways of spelling those sounds. For instance:

a) The sound “sh” can be spelled in a bewildering number of different ways as in “shoe, sugar, passion, ambitious, ocean, champagne”, etc.

b) A long “o” can be written as in “go, show, beau, sew, doe, though, depot”, etc.

c) A long “e” can be spelled as in “ceiling, siege, people, key, machine, phoenix, paediatric, seat, seem, me”, etc.

d) A long “a” can be rendered as in “hey, stay, make, maid, freight, great”, etc.

As George Bernard Shaw pointed out, the word “fish” could just as easily be spelled “ghoti”, using the “gh” sound in “enough”, the “o” sound from “women”, and the “ti” from the middle of “nation”.

There is a whole catalogue of silent letters in English, often letters that were added to spellings during the English Renaissance out of a misplaced desire for etymological authenticity, or existing letters that have ceased to be pronounced for one reason or another.

In fact, of the 26 letters of the alphabet, only five: “F, J, Q, V, X” are never silent! There are too many to detail, but some examples include:

a) The silent “b” in “comb, debt, climb”, etc.

b) The silent “c” in “scene, scent, science, scissors”, etc.

c) The silent “k” in “knife, knock, know”, etc.

d) The silent “n” in “hymn, column, damn”, etc.

e) The silent “p” in “psalm, psychiatry, ptarmigan”, etc.

f) The silent “gh” in “night, through, taught”, etc.

g) The silent “g” in “gnome, gnaw, sign”, etc.

h) The silent “l’ in “palm, salmon, yolk”, etc.

i) The silent “u” in “biscuit, building, tongue”, etc.

j) The silent “w” in “wreck, knowledge, sword”, etc; and the silent “h” in “hour, honour, honest”, etc., as well as in “annihilate, vehement, vehicle, ghost, rhyme, exhort, rhubarb, rhythm, exhaust, exhibition”, etc.

English has many words which are identical in meaning but different in spelling and pronunciation, otherwise known as synonyms. But it also has homophones or heterographs: words with different spellings and different meanings, but identical pronunciation, such as “hour” and “our”, “plane” and “plain”, “right, wright, write” and “rite”, etc; homographs or heteronyms: words with identical spellings, but different meanings and pronunciations, such as “axes, bass, defect, desert, record, tear”, etc; and true homonyms: words with the same spelling and the same pronunciation, but different meaning, such as: “stalk, bank, fluke”, etc.

To confuse matters further, in some accents, some sounds have merged to the extent that they are no longer distinguishable, for example: “pin” and “pen”, and “merry, marry” and “Mary”, in some American accents; “talk” and “torque”, and “court” and “caught” in some British accents. Simplified Americanized spellings of “lite” for “light” and “thru” for “through” have arisen in recent years, largely due to advertising campaigns.

The sheer variety of English spelling is formidable. There are words with five consecutive vowels “queuing”; words with technically no vowels “rhythm”, “pygmy”; words with six consecutive consonants “catchphrase, watchstrap”; words with alternating vowels and consonants “overimaginitive, versimilitudes”; words with triple letters “headmistressship, bulllike”; words that include eight of the same

letter “possessionlessness”; long words which use none of the same letters “uncopyrightable”; words spelled the same way backwards as forwards “deified, racecar, rotator”; etc.

Summarize all above-mentioned, we have to note that there are different types of language change. As we know, language is always changing. We’ve seen that language changes across space and across social group. Language also varies across time. Generation by generation, pronunciations evolve, new words are borrowed or invented, the meaning of old words drifts, and morphology develops or decays. The rate of change varies, but whether the changes are faster or slower, they build up until the “mother tongue” becomes arbitrarily distant and different.

After a thousand years, the original and new languages will not be mutually intelligible. After ten thousand years, the relationship will be essentially indistinguishable from chance relationships between historically unrelated languages.

In isolated subpopulations speaking the same language, most changes will not be shared. As a result, such subgroups will drift apart linguistically, and eventually will not be able to understand one another.

In the modern world, language change is often socially problematic. Long before divergent dialects lose mutual intelligibility completely, they begin to show difficulties and inefficiencies in communication, especially under noisy or stressful conditions. Also, as people observe language change, they usually react negatively, feeling that the language has “gone down hill”. You never seem to hear older people commenting that the language of their children or grandchildren’s generation has improved compared to the language of their own youth.

Here is a puzzle: language change is functionally disadvantageous, in that it hinders communication, and it is also negatively evaluated by socially dominant groups. Nevertheless it is a universal fact of human history.

But one can ask: How and why does language change?

There are many different routes to language change. Changes can take originate in language learning, or through language contact, social differentiation, and natural processes in usage.

Language learning: language is transformed as it is transmitted from one generation to the next. Each individual must re-create a grammar and lexicon based on input received from parents, older siblings and other members of the speech community.

The experience of each individual is different, and the process of linguistic replication is imperfect, so that the result is variable across individuals. However, a bias in the learning process, for instance, towards regularization, will cause systematic drift, generation by generation. In addition, random differences may spread and become “fixed”, especially in small populations.

Language contact: migration, conquest and trade bring speakers of one language into contact with speakers of another language. Some individuals will become fully bilingual as children, while others learn a second language more or less well as adults. In such contact situations, languages often borrow words, sounds, constructions and so on.

Social differentiation: social groups adopt distinctive norms of dress, adornment, gesture and so forth; language is part of the package. Linguistic distinctiveness can be achieved through vocabulary (slang or jargon), pronunciation, usually via exaggeration of some variants already available in the environment, morphological processes, syntactic constructions, and so on.

Natural processes in usage: rapid or casual speech naturally produces processes such as: assimilation, dissimilation, syncope and apocope. Through repetition, particular cases may become conventionalized, and therefore produced even in slower or more careful speech.

Word meaning change in a similar way through conventionalization of processes like metaphor and metonymy.

Some linguists distinguish between internal and external sources of language change, with "internal" sources of change being those that occur within a single languistic community, and contact phenomena being the main examples of an external source of change.

The analogy with evolution via natural selection: Darwin himself, in developing the concept of evolution of species via natural selection, made an analogy to the evolution of languages. For the analogy to hold, we need a pool of individuals with variable traits, a process of replication creating new individuals whose traits depend on those of their "parents", and a set of environmental processes that result in differential success in replication for different traits.

We can cast each of the just-listed types of language change in such a framework. For example, in child language acquisition, different grammatical or different lexical patterns may be more or less easily learnable, resulting in better replication for grammatical or lexical variants that are "fitter" in this sense.

There are some key differences between grammars / lexicons and genotypes. For one thing, linguistic traits can be acquired throughout one's life from many different sources, although intitial acquisition and, to a lesser extent, adolescence seem to be crucial stages. Acquired linguistic traits can also be passed on to others.

One consequence is that linguistic history need not have the form of a tree, with languages splitting but never rejoining, whereas genetic evolution is largely constrained to have a tree-like form, despite the possibility of transfer of genetic material across species boundaries by viral infection and so on. However, as a practical matter, the assumption that linguistic history is a sort of tree structure has been found to be a good working approximation.

In particular, the basic sound structure and morphology of languages usually seems to “descend” via a tree-structured graph of inheritance, with regular, lawful relationships between the patterns of “parent” and “child” languages.

One of present types of change is **sound change**: all aspects of language change, and a great deal is know about general mechanisms and historical details of changes at all levels of linguistic analysis. However, a special and conspicuous success has been achieved in modeling changes in phonological systems, traditionally called sound change.

In the cases where we have access to several historical stages, for instance, the development of the modern Romance languages from Latin, these sound changes are remarkably regular. Techniques developed in such cases permit us to reconstruct the sound system and some of the vocabulary of unattested parent languages from information about daughter languages.

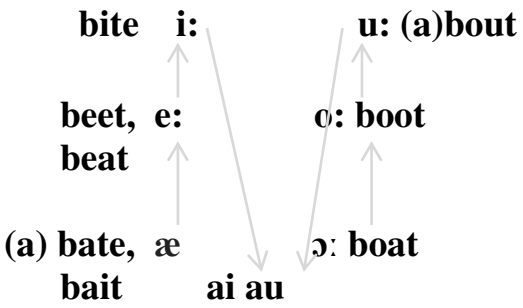
In some cases, an old sound becomes a new sound across the board. Such a change occurred in Hawaiian, in that all the “t” sounds in an older form of the language became “k”s: at the time Europeans encountered Hawaiian, there were no “t”s in it at all, though the closely related languages Tahitian, Samoan, Tongan and Maori all have “t”s.

Another **unconditioned sound change** that occurred between Middle and Early Modern English, around Shakespeare’s time, is known as the Great Vowel Shift. At that time, there was a length distinction in the English vowels, and the Great Vowel Shift altered the position of **all the long vowels,** in a giant rotation.

The nucleus of the two high vowels: front long “i” [i:], and the back long “u” [u:] started to drop, and the high position was retained only in the offglide. Eventually, the original [i:] became [ai] - so a long “i” vowel in Modern English is now pronounced [ai] as in a word like “bite”: [bait]. Similarly, the long “u” found its nucleus dropping all the way to [au]: the earlier “house” [hu: s] became [haus].

All the other long vowels rotated, the mid vowels [e:] and [o:] rising to fill the spots vacated by the former [i:] and [u:] respectively, and so on. That is why the modern pronouns "he" and "she" are written with [e], reflecting the old pronunciation, but pronounced as [i]. In the following chart, the words are located where their vowel used to be pronounced, where they are pronounced today is indicated by the arrows.

The Great Vowel Shift (1450-1700)



In other cases, a sound change may be "conditioned" so as to apply in certain kinds of environments and not in others. For example, it's very common for tongue-tip ("coronal") consonants to become palatal when they are followed by high front vowels. The residue of this process can be seen in English pairs like: "divide" – "division", "fuse" – "fusion", "submit" – "submission", "oppress" – "oppression".

Processes of sound change: another dimension along, which we can look at sound change, is by classifying changes according to the particular process involved.

Assimilation, or the influence of one sound on an adjacent sound, is perhaps the most pervasive process. Assimilation processes changed Latin [k] when followed by [i] or [y], first to [ky], then to "ch", then to [s], so that Latin "faciat" – [fakiat] "would make" became "fasse" [fas] in Modern French, the subjunctive of the verb "faire" – "to make". Palatalization is a kind of assimilation.

In contrast to assimilation, dissimilation, metathesis, and haplology tend to occur more sporadically**,** i.e., to affect individual words.

Dissimilation involves a change in one of two same sounds that are adjacent or almost adjacent in a particular word such that they are no longer the same. Thus the first "l" in English "colonel" is changed to an "r", and the word is pronounced like [kernel].

Metathesis involves the change in order of two adjacent sounds. David Crystal cites Modern English "third" from OE "thrid", and Modern English "bird" is a parallel example. But Modern English "bright" underwent the opposite change, its ancestor being "beorht", and not all "vowel + r" words changed the relative order of these segments as happened with "bird" and "third". Already by the time of Old English, there were two forms of the word for "ask": "ascian" and "acsian". We don't know which form was metathesized from the other, but we do know that "ascian" won out in the standard language.

Haplology is similar to dissimilation, because it involves getting rid of similar neighboring sounds, but this time, one sound is simply dropped out rather than being changed to a different sound. An example is the pronunciation of Modern English "probably" as "prob'ly".

Other sound change processes are merger, split, loss, syncope, apocope, prothesis, and epenthesis. Merger and split can be seen as the mirror image of each other.

A **merger** that is currently expanding over much of the United States is the merger between short "o" and long open "o", for example: "cot" – "caught"; "hot" and "haughty"; "hock" and "hawk"; "stock" and "stalk". The following table contains examples of words that you probably pronounce differently if you are from the Philadelphia - New York - New England area, or if you are from the South. If you are from Canada, the American Midwest, or from California, you

probably find that the vowels in these pairs sound the same, rather than different. If this is the case, you have a merger here.

Splits are rarer than mergers, and usually arise when a formerly conditioned alternation loses the environment that provided the original conditioning, and the previously conditioned alternation becomes two independent sounds that contrast with each other. This is basically what happened when [f] and [v] split in English, [v] having previously been an alternate of [f], when [f] occurred in an intervocalic position.

Loss involves the loss of a sound from a language, as when Hawai'ian lost the [t] in favor of [k].

Syncope and **apocope** are the loss of medial and final sounds respectively. Middle English "tame" in the past tense was [temede]**.** It lost both its medial and final vowels to become Modern English [teymd]. These are usually conditioned changes that do not involve loss of the same sound elsewhere.

Prothesis and **epenthesis** are the introduction of additional sounds, initially and medially respectively. The addition of the [e] that made Latin words like "scola" "school" into Portuguese "escola" is the only example of prothesis. As for epenthesis, an example other than the one D.Crystal cites was the [d] inserted into ME "thunrian" to give us the Modern English "thunder".

One may ask: How languages are related? Linguists rely on systematic sound changes to establish the relationships between languages. The basic idea is that when a change occurs within a speech community, it gets diffused across the entire community of speakers of the language. If, however, the communities have split and are no longer in contact, a change that happens in one community does not get diffused to the other community.

Thus, a change that happened between early and Late Latin would show up in all the "daughter" languages of Latin, but once the Late Latin speakers of the

Iberian Peninsula were no longer in regular contact with other Late Latin speakers, a change that happened there would not spread to the other communities. Languages that share innovations are considered to have shared a common history apart from other languages, and are put on the same branch of the language family tree.

Words in two or more daughter languages that derive from the same word in the ancestral language are known as cognates. Sound changes work to change the actual phonetic form of the word in the different languages, but we can still recognize them as originating from a common source because of the regularities within each language. For example, a change happened in Italian such that in initial consonant clusters, the "l" that originally followed "p" and "f" changed to "i".

Thus, Italian words like "fiore" – "flower"; "fiume" – "river"; "pioggia" – "rain"; and "piuma" – "feather" are cognates with the French "fleur"; "fleuve"; "pluie"; and "plume", respectively, and with Spanish "flora", "fluvial" (adj. "riverine"); "lluvia" (by a later change); and "pluma" respectively.

In the Romance languages below, the word for "mother" is a cognate in all the six contemporary languages considered, however the word for "father" is a cognate only in four of the five: in Rumanian, the original word inherited from Latin "pater" has been replaced by a completely different word, "tata".

Spanish and Italian are the only two that retain a phonological reflex of the original Latin medial consonant "t", (in both languages, it has been voiced to "d", probably a change that occurred in the common ancestor to all the dialects and languages of the Iberian Peninsula.

All the other Romance languages have dropped it. The original "r" has also suffered different fates: however, within each language, the same thing happened in both words. Where we find "r" deleted in final position in the word for "mother", we also find it deleted in the same position in the word for "father".

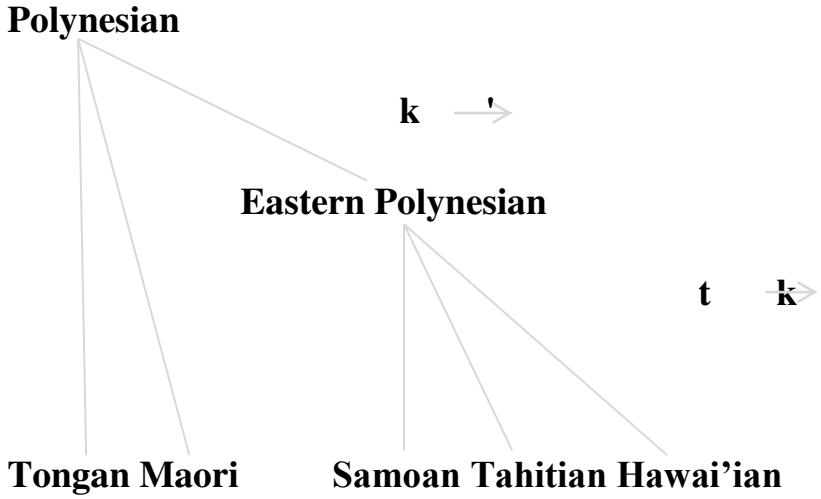
English Gloss	French	Italian	Spanish	Portuguese	Rumanian	Catalan
mother	mer	madre	madre	mae	mama	mare
father	per	padre	padre	pae	tata	pare

The same principles are applied in languages that do not have a written history. Several cognate sets in five languages of the Polynesian family are listed in the next table.

English Gloss	Tongan	Maori	Samoan	Tahitian	Hawai'ian
1. bird	manu	manu	manu	manu	manu
2. fish	ika	ika	i'a	i'a	i'a
3. to eat	kai	kai	'ai	'ai	'ai
4. forbidden	tapu	tapu	tapu	tapu	kapu
5. eye	mata	mata	mata	mata	maka
6. blood	toto	toto	toto	toto	koko

We see that no changes happened in the nasal consonants, nor in the vowels, but we can observe in lines 2 and 3 that wherever Tongan and Maori have [k], Samoan, Tahitian and Hawai'ian appear to have ['] (glottal stop). Apparently there has been an unconditioned change from [k] to ['] in the Eastern branch, or a change from [k] to [k] in the Western branch of this family. We choose the first as more likely, partly because [t] is a more common phoneme in the world's languages, partly because backing of consonants is more common than fronting, and partly because of what we know about the culture history: Polynesia was peopled from west to east, and if the change had occurred in the Western branch, that would have been at a time when all five languages were still one speech community. Next, we see in lines 4 - 6 that there is a systematic correspondence between [t] in the first four languages and [k] in the easternmost, Hawai'ian.

This looks like another systematic, unconditioned sound change, this time in only one language. We can see from this example that when English borrowed the Polynesian word for “forbidden”, we borrowed it from one of the languages west of Hawaii, we say “taboo”, not “kaboo”. This is what a family tree of the five Polynesian languages would look like; based on the small data set above, the picture is somewhat more complex when we look at other cognate sets “Maori in particular is probably not correctly placed in this diagram, which has been designed as an illustration of the method:



In the examples just discussed, the central enterprise has been to establish a systematic pattern of change, most often sound change: every original Malayo-Polynesian [t] becomes [k] in Hawaiian, and we can cite many correspondences of cognate pairs to prove it. This level of understanding is useful for several reasons.

First, a systematic pattern of phonological correspondence across many words is unlikely to have arisen by chance, whereas completely unrelated languages often develop surprising similarities in particular words, entirely by chance.

Second, given systematic patterns of this type, we can start to apply the comparative method to reconstruct the parent language. This in turn allows us

to examine relationships among reconstructed languages at a greater time depth, even if the process of change entirely obscures the relationships among the vocabulary items in the child languages.

However, establishing patterns of this type is difficult. It requires a large vocabulary in all the languages being compared, in order to find enough cognates; and it also requires a deep knowledge of the grammar of each of the languages, in order to see cognate relationships that might be obscured by morphology and contextual phonological change and not to be fooled into seeing false cognates where morphology or phonology have created chance similarities.

Another approach, pioneered by the American Structuralist linguist ***Morris Swadesh***, is called Lexicostatistics. For a set of languages of interest, we get a small vocabulary list of common, basic words (typically 100-200 items). For each pair of languages, we determine the percentage of words on this list that appear to be cognate. Determination of cognation is dependent on the subjective judgment of the linguist, and we expect some errors, especially if the scholar does not know the languages very well, but we hope that the error rate will be small enough not to affect the results.

There has been a great deal of controversy about whether family trees based on lexicostatistics are reliable. Those who doubt it point to the possibility that cognate percentages might be strongly affected by vocabulary borrowing, either in a negative or positive direction.

For instance, Japanese borrowed many words from Chinese without becoming a Sino-Tibetan language; it has recently borrowed many words from English without becoming an Indo-European language. Those who favor lexicostatistics argue that this sort of borrowing is less common in the basic-vocabulary wordlists that they use.

There are two distinct controversies about the use of lexicostatistical methods. One issue is whether the family trees produced for languages with fairly

high cognate percentages 60 per cent and higher, are a reliable indication of the detailed structure of "genetic" relationships among languages. Everyone accepts that two languages with 85 per cent cognates are certainly related; the only question is whether they are necessarily "more closely related" in a historical sense than either is to a language whose cognate percentages with both are 80 per cent.

For example, we might have a situation in which proto-language A splits into B and C. C in turn splits into D and E. E then undergoes a period of close contact with a completely unrelated language, Z, as a result of of which it borrows a lot of new vocabulary. Now E has a lower cognate percentage with D than D has with B; but the historical fact is that E is more closely related to D than D is to B.

The second controversy is what to make of relationships involving very low cognate percentages below 10 per cent. Depending on the nature of the languages and the methods used to determine cognation, these percentages are getting into the range that could (it is argued) arise by chance, or by superficial or indirect recent contact.

Swadesh and others took this type of analysis further, based on the idea that the average rate of loss of cognates could be regarded as constant over historical time, just like the rate of radioactive decay. Swadesh looked at some languages where historical stages are well documented and concluded that basic vocabulary decays by 14 per cent every millenium. According to the entry on Swadesh in the Encyclopedia of Linguistics:

Thus, if the basic vocabularies of two related languages are found to match by 70 per cent, they can be assumed to have developed from a single language that existed approximately twelve centuries before. The assumption that basic vocabulary decay is generally uniform has been largely rejected. If one allows that languages, just like societies, may develop at different rates at different times, the assumption of steady vocabulary decay in particular, and the glottochronological method in general, is seriously undermined.

Everyone recognizes that linguistic decay is not completely uniform. Some people still believe that it is sometimes uniform enough for glottochronological methods to be a useful approximate guide to linguistic and thus ethnic history.

We have seen how languages change from one to another in part through sound shifts, in which the pronunciation of words changes in a regular way. When Germanic split off from the rest of Indo-European, the sound-shift described by Grimm's Law occurred. The voiceless stops became voiceless fricatives, the voiced stops become voiceless, thus moving into the spacevacated by the voiceless stops, and the aspirated voiced stops moved intothe place that the voiced stops had vacated. This sound shift, plus the others described, and some additional shifts that we have left out for reasons of time and complexity, explain many of the differences between Germanic languages and others.

We can even see how multiple different sound shifts operating at different times can cause languages to further evolve and splitinto more and more lineages. Also, although languages change their largescale sound-systems, they are also continually undergoing the processes of change that we discussed above. Assimilation, dissimilation, metathesis, and other processes all modify languages as time passes.

But sound shifts and changes in pronunciation are not the whole story. If they were, we would be able to program a computer with the proper sound shifts, put in a poem in English, and have that same poem come out in, say, German or Gothic or Latin. Obviously we cannot do this.

Languages change not only in their sound systems, but also in the ways they express logical relationships: their grammar and syntax, the ways that they change words from one function to another within themselves (morphology), and in the words they use (lexicon).

One can ask: What are the results of language change? When accompanied by splits of populations, language change results first in dialect divergence: the

kinds of differences we see between British and American English; between the French of France and of Quebec; between New World and Old World Spanish and Portuguese.

Over longer time periods, we see the emergence of separate languages as in the contemporary Romance languages, separated by about 2000 years, and the Germanic languages, whose divergence began perhaps 500 years earlier. Both of these families are part of Indo-European, for which the Ethnologue web page lists 425 languages!

Though political considerations often intervene in whether a particular speech variety is considered to be a language or a dialect, the basic idea behind linguistic classifications is that dialects are mutually intelligible, whereas languages are not.

Of course, the question of intelligibility is always relative. The following phrases taken from the spontaneous speech of Chicagoans recorded in the early 1990s were difficult for many non-Chicagoans to understand correctly. In "gating" experiments designed to test cross-dialectal comprehension in American English, subjects first heard a word, then a slightly longer segment, then a whole phrase or sentence that may have disambiguated the original mishearing. These experiments were part of the research project on Cross-Dialectal Comprehension done at the Linguistics Lab here at Penn.

These misunderstandings are based on the fact that the Chicago speakers, along with 40 - 50 million other people in the "Inland North" dialect including Rochester, Buffalo, Detroit, Syracuse, and other cities of that region, have a rotation of their short vowels such that the low unrounded vowel of the short "o" words like "drop, socks, block, hot" is being fronted to the position where other American dialects have words like "that, hat, black, rap, sacks", and where short "e" words like "met, steady, head" can sound like "mutt", "study" and "thud" or "mat", "static" and "had".

Most linguists agree that our methods for reconstruction will take as only as far back as about 5000 - 7000 years; after that, the number of cognate sets available for reconstruction becomes just too low to give results that can be reliably distinguished from chance relationships.

Although it would be very satisfying to be able to link up some of the existing families at a higher level, the evidence seems too weak to allow us to do so. A minority of scholars, however, argue that this is possible, and one particularly well-known group of such scholars goes by the name of Nostraticists, derived from their views that there exists a super-family of language they have called the "Nostratic". A New York Times article from 1995 presents a well-balanced view of the Nostraticist position. Donald Ringe of the Penn Linguistics Department, himself an expert on the ancient Indo-European language Tocharian, is one of the chief critics of the Nostraticist position.

Thus, the ethnologue data base includes more than 6700 languages spoken in 228 countries. They state that their criterion for listing speech varieties separately is low intelligibility, as far as that can be ascertained.

It is necessary to mention that the role played by Azerbaijan in the international arena is highly valued by the international community. As soon as the independence was restored, Azerbaijan was elected a non-permanent member of the UN Security Council, the most influential international organization with the support of 155 states. This means that the absolute majority of the international community has supported Azerbaijan. It is necessary to have a good level of foreign languages in order to establish different political, economic, social and cultural relations with the near and far neighboring countries.

One of the most important elements in promoting cultural diversity and intercultural dialogue is, of course, education. Great attention is paid to education in Azerbaijan and literacy is 100 per cent. Education is the way of the future, the development. There are so many developed countries that they have made progress

through the development of education, science and technology, not with natural resources. The education system in Azerbaijan is being transformed, various reforms are being implemented and many innovations are applied to bring it to international standards. In the context of multiculturalism, it is important to know foreign languages fluently and perfectly in order to combat ethnic, religious, sectarian discrimination. This is the demand of modern times.

The English language has gone through some remarkable transitions since it arrived in the British Isles in the V-th century. As with all languages, always, it was impossible to predict then, as it is impossible to predict now, what the future would have in store for it. No one could foresee in the Middle Ages that English, not Latin, would be the language of learning and knowledge across the globe. No one could foresee in the XVIII-th century, and even in the 1950-s, that English, not French, would be the first language of international diplomacy. The future of a language is impossible to predict. However some linguists have suggested a number of factors that might negatively influence the role of English as a global language in the future.

It is a reality that in modern world English is global language, but humans need diversity of expression just as much as, if not more than, they need directness and clarity, and the forces that promote uniformity in language are constantly countered by those that promote division and change.

While English looks set to continue as an aid to world-wide communication for the foreseeable future, it is likely, and desirable, that it should not eradicate the splendid diversity of language and culture to be encountered across the globe. I think that how tedious it would be if we were to travel across the globe and encounter no difference.

In general, the language situation throughout the world has also changed. A possible threat to the global status of English is the global nature of English itself. English comes into contract with other languages in countries. National Englishes

across the globe did continue to fragment, speakers would be able to adapt to this contingency, since we are all multidialectal to a greater or lesser extent.

But for us Azerbaijanians the main task is the formation of the national thinking. And the first issue is the keeping and protecting of the basic word stock of our native national Azerbaijani language!

QUESTIONS to CONSIDER

Why should we study the history of the English language?

Who discovered Indo-European?

Define and give an example of polysemy and extension in lexis.

Is Old English bounded by geography?

What effect did the creation of dictionaries have on the history of English spelling?

How has English changed over time with regard to inflected endings?

Do the languages signal meaning in a sentence by means of inflectional endings (a so-called synthetic language, such as Latin), or do they signal meaning by word order patterns (an analytic language, such as Modern English)?

For the speakers of a given language, are some languages inherently more difficult to learn than others?

Is the myth of the labyrinth or the hyacinth more ancient than the Greeks themselves?

What is the impact of English-language literature abroad?

When were the missionaries from Rome sent to northern Europe and the British Isles converted the Germanic peoples?

Do most languages gradually evolve toward a higher or lower form?

Who were the Indo-Europeans, and where did they originate?

What would Samuel Johnson have said about American regionalisms?

How did Europeans come to posit the existence of an Indo-European set of tongues?

What is the historical relationship between English and the Germanic languages?

Give examples of how Grimm's Law accounts for differences in pronunciation among certain Indo-European languages.

How does the act of reciprocal gift-giving reveal itself in Indo-European root words?

What are some Indo-European cognates from the world of agriculture that have been passed down into English?

Why spend time studying Indo-European?

What were the major Old English dialects, and where were they spoken?

Explain some of the typical characteristics of noun and verb forms in Germanic languages.

How will the Internet, e-mail, and text messaging change our language?

Explain several ways that Old English created new words.

What were the chief characteristics of Old English as a literary language?

In what ways was Old English already changing before the Norman French arrived in England?

How did Old English word endings evolve independent of Norman influence and what is a plausible explanation for this phenomenon?

Why does a perfectly healthy language adopt loan words from another language?

What are some of the major endings or clusters of letters that identify a word as French in origin?

Could Chaucer have read "Caedmon's Hymn" as it was originally written?

What words in Chaucer's vocabulary suggest that he was a cosmopolitan writer?

In the absence of mass media, would dialect variation likely have been greater in the Middle Ages than today?

What kinds of accents are caricatured in such Middle English texts as "The Canterbury Tales" and "The Second Shepherd's Play"?

Can you cite any examples of "corruption" in the English you speak, write, read, and hear?

How does Shakespeare's language reflect the evolving state of Early Modern English?

What were John of Trevisa's principal beliefs regarding dialect and native language?

Why was English so slow to be adopted as the official language of England after the Norman Conquest?

Did the rise of Chancery make English a more powerful language?

What are some of the reasons commonly given for the occurrence of the Great Vowel Shift?

How did the Great Vowel Shift contribute to the gap between writing and speech?

What are "inkhorn terms," and are they still popular today?

What is polysemy, and how did it enrich or merely confuse the vocabulary of English?

Give examples of how English grammar and syntax changed during the Early Modern English period.

Explain how the encounter with the "other" informs our sense of linguistic self.

Give other examples of how the language of contemporary ritual reflects the historical roots of English.

How was English spelling influenced by the work of Renaissance schoolmasters?

Does English possess more “genius” than any other language?

How does Shakespeare’s language reflect the evolving state of Early Modern English?

Was the role of rhetoric in Renaissance education greater than it is today?

Might Shakespeare be more accessible to some readers if the quarto texts were used?

What features of value does the quarto text retain that are missing in the Folio version?

How does the vocabulary of various biblical translations into English change over time?

In what ways is the King James Bible superior or inferior to the more recent Revised Standard Version?

For the speakers of a given language, are some languages inherently more difficult to learn than others?

In what ways does Samuel Johnson’s Dictionary differ from previous lexicographies in English?

How does Johnson’s Dictionary differ from most standard dictionaries today?

How did Robert Lowth and Joseph Priestley fundamentally differ in their beliefs about language?

What is the role of propriety in the debate over English usage today?

Define and give an example of polysemy and extension in lexis.

How do dictionaries reflect a hierarchy of meaning, and is this a problem?

What historical developments of the XIX-th century led to the creation of the "Oxford English Dictionary"?

According to Orwell, why are polysyllabic words more likely to deceive than short, simple ones? Do you agree?

What are the major regional dialects of American English, and where are they spoken? Do they exist as much today as they did 100 years ago?

Why did America possess greater standardization of dialect than Britain?

Was Noah Webster's Dictionary populist or nationalist or both?

Is the "tall talk" of H.L.Mencken still in evidence today?

In what ways can the bedrock of Old English be seen in the Declaration of Independence?

How does the Gettysburg Address recall the language of Shakespeare and the King James Bible?

How does the slave narrative of Frederick Douglass echo some of the great texts written or translated into English?

What did the Norman Conquest do to English?

When was the era of Northumbrian efflorescence?

How do Melville, Whitman, or Douglass use personification?

What would Samuel Johnson have said about American regionalisms?

How does the DARE compare in usefulness, in accuracy, and in historical literary overview to the OED?

When was established a kingdom in the north of England, north of the Humber River, by groups descended from the Angles, a Germanic tribe that became known as Anglians?

How much do literary dialects accurately reproduce the sounds of regional speech?

Why have some people objected to teaching texts in the schools that use literary dialects?

What is the difference between a creole and a pidgin, and does African-American English qualify as either?

How did it return as the English language of offi cial proclamation, economic control, and political and social order in the XIII century?

In what ways has African-American English influenced the standard of Modern English?

Does language reflect an absolute reality, or is it nothing more than a cultural construct?

In what ways have colonial versions of English from around the world enriched Standard English?

When the Romans colonized England under Julius Caesar?

Is the English of India primarily an imperialist legacy or an idiom of creative expression?

What had we learned from studying “Caedmon’s Hymn”?

How long the Romans kept England as a colony?

When were new schools established for educating students in English and Latin?

Has science influenced Modern English for better or worse or neither?

What does the word “hello” tell us about the role of technology in language change and the issue of class distinctions?

When Wessex became the seat of Anglo-Saxon intellectual, literary, and political life?

Was Northumbria the first area of Anglo-Saxon efflorescence?

Do most languages gradually evolve toward a higher or lower form?

What is the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, and can you think of any examplesthat support it?

Did the Normans really conquer the English language?

How did literary writers represent regional variation in speech for purposes of humor or social commentary?

What happens when two languages come into contact?

Is English being debased and corrupted or enlivened and enriched through these influences?

What does the “house of consciousness” represent in Whorf’s work, and what problems does it suggest?

From your knowledge of African-American English, how does Chomsky’s theory of language explain its differences from modern “Standard” English?

What, according to Noam Chomsky, is the difference between “learning” language and “acquiring” it?

How can we see the effects of the political upheaval on the history of English and in our own study of the language today?

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES

Alfred, King of England (849-899) – King of the Anglo-Saxons (c.871-899), consolidated West Saxon political hegemony in southern England; commissioned the translation of major Latin works into Old English; provided the political aegis for the establishment of the West Saxon dialect of Old English as a standard.

Bede the Venerable (c.673-735) – Anglo-Saxon monk, historian and grammarian, is best known for his "Ecclesiastical History of the English Church and People", in which he records the poetry of Caedmon, the first known poet in the English vernacular.

Bibbesworth, Walter of (1219-1270) – XIII century writer of a treatise on French for English aristocrats and gentry.

Bloomfield, Leonard (1887-1949) – American linguist and author of "Language" (1933), a highly infl uential text in the American school of structural linguistics: stressing empirical observation of spoken language.

Caedmon (late VII-th century) – First known poet in English; wrote a hymn about creation in Old English that was considered to be the first English poem.

Caxton, William (c. 1421-1491) – England's first printer who brought printing to England in the 1470-s and published for the first time the works of Chaucer and many other important English writers; in the prefaces to his works, he reflected on language change and variation.

Chaucer, Geoffrey (c. 1340-1400) – Major English poet of the XIV-th century wrote "The Canterbury Tales" and other poems in Middle English.

Chomsky, Noam (1928-) – American linguist, who revolutionized the study of language and the discipline of linguistics with the publication of his "Syntactic Structures" (1957) and other books, founded the approach known as transformational generative grammar.

Douglass, Frederick (c.1817-1895) – African-American writer and politician of the XIX-th century, who wrote several autobiographical works that describe his experiences as a slave and record the varieties of African-American English of his time.

Gil, Alexander (1564-1635) – English schoolmaster and grammarian, master of St. Paul's School in London, teacher of Milton, published several works on the English language in which he responds to issues of spelling reform and the increase in the language's vocabulary, notably, "Logonomia Anglica" (1619).

Grimm, Jakob (1785-1863) and **Wilhelm** (1786-1859) – German linguists, lexicographers, and folklorists, who collected stories of the German people into well-known volumes of fairy tales; produced the major historical dictionary of the German language. Jakob Grimm formulated the sound relationships for Indo-European languages that have come to be known as Grimm's Law.

Harris, Joel Chandler (1848-1908) – American writer and folklorist, best known for his "Uncle Remus" stories, which seek to record the speech and literary forms of African-Americans of the late XIX-th century.

Jefferson, Thomas (1743-1826) – third President of the United States; author of the Declaration of Independence; student of the history of the English language, especially Old English; his writings influenced the rhetoric of American public discourse throughout the late XVIII-th and XIX-th centuries.

Jespersen, Otto (1860-1943) – Danish linguist, who wrote extensively on the history and structure of the English language, in particular in his influential "Growth and Structure of the English Language" (1905).

Johnson, Samuel (1709-1784) – English writer, poet, and lexicographer, his "Dictionary" (1755) set the standards for lexicography for more than a century.

Jones, Sir William (1746-1794) – English diplomat and philologist, his recognition that the languages of Europe and India share certain key features of grammar and vocabulary led to the development of Indo-European comparative philology in the XIX-th century.

Lowth, Robert (1710-1787) – English scholar, bishop of London and author of several influential books on English grammar; advocate of prescriptivism in the study of language.

Mencken, H. L. (1880-1956) – American journalist and critic, best known for his cultural criticism and for his book "The American Language", which first published in 1919, then reissued with supplements and revisions over the following 30 years.

Mulcaster, Richard (c. 1530-1611) – English schoolmaster and grammarian, head of Merchant Taylors' School in London, where Edmund Spenser was a student; later head of St. Paul's School, wrote about English grammar and usage, recording many features of XVI-th century English.

Müller, Max (1823-1900) – German-born philologist, professor of linguistics and Oriental languages at Oxford, and arbiter of scholarship in historical linguistics in middle of the XIX-th century Europe.

Murray, J.A.H. (1837-1915) – English lexicographer and primary editor of the "Oxford English Dictionary" from 1879 until his death.

Priestley, Joseph (1733-1804) – English clergyman, scientist, and grammarian, who published several books on English grammar, advocated a primarily descriptivist approach to the study of language.

Sapir, Edward (1884-1939) – American linguist and anthropologist, major contributor to the American school of Descriptive or Structural Linguistics, especially through his work with Native American languages.

Shakespeare, William (1564-1616) – English dramatist and poet, in his plays and sonnets, he deployed the resources of a changing English language of his day to give voice to character, theme, and dramatic setting.

Twain, Mark (Samuel Clemens, 1835-1910) – American writer, best known for his novels of middle of the XIX-th century life on and around the Mississippi River, especially "Huckleberry Finn" (1883), and his social satires, especially "A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court" (1889); in his writings, he often recorded or sought to evoke the regional dialects of his characters.

Webster, Noah (1758-1843) – American lexicographer and educator, his early spelling books of the 1780-s were immensely infl uential on schoolroom education, and his "American Dictionary" of 1828 became the standard reference work for spelling and pronunciation in the United States.

Whorf, Benjamin Lee (1897-1941) – American linguist and anthropologist, best known for the view that the language of a speech community shapes its perceptions of the world.

William the Conqueror (c.1027-1087) – First Norman French king of England; the Norman Conquest (1066) initiated the cultural and linguistic changes that eventually helped transform Old English into Middle English.

Witherspoon, John (1723-1794) – Scottish-born American clergyman; signer of the Declaration of Independence; President of Princeton University, who wrote extensively on the American version of English; coined the term "Americanism."

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GLOSSARY

Old English Period

Aa

Ā, Ō adv. (for)ever, always, at any time

ĀBERAN str. 4 to bear away, carry off, take away, remove

ĀC f (uml.) oak; name of the rune for “a”

ĀCWÆNČAN, ĀCWENČAN wk.1 to quench, extinguish

ĀCYÞAN wk.1 to make known, declare

ĀF(E)ALLAN str. 7 to fall, fall off or away, decay

ĀGAN pret.pres. to own, possess, have, hold, have control over;

ĀGE sg. pres. opt.

ĀGEN adj. own, proper, peculiar; orig. p.p. of ĀGAN

ĀGĒTAN (Angl.), ĀGĪ(E)TAN (W.S.) wk.1 to waste, destroy, slay

ĀHEBBAN str. 6 to lift up, raise, exalt; draw, remove;

ĀHŌF 1, 3 sg. pret.

ALD (EALD) adj. old, ancient

ĀLEČĞAN wk.1 to lay (down), put away, give up;

ĀLEGDUN pl. pret. ĀLEGDUN>ĀLĒDON

ĀLIČĞAN str. 5 to fall, rest, cease, fail, perish

ALL, EALL adv. fully, wholly, entirely, quite

ALLE adj. nom., acc. pl. of EALL

ALLMECTIG, ALMEGTTIG, EALMIHTIG adj. almighty (God)

AN, ON prep. w. dat., instr. (implying rest) or acc. (implying motion) on, in, into, at, among, from, by, of, against, towards

ĀN num., indef. art. – one, a certain (one), single, only, alone, a(n) ĀN (unstressed form) a certain (one), single, only, alone; ĀNE acc.sg.f. of ĀN; ĀNE alone, only instr. sg. of ĀN

AN, ON adv. on

AND, OND conj. and, but

AN(D)FENG m(i) seizing, taking, receiving, illegal occupation (of land, etc.); reception, admission

ANDGIT n(a) understanding, intelligence; sense, meaning

ANDGITFULLĪCOST adv. sup. most intelligibly

ANDSWARIAN, OND- wk.2 to answer, reply

ANDSWARU f(ō) answer, reply

ANGELCYN(N) n(ja) the English race of people, England

ANGELÞĒOD f(ō) the English people, England

ĀNLĪ(E)PE (ja) going alone, single, solitary, separate; individual, private;

ĀNLĒPNE acc. sg. m.; ĀNNE ĀNLĒPNE NE not a single one

ĀNMŌD adj. unanimous, resolute; bold, fierce; proud

ĀNRĀED adj. unanimous, resolute

ĀNRĀEDLĪČE adv. unanimously, resolutely

ĀRĒDIAN wk.2 to find (one's way), hit upon, devise, understand

ANTECRĪST m(a) Antichrist, the great personal enemy and opponent of Christ

ĀR f(ō) honour, favour, kindness, help, grace, mercy; landed property, possessions

ĀR f(ō) oar

ĀRĀEDAN wk.1 to determine, decide, settle, decipher, interpret, read

ARĀEDNESSE f(jō) utterance, decision, reading, interpretation ĀREČČ(E)AN wk.1 to explain, declare, say, tell, translate

ĀRHWÆT adj. eager for honour, gallant

ĀRĪSAN str.1 to rise, arise, originate

ĀSTELLAN, ONSTELLAN wk.1 to establish, cause, start

ĀSTĪGAN str. 1 to ascend, (a)rise, climb up, increase

ĀSWEBBAN wk.1 to put to sleep, kill

ĀTĒON str. 2 to draw off, out, from, or away, remove; ĀTUGE sg. pret. opt.

ĀWEČČAN wk.1 to awake, rouse, incite, excite; ĀWEHTE (Angl.),

ĀWEAHTE (W.S.) 1, 3 sg. pret. (opt.)

ĀWENDAN wk.1 to avert, pervert, remove, change, alter, turn from; translate

ĀWIHT, ŌWIHT, ĀHT, ŌHT indef. pron. aught, anything, something; good of value

ĀWRĪTAN str. 1 to write (down), write out, compose, describe

ĀÞ m(a) oath

ĀE, ĀEW f(i) law (divine or human), custom, faith, marriage; religion, Scripture

ĀEFÆST adj. upright, pious, religious

ĀEFÆSTNES(S) f(jō) religion, devotion, piety

ĀEFEN (W.S.), ĒFEN (Angl.) mn(ja) eve, evening

ĀEFRE adv. ever, always; never (in negative clauses)

ÆFTAN adv. (from) behind, in the rear

ÆFTER adv. after, then, afterwards

ÆFTER prep. after, along, through, among, on, following, in consequence of, in accordance with, according to, for, about, over (w. dat. or acc.);

ÆFTER ÞŌN (ÞĀEM, ÞĀM, ÞISSUM) thereafter, thereupon, afterwards

ÆFTERSPYRI(GE)AN wk.1 to follow, inquire after, examine

ĀEGHWĀ m., ĀEGHWÆT n. pron. every, one, everything

ĀEGHWĀER, ĀHWĀR adv. everywhere, at any time; ever

ĀEGHWYLČ, -HWILČ, -HWELČ indef.pron. each, every, every one, any

ĀEGÞER GE…GE both…and

ĀELČ, ÆLC pron. any, every, each (one), all

ĀENIG adj. any

ĀENLĪČ adj. unique, peerless, beautiful, excellent, glorious

ÆPLEDE GOLD adj. apple-shaped, round, or embossed gold

ĀER conj. ere, before

ĀER prep. (w. dat.) before

ĀER adv. (comp.) formerly, earlier, previously; ĀER conj. (w. indic. or opt.) ere, before;

ĀER ÞĀM (ÞĀEM, ÞĀN) ÞE before

ÆRČEBISCEP, ARČEBISC(E)OP m(a) archbishop

ĀERENDE n(ja) errand, message, mission

ĀERENDGEWRIT n(a) written message, letter

ĀERENDWRECA m(n) messenger, envoy, ambassador

ĀEREST adv. (sup.) first, first of all, at first

ĀES (W.S.), ĒS (Angl.) n(a) food, carrion, carcass

ÆSC m (a) ash-tree, spear; name of the rune for "Æ"

ÆSTEL m(a) book-mark

ÆT prep. (w. dat.) at, near, in, upon, into, toward, by, through, from

ÆTBERSTAN str. 3 to break (away), escape; ÆTBÆRST 1,3 sg. pret. ÆTFORAN prep.

(w. dat.) before, previous to; in the presence of, in front of

ÆTGÆD(E)RE adv. together, united

ÆTSAMNE, ÆTSOMNE adv. together

ÆÞELE (ja) noble, excellent, honoured

ÆÞELING m(a) nobleman, noble retainer, prince, hero, man, warrior; Lord

ĀEWISCMŌD abashed, disgraced

(GE-)ĀEMETIGIAN wk.2 (w. g.) to free, disengage, be vacant, be at leisure

Bb

BACAN str. 2 to bake

BĀN n(a) bone, the bone of a limb; whalebone, ivory

BÆC n(a) back

BÆCBORD n(a) port (side), left side of a ship (looking forward)

(Ge-)BĀEDAN wk.1 to urge on, force, constrain, solicit, require

BÆRNAN wk.1 to burn

BE, BI prep. (w. dat., instr.) by, beside, on, among, about, along, near, to (local); during (temporal); with, by, in, about, according to, concerning (extended use)

BĒAG, BĒAH m(a) ring (as ornament and as money), circlet, armlet, bracelet, treasure

BĒAGGYFA, BĒAHGIFA m(n) treasure-giver, lord, king

BEARN n(a) child, son

BEBĒODAN str. 2 (w. dat.) to bid, prescribe, command, order; entrust;

BEBĒAD 1, 3 sg. pret.

BEBYČĞAN wk.1 to sell; BEBOHTE 1, 3 sg. pret.

BECUMAN str. 4 to come (upon), meet with, happen to, arrive, befall

BEDĀELAN wk.1 (w. dat., instr. of thing) to deprive of

BEDRĒOSAN str. 2 to deceive, seduce, drive, fall; deprive of, bereave of (w. instr.)

BEFÆSTAN wk.1 to fix, secure, make safe; commit, entrust, hand over to. BEFÆSTE sg. pres. opt.

BEFORAN prep. (w. dat. or acc.) before, in front of;

BEFORAN ÞISSUM (dat. sg.) before this (time)

BEFORAN adv. before, in front

BEFULLAN adv. entirely, completely, perfectly

BĒGEN m., BĀ f., BŪ and BĀ n. both; where one thing or person is m. and the other f. or n., the nom. is BĀ or BŪ

BEGĒOTAN str. 2 to pour over (upon, into), to infuse; suffuse, cover

BEGI(E)TAN str. 5 (w. acc.) to get, receive, take, acquire, find, obtain; happen to, befall, come upon; BEGĒATAN pl. pret.

BEGIONDAN, BEGEONDAN prep. (w. dat.) beyond, on the other or further side (of)

BEH(E)ALDAN str. 2 to hold, guard, possess, occupy; behold, see, observe, look at; BEHĒOLD 1, 3 sg. pret.

BEHINDAN prep. (w. dat.) behind

BEHINDAN adv. behind

BEHIONAN prep. (w. dat.) on this side (of)

BEHRĒOSAN str. 2 (w. nstr.) to cover (with)

BELĪFAN str. 1 to remain, be left; BELYFON pl. pret.

(Ge-)BĒODAN str. 2 to offer, announce, show, give, grant; bid, order, command; BĒAD 3 sg. pret.

BĒON, BĪON v. in -mi to be, exist, grow, become, happen; BYÞ is the unstressed form of BIÞ; in the “Runic Poem” (N 13) BYÞ is used in the sense of “seems”

BE(O)RHT, BRIHT adj. bright, shining, splended, magnificent; clear (of a voice)

BEORHTLĪČ adj. brilliant, clear, shining

BEORN m(a) man, warrior, hero; rich man

(ge)BĒORSCIPE m(i) banquet, feast

BESTĪ(E)MAN, BESTYMAN (W.S.), BESTĒMAN (Angl.) wk.1 to (make) wet, bedew

BESŪÞAN adv. in the south, southwards

BESWĪCAN str. 1 to deceive, seduce, overcome; BESWĀC 1, 3 sg. pret.

BET adv. (comp.) better

(Ge-)BĒTAN wk.1 (w. gen.) to amend, improve, make good, make amends; pay compensation (for); make up (fire)

BETST adv. in the best manner, most (sup.)

BETST(A) sup. adj. of GŌD best

BET(W)UH, BET(W)UX, BETWYX prep.(w. dat.) between, among

BETYNAN wk.1 to hedge in, enclose, shut, close, finish, end

BEÞURFAN pret. pres. 3 (w.g.) to need, have need of, want

BEWĀWAN str. 7 to blow (upon); BIWĀUNE p.p.pl.

BEWRĒON str. 1 to cover (up), hide, enwrap; BIWRĀH 1, 3 sg. pret.

(Ge-)BĪDAN str. 1 to await, endure, experience, live to see; stay, remain; wait or look for, await, expect (w. gen. or following clause); (ge-)BIDEN p.p.

(ge)BIND n(a) binding, fetter; WAÞEMA GEBIND “the frozen waves”

BISCEP, BISC(E)OP m(a) bishop, high-priest

BISCEPSTŌL m(a) bishop’s see, bishopric

BISMER, BYSMOR mfn. humiliation, disgrace, insult, reproach, scorn; BISMRA gen. pl. of BISMER

BISMERIAN wk.2 to mock, insult, revile

BLĀC adj. pale, white, shining

BRĀD adj. broad, white; BRĀDRE comp.

BLĀED (W.S.), BLĒD (Angl.) m(a) prosperity, riches, power, renown, glory; enjoyment, vigour of life; blessing

BLŌD n(a) blood vein

BŌC f(uml.) book, document, charter, Bible; pl. BĒČ

BŌCERE m(ja) scribe, writer, scholar

BŌCLAND n(a) land held by a special charter, private land (in contrast to FOLCLAND or land of the community)

BOHTIMBER n(a) bow-timber (for angles and arches) (BŌGIAN + TIMBER)

BŌGIAN wk.2 to dwell, inhabit

BOLTTIMBER n(a) timber for building

BORD n(a) plank, table, side (of a ship), ship

BORD n(a) edge, shield

BORDWEAL(L) m(a) ‘shield-wall’; (protecting) shield

BŌSM m(a) bosom, breast, womb, interior

BŌT f(ō) help, relief, remedy, amendment, reform; compensation (for an injury or wrong)

BRECAN str. 4 to break (up), burst, tear; take by storm (mil.), capture (city); injure, violate

BREGU, BREGO m(u) chief, lord, ruler, king

(Ge-)BRENGAN wk.1 to bring, produce, lead

BRĒOST (mostly in pl.) f(ō), n(a) breast, heart, mind

BRIM n(a) flood, sea, water (of sea, lake); BRIMU nom., acc. pl.

(Ge-)BRINGAN str. 3 to bring, carry, lead, present, offer; FORÞ BRINGAN to bring forth, produce, accomplish; (GE-)BRŌHTE 1, 3 sg. pret.

BRŌÞOR m(r) brother

Ge-BRŌÞOR m(r) pl. brothers

BRŪCAN str. 2 (w. gen. or w. instr.) to use, make use of, enjoy, possess

BRYČE, BRIČE m(i) breach, breaking, fracture; injury

BRYČE, BRIČE m(i) use, profit, gain, advantage

BRYNE m(i) burning, fire, flame, heat, fervour, passion; hell

BRYTTA m(n) distributor, dispenser

BRYTTIAN wk.2 to distribute, allot, dispense; tear in pieces

BŪAN ir.(some strong and weak forms) live, dwell in, cultivate; BŪGEAÞ 3 pl. pres.; BŪDE 3 sg. pret.

(GE-)BŪGAN str. 2 to bow, bend, turn, stoop, incline, sink; to go over, submit

BUNE f(n) cup, goblet

BURH, BURG, BYR(I)G f(uml.) fortified place, fortress, castle, palace, walled town, dwelling surrounded by a wall or rampart of earth; a city, town, burgh, borough

BURGBRYČE m(i) breaking into a (fortified) dwelling; penalty for that offence: the houses of the upper classes and even of the small farmers were surrounded by a ditch and rampart.

BURGWARAN, -WARE, -WARU pl. townsmen, citizens

BŪTON, BŪTAN prep. (w. dat. and w. acc.) (all) but, without, except, apart from, out of, without, outside of, off; conj.(w. indicative) except (that), but (that), only; conj. (w. opt.) but, unless, save that, if not

BŪTON, BŪTAN adv. without, outside

BYRNAN, BI(E)RNAN (W.S.), BIORNAN, BEORNAN (Angl.) str. 3 to burn

BYRNWIGA m(n) ‘corslet-warrior’, warrior (wearing corslet)

BYRST m(i) calamity, loss, injury

BYTLING f(ō) building, constructing

BYRÞEN(N) f(jō) burden, load, weight

BYSEN f(ō), n(a) example, pattern, model; BE ÞÆRE BYSENE ‘by the original manuscript’; in the days before printing we often find such exhortations to copyists to adhere strictly to the original.

BYS(I)GU f(n) affliction, distress, trouble, care, occupation; BISGUM instr. pl.

Cc

CAMP mn(a) battle, fight, warfare

CAMPSTEDE m(i) battle-field

CASTEL m(a) castle, fort, fortified camp

ČĒAP m(a) price, bargain; cattle, live-stock, property

ČEARWELM m(i) seething of sorrow, sorrowful or anxious emotion

CEMPA m(n) champion, fighter, warrior

CĒN m(a) resinous pine-wood; torch

C(ĒN) m(a) torch; name of the rune for “c”

CENT f(jō), Centland n(a) Kent

ČEORFAN str. 3 to carve, hew (out), cut

ČEORL m(a) (common) man, free peasant (contrasted with eorl)

(GE-)ČĒOSAN str. 2 to choose, select, obtain, decide

ČIRIČE f(n) church, religious community

ČI(E)R(R), ČYR(R) (W.S.), ČER(R) (Angl.) m(i) turn, change, occasion, time, tide

(GE-)ČI(E)RRAN, -ČYRRAN (W.S.), -ČERRAN (Angl.) wk.1 to turn (oneself), go, come, return, change;

(GE)ČYRRED p.p.

CLĀENE adj. (ja) clean, clear, pure

CLĒOFAN str. 2 to cleave, split, separate; CLUFAN pl. pret.

(GE-)CNĀWAN str. 7 to know, learn, understand, recognize

CNEAR(R) m(a) small ship, galley (of the ships of the Northmen)

CNĒOMÆG m(a) kinsman; pl. ancestry, lineage

CNĒO(W) n(wa) knee, generation; gen. CNĒOWES

CNYSSAN wk.1 to dash against, batter, strike, smite, beat, (op)press

CONDEL, CANDEL f(ō) candle, light

CORŌNA (Lat.) f crown

COTLĪF n(a) cottage, house, dwelling

CRĒ(A)CAS m(a), CRĒCE m(i) pl. the Greeks, i.e. the inhabitants of the Eastern Roman Empire

(GE-)CRINGAN str. 3 to fall (in battle), sink, die, perish, collapse;

(GE-)CRONG 1, 3 sg. pret.; CRUNGON pl. pret.

CRISTEN adj. Christian

CRŪDAN str. 2 to press forward, hasten, drive (esp.of a ship); CRĒAD 1, 3 sg. pret.

CŪ f (uml.) cow

CUMAN str. 4 to come, go, depart; CWŌM 1, 3 sg. pret.; CWŌMAN, CWŌMON pl. pret.

CUNNAN pret. pres. to be or become acquainted with, know (how to), be able; CŪÞAN(ON) pl. pret.

(GE-)CUNNIAN wk.2 (w. gen.) to experience, try, make trial of, explore

CŪÞ adj. (well)known, familiar

CWĒN f(i) queen, wife of a king, lady, wife (GE-)CWEÞAN str. 5 to say, speak, declare, order; make over, assign;

CWÆÞ 1, 3 sg. pret.

CWIC(O), C(W)UCU (u) alive, living

CYČGEL m(a) cudgel, stick

CYNING m(a) king

CYNG(C) late O. E. shortened form of cyning

CYNINGCYN(N) n(ja) royal race, pedigree or family

CYN(N) n(ja) kin, kind, kindred, sort, race, tribe, family

GUMENA CYNN, ÆLDA CYNN, MANNA CYNN = mankind

WĪFA CYNN = womankind

(GE-)CYÞAN wk.1 (w. dat.) to make known, declare, announce, show, display; GE– CYDD p.p.

CYÞÞ(U) f(ō) kinship, relationship, familiarity, acqaintance, friendship; home, native land

Dd

DAROÞ m(a) dart, spear, javelin

DAROÞA LĀF "those left by spears, survivors of the battle"

DĀED f(i) deed, act, action, doing

DÆG m(a) day, time, life-time; name of the rune for "d"; DAGAS pl.

(Ge-)DÆGHWĀMLIČ adj. daily

DĀEL m(i) part, portion, division, share, number, multitude; DĒL nom.,acc.sg.

(GE-)DĀELAN wk.1 to deal, distribute, divide, share, part, separate

DĒAÞ m(a) death

DĒMA m(nj) judge, ruler

DENE m(i) pl. The Danes

DENNADE (occurs only in "Brunanburh", N12) 3 sg. pret. from DENNIAN wk.2 to stream, or perh.

ÞĀNADE “grew wet”, from ÞĀN adj. “wet”

DĒOFOL mn(a) devil, demon

DĒOP n(a) deepness, depth, abyss, hollow passage

DĒOP adj. deep, profound, serious, important

DĒOR n(a) (wild) beast, animal

DĒOR adj. brave, bold, fierce

(GE-)DIHTIAN = ADIHTIAN wk.1(2) to compose, write, arrange, prepare, appoint, direct, make; ADIHTODE = ADIHTNODE pret.sg.

DOHTOR f(r) daughter

DŌM m(a) doom, judgement, judicial sentence, decree, ordinance, law; a ruling, governing, command; might, power, domination, majesty, glory, magnificence, honour, praise, dignity, authority; will, free will, choice, option; sense, meaning, interpretation

DŌMLĒAS adj. inglorious

(GE-)DŌN v. in -mi to do, act, commit, put, place, make, render, cause, bring about; DYDE 1, 3 sg. pret.; DYDON pl. pret.

DRAGAN str. 6 to draw, drag, go

DRĒAM m(a) joy, rejoicing, delight, bliss

(GE-)DRĒFAN wk.1 to stir up, disturb, trouble, afflict

DRĒOGAN str. 2 to endure, suffer, experience; perform, carry out; DREAH 3 sg. pret.

DRĒORIG adj. bloody, blood-stained; sad, sorrowful

(GE-)DRĒOSAN str. 2 to fall, decay, decline, perish; (GE)DRĒAS 1,3 sg. pret. DRĪFAN str. 1 to drive, expel

DRIHTEN, DRYHTEN m(a) chief, lord, king; the Lord, God; DRYHTNE dat.sg.

(GE)DRINC, DRYNC n(a), m(a) drink, drinking, beverage

DRŪSIAN wk.2 to sink, be languid, become slow or inactive; DRŪSENDE partic. pres.

DURRAN pret.pres.dare; DORSTE 1, 3 sg. pret.

DRYGE (ja) dry

DUGUÞ f(ō) body of (noble or tried) retainers, noble company, royal household, power, glory

DWELIAN wk.2 to deceive, seduce, lead astray

Ee

ĒA f(uml.), usually f(ō) water, stream, river; ĪE dat.sg.

ĒAC prep. (w. dat.) together with, in addition to

ĒAC adv. also, moreover

ĒADNES(S) f(jō) happiness, prosperity

EAFORA, EAFERA m(n) progeny, off-spring, son; (in a wider sense) pl. retainers, men

EAHTIAN wk.2 to consider, deliberate; watch over, rule; esteem, praise

ĒALĀ interj. Oh! Ah!

ĒALAND, ĒALOND m(a) island, isle

(E)ALD adj. old, ancient

EALDORLANG adj. lifelong, eternal

EALDORMON(N) m(uml.) prince, nobleman, chief, earl

(E)ALGIAN wk.2 to protect, defend

(E)ALL adj. all, every, entire, whole

EALL see ALL

EALNEG see WEG

ĒAR m(a) earth; name of the rune for "ēa"; in Northumbria, where these diphthongs were confused, it is used for 'ēo' as well as for "ēa"

EARD m(a) (native) land, abode, dwelling-place, estate, home, country

EARDIAN wk.2 to dwell, remain, inhabit

EARFOÞLĪČ adj. full of hardship, in distress

EARGEBLAND n(a) "wave-blend", surge

EARM m(a) arm

EARM adj. poor, wretched, miserable

EARMČEARIG adj. wretched, sorrowful

EARN m(a) eagle

(GE-)EARNIAN wk.2 to earn, merit, deserve, win

EARNUNG f(ō) earning, desert, merit, reward;

MID MICLAN EARNUNGAN "most deservedly"

ĒAST adj. east, eastern, easterly, eastward

ĒAÞE, YÞE adv. easily

ĒAÞMŌDLĪČE adv. humbly, respectfully, kindly

ĒČE (ja) eternal, everlasting

EČĞ f(jō) edge, point, sword

EDOR m(a), EODOR (w. velar uml.) enclosure, fence, gate, dwelling, protection, house, protector, prince; EDERAS nom., acc. pl.

EDORBRYČE m(i) fence-breaking, house-breaking

EDWĪT n(a) reproach, shame, disgrace

EFNE, EMNE adv. even, just

EFT, ÆFT adv. again, back again, afterwards, in turn, then, on the other hand

ELCUNG f delay

ELLEN n(ja) strength, vigour, valour, power, courage, fortitude;

ELNE with strength, power, or courage, strongly, powerfully, courageously

ELLENWŌDNIS(S) f(jō) zeal, ardour, fervour

ENDE m(ja) end, ending; death; part, district, region

(GE-)ENDIAN wk.2 to end, finish, bring or come to an end; die

ENGE (ja) narrow, anxious, painful

ENGLE m(i) pl., ENGLAN m(n) pl. the Angles

ENGLISC adj. English

ĒODE 1, 3 sg. pret.; ĒODON, ĒODAN pl. pret. of GĀN

E(O)H m(a) horse; name of the rune for “e”

ĒOH (ĪOH), ĪW, ĒOW m(a) yew-tree; name of the rune for "ēo(īo)"

EOLH m(a) elk; name of the rune for Gmc. "z", which became "r" in West Gmc.

(O.E.) ĒOREDCYST f(i) choice troop

EORL m(a) man, warrior, hero, nobleman, earl

EORÞE f(n) earth, world, ground, soil; ERTAE prob. Early Nth.

ĒOWER poss. pron. your

ĒÞEL m(a) country, native land, territory, inherited domains, home, estate; name of the rune for "ōe"

Ff

(GE-)FĀH, – FĀG m(a) foe, enemy; (GE-)FĀN wk. nom., a.pl. of (GE-)FĀH

(GE-)FARAN str. 6 to go, depart, die

FÆDER m(r) father; Father (of the Church); the Father (God)

FĀEGE (ja) doomed to die, fated, near death

GE-FÆG(E)N (w. gen.) glad, rejoicing

FĀEGER adj. fair, beautiful, lovely; FEGRUM d. pl. of FĀEGER

FÆGERE adv. fairly, pleasantly, fittingly, well, beautifully

FÆSTNUNG f(ō) firm support, security

FĒA, pl. FĒAWE (wa) few, a few

Ge-FĒA m(n) delight, joy, happiness, gladness, favour, glory

FEALU, FEALO adj. (wa) fallow, dark, brown-yellow; pale-yellow shading into red or brown

FELA, FEALA, FEALO adj. (w. gen.) many, much

FELA, FEALA adv. much

FELAFRĒCNE (ja) very savage, very dangerous

FELD m(u) open or cultivated land, plain, field (of battle)

FEOH n(a) cattle, living animals; cattle being used in early times as a medium of exchange, hence money, value, price, hire, stipend, fee, reward; as property chiefly consisted of cattle, hence goods, property, riches, wealth; name of the rune for 'f'. FĒOS gen.sg.

(ge-)FEOHT n(a) fight, battle

(GE-)FEOHTAN str. 3 to fight

FĒ(O)LAN str. 3 to penetrate; FYLTH 3 sg. pres.

FE(O)LLAN str. 3 to cleave, enter, pass into, through, or over

FEOND, FIOND m. substantivized partic. pres. Fiend, foe, enemy, wicked man, devil

FE(O)RH mn(a) life, soul, spirit; a living being, person

FEORHLEGE f(i) portion of life, allotted span of life

FEOR(R) adv. far, afar, far back (time)

FĒORE d. sg.; FĒORES g. sg. of FE(O)RH

FEORM, FIORM f(ō) food, sustenance, taking care of; profit, use

FEORRAN adv. from afar, from a distance, from far back (time)

(ge-)FĒRA m(n) companion, comrade; TŌ GEFĒRAN “as a companion”

(GE-)FĒRAN wk.1 to go, walk, move, travel, pass, depart; to happen, come to pass; reach, attain; experience, suffer

FĒRE adj. (ja) able to go, fit for (military) service

FERGEN-BERIG N hill, high shore

FERS mn(a) verse, sentence

FERÞLOCA m(n) breast, heart, secret thoughts

FETER f(ō) fetter, bond

(GE-)FETIAN, late OE FEČČAN wk.2 to fetch, bring (near), summon

(GE-)FĒÞRIAN wk.2 to load

(GE-)FI(E)LLAN, -FYLLAN (W.S.), -FELLAN (Angl.) wk.1 to fell, strike down, kill, slay

FI(E)RD, FYRD (W.S.), FE(O)RD (Angl.) f(i) army, military expedition, camp

FINDAN str. 3 to find, obtain (by search or study), discover; FUNDEN p.p.

FĪRAS m(ja) pl. men, human beings, mankind

FISC n fish

FISCERE m(ja) fisher, fisherman

FLĒAM m(a) fleeing, flight

FLĒOGAN str. 2 to fly, flee, take to flight; FLEAH 1, 3 sg. pret.

FLŌD mfn. flood, stream, sea

FLOT n(a) sea

FLOTA m(n) boat, ship; seaman, sailor, (Scand.) pirate; fleet (especially of the Scandinavian pirates)

(GE-)FLYMAN, -FLĪ(E)MAN (W.S.), -FLĒMAN (Angl.) wk.1 to put to flight, drive away or back

FOLC n(a) tribe, army, people, nation; pl. common men or people, multitude

FOLDE f(n) earth, ground; land, country; FOLDAN gen., dat., acc.sg.

(GE-)FŌN str. 7 seize, grasp, get, take, capture; GE-FĒNG 1,3 sg.pret.; (GE-) FĒNGON 3 pl. pret.; FŌN TŌ RĪČE to succeed to (or take) the throne

FOR, FORE prep. (w. dat., instr.) before, in front of, in the presence of (local); for, instead of, because of, on account of (causal); before (temporal); for, as, on behalf of (w. acc.)

FORAN adv. from the front, at the front

FORBÆRNAN wk. 1 to burn (up), be consumed, consume by fire

FORD m(u) ford

FORE adv. before, formerly; once

FORFARAN str. 6 to obstruct; FORFŌRON 3 pl. pret.

FORGIEFAN str. 5 forgive, give, bestow, grant

FORHERGIAN wk. 2 to plunder, ravage, devastate

FORLĀETAN (WS), FORLĒTAN (Angl.) red. 1 to let go, surrender, abandon, leave (behind), lose; pardon, excuse FORLĒTON pl. pret.

FORSTANDAN str. 5 to withstand, hinder, prevent; defend; to avail, be worth; understand; FORSTŌD 1, 3 sg. pret.

FORÞ adv. forth, away; henceforth, thenceforth, forwards, onwards, all the time, continually; succeeding, preceding

FORÞON, FORÞAN adv. for that cause, therefore, consequently FORÞRYČČAN wk.1 to press, oppress, suppress

FORÞY, FORÞĪ adv. for that, therefore, consequently

FORÞY, FORÞĪ conj. for that (this) reason, therefore

FRAM, FROM prep. (w. dat.) from, away from, of, about, concerning

(Ge-)FRĀEGE adj. (ja) well-known, famous, renowned

FRÆTWE, FRÆT(E)WA f(wō) pl. ornaments, ornamented armour or weapons, trappings, adornments, precious things, treasure

FRĒA m(n) lord, the Lord (God), king, chief, ruler, husband

FRĒCNE adj. (ja) audacious, daring; dangerous, terrible

FRĒFRAN wk.1 to comfort, console

(GE-)FREMMAN wk.1 to do, achieve, perform, accomplish; support, advance

FREMSUMNES(S) f(jō) benefit, kindness

FRĒO, FRĪO, FRĪOH adj. free, glad, noble

FRĒOMĀEG m(a) free or noble kinsman

(GE-)FRĒON, -FRĒOGAN, -FRĪOGAN wk.2 to set free, liberate, love, honour

FRĒONDLĒAS adj. friendless

FREONDLĪČE adv. in a friendly manner, kindly

FRĒORIG adj. freezing, frozen, cold

FRĒOSAN str. 2 to freeze

(GE-)FRIČĞAN str. 5 to learn (by asking or inquiry), hear of

FRŌD adj. old, wise

FRŌFOR, FRŌFUR f(ō) consolation, solace, relief, comfort, help, refuge, profit, benefit

FROM, FRAM adv. forth, away

FRUMSCEAFT f(i) creation, beginning, origin

FUGLIAN wk.2 to fowl, catch or kill birds

FULL adv. fully, completely, entirely, perfectly

FUL(L) adj. (w. gen.) full, complete, entire

FULLUHT, FULWIHT mnf(i) baptism, Christianity

FULNĒAH adv. almost

FULTUM, FULTOM m(a) help, aid, assistance, support, succour; a helper, an army, forces

FURÞUM, FURÞON adv. just (of time), only just, even, exactly, already, (at) first

FŪS adj. eager to go, ready, hastening; ready for death; shining, brilliant

(GE-)FYLČIAN wk.2 to assemble, marshal

(GE-)FYLLAN wk.1 (w. g.) to fill (up), fulfil

FYR n(a) fire

FYRDIAN wk.2 to go on an expedition

FYRST, FIRST, FRIST m(i) space of time, time (granted for doing something), period

FYRSTMEARC f(ō) appointed time, space of time

(GE-)FYSAN wk.1 to make ready, impel, incite; drive away, put to rout

Gg

(GE-)GAD(E)RIAN wk. 2 to gather, unite, assemble, collect

GALGA (Angl.), GEALGA (W.S.) m(n) gallows, cross

GAMEN, GOMEN n(a) joy, entertainment, amusement, sport

GĀN v. in -mi to go, walk, move, hurry, proceed; GĀN prob. is a short form of GANGAN

GĀR m(a) spear

GASRIC ?m savage, beast, monster

GĀESTLĪČ adj. appalling, terrible

GE conj. and, also; GE…GE both…and

GĒARA (orig. gen. pl. of the noun GĒAR) long since, in former times, once

GEARDAGAS m(a) pl. days of yore; life-time

GEARU, GEARO adj. (gen. GEARWES) (wa) ready, prepared

GEAR(W)E adv. readily, certainly, fully, thoroughly, surely

GE-LIMPFUL(L) adj. fitting, convenient. GE-LIMPFULRAN comp. (wk. a. sg.)

GĒNA adv. still

GEOGOÞ, GEOGUÞ f(ō) youth (abstract); young men or warriors (concrete)

GEOGOÞHĀD m(a) state of youth, adolescence

GEOND, GIOND, GYND prep. (w. acc. or dat.) over, about, through, throughout (of place and time), among, in, after, beyond

GEONG, IUNG adj. young, recent, fresh

GEORNE adv. eagerly, willingly, certainly, zealously, readily, firmly

GEORNFULNES(S) f(jō) eagerness, zeal, diligence

GEORNLĪČE adv. eagerly, willingly, conscientiously, zealously

GĒR (Angl.), GĒAR (W.S.) n(a) year, spring; GĒ(A)R orig. Meant “spring”, name of the rune for “g”

GIF conj. if, whether

GI(E)LDAN str. 3 to repay, pay for, require, render, sacrifice to, punish; GEALD 1, 3 sg. pret.

GĪ(E)MAN, GYMAN (W.S.), GĒMAN (Angl.) wk.1 (w. gen. or acc.) to take care for or of, take notice of, regard, observe

GIERD, GYRD (WS), GERD (Angl.) f(jō) twig, rod, stick; yard, staff, measure of length.

GERDUM d., instr. pl. of GI(E)RD GIFOLA m(n) giver

GĪSL, GĪSEL m(a) hostage

GLĀEM m(i) gleam, splendour, radiance, joy, beauty

GLĒAW (often w. gen.) wise, clever, skilful, skilled

GLĪDAN str. 1 to glide, glide away, vanish, slide; GLĀD 1, 3 sg. pret.

GNORNIAN wk. 2 to mourn, grieve, lament

GOD, God m(a) (heathen) god, God

GŌD n(a) good thing, goodness, property, benefit, advantage, gift

GŌD adj. good, generous, liberal; able, powerful, strong, brave, excellent; SĒL(RE) comp.; SĒLEST sup.

GODCUND adj. religious, holy, divine

GŌDIAN wk.2 to become good, improve, amend

GOLD n(a) gold

GOLDWINE m(i) gold-friend, lord, king

GŌS f(uml.) goose

GRĀEDIG adj. greedy

GRĀEG (W.S.), GRĒG (Angl.) adj. grey

(GE-)GRĒTAN wk.1 to greet, salute, welcome, address, approach, touch, attack

GREUT = GREOT n(a) earth, sand, gravel

GRORN adj. sad, irritated

GRUND m(a) ground, bottom, depth (of sea), land, earth

GUMA m(n) man

GŪÞHAFOC m(a) war-hawk, eagle

GYFU, GI(E)FU (W.S.), GE(O)FU (Angl.) f(ō), f(n) gift, talent, faculty; favour, grace (of God); name of the rune for "g"

GYTA, GĪ(E)T(A) (W.S.), GĒT(A) (Angl.) adv. yet, still, thus far, furthermore, hitherto, not yet (w. negation)

Hh

HABBAN wk. 3 to have, hold, keep, take, receive, possess

HĀD m(u) manner, form, degree, rank, order, state, position, condition, profession, office; sex, race, tribe

HĀLETTAN wk.1 to salute, greet

HĀLGIAN wk.2 to hallow, sanctify, keep holy; consecrate, dedicate;

HĀLGODE 1, 3 sg. pret.

HALIG adj. holy

HĀM m(a) home(stead), house, residence, estate, manor

HAMOR m(a) hammer

HAND f(u) hand, side; person inheriting, heir (special meaning in O. E. wills and charters); control, power; ON HAND GĀN to yield

HANDPLEGA m(n) “hand-play”, fighting

HĀR adj. grey, old

HASOPĀDA m(n) the grey-coated one (= the eagle)

(GE-)HĀTAN str. 7 to order, bid, command, name, call; vow, promise; (GE-)HĒT 1, 3 sg. pret.; HÆT 3 sg. pres.

(GE-)HĀWIAN wk. 2 to observe

HÆGL, HAGOL mn(a) hail, hail-shower, storm of hail; name of the rune for “h”

HÆLE(Þ) m(þ) man hero, warrior; nom., acc. pl. are HÆLEÞ, HÆLEÞAS

HĒAFOD n(a) head, chief, source

HĒAH (W.S.), HĒH (Angl.) adj. high, lofty, deep (sea); exalted, noble, illustrious; HĒAN gen., dat., acc.sg.; nom., acc. pl.; dat. pl.

HEALF f(ō) half, side, part

H(E)ALF adj. half

(GE-)HEALDAN str. 7 to hold, keep, support, preserve, observe, defend, maintain, possess; guard, protect; rule over; HĒOLD 1, 3 sg. pret.

HĒAN adj. abject, humiliated, wretched, despised

HEARD adj. hard, strong, severe, cruel, sharp, brave

HEARDLĪČE adv. bravely, severely, resolutely

HEAÞOLIND f(ō) battle-shield

(GE-)HEAÞ(O)RIAN wk. 2 to lock up, confine, restrain

(GE-)HĒAWAN, -HĒOWAN str. 7 to hew down, cut (to pieces), strike, kill

HĒDAN wk. 1 (w.g.) to heed, take heed of, care for, look after. HĒDEN pl. pres. opt. of HĒDAN

(Ge-)HENDE adj. w. dat. near

HEOFON m(a) (pl. used w.sg. meaning) sky, heavens

HEOFONRĪČE n(ja) kingdom of heaven

HEOLSTER, HEOLSTOR m(a) hiding-place, darkness

HEONAN, HEONON, HINE adv. hence, from here, away

HEONANFORÞ adv. henceforth

HEORTE f(n) heart, soul, mind

HĒR adv. here, in this world, hither; now, at this date, in this year

HERE m(ja) army, troop, host, multitude; war, devastation

HERIES, HERIGES, HERGES gen. sg.

HEREFLĒMA m(n) fugitive from army, deserter

HERENES(S) f(jō) praise

HERETOGA m(n) army-leader, commander

HERIAN, HERGAN, HERIG(E)AN wk.1 to praise

HERGIAN wk.2 to harry, lay waste, ravage, go ravaging

HETTAN wk.1 to chase, persecute; HETTEND m. substantivized partic. pres.: hater, enemy

HIDER adv. hither, here

HIELFE, HYLFE (WS), HELFE (Angl.) n(ja) helve, (tool) handle. HYLFA nom., a. pl.

HĪERRA, HYRRA (W.S.), HĒRRA (Angl.) adj. comp. higher (see HĒAH)

HĪERSUM adj. obedient, docile

HĪERSUMIAN, HYRSUMIAN wk.2 (w. dat.) to obey, serve

HINDAN adv. (from) behind

HINDRIAN wk.2 to hinder (from the O. E. adv. HINDER)

HLĀFORD, HLĀFURD m(a) lord, master, patron, ruler, king; the Lord, God, lit. "breadguardian"

HLĒOTAN str. 2 (w. gen., dat., acc. or instr.) to cast lots, get by lot, obtain

HLŪD adj. loud, noisy

HNĪGAN str. 1 to bow, bend down, decline, sink; HNĀG 1,3 sg. pret.

HOGIAN wk. 2 to care for, think about, strive or wish for Ge-HOLA m(n) protector; ge-HOLENA gen. pl.

HOLD adj. friendly, gracious, kind (of a lord); loyal, faithful (of a retainer or subject)

HOPIAN wk.2 to hope, expect, look for

HORD n(a) hoard, treasure (orig. what is hidden)

HORN m(a) horn (of a beast, musical instrument, drinking-horn); pinnacle, projection

HRĀ(W), HRĒA(W) mn(wa) corpse, body

HRÆF(E)N, HREFN m(a) raven

HRĒMIG adj. (w. gen. or dat.) exulting

HRĪM m(a) hoar-frost

HRING m(a) ring, valuable object, anything circular or rounding

HRĪÞIG adj. clogged with snowdrifts; HRYÞGE nom.pl.

HRŌF m(a) roof, top, dome

HRON m(a) whale

HRŪSE f(n) earth, ground

HŪ adv. how

HUNTIAN, HUNTIGAN wk.2 to hunt

HŪRU, HŪRE interj., adv. indeed, at any rate, at least, certainly, especially, however.

HŪS n(a) house

HŪÞ f(ō) plunder, booty, prey; HEREHŪÞ f booty

HWĀ interrogative pron. m., f. (w. partit. gen.) who; indef. pron. someone, anyone

GE-HWĀ m., f. indef.pron.(w. partit. gen.) each one, every one, some one, any one

HWĀER conj. where, anywhere, somewhere

HWĀER adv. where

HWÆT interrogative pron. n. (w. partit. gen.) what, who; indef.pron. something, anything

HWÆTHWUGU indef.pron. somewhat, something, a little

HWÆÞER pron. which (or one) of the two; whichever; conj. whether (in indirect question)

HW(E)ORFAN str. 3 to turn, go, move round, roam, depart

HWĪL f(ō) while, time, space of time, a long time. HWĪLUM dat. instr. pl.

HWĪT adj. white, bright, shining

HWYLČ, HWILČ, HWELČ pron. which, what; indef.pron. (w. partit. gen.) any(one)

GE–HWYLČ, -HWILČ, -HWELČ pron. (w. partit. gen.) each, every(one), any(one), everything

(GE-)HYRAN, -HĪERAN (W.S.), -HĒRAN (Angl.) wk.1 to hear, learn, know, understand; to listen to, obey, belong to (w. dat.), to hear of (w. acc.)

HYRNEDNEBBA m(n) the horn(y)-beaked one (=the raven)

Ii

IAR, IOR m(a) name of a river-fish (?eel); name of the rune for “io”

ĪDEL adj. idle, vain, empty, desolate, useless, worthless, unoccupied; (w. gen.) deprived of

ĪDEL n(a) idleness, emptiness, frivolity

IDES f(i) woman, wife, lady

ĪE dat.sg. of ĒA

Ī(E)G (W.S.), ĒG (Angl.) f(jō) island, river-land

Ī(E)GBUEND see the noun Ī(E)G and the verb BŪAN

I(E)LDRA, YLDRA (W.S.), ELDRA, ÆLDRA (Angl.) adj. comp. older, elder, higher (in rank)

IELDRAN m(n) pl. elders, parents, ancestors

ĪGLOND, ĪGLAND n(a) island

I(E)RFE, YRFE(W.S.), ERFE (Angl.) n(ja) inheritance, heritage; property, live-stock, cattle. ĀEČE YRFE “ownership in perpetuity”

ILCA, YLCA pron. (the) same

IN prep. (w. dat., instr. or acc.) in, to, into, upon, on, at, among

IN adv. inside, in

ING m(a) the mythical ancestor of the Ingaevones, the Gmc. North Sea tribes, of Tacitus; name of the rune for “ng”

INNANBORDES adv. within the country, at home

INNE adv. inside, within

ĪS n(a) ice; name of the rune for “i”

ĪU = GĒO, GĪU formerly, of old, once

Kk

KIGCLAS nom., a.pl. of CYČGEL

KYNERĪČE = CYNERĪČE n(ja) kingdom

Ll

LĀF f(ō) remnant, rest, relic; what is left as an inheritance or remnant = heirloom, sword, armour; HAMORA LĀF lit. ‘remnant of the hammers’, i.e. sword

LAGU m(u) water, lake, sea, ocean; name of the rune for “l”

LAND, LOND n(a) land, earth, soil; territory, country

LANDSITTENDE partic. pres.: occupying land

LANG, LONG adj. long (of space and time)

LANGE, LONGE adv. long, for a long time, far

LĀR f(ō) lore, teaching, instruction, learning, knowledge, cunning, science, preaching, doctrine, dogma, precept; exhortation, admonition counsel, suggestion, instigation, persuasion

LĀRĒOW m(wa) teacher, master, preacher

LĀST m(a) track, footprint, trace; ON LĀST(E) ‘behind or following in the footsteps, in pursuit, after

LĀÞ n foe, enemy

LĀÞ adj. hateful, grievous, hostile

(GE-)LĀEDAN wk. 1 to lead, bear, take, bring, carry, derive

LÆDEN adj. Latin

LÆDENGEÞĪODE n(ja) Latin language

LÆDENWARE m(i) pl. Latins, Romans

LĀEN n(i) loan; lease, land held on lease

LĀENE adj. (ja) transitory, frail, perishable, fleeting

(GE-)LĀERAN wk.1 to teach, train, instruct, advise

(GE-)LĀESTAN wk.1 to follow, do service, serve, stand by; perform, carry out, fulfil

LÆT adj. (often used w. gen.) sluggish, slow; LÆTRE comp.

LĀETAN (W.S.), LĒTAN (Angl.) str. 7 to let (go), allow, permit, cause to happen, leave (behind); regard as, consider; conduct oneself

LĒAF f(ō) leave, permission, license

(ge-)LĒAFA m(n) belief, faith, creed

LEGAN Lat. legion

LEČĞ(E)AN wk.1 to lay, put, place, establish; LEG(E)ST, LEG(E)Þ 2, 3 sg. pres.; ON LĀST LEGDON (w. dat.) they pursued

LENG adv. longer; comp.

LĒOD f(ō) people, nation

LĒOD m(i) man, member of a tribe or nation; chief, king

LĒODBISC(E)OP m(a) suffragan bishop (helping a bishop of higher rank in his work)

LĒODE, LĪODE m(i) pl. people, men, countrymen

(GE-)LEORNIAN, -LIORNIAN wk.2 to learn, read, investigate, study; (GE-)

LIORNOD p.p.

LEORNUNG, LIORNUNG f(ō) learning, study

LĒOÞ n(a) song, lay, poem

LIBBAN, LIFIAN, LIFGAN w.velar-uml. wk.3 to live, be alive

LĪČ n(a) body, corpse

(Ge-)LĪČ adj. (w. dat.) like, alike, similar, resembling; GE-LĪCOST sup.

LĪCIAN (w. d. or impers.) to please; LĪCODE 3 sg. pret (impers.)

LID n(a) ship

LIDA m(n) sailor; ship; fleet

(GE-)LĪ(E)FAN, -LYFAN (WS), -LĒFAN (Angl.) wk. 1 to believe in (OE on), trust in LĪ(E)FAN, LYFAN (WS), LĒFAN (Angl.) wk. 1 to allow, grant, concede; LĒFDON pl. pret.

LĪF n(a) life

LIFGENDE partic. pres. living

LIFGENDE m. substantivized partic. pres. the living LĪFWYN(N) f(i) pleasure or joy of life

LIČĞ(E)AN str. 5 to lie down, lie low, lie dead; LĪÞ 3 sg. pres.; LIČĞ(E)AÞ pl. pres.; LIG(E)ST, LIST, LIG(E)Þ, LĪÞ 2, 3 sg. pres.; LÆG 1, 3 sg. pret.; LĀEGON, LĀGON pl. pret.

LIMWĒRIG adj. weary in limb

LĪ(E)SAN, LYSAN (W.S.), LĒSAN (Angl.) wk.1 to loosen, deliver, liberate, redeem

(GE-)LĪÞAN str. 1 to go, sail, travel, depart, pass away; GE–LIDEN p.p.

LŌHSCEAFT m(a) cross-beam

LONDRIHT, -RYHT n. privilege of land, estate

LUFEN f. joy, comfort

LUFLĪČE adv. lovingly, affectionately

LUFU f(ō), LUFE f(n) love, affection, favour

LŪS f(uml.) louse; pl. LYS

LYFT m(a), f(i) air, sky

LYT adv. (w. partit. gen.) but little, but few; not at all

LYTEL, LĪTEL adj. little, small; LĀESSA comp.; LĀESTA sup.

LYSTAN wk.1 (impers., w. acc. of person and gen. of thing or inf. to please, desire, cause pleasure or desire

Mm

MAGAN pret. pres. to be able, be possible, avail; may, can; MÆG 1, 3 sg. pres.; MEAHTE 1, 3 sg. pret.

MAGO, -U m(u) son, (young) man

MAN, MON, MEN(N) indef.pron. one, any one, they

MAN(N), MON(N) m(uml.) man, person (male or female), servant, brave man, hero; name of the rune for "m"

MANCYN(N) n(ja) mankind, men

MĀNDĀED f(i) criminal or wicked deed, sin, crime

MANDRYHTEN m. lord

MANIGF(E)ALD, MÆNIGF(E)ALD adj. manifold, various

MANLĪČE adv. manfully

MANNA m(n) man; MANNA gen. pl. of MAN(N)

MĀRA adj. comp. more, larger, greater

MĀÞÞUM, MĀDM m(a) precious object, treasure, gift

MĀÞÞUMGYFA m(n) treasure-giver, lord

MĀEGBURG f(uml.) kinsmen, family, clan, tribe

MÆGENHEARD adj. very strong

MĀEL n(a) (suitable or fixed) time, occasion, mark, sign, measure

MĀERE adj. (ja) famous, renowned, glorious, sublime, notorious

(GE-)MĀERE n(ja) limit, boundary, frontier

MĀERÞU, -O f(ō) fame, glory, glorious deed

MÆSSEPRĒOST, -PRĪOST m(a) (mass-)-priest, high-priest

MĀEST, MĀST adv. mostly, almost, in the greatest degree, chiefly, very much

MĀEST, MĀST adj. sup.of MIČEL largest, greatest; (w. partit. Gen.) most

MEARH (gen. MĒARES) m(a) horse; MĒARE dat., instr.sg.

MĒČE (Angl., poet.), MĀEČE (W.S.) m(ja) sword MĒCUM instr. pl. of MĒČE

MEDOHEAL(L) f(ō) mead-hall

MENGO, MENIGEO, MENIGU f(īn) a great many, multitude, large number, crowd, company

ME(O)DU, ME(O)DO (w.velar-uml.) m(u) mead (drink made of fermented honey)

Ge-MET n(a) measure, moderation, power, means, manner. IN ÞÆT ILCE

GEMET is a stiff and unidiomatic translation from Latin for regular O.E. ON ÞĀEM ILCAN GEMETE

(GE-)METAN str. 5 to measure, compare, estimate; pass over, traverse

METOD, -UD (Angl. w. velar-uml.) m(a) What is measured out, fate, destiny; God, Lord

MIČEL, MYČEL adj. much, great, intense, big, large

MIČ(E)LE adv. much, greatly, far

MID, MIÞ (Nth.) prep. (w. dat., acc., instr.) with, together with, along with, among, in, by means of, through, by, of

MIDDAN(G)EARD m(a) middle dwelling (yard), world, earth

MIERČE, MYRČE m(i) pl. the Mercians; gen. MYRCNA

MIHT, ME(A)HT f(i) might, strength, power

MIHTIG, MEAHTIG adj. mighty, powerful, the mighty one (=God)

MĪL f(ō) mile; pl. MĪLA, MĪLE

MĪLPÆÞ m(a) ‘mile-path’, course (distance) measured by miles

MILTS f(jō) kindness, favour, mercy

MISLĪČ, MISTLĪČ adj. various, diverse, manifold

MISLĪČE adv. diversely, in various ways

MISSENLĪČ adj. various, diverse, different

MISSENLĪČE adv. variously

MŌD n(a) mood, spirit, heart, temper, courage, thoughts; ĀNES MŌDES gen. sg. (adv.) unanimous

MŌDGEÞANC, Nth. MŌDGIDANC (d=þ) m(a) mind, thoughts, purpose

MŌDIG adj. high-spirited, noble, courageous, brave, bold, proud

MŌDSEFA m(n) thoughts, mind; heart, spirit

MŌNAÞ m(-þ) month

MORGEN m(ja) morning, morrow

MORGENTĪD f(i) morning

MŌRSTAPA m(n) ‘moor-stepper’, ranger of the moors

MŌTAN pret. pres. may, to be allowed. Be able to, have opportunity to, be compelled to, must; MŌT 1, 3 sg. pres.; MŌSTE sg. pret.; MŌTAN pl. pres. opt.

(GE-)MUNAN pret. pres. (w. acc.) to bear in mind, remember, think of; GE-MUNDE 1, 3 sg. pret. (opt.)

MŪS f(uml.) mouse; pl. MYS

MŪÞ m(a) mouth

MŪÞA m(n) mouth (of a river), estuary; entrance to a house, door

MYLENSCEARP adj. sharpened on a grindstone, groundsharp

Ge-MYND f(i)., n(ja) memory, remembrance, memorial

MYNSTER n(a) monastery, nunnery, church, cathedral

MYRČE, MI(E)RČE (W.S.), MERČE (Angl.) m(i) pl. the Mercians (fighting under Aethelstan in Brunanburh)

MYR(I)GE adj.(ja) delightful, pleasant; MURGE adv. pleasantly

Nn

NĀGE < NE ĀGE (see ĀGAN)

NĀHWÆÞER, NŌHWÆÞER, NĀ(W)ÞER, NĀÞOR pron. neither (of two)

NALÆS, NALES, NALLÆS, NALLES adv. not at all, by no means

NAMA, NOMA m(n) name

NĀN (<ne ān) no, no one

NĀEFRE (W.S.), NĒFRE (Angl.) (<ne āefre, ne ēfre) adv. never

NÆGLEDCNEAR(R) m(a) boat with nailed planks

NĀERON, NĒREN(< NE WĀERON, NE WĒREN

NÆS < NE WÆS

NĒAH (W.S.), NĒH (Angl.) adv. near, nearly, almost

NEAH adj. near, close

NĒAH prep. (w. dat. and mostly postposited) close to, near, on, by

(GE-)NĒALĀEČAN (W.S.), -LĒČAN (Angl.) wk.1 (w. dat.) to approach, come or draw near

NEARU n(wa) difficulty, distress, captivity

NEARUSORG f(ō) oppressive care, grievous trouble

NEARWE adv. narrowly, closely, carefully

NEARWELĪČE adv. narrowly, closely, accurately, strictly

NĒDCLEOFA m(n) prison

NĒDE, NYDE adv. needs, of necessity

NEMNAN wk.1 to name, call, mention; NEMDE 1, 3 sg. pret.

NEMÞE, NYMÞE, NEFNE conj. unless, but, except; prep. (w. dat.) save, except

(GE-)NERIAN wk.1 to save, rescue, protect

NĪEDBEÞEARF adj. necessary

NĪ(E)HST, NYHST (W.S.), NĒHST (Angl.) sup. nearest, next, latest, last

NIHT, NEAHT f(uml.) night, darkness; day (in reckoning)

NIHTHELM m(a) cover(ing) of the night

(GE-)NIMAN str. 4 to take, seize, carry off, receive, get, capture; take to wife (= marry); NĀMON pl. pret.

(GE-)NĪPAN str. 1 to grow dark, gloom; (GE-)NĀP 1, 3 sg. pret.

NĪWE, NĪEWE (W.S.), NĒOWE (Angl.) adj. (ja) new, fresh, recent, inexperienced

NŌ, NĀ adv. emphatic neg. not, not at all, no, never

NOLDE < NE WOLDE

NORÞ adv. north(wards)

NORÞERNE adj. (ja) northern, from the north, Norse

NORÞHYMBRE m(i) pl. orig. dwellers north of the river Humber, but was also used of the territory, including the Anglian parts of Scotland; after 1018 the name was restricted to the part of England north of the Humber

NOSU, NASU f(ō) nose

NOTU f(ō) use, employment; enjoyment; TŌ NĀNRE ŌÞERRE NOTE

NE MÆGEN cannot be set to any other employment

NŌ(WI)HT, NĀ(WI)HT, NĀUHT adv. not, not at all, nothing

NŪ adv. now, at this time; introducing commands, requests and arguments

NŪ ÞĀ adv. now then

NYD, NĪED (W.S.), NĪOD, NĒOD, NĒD (Angl.) f(i) need, necessity, duty; trouble, compulsion, distress

NYDGEFĒRA m(nj) companion in need

NYDÞEARF f(ō) necessary, need

NYHSTAN w. ÆT: ÆT NĒXTAN, ÆT NYHSTAN adv. in the end, then, afterwards

NYTWYRÞE adj. (ja) useful, profitable, serviceable

Oo

OFER prep. over, above (w. dat. implying rest); over, across, towards, against, beyond, throughout (w. acc. implying motion or extension); after (of time)

OFERCUMAN str. 4 to overcome, subdue, conquer

OFERHYRNED adj. (orig. p.p.) with great horns; OFER- is intensive

OFERWINNAN str. 3 to conquer

OFSLĒAN str. 6 to strike off or down, slay, kill; OFSLŌH 1, 3 sg. pret.; OFSLŌGAN pl. pret.; OFSLÆGEN p.p.; OFSLĒA sg. pres. opt.; OFSLIHÞ 3sg. pres.

OFT often, constantly, as a rule, regularly, frequently; OFTOR comp. more often; OFTOST, OFTAST, OFTUST sup. very often, continually

ON prep. (w. dat., instr. implying rest or acc. implying motion) on, in, into, at, among, from, by, of, against, towards

ON on, thereon, therein

ONBÆRNAN wk.1 to kindle, inflame, incite, inspire

ONBĒODAN str. 2 announce; ONBĒAD 3 sg. pret.

OND see AND

ONDLONG, ANDLANG adj. continuous, whole (day or night); extending away in the opposite direction, standing upright; ONDLONGNE DÆG all day long

ONDSWARODE 1, 3 sg. pret. of ANDSWARIAN

ONEARDIAN wk.2 to inhabit; dwell, live

ONFŌN str. 7 (w. acc. or dat.) to receive, take; ONFĒNG 1, 3 sg. pret.;

RĪČE ONFŌN (cf.: FŌN TŌ RĪČE) to ascend the throne

ONGĒAN prep. (w. dat. or acc.) towards, against

ONGĒAN adv. opposite, opposing, against

ONGELĪ(E)HTAN wk. 1 to (en)lighten, give light to; illuminate; ONGELĪHTE sg. pres. opt.

ONGEMANG prep. (w. dat.) among, during

ONGEMANG adv. meanwhile

ONGINNAN (BE-, Ā-) str. 3 to begin, start, try, undertake, endeavour; ONGON, ONGAN 1, 3 sg. pret.

ONGI(E)RWAN, ONGYRWAN (W.S.), ONGERWAN (Angl.) wk.1 to unclothe, take one's clothes off;

ONGEREDÆ is probably an old Northumbrian form of the pret. pl.

ONGI(E)TAN, -GYTAN (W.S.), -GETAN (Angl.) str. 5 to perceive, see, hear, understand

ONHAGIAN wk.2 to suit, be suitable, please; MĒ ...ONHAGIGE "I may be fit for"

ONLŪTAN str. 2 to bow, bend down, incline

ONMĒDLA m(n) pomp, glory, pride, arrogance, presumption

ONSENDAN wk.1 to send, send away or forth

ONSTAL acc. sg. of ONST(E)AL(L)

ONST(E)AL(L) m(ja) supply, stock

ONTIMBER, ANTIMBER n(a) building material, timber-work; matter, cause, reason, motive

ONW(E)ALD m(a) rule, dominion, authority, power, possession

ONWENDAN wk.1 to change, alter, overthrow, change for the better or the worse;

ONWENDE 1, 3 sg. pret. [<onwend(ed)e]

ORD m(a) point (of any kind), front, beginning, vanguard

ORDFRUMA m(n) source, creator, author, chief

ORF n(a) cattle

ŌS m(uml.) a heathen god, name of the rune for ‘a’ in the orig. runic alphabet; later for “o”

OÞ prep. (w. acc.) till, until, up to;

OÞ (ÞÆT) conj. till, until

ŌÞER (used also as noun) other, one of two, another, second, following

OÞFÆSTAN wk.1 to bind, apprentice; hand over, entrust, convey (property); set (to task); OÞFÆST (<oðfæsted) p.p.; OÞFÆSTE [<oðfæst(ed)e] 1, 3 sg. pret. and p.p.pl.

OÞFEALLAN str. 7 to fall off, decline, decay; OÞFEALLENU p.p

OÞÞE, OÞÞON, OÞÞA conj. or, or else, and;

OÞÞE…OÞÞE correl. either…or

OXA m(n) ox

Pp

PEORÞ an unknown word; name of the rune for “p”

PORT m(a) harbour, trading-place, town

Rr

RĀD f(ō) ride, riding, journey; name of the rune for “r”

RAÞE adv. quickly, soon, at once

(GE-)RĀEČAN wk.1 to gain by reaching, reach, hit, get, obtain

RÆCED, RECED mn(a) building, house, hall, room

RĀEDAN (W.S.), RĒDAN (Angl.) str. 7 to advise, consult, discuss, deliberate, decide, decree, interpret, explain; read, learn by reading; rule, guide, govern (w. dat., instr.)

RĀERAN wk.1 to raise, establish, create

REČČELĒAS (<RĒČELĒAS) adj.careless, negligent

REGOLLĪČ adj. according to rules, canonical, regular; REGOLLECUM dat. pl.

REST, RÆST f(jō) rest, repose, resting-place, bed

(GE-)RESTAN wk.1 to rest, repose

RĒÞE, RĀEÞE adj. (ja) fierce, furious, cruel, severe

RĪČE n(ja) kingship, kingdom, rule, power, realm, empire; GUMENA

RĪČE or EORÞAN RĪČE ‘worldly (or temporal) kingdom’ (contrasted with the eternal kingdom of heaven)

RĪČE adj. (ja) rich, strong, great, powerful; RĪCNE acc.sg.; RIICNÆ is probably the Old Northumbrian form

RĪCSIAN wk.2 to rule, reign, govern

RĪDAN str. 1 to ride, move, swing

RIHT n(a) right, justice, due, duty, law, truth

RIHT adj. right, just, proper, true, correct

RIHTE adv. rightly, well, duly, properly

Ge-RIHTE n(ja) law, right; privilege, office, due; straight direction

RINC m(a) man, warrior, hero

RINNAN = I(E)RNAN, YRNAN (w. metathesis of "r" in the orig. RINNAN) str. 3 to run, flow, move rapidly, get to, occur (to one's mind); RAN 1, 3 sg. pret.

RŌD f(ō) rood, cross, gallows, crucifix

RODOR m(a) sky, heaven, firmament; usually in pl.

RODRA (RODERA) WEARD "the guardian of heaven (God)"

RŪN f(ō) mystery, secret, (secret) consultation, council, counsel

RYCEN, RECON, RICON(EN) adj. quick, prompt, rash, ready

RYCENE, RECONE adv. quickly, promptly, at once

RYHTSPELL see RYHT, RIHT and SPELL

(GE-)RYMAN wk.1 to make space, widen, extend, enlarge; clear (a way), vacate, yield, allow, grant

Ss

SALWIGPĀD, SALU-, SALOWIGPĀD adj. dark-coated

SĀR adj. sore, painful, grievous, sad

SĀE mf(i) sea

SÆČ(Č) f(jō) fight(ing), battle, conflict, quarrel

SÆD adj. (w. gen.) satiated with, filled, full; wearied with

(GE-)SĀELAN wk.1 to tie, fasten, bind, fetter

(Ge-)SĀELIG adj. happy, fortunate, blessed

GE-SĀELIGLĪČ adj. happy, prosperous

SĀERIMA m coast

SCACAN str. 6 to pass, depart, hasten, hurry away

SCAMU, SCEAME f(jō) shame, disgrace, dishonour, insult

(GE-)SCEAFT f(i)., n(a) creation, creature, thing, world; destiny, fate; nature, condition; decree

Ge-SCEAP (W.S.), GE–SCÆP (Angl.) n(a) shape, form, creation, creature; condition, destiny, fate

SCEARP adj. sharp, acute, smart

SCĒOTAN str. 2 to shoot (missile), push, throw; SCOTEN p.p.

SCI(E)LD, SCYLD (W.S.), SCELD (Angl.) m(a) shield, protection, defence

(GE-)SCI(E)PPAN, -SCYPPAN (W.S.), -SCEPPAN (Angl.) str. 6 to create, form, make, arrange

SCI(E)PPEND, SCYPPEND m. substantivized partic. pres. Creator

SCILLING m(a) the shilling was not a coin but a “unit of account”, one sixtieth of a pound, previous to the Norman Conquest

SCIP n(a) ship

SCIPFLOTA m(n) man from over the sea, seaman

SCĪR f(ō) business, office, authority, administration; district, shire

SCULAN pret.pres. shall, will, must, ought to, be to, have to, be destined, be in the habit of; to owe; SCEAL 1, 3 sg. pres.

SCYLDIG adj. (w. gen.) guilty, having forfeited

S(E)ALT n(a) salt

SEAROÞONC m(a) cunning thought, skilful device

SEAXE m(i) the Saxons; gen. SEAXNA, also SEAXAN m(n) pl.

(GE-)SĒČAN, -SĒČ(E)AN wk.1 to seek, try to find or get, look for, go to, visit, attain, return to; attack

SEČĞ m(ja) man, warrior; SEČĞ (Elene 1256) = the poet himself

SEČĞ f(jō) sword, reed

SEČĞAN wk.3 to say, tell; declare, narrate; SEG(E)ST, SEG(E)Þ 2, 3 sg. pres.

SEFA m(n) mind, spirit, heart

SĒFTE, SŌFTE adj. (ja) soft, gentle, quiet, agreeable, comfortable; SŌFTOR comp.

SĒFTE, SŌFTE adv. softly, at ease, gently, pleasantly

SELE m(i) hall, house, dwelling

SELEDRĒAM m(a) joy of the hall, festivity

SELESEČĞ m(ja) retainer

SELF, SEOLF, SYLF pron. (him-, her-)self, same; (his, her, its, their) own (w. gen.)

SEMNINGA, SAMNUNGA adv. straightway, presently, suddenly

SENDAN wk.1 to send (out)

SĒOC adj. sick, ill, weak, sad

(GE-)SĒON str. 5 to see, behold, perceive; inspect, visit; (GE-)SĀWE sg. pret. opt.

Ge-SET n(a) place, seat, dwelling

SETL (W.S.), SEÞEL, SELD (Angl.) n(a) seat, bench, place, throne; setting (of the sun)

(GE-)SETTAN wk.1 to set (down), record, place, establish, decide, decree, put; create, form, make; compose, occupy, apportion; set up, erect

SIB(B) f(jō) kinship, relationship, friendship, peace

SĪDE f(n) side

SĪGAN str. 1 to sink, fall, drop, descend; SAH 1, 3 sg.

pret. SIGE m(i) victory, success, triumph

SIGEL mn(a) treasure, precious object, ornament, jewel

(GE-)SI(E)LLAN, -SYLLAN (W.S.), -SELLAN (Angl.) wk.1 to give (up), sell, grant, bestow, proffer, pass; promise; (GE-)SEALDAN, -ON pl. pret.; (GE-)SEALDE 1, 3 sg. pret.; (GE-)SEALDE p.p.pl.; (GE-)SELLE sg. pres. opt.

(GE-)SIGLAN, -SEGLIAN wk.1 to sail

SINCÞEGU f(ō) receiving of treasure

SINGAN str. 3 to sing, celebrate in song, recite, narrate; sing (of birds), cry

SIODO (w. velar-uml.) = SIDU, SIODU m(u) custom, way of life, morality

(GE-)SITTAN str. 5 to sit, sit down, be placed, stay, remain, dwell, settle; occupy, possess

SIÞÞAN, SYÞÞAN conj. since, when, from the time when, after, as soon as (shading into ‘because’)

SIÞÞAN, SYÞÞAN adv. since, afterwards, thereupon, beyond that (number)

SI(E)XHYNDE adj. (ja) belonging to the class whose WERGI(E)LD was 600 shillings

SLĀEP (W.S.), SLĒP (Angl.) m(a) sleep

(GE-)SLĒAN str. 6 to achieve or bring about by fighting, gain by striking blows; strike down

SLĪDAN str. 1 to slide, glide, fall down, fail

SLIÞE(N) adj. cruel, dire, severe

SMICER adj. fair, fine, beautiful, handsome

SNYTTRU f(-īn) wisdom, prudence, skill

SŌNA adv. soon, directly, immediately, at once; SONA…SWA (in prose),

SŌNA…SIÞÞAN (in poetry) as soon as

SORH, SORG f(ō) sorrow, grief, trouble

SŌÞ n(a) truth, fact, justice, reality; TŌ SŌÞE, TŌ SŌÞAN ‘’for certain, in truth, truly, as a fact

SŌÞ adj. true, genuine, real

SPĒD f(i) luck, opportunity, success, riches, wealth; speed, quickness

SPEL(L) n(ja) tale, story, message

SPILLAN wk.1 destroy

SPĪWAN str. 1 to spew, vomit, spit (out)

SPOR n(a) track, trail, footprint

SPŌWAN str. 7 (impers. w. dat.) to succeed, profit, avail; HIM SPĒOW they were successful

SPRĀEČ (W.S.), SP(R)ĒČ (Angl.) f(jō) speech, language, report, discussion

SPRĀEČE f(n) talk, discourse

SPRECAN str. 5 to speak, say, declare, tell of; SPĀECAN (late O. E.) pl. pret.

STĀN m(a) stone, rock, cliff

(GE-)STANDAN str. 6 to stand, stand still, lie, remain; start, arise, shine, gleam; STENT 3 sg. pres.

STEFN, STEMN, STÆFN m(a) stem (of tree), root, prow (of a ship)

STĒORBORD n(a) starboard

(GE-)STĪGAN str. 1 to go, go up, step, ascend, mount, rise

STILNES(S) f(jō) quiet, silence, calm, rest, peace; release, relaxation (from Danish attacks)

STOCLĪF n(a) habitation, cottage

STŌW f(wō) place, spot, locality

STRĀEL (W.S.), STRĒL (Angl.) m(a) arrow, missile

STRĒAM m(a) stream, flood, current, river, sea

(GE-)STRYNAN, -STRĪ(E)NAN (W.S.), -STRĒONAN (Angl.) wk.1 to acquire, gain, produce, achieve, increase

STUÞANSCEAFT m(a) “studshaft”, stay, prop

SUM pron. some one, a certain one, one, a(n); in many cases SUM + a noun in the gen. pl. stands for the indefinite article A(N)

SUM adj. some, certain

SUNNE f(n) sun

SUNU m(u) son

SŪÞ adv. southwards, to the south, in the south

SŪÞ adj. south

SŪÞAN adv. from or in the south; BE SŪÞAN to (in) the south of

SŪÞEWEARD adj. southern (part of)

SWĀ, SWĀE conj.as, just as, even as, according as, since; in such a way that, so that (in negative clauses); as if (w. opt.); SWĀ SWĀ, SWĀE SWĀE (intensive) just as, like; as far as, which; SWĀ…SWĀ (SWĀ) (correl.) so…as, whether…or, either…or; SWĀ HWĀ SWĀ, SWĀ HWILČ SWĀ whosoever, whatsoever; SWĀ ÞĒAH nevertheless

SWĀ, SWĀE adv. so, thus, in this way

SWĀT m(a) sweat, labour, blood

SWÆÞ n(a) track, trace, footprint

SWEART, SWART adj. swarthy, black, dark

SWEFN n(a) dream, sleep

SWELLAN str. 3 to swell

(GE-)SWENČ(E)AN wk/1 to press hard, oppress, afflict, strike down

SW(E)ORD, SWURD, SWYRD n(a) sword

SWEOSTOR, SWUSTOR f(r) sister

SWERIAN, SWERIG(E)AN str. 6 to swear; SWŌR 1, 3 sg. pret.

SWIFT adj. swift, quick

SWĪGE adj. (ja) silent, still, taciturn

SWILČE conj. (such) as; as if

SWIMMAN str. 3 to swim; GISWOM p.sg.

SWĪN n(a) swine, pig; boar-image (on helmet)

(Ge-)SWINC n(a) toil, effort, hardship, oppression

(GE-)SWINCAN str. 3 to labour, toil, struggle

SWĪÞE adv. (w. adj. or verb) very, much, very much, greatly, severely

SWĪÞHWÆT adj. very bold, very active

(GE-)SWIÞRIAN, -SWEÞRIAN wk.1 to diminish, decrease, cease, abate

SWYLČ, SWILČ, SWELČ pron. (dem.) such, such a one, such a thing; such as, which (relat.); such…as (correl.)

SWYLČE, SWILČE, SWELČE adv. likewise, (and) also

SYMLE, SIMLE adv. always, ever, continuously

SYMBEL n(a) feast, feasting, banquet

SYN(N) f(jō) sin, crime; sinful deed, injury, wrongdoing, hostility

Tt

GE-TĒON wk.2 to assign, allot

(GE-)TĒON str. 2 to draw, pill, lead, undertake (a journey or course), go (on a journey), return; TĒAH 1, 3 sg. pret.

TID f(i) time, period, hour

TIL adj. good, honest, excellent

TIL (Nth.) prep. (w. dat.) to, till, for

TILIAN wk.2 (w. gen., dat.) to aim at, strive after, endeavour, earn, gain, provide; attend to

(GE-)TIMBRAN wk.1 -TIMBRIAN wk.2 to build, construct, erect

TĪR m(a) glory, honour, success; name of the rune for “t”; name of a planet and a god (=Mars); the orig. name of the runic letter was TĪ(W) “Mars”, so that TĪR is a misreading for TĪW

TŌ prep. (w. dat.) to, towards; for, from (w. certain verbs); in respect to, at (of time and place); often used w. inf.; also used as intensive adv.: TŌ ÞÆS, TŌ ÞÆM, TŌ ÞON to such a degree, so

TŌ adv. too (before adj. or adv.), on, besides; thereto, towards, in the direction of

TŌ ĀHTE adv. in any degree, at all, in any case, by any means

TŌCYME m(i) coming, arrival

TŌGÆD(E)RE adv. together (w. verbs of motion)

TŌGĒ(A)NES adv. opposite, towards, against

TŌGĒ(A)NES prep. (w. dat. or acc.) against, towards

TŌGLĪDAN str. 1 to glide asunder or away, split, vanish

TŌHIHT, -HYHT m(i) hope, refuge, consolation

TŌL n(a) tool, instrument, implement

TŌNIMAN str. 4 divide; TŌNUMEN p.p.

TORN n(a) anger, vexation; grief, trouble

TŌSCĀDAN str. 7 to separate

TŌWEARD adj. future, approaching

TRĒO(W) n(wa) tree, wood, tinber; (tree of the) cross, rood

TRĒOW, TRYW f(wō) truth, good faith, fidelity, agreement, kindness

(Ge-)TRĒOWÞ f(jō) truth, (good) faith, trust, loyalty

TŪ n., TWĀ f., TWĒGEN m. num. (w. gen.) twain, two

TUNGOL mn(a) planet, sun, star

TWELFHYNDE adj. (ja) belonging to the class whose WERGI(E)LD was 1200 shillings

TWĒO m(n) doubt, uncertainty

Þþ

ÞĀ conj. when, since, as

ÞĀ adv. then, at that time, thereupon, on that occasion; ÞĀ…ÞĀ (correlat.) when…then

ÞĀ HWĪLE ÞE conj. while, as long as

ÞANC, ÞONC m(a) thanks, grace, mercy

ÞĀER adv. there, in that place, to that place; where, when; ÞĀER ÞĀER where, wherever; ÞĀER…ÞĀER where…there

ÞÆT n. dem.pron., def.art. the, that (one); it, this; which, that which, what

ÞÆTTE pron. which, that which, what; conj. that, so that, in order that; ÞÆTTE (introducing sentences where the main clause is not expressed) the case is such, that; it came to pass, that

ÞE, ÞĒ uninflected rel. pron. or particle (for any gender, number, and case) who, which, that, etc.; ÞE…HIM to whom

ÞĒAH (ÞE) conj. though, although, even if, if

ÞĒAH adv. yet, nevertheless, however; (emphatic) SWĀ ÞĒAH yet, however

(GE-)ÞEAHT f(jō) consideration, advice, thought, counsel; council, assembly

ÞEARF f(ō) need, requirement, want, distress, trouble

ÞEARLE adv. exceedingly, vigorously, severely, hard

ÞĒAW m(wa) custom, habit, manner, disposition, usage; pl. good qualities, virtues

ÞEG(E)N m(a) thane (Scottish form), follower, retainer, warrior, noble; servant, disciple

ÞEGNUNG, ÞĒNUNG f(ō) service, church-service, mass, mass-book

(GE-)ÞENČ(E)AN wk.1 to think (of), mean, intend, recollect, remember, bear in mind, conceive (of), contrive; purpose, determine

THEOD f(ō) troop of warriors, tribe, people, nation; region, country

(GE-)ÞĒODAN wk.1 to join, associate, come to; (GE-)ÞĒODDE p.p.

ÞĒODEN, ÞĪODEN m(a) chief, ruler, prince, king, the Lord

ÞĒODSCIPE, -SCYPE m(i) nation, people, population; discipline, training, teaching, learning

ÞĒOW m(wa) servant, slave; GODES ÞĒOW priest, monk

ÞĒOWOTDŌM m(a) service ÞĒOWWEALH m(a) servant, slave, serf

(GE-)ÞIČĞAN str. 5 to receive, accept (*ÆT* = FROM), partake of (food or drink), consume; ÞĒGE 1, 3 sg. pret. opt.

ÞIDER adv. thither, to that specified place

ÞIDERWEARD adv. thither

ÞING n(a) thing, matter, affair, trouble, object, property; cause, motive, reason

Ge-ÞĪODE, Ge-ÞĒODE (Angl.), GE–ÞĪEDE (W.S.) n(ja) speech, language

ÞON, ÞAN pron. instr. sg. of ÞÆT; FOR ÞON (ÞAN) (ÞE) for the reason (that), because, as; TŌ ÞON (ÞAN) to that extent or degree, so very much; in (with) regard to, so that; WIÞ ÞON (ÞAN) ÞE on condition that

ÞONNE, ÞANNE, ÞÆNNE conj. when, whenever, at such times as; ÞONNE…ÞONNE when…then (correl.); than (after comp.) ÞONNE, ÞANNE, ÞÆNNE adv. then, further, therefore, thus, however

ÞORN m(a) thorn, thorn-bush; name of the rune for "þ"

ÞRĀG f(ō) time, space of time, period, season

ÞRANG n throng

ÞRĀEGAN wk.1 to run, proceed in a course

ÞRĒA f(wō) threat, calamity, oppression

ÞRIDDA num. Third

ÞRYM(M) m(ja) power, might, glory, strength, courage; crowd, army

Ge-ÞUNGENA m(n) competent, excellent, virtuous man

ÞURFAN pret.pres. (in negative clauses) need, must, have good cause or reason; ÞORFTE 1, 3 sg. pret.; ÞORFTON pl. pret.

ÞURH prep. (w. acc.) through; over, throughout; by means of, because of, with, by, owing to

ÞURH adv. through, throughout, over

(GE-)ÞYNČAN, -ÞINČAN wk.1 (impersonal w. dat.) to seem, appear; ÞŪHTE 3 sg. pret. (impers.)

Uu

UNCŪÞ adj. unknown, uncertain, strange, terrible; UNCŪÞ HŪ LONGE “(it being) uncertain how long”

UFAN(E) adv. over, above, upwards; from above; ON UFAN (w. dat.) on high

UFEWEARD adj. above, upper

UNC pron. dat. or acc. (dual) us two, the two of us

UNDER prep. (w. dat. or acc.) under, below, underneath, beneath

UNDER adv. under, below, underneath, beneath

UNDERSTANDAN, -STONDAN str. 6 to understand, perceive; to stand under, beneath

UNDERÞĒODAN wk.1 to subdue, subjugate, (make) subject

UNGEMETE, UNGEMETUM adv. without measure, exceedingly, extremely

UNLAGU f(ō) bad or wicked law, injustice

UNLYTEL adj. not little, much, many, great

(GE-)UNNAN pret.pres. (w. dat. of person and gen. of thing) to grant, wish (someone to have a thing), allow, bestow, give; ŪÞE 1, 3 sg. pret.

UNRIHT n(a) wrong(ful)ness, injustice, oppression

UNRĪM n(a) countless number, multitude

UNWÆR adj. unaware, unexpected; incautious, careless, foolish; ON UNWÆR unawares, unexpectedly

UNWEALT adj. steady; UNWEALTRAN comp.

UNWEMME adj. inviolate

UP, UPP adv. on high, up, up country (inland), up stream, upwards, above

ŪR m(a) the aurochs or buffalo; name of the rune for “u”

ŪT adv. out, outside, outward; abroad

ŪTANBORDES adv. outside the country, abroad

ŪTĀSPYRIAN wk.1 to track or trace out, investigate, discover, explore

ŪTE adv. out, outside, abroad

ŪTERMERE m open sea

ŪTEWEARD adj. outer

ŪÞWITA m(n) scholar, sage, philosopher

Ww

WĀCIAN wk.2 to grow weak or faint, decline

(GE-)WADAN str. 6 to go, advance; WŌD 1, 3 sg. pret.; GINDWŌD= GEOND WŌD see GEOND prep.

-WARE, -WERE, -AN pl. used as a suffix ‘inhabitants’; BURGWARE ‘inhabitants of a fortified place’

WARIAN wk.2 to guard, protect, defend, occupy, inhabit; WARAÞ 3 sg. pres.

(GE-)WARNIAN wk.2 to warn

WAÞUM m(a) wave, flood, sea

WÆL n(a) slaughter, the slain, dead bodies (pl.), battle-field

WÆLSTŌW f(ō) ‘slaughter-place’, battle-field; WÆLSTŌWE WEALDAN to win the battle; ĀGAN WÆLSTŌWE GEWEALD lit. ‘to gain possession of the battle-field’

WĀEG, WĀG, WĀH m(a) wall

WĀEP(E)N n(a) weapon, sword; pl. arms

WÆGN, WĀEN m(a) waggon, carriage, cart, vehicle; WĀEN nom., acc. sg.

WÆROD, WEROD, WEOROD n(a) troop, host, company, people, army;

LYTLE WEREDE with a small troop

WÆTER n(a) water, sea

WĀEÞAN wk.1 to wander, roam about, hunt

W(E)ALL m(a) wall, rampart; hill, mount

WEALD m(a) forest, wood

W(E)ALDEND m. substantivized partic. pres.: ruler, king, the Lord (God)

WEALHSTŌD m(a) interpreter, translator

WEARD f(ō) watch, guardianship, protection

WEARD m(a) guardian, keeper, protector, lord

(GE-)W(E)AXAN str. 2 to grow, flourish, increase

WĒDAN wk.1 to rage; WĒDENDE partic. pres.

(GE-)WEFAN str. 5 to weave, devise

WEG m(a) way, path, road; ON WEG (AWEG), ON WÆG acc. sg. (adv.) “away”; EALNE WEG, EALNEG acc. sg. (adv.) all the way, all the time, always

WELA m(n) (often in pl.) wealth, riches, happiness

WELIG adj. wealthy, rich, prosperous

WELHWĀER adv. (nearly) everywhere

WELL adv. well, very (much), quite, rightly, fully, plenty

WELM (Angl.), WYLM (W.S.) m(i) welling, boiling, surging (water), stream, flood; fervour, ardour, zeal

WĒMAN wk.1 to allure with pleasure, comfort

WEN, WYN(N) f(jō), f(i) joy, happiness, delight, pleasure; name of the rune for 'w'

WĒNAN wk.1 (w. gen.) to think, believe, hope, suppose, expect fear

(GE-)WENDAN wk.1 to change, alter, turn, direct, return, depart, go, translate

WENNAN wk.1, WENIAN wk.2 to accustom, attach to oneself, honour, treat well; WENNAN TŌ WISTE to feast, treat with abundance, entertain

(Ge-)WEORC n(a) work, action, deed, exercise; (defence) work, construction, structure; affliction, distress

WEORPAN str. 2 to throw, cast, dash, change, transform; WEORPAN TŌ HANDA "to hand over"

(GE-)WEORÞAN str. 3 to be, become, get, happen, grow, come to pass, arise, be made; GE–WYRÞEÞ 3 sg. pres.; WURDAN pl. pret. WEARÞ 1, 3 sg. pret.; WARÞ sg. pret. (Nth.)

WER m(a) price set upon a man's life according to his rank, paid to his kin in compensation for homicide; short form for WERGI(E)LD

(GE-)WERIAN wk.1 to defend, protect, ally, unite

WĒRIG adj. (w. instr.) weary, exhausted, sad, sorrowful; miserable, unfortunate

WER(I)GEND m. substantivized partic. pres.: defender

WEST adv. west, westward

WĒSTE adj. (ja) waste, deserted; uninhabited

WIČĞ n(ja) horse

WĪDE adv. widely, far and wide, far

WĪF n(a) woman, wife

WĪG nm(a) war, battle, onset, fighting power

WĪGSMIÞ m(a) “battle-smith”, warrior

WILLAN will, to wish, desire, intend, be about to; shall, will (in future sense); WILE 3 sg. pres.; WOLDE, WALDE 1, 3 sg. pret.

WILNUNG f(ō) desire, longing (good or bad); FOR ÞÆRE WILNUNGA “intentionally, purposely”

WIND m(a) wind

WINDAN str. 3 to wind, weave, circle, roll, twist, turn, fly, sail; WUNDEN p.p.

WINNAN str. 3 to contend, fight, strive, toil

WĪNSÆL n(a) wine-hall, hall

WINTER m(u)., m(a) winter; pl. years

WINTERČEARIG adj. sorrowful in winter

WĪR m(a) wire, wire-ornament

WĪSDŌM m(a) wisdom

WĪSE f(n) manner, way, fashion; arrangement, affair, way of doing things; melody

WIST f(i) feasting, abundance, prosperity; food, nourishment

WITA m(n) wise or learned man, scholar, counsellor; WIOTAN nom., acc. pl.

Ge-WITA m(n) witness, accomplice

(GE-)WĪTAN str. 1 to go, go out, go away, depart, pass (away), die; often followed by a verb of motion

(GE-)WITAN, -WIOTAN pret. pres. to know, be conscious of; observe, understand, learn; WĀT 1, 3 sg. pres.; WISSE sg. pret. (opt.)

WĪTE n(ja) punishment, fine, torment, misery, distress

WIÞ prep. (w. dat. or acc.) against, opposite, near, to, towards, in relation to, from, at, with, along with, together with

W(I)UCU, WICU (w. velar-uml.) f(ō)., f(n) week

WLANC, WLONC adj. proud, a proud one, martial, high-spirited, bold, stately, rich

WLENČAN wk.1 to enrich, adorn

WLITIG adj. beautiful, fair, radiant; WLITEGOST sup.

WOLCEN n(a) cloud, pl. clouds, sky, heaven(s); UNDER WOLCNUM beneath the firmament, on earth

WORD n(a) word, command, pl. speech, language, promise

WŌRIAN wk.2 to roam, wander, move round, crumble, decay

WOR(U)LD, W(E)OROLD f(i) world, the present life

WORULDCUND adj. worldly, secular

WORULDÞING n(a) worldly affair, secular matter

WRAÞU f(ō) help, support

WRĀECLĀST m(a) path or track of exile, exile

WRENČ m(i) artifice, trick, modulation of the voice, melody, song

(Ge-)WRIT n(a) something written, writing, document, scripture, letter, book, will, testament, chapter, decree, register

WUDU m(u) wood, forest, tree(s); spear, ship

WUHT, WIHT fn(i) person, creature, being, thing; (in negative clauses) anything; at all (acc.sg. WIHT is used adverbially in negative clauses) NE…WIHT nothing, not at all

WULDORFÆDER m(r) father of glory (god)

WULF m(a) wolf

WUNDIAN wk.2 to wound

WUNDOR n(a) wonder, marvel, miracle

WUNDRIAN wk.2 to wonder (at), admire

(GE-)WYRČ(E)AN, WIRCAN wk.1 to work, do, make, cause, create, achieve, perform, construct; gain, earn, win (w. gen. of thing); (GE-)WORHTE 1, 3 sg. pret.

(Ge-)WYRD f(i) fate, destiny; event, fact, experience

WYRNAN wk.1 (w. gen. of thing and dat. of person) to refuse, deny, reject

WYRS adv. (comp.) worse

WYRSA, WI(E)RSA (W.S.), WERSA (Angl.) adj. comp. of YFEL worse

WYRÞE, WIERÞE (W.S.), WEORÞE (Angl.) (ja) w. gen. worthy (of) fit (for), deserving; valued, worth, held in esteem

Xx

XPES (=CRĪSTES)BĒČ f(uml.) pl. Christ's books = the Gospels

Yy

YFELIAN wk.2 to become evil, grow worse

YMB, YMBE prep. (w. acc.) about, around, at, upon, near, after, before, concerning, owing to, in, on

YR m(i) ornaments (?), bow (?), money (?); name of the rune for ‘y’

YRFE see I(E)RFE

Middle English Period

Aa

AC(C) conj. but (on the contrary)

ADUNRIHT adv. straight down, strongly

AGEIN, AGEYN, AGEN adv. back, back again

ÆLDER n. leader

ÆREST, ERST, EREST adv. previously

ÆTHELE adj. noble

AFTER, EFTER adv. far, in the future; prep. on account of, for, after

AHTEN see OWEN

AL pron.(adj.) all; the whole of; pl. ALLE, ÆLLE; gen. pl. ALDER, ALRE

ALCNE see ECH

ALKYN adj. of every kind [OA alra cynna]

ALMYGTY, ALMIHT adj. ALMIGHTY

AMIDDE(N) prep. amid; adv. in the middle of

AMOREG adv. (on) the next day

AN, A indef.art., a, an; acc. ENNE; dat.fem. ARE AND, ANDE, ANT, AN, ENT conj. and, if

A-QUELLE(N) wk.v. kill, destroy; p.p. A-QUOLD; pret. A-QUELDE

ARCHE n. arch

ARE see AN, ON(E), ORE

ARM n arm < O.E. earm

AT, ATT, ATE prep. at, from

AWEN see OWEN

Bb

BALE n. pain, misery, torment, punishment

BAUDRIK n. baldric, diagonal belt, a belt over one shoulder to hold one's hunting-horn

BE(N), BEE(N), BEO(N), BIE(N) v. Be; pres. 1.sg. AM, ÆM, EM, BE; 2 sg. ART, ÆRT, ARTOW; 3 sg. IS, ES, BITH, BEO; pl. AR(E), AREN, ARN, ERE, BE, BEE, BETH, BEOTH, SINDEN; pret.sg. WAS, WES 2 sg. WORE; pl. WER(E)N, WER(E), WAR(E), WEORE, WEOREN, WOREN, WÆRON, WÆREN, WAREN

BER, BERE(N) v. carry, wear, take

BERN n. warrior, hero. < O.E. beorn

BET adv. comp. BETTER; RATHER

BIDDE(N), BEDDE str.v. command, order, offer, ask, pray; pres.3 sg. BYT, BIDDETH; pret. BAD, BADDE, BIT, BED; p.p. I–BEDE

BI, BY, BE prep. by, by way of, over, on, through

BIHEOLD see BIHOLDE(N)

BIHOLDE(N), BIHALDE(N) str.v. behold, contemplate; pret. BIHEOLD

BISNE n. model

BITACNEN v. signify, symbolize; BITAKENS pr.3 sg. [OE. Be- + tācnian]

BEWINNEN str.v. get, acquire, pret. BIWON

BLIS(S), BLISSE, BLYSSE n. joy, happiness

BLISSIN v. rejoice, be glad; pr. 3 sg. refl. BLISSEÞ

BLOD(E) n. blood BLOSME n.coll. blossom; BLOSTME pl.

BLOSME blossoms, flowers

BOC, BOKE, BOCK, pl. BOKES n. book

BOC-FELLE n. parchment

BORD n. table; THE ~ BIGONNE sat in the place of honour (at the head of the table)

BOT conj. but

BOT(E) n. remedy, cure, forgiveness, salvation, redemption BOÞ(E), BOÞE, BOTH adv., conj.: BOTH...AND

BRACER n. leather guard for the forearm to protect it from the bowstring

BRASTLIEN v. clash

BREKE(N) v. < O.E. brecan

BRYNGE(N) wk.v. bring; pret. BROHTE, BROUHTE; p.p. Y–BROHT

BROUHTE, BROUTE see BRYNGE(N)

Cc

CAN, CON, KAN(E) pret.-pres.v. can, know how, be able, know; pret. KUTHE, COUTHE, COUTH; p.p. CUTH

CHIRCHE, CHIRECHE, CHURCHE n. church

CHIVACHEE/CHIVACHIE n. cavalry expedition

CHIVALRYE n. knighthood, chivalry; knightly pursuits, deeds

CLEPEN, CLEOPIE(N) v. call, cry, invoke; name

CLERK, CLERC n. man in holy orders, cleric, scholar, educated person, student

COME(N), COMME, CUMEN, CUM str.v. come; pret. sg. COM, COME, CAM, pl. COME, COME(N), COMAN; p.p. COMEN, CUMEN, Y-COME, Y-CUMEN

COUDE v. could; COUDE…ENDITE could write melodies and compose words to them

COUTHE see CAN

CRAFT n. skill, art; magic art, sorcery

CRULL adj. curly

CURTEISYE n. courtly conduct, courtliness, chivalry, good manners, civility, graciousness, kindness

Dd

DANES n. < O.E. Dene

DÆI, DAY n. < O.E. dæg

DED(E) n deed, action, thing done

DEFAUTE n. lack [OF]

DELIVER adj. active, agile

DEME n. judge < O.E. dēma

DIM(ME) adj. dim, clouded; dark

DIUERS(E), DYVERS adj. different, various [OF divers]

DRESSE(N) v. prepare, arrange; DRESS HIS TACKLE take care of his arrows; the feathers are trim, which gives them a clear flight

DO(N), DOO v. Do, perform, commit, make, act, put, place, set; pret.sg. DUDE p.p. IDON

DOUGHTER n. daughter < O.E. dohtor

DRAGEN, DRAWE(N) v. to draw < dragan, pull, drag, bring, move, go; DRAWES 3sg

DRIHTEN, DRIHTIN n. Lord, God

DRINK(E) n. drink, something to drink

DRIVE(N) v. to drive < O.E. drīfan

Ee

ECH(E), ÆCH, EUCH adj. pron. each, every; ÆLC, ÆLCHE

EK(E) adv. also

ENDYTE(N) v. compose, write

EMBROUDE(N), ENBROUDE(N) v. embroider; EMBROUDED embroidered

ENGLE n. the Angles < O.E. Engle

EUE, EVE n. evening

EUERMAR(E) adv. for ever, always, still

EVEN adj. medium, avarage

Ff

FADER, VADER n. father

FAIR(E), FAR(E), FEIR adj. fair, beautiful; adv. beautifully, well

FALEWE pr. 1sg. fade, wither [OE. fealuwian]

FARE(N) str.v. go, travel, fare, get on, behave, act, do; pret. FOR, p.p. FAREN, I–FARE

FEIGEN, FIE wk.v. write FEOND n. enemy; þe

FEOND the Devil; gen FEONDES

FER, FUR adv. far (away), at a distance; FERRE further

FERD(E) n. army

FESTEN v. make fast, bind pr. 3 sg. FESTETH fixes, sets

FETE v. fetch, get; FETTEN pr. 3 sg. FETTES derives

FETHER n. feather

FIEDE see FEIGEN

FIHTE, FIHT(E) n. fighting, battle

FIHTE, FIHTEN v. fight

FINDE(N), FYNDE(N) str.v. find, also providing board and lodging

FINGER n. finger; dat. pl. FINGREN

FISHERE n. fisherman < O.E. fiscere

FLE(N), FLEE, FLEO(N) v. flee, run away, escape; FLY, FLO imper. Sg.

FLESCH(E)N, FLES(SE) flesh, body; body, human form; MID FLESCH and GAST in body and soul

FLOD(E) n. flood, river, water

FLOITING, FLOYTINGE pres. p. playing the flute, whistling

FOLK(E) n. people, men, crowd, army

FONDE v. try; look for, seek; TO FONDE to know, see

FOR, FORE,VOR prep. for; conj. for, on account of

FOR see FARE(N)

FORSTER n. forester

FORT prep. until

FOUR, FOWR num. Four

FRAM, VRAM, VROM prep. from

FRO, FRA prep. fro, from

FUL(E), FOUL adj. foul, evil, dirty

FULLUHT n. baptism

FUNDE wk.v. seek out, aspire to

Gg

GEF, GIF, conj. if

GIF, GEVE str.v. give, pret.sg. GEF, GAF

GINNE str.v. begin; GINNETH, GYNNETH pres. 3 sg. begins; pret.sg. GAN, GON; pl. GONNE(N), GUNNE(N)

GIPOUN n. tunic worn under the coat of mail

GLAD(E) adj. glad; happy, cheerful

GOD(E) n. good, benefit

GOD(E) adj. good, fine, strong, good-humoured

GOND, GEOND prep. through, across

GOOS n. goose < O.E. gōs

GOST, GAST n. spirit, soul

GRETE(N) v. to greet < O.E. grētan

Hh

HABERGEOUN n. coat of mail. It has stained (bismotered) the tunic underneath

HARNEISED fastened to a handle

HATIE v. hate; HATETH, HEATETH 3 sg.

HEIGH, HEI, HEY, HEGH, HEH, HEG, HEE, HIG, HYH adj. high, mighty, loud

HELL(E) n. hell

HELMEN n. pl. (dat.) helmets

HEO, HI, HA 3sg. fem, pron. she; dat. acc. HIR, HIRE; acc.

HEO; gen. HIR, HER

HEOUEN v. raise, lift; pret. pl. HEUEN

HER, HIR 3 pl. pron. their

HER(E) adv. here

HERE(N) v. hear < O. E. hyran

HERE–MARKEN n. standards

HERT(E) n. heart

HETHENESSE n. heathen lands

HI, HY, HEO, HO, HE, HA 3 pl. pron. they

HIDER, HEDER adv. hither

HIGTE n. joy

HIGTETH pr. 3 sg. is glad

HIT, HYT, YT, IT 3 sg. n. pron it

HOGE(N) v. to care for, think about, wish for

HOLDE(N) v. hold, keep,maintain, contain, preserve; pret.sg. HEOLD; pl.HEOLDEN, HEOLDON

HOPE(N) v. to hope < O.E. hopian

HOTE(N) v. command, decree; pret.sg. HATTE

HUNGREN, HONGREN v. feel hungry, go hungry; HIM HUNGRETH he is hungry

HWUCH(E), HWUCCHE adj. interrog. of WHAT KIND; WHAT, WHICHEVER, WHICH

Ii

I , Y, ICH pron 1 sg. I

I–BERE(N) str.v. bear, carry, bring into the world; pret. I–BER

IHERE(N) v. hear, listen; pret.sg. IHERDE

IKENNE(N) v. recognize, distinguish

ILESTE v. last, continue; pres. 3 sg. ILAST

ILKE adj. same, very

ILL(E) adj. bad

IMENGED confused

INOGH adv. enough, greatly, very, completely, abundantly

I-NOW, INOW, INOU, INOG, INOGH, INOH n. enough, a great deal

ISE, YSEE v. see, meet, perceive, understand; ISO pr. 1 sg.

IÞENCHE v. conceive, imagine, remember

Kk

KEENE adj. sharp

KEMPE n. warrior, soldier

KERVE(N) v. to carve < O.E. ceorfan

KINDE, KYND, KUNDE, CUNDE n. family, nature, innate character or qualities

KNEE n. KNES pl. knees < O.E. cnēow

KNOWE, CNOWE, KNAW v. know, show, recognize

KOU, KOV n. cow < O.E. cū

KOUD knew

Ll

LAGE n law; jurisdiction; uses, ways LAGE adj. weak, low, base; of little worth; humble; LOWE of low rank

LECHERIE n. lechery, sensuality

LEF adj. dear, beloved, pleasing; ME IS LEF I like, wish; LEOUE pl.

LEF, LEEF n. leaf; pl. LEAF, LEVES

LEFLICHE, LEOFLICHE adv. kindly

LEPE v. run

LESS(E) adj. comp. Less, smaller, shorter; LESSERE – double comp. “of less importance”; LEASTE sup. smallest

LEST(E) conj. lest

LESTE(N) v. last, continue, endure

LEUE, LEVE n. permission; permission to go, leave; faith, belief

LEYE(N), LEI, LAY wk.v. lay, put, place, stretch out, go to bed; LEYDE, LADE pret.; p.p. LAYD, I–LEID, LEGD

LEGGE v. lay, place, put, impose; pret. pl. LEIDEN

LENGTHE n. length; ON LENGTHE – at length, in the end

LERNE, LEORNIEN wk.v. learn

LEUDE, LEDE, LEODE n. man, people

LIF n. life

LIF–DAIE n. term of life, life; dat. pl. LIF–DAGE

LIGGE(N) v. lie, lie down, be idle; LITH pr. 3 sg.

LIKE(N) v. please

LIST, LUST n. desire

LISREN v. listen; LISTNETH, LUSTNETH pr. 3 sg.; LUSTNEDE past t. sg.

LITHE adj. gracious, merciful

LORE n. learning; lesson, teaching

LOUERD(E), LAUERD, LAVERD n. lord, master, husband

LOWLY adj. humble, modest

LOWSE n. louse < O.E. lūs

LUKEN pret. pl. drew

LUSTY adj. pleasant, cheerful, vigorous, gallant, gay, brave

LUVE, LOUE n. love, make love to

LYVE(N) v. to live ≺ O.E. libban

Mm

MAKE(N), MAKIEN wk.v. make

MAN, MON n. man (used as indef. pers. pron) one, they

MANER(E) n manner, way; conduct, bearing; way of life; kind, kind of, in ECHE MANER MEN, MANI MANER FRUTE; pl.: MANERES conduct

MANIE, MONIE pron. pl. many MED(E) n. meadow

MENE v. mean pr. 1 sg. MENE, MEANEN v. complain

MESTER, MEOSTER, MISTER n. trade, occupation; office; duty, function; WHAT MESTER MAN a man of what occupation, what sort of man

MICHEL, MYCHEL, MUCHEL adv. much, greatly

MID, MYDE prep. with, among, in

MIGT(E), MYHT, MIGHT, MAGT – n. strength, power

MOD(E) n. mood, mind, heart

MODER n. mother

MOUS n. mouse < O.E. mūs

MOUTH n. mouth < O.E. mūð

Nn

NAMO no more

NEASE n. nose

NYME, NIME(N) str.v. take, grab, betake oneself, go, be taken; pret. NOM,

NAM; p.p. NOMEN, I–NUME

NOGT, NOHT adv. not at al, not

NOT-HEED close-cut hair

NOSE n. nose < O.E. nosu

NORÞHUMBRES n. pl. the Northumbrians < O.E. Norðhymbre

NOÞELES, NAÞELES adv. nevertheless, all the same

Oo

O, OF prep. of

ON(E), AN adj. one, a single; the same; a certain; pron. one (person), a certain person, someone, one (thing)

ONFEST, ONFAST prep. nearby, not far from

OWEN pret.pres.v. possess, own; 3 sg. pres. AH; 3pl. AHEN, pret. OUHTE, AUCHT, AUHTE, AHTE

OFDRED, OFDRAD p.p. adj. afraid (of)

OFSLAGE killed p.p. of SLEN

ONDE n. envy, malice, enmity; breath

OUER, OVER adv. over; through; prep. over, across, along, above

Pp

PERES n. pl. pears

PER-TRE n. pear-tree

PORT n. bearing PRESSE n. press, device for pressing; AS…

PRESSE as if they had been put in a haircurler

PREST, PREOST n. priest

PRIS, PRYS n. renown, reputation; SOVEREIGN PRIS distinctive excellence and renown

PURTRAY v. paint, draw

Qq

QUAT, QUASA = WHAT, WHOSE pron. Interrog.

QUEDIR, -UR = WHAÞER conj. whether interrog., indef.

QUENE, QWENE, CWEN n. queen

QUYK, QUIK, QUIC adj. alive, living, quick

Rr

RECCHE v. pr. 1 sg. care (with OF)

RECCHE v. go

REDE wk.v. read, advise, ask; pret. RADDE

REISED made a military expedition, fought

REOWE(N), REU, REWEN cause sorrow to, grieve; have pity (on or of); tr. take pity on

RICHE adj. of high rank, noble, powerful, great

RIDE(N), RYDE(N) v. ride; RIDEN OUT go on knightly expeditions, i.e. to wars, crusades, etc.

RIWLE n. rule

ROTE n. root

RUDE, RODE n. rosy colouring, pink cheeks, complexion, face; as adj. rosy

RUNE n. secret, writings, learning

RYNG n. ring < O.E. hring

Ss

SAD adj. sated, weary (of)

SAMMNENN v. gather, collect; ISOMNED p.p.

SAULE, SOULE, SAWLE n. soul

SAXONS n. the Saxons < O.E. Seaxe

SCANEN v. break

SEYE(N), SEYN, SEIE, SAY, SEGGE, SIGGE wk. v. say

SEL adj. good, agreeable

SETTE, SETT wk.v. set, place

SEUENE, SEOVENE adj. seven

SCHAL, SHAL pr. 1, 3 sg. shall

SCHELD n. shield, pl. SCELDES

SCHUNIEN v. shun, avoid

SCILWIS adj. discerning; as n. pl. perceptive men

SE, SEE(N), SEN(E) v. see, look at

SERUE(N) v. attend upon, assist at mass

SIN(NE), SYN(NE), SUNNE n. sin

SKENTINGE n. entertainment, pleasure

SLE(N) v. kill; p.p. ISLAGE; pret.sg. SLOH

SNOV, SNOU, SNOWE n. snow

SONDE, SCHONDE n. disgrace, ruin

SONE, SONN, SUNE n. son SONNE n. sun < O.E. sunne

SOR(E) adv. bitterly, grievously, painfully, exceedingly

SORE n. pain, sorrow

SORWE n sorrow < O.E. sorg

SOTH, SOOTH, SOUTH adj. true

SOTHFEST adj. sincerely true

SPEKE(N) v. speak, tell

SPERE n. spear

SPREDE v. spread, expand; open

SPRENGEN v. fly, leap

SPRINGE, SPRYNGE v. spring, flower, grow

STATHE n. river-bank

STEDEFAST adj. steadfast, true

STENCH n. stench

STINKE v. stink

STUDE, STEDE n. place

SUMDEL adv. somewhat, rather; in part, to some extent; a good deal

SUSTER n. sweostor

SWEIN, SWEYN n. attendant (of a knight), servant

SWERD, SWEORD n. sword

SWINKEN v. labour, work; SWANK, SWONK past t. sg.

SWIÞE adv. strongly, greatly, severely

SWYMME(N) v. to swim < O.E. swimmen

Tt

TAK, TAKE(N) v. take, catch, understand; TAS – 3pl.

TELLE(N) wk.v. tell, count; pret. TOLDE

TEMPTATIUN n. temptation; pl. TEMPTATIUNS

TOBLAWEÞ pr. 3 sg. blws up

TOBREKE(N) v. break (down), break to pieces

TOGEDRE, TOGEDERES, TOGADERE adv. together

TO-SUMNE adv. together

TRE(E), TREO, TRO, TROWE n. tree

TUHTE(N) pl. drew, came

THAI, THAY pron. 3 pl. they

THAN, THANNE, THANE, THENNE adv. and conj. then

THER, THAR, THÆR adv. there; rel adv. there where

THIDERWARD adv. to that place

THING(E), THYNG n. thing, event, anythig, creature; FOR MINE THINGE on my account

THIRE = THIN(E), THYN yours

THYNKEN, THINKEN v. < O.E. þencan

THONK n. thought, mind, thanks

THOU pron. 2 sg. thou, you

THRIFTILY adv. carefully, properly

THRUMME(N) wk.v. condense, push together; pret. THRUMDE

TOLLEÞ pr. 3 sg. entices, attracts

Þþ

ÞORN(E) n. thorn-tree

ÞORNE–WODE n. brier-bushes

ÞRIST. See ÞURST n. thirst

Uu

UÆIE adj. doomed, fated to die

UNIMETE, VNIMETE adj.immeasurable, immense; excess of [O.E. ungemete]

UNNEN, VNNEN v. grant, be willing, wish, desire (as imper.)

UNNEÞE adv. scarcely, hardly

UNÞEU,UNÞEAW n. vice, sin

UPPARD = UPWARD adv. upwards

UPPEN, UPPE prep. upon, on

Vv

VERAY, VERRAY adj. true, genuine, loyal, faithful, just

VERTU, UERTU n. power, quality

Ww

WAT see WHAT, WITE(N)

WEL, WEEL,WEYL(L) adv. well

WENDE(N) wk.v. go, turn; translate; pret.sg. WENT, WENDE, VENT; pl. WENTEN; p.p. WEND, Y–WENT

WEORDE, WORD(E) n. word, name

WHA, WHO pron. interrog. Who; indef. (some)one; anyone, whoever

WHAN, HWAN, WANNE, HWEN(NE), QUEN adv., conj. when, since

WIF, WYF, WYFF n. wife, woman; dat.sg. WYVE, pl. WYVES

WIL, WYL, WILL(E) n. will, wish, desire, what one wants

WIL, WYL, WILL(E) n. craft, deceit

WIGHT n. creature, person, man; NO MANER ~ (in neg. context) anyone

WILLE, WILEN v. desire, want to, mean to, intend to, will

WIS, WYS adj. wise, prudent

WISSE n. guide, title

WITE(N), WYT(E) pret.pres. v. know, keep; pres. sg. WAT, WOT

WITHER n. conflict, fighting

WIÞSTODE past t. subj. Sg. resisted

WLITE n. appearance, face, beauty, splendour

WODE n. wood, forest < O.E. wudu

WOLCUME(N), WELCOME(N), WILCUME(N) adj. welcome; WELCOMETH, WOLCUMETH imper. Pl. welcome, pr. 3 sg.

WOLDE pret. of WILLE

WONEN, WONYE, WUNIEN wk.v. inhabit; p.p. WONED, I–WUNET accustomed

WONENE adv. whence

WONDRE(N) v. to wonder < O.E. wundrian

WORD, WURD n. word message; pl. WURDYS, WORDEN

WRITE(N), WRYTE str.v. write; pret. WROTE; p.p. WRITEN, I–WRITEN

WURSE, WORS(E) adj. comp. worse

WYCCHE n. witch; pl. WITCHES

WYDENE adv. far and wide

Yy

YEMAN n. yeoman, retainer; a servant to the knight and his son. He is above the rank of an ordinary servant and acts as a forester or gamekeeper, perhaps having a small plot of land for his own [from YONG + MAN]

In compiling of the OE and ME' Glossary the following sources were used:

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FOR NOTES

(AD - Anno Domini – нашей эры; B.C. Before Christ – До рождества Христова)