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УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС

ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА

ДЛЯ СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТЕЙ:

**1-02 03 06 ИНОСТРАННЫЕ ЯЗЫКИ
(АНГЛИЙСКИЙ, НЕМЕЦКИЙ);**

1-02 03 06-01 АНГЛИЙСКИЙ ЯЗЫК. НЕМЕЦКИЙ ЯЗЫК;

1-02 03 08 ИНОСТРАННЫЙ ЯЗЫК (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ)



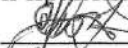
МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ БЕЛАРУСЬ

УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«БАРАНОВИЧСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

Факультет славянских и германских языков
Кафедра теории и практики английского языка

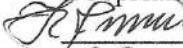
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Заведующий кафедрой теории
и практики английского языка

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30 мая 2016 г.

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Декан факультета славянских
и германских языков

 Н. Н. Круглякова
30 мая 2016 г.

**УЧЕБНО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКИЙ КОМПЛЕКС
ПО УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЕ «ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА»
ДЛЯ СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТЕЙ:
1-02 03 06 ИНОСТРАННЫЕ ЯЗЫКИ
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1-02 03 08 ИНОСТРАННЫЙ ЯЗЫК (АНГЛИЙСКИЙ)**

Автор А. А. Савко

Рассмотрено и утверждено на заседании редакционно-издательского совета 16 июня 2016 г.,
протокол № 2.

ПРЕДИСЛОВИЕ

Материал данного электронного учебно-методического комплекса (далее – ЭУМК) предназначен для студентов специальностей: 1-02 03 06 «Иностранные языки (английский язык, немецкий язык)»; 1-02 03 06-01 «Английский язык. Немецкий язык»; 1-02 03 08 «Иностранный язык (английский язык)» факультета славянских и германских языков учреждения образования «Барановичский государственный университет». Данный ЭУМК направлен на формирование, закрепление, систематизацию и актуализацию у студентов знаний, умений и профессиональных компетенций по основным историческим процессам развития и этапам становления английского языка.

ЭУМК состоит из теоретического раздела, практического раздела, раздела контроля знаний и вспомогательного раздела.

Теоретический раздел содержит материалы, необходимые для изучения дисциплины в аудитории, а также для организации управляемой самостоятельной работы по следующим основным темам: «История языка как одна из дисциплин лингвистического цикла»; «Английский как один из языков германской группы»; «Англосаксонский в системе древнегерманских языков»; «Древнеанглийский период»; «Среднеанглийский период»; «Новоанглийский период»; «Экспансия английского языка». De facto теоретический раздел представляет собой компиляцию лекций по дисциплине «История языка». Название каждого раздела соответствует названию лекций, предусмотренных программой по данной дисциплине.

Практический раздел содержит материалы для проведения семинарских занятий (14 часов).

Раздел контроля знаний содержит перечень вопросов к аттестации и итоговый тест по курсу.

Вспомогательный раздел включает в себя перечень учебных изданий и информационно-аналитических материалов, рекомендуемых для изучения учебной дисциплины, список аббревиатур к теоретическому и практическому разделу, а также учебную программу по дисциплине.

Практическая и образовательная цели ЭУМК заключаются в изучении английского языка в различные периоды его существования, освещении общих закономерностей и тенденций развития системы английского языка в тесной взаимосвязи с историей английского общества; освещении общей проблематики и методики диахронического исследования языковых явлений, систематизировании отдельных изменений языковых явлений и интерпретировании их в свете общих закономерностей развития языка и причинных связей; использовании различных исторических источников, а также словарей для наблюдения за историческими изменениями отдельных подсистем английского языка: фонологии, грамматики, лексики.

Развивающая цель заключается в расширении общенаучной базы, связывающей историю английского языка с другими языковыми дисциплинами; формировании и развитии навыков научного мышления, творческого анализа языкового материала и научных концепций для определения сущности изучаемых языковых явлений и возможных аспектов их исследования; обучении системному и глубокому видению структурной организации английского языка и её принципов; выработке более целостного представления обо всех аспектах английского языка с пониманием общих и специфических их свойств и закономерностей взаимодействия.

Воспитательная цель предполагает формирование интереса к изучаемому языку, культуре страны изучаемого языка, к будущей профессии.

Задачи ЭУМК:

- расширить лингвистический кругозор, ясно понимать исторические процессы, происходящие в языке в процессе развития общества;
- уметь объяснять нормы и особенности языка с точки зрения законов его исторического развития, принципов становления и функционирования;
- приобрести навыки и умения организации самостоятельной работы студентов, изучая историю английского языка на лекциях и семинарских занятиях.

А. А. Савко

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ПРАКТИЧЕСКИЙ РАЗДЕЛ

История языка (Савко А. А. Практическое руководство, 2012 г.)

РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

Вопросы к аттестации

Итоговый тест

ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

Перечень аббревиатур

Ключи к тестам

Учебная программа

БИБЛИОГРАФИЧЕСКИЙ СПИСОК

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Р а з д е л 1
ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА КАК ОДНА ИЗ ДИСЦИПЛИН
ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО ЦИКЛА

ТЕМА 1
THE SUBJECT, AIM, OBJECTIVES OF STUDYING THE
HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Every language has a history; and as in the rest of human culture, changes are constantly taking place in the course of the transmission of a language from one generation to another. Languages change in all their aspects, in their pronunciation, word forms, syntax, and word meanings. These changes, mostly gradual in their operation, become noticeable only cumulatively over the course of several generations. In studying a foreign language, English in our case, the student inevitably compares it to his native tongue and is often astonished to find great differences not only in the structure of the target language but also in the way ideas are expressed in it.

There is no denying that English spelling is somewhat difficult for a Belarusian learner of English. This is because the written form of the English word is conventional rather than phonetic. Therefore, some phonetic phenomena cannot be explained from the modern point of view without going into the history of the language. When the Latin alphabet was first used in Britain, writing was phonetic. After the introduction of printing in the 15th century, the written form of the word became fixed, whereas the sounds continued to change. This resulted in a growing discrepancy between letter and sound. Hence, such 'difficult' words as *light*, *daughter*, *speak*, *great*, *book* and many others where their pronunciation and spelling differ. Moreover, if you ask a little English boy or girl to write the word *light* (in the meaning of *daylight*) he or she would rather spell it as *lite* because they have not learned its spelling yet. On the other hand, modern spellings show how such words were pronounced in the past. For example, the word *light* sounded as [lix't] which is easy to prove if you compare it with the Belarusian word *ліхтар* (something which produces light).

As far as English vocabulary is concerned, it contains words which are similar to words found in other languages. For example, English – German (*mother – Mutter, father – Vater, winter – Winter, hand – Hand, etc.*); English – French (*revolution – révolution, autumn – automne, river – rivière, etc.*); English – Russian (*float – плот; флот*); English – Belarusian (*glebe – глеба, must – мусіць, etc.*). Without going into the history of English, it is difficult to say whether these words are native or borrowings from the above mentioned languages.

English grammar also presents some phenomena which a Belarusian learner of English will find misleading. For example, the irregular plural of nouns (*man – men, foot – feet, mouse – mice, etc.*), or the same form for both singular and plural of such words as *sheep, deer, fish*, or the fact that English modal verbs, unlike the other verbs, take no ending -s in the 3^d person singular, and many other similar facts. All these things are traced back to a distant past and can be accounted for only by studying the history of the language.

Another important aim of this course is of a more theoretical nature. Study of the history of any language is based on applying general principles of linguistics to the language in question. While tracing its evolution through time, students will be confronted with a number of theoretical questions connected with the language development in general and its aspects in particular. To find answers to these questions, students will have to rely on the theory previously studied in the course called Introduction to Linguistics. In this way ties will be established between general principles of linguistics and concrete linguistic facts, in other words, theoretical knowledge will find its application in practice.

While studying the history of the English language we will inevitably have to deal with the history of the English nation considering the ‘traces’ it left in the language development. It goes without saying that a systematic study of the language’s development from the earliest times to the present day will enable the student to acquire a more profound understanding of modern English, its role in our world and perspectives of its future development.

TEMA 2

METHODS AND SOURCES OF STUDYING LANGUAGE AND ITS HISTORY

As is known, the science of scientific study of language as a system is called **linguistics**. This term was first used in the middle of the 19th century to emphasize the difference between a new approach to the study of language that was then developing and the more traditional approach of **philology**. The philologist is concerned primarily with the historical development of languages as it is manifested in written texts and in the context of the associated literature and culture. The linguist, though he may be interested in written texts and in the development of languages through time, tends to give priority to spoken languages and to the problem of analyzing them as they operate at a given point of time.

The field of linguistics may be divided in terms of three dichotomies: synchronic versus diachronic, theoretical versus applied, and microlinguistics versus macrolinguistics. A synchronic description of a language describes the language as it is at a given time; a diachronic description is concerned with the historical development of the language and the structural changes that have taken place in it. The goal of **theoretical linguistics** is the construction of a general theory of the structure of language or of a general theoretical framework for the description of languages; the aim of applied linguistics is the application of the findings and techniques of the scientific study of language to practical tasks, especially to the elaboration of improved methods of language teaching. The terms **microlinguistics** and **macrolinguistics** are not yet well established, and are used purely for convenience. The former refers to a narrower and the latter to a much broader view of the scope of linguistics. According to the microlinguistics view, languages should be analyzed for their own sake and without reference to their social function, to the manner in which they are acquired by children, to the psychological mechanism that underlies the production and reception of speech, to the literary and the aesthetic or communicative function of language, and so on. In contrast, macrolinguistics embraces all of these aspects of language. Various areas within macrolinguistics have been given terminological recognition: psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, anthropological linguistics, dialectology, mathematical and computational linguistics, and stylistics.

The study of language has a long history which began in pre-historic times in different cultures but linguistics as a science was established only in the 19th century in Europe when accumulation of facts about the early stages of living languages called for theoretical interpretation of linguistic evolution.

The Comparative Method

It is generally agreed that the most outstanding achievement of linguistic scholarship in the 19th century was the development of comparative method which comprised a set of principles whereby languages could be systematically compared with respect to their sound systems, grammatical structure and vocabulary and shown to be 'genealogically' related. As French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish and the other Romance languages had evolved from Latin, so Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit as well as the Celtic, Germanic, and Slavic languages and many other languages of Europe and Asia, had evolved from some earlier language, to which the name Indo-European or Proto-Indo-European, or the common parent language or the original language is now customarily applied. It had been known for centuries that all the Romance languages descended from Latin and thus constituted one family. But the existence of the Indo-European family of languages and the nature of their genealogical relationship was first demonstrated by the 19th century comparative philologists. The main impetus for the development of comparative philology came toward the end of the 18th century, when it was discovered that Sanskrit, the classical Indian language, bore a number of striking resemblances to Greek and Latin. The English orientalist, Sir William Jones, though he was not the first to observe these resemblances, is generally given the credit for bringing them to the attention of the scholars and putting forward the hypothesis, in 1786, that all three languages must have 'sprung from some common source, which perhaps no longer exists'.

The next important step came in 1822, when the German scholar Jacob Grimm, following the Danish linguist Rasmus Rask (whose work (1818), being written in Danish, was less accessible to most European scholars)) pointed out in the second edition of his comparative grammar of Germanic that there were a number of systematic correspondences between the sounds of Germanic and the sounds of Greek, Latin and Sanskrit in related words. Grimm noted, for example, that where Gothic (the oldest surviving Germanic language) had *an f*, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit frequently had *a p*. (tab. 1).

T a b l e 1 – Systematic correspondences between the sounds of Germanic and the sounds of Greek, Latin and Sanskrit in related words

Germanic	Non-Germanic			Germanic
Gothic	Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	MnE
fotus	p adas	p odos	p edis	foot

Similar correspondences were also found for some other consonants. Grimm formulated these phenomena as a cyclical soundshift of consonants which got the status of a sound law known as Grimm’s Law.

Neogrammarians

In the work of the next 50 years the idea of sound change was made more precise, and in the 1870s, a group of scholars known collectively as the Junggrammatiker, **young grammarians or Neogrammarians**, put forward the thesis that all changes in the sound system of a language as it developed through time were subject to the operation of regular sound laws. At first this thesis was regarded as most controversial, because there seemed to be several irregularities in language change not accounted for by the sound laws, such as Grimm’s Law. In 1875, however, the Danish linguist Karl Verner explained the apparent exceptions to Grimm’s Law (Verner’s Law). Subsequently, many other important sound laws were discovered and formulated to account for other apparent exception and by the end of the 19th century the hypothesis or thesis of the regularity of sound change had been generally accepted and become the cornerstone of the comparative method. Using the principle of regular sound change, scholars were able to reconstruct ‘ancestral’ common forms from which the later forms found in particular languages could be derived. By convention, such reconstructed forms are marked in the literature with an asterisk (*).

The 20th Century Structuralism

Structuralism in linguistics is a general term to describe any one of several schools of 20th century linguistics committed to the structuralist

principle that a language is a self-contained relational structure, the elements of which derive their existence and their value from their distribution and oppositions in texts or discourse. This principle was first stated clearly, for linguistics, by the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913). His structuralism can be summed up in 2 dichotomies: (1) langue versus parole and (2) form versus substance. By langue, best translated in its technical Saussurean sense as **language system**, is meant the totality of regularities and patterns of formation that underline the utterances of a language; by parole, which can be translated as language behaviors, is meant the actual utterances themselves. Just as two performances of a piece of music given by different orchestras on different occasions will differ in variety of details and yet be identifiable as performances of the same piece, so two utterances may differ in different ways and yet be recognized as instances, in some sense, of the same utterance. What the two musical performances and the two utterances have in common is an identity of form, and this form, or structure, or pattern, is in principle independent of the substance, or ‘raw material’, upon which it is imposed. Structuralism in the European sense then refers to the view that there is an abstract relational structure that underlies and is to be distinguished from actual utterances – a system underlying actual behavior – and that this is the primary object of study for the linguist. Saussurean structuralism was further developed in somewhat different directions by the Prague school, most notably represented by Nikolay Trubetsky and Roman Jakobson, both Russian émigrés, the Copenhagen (or **glossematic**) school, centered around Louis Hjelmslev, John Rupert Firth and his followers, sometimes referred to as the London school. In the United States the term structuralism, or structural linguistics, has had much the same sense as it has had in Europe in relation to the work of Franz Boas (1858–1942) and Edward Sapir (1884–1939) and their followers. Nowadays, however, it is commonly used, in a narrower sense, to refer to the so-called post-Bloomfieldian school of language analysis that follows the methods of Leonard Bloomfield, developed after 1930. Phonology (the study of sound systems) and morphology (the study of word structure) are their primary fields of interest. Little work on semantics has been done by structural linguists because of their belief that the field is too difficult or elusive to describe.

The Prague School

The most characteristic feature of the Prague school approach is its combination of structuralism with functionalism. The latter term (like structuralism) has been used in a variety of senses in linguistics. It can be understood as an appreciation of the diversity of functions performed by language and a theoretical recognition that the structure of languages is in large part determined by their characteristic functions, such as cognitive, expressive and conative or instrumental. The cognitive function of language refers to its employment for the transmission of factual information; by the expressive function is meant the indication of the mood or attitude of the speaker (or writer); and by the conative function of language is meant its use for influencing the person one is addressing or for bringing about some practical effect. A number of scholars working in the Prague tradition have suggested that these three functions correlate in many languages, at least partly, with the grammatical categories of mood and person.

The Prague school is best known for its work on **phonology**. Unlike the American phonologists, Trubetskoj and his followers did not consider the phoneme to be the minimal unit of analysis. Instead, they defined phonemes as sets of distinctive features. For example, in English [b] differs from [p] in the same way that [d] differs from [t] and [g] from [k]. Just how they differ in terms of their articulation is a complex question. For simplicity, it may be said that there is just one feature, the presence of which distinguishes [b], [d] and [g] from [p], [t] and [k], and that this feature is voicing (vibration of the vocal cords). Similarly, the feature of labiality can be extracted from [p] and [b] by comparing them with [t] and [d], [k] and [g]; the feature of nasality from [n] and [m] by comparing them with [t] and [d], and so on. Each phoneme then is composed of a number of articulatory features and is distinguished by the presence or absence of at least one feature from every other phoneme in the language.

The Prague school is also known for its theory of markedness which was first developed in phonology but subsequently extended to morphology and syntax. When two phonemes are distinguished by the presence or absence of a single distinctive feature, one of them is said to be marked and the other unmarked for the feature in question. For example, [b] is marked and [p] is unmarked with respect to voicing. Similarly, in morphology, the regular English verb can be said to be marked for past tense (by the suffixation of **-ed**) but to be unmarked in the present (cf. 'jumped' versus

'jump'). There is also a more abstract sense of markedness, which is independent of the presence or absence of an overt feature of affix. On the level of vocabulary, for example, the words 'dog' and 'bitch' provide examples of markedness of this kind. Whereas the use of the word 'bitch' is restricted to females of the species, 'dog' is applicable to both males and females. 'Bitch' is the marked and 'dog' is the unmarked term. The principle of markedness, understood in this more general or more abstract sense, is quite widely accepted by linguists of many different schools, and is applied at all levels of linguistic analysis.

The most valuable contribution made by the post-war Prague school is considered to be the distinction of theme and rheme. By the theme of a sentence is meant that part that refers to what is already known or given in the context (sometimes called, by other scholars, the topic or psychological subject); by the rheme, the part that conveys new information (the comment or psychological predicate). It has been pointed out that in languages with a free word order (such as Russian or Czech or Latin), the theme tends to precede the rheme, regardless whether the theme or the rheme is the grammatical subject, and that this principle may still operate, in a more limited way, in languages like English, with a relatively fixed word order (cf. "That book I haven't seen before"). But other devices can also be used to distinguish theme and rheme. The rheme may be stressed ("John saw Mary") or made the complement of the verb 'to be' in the main clause ("It's John who saw Mary").

TEMA 3

SOURCES USED FOR STUDYING LANGUAGE HISTORY

Every living language changes through time, but no records of linguistic changes have ever been kept, as most changes pass unnoticed by the contemporaries.

Therefore, the main source for the history of any language is written documents that have come down to us. And on the basis of these documents a language history is reconstructed.

As for documents themselves, they give a clear picture of the vocabulary and grammar of a certain period. As for phonetic structure, such documents do not always give clear enough information, for, as we have already discussed, sound may change but spelling remains or, as often

as not, one letter may denote different sounds, etc. So in this sense written documents may be misleading.

Nevertheless, study of pronunciation of a particular period may be helped by illiterate spellings which are found in private letters and diaries as they are mostly phonetic. (Remember the example with *lite* = *light*). So they can give a clue to the pronunciation of this or that word.

Some hints are proved by rhymes. For example, careful study of words, which in spite of similar spelling, do not rhyme together, may help to establish phonetic differences hidden by the spelling. For example, a rhyme *light* – *write* gives good reason to suppose that digraph **gh** was no longer pronounced at the time the text was written.

In many instances the availability of extant texts is not sufficient to explain some phenomena of the language in question. That is why scholars may resort to studying related languages, (the comparative method) which have older written records as is the case, for example, with Gothic, namely the translation of the Bible made in the 4th century A.D., while the earliest documents written in OE date about 7th century A.D. Besides related languages, English can be compared to other languages of the Indo-European family, namely those which came into contact with. For example, Latin and French.

Certain information about the early stages of English and Germanic history is to be found in the works of ancient historians and geographers, especially Roman. They contain descriptions of Germanic tribes, personal names and place-names. Some data are also provided by early borrowings from Germanic made by other languages.

Another way of looking into the history of a language is the method of internal reconstruction. It is based on comparing different forms of the language at different linguistic levels taken during different periods in the history of its development. Its adherents maintain that a language is a well organised and well balanced structure of elements. Hence, if among the productive systems of the language there occur some smaller, non-productive systems, one can assume that they are relics of preceding stages of development. When traced into the past, these systems appear more numerous and more productive. For example, modern irregular plurals like *oxen*, *teeth*, etc. were found in larger groups of nouns at an earlier period. It follows that the past history of a language can be reconstructed by considering its dialectal varieties, since dialects often preserve forms, words or pronunciations which have become obsolete in the literary standard.

TEMA 4

PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

Traditionally, the history of the English language is divided into 3 periods, which were originally suggested by the English scholar Henry Sweet, author of a number of works on the English language and its history. They are OE, ME and MnE. His division was not arbitrary, of course, as he took into consideration both intra- and extralinguistic factors, namely, phonetic and morphological, on the one hand, and sociocultural, on the other. Modern linguists, however, disagree with this division (V. Arakin, T. Rastorgueva) accounting for their disagreement by the following considerations.

For example, V. Arakin maintains, that the OE period needs to be subdivided into 2, the Early OE period and the Late OE period, as the changes that had taken place from the beginning till the end of the period were very much pronounced and the language at its earlier stage was a lot different from its final stage. Rastorgueva extends this idea to the other periods and Ivanova, generally satisfied with the extralinguistic factors taken into consideration while dividing English into historical periods, argues whether phonetic and morphological criteria are sufficient for this purpose (tab. 2).

Table 2 – Periods in the history of English

Period	Intralinguistic factor	Extralinguistic factor
1 st OE 700AD – 1100	Period of full endings; any vowel can be found in an unstressed ending: <i>singan</i> (a unstressed), <i>sunu</i> (u unstressed)	
2 nd ME 1100 – 1500	Period of leveled endings; vowels of unstressed endings were leveled under a neutral vowel something like [ə], represented by the letter e : <i>singen</i> (a → e), <i>some</i> [su:nə] (u → e)	1066, the year of Norman conquest 1485, the end of the War of Roses, the decay of feudalism the rise of capitalism

End of table

Period	Intralinguistic factor	Extralinguistic factor
3 ^d MnE 1500 – nowadays Early MnE: 1500 – 1660/1700 Late MnE: 660/1700 – present day	Period of lost endings: <i>sing, son</i>	The rise of the English nation and the national language

As it is seen, the division is based on both phonetic and morphological features: weakening and loss of unstressed vowels and weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes.

It should be emphasized that the dates are but a mere convention as they cannot be taken literally. They simply signify the fact that by these periods the changes in the language had become so prominent that they could identify a new period in its history.

Раздел 2
ГЕРМАНСКИЕ ЯЗЫКИ.
АНГЛОСАКСОНСКИЙ В СИСТЕМЕ
ДРЕВНЕГЕРМАНСКИХ ЯЗЫКОВ

ТЕМА 1
CLASSIFICATION OF MODERN GERMANIC LANGUAGES
AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION

Classification of languages means their placement into families or phyla [ˈfaɪlə] on the basis of lexical or typological similarity or shared ancestry. Languages may thus be classified either genetically or typologically. A genetic classification assumes that certain languages are related in that they have evolved from a common ancestral language. This form of classification employs ancient records as well as hypothetical reconstructions of the earlier forms of languages, called **protolanguages**. Typological classification is based on similarities in language structure.

As for the English language, genetically (historically) it belongs to the **Germanic** or **Teutonic group** of languages of the Indo-European linguistic family. Old Germanic languages comprised 3 groups: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic. East Germanic languages no longer exist, as they are dead. Only one language belonging to this group is known, Gothic, as a written document came down to us in this language. It is a translation of the Bible made in the 4th century A.D. by the Gothic Bishop Ulfilas from the Greek language.

Modern Germanic languages embrace 2 groups: North Germanic and West Germanic as they have survived until today. The table below illustrates their division and distribution. Researchers are not unanimous in their estimation of the number of Germanic languages and their distinction. Until recently Dutch and Flemish were named as separate languages, now there is a common term for them – the Netherlandic (Netherlandish) language as spoken in The Netherlands, together with the same language in northern Belgium, which is popularly called Flemish. In the European Middle Ages, the language was called **Dietsc**, or **Duutsc**, historically equivalent to German **Deutsch** and meaning simply “language of the people”, as contrasted with Latin, which was the language of religion and

learning. The form Duutsc was borrowed into English and gives modern “Dutch.” The official name of the language is Nederlands, or Netherlandic. In the Netherlands it is also called Hollands (Hollandish), reflecting the fact that the standard language is based largely on the dialect of the old province of Holland (now North Holland and South Holland). Frisian and Faroese are regarded as dialects since they are spoken over small politically dependent areas; British English and American English are sometimes thought to be 2 independent languages. By one estimate, the number of people speaking Germanic languages amounts to 440 million (T. A. Rastorguyeva) plus an indefinite number of bilingual nations with English spoken as one of the official languages (tab. 3).

T a b l e 3 — Germanic Languages

Name	Characteristics, type
East Germanic	Dead, no longer exist; Gothic, came down to us in the translation of the Bible by the Gothic Bishop Ulfilas, 4 th A.D.
North Germanic	The Scandinavian group: – Swedish (Sweden, partly in Finland); – Norwegian (Norway, partly in Denmark); – Danish (Denmark, partly in Sweden); – Icelandic (Iceland); – Faroese (the Faroe Islands)
West Germanic	– English (Britain, the US, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Caribbean Islands, etc.); – German (Germany, Austria, Luxemburg, Liechtenstein, partly in Switzerland); – Dutch (the Netherlands); – Flemish (Flanders, Belgium); – Afrikaans (the South African Republic); – Frisian (partly in the Netherlands and Germany(might be viewed as a dialect); – Yiddish (the language of the Jewish population of Eastern Europe spoken in 10–12 centuries); in different countries)

TEMA 2

OLD GERMANIC TRIBES AND THEIR WAY OF LIFE

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as the Proto-Germanic language also termed Common or Primitive Germanic, Primitive Teutonic or simple Germanic. Proto-Germanic is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is believed to have split from the Indo-European related tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th B.C. The ancient Germans or Teutons are supposed to have 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.

Proto-Germanic is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages. It is believed that at the earliest stages of history, Proto-Germanic was 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 migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

Earliest records of Germanic tribes

The records of ancient Germanic tribes are based on testimonies by Greek and Roman travellers and geographers. The earliest of them refers to the 4th century B.C. made by **Phytheas**, a Greek astronomer and geographer who sailed from Gaul (France) to the mouth of the river Elbe. He described the tribes of the Teutons. The next major description of the Teutons came from Julius Caesar, the Roman general and statesman which he left in his book 'Commentaries on the War in Gaul' (1st century B.C.)

A century later (1st century A.D.) **Pliny the Elder**, a Roman naturalist, gave a classification of the Germanic tribes which until quite recently had basically been accepted by modern researchers. According to it, the tribes in 1st century A.D. comprised 5 major groups which fell into 3 subgroups:

Eastern Germanic, Western Germanic and Northern Germanic. They were 1) the Vindili; 2) the Ingaevones; 3) The Istaevones; 4) the Hermiones; 5) the Hilleveones. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons where he reproduced Pliny's classification of the Germanic tribes. Having made a linguistic analysis of several Germanic dialects of later ages, F. Engels came to the conclusion that Pliny's classification of the Teutonic tribes accurately reflected the contemporary dialectal division.

The traditional tri-partite classification of the Germanic languages was reconsidered and corrected in some recent publications (Rastorgueyva). It appears that the development of the Germanic group was not confined to successive splits; it involved both linguistic divergence and convergence. It has also been discovered that originally Proto-Germanic split into two main branches and that the tri-partite division marks a later stage of its history.

The earliest migration of the Germanic tribes from the lower valley of the Elbe consisted in their movement north, to the Scandinavian peninsula, a few hundred years before our era. This geographical segregation must have led to linguistic differentiation and to the division of Proto-Germanic into the northern and southern branches. At the beginning of our era, some of the tribes returned to the mainland and settled closer to the Vistula basin, east of the other continental Germanic tribes. It is only from this stage of their history that the Germanic languages can be described under three headings: East Germanic, North Germanic and West Germanic.

Material Culture

According to Julius Caesar, the Germans were pastoralists, and the bulk of their foodstuffs – milk, cheese, and meat – came from their flocks and herds. Some farming was also carried out, the main crops being grain, root crops, and vegetables. Both the cattle and the horses of the Germans were of poor quality by Roman standards. The Iron Age had begun in Germany about four centuries before the days of Caesar, but even in his time metal appears to have been a luxury material for domestic utensils, most of which were made of wood, leather, or clay. Of the larger metal objects used by them, most were still made of bronze, though this was not the case with weapons. Pottery was for the most part still made by hand, and pots turned on the wheel were relatively rare. The degree to which

trade was developed in early Germany is obscure. There was certainly a slave trade, and many slaves were sold to the Romans. Such potters as used the wheel – and these were very few – and smiths and miners no doubt sold their products. But in general the average Germanic village is unlikely to have used many objects that had not been made at home. Foreign merchants dealing in Italian as well as Celtic wares were active in Germany in Caesar's time and supplied prosperous warriors with such goods as wine and bronze vessels. But from the reign of Augustus onward, there was a huge increase in German imports from the Roman Empire. The German leaders were now able to buy whole categories of goods – glass vessels, red tableware, Roman weapons, brooches, statuettes, ornaments of various kinds, and other objects – that had not reached them before. These Roman products brought their owners much prestige, but how the Germans paid for them is not fully known.

Warfare and form of government

In the period of the early Roman Empire, German weapons, both offensive and defensive, were characterized by shortage of metal. Their chief weapon was a long lance, and few carried swords. Helmets and breastplates were almost unknown. A light wooden or wicker shield, sometimes fitted with an iron rim and sometimes strengthened with leather, was the only defensive weapon. This lack of adequate equipment explains the swift, fierce rush with which the Germans would charge the ranks of the heavily armed Romans. If they became entangled in a prolonged, hand-to-hand grapple, where their light shields and thrusting spears were confronted with Roman swords and armour, they had little hope of success. Even by the 6th century, few of the Germanic peoples had adequate military equipment.

No trace of autocracy can be found among the Germans whom Caesar describes. The leading men of the *pagi* (kindred groups) would try to patch up disputes as they arose, but they acted only in those disputes that broke out between members of their own *pagus*. There appears to have been no mediatory body at this date. In fact, in peacetime there appears to have been no central authority that could issue orders to, or exercise influence over, all the *pagi* of which any one people was composed. In wartime, according to Caesar, a number of confederate chieftains were

elected, but they were joint leaders and held office only in time of war. By Tacitus' time a new type of military chieftainship had come into being. For this office only the members of a recognized "royal clan", such as is known to have existed among the 1st century Cherusci and Batavians, the 6th-century Heruli, and others, were eligible. Any member of this royal clan was eligible for election, and the chieftainship was in no way hereditary. A chief of this type held office for life and had religious as well as military duties. He could be overruled by the council of the leading men, and his proposals to the general assembly of the warriors might be rejected by them. The degree of his influence depended largely on his own personal qualities. A rudimentary judicial apparatus had come into existence among the Germanic peoples by Tacitus' time. The general assembly elected a number of the leading men to act as judges, and these judges traveled through the villages to hear private suits. Each of them was accompanied by 100 attendants to lend authority to his decisions. A person who was found guilty by these judges had to pay a number of horses or cattle proportionate to the gravity of his offense. But many disputes (e. g., those arising from homicide, wounding, or theft) continued to be settled by the kindreds themselves, and the blood feuds to which they gave rise might continue from generation to generation. Long after the conversion to Christianity the German rulers found it difficult to stamp out the blood feud. The monarchy did not become fully established in the Germanic world until German peoples had settled as federates inside the Roman Empire, and the leaders of the Ostrogoths in Italy, the Visigoths in Gaul and Spain, the Vandals in Africa, and so on are the first Germanic kings. Other famous German chieftains in this period, such as Athanaric and Alaric, who either lived outside the Roman frontier or whose peoples were not federates settled in the provinces under a treaty (foedus) to defend the frontier, seem to have had little more personal authority than the leaders described by Tacitus.

Conversion to Christianity

Evidence suggests that before the fall of the Western Roman Empire in 476, none of the great Germanic peoples was converted to Christianity while still living outside the Roman frontier, but that all the Germanic peoples who moved into the Roman provinces before that date were converted to

Christianity within a generation. The Vandals seem to have been converted when in Spain in 409–429, the Burgundians when in eastern Gaul in 412–436, and the Ostrogoths when in the province of Pannonia about 456–472. In all these cases the Germans embraced the **Arian form of Christianity**; none of the major Germanic peoples became officially Catholic until the conversion of the Franks under Clovis (496) and of the Burgundians under Sigismund. The reason for their adoption of Arianism rather than Catholicism is very obscure. The last Germanic people on the European continent to be converted to Christianity were the Old Saxons (second half of the 8th century), while the Scandinavian peoples were converted in the 10th century. England had been converted in the 7th century.

TEMA 3

GERMANIC ALPHABETS AND OLD GERMANIC WRITINGS

Germanic tribes used 3 different alphabets for their writings which partly succeeded each other in time.

The earliest of these was the *Runic* alphabet each separate letter being called a rune. The word *rune* originally meant ‘secret’, ‘mystery’ and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. According to scholars, this alphabet was derived either from Latin or from some other Italic alphabet, close to Latin, in the 2nd century A.D. somewhere on the Rhine or the Danube where the Germanic tribes came into contact with Roman culture. This alphabet was used by such tribes as the Goths, Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians. The runes were used as letters, each symbol indicating a separate sound. Besides, a rune could also represent a word beginning with that sound and was called by that word. For example, the rune denoted the sound [θ], [ð] was called ‘thorn’ and could stand for OE *Þorn* (New English thorn). The letters of the runic alphabet are angular, straight lines are preferred, curved lines are 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 and Latin; others have not been traced to any known alphabet.

The number of runes in different Old Germanic languages varied from 28 to 33 runes in Britain against 16 or 24 on the continent. That is the number of runes in England was larger: new runes were added as new

sounds appeared in English. Neither on the mainland nor in Britain were the runes ever used for everyday writing or for putting down poetry and prose works. Their main function 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 an inscription on a box called the 'Franks Casket' the other is a short text on a stone cross known as the **Ruthwell Cross**. The **Franks Casket** was discovered in the early years of the 19th century in France, and was presented to the British Museum by a British archeologist A. W. Frank. The Casket is a small box of whale bone; its four sides are carved: there are pictures in the centre and runic inscription around. The longest of them, in alliterative verse, tells the story of the whale bone, of which the Casket is made.

The Ruthwell Cross is a 15ft tall cross inscribed and ornamented on all sides. The principal inscription has been reconstructed into a passage from an OE religious poem "The Dream of the Rood", in which Christ's Passion is told from the point of view of the Cross on which he was crucified. The Cross speaks: *Ic wæs miþ blodi bistemid* (OE translation) (I was with blood bedewed).

Many runic inscriptions were preserved on weapons, coins, amulets, tombstones, rings, various cross fragments. Some runic insertions occur in OE manuscripts written in Latin characters. The total number of runic inscriptions in OE is about 40; the last of them belong to the end of the OE period.

Next came Ulfiala's **Gothic alphabet** used in his translation of the Bible. It's a peculiar alphabet based on the Greek alphabet with some admixture of Latin and Runic letters. (The Gothic alphabet should not be confused with the so-called Gothic script which is used in German writings and is a modified version of Latin script).

The latest alphabet to be used by the Germanic tribes is the Latin alphabet. It superceded both the Runic and the Gothic alphabets when a new technique of writing was introduced, namely that of spreading some colour or paint on a surface instead of cutting or engraving the letters. The material used for writing was either parchment or papyrus. Introduction of the Latin alphabet accompanied the spread of Christianity and Christian religious texts written in Latin. Since the Latin alphabet was adequate to represent all the sounds of Germanic languages, it was adapted to the peculiar needs of the separate languages. For example, to denote the dental fricative [θ], [ð] the runic *Þ* was used (derived from Latin D).

Ulfilas's Bible, otherwise called the Silver Code (Codex Argenteus) is kept in Sweden. Along with other OG writings, next comes the Old High German Song of Hilderbrandt, a fragment of an epic, 8th century, and the Beowulf, an OE epic, probably written in the 8th century. Then come Old Icelandic epic texts collected in the so-called Older Edda comprising songs written down in the 13 century.

A most important role in the history of the English language was played by the introduction of Christianity. The first attempt to introduce the Roman Christian religion was made in the 6th century during the supremacy of Kent. In 597 a group of missionaries from Rome dispatched by Pope Gregory the Great landed on the shore of Kent. They made Canterbury their centre and from there the new faith expanded to Kent, East Anglia, Essex, and other places. The movement was supported from the north; missionaries from Ireland brought the Celtic variety of Christianity to Northumbria. In less than a century practically all England became Christianized.

The introduction of Christianity gave a strong impetus to the growth of learning and culture. Monasteries were founded all over the country, with monastic schools attached. Religious service and teaching were conducted in Latin. A high standard of learning was reached in the best English monasteries, especially in Northumbria as early as the 8th and 9th centuries. During the Scandinavian invasions the Northumbrian culture was largely wiped out and English culture shifted to the southern kingdoms, most of all to Wessex, during the reign of Alfred the Great. From that time till the end of the OE period, Wessex with its capital at Winchester remained the cultural centre of England.

OE scribes used two kinds of alphabet: runic and Latin. The bulk of the OE records is written in Latin characters but the scribes made certain modifications and additions to indicate OE sounds. Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle: every letter indicated a separate sound. This principle, however, was not always observed, even at the earliest stages of phonetic spelling. Some OE letters indicated two or more sounds; some letters stood for positional variants of phonemes: a and æ. Fricatives stood for 2 sounds each: a voiced and a voiceless consonant.

The letters could indicate short and long sounds. The length of the vowels is shown by a macron or by a line above the letter; long consonants are indicated by a double letter.

TEMA 4

LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

Phonetic peculiarities of Germanic Languages. Word Stress and its role in further development of Germanic languages

In ancient Indo-European, prior to the separation of Germanic, there existed two ways of word accentuation: musical pitch and force stress (otherwise called dynamic, expiratory or breath stress). The position of the stress was movable and free, which means that it could fall on any syllable of the word – a root morpheme, an affix or an ending – and could be shifted both in form building and word-building. But these properties of the word accent were changed in Proto-Germanic Force or expiratory stress became the only type of stress used. The stress was now fixed on the first syllable, which was usually the root of the word and sometimes the prefix; the other syllables – suffixes and endings – were unstressed. The stress could no longer move either in form-building or in word-building. This phenomenon has played an important role in the development of the Germanic languages, and especially in phonetic and morphological changes. Due to the difference in the force of articulation, the stressed and unstressed syllables underwent different changes: accented syllables were pronounced with great distinctness and precision, while unaccented became less distinct and were phonetically weakened. The differences between the sounds in stressed position were preserved and emphasised, whereas the contrasts between the unaccented sounds were weakened and lost. Since the stress was fixed on the root, the weakening and loss of sounds mainly affected the suffixes and grammatical endings. Many ending merged with the suffixes, were weakened and dropped. E.g. (the reconstructed word) Proto-Germanic **fiskaz*, Gothic *fisks*, Old Icelandic *fiscr*, OE *fisc*.

The First or Proto-Germanic Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law)

Comparison with other languages within the Indo-European family reveals regular correspondences between Germanic and non-Germanic consonants. It looks as if the Germanic consonants 'shifted' as compared

with their non-Germanic counterparts. This phenomenon was first observed and later formulated in terms of phonetic law (1822) by (Rasmus Rask and Jacob Grimm. Hence its name – Grimm’s Law. By Grimm’s Law, which includes 3 acts, voiceless plosives (stops) developed in Proto-Germanic into voiceless fricatives (1 act); voiced aspirated plosives were shifted to pure voiced plosives or voiced fricatives; and voiced plosives changed into voiceless plosives (stops) (pic. 1).

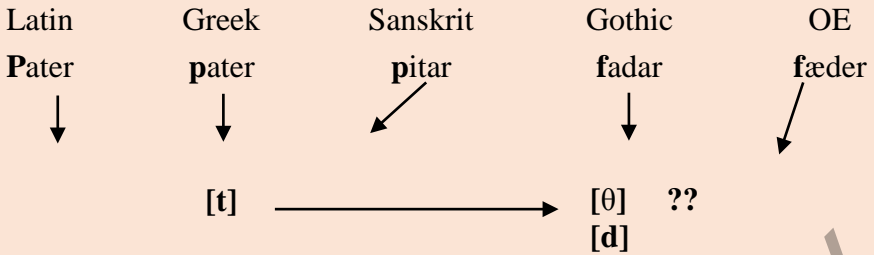
Act		
1 st	2 nd	3 ^d
[p] → [f] pater – faðar [t] → [θ] tres – ðreis [i:] [k] → [h] cor(d) – heorte	[b] → [p] слабый – slepan [d] → [t] древо – treow [g] → [k] горе – caru	[bh] → [b] bhrata – broðor [dh] → [d] vidhave – widve [gh] → [g] гость – Gast
↓ [bh – b – p – f] [dh – d – t – θ] [gh – g – k – h]		

Picture 1 – Grimm’s Law

The correspondences found between Indo-European and Germanic consonants are interpreted in the following manner: the Germanic sounds are the result of a development of the original Indo-European sounds caused by external and internal factors.

Verner’s Law

Careful investigation of Grimm’s Law revealed some inconsistencies, which were generally explained as exceptions to the rule. In some cases it is voiced stops rather than voiceless fricatives that correspond in Germanic to Indo-European voiceless stop. For example,



The Danish scholar Karl Verner was the first to explain them as the result of further development of Germanic languages. According to Verner, all the early Proto-Germanic voiceless fricatives [f, θ, h] which arose under Grimm's Law, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; otherwise they remained voiceless. The voicing of fricatives occurred in early Proto-Germanic at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme.

[f – v – b] *seofon*.

[θ – ð – d] Old Icelandic *hundrað – hundert*.

[h – g] Gothic *swaihro*; OE *sweger*.

[s – z – r] Latin *auris*; Gothic *auso*; Icelandic *eyra* (ear).

The change of [z] into [r] is called rhotacism.

As a result of voicing, there arose an interchange of consonants in the grammatical forms of the word, termed grammatical interchange. Part of the forms retained a voiceless fricative, while other forms acquired a voiced fricative. For example, *heffen* (Infinitive) – *huob* (Past sg.) – heave; *ceosan* (choose) – *curon* (Past pl.). Some modern English words retained traces of Verner's Law: *death – dead*; *was – were*, *raise – rear*.

Throughout history, Proto-Germanic vowels displayed a strong tendency to change. The changes were of the following kinds: qualitative and quantitative, dependent and independent. Qualitative changes affect the quality of the sound, for example, [o – a] or [p – f]; quantitative changes are those which make long sounds short or short sounds long. For example, [i – i:]; dependent changes are restricted to certain positions when a sound may change under the influence of the neighbouring sounds or in a certain type of a syllable; independent changes or regular (spontaneous) take place irrespective of phonetic conditions, that is they may affect a certain sound in all positions. In accented syllables the oppositions between vowels were carefully maintained and the number of stressed

vowels grew. In unaccented positions the original contrasts between vowels were weakened or lost; the distinction of short and long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped in unstressed final syllables.

Strict differentiation of long and short vowels is regarded as an important characteristic of the Germanic group. Long vowels tended to become closer and to diphthongize, short vowels often changed into more open vowels. Indo-European short [o] changed in Germanic into more open vowel [a] and thus ceased to be distinguished from the original Indo-European [a]; in other words in Proto-Germanic they merged into [o]. Indo-European long [a:] was narrowed to [o:] and merged with [o:]. For example, Latin *nox*, Gothic *nahts*; Latin *mater*, OE *modor*; Sanscrit *bhra:ta*, OE *bro:ðor*.

Р а з д е л 3
ИСТОРИЧЕСКИЕ УСЛОВИЯ РАЗВИТИЯ
АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА.
ЭКСПАНСИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

ТЕМА 1
EARLY HISTORY OF THE BRITISH ISLES

Archeological research has uncovered many layers of prehistoric population on the territory of the British Isles. According to historians, the first people to have inhabited the British Isles were Iberians, the inhabitants of the peninsula in southwestern Europe, occupied by modern Spain and Portugal. It was the Greeks who called them so, probably after the Ebro (Iberus), the peninsula's second longest river (after the Tagus).

But the earliest people whose linguistic affiliation has been established were the Celts. They came to Britain in three waves and immediately preceded the Teutons. Economically and socially the Celts were a tribal society made up of kins, kinship groups, clans and tribes; they practiced a primitive agriculture and traded with Celtic Gaul (modern France).

Normally, modern Celtic languages are divided into 2 groups, Gallo-Breton and the Gaelic. The former include Gallic, which was spoken in Gaul, and British represented by Welsh (Cymry) spoken in Wales, then Cornish in Cornwall (extinct since 18th century), and Breton in Brittany. The latter comprise Irish, Highland Scots (Erse), and Manx, spoken on the Isle of Man by a few hundred people.

In the 1st century B.C. Gaul was occupied by the Romans who had known about insular Celts from Pytheas's records. Having occupied the country, Caesar made two raids on Britain, in 55 and 54 B.C. Although he failed to subjugate the Celts, Roman economic penetration to Britain grew. But it wasn't until A.D. 43 that the country's conquest and Romanisation started. The Roman occupation lasted nearly 400 years and came to an end in the early 5th century A.D. when the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain due to internal and external causes. After the departure of the

Romans, Britain remained unprotected from numerous enemies surrounding it such as the Picts and Scots from Scotland and Ireland and Germanic tribes from the mainland which made piratical raids on the British shores. Besides, the Britons fought among themselves which also weakened the country. So it is quite natural that they were unable to offer resistance to the enemies that attacked them in the middle of the 5th century A.D.

According to Venerable Bede (673–735), an ancient monastic scholar and historian who wrote the first history of Britain (*Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum*), the invaders came to Britain in A.D. 449 under the leadership of two Germanic kings, Hengist and Horsa; they had been invited by a British king as assistants and allies in a local war. The newcomers soon dispossessed their hosts, and other Germanic people followed. They came in multitude, in families and clans, to settle in the occupied territories.

According to Bede, the ‘newcomers were of three strongest races of Germany, the Saxons, the Angles and the Jutes (and also Frisians). It is uncertain whether they belonged to different tribes or perhaps constituted two mixed waves of invaders differing mainly in the place and time of arrival. They were called Angles and Saxons by the Romans and by the Celts but preferred to call themselves *Angelcyn* (English people) and applied this name to the conquered territories: *Angelcynnes land* (land of the English), hence *England*.

The conquerors settled in Britain in the following way: the Jutes or Frisians settled in Kent and the Isle of Wight; the Saxons occupied territories south of the Thames and some stretches north of it, and depending on location were called South Saxons, West Saxons and East Saxons (late also Mid Saxons). The Saxons consolidated into a number of petty kingdoms, the largest and most powerful of which was Wessex, the kingdom of West Saxons. The last people to settle in Britain were the Angles which occupied most of the territory north of the Thames up to the Firth of Forth, namely the districts between the Wash and the Humber, and to the North of Humber. They founded large kingdoms which absorbed their weaker neighbours: *East Anglia*, *Mercia* and *Northumbria*

Since the settlement of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain the ties of their language with the continent were broken, and its further development went its own ways. It is at this time, the 5th century that the history of the English language begins. The Anglo-Saxons occupied the territory of

modern England and part of Scotland while Wales, Ireland, the Scottish Highlands and Cornwall remained Celtic.

TEMA 2 OE KINGDOMS AND DIALECTS

The Germanic tribes founded seven separate kingdoms, which during four centuries struggled with one another for supremacy. They were *Kent*, *Sussex*, *Essex*, *Wessex*, *Mercia*, *East Anglia* and *Northumbria*, which consisted of two parts, *Bernicia* and *Deira*. In this prolonged struggle it was sometimes Kent, or Northumbria and sometimes Mercia that would take the upper hand (pre-written history) and Wessex (the period of written records). In 828 the struggle came to an end with the decisive victory of Wessex. Egbert, king of Wessex, subdued Mercia and Northumbria. Since then kings of Wessex became kings of England, and the capital of Wessex, Winchester, became the capital of England.

The Germanic tribes spoke closely related tribal dialects belonging to the West Germanic subgroup. Their common origin and their separation from other related tongues as well as their joint evolution in Britain transformed them eventually into a single tongue, English. Yet, at the early stages of their development in Britain the dialects remained disunited. On the one hand, the OE dialects acquired certain common features which distinguished them from continental Germanic tongues; on the other hand, they displayed growing regional divergence. The feudal system was setting in, and the dialects were entering a new phase; tribal dialectal division was superseded by geographical division, in other words, tribal dialects were transformed into local or regional dialects.

There were four main dialects spoken at that time in Britain: *Kentish*, the dialect developed from the tongue spoken by the Jutes and Frisians; *West Saxon*, the main dialect of the Saxon group, spoken in the rest of England south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel, excluding Cornwall and Wales, where Celtic tongues were spoken. Other Saxon dialects have not survived in written form and are not known to modern scholars; Mercian, spoken by the Angles between the Humber and the Thames; Northumbrian, another Anglian dialect, from the Humber north to the river Forth (hence the name – North-Humbrian).

The boundaries between the dialects were uncertain and probably movable. The dialects passed into one another imperceptibly and dialectal forms were freely borrowed from one dialect into another. Throughout this period the dialects enjoyed relative equality; none of them was the dominant form of speech, each being the main type used over a limited area.

TEMA 3 SCANDINAVIAN RAIDS

In the 8th century raiders from Scandinavia (the Danes) made their first plundering attacks on England. The struggle of the English against the Scandinavians lasted over 300 years, in the course of which period more than half of England was occupied by the invaders and reconquered again. The Scandinavians subdued Northumbria and East Anglia, ravaged the eastern part of Mercia, and advanced on Wessex. Like their predecessors, the West Germanic tribes, they came in large numbers to settle in the new areas. They founded many towns and villages in northern England with a mixed population made up of the English and the Danes. Since the languages of the conquerors and the conquered were similar, linguistic amalgamation was easy (*fisc – fiscr*).

Wessex stood at the head of the resistance. Under King Alfred of Wessex, one of the greatest figures in English history, by the peace treaty of 878 England was divided into two parts: the north-eastern half was called *Danelag* (Danelaw) and the south-western part united under the leadership of Wessex. The reconquest of Danish territories was carried on successfully by Alfred's successors, but in the late 10th century Danish raids were renewed again; they reached a new climax in the early 11th century headed by Swain and Canute (Knut). The attacks were followed by demands for regular payments of large sums of money called *Danegeld* (Danish money) collected from many districts and towns. In 1017 Canute was acknowledged as king, and England became part of a great northern empire, comprising Denmark and Norway. On Canute's death (1035) his kingdom broke up and England regained political independence; by that time it was a single state divided into 6 earldoms.

TEMA 4

KING ALFRED AND HIS LITERARY ACTIVITIES

King Alfred known as *Alfred the Great* is normally given credit not only for his military and diplomatic skills, but also for his literary and translating activities.

Alfred is the only English monarch to be known as “The Great”. He has been hailed as the Saviour of England. That may be debatable in the strict sense – there was not as yet one “England”, more a federation waiting to be moulded into one. Alfred is claimed to have saved the English language, it is in one of his own translations – in the preface to Gregory’s *Pastoral Care* – that one of the first appearances of the word “*Englisc*”, describing the language, is recorded. But Alfred not only saved the language, he dug it even more deeply into the minds of his people by using English as a rallying force and even more importantly as the conduit for an intense programme of education.

Because it was under his reign that learning and literature began to flourish in Wessex in the 9th century. He is said to have gathered a group of scholars at his court at Winchester. An erudite himself, Alfred realized that culture could reach the people only in their own tongue. He shared the contemporary view that Viking raids were a divine punishment for the people's sins, and he attributed these to the decline of learning, for only through learning could men acquire wisdom and live in accordance with God's will. Hence, in the lull from attack between 878 and 885, he invited scholars to his court from Mercia, Wales, and the European continent. He learned Latin himself and began to translate Latin books into English in 887. He directed that all young freemen of adequate means must learn to read English, and, by his own translations and those of his helpers, he made available English versions of “those books most necessary for all men to know,” books that would lead them to wisdom and virtue. *The Ecclesiastical History of the English People*, by the English historian Bede, and the *Seven Books of Histories Against the Pagans*, by Paulus Orosius, a 5th century theologian—neither of which was translated by Alfred himself, though they have been credited to him – revealed the divine purpose in history. Alfred’s translation of the *Pastoral Care* of St. Gregory I, the great 6th century pope, provided a manual for priests in the instruction of their flocks, and a translation by Bishop Werferth of Gregory’s *Dialogues*

supplied edifying reading on holy men. Alfred's rendering of the Soliloquies of the 5th century theologian St. Augustine of Hippo, to which he added material from other works of the Fathers of the Church, discussed problems concerning faith and reason and the nature of eternal life. This translation deserves to be studied in its own right, as does his rendering of Boethius' Consolation of Philosophy. In considering what is true happiness and the relation of providence to faith and of predestination to free will, Alfred does not fully accept Boethius' position but depends more on the early Fathers. In both works, additions include parallels from contemporary conditions, sometimes revealing his views on the social order and the duties of kingship. Alfred wrote for the benefit of his people, but he was also deeply interested in theological problems for their own sake and commissioned the first of the translations, Gregory's Dialogues, "that in the midst of earthly troubles he might sometimes think of heavenly things." He may also have done a translation of the first 50 psalms. Though not Alfred's work, the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, one of the greatest sources of information about Saxon England, which began to be circulated about 890, may have its origin in the intellectual interests awakened by the revival of learning under him. His Wessex dialect would become the first Standard English. His reign also saw activity in building and in art, and foreign craftsmen were attracted to his court.

TEMA 5

THE ME PERIOD.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST AND ITS INFLUENCE ON THE LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN ENGLAND

The Norman conquest of England began in 1066. It proved to be a turning point in English history and had a considerable influence on the English language. The Normans were by origin a Scandinavian tribe (*Norman* < *Norþman*). In the 9th century they began inroads on the northern part of France and occupied the territory on both shores of the Seine estuary. Under the treaty concluded in 912 with the Norman chief Rollo, the French king Charles the Simple ceded to the Normans this stretch of coast, which since then came to be called Normandy. During the century and a half between the Normans' settlement in France and their invasion of England

they had undergone a powerful influence of French culture. Mixing with the local population, they adopted the French language and in the mid-eleventh century, in spite of their Scandinavian origin, they were bearers of French feudal culture and of the French language.

Soon after Canute's death (1042) and the collapse of his empire, the old Anglo-Saxon line was restored but their reign was short-lived. The new English king, Edward the Confessor (1042–1066), who had been reared in France, brought over many Norman advisors and favourites; he distributed among them English lands and wealth to the considerable resentment of the Anglo-Saxon nobility and appointed them to important positions in the government and church hierarchy. He not only spoke French himself, but insisted on it being spoken by the nobles at his court. William, Duke of Normandy, visited his court and it was rumoured that Edward appointed him his successor. In many respects Edward paved the way for Norman infiltration long before the Norman conquest. However, the government was still in the hands of Anglo-Saxon lords, headed by the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex.

In 1066, upon Edward's death, the Elders of England proclaimed Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William of Normandy, he mustered a big army by promise of land and plunder (one third of his soldiers were Norman, others mercenaries from all over Europe), and with the support of the Pope, landed in Britain.

In the battle of Hasting, fought on October 14, 1066, Harold was killed and the English were defeated. A victory in battle by Alfred saved the English language, less than two hundred years later a defeat in battle by Harold threatened to destroy it. This date is commonly known as the date of the Norman Conquest, though the military occupation of the country was not completed until a few years later. After the victory at Hastings, William bypassed London cutting it off from the North and made the Witan of London and the bishops at Westminster Abbey crown him king. In the course of a few years, putting down revolts in various parts of the country, burning down villages and estates, the Normans became masters of England. Mercia and Northumbria, which tried to rise against the conquerors, were relentlessly crushed and almost depopulated. Old fortifications were replaced by huge stone Norman castles while most of the lands of the Anglo-Saxon lords passed into the hands of the Norman barons. William's own

possessions comprised about one third of the country. The Normans occupied all the major post in the church, government and in the army.

Following the conquest hundreds of people from France crossed the Channel to make their home in Britain. Immigration was easy, since the Norman kings of Britain were also dukes of Normandy and, about a hundred years later, took possession of the whole western part of France, thus bringing England into still closer contact with the continent. French monks, tradesmen and craftsmen flooded the south-western towns, so that not only the higher nobility but also much of the middle class was French. Generally speaking, during the reign of William the Conqueror (1066–1087) about 200 000 Frenchmen settled in England. After the Norman conquest of 1066 the linguistic situation in England was the following: the royal family and the court, the government and the feudal upper classes spoke Norman (French). It was also the everyday language of many nobles, of the higher clergy and of many townspeople in the South. The intellectual life, literature and education were in the hands of French-speaking people; French, along with Latin, was the language of writing. Teaching was largely conducted in French and boys at school were taught to translate their Latin into French instead of English.

However, the main bulk of the population – the peasantry and the townspeople, and people in the countryside, those who lived in the Midlands and up north – spoke Anglo-Saxon (English) and looked upon French as foreign and hostile. Since most of the people were illiterate, the English language was almost exclusively used for spoken communication.

Alongside these two languages a third language existed, Latin, as the international language of the church and medieval church science (within the boundaries of Western Europe).

At first French and English existed side by side without mingling. Then slowly and quietly they began to permeate each other. The Norman barons and the French town-dwellers had to pick up English words to make themselves understood, while the English began to use French words in everyday speech. A good knowledge of French would mark a person of higher standing giving him a certain social prestige. With time probably many people became bilingual and had a fair command of both languages.

These peculiar linguistic conditions could not remain static. The struggle between French and English was bound to end in the complete victory of English, for it was the living language of the entire people, while

French was restricted to certain social spheres and to writing. Yet the final victory was still a long way off.

In the 13th century only a few steps were made in this direction. The earliest sign of the official recognition of English by the Norman kings was the famous *Proclamation* issued by Henry III in 1258 to the councilors in Parliament. It was written in 3 languages: French, Latin and English. King Henry IV (1399–1413) was the first English king whose mother tongue was English. In 1399 when accepting the throne he made his first official speech in English. In 1362 (under king Edward III) Parliament, acting on a petition of the City of London, ruled that courts of law should conduct their business in English, as ‘French was too little known’. In the same year English was first used in Parliament itself. About this time French was replaced by English as the language of teaching in schools. Thus, by the end of the 14th century supremacy of Anglo-Norman came to an end, though some scattered remains of it stayed on till a much later time, and isolated French formulas have survived until the present, such as the motto on the British coat-of-arms: ‘Dieu et mon droit’ (*God and my right*). The victory of English was due to the rise of social layers that spoke it – the gentry and the town bourgeoisie, which took the upper hand in the struggle against the feudal top layer of society. And there are some other reasons why English survived?

1. And the most obvious: the pre-Conquest OE vernacular, both written and spoken, was simply too well established, too vigorous, and, due to its fusion with the Scandinavian languages, too hard to be obliterated. The English speakers had an overwhelming demographic advantage. Pragmatically, it’s obvious that the English were not going to stop speaking English because they had been conquered by a foreigner.

2. English survived because almost immediately the Normans began to intermarry with those they had conquered. Of course, in the first generation after the conquest, there were bound to be deep divisions within the society. Barely 100 years after the invasion, a chronicler wrote that “the two nations have become so mixed that it is scarcely possible today, speaking of free men to tell who is English and who is of Norman race”.

3. In 1204, due to military impetuosity of King John, the Anglo-Normans lost control of their french territory across the Channel. Many of the Norman nobility, who had held lands in both countries and divided their time between them, were forced to declare allegiance either to France or England.

TEMA 6

ME DIALECTS.

GROWTH OF DIALECTAL DIFFERENCES

In Early ME the differences between the regional dialects grew. Never in history, before or after, was the historical background more favourable for dialectal differentiation. The main dialectal division in England, which survived in later ages with some light modification of boundaries and considerable dialect mixture, goes back to the feudal stage of British history. In the age of poor communication dialect boundaries often coincided with geographical barriers such as rivers, marshes, forests and mountains, as these barriers would hinder the diffusion of linguistic features. **In addition to economic, geographical and social conditions, dialectal differences in early ME were accentuated by some historical events, namely the Scandinavian invasions and the Norman Conquest.**

In the 14th century there were three main groups of dialects in English: *Northern*, *Midland* and *Southern* which had developed from respective OE dialects. The boundary line between North and Midland was the river Humber that between Midland and South ran approximately along the Thames. (The precise division is impossible as available sources are scarce and unreliable.)

The Southern group included the *Kentish* and the *South-Western* dialects. Kentish was a direct descendant of the same OE dialect. As for the South-Western group, it was a continuation of the OE Saxon dialects (both West Saxon and East Saxon). The East Saxon was not prominent in OE, but became more important in Early ME, since it made the basis of the dialect of London in the 12th and 13th centuries. (The London dialect also belongs to this group).

The Midland (central) dialects which corresponded to the OE Mercian dialect, were divided into West Midland and East Midland as two main areas, with further subdivisions within: South-East Midland and North-east Midland, South-West Midland and North-West Midland. In ME the Midland area became more diversified linguistically than the OE Mercian kingdom occupying approximately the same territory.

The Northern dialects had developed from OE Northumbrian. In early ME the Northern dialects included several provincial dialects, e.g. Yorkshire and the Lancashire dialects and also what later became known as

Scottish. The dialects differed from each other by essential phonetic and morphological features. These differences corresponded to the geographical distribution of the dialects: discrepancies between the extreme dialects were greater than those between each of the extremes and the Midland.

A ME translator called John Trevisa wrote: *‘Men of the East with men of the West, as it were under the same part of heaven, agree more in pronunciation of speech, than men of the North with men of the South. Therefore the Mercians, who are part of Midland England, as it were partners with the ends, understand the side languages, Northern and Southern, better than Northerners and Southerners understand one another’.*

In the course of early ME the area of the English language in the British Isles grew. Following the Norman Conquest the former Celtic kingdoms fell under Norman rule. Wales was subjugated in the late 13th century; its eastern half became part of England, while the North and West of Wales was a principality governed separately. In the late 12th century the English made their first attempts to conquer Ireland. The invaders settled among the Irish and were soon assimilated, a large proportion of the invaders being Welshmen. Though part of Ireland was ruled from England, the country remained divided and had little contact with England. The English language was used there alongside Celtic languages – Irish and Welsh – and was influenced by Celtic.

The Early ME dialectal division was preserved in the succeeding centuries, though even in Late ME the linguistic situation changed. In Early ME, while the state language and the main language of literature was French, the local dialects were relatively equal. In Late ME, when English had been reestablished as the main language of administration and writing, one of the regional dialects, the London dialect, prevailed over the others.

In the 14th and 15th centuries the dialectal division was the same but the relations among the dialects were changing. The extension of trade beyond the confines of local boundaries, the growth of towns with a mixed population favoured the intermixture and amalgamation of the regional dialects. More intensive inter-influence of the dialects, among other facts, is attested by the penetration of Scandinavian loan-words into the West-Midland and Southern dialects from the North and by the spread of French borrowings in the reverse direction. The most important event in the changing linguistic situation was the rise of the London dialect as the prevalent written form of language.

As is known, the history of London goes back to the Roman period. Even in OE times London was by far the biggest town in Britain, although the capital of Wessex – the main English kingdom – was Winchester. The capital was transferred to London a few years before the Norman Conquest.

TEMA 7

THE NEW ENGLISH PERIOD.

THE 16 CENTURY – THE PERIOD OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE NATIONAL LITERARY LANGUAGE

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

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

Economic and Political Unification. Conditions for Linguistic Unity

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

The village artisans and craftsmen travelled about the country looking for a greater market for their produce. They settled in the old towns and founded new ones near big monasteries, on the rivers and at the cross roads. The crafts became separated from agriculture, and new social groups came into being: poor town artisans, the town middle class, rich merchants, owners of workshops and money-lenders.

The 15th and 16th centuries saw other striking changes in the life of the country: while feudal relations were decaying, bourgeois relations and

the capitalist mode of production were developing rapidly. Trade had extended beyond the local boundaries and in addition to farming and cattle-breeding, an important wool industry was carried on in the countryside. Britain began to export woollen cloth produced by the first big enterprises, the “manufactures”. The landowners evicted the peasants and enclosed their land with ditches and fences, turning it into vast pastures.

The new nobility, who traded in wool, fused with the rich townspeople to form a new class, the bourgeoisie, while the evicted farmers, the poor artisans and monastic servants turned into farm labourers, wage workers and paupers. The changes in the economic and social conditions led to the intermixture of people coming from different regions and to the strengthening of social ties between the various parts of the country. Economic and social changes were accompanied by political unification. In the last quarter of the 15th century, England became a centralized state.

At the end of the Hundred Years’ War, when the feudal lords and their hired armies came home from France, life in Britain became more turbulent than ever. The warlike nobles, disappointed with their defeat in France, fought for power at the King’s Court; continued anarchy and violence broke out into a civil war known as the *Wars of the Roses* (1455–1485). The thirty-year contest for the possession of the crown ended in the establishment of a strong royal power under Henry VII, the founder of the Tudor dynasty.

The absolute monarchy of the Tudors was based on a new relation of class forces: the crown had the support of the middle class. Henry VII reduced the power of the old nobles and created a new aristocracy out of the rural and town bourgeoisie. The next step in the creation of absolute monarchy was to break the monopoly of the medieval Papacy. This was achieved by his successor, Henry VIII (1509–1547), who quarreled with the Pope, declared himself head of the English Church and dissolved the monasteries (the English Reformation, 1529–1536); now the victory of the Crown was complete. The economic and political unification played a decisive role in the development of the English language. All over the world the victory of capitalism over feudalism was linked up with the consolidation of people into nations, the formation of national languages and the growth of superdialect forms of language to be used as a national Standard. The rise of capitalism helped to knit together the people and to unify their language.

Progress of Culture. Introduction of Printing

The 15th and 16th century. in Western Europe are marked by renewed interest in classical art and literature and by a general efflorescence of culture. The rise of new vigorous social class – the bourgeoisie – proved an enormous stimulus to the progress of learning, science, literature and art.

The universities at Oxford and Cambridge (founded in the 12th century) became the centres of new humanistic learning. Henry VIII assembled at his court a group of brilliant scholars and artists. Education had ceased to be the privilege of the clergy; it spread to laymen (мирянин) and people of lower social ranks. After the Reformation teachers and tutors could be laymen as well as clergymen.

As before, the main subject in schools was Latin; the English language was labelled as “a rude and barren tongue”, fit only to serve as an instrument in teaching Latin. Scientific and philosophical treatises were written in Latin, which was not only the language of the church but also the language of philosophy and science. The influence of classical languages on English grew and was reflected in the enrichment of the vocabulary.

Of all the outstanding achievements of this great age the invention of printing had the most immediate effect on the development of the language, its written form in particular. “Artificial writing” as printing was then called, was invented in Germany in 1438 (by Johann Gutenberg); the first printer of English books was William Caxton.

William Caxton (1422–1491) was born in Kent. In 1441 he moved to Flanders, where he spent over three decades of his life. During a visit to Cologne he learned the method of printing and in 1473 opened up his own printing press in Bruges. The first English book, printed in Bruges in 1475, was Caxton’s translation of the story of Troy “RECUYELL OF THE HISTORYES OF TROYE”. A few years later he brought his press over to England and set it up in Westminster, not far outside the city of London. All in all about one hundred books were issued by his press and about a score of them were either translated or edited by Caxton himself.

Among the earliest publications were the poems of Geoffrey Chaucer, still the most popular poet in England, the poems of John Gower, the compositions of John Lydgate, the most voluminous (плодовитый) poet of the age, Trevisa’s translation of the “POLYCHRONICON”, and others. Both Caxton and his associates took a greater interest in the works of

medieval literature than in the works of ancient authors or theological and scientific treatises (трактат) published by the printers on the continent. About one quarter of his publications were translations from French, e.g.: “RECUYELL OF THE HISTORYES OF TROYE” mentioned above, “GAME AND PLAYE OF THE CHESSE”, the famous romance of knightly adventure “MORTE D’ARTHUR” (“Death of Arthur”) by Thomas Malory, one of the last works in this genre.

In preparing the manuscripts for publication William Caxton and his successors edited them so as to bring them into conformity with the London form of English used by their contemporaries. In doing this they sometimes distorted the manuscripts considerably. Their corrections enable us to see some of the linguistic changes that had occurred since the time when the texts were first written. Here are some substitutions made by Caxton in Trevisa’s POLYCHRONICON, written a hundred years before:

Trevisa: *i-cleped, ich, steihe, as me troweth, chapinge;*

Caxton: *called, I, ascended, as men supposed, market.*

It is difficult to overestimate the influence of the first printers in fixing and spreading the written form of English. The language they used was the London literary English established since the age of Chaucer and slightly modified in accordance with the linguistic changes that had taken place during the intervening hundred years. With cheap printed books becoming available to a greater number of readers, the London form of speech was carried to other regions and was imitated in the written works produced all over England.

The greatest influence exerted by the printers was that on the written form of the word. Caxton’s spelling, for all its irregularities and inconsistencies, was more normalised than the chaotic spelling of the manuscripts. The written forms of many words perpetuated by Caxton were accepted as standard and have often remained unchanged in spite of the drastic changes in pronunciation. It should be noted that Caxton’s spelling faithfully reproduced the spelling of the preceding century and was conservative even in his day.

In conclusion we may recall that so great was the effect of printing on the development of the language that the year 1475 – the date of the publication of the first English book – is regarded as a turning point in English linguistic history and the start of a new period – New English.

Foreign Contacts in the Early New English Period

The Tudors encouraged the development of trade inside and outside the country. The great geographical discoveries (beginning with the discovery of the New World in 1492) gave a new impetus to the progress of foreign trade: English traders set forth on daring journeys in search of gold and treasures. Under the later Tudors England became one of the biggest trade and sea powers. The main events of the reign of Queen Elizabeth (1558–1603) were connected with the rise of merchant capital. Ousting her rivals from many markets England became involved in the political struggle of the European countries for supremacy. Most complicated were her relations with France, Spain and Portugal: in 1588 England defeated the Spanish fleet, the *Invincible Armada*, thus dealing a final blow to Spain, her main rival in overseas trade and in colonial expansion. In the late 16th century England founded her first colonies abroad.

The contacts of England with foreign nations, although not necessarily friendly, became closer, which had an inevitable influence on the growth of the vocabulary.

TEMA 8

EXPANSION OF ENGLISH OVER THE BRITISH ISLES

As Britain consolidated into a single powerful state, it extended its borders to include Wales, Scotland and part of Ireland. As mentioned before, the partial subjugation of Wales was the last stage of the Norman Conquest. It was not until the 16th century, however, that the annexation was completed. Both during the wars and after the final occupation, the English language penetrated into Wales and partly replaced the native Celtic dialect; a large proportion of the aboriginal population, however, did not give up their mother tongue and continued to speak Welsh. (It is noteworthy that to this day Wales has preserved a large number of old Celtic place-names and the Welsh dialect.)

The attempts to conquer Ireland in the 13th and 14th century ended in failure. In Ireland, only the area around Dublin was ruled direct from England, the rest of the country being Irish or Anglo-Irish. Ireland remained divided among innumerable chiefs and turned into one of the poorest and most backward countries. Despite the weak ties with England

and the assimilation of English and Welsh invaders by the Irish, in penetration continued.

The repeated claims of the English kings to be overlords of Scotland were met with protest and revolt. In the early 14th century Scotland's independence was secured by the victories of Robert Bruce. Feudal Scotland remained a sovereign kingdom until the later Tudors, but the influence of the English language was greater than elsewhere.

Scotland began to fall under English linguistic influence from the 11 century, when England made her first attempts to conquer the territory. The mixed population of Scotland – the native Scots and Picts, the Britons (who had fled from the Germanic invasion), the Scandinavians (who had stayed on after the Scandinavian settlement), and the English who had gradually moved to the north) from the neighboring regions) was NOT homogeneous in language. The Scotch-Gaelic dialect of the Scots was driven to the Highlands, while in Lowland Scotland the Northern English dialect gave rise to a new dialect, Scottish, which had a chance to develop into an independent language, an offshoot of English. The Scottish tongue flourished as a literary language and produced a distinct literature as long as Scotland retained its sovereignty. After the unification with England under the Stuarts (1603), and the loss of what remained of Scotland's self-government, Scottish was once again reduced to dialectal status. In the subsequent centuries English became both the official and the literary language in Scotland.

Thus by the end of the Early New English period, the area of English had expanded, to embrace the whole of the British Isles with the exception of some mountainous parts of Wales and Scotland, the Isle of Man, Cornwall and some parts of Ireland, though even in most of these regions people were becoming bilingual.

TEMA 9

FLOURISHING OF LITERATURE IN EARLY NEW ENGLISH (LITERARY RENAISSANCE)

The growth of the national literary language and especially the fixation of its Written Standard is inseparable from the flourishing of literature known as the English Literary Renaissance.

The beginnings of the literary efflorescence go back to the 16th century. After a fallow period of dependence on Chaucer, literary activity gained momentum in the course of the 16th century and by the end of it attained such an importance as it had never known before. This age of literary flourishing is known as the “age of Shakespeare” or the age of Literary Renaissance (also the “Elizabethan age” for it coincided roughly with the reign of Elizabeth). The most notable forerunners of the literary Renaissance in the first half of the 16th century were the great English humanist Thomas More (1478–1535) and William Tyndale, the translator of the Bible. The chief work of Thomas More, UTOPIA was finished in 1516; it was written in Latin and was first translated into English in 1551. In Utopia Th. More expressed his opposition to the way of life in contemporary England, which he defined as “a conspiracy of the rich against the poor” and drew a picture of an ideal imaginary society in which equality, freedom and well-being were enjoyed by all. More’s other works were written in English; most interesting are his pamphlets during a controversy with W. Tyndale over the translation of the Bible.

William Tyndale was a student at Oxford and Cambridge and a priest in the church. In 1526 he completed a new English translation of the Bible. Both in his translations and original works Tyndale showed himself one of the first masters of English prose. He exerted a great influence not only on the language of the Church but also on literary prose and on the spoken language. The later versions of the Bible, and first of all the Authorised Version – KING JAMES’ BIBLE (produced by a body of translators and officially approved in 1611) was in no small measure based on Tyndale’s translation.

As elsewhere, the Renaissance in England was a period of rapid progress of culture and a time of great men. The literature of Shakespeare’s generation proved exceptionally wealthy in writers of the first order. William Shakespeare (1564–1616) was the chief of the Elizabethan dramatists as well as a genius whose writings have influenced every age and every country. Shakespeare’s plays were greatly admired in the theatres but less than half of them were printed in his lifetime. The first collected edition of his plays was the Folio of 1623.

It is universally recognized that Shakespeare outclassed all his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies and sonnets) and surpassed them all in his mastery of the English tongue. His works give an ideal representation of the literary language of his

day. His vast vocabulary (amounting to over 20,000 words), freedom in creating new words and new meanings, versatility of grammatical construction reflect the fundamental properties of the language of the period.

TEMA 10

NEW SOURCES OF INFORMATION ABOUT THE LANGUAGE PRIVATE PAPERS AND DIDACTIC COMPOSITIONS

The amount of written matter which has come down to us from the Early New English period is far greater than that of the OE and ME periods, for the simple reason that many more texts were produced and had a better chance to survive during the relatively short span of time which has elapsed since. In addition to the writings of a literary, philosophical, theological, scientific or official character, produced, copied or printed by professionals, there appeared new kinds of written evidence pertaining to the history of the language: private papers. With the spread of education more people could read and write; they began to correspond and to write diaries. Extant family archives contain papers written both by educated and by uncultivated persons. The significance of their evidence for the history of the language is obvious: the writers were not guided by written tradition and could not set themselves any literary aims; they recorded the words, forms and pronunciations in current use, putting their own English on paper and reflecting all kinds of dialectal and colloquial variants. The earliest collections of letters preserved in family archives are the PASTON LETTERS written between 1430 and 1470 by members of the Paston family in Norfolk (i.e. in the East Midland dialect of late ME) and the CELY PAPERS written in the same dialect a short time later.

Numerous private letters of the 16th century give a fair picture of colloquial speech, so far as it is possible in a written document. Of greatest value is the DIARY of Henry Machyn, a London merchant with no particular education. This diary as well as other private papers, bear testimony to the existence of social differences in the regional dialects, e.g. the existence of Cockney, a lower class London dialect since tin early 16th century.

The renewed interest in living languages in the 16th and 17th century, which came to be regarded as more important for practical purposes than the classical ones, led to the appearance of one more kind of printed

matter: books of instruction for pupils, didactic works and various other compositions dealing with the English language.

A large number of early works concerned with the English language deal with “correct writing”, in other words with spelling and pronunciation. The current ways of indicating sounds seemed inconsistent to many scholars and schoolmasters; they attempted to improve and regulate the graphic system of the language by designing better alphabets or by proposing rules for more consistent spelling. In the early 16th century John Cheke, a scholar of Cambridge and a pioneer among spelling reformers, proposed that all letters should be doubled to indicate length – a practice very irregularly employed before his time; his associate Thomas Smith in his “DIALOGUE CONCERNING THE CORRECT AND EMENDED WRITING Of THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE” (1568) set out a new alphabet of 34 letters to the same object. The greatest English phonetician of the 16th century, in the opinion of modern philologists, was John Hart, who produced a number of works, especially “AN ORTHOGRAPHIE” (1569). Being a keen observer he noticed the changing values of the letters brought about by the change in the sounds. His reforms of the English spelling, however, were as unsuccessful as those of his contemporaries. Other prominent scholars made no attempt to reform the spelling but tried to make it more consistent, or, conversely, to correct the pronunciation in accordance with the spelling.

For all their limitations and failures, the works of the early spelling reformers and phoneticians are important sources of information about the history of English sounds. Manuals of English were also concerned with matters of grammar and vocabulary. Like many descriptions of other European languages the earliest books dealing with English grammar were modelled on Latin grammars. Thus one of the early guides used in teaching English was a Latin grammar, written by William Lily: ETON LATIN GRAMMAR; it was supplied with English translations and equivalents of Latin forms. The title of another English grammar published in the late 16th century displays the same approach: “A PERFECT SURVEY OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE TAKEN ACCORDING TO THE USE AND ANALOGIE OF THE LATIIN”.

The grammars of the early 17th century were more original. Alexander Gill’s “LOGONOMIA ANGLICA” published in 1619, written

in Latin, contains English illustrations from contemporary authors, e.g. Ph. Sidney, Ben Johnson.

A new approach was postulated in the English grammar composed by the dramatist Ben Johnson, “for the benefit of all strangers out of his observation of the English language now spoken and in use” (1640). Although in the main he followed the traditional pattern of Latin grammars, he paid special attention to word order as an important feature of English grammatical structure, described the article as a separate part of speech; he was puzzled by the lack of order in verb forms, in moods and adverbs; he grouped the nouns into two declensions and subdivided the verbs into conjugations.

The first author to break with the Latin tradition was John Wallis, the most famous of all the 17th century grammarians and phoneticians. His “GRAMMATICA LINGUÆ ANGLICANÆ” was first published in 1653; it was translated into English and went into many editions in the second half of the 17th century.

Other kinds of publications dealing with language were lists of words and dictionaries. The swift development of international trade created a demand for dictionaries; bilingual dictionaries of classical and contemporary languages were produced in increasing numbers in the 16th and 17th centuries. (Dictionaries of dead languages had appeared before that time: glosses to Latin religious works, made since OE were later combined into dictionaries; in 1499 the printers published the first English-Latin Dictionary).

The earliest dictionaries of the English language were selective lists of difficult words. Those days the most common English words were difficult to write, whereas the learned ones, usually Latin borrowings abounded in the writings of the Renaissance, were not only hard to spell but also hard to understand.

To cope with this difficulty, the first English-English explanatory dictionaries were compiled. Robert Cawdrey’s “TABLE ALPHABETICAL CONTEYNING AND TEACHING THE TRUE WRITING, AND UNDERSTANDING OF HARD USUAL ENGLISH WORDS, BORROWED FROM THE HEBREW, GREEK, LATIN OR FRENC – ETC” issued in 1604, is one of the early publications of this kind. Cawdrey’s dictionary was quite small, containing about three thousand words. A slightly larger book was produced by John Bullokar in 1616, “ENGLISH EXPOSITOR TEACHING THE INTERPRETATION OF HARDEST WORDS USED IN OUR LANGUAGE” where he attempted to explain “scholastic” words.

The first book entitled ENGLISH-ENGLISH DICTIONARY, a small volume compiled by Henry Cockeram, appeared in 1623: it contained explanations of common “hard” words or “vulgar” words defined with the help of their bookish equivalents, and stray bits of curious information about “Gods and Goddesses,... Boyes and Maides, ... Monsters and Serpents, Dogges,... Fishes and the like”.

TEMA 11

NORMALISING TENDENCIES

The age of the literary Renaissance, which enriched the language in many ways and was marked by great linguistic freedom, was the period of “normalisation” or period of “fixing the language”. This age set great store by correctness and simplicity of expression. The language of Shakespeare and his contemporaries struck the authors of the late 17th century as rude and unpolished, though the neo-classicists (the term applied to the writers of this period) never reached the heights of the Renaissance writers. John Dryden (1631–1700), a versatile writer and competent stylist of the time, acknowledged “the wit of predecessors” but explicitly disapproved of their language, saying that “there was ever something ill-bred and clownish in it and which confessed the conversation of their authors” (“ESSAYS ON THE DRAMATIC POETRY OF THE LAST AGE”). The great poet John Milton (1608–1674) noted “the corrupt pronunciation of the lower classes”. Correct usage and protection of the language from corruption and change became the SUBJECT of great concern and numerous discussions. In 1664 the Royal Society appointed a special committee “for improving the English tongue”. The fixed structures of dead languages – Greek and Latin loomed in the mind of the neo-classicists and made them regard all linguistic change as corruption that ought to be checked.

The 18th century is remarkable for deliberate attempts to fix the language and interfere with its evolution. Among the exponents of this were the writer Jonathan Swift (1667–1745), the founders of the first English newspapers R. Steele and J. Addison, the authors of prescriptive English grammars and the great 18th century lexicographers.

The new journals issued at regular intervals, the TATLER and the SPECTATOR, published essays recommending simplicity in dress, in be-

haviour and particularly in discourse; language matters were among the most popular subjects. It was in the TATLER (N 230, 1710) that published his first article on language followed by longer treatises: “A Proposal for Correcting, Improving and Ascertaining the English Tongue”. J. Swift, like other purists, protested against careless and deliberate contractions and elisions in formal and informal speech. Leaving out vowels and consonants corrupted pronunciation; the persistent use of set words and fashionable phrases turned conversation into a string of clichés; affected imitation of “genteel” persons in speech spoiled the language. He drew up a detailed proposal that well-informed persons – scholars and men of letters – should be set up in order to fix the correct rules of usage. He was concerned that contemporary writings might become incomprehensible a hundred years hence, if the changes in the language were allowed to proceed at the same speed.

Many new grammars of English were compiled in the age of “fixing the language”. J. Wallis’s “GRAMMATICA LINGAE ANGLICANAE”, which was first published in 1653, won European fame and ran through many editions before the end of the century. He owed much to his predecessors, but was original in the treatment of most problems. He believed that by reducing the English too much to the Latin norm the grammarians have taught too many useless things about the cases of Nouns, and about the Tenses, Moods and Conjugations of Verbs, about government of Nouns and Verbs, etc., matters absolutely foreign to language, producing confusion and obscurity rather than serving as explanations. Why should we introduce a fictitious and quite foolish collection of Cases, Genders, Moods and Tenses, without any need, and which there is no reason in the basis of the language itself? (By that time the grammatical structure of the English language was very similar to that of present-day English.) The grammars of the 18th century were influenced both by the descriptions of classical languages and by the principles of logic. They wished to present language as a strictly logical system (incidentally, it was at that time that many logical terms, such as “subject” and “predicate”, entered grammatical description). The main purpose of these grammars was to formulate rules based on logical considerations to present them as fixed and obligatory; grammars were designed to restrict and direct linguistic change. This type of grammars are known as “prescriptive” or “normative” grammars.

One of the most influential prescriptive grammars was *SHORT INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH GRAMMAR* produced 1762 by Robert Lowth, a theologian and professor of poetry at Oxford. In the preface to his book R. Lowth agreed with the charge that “our language is extremely imperfect”, that it “offends against every part of grammar” and remarked that the best authors commit “many gross improprieties, which ... ought to be corrected”; he complained that in spite of great achievements in literature and style, the English language had made “no advance in Grammatical Accuracy”. The principal design of a Grammar of any Language is to teach us to express ourselves with propriety in that Language; and to enable us to judge every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not. The plain way doing this is to lay down rules and to illustrate them by examples.

The role of English dictionaries in this period of normalization was equally significant.

English lexicography made outstanding progress in the 18th century. Works concerned primarily with the explanation of “hard words” continued to be brought out in great numbers. But the greatest achievement of the 18th century lexicography is connected with the name of Dr. Samuel Johnson (*Dictionary of the English Language*, 1755).

Раздел 4
ДИАХРОНИЧЕСКИЕ ИЗМЕНЕНИЯ
В СИСТЕМЕ ГЛАСНЫХ.
ДРЕВНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
СРЕДНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
НОВОАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД

ТЕМА 1
OE PERIOD

OE is so far removed from MnE 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 accentuation, the system of vowels and consonants and their origins. The OE sound system developed from the Proto-Germanic system. It underwent multiple changes in the pre-written periods of history, especially in Early OE. The diachronic description of phonetics those early periods will show the specifically English tendencies of development and the immediate sources of the sounds in the age of writing.

Word Stress

The system of word accentuation inherited from Proto-Germanic underwent no changes in Early OE.

In OE a syllable was made prominent 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 different grammatical forms of the words, and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either. For example, the Nom. *hlāford*, *cyning*, Dat. *hlāforde*, *cyninge*.

Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had 2 stresses, chief and secondary, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme, and the secondary stress on the second. For example, *Norðmonna*, here the

chief stress falls on the first component, while the second component gets the secondary stress; the Gen. plural ending – a is unstressed.

In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly fixed on the prefix: ā-` risan, `mis-dæd.

OE vowel system

The system of OE vowels in the 9th and 10th centuries is shown below:

Vowles	Short	Long
Monophthongs	<i>Front</i>	
	[i] fisc, scip	[i:] wīn, tīd
	[y] fyllan, pytt	[y:] brȳd, wȳscan
	[e] sprecan, helpan	[e:] fēt, tēθ
	<i>Back</i>	
	[u] sunu, cumin [o] folc, cos [a] faran, caru [a] – positional variants: [æ] glæd, hwæt [o] mann, (monn), cann (conn)	[u:] hūs, tūn [o:] fōt, bōk, gōd [a:] ān, wrāte
Diphthongs	[ea] healf, wearm (before l, r + cons., and before h instead of [a])	[ea:] hēah, ēare
	[eo] steora, feohtan	[eo:] deop, leoht
	[io] siofun (f pronounced v in intervocal position)	[io:] stīoran
	[ie] scield, niht	[ie:] cīese, hīeran

OE vowels underwent different kinds of alterations: **qualitative and quantitative, dependent and independent**. In accented syllables the oppositions between vowels were clearly maintained. In unaccented positions the original contrasts between vowels was weakened or lost; the distinction of short and long vowels was neutralised so that by the age of writing the long vowels in unstressed syllables had been shortened. As for originally short vowels, they tended to be reduced to a neutral sound, losing their qualitative distinctions and were often dropped in unstressed final syllables.

1.3 Changes in the system of vowels

1. Fracture/breaking (преломление) – diphthongization of short vowels [a], [e] before the clusters: [r+ con.], [l + con.], [h+ con.], final [h]: *ærm – earm, herte – heorte, selh – seolh*;

2. Gradation / ablaut: (alternation of vowels in different grammatical forms: in strong verbs: Infinitive (giban), Past sg. (gaf), Past pl. (gebum), Second Part. (gibans));

3. Palatalisation: diphthongisation of vowels under the influence of the initial palatal consonants [g], [c] (before front vowels) and the cluster ‘sc’ (all vowels): *gefan – giefan, scacan – sceacan*;

4. Mutation/Umlaut (перегласовка) – a change of vowel caused by partial assimilation to the following vowel: *i-mutation* – caused by [i], [j] of the following syllable: *namnian – nemnan, fullian – fyllan*; back/velar mutation – phonetic change caused by a back vowel (u, o, a) of the following syllable, which resulted in the diphthongisation of the preceding vowel: *hefon – heofon*;

5. Contraction: if, after a consonant had dropped, two vowels met inside a word, they were usually contracted into one long vowel: *slahan – sle:an*;

6. Lengthening of Vowels: before [nd], [ld], [mb]: *bindan – bīndan; climban – clīmban*.

TEMA 2

ME PERIOD

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 phonetic environment, that is, they were absolutely independent phonemic units. As a result of important changes coming into the vowel system in the 10–12th centuries, the ME vowel system was basically different. While in OE quantity (length/shortness) was a distinctive phonemic feature, in ME (by the 13th century) quantity of vowels becomes dependent on their environment, exactly on what follows. In some phonetic environments only short vowels can appear, while in others only long vowels can appear. Thus quantity is no longer a phonemically relevant feature and becomes a merely phonetic peculiarity of a vowel sound. Let's consider the changes that took place during the ME period.

2.1 Word Stress

During the ME period stress acquired greater positional freedom and began to play a more important role in word derivation. It was caused by phonetic assimilation of thousands of loan-words adopted during this period. New accentual patterns are found in numerous ME loan-words from French. Probably, when they first entered the English language they retained their original stress on the ultimate or penultimate syllable. This kind of stress could not last long. Gradually, as loan-words were assimilated, the word stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word in line with the English (Germanic) system. This shift is accounted for by what is known as the 'recessive tendency'. In disyllabic words the accent moved to the first syllable in conformity with the pattern of native words. In words of three and more syllables the shift of the stress could be caused by the recessive tendency and also by 'the rhythmic tendency', which required a regular alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Under the rhythmic tendency, a secondary stress could arise at a distance of one syllable from the original stress: reco`mmendan – recommend. In many polysyllabic words both tendencies; the recessive and the rhythmic operated together and brought about several changes. For example, in MnE

consolation we find the results of the shift from the final to the preceding syllable [lei] due to the recessive tendency and a secondary stress on the first syllable. Sometimes the shifting of the word stress should be attributed to certain morphological factors. Thus prefixes of many verbs were not stressed in accordance with the OE tradition while corresponding nouns received the stress on the first syllable: present – pre-sent. This example shows that the role of word accentuation has grown; word stress performs a phonological function as it distinguishes a verb from a noun. The position of word stress became relatively free and its phonological application has widened: it can be shifted in word derivation, though it is never moved in building grammatical forms.

Vowel Changes in ME and Early MnE

Levelling of unstressed vowels: all unstressed vowels were as a rule weakened and reduced to a neutral vowel, which was denoted by the letter -e. Thus, the infinitive suffix **-an** was reduced to **-en**: *tellan* – *tellen*, in a similar way: *sunu* – *sune*, *sona*. This weakening of unstressed vowels is closely connected with developments in declension and conjugation. From the 13th century onwards, some dialects showed certain vacillation in spelling unstressed vowels, which probably reflected peculiarities of pronunciation: *askid*, *stonus*.

One of the most important sound changes of the Early ME period of the loss of OE diphthongs and the growth of new diphthongs, with new qualitative and quantitative distinctions.

Monophthongization of OE Diphthongs

All OE diphthongs were monophthongized in ME: *eald* – *ald*, *healf* – *half*, *earm* – *arm* (*poor*). But before [ld] [ea] yielded different results in different dialects. OE short [eo] changed first into the vowel [ö] spelt [eo]. In other dialects it changed into [e]: *heorte* – *hörte*-*herte* (*heart*). OE long [eo:] changed into long closed [e:], often spelt [ee]: *deo:p* – *de:p*, *deep*.

At the same time a new set of diphthongs developed from some sequences of vowels and consonants due to the vocalization of OE [j] and

[ɣ], that is to their change into vowels: these sounds between after vowels changed into [i] and [u] and formed diphthongs together with the preceding vowel: OE *dæg* developed into *day* 'dai'. These changes gave rise to two sets of diphthongs: with i-glides and u-glides (ei, ai, au, ou). In addition to the diphthongs developed from native sources, similar diphthongs – with i- and u-glides are found in some ME loan words: boy, joy, pause, cause. The formation of new diphthongs was an important event in the history of the language. By that time the OE diphthongs had been contracted into monophthongs; the newly formed ME diphthongs differed from the OE in structure: they had an open nucleus and a closer glide; they were arranged into a system consisting of two sets o (with i-glides and u-glides) but were not contrasted through quantity as long to short.

Quantitative vowel changes

Shortening and Lengthening of Vowels. A long vowel before two consonants is shortened: OE – *ce:pan* (infinitive), ME – *ke:pen*, but Past tense – *kepte*; but it remains long in other environments. But long vowels remain long before 'the lengthening' consonant groups: **ld, nd, mb:** *we:nen*, but *we:nde* (past simple). Long consonants also remain long before **-st:** *lae:sta* (*least*) – *le:st*. In the 13th century short vowels were lengthened in open syllables. Lengthening affected the short vowels **a, e, o:** *talū* (*tale*) — *ta:le*, *macian* – *ma:ken*, etc. The narrow vowels **i** and **u** remained as a rule unaffected by this change, and thus the difference between short [i] and long and also between short 'u' and long retained its quality as a phonemically relevant feature.

Changes of individual vowels:

Short and long [a]. OE short [a] usually remained unchanged in ME. OE a/o before a nasal developed differently in different dialects. In West Midland [o] was preserved: *mon, con*; in other dialects (Northern, East Midland and Southern) there is [a]: *man, can*. OE long [a] also developed in different ways in different dialects. In Northern it remained unchanged, while in Midland and Southern it changed into long [o]: *fa:–fo:* (*foe*); *ha:m – ho:m*, etc.

Short [ae] and long [ae]. OE short [ae] in most dialects developed into short [a]: *glæd – glad, aeppele – apple*. But in the West Midland and Kentish it developed into [e]: *gled, eppal*. OE West Saxon long [ae]

changed into long open [e:]: *slae:pan* – *sle:pen*; in other dialects this [ae:] had changed into closed [e:]. This closed [e:] is preserved in ME.

Short Y and long Y. OE short [y] developed differently in different dialects. In Northern and East Midland it changed into short [i]. In Kentish it became [e] in the remaining dialects it was unchanged. Hence three dialectal variants: ‘first’, ‘ferst’, ‘fyrst’. For example, the word ‘bury’ – here the pronunciation is Kentish, but the spelling is South-Western. OE long [y] developed in the same way as the short [y].

Conclusion. The ME sound system differs from the OE system: 1) OE diphthongs or [ea] and [eo] type disappeared; 2) diphthongs of the [ei], [ai] type arose; 3) vowel quantity became dependent on phonetic environment.

From the phonemic point of view the following points should be stated: 1) vowel quantity lost its phonemic significance, that is two vowel phonemes can no longer be distinguished by quantity: length versus shortness. Thus the number of vowel phonemes was reduced; 2) on the other hand, the appearance of new diphthongs [ai], [ei], [au], [ou] marks the rise of four new vowel phonemes. In this way the reduction in the number of vowel phonemes due to changes in quantity is partly counteracted; 3) the number of consonant phonemes increased; the sounds [f], [v] which had been allophones of one phoneme, became separate phonemes, no longer dependent on their environment, the same is true with [s], [z].

TEMA 3 MnE PERIOD

Vowels: 1) loss of the neutral sound of unstressed endings (in the 15th century); 2) loss of vowels in intermediate syllables: *chapiter* – *chapter*, *medicine*; 3) change of [er] into [ar] with some exceptions: *ferre* – *far*, *sterre* – *star*, but occasionally this change did not take place: *certain*, *prefect*, etc. when it didn't change into [ar], it eventually developed into [e:], but ‘clerk’, ‘Derby’.

The Great Vowel Shift began in the 15th century: all long vowels were narrowed and the narrowest were diphthongized: *take* – ‘*ta:ka*’/‘*teik*’; *beat* – ‘*be:t*’/‘*bi:t*’; *meet* – ‘*me:t*’/‘*mi:t*’; *like* – ‘*li:ka*’/‘*laik*’; *boat* – ‘*bo:t*’/‘*bout*’; *tool* – ‘*to:l*’/‘*tu:l*’; *house* – ‘*hu:s*’/‘*haus*’. All those changes show one general tendency: narrowing of long vowels and diphthongization

of the narrowest of them. All these changes occurred gradually, without being noticed by the speakers.

Influence of [r]. When a long vowel was followed by [r], new phonemes came into being [ia], [ea], [ua]: *fare* – ‘fa:r’/‘fea’; *tire* – ‘ti:r’/‘taia’, *power* – ‘pu:ar’/‘paua’.

Some words have sounds which do not correspond to the general law of the shift.

Long [u:] remained unchanged when followed by a labial consonant: *droop*, *room*; [i:] remained unchanged in words borrowed from French: *machine*, *police*, etc.; long open [e:] did not always change into [i:], it was shortened in some words *head*, *death*, etc.

Other changes:

– short [a] went into [ae]: *hat*, *cat*; but when it was preceded by [w] it developed into [o]: *what*, *was*, etc.;

– in the 16th century 2 new long vowels arose [a:], [o:];

– [a:] – before: *bath*, *father*, *brass*, *cast*, *ask*, *clasp*, *calm*;

– [o:] – before: *cork*, *port*, *autumn*, *dawn*;

– long [u:] was shortened before [k]: *book*, *cook*; also in *good*, *foot*, etc.;

– rise of long [e:] – *fir*, *sir*, *fur*, *curtain*, *worm*, *word*, *heard*, *learn*;

– short [u] changed into [ʌ]: *cut*, *but*, *love*, *son*, *rough*, *enough*; *blood*, *flood*; remained unchanged before labial consonants: *pull*, *full*, *bull*, etc.;

– unstressed vowels were reduced either to [i] or [a]: *begin*, *wishes*, *mountain*, etc.

Раздел 5
ДИАХРОНИЧЕСКИЕ ИЗМЕНЕНИЯ
В СИСТЕМЕ СОГЛАСНЫХ.
ДРЕВНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
СРЕДНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
НОВОАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД

English Consonants were on the whole far more stable than vowels. A large number of consonants have probably remained unchanged through all historical periods. Thus we can assume that the sonorants [m, n, l], the plosives [p, b, t, d] and also [k, g] in most positions have not been subjected to any noticeable changes. They are found in many words descending from OE though their correlations in the system of phonemes have altered to a varying degree.

The most important developments in the history of English consonants were the growth of new sets of sounds – affricates and sibilants, and the new phonological treatment of fricatives.

Both changes added a number of consonant phonemes to the system. On the other hand, some consonants were lost or vocalized, which affected both the consonant and vowel system. Like vowel changes, consonant changes can be shown as occurring in the transition period from written OE to the language of the 18th century, that is in the Early MnE period.

ТЕМА 1
GROWTH OF SIBILANTS AND AFFRICATES

In OE there were no affricates and no sibilants, except [s, z]. The earliest distinct sets of these sounds appeared towards the end of OE or during the Early ME period. The new type of consonants developed from OE palatal plosives [k', g'] (which had split from the corresponding velar plosives [k] and [g] in Early OE, and also from the consonant cluster [sk']). The three new phonemes which arose from these sources were [tʃ], [dʒ] and [ʃ]. In Early ME they began to be indicated by special letters and digraphs, which came into use mainly under the influence of the French scribal tradition – ch, tch, g, dg, sh, ssh, sch (tab. 4).

T a b l e 4 – Growth of affricates and sibilants

Change illustrated	Examples		
	OE	ME	MNE
[kʰ]	cild	child	child
[tʃ]	tæ:can	techen	teach
[gʰ]	ecge	edge	edge
[dʒ]	brycge	bridge	bridge
[skʰ]	fisc	fish	fish
[ʃ]	scēap	sheep	sheep

It must be added that the affricates [tʃ] and [dʒ] could also come from a different source: they entered the English language in loan-words from French, e.g. ME *charme*, *gentil*. As a result of these changes and as a result of the vocalization of [ɣ] the consonant system in Late ME was in some respects different from the OE system. The opposition of velar consonants to palatal [k, kʰ, ɣ, j] – had disappeared; instead, plosive consonants were contrasted to the new affricates and in the set of affricates [tʃ] was opposed to [dʒ] through sonority.

Another development accounting for the appearance of sibilants and affricates in the English language is dated by Early MnE and is connected with the phonetic assimilation of lexical borrowings.

In the numerous loan-words of Roman origin adopted in ME and Early MnE the stress fell on the ultimate or penultimate syllable: na'cion, plea'saunce. In accordance with the phonetic tendencies the stress was moved closer to the beginning of the word. The final syllables which thus became unstressed, or weakly stressed, underwent phonetic alterations: the vowels were reduced and sometimes dropped; the sounds making up the syllable became less distinct. As a result, some sequences of consonants fused into single consonants. In Early MnE the clusters [sj, zj, tj, dj] – through reciprocal assimilation in unstressed position – regularly changed into [ʃ], [ʒ] [tʃ] and [dʒ]. Three of these sounds merged with the phonemes already existing in the language, while the fourth [ʒ] made a new phoneme. Now the four sounds formed a well-balanced system of two correlated pairs (tab. 5).

Late ME		MnE	
Change illustrated	Examples	Change illustrated	Examples
sj	condicioun commissioun	[ʃ]	condition commission
zj	pleasure visioun	[ʒ]	pleasure vision
tj	nature culture	[tʃ]	nature culture
dj	souldier procedure	[dʒ]	soldier procedure

Compare these words to MnE *suit, mature, duty*, where the same consonant clusters were preserved in stressed syllables. In some modern English words we still find variants of pronunciation: issue [iʃju:] where [j] is preserved and US variant [ˈissju:]; schedule (2 variants), etc. These variants may be due to Early MnE dialectal differences or else to the fact that the assimilation has not been completed and is still going on in MnE.

TEMA 2

TREATMENT OF FRICATIVE CONSONANTS IN ME AND EARLY NEW ENGLISH PERIODS

In OE the pairs of fricative sounds (voiced and unvoiced) were treated as positional variants or allophones; sonority depended upon phonetic conditions. In ME and Early MnE they became independent phonemes.

Phonologisation of voiced and unvoiced fricatives was a slow process which lasted several hundred years. The first pair of consonants to become phonemes was [f] and [v]. In Late ME texts they occurred in identical phonetic environment and could be used for differentiation between words, which means that they had turned into phonemes. Compare (MnE *vein, feign*). The two other pairs [θ-ð] and [s-z] so far functioned as allophones.

A new alternation took place in the 16th century. The fricatives were once again subjected to voicing under certain phonetic conditions. They

were pronounced as voiced if they were preceded by an unstressed vowel and followed by a stressed vowel: po`ssess (the first voiceless [s] which stood before an unstressed and stressed vowel became voiced, while the second [s], which was preceded by an accented vowel, remained voiceless. In the same way ME *fishes*, *doores*, *take* acquired a voiced [z] in the ending. This phenomenon can also account for the voicing of many form-words: articles, pronouns, auxiliaries, prepositions; they receive no stress in speech but may be surrounded by notional words which are logically stressed. On the other hand, the initial fricative in notional words remains voiceless: *thin*, *thorn*, etc.).

Sometimes a similar voicing occurred in consonant clusters containing sibilants, fricatives and affricates: *his* [his=hiz] *pen sif* – *pensive*, *anxiety`tie* – *anxiety*; *Greenwich*, etc.

On the whole the Early MnE voicing of fricatives was rather inconsistent and irregular. Though it was a positional change occurring in certain phonetic conditions, these conditions were often contradictory. The voicing had many exceptions: *assemble* and *resemble*, though *s* finds itself in identical positions. Therefore after these changes voiced and voiceless fricatives could appear in similar phonetic conditions and could be used for phonological purposes to distinguish between morphemes: *ice* [s] and *eyes* [z].

TEMA 3

LOSS OF CONSONANTS

As stated above, the system of consonants underwent important changes in ME and Early MnE. It acquired new phonemes and new phonemic distinctions, namely a distinction between plosives, sibilants and affricates, a phonemic distinction through sonority in the sets of fricatives, sibilants and affricates. On the other hand, some changes led to the reduction of the consonant system and also to certain restrictions in the use of consonants.

A number of consonants disappeared; they were vocalized and gave rise to diphthongal glides or made the preceding short vowel long. The vocalization of [ɣ] and [x] in Late MnE eliminated the back lingual fricative consonants. Speaking about the development of [x]: before [t] it was lost: *bright* [brixt] – [bri:t] – [braɪt], *brought* [brouxt]/[bro:t]; final [x] changed into [f]: *enough*, *cough*, *laugh*, etc. In a few words it was lost: *though*, *through*. With the disappearance of [xʷ] the system lost one more

opposition – through palatalisation, as ‘hard’ and ‘soft’. (The soft [k’] and [g’] turned into affricates some time earlier).

Another important event was the loss of quantitative distinctions in the consonant system.

It should be recalled that in OE long consonants were opposed to short at the phonological level. This is confirmed by their occurrence in identical positions, their phonological application and the consistent writing of double letters (geminated consonants) especially in intervocal positions (*sticca (stick) versus stica (stitch)*). In Late MnE long consonants were shortened and the phonemic opposition through quantity was lost. The loss of long consonants was attributed to a variety of reasons. Long consonants disappeared firstly because their functional load was very low (the opposition was neutralized everywhere except intervocally), and secondly, because length was becoming a prosodic feature, that is a property of the syllable rather than of the sound. In MnE the length of the syllable was regulated by the lengthening and shortening of vowels; therefore the quantitative differences of the consonants became irrelevant. In addition to these changes, which directly affected the system of phonemes, some consonants underwent positional changes which restricted their use in the language. The consonants [j] and [r] were vocalized under certain phonetic conditions – finally and before consonants – during the ME and Early MnE periods, though they continued to be used in other environments, e.g. initially: *rechen – reach, yeer – year*; some consonants were lost in consonant clusters, which became simpler and easier to pronounce: [h] survived before vowels but was lost before sonorants: *he:*, but *hlystan – listen*, (further simplification: t dropped before s and n. In Early MnE the aspirate [h] was lost initially before vowels, though not in all the words: *honour, hit=it, but hope*. [H] was lost in unstressed syllables: *shepherd, forehead, Nottingham, etc.*

Consonants were lost in clusters: *lamb, climb, damn, hymn, castle, whistle, muscle, grandmother, landscape*, as well as in initial clusters: *kn, gn, pn, wh: knight, gnat, pneumonia, psyche*, etc. In Early MnE the initial consonant sequences *kn* and *gn* were simplified to *n* as in *knowen, gnat*. Simplification of final clusters produced words like *dumb, clim*, in which *mb* lost the final *b*.

Раздел 6
МОРФОЛОГИЯ В ДИАХРОНИИ.
ДРЕВНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
СРЕДНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
НОВОАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД

ТЕМА 1
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS
OF OE MORPHOLOGY

As compared with modern English OE can be characterised as a synthetic or inflected type of language which means that the relationship between the parts of the sentence were expressed by means of different formal elements, that is affixes. In building grammatical forms OE employed grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes, and suppletive formations.

Grammatical endings, or inflections, were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all parts of speech that could change their form; they were usually used alone but could be used in combination with other means.

Sound interchanges were employed on a more limited scale and were often combined with other form-building means, especially endings. Vowel interchanges were more common than interchanges of consonants.

The use of prefixes in grammatical forms was rare and was confined to verbs. Suppletive forms were restricted to several pronouns, a few adjectives, and a couple of verbs.

The parts of speech to be distinguished in OE are as follows: the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral (all referred to as nominal parts of speech or nomina), the verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. Inflected parts of speech possessed several grammatical categories displayed in formal and semantic correlations and oppositions of grammatical forms. Grammatical categories are usually subdivided into nominal categories, found in nominal parts of speech and verbal categories found chiefly in the finite verb.

It can be assumed that there were five nominal grammatical categories in OE: number, case, gender, degrees of comparison, and the category of defi-

nitiness/indefiniteness. Each nominal part of speech had its own number of categories, for example, the noun had two categories, the adjective – five, etc.

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: tense and mood – verbal categories proper – and number and person, showing agreement between the verb-predicate and the subject of the sentence.

ТЕМА 2

THE NOUN AND ITS GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

An OE word, whether noun, adjective or verb, consisted of 3 basic elements:

- the root of the word
- the stem comprising the root plus a stem-building suffix
- the inflexion or ending which is an indication of case, number, gender and tense (tab. 6).

Table 6 – Stem of the word

Root	Stem-building suffix	Case or other ending
Врем-	-ен	-и
Доч-	-ер	-и

For example, the root expresses the lexical meaning, the case inflexion expresses the relation between the thing denoted by the noun and other things said the category of number. The meaning of the stem-building suffix is more difficult to define. Perhaps, originally, stem-building suffixes were a means of classifying objects, things and phenomena into groups according to some characteristics either internal or external. For example, the stem-forming suffix **-(e)r** in Indo-European languages denoted relationship: *fadar*, *broþar*, *swistar*, etc. Or in Russian nouns derived by means of the stem-building suffix **-яг**, have one common feature: they denote a little creature, a cub: *телята*, *жеребята*, *утята*, etc. But with time (during the OE period), this distinction was already lost and stem-building affixes gradually merged with case endings, thus eliminating the distinction between stem-building suffixes and case endings. But in some cases, 'the stem-building suffixes can be seen. For example, in the

Dat. plural of some types of substantives: Dat. plural root Stem- building affix case ending: *Dagam (to days) Dag- a- -m*; *Gibom (to gifts) Gib- o- -m*; *Gastim (to guests) Gast- i- -m*; *Sunum (to sons) Sun- u- -m*.

The OE noun (substantive) had 2 grammatical categories, the category of number and the category of case. Besides, nouns distinguished 3 genders: masculine, feminine and neuter which accounted for the division of nouns into morphological classes. The category of number consisted of two members, singular and plural. There were four cases: Nom., Gen., Dat. and Acc. which performed different functions. Nom. was the case of the active agent, Gen – the case of nouns and pronouns used attributively with other nouns, Dat. was the chief case used with prepositions, and Acc. indicated a relationship to a verb.

The most remarkable feature of OE nouns was their system of declension (up to 25 types). All in all there were only ten distinct endings and a few relevant root vowel interchanges used in noun paradigms.

In OE there were 4 types of substantive stems:

- 1) vocalic stems (a-, o-, i-, u stems) which represented strong declension;
- 2) n-stems which belonged to the weak declension;
- 3) s- and r stems;
- 4) root-stems (pic. 2).

Strong declension (Vocalic stems)

<i>a-stems</i>				
Masculine	Short-stemmed, neuter	Long-stemmed, neuter	Ja-stems, masculine	Wa-stems, neuter
<i>sg.</i>				
Nom. fisc	scip	dëor	ende	cnëo(w)
Gen. fises	scipes	dëores	endes	cnëowes
Dat. Fisce	scipe	dëore	ende	cnëowe
Acc. fisc	scip	dëor	ende	cnëo(w)
<i>pl.</i>				
No. fises	scipu	dëor	endas	cnëo(w)
Gen. fisca	scipa	dëora	enda	cnëowa
Dat. fiscum	scipum	dëorum	endum	cnëowum
Acc. fiscas	scipu	dëor	endas	cnëo(w)

Picture 2 – Declension of nouns

Ö-stems, short-stemmed, long-stemmed, feminine	I-stems, short-stemmed, masculine	U-stems, short-stemmed, long stemmed, masculine
<i>sg.</i>		
Nom. talu wund Gen. tale wunde Gat. tale wunde Acc. tale wunde	mete metes mete mete	sunu feld suna felda suna felda sunu felda
<i>pl.</i>		
Nom. tala wunda,-e Gen. tala(-ena) wunda(-ena) Dat. talum wundum Acc. tala,-e wunda,-e	mete,-as meta metum mete, -as	suna felda suna felda sunum feldum suna felda

N-stems (weak declension), masculine, feminine, neuter	Root-stems, masculine, feminine
<i>sg.</i>	
Nom. nama ëare tunze Gen. naman ëaran tunzan Dat. naman ëaran tunzan Acc. naman ëaran tunzan	föt müs fötes mÿs, müse fët mÿs föt müs
<i>pl.</i>	
Nom. nama ëare tunze Gen. namena ëaran tunzan Dat. namum ëaran tunzan Acc. naman ëaran tunzan	fët mÿs föta müs fötum müsum fët mÿs

Picture 2 – End

The reduction of declension which began in OE continued in the ME period more intensively and affected the morphological system of the noun though not equally in different dialects. Most quickly it developed in the Northern dialect, followed by the Midland dialect, while in Southern dialects this process developed at a much lower rate. The effects of the reduction were as follows: the difference of grammatical gender was lost in Northern and Midland dialects, though gender distinctions remained to a certain extent in force in Southern dialects.

The distinction of strong and weak declension was also lost, only 2 endings proved stable **-es** of the Gen. sg. masculine and neuter a-stems, and the ending **-as** of the Nom., and Acc. pl. masculine a-stems. The Gen. pl. also took the ending **-es** and it spread to all substantives.

Nom. *nāme nāmas*.

Gen. *nāmes nāmes*.

Dat. *nāme names*.

Acc. *nāme nāmas*.

Only a few substantives which had mutation in the Nom. and Acc. pl.: *men, fēt, gēs*, and a few which had an unchanged form in the Nom. and Acc. pl., such as *shēp, dēr*, were not affected by the reduction.

While in OE the category of number is interwoven with the category of case, in ME the expression of number is separated from that of case.

The process of eliminating survival pl. forms went on in the 15th and 16th centuries. In some nouns the alteration of the voiceless and voiced fricative was eliminated, but in some was preserved: *death – deaths*, but *wife – wives*; with a few words two variants are possible: *scarf – scarfs/scarves*, etc.

A few substantives preserved their pl. forms due to the weak declension or mutation: *ox – oxen, child – children, brother – brothers/ brethren*. Another type of plural was preserved in such words as *sheep, trout, fish*, etc.

The two-case system was preserved in ME. The sphere of the Gen. was restricted to nouns denoting living beings and also some time notions: *year, month, week, day*. With words denoting inanimate objects or abstract ideas the Gen. was normally replaced by the phrase of plus substantive. In the Gen. sg. the apostrophe was first used in 1680 and meant to denote the omission of the letter *-e*. In the Gen. pl. it was used about 1780 already as a conventional sign.

TEMA 3 THE ADJECTIVE

OE adjective

OE adjective had 3 categories: the category of number, gender and case. Like nouns, they could be declined according to the weak (n-stem) and

strong declension (vocalic stem). Weak declension forms were used when the adjective was preceded by a demonstrative pronoun or the definite article; they are associated with the meaning of definiteness. In all other contexts forms of the strong declension are used. But strong declension of adjectives does not completely coincide with strong declension of nouns: forms of several cases correspond to declension of pronouns, so that strong declension of adjectives as a whole is a combination of substantival and pronominal forms.

Like adjectives in other languages, most OE adjectives distinguished between three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative and superlative. For the comparative degree the suffix *-ra* (in Gothic *-z*), for the superlative *-est/ost*. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by an interchange of the root vowel. E.g. *soft – softra – softost*; *zlæd – zlædra – zlædost*. Some adjectives had suppletive forms: *zōd, bettra – be(e)st*. The comparatives are declined as strong adjectives, the superlatives mostly follow weak declension.

ME adjective

The disappearance of grammatical gender in nouns and the reduction of case endings led to a considerable change in adjective declension, too. The only case ending in adjectives came to be *-e*, and the OE adjectival paradigm was reduced to the following: strong declension – *zōd*, weak declension – *zōde*; pl. – *zōde, zōde*. In Northern dialects declension was completely lost, and the adjectives became invariable. In other dialects *-e* became invariable: *newe, trewe*. Degrees of comparison were formed by means of the suffixes *-(e)r, -est*: *grēt – grētter – grēttest, glad – gladder – gladdest*. Several adjectives kept a mutated vowel in the comparative and superlative: *old – elder – eldest; long – lenger – lengest*; several adjectives preserved suppletive forms of comparison: *gōd – better – best; litel – lasse – lest*. In Chaucer's works we can find such new formations of degrees of comparison as 'more profitable' and 'more faithful' which are considered analytical degrees of comparison.

MnE adjective

In Modern English the ending **-e**, which signaled the plural and the weak declension, was dropped. Thus MnE adjectives no longer agreed with their substantives in number. Other changes: 1) suffixes of degrees are used for monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives, while the phrases like *'more profitable'* were used for the other disyllabic and polysyllabic adjectives; 2) in the 15th and 16th centuries mutation in the comparative and superlative of some adjectives was eliminated: *long – longer – longest*. The only remnant of mutation is seen in *elder-eldest*, which have been specialized in meaning (but today is a strong tendency, perhaps influenced by US English, to use the common forms to denote family relations). A few adjectives came down to us with suppletive degrees of comparison. As for the analytical forms like *'more profitable'* Ilyish thinks that they are not, because in Shakespeare's works we come across the use of *more + comparative* in **-er**: more better, more braver. So they are simply word combinations, perhaps used for emphasis (pic. 3, 4).

Strong declension Weak declension

Case	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
	<i>sg.</i>					
Nom.	Blind	Blind	Blind	Blinda	Blinde	Blinde
Gen.	Blindes	Blindes	Blindre	Blindan	Blindan	Blindan
Dat.	Blindum	Blindum	Blindre	Blindan	Blindan	Blindan
Acc.	Blindne	Blind	Blinde	Blindan	Blinde	Blindan
Instr.	Blinde	Blinde	Blindre	Blindan	blindan	blindan
<i>All genders, pl.</i>						
Nom.	Blinde	Blind	Blinda, e	Blindan		
Gen.	Blindra	Blindra	Blindra	Blindra,ena		
Dat.	Blindum	Blindum	Blindum	Blindum		
Acc.	Blinde	Blind	Blinda, e	Blindan		
Instr.	Blindum	Blindum	Blindum	Blindum		

Picture 3 – Declension of adjectives OE

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	NE
Suffixation	Soft We:rig	Softra We:rigra	Softost We:rigost	Soft Weary
Suff. + vowel interchange	Glaed Long eald	Glaedra Lengra Ieldra (ealdra)	Gladost Lengest Ealdost, ealdest	Glad Long Old
Suppletion	Go:d Ly:tel micel	Bettra Lae:ssa Ma:ra	Bet(e)st Lae:st Mae:st	Good Little much

	sg.	pl.
Strong	Blind	Blinde
Weak	blinde	blinde

Means of form-building	Positive	Comparative	Superlative	ME
Synthetic forms	long old far	-er lenger (longer) older/elder farther/further	-est fresher (longest) oldest/eldest farthest/furthest	—
Analytical forms	—	More +adj. Better+ adj. More swete Better worthy More fresher Worser This was the <i>most unkindest</i> cut of all. (Shakespeare)	—	—
Double comparatives, double superlatives				

Picture 4 – Declension of adjectives ME

TEMA 4 THE PRONOUN

OE pronoun

There are several types of pronouns in OE: personal, possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, definite, indefinite, negative and relative.

Personal: besides sing. and pl. there also dual pronouns for the 1st and 2 persons. They had 3 persons, 3 numbers (in the 1st and 2nd person) and 3 genders in the 3^d person. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd person had suppletive forms: *Ic, min, me, me, mic; thu, thin, the, the, thec*. When used with the pronoun 'self' personal pronouns denoted reflexive meanings.

Possessive: they are derived from the genitive case of the personal pronouns of all persons and numbers: *min, thin, uncer, incer, ure, his, hire, hiera*, etc.

Demonstrative: 2 pronouns '*se*' (*that*), *þes* (*this*). They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system (+ Instr. Case). The meaning of the pronoun '*se*' is often weakened, so that it approaches the status of an article: *se mann* (*the man*), *seo sae* (*the sea*).

ME pronoun

During that period the following changes occurred: dual number pronouns disappeared; genitive case forms no longer existed; the dative and accusative merged into one objective case; the 3^d person plural pronouns *hi* is superseded by the Scandinavian '*they*'; initial [h] in '*hit*' often lost; occasionally the pronoun '*ye*' is used in addressing one person.

Nom. *I, ich thou he she hit/it we ye hi/they*.

Obj. *Me the him/ hir/her hit/it us you hem/them*.

Possessive pronouns: 1st person (*min, mi*), 2nd person (*thin, thi*), 3^d person (*his, hir/her, his*), pl. (*our, your, hire/their*). The forms *min, thin* are used before a vowel or [h]: *min elbowe, myn herte*. The forms *my, thy* are found before a word with the initial consonant (except [h]) *thy child*.

Demonstrative: there are 2 demonstrative pronouns: *sē* (*that*) and *þes* (*this*):

Sg.		Pl.
masculine	feminine	neuter
Nom. <i>sē</i>	<i>Sēo</i>	<i>Ʒat Ʒa</i>
Gen. <i>Ʒæs</i>	<i>Ʒære</i>	<i>Ʒæs Ʒara, Ʒæra</i>
Dat. <i>Ʒæm</i>	<i>Ʒære</i>	<i>Ʒæm Ʒæm</i>
Acc. <i>Ʒone</i>	<i>Ʒa</i>	<i>Ʒat Ʒa</i>
Instr. <i>Ʒy, Ʒon</i>		<i>Ʒy, Ʒon</i>

The traditional view was that the definite article appears in OE, while the indefinite article appears in ME. But the point is that the notion of definite article can only be applied on condition that there exists in the language at the same time another article, the indefinite one. And the two notions ‘definite’ and ‘indefinite’ have a reasonable sense only as members of an opposition based on the category of definiteness/indefiniteness. Since there obviously was no indefinite article in OE, the article emerging from the pronoun *sē* could not in exact terminology be called definite. Therefore, it is possible to say that in OE there appeared an article, and the opposition of OE was that between article and no article (zero article).

OE forms of demonstrative pronoun (or definite article) *se, seo* were changed into *the, theo*. In Early ME forms like *the, theo, that* functioned both as demonstrative pronoun and as article. Since the 14th century the form ‘that’ was only preserved as a demonstrative pronoun form.

MnE pronoun

The ME forms of personal pronouns underwent little change. The tendency to use ‘*ye*’ in addressing one person arose in ME already. In Shakespeare’s works both ‘*thou*’ and ‘*ye*’ are found, with stylistic differentiation between them. Eventually ‘*thou*’ completely vanished from ordinary literary language and was only preserved in elevated poetic and religious style, and also among Quakers. In the 16th century distinction between nominative ‘*ye*’ and objective ‘*you*’ began to disappear and in the 17th century ‘*ye*’ finally became archaic. The neuter possessive *his* was superseded by ‘*its*’ in the 17th century. The feminine possessive became ‘*her*’. Reflexive pronouns developed from the correspondent ME forms.

Demonstrative pronouns acquired the following forms: *this – these, that – those*. Interrogative: *who, whose, what, which*. And other pronouns like compounds *somebody, something*, etc (pic. 5).

Personal Pronouns

Case	Sg.	Dual	Pl.	
1 st person				
Nom.	Ic	Wit	Wē	
Gen.	Mi:n	Uncer	ūre, ūser	
Dat.	Me:	Unc	ūsic	
Acc.	Mec, me:	uncit		
2 nd person				
Nom.	þū	ʒit	ʒe:	
Gen.	þi:n	Incer	ēower	
Dat.	þe:	Inc	ēow	
Acc.	þe:c, þe:	Incit, inc	ēowic, ēow	
3 ^d person				
Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	All genders
Nom.	He:	He:o, hi:o	Hit	Hi:e, hi:,hy:,he:o
Gen.	His	Hire, hierē	His	Hira, heora,hiera, hyra
Dat.	Him	Hire, hierē	Him	Him, heom
Acc.	hine	Hī:e, hi:, hy:	hit	Hīe,hī, hēo

Person	Sg.		Pl.	
	ME	Early New English	ME	Early New English
1 st person				
Nom.	Ich/I	I	We	We
Obj.	me	me	us	us
2 nd person				
Nom.	Thou/thow	Thou/ye	Ye	You/ye
Obj.	thee	Thee/you	you	you
3 ^d person				
Nom.	He he/she hit/it	He she it	Hie/they	They
Obj.	Him hir(e) him/it her	Him her it	Hem/them	them

Picture 5 –Pronouns

TEMA 5 NUMERALS

Cardinal: from 1 to 3 were declined. From 4 to 19 are usually invariable, if used as attributes to a noun, but are declined if used without a substantive. Numerals denoting tens have their genitive in **-es** or in **-a**, **-ra**, their dative in **-um**. 1 – *än*; 2 – *twegen, tu, twa*; 3 – *thrie*; 4 – *feower*; 5 – *fif*; 6 – *six*; 7 – *seofon*; 8 – *eahta*; 9 – *nigon*; 10 – *tien*. From 13 to 19 – the suffix – *tiene*; from 20 to 90 – the suffix *-tig*, and so on. Compound numerals: 22 – *twa and twentig*, 48 – *eahta and feowertig*.

Ordinal: were declined as weak adjectives (with the exception of ‘other’ second.)

In ME a few phonetic changes took place, in ordinal numerals ‘other’ was superseded by the French ‘second’.

TEMA 6 BASIC CHANGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH VERB SYSTEM

OE verb

The verb system of OE had the following categories: the category of number (sg. and pl.), the category of person (1st, 2nd, 3^d), the category of mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive); of tense (present, past; present tense together with adverbs of future sometimes performed the function of future tense); 3 verbals (infinitive, Part. 1 and Part. 2).

The OE verb system was characterized by another feature: all verbs were divided into 2 groups according to the use of different grammatical means to form past verb forms, into strong verbs and weak verbs.

Strong verbs are those which derive their past tense and second participle by means of gradation. And weak verbs are those which derive their forms by means of the suffix **-d/t**. Sometimes suffixation was accompanied by a vowel interchange. Besides these 2 groups, there are also preterite-present verbs and a few irregular verbs.

Strong verbs have 4 basic forms: the infinitive, the past singular, the past plural, and the second participle. All strong verbs fall into seven

classes according to the type of gradation. E.g. 1 class: *writan, wrat, writon, writen* (infinitive, Past sing. past pl., Part. 2).

Weak verbs fall into 3 classes and each verb is characterized by 3 forms: infinitive, past tense and second participle. The past plural can be formed by replacing the ending **-e** of the singular by the **-on** ending of the plural: *tellan, tealde, teald; habban- haefde-hafd*. Conjugation: 1. *Write*, 2. *writest*, 3. *writeth/writ*; Past: *wrat, write, wrat*; pl.: *writen, writon*.

Preterite-present (past-present) verbs: their present tense corresponds to the past of strong verbs, while their past is derived according to the past of weak verbs: *witan – wat* (sg. Present) – *witon* (pl. Present) – *wisse/wiste* (Past). There are also some irregular verbs whose forms are derived from different roots, that is their system is based on suppletivity; e.g. *wesan*– to be, *gan, don, willan* etc. For example, the verb *wesan* (*beon*): 1. *eom, beo*; 2. *eart, bist*; 3. *is, bith*; pl. *sind(on), beoth*; Past: *waes, waere, waes, waeron*.

Analytical formations: during the OE period the system of the verb acquires some analytical formations. For example, of the pattern ‘habban + second participle. Originally these formations meant that the subject owned a thing having a certain feature as a result of an action performed upon it. Then they acquired the meaning of result of an action. With intransitive verbs this formation has the verb ‘*beon, wesan* (to be). Another type of analytical formations arises from the phrases ‘*sceal + infinitive*’ and ‘*wille + infinitive*’. The original model meaning of these verbs may be weakened and the phrase may approach the meaning of a future tense. One more type acquires a modal meaning ‘*sceolde + infinitive*’ and ‘*wold + infinitive*’ which could express supposition.

ME verb

All types of verbs existing in OE were preserved in ME. In each of these types we can find changes due to phonetic phenomena of the ME period and changes due to analogy.

Strong verbs. In some classes, both the infinitive ending **-an** and the past plural ending **-on** were weakened to **-en(n)**: (*writen wrot writen writen*); in others the past singular form began to penetrate into the past plural and the second participle to the past plural, thus preparing the reduction of the 4 main parts of a strong verb to three. Several classes of verbs influenced each other which resulted in different phonetic changes.

Weak verbs. The 3 classes of weak verbs had a different development in different dialects. The main changes were as follows: 1) verbs with an **-i** in the infinitive lost it: *macian – maken* (Northern/Midland dialects); the infinitive ending **-ian/ien** appears as **-i**: *lufian – loven – lovi* – Southern dialect; 2) in some weak verbs with a stem ending in **-l, -n, -f, -v**, the past suffix **-d** changed into **-t**; verbs with a stem in **-rd, -nd, -ld** formed their past in **-rte, -nte, -lte** and their second participle in **-rt, -nt, -t**.

Irregular verbs: *sellan – solde – sold; tellan – tolde – told.*

Preterite-present verbs were preserved, their forms underwent changes due to the general tendencies of the period.

Conjugation underwent considerable changes: as a result of levelling of unstressed vowels the difference between the endings **-an, -on** and **-en** was lost. The final **-n**, which characterized many verb forms, was lost. It proved stable only in some second participles, where it has been preserved down to the MnE period. But there were dialectal varieties in the verb endings. An example of conjugation (weak verb *haven*): 1. *have*, 2. *hast* 3. *hath*; pl. *Han*; Past: 1. *hadde*, 2. *haddest*, 3. *hadde*; pl. *hadden*; to be (*ben*) 1. *am*, 2. *art*, 3. *is*; pl. *ben*; Past: *was, were, was*; pl. *weren*.

The Perfect. Perfect forms, which arose in OE, are widely used in ME. In Chaucer's works there are many sentences with the Present Perfect and the Past Perfect forms of intransitive verbs were derived by means of the verb (*ben*) *be*.

The Continuous. In ME there appeared first instances of a continuous aspect, consisting of the verb *be* and the first participle. They were very rare. The origin is not quite clear. Ilyish gives the following explanation: *he is on hunting*. The preposition 'on' became weakened and turned into a prefix **a-**: *he is a-hunting*; then the prefix was dropped and the verbal substantive 'huntinge' became a participle. Perfect Continuous forms are quite rare in ME.

Future Tense. A special future form, which started in OE, became in ME a regular part of the tense system. Chaucer uses this form in many cases. Occasionally, however, the future meaning may be accompanied by some modal shade.

Mood. The Subjunctive mood preserved in ME many features it had in OE. An unreal condition referring to the present is expressed by the phrase 'wolde + infinitive'; if the action refers to the past the phrase 'wolde + perfect infinitive' is used.

The Passive voice was very widely developed in ME: the phrase 'ben + second participle' could express both a state and an action. Only the context would show which of the two was meant in each particular case.

MnE verb

Conjugation. Important changes took place here: 1) the first person sing. ending **-e** was lost; the 3d person singular **-eth** was replaced by **-s** (the Northern dialect). In Shakespeare's works both ending are used. In the 17th century it was fully superseded by **-s**, and **-eth** was preserved in elevated style. The second person ending **-st** connected with the personal pronoun 'thou' was gradually superseded during the 17th century.

Strong verbs. The 4 forms were reduced to 3: infinitive, past tense, second participle.

The Second participle. The **-en** ending of the second participle proved strong enough in many verbs to withstand the general tendency to drop unstressed endings. Sometimes 2 forms coexist: with **-en** and without it: the verb 'to bite' – the 2nd participle – bitten or bit. Compare British 'got' and American 'gotten'.

Weak verbs. In weak verbs the distinction between classes disappears. The unstressed **-e** disappeared in all cases, and is only preserved in words ending in **-t/d**: end- ended; some strong verbs become weak and some weak verbs become strong. A few irregular verbs became regular.

Invariable verbs. In MnE a group of invariable verbs came into existence. Most of them stemmed from weak verbs with a root ending in **-d/t**; a few came from strong verbs of different classes: for example, *cutten* – *cutte* – *cutt* – became invariable as a result of disappearance of unstressed endings.

The Perfect. The system of perfect forms goes on unfolding in the MnE period. Perfect forms of intransitive verbs derived by means of the verb 'be' are coming out of use, but still are rarely found.

Continuous forms occur more frequently, sometimes present simple is used for an action taking place at the moment of speech. Sometimes 'always' is used with a continuous form, with an emotional coloring. Sometimes the present and past perfect continuous forms are used. In the 19th century passive continuous forms arise, though they were limited to the present and the past. The mood system developed in MnE towards creating more precise means of expressing modal meanings.

Use of Auxiliary ‘do’. In Early MnE the verb ‘do’ was widely used as auxiliary in affirmative sentences devoid of any emphatic character. ‘Do’ is also found in negative and interrogative sentences. However, forms without ‘do’ are also used.

The Gerund. The gerund which came into being in ME, developed further in MnE, gradually separated from the verbal substantive in -ing. The gerund is followed by a noun indicating the object of the action, sometimes it is followed by an of-phrase. In MnE analytical gerund forms appear: the perfect and the passive gerund (pic. 6).

Strong	Weak	Minor groups
Seven classes with different gradation series	Three classes with different stem-suffixes	Preterite-present verbs Suppletive Anomalous

Strong verbs in OE

Classes	Infinitive	Past sg.	Past pl.	Part. II	NE
1	Wri:tan	Wra:t	Wr:ton	writen	write
2	(a) ce:osan (b) bu:gan	Ce:as Be:aʒ	Curon buzon	Coren boʒen	Choose bow
3	Findan Helpan feohtan	Fand Healp feaht	Fundon Hulpon fuhton	Funden Holpen fohten	Find Help fight
4	beran	baer	Bae:ron	boren	bear
5	Cweðan sittan	Cwae:ð saet	Cwa:edon Sae:ton	Cweden seten	Say (quoth) sit
6	scacan	Sco:c	Sco:con	scacen	shake
7	Ha:tan Gro:wan	He:t (heht) gre:ow	He:ton Gre:owon	Haten Gro:wen	Call, name grow

Picture 6 — Morphological Classification of OE Verbs

Weak verbs

Classes	Infinitive -an/-ian	Past tense -de/-ede/-te	Participle II -ed/-d/-t	New English
1	Styrian Temman De:man Ce:pan Tellan þyncan	Styrede Temede De:mde Ce:pte Tealde þuhte	Styred Temed De:med Ce:ped Teald þuht	Stir Tame Deem Keep Tell think
2	-ian lo"cian	-ode lo:code	-od lo:cod	look
3	-an libban habban	-de lifde haefde	-d lifd haefd	Live have

Preterite-Present Verbs

Infinitive	Sg. Present	Pl. Present	Past
Witan (know)	wat	winton	Wisse/wiste

Irregular verbs: tellan – tealde – teald

Conjugation

Present Indicative	Subjunctive	Imperative	Past
1. wri:te 2. wri:test 3. wri:teþ Pl. wri:taþ	Wri:te	Wri:t	Wra:t Subjunctive Wri:te Wart: write Pl. writon writen

Note. Infinitive: wri:tan Part. I Part. II. Dat.: to: wri:tenne wri:tende (ge) written.

Picture 6 — End

Раздел 7
ЛЕКСИКОГРАФИЯ В ДИАХРОНИИ.
ДРЕВНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
СРЕДНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД.
НОВОАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД

ТЕМА 1
GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS
OF THE OE VOCABULARY

The full extent of the OE vocabulary is not known to present day scholars. There is no doubt that many words have not been recorded in the extant texts at all. The evidence of the records has been supplemented by from other sources: from the study of the words of closely related Old Germanic languages and from later, more extensive ME texts.

Modern estimates of the total vocabulary of OE range from about 30,000 words to almost 100,000 – the latter figure being too high and unrealistic (among other causes the differences in the estimates depend on the treatment of polysemy and homonymy. But even the lowest estimates show that OE had already developed about as many words as used by a present-day cultured English speaker.) Despite the gaps in the accessible data, philological studies in the last centuries have given us a fairly complete outline of the OE vocabulary as regards its etymology, word structure, word-building and stylistic differentiation.

Etymological division of the OE Vocabulary

It is generally held that the OE vocabulary was mainly homogeneous as loan words were an insignificant part of it.

Native OE words can be subdivided into a number of etymological layers coming from different historical periods. The three main layers of the native OE words are: common Indo-European words; common Germanic words; specifically OE words.

The table below illustrates its etymological layers:

Native words				Borrowings
Common Indo-European	Common Germanic	West Germanic	Specifically English	Latin Celtic
Nouns: Faeder Mo:dor Nama Tunge Fo:t Niht Heorte Mere Adjectives: Neowe Riht Long Verbs: do:n be:on sittan liczan beran teran Pronouns: ic mi:n þæt Numerals: Twa:	Hand Sand sinzan findan finzer hu:s land sae heall scip 3re:ne earm (poor)	–	Clipian Brid wiffman=wimman hlāford= hlāf + weard= lord. hlāfdize=hlāf+ dize (knead bread) + lady	–

Words belonging to the common Indo-European layer constitute the oldest part of the OE vocabulary. They go back to the days of the Indo-European parent-language before its extension over the wide territory of Europe and Asia and before the appearance of the Germanic group. They were inherited by the Proto-Germanic and passed into the Germanic languages of various subgroups, including English.

Among these groups we find names of some natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body,

terms of kinship, etc.; verbs belong to this group denote basic activities of man; adjectives indicate the most essential qualities; this layer includes personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals.

The common Germanic layer includes words which are shared by most Germanic languages, but do not occur outside the group. Being specifically Germanic, these words constitute an important distinctive mark of the Germanic languages at the lexical level. This layer is certainly smaller than the layer of common Indo-European words. (The ratio between specifically Germanic and common Indo-European words in the Germanic languages was estimated by the 19th century scholars as 1:2; since then it has been discovered that many more Germanic words have parallels outside the group and should be regarded as common Indo-European).

Common Germanic words originated in the common period of Germanic history, i.e. in Proto-Germanic when the Teutonic tribes lived close together. Semantically these words are connected with nature, with sea and everyday life (tab. 7).

T a b l e 7 – Common Germanic words in English

OE	Old High Germanic	Gothic	Old Icelandic	New English
hand	hant	handus	hond	hand
sand	sant	–	sandr	sand
sinzan	singan	siggwan	singva	sing
findan	findan	finþan	finna	find

Some of the words did not occur in all the OG languages. Their distribution reflects the contacts between the Germanic tribes at the beginning of their migrations: West and North Germanic languages (represented here by OE, Old High Germanic and Old Icelandic) had many words in common.

The third etymological layer of native words can be defined as specifically OE that is words which do not occur in other Germanic or non-germanic languages. These words are few: *clipian* (call), *brid* (bird), *wiffman*=*wimman*, and several others. However, they are far more

numerous if we include in this layer OE compounds and derived words formed from Germanic roots in England. For instance, OE *wifman* or *wimman* consists of 2 roots which occurred as separate words in other OG languages, but formed a compound only in OE (cf. Old High Germanic *wi:b*, Old Icelandic *Vif* ; OE *man*, Gothic *mann(a)*). Other well-known examples are: OE *hlāford*, originally made of *hlāf* (loaf) (Belarusian хлеб and *weard* (keeper) Belarusian (варта). This compound word was simplified and finally shortened to NE *lord*. The OE *hlāfdize*: the first part is the same and *dize* which is related to parallels in other Old Germanic languages: Gothic *digan*, Old Icelandic *deigia* ‘knead’, literally ‘bread-kneading’, later simplified to ME *lady*. One compound denotes posts and institutions in OE kingdoms: OE *sci:rzerefa* – chief of the shire (sherrif).

Borrowings constitute only a small part of the OE vocabulary (600 words), but they are of great interest for linguistic and historical study. The borrowings reflect the contacts of English with other tongues resulting from diverse political, economic, social and cultural events in the early periods of British history. OE borrowings come from two sources: Celtic and Latin.

Celtic borrowings. There are very few Celtic loan-words in the OE vocabulary, for there must have been little intermixture between the Germanic settlers and the Celts in Britain. Those in some parts of the island the Celtic population was not exterminated during the West Germanic invasion, linguistic evidence of Celtic is weak. Obviously there was little that the newcomers could learn from the Celts. Celtic borrowings are found only in place-names. The OE kingdoms Kent, Deira and Bernicia derive their names from the names of Celtic tribes. The name of York, and perhaps London have been traced to Celtic sources (Celtic *du:n* means ‘hill’). Celtic *amhuin* (river) is reflected in such names as Avon, Evan; *uisge* (water) – Xe, Usk, Esk; *dum, dum* (hill) – Dumbarton, Dumfries; *llan* (church) Llandaff; *coil* (forest) – Kilbrook; *kil* (church) Kilbride; *inis* (island) Innisfail, etc.

Latin borrowings. The role of the Latin language is clearly significant as was determined by such historical events as the Roman invasion, the influence of the Roman civilization and the introduction of Christianity. The impact of Latin on the English vocabulary enables us to see the spheres of Roman influence on the life in Britain.

Latin words entered the English language at different stages of OE history. Chronologically they can be divided into several layers.

The earliest layer comprises words which the WG tribes brought from the continent when they came to settle in Britain. The adoption of

Latin words continued in Britain after the invasion, since Britain had been under Roman occupation for about 400 years. Though the Romans left Britain before the settlement of the West Teutons, Latin words could be transmitted to them by the Romanised Celts.

Early OE borrowings from Latin indicate new things and concepts which the Teutons had learned from the Romans. They pertain to trade, agriculture, building, and home life. For example, *straet* (*strat*), *weall* (*vallum*), *cycene* (*coquina*), *myln* (*moli:nium*), *wi:n* (*vinum*); Latin *castra* (a military camp) gave rise to a number of names: *Manchetsre*, *Wincehster*, etc. Latin *portus* to Portsmouth, Bridport; Latin *Strata* to Stradford, etc.

The second layer consists of words which directly or indirectly belong to the sphere of religion and church. When Christianity was introduced in Britain, the Latin language came to be used as the language of the church (and learning). At this time certain Latin words were borrowed into English: *biscop* (*bishop*) from *episcopus*; *cleric* (*church man*) from *clericus*; *apostol* (*apostle*) from *apostolus*; *deofol* (*devil*) from *diabolus*; *maesse* (*mass*) from *missa*; *munuc* (*monk*) from *monachus*; *ma:gister* (*master*) from *magister*; *scrifan* (*prescribe*) from *scriber*.

Under Latin influence some English words acquired new meanings: *e:astron* (a heathen spring holiday) became *easter*; *zodspell* (*gospel*) literary 'good news', *þrenes* (trinity).

TEMA 2

WORD FORMATION IN OE

According to their morphological structure OE words fell into three main types:

a) simple words (root-words) or words with a simple stem, containing a root-morpheme and no derivational affixes: *land*, *singan*, *go:d*, etc.;

b) derived words consisting of one-root morpheme and one or more affixes: *be-ginnan*, *ge-met-ing*, etc.;

c) compound words, whose stems were made up of more than one root-morpheme: *mann-cynn* (*mankind*), *weall-geat* (*wall gate*), etc.

OE vocabulary developed in two ways:

- 1) by forming new words from elements existing in the language;
- 2) by borrowing words from other languages.

As for word building, it could be used in two ways: derivation and word composition. Derived words were built by means of affixes: prefixes and suffixes. In addition to this, words were distinguished with the help of sound interchanges and word stress. Sound interchanges were frequent in the roots of related words, but still they were used as an additional feature which helped to distinguish between words built from the same root:

1) vowel gradation (ablaut) was used to distinguish verbs from nouns and also verbs of the same root: *singan* – *song*, *sprecan* – *spraece*, *findan* – *fand*, *sittan* – *saet*, etc.;

2) consonant interchanges: *ri:san* – *rae:ran*, *de:ap* – *dead*, etc.

The role of word stress was not great. The shifting of word stress helped to differentiate between some parts of speech being together with other means: the verb had unaccented prefixes whereas the corresponding nouns had stressed prefixes: *ond-`swarian* – *ondswaru*.

Prefixation was a productive way of building new words in OE. They were widely used with verbs but were far less productive with other parts of speech. For example, *ga:n* – *go*, *a:ˈga:n* (*go away*), *beˈga:n* (*go around*), etc.

Suffixation was by far the most productive means of word derivation in OE. Suffixes not only modified the lexical meaning of the word but could refer to other parts of speech. Suffixes were mostly applied in forming nouns and adjectives, seldom in forming verbs.

Word composition was a highly productive way of developing the vocabulary in OE. This method of formation was common to all IE languages but in none of the groups has it become as widespread as in Germanic. Compounds in OE languages were of two types: morphological or primary compounds and syntactic or secondary compounds. The former were formed by combining two stems: *mid-niht* (*midnight*); syntactic compounds usually consisted of a noun in the Gen. case and a head noun: *Sunnan-daeg*, *Englaland*, *Oxena-ford*, etc.

Affixation. It should be noted that affixation plays an important part in OE. We shall look at suffixes and prefixes according to the parts of speech they derive. The table below illustrates this division.

<p>Suffixes</p>	<p>Nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -ere (masculine): fiscere, baecere, wri:tere; -estre (feminine): baecestre, spinnestre; -inȝ (patronymics, son of, prince): cyninȝ (leader of the clan); -linȝ (diminutive): deorling, ly:tling. <p>Abstract nouns:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -nis, -nes: ȝo:dnis, tre:nes; -þ, -uþ, -oþ: tre:owþ, fiscop; -unȝ, i-nȝ: leornunȝ, raedinȝ; -do:m: wisdom:m, fre:odom; -ha:d (title, rank): cildha:d; -scipe: fre:ondscipe 	<p>Adjectives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -ede: ho:cede; -ihȝe: staeniȝe(stony); -iȝ: ha:l iȝ, mistiȝ; -en: ȝylden; -isc: (nationality) Enȝlisc, Frensiȝc; -feald (fold): þriefeald, manizfeald; -full: synnfull, carful; -le:as (deprived of): slaeples; -li:c: freondli:c, luflī:c; -weard (direction): ha:mweard. <p>Verbs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -s +mutation: blo:d – ble:dsian (sprinkle with blood); claene – claensian; -laec: (approach) ne:alaecan; -ett: cohettan, sporetan
<p>Prefixes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a- (out of, from) ari:san, a:wacan; -a (always) a:hwær (everywhere); a- (pronouns, adverbs): aehwæþer (either); be-: beȝan, beþencan; for- (destruction, loss): fordo:n (destroy), forwearþan (perish); ȝe-: ȝefe:ra (fellow-traveller) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> mis- (negation, bad quality): misdaed; of- (reinforcing meaning): ofsle:an; on- change, separation): onlu:can (unlock); to- (destruction): to:breccan, to:teran; un- (negative meaning): uncuþ (unknown); wan- (negative meaning): wanha:l (unwell)
<p>Composition: compound nouns, adjectives, verbs</p>	<p>Joining:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> N+n: aeftenti:d, ȝoldsmi þ; A+n: cwicseolfor; N+a: wi:dcuþ; 	<p>Genitive+ 2nd component:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mo:nandaeȝ (moon's day); Saeteresdaeȝ (Saturn's day);

End of table

	A+a: bli:þ-heart; Verbs: efenþrowian (sympathize)	Snotinþhām (home of the Snots); Oxenaford Lynnþūn (river on a fortified hill)
Poetic vocabulary	In epic poems such as Beowulf (many compounds): warrior = rinc, mec3, se c3, freca; compounds: beodo-rinc (battle hero) here-rinc (army hero), etc. The notion of ‘sword’= battle sword, battle friend. The notion of harp: joy wood, joy beam, etc.	

TEMA 3 THE ME DEVELOPMENT OF VOCABULARY

Vocabulary developed in the ME period both by internal processes and by borrowing words and word-building morphemes from other languages.

In the sphere of internal development we may note such factors as deriving new words by means of affixation (e.g. *brotherhood*), and development of meaning in accordance with developments in social life: for example, the OE substantive *cniht*, which meant boy, servant, acquired in ME (spelt knight) the meaning ‘knight’; the OE word *sellan* ‘give’ had its meaning narrowed to ‘sell’, that is ‘give for money’.

Svandinavian Influence

A considerable part of the vocabulary was common to English and to Scandinavian dialects. In many words the root was the same, while endings were different. For example,

OE	Scandinavian
Do:m (judgement, sentence)	Do:mr
Fisc	Fiskr
Sunu	Sunr
Herte	Hiorta
Ti:ma	Ti:me

Another part of Scandinavian vocabulary did not correspond to English. It is in this sphere that Scandinavian dialects influenced English. This influence covered a considerable semantic field, including both political terms and everyday words. For example, *lagu* – *law*, *wrang* – *wrong*, *hu:sbonda* – *husband*, *sister*, *casten* – *cast*, *ta:ken* – *take*, *fe:ologa* – *fellow*, etc.

Even the 3^d person plural personal pronoun was taken over from Scandinavian into English. The Scandinavian pronoun *þeir* penetrated into English and, superseding the OE pronoun *hi:e*, became ME *they*. Similarly, the genitive of the Scandinavian pronoun *þeirra*, superseded the native *hira* and became ME *their*, and the dative *þeim* superseded the native *him* and became ME *them*. This process was prepared by the OE forms of the demonstrative pronoun *þæs*, *þæm*, *þa:* etc.

In ME documents we sometimes find the preposition *at* preceding the infinitive, as in Scandinavian. The only trace of this usage is the substantive *aso* (at do).

Among Scandinavian loan words there were military terms but they did not survive, and were in their turn superseded by French words.

Scandinavian elements became part of many geographical names. For example, *by* – village (Whitby, Derby), *toft* – grassy spot (Langtoft), *beck* – rivelet (Troutbeck); *ness* – cape (Inverness) etc.

In the regions inhabited by Scandinavians, where the two languages were mixed, there occurred blending of entire lexical layers. In many cases a Scandinavian word differed from its English counterpart only in small details. When two such variants met, they might easily blend. It is there sometimes impossible to decide what actually happened: whether the English word was superseded by the Scandinavian or whether the phonetic structure of the English words changed under Scandinavian influence. For example, the OE word *ziefan* corresponded to the Scandinavian *gefa*. In late ME, that is in the 15th century, we find the word *give*. This velar *g* could not result from phonetic

development of palatal ʒ. Its only source could be the Scandinavian variant. We may suppose that the English word as a whole was superseded by the Scandinavian or that it was changed under Scandinavian influence. The same refers to OE *zietan* (receive), Scandinavian *geta* and ME *getan*. Compare also the words for sister: OE *swestor*, Scandinavian *systir*, and ME *sister*.

French Influence

Penetration of French loan words into English did not start immediately after the Norman Conquest. It only started in the 12th century, and reached its climax in the 13th and 14th centuries.

After the conquest French was introduced as the language of the law courts, debates in Parliament (1265). Under such circumstances considerable layers of the population became bilingual. This bilingualism created preconditions for a mass entry of French words into the English language. (At the same time the opposite process took place: English words were adopted in the Anglo-Norman language).

Many words adopted at this time denoted things and notions connected with the life of the Norman aristocracy. Alongside these, everyday words penetrated into English, which denoted ideas already having names in English. As a result of borrowing, pairs of synonyms would arise, and a struggle between the synonyms would ensue. The outcome of the struggle would be different in different cases. There were three main possibilities:

1. The struggle ends in favour of the French word; its native English synonym disappears.
2. It is the native word that gets the upper hand; the French word, after existing in English for some times, disappears.
3. Both words survive, but a difference in meaning develops between them, which may be either semantic or stylistic (tab. 8).

When both the native word and the French word were preserved in English, there arose a differentiation of their meanings (*ox – beef, calf – veal, sheep – mutton, pig – pork*).

Another type of differentiation may be found in the pair of synonyms: *beginnen – commencen*. The native word *beginnen* has stayed on as a colloquial word, while the French *commencen* is an official term and is mainly used in documents. In other examples, *work – labour, life – existence*, etc. the native word acquired a more concrete meaning, while the French one is more abstract.

Table 8 – French loan words

Sphere	Example
Government, the court, jurisdiction	Prince, baron, noble, government, royal, court, justice, judge, sentence (but: king, queen survived)
Army and military life	Were, army, regiment, castle, banner, siege, victory, defeat
Religion and church	Religion, saint, frere, preyen, sermon, conscience, chapel
Town professions	Bocher, peinter, tailor (country professions Anglo-saxon: miller, shoemaker, shepherd, smith)
Art notions	Art, colour, figure, image, column, ornament
Amusements	Plesir, leysir, ese, feste, dinner, soper, rosten
Words not connected with any sphere	Air, place, river, large, change, etc.

In some cases French words superceded the most everyday words: river (instead of OE *ēa*).

Sometimes the intruding French word forced its native synonym into a different semantic sphere of meaning. For instance, the OE *haerfest* (autumn) was superseded by the French word *autumn*, but survived in English with the meaning of ‘harvest’.

French words penetrating into English were of different origin: from Latin, from Greek through Latin, from Celtic, from Germanic dialects.

The degree to which French words penetrated into English depended on two factors: on the geographical region and on the social layer addressed by the document. The farther North, the fewer French words; the closer to the lower strata of society, the fewer French words (tab. 9).

Suffixes, prefixes	Words	Suffixes, prefixes	Words
-ance, -ence	Ignorance, entrance	-ment	Government, treatment
-ess	Princess, countess	-et	cabinet
-age	Carriage, marriage	-e	Employee
-ard	Coward, bastard	-al	Refusal, arrival
-able, -ible	Flexible, legible	Dis-, des-	Disappoint, disagree
		En-	Encase, encircle

TEMA 4

BORROWINGS FROM CLASSICAL LANGUAGES WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE AGE OF THE RENAISSANCE

As is known, Latin continued to be used in England all through the OE and ME periods in religious rituals, in legal documents and in texts of scientific and philosophical character. After the Norman Conquest it was partially replaced by official Anglo-Norman but still its main spheres remained the Church, the law courts and academic activities.

The period of the Renaissance saw a new influx of Latin borrowings (including Greek loan words). In the 16th and 17th centuries Latin was the main language of philosophy and science, its use in the sphere of religion was more restricted after the Reformation and the publication of the English versions of the Bible.

Many classical borrowings came into Early New English through French due to continuous contacts with France, for the French language had adopted many loan-words from classical languages at the time of the Renaissance. One of the reasons for the influx of Latin words during this period was that many of the new ideas encountered in classical works were not susceptible to precise translation – therefore scholars preferred to retain the Latin terms.

A distinction should be made between genuine Latin and Greek words, which were used in ancient times with the same or roughly the same meaning, and those which were based on Latin and Greek roots but were made as new terms in modern times. These borrowings which were adopted in their original form and meaning or with slight adaptation (dropping or change of the ending) large date from the 16th century. They mostly indicate abstract concepts and belong to the vocabulary of educated people and even erudites. Numerous Latin and Greek words were first used by Thomas More (early 16th century) who wrote in Latin and English. For example, *anticipate*, *contradictory*, *exact*, *exaggerate*, *explain*, *fact*, *monopoly*, *necessitate*, *pretext*, etc. Many classical borrowings first appeared in Shakespeare's works: *accommodation*, *apostrophe*, *dislocate*, *misanthrope*, *reliance*, *submerge*, etc. Some borrowings have a more specialized meaning and belong to scientific terminology (mostly Greek prototypes): *acid*, *analysis*, *antenna*, *apparatus*, *appendix*, *atom*, *axis*, *complex*, *diagnosis*, etc. A distinct semantic group of Greek loan-words pertains to theatre, literature and rhetoric: *comedy*, *climax*, *critic*, *dialogue*, *drama*, *epilogue*, *episode*, *metaphore*, *rhythm*, etc. Some classic words underwent semantic changes in English. For example, Latin *musculus* originally meant 'little mouse'; *climax* meant 'ladder' in Greek; *atom* meant 'something indivisible', but changed its meaning due to the new discoveries in physics.

In addition to true borrowings, classical languages have provided a supply of roots in the creation of new roots. For example, Thomas Elyot (16th century) introduced the Greek word *democracy*, *education* and *encyclopaedia*.

Nowadays such words form the basis of international terminology (international words), which is the chief element that modern languages have in common. The vast body of international terms continued to grow in the 18–20th centuries due to the great technical progress of the 20th century which is reflected in hundred of newly coined words or Latin and Greek words used in their new meanings: *antibiotic*, *cyclotron*, *hormones*, *orthopedic*, *protein*, *stratosphere* – all based on Greek roots; Latin examples include such words as *facsimile*, *introvert*, *quantum*, *radioactive*, *relativity*, etc.

In addition to words and roots, Latin and Greek have supplied English (as well as other modern languages) with a great number of derivational affixes which have become productive in English. For example, *humanism* (-ism from Greek *-ismos*, Latin *-ismus*); *fraternize* (from the Greek *-izen*, Latin *-izare*); The Greek prefixes *anti-*, *di-*, *neo-*, the

Latin (and French) prefixes *de-*, *ex-*, *re-* and others occur in numerous modern words combined with other components of diverse origin.

One of the effects of the classical borrowings on the English language was the further increase of the number of synonyms. Replacement of native words by classical loan-words is of rare occurrence; a normal result of the adoption of Latin words) was an addition of another synonym to the existing set. For example, Native English *kingly*, French *royal*, Latin *regal*. As a matter of fact, Latin and French words are more bookish than native, Latin words being sometimes ‘elevated’ than French ones.

Some French and Latin loan words in the English vocabulary go back to the same Latin root that is they are etymological doublets. They differ in sound, form and meaning, as the borrowings from Old French have undergone many changes both in the history of the French language since the days of the Latin parent-language and in the history of English after its adoption. The borrowings coming directly from Latin have suffered relatively few changes. For example, sure *and* secure (from Old French. *seure* and Latin *securum*).

Latin and Greek loan-words irrespective of the period they were borrowed in, have some formal markers. For example, Latin suffixes *-ate*, *-ute* formed some English verbs: locate, *separate*, *dominate*, *execute*, *prosecute*; or elements *-ent*, *-ant* in adjectives: *apparent*, *evident*, *important*, etc.; some Greek loan-words retain peculiarities of spelling which can facilitate identification: *ph* for [f], *ps* for [s], *ch* for [k], for example: *photography*, *psychology*, *scheme*, *archaic*, etc. Most of them are international words found in many modern languages including Russian and Belarusian.

TEMA 5

BORROWINGS FROM CONTEMPORARY LANGUAGES

In addition to three main sources – Greek, Latin and French, English speakers of the New English period borrowed words from many other languages. It has been estimated that even in the 17th century the English vocabulary contained words derived from no less than fifty foreign languages.

The main contributors to the vocabulary were Italian, Dutch, Spanish, German, Portuguese and Russian. A number of words were adopted from languages of other countries and continents, which came into contact with English: Persian, Chinese, Hungarian, Turkish, Malayan, Polynesian, the native languages of India and America.

Next to French, Latin and Scandinavian, English owes the greatest number of foreign words to Italian, though many of them entered the English language through French: *million, florin, pistol cartridge, alarm*; musical terms: *aira, bass, cello, concerto, finale, piano, solo, sonata, soprano*, etc.

Borrowings from Spanish came as a result of contacts with Spain in the military, commercial and political fields, due to the rivalry of England and Spain in foreign trade and colonial expansion (16–17th centuries): *armada, barricade, cannibal, cargo, embargo; colonial expansion: banana, canoe, chocolate, cocoa, Negro, potato, tobacco, tomato*, etc.

Dutch made abundant contribution to English, particularly in the 15th and 16th centuries, when commercial relations between England and the Netherlands were at their peak. Dutch artisans came to England to practise their trade, and sell their goods. They specialized in wool weaving and brewing, which is reflected in the Dutch loan-words: *pack, spool, hops, tub; nautical vocabulary: cruise, deck, dock, freight, skipper; painting: easel, landscape, sketches*.

Loan words from German reflect the scientific and cultural achievements of Germany at different dates of the New Period: mineralogical terms: *cobalt, nickel*; philosophy: (18–19th centuries): *dynamics, transcendental, kindergarten, halt, strolls, plunder, poodle, waltz*. A peculiar feature of German influence on the English vocabulary in the 18–19th centuries was the creation of translation-loans on German model: *swan-song* is a literal translation of German *Schwanenlied*; *superman* was naturalized by B. Shaw as translation of Nietzsche's *Übermensch*; *class struggle* as the German *Klassenkampf*, etc. Recent German borrowings in English are connected with WWII and other political events: *blitz, bunker, fuhere, Gestapo, nazi*, etc.

The Russian element in the English vocabulary is found as back as the 16th century, when the English trade company established the first trade relations with Russia. English borrowings adopted from the 16th till the 19th centuries indicate articles of trade and specific features of life in Russia, observed by the English: *beluga, boyar, copeck, intelligentsia, muzhik, rouble, samovar, troika, tsar, verst, vodka*.

The loan-words adopted after 1917 reflect the new social relations and political institutions in the USSR: *Bolshevik, Komsomol, Soviet*, etc. Some of them are translation-loans: collective farm, Five-Year Plan, wall newspaper; other terms associated with developments in science and engineering and other areas: *sputnik, cosmonaut, perestroika, glasnost, khozraschyot*, etc.

Раздел 8

СИНТАКСИС В ДИАХРОНИИ. ДРЕВНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД. СРЕДНЕАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД. НОВОАНГЛИЙСКИЙ ПЕРИОД

ТЕМА 1 OE PERIOD

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at two levels, the level of phrase, and the level of the sentence. Since OE was largely a synthetic language, the load of syntactic ways of word connection was rather small, and the syntax of the sentence was relatively simple, unless the texts were literal translations from Latin or poems with stereotyped constructions. As a result, coordination prevailed over subordination and complicated syntactical constructions were rare.

The syntactic structure of a language can be described at the level of phrase and at the level of the sentence. In OE texts we find a variety of word phrases (word groups or patterns):

Adjective+ noun	This is a widely used pattern denoting an object as characterized by a property: <i>spe:dig man, tam de:or.</i> ; occasionally the adjective follows its head word: <i>micle meras ðersce</i>
Noun + noun	The attribute noun is often in the Gen.: <i>hwa:les ba:n</i>
Nount + Verb	<i>Ohthere sæde</i>
Pronoun + Verb	<i>He: sæde, he: e:ode, etc.</i>
Verb + Pronoun	<i>Sing me:</i>
Pronoun + noun	<i>Mi:ne dagas</i>
Numeral + noun	<i>A:n man, twa: tycenu (two kids)</i>
Verb + adverb	<i>Gre:tan luflice (greet livingly)</i>
Adverb + Adjective	<i>Swi:the spedig</i>
Preposotion + noun	<i>Ofer sae: (across the sea) on Angelcynne (in England), for scome (for shame)</i>
Preposition + Pronoun	<i>To: him, mid him (with him)</i>

Level of Sentences. The Simple Sentence

There are 3 ways of expressing syntactical relations: agreement, government, joining.

Agreement	Government	Joining
Attribute groups: agree in gender, number and case: <i>micle meras ðersce</i> (large fresh-water lakes) (Dat. pl.)	Case of noun or pronoun depends on the verb: <i>andsware onfo:n</i> (Acc.); <i>bi:dan windes</i> (Gen.); <i>hyre sa:de</i> (Dat.)	No formal means: adverb + adjective, etc. <i>swi:the spe:dig man gre:tan freondlice</i>

There were also 3-component phrases of the following patterns:

V + S Dat. + S / Pronoun Acc. = *sealde hit his me:der* (gave it (to) his mother);

V + PREP. + S / Pronoun = *secgan to him, cwae:th to him*; and even longer phrases (of 4-5 components).

The Subject is usually expressed by a substantive or a pronoun (*he: sae:de, Ohthere sae:de*).

The Predicate: simple verbal, expressed by the form of one verb or in some cases analytical: *Ne con ic noht singan. Hwaethre thu: canst singan* (But thou canst sing). *Hwaeat sceal ic singan?* A nominal predicate is always compound: *He: waes swy: the spe: dig man*.

Secondary parts. The object: can be expressed by substantives or pronouns in the accusative, dative or genitive case. There are 2 objects: direct and indirect. Direct object with so called transitive verbs is expressed by a substantive in the accusative case: *saegdon sum ha:lig spell* (told some holy story). There may be 2 objects, the indirect object, unlike the direct, is in the dative case: *sinȝ me:*.

The Attribute: (adjective, pronoun or numeral or by a substantive in the genitive case), or by a phrase: preposition + substantive: *he: waes swy:the spedig man*.

The Apposition is found in many OE texts Alfred, King.

The Adverbial Modifier may be expressed either by an adverb or by a phrase “preposition + substantive” *Tha: e:ode he: ha:m*. (then he went home).

The Direct Address can be represented by a single word or a phrase
Cedmon, sing me: hwaethwugu. Sunu mi:n, hlyste mi:nre la:re (my son, listen to my teaching).

Paranthesis are not frequent in OE texts. They are represented either by adverbs or by phrases “preposition + substantive”: *hwaethre thu: meaht singan* (however, thou canst sing).

Word Order

Subject and Predicate. Declarative sentences: 1) If the sentence opens an adverbial modifier, it is the predicate that usually comes first, the subject following: *tha: ongan he: so:na singan* (then began he soon to sing); 2) normally the subject comes first: *Ohthere saede*.

Interrogative sentences – the predicate comes first: *Hwaet sceal ic singan?*

The main parts form, as it were, a kind of frame, which encloses the secondary parts.

There are sentences introduced by ‘hit’ and ‘thae:r:’, the prototypes of ‘formal *it* and’ the phrase: *there is*.

Negation – the number of negative words in a sentence is not limited. The most common particle is NE which was placed before the verb and often accompanied by other negative words, mostly *na:ht* or *no:ht*. They reinforced the meaning of negation: *Ne con ic no:ht singan*. Ne could be attached to some verbs, pronouns and adverbs to form single words: *he: ne mohte na:n thing gese:on* (he could not see anything (*na:n* form *ne* + *a:n*= not one. Hence modern: none, never, neither

Compound and Complex Sentences

They existed in OE, and there are numerous instances of coordination and subordination. In Complex sentences there are such subordinate clauses as subject clauses, object clauses, attributive clauses, adverbial clauses (of place, time, of cause, purpose, result, conditional, of concession, of manner and comparison; and paranthetical clauses.

In the compound sentences clauses were mainly connected either asyndetically or syndetically. The most common type of syndetic connection

was represented by the conjunction *and*, *oððe* (*or*) or *ac*(*but*); *ic me: mid Hruntin̄ e do:m̄ ewyrce, oððe mec de: aþ nimeþ.*

OE texts displayed parenthetical clauses, combined clauses and sentences with coordination and subordination mixed.

TEMA 2 ME AND NEW ENGLISH PERIODS

The evolution of syntax was closely connected with the decline of the inflectional system, hence ME and MnE sentences got more emphasis on the syntactical means of word connection: the word order became stricter and the use of prepositions more extensive.

The following changes took place:

1. Agreement was considerably reduced:

- a) agreement in noun phrases practically disappeared, except for some instances in number, which were lost in the 15th century when the inflection – e was dropped; ...*this holy mayden, that requeste, A good man was ther of religioun. ...goode men, etc.*;
- b) nouns used attributively had forms of the genitive case or were joined to the head word by a preposition: *fadres sone, men of armes*;
- c) In Shakespeare's time noun patterns became more fixed: nouns used attributively were enclosed between a determiner and the head word: *Jog on, jog on, the footpath way; the darling buds of May; the master mistress of my passion.*

2. Government: has not undergone essential changes.

Joining: its sphere widened by the reduction of agreement; agreement in gender and case was lost: *his schoures sote* (his sweet showers).

The sentence, Parts of the sentence

The Subject: noun, pronoun, infinitive: *to beholde it was gret joye*

The Predicate: simple verbal: *he sende writes sone anon*; compound verbal = modal verb + infinitive: *wel coude he singe*; nominal predicate: *Hauelok was a ful god gome.*

The Object: 2 direct and indirect: *anoint thi ship with pik and tar; him louede yung, him louede olde.*

The Attribute: adjectives, pronouns, nouns in the Gen. case, nouns between the determiner and the head word.

The Adverbial Modifier: adverbs, prepositional phrases.

In Modern English Agreement: goes on decreasing: this, that agree in number with the head words.

Government: disappeared, only the personal pronouns and the interrogative and relative pronoun who are governed. *Shakespeare: ...between you and I.*

Joining: since agreement and government decline, the role of joining grows.

Closure: the *always-wind-obeying* deep.

Simple sentence: the freedom of word order becomes more restricted, but: Hamlet: *Mother, you have my father much offended.*

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МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РЕСПУБЛИКИ БЕЛАРУСЬ
УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«БАРАНОВИЧСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА
HISTORY OF LANGUAGE

**Практическое руководство
по организации семинарских занятий
для студентов специальностей
1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки,
1-02 03 07 Иностранный язык (английский).
Дополнительная специальность**

**Барановичи
РИО БарГУ
2012**

УДК 811.111(076)
ББК 81.2 Англ
И89

Рекомендовано к печати
методической комиссией факультета славянских
и германских языков

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И89 **История языка = History of Language** [Текст]: практ. рук.
по организации семинар. занятий для студентов специальностей
1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки, 1-02 03 07 Иностранный язык
(английский). Дополнительная специальность / сост. А. А. Савко. —
Барановичи : РИО БарГУ, 2013. — 45, [7] с. — 55 экз.

Состоит из теоретических вопросов и практических заданий к семинарским занятиям по дисциплине «История языка», а также содержит дополнительный материал для самостоятельной работы студентов в процессе подготовки к семинарским занятиям, информацию познавательного характера для расширения кругозора.

Разработан в соответствии с учебной программой дисциплины «История языка» для студентов специальностей 1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки, 1-02 03 07 Иностранный язык (английский). Дополнительная специальность.

УДК 811.111(076)
ББК 81.2 Англ

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ABBREVIATIONS

A.D.	—	Anno Domini (our era)
B.C.	—	Before Christ (before our era)
Dat.	—	Dative Case
Gen.	—	Genitive Case
Goth.	—	Gothic
Icel.	—	Icelandic
IE	—	Indo-European
Lat.	—	Latin
ME, MdE	—	Middle English
Mod.E, MnE	—	Modern English
NE	—	New English
Nom.	—	Nominative case
OE	—	Old English
OG	—	Old Germanic
OIcel	—	Old Icelandic
Part.	—	Participle
PG	—	Proto-Germanic
Pl.	—	plural
Russ.	—	Russian
Sans.	—	Sanskrit
Sg	—	singular
WG	—	West Germanic

FOREWORD

The rise of English is a remarkable success story. When Julius Caesar landed in Britain nearly two thousand years ago, English didn't exist. Five hundred years later, *Englisc*, incomprehensible to modern ears, was probably spoken by about as few people as currently speak Cherokee – and with about as little influence. Nearly a thousand years later, at the end of the 16th century, when William Shakespeare was in his prime, English was the native speech of between 5 and 7 million Englishmen and it was, in the words of a contemporary, “*of small reach, it stretcheth no further than this island of ours, naie not there over all*”.

Today, English is used by at least 750 million people, and barely half of those speak it as a mother tongue. Some estimates have put that figure closer to one billion. Whatever the total, English at the beginning of the 21st century is more widely scattered, more widely spoken and written, than any other language has ever been. It has become the language of the planet, the first truly global language.

The way in which a few tribal and local Germanic dialects spoken by a hundred and fifty thousand people grew into the English language spoken and understood by about one and a half billion people has all the characteristics of a tremendous adventure. How did the billion-tongued language of Modern English first find its voice? When did it get the form we know and learn? When did it begin to sound as the language we recognize?

The following materials together with the compilation of the lectures would help to answer the above mentioned questions, would tell the university students about where the English language came from and how it achieved the feat of transforming itself so successfully. The major changes in the system of vowels, consonants, as well as the changes in morphology and lexicography are described diachronically, accompanied by the relevant historical conditions.

The tasks for seminars are given in accordance with the programme to the discipline “History of Language”.

SEMINAR 1

1. Study Lectures 1, 2 and Self-study 1.

Self-study 1

Some theoretical aspects of language history

The evolution or historical development of language is made up of diverse facts and processes. In the first place, it includes the internal or structural development of the language system, its various subsystems and component parts. The description of internal linguistic history is usually presented in accordance with the division of language into linguistic levels. The main, commonly accepted levels are the phonetic and phonological levels, the morphological level, the syntactic level, and the lexical level. Accordingly, the history of the language can be subdivided into *historical phonetics (phonology)*, *historical morphology*, *historical syntax* and *historical lexicology*.

The evolution of language includes also many facts which pertain to the functioning of language in the speech community. These functional aspects constitute what is known as the 'external' history of the language and embrace a large number of diverse matters: the spread of the language in geographical and social space, the differentiation of language into functional varieties (geographical variants, dialects, standard and sub-standard forms, etc.), contacts with other languages. Most of these features are connected with the history of the speech community, e.g. with the structure of society, the migration of tribes, economic and political events, the growth of culture and literature.

Synchrony and diachrony in language history

It goes without saying that language does not change rapidly: there are certain properties in any language that are preserved at any period of its development: the division into vowels and consonants, the distinction between main parts of speech and parts of the sentence. As for English,

for instance, some parts of its vocabulary have come down to us, as well as most of the pronouns, many forms of words and words indicating basic concepts of life. Many ways of word-formation have remained historically stable, and some grammatical categories (number in nouns, degrees of comparison in adjectives) have undergone little change, while other categories, such as case and gender, have changed considerably. The fact is that the proportion of statics and dynamics in language varies at different historical periods and at different linguistic levels. But still we can always find statics and dynamics both in synchrony and diachrony. Of course, to trace the changes taking place in a language, we are to consider them diachronically. And here we are faced with such a notion as *linguistic change*.

Linguistic changes can be classified in accordance with linguistic levels, such as phonetic and phonological changes, spelling changes, grammatical changes, including morphology and syntax, lexical and stylistic changes. At these levels further subdivisions are possible: phonetic changes include vowel and consonant changes, qualitative and quantitative changes, positional and independent changes and so on. But every separate change enters a larger frame and forms a part of the development of a certain system. In other words, the alternation of one element is part of the alternation of the entire system as it reveals a rearrangement of its structure, a change in the relationships of its components. For example, in the late 16th – early 17th century in certain phonetic conditions the sonorant [r] changed into [a] giving rise to diphthongs: *bear*, *beer*, *poor*, etc.; the new set of diphthongs with a central glide [ia], [ea], [ua] introduced new distinctive features into the system of vowel phonemes.

Linguistic changes are usually slow and gradual. They proceed in minor imperceptible steps unnoticed by the speakers. The rate of linguistic change is restricted by the communicative function of language, for a rapid change would have disturbed or hindered communication between speakers of different generations.

As was said above, at some historical periods linguistic changes are more intensive and more rapid than at others. For example, changes in vocabulary are more pronounced than, say, changes in grammar or phonetics as they are easier to observe as new words or groups of words spring into being before our eyes. But new words, unless they are

borrowings or loan words, are built in conformity with the existing ways of word-formation which are very slow to change. That is they make use of available elements: roots, affixes and follow the productive word-building patterns already existing in the language. For example, *hotel – motel, alcoholic – workaholic, manuscript – tapescript*, and so on. If the number of words is very large, it takes them several hundred years to be adopted and assimilated. For example, French borrowings of the Middle Ages.

As far as the system of phonemes is concerned, it cannot be subjected to sudden or rapid changes either, since it must preserve the opposition between the phonemes required for the distinction of morphemes. Sometimes phonetic changes affect a whole set of phonemes – a group of vowels or a group of consonants – but, as a rule, they do not impair the differentiation of phonemes, and consequently, communication.

Likewise, the grammatical system is very slow to change. Being the most abstract of linguistic levels, it must provide stable formal devices for arranging words into classes and for connecting them into phrases and sentences.

Synchronic variation

A linguistic change begins with a synchronic variation, that is, along with the existing language units (words, forms, affixes, pronunciation, spelling, and syntactic constructions) here appear new units. They may be similar in meaning but slightly different in form, stylistic connotations, social values, etc. In the same way new meanings may arise in the existing words or forms in addition to their main meanings. Both kinds of variations, formal (in form) and semantic (in meaning), supply the so-called raw material for impending changes.

Synchronic variation is to be found in every language at every stage of its history. It is caused by two main factors: functional differentiation of language and tendencies of historical development.

As is known, language functions in various forms as a group of mutually intelligible overlapping speech varieties. The range of synchronic variation largely depends on the distinction of the main functional varieties and also on the variable use of language in different conditions of communication, in various social groups and in individual

forms of speech. Synchronic differences between the varieties of language may consist of specific items not to be found in other varieties, or in the different use of the same items, which may seem slightly unusual and yet quite intelligible to the speakers of other varieties.

Synchronic variation reveals the tendencies of historical development and is produced by those tendencies. New features, which appear as instances of synchronic variation, represent dynamics in synchrony and arise in conformity with productive historical trends.

Variation supplies material for linguistic change and also provides conditions for its realization. At every period of history, language offers a wide choice of expressive means to the speaker. From this stock the speaker selects forms of expression suitable in the given situation; in making this choice he observes the speech habits of his social group or employs forms of expression current in other varieties of the language; sometimes he creates new expressive means – forms, words, phrases – in accordance with the productive historical tendencies. Old and new forms begin to be used indiscriminately, in free variation, which may lead to a change in their relative frequencies and finally to the substitution of one for another. This synchronic variation ensures a gradual imperceptible realization of the change. If the co-existing competing units lose all differences, one rival will die out and the other will occupy its place (for only in rare cases genuine free variation exists for long, that is, co-existence of absolute equivalents). If the differences between parallel means of expression persist and are accentuated, both rivals will survive as distinct units.

Causes of language evolution

The causes or moving factors in language history is one of the most controversial issues of historical linguistics. Various explanations and theories have been suggested expressing different views upon language evolution.

For example, in the early 19th century representatives of the so-called romantic trend (including J. Grimm) interpreted the history of the Indo-European languages, and especially that of Germanic languages, as decline and degradation, for most of these languages have lost their richness of grammatical forms, declensions, conjugations and inflections since the so-called ‘Golden Age’ of the parent-language.

Linguists of the natural trend (A. Schleicher) conceived language as a living organism. Hence it's birth, youth, maturity, old age and death.

In the later 19th century the psychological theories of language (W. Wundt, H. Paul) attributed linguistic changes to individual psychology and accidental individual fluctuations.

The study of factual history undertaken by the Neo-Grammarians led them to believe that there are no superior or inferior stages in language history and that all languages are equal; and changes are brought about by phonetic laws which are universal, that is, admit of no exceptions (seeming exceptions are due to analogy or are a result of a further development of language).

Sociolinguists maintained that linguistic changes are caused by social conditions and events in external history, whereas others hold that external factors are no concern of linguistic history. In accordance with this view the main internal cause which produces linguistic change is the pressure of the language system. Whenever the balance of the system or its symmetrical structural arrangement is disrupted, it tends to be restored again under the pressure of symmetry inherent in the system.

The Prague school of linguists was the first to recognize the functional stratification of language and its diversity dependent on external conditions. In present-day theories, especially in sociolinguistics, great importance is attached to the variability of speech in social groups as the primary factor of linguistic change.

As is seen, there are different interpretations of language evolution. But still, it should be understood that, broadly speaking, linguistic changes include such factors as external (extra linguistic) and internal (intralinguistic). The term external or extralinguistic embraces a number of aspects of human life: events in the history of people, including the structure of the society, expansion over new geographical areas, migrations, mixtures and separation of tribes, political and economic unity or disunity, contacts with other peoples, the progress of culture and literature. These aspects of external history determine the linguistic situation and affect the evolution of the language.

As for internal factors of language evolution, they arise from the language system. They are normally subdivided into general factors or general regularities, which operate in all languages as inherent properties

of any language system, and specific factors operating in one language or in a group of related languages at a certain period of time.

The most general causes of language evolution are to be found in the tendencies to improve the language technique or its formal apparatus. These tendencies are displayed in numerous assimilative and dissimilative phonetic changes in different languages, including English. By assimilation is meant a process by which one sound is made similar in its place or manner of articulation to a neighbouring sound. For example, the word '*cupboard*' was presumably once pronounced as the spelling indicates (and as most 1st -year students unaware of its correct pronunciation pronounce!) with the consonant cluster **pb** in the middle. The [p] was assimilated to [b] in manner of articulation (voicing was maintained throughout the cluster), and subsequently the resultant double [bb] was simplified. With a single [b] in the middle and an unstressed second syllable, the word *cupboard*, as it is pronounced nowadays, is no longer so evidently a compound of cup and board, as the spelling still shows it.

Dissimilation refers to the process by which one sound becomes different from a neighbouring sound. For example, the word *pilgrim* (French *pelerin*) derives from Latin *peregrinus*; the sound [l] results from dissimilation of the first [r] under the influence of the second [r]. Both assimilation and dissimilation are commonly explained by 'ease of articulation' and are realized in a particular context. Simplification is another phenomenon responsible for phonetic changes. For example, the consonant cluster [kn] in *know*, *knee*, etc. was simplified to [n], or [t] was dropped in *listen* and *often* (though, these days the tendency to pronounce t in *often* has been resumed).

On the other hand, there are tendencies which resist linguistic change aiming to preserve it as a means fit for communication. These tendencies account for the historical stability of many elements and features (statics in diachrony). For instance, English has retained many words and formal markers expressing the most important notions and distinctions (most personal pronouns, names of some important everyday things; the suffix-d to form the Past tense, etc.). When nouns lost their case endings, to compensate for the loss prepositional phrases were used more widely.

There is another important factor which should be mentioned in this context. It is interdependence of changes within the sub-systems of the language and interaction of changes at different linguistic levels.

For example, in the course of history English nouns lost 2 of their original four cases. As a result, simplification of noun morphology involved changes at different levels; phonetic weakening of final syllables, analogical leveling of forms at the morphological level, and stabilization of word order at the level of syntax.

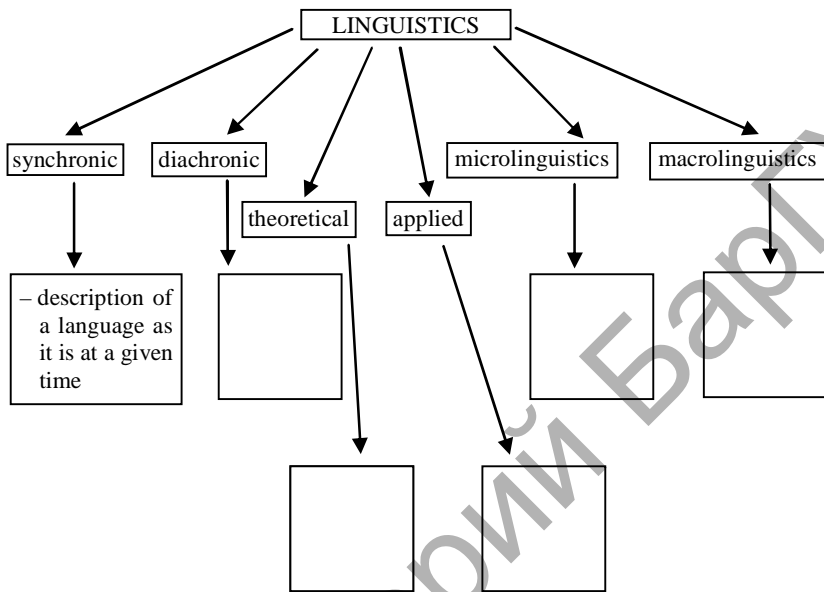
Some factors and causes of language evolution are confined to a certain group of languages or to one language only and may operate over a limited span of time. These specific factors are trends of evolution characteristic of separate languages or linguistic groups, which distinguish them from other languages.

On the one hand, English as a member of the Germanic group of languages, shares many Germanic trends of development, but, on the other hand, it has transformed some of them and developed its own trends caused by specifically English internal and external factors. For example, like other Germanic languages, it displayed a tendency towards a more analytical grammatical structure, but it has gone further along this way of development than most other languages, probably owing to the peculiar combination of internal and external conditions and to the interaction of changes at different linguistic levels.

2. Using the material of lectures 1, 2 and self-study 1 answer the following questions.

1. What aspects of language do changes take place in?
2. Why are they slow and gradual?
3. Which change is the quickest/slowest? Why?
4. Why is modern English spelling conventional?
5. What is the name of the discipline which outlines general principles of linguistics?
6. What are the most general causes of language evolution?

3. Fill in linguistics flowchart. Be ready to explain its meaning. One point is done for you.



4. Methods of studying language and its history. Fill in the gaps in the table according to the model.

Year/Century	Name of method	Representative/s	Brief description
1786	Comparative	Orientalist Sir William Jones	Sanscrit, Greek and Latin 'must have sprung from some common source, which perhaps no longer exists'
1818, 1822			
1870			
20 th century			

5. Do you remember these terms? Find their definitions.

1. The Indo-European family of languages.
2. The First Consonant Shift.
3. Verner's Law.
4. Structuralism.
5. Langue and parole.
6. Glossematics.
7. Functionalism.
8. Phonology.
9. Theory of markedness.
10. Theme and rheme.

6. Elaborate on the sources that can be used for studying the history of language.

See the model.

• **extant tests:** give a picture of vocabulary and grammar; disadvantage-pronunciation may be misleading as sounds may change but spellings remain. Pronunciation can be influenced by illiterate spelling in private letters and diaries.

- **rhymes:**
- **related languages:**
- **ancient historians and geographers:**
- **method of internal reconstruction:**

7. Periods in the history of the English language. Answer the questions.

1. What criteria did Henry Sweet use to divide the history of English into 3 periods?
2. Why do modern linguists disagree with him?
3. What factors should be taken into consideration while dividing it into periods?
4. What is the role of external (extralinguistic) factors in describing the history of a language?

8. What seems unusual in this table?

PERIODS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

1. Early OE (pre-written OE)	c. 450 — c. 700	Old
2. OE (written OE)	c. 700—1066	English
3. Early ME	1066—1350	Middle
4. ME (classical ME)	1350—1475	English
5. Early NE	1476—1660	New
6. Normalization Period	1660—1800	English
7. Late NE	1800—...	(Mod. English)

9. Read the passage below and identify its authorship. Look back at your lecture notes. What impetus did the observation give to philology?

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 philologist 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...

10. Speak up on the following questions.

1. Old Germanic Languages, their classification and distribution.
2. Phonetic peculiarities of old Germanic languages (be specific about Grimm's Law, Verner's Law).
3. What is the origin of the English language?
4. OE alphabets and writings.

S E M I N A R 2

1. Study Lectures 2, 3 and 4.

2. Speak up on the following questions.

1. *Danelaw* and its linguistic influence on the English language.
2. The Norman Conquest and its impact on the linguistic situation in England.
3. Rise of the London dialect.
4. The role of G. Chaucer and W. Caxton in the formation of the national English language.
5. The New English period and its basic features.

3. Do the following practical tasks.

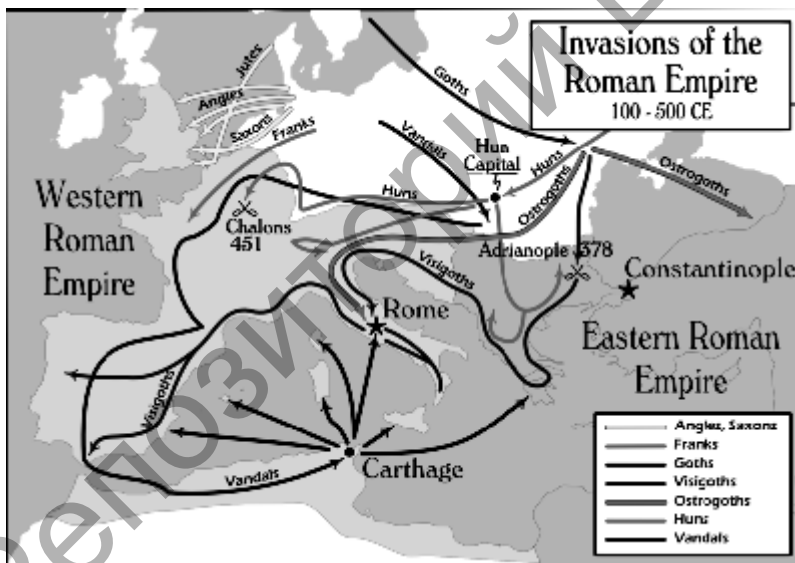
1. Which of these belong to the West Germanic group of languages? *English, Old Swedish, Old Frisian, Old Norse, Old Norwegian, Gothic, Old High German, Icelandic, Yiddish, Burgundian, Old Saxon, Dutch.*
2. Explain the origin of the following names: *Britain, Scotland, Great Britain, Bretagne, England, Sussex, Essex, Wessex, Northumberland.*
3. The Old English language is often called Anglo-Saxon. Why is this term not fully justified?
4. Revise Grimm's and Verner's Laws. Comment on the correspondences between consonants in old English words and words from other languages:
 - a) Russ. *болото* – *pöl*;
 - b) Russ. *мы* – OE *fū*;
 - c) Russ. *плот* – OE *flota*;
 - d) Russ. *едят* – Lat. *edere* – OE *ete*;
 - e) Sans. *bhratar* – OE *broþor*;
 - f) Goth. *swaiþro* – OE *sweger*;
 - g) Lat. *auris* – Goth. *auso* – Icel. *eyra*;
 - h) Russ. *зоре* – OE *caru*;

4. Read the text below. Identify it. Find words found in Modern English and other I-E languages. Translate it into Russian and Modern English.

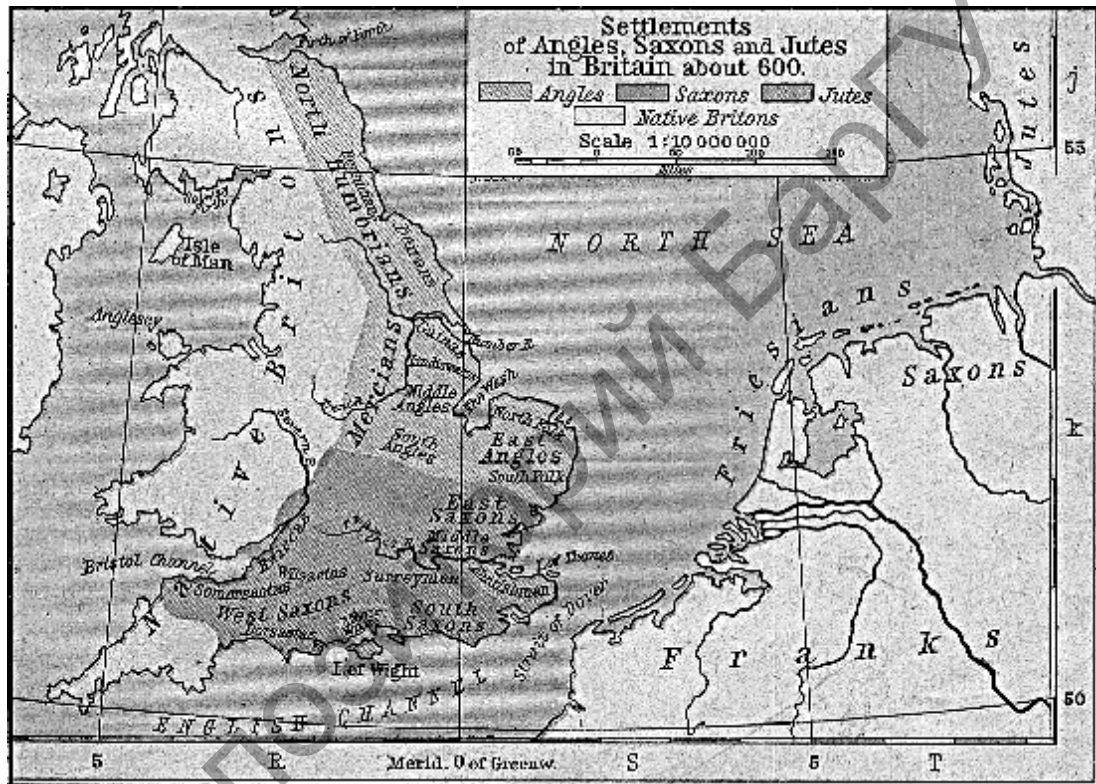
Fæder ure
 þū þe eart on heofonum
 Si þin nama ʒehalʒod...

And forʒief us ure ʒyltas,
 swa we forʒiefaþ urum ʒyltendum

5. Study the following maps. Make sure you know what they depict. Be ready to discuss them in class.



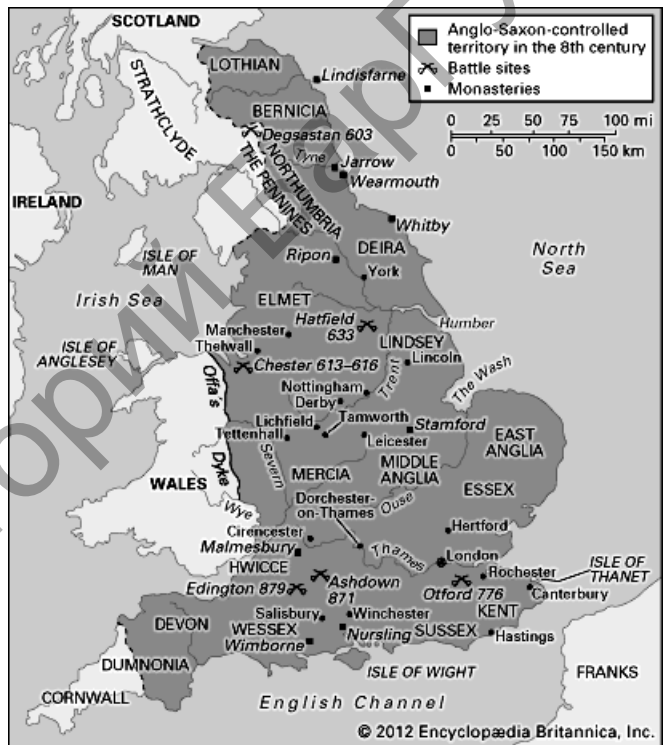
a)



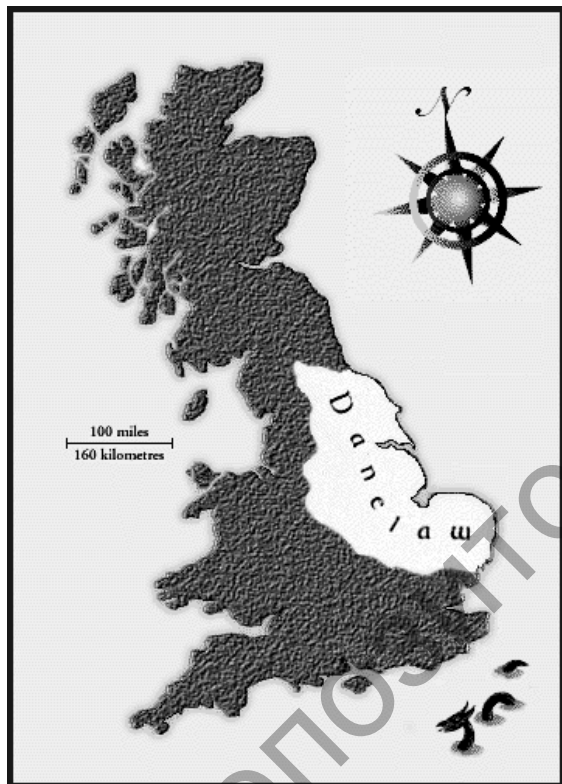
b)



c)



d)



e)



f)



i)
Middle English dialects



j)
Modern English dialects

6. Which subgroup of Germanic languages did they speak? Match the tribes with their languages.

Burgundians	Anglian	Old Norse
Vandals	Frisian	Old Icelandic
Teutons	Jutish	Old Norwegian
Goths	Saxon	Old Danish
		Old Swedish

7. Can you verify the following table?

East Germanic	West Germanic	North Germanic
Gothic	English	Icelandic
Netherlandish	Norwegian	German
Vandalic	Swedish	Frisian
Teutonic	Dutch	Danish
	Afrikaans	Faroese
	Yiddish	Burgundian

S E M I N A R 3 Old English Phonetics

1. Study lecture 5 and work out the answers to the following questions.

Stress in Old English

- What kind of stress was used in OE?
- Where did the stress fall in disyllabic and polysyllabic words?
- And what about different grammatical forms? Was it normally fixed or free?
 - How many stresses could compound words have?
 - Where did the stress fall in words with prefixes?
 - Could stress distinguish parts of speech? How?

Old English Vowel System

- What did OE vowel system comprise?
- What were the front/back vowels?
- What were the OE diphthongs?
- What kind of changes did English vowels undergo diachronically?
- What is a qualitative/quantitative/dependent/ independent change?

Changes in the system of vowels

- What is OE: fracture (breaking)?
 - gradation?
 - palatalization?
 - i-mutation?
 - back (velar) mutation?
 - contraction?
- What does quantity of vowels (length/shortness) become dependent on in ME?
 - What happened to word stress in ME?
 - Where did stress fall in French loan-words?
 - What are recessive and rhythmic tendencies in word stress in ME?
 - What other factors can the word stress be accounted for?
 - What is leveling of unstressed vowels?
 - What is monophthongization of OE diphthongs?
 - What new diphthongs developed in ME?
 - What was their emergence caused by?
 - When did shortening of vowels take place?
 - Which vowels were affected by lengthening?
 - What changes affected the following vowels: short and long ‘a’; short and long ‘x’; short and long ‘y’?
 - Name the changes that took place in the MdE period?
 - What is the essence of the Great Vowel Shift? When did it begin?

2. Make sure you can read the OE alphabet.

a	f [f], [v]	n [n], [ŋ]	þ, ð, th
æ	ȝ [g], [gʷ], [j], [ɣ]	o	u
b	h [h], [x], [xʷ]	p	v
c [k], [kʷ]	i	r	w
d	l	s [s], [z]	x
e	m	t	y
			z

3. Read aloud the words. Pay attention to long and short sounds.

- a) fisc, scip, fyllan, pytt, sprecan, helpan, stelan, sunu, pund, cuman, folc, cos, faran, caru, glæd, hwæt, land, lond, mann, monn, cann, conn;
b) wi:n, ti:d, bry:d, wy:scan, slæ:pan, fe:t, te:Ð, stræt:t, sæ:, hu:s, tu:n, lu:can, fo:t, bo:c, a:n, hwa, wra:t, ba:n;
c) healf, wearm, eahta, steorra, feohtan, solh, ʒeolu, sioluftr, hiora, siofun, sciæld, ʒiest, nieht;
d) he:ah, e:aʒe, e:are, de:op, le;oht, be:odan, sti:oran, drioriʒ, ci:ese, hi:eran.

4. Identify the phonetic change in these words and explain its meaning.

- a) hældan – healdan, wærm – wearm, sæh – seah, æhta – eahta, næh – neah, melcan – meolcan, selh – seolh, herte – heorte, sterra – steorra, fehtan – feohtan, cneht – cneoht;
b) ri:san – ra:s, be:ad – budon, faran – for, ri:dan – rad;
c) ʒefan – ʒiefan, ʒeldan – ʒieldan, ʒæf – ʒeaf, ʒæfon – ʒe:afon, scacan – sceacan, scort – sceort;
d) sandian – sendan, namnian – nemnan, tælian – tellan, sælian – sellan, sætian – settan, læʒian – lecʒan, fullian – fyllan, hleahian – hliehan, he:arian – hieran, ʒetreowi – ʒetriewe;
e) sifon – siofon, limu – liomu, hefon – heofon, saru – searu;
f) slahan – sleahan – sle:an, seha – seohan – se:on, ti:han – te:ohan – te:on;
g) ce:pan – kepte, fe:dan – fedde, wi:s – wisdom, we:nan – we:nde, he:ran – he:rde, læ:sta – le:st, e:astan – e:sten, mæ:sta – mo:st;
h) deop – de:p, healf – half, heorte – herte, steorra – sterre, steorfan – sterven, bindan – binden, tellan – tellen, sunu – sune, sone, sinʒan – singen.

5. Look at the changes of vowels during the Great Vowel Shift and make sure you read them correctly.

Changes	Examples
i: - ai	time findan
e: - i:	kepen field street east stelen

Changes	Examples
a- ei	maken table
o:- ou	stone open soo
o: - u:	moon goos
u:- au	mous founden now
au: - o:	cause drawen

**From King Ælfred's Translation
Of Orosius's Universal History
(Early West Saxon, 893 AD)**

Ælfred the Great was not only a great military leader who after years of continuous wars finally defeated the Danes. Seeing that learning in England had greatly decayed during the long years of warfare and after the destruction of monasteries this Anglo-Saxon king (879-899) undertook to learn Latin and translate some books from Latin himself or have them translated by others. One of these books was *A History Against the Heathens* by the Spanish monk Orosius (the 5th c.) What makes this book valuable for us is King Ælfred's own additions to the text. The best known of these is the passage telling of the voyages of Ohthere and Wulfstan, two Scandinavian travellers who arrived in England and told Ælfred of their experiences. They had sailed different routes. As for Ohthere, he sailed to what is now the Kola Peninsula and the White Sea, where he met Finnish tribesmen and was able to converse with them.

- 6. Read the passage from King Alfred's translation of Orosius' World History. Try to translate it into modern English and Russian.**

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde, Ælfrēde
cyninȝe, Ðat hē ealra Norðmonna norþmest
būde ... Ða fōr hē ȝiet norþryhte
swā feor swā hē meahthe on þæm
ōþrum þrim daȝum ȝesiȝlan.

Vocabulary: hlaford – lord; ealra – all; būde – (had) lived; swā feor swā – as far as; ȝiet – yet; fōr – travelled; ȝesiȝlan – sail.

7. Compare the OE text with its translation and list those letters of the alphabet which are not used in MnE.

8. Find anything you can about the life of Ælfred the Great. Discuss why the word ‘great’ is often applied to the name of the king.

9. Look at the vocabulary of the original version of the text, and try to identify OE words that are still part of present-day English, though considerably changed in their spelling.

Ohthere sæde his hlaforde,
Ælfrēde cyninȝe, þæt hē ealra
Norðmonna norþmest būde.

*Ohthere told his Lord King Ælfred
that he lived to the north of all the
Northmen.*

Hē cwæþ þæt hē būde on
þæm lande norþweardum wiþ
þa Westsæ.

*He quoth(quoted) that he dwelt in
that land to the northward,
opposite the West Sea.*

Vocabulary

sæde – OE secȝan, w.v. > seggen, syen, seyn, sayen; SAY: сказать, говорить, рассказывать

hlaforde – noun, a-m, > lhoverd, lord; LORD: OE хозяин, господин, лорд

cyninȝ – noun, a-m, > kyng; KING – король

þæt – conj. > þat, þet, that; THAT: OE, ME который, что, так что, чтобы

ealra – eal(l), al(l)- pron. adv. > ALL: весь, вся, все

Norðmonna – Norðmon(n), noun, root-m. > NORTHMA: OE обитатель севера, скандинав

Norþmest – adj.,adv. > northmost; NORTHMOST: adj.самый северный

būde, būan – nom, v. (past būde, part.II ȝebūn) OE пребывать, жить, населять

cwæþ, cweþan – str. v. quethen; QUOTH (arch): OE, ME

þæm – dem. pron., sē (m.), sēo (f.) > se, þe, þat, that, the; pron., conj. THAT; def. art. THE: OE, ME тот, та, то, который

lande, land – noun, a-n, > lond, land; LAND: OE земля, страна

norþweard – adj. > northward; NORTHWARD: к северу, на север

wip – *prep.* (+ Acc/Dat/Gen.) > with; WITH; OE (+ Acc) к, против, около; (+Dat) к, против, около, за, с

þa – *dem. pron.* Art; see OE *sē*, *se*.

Westsæ – *noun* i-f.: WEST-SEA; OE Западное море, Атлантический океан

10. Comment on the sound value of the OE letters *þ*, *s*, *ð*, *f* in the initial, mid and final position.

11. Find all the verbs in the text and say whether they are strong or weak. Comment on their principal forms.

12. Comment on the morphological structure of the words *hlaforde*, *ealra*, *Norðmonna*, *norþweardum*, *Westsæ*.

13. Define the type of word connection in the sentences. How are the relations between the words of the sentences expressed?

S E M I N A R 4

Development of English consonants

1. Study lecture 6 and work out the answers to the following questions.

1. What is the main difference between OE consonants and vowels?
2. What were the most important developments in the history of English consonants?
3. Were there affricates or sibilants in OE?
4. What affricates developed in ME and what was their origin?
5. What was another source for the development of NEW English affricates?
6. What was this change caused by?
7. What happened to fricative sounds in Middle and Early NE?
8. What was special about voicing of fricatives in the New English period?
9. What was special about the loss of consonants in NE?

2. Identify the following phonetic phenomena and match them with their examples.

alternation of vowels in different grammatical forms	sunu – sune sinʒan – sinʒen
diphthongization of vowels under the influence of initial palatal ‘g’, ‘c’ and cluster ‘sc’	melcan – meolcan æhta – eahta
diphthongization of short vowels ‘a’, ‘e’ before ‘r,’ ‘l’, ‘h’ plus consonant and final ‘h’	writan – wrät – writon – writen
change of vowel caused by [i], [j] of the following vowel	sætian – settan
two vowels which meet after a consonant was dropped are usually contracted into one long vowel	hefon – heofon
diphthongization of the root vowel caused by a back vowel of the following syllable	ƿwahan – ƿweahan – ƿwēan (wash)
it’s a phenomenon when unstressed vowels become weakened	scort – sceort ʒefon – ʒëofon

3. Explain the table and comment on the changes that took place in the vowels and consonants

OE	ME	OE	ME	MnE
[k’]	[tʃ]	cild / tæ:can	child / techen	child / teach
[g’]	[dʒ]	ecʒe / brycʒe	edge / bridge	edge / bridge
[sk’]	[ʃ]	scēap / fisc	sheep / fish	sheep / fish

4. There should be two pairs of affricates. One affricate in the pair is missing. Where should we look for it?

[tʃ] – [dʒ]
[ʃ] – ?

5. Explain the table and comment on the changes that took place in the vowels and consonants

Late ME	MnE	Late ME	MnE
[sj]	[S]	condicioun	condition
[zj]	[ʒ]	pleasure	pleasure
[tj]	[tS]	nature	nature
[dj]	[dʒ]	souldier	soldier

6. Explain these phenomena.

- OE: wīf – wīfes; MnE: wife – wives
- MnE: assemble – resemble
- ice – eyes, use (v) – use (n)
- OE: sticca – stica; MnE: stick – stich
- OE: hlysten – MnE: listen;
 hit it
 hring ring
 climban climb
 hwæn – whan – when
- MnE: [ð] 1. the, this, these, those, etc.
 2. father, rather, mother, etc. (*nothing*)
 [θ] thick, thin, thump, theatre, etc.

7. Read aloud the words below. Comment on the reading rules.

[i] fisc, scip [y] fyllan, pytt [e] sprecan, helpan	[i:] wīn, tīd [y:] brȳd, wȳscan [e:] fēt, tēθ
[u] sunu, cumin [o] folc, cos [a] faran, caru [a] – positional variants: [æ] glæd, hwæt [o] mann,(monn), cann (conn)	[u:] hūs, tūn [o:] fōt, bōk, ʒ ōd [a:] ān, wrāt

[ea] healf, wearm (before l, r + cons., and before h instead of [a])	[ea:] hēah, ēare
[eo] steora, feohtan	[eo:] deop, leoht
[io] siofun	[io:] stīoran
[ie] sciold, nieht	[ie:] cīese, hīeran

From Chaucer's Prologue to the Canterbury Tales (East Midland dialect, ab. 1387–1400)

G. Chaucer is the greatest poet before W. Shakespeare. He was born in the family of a wine merchant in London. The date of his birth remains uncertain. During his career he was a courtier, diplomat, and civil servant. He travelled widely on diplomatic missions abroad, notably to Italy. He died in 1400 and was buried in Westminster Abbey. No information is available about Chaucer's early education; though doubtless he was fluent in French and competent in Latin and Italian. His language may be taken as representing the dialect of London at the end of the 14th century. It is prevailingly East Midland with some Southern and Kentish features. Chaucer's writing, which contains over 43,000 lines of poetry as well as two major prose works, provides unique evidence about the state of contemporary grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation.

His major work the Canterbury Tales was written over a period of at least a decade yet left unfinished, comprising about 17,000 lines. No original manuscripts in Chaucer's hand have survived but there are over 80 copies of the Tales.

The Canterbury Tales is a record of pilgrimage from London to the shrine of St. Tomas at Canterbury during which the pilgrims tell stories to "shorten the way". Use of a pilgrimage as a framing device for the collection of stories enabled Chaucer to bring together people from many walks of life: knight, prioress, monk, merchant, scholarly clerk, miller and many others. In all English literature there is nothing that touches or resembles the prologue to the Canterbury Tales. It is the concise portrait of an entire nation, high and low, old and young, male and female, lay and clerical, learned and ignorant. The prologue unquestionably demonstrates Chaucer's great skill in poetic description. In it Chaucer

uses a regular metrical structure and rhyme, having departed from the rhythms and alliteration of OE poetry. The chief difficulty in trying to read Chaucer's verse is knowing when to sound the final -e. It was certainly on its way out of the language at this time, and there would have been variation: older speakers might keep it, younger ones might drop it. Consequently, when reading the Canterbury Tales aloud, the reader should rely on the jambic meter in the line.

8. Read the following lines from the Prologue and try to translate it into Modern English.

Whan that Aprile with his *shoures soote*
The droughte of Marche hath perced to the roote
And bathed every veine in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour
Whan Zephirus eek with his *swete breeth*
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The *tendre croppes*, and the *younge sonne*
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours y-ronne,
And *smalle fowles* maken melodye,
That slepen al the night with *open ye*,
(So priketh hem nature in hir corages):
Than longen folk to **goon** on pilgrimages

Vocabulary: **shoures** – showers; **droughte** – drought; **perce** – pierce; **rote** – root; **swich** – such; **licour** – liquor; **vertu** – virtue; **engendred** – engendered; **flour** – flower; **eek** – also; **swete** – sweet; **breeth** – breath; **holt** – forest; **heeth** – heath (wasteland); **hath y-ronne** – has run; **fowles** – fowls (birds); **hem** – their; **than** – then.

9. Compare the Russian translation with the original. Find similarities and differences.

Когда Апрель обильными дождями
Разрыхлил землю, взрытую ростками.
И, мартовскую жажду утоляя,
От корня до зеленого стебля

Набухли жилки той весенней силой,
 Что в каждой роце почки распустила,
 А солнце юное в своем пути
 Весь Овна знак успело обойти,
 И, не на миг в ночи не засыпая,
 Без умолку звенели птичьи стаи,
 Так сердце им встревожил зов весны,
 Тогда со всех сторон родной страны
 Паломников бесчисленных вереницы
 Мощам заморским снова поклониться
 Стремилась истово...

10. Read the lines once again and try to analyze them according to the following example.

PHONETICAL AND ORTHOGRAPHICAL ANALYSIS
 OF A MIDDLE ENGLISH TEXT

Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote
 The droughte of Marche hath perced to the roote

Words as used in the text		Old English	Middle English	New English
whan	Sound changes	<i>hwænne</i> [hw] [æ] [e]	<i>whan</i> [hw] [a] – quantative change reduction	<i>when</i> [w] – loss of the initial[h] in the cluster[h + consonant] [e] – dialectical variant
	Spelling changes	hw æ	wh – replacement a – reflection of the sound change	e – dialectical variant
that	Sound changes	<i>þæt</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>that</i>
		[þ]	[θ]	[ð] – voicing in unstressed functional words
		[æ]	[a] – quantative change	[æ] – quantative change

Words as used in the text		Old English	Middle English	New English
	Spelling changes	þ æ	th – replacement a – reflection of the sound change	
with	Sound changes	<i>wiþ</i> [θ]	<i>with</i> [θ]	<i>with</i> [ð] – voicing in unstressed functional words
	Spelling changes	þ	th – replacement	
shour	Sound changes	<i>scur</i> [sk] [u:]	<i>shour/showr</i> [S] – palatalization [u:]	<i>shower</i> [au] – Great Vowel Shift+[r] = [auə] vocalization of [r]
	Spelling changes	sc [u]	sh – replacement [ou/ow] – French influence	
droughte	Sound changes	<i>druȝoð</i> [u:] [ɣ] [θ]	<i>drought(e)</i> [u:] [x] – devoicing [t] – positional change after [x]	<i>drought</i> [au] – Great Vowel Shift loss
	Spelling changes	u ȝ ð	ou – French influence gh – replacement t – reflection of the sound change	
March	Sound changes Spelling changes		<i>March</i> [ar]	<i>March</i> [a:] – vocalisation of [r] and lengthening of [a]

Words as used in the text		Old English	Middle English	New English
roote	Sound changes		<i>roote</i> [o:] [ə]	<i>root</i> [u:] – Great Vowel Shift reduction
	Spelling changes			

11. Comment on the examples of the orthographic changes in the ME spelling of consonants and vowels.
12. Find examples of the levelled unstressed vowels in the inflexion.
13. Comment on the length of the root vowel in the words *maken* and *slepen*.
14. Comment on the phonetic value of double vowel letters in the words: *soote*, *eeke*, *breeth*, *roote*.
15. Comment on the digraph *gh* in the words *droughte*, *nyght*.
16. Compare the plural form of the noun *foweles* with that in OE.
17. Account for the origin of the infinitive marker *to* in the construction *to goon*.
18. Define the verbal inflexions in the following forms: *maken*, *slepen*, *priketh*, *longen*.

S E M I N A R 5
Diachronic changes in OE morphology

1. Study lectures 7 and 8 and work out the answers to the following questions.

General characteristics of OE morphology

1. What kind of language was OE?
2. What does it mean?
3. How were grammatical forms built in OE?
4. What parts of speech were distinguished in OE?
5. What were the nominal/verbal categories?
6. What components did an OE word consist of?
7. What did they express?
8. What happened to the stem-building suffix in OE?

The nominal parts of speech

1. What grammatical categories did the OE noun have?
2. How many numbers were there in OE?
3. What were the cases?
4. How many genders were there in OE and what function did they perform?
5. How many types of noun stems were there in OE?

Pronouns

1. What was special about OE personal pronouns?
2. How were their case forms formed?
3. What changes did personal pronouns have in the ME and NE periods?
4. Explain the origin of 'you' and the difference between 'thou' and 'you' in Shakespeare's works.
5. How were possessive pronouns derived?
6. How was the 'definite article' derived in English?

The verb

1. What grammatical categories did the OE verb have?
2. How many tenses were there in OE?
3. How was the future tense expressed?
4. How were analytical formations formed in OE?
5. What are strong/weak/preterite-present verbs?
6. What are irregular verbs?

6. Which nouns referred to strong declension? Why were they called 'strong'?

7. Which nouns built their paradigms according to the weak declension? Why were they called 'weak'?

8. How did the reduction of declension affect the noun in the ME period?

9. How many case endings were left in NE?

10. When was the apostrophe first used in English and what did it initially mean?

7. What changes took place in ME and NE periods and what were they caused by?

The Adjective

1. What categories did the OE adjective have?

2. How were OE adjectives declined?

3. Why was the strong declension called adjectival-pronominal?

4. How many degrees of comparison did OE adjectives have?

5. How were they formed?

6. What changes took place during the ME and NE periods?

What is double comparative/superlative?

2. Read the information about a piece of writing from OE period and make sure you understand it.

FROM THE SONG OF BEOWULF

The heroic poem **Beowulf** (written in West Saxon about 700 AD) survives in only one version, in a manuscript now in the British Museum. The copy was made about 1000, and the language is Late West Saxon. It runs to 3,182 lines, which forms one-tenth of the surviving Anglo-Saxon poetic corpus and makes it the longest Old English poem. It was probably composed in the 8th century, not in Wessex, but in Mercia or Northumbria, since its language seems to be more Anglian than Saxon. The poem itself is set in southern Scandinavia of the 5th and 6th centuries, and contains no reference to the British Isles.

The main story of Beowulf is a simple one. It is a story of a youth and age of a hero. In youth Beowulf achieves glory by fighting and killing first the monster Grendel in King Hrothgar's hall and then Grendel's mother in an underwater cave. In age, having ruled the country for 50 years, Beowulf goes single-handed to fight a dragon, which is destroying his people. At the end of the fight both Beowulf and the dragon are dead and the poem ends with Beowulf's funeral.

Beowulf is written in the alliterative verse. It was meant to be heard rather than read. It has specific vocabulary and abounds in synonyms, many of which are called *kennings* (образный описательный оборот) (especially in OE or Old Scandinavian poetry). They describe things indirectly, metaphorically: *hronrad* – **whaleroad** for sea; *banhus* – **bonehouse** – a person's body, etc.

3. Now read the excerpt from Beowulf and do the tasks that follow.

Original version	Modernized version
Fyrst forð Ʒewat: flota wæs on Ʒðum, bōt under beorƷe. Beornas Ʒearwe on stefn stiƷon: strēamas wundon sund wiƷ sande ; secƷas bæron on bearm nacan beorhte frætwe.	Time passed; the floater was on the waves, the boat 'neath the hill; the ready warriors stepped on the prow; the streams surged the sea 'gainst the sand; the warriors bare into the barks's bosom bright arms

4. Study the vocabulary. Comment on the changes in spelling, pronunciation and meaning.

Vocabulary

fyrst – noun, first, frist; FRIST: poet. срок, период времени

forð, fort – adv., > forth; FORTH; OE and ME впрдь, дальше, вперед, прочь

Ʒewat – OE wītan, sv 1, to go, depart

flota – noun, n-m, >flote; FLOAT: ship, fleet, sailor

Ʒð – noun, jo-f, poet.: wave

bat – noun, a-m, > boot; BOAT, (boat, ship)

beorƷ, beorh – noun, a-m, > bergh, brew; BARROW: OE гора, курган, берег

beorn – noun a-m, poet. > bern, burn: человек, воин, герой

Ʒearwe, Ʒearu- adj > yare: приготовленный, готовый, снаряженный

stefn – noun, i-m > stem(m); STEM: OE ствол, нос/корма корабля
stiȝan – str.v. 1, > styen: OE двигаться вертикально, взбираться
strēam – noun, a-m, > streem; STREAM: OE поток, течение, поэт. морские волны
windan –str.v.3 > wynden, WIND: извиваться, наматывать(ся), вертеть
sund – noun, a-n, > sound; SOUND : плавание, узкий пролив, поэт. Море
wið – prep. (+Acc./Dat./Gen.) > wid; WITH: OE к, против, около, за, с
sand – noun a-m, > sand, sond,; SAND: песок
secȝ – noun, ja-m, poet. > segge(e): воин, муж
bæron *past* beran- str.v. 4, > beren; BEAR: OE переносить, терпеть, носить, родить
bearm – noun a-m, > berm: грудь, лоно
naca –noun, n-m, лодка, корабль
beorht, breht, briht – adj. > bright; BRIGHT: яркий, блестящий
frætwe – noun, wo-f, pl. украшения, доспехи разукрашенные, сокровища

5. Translate the excerpt into Russian.

6. Write out all the poetic words. Say what they name.

7. Write out metaphors. Say what they name.

8. Look at these word combinations and say what was special about adjectives in OE: *beornas ȝearwe*, *beorhte fr ætwe*.

9. Look at the sentences and say what kind of word order was observed in OE.

10. Can you find OE words similar to these: плот, берег, достигать, винт, бярэма?

11. Pick up the OE words which came down to Modern English.

S E M I N A R 6
Historical Lexicography

1. Study lecture 9 and work out the answers to the following questions.

1. What was the OE word stock?
2. How many layers did the OE vocabulary consist of?
3. What were the layers of the OE native words?
4. Which was the oldest layer of the OE vocabulary?
5. Which layer included words shared by most Germanic languages?
6. What was the third etymological layer and what was special about it?
7. What kinds of borrowings were found in OE?

2. Read aloud the words and identify their origin.

Fæder, sinȝan, wiffman, Avon, stræt, myln, biscop, munuc, ic, þū,
scip, mōdor, land, hlāford, twa, London, magister, þrenes.

Word formation in OE

3. Complete the sentences.

1. According to their morphological structure OE words fell into ____

2. OE vocabulary developed in _____

3. Derived words were built by means of _____, and _____

4. Sound interchanges helped to _____

5. Vowel gradation was used to distinguish _____ and _____

6. Consonant interchanges were used to distinguish _____

7. Word stress was used to differentiate _____

8. Prefixation was mainly used to form _____

9. Suffixation was mostly applied in forming _____

10. Compound words were basically built by 2 means: of _____

4. Read aloud the words and analyze their morphological structure.

- 1) Land, sinʒan, ʒōd, beʒinnan, ʒemetinʒ, manncynn
- 2) sprečan – spræce; findan – fand, sittan – sæt
- 3) ri:san- ræ:ran; de:ap – dead
- 4) mid-niht, hlāford
- 5) Enʒlaland, Oxenaford

5. Read aloud the words and identify their affixes. Give modern English equivalents of these words.

Bæcere, bæcestre, spinnestre, cyninʒ, deorling, fiscop, rædinʒ, frēodom, cildhād, frēondscipe, hōcede, mistiʒ, Enʒlisc, carfull, freondlic, hamweard, a:rī:san, beʒan, misdæd, tōbrečan.

The Middle English Development of Vocabulary

6. Say whether these statements are false or true. Correct the false statements.

Scandinavian influence

1. Scandinavian and English vocabulary was in many ways common.
2. Their roots were similar while their prefixes differed.
3. Such words as *lagu* – *law*; *wrang* – *wrong*, *husbonda* – *husband*, *sister*, *taken* – *take*, *fēologa* – *fellow* were borrowed from Scandinavian.
4. The Scandinavian pronoun *þeir* superseded the OE pronoun *hīe* and became modern ‘*the*’.

5. Scandinavian elements became part of many personal names.
6. The modern English words 'give' and 'get' originated from Scandinavian.

French influence

7. Answer the following questions.

1. When did the Norman linguistic influence become prominent?
2. What is Anglo-Norman?
3. What was the outcome of the struggle between English and French vocabulary?
4. How did English and Norman synonyms differ?
5. What were the origins of the borrowed French words?
6. What did the French influence depend on?
7. What languages played an important role in the development of English vocabulary during the ME period? Why?
8. What was the influx of new words into the English language predetermined by?
9. What is the present-day word stock of English?
10. What are modern ways of word building in English?

S E M I N A R 7

William Shakespeare (b. April 26, 1564 – d. April 23, 1616)

English playwright and poet William Shakespeare, who lived in the late 1500s and early 1600s, is regarded as the greatest dramatist in the history of English literature. He had a profound understanding of human nature and human behavior, and he was able to communicate this knowledge through the wide variety of characters he created in his plays. There is no name in the world of literature like the name of William Shakespeare.



1. Find the information about the biography of W. Shakespeare.

2. The following extract is taken from “Hamlet”. Read through it to see if you can understand the gist of it.

From ACT III, Scene 2
The Performance
(1603)

Enter in a *Dumbe Shew*, the King and the Queene, he sits downe in an Arbor, she leaues him: Then enters Lucianus with poison in a Viall, and powers it in his eares, and goes away: Then the Queene commeth and findes him dead; and goes away with the other.

O F E L I A: What meanes this my Lord? Enter the Prologue.

HAMLET: This is *myching Mallico*, that meanes my chiefe.

OFELIA: What doth this meane my Lord?

HAMLET: You shall heare anone, this fellow will tell you all.

OFELIA: Will he tell vs what this shew meanes?

HAMLET: I, or any shew you’le shew him. Be not afeard to shew, hee’le not be afeard to tell: O these Players cannot keepe counsell, their’le tell all.

PROLOGUE: For vs, and for our Tragedie,
Heere stowping to your clemencie,
We begge your hearing patiently.

HAMLET: I’st a prologue, or a poesie for a ring?

OFELIA: T’is short my Lord.

HAMLET: As womens loue.

Comments:

Dumbe Shew “dumb show”, a pantomime, a performance without words. Note that these nouns, as many others in the text, are spelt with capital initial letters.

Myching Mallico ‘sneaking mischief’, Mallico is a Spanish word meaning ‘misdeed’.

I – aya ‘yes’

Hee’ll – heele ‘he’ll’

Poesie (posie) – posy ‘a brief description or motto, usually in verse inscribed on a ring, on a knife, as accompanying a gift.

T’is –tis ‘it is’

Womens, womans – NE women’s, woman’s.

It isn't known precisely when **Hamlet** was written. The tragedy is not mentioned in a list of Shakespeare's plays published in 1598. It was first published in 1603. The second edition came out in 1604, the text of the second edition differs so much from that of the first one, that it may be regarded as a new version. As far as Shakespeare's language is concerned it is still debatable. Shakespeare may well have carried over some features of the Warwickshire dialect into his literary works. Moreover the cultured speech of his day was less unified, less subject to strict standards than it was to become later on.

The precise quality of Shakespeare's pronunciation is doubtful. But some basic sound changes characteristic of Early NE period can be applied to his texts. The Great Vowel Shift was in full swing. Thus ME [i:] was evidently pronounced as [ei], [e:] as [i:], [a:] as [e:], [O:] as [o:].

Short [u] though lower than [u:] seems not to have been relaxed from [u] to [ʌ]. Short [a] was fronted to [æ]. When affected by [f, θ, s, ns], [a] was lengthened to [a:]. The ME diphthong [au] had become simple vowel [o:].

The consonants appearing in Shakespeare's language are in no way strikingly different from those of London English in the preceding century. The [r], though now in the process of being untrilled to [r], was still pronounced. The originally voiceless initial [θ] was now completely voiced to [ð] in words like *the, this, that, etc.*

French loan words often showed a fluctuation of accentual usage, *confiscate* alternates with *con'fiscate* or *character* with *cha'cter* or *complete* with *com'plete*. Though the influence of Germanic accentuation operated strong enough to shift stress to the first syllable of loan words.

3. Examine the spelling of the words and find instances of inconsistency of the Early NE orthography.
4. List the principal linguistic features of Shakespeare's English which mark the difference from Modern English. Use the following check-list:
 - Forms and inflections of nouns
 - Forms of personal pronouns
 - Definite and indefinite articles
 - Forms and inflections of verbs
 - Word order in sentences
 - Vocabulary
5. Comment on the sound value of the following letters: - *e* in the final position in the words *meane, heare, here*; -*ea* – in the words *meane, leaves, afeard, dead*; -*o* in the words *doth, commeth, loue*; -*u* in the words *us*; -*i* in the word *findes*.
6. Is a strong secondary stress still kept in French loan words? Mark the accented syllables in the following words: *tragedie, clemencie, patiently*.

7. Define the ending -s in the word *womens* used in the phrase *as womens loues*. Trace back the origin of the form.
8. Does the use of articles before nouns become regular in Early NE? Give examples to give your point of view.
9. Comment on the inflexions -es, *eth*, in the verbs *sits*, *enteres*, *goes*, *doth*, *commeth*.
10. Pick out all the analytical forms of the verb. Comment on them.
11. Does the use of the do-construction in questions fluctuate? Prove your point of view by examples from the text.
12. Before you read the excerpt from *Romeo and Juliet*, read the introduction about this scene.

Romeo and Juliet, Balcony Scene

In the famous balcony scene from the tragedy *Romeo and Juliet* by William Shakespeare, Juliet Capulet emerges from her bedroom to muse upon the young man she has just met and fallen in love with, Romeo Montague. He, much taken with her, overhears her thoughts with pleasure while hidden below. A long-standing feud between the Capulets and Montagues keeps the young lovers apart.

JUL.: O Romeo, Romeo! wherefore thou art Romeo?

Deny thy father and refuse thy name;
Or, if thou wilt not, be but sworn my love,
And I'll no longer be a Capulet.

ROM.: [Aside.] Shall I hear more or shall I speak at this?

JUL.: 'Tis but thy name that is my enemy; –
Thou art thyself though, not a Montague.
What's Montague? It is nor hand, nor foot,
Nor arm, nor face, nor any other part
Belonging to a man. O, be some other name!
What's in a name? that which we call a rose,
By any other name would smell as sweet;
So Romeo would, were he not Romeo call'd,

Retain that dear perfection which he owes
Without that title: Romeo, doff thy name;
And for that name, which is no part of thee,
Take all myself.

ROM.: I take thee at thy word:

Call me but love, and I'll be new baptiz'd;
Henceforth I never will be Romeo.

Vocabulary notes:

wherefore – archaic, for what reason? why?

doff – (Old English *dōn of*) = do off = (here) take off

henceforth - from now on

13. Translate the excerpt into Russian (Give your own translation, but not a plagiarized one!)
14. Look at the word order in the excerpt. Pick up the lines where the word order is not fixed.
15. Give the modern version for '*thou art*'; Shakespeare uses in his plays 2 forms of the second form singular pronoun, *thou* and *you*? Why do you think in this passage '*thou*' is used? (See Lecture notes). Which other forms of '*thou*' are used in the passage?
16. Which forms are used in the passage to express future actions?
17. Explain the use of apostrophe (') on the phonemic level in *call'd* and *baptiz'd*;
18. Find instances of conditional sentences. Say how they are expressed.

Some OE extracts for phonetical and orthographical analysis

1. From the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle:

On þÿ ƿilcan ƿere worhte sē foresprecena here ƿeweorc bē Lyƿan XX mila bufan Ludenbyriƿ. þa þæs on sumera foron micel dæl þara burƿwara ond eac oþres folces þæt hie ƿedydon æt þara Deniscan ƿeweorce, ond þær wurdon ƿefliemde, and sume fēower cyninges þeƿnas ofsleƿene...

2. From Julius Caesar:

Æfter þæm þe Romeburƿ ƿetimbred wæs VI hunda wintra and LXVII, Romane ƿesealdon Gaiuse Iuliuſe seofon leƿan, to þon þæt hē sceolde fif winter winnan on Gallie....

3. From Cura Pastoralis Preface

Ælfrēd kyning hateð grētan Wærferð biſceƿ his wordum luflice ond freondlice ond ðē cyðan hate ð æt mē com swiðe oft on ƿemynd, hwelce wiotan iu wæron ƿiond Angelcynn æƿðer ƿe godcundra hada ƿē woruldcundra; ond hu ƿesæliƿlica tida ða wæron ƿiond Angelcynn...

4. From the Old English Version of Bede's Ecclesiastical History of the English People

Nis us þonne sē hlisa to foreswiƿienne, þe bē þam eadiƿan Gregorie þurn yldra manna seƿene to us becom for hwilcum intinƿan hē monad wære, þæt hē swa ƿeornfulle ƿymenne dyde ymb þa hælo ure peode. Secƿeap hi, þæt sume dæƿe þider niwan come cƿemen of Brytene and moniƿ cƿpe þing on ceapstowe brohte and eac moniƿe cwomon to bicƿenne þa þing.

5. From Elene

Hēht þa on uhtan mid ærdæƿe wiƿend wreccan and wæpenþræce, hebban heorucumbul and þæt haliƿe treo him beforan ferian on feonda ƿemang, beran beacen godes.

СПИСОК ИСТОЧНИКОВ

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Производственно-практическое издание

ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА

HISTORY OF LANGUAGE

**Практическое руководство
по организации семинарских занятий
для студентов специальностей
1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки,
1-02 03 07 Иностранный язык (английский).
Дополнительная специальность**

Составитель *А. А. Савко*

Ведущий редактор *Е. Г. Хохол*
Технический редактор *Н. В. Иванова*
Компьютерная вёрстка *В. В. Кукреш*

Подписано в печать 06.11.2012.
Формат 60 × 84 1/16. Бумага офсетная.
Гарнитура Таймс. Отпечатано на ризографе.
Усл. печ. л. 3,02. Уч.-изд. л. 2,04.
Заказ 170. Тираж 55 экз.

ЛИ 02330/0552803 от 09.02.2010.

Издатель и полиграфическое исполнение:
учреждение образования
«Барановичский государственный университет»,
225404, г. Барановичи, ул. Войкова, 21.

Факультет

педагогики

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РАЗДЕЛ КОНТРОЛЯ ЗНАНИЙ

ВОПРОСЫ К АТТЕСТАЦИИ

1. Old Germanic Languages, their classification and distribution. Modern Germanic languages, their classification and distribution.
2. Ancient Germanic tribes, their social structure, culture. Earliest records of Germanic tribes.
3. The History of the English language, its aims, objectives.
4. Methods and sources of studying language and its history. The comparative method.
5. Methods and sources of studying the History of the English Language. 20th century Structuralism, Functionalism.
6. Phonetic peculiarities of old Germanic languages. J. Grimm's Law, K. Verner's Law.
7. Word Stress and its role in the development of the English language.
8. The Origins of the English language. Periods in the history of the English language.
9. Germanic alphabets and Old Germanic writings.
10. Early history of the British Isles. Germanic invasions, first kingdoms and dialects.
11. Danelaw and its linguistic influence on the English language.
12. The Norman Conquest and its impact on the linguistic situation in England.
13. Rise of the London dialect. The role of G. Chaucer and W. Caxton in the formation of the national English language.
14. The New English period and its basic features.
15. Expansion of English over the British Isles. The English language outside Great Britain.
16. Old English system of vowels. Changes in the vocalic system.
17. ME and MnE changes in the system of vowels. The Great Vowel Shift.
18. Evolution of consonants in Middle English and New English.
19. Old English nominal system (the noun). ME nominal system. The Substantive. The Possessive Case.
20. Diachronic changes in Old English morphology (the adjective).

21. Old English system of the Verb.
22. ME and MnE system of the verb. Development of continuous, perfect, future and passive forms.
23. Diachronic changes in Old English morphology (the pronoun).
24. General characteristics of the Old English vocabulary and ways of its replenishment.
25. The Middle English development of vocabulary. Scandinavian influence. French influence.
26. Borrowings from classical and contemporary languages.
27. Word formation in Old English.
28. Diachronic changes in syntax. Types of sentences. Word order. ME and MnE syntax system.

ИТОГОВЫЙ ТЕСТ

Choose the most appropriate alternative to answer the questions below. Sometimes more than one alternative is possible.

1. Genetically, English belongs to the ... group of languages.
 - a) Teutonic;
 - b) German;
 - c) Germanic;
 - d) British.
2. Historically, this group of languages goes back to the parent language variously called.
 - a) West Germanic;
 - b) Common Germanic;
 - c) Primitive Teutonic;
 - d) Proto-Germanic.
3. This parent language later split into... groups of languages.
 - a) 2;
 - b) 3;
 - c) 4;
 - d) 5.
4. Modern languages of this group comprise such subgroups as... ..
 - a) North Germanic;
 - b) East Germanic;
 - c) West Germanic;
 - d) South Germanic.
5. English belongs to the... subgroup.
 - a) North Germanic;
 - b) East Germanic;
 - c) West Germanic;
 - d) South Germanic.

6. Henry Sweet suggested that the history of English should be divided into... periods.
- 2;
 - 3;
 - 4;
 - 5.
7. However, modern scholars suggest... periods.
- from 2 to 4;
 - from 3 to 4;
 - from 3 to 6;
 - from 3 to 7.
8. What factors are normally taken into consideration with the view to dividing English into periods?
- linguistic only;
 - extralinguistic only;
 - linguistic and extralinguistic;
 - internal and external.
9. According to H. Sweet, the first period is referred to as the ... (1), the second period as the ... (2), and the third as the ... (3).
- period of pre-written English;
 - period of leveled endings;
 - period of lost endings;
 - period of full endings.
10. Typologically, OE was a(an) ... (1) language while modern English is a(an) ... (2) language.
- morphological;
 - analytical;
 - syntactical;
 - synthetic.
11. What types of languages do Russian and Belarusian belong to?
- morphological;
 - analytical;
 - syntactical;
 - synthetic.

12. Old English vowel system included: ..., both short and long.
a) front vowels;
b) back vowels;
c) diphthongs;
d) triphthongs.

13. Word stress in Old English was normally
a) on the prefix;
b) fixed;
c) free;
d) on the suffix.

14. What law explains the following correspondences in the consonants: **п**лот – Old English **f**lota, rope – Old English **c**are, ты – Old English **Þ**ü?

- a) Newton's Law;
- b) Grimm's Law;
- c) Verner's Law;
- d) The Great Vowel Shift.

15. What law illustrates these changes in modern consonants: **death** – **dead**, **raise** - **rear**, **wife** – **wives**?

- a) Newton's Law;
- b) Grimm's Law;
- c) Verner's Law;
- d) The Great Vowel Shift.

16. What phonetic change is illustrated by these examples: **werm** – **wearm**, **ahta** – **eahta**, **melcan** – **meolcan**?

- a) mutation;
- b) gradation;
- c) palatalization;
- d) fracture.

17. What phonetic change is illustrated by these examples: **rīsan** – **rās**, **faran** – **for**, **bēad** – **budon**?

- a) mutation;
- b) gradation;

- c) palatalization;
- d) fracture.

18. What is this phonetic phenomenon called: sandian – sendan, namnian – nemnan, salian – sellan?

- a) u-mutation;
- b) i-mutation;
- c) a-mutation;
- d) o-mutation.

19. What phonetic phenomenon do they reflect: sunu – sone, writon – written?

- a) shortening of vowels;
- b) the Great Vowel Shift;
- c) leveling of unstressed vowels;
- d) monophthongization of Old English diphthongs.

20. How did English consonants differ from the vowels diachronically?

- a) they proved more subjected to change;
- b) they proved more stable;
- c) they remained the same;
- d) they changed little.

21. The development of which affricates is illustrated by these examples: ecʒe, brycʒe, scēap, plea'sure, vi'soun?

- a) [C];
- b) [S];
- c) [dʒ];
- d) [ʒ].

22. Whereas in OE fricatives were treated as 1) ..., in ME and early MnE they become 2)

- a) phonologized;
- b) allophones;
- c) independent phonemes;
- d) positional variants.

23. In Old English the opposition between geminated and short consonants was at the phonological level which means that
- a) the former depended on the environment;
 - b) the former did not depend on the environment;
 - c) the former were independent phonemes;
 - d) the former were allophones.
24. At the morphological level, the principal Old English form-building means were
- a) sound interchanges;
 - b) prefixes;
 - c) suppletive forms;
 - d) inflections.
25. Old English nouns, adjectives and verbs consisted of such basic elements as
- a) the root;
 - b) the stem;
 - c) the stem-building affix;
 - d) the inflection.
26. What is the actual meaning of the word Oxford?
- a) shallow water;
 - b) a stretch of shallow water on the river;
 - c) a stretch of shallow water for oxen to cross;
 - d) a stretch of broad shallow water for oxen to cross.
27. Choose the wrong member of the following series.
- a) Yiddish;
 - b) Afrikaans;
 - c) Dutch;
 - d) Gothic.
28. This Germanic language is not spoken anymore.
- a) Frankish;
 - b) Faroese;
 - c) Frisian;
 - d) Flemish.

29. The Germanic language which has borrowed a lot of words from Hebrew and Slavic languages is
- Frisian;
 - Flemish;
 - Yiddish;
 - Gothic.
30. The word **SAGA** deals with ... folklore.
- German;
 - English;
 - Gothic;
 - Scandinavian.
31. Account for the ancestor(s) of the Mercian dialect of Old English.
- Anglian;
 - Saxon;
 - Jutish;
 - Frisian.
32. Account for the successor(s) of the Northumbrian dialect in ME.
- Scottish;
 - Northern;
 - Central;
 - East Midland.
33. Choose two features that correspond to the Old English verb.
- there was homonymy in the conjugation;
 - there were three tenses: Past, Present, Future;
 - only endings were employed in the paradigm of strong verbs;
 - weak verbs were the most numerous class of verbs.
34. Choose three statements that correspond to the common features of the Germanic languages.
- strong and weak declension of the adjective;
 - changes in sounds formulated by Grimm's Law;
 - changes in sounds due to breaking;
 - there are a number of words which occur only inside the Germanic group.

35. Choose three phonetic processes that were typical of NE.
- a) qualitative change of the diphthongs [au] and [ai];
 - b) lengthening before the cluster “a sonorant and a plosive”;
 - c) development of diphthong due to the vocalization of [r];
 - d) loss of the fricatives [x] and [ç].

36. Account for three processes typical of the development of the demonstrative pronoun.

- a) simplification of the declension system;
- b) reduction in the number of the grammatical categories;
- c) reduction in the number of types of declension;
- d) rise of a new part of speech.

37. Account for the time of the acquisition of the negative and interrogative forms of the Present and Past Simple Tense within the English verbal system.

- a) Early ME;
- b) Late ME;
- c) Early NE;
- d) Age of Normalisation.

38. Account for the source of the acquisition of the Passive form within the English verbal system.

- a) Old English syntactical construction of the anomalous verb *beon* and Participle II;
- b) ME syntactical construction of the anomalous verb *be* and Participle II;
- c) Old English syntactical construction of the anomalous verb *weoðan* and Participle II;
- d) ME syntactical construction of the anomalous verb *werthen* and Participle II.

39. Account for the language that provided English with the largest number of loans.

- a) French;
- b) Scandinavian;
- c) Latin;
- d) Celtic.

40. Account for the Old English stem the following NE plural form of the noun oxen can be traced back to.
- a) s-stem noun;
 - b) u-stem noun;
 - c) i-stem noun;
 - d) n-stem noun.
41. Decide which statement(s) is/are true.
- a) in OE subordination was preferable to coordination;
 - b) in ME correlation fell into disuse;
 - c) ME means of connecting clauses were less diverse than Old English ones;
 - d) in NE the number of conjunctions grew and their use was normalized.
42. This Germanic language has no historical ties with the Netherlands.
- a) Dutch;
 - b) Gothic;
 - c) Afrikaans;
 - d) Flemish.
43. The language that borrowed half of its vocabulary from French is
- a) German;
 - b) English;
 - c) Dutch;
 - d) Yiddish.
44. This language has two main variants called High ... and Low
- a) Frisian;
 - b) Dutch;
 - c) German;
 - d) Swedish.
45. This European country was named after one of the Germanic tribes.
- a) France;
 - b) Italy;
 - c) Spain;
 - d) Portugal.

46. Runic alphabet avoided

- a) straight lines;
- b) curved lines;
- c) short lines;
- d) long lines.

47. This historic event marked the transition from Old English to Middle English.

- a) the departure of the Romans;
- b) the Norman conquest;
- c) Reformation;
- d) Restoration.

48. There were ... Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in Britain.

- a) 3;
- b) 5;
- c) 7;
- d) 9.

49. The variant of English which is believed to be the closest to the English language of the 17th – beginning of the 18th century is

- a) Australian;
- b) British;
- c) American;
- d) South African.

50. The variant of English spoken in the former British colonies in the Pacific and South- eastern Asia is called

- a) Basic English;
- b) Plain English;
- c) Pidgin English;
- d) Colonial English.

51. The classical translation of the Bible into the English language is called

- a) King George's Bible;
- b) King Henry's Bible;
- c) King James' Bible;
- d) Queen Elisabeth's Bible.

52. American English was first proclaimed to be an independent language by
- William Caxton;
 - Noah Webster;
 - Geoffrey Chaucer;
 - George Washington.
53. The variant of English characterized by a very strong sound [r] is
- American;
 - Australian;
 - Canadian;
 - Scottish.
54. Alfred the Great is normally given credit for ... Cross out the skill he didn't possess.
- military skills;
 - diplomatic skills;
 - literary activities;
 - singing ability.
55. The Normans were originally from
- France;
 - Scandinavia;
 - Northern Ireland;
 - Iberian peninsula.
56. According to its vocabulary English is partly a Germanic and partly a ... language.
- Celtic;
 - Romanic;
 - Slavonic;
 - Semitic.
57. The word which seems odd in the following list is
- pig;
 - beef;
 - ram;
 - swine.

58. The greatest author of the Middle English period is
- a) W. Shakespeare;
 - b) G. Chaucer;
 - c) E. Dickinson;
 - d) B. Dylan.
59. When that Aprille with his shores sote is the beginning of
- a) Romeo and Juliet;
 - b) Canterbury Tales;
 - c) Utopia;
 - d) Catch 22.
60. Among 3 main dialect groups in the English language of the 14th century there was no such group as
- a) Northern;
 - b) Western;
 - c) Southern;
 - d) Midland.
61. English was first used in the English Parliament in
- a) 11th century;
 - b) 12th century;
 - c) 13th century;
 - d) 14th century.
62. The history of Middle English started at the battle of
- a) Marne;
 - b) Gettysburg;
 - c) Hastings;
 - d) Stalingrad.
63. The phonetic phenomenon which happened during the Middle English period and made the English system of spelling differ a lot from the real pronunciation is called
- a) The Great Vowel Shift;
 - b) Grimm's Law;
 - c) Verner's Law;
 - d) leveling of the endings.

64. English 3^d person plural personal pronoun “they” is a ... borrowing.
- a) French;
 - b) Scandinavian;
 - c) Celtic;
 - d) Russian.
65. The first book printed in English was
- a) the Bible;
 - b) Beowulf;
 - c) Canterbury Tales;
 - d) Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye.
66. The Middle English word **ich** corresponds to the modern
- a) ice;
 - b) inch;
 - c) I;
 - d) ache.
67. William Tyndale is famous for his
- a) poetry;
 - b) dictionary;
 - c) translation of the Bible;
 - d) English grammar.
68. The following sound first appeared in Middle English.
- a) [g];
 - b) [f];
 - c) [dg];
 - d) [s].
69. The ways of expressing syntactical relations in Old English were
- a) agreement;
 - b) government;
 - c) connection;
 - d) joining.

70. What secondary parts were not frequently found in Old English texts?
- parenthesis;
 - attribute;
 - apposition;
 - object.
71. The evolution of syntax was closely connected with
- word order;
 - fixing of noun patterns;
 - decline of the inflectional system;
 - extensive use of prepositions.
72. Noun patterns became more fixed in
- Shakespeare's time;
 - Chaucer's time;
 - Byron's time;
 - Austin's time.
73. The full extent of the Old English vocabulary is
- 30 000 words;
 - 100 000 words;
 - not known;
 - 600 words.
74. The 3 main layers of the native Old English words were.
- common Indo-European words;
 - common Germanic words;
 - specifically Old English words;
 - specifically Scandinavian words.
75. "Hlaford" is
- a specific Old English word;
 - a Scandinavian word;
 - a Celtic word;
 - a Latin word.
76. The word "Myln" is of ... origin.
- Latin;
 - French;

- c) Scandinavian;
- d) Celtic.

77. “R” was a typical ... ending.

- a) Old English;
- b) Celtic;
- c) Scandinavian;
- d) Roman.

78. The main language of philosophy and science in the 16th and 17th centuries was

- a) Anglo-Norman;
- b) Anglo-Saxon;
- c) Greek;
- d) Latin.

79. The word “intelligentsia” is of ... origin.

- a) Latin;
- b) Russian;
- c) Dutch;
- d) Polish.

80. The word “tomato” is of ... origin.

- a) Spanish;
- b) Russian;
- c) Italian;
- d) Belarusian.

81. What was double comparative used for?

- a) emphasis;
- b) periphrasis;
- c) it didn't exist;
- d) comparison.

82. Old English adjective didn't have ...?

- a) gender;
- b) case;
- c) number;
- d) person.

83. Which category was not verbal?
a) tense;
b) mood;
c) number;
d) definiteness.
84. What happened to the stem-building suffix in Old English?
a) it merged with case ending;
b) was lost;
c) nothing changed.
85. The reduction of declension began in
a) Old English;
b) ME;
c) NW;
d) after 2 000.
86. The ending -es was used in
a) Dative singular and plural;
b) Genitive singular and plural;
c) Nominative singular and plural;
d) Accusative singular and plural.
87. Identify the literary source: Fyrst forþ zewat: flota wæs on yðum.
a) Beowulf;
b) Orosius's Universal history;
c) Ecclesiastical History;
d) The Story of Isaac's Deceit.
88. Identify the literary source: Hē cwæð þæt hē bude on þæm lande norþweardum.
a) Beowulf;
b) Orosius's Universal history;
c) Ecclesiastical History;
d) The Story of Isaac's Deceit.

89. Identify the literary source: 'Tis but thy name that is my enemy; – Thou art thyself though, not a Montague.
- Romeo and Juliet;
 - The Merchant of Venice;
 - Hamlet;
 - The Tempest.
90. Identify the literary source: Will he tell vs what this shew means? I, or any shew you'le shew him. Be not afeard to shew, hee'le not be afeard to tell... .
- Romeo and Juliet;
 - The Merchant of Venice;
 - Hamlet;
 - The Tempest.
91. ME [i:] was pronounced as [ei], [e:] as [i:], [a:] as [e:]. This is the characteristics of ... language.
- Chaucer's;
 - Shakespearean;
 - Caxton's;
 - Marlowe's.
92. The Scandinavian pronoun "þeir" superceded the Old English pronoun "hīe" and became modern... .
- their;
 - though;
 - the;
 - he.
93. Such words as lagu – law; wrang – wrong, husbonda – husband were borrowed from... .
- Saxon;
 - Scottish;
 - Norman;
 - Scandinavian.

ВСПОМОГАТЕЛЬНЫЙ РАЗДЕЛ

ABBREVIATIONS

Acc. – Accusative

A.D. – Anno Domini (our era)

B.C. – Before Christ (before our era)

Dat. – Dative Case

Gen. – Genitive Case

Instr. – Instrumental

ME – Middle English

MnE – Modern English

Nom. – Nominative case

Obj. – Objective

OE – Old English

Part. – Participle

pl. – Plural

sg. – Singular

Репозиторий Баргу

КЛЮЧИ К ТЕСТАМ


1. a, c.
2. b, c, d.
3. b.
4. a, c.
5. b.
6. b.
7. b, c, d.
8. c, d.
9. b, c, d.
10. b, d.
11. d.
12. a, b, c.
13. b.
14. b.
15. c.
16. d.
17. b.
18. b.
19. c.
20. b.
21. b, c, d.
22. b, c, d.
23. b, c.
24. d.
25. a, b, c, d.
26. c.
27. d.
28. c.
29. d.
30. d.
31. a.
32. a, b.
33. a, d.
34. a, b, d.
35. a, c, d.
36. b, c, d.
37. c.
38. a, b, c.
39. a.
40. d.
41. b, d.
42. b.
43. b.
44. c.
45. a.
46. b.
47. b.
48. c.

49. c.
50. d.
51. c.
52. b.
53. a.
54. d.
55. b.
56. a.
57. a.
58. b.
59. b.
60. b.
61. c.
62. c.
63. a.
64. b.
65. d.
66. c.
67. c.
68. c.
69. a, b, d.
70. a, b, d.
71. c.
72. a.
73. c.
74. a, b, c.
75. a.
76. a.
77. c.
78. d.
79. b.
80. a.
81. a.
82. d.
83. d.
84. a.
85. a.
86. b.
87. a.
88. b.
89. a.
90. c.
91. b.
92. c.
93. d.

УЧРЕЖДЕНИЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ
«БАРАНОВИЧСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ»

УТВЕРЖДАЮ

Ректор (первый проректор)
учреждения образования «Барановичский
государственный университет»

 / Т. Р. Якубович/

19 декабря 2014 года
Регистрационный № УД-320/14-баз.

ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА

Учебная программа
учреждения высшего образования
по учебной дисциплине для специальностей:

1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки
(английский, немецкий)

1-02 03 06–01 Английский язык.

Немецкий язык;

1-02 03 08 Иностранный язык
(английский)

Барановичи
РИО БарГУ
2015

Учебно-методический отдел
РАБОЧИЙ ЭЖЕМПЛЯР
№ 320.2

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ПОЯСНИТЕЛЬНАЯ ЗАПИСКА

1 Актуальность изучения дисциплины

Дисциплина «История языка» входит в программу обучения студентов специальности 1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки (английский, немецкий), 1-02 03 08 Иностранный язык (английский).

Освоение дисциплины базируется на компетенциях, приобретённых студентами при изучении следующих дисциплин: латинский язык (при прохождении темы «Займствования в английском языке»), введение в языкознание (темы «Индоевропейская семья языков», «Аналитический и синтетический типы языков»), введение в спецфилологию (все темы), практическая грамматика (все темы, касающиеся изучения «неправильных» грамматических форм как отражения исторического развития языка), практическая фонетика (все темы, касающиеся изучения «нетрадиционных» фонетических явлений), страноведение Великобритании и США (темы «История Англии в древнейший период», «Возникновение американского варианта английского языка»), литература Великобритании и США (темы «Древняя английская литература», «Периодизация истории литературы Англии», «Становление английского литературного языка», «Памятники англосаксонской литературы», «Средневековая литература. Чосер и его «Кентерберийские рассказы», «Деятельность Уильяма Кэкстона», «Литература эпохи Возрождения. Английский перевод Библии. Творчество Шекспира»), методика преподавания иностранных языков и ТСО (темы «Обучение фонетике», «Обучение чтению» (способы объяснения «неправильных» языковых форм с точки зрения истории английского языка)).

Программа разработана на основе компетентного подхода, требований к формированию компетенций, которые сформулированы в ОСВО 1-02 03 06–2013, 1-02 03 08–2013, составлена в соответствии с действующим учебным планом.

2 Цель и задачи учебной дисциплины

Цель дисциплины «История языка» заключается в формировании у студентов знаний, умений и профессиональных компетенций по основным историческим процессам развития английского языка и этапах его становления.

Указанная цель раскрывается в единстве её взаимосвязанных компонентов: практического, образовательного, развивающего и воспитательного.

Развивающий компонент цели заключается в расширении общенаучной базы, связывающей историю английского языка с другими языковыми дисциплинами; формировании и развитии навыков научного мышления, творческого анализа языкового материала и научных концепций для определения сущности изучаемых языковых явлений и возможных аспектов их исследования; обучении системному и глубокому видению структурной организации английского языка и её принципов; выработке более целостного представления обо всех аспектах английского языка с пониманием общих и специфических их свойств и закономерностей взаимодействия.

Практический и образовательный компоненты цели заключаются в изучении английского языка в различные периоды его существования, освещении общих закономерностей и тенденций развития системы английского языка в тесной взаимосвязи с историей английского общества; освещении общей проблематики и методики диахронического исследования языковых явлений, систематизировании отдельных изменений языковых явлений и интерпретировании их в свете общих закономерностей раз-

вития языка и причинных связей; использовании различных исторических источников и словарей для наблюдения за историческими изменениями отдельных подсистем английского языка: фонологии, грамматики, лексики.

Воспитательный компонент цели заключается в формировании интереса к изучаемому языку, культуре страны изучаемого языка, к будущей профессии.

Дисциплина «История языка» является необходимой составляющей процесса овладения английским языком как иностранным, а также компонентом общегуманитарного цикла в профессиональной подготовке учителя английского языка.

Задачи дисциплины:

- расширить лингвистический кругозор, ясно понимать исторические процессы, происходящие в языке в связи с историей развития общества;
- уметь объяснять нормы и особенности с точки зрения законов его исторического развития, принципов его становления и функционирования,
- изучая историю английского языка на лекциях и семинарских занятиях, приобрести навыки и умения организации самостоятельной работы студентов.

3 Требования к уровню освоения содержания учебной дисциплины

В результате изучения дисциплины студент должен закрепить и развить следующие академические (АК), социально-личностные (СЛК) и профессиональные (ПК) компетенции, предусмотренные в ОСВО 1-02 03 06–2013, 1-02 03 08–2013:

АК-1. Уметь применять базовые научные и теоретические знания для решения теоретических и практических задач.

АК-2. Владеть системным и сравнительным анализом.

АК-3. Владеть исследовательскими навыками.

АК-4. Уметь работать самостоятельно.

АК-5. Быть способным порождать новые идеи (обладать креативностью).

АК-6. Владеть междисциплинарным подходом при решении проблем.

АК-7. Иметь навыки, связанные с использованием технических устройств, управлением информацией и работой с компьютером.

СЛК-5. Быть способным к критике и самокритике.

СЛК-6. Уметь работать в команде.

Научно-исследовательская деятельность

ПК-37. Владеть основами методологии и теории научного исследования.

ПК-38. Пользоваться научной и справочной литературой.

ПК-39. Осуществлять отбор материала для исследования.

ПК-40. Анализировать и интерпретировать исследуемые явления в их взаимосвязи и взаимозависимости.

ПК-41. Готовить научные рефераты, тезисы выступлений и доклады.

ПК-42. Оформлять результаты научно-исследовательской деятельности в соответствии с требованиями современной информационной библиографической культуры.

Инновационная деятельность

ПК-43. Осуществлять поиск, систематизацию и анализ информации по инновационным технологиям в области лингвистики и лингводидактики.

В результате изучения дисциплины студент должен:

знать:

- закономерности и тенденции развития языка как системы;
- эволюционные процессы в фонетике, грамматике, лексике;

- особенности взаимосвязи между историей языка и историей народа-носителя этого языка;

- методологию и методику проведения диахронического исследования;
- фактический материал, отражающий эволюцию языка, его уровни и единицы;

уметь:

- анализировать эволюцию языковых явлений и устанавливать между ними исторические связи;

- интерпретировать языковые явления в свете общих закономерностей развития языка и причинно-следственных связей с учетом истории народа-носителя языка;

- анализировать и объяснять исторически многочисленные явления языка, составившие основание к «отклонениям» от языковой нормы современного языка;

- применять базовые научно-теоретические знания в ходе проведения самостоятельного научного исследования;

владеть:

- навыками реферирования и комментирования научной и учебной литературы;

- методикой проведения диахронического исследования;

- навыками проведения учебного научного исследования.

4 Структура содержания учебной дисциплины

Курс представляет собой этап теоретического освоения иностранного языка.

На изучение дисциплины отводится 100 академических часов (2,5 зач. ед.), в том числе 34 часа — аудиторных, из них: 20 часов лекционных и 14 часов семинарских занятий. В курсе лекций рассматриваются основные наиболее сложные в теоретическом плане вопросы, где студенты получают представление о закономерностях и тенденциях развития системы английского языка в тесной взаимосвязи с историей английского общества, знакомятся с проблематикой и методиками диахронического исследования языковых явлений.

На семинарских занятиях обсуждаются самостоятельно изученные студентами вопросы, достаточно полно освещенные в существующей учебной литературе. У студентов формируется умение самостоятельно делать выводы и обобщения из наблюдений над фактическим материалом, реферировать научную литературу, приобретать навык работы с первоисточниками.

В ходе освоения дисциплины дается определение основных понятий, которыми оперирует история языка, раскрываются её цели и задачи, теоретическая и практическая значимость, освещаются разделы истории, уделяется внимание методам лингвистического анализа, подчеркивается связь данного курса с другими разделами теории английского языка, другими лингвистическими дисциплинами и методикой преподавания английского языка.

При чтении дисциплины рекомендуется систематически проводить сопоставления рассматриваемых языковых явлений с фактами аналогичного порядка в родном и иностранном языках.

Форма текущей аттестации — экзамен.

5 Методы (технологии) обучения

На всех этапах преподавание должно осуществляться с использованием современных методов, приемов, технических и других учебных средств, а также форм обучения, направленных на оптимизацию и интенсификацию процесса обучения.

Основными методами (технологиями) обучения, отвечающими целям изучения дисциплины, являются:

- элементы проблемного обучения (проблемное изложение, вариативное изложение, обучающе-исследовательский метод), реализуемые на лекционных занятиях;
- элементы учебно-исследовательского подхода, реализация творческого подхода, реализуемые на практических занятиях и в самостоятельной работе;
- метод учебных ситуаций, реализуемый на практических занятиях и т. д.

6 Организация управляемой самостоятельной работы студентов

При изучении дисциплины используются следующие формы самостоятельной работы:

- подготовка рефератов, докладов, сообщений;
- выполнение теста.

7 Диагностика компетенций студентов

Оценка учебных достижений студентов осуществляется по 10-балльной шкале, утверждённой Министерством образования Республики Беларусь, в соответствии с критериями оценки результатов учебной деятельности обучающихся в учреждениях высшего образования (Письмо Министерства образования Республики Беларусь от 28.05.2013 г. № 09-10/53-ПО).

Для оценки учебных достижений студентов используется следующий диагностический инструментарий:

- проведение тестирования (АК-1–АК-7; ПК-40);
- презентация реферата по дисциплине (АК-1–АК-7; ПК-37–ПК-43);
- мультимедийная презентация (АК-1–АК-7; ПК-37–ПК-43);
- сдача экзамена по дисциплине (АК-1–АК-7; ПК-37–ПК-43).

ПРИМЕРНЫЙ ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Название темы	Количество аудиторных часов		
	всего	лекционные занятия	семинарские занятия
Т е м а 1 История языка как одна из дисциплин лингвистического цикла	2	2	—
Т е м а 2 Английский как один из языков германской группы	2	2	—
Т е м а 3 Англосаксонский в системе древнегерманских языков	2	2	—
Т е м а 4 Древнеанглийский период	4	4	—
Т е м а 5 Среднеанглийский период	4	4	—
Т е м а 6 Новоанглийский период	4	4	—
Т е м а 7 Экспансия английского языка	2	2	—
Т е м а 8 Древние авторы о германцах	2	—	2
Т е м а 9 Письменные памятники древних германцев	2	—	2
Т е м а 10 Язык англосаксонской литературы	4	—	4
Т е м а 11 Анализ языка «Кетерберийских рассказов» Дж. Чосера	2	—	2
Т е м а 12 Анализ языка произведений У.Шекспира	2	—	2
Т е м а 13 Фонетические и лексические особенности различных вариантов английского языка	2	—	2
ИТОГО	34	20	14
ВСЕГО	34		
<i>Примечание.</i> Всего академических часов — 100 (2,5 зач. ед.)			

СОДЕРЖАНИЕ УЧЕБНОГО МАТЕРИАЛА

Т е м а 1 История языка как одна из дисциплин лингвистического цикла

Сравнительно-исторический метод в языкознании. Становление и развитие изучения истории современных европейских языков как одной из лингвистических дисциплин с XIX ст. до наших дней. Деятельность Я. Гримм. Различные подходы к изучению истории современных европейских языков.

Т е м а 2 Английский как один из языков германской группы

Германские языки на карте мира: западногерманские — английский (Великобритания, Ирландия, США, Канада, Австралия, Новая Зеландия), немецкий (Германия, Австрия, Швейцария, Люксембург, Лихтенштейн), голландский (Нидерланды), фламандский (Бельгия), африкаанс (ЮАР), фризский (Нидерланды), идиш (Восточная Европа); северогерманские – шведский (Швеция, Финляндия), датский (Дания), норвежский (Норвегия), исландский (Исландия), фарерский (Дания).

Т е м а 3 Англосаксонский в системе древнегерманских языков

Древнегерманские племена: быт, культура, история. Римские авторы о германцах. (Тацит, etc.) Расселение германских племен по Европе и их последующие передвижения в рамках Великого переселения народов. (Остготское и Лангобардское королевства в северной Италии, 1-е и 2-е Бургундское королевство в долине Рейна и Роны, франкские государства, вестготы в Дакии и Крыму, королевство вандалов в Северной Африке). Древнегерманские языки: восточногерманские (готский, бургундский, вандальский и др.), западногерманские (англосаксонский, древневерхненемецкий, франкский, древнесаксонский, древнефризский, лангобардский), северогерманские (древнескандинавский).

3.2 Письменные памятники (Глоссы, Евангелие Улфилы, «Песнь о Гильдебранте», «Гелианд», «Песнь о Нибелунгах», «Старшая Эдда», «Младшая Эдда»). Фонетические особенности древнегерманских языков. 1-й перебой согласных, 2-й перебой согласных. (Закон Гримма, закон Вернера).

Т е м а 4 Древнеанглийский период

Грамматика. Имя существительное. Категории падежа (именительный, родительный, дательный, винительный), рода (мужской, женский, средний), числа (единственное, множественное) Имя прилагательное. Категории падежа (именительный, родительный, дательный, винительный,

творительный), рода (мужской, женский, средний), числа (единственное, множественное), степеней сравнения (положительная, сравнительная, превосходная) Местоимение. Разряды местоимений: личные, неопределенные, вопросительные, указательные. Категории падежа (именительный, родительный, дательный, винительный, творительный), рода (мужской, женский, средний), числа (единственное, множественное, двоичное), лица (первое, второе, третье) Глагол. Сильные и слабые глаголы. Категории времени (настоящее, прошедшее), лица (первое, второе, третье), числа (единственное, множественное), наклонения (изъявительное, сослагательное, повелительное).

Письменность. Алфавиты: рунический, латинский. Особенности британского варианта латинского алфавита.

Займствования. (1-я волна латинских займствований, кельтские займствования, 2-я волна латинских займствований, датские займствования).

Диалекты (нортумбрийский, мерсийский, кентский, уэссекский)

Письменные памятники древнеанглийского периода (Беде. «Церковная история английского народа»; Король Альфред и его переводы: «Всемирная история», «Забота пастыря»; «Беовульф»).

Т е м а 5 Среднеанглийский период

Норманнское нашествие. Билингвальный и бикультурный характер страны в XI—XV веках. Англо-нормандский язык.

Грамматика. Имя существительное. Упрощение категории падежа (от именительного, родительного, дательного, винительного к общему и притяжательному). Исчезновение категории рода. Сокращение форм обозначения множественного числа (-e, -en, -es)

Имя прилагательное. Исчезновение категорий падежа и рода.

Местоимение. Упрощение категории падежа (общий, объектный), числа (исчезновение двоичного у личных местоимений), рода. Появление притяжательных местоимений.

Глагол. Исчезновение сильных и слабых глаголов, появление правильных и неправильных. Возникновение будущего времени. Диалекты (шотландский, северный, центральный, южный)

Правописание. Постепенный перевод английской орфографии на классический латинский алфавит. Появление букв w, g, сочетаний th, gh и т. д.

Займствования. (Французские займствования, 3-я волна латинских займствований).

Диалекты. Письменные памятники («Брюс», «Кентерберийские рассказы») Первые печатные книги на английском. У. Кэстон и его «История Трои».

Т е м а 6 Новоанглийский период

Коренные изменения фонетической системы в последние столетия среднеанглийского периода — в начале новоанглийского периода. Великий сдвиг гласных.

Грамматика. Глагол. Появление окончания *-es* для 3-го лица ед. числа вместо старого — *eth*. Исчезновение местоимения *thou*.

Правописание. Изменения в орфографии: уменьшение количества слов с немым *-e*, замена в большинстве слов буквы *u* на *i*. Подстановка букв, обозначающих согласные звуки без изменения произношения слова с целью приближения его написания к латинским и французским аналогам (*debt, island, doubt, etc.*). Сохранение графических сочетаний *kn, gh* несмотря на изменения в произношении.

Заемствования из современных европейских языков (голландский, испанский, итальянский, немецкий).

Выработка языковых норм. Библия короля Иакова. С. Джонсон и его словарь. *The Spectator*, первый литературный журнал на английском языке.

Т е м а 7 Экспансия английского языка

Шотландия, Ирландия, Уэльс. Грамматические и фонетические особенности кельтских вариантов английского языка. Переселенческие колонии в истории развития английского языка за пределами Британии. Австралийское произношение как результат развития простонародных говоров британских островов (ирландский, кокни). Новозеландский английский.

Первые английские колонии на американском континенте: Роаноук, Джеймстаун, Плимут Рок. Фонетические и лексические особенности американского варианта английского языка. Различия в правописании. Основные варианты американского английского: *Eastern American, Southern American, General American*. Английский язык в Канаде. Лексическое своеобразие канадского варианта английского языка. Английский в южном полушарии. Американизированность лексики австралийского английского.

Т е м а 8 Древние авторы о германцах

Описание быта, истории и культуры древнегерманских племен в произведениях античных авторов (Цезарь, Тацит, etc.) Проблема достоверности вышеупомянутых источников при сопоставлении их с данными современной археологии о расселении и образе жизни древних германцев.

Т е м а 9 Письменные памятники древних германцев

Письменные памятники германских племен. Евангелие остготского епископа Улфилы (Вульфиллы) как наиболее ранний памятник древнегерманской речи. Глоссы и их роль в изучении лексики и фонетики языков древних германцев. Вопрос о происхождении «Песни о Гильдебранте» «Гелианд» как памятник древнесаксонской речи. «Песнь о Нибелунгах». Скандинавские эпосы «Старшая Эдда», «Младшая Эдда»).

Т е м а 10 Язык англосаксонской литературы

Первая история Англии в изложении Беде («Церковная история английского народа»), Король Альфред и его переводы: «Всемирная история», «Забота пастыря»; «Беовульф» как один из важнейших памятников древнеанглийского периода.

Т е м а 11 Анализ языка «Кентерберийских рассказов» Дж. Чосера

«Кентерберийские рассказы» Дж. Чосера как наиболее выдающийся памятник языка среднеанглийского периода. Особенности лексики. Правила чтения языка среднеанглийского периода.

Т е м а 12 Анализ языка произведений У. Шекспира

Отрывки из «Гамлет», «Ромео и Джульетта». Особенности языка произведений У. Шекспира, его отличие от современного английского языка (лексика, порядок слов, личные местоимения, употребление артиклей, форма будущего времени, несоответствия в общепринятом правописании).

Т е м а 13 Фонетические и лексические особенности различных вариантов английского языка

Грамматические и фонетические особенности английского языка в Шотландии, Ирландии и Уэльсе.

Фонетические и лексические особенности американского варианта английского языка. Основные варианты американского английского: Eastern American, Southern American, General American.

Английский язык в Канаде. Лексическое своеобразие канадского варианта английского языка.

Английский в южном полушарии. Особенности лексики австралийского варианта английского языка. Австралийское произношение. Новозеландский английский.

ИНФОРМАЦИОННО-МЕТОДИЧЕСКАЯ ЧАСТЬ

1 Список литературы

1.1 Основная литература

1. *Аракин, В. Д.* История английского языка / В. Д. Аракин. М. : ФИЗМАТЛИТ, 2003. — 272 с.
2. *Бруннер, К.* История английского языка / К. Бруннер. — М. : Едиториал УРСС, 2003. — 720 с.
3. *Иванова, И. П.* История английского языка / И. П. Иванова, Л. П. Чахоян, Т. М. Беляева. — СПб. : Лань, 1999. — 512 с.
4. *Ильиш, Б. А.* История английского языка / Б. А. Ильиш. — М. : Вышш. шк., 1968. — 420 с.
5. *Рассторгуева, Т. А.* История английского языка : учеб. / Т. А. Рассторгуева. — М. : АСТ, 2001. — 352 с.
6. *Смирницкий, А. И.* История английского языка / А. И. Смирницкий. — М. : Добросвет, 2000. — 235 с.
7. *Bragg, M.* The Adventure of English: the biography of a language / M. Bragg. — Hodder and Stoughton, 2004. — 254 p.

1.2 Дополнительная литература

1. www.wikipedia.org
2. www.ielanguages.com
3. <http://ebbs.english.vt.edu/hel/hel.html>
4. Хрестоматия по истории английского языка = A reader in Early English : учеб. пособие для судентов пед. ин-тов по специальности № 2103 «Иностранные языки» / сост.: И. П. Иванова, Т. М. Беляева. — Л. : «Просвещение», 1980. — 190с.

2 Рекомендуемые приёмы проверки уровня подготовки студентов в ходе экзамена

1. Ответ на теоретические вопросы по изученным темам.
2. Выполнение практического задания.

3 Критерии оценивания результатов учебной деятельности студентов

Оценка по 10-балльной шкале	Основные критерии оценки по предмету на экзамене
1	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Отказ от ответа. Отсутствие знаний в рамках программных требований (теоретический материал не может быть воспроизведен студентом).</p> <p>При выполнении практической части наблюдаются грубые языковые и смысловые ошибки. Навык чтения отсутствует.</p> <p>Выполнено до 29% всего задания (набранное количество баллов до 29)</p>
2	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Неполное воспроизведение программного учебного материала на уровне памяти. Отсутствие примеров на подтверждение теоретических положений. Количество ошибок при ответе на теоретический вопрос — более 13.</p> <p>При выполнении практической части возникают значительные затруднения. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются. Навык чтения отсутствует.</p> <p>Выполнено 30—39% всего задания (от 30 до 39 баллов)</p>
3	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Неполное воспроизведение программного учебного материала на уровне памяти. Наличие лишь отдельных примеров на подтверждение теоретических положений. Многочисленные ошибки (10—12) препятствуют пониманию смысла высказывания. Понять содержание можно с большим трудом. Отсутствует последовательность в изложении материала.</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. Возникают значительные затруднения при выполнении практической части. При переводе присутствуют грубые искажения в передаче содержания. При чтении присутствуют ошибки. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 40—49% всего задания (от 40 до 49 баллов)</p>
4	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Освоение программного материала на репродуктивном уровне и неполное его воспроизведение. Наличие лишь отдельных примеров на подтверждение теоретических положений. Отсутствует последовательность в изложении материала. Знание и понимание терминов. Многочисленные ошибки препятствуют пониманию высказывания (8—9).</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. Возникают значительные затруднения при выполнении практической части. При переводе присутствуют грубые грамматические искажения в передаче содержания. Присутствуют ошибки в чтении. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 50—64% всего задания (набранное количество баллов — от 50 до 64)</p>

Оценка по 10-балльной шкале	Основные критерии оценки по предмету на экзамене
5	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Знание основных теоретических положений. Возникают затруднения во владении исключениями из правил. Наличие примеров на подтверждение теоретических положений. Способность оперировать научными терминами с помощью преподавателя. Материал излагается последовательно. Ошибки препятствуют пониманию высказывания (6—7).</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. При переводе присутствуют незначительные смысловые и грамматические искажения в передаче содержания. Присутствуют ошибки в чтении. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 65—69% всего задания (от 65 до 69 баллов)</p>
6	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Достаточно полное владение основным содержанием теоретического материала с упоминанием некоторых деталей. Соблюдение последовательности в изложении материала. Допускаются немногочисленные ошибки (до 5), не препятствующие пониманию смысла высказывания. Способность оперировать научными терминами на уровне частичного понимания.</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. При переводе допустимы некоторые смысловые и незначительные грамматические искажения. При чтении допустимы незначительные ошибки. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 70—75% всего задания (от 70 до 75 баллов)</p>
7	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Владение основным содержанием теоретического материала с учетом названия большей части деталей. Соблюдение последовательности в изложении материала. Допускаются некоторые ошибки (3—4), не препятствующие пониманию смысла высказывания. Использование терминологии и понятийного аппарата с незначительной помощью преподавателя. Умение подтверждать теоретические положения многочисленными примерами.</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. При переводе допустимы некоторые смысловые искажения, отсутствуют грамматические искажения. В чтении почти нет ошибок. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 76—84% всего задания (от 76 до 84 баллов)</p>
8	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Свободное владение содержанием теоретического материала и название практически всех деталей обсуждаемого явления. Высказывания логичны, аргументированы. Соблюдение последовательности в изложении материала. Точное использование терминологии и понятийного аппарата. Допускаются 2 ошибки в изложении теории, не препятствующие пониманию смысла высказывания. Умение подтверждать теоретические положения многочисленными примерами.</p>

Оценка по 10-балльной шкале	Основные критерии оценки по предмету на экзамене
	<p>Выполнение практической части. Отсутствуют смысловые и грамматические искажения при переводе. В чтении отсутствуют ошибки. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 85—89% всего задания (набранное количество баллов составляет от 85 до 89)</p>
9	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Владение полным содержанием теоретического материала и название всех деталей обсуждаемого явления. Способность самостоятельно и свободно оперировать научными терминами. Содержание высказывания отличается связностью, полнотой, хорошо аргументировано. Соблюдение последовательности в изложении материала. Умение подтверждать теоретические положения многочисленными примерами.</p> <p>Допускается до 1 ошибки, не препятствующей пониманию смысла высказывания. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. При переводе отсутствуют смысловые и грамматические искажения. В чтении отсутствуют ошибки. Единичные ошибки, исправляемые путем самокоррекции, не учитываются.</p> <p>Выполнено 90—99% всего задания (от 90 до 99 баллов)</p>
10	<p>Теоретический вопрос. Свободное владение полным содержанием теоретического материала, название всех деталей и проведение смысловых связей между различными явлениями в сравнении. Умение подтверждать теоретические положения многочисленными примерами. Способность самостоятельно и свободно оперировать научными терминами. Содержание высказывания отличается связностью, полнотой, аргументацией, с привлечением сведений из других источников. Соблюдение последовательности в изложении материала. Ошибки не допустимы при изложении теории.</p> <p>Выполнение практической части. Отсутствуют смысловые и грамматические искажения при переводе. В чтении отсутствуют ошибки.</p> <p>Выполнено 100% всего задания (количество набранных баллов равно 100)</p>

Ведомственное издание

ИСТОРИЯ ЯЗЫКА

**Учебная программа
учреждения высшего образования
по учебной дисциплине для специальностей:**

**1-02 03 06 Иностранные языки
(английский, немецкий)**

1-02 03 06-01 Английский язык.

Немецкий язык;

**1-02 03 08 Иностранный язык
(английский)**

Составитель А. А. Савко

Заведующий РИО Е. Г. Хохал

Техническое редактирование С. М. Глушак

Подписано в печать 29.01.2015.

Формат 60 × 84 1/16. Бумага офсетная.

Гарнитура Таймс. Отпечатано на копировальном аппарате

Усл. печ. л. 0,90. Уч.-изд. л. 0,75.

Заказ 18. Тираж 9 экз.

Свидетельство о государственной регистрации издателя,
изготовителя, распространителя печатных изданий
от 2 сентября 2014 г. № 1/424.

Издатель и полиграфическое исполнение:
учреждение образования

«Барановичский государственный университет»,
225404, г. Барановичи, ул. Войкова, 21.

БИБЛИОГРАФИЧЕСКИЙ СПИСОК

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