ПРИДНЕСТРОВСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ
им. Т. Г. Шевченко

Филологический факультет

Кафедра английской филологии

THE HISTORY OF LITERARY ENGLISH

ИСТОРИЯ ЛИТЕРАТУРНОГО АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Учебно-методическое пособие

Тирасполь, 2018

Составители:

Р. В. Галатонов, преподаватель кафедры английской филологии ПГУ им. Т. Г. Шевченко

О. В. Щукина, кандидат педагогических наук, доцент, зав. кафедрой английской филологии ПГУ им. Т. Г. Шевченко

Рецензенты:

О. В. Балан, кандидат педагогических наук, доцент кафедры английской филологии ПГУ им. Т. Г. Шевченко

О. В. Еремеева, кандидат педагогических наук, доцент, зав. кафедрой романо-германской филологии ПГУ им. Т. Г. Шевченко

The History of Literary English provides a chronological analysis of the linguistic, social, and cultural development of the English language, from before its establishment in Britain around the year 450 to the present. Each lecture represents a new stage in the development of the language from Old English through Middle English to Modern Global English, all illustrated with a rich and diverse selection of primary texts showing changes in language resulting from contact, contest and domination, and the expansion of English around the world.

Post-lecture seminars contain *Glossary*, *Questions* and *Practice* sections. These materials can facilitate and lead the students' learning process. Some lectures also include links to external web-sources and *Further reading* section that provide a broader understanding on the topics and terms.

Утверждено научно-методическим советом ПГУ им. Т. Г. Шевченко

CONTENTS

LECTURE 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 SUBJECT AND AIMS OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

- Covers main events in diachronic development of the language.

- Historical study helps to understand and explain principal features of present-day English.

- Provides students with theoretical material and with a wider philological outlook.

- The history of English shows the place of English in a linguistic world and contacts with other languages.

Two main trends in the process of the development of the English language:

- Appearance of new forms and words.

- Disappearance of the obsolete forms.

A language is non-static. Changes are taking place at all levels of the language. The nature of linguistic changes is mainly determined by its characteristics and its functions in the society.

Main scientific **approaches** in any language investigation:

- *synchronic* – linguistic factors of modern English are analyzed;

- *diachronic* – any linguistic phenomenon is treated as part of ever-lasting process and evolution.

Main **methods** of diachronic analysis:

1. *The comparative method* – compares variations between different languages.

2. *The internal reconstruction method* – compares variant forms within a single language under the assumption that they descended from a single, regular form.

1.2 THE EARLIEST INFORMATION ABOUT ENGLISH

The English languagehistory was reconstructed on the basis of written records of different periods. The earliest extant written texts in English are dated in the 7th century; the earliest records in other Germanic languages go back to the 3rd or

4th c. AD. The development of the language began long time before it during the prewritten history of the Germanic languages.

Sources of language history:

1. Works of ancient historians and geographers (description of Germanic tribes, personal names and place-names);
2. Early borrowing from Germanic made by other languages;
3. Scientific study of extant texts (historical documents and English texts), (due to methods of comparative linguistics).

1.3 THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE HISTORY

- *Language levels*: historical phonetics, historical morphology, historical syntax, historical lexicology.

- *The external history of a language*: the spread of the Language in geographical and social space, the differentiation of language into functional varieties, contacts with other languages.

- *Language space* – geographical and social space occupied by the language.

- *Linguistic situation*–functional differentiation of language and the relationships between functional varieties.

The historical development of a language is not a permanent instability; many features remain *static* in diachrony. There exist certain permanent universal properties to be found in all languages in all periods of time: division into vowels and consonants, the distinction between parts of speech and parts of the sentence. At different linguistic levels we can find statics and dynamics in synchrony and diachrony. Dynamics in diachrony – linguistic change – requires special attention.

1.3.1 CONCEPT OF LINGUISTIC CHANGE

Linguistic change – temporal differences, which become apparent if the same elements or parts of the language are compared at successive historical stages; they are transformations of the same units in time which can be registered at distinct steps in their evolution.

Linguistic change concerns changes of sounds, grammatical forms or words.

E.g.: *find – fundon* (OE), *founden* (ME), *found* (NE).

A linguistic change begins with ***synchronic variation***. Alongside with the existing language units there spring up new units (they may be similar in meaning but slightly different in form). In the same time new meanings may arise in the existing words or forms in addition to the main meanings.

Synchronic variation:

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

Variation supplies material for linguistic change and also provides conditions for its realisation.

Causes of language evolution:

1. Like any movement in nature and society, the evolution of language is caused by the struggle of opposites;
2. Factors relevant to language history can be external (extralinguistic) and internal (intra-linguistic or systemic);
3. Motivation of changes is one of the most difficult problems of the historical linguistics.

1.3.2 THE CONNECTION BETWEEN THE HISTORY OF LANGUAGE AND THE HISTORY OF ITS PEOPLE

All linguistic alterations are interconnected or closely connected with the events which take place in the political, economic, cultural life of people, i.e. with the history of the country. As a result, new words and word combinations appear in a language in order to name the things that exist in different periods of the development of the country.

Example: During the reign of the Normans, many words related to the ruling classes and the business of government entered English from French. Among these words are: *attorney, baron, city, conservative, countess, county, damage, duchess, duke, empire, executive, felony, govern, judicial, jury, justice, legislative, liberal,*

marriage, nobility, parliament, petty, prince, prison, regal, representative, republic, royal, senator, sovereign, state, traitor, viscount.

1.4 THE PERIODIZATION OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH

The history of English is divided into three periods usually called Old English (or Anglo-Saxon), Middle English, and Modern English. This periodization is conventional and based on the historical events of the country:

1. **450–1100** – Old English (OE) –the language of Beowulf. Beowulf is an anonymous Old English epic poem in alliterative verse, believed to have been composed in the 8th century A.D.

2. **1100–1500** – Middle English (ME) – The language of Geoffrey Chaucer (?1340–1400), the English poet who wrote "The Canterbury Tales".

3. **1500–till today** – Modern English (ModE, or NE):

   - **1500–1650** – Early Modern English (or Renaissance English) – the language of William Shakespeare.

   - **1650 –** Present Modern English (or Present-Day English) – the language as spoken today.

SEMINAR 1
INTRODUCTION

GLOSSARY

New/obsolete forms

Synchronic approach (synchrony)

Diachronic approach (diachrony)

Comparative method

Internal reconstruction method

Extant texts

Language space

Language situation

Functional differentiation of language

Linguistic change

Old/Middle/Early Modern/Present English

QUESTIONS

1. What are the aims of the History of English? What are the subjects?
2. What main trends can we observe in the development of English?
3. Name and explain main scientific approaches in the HEL study. Provide your definitions with examples (based on any language).
4. What are the main methods of the HEL study? Provide your definitions with examples (based on any language).
5. When did the first written text in English appear? What do you think, what field (or aspect of life) did they represent?
6. What types of sources are used in language history research?
7. Name language levels, studied in the HEL.
8. What features of a language remain static? What features are dynamic?
9. What is the role of synchronic variation?
10. Name main causes of language evolution.

11. To what extent are linguistic alterations influenced by extralinguistic factors (e.g. social, economical, political, cultural etc.)?

12. Provide the most commonly used periodization of the History of English.

LECTURE 2
ENGLISH AS A GERMANIC LANGUAGE
2.1 SUBDIVISION OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

English belongs to a group of related languages, which have descended from common Germanic, or Proto-Germanic (link: Proto-Germanic language) as a distinct branch of Indo-European (IE) family of languages (link: Indo-European languages). Ethnic and linguistic disintegration resulted in division into three subgroups of GLs:

1. East Germanic: Gothic, Vandalic, Burgundian. All are dead.

2. North Germanic: Icelandic, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish.

3. West Germanic: English, German, Frisian, Afrikaans, Yiddish Dutch and others.

In spite this subdivision GLs make a distinct group with the IE linguistic family due to their common features in phonetics, grammar and vocabulary.

These features were either inherited from the Proto-Germanic parent language or developed parallel in separate GLs later due to their mutual source.

2.2 BASIC FEATURES OF GLS IN PHONETICS
2.2.1 THE 1ST CONSONANT SHIFT, or GRIMM'S LAW

An essential feature of GLs separating them from other IE languages is their consonantal system, which developed from the original IE system.

These regular correspondences between the consonants of GLs and IELs were discovered and systemized by **Jacob Grimm**. He found three groups of correspondences and since this time they are referred to as *three acts of Grimm's law*, or the 1st Consonant Shift (link: Grimm's law).

There are several theories explaining the origin of the consonant shift. One of the most current is the influence of the so-called ***substratum*** (or underlayer) of a language of a different type (link: Stratum). There is another theory according to which the reasons for the shift should be found in the peculiarities of the language itself.

1. He discovered that in IE basis the <u>voiceless plosives</u> became <u>voiceless fricatives</u> in all GLs:

[p] > [f]	Lat. *pes* – Goth. *fotus*, OE *fōt* – NE *foot* Lat. *piscis* – Goth. *fisks*, OE *fisc* – NE *fish*
[t] > [θ]	Lat. *tres* – Rus. *три*, OE *þrie* – NE *three* Rus. *тысяча*, OE *þūsend* – NE *thousand*
[k] > [x], [h]	Lat. *cor* – Goth. *haírto*, OE *heorte* Lat. *guod* – OE *hvæt* – NE *what*

2. According to the second act <u>voiced plosives</u> became <u>voiceless:</u>

[b] > [p]	Rus. *слабый*, OE *slǣpan* – *спать* Rus. *болото*, OE *pōl* – NE *pool*
[d] > [t]	Rus. *дерево*, OE *trēow* – NE *tree*
[g] > [k]	Rus. *горе*, OE *caru* – NE *care* Rus. *голый*, OE *calu* – Germ. *kabl*

3. According to the third act <u>aspirated voiced plosives</u> [bʰ], [dʰ], [gʰ] lost their aspiration – [b], [d], [g]:

[bʰ] > [b]	Sanskr. *bhārāmi* – Rus. *беру*, OE *bere* – NE *bear* Sanskr. *bhrata* – Rus. *брат*, OE *brōðor* – NE *brother*
[dʰ] > [d]	Sanskr. *vidhava* – Rus. *вдова*, OE *widwe* – NE *widow*
[gʰ] > [g]	IE *lagh* – Rus. *лежать*, OE *licʒean* – NE *lie*

2.2.2 VERNER'S LAW

Even after Grimm's explanation there were several cases when Grimm's law didn't work or there was some change which couldn't be explained through it.

For instance, in the position where according to Grimm's law the voiceless sound [θ] was expected, the voiced [ð] appeared (Sanscr. *pitár* – OG *patēr* – OE *fæder* – NE *father*). Instead of an expected <u>voiceless fricative</u> a <u>voiced fricative</u>

would appear in some words. These was explained by **Karl Verner** (link: Verner's law).

Table 2.2. Consonant shift table

Proto-Indo-European	p		t		k		kʷ		s	
Grimm's Law	f		þ		h		hʷ			
Verner's Law	f	β	þ	ð	h	ɣ	hʷ	ɣʷ	s	z

The voicing occurred in PG at the time when the stress was not yet fixed on the root-morpheme. The sound [z] was further affected in western and northern Germanic: [s] → [z] → [r]. This process is known as ***rhotacism*** (link: Rhotacism). As a result of voicing by Verner's law an interchange of consonants in the grammatical forms of the word appeared. Part of the forms retained a voiceless fricative, while other forms – with a different position of stress in Early PG – acquired a voiced fricative.

Examples: *we**s**an (быть) – wæ**s** (был) – wæ**r**on (были); weor**þ**an (становиться) – wear**þ** (стал) – wur**d**on (стали) – wor**d**en (превращенный)*.

Both consonants could undergo later changes in the OG languages, but the original difference between them goes back to the time of movable word stress and PG voicing.

2.2.3 VOWELS OF GERMANIC LANGUAGES

GLs also had some specific features in the system of vowels:

1. IE short [ŏ] and [ă] correspond to GLs short [ă]: Rus. *ночь* – Germ. *nacht*;
2. IE long [ō] and long [ā] correspond to GLs long [ō]: Lat. *frāter* – Goth. *brōþar* (брат), Lat. *flōs* – OE *blōma* (цветок);
3. Short [ŏ] & long [ā] appeared in GLs from inner sources.

2.2.4 GERMANIC FRACTURE

In GLs the quality of a stressed vowel in some cases depended on the type of the sound that followed it. This dependence is reflected in the notion of fracture (link: Germanic a-mutation).

The fracture concerns two pairs of vowels: [e] & [i], [u] & [o].

- *In the root syllable* IE [e] = GL [i], if it was followed by:
  1. [i];
  2. [j];
  3. nasal+consonant; **else** IE [e] = G [e].

Examples: Lat *medius* – OE *middle*, Lat *ventus* – OE *wind*, but Lat *edere* – OE *etan*.

- IE [u] = GL [u] if followed by:
  1. [u];
  2. nasal+consonant; **else** IE [u] = G [o].

Example: Lat *sunus* – OE *sunu* (сын), Clt *hurnan* – ME *horn*.

2.2.5 VOWEL GRADATION (ABLAUT)

Vowel gradation, or ablaut ("ab" means reducing, "laut" – sound) was inherited by GLs from ancient IE languages (link: Vowel gradation). There are two kinds of vowel gradation: qualitative and quantitative:

- **Qualitative gradation:** different vowels appear alternatively in various forms of one and the same word: in IE [e] and [o], in GL [i] and [a].

  Examples: *везу – воз, беру – сбор,* Goth *hilpan – halp*.

- **Quantitative gradation:** is represented by the alternation of a short vowel with the corresponding long one and also alternation of a short vowel with the zero of the vowel.

  Examples: *беру – брать,* OE *findan – fnden – fundan*.

2.2.6 THE STRESS SYSTEM

In IELs there were two types of stress: *musical pitch* and *force (dynamic) stress*. Besides, in IE the word stress was free. In the GLs it is fixed.

It was discovered that in the course of the Common Germanic Period word stress came to be fixed on the first meaningful part of the word (root-syllable). This fixed stress couldn't but result in weakening of unstressed positions which in

its turn resulted in *neutralization* of certain vowels, dropping, change of their quality and quantity.

Verner's Law, however, shows that *the root vowel in GLs might be unstressed* and this lead to the conclusion that originally GLs had a *free stress system.*

2.3 BASIC GRAMMATICAL FEATURES

In IE the words were three-morphemic, i.e. they consisted of a root, a stem suffix and a flexion (ending). This kind of a substantive structure can be seen most clearly in Gothic: *daʒ-a-m*. In the GLs words came to be two-morphemic. Many notional words, mostly nouns, lost their suffixes, so they had only a root and an ending.

2.4 GERMANIC WORD FORMATION AND VOCABULARY

Like many old IELs the old GLs had a well-developed system of grammatical affixes. Thus, the old GLs had a number of noun declensions, verb conjugations and so on. However, there are some grammatical features which are typical only for old GLs: the weak declension of the adjectives which has always been marked by the suffix *-n-*; the weak declension marked the definitiveness of the nouns; the weak conjugation of the verbs.

2.5 GERMANIC ALPHABETS

Through the history of their development GLs used 3 different alphabets.

2.5.1 RUNIC ALPHABET

The runes were used as letters, each symbol indicated a separate sound. It is supposed that the runic alphabet is based on the Latin or some other Italic alphabet, close to Latin in writing. But the material and technique of writing used by Germanic tribes in their early times caused considerable modifications of Latin in the Runic alphabet (link: Runes).

It is considered that the Runic alphabet originated in the 1st–2nd centuries AD on the banks of the Rhine or the Danube where Germanic tribes could come into

contact with the Roman culture. Since the Runic alphabet was used by different Germanic tribes (Goths, Anglo-Saxons, Scandinavians) it was adopted to the needs of each of language. New letters were added into it, some of the original fell out.

2.5.2 ULPHILAS

Ulphilas' Gothic alphabet originated in the 4thcentury (link: Ulphilas). It is based on the Greek alphabet but has some Latin and Runic letters. Ulphilas' alphabet was used in gothic translation of the Bible. But in modern editions of Gothic texts a Latin transcription of the Gothic alphabet is used.

2.5.3 LATIN ALPHABET

It began to be used when a new technique of writing was introduced, i.e. spreading of color, paint on the surface instead of cutting and engraving the letters. Introduction of the Latin alphabet was stimulated by the spread of Christianity as Christian religious texts were written in Latin. The Latin alphabet was also modified to the peculiar needs of the separate GLs.

FURTHER READING

1. Аракин В. Д. *История английского языка: Учебное пособие.* – 2-е изд. – М.: ФИЗМАТЛИТ, 2003. – С. 13–25.
2. Расторгуева Т. А. *История английского языка: Учебник.* – 2-е изд., стер. – М.: ООО «Издательство Астрель»: ООО «Издательство АСТ», 2003. – С. 24–47.

SEMINAR 2
ENGLISH AS A GERMANIC LANGUAGE

GLOSSARY

Proto-Germanic	Root-morpheme
Indo-European	Rhotacism
Consonant Shift	Fracture
Voiced, voiceless, voicing	Neutralization
Plosives, fricatives	Noun declension
Aspiration	Verb conjugation
Substratum	

QUESTIONS

1. What subgroups of Proto-Germanic branch do you know? To what groups do English and German belong?
2. What essential feature separates Germanic language from other branches of Indo-European family?
3. What does the Grimm's law describe?
4. Name 3 acts of Grimm's law.
5. What were the exceptions in the Grimm's law that led to the discover of Verner's law?
6. Speaking of Verner's law, what was the key difference, that led to consonants' voicing?
7. What is rhotacism?
8. What were the features of Germanic language's vowel system?
9. What is Germanic fracture? What vowels does it concern?
10. What were the types of Vowel gradation?
11. Describe types of stress in Indo-European languages.
12. What is neutralization?
13. Describe the word structure in Indo-European languages. Was it the same as in Germanic language?

14. What grammatical features were typical for Germanic language?

15. Name 3 alphabets, used in Germanic language.

16. What were the origins of the Runic alphabet?

17. In what language was Ulphilas' alphabet used?

LECTURE 3
OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS
3.1 GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Old English (also known as ***Anglo-Saxon***, 450–1100) is so far removed from Modern English that one may take it for an entirely different language; this is largely due to the peculiarities of its pronunciation. 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.

3.2 WORD STRESS

The system of word accentuation inherited from PG 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: *hlāforde* [`xla:vorde], *cyninʒe* [`kyniŋge].

Word stress was *fixed*; it remained on the same syllable in different grammatical forms of the word and, as a rule, did not shift in word-building either.

Polysyllabic words, especially compounds, may have had two stresses, ***chief*** and ***secondary***, the chief stress being fixed on the first root-morpheme. In words with prefixes the position of the stress varied: verb prefixes were unaccented, while in nouns and adjectives the stress was commonly thrown on to the prefix.

ā-`risan, mis-`faran – v (NE arise, go astray)

tō-weard, `or-eald – adj (NE toward, very old)

If the words were derived from the same root, word stress, together with other means, served to distinguish the noun from the verb.

`and-swaru* n – *and-`swarian v (NE answer, answer)

`on-ʒin* n – *on-`ʒinnan v (NE beginning, begin)

3.3 OLD ENGLISH VOWELS

All Old English vowel phonemes can be traced back to Proto-Germanic vowel phonemes. OE monophthongs, originated both from PG monophthongs and diphthongs. The quality of OE diphthongs (those of PG origin) may have undergone a change. Some OE diphthongs originated from monophthongs (see: Table 3.1).

3.3.1 CHANGES OF STRESSED VOWELS IN EARLY PERIOD

Sound changes, particularly *vowel changes*, took place in English at every period of history. The change begins with growing variation in pronunciation, which manifests itself in the appearance of numerous **allophones** (link: Allophone): after the stage of increased variation, some allophones prevail over the others and a replacement takes place.

Table 3.1.Some examples of Old English vowels

Proto-Germanic	Old English	New English
d**a**gs	d**æ**ȝ	day
b**i**ndan	b**i**ndan	bind
c**u**sans	c**o**ren	chosen
r**ai**s	r**ā**s	wrote
k**iu**san	c**ēo**san	choose
k**au**s	c**ēa**s	chose

It may result in the ***splitting of phonemes*** and their numerical growth, which fills in the "empty boxes" of the system or introduces new distinctive features. It may also lead to the *merging of old phonemes*, as their new prevailing allophones can fall together. Most frequently the change will involve both types of replacement, splitting and merging, so that we have to deal both with the rise of new phonemes and with the redistribution of new allophones among the existing phonemes.

3.3.2 DEVELOPMENT OF MONOPHTHONGS

The PG short [a] and the long [a:], which had arisen in West and North Germanic, underwent similar alterations in Early OE they were fronted and, in the process of fronting, they split into several sounds.

The principal regular direction is often referred to as the ***fronting*** or ***palatalization*** of [a, a:]. In diachronic approach the term palatalization is often used to describe a qualitative consonant change, influenced by a front vowel sound (link: Palatalization).The other directions can be interpreted *as positional deviations or restrictions* to this trend: short [a] could change to [o]or [a] and long [a:] became [o:] before a nasal; the preservation of the short [a] was caused by a back vowel in the next syllable – (sometimes [a] occurs in other positions as well, e.g. OE *macian, land,* NE *make, land).*

*Table 3.2.*Splitting of [a] and [a:] in Early Old English

Change		Examples		
PG	**OE**	**Proto-Germanic**	**Old English**	**New English**
a	æ	þ**a**ta	þ**æ**t	*that*
	o	m**a**nna	m**o**n	*man*
	a	m**a**gan	m**a**ʒan	*may*
a:	æ:	d**ā**r	d**ǣ**r	*there*
	o:	m**ā**no	m**ō**na	*month*

3.3.3 DEVELOPMENT OF DIPHTHONGS

The PG diphthongs [ei, ai, iu, eu, au] underwent regular independent changes in Early OE; they took place in all phonetic conditions irrespective of environment.

The diphthongs with *i-glide* were *monophthongised* into [i:] and [a:], respectively; the diphthongs in *u-glide* were reflected in long diphthongs [io:], [eo:] and [ea:].

If the sounds in PG were not diphthongs but sequences of two separate phonemes, the changes should be defined as phonologisation of vowel sequences.

This will mean that these changes increased the number of vowel phonemes in the language. Moreover, they introduced new distinctive features into the vowel system by setting up vowels with diphthongal glides; henceforth, monophthongs were opposed to diphthongs.

Table 3.3. OE reflexes of PG diphthongs (or bi-phonemic sequences)

Change		Examples		
PG	**OE**	**Proto-Germanic**	**Old English**	**New English**
a + i	a:	st**ai**ns	st**ā**n	*stone*
e + i	i:	r**ei**san	r**ī**san	*rise*
a + u	ea:	**au**so	**ēa**re	*ear*
e + u	eo:	k**iu**san	c**ēo**san	*choose*
i + u	io:	d**iu**ps	d**īo**p	*deep*

3.3.4 ASSIMILATIVE VOWEL CHANGES: BREAKING AND PALATAL MUTATION

The tendency to *assimilative vowel change*, characteristic of later PG and of the OG languages, accounts for many modifications of vowels in Early OE. Under the influence of succeeding and preceding consonants some Early OE monophthongs developed into diphthongs.

If a front vowel stood before a velar consonant (such as [r], [l] and [h]) there developed a short glide between them, as the organs of speech prepared themselves for the transition from one sound to the other. The glide, together with the original monophthong formed a diphthong (e.g. **e > eo** in OE *deorc*, NE *dark*). This type of change is called **breaking** or *diphthongization*.

The process of breaking took place in the 6th century and produced a new set of vowels in OE – the short diphthongs [ea] and [eo]; they could enter the system as counterparts of the long [ea:], [eo:], which had developed from PG prototypes.

Breaking was unevenly spread among the OE dialects: it was more characteristic of West Saxon than of the Anglian dialects (Mercian and

Northumbrian); consequently, in many words, which contain a short diphthong in West Saxon, Anglian dialects (link: Old English dialects)have a short monophthong, cf. WS *tealde,* Mercian *talde* (NE *told*).

*Table 3.4.*Some examples of breaking

Vowel	Condition	PG	OE	NE
æ > ea	r+consonant	**æ**rm	**ea**rm	*arm*
	l+consonant	**æ**ld	**ea**ld	*old*
	h+consonant	**æ**hta	**ea**hta	*eight*
	h final	s**æ**h	s**ea**h	*saw*
e > ea	r+consonant	h**e**rte	h**eo**rte	*heart*
	lc+consonant	m**e**lcan	m**eo**lcan	*to milk*
	lh+consonant	s**e**lh	s**eo**lh	*seal*
	h final	f**e**h	f**eo**h	*cattle*

The qualitative change of Old English vowels that experts call ***palatal mutation***, or *i-mutation*, occurred somewhere during the 6th–7th centuries. The process affected Germanic words where a vowel in a stressed syllable was immediately followed by the sound [i] or [j] in the next syllable. Almost all vowels, both diphthongs and monophthongs, in the context described above became further forward and higher, or more palatal and more narrow, with the exception of [e] and [i] which could go no further. This may be described as a kind of vowel harmony – a natural process affecting many modern languages: the vowels mutate because of their partial assimilation to the following vowel (or semi-vowel).

Though palatal mutation was a phonemic process it left traces in Old English grammar and word-stock (as a result of vowel gradation appeared the system of the declension of nouns). Breaking and palatal mutation are the main sources of short diphthongs in Old English. They are of special interest to the historians of English,

for Old English short diphthongs have no parallels in other OG languages and constitute a specifically Old English feature.

The status of short diphthongs in the Old English vowel system has aroused much discussion and controversy. On the one hand, short diphthongs are always phonetically conditioned as the) are found only in certain phonetic environments and appear as positional allophones of respective monophthongs (namely, of those vowels from which they have originated).

Table 3.5. Some examples of palatal mutation (*marked were new in OE)

Monophthongs			
Change	**PG**	**OE**	**NE**
a > e	strangiþu	strengþu	strength
æ > e	tǣlian	tellan	to tell
ā > ǣ	hālian	hǣlan	to heal
o > e	ofstian	efstan	to hurry
ō > ē	dōmian	dēman	to deem
u > y*	fullian	fyllan	to fill
ū > ȳ*	cūþian	cȳþan	to announce
Diphthongs			
Change	**PG**	**OE**	**NE**
ea > ie	ealdira	ieldra	elder
ēa > īe	ʒelēafian	ʒelīefan	to believe
eo > ie	afeorrian	afierran	to remove
ēo > īe	ʒetrēowi	ʒetrīewe	true

On the other hand, however, they are similar in quality to the long diphthongs, and their phonemic status is supported by the symmetrical arrangement of the

vowel system. Their very growth can be accounted for by the urge of the system to have all its empty positions filled.

3.4 OLD ENGLISH CONSONANTS

The old English consonant system consisted of some 14 consonant phonemes denoted by the letters p, b, m, f, t, d, n, s, r, l, þ(ð), c, ʒ, h. On the whole, consonants were historically more stable than vowels, though certain changes took place in all historical periods.

Table 3.6. New English consonants (for comparison)

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveolo-palatal	Velar
Voiceless stop	p			t		k
Voiced stop	b			d		g
Voiceless affricate					(ʧ)	
Voiced affricate					(dʒ)	
Voiceless fricative		f	θ	s	(ʃ)	h
Voiced fricative		v	ð	z	(ʒ)	
Nasal		m		n		ŋ
Lateral				l		
Retroflex					r	
Semi-vowel (glide)					j	w

The consonant system in Old English manifested the following peculiarities:

1. The relatively small number of consonant phonemes — only14 phonemes.

2. The absence of affricates and fricative consonants which we now find in the language such as [ʧ], [ʤ],[ʃ], [ʒ].

3. Dependence of the quality of the phoneme upon its environment in the word.

The 3rd point requires further explanation:

1. The phonemes denoted by the letters **f**, **Þ** (thorn), **ð** (eth) or **s** are voiced or voiceless depending upon their phonetic position. They are generally voiced in the so-called *intervocal position* that is between vowels and voiceless otherwise:

   OE hlā**f** [f], NE *bread* – OE hlā**f**ord [v], NE *breadkeeper, lord*;

   OE ʒō**s** [s], NE *goose* – OE ʒō**s**es [z];

   OE tō**ð** [θ], NE *tooth* – OE tō**ð**es [ð].

2. The phoneme denoted by the letter **c** gave at least 2 variants – palatal [k'] and velar [k]. In the majority cases it was a velar consonant. Palatal was generally used before the vowel **i**. Compare:

   cild [k'ild] *child*, s**c**ip [sk'ip] *ship*, **c**an [kan] *can*, **c**limban [`klimban] *to climb*.

3. The letter ʒ could denote three different sounds:

- [j] – before or after front vowels [æ], [e], [i]:

   ʒiefan *(give)*, ʒēar *(year)*, dæʒ *(day)*;

- [ɣ] – after back vowels [a], [o], [u] and consonants [l] and [r]:

   daʒas *(days)*, folʒian *(follow)*;

- [g] – before consonants and before back vowels [a], [o], [u]:

   ʒōd *(good)*, ʒlēo *(glee)*.

FURTHER READING

1. Аракин В. Д. *История английского языка: Учебное пособие.* – 2-е изд. – М.: ФИЗМАТЛИТ, 2003. – С. 36–50.

2. Резник Р. В., Сорокина Т. А., Резник И. В. *A History of the English Language. История английского языка: Учебное пособие.* – М.: Флинта: Наука, 2001. – С. 77–88.

Table 3.7. Reading Old English Text

Letters	Sounds	Examples
æ		ǣt, cwæð, hwænne
ǫ		mǫnn, lǫnd, ǫnd
y		þȳstrodon, clypode, ymb
þ		þæt, þȳstrodon, toþ
ð	[θ]	cwæð, oððe, ðu
	[ð]	cweðan, hweðer, broðor
f	[f]	fæder, fōt, faran
	[v]	hlāford, wīfan, griefe
s	[s]	Īsaac, his, ʒesēon
	[z]	rīsan, forlēosan, wyrsa
ʒ	[ɣ]	ēaʒan, daʒas, sloʒ
	[g]	ʒanʒ, sinʒan, lenʒra
	[j]	dæʒ, beʒite, ʒefeohtan
h		his, hē, mihte
c	[k']	cyne, cyssan, cin
	[k]	clypode, ʒesceot, bōc

*Table3.8.*Old English Vowels

SHORT VOWELS			
	Sound	Letter	OE
FRONT	[ɪ]	**i**	*fisc – рыба* *scip – корабль*
FRONT	[y]	**y**	*fyllan – наполнять* *pytt – колодец*
FRONT	[e]	**e**	*sprecan – говорить* *stelan – красть*
BACK	[u]	**u**	*sunu – сын* *pund – фунт*
BACK	[o]	**o**	*folc – народ* *cos – поцелуй*
BACK	[a]	**a**	*faran – ехать* *caru – забота*
LONG VOWELS			
	Sound	Letter	OE
FRONT	[i:]	**i, ī**	*wīn – вино* *tīd – время*
FRONT	[y:]	**ý, ȳ**	*brȳd – невеста* *wȳscan – хотеть*
FRONT	[e:]	**é, ē**	*fēt – ноги* *tēþ – зубы*
FRONT	[æ:]	**ǽ, ǽ**	*slǽpan – спать* *sǽ –море*
BACK	[u:]	**ú, ū**	*hūs – дом* *tūn – поселок*
BACK	[o:]	**ó, ō**	*fōt – нога* *bōc – книга*
BACK	[a:]	**á, ā**	*bān – кость* *ān – один*

Table 3.9. Old English diphthongs

SHORT DIPHTHONGS		
Sound	Letter	OE
[ea]	**ea**	*healf* – половина
[eo]	**eo**	*steorra* – звезда
[ɪo]	**io**	*siolfur* – серебро
[ɪe]	**ie**	*scield* – щит
LONG DIPHTHONGS		
Sound	Letter	OE
[ɛa:]	**éa, ēa**	*hēah* – высокий
[eo:]	**éo, ēo**	*dēop* – глубокий
[ɪo:]	**ío, īo**	*stīoran* – мешать
[ɪe:]	**íe, īe**	*hīeran* – слышать

Table 3.10. Old English vowel phonemes

	Front	Central	Back
Close	i: y: ɪ y ɪo:		u: u
Mid	e: eo: ɛa: e ← eo		o: o
Open	æ ← ɛə æ ⟶ æ:	a ← a:	ɔ

SEMINAR 3
OLD ENGLISH PHONETICS

GLOSSARY

Chief/secondary stress

Monophthongs

Diphthongs

Allophone

Splitting

Merging

Fronting

Palatalization

Assimilative vowel change

Breaking

Palatal mutation

QUESTIONS

1. What languages were spoken in the British Isles prior to the Germanic Invasion? Which of their descendants have survived today?
2. What historical events account for the influence of Latin on OE?
3. Describe the linguistic situation in Britain before and after the Germanic settlement.
4. Explain the origin of the following place-names: Britain, Scotland, Great Britain, Bretagne, England, Sussex, Essex, Middlesex, Wessex, Northumberland, Wales and Cornwall.
5. The OE language is often called Anglo-Saxon. Why is this term not fully justified?
6. What is insular writing?
7. Give some examples of Old English written records (both runic and insular).
8. Why can we regard the group of OE dialects as a single language despite their differences, which continued to grow in later OE? What binds them together?

PRACTICE

1. Did word stress in OE always fall on the first syllable? Recall some regular shifts of stress in word-building and give similar examples from present-day English.

2. Comment on the phonemic status of OE short diphthongs.

3. Account for the difference between the vowels in OE *þæt, eal* and *monn*, all going back to PG words with [a] (PG *þata, alls, manna*).

4. Account for the interchange of vowels in OE *dæʒe, daʒas* (NE day), *bæð, baðian* (NE bath, bathe).

5. Say which word in each pair of parallels is OE and which is PG (Gothic). Pay attention to the difference in the vowels:

   rauþs – read (red); hām – haims (home); beald – balþei (bold); barms – bearm (chest); dēaf – daufs (deaf); triu – trēo (tree); lēof – liufs (dear, rel. to love); qiþan – cweðan (say).

6. In the same way classify the following words into OE and Old Norse:

   bēaʒ - baugr (ring); fár – fǣr (fear); dauþr – dēaþ (death); eall – allr (all); earm – armr (arm); harpa – hearpe (harp); faðir – fæder (father); fæst – fastr (fast).

7. Account for the difference between the root-vowels in OE and in parallels from other OG languages:

   Gt langiza, OE lenʒra (longer); Gt marei, OHG meri, OE mere (obs. mere, lake); Gt sandian, OE sendan (send); Gt ubils, OE yfel (evil); Gt be-laibian, OE lǣfan (leave); Gt baugian, OE bȳʒan. bieʒan (bend); Gt fulljan, OE fyllan (fill); Gt laisjan – OE lǣran (teach).

8. Which word in each pair could go back to an OE prototype with palatal mutation and which is more likely to have descended from the OE word retaining the original non-mutated vowel? Mind that the spelling may often point to the earlier pronunciation of the word: *old – elder; strong – strength; goose – geese; man – men; full – fill; food – feed; brother – brethren; far – further.*

9. Define the sound values of the letters **f, ð, s** and comment on the system of OE consonant phonemes:

OE heofon, faran, ȝe-faran, hæfde, offrung, ofer (NE heaven, fare, had, offering, over); oððe, oðer, Norð, ðanne (NE other, North, then); sæ, wise, cēosan, cēas (NE sea, knew, choose, chose).

10. What consonant and vowel changes are illustrated by the following pairs of words?

Gt maize – OE māra (more); Gt saljan – OE sellan (sell); Gt kinnus – OE cinn (NE chin); OHG isarn – OE īren (NE iron); O Scand skaft – OE sceaft (shaft).

11. What peculiarities of OE consonants can account for the difference in the sound values of the italicized letters in the following modern words?

s̲and – ri̲s̲e (OE rīsan); hou̲s̲e – hou̲s̲es (OE hūs); ho̲s̲e (OE hosa) – hor̲s̲e (OE hors); t̲h̲ink, ba̲t̲h̲e, pa̲t̲h̲ (OE þyncan, bāðian, pæð).

LECTURE 4

OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR

4.1 GENERAL OVERVIEW

Old English was a synthetic, or inflected type of language. It showed the relations between words and expressed other grammatical meanings mainly with the help of simple (synthetic) grammatical forms. In building grammatical forms Old English employed *grammatical endings, sound interchanges in the root, grammatical prefixes,* and *suppletive formation*. Grammatical endings, or inflections, were certainly the principal form-building means used: they were found in all the parts of speech that could change their form; they were usually used alone but could also occur in combination with other means.

The parts of speech distinguished in OE:the noun, the adjective, the pronoun, the numeral, verb, the adverb, the preposition, the conjunction and the interjection. Grammatical categories are subdivided into *nominal categories*, found in nominal parts of speech and *verbal categories* found chiefly in the finite verb.

Inflected parts of speech possessed certain grammatical categories displayed in formal and semantic correlations and oppositions of grammatical forms. The complexity of Old English grammar can be illustrated in the following table:

Table 4.1. Old English Definite Article

	Masculine Singular	**Neuter Singular**	**Feminine Singular**	**Plural**
Nominative	se	þæt	sēo	þā
Genitive	þæs	þæs	þære	þāra
Dative	þæm	þæm	þære	þæm
Accusative	þone	þæt	þā	þā
Instrumental	þy	þy		

An indefinite article was absent in Old English (Modern "a"/"an"). The modern variant is derived from the word "one".

4.2 NOMINAL AND VERBAL GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES

Nominal grammatical categories in Old English are: **number, case, gender, degrees of comparison,** and **the category of definiteness / indefiniteness.**

The number of members in the same grammatical categories in different parts of speech did not necessarily coincide: thus the noun had four cases: **Nominative**, **Genitive**, **Dative**, and **Accusative**, whereas the adjective had five (the same four cases plus the **Instrumental** case). The personal pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p., unlike other parts of speech, distinguished three numbers – **Singular**, **Plural** and **Dual**.

Verbal grammatical categories were not numerous: **Tense** and **Mood** – verbal categories proper. Also **Number** and **Person** showed agreement between the verb-predicate and the subject of the sentence.

4.3 NOUNS

Old English nouns had two grammatical or morphological categories: **number** and **case**. In addition, nouns distinguished **three genders**, but this distinction was not a grammatical category; it was merely a classifying feature accounting, alongside other features, for the division of nouns into morphological classes.

Table 4.2. Old English Noun Declension

		Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Singular	Nom.	stān	scip	sorʒ
	Gen.	stānes	scipes	sorʒe
	Dat.	stāne	scipe	sorʒe
	Acc.	stān	scip	sorʒe
Plural	Nom.	stānas	scipu	sorʒa/sorʒe
	Gen.	stāna	scipa	sorʒa
	Dat.	stānum	scipum	sorʒu
	Acc.	stānas	scipu	sorʒa/sorʒe

The category of number consisted of two members: **singular** and **plural**.

The noun had four cases: **Nominative**, **Genitive**, **Dative** and **Accusative**. In most declensions two, or even three, forms were homonymous, so that the formal distinction of cases was less consistent than that of numbers.

The total number of **declensions**, including both the major and minor types, exceeded twenty-five. All in all there were only ten distinct endings (plus some phonetic variants of these endings) and a few relevant root-vowel interchanges used in the noun paradigms; yet every morphological class had either its own specific endings or a specific succession of markers.

4.4 PRONOUNS

Table 4.3. Old English Personal Pronouns

Old English Personal Pronouns						
Number	**Case**	**1ˢᵗ Person**	**2ⁿᵈ Person**	**3ʳᵈ Person**		
				Masc.	**Neut.**	**Fem.**
Singular	**Nom.**	ic	þū	hē	hit	hēo
	Gen.	mīn	þīn	his	his	hire
	Dat.	mē	þē	him	him	hire
	Acc.	mē, mec	þē, þec	hine	hit	hīe
Plural	**Nom.**	wē	ȝē	hīe		
	Gen.	ūre	ēower	hira		
	Dat.	ūs	ēow	him		
	Acc.	ūs	ēow	hīe		

Old English pronouns fell roughly under the same main classes as modem pronouns: **personal**, **demonstrative**, **interrogative** and **indefinite**. As for the other

groups (relative, possessive and reflexive) they were as yet not fully developed and were not always distinctly separated from the four main classes.

The grammatical categories of the pronouns were either similar to those of nouns (in "noun-pronouns") or corresponded to those of adjectives (in "adjective pronouns"). Some features of pronouns were peculiar to them alone.

4.4.1 PERSONAL PRONOUNS

OE personal pronouns had three **persons**, three***numbers** in the 1st and 2nd p. (two numbers – in the 3rd) and three **genders** in the 3rd p. The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd p. had suppletive forms like their parallels in other IE languages.

*– Old English had **dual** forms for the pronoun, but they died out during the OE period.

4.4.2 DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

There were two demonstrative pronouns in OE: the prototype of NE that, which distinguished three genders in the singular and had one form for all the genders in the plural and the prototype of this with the same subdivisions: *Þes* (masc.), *Þeos* (fem)., *Þis* (neut.) and *Þas* pl.

They were declined like adjectives according to a five-case system. The second group of demonstrative pronouns were weak forms that began to lose their lexical meaning: *sē* (masc.), *sēo* (fem.), *Þæt (neutr.)*

4.5 ADJECTIVES

The adjective in Old English could change for **number**, **gender** and **case**. Adjectives followed fairly similar declensions to the nouns. In addition, there was a distinction of "weak" versus "strong" use of adjectives. An adjective uses weak declension if it follows a demonstrative pronoun, possessive adjective, genitive noun, or noun phrase, otherwise it uses strong declension.

Like nouns, adjectives had three genders and two numbers. The category of case in adjectives differed from that of nouns: in addition to the four cases of nouns they had one more case, Instrumental. It was used when the adjective served

as an attribute to a noun in the Dat. case expressing an instrumental meaning – e.g.: *lytle werede* with (the help of) a *small troop*.

Table4.4. OE Strong Adjective Declensions

Old English Strong Adjective Declension				
		Masculine	**Neuter**	**Feminine**
Singular	**Nom.**	ӡōd	ӡōd	ӡōd
	Gen.	ӡōd**es**	ӡōd**es**	ӡōd**re**
	Dat.	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**re**
	Acc.	ӡōd**ne**	ӡōd	ӡōd**e**
	Instr.	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**re**
Plural	**Nom.**	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**e**, ӡōd	ӡōd**e**, ӡōd**a**
	Gen.	ӡōd**ra**	ӡōd**ra**	ӡōd**ra**
	Dat.	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**
	Acc.	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**e**, ӡōd	ӡōd**e**, ӡōd**a**
	Instr.	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**

Table 4.5. OE Weak Adjective Declension

Old English Weak Adjective Declension				
		Masculine	**Neuter**	**Feminine**
Singular	**Nom.**	ӡōd**a**	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**e**
	Gen.	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**
	Dat.	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**
	Acc.	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**e**	ӡōd**an**
Plural	**Nom.**	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**
	Gen.	ӡōd**ra, -ena**	ӡōd**ra, -ena**	ӡōd**ra, -ena**
	Dat.	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**	ӡōd**um**
	Acc.	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**	ӡōd**an**

As an example, if you wanted to say "I see (a) good dog", it would be: Ic sēo ӡōd**ne** hund. In this example "good dog" is masculine, singular, accusative. It uses the strong declension because there is no other determiner before the noun phrase "good dog".

To see difference from the strong declension example above, we can change the sentence by adding determiner before the adjective, necessitating the use of the

weak adjective form. Thus "I see **the** good dog" would be: Ic sēo þone ʒōd**an** hund.

4.6 NUMERALS

The numbers *ān*, *twēgen* and *þrīe* were declined like adjectives (i.e. they took on gender, case and number endings when they came before a noun), as were the ordinal numerals. The various forms of *two* and *three* in the following table are used for the different adjective declensions.

Table 4.6. Old English Numerals

1	ān	20	twentiʒ
2	twēʒen, twā, tū	21	ān and twentiʒ
3	þrīe, þrēo	30	þrēotiʒ, þrītiʒ
4	fēower	40	fēowertiʒ
5	fif	50	fiftiʒ
6	siex	60	siextiʒ
7	seofon	70	hundseofontiʒ
8	eahta	80	hundeahtatiʒ
9	niʒon	90	hundniʒontiʒ
10	tīen	100	hundtēontiʒ, hund, hundred
11	endleofan	200	tū hund
12	twelf	1000	þūsend
13	þrēotīene	2000	tū þūsendu

4.7 VERBS

Old English verbs were characterized by many peculiar features. Though the verb had few grammatical categories, its paradigm had a very complicated structure: verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety

of form-building means. There were two principal means for forming verb-stems in Old English: by means of **vowel interchange** of the root vowel and by means of **suffixation**. Thus all the forms of the verb were **synthetic** as analytical forms were only beginning to appear.

The non-finite forms had little in common with the finite forms but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

There are also separate classes within both the **strong** and **weak** paradigms, each with slight variations. However, the examples below (Tables 4.7–11) give you an idea of what each conjugation looks like. A few things to note are: the plural forms are always the same for all three numbers; the plural endings are the same in both weak and strong conjugations.

4.7.1 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF FINITE VERBS

Finite forms regularly distinguished between two numbers: **singular** and **plural**. The homonymy of forms in the verb paradigm did not affect number distinctions: opposition through number was never neutralized.

The category of **Person** was made up of three forms: the 1st, the 2nd and the 3rd. Unlike number, person distinctions were *neutralized* in many positions. Person was consistently shown only in the Present Tense of the Ind. Mood. In the Past Tense sg of the Ind. Mood the forms of the 1st and 3rd p. coincided and only the 2nd p. had a distinct form. Person was not distinguished in the pl; nor was it shown in the Subj. Mood.

The category of Mood was constituted by the **Indicative**, **Imperative** and **Subjunctive**. The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorial forms, **Present** and **Past**. The tenses were formally distinguished by all the verbs in the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods, there being practically no instances of neutralization of the tense opposition.

Table 4.7. Old English Strong Verb Conjugation

Old English Strong Verb Conjugation: sinȝan (to sing)			
Infinitive:	sinȝan	**Past Participle:**	ȝesunȝen
Present Participle:	sinȝende	**Imperative:**	sinȝ, sinȝaþ
Indicative		**Subjunctive**	
Present	**Past**	**Present**	**Past**
ic sinȝe	ic sanȝ	ic sinȝe	ic sunȝe
þū sinȝest	þū sunȝe	þū sinȝe	þū sunȝe
hē sinȝeþ	hē sanȝ	hē sinȝe	hē sunȝe
wē sinȝaþ	wē sunȝon	wē sinȝen	wē sunȝen
ȝē sinȝaþ	ȝē sunȝon	ȝē sinȝen	ȝē sunȝen
hīe sinȝaþ	hīe sunȝon	hīe sinȝen	hīe sunȝen

Table 4.8. Old English Weak Verb Conjugation

Old English Weak Verb Conjugation: lufian (to love)			
Infinitive:	lufian	**Past Participle:**	ȝelufod
Present Participle:	lufiende	**Imperative:**	lufa, lufiaþ
Indicative		**Subjunctive**	
Present	**Past**	**Present**	**Past**
ic lufie	ic lufode	ic lufie	ic lufode
þū lufast	þū lufodest	þū lufie	þū lufode
hē lufaþ	hē lufode	hē lufie	hē lufode
wē lufiaþ	wē lufodon	wē lufien	wē lufoden
ȝē lufiaþ	ȝē lufodon	ȝē lufien	ȝē lufoden
hīe lufiaþ	hīe lufodon	hīe lufien	hīe lufoden

Table 4.9. Morphological classification of verbs in Old English by A. Smirnitskiy

Strong verbs	Weak verbs	Other verbs
I, II, III, IV, V, VI, VII classes	I, II, III classes	suppletive irregular (anomalous) preterite-present verbs

Table 4.10. Classes of Strong Verbs

Stems	I stem	II stem	III stem	IV stem
Class	Infinitive/Present	Past Singular	Past Plural	Past Participle
I	rīsan *(rise)*	rās	rison	risen
II	cēosan *(choose)*	cēas	curon	coren
III	bindan *(bind)*	band	bundon	bunden
IV	teran *(tear)*	tær	tǣron	toren
V	etan *(eat)*	æt	ǣton	eten
VI	scacan *(shake)*	scōc	scōcon	scacen
VII	hātan *(call)*	hēt	hēton	hāten

Table 4.11. Classes of Weak Verbs

Classes	Infinitive	Past Singular	Past Participle
I	dēman *(deem)*	dēmde	dēmed
I	fyllan *(fill)*	fyllde	fylled
II	lufian *(love)*	lufode	lufod
II	lōcian *(look)*	lōcode	lōcod

There was a group of strong verbs which in the pre-written period lost some of their forms and preserved the others, changing their lexical and grammatical meaning. Forms historically past changed so as to become present in meaning. These verbs are called preterite-present, for in the written period they build their present tense forms from the original past (preterite) ones. The new past tense

forms of these verbs in Old English are built with the help of dental suffixation, like weak verbs. The majority of preterite-present verbs are defective verbs – they don't have all the forms of regular verbs, which lost their connection with the other forms and were dropped.

4.7.2 THE CATEGORY OF TENSE

The category of Tense in OE consisted of two categorical forms, **Present** and **Past**. The Past tense (also **Preterite tense**) was used in a most general sense to indicate various events in the past (including those which are nowadays expressed by the forms of the Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Present Perfect and other analytical forms). Additional shades of meaning could be attached to it in different contexts

4.7.3 GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES OF VERBALS

In many respects verbals were closer to the nouns and adjectives than to the finite verb; their nominal features were far more obvious than their verbal features, especially at the morphological level. Thus **present participle** was more used as a verbal adjective, not as an auxiliary to form progressive tenses. The present participle of the verb in OE was formed by adding "-ende" to the verb stem (helpan > helpende).

The **past participle** was formed by optionally prefixing "ȝe-" to the stem of a strong verb, with a possible vowel change in the stem, and a suffix "-en", e.g. hǣlen > ȝehǣled (to heal, weak verb); wrītan > ȝewriten (to write, strong verb).

The **infinitive** in OE was represented by a single word and usually ended in "-an" (but some common verbs simply ended in "-n"), e.g. *helpan* (to help), *þencan* (to think) and *tuon* (to do). The stem could be derived by simply taking the "-(a)n" ending off the infinitive. In Modern English the present participle can be used as a verbal noun (called a "gerund"), e.g. *seeing is believing*. Old English used an infinitive for this purpose.

Cædmon's *Hymn*

A short Old English poem originally composed by Cædmon, in honour of God the Creator. It survives in a Latin translation by Bede in his *Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum* and in vernacular versions written down in several manuscripts of Bede's *Historia*.

Like many Old English and Anglo-Latin pieces, it was designed to be sung aloud and was never physically recorded by Cædmon himself, but was written and preserved by other literate individuals. The *Hymn* itself was composed between 658 and 680, recorded in the earlier part of the 8th century, and survives today in at least 19 verified manuscript copies. The *Hymn* is Cædmon's sole surviving composition.

Old English	Modern English Translation
Nū scylun hergan hefaenrīcaes Uard,	Now [we] must honour the guardian of heaven,
metudæs maecti end his mōdgidanc,	the might of the architect, and his purpose,
uerc Uuldurfadur, suē hē uundra gihwaes,	the work of the father of glory[1]
ēci dryctin ōr āstelidæ	as he, the eternal lord, established the beginning of wonders;
hē ǣrist scōp aelda barnum	he first created for the children of men[2]
heben til hrōfe, hāleg scepen.	heaven as a roof, the holy creator
Thā middungeard moncynnæs Uard,	Then the guardian of mankind,
eci Dryctin, æfter tīadæ	the eternal lord, afterwards appointed the middle earth,
firum foldu, Frēa allmectig.	the lands for men,[3] the Lord almighty.

NOTES

1. This is the traditional translation of these lines, in agreement with Bede's Latin version. An alternative translation of the *eorðan* and *aelda* texts, however, understands *weorc* as the subject: "Now the works of the father of glory must

honour the guardian of heaven, the might of the architect, and his mind's purpose".

2. This is the reading of the West-Saxon *ylda* and Northumbrian *aelda* recensions. The West-Saxon *eorðan*, Northumbrian *eordu*, and with some corruption, the West-Saxon *eorðe* recensions would be translated "for the children of earth".

3. The Northumbrian *eordu* and West-Saxon *ylda* and *eorðe* recensions would be translated "for men among the lands" at this point.

SEMINAR 4
OLD ENGLISH GRAMMAR

GLOSSARY

Synthetic type of language   Verbal categories

Suppletive formation   Case system

Nominal categories   Declension system

QUESTIONS

1. Why do we call Old English a synthetic language?
2. What parts of speech were present in Old English?
3. What nominal and verbal categories were present in Old English?
4. Give a full comment on the each of the OE parts of speech.
5. Speak on the differences between the categories of case, number and gender in nouns, pronouns and adjectives.
6. Compare the grammatical categories of finite and non-finite forms.

PRACTICE

Ex. 1. Write the following numbers in Old English: 14, 16, 18, 25, 27, 39, 48, 111, 212, 355, 356, 777, 1066, 1258, 1972, 2013.

Ex. 2. Conjugate the following strong verbs: wrītan (write, class I), drincan (drink, class III), helpan (help, class III), wesan (be, class V).

Ex. 3. Conjugate the following weak verbs: lōcaian (look), macian (make).

LECTURE 5

MIDDLE ENGLISH

The Non-Standard Period (1066/1100–1350)

5.1 DYNASTIC CONFLICT AND THE NORMAN CONQUEST

The dynastic conflicts of the early eleventh century continued in 1066 with the death of Edward the Confessor. His successor was King Harold. However, both the Norwegians under King Harald III and the Normans under William, who maintained he had been promised the throne by Edward, also claimed the crown. Harold successfully defeated Norwegian King Harald and his English and Scottish allies in the North at Stamford Bridge.

Immediately after the battle he learned that William and his forces had landed in Kent and hurried south to meet him in battle. The two armies fought with each other at Hastings, and in the conflict Harold and his brothers were killed. With this outcome William was able to have himself crowned king of England at Christmas in 1066 and to begin a major reshuffling of feudal lordships. The dynastic events of 1066 can be found in *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (link: Anglo-Saxon Chronicle).

Without doubt the Norman Conquest (link: Norman Conquest) had a massive effect on **vocabulary**, changed patterns of **word formation**, and altered the **phonological structure** of the language. Literary norms changed as well. All of this seems to be the result of the presence of well-educated and powerful Normans in influential positions.

The overwhelming majority of the feudal overlords were from Normandy, and relatively few were native to England. Most of the high church leaders were French as well. French itself was the language of the upper classes for about 200 years, though bilingualism was certain to be practiced.

The increased presence of French books and laws and other documents in French or Latin made these languages more accessible and led, ultimately, to large-scale **borrowing** from these languages into English.

In 1258 appeared *the Provisions of Oxford* (link: Provisions of Oxford), which was the first proclamation since the Norman Conquest to be issued not only in

French and Latin but in English as well (under Henry III). Under Henry III's successor, Edward I (1272–1307), most office-holders were English.

Text 5.1. Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle (c. 1300)

MiddleEnglish
þus com lo engelond. in to normandies hond. & þe normans ne couþe speke þo. bote hor owe speche. & speche french as hii dude at om. & hor children dude also teche. so þat heiemen of þis lond. þat of hor blod come. holdeþ alle þulk speche, þat hii of hom nome. vor bote a man conne frenss, me telþ of him lute. ac lowe men holdeþ to engliss. & to hor owe speche ȝute. ich wen eþer ne beþ in al þe world. contreyes none, þat ne holdeþ to hor owe speche, bote engelond one.
ModernEnglish
Thus came, lo! England into Normandy's hand And the Normans didn't know how to speak then but their own speech And spoke French as they did at home, and their children did also teach; So that high men of this land that of their blood came Have all the same speech that they took from them. For but a man know French men count of him little. But low men hold to English and to their kind of speech yet. I think there are in all the world no countries That don't hold to their kind of speech but England only.

One of the consequences of the re-emergence of English was the decline of French. Novices at Canterbury and Westminster were forbidden to use English; the University of Oxford required students to know both French and English. From 1250 on manuals appeared which were intended to help the teaching of French. Nevertheless, English as a written language and the use of English in the courts

and in Parliament was not to become established until the middle of the fourteenth century. By the fifteenth century English would be normal in both public and private dealings even though French would still remain the language of Court and of some elements in the upper class.

5.2 LINGUISTIC SITUATION IN THE NON-STANDARD PERIOD

In the 200 years after the Norman Conquest there was no concept of a standard English. This probably opened the language to more rapid change at all levels because it removed the influence of written language, which is generally conservative. In the period after 1250 the concept of Englishness was growing stronger. In this sense the gradual reintroduction of English as a written language of public record may best be regarded as the restoration less of a standard than a national language.

Table 5.1. Domains of French borrowings

fashion	*Gown, robe, cape, frock, petticoat, etc.*
art and literature	*Art, painting, music, beauty, poet, romance, story, etc.*
learning	*Medicine, physician, study, grammar, logic, geometry, etc.*
law and administration	*Jury, verdict, sentence, fine, prison; govern, administer, crown, state, realm, royal, court, council, parliament, etc.*
military	*Army, navy, battle, combat, siege, peace, etc.*
church	*Sermon, sacrament, baptism, chaplain, parson, pastor, vicar, etc.*

Early ME underwent significant change due to the massive influx of new vocabulary, chiefly from French, but also from Low Dutch and Latin. French borrowing led to major restructuring of English vocabulary. It had already taken place before the Conquest even though then and immediately afterwards it was not very rapid. There was a slight increase from 1150 to 1200 and then a more rapid increase from 1200 to 1250. But then loans poured in and this continued until the

end of the fourteenth century. This ran strikingly parallel to the move to English by upper classes after the loss of Normandy. All in all over 10,000 words were borrowed from French in ME period.

It would be slightly misleading to assume that only French and Latin fed the vocabulary of ME. Words from **Low Dutch** (Flemish, Dutch, Low German) contributed quite a few words to ME. Large numbers of Flemings went to England over the years, including mercenaries, traders, and craftsmen (weavers). Among borrowings – all told some 2500 words. For example, items from areas of textiles (*cambric, nap, duck*); shipping (*boom, bowsprit, commodore, deck, dock, freight, lighter, rover)*; art (*easel, etching, landscape*); and money (*dollar, groat, guilder, mart*).

While borrowing introduced the majority of new lexical units in the language, word formation patterns were active as well: derivation (*tell-tale, mouth-oral, hear-auditory*) and compounding (*heiemen*). Prefixes {over-, under-, up-, down-, out-} and suffixes {-ness, -ful, -less, -ish} were highly productive. Prefixes {for-, to-, ge-} fell out of use. In addition, new prefixes were adopted into the language, e. g. {counter-, dis-, re-, trans-}, as were Latinate suffixes such as {-able, -ible, -ent, -al, -ous, -ive}. The presence of a large number of non-native words employing a different set of affixes and using different stress patterns has had a lasting effect on the morphology and phonology of English.

FURTHERREADING

1. Аракин В. Д. *История английского языка: Учебное пособие.* – 2-е изд. – М.: ФИЗМАТЛИТ, 2003. – С. 110–112.
2. Резник Р. В., Сорокина Т. А., Резник И. В. *A History of the English Language. История английского языка: Учебное пособие.* – М.: Флинта: Наука, 2001. – С. 48–63.

SEMINAR 5

MIDDLE ENGLISH

The Non-Standard Period (1066/1100–1350)

GLOSSARY

The Scandinavian Invasion

Danelaw

The Norman Conquest

Edward the Confessor

Harold Godwinson (King Harold II)

William the Conqueror

Battle of Hastings

Anglo-Saxon Chronicles

Provisions of Oxford

QUESTIONS

1. How did Scandinavian Invasions happen? What was the linguistic influence?
2. Comment on the dynastic conflict and the Norman Conquest.
3. How did the Norman Conquest influence the linguistic situation on the British Isles?
4. Comment on the contents and the importance of Provisions of Oxford.
5. How did French begin to lose its dominant status?
6. Comment on the borrowings during the Early Middle English period.
7. What word formation patterns were productive in Middle English?

LECTURE 6
MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONETICS&GRAMMAR
The Non-Standard Period (1066/1100–1350)

6.1 PHONETICS

The high degree of lexical borrowing from French supported the evolution of new phonemes. Contact with and borrowing of words with the **phonotactic** features (link: Phonotactics) of French led to contrasts between initial voiced and voiceless fricatives, where OE tended to have voiceless initial /f/ and /s/ and voiced medial /v/ and /z/. This complementary distribution came to an end when loan words with initial voicing or medial non-voicing were adopted. Most conspicuous was the presence of initial /v-/ in words borrowed from French, which led the way to meaning distinctions between words with /f-/ and those with /v-/, compare ModE *fan – van*. The sound /x/ begins to disappear, becoming /f/ or zero as in ModE *dough* /dou – dəʊ/, *cough* /kɔ:f – kɒf/.

The changes in the vowels and the **vowel system** in the ME period are very complex. There are somewhat less obvious changes such as the cases where /1, r, n, m/ + voiced consonant resulted in vowel lengthening or **diphthongization**, for example in OE *cild* "child" original /i/ becomes /i:/ (and later /ai/). This did not occur if a third consonant followed, hence *cildru* "children" has /i/ (and later /ɪ/). In opposite fashion long *ē* shortened before double consonants. For example, *mētan – mētte* developed into "meet" – "met"). A much more far-reaching development was **Open-Syllable Lengthening** (link: Open-Syllable Lengthening), the general lengthening of vowels in open syllables in this period, especially in the South. This meant that /a/, /e/, and /ɔ/ as in *faren* "fare," *spere* "spear," and *boren* "borne" became long /a:/, /e:/, and /ɔ:/ in open syllables. In addition, more and more unstressed vowels were realized as /ə/ (schwa) or lost in final position.

6.2 SPELLING

The orthographic system introduced in connection with the **standardization** of West Saxon continued to be practiced after the Conquest. However, the surviving

standard was no longer prestigious and gradually grew outdated by change. A number of conventions began to shift, probably largely due to contact with French. Although no standard emerged in the early ME period, it is possible to see some more or less general effects. One of these is that non-Latin letters fell into disuse:

- ȝ begins to cede to **g** and **i**;
- **þ&ð** to be replaced by **th**;
- æ increasingly to interchange with **e** or **a**;
- **u**, **uu**, and **w** are used instead of **ƿ**;
- **y** would be used as a consonant for /j/.

Independent of these considerations **k** began to come into use, especially where **c** + **e, i** would lead to misinterpretation as /s/ rather than /k/.

Among the grapheme combinations OE **hw** for /hw/ was somewhat illogically reversed to **wh**, probably under the influence of other combinations which used **h** as a diacritic (link: Diacritic), especially **th**, **ch**, and **sh/sch**.

6.3 GRAMMAR

There was a great deal of grammatical change in the ME period:

- the decay and large-scale loss of inflectional endings;
- nouns lost distinctions in case and gender due to altered pronunciation;
- adjectives lost their number marking in most cases;
- adverbs which were derived from adjectives in OE with the inflection {a} were marked by a final {-e} (e.g. *faire < fair*), by no ending at all (*pleyn*), or by {-ly} (earlier {-liche}) (*trewely*);
- leveling of inflectional **a**, **o**, **u**, **e** to schwa;
- consequently (between X and XIV centuries): **-a**, **-u**, **-e**, **-an**, **-um** all show up as **-e** (e.g. *muðum → muðun → muðu → muðe*);
- the most common declension of OE, which followed the pattern for "stone" *stan, stanes, stane, stan* (nom., gen., dat., acc. sg.) and *stanas, stana, stanum, stanas* (plur.), was eventually reduced to two forms – *stan* and *stanes*.

There was a shift from synthetic to ***analytic*** structure, that is, from a syntactic system which was highly dependent on inflectional endings with less strictly fixed word order to a system with few endings and highly prescribed word order. The new word order, whose default setting was SVO (Subject-Verb-Object), led to the gradual abandonment of SOV, which was frequent in dependent clauses in OE. There was also a move to greater use of periphrastic verb structures, such as the progressive and the perfect, that is, ones which depended more on auxiliaries than on mood and tense inflections.

6.4 VERBS

The verb was also affected by inflectional change and loss. Leveling, often by the process of analogy, led to a reduction in the number of strong, that is, irregular, verbs: almost one-third of them had become regular by the ME period, for example OE *helpan – healp – hulpon – holpen* became *help – helped – helped.*

Table 6.1. Present tense verb inflections

	South		North	
	Indicative	**Subjunctive**	**Indicative**	**Subjunctive**
1ˢᵗ sg.	-e	-e	ø (-is)	ø
2ⁿᵈ	-(e)st	-e	-is	ø
3ʳᵈ	-eth	-e	-is	ø
pl.	-eth	-e(n)	-is	ø

In OE bēon + present participle is ambiguous and may be a main verb followed by a participial adjective or may already be a ***progressive***. In ME this sequence can be regarded as a structural unit because *ben* is seldom separated from the main verb by other elements. The loss of such prefixes as {a-, be-, ge-} may have given impetus to the progressive as a way of expressing on-going activity or durative aspect. Two separate OE constructions have been suggested as the sources: *he was huntende* and *he was on huntunge*.

In OE the auxiliary of the perfect was *habben/hauen* or *ben*, but the former was ousting the latter. In Havelok we find both, for example *Quanne he **havede** this pleinte maked* "when he had made this complaint", *Quanne he **weren** alle set* "when they had all sat".

The modal verbs *shal, wil, may, mot(e), can* and others were taking on morphological and syntactic features which distinguished them more and more from lexical verbs. *Shal* and *wil* (sometimes *mot(e)* "may") rapidly developed into future **markers**, even though **shal** was tinged with obligation and **wil** with volition.

Prepositions began to be employed more widely as the older functions of case retreated into the background. Consequently, their number, which was relatively small in OE, grew in the early ME period. Sources of new prepositions were both ON and French:

1. Old Norse:

    new *fro*; increased use of *at* and *with*;

2. French:

    countre, maugre, sans, save; partly anglicized *during, excepting, touching,* calqued *notwithstanding* (OF/Latin non obstant); increased use of *at.*

In expands its scope, probably under the influence of Latin *in* and French *en*, encroaching on the territory of *on* (e.g. *on his daʒum* becomes *in his days*). Several of the prepositions take over functions once carried by case alone. *Of* is increasingly used for the genitive. Functions of the dative such as the marking of the indirect object, in contrast, were now more often carried by the use of the prepositions *to* and *for*. However, verbs with dative objects, ones such as OE *helpan* "help" or *folgian* "follow, obey," now took direct objects. The prepositional dative, that is, to give something to someone, still rare in continuation of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, grew to 10% of total in the 13th century.

Further important changes in the early ME period were the **loss of dual** *wit* and *ʒit* by the end of the 12th century as well as the continuing **neutralization** of the dative and accusative cases.

Table 6.2. Case neutralization in early ME period

	Case	Old English	Middle English
Masculine	Dative	*him*	*him*
	Accusative	*hine*	
Feminine	Dative	*hire*	*hire*
	Accusative	*hīe*	
Neuter	Dative	*him*	*hit*
	Accusative	*hit*	
Plural (all persons)	Dative	*hem*	*hem* (North: *them*)
	Accusative	*hīe*	

The pronominal prop-word *(o)on* "one" is essentially new in the early ME period. In ME this use of one follows an adjective, e.g. *a mochefelde, / so grete one neuerhe behold* – "... a large field, so great a **one** he never had beheld."

Relative pronouns underwent changes as well. Animacy (as with *who/which*) was less relevant in OE, where grammatical gender was used. The *wh*-relatives (*whom, whose, which*) date from early ME, but were rare in 12th and still infrequent in 13th centuries.

SEMINAR 6
MIDDLE ENGLISH PHONETICS&GRAMMAR
The Non-Standard Period (1066/1100–1350)

GLOSSARY

Phonotactics

Open-Syllable Lengthening

Diacritic

Neutralization

QUESTIONS

1. How did French borrowings influence ME phonetics?
2. How did the vowel system of ME change?
3. Comment on the ME spelling.
4. Comment on the general changes in ME grammar.
5. What happened to the structure of English?
6. How did inflections of the verb change?
7. Comment on the ME progressive, auxiliaries and modal verbs.
8. By what means was the 4-case system substituted?
9. How did ME pronoun change?

<div align="center">

LECTURE 7

MIDDLE ENGLISH

The Emergence of Standard English (1350–1500)

</div>

7.1 POLITICAL AND SOCIAL BACKGROUND

After a period of relative stability in the thirteenth century with population growth in England to unprecedented levels – estimated at 6 million or even as many as 7 million, the fourteenth century brought political and social turmoil and population losses. ***The Great Famine*** of 1315–1317 led to malnutrition and weaker resistance to disease and a decline in the population by as much as 10%. This had as one of its results labor shortages and a lower level of agricultural productivity; and this tended to lead to a kind of vicious circle. Then at mid-century (1348 onwards) the first major incursion of the bubonic plague reached England. The results of the ***Plague***, or Black Death, as it is also known, were a drop in population size of anywhere between 20% and 50% of the English population. The decline continued until 1420, and numbers only began rising again in the late fifteenth century.

A second major factor in this period was the dynastic conflict between the French and the English crown, most especially the ***Hundred Years' War*** (1337–1453). The upshot was the loss of almost all the holdings of England on the Continent. The French language had clearly been in decline in thirteenth century England. By the end of the Hundred Years' War and in part because of the nationalistic sentiments and resentments toward France that the war engendered, French was no longer a realistic option even among the English nobility, where it was increasingly artificial. Consequently, French continued to be used by the educated and in high society but was a matter of culture and fashion rather than an economic or political necessity as it had once been. In the fifteenth century it virtually disappeared as a language of everyday communication.

7.1.1 THE WARS OF THE ROSES (1455-1485)

The political and social unrest of the fourteenth century continued after the end of the Hundred Years' War in the form of dynastic struggle between the House of

York and the House of Lancaster. The two sides differed only inasmuch as York was supported by the commercial classes in London and – in the case of Edward IV (1342–1383) – by Parliament. John of Gaunt (1340–1399), the Duke of Lancaster and virtual ruler of England under Richard II, gave some backing to Wycliffe (see below), perhaps because of the latter's criticism of Church interference in State matters and hence providing some support for religious and language change, but exacerbated social unrest by introducing the unpopular poll tax. Whatever else might be said, the series of wars that go under this name sped up the weakening of feudal power and strengthened the merchant classes since the wars further thinned the ranks of the feudal nobility and facilitated in this way the easier rise of ambitious and able people from the middle ranks of society. When the conflict was settled under Henry VII, a Lancastrian and a Tudor, power was essentially centralized. From the point of view of the language, this meant that the standard which had begun to emerge in the early fourteenth century would continue with a firm base in the usage which had been crystallizing in the London area at least since Henry IV (reign 1399–1413). the first king since the OE period who was a native speaker of English.

7.1.2 LOLLARDY

At the same time as the Hundred Years' War and the subsequent Wars of the Roses England underwent a considerable amount of religious innovation which was not only an expression of social change, but also contributed to changing attitudes toward language. Most notable was the ***Lollard*** movement. The chief concern of the Lollards was to initiate change in the Medieval Church. This meant, among other things, challenging the role of Latin, which as a language accessible to the few only was a means of control over the many, that is, the people. Lollardy was an important current starting in the fourteenth and continuing in the fifteenth centuries. It converged in the 1380s with the mass dissatisfaction that led to the Peasants' Revolt and gained support from it.

The word *Lollard* may have been derived from the ***Dutch*** word *lollaert* "mumbler, mutterer," meant to be a contemptuous designation of people without

58

Latin learning. The movement was concerned with ridding the Church of corruption and aimed at greater separation of Church and State, such as not allowing priests to fill secular offices. The Lollards also favored having lay priests and more participation in the church by the laity.

A major focal point in the movement was John Wycliffe's (1320s–1384) translation of the Bible into English. Such a translation was resisted by the authorities, but indicated the presence of a growing reading public, which surely increased with the availability of an English version of the Bible. Indeed, Lollard English may be seen as one of the important strands which fed into the incipient written standard. The translation was completed in or around 1382, making it contemporaneous with the Peasants' Revolt and the late writing of Geoffrey Chaucer, that is, the *Canterbury Tales* (1385–1400). Wycliffe's work may also be reflected in *Piers Plowman*.

7.2 THE EXPANSION OF DOMAINS

In the late thirteenth and early fourteenth centuries English took over more and more functions once reserved for Latin or French. Latin had been the language of law and the State as well as of the Church. Statutes appeared in Latin till about 1300, then in French. Parliament used French till about 1423 for petitions, from 1485 on in English and French and only in English after 1489. The turning point seems to have been the reign of Henry V (1413–1422), perhaps because of pride in the victory over the French at Agincourt. English was again used officially, especially by the royal bureaucracy, after 1420.

The middle class grew from the fourteenth century on as the number of manufacturers, traders, and merchants increased. They were not rural, but based in London and other towns. Although they were international in outlook, we find that the London guilds used English (not Latin) for records from the 1380s on; in 1384 a municipal London proclamation appeared in English. The earliest known will in English comes in the year 1383. London brewers began using it in 1422, and from the 1430s on more and more towns and guilds adopted English. It seems to have

been in general use by 1450. The earliest personal correspondence in English available today comes from the late fourteenth century, but the Paston letters and Stonor correspondence (from 1420–1430) provide a wider basis for information about private usage.

7.2.1 THE DECLINE OF LATIN

Latin was the major non-English language in England in this period, especially as the use of French decreased. It was the written standard not only in England, of course, but throughout Western Christianity. As the preceding section has shown, its prominence in religion was being challenged, but it remained the language of record, for example for court documents; and it was the language of learned discourse. Yet in this period and the EModE period it lost its primacy in all of these areas. As Caxton wrote, "*For the mooste quantyte of the people understonde not latyn ne frensshe here in this noble royame of englond*." Its cultivation was due to its prestige as the language of religion and learning.

7.2.2 DE HERETICO COMBURENDO

In 1401, under Henry IV, this law, "On the burning (at the stake) of heretics," prohibited the translation of the Bible into English. The Western (Catholic) Church had itself forbidden **vernacular** translations at the Synod of Toulouse (1229); however, this ban was widely ignored elsewhere, but not in England where the idea of independent reading was associated with translation and the Lollards. Heretics were said to undermine the conservative establishment by "setting up schools, writing books and wickedly instructing and informing the people". This can be understood the way Knowles has phrased it: "Someone reading the English translation was still given an interpretation, but by the translator rather than the priest. A further problem is that the reader could be misled by the meaning of everyday English words, and fail to grasp the exact meaning of the original". While it was legitimate to hold open discussions of these questions, they were to be conducted in Latin. This was clearly a question of power. The Lollards put the independently available Bible in English above the Church. Serious study of the Scriptures might challenge the oral tradition and teaching and hence the authority

of the Church. It was not until the Act of Supremacy under Queen Elizabeth I in 1659 that *de heretico* was repealed.

7.2.3 TRANSLATIONS OF THE BIBLE

In actual fact, Bible translations had been and continued to be made. Examples from the OE period include Bede's translation of the Gospel of John (c. 735) and the Wessextranslation of the gospels of about 990. Wycliffe's translation (1385) was followed by Tyndales. The latter loosed an avalanche of translations:

- Matthew Bible (1537) with royal assent;

- Great Bible (1539), which the nobility could read aloud; which women and merchants could read silently for themselves; and which common people were not allowed to read at all;

- Geneva Bible (1557/60) with Calvinist marginal notes;

- Bishops Bible (1568) authorized by Queen Elizabeth;

- Douay-Rheims (1582) Roman Catholic;

- King James (or Authorized) Version (1611).

The following text is taken from Wycliffe's translation of Genesis, to which three further versions of verse 3 have been added for the sake of comparison: the Latin Vulgate, an earlier Wycliffe translation, and the EModE King James Version (KJV) of 1611. One remarkable point in the early Wycliffe version is how closely the translation followed the ***word order*** of the Latin original. The verb form is of this version also follows Latin est, while the later Wycliffe is freer both in word order and in the use of was for est. In comparison the KJV is still freer. It does not retain the ***subjunctive*** and employs the existential *there-* construction, a structure which only became current in the course of the late ME period.

Text7.1. Excerpt from the Wycliffe translation of the Bible with a comparative example in four versions

1	In the bigynnyng God made of nouȝt heuene and erthe.
2	Forsothe the erthe was idel and voide, and derknessis weren on the face of depthe; and the Spiryt of the Lord was borun on the watris.

3	And God seide, Liȝt be maad, and liȝt was maad.
4	And God seiy the liȝt, that it was good, and he departide the liȝt fro derknessis; and he clepide the ligt,
5	dai, and the derknessis, nyȝt. And the euentid and morwetid was maad, o daie.

Latin Vulgate	*Dixitique Deus fiat lux*	*et facta est lux*
Early Wycliffe	*And God seide, Be maad liȝt;*	*and maad is liȝt*
Later Wycliffe	*And God seide, Liȝt be maad;*	*and liȝt was maad*
King James Version	*And God said, Let there be light:*	*and there was light*

7.2.4 THE EMERGENCE OF A NEW STANDARD

At the beginning of the thirteenth century people from all over England were moving to London and bringing their widely divergent *dialects* with them. Some mythic London English did not just crystallize; rather, a long process of adjustment must have begun. In this situation people's thoughts turned increasingly to the question of standards. Factors that influenced their behavior – whether conscious or not – included *language contact*, social climbing, and education. In the context of the waning feudal system, the emerging middle class, increasing social mobility, the economic and political opportunity offered by the more and more powerful guilds, and the necessity that people understand the law moved English into the center of learned attention.

In the fourteenth century the area south of the Humber River in the East Midlands, where the Black Death had been less severe, was the major population center. This area was also the center of wool and grain exportation in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. In the fifteenth century Yorkshire led in woolens, the northern and western counties in wool, the East Midlands in grain, and London, Norfolk, Essex, and Devon in shipping. In the fifteenth century and continuing into the sixteenth the enclosures were beginning to push more and more people off the land. With the increasing, often involuntary mobility of the population more and more common people from the Midlands and the North went to London, where

many of them eventually took on prominent positions and gave their forms of English a certain currency.

London also attracted more and more people from all parts of the country because it was the center of government and administration and of trade and commerce. At the time of the Black Death London was by far the largest city with a population of about 70,000, followed by Norwich (12,000) and York (10,000). London English was the result of the concentration of power and people in London even though standardization was not carried through in this period. It was less a standard than a national language, that is, an instrument of national identity and loyalty.

7.2.5 THE RISE OF LONDON ENGLISH

The language of London gradually began to take on the force of a standard more and more. Within the city there were two central forces driving *standardization*. The first was the spoken language of everyday life in which a certain degree of leveling or ***koinéization*** was ensuring that London vernacular speech would no longer be a Southern variety, but more a Midlands one laced with numerous Northern features. The second force, known as ***Chancery English***, was more a matter of the written language and was promoted by the government administration, the Chancery. The latter moved more quickly toward what would be Standard English while the former was slower to lose its ME features. The effects of both of these forces were made possible by the extremely fluid social situation in the fourteenth century, which started out with a rigidly structured society, but was changed by the population losses of the Plague and the Hundred Years' War. Increasingly more Midlanders and Northerners were prominent in the London city government. "Most of the northern forms seem to be working their way up from the bottom, probably moving up into the upper-class sociolect as speakers of the dialect move into the upper class". The presence of Caxton's printing press in London, though late in this period (1476), was also to contribute greatly to this London-based standardization. All of the following factors indicate

changes in the economic and political centers of power and allow us to make conclusions about the language forms which were recognized as standard.

With the rise of the lower classes the status of English improved. In the towns and most especially in London a new English-speaking class grew up which was neither noble nor peasant in nature. Here English was adopted fully in the fourteenth century, as the opening lines of *Arthour and Merlin* (before 1325) illustrate. Teaching in English was introduced in the mid-fourteenth century and was the rule by 1385. English was once again used in the law courts of London (1356) and after 1362 in all the courts of the land since French was no longer widely used or understood, as the following text testifies.

7.2.6 LONDON AS A DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC CENTER

The East Midlands was geographically and linguistically well suited for the development of a standard not only because the Midlands are located in the middle but also because its language was not as extreme as that of the innovative North or as conservative as in the South: Midlands sounds and inflections were a kind of compromise. In addition, the East Midlands was not only the most populous but, in this agricultural age, the most prosperous area: almost a quarter of the English population was from Norfolk, Suffolk, and Lincolnshire in the period starting from the Norman Conquest and continuing for 300 years. In contrast, the South was simply smaller, and the North had the disadvantage of being hilly, as was the West. Furthermore, the universities in Oxford and Cambridge, located in the Midlands, were taking over intellectual leadership. The influence of Oxford usage, as seen in the writing of Wycliffe, is disputable. The dialect of Oxfordshire was, in addition, less clearly typical of the East Midlands and had a number of southern features. In any case the Wycliffe standard came into disrepute because of its connection with religious fanaticism. The most important influence on the development of StE seems to have been the language of the Chancery, which was used in official records and in the letters and papers of men of affairs.

The language used in London, but also that of the universities, was especially influential because many people from elsewhere who adopted it carried it back

with them when they returned home, thus spreading it. The changes that London English underwent, be they Midland or Northern in origin, entered the city through the eastern counties. In any case London English was widely accepted as the written standard almost everywhere, though Northern texts might still be recognized as such. Yet the spoken language must have varied considerably as one moved from region to region.

Among the changes attributable to the greater social mobility of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries the **Great Vowel Shift** (GVS) is one of the most prominent. Although it is not clear exactly when this change began, it seems to have had its roots in the period this chapter looks at. Samuels points out that change is likely to be more rapid under conditions of contact due to migration, and that was clearly the case in London in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Furthermore, he argues that the upper classes may have chosen to emphasize those variants of vowels which maintained the distinctions from the lower orders most effectively. Although he exemplifies this in regard to processes of change that took place after the ME period, it may fairly be assumed that the same forces for change were in effect in this period, in which London was expanding so rapidly and which was so potentially threatening to the upper classes.

7.3 CHANCERY ENGLISH (CHANCERY STANDARD)

By the end of the ME period, which is set at 1500 in this book, the most prominent dialect was that of London, a major center of commerce. The strongest influence on this English was exerted by the Chancery. It contained characteristics of the emerging modern standard which stemmed from the Northern dialects: third person plural pronouns starting in *th-*; **adverbs** ending in *-ly* rather than Southern *-lich*. However, Southern *-eth* continued to be used in the third person singular and *be/ben* in the present tense plural; Midlands past participles ending in *-en* were also to be found in it. London vernacular in contrast retained third person plural *her* and *hem* and the occasional **marker** of the past participle with *y-*.

7.3.1 WORD ORDER CHANGES

Word order changes continued throughout this period. Especially remarkable in this period is the gradual move from accusative object before the verb, as a common OE pattern, to accusative object after the verb, which comes to dominate by the end of the ME period.

Table 7.1. Change in verb-object word order

Accusative object	1000	1200	1300	1400	1500
Before verb	52.5%	52.7%	40+%	14.3%	1.87%
After verb	47.5%	46.3%	60-%	85.7%	98.13%

7.4 LITERATURE

The period stretching from the middle of the fourteenth to the end of the fifteenth centuries shows increasing individualization in the areas of literature. While there is still a great deal of writing such as *Sir Gawain and the Green Knight* by unidentified authors, we also have the literature of Chaucer, Langland, Wycliffe, Barbour, Trevisa, and Blind Harry. All of these are exemplified in this chapter or in a link to further texts with the hopes of making Middle English more familiar. There will also be a short look at a major revolution in the media: printing.

7.4.1 CONTINENTAL LITERARY MODELS

In general the French tradition of meter and rhyme was adopted, but *Piers Plowman* and *Sir Gawain* do not follow French fashion. From 1250 there was a growing body of literature in English, which is concomitant with the spread of English among the upper classes. The types of literature that had previously appeared in French now appeared in English. The most popular type at this time was the romance, for example Sir Gawain and *the Green Knight* or *Morte d'Arthur*.

7.4.2 THE CANTERBURY TALES

In what is the best-known piece of literature from the ME period Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) produced a witty and perceptive picture of English society at the end of the fourteenth century. In *The Canterbury Tales* he introduces a group of pilgrims who are making their way on a five-day pilgrimage from Southwark, then near and now in London, to the grave of St. Thomas Becket outside Canterbury. In the Prologue he portrays some thirty travelers who are to tell two stories each on the way there and two again on the way back. This motivates a collection of tales comparable to Bocaccio's *Decameron* but differing greatly in style and, most importantly, reflecting the diverse social origins of the pilgrims. The tales come from all over Europe and the Orient. There is usually a clear point or a moral, each tale ending with a proverb or some other "wisdom"; some come from the lives of the saints, but some are low fabliaux Originality was not a goal, but rather the embellishment of the stories with the goal of instructing and entertaining. All but two are in verse.

7.4.3 PRINTING

The introduction of printing by Johan Gutenberg in 1440s to Europe was a revolutionary development which had wide-reaching and long-lasting effects. Indeed, many people among those who had a stake in the power of their own literacy were suspicious of the social unrest that could result from increased access to knowledge and enlightenment on the part of the lower orders. Printing using movable type was originally introduced to Europe by Johann Gutenberg and was well established early in the second half of the fifteenth century. William Caxton (14l4/20(?)–l492) spent much of his early adulthood on the Continent. He learned the printing trade in Cologne and then set up as a printer in Bruges, where he printed books in Latin, French, and English. The first book to be printed in English was *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye* in 1473. Soon after this in 1476 he moved to Westminster, now a part of London, where he published almost exclusively in English and enjoyed considerable success because he catered to a growing and increasingly influential public, which included not just nobles but an upper-class

readership which was eager for writing in English. He brought out mainly classical works in translation such as *Eneydos* (the *Aeneid*); romances, for example Malory's *Morte d'Arthur* or Gower's *Confessio Amantis*; histories like the *Recuyell* mentioned above; and literature such as Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*, but also liturgical works, school books, and books of etiquette.

When Caxton set up shop, the English language had undergone only the beginnings of the process of standardization. For the written language this was chiefly due to the Chancery Standard. Caxton reflects on the possible causes of the great variety to be found in English and illustrates the problem of diversity with his well-known story in the "Prologue" to *Eneydos* about a merchant from the north-central Midlands who, stranded on the Kent side of the Thames estuary, tried to buy some eggs from a local woman.

Text7.2. Prologue from the *Canterbury Tales*

Here bygynneth the Book
of the tales of Caunterbury

Whan that aprill with his shoures soote

The droghte of march hath perced to the roote,

And bathed every veyne in swich licour

Of which vertu engendred is the flour;

Whan zephirus eek with his sweete breeth

Inspired hath in every holt and heeth

Tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne

Hath in the ram his halve cours yronne,

And smale foweles maken melodye,

That slepen al the nyght with open ye

(so priketh hem nature in hir corages);

Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,

And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,

To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;

And specially from every shires ende

Of engelond to caunterbury they wende,

The hooly blisful martir for to seke,

That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.

Bifil that in that seson on a day,

In southwerk at the tabard as I lay

Redy to wenden on my pilgrymage

To caunterbury with ful devout corage,

At nyght was come into that hostelrye

Wel nyne and twenty in a compaignye,

Of sondry folk, by aventure yfalle

In felaweshipe, and pilgrimes were they alle,

That toward caunterbury wolden ryde.

The chambres and the stables weren wyde,

And wel we weren esed atte beste.

And shortly, whan the sonne was to reste,

So hadde I spoken with hem everichon

That I was of hir felaweshipe anon,

And made forward erly for to ryse,

To take oure wey ther as I yow devyse.

But nathelees, whil I have tyme and space,

Er that I ferther in this tale pace,

Me thynketh it acordaunt to resoun

To telle yow al the condicioun

Of ech of hem, so as it semed me,

And whiche they weren, and of what degree,

And eek in what array that they were inne;

And at a knyght than wol I first bigynne.

SEMINAR 7
MIDDLE ENGLISH
The Emergence of Standard English (1350–1500)

GLOSSARY

Lollardy

Vernacular

Standardization

Koinéization

Chancery English

Printing

QUESTIONS

1. What was the demographic situation in XIV and XV centuries?

2. What were the linguistic consequences after the Hundred Year's War and the War of the Roses?

3. Explain the role of John Wycliffe in the history of English. Why was he supported by the royalty?

4. Who were the lollards?

5. What status did Latin have in the ME period?

6. What role did London play in the emergence of the standard language?

7. What is koiné language?

8. Among the North, South and Midland dialects, which one was the most convenient for standardization and why?

9. Who brought printing to the British Isles?

10. Were there any changes in the word order?

11. Name the most influential writers of the ME period.

LECTURE 8
EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

This period is a time of significant change in the language as it develops from Middle to Modern English. Although scholars give differing beginning and end dates for the period, there is fairly widespread consensus about a starting point around 1500, which is close to the introduction of printing in English (1476) or the beginning of the Tudor dynasty (1485). The period may be closed at 1700, though some prefer 1750 as an end date.

8.1 ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND POLITICAL BACKGROUND

This period saw the growth of a national market, which slowly began to replace local markets. Mercantilism was the predominant economic view in this period with its emphasis on the competition between countries (the up-coming nation-states) and the "wealth of nations." The focus of commercial activity lay increasingly in the Southeast and in London, where a population mix consisting of people from the various regions came together with substantial consequences for the language.

The rate of land enclosure (link: Enclosure) increased in the seventeenth century and contributed to the social unrest of the period with depopulation of villages, an increase in vagrancy, and even riots and protests. The excess, dispossessed population contributed to the overall process of urbanization.

The break with the papacy was initially an institutional act in which the king simply replaced the Pope as the head of the Church. In this "reform" the Crown profited from the confiscation of Church possessions.

The Elizabethan period marked the beginning of the Renaissance in England. This not only reflected a renewed interest in classical learning, it also stimulated a paradigmatic change in the way people viewed science, which was, under the influence of Bacon, to become more empirical. The period also marked the beginning of a literary boom that started at the end of the sixteenth and continued into the seventeenth century, including, for example Marlowe, Shakespeare,

Jonson, Spenser, and Milton. As literacy spread, the significance of the press grew. Massachusetts Bay colony introduced the first law providing for common schools for everyone (1647). In England Oxford developed into the university closer to the establishment while dissenters were more at home at Cambridge. The Royal Society, founded in 1660, was located in London and later in Oxford as well.

The Tudor dynasty was not always peaceful, but it did accomplish one extremely significant thing: it united England (and Wales) and ended English territorial ambitions in France. The relative tranquility was important for economic stability and growth. Markets flourished as did trade.

Text 8.1. Samuel Pepys, excerpts from his diary (1660)

---

1 January. Blessed **be** God, at the end of the last year I was in very good health, ... I lived in Axe Yard, having my wife and servant Jane, and no more in family **then** us three .... The condition of the state was thus. Viz. the rump… **was** lately **returned** to sit again. ... The new Common Council of the City **doth** speak very high; and **hath** sent to Monke their sword-bearer, to acquaint hint with their desires for a free and full Parliament, which it at present the desires and the hopes and expectation of all.

7 February. Boys **do** now **cry** "Kiss my Parliament!" instead of "Kiss my arse!" so great and general a contempt **is** the Rump **come** to among men, good and bad.

8 July.**To Whitehall to chapel**, where I got in with ease by going before the Lord Chancellor with Mr Kipps. Here I **heared** very good **musique**, the first time that I remember ever to have heard the organs and singing-men in surplices in my life.

The excerpts from Pepys' diary reveal a great deal about the life and interests of well-situated gentlemen. The language is easily understandable though the spelling varies and some constructions are worth noting:

- the use of non-emphatic affirmative *do* is not present-day usage;
- the subjunctive *be*;

- the perfect is formed with the auxiliary *be* when movement is involved: *was returned*, *is come*,

- third person single present tense *hath* and *doth* are maintained;

- heared for heard;

- the use of an abbreviated **style** is apparent throughout, for example *To Whitehall to chapel*.

8.1.1 EARLY MODERN LONDON

London grew from 50,000 inhabitants in 1500 to become the largest European city in 1700 at just under 600,000. This growth was largely dependent on migration from elsewhere in England because the presence of endemic and epidemic disease in the city more than counterbalanced natural replacement. Estimates were that only 15% of the sixteenth and seventeenth century population of London were born there (due to immigration).

8.1.2 KOINÉIZATION

In the span of years from 1485 to 1500 61% of the inflow was from the **North** and 11% from the **Midlands**. However, by the period 1654–74 the share of migrants from the Midlands had increased to 45%. This geographic mobility together with the relatively great social mobility of London promoted language change and leveling. Although the written standard differed from the spoken language of the capital, the two together provided two national models, a highly prescriptive one, **Standard English** (StE), for writing and a colloquial one, which may be called **General English** (GenE), which is considerably less rigid. It was GenE which would evolve into a supra-regional, nationwide covert standard. Both it and StE would eventually also be valid for Scotland, then Ireland, and then the English-using world beyond the British Isles.

8.2. PHONETICS

8.2.1 THE GREAT VOWEL SHIFT (GVS)

The GVS (link: the GVS), which brought significant change to pronunciation, is a **chain shift** involving the long vowels of ME. It is not fully clear just when this shift began though it is generally assumed to have begun in the ME period.

73

However, the full extent of the shift is best located in the EModE period. The short vowel system remained, in contrast, relatively stable.

Table 8.1. Some examples, illustrating the GVS

Word	Vowel pronunciation	
	Late ME before the GVS	**ModE after the GVS**
bite	/iː/	/aɪ/
meet	/eː/	/iː/
meat	/ɛː/	
mate	/aː/	/eɪ/
out	/uː/	/aʊ/
boot	/oː/	/uː/
boat	/ɔː/	RP /əʊ/, GA /oʊ/

8.2.2 CONSONANTS

The consonant inventory of English changed in this period through the establishment of /ŋ/ (*sung*) and /ʒ/ (*vision*) as phonemes. Throughout OE and ME [ŋ] had been an allophone of /n/ which assimilated to a velar place of articulation when followed by /k/ (*think*) or /g/ (*thing*). The loss of voiced stops (b, d, g) after a nasal was a phonotactic restriction on final /-mb/, /-nd/, and /-ŋg/: *lamb* /læm/, *rang* /ræŋ/. The new fricative /ʒ/ was the result of palatalization of the combination /z/ + /j/ or /ɪ/ in an unstressed syllable. *Vision* /vizjon/ became /viʒən/. This process was reinforced since it established **system symmetry** with /ʃ/, giving English four pairs of voiceless-voiced fricatives (f-v, θ-ð, s-z and ʃ-ʒ).

8.3 VOCABULARY

Lexical borrowing was especially strong in the EModE period. Sources continued to be French and Dutch, but most notable were the loan words from the classical languages. Many of the new borrowings were not part of the general vocabulary of English but of specific fields such as science (*commensurable* or

quadrable), medicine (*paregoric* or *sporadic*), or religion (*quadragesima* or *latitudinarian*). The majority of Latin loan words were, however, general, for example, *immaturity*, *invitation*, *parental*, *relaxation*, *relevant*, or *susceptible*.

8.4 GRAMMAR

Third person {-s} vs. {-(e)th}. This distinction is one of the most noticeable in this period, and it may be used as evidence of the influence of **Northern** on **Southern English**. In the early sixteenth century {-s} was probably the informal variant while {-(e)th} was neutral or formal; it was, for example, favored by the Chancery and by printers at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

Table 8.2. Criteria for the choice between *thou* and *you*

Social distance		
inferiors	equals	superiors
Thou	You/Thou	You
Emotional attitude		
anger/contempt	indifference/neutrality	familiarity/intimacy
Thou	You	Thou

Do-periphrasis is the most dramatic development in the grammar of EModE. The causative use of *do* disappeared and instead we find *do* as an auxiliary in affirmative and negative declarative and interrogatory sentences. The frequency of verbs with auxiliary *do* as a percentage of all verbs which *do* could appear with is less than 10% throughout the fifteenth century. In the sixteenth century there is a dramatic increase and by around 1700 the situation we know from present-day English had been reached. In affirmative statements *do* is now reserved for emphatic use, even though the upper class retained negation and interrogation without do-periphrasis in formal speech longer than was the case in colloquial language. By the end of the EModE period *you* was the dominant second person

pronoun, singular and plural. Some of the dialects of Britain retained reflexes of *thou,* but they seem to be recessive.

8.5 LITERATURE

Sir Philip Sidney (1554–86) is best remembered for his *Arcadia*, a romance little read today which he wrote for his sister Mary while living with her while he was in disfavor at the Court. Despite the lines quoted here, *Arcadia* is a prose composition. It is extravagant in style and touches on countless subjects in a fanciful way. It is quoted here as an interesting example of polished sixteenth century English (see Text 8.2).

John Milton (1608–74), one of England's greatest poets, was a free thinker in terms of liberty of conscience and a man of great tolerance. He was associated with the dissenters and was a supporter of the Parliamentary party during the Civil War and the Commonwealth. Yet he did not hesitate to criticize the lack of tolerance and of openness of the Parliamentarians. Milton is best known as the author of *Paradise Lost* (1667), an epic poem recounting the divine history of the world on two levels, that of the celestial conflict between God and Lucifer and that of the domestic world of mankind, Adam and Eve. The following lines about Lucifer's rebellion against God come from the Prologue (see Text 8.3).

Text 8.2. Sir Philip Sidney, *Arcadia*

But Basilius to **entermixe** with these light notes of **libertie**,		\<en-\> for \<in-\>; final \<-ie\>
some sadder tune, set to the key of his own passion, not seeing		
there Strephon or Klaius, (who called thence by **Vranias** letter,		
were both **gone** to continue their suite, like two true runners,		initial \<v\> for ModE \<u\>
both employing their best speed, but not one hindring the	5	
other)		auxiliary *be*
he called to one **Lamõ** of their acquaintance, and willed		
him to sing some one of their songs; which he redily performed		(õ) for \<o\> followed by
in this doble Sestine.		\<n\>
Strephon You Gote-heard Gods, that **loue** the grassie mountaines,	10	medial \<u\> for ModE \<v\>
You Nimphes that haunt the springs in pleasant **vallies**,		initial \<v\> for ModE \<v\>
You Satyrs **ioyde** with free and quiet forrests,		\<i\> for \<j\>
Vouchsafe your silent eares to playning musique,		
Which to my woes **giues** still an early morning:		usual 3rd person {-s}
And drawes the dolor on till wery euening.		
Klaus O Mercurie, **foregoer** to the euening,	15	"precursor"
O heauenlie **huntresse** of the sauage mountaines,		medial \<u\> for ModE \<u\>
O louelie starre, entitled of the morning,		
While that my voice doth fill these wofull vallies,		
Vouchsafe your silent eares to plaining musique,		
Which oft **hath** Echo tir'd in secrete forrests.	20	3rd person {-th} retained with *do* and *have*

Text 8.3. Prologue lines from Milton's *Paradise Lost* (about Lucifer's rebellion against God)

Who first seduc'd them to that fowl revolt?

Th' infernal Serpent; he it was, whose guile

Stird up with Envy and Revenge, deceiv'd

The Mother of Mankinde, what time his Pride

Had cast him out from Heav'n, with all his Host

Of Rebel Angels, by whose aid, aspiring

To set himself in Glory above his Peers,

He trusted to have equal'd the most High,

If he oppos'd, and with ambitious aim

Against the Throne and Monarchy of God

Rais'd impious War in Heav'n and Battel proud

With vain attempt. Him the Almighty Power

Hurld headlong flaming from th' Ethereal Skie

With hideous mine and combustion down

To bottomless perdition, there to dwell

In Adamantine Chains and penal Fire,

Who durst defie th' Omnipotent to Arms.

SEMINAR 8
EARLY MODERN ENGLISH

GLOSSARY

Enclosure

Puritanism

Quakerism

Renaissance

Standard English

General English

The Great Vowel Shift

QUESTIONS

1. What were the consequences of the national market growth?
2. How did the break with papacy influence the language?
3. How did the leveling of English happen?
4. What is the difference between the StE and GenE?
5. Comment on the Great Vowel Shift.
6. Comment on the EModE consonants. What is system symmetry?
7. What language provided the most borrowings in EModE?
8. Comment on the 3rd person {-s} and do-periphrasis.
9. Name some of the most notable writers of the EModE period.

LECTURE 9
MODERN ENGLISH – GLOBAL ENGLISH
9.1 SOCIAL-HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

English was spoken by about 4 million people inhabiting a large but peripheral island off the coast of continental Europe in or around the year 1600. Today English is spoken by sometimes larger and sometimes smaller groups of people on all the inhabited continents of our earth. Just how many people this amounts to is a matter of quite a bit of controversy, but realistic estimates of the number of speakers of English as a first or native language lies at somewhat 360–400 million (for native speakers).

By 1600 the dawn of a new age had broken over Western Europe or, indeed, a multiplicity of new ages. There had been a revival of learning, the Renaissance. There had been a new religious upheaval, the Reformation. There had been a series of exploratory voyages which were opening a new world far beyond Europe in the Age of Discovery. And there had been the beginnings of the Commercial Revolution with its radical capitalistic change in production and trade, initially under the label of mercantilism. All of these had the effect of moving Britain from the periphery of Europe to the center of the new Atlantic world in which England, in particular, was to be one of the most important actors.

9.1.1 THE AGE OF DISCOVERY

In the mid-fifteenth century European navigators had begun to venture beyond their home continent under Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese king who financed voyages along the Atlantic coast of Africa. The exchange of goods that followed included African slaves and, consequently, marked the start of what was to be a long and extremely tortuous relationship between Africa, Europe, and America. In 1492, at the end of the fifteenth century, came the first voyage of Columbus, who, under the Spanish flag, is credited with the European discovery of America. From this point on, first the Spanish, then the Portuguese, the French, the Dutch, and the English supported voyages of discovery and exploitation.

9.1.2 LANGUAGE POLICY

The social and political forces which were instrumental in shaping English in the period of spread may be partially explained by looking at two rather contrary currents: ***tradition*** and ***modernization***. The former has to do with the more sedentary population in the predominately rural areas. Here the traditional dialects, while not unchanging, developed relatively independently of the changes in the modernizing part of society. The relative lack of cultural and linguistic contact and mixing provided for greater stability and slower change, something which is typical of more isolated communities. The latter current, modernization, found its expression in the newly forming urban communities whose population consisted of people from all the dialect areas of England. This led to greater social and linguistic instability and therefore to the emergence of new forms and structural leveling.

Language policy was a central part of the latter process, but not its only element. The State and such important institutions as the Church, the ever more indispensible schools and universities, and the growing publishing sector pursued a sometimes clearly formulated and sometimes more or less implicit program which selected and promoted a particular variety of English. This new variety was transmitted most prominently in educational contexts, which very often meant in the form of writing. While the grammar schools saw it as their brief to teach the classical languages, Greek and, above all, Latin, the medium of instruction was English.

9.2 THE EMERGENCE OF GENERAL ENGLISH (GenE)

It is a broad concept which may conveniently be used to refer to those varieties of English which are not traditional dialects nor English creoles. There are two poles to GenE. At the one end we find the highly standardized variety called StE, which is specifically prescribed for published writing and more formal situations of public discourse. At the other end there is the more colloquial type, which includes

a great deal of non-standard English, which is readily comprehensible to other speakers of GenE anywhere.

Typical items are ones such as:

- third person singular present tense *don't*; the use of *ain't;*

- multiple negation;

- non-standard verb forms like past tense *knowed* or *seen;*

- repeated subjects like *my sister she.*

Despite the length of the list, the two poles share most of their grammar, and their vocabulary and phonology as well. StE is associated with the **overt norms**; non-standard GenE with **covert norms**. The former is **power-oriented**; the latter carries **solidarity**.

9.2.1 TRANSPLANTATION

English as a Native Language (ENL) has been carried overseas from Britain and established in new ENL communities, most prominently in Ireland, North America, the Caribbean, South Africa, Singapore, Australia, and New Zealand. In far more countries in West, East, and Southern Africa, in South and Southeast Asia, and in the Western Pacific English has been adopted (or imposed) as a ***Second Language (ESL)*** and in some, including the Caribbean, as a ***pidgin*** or a ***creole***. This movement outwards has reinforced the increasing spread of ***English as a Foreign Language (EFL)***.

To better understand the use of English in different countries, Indian linguist Braj Kachru conceived the idea of *three concentric circles of the language*:

1. The ***inner circle*** represents the traditional bases of English: the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Ireland, Canada, and some of the Caribbean territories (~380–400 million users);

2. The ***outer circle***, which includes countries where English is not the native tongue, but is important for historical reasons and plays a part in the nation's institutions, either as an official language or otherwise. This circle includes

India, Nigeria, the Philippines, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Malaysia, Tanzania, Kenya, non-Anglophone South Africa and Canada, etc. (~150–300 million users);

3. The ***expanding circle*** encompasses those countries where English plays no historical or governmental role, but where it is nevertheless widely used as a foreign language or lingua franca: China, Russia, Japan, most of Europe, Korea, Egypt, Indonesia, etc. (~0,1–1 billion users).

9.2.2 PIDGIN AND CREOLE COMMUNITIES

A final aspect of some ESL countries, especially in West Africa, is the use of a completely different tradition of English, namely ***Pidgin English***. English pidgins and creoles are a group of often closely related languages that originated as trade languages along the coast of West Africa and which were later carried to other parts of the colonial world. In West Africa pidgins have remained largely non-native languages. Instead they function as ***lingua francas***, which means that they are used as a means of communication among people who do not speak the native languages of their communication partners.

9.2.3 PRONUNCIATION AND THE EMERGENCE OF RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION (RP)

In the mid-nineteenth century a remarkably unitary pronunciation emerged among the boys at the elite private boarding schools of England. This accent was connected with the power and prestige of the upper-class people who spoke it, thus taking on associations of competence and status. From the beginning of radio broadcasting in the 1920s and up until the late twentieth century it was the voice of the BBC. RP is, consequently, something of a class accent and is emulated by some and rejected by others for this reason.

9.3 MEDIA DOMINANCE

The advantages of being there first are revealed in the media, both traditional and digital. This has allowed StE to take a position of dominance in relation both to the "dialects" of English and to non-English languages in general.

9.3.1 PUBLISHING

Publishing was more than anything else the domain of StE. Publishing was long dominated by Britain even though copyright law was so much a national matter that British authors had no protection from blatant piracy in the US until 1891, when America extended its copyright laws to non-American authors. In the meantime the United States had developed a healthy literature of its own drawing on both StE and American regional dialects, especially in the last third of the nineteenth century. However, most publishing appeared in StE, and the American version of StE cannot seriously be regarded as different from StE in England. While

9.3.2 TELEGRAPHIC STYLE

Since communication by telegram and telephone were private, that is, limited basically to an exchange between two people, the influence of the medium on the language used has not been restrictive as such, but it has influenced style. The economics of both the telegraph – pay by word – and the telephone – pay by minute – induced brevity, most clearly in the development of *telegraphese*. This refers to a style in which sentences are truncated through omission of contextually unnecessary subjects, auxiliaries, articles, conjunctions, and prepositions. It can be seen in telegrams themselves, but also in newspaper headlines, where space is limited:

- Telegram style: ARRIVING GRAND CENTRAL TONITE EIGHT STOP PICK-UP APPRECIATED

- Newspaper headline style: Out of Latin Roots, An Independent Streak

9.3.3 MOVIES

The introduction of sound movies had an enormous influence on English inasmuch as wide audiences now had the opportunity to hear varieties of English previously inaccessible to them. Initially this was above all a case of mutual exposure of British and American varieties to each other. The leading influence was *Hollywood*, which brought American voices to the rest of the world along with the Hollywood concept movie. In the meantime, however, vigorous English-

84

language film industries have grown up elsewhere, especially in India, where **Bollywood** (Bombay Hollywood) has popularized its own movie formula and made incursions into the Western world.

9.3.4 THE EXPANSION OF FUNCTIONS IN THE INFORMATION SOCIETY

The Information Society at the end of the twentieth century was strongly influenced by the advent of the computer, the Internet and the **World Wide Web**. This changed the structure of information as linearity and libraries were expanded by links and hypertext structures. The popular image of English had become one in which speed and convenience led to the widespread, though certainly not complete, acceptance of abbreviations, smilies (emoticons), rebus-influenced spellings, and much more as well as changes in the realization of genres.

9.4 FEATURES OF GLOBAL STANDARD ENGLISH

The Internet is the most obvious, but, of course, not the only element in the structure of the Information Society. Newspapers, magazines, and journals as well as radio and television remain strong components. The catchy, zany spellings and expressions which have enlivened digital communication have not necessarily caused major changes in the more staid genres, which also make use of the Internet. Scholarly writing is one of the most central areas in the Information Society (link: Shamefaced scholarship). And here more than in the nonstandard tendencies just treated the influence of English is global.

9.4.1 SCHOLARLY PROSE

In the present-day world a huge proportion of serious academic publishing uses the medium of English. While the demands placed on the quality of the writing and publishing according to the norms of AmE or BrE are very high, a great deal of tolerance of variation is normal in spoken presentations at conferences.

9.4.2 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES (ESP)

ESP is a functional differentiation of the language which contributes to its international character; as such it caters to the needs of its non-native users. In

general, ESP is a subset of the language structured to transfer information in an unambiguous way. As a consequence, the ESP of any given field will draw on a subset of the vocabulary of GenE, a restricted grammatical inventory, and a restricted set of social and thematic areas. ESP focuses on the purposes of a task by drawing on a selection of reading, listening, writing, and talking skills, a selection of text types, and a selection of vocabulary and grammar. ESP may, for example, be restricted to such areas as English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Business and Economics (EBE), English for Legal Purposes, or Doctor-Patient communication to name some of the more prominent areas.

9.5 CONCLUSION

Why has English become the medium of global communication? Latin held sway in the Western World as the language of learning and international scholarship throughout the Middle Ages. With the growth of the national vernaculars in Western Europe Latin was gradually displaced, and in post-Renaissance Europe largely replaced by the language associated with the major hegemonic state of that time: the French of France. The second major change was that the world, especially the Western world, was beginning to grow economically closer together. Under these circumstances religion became less important as the glue which held the West together and a replacement was needed that was more closely associated with the great new revolutions, the Commercial and the Industrial Revolutions. The candidate would be the language of one of the great new global imperial masters: Spanish, Portuguese, French, Dutch, or English. In the case of English there was an almost unbelievable constellation of factors which favored its ever more rapid advancement to the status of global language. English had the unique advantage of being the language of the first country in which the Industrial Revolution took place, which meant the early establishment of an industrial basis which led to a positive balance of trade. Furthermore, just as the British Empire with all its consequences for the spread of English had passed its

apogee sometime between the beginning of World War I and the end of World War II, the United States effectively took its place as the economic leader of the world and the military, political, and cultural leader of the West; and the language of both was English.

Bibliographpy

1. Аракин В. Д. *История английского языка.* – М.: Физматлит, 2011. – 304 с.

2. Иванова И. П., Чахоян Л. П., Беляева Т. М. *История английского языка.* – СПб.: Авалон, 2010. – 560 с.

3. Ильиш Б. А. *История английского языка.* – М.: Книга по требованию, 2010. – 420 с.

4. Смирницкий А. И. *Лекции по истории английского языка.* – М.: Добросвет, 2011. – 236 с.

5. Расторгуева Т. А. История английского языка: Учебник. – М., 2001.

6. Резник И. В., Резник Р. В., Сорокина Т. С., Сорокина Т. А. *A History of the English Language / История английского языка.* – М.: Наука, 2003. – 496 с.

7. Blake N. (ed.) The Cambridge History of the English Language. vol. 2. 1066–1476. – 1992.

8. Burchfield, R. (ed.) The Cambridge History of the English Language. vol. 5. English in Britain and Overseas. – 1994.

9. Gramley S. *The History of English: An Introduction.* – New York: Routledge, 2012. – 414 p.

10. Hogg R. M. (ed.) The Cambridge History of the English Language. vol. 1. The Beginnings to 1066. – 1992.

11. Lass R. (ed.) The Cambridge History of the English Language. vol. 3. 1476–1776. – 2000.

12. Romaine S. (ed.) The Cambridge History of the English Language. vol. 4. 1476–1776. – 1999.

13. Shay S. *The History of English: A Linguistic Introduction.* – Washington, DC: Wardja Press, 2008. – 219 p.