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# *Стислий курс історії англійської мови*

*Допущено Міністерством вищої і середньої спеціальної освіти УРСР як навчальний посібник для студентів романо-германських факультетів університетів та факультетів іноземних мов педагогічних інститутів*

ВИДАВНИЧЕ ОБ'ЄДНАННЯ «ВИЩА ШКОЛА»
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Посібник складено відповідно до програми з історії англійської мови. В ньому стисло викладено курс лекцій з цього предмета. Посібник має предметний покажчик, деякі узагальнюючі таблиці та вправи. Розрахований на студентів романо-германських факультетів університетів та факультетів іноземних мов педагогічних інститутів.

Редакція літератури з іноземних мов
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## *Передмова*

У посібнику дуже стисло, майже конспективно, викладено курс лекцій з історії англійської мови. Досвід свідчить про те, що поряд з існуючими грунтовними підручниками, частина яких зазначена в бібліографії, такий посібник буде корисним, особливо при повторенні матеріалу та підготовці до іспитів. З цією метою в ньому вміщено деякі узагальнюючі таблиці, вправи, а «Зміст» дано у вигляді предметного покажчика.

Матеріал посібника, відповідно до існуючих програм, охоплює основні явища історії англійської мови, особливо ті, що відбились у сучасній мові. Спрямованість на сучасну мову визначила і розміщення матеріалу. На відміну від більшості підручників, де кожен період історії мови розглядається як окремий, більш-менш замкнутий цикл із своєю фонетикою, граматикою і лексикою, тут наголос зроблено на процесі становлення сучасної мови. І хоч поділ на періоди зберігається, фонетичний, граматичний і лексичний аспекти мови розглядаються в їх безперервному розвитку від староанглійського періоду до нового періоду.

Розмір посібника не дав змоги спинитися на спірних теоріях, дискусійних проблемах. Цим, значною мірою, пояснюється і традиційне, а не фонологічне чи трансформаційне, трактування мовних явищ і відповідна термінологія.

Автор висловлює щиру подяку доктору філологічних наук проф. Г. Г. Почепцову та ст. викладачеві кафедри англійської філології Київського державного університету Т. А. Яворській за ряд цінних вказівок та зауважень.

# I. INTRODUCTION.

## A. The History of the English Language as an Item of the Curriculum.

The curriculum of every linguistic institute in our country includes the history of the language studied. This is justified both theoretically and practically.

1. One of the fundamental principles of Marxism-Leninism is the view that both nature and human society are in a state of constant motion, change, development. Hence the requirement that each phenomenon be studied historically—how it arose, what stages it passes in its development— and appreciated from the point of view of its development [1].

Naturally, this fully applies to such a phenomenon as language. The peculiarities of any language in its present state can be accounted for only if viewed historically, hence the necessity of introducing a series of lectures on the history of the language in question, where the student will be shown the main stages of its development.

2. As a result of its very long course of development every language possesses phonetic, grammatical and lexical features that arose at different periods of time, very often from different sources and in accordance with various linguistic laws. Owing to analogical development, especially during the newer periods of the language history, most of such phenomena conform to certain rules acting in the language at present and are clear to every person speaking the given language. E. g. the plural forms of such nouns as *book, state, microscope,* that is, words which were introduced into the English language at different periods, are created in the same way, with the help of the suffix **-s**. But such regularity is not always observed. Very often an old phenomenon does not conform to the newer rules and is preserved in a modern language as a remnant and re-

[1] *See* V. I. Lenin, Selected Works (in three volumes), v. 3.M., 1971, p. 279: "...to examine every question from the standpoint of how the given phenomenon arose in history and what were the principal stages in its development, and, from the standpoint of its development, to examine what it has become today".

minder of those old rules which no longer act at present. Such a phenomenon is often looked upon as an incomprehensible irregularity. It becomes clear only when analysed from the historical point of view. This is the case with such plurals as *men, feet, mice* or *oxen, children,* or *sheep, deer*. The situation described is not confined alone to grammar. The pronunciation and spelling of a lot of English words can be accounted for only when approached historically. Thus, for instance, the sound representation of the word "daughter" requires four phonemes ['dɔ:tə], why then does the graphical representation of the same word require eight letters? Similarly, the word "through" requires three phonemes, [θru:], and seven letters.

The explanation of such and similar cases is only made possible by a thorough knowledge of the history of the English language.

## *B. The Connection between the History of the English People and the History of the English Language.*

As a social phenomenon, language is inseparable from society, since the people constituting the given society speak the given language. Every major event in the history of a certain people is reflected in its language. Some of these events affect the development of the language to such an extent that they may serve as some kind of landmarks in its history. Without the knowledge of such historical events it would be impossible to understand many facts in the language. Only an acquaintance with the history of the English people may explain, for instance, the abundance of Latin, French or Scandinavian words in English, the oddities of English spelling, the relation between the English national language and various dialects, etc.

At the same time it is important not to exaggerate the influence of the history of a people on the history of its language. It would be absurd to try to explain every change in the language by some change in the history of the people [1].

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[1] *See* Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, Selected Works, v. 3, M., 1970, p. 487: "Without making oneself ridiculous it would be a difficult thing to explain in terms of economics... the origin of the High German consonant permutation...".

Though a social phenomenon, language constitutes a very complicated separate system with its own regularities and relations which determine in most cases the trend of development of a certain language, the changes in its sounds and structure.

We need not look for any changes in the life of the English people in order to explain, for example, why the short vowel in OE [1] *oft* (E [1] *oft, often*) remained short all through the history of the English language, while the same sound in OE *open* was lengthened. The explanation can be found in the language itself, in the development of its rhythm, in the structure of the words, in the position of the sound. In the word *oft* the sound [o] was in a closed syllable. Its lengthening would make the syllable too heavy for the rhythmical pattern of the language. In the word *open* the sound [o] was in an open syllable. In fact, it made a syllable by itself, and the syllable was too short, or too light, for the rhythmical pattern of the language. Hence the process of lengthening. (See p. 37).

## *C. The Sources of Our Knowledge of Language History.*

English, like the majority of other modern languages, appears to the student in two forms — spoken and written. The spoken form is not only the older of the two, but by far the most important form of communication between people. When we speak of the development of a language, we mean, first and foremost, the history of sounds, not letters. When a language remains only in its written form, like Latin, it ceases to develop.

Now, though the written form is merely a secondary device serving to represent human speech to the eye, it is only due to this greatest invention of the human mind that the speech of our ancestors has been preserved to us. Old documents, pieces of ancient poetry and prose, written on parchment, engraved on wood, stone or bone, are the main source of our knowledge of the past of our language. It is the task of the investigator to find out the exact nature of the sounds that were represented by those old letters. If instead of those graphic images we could have something like gramophone records, our knowledge would be far more exact, but we are to be content with what we have.

[1] *See* "Abbreviations", p. 97.

The achievements of linguistics have made it possible to learn certain facts of the history of a language at a stage prior to its oldest written documents. This is done with the help of the so-called comparative-historical method, of which it is necessary to say a few words.

At the beginning of the 19th century it was proved that there was remarkable affinity between certain languages, now called Indo-European, to indicate their geographical extent. They have much in common both in the vocabulary and in the phonetic and grammatical structures. As examples of lexical similarity we may produce the following words or morphemes.

| | English | Russian | Latin | Greek | Sanskrit | Gothic |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Noun | brother | брат | frāter | phrā́tōr | bhrā́tār | broþar[1] |
| Adjective | new | новый | novus | né(v)os | návas | niujis |
| Verb | bear | беру | fero | phérō | bhárāmi | baira |
| Numeral | two | два | duo | dúo | dvā́ | twa |
| Pronoun | that | то | (is) tud | tó | tā́d | þata |
| Prefix | for- | про- | pro- | prō- | prá- | fra- |

The words above may also illustrate some relations of the sounds of these languages. Certain sounds are or were approximately the same in all the languages, e. g. the sound [n] in the adjective, the sound [r] in the noun. Other sounds differ, but this difference is, so to say, regular: certain sounds in one language usually correspond to quite definite sounds of another language. Thus, the sound [b] in the English noun and verb corresponds to a similar sound in Gothic and Russian, to the sound [f] in Latin and Greek, and to the sound [bh] in Sanskrit. The sound [d] of the numeral in Russian, Latin, Greek and Sanskrit corresponds to the sound [t] in English and Gothic, and this correspondence is regularly observed, e. g. R. десять, Skt. dáśa, L. decem, Gr. déka, E. ten, Gt. taíhun; R. еда, L. edo (I eat), Gr. édō, Skt. ádmi, E. eat, Gt. ita.

The similarity of grammatical structure is seen not only in the fact that these languages have nearly the same parts of speech and parts of the sentence, that nouns, for instance, possess the categories of case and number, verbs — the categories of tense and person, etc. Even of greater significance is the fact that irregularities of certain individual verbs, nouns, or pronouns often coincide in these languages. Thus, the Engl-

[1] þ = th in English.

ish *be* and *is* (of different roots but belonging to the same verb) correspond to the Russian быть and есть. Similarly, the English *I — me* corresponds to the Russian я — меня.

By a systematic comparison of those languages at different historical stages (whence the name comparative-historical method) it has been proved that the farther back into their history we go, the closer is the resemblance between them. Thus linguists have come to the conclusion that all those languages have sprung from the same source, i. e. from one common language which presumably existed some 5—6 thousand years ago and which is arbitrarily called the Indo-European parent language, or proto-Indo-European.

The tribe or the group of tribes speaking that language (or various dialects of that language), was constantly growing, dividing, spreading over ever greater territory, conquering other tribes or being conquered by them. The difference between the dialects of the once common language was growing. They were mixing with other languages, enriching their vocabularies, gradually changing the phonetic and grammatical systems and diverging from one another until they became different languages. Only the most stable elements of the parent language can now be traced in each of the languages that constitute the Indo-European family. But with the help of old documents and the comparative-historical method much of the lost resemblance can be reconstructed and the history of every Indo-European language traced to a very ancient stage.

As we are going to compare English with many other languages, and the comparative-historical method can be applied only to languages of the same family, it is expedient to list the languages of the Indo-European family.

## *D. The Indo-European Family of Languages.*

In its present state the Indo-European family is usually treated as falling into 12 branches:

1. The Slavonic branch, further subdivided into:

a. East Slavonic languages (Russian, Ukrainian, Byelorussian).

b. West Slavonic languages (Polish, Czech, Slovak).

c. South Slavonic languages (Bulgarian, Serbian, Croatian).

2. The Baltic branch, consisting of Lithuanian, Lettish and Old Prussian (now extinct).

3. The Germanic (or Teutonic) branch. See below.

4. The Romanic branch, including French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Roumanian, Moldavian — all descendants of the so-called Vulgar Latin (Latin spoken by the common people in the different colonies of Rome).

5. The Celtic branch, containing Irish, Welsh, Cornish (extinct), Gaelic, Manx and Breton.

6. Greek.

7. Albanian.

8. Armenian.

9. The Iranian branch. Here belong Persian, Afghan, Tadjik.

10. The Indian branch, comprising Sanskrit (a literary language now dead) and modern Indian languages, such as Hindi, Bengali, Punjabi, Mahrati, Hindustani. Here belongs also the language of the Gipsies.

11. Tokharian (an extinct language preserved in some records recently discovered in Chinese Turkestan).

12. Hittite, long extinct but preserved in a number of clay tablets discovered in 1907 in Asia-Minor.

English belongs to the Germanic branch of languages. This is the reason why we dwell on this branch a little longer. The Germanic branch is usually divided into 3 groups of languages.

a. East-Germanic languages.

b. North-Germanic languages.

c. West-Germanic languages.

The East-Germanic group contains only dead languages: Gothic, Burgundian and Vandalic. Gothic is of great importance to a student of Germanic philology, for it was as early as the 4th century that the Gospels were translated into this language from Greek by Bishop Ulfilas. A 6th century copy of this translation still exists and is a valuable source of our knowledge of the early history of the Germanic languages. Our knowledge of Burgundian and Vandalic is confined to merely a few proper names.

The North-Germanic group comprises Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Faroese and Icelandic. Especially helpful is Icelandic, as it has preserved a very rich old literature.

The West-Germanic group includes English, German (both High-German and Low-German), Dutch, Frisian, Flemish, Yiddish, and Afrikaans (in the SAR). Of these languages most nearly related to English is Frisian. Many scholars speak even of a separate Anglo-Frisian group.

## *II. SOME HISTORIC EVENTS SERVING AS LANDMARKS IN THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH.*

We have already spoken of the influence certain events in the history of a people may have on the development of its language. Before plunging into a more or less detailed study of the historical changes of the English language it is expedient to review some of the major events in the history of the English people, having a direct bearing on the history of the English language.

### *A. The Anglo-Saxon Invasion of Great Britain.*

Traditionally the 5th century is named as the date of the beginning of the history of the English people. It was in that century that certain Germanic tribes, namely, the Angles, the Saxons, the Jutes and probably the Frisians, crossed the Channel and invaded Great Britain. The descendants of those invaders came later to form the English people.

Before the invasion the Angles, Saxons and Jutes did not form an isolated group on the continent. They were surrounded by other Germanic tribes and their history is the history of all the ancient Germanic tribes who inhabited North-Western Europe.

We know of those ancient Teutons from the works of Greek and Roman historians, especially those of Julius Caesar, Plinius and Tacitus.

In his books "On the History of the Ancient Germanic Tribes" and "The Origin of the Family, Private Property and the State" [1] Frederick Engels thoroughly investigated all the data available concerning the economic and social life of the ancient Germanic tribes.

Since before the invasion the Angles, Saxons and Jutes were not isolated from the other Germanic tribes, their speech was very close to the dialects of the neighbouring West-Germanic tribes, though the dialect of each tribe had some peculiarities of its own. So, when speaking of that period, it is possible to point out many features common to the speech of all Germanic tribes, as distinct from the Non-Germanic dialects of

[1] Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, Selected Works, v. 3, M., 1970.

languages of the Indo-European family. At the same time the speech of the West-Germanic tribes had some peculiarities not shared by that of the East-Germanic or North-Germanic tribes. There were also some features common to the speech of the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians and not found in other West-Germanic dialects, as well as features characterizing separate dialects. Such were the relations among the Germanic dialects before the Angles, Saxons and Jutes left their continental homes and invaded the island of Great Britain in the 5th century.

Before the Anglo-Saxon invasion Great Britain was inhabited by Celtic tribes: the Picts and the Scots in the North and the Britons in the South. Julius Caesar crossed the Channel twice and landed in Great Britain with a considerable army. But it was only a century later that most of the island became a Roman colony and remained so for more than 3 centuries. During that period the Romans built many roads, erected fortified towns. The population of these towns used Latin alongside of their native Celtic speech. At the beginning of the 5th century the Roman legions were withdrawn from Great Britain, for the Goths were at the gate of Rome and seized the town in the year 410.

The independence of the Britons was but of short duration. In the year 449 the first Germanic invaders — the Jutes — crossed the Channel and began making a forcible settlement in the South-East, in Kent. They were followed by the Saxons who gradually occupied the territory along the Thames and to the south of the river. The last to come were the Angles who settled to the north of the Saxons.

It goes without saying that the invaders met with stubborn resistance and succeeded in establishing themselves only after much fighting. That was why their advance was very slow. Thus, for instance, the Britons of Cornwall were subjugated only in the year 838, i. e. nearly four centuries after the beginning of the invasion.

Now a few words as to the significance of the invasion. When the Angles, Saxons and Jutes settled on the island of Great Britain, they were separated from all their kinsmen, which resulted in the differentiation of their speech. The slight difference between their dialects and those of the other Germanic tribes, no longer levelled by communication, had a tendency to grow, and in the course of time it brought about the development of a separate language — the English language.

On the other hand, the fact that the Angles, Saxons and

Jutes came to live together on the same island and fought the same enemy contributed much to their being gradually united into one people — the English people.

Therefore the Anglo-Saxon invasion of Great Britain is usually considered the beginning of the history of the English people and the history of the English language.

As a result of the invasion seven Germanic kingdoms were formed in Britain. The Angles formed three kingdoms: Northumbria, Mercia and East Anglia. The Saxons also founded three kingdoms: Wessex, Essex and Sussex. The Jutes founded one kingdom — Kent.

The strongest of those kingdoms, Northumbria, Mercia and Wessex were constantly fighting for supremacy. In the 7th century political supremacy was gained by Northumbria, which accounts for the fact that the oldest English documents were written in the Northumbrian dialect. In the 8th century the leadership passed to Mercia, and finally in the 9th century the kings of Wessex were considered to be kings of England. The capital of Wessex Winchester, became the capital of England. Nearly all the literature of the 9th—11th centuries was written in the dialect of Wessex.

Among the historical events that influenced the development of the English language at that period we must mention the introduction of Christianity in the 7th century. It resulted in an extensive adoption of Latin words and the substitution of the Latin alphabet for a special Germanic alphabet, called Runic, used before that[1].

## *B. The Scandinavian Invasion.*

Towards the end of the 8th century the Anglo-Saxons began to suffer from the attacks of the Scandinavians, mostly Norwegians and Danes. The Scandinavian sea-rovers, commonly known as the Vikings, first came to the shores of Great Britain for plunder. Later they settled in the country. Gradually they extended their territory southward from their original foothold in Northumbria until practically all the land north of the Thames was under their control. Only the kingdom of Wessex remained independent. In the year 878 Alfred, king of Wessex, gained an overwhelming victory over the Scandinavians (or the Danes, as they were mostly called at that time) and made them sign the Wedmore Treaty. The Scandinavians had to withdraw from Wessex and Western Mercia, but they remained

[1] *See* p. 30.

in all the other parts of England they occupied and that territory came to be known as "the Danelaw". Within the Danelaw the Scandinavians lived side by side with the Anglo-Saxons and a constant process of assimilation was going on for centuries, which had a marked influence on both languages. At the beginning of the 11th century the Scandinavian influence became still stronger as a result of a new series of Danish invasions which ended in 1017 in the complete occupation of England. For the next 25 years England was ruled by Danish kings.

The Scandinavian influence manifested itself primarily in the vocabulary, several hundred words being borrowed from the Scandinavian dialects (600 — according to some authors, 900 — according to others).

Great was the Scandinavian influence on the morphological and phonetical aspects of the English language as well. But we shall discuss all these problems in the corresponding chapters of this book.

## *C. The Norman Conquest.*

Another important event in the history of the English people which had the greatest influence on the history of the English language was the so-called Norman conquest of 1066. In that year a considerable army headed by William, duke of Normandy, crossed the Channel and defeated the English army. William, later known as William the Conqueror, became king of England. He was mercilessly suppressing the numerous rebellions of the English. The greater part of the English nobility was either killed or it fled from the country and their places were filled by William's French followers.

All the important positions in the government, army and church were occupied by the French. Thus the French language became the official language of the country and remained so for about three centuries. The English population, naturally, spoke English, but gradually many of them mastered French, the language of the conquerors, so that the number of people using both languages was constantly increasing. Under such circumstances the two languages could not but influence each other, and when in the 14th century English came out victorious in its fight with the French language, it was greatly influenced by the latter.

The French influence was especially felt in the vocabulary of the English language and in its orthography. But of these we shall speak later in the corresponding chapters of our course.

## *D. The Formation of the English National Language.*

Marxism teaches us that a nation is not merely a historical product, but the product of a definite period of the history of a people, namely, the period of the downfall of feudalism and the rise of capitalism. In England that period began as early as the 15th century. The Wars of the Roses (1455—1485) clearly marked the downfall of feudalism, whereas the development of trade and industry witnessed the coming of a new social system.

One of the most characteristic features of a nation is the national language which rises above all territorial and social dialects and unites the whole nation. Usually a national language develops on the basis of some territorial dialects which under certain historical (economic, political and cultural) conditions becomes generally recognized as a means of communication.

The English national language has developed on the basis of the dialect of London, which is easily accounted for, taking into consideration the fact that after the Norman conquest London became the political and cultural centre of England, and with the development of trade its economic centre as well. But the formation of the London dialect was a complicated process which is to be regarded in connection with the development of English dialects in general.

When the Angles, Saxons and Jutes invaded Britain in the 5th century, they, naturally, brought with them their tribal dialects. After the settlement in Great Britain those tribal dialects had a tendency to become territorial. Each of the seven kingdoms that were founded by the invaders was to some extent characterized by the speech of its inhabitants. The most important dialects of that period were those of the strongest kingdoms: Northumbrian, Mercian and West Saxon. Of some importance was the dialect of Kent. The political supremacy of a certain kingdom meant at the same time the dominant role of its dialect. That accounts for the fact that beginning with the 9th century the West Saxon dialect was practically the official language of the island.

The Norman Conquest put an end to the supremacy of Wessex and its dialect. As French became the official language of the country, each dialect had but local significance. It is usual to speak of the Northern, Midland and Southern dialects of that time. The Northern dialects were spoken to the North

of the river Humber. The Midland dialects were spoken between the Humber and the Thames; they are usually subdivided into East Midland and West Midland. The Southern dialects were spoken to the South of the Thames; one of the most peculiar among them was the dialect of Kent.

As London was situated on both banks of the Thames, its dialect had both Southern and East Midland elements. But gradually the latter took the upperhand, and when the speech of London developed into the language of all the country, it did so essentially as an East Midland dialect with comparatively few elements from other dialects. The prestige of the dialect was great because East Midland was the most populated and most developed district and because it was the seat of the two universities, Oxford and Cambridge.

The development of the dialect of London into a national language was due not only to the exceptional political and economic role of London as the capital and greatest commercial centre of the country, but to some other factors as well.

The popularity of Chaucer, "the father of English poetry" helped a great deal in the conversion of the London dialect into a literary language. So did Wyclif's translation of the Bible from Latin into English in 1389.

In the year 1476 William Caxton printed the first English book. The introduction of printing in England was an event of great importance for the development of the English language. It helped to form a unified standard national language on the basis of the London dialect.

With the development of the English national language the territorial dialects did not disappear. They exist even now, but their role is greatly reduced. They are subordinated to the national language which is the most important means of communication used in all the spheres of activity of the English people.

## *E. The Three Periods of the History of English.*

Though the development of English, like that of other languages, was slow, gradual and uninterrupted, there is a considerable difference between the language of the 9th, 13th and, say, 17th centuries, in the vocabulary, grammatical structure and phonetic peculiarities. Therefore it is usual to divide the history of the English language into three periods: Old English, Middle English and New English. For the sake of conven-

lence very important events which had a great influence on the history of English are taken as landmarks separating the three periods.

The Anglo-Saxon invasion of the 5th century is taken as the beginning of the Old English period.

The Norman Conquest of the 11th century is regarded as the beginning of the Middle English period.

The introduction of printing in the 15th century is considered the beginning of the New English period.

Thus, OE lasted from the 5th century until the 11th century;
ME » » the 11th » » the 15th » ;
NE has lasted from the 15th century up to the present day.

## *III. AN OUTLINE HISTORY OF ENGLISH SOUNDS AND SPELLING.*

### *A. Some Phonetic Peculiarities of the Germanic Languages.*

Though, as we have seen, the history of the English language begins, properly speaking, in the 5th century (with the Anglo-Saxon invasion of Great Britain), and the earliest written documents belong even to a later date, the comparative-historical method makes it possible for us to reconstruct some of the phonetic features which characterized the speech of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes before the invasion. Some of those features were common to all the Germanic dialects of that period, some — only to the West Germanic dialects and some were a peculiarity of the Anglo-Saxon speech. We shall begin with the common Germanic features.

#### 1. CONSONANTS.

One of the most distinctive features marking off the Germanic languages from all the other Indo-European languages is the so-called Consonant-shift described in 1822 by a German philologist, Jacob Grimm, and therefore often called **Grimm's law.**

As proved by Grimm, all the Indo-European stops seem to have gradually changed in Old Germanic.

a. The Indo-European voiceless stops [p, t, k] and their aspirated parallels [$p^h$, $t^h$, $k^h$] changed to corresponding spirants, i. e. the labial [p] and [$p^h$] changed to the labial [f], the dental [t] or [$t^h$] changed to the dental [θ] (as in the

English *thin*), and the velar [k] or [$k^h$] changed to the velar [h] (originally pronounced as [x] in the Russian or Ukrainian хата).

Examples:

p ($p^h$) > [1]f R. пять, Gk. pente, Hindi panča, Gt. fimf, G. fünf, E. five.

t ($t^h$) > θ R. три, L. trēs, Skt. tri, Gt. þrija, I. þrir, E. three.

k ($k^h$) > h Gk. kunós, L. canis, Old Irish con, Gt. hunds, G. Hund, E. hound.

b. The Indo-European voiced stops [b, d, g] became voiceless [p, t, k].

Examples:

2 b > p R. слаб, E. sleep; R. болото, E. pool.
d > t R. два, E. two; R. вода, E. water.
g > k R. иго, E. yoke; Gk. agros, E. acre.

c. The Indo-European aspirated voiced stops [$b^h$, $d^h$, $g^h$] changed first to voiced spirants [ƀ, ḋ, ǥ and later on, in most cases, to corresponding unaspirated stops [b, d, g].

Examples:

3 $b^h$ > b Skt. bhrātar, E. brother.
$d^h$ > d Skt. vidhávā, E. widow.
$g^h$ > g Skt. vāhanam (h < [2] gh) E. wagon; L. hortus E. garden.

There are some exceptions to Grimm's law.

1. The Indo-European [p, t, k] remained unchanged after the sound [s].

E. g. R. стоять, L. stāre, E. stand; Gk. spathē, E. spade.

2. Only the first of a group of voiceless stops changed to a spirant.

E. g. L. octo, Gt. ahtau, G. acht, E. eight.

Certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's law were explained by a Danish linguist Karl Verner in 1877.

Let us compare the Latin words *frāter, māter, pater* with their Old English equivalents brōþor, mōdor, fæder. By Grimm's law the sound [t] in all the Latin words should have corresponded to the sound [θ] (written þ) in all the Old English words. As it was, only the word brōþor showed the regular consonant-shift [t > θ]. In the two other words we find the voiced stop [d].

The explanation given by K. Verner is that the sound quality depended upon the position of the accent in the Indo

[1,2] See "Signs", p. 97.

European word: after an unstressed vowel the voiceless spirants [f, θ, h] (< [p, t, k]) and [s] were voiced and became [b, d, g] and [z]. Later on, as stated above, [b, d, g] > > [b, d, g].

In Sanskrit, where the old Indo-European accent was fairly well preserved, the corresponding words are bhrátar, mātár, pitár. The word bhrátar shows that the Indo-European accent was on the vowel immediately preceding the sound [t], therefore the latter was not voiced after changing to [θ] in the Germanic languages, while in the words corresponding to mātár and pitár the sound [t] following an unstressed vowel was voiced after changing to [θ] and became first [d] and later [d].

The connection between the Germanic sounds and the position of the Indo-European accent, discovered by K. Verner, is usually called **Verner's law.** It was of great importance for the study of the Germanic languages as it explained many seeming irregularities in their grammatical forms [1] and drew the attention of linguists to word-stress.

## 3. VOWELS.

The Germanic languages are also marked by some peculiarities in the development of vowels as compared with other Indo-European languages.

### a. Stressed Vowels.

1) The IE. ā (long [a]) > Gc. ō (long [o]).
E. g. L. māter, OE. mōdor;
R. брат, OE. brōþor.

2) The IE. short [o] > Gc. short [a],
E. g. R. гость, Gt. gasts;
L. octo, G. acht.

Thus, the Indo-European vowels [a] and [o] got mixed in the Germanic languages. The IE. long vowels [ō] and [ā] were both reflected as [ō] in the Germanic languages. The IE. short vowels [o] and [a] were both reflected as [a].

Note. Later the sound [ā] developed in the Germanic languages owing to the loss of nasals before [h] and the lengthening of the previous [a]. See p. 25.

E. g. Gt. þāhta < * þanhta (E. thought).
This new [ā] was nasalized.

[1] Some of them will be dealt with in the corresponding chapter on grammar. See, for instance, pp. 23, 58, 64.

**b. Unstressed Vowels.**

Unstressed vowels underwent a gradual process of shortening and slurring until many of them were lost altogether. This process has continued with different intensity in different Germanic languages during all the investigated part of their history. Its results can be seen even in the oldest Germanic records.

Comp. R. берн, Gk. phére || Gt. baír, OE. ber (E. bear)

**3. WORD-STRESS.**

Another important phonetic feature of the Germanic languages is the position and the character of the word-accent. In all the Germanic languages the accent was very early fixed on the first (root) syllable of a word, whereas previously it had not been fixed in any Indo-European language, the stress sometimes falling on the root syllable of a word, sometimes on some other syllable of the same word, as in Modern Russian сло́во, слова́.

Besides, the Indo-European accent is said to have been musical, the difference between an accented and an unaccented syllable being rather that of pitch than of stress. The Germanic accent became entirely a matter of stress, and of heavy stress too.

We do not know exactly in what century the accent shifted to the first syllable, but, as K. Verner has shown, it must have taken place later than the change of [p, t, k] to [f, θ, h] since these sounds were voiced after unstressed syllables in such words as fæder, mōdor, etc.

The fixation of the stress on the first syllable influenced to a great extent the further development of the Germanic languages. The absence of stress always tends to obscure vowel sounds, and as the word-endings were always unstressed after the shifting of the accent, it could but result in the slurring and gradual loss of inflections, which was really the case, as we shall see, all through the history of the English language.

## *B. Some Phonetic Peculiarities of the West-Germanic Languages.*

**1. The Doubling of Consonants.**

All the consonants, except [r], were doubled (in spelling or lengthened (in pronunciation) between a short vowel and the sound [j] (sometimes [l] or [r]).

E. g. Gt. saljan, OI. selja || OE. sellan, OHG. sellen, E. sell.
Gt. bidjan || OE. biddan (E. bid), OHG. bitten.
OI. epli || OE. æppel, E. apple.
*But*: Gt. arjan, OI. erja || OE. erian ("to plough").
Gt. fōdjan || OE. fēdan (E. feed).

**Note 1.** The sound [j] which caused the doubling in the West-Germanic languages, was lost very early.

**Note 2.** A similar phenomenon can be noticed in the Ukrainian language.

Comp. R. веселье, U. весілля;
R. коренья, U. коріння.

**2. The Peculiar Development of the Sound [z] (< IE [s], see p. 21).**

a. Finally (i. e. at the end of a word).

The Germanic [-z] was lost in the West-Germanic languages, while it changed to [-s] in the East-Germanic, and to [-r] in the North-Germanic ones.

E. g. Gt. dags, OI. dagr, OE. dæ3 (E. day), G. Tag.

b. Medially (i. e. in the middle of a word).

Gc. [-z-] remained in Gothic and changed to [-r-] in the West-Germanic and North-Germanic languages. The change [z > r] is called rhotacism.

E. g. Gt. maiza, || OE. māra (E. more), G. mehr, OI. meire
Gt. batiza || OE. betera (E. better), G. besser, OI. betre.
Gt. wēsun || OE. wǣron [1] (E. were), G. waren.

**3. The West-Germanic [ā].**

IE. and Gc. [ē] > [ā] in West-Germanic and North-Germanic.

E. g. Gt. jēr || OHG. jār, G. Jahr, OI. ār, (E. year).
Gt. slēpan || OS. slāpan, G. schlafen, (E. sleep).

## *C. Some Phonetic Peculiarities of the Speech of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes at the Time of Their Invasion of Great Britain.*

The dialects of the Angles, Saxons and Jutes differed considerably. Still they had many features in common which

[1] Thus, [r] in OE. wæron (E. were) as compared with [s] in OE. wæs (E. was) is the result of two changes: Verner's law [s > z] and rhotacism [z > r].

distinguished them from the other Germanic dialects and which were reflected in the earliest OE. documents.

**Note 1.** The Frisian dialects were, as we have already mentioned (p. 12), closely related to the Anglo-Saxon dialects and shared some of their features.

**Note 2.** It is difficult to separate with certainty the features which those dialects had in common before the invasion from those they developed on the island because the earliest OE. documents were written 2—3 centuries after the invasion. Thus, the division is conventional.

Here we produce some of these features.

I. The Germanic phoneme [a] formed several variants in these dialects, depending on its position in the word.

a. Before nasal consonants the Gc. [a] was slightly labialized and raised, so that it became intermediate between [a] and [o]. OE. scribes wrote now the letter **a**, now the letter **o** in this position. We shall use here the symbol **å**.

E. g. G. Land, lang || OE. lånd, lånʒ (E. land, long).
Gt. namo, G. Name || OE. nåma (E. name).

b. In other positions the Gc. [a] was usually palatalized and became [æ] (in some dialects [e]).

E. g. Gt. dags, OI. dagr, G. Tag || OE. n. dæʒ, g. dæʒes, d. dæʒe (E. day).

c. Before a back vowel (in the next syllable) the sound [a] was restored.

E. g. OE. n. pl. daʒas, d. pl. daʒum, etc. (E. days).

d. The Gc. [a] was diphthongized before [h] or before [r], [l] + some other consonant, and became [ea]. This process is called **breaking** [1].

E. g. Gt. hardus, G. hart || OE. heard (E. hard).
Gt. halbs, OI. halfr || OE. healf (E. half).
Gt. nahts, G. Nacht || OE. neaht (E. night).
Gt. sah [2], OHG. sah || OE. seah (E. saw).

2. The Gc. [e] and [i] also underwent the process of breaking in similar positions, Gc. [e]>[eo]; [i]>[io] (mostly in Anglian dialects and in Kent).

E. g. Old Frisian herte, G. Herz || OE. heorte (E. heart).
OHG. selb, G. selb(st) || OE. seolf (E. self).
OI. hirþer, OHG. hirti || OE. hiorde (E. herd).

3. The West-Germanic [ā] developed two variants.

a. Usually it was palatalized and became [æ] (in Saxon dialects) or [ē] (in Anglian dialects and in Kent).

[1] In the Anglian dialects the resulting diphthongs were in many cases monophthongized again as early as the 8th century.
[2] Gt. h = hw.

E. g. OS. dād, OHG. tāt ‖ OE. dæd, dēd (E. deed).

b. The nasalized [ā] was labialized and raised to [ō] (See below. See also p. 21, Note).

E. g. OHG. brāhta (< * branhtā) ‖ OE. brōhte (E. brought).

4. Not only [a] and [ā] were raised before nasal consonants. In a similar position [e] > [i] and [o] > [u].

E. g. OI. nema, OHG. neman, G. nehmen ‖ OE. niman («to take»).

OI. koma, OHG. koman, G. kommen ‖ OE. cuman (E. come).

5. Gc. [ai] was monophthongized and became [ā].

E. g. Gt. stains, haims ‖ OE. stān, hām (E. stone, home).

6. Gc. [au] > [ēa].

E. g. Gt. augo, auso ‖ OE. ēaʒe, ēare (E. eye, ear).

7. Gc. [eu] or [iu] changed to [ēo] or [io].

E. g. OS. friund, OHG. friunt ‖ OE. frīond, frēond. (E. friend).

8. Nasal consonants were lost in the position between a vowel and one of the fricatives [f, þ, s]. The preceding vowel was nasalized and lenthened.

E. g. Gt. fimf, OHG. finf ‖ OE. fīf (E. five).

Gt. anþar, OHG. andar ‖ OE. ōþer (E. other),

Gt. uns (is), G. uns ‖ OE. ūs (E. us).

Note. As already stated, a similar phenomenon was observed before the consonant [h] in all the Germanic languages.

*Comp.* Gt. þankjan (written þagkjan) (E. to think) and Gt. þāhta (< * þanhta), OE. þōhte (E. thought).

9. The velar stops [k] and [g] were palatalized before front vowels ([æ, e, i]) and [j]. Two variants of these sounds were thus formed: k (velar) — k′ (palatal), g (velar) — g′ (palatal).

*Comp.* in Russian the velar or hard [k] in кот and the palatal or soft [k′] in кит; similarly, the velar [r] in год and the palatal [r′] in гид.

Note. This process of palatalization, begun before the Anglo-Saxon invasion, was going on during the whole of the Old English period and will, therefore, be described later on (See p. 29).

## *D. Some Phonetic Changes of the Old English Period.*

### 1. STRESSED VOWELS.

#### a. Palatal Mutation.

This is the name given to a kind of regressive assimilation caused by the sounds [i] and [j] in the 6th century. Under the influence of [i] or [j] the vowels of the preceding syllable moved to a higher front position.

E. g. [ā] > [æ] OE. ān ("one") + iȝ = æniȝ (E. any).
[æ] > [e] Gt. badi ‖ OE. bedd (< * bæddi), E. bed.
[å] > [e] Gt. sandjan ‖ OE. sendan (< *sånd-djan), E. send.

*Comp.* also *Angles* and *English.*

[ō] > [ē] Gt. dōms, dōmjan ‖ OE. dōm, dēman (E. doom, to deem).
OE. fōt (E. foot), pl. fēt (< * fōti) (E. feet).

[ū] > [ȳ] (a sound similar to G. [ü], F. [u]).
OHG. kuning ‖ OE. cyniȝ (E. king).

ēa, ēo > īe [1] OE. eald but ieldra (< * ealdira) (E. old — elder).

**Note.** As seen from the foregoing examples, after [i] or [j] had produced the mutation, they were frequently lost.

The palatal mutation has left many traces in Modern English. The ensuing vowel interchange serves now to distinguish
1) different parts of speech: *doom — to deem, food — to feed, blood — to bleed, full — to fill, Angles (Anglo Saxons) — English, long — length;*
2) different forms of a word: *tooth — teeth, goose — geese, foot — feet, mouse — mice* (OE. *mūs — mȳs*), *old — elder.*

#### b. Velar Mutation.

This is another regressive assimilation called forth by the velar vowels [u, o, a]. It took place in the 7th — 8th centuries and was of comparatively small importance for the further

[1] Only in Wessex. In other dialects the corresponding vowel was [ē].

development of the English language. Under the influence of [u, o, a] the front vowels [i, e, æ] of a preceding syllable were usually diphthongized.

E. g. [i] > [io], OE. silufr > siolufr (later siolfor), (E. silver).
[e] > [eo], OE. hefun > heofon, (E. heaven).
[æ] > [ea], OE. cæru > cearu, (E. care).

As we see, the assimilation was partial, since only part of the front vowels became velar. But after the sound [w] full assimilation occurred.

E. g. OE. widu > wudu, (E. wood).
OE. werold > worold, (E. world).

### c. The Diphthongization of Vowels after Palatal Consonants.

After the palatal consonants [j] (written 3) and [k'] (written c) most vowels were diphthongized into [ie, io, eo, ea]. It was a long process which continued up to the 9th century, but it did not take place in some of the Old English dialects. Later on these diphthongs were usually monophthongized again.

Examples: OE. 3efan > 3iefan, (E. give).
OE. 3æf > 3eaf, (E. gave).
OE. sceld > scield, (E. shield).
OE. scūr > scēor, (E. shower).

### d. The Lengthening of Short Vowels before Certain Consonant Combinations.

Before the combinations (ld, nd, mb), i. e. a sonorous consonant plus a homorganic voiced plosive, not followed by a third consonant, short vowels were lengthened, apparently in the 9th century, though graphically it was often marked much later.

E. g. OE. cild > cīld (E. child). But in OE. cildru (E. children) [i] was not lengthened before -ldr-.
OE. feld > fēld (E. field), OE. cald > cāld (E. cold).
OE. blind > blīnd, OE. pund > pūnd (E. pound).
OE. climban > climban (E. climb).

## II. UNSTRESSED VOWELS.

a. Unstressed long vowels were gradually shortened in all the Germanic languages. In English this process was completed during the earliest part of the Old English period. All the

long vowels became short, and all the diphthongs were mon phthongized in an unstressed position.

*Comp.* Gt. namō, dagōs ‖ OE. nāma, daȝas (E. name days).

Gt. ahtau, sunau ‖ OE. eahta, suna (E. eight sons).

b. Unstressed vowels often fluctuated, which is seen fro their representation in spelling.

*Comp.* OE. woruld, worold; wǣron, wǣrun.

c. The weakening of unstressed vowels took shape of chan ges such as the change of [æ] to [e], [i] to [e], [u] to [o], et

E. g. OE. tunȝæ > tunȝe (E. tongue).

OE. meri > mere (E. poet. mere "lake").

OE. fuȝul > fuȝol ("bird". *Comp.* E. fowl).

d. Very often the weakening resulted in the loss of th unstressed vowel. After long syllables it occurred earlier an much more often than after short ones.

E. g. Gt. flōdus ‖ OE. flōdu, flod (E. flood).

*Comp.* OE. scip (E. ship) — pl. scipu.

OE. scēap (E. sheep) — pl. scēap (u was lost).

**Note.** This is the reason why the plural of the nouns *sheep, dee swine* is identical in form with the singular.

e. Sometimes new unstressed vowels developed, especiall before r, l, n.

E. g. Gt. wintrus, OI. fingr ‖ OE. winter, finȝer.

Gt. fugls, OI. fugl ‖ OE. fuȝul, fuȝol (E. fowl

OE. tācn, tācen (E. token).

In spite of the long process of weakening, the OE. final unstre sed syllables contain various vowels — **a, o, u, e, i.**

E. g. helpan (to help), huntoþ (hunting), sunu (son), writ (written), Frencisc (French).

In comparison with the later stages of its developmen Old English strikes one as a language with developed ending which justifies the name given it by the well-known Englis philologist H. Sweet — 'the period of full endings'.

### 3. CONSONANTS.

### a. The Palatalization of Velar Consonants.

The palatalization of the velar stops [k] and [g] before (som times after) front vowels and the sound [j] began before th 6th century (see below) and continued up to the beginnin of the Middle English period.

Note. It is difficult to state more exactly when the process ended because the written representation of these sounds did not change during the Old English period.

The sound [k] (written c) > [k'] > [tʃ] (later it was represented in spelling by the digraph ch).

The sound [g] (written ʒ, when doubled cʒ) > [g'] > [dʒ] (later represented in spelling ge, dge).

The combination [sk] (written sc) > [sk'] > [ʃ] (later represented in spelling by the digraph sh).

E. g. OSc. Kinn ‖ OE. cinn (E. chin).
OHG. sengen ‖ OE. senʒ(e)an (E. singe).
Dutch egge ‖ OE. ecʒ (E. edge).
ÐE. scip, fisc, sceal (E. ship, fish, shall).

Palatalization did not take place before those front vowels which became such as a result of the palatal mutation.

E. g. OHG. Kuning ‖ OE. cyning (E. king).

This fact shows that the process of palatalization began before the palatal mutation.

**b. The Voicing of [f], [s], [θ] (written þ, ð) between Voiced Sounds.**

The process took place in an intervocal position or between a vowel and a voiced consonant: [f > v], [s > z], [θ > ð] though the letters representing these sounds did not change during the Old English period.

E. g. G. Wolf, Wölfe ‖ OE. wulf, wulfas (E. wolf, wolves).
Gt. gras, G. Gras ‖ OE. græs, but grasian (E. grass, graze).
OE. bæþ, baþian (E. bath [bɑ:θ], bathe [beið]).

**c. The Unvoicing of [v] and [ɣ] in a Final Position.**

The labial and velar voiced fricatives [v] and [ɣ] became voiceless at the end of a word. [v] > [f] and [ɣ] > [x] (sounding like the consonant in the Russian эхо).

E. g. G. Weib ‖ OE. wīf, E. wife.
OI. borg, OHG. burg ‖ OE. burʒ, burh, (E. borough).

d. [x] > [h].

The sound [x] (written h, but resembling the Russian [x]) changed into [h] (as in English *him*) before vowels and the sonorous consonants [l, r, n]. The graphic symbol did not change.

E. g. OE. his, hū (E. how), hlāf (E. loaf), hrinʒ (E. ring).

## *E. The Old English System of Letters and Sounds.*

With the introduction of Christianity in the 7th century the Anglo-Saxons acquired the Latin alphabet. Before that they used, like all Germanic tribes, a special alphabet called runic[1]. Some runic letters were retained after the 7th century and used regularly by the OE. scribes, as e. g. the letter þ (called "thorn") denoting the interdental voiced and voiceless fricatives, [ð, θ], like E. th.

The OE forms of the Latin letters were often peculiar, the letter **g**, for instance, being written **ȝ**. Other peculiar letters were **æ** ("ash") and **ð** ("eth").

Besides, some Latin letters, e. g. **v, j, k, q, z**, were hardly ever used except in foreign words.

The OE. system of letters and sounds as found in the Wessex manuscripts of the 9th century may roughly be presented thus.

### 1. VOWELS.

The symbols representing vowels in classical Old English were usually monofunctional, i. e. each letter corresponded to a certain sound. Vowel-length was often (but not always) denoted by a slanting stroke (á), but we shall use the traditional sign (ā).

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Monophthongs: | short | æ | a | o | u | i | e | y | å |
| | long | ǣ | ā | ō | ū | ī | ē | ȳ | |
| Diphthongs: | short | ea | | eo | | ie | | | |
| | long | ēa | | ēo | | īe | | | |

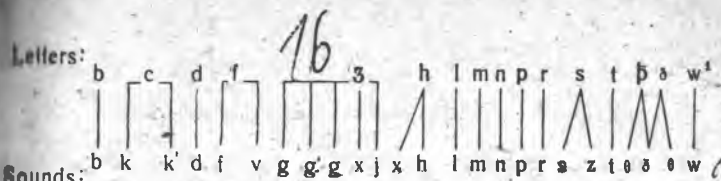
**Note.** Though the diphthongs ēa and ēo seem to have differed in the second part, in reality the most essential difference was in the first part, ēa representing something like [æə]. (See p. 46).

### a. Consonants.

The symbols denoting consonants require more detailed explanation because not unfrequently one letter stood for two or more sounds, and one sound could be denoted by two letters.

[1] The runes (*rune* originally meant "whisper", "mystery") were mostly used for carving or scratching inscriptions (evidently thought to have magic power) on wood, stone or metal and consisted of vertical and diagonal strokes. The alphabet is also known as the *futhark*, from its first six runes

ᚠ ᚢ ᚦ ᚨ ᚱ ᚲ.
f u th a r k




c denoted the sound [k'] (later [tʃ]) before (sometimes after) front vowels. E. g. cild (E. child), ic (ME. ich E. I). Before or after back vowels and consonants it mostly represented the sound [k] as in OE. cōc (E. cook), cnāwan (E. know), though, for instance, in OE. hwilc (E. which) c denotes the sound [k'].

f, s, þ represented the voiced consonants [v, z, ð] when placed between vowels or between a vowel and a voiced consonant. In other positions they stood for the voiceless consonants [f, s, θ]. E. g. hlāford (E. lord), cēosan (E. choose), hwæþer (E. whether), fēaw (E. few), wæs (E. was), þæt (E. that).

3 stood for the following sounds.

[g] — at the beginning of a syllable before back vowels or before consonants; also after [n].

E. g. OE. 3ōd (E. good), 3læd (E. glad), En3lisc (E. English).

[g'] — (rarely), before front vowels.

E. g. OE. sen3ean (E. singe).

More often this sound was doubled and represented by c3.

E. g. OE. bryc3 (E. bridge), ec3 (E. edge), wec3 (E. wedge).

[ɣ] — medially after back vowels and after the consonants [r], [l].

E. g. OE. dra3an (E. draw), fol3ian (E. follow), bor3ian (E. borrow).

[x] (as in ɔxo) — at the end of a word after consonants (except [n]) and back vowels.

E. g. OE. bur3 (E. borough).

[j] — before and after front vowels.

E. g. OE. 3ēar (E. year), dæ3 (E. day).

h usually denoted the sound [x] (as in ɔxo), but at the beginning of a word before vowels and the consonants [r, l, n], represented the sound which is denoted by the letter h in Modern English.

E. g. OE. niht (E. night), hūs (E. house), hlūd (E. loud).

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[1] In OE. manuscripts the sound [w] was represented by a peculiar letter ƿ "wynn" from the runic alphabet. But in modern editions of OE manuscripts the letter is usually replaced by w.

## Exercises.

**1. Explain the origin of the italicized consonants.**

E. *t*en, L. de*c*em, R. десять.
E. re*d*, U. рудий, Skr. rudhira («blood»).
OE. bro*þ*or, E. brother, Skr. bhrátar, R. брат.
Skr. dantam, L. dentem, Gt. *t*un*þ*u, OE. *t*o*þ*, E. toot*h*
Gk. klepte̅s "a thief" (*Comp.* клептомания), Gt. *hl*i*f*tus
E. si*t*, R. сидеть, L. sedere.
E. *f*ish, OE. *f*isc, L. piscis.
E. *h*ear*t*, L. cōr — cōrdis, Gk. kardia.
E. thou, OE. *þ*ū, L. tū, R. ты.
OE. i*c* (E. I, G. ich), OI. e*k*, L. ego.
OE. ni*ht*, E. night, G. Na*cht*, L. nox — noctis.
R. иго, L. jugum, Gt. ju*k*, E. yo*k*e.
Gt. hausjan, OE. hie*r*an, E. hea*r*, G. hören.
Gt. satjan, OI. setia, OS. se*tt*ian, OE. se*tt*an, E. (to) set
E. death, OE. dēa*þ*; E. dead, OE. dēa*d*.
Gt. halja, OS. he*ll*ia, OE. he*ll*, E. hell.
Skv. pādam, Gk. poda, L. pedem, Gt. *f*o*t*u, OI. *f*ō*t*, OE. *f*ō*t*, E. foot.

**2. Explain the origin of the italicized vowels.**

Gt. lētan, OS. lātan, G. lassen, OE. lǣtan, E. (to) let.
OI. huat, OE. hwæt, E. what.
OHG. mānōd, OI. mānaðr, OE. mōna*þ*, E. month.
Gt. diups, OE. dēo*p*, E. deep.
Gt. mun*þ*s, G. Mund, OE. mū*þ*, E. mouth.
Gt. wōpjan, OE. wēpan, E. weep.
Gt. dau*f*s, OI. dau*f*r, OE. dēa*f*, E. deaf.
Gt. ai*þ*s, OE. ā*þ*, E. oath.
Gt. haldan, G. halten, OE. h*ea*ldan, E. (to) hold.
Gt. ubils, OE. *y*fel, E. evil.
OHG. sang, OE. sa̅n̄g, E. song.
Gt. dailjan, OE. dǣlan, E. (to) deal.
Gt. warmjan, OE. w*ie*rman, E. (to) warm.
Gt. skal, OE. sce*a*l, E. shall.
Gt. hatis, OE. he*t*e «hatred».

## F. Middle English Phonetic and Orthographic Changes.

### 1. CHANGES IN THE ORTHOGRAPHIC SYSTEM.

One of the consequences of the Norman Conquest was the French influence on English spelling. Those letters which the French did not employ gradually went out of use. They were the letters æ, þ, ð, ȝ.

New letters were introduced, such as g, j, k, q, v.

Many new digraphs and combinations of letters came into use, such as th, sh, ch, gh, ph, dg, ck, gu, qu, ou, or ow.

E. g. OE. wiþ, ME. with; OE. fisc, ME. fish; OE. cin, ME. chin; OE. niht, ME. night; ME. philosophie, E. philosophy;, OE. ecȝ, ME. edge; OE. loc, ME. lock; OE. gæst, ME. guest; OE. cwēn, ME. queen; OE. hūs, ME. hous, E. house; OE. nū, ME. now;

Note. There was a tendency to use ow at the end of a word and ou in other positions.

It became usual to mark the length of a vowel by doubling it, especially in closed syllables.

Thus ee and oo were used to denote [ē] and [ō].

E. g. OE. swēt, ME. sweet, E. sweet;

OE. ȝōd, ME. good, E. good.

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

E. g. ME. chief < OF. chef; ME. deceiven (E. deceive) < < OF. deceveir.

Many letters changed their signification.

The letter u, for instance, which had denoted only one sound in OE., [u], was employed, after the French fashion, to denote also the labial front vowel [ü] formerly expressed by y. E. g. bysiȝ, ME. busy. The corresponding long vowel was usually marked ui.

E. g. OE. fȳr, ME. fūir. E. fire.

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

E. g. OE. his, ME. his, hys; OE. dæȝ, ME. day.

Note. There was a tendency to use the letter i at the beginning and in the middle of words, and the letter y at the end of a word to separate it from the next one, as there were often no intervals between words.

The letter c began to signify not only the sound [k] as in cat, but also, in accordance with French usage, the sound [s] before the letters i, e, y. So, OE. cēpan, for instance, could

no longer be written with the letter **c**, for it would be read [sēpən]. It became necessary to employ the letter **k** in similar cases. E. g. keepen, (E. keep), king.

The letter **k** was not unfrequently substituted for **c** in other cases. E. g. OE. bōc, ME. book; OE. cnāwan, ME. knowen, E. know. Sometimes after short consonants the sound [k] was denoted by the digraph **ck**. E. g. OE. bæc, ME. back.

The letter **o** came to be used not only for the sound [o], but also for the sound [u]. That happened mostly in such words as ME. cumen, for instance, where too many vertical lines made reading difficult. This is why words like E. *come, some, son* have the letter **o** instead of **u**.

All these spelling changes weakened the more or less phonetic character of the OE. orthography. They gave rise to fluctuations in the graphic presentations of sounds and words. In OE. the sound [e:], for instance, had only one graphic equivalent, the letter **ē**. In ME [e:] could be represented by **e, ee, ei, ie**. In OE. the word *fisc* had only one spelling. In ME. it could be written *fish, fysh, fissh, fisch, fyssh, fysch*.

## 2. CHANGES IN THE PHONETIC SYSTEM.

### a. Consonants.

1) OE. [ɣ] (denoted by **ȝ**) > ME. [w] (*Comp.* R. ero where [ɣ] > [ʁ]).

E. g. OE. boȝa, draȝan, morȝen > ME. bowe, drawen morwen (E. bow, draw, morrow).

2) Initial [h] was dropped before **r, l, n.**

E. g. OE. hrinȝ, hlāford, hnutu > ME. ring, lōverd, nut (E. ring, lord, nut).

3) Before [w] the sound [h] remained longer especially in the North where OE. [hw-] came to be written **quh-** or **qwh-**. In the South [h] was dropped before [w] in late Middle English, and the combination **wh-** was substituted for OE. hw-.

E. g. OE. hwæt > ME. quhat, in the North, [xwat]; what, in the South, [wat]

4) A very important change was the vocalization of [j] and [w] after vowels, which brought about the appearance of new diphthongs (See p. 39)

[j] > [i] (written **i, y**), e. g. OE. dæȝ, seȝl, ME. dai (day), seil, (E. day, sail).

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

Note. OE. iʒ > īi > ī, e. g. OE. māniʒ, ME. many.
OE. uʒ > uu > ū e. g. OE. fuʒol, ME. fowel, foul [fu:l], (E. fowl).

5) Final [-n] was often lost in unstressed syllables.
E. g. OE. brinʒan > ME. bringe(n), E. bring.

6) Medial [v] was often dropped before consonants.
OE. hæfde > ME. had.

7) As to the palatalization of [k'] > [tʃ], [ʒ'] > [dʒ], [sk'] > [ʃ] see p. 28.

## b. Unstressed Vowels.

The weakening of unstressed vowels, which was characteristic of all the Germanic languages (See p. 22) and continued during the Old English period (See p. 27), became much more intensive in Middle English, especially in the Northern dialects, owing to Scandinavian influence.

Since both Old English and Old Scandinavian belonged to the Germanic group of languages, they had many features in common, which facilitated the process of communication. It often occurred that the root of a word and its meaning were nearly the same in both languages, while its endings differed.

E. g. OSc. sunr — OE. sunu (E. son).
OSc. oxe — OE. oxa (E. ox).
OSc. tīme — OE. tīma (E. time).
OSc. binda — OE. bindan (E. to bind).

Such words were, naturally, freely used by the representatives of both peoples in their conversations. Only the endings were some hindrance. Linguists are of the opinion that such cases accelerated the weakening of the unstressed endings.

Most unstressed vowels were levelled and reduced to a sound of the [ə] type, written e.

E. g. OE. standan > ME. standen (E. stand),
OE. sunu > ME. sone (E. son).
OE. seofon > ME. seven (E. seven).

The leveling of endings is so peculiar a feature of the Middle English period that H. Sweet called it "the period of levelled endings".

Many of such levelled endings were lost during the later part of the Middle English period. Thus, in the following

extract Chaucer rhymes *swēte* and *fēt*, which shows that th last e in *swēte* represented no sound. Judging by the rhythm we may see that e was "mute" in other words as well. W shall mark such e's thus: ę.

ME. ... And hyt forth wente
E. it[1] went
ME. doun by a floury grēne bente
E. down by flowery green meadow
ME. ful thikkę of gras ful softę and swēte
E. full thick grass full soft sweet

ME. with flourys fēlę fairę under fēt
E. flowers many fair feet [2].

The unstressed OE. [i] often remained in ME.

E. g. OE. en3lisc > ME. english (E. English).

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

E. g. OE. for3yfan, ME. foryiven (E. forgive).
OE. fulfyllan, ME. fulfille(n), (E. fulfill).
OE. ārisan, ME. arise(n), (E. arise).
OE. beforan, ME. bifore(n), (E. before).

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

E. g. OE. fol3ian, ME. folwen > folowe(n), (E. follow)
OE. bor3ian, ME. borwen > borowe(n), (E. borrow)

Unstressed long vowels were shortened in ME.

E. g. OE. -dōm (as in frēodōm, cynin3dōm, wīsdōm) >
> ME. -dom (freedom, kyngdom, wisdom).

The OE. preposition tō > ME. to

The unstressed OE numeral ān (E. one) > ME an, th indefinite article.

The same process took place in French loan-words when th shift of stress left the original long vowels unstressed.

E. g. honour [honú:r > hónu:r > hónur].

### c. Stressed Vowels.

The changes vowels underwent during the Middle Englis period may be divided into quantitative and qualitativ Quantitative changes affected only the length of vowel, while qualitative changes altered the natu of the sound.

[1] We give only those English words which differ in spelling or meani from the corresponding ME. words.
[2] Second Middle English Primer, ed. by H. Sweet, Oxford, 1905, p.

### 1) Quantitative Changes.

Beginning with the 9th century there occurred a series of quantitative changes which influenced greatly the rhythm of the English language.

a) As already described (p. 27), short vowels were lengthened in the 9th century before the combinations [ld, nd, mb], unless followed by a third consonant.

b) Before all other combinations of consonants (geminates included) long vowels were shortened in the 11th century.

E. g. OE. dūst, wīsdōm, cēpte, mētte, fēdde > ME. dust, wisdom, kepte (E. kept), mette (E. met), fedde (E. fed).

*Cf.* OE. wīs, cēpan, mētan, fēdan > ME. wīs (E. wise), kēpen (E. keep), mēten (E. meet). fēden (E. feed).

There are exceptions, e. g. OE. ēast > ME. ēst (E. east).

c) In the 13th century short vowels (chiefly [a, o, e]) were lengthened in open stressed syllables of disyllabic words.

E. g. OE. talu > ME. tāle (E. tale).
OE. open > ME. ōpen (E. open).
OE. etan > ME. ētan (E. eat).

Sometimes [i] and [u] were also lengthened in the same position, but with a simultaneous change in quality: [i] > [ē], [u] > [ō].

E. g. wike > wēke (E. week), bitel > bētel (E. beetle)
dure > dōre (E. door), wude > wōde (E. wood).

As a result of these changes too long syllables like *cēpt* became shorter, while too short syllables like *e-* in *etan* became longer, so that the rhythm of English speech became more measured.

### 2) Qualitative Changes.

Both monophthongs and diphthongs underwent radical changes during the Middle English period.

a) Monophthongs.

OE. [a, o, ō, u, ū, e, ē, i, ī] remained more or less unchanged in Middle English, while OE. [ā, æ, ǣ, y, ȳ, å] changed radically.

1. OE. [ā] > ME. [ǭ] everywhere but in the northern dialect. This new [ǭ] was of a much more open nature than the OE. [ō] preserved in Middle English. In order to distinguish the two kinds of [ō] we shall use the symbol ǭ to denote the open [ō] and the symbol o̱ for the close [ō]. In Middle English manuscripts the two types of [ō] were mostly repre-

sented by the same symbols: **o** in open syllables and **oo** in closed ones. Later the two [ō]'s were distinguished not only in sound (see p. 44) but in spelling as well, [o̜] being as a rule represented by the digraph **oo** and [o̜] by the digraph **oa** in closed syllables and the letter **o** in open ones.

E. g. OE. bāt, āc, nā > ME. boot, ook, no (E. boat, oak, no).

OE. ʒōd, sōna > ME. good, sone (E. good, soon).

**Note.** ME. [ō] from [o] in open syllables was also of an open nature and mostly coincided with [o̜]<OE. [ā]. Therefore we find the same way of representation of ME. [o̜] in E. hope (< OE. hopa) and E. stone (< OE. stān).

2. OE. [æ] > ME. [ę] (more open than [ę̄] < OE. [ē]). Thus in Middle English there were two types of long [ē] : an open [ę̄] and a close [ę̄]. In Middle English manuscripts they were often expressed in the same way: a single letter **e** in open syllables and a double **ee** in closed ones. Later these different sounds were distinguished also in writing: [ę̄] was represented by the digraph **ea** and [ę̄] by the digraph **ee**.

E. g. OE. sæ, mæl > ME. se, meel (E. sea, meal).

OE. fēlan, fēt > ME. felen, feet (E. feel, feet).

**Note.** The sound [ę] developed in ME. also as a result of the lengthening of [e] in open syllables (see p. 37). Thus, OE. etan, mete > ME. ēten, mēte (E. eat, meat).

1. OE. [æ] > ME. [a].

E. g. æt, pæt, dæʒ > ME. at, that, day.

2. OE. [å] > ME. [o] only in West Midland. In all other dialects OE. [å] > ME. [a].

E. g. OE. lånd, mån, lånʒ → ME. lond, mon, long (West Midland)
→ ME. land, man, lang (Other dialects)
(E. land, man, long).

In most cases the Modern English form is based on that of the Eastern dialects. Only before **-ng**-forms with **o** predominate.

E. g. long, strong, song.

5. OE. y, ȳ
- → i, ī in the North-East.
- → remained unchanged in the South-West (written **u, ui**).
- → e, ē in the South-East (Kent).

E. g. OE. hyll, fȳr →N.-E. hill, fīr (E. hill, fire).
→S.-W. hull, fuir.
→S.-E. hell, fēr.

In the majority of cases Modern English has forms with [ĭ]. But sometimes the influence of other dialects is felt. In the word *busy*, for instance, the spelling reflects the influence of the Western dialects. The same is true about the verb *to build*. The pronunciation of the verb *to bury* is due to the South-East dialects, while the spelling is of Western origin.

b) Old Diphthongs.

All the Old English diphthongs were monophthongized as early as the 11th century, losing their second elements.

1. OE. ēa and ea whose first element sounded [ǣ] (see Note p. 30) were reduced to [æ] and developed accordingly (see p. 38).
   OE. ēa > ME. e, e. g. OE. ēast, strēam > ME. eest, streem (E. east, stream).
   OE. ea > ME. a, e. g. OE. earm, heard > ME. arm, hard.
2. OE. ēo and eo gradually became ē and e respectively.
   OE. ēo > ME. e, e. g. OE. dēop, sēon > ME. deep, see, (E. deep, see).
   OE. eo > ME. e, e. g. OE. feor, deorc > ME. fer, derk (E. far, dark).

c) New Diphthongs.

As a result of the vocalization of [j] and [w] (see p. 34) new diphthongs were formed whose second element was either [i] (writter i, y) or [u] (mostly written w).

1. [ei], OE. weȝ, seȝl > ME. wey, seil (E. way, sail).
2. [ai], OE. dæȝ, fæȝr > ME. day, fair (E. day, fair).
3. [au], OE. saȝu, clawe > ME. saw(e), claw(e) (E. saw, claw).
4. [ou], OE. boȝa, snāw > ME. bowe, snow (E. bow, snow).
5. [eu], OE. dēaw, nēowe > ME. dew, newe (E. dew, new).

Note. Some linguists are of the opinion that the French long labial [ū] was replaced by the diphthong [eu] in those areas where OE. y [ü] was not preserved, i. e. everywhere but the South-West. E. g. *fruit* was pronounced [freut] in ME., *due* — [deu]. This is the reason why ME. *trewe* (< OE. trēowe) has come to be written *true* and why the pronunciation of *dew* and *due* is the same.

Besides the above-mentioned diphthongs it is necessary to mention the diphthong [oi] mostly found in French borrowings like *poynt* (E. point), *poison, vois* (E. voice); etc.

## G. The Middle English Sounds and Letters. (London Dialect of the Second Half of the 14th Century).

### 1. VOWELS.

| Sounds | Letters | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| a, ā | a, aa | land, maken (E. make), caas (E. case). |
| e | e | dress, bed. |
| ē | e, ee, ie, ei | he, sweet, piece, deceiven (E. deceive). |
| ę̄ | e, ee | speken (E. speak), breeth (E. breath). |
| i, ī | i, y, ii | is, ys, lif, lyf, liif (E. life). |
| o | o | on, long. |
| ō | o, oo | do, doo, book. |
| ǭ | o, oo | no, rood, (E. road), ooth (E. oath). |
| u | u, v, o | us, vp (E. up), comen (E. come). |
| ū | ou, ow | hous (E. house), now. |
| ə | e | place, lawe (E. law). |
| ü | u, ui | just, fruit, builde (E. build). |
| ai | ai, ay | day, failen (E. fail). |
| au | au, aw | cause, drawen (E. draw). |
| ei | ei, ey | peine (E. pain), wey (E. way). |
| eu | ew, u | fewe (E. few), cruel, crewel (E. cruel). |
| oi | oi, oy | joie, joye (E. joy). |
| ou | ou, ow | knowen (E. know), soule (E. soul). |

### 2. CONSONANTS.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| b | b, bb | by, rubben (E. to rub). |
| p | p, pp | pite (E. pity), happen, cuppe (E. cup). |
| d | d, dd | deed (E. dead), hadde (E. had). |
| t | t, tt | tyme (E. time), sitten (E. sit). |
| g | g, gg | goon (E. go), daggere (E. dagger). |
| k | c, k, kk, ck | callen (E. call), speken (E. speak). nekke (E. neck), cock. |
| f | f, ff, ph | for, effect, philosophie (E. philosophy). |
| v | v, u | hevy, heuy (E. heavy), vertu (E. virtue). |
| s | s, ss, c, sc | smoke, kysse (E. kiss), place, science. |

| Sounds | Letters | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| z | s, z | bisy (E. busy), duzeyne (E. dozen). |
| h | h | help, half. |
| x[1] | gh, h | though, myght (E. might), riht (E. right). |
| ʃ | sch, ssh, sh | fisch, fissh, fish. |
| tʃ | ch, cch | which, cacchen (E. catch). |
| dʒ | g, j, i, dg | age, joye (E. joy), bridge, iugge (E. judge). |
| θ | th | this [θis]. |
| ð | th | rather. |
| j | y, i | yet, condicioun (E. condition). |
| w | w, v | with, vith. |
| r | r, rr | harm, sterres (E. stars). |
| l | l, ll | al, alle (E. all). |
| m | m, mm | many, womman (E. woman). |
| n | n, nn | no, an, thenne (E. then). |
| kw | qu | queen. |
| ks | x | axen (E. ask), six. |

[1] As in Russian хлеб.

## Exercises.

**Explain the development of the indicated vowels in the following ME. words:**

herte, OE. heorte, (E. heart); shal, OE. sceal, (E. shall); dēth, OE. dēaþ, (E. death); whan, OE. hwånne, (E. when); stōn, OE. stān, (E. stone); al, OE. eal, (E. all); besy, OE. bysiʒ, (E. busy); bēn, OE. bēon, (E. be); fēwe, OE. fēawe, (E. few); brēken, OE. brecan, (E. break); that, OE. þæt, (E. that); fīr, OE. fȳr, (E. fire); gōn, OE. 3ān, (E. go); clēne, OE. clǣne, (E. clean); knē, OE. knēo, (E. knee); māken, OE. macian, (E. make); hēvy, OE. hefiʒ, (E. heavy).

**Explain the origin of the italicized letters and the sounds they denote in the following ME. words:**

bo*we*, OE. boʒa, (E. bow); *chi*ken, OE. cicen, (E. chicken); bro*u*n, OE. brūn, (E. brown); *kn*ight, OE. cniht, (E. knight); come*n*, OE. cuman, (E. come); *quyk*, OE. cwic, (E. quick); dr*y*ven, OE. drīfan, (E. drive); lo*u*d, OE. hlūd; la*we*, OE. laʒu, (E. law); b*oo*k, OE. bōc; f*ie*ld, OE. feld; br*idg*e, OE. bryc3.

## *H. Changes in Pronunciation and Spelling during the New English Period.*

### 1. SPELLING.

The introduction of printing at the very beginning of the New English period greatly contributed to the unification and fixation of English spelling. Begun by Caxton in the last quarter of the 15th century, this process practically ended in the first half of the 18th century, after which the orthography altered but little. In general the spelling changes during the New English period were less radical than those of the previous one. Very many words in Modern English are spelled in the same way as they were by Caxton, nearly 5 centuries ago.

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

The phonetic change which had the most disturbing effect upon the spelling of that period was the loss of ME. [ə] written **e** (See p. 45).

a. In many cases the letter disappeared as well as the sound. E. g. ME. sone, nute > E. son, nut.

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

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

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

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

Of the other changes in spelling we shall mention the following.

a. New digraphs **oa** and **ea** were introduced to represent the long open [ǫ] and [ę]. ME. rood, boot, se, deel came to be written *road, boat, sea, deal* in the 16th century. It was an

improvement on ME. spelling which had mostly made no difference in representing [o̤] and [o̤], [e̤] and [e̤].

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 2. SOUNDS.

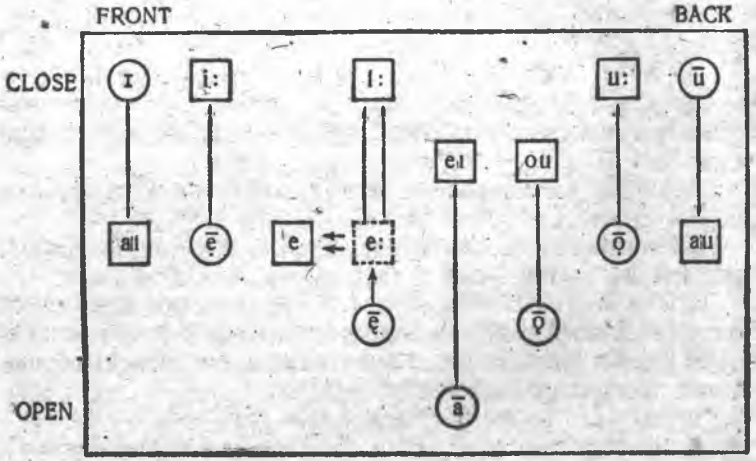
### a. Vowels.

#### 1) Long Vowels.

All the ME. long vowels [ī, e̤, e̤, ā, o̤, o̤, ū] changed during the New English period. This change, known as "the Great Vowel Shift", began, apparently, in the 15th century. There is no unanimity among linguists as to the phases each sound passed in the course of its development, nor as to the exact time the sound reached a certain phase. According to some

authors the present articulation of some of these sounds was reached only in the 19th century, whereas others think that the vowel shift took place between the 14th and 16th centuries.

The following diagram shows the initial and final stages in the articulation of each sound. The circles contain the ME. long vowels before the Shift. The squares display the resulting Modern English Sounds.




As we see, 5 out of 7 vowels became closer in their articulation, and only the two closest sounds — [ī] and [ū] — developed into diphthongs with an open first element.

Examples:

[ī > ai] ME. rīde, īs, E. ride [raid], ice [ais].
[ē > i:] ME. fēle, chēf, E. feel [fi:l], chief [tʃi:f].
[ę > i:] ME. spēke, ēte, E. speak [spi:k], eat [i:t].
[ā > ei] ME. tāle, lāk, E. tale [teil], lake [leik].
[ǫ > ou] ME. hōpe, rōd, E. hope [houp], road [roud].
[o > u:] ME. mon, fod, E. moon [mu:n], food [fu:d].
[ū > au] ME. hūs, hū, E. house [haus], how [hau].

**Note 1.** The names of the letters of the English alphabet also serve as examples. The Latin letter a was, as in other languages, called [α:] before the Vowel Shift. The letter k was called [kα:] and the letter h was [α:tʃ]. After the Shift they became [ei], [kei] and [eitʃ] respectively. The letter b was [bē], the letter d was [dē], p was [pē]. Now they are [bi:], [di:], and [pi:] respectively. In the same way o became [ou], i became [ai] etc.

**Note 2.** In words like *head, bread, sweat, breath* etc., where the digraph ea shows that the vowel before the Shift was [ɛ], we should have expected [i:]. But the fact is that in some cases, chiefly before [d], [t] or [θ], the sound was shortened in its [ɛ] stage and did not develop into [i:]. Similarly, [u:] was later shortened before [d], [t], [k] in words like *good, foot, book,* etc.

**Note 3.** The Great Vowel Shift was practically not reflected in spelling, which contributes greatly to the present discrepancy between spoken and written English.

**2) Short Vowels.**

a) As already mentioned, ME. [ə] (written e), which was often dropped even in Middle English (see p. 35), was in most cases lost altogether in Early New English.

*Comp.* ME. helpe, sone, bookes, rides and E. help, son, books, rides.

This process is so characteristic of the New English period, that Henry Sweet called it "the period of lost endings".

The sound [ə], or its variant [i], was preserved in a limited number of cases, mostly between sibilants or between dentals, as in *glasses, ashes, pages, wanted, decided,* etc. Also in *beloved, naked, learned* and some other words.

b) ME. [a] normally changed into [æ].

E. g. ME. cat, glad, man, E. cat [kæt], glad [glæd], man [mæn].

After [w] the development of [a] was different. It was rounded and coincided with [ɔ] from ME. [o].

E. g. E. was [wɔz], want, what, quantity.

**Note.** The influence of [w] was neutralized by a following guttural. E. g. wax [wæks], wag [wæg].

c) ME. [o] was delabialized in Early New English and sounded like [a] in other languages.

*Comp.* E. frock, F. frac, R. фрак.

Later on the rounding was partly restored in E. [ɔ] though it is still less rounded than, for instance, Russian or Ukrainian [o].

*Comp.* E. pot and R. пот.

**Note.** In the United States the vowel in *pot, not,* etc. is not labialized in most regions.

d) Short [u] was delabialized in the 17th century and it developed into a new sound [ʌ] as in *cup, son, sun, up.* The same sound is observed in *blood, flood, mother,* in which [u:]

(< ME. o̅) was shortened (before the 17th century): ME. blo̅d > NE. [blu:d > blud > bl ʌ d].

A preceding labial consonant usually prevented the delabialization of [u], as in E. *full, pull, bull, push* etc. Still sometimes delabialization took place even after a labial, as in *bug, bulb,* etc.

**3) Diphthongs.**

a) The ME. diphthongs [ai] and [ei] were gradually levelled under one sound [ei], the spelling being mostly **ay** or **ai**.

*Comp.* ME. day, wey, seil and E. day [dei], way [wei], sail [seil].

b) ME. [au] was monophthongized and became [ɔ:] as in *paw, law, cause, pause.*

c) ME. [eu] > [iu] which soon became [ju:], as in *new, dew, view.* The sound [ü] in French loan-words was usually replaced by the diphthongs [iu], later [ju:]. This is the reason why the letter **u** is called [ju:], the letter **q** — [kju:], the word *due* is pronounced [dju:], etc.

**Note.** After [r], [dʒ], [tʃ], [l] the first element [j] is often lost in Modern English, as in *rude, crew, chew, jury, blue.*

**4) Vowel Changes under the Influence of Consonants.**

So far we have spoken chiefly of vowels developing independently of the other sounds in their neighbourhood. But a great many vowel changes depended on a neighbouring sound, most often the consonants [r] and [l].

a) To begin with the sound [e] before [r] in the same syllable changed to [a] in the 15th century, so that [er] > [ar]. This change was in most cases reflected in spelling.

*Comp.* ME. derk, ferm, sterre and E. dark, farm, star.

In some words like *clerk, sergeant* the older spelling has been preserved.

b) Now before we proceed with the influence of [r] on the development of New English vowels we have to bear in mind that the articulation of the sound [r] changed. From being a vibrating sound (like the Russian [р]) it became more liquid and in the 17th century it was vocalized to [ə] after vowels. In most cases this [ə] and the preceding short vowel were fused into one long vowel:

ar > [ɑ:], as in *dark, part, star, heart;*

or > [ɔ:], as in *port, form, more, war* (see p. 45);

ir
ur } > [ə:], as in *bird, burden, person.*
er

As a result, new long vowels have appeared in English.

In most regions of the United States the sound [r] is still heard after vowels.

c) If the sound [r] happened to follow a long vowel, the result was a diphthong with [ə] as the second element (sometimes a triphthong).

ME. ēr > E. [iə], as in *here, beer.*
ME. ĕr > E. [ɛə] or [iə], as in *bear, wear,* or *dear, beard.*
ME. ŏr > E. [uə], as in *poor, moor.*
ME. ǫr > E. [ɔə; ɔ:], as in *oar, board.*
ME. ār > E. [ɛə], as in *hare, dare.*
ME. īr > E. [aɪə], as in *hire, fire.*
ME. ūr > E. [auə], as in *our, flower.*

Thus a whole set of new diphthongs and triphthongs have appeared.

d) Of great consequence was also the influence of the consonant [l] on the preceding vowels, especially [a]. This influence is connected with the development of an u-glide before [l], mostly after [a], sometimes after [o]. Thus, [al > > aᵘl > aul > ɔ:l], as in *all, fall, salt, bald;* [ol > oᵘl > > oul], as in *folk, bowl* (< ME. bolle).

The consonant [l] was often lost, especially before [k, m, f]. When [l] was lost before [k] the glide remained and the diphthong [au] normally developed into [ɔ:], as in *walk, talk, chalk.*

When [l] was lost before [m] or [f] the labial glide disappeared before the labial consonants and the preceding [a] was lengthened, as in *palm, calm, half, calf.*

e) E. [α:] has also developed from ME. [a] before the voiceless fricatives [s], [f], and [θ], as in *grass, grasp, past, ask, after, staff, path.* The process of development seems to have been: [a > æ > æ: > α:]. In most regions of the United States the vowel here is still [æ].

**b. Consonants.**

1) One of the most important changes of the 15th century was the voicing of [f], [s], [θ], [tʃ] and [ks] in weakly stressed words and syllables. The phenomenon is somewhat similar

to that discovered by K. Verner in the Old Germanic languages, and is sometimes referred to as "Verner's Law in English".

Examples:

ME. [f] > [v], as in *of*, *active* (< ME. actif), *pensive* (< pensif).

ME. [s] > [z], as in *is*, *his*, *comes*, *stones*, *possess*.

ME. [θ] > [ð], as in *with*, *the*, *they*.

ME. [tʃ] > [dʒ], as in *knowledge* (< ME. knowleche), *Greenwich* ['grinidʒ].

ME. [ks] > [gz], as in *examine*, *exhibit*, *exact*.

**Note.** After a stressed vowel voicing usually did not take place. E. g. *off*, *possess*, *cloth*, *rich*, *exercises*.

2) ME. [x] (written gh) has either been lost (mostly before [t]) or it has changed to [f] (mostly when final).

E. g. ME. daughter [dauxtər], eight [eixt] > E. [dɔ:tə], [eit],

ME. laugh (laux] > [lauf] > [la:f].

*Comp. half, calf* (p. 47).

Similarly, ME. cough [koux] > [kouf] > [kɔ:f], [kɔf]. Short [i] preceding [x] was usually lengthened when the latter was lost. E. g. ME. night [nixt] > [ni:t] > [nait].

**Note.** When gh became a "silent" digraph it was inserted in some words, which had never had the sound [x].

E. g. the French *delit* came to be written *delight* by analogy with *light*, *night*, etc.

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

**Note.** "Silent" b has been wrongly inserted in *thumb, crumb* (ME. thume, crume).

4) Final [ng] has been reduced to [ŋ].

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

5) Initial [k] or [g] before [n], and [w] before [r] have been lost, as in *knife, gnat, wrong*.

6) In the 15th century [d] before [r] often changed into [ð].

E. g. ME. fader > father, ME. weder > E. weather.

7) New sibilants developed in the 17th century from the combinations [s], [z], [t], or [d] + [j]; [sj] > [ʃ], [zj] > [ʒ], [tj] > [tʃ], [dj] > [dʒ]. This change took place mostly after stressed vowels.

Examples:

[sj] > [ʃ], as in *Russian, Asia, physician, nation* (ME. ['nāsjon] > ['neisjən] > ['neiʃn]). This change did not take place in such words as *suit, assume, pursue,* etc., because the stress followed the combination [sj]. There are, however, some exceptions like *sure* and *sugar.*

[zj] > [ʒ], as in *decision, usual, measure.* Not in *resume,* where the stress follows.

[tj] > [tʃ], as in *nature* (ME. ['nātiur] > ['neitjə] > > ['neitʃə]), *century, question.* Not in *tune, tutor* etc., where the stress follows.

[dj] > [dʒ], as in *soldier, India* (in careless speech). Not in *duty, induce,* where the stress follows.

## *I. The Modern English System of Sounds and Letters* [1]:

### 1. STRESSED VOWELS [2].

| Sounds | Letters | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| i: | e, ee, ea, ie, ei, i | we, feel, speak, chief, receive. machine. |
| ɪ | i, y, ui | pin, synonym, build. |
| e | e, ea | pen, head. |
| æ | a | man. |
| ɑ: | ar, al (+ m, f), a (+ ss, st, ft, th, etc.) | dark, calm, half, pass, past, grasp, after, path. |
| ɔ | o, a (after w, qu) | hot, was, quantity. |
| ɔ: | or, au, aw, a (+ l + cons.) | port, cause, law, walk, fall, salt. |
| u | u, oo (+ k) | pull, look. |
| u: (ju:) | oo, u, o, ui, ew | moon, rule, do, fruit, duty, suit, new. |
| ʌ | u, o, ou | sun, come, rough. |

[1] We have limited ourselves to the more typical ways of representing English sounds, mostly those explained in the foregoing pages.

[2] To make the table less complicated we present here only stressed vowels.

| Sounds | Letters | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| ə: | er, ir, ur, ear | person, bird, turn, earth |
| ei | a, ai, ay, ei, ey | late, sail, day, vein, they |
| ou | o, oa, ow, ou | no, cold, oak, know, though |
| ai | i, y | time, find, light, my |
| au | ou, ow | house, now |
| ɔi | oi, oy | coin, boy |
| iə | eer, ere, ear | beer, here, dear |
| ɛə | ar (+ vowel), ear | parent, care, bear |
| ɔə, ɔ: | oar, ore | roar, more |
| uə, (juə) | oor, ure | poor, pure |

## 2. CONSONANTS.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| p | p, pp | plan, apple |
| b | b, bb | bus, abbreviation |
| t | t, tt, ed | cat, bottom, asked |
| d | d, dd | dog, middle |
| k | k, c, ck, ch | book, king, cup, back, school |
| g | g, gg | good, beggar |
| f | f, ff, ph, gh | fire, stuff, photograph, laugh. |
| v | v, f | village, of |
| θ | th | three, path |
| ð | th | the, brother |
| s | s, ss, c, sc | some, glass, city, science |
| z | z, s, ss | zoo, rose, possess |
| ʃ | sh, ch, si, ssi | ship, machine, pension, profession |
| | ci, ti | academician, nation. |

## Exercises.

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

*Model:*

OE feor > ME fer > E far [ fɑ: ]
OE eo > ME e; ME er > NE ar; r > ə; ar > ɑ:

æfter, āȝan, ǣniȝ, rīsan, bæc, bāt, baþian, bēatan, briht, bera, bindan, bysiȝ, bītan, bitor, blæc, blēdan, blind, blōd,

bodi3, bo3a, bor3ian, bōt, bræ3en, brēad, brōþor, brūn, būr, carian, caru, cald, ceallian, cēap, cēpan, cicen, cild, cynde, cēse, clǣne, clāþian, clūdi3, cnāwan, cnēo, cniht, crāwa, cwēn, cuman, cursian, dæ3, dǣl, dēad, dēop, dēor, deorc, dra3an, peru, scōl, wascan, 3ræs, hefi3.

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

*Model:*

ME caughte > NE caught [kɔ:t]
ME [au] (au) > NE [ɔ:] (au); ME [x] (gh) >
> NE [—] (gh); ME [ə] (e) > NE [—] (—)

able, abusen, apperen, blamen, blōme, breeth, bōte, cause, certayn, chambre, cleer, cloos, conceven, conscience, counten, cure, cutten, deceyven, declaren, dīen, doute, reward, skye, troublen, seel, houre, equal.

**3. Show the historical development of the following E. words:**

*Model:*

E ground [graund] < ME ground [grund] < OE 3rund
E [au] (ou) < ME [u] (ou) < OE u (+ nd)

half, harm, ivy, loud, love, might, naked, no, our, pound, road, short, thread, small, town, tooth, water, year, wheat, write, sweet, shake, ash, bone, book, breath, chin, dew, knife, glass.

## *IV. AN OUTLINE HISTORY OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR.*

### *A. Some Common Germanic Features.*

It is the opinion of many scholars that the grammatical structure of the Old Germanic languages was, but for a few exceptions, similar to that of other Old Indo-European languages. They shared similar systems of the parts of speech, similar categories of the noun, the verb, etc.

The structure of the word is supposed to have been the same in all the Indo-European languages. Between the root and the ending there were usually stem-building suffixes. For instance, the Gothic word *sunus* (E. son) consisted of three parts, the

root **sun-**, the stem-building suffix **-u-**, and the ending of the nominative singular **-s**. Thus the stem of the word, **sunu-**, ended in the sound [u], and it is customary to speak in such cases of an **u**-stem. There were likewise **o**-stems, **ā**-stems, **n**-stems, etc. The paradigm of a word, that is the system of its endings, often depended on its stem-building suffix. The number of stems containing no stem-building suffixes, so that the endings were added directly to the root (root-stems), was comparatively small.

Later on this clear-cut structure of the word was blurred, especially in the Germanic languages. The endings were often fused with the preceding suffixes, or they were lost altogether. For instance, the Russian word сын or the English *son* have preserved neither the ending of the nominative singular, nor the stem-building suffix. In the OE. sunu "son" the last "u" was no longer felt as the stem-building suffix, but rather as an ending. Still, linguists have found it convenient to speak of the **u**-stem declension, **o**-stem declension, etc. even after the loss of the corresponding sounds.

Besides the features the Germanic languages shared with other members of the Indo-European family, they had certain peculiarities that marked them off as a separate branch. We shall dwell here only on the following two major features:

1) A special "weak" conjugation of verbs,

2) A special "weak" declension of adjectives.

1) The Modern English verbs *write* and *want* differ in the way they form the past tense. The former changes its root vowel *(write — wrote)*, which is called **ablaut** in German and **gradation** in English. The latter adds a suffix *(want — wanted)*. The ablaut verbs were called **strong** by Jacob Grimm, the others **weak**. Strong verbs, though typical of the Germanic languages, can be found in other branches as well. *Cf.* R. несу [н'ису́] — нес [н'о́с], Gk. leipo "I leave" — leloipa "I have left". But weak verbs, forming the past tense by adding a dental suffix (i. e. a suffix containing the sounds [d] or [t]), are found nowhere else.

Naturally, linguists are interested in the origin of the dental suffix, the most essential feature of these verbs. So far opinions differ. One point of view is that the dental suffix is an outgrowth of the verb *to do* which seems to have been used as an auxiliary verb of the past tense (something like *work did* for *worked*). In the course of time this enclitic *did* is supposed to have developed into the past tense suffix *-ed*. *Cf.* the Russian -ся (-себя) in умывается or the Ukrainian

-му (-иму "I take") in писатиму "I shall write". Later the suffix *-ed* is said to have spread to the past participle as well.

Another hypothesis is that the dental suffix first developed in the past participle. It might well happen, seeing that there are dental consonants in the participle suffixes of many Indo-European languages. *Cf.* R. разбит(ый), одет(ый), L. dictus "said", lectus "read", etc. According to this theory the dental suffix of the past tense is a later development on the analogy of the past participle.

2) In Modern English adjectives are indeclinable, but in Old English as well as in other Germanic languages almost every adjective could be declined in two different ways, and this is how it must have come about.

Originally the Indo-European adjective seems not to have differed from the noun in its paradigm. This is corroborated by facts like the Russian добр молодец, добра молодца, добру молодцу, or the Latin *amicus bonus, amicis bonis,* etc. But later the declension of adjectives was in most cases separated from that of nouns, acquiring some pronominal inflections. In Russian, for instance, the declension of full adjectives is now almost entirely pronominal. *Cf.* того красного стола, тому красному столу, etc. Likewise, the paradigms of Germanic adjectives contained many pronominal endings. This pronominal declension is usually called **strong**. But apart from it there developed a new declension called **weak** or **nominal** and connected with the n-stems.

In Modern Russian there have remained some 10 n-stem nouns: племя — плем-ен-и, знамя — знам-ен-и, etc. In other Indo-European languages, particularly in the Germanic languages, that class of nouns was much more numerous. Many of them were derived from adjectives and denoted persons or things possessing the qualities indicated by the corresponding adjectives. Thus, the Latin proper name *Cato* (g. *Catonis*) meaning "the sly one", «хитрец», was derived from the adjective *catus* "sly"; the Greek name *Platon* "the flat one" from the adjective *platys* "flat", etc. Such nouns are believed to have been regularly used in apposition to other nouns (*Cf.* конек-горбунок, жар-птица), denoting the qualities of persons or things, and eventually to have turned into adjectives. Their declension was therefore identical with the declension of n-stem nouns. Later, by analogy, this declension spread to almost all adjectives, so that each could be declined either according to the weak or according to the strong declension. The choice depended on the presence or absence of

a demonstrative or possessive pronoun or a similar defining word before the adjective. This usage has been well preserved in Modern German. *Cf. diese guten Männer* "these good men", where after the demonstrative *diese* the adjective has the **-n** suffix of the weak declension, and *gute Männer* "good men", where, without the demonstrative, the adjective is strong. Owing to its connection with defining words, the weak declension is also called **definite** as opposed to the **indefinite** strong declension.

## *B. Some West-Germanic and Anglo-Frisian Peculiarities.*

1. One of the features that were common to all the West Germanic languages and marked them off from the other groups was a kind of declinable infinitive. In Old English, for instance, there were two forms: *wrītan* and *tō wrītenne* (E. to write), *Wrītan* may be regarded as the nominative or common case, while *tō wrītenne* is the dative case with the preposition tō and the West Germanic doubling of consonants (**-nn-**, see p. 22). The dative infinitive usually expressed purpose (*Cf.* I have come here **to study**). In Old High German the infinitive had three cases.

2. A characteristic feature of the speech of the Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Frisians was the absence of person distinctions in the plural forms of the verb. One form was used for all persons, Compare, for instance, the person forms of the present indicative plural of the verb *bindan* (E. bind) in Gothic and Old English.

| | Gt. | OE. |
|---|---|---|
| 1 ps. | bindam | bindaþ |
| 2 ps. | bindiþ | |
| 3 ps. | bindand | |

## *C. Old English Morphology.*

### 1. NOUNS.

OE. nouns possessed the categories of number, case and gender. There were two numbers (singular and plural), four cases (nominative, genitive, dative and accusative) and three genders (masculine, feminine and neuter).

There existed also several types of declension. They are usually denoted in grammar books by the last sound the stem-

building suffix of the corresponding nouns is thought to have possessed in the common Indo-European language or its dialects. Hence such names as **o**-declension, **ā**-declension, **n**-declension, etc. And although R. волк, OE. wulf (E. wolf) no longer contain any stem-building suffix, they are said to belong historically to the **o**-stem declension, as well as L. lupus or Gk. lukos.

**Note.** With the change of IE. [o] > Gc. [a] and IE. [ā] > Gc. [ō] (see p. 21) IE. o-stem became Gc. a-stem and is treated as such by many authors. Likewise IE. ā-stems are often treated as ō-stems in Germanic grammars. In this book the declensions are named in accordance with the IE. forms of the stems because that helps to associate the Old English declensions with the corresponding Russian or Latin ones, and it seems more consistent inasmuch as other stems, notably s-stems, are usually taken in their IE. form.

It has become traditional to call the declensions of stems ending in a vowel **strong**, of **n**-stems **weak**, and to designate all other declensions as **minor**. Below is a simple diagram of the OE. system of declensions.

| Vowel Stems | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Strong Declensions | | | |
| **o**-stems | **ā**-stems | **i**-stems | **u**-stems |
| masc.<br>neut. | fem. | all<br>genders | masc.<br>fem. |

| Consonant Stems | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| The Weak Declension | Minor Declensions | | |
| **n**-stems | root-stems | **r**-stems | **s**-stems |
| all<br>genders | masc.<br>fem. | masc.<br>fem. | neut. |

a) The **o**-stem declension corresponds to the second declension of Russian and Latin. It comprised very many OE. nouns of the masculine and neuter genders and played the most important role in the history of English noun inflections.

Here is the paradigm of the OE. noun *hund*, mo. (i. e. masculine, **o**-stem) "dog" (E. hound).

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sg. n. | hund | Pl. n. | hundas |
| g. | hundes | g. | hunda |
| d. | hunde | d. | hundum |
| a. | hund | a. | hundas. |

The ending -es of the g. sg. has eventually developed into Modern English 's of the possessive case, and the ending -as of the n. and a. pl. into the plural ending -(e)s of Modern English. Thus the two productive endings of Modern English nouns go down to the paradigm of the Old English masculine o-stems.

The neuter o-stems differed only in n. and a. pl. where the usual ending was -u instead of -as. For instance. OE. sg. n. and a. scip (E. ship), loc (E. lock) — pl. n. and a. scipu, locu. That -u ending regularly disappeared after long syllables (see p. 28) and the form of the plural became identical with that of the singular.

E. g. OE. sg. n., a. word, wīf (E. wife), scēap (E. sheep), dēor (E. deer)

pl. n., a. word wīf scēap dēor

Eventually the nouns *word, wife* and others have acquired the regular plural ending -s, while *sheep, deer, swine* have retained their uninflected plurals.

O-stems are usually subdivided into pure o-stems, jo-stems and wo-stems, some peculiarities of the paradigm being connected with the semivowels [j] and [w] of the stem-build suffix.

b) Other Vowel Stems.

The ā-declension comprised only feminine nouns. It corresponded to the first or ā-declension of Russian or Latin. *Cf.* R. рука, нога, L. silva, "forest". This declension has left no traces in Modern English, so we do not discuss it here, as well as the i- and u-declensions. The nouns of these declensions gradually got the inflections of the o-stems.

c) n-stems.

The weak n-declension comprised many masculine and feminine nouns, but only two nouns of the neuter gender OE. ēaʒe (E. eye) and OE ēare (E. ear).

Here is the paradigm of the OE noun oxa mn (E. ox).

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sg. n. | oxa | Pl. n. | oxan |
| g. | oxan | g. | oxena |
| d. | oxan | d. | oxum |
| a. | oxan | a. | oxan |

The ending -an was originally the stem-building suffix. *Cf.* ох-ен-а, also the Russian им-ен-а, им-ен; сем-ен-а, сем-ян.

The Modern English plural ending -en in *oxen* is derived from OE. -an in *oxan* pl. n. and a. The ending -an (ME. -en) was later extended to some nouns of other declensions, e. g. *children, brethren.* (See p. 73).

ɸ) Root-stems.

As already mentioned (p. 52), the peculiarity of the root-stems was that they contained no stem-building suffixes, the endings being simply added to the root. In OE there existed a few masculine and feminine nouns of that type.

Here is the paradigm of the OE. noun fōt **root-m** (E. foot).

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Sg. | n. | fōt | Pl. n. fēt |
| | g. | fōtes | g. fōta |
| | d. | fēt | d. fōtum |
| | a. | fōt | a. fēt |

It differs from the paradigm of the o-stems only in the d. sg. and n., a. pl., where we find a different root vowel. The change [ō > ē] took place under the influence of the sound [i] (see p. 26) that had once been in the endings of those cases (d. sg. fēt < Gc. *fōti and n. a. pl. fēt < Gc.*fōtis). *Cf.* R. мышь — мыши. When the endings were later lost, the only difference between the sg. and the pl. was the root vowel, and this difference has been retained in Modern English.

Following are other nouns of the same declension.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| OE sg. | tōþ- | pl. | tēþ | (E. tooth — teeth) |
| OE sg. | ȝōs- | pl. | ȝēs | (E. goose — geese) |
| » » | mann- | » | menn | (E. man — men) |
| » » | mūs- | » | mȳs | (E. mouse — mice) |
| » » | lūs- | » | lȳs | (E. louse — lice) |

A few other nouns belonged to this declension in OE., such as OE sg. bōc (E. book) — pl. bēc, OE sg. hnutu (E. nut) — pl. hnyte, but later they conformed to the general pattern of forming the plural by suffixing -(e)s.

What surprises the student of English is why nouns like *man, foot,* or *tooth* did not conform to the general tendency and have preserved their peculiar way of forming the plural. A. I. Smirnitsky offers the following explanation.

1) These words are used very frequently, which usually impedes the influence of analogy. It will be noted that the greatest number of irregularities are found among the words used most frequently, such as the verb *to be,* the personal pronouns, etc.

2) The difference between the singular and the plural of these nouns is not merely grammatical, but to some extent lexical as well, the plural forms having an additional "collective" meaning. *Cf.* человек — люди.

The same might be true with regard to the nouns *sheep, deer, fish,* too.

e) s-stems.

This minor declension is of interest to us chiefly in connection with the form *children.*

In Russian there are a few s-stem nouns: небо — неб-ес-а, чудо — чуд-ес-а. IE. [s] > Gc. [z] (Verner's law, see p. 21). In West-Germanic [z] > [r] (rhotacism, see p. 23). Thus an IE. s-stem became an r-stem in OE. Nouns of this declension were neuter (*cf.* чудо, небо, слово) and formed the plural in the following way:

OE n., a. sg. lāmb (E. lamb), ǣȝ (E. egg), cealf (E. calf), cild (E. child)

OE n., a. pl. lāmbru ǣȝru cealfru cildru

Note. *Cild* had also an uninflected n., a. pl. *cild* (*cf. word*, p. 56). In ME. cildru > childre (see pp. 35, 73) and has acquired an additional plural ending in -n by analogy with the n-stems. Hence *children.*

f) r-stems.

These are probably the only Indo-European stems that have been preserved in Modern English. In Russian the nouns мать — мат-ер-и, дочь — доч-ер-и may be taken as specimens of this declension. In OE. a few masculine and feminine nouns of relationship belonged to this type: fæder (E. father), brōþor (E. brother), mōdor (E. mother), dohtor (E. daughter), sweostor (E. sister).

As the endings of the o-stems were later extended to these nouns, there is no point in discussing their paradigms in Old English.

## 2. PRONOUNS.

It is expedient to treat the Old English personal pronouns of the first and second persons separately because of their peculiarities.

1) They were the only words in Old English which distinguished three numbers: singular, dual, and plural.

Note. Judging by the dual forms in Old Slavonic, Old Greek, Sanskrit, etc. the dual number was once used very widely in different parts of speech. Gothic monuments reveal only verbal and pronominal dual forms.

2) Unlike the pronouns of the third person they had no gender distinctions.

3) Their paradigms contained more suppletive forms (built from different roots) than other pronouns.

| | | Singular | Dual | Plural |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| First Person | n. | ic (E. I) | wit ("we two") | wē (E. we) |
| | g. | mīn (E. mine, my) | uncer | ūre (E. our) |
| | d. | mē (E. me) | unc | ūs (E. us) |
| | a. | mē (E. me) | unc | ūs (E. us) |
| Second Person | n. | þū (E. thou) | 3it ("you two") | 3ē (E. ye) |
| | g. | þīn (E. thine) | incer | ēower (E. your) |
| | d. | þē (E. thee) | inc | ēow (E. you) |
| | a. | þē (E. thee) | inc | ēow (E. you) |

As we see, except for the loss of the dual number these pronouns have been preserved in Modern English (with the regular sound changes) though the forms *thou, thine, thee* and *ye* are archaic. The Indo-European personal pronouns of the third person are demonstrative by origin. Though the initial **h-** of E. *he* is thought to have been an innovation of the Anglo-Frisian group (*Cf.* G. er, R. он), it is interesting to correlate *he* and *here, that* and *there.* Below are the commonest forms of the Old English personal pronouns of the third person.

| | Singular | | | Plural |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Masculine | | Neuter | Feminine | |
| n. hē | (E. he) | hit (E. it) | hēo | hīe |
| g. his | (E. his) | his | hire (E. her) | hiera |
| a. him | (E. him) | him | hire (E. her) | him |
| d. hine | | hit (E. it) | hīe | hīe |

As can be seen, only five OE forms have developed into Modern English. The rest have been lost or replaced.

The Old English demonstrative pronoun now represented by *that — those* had a similar paradigm with the exception of the instrumental case of the masculine and neuter.

| | Singular | | | Plural |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Masculine | Neuter | Feminine | |
| n. | sē (E. the) | þæt E. that) | sēo | þā (E. those) |
| g. | þæs | þæs | þāre | þāra |
| a. | þæm | þæm | þāre | þām |
| d. | þone | þæt (E. that) | þā | þā |
| i. | þy | þy | | |

The "demonstrative" meaning of these pronouns was often weakened, and they were used much like the definite article of Modern English or Modern German. This was usually

accompanied by loss of stress and sometimes by change o form, e. g. sē > se.

By comparing the last two paradigms we can note some typical pronominal endings. They are -ne for the a. sg. masc (hine, þone), -m for the d. sg. masc. and neut. (him, þǣm). *Cf.* R. тому, ему (but in the d. pl. -m is found both in pronouns and in nouns: OE. him, þǣm, hundum, R. им, тем, собакам), re for the g. and d. sg. fem. (hire, þǣre), -ra for the g. pl. hira, þāra).

### 3. ADJECTIVES.

Old English adjectives possessed the categories of number (singular and plural), gender (masculine, feminine and neuter), case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and instrumental) and comparison (three degrees: positive, comparative and superlative). They are also said to have possessed a certain category of "definiteness — indefiniteness" connected with the two-fold declension of adjectives.

As in other Germanic languages (see p. 53) nearly every OE adjective could get the inflections of either the strong (pronominal, indefinite) declension or the weak (nominal, definite) declension, which depended on the absence or presence of a demonstrative pronoun or a similar defining word. When not preceded by such an indicator, the adjectives wīs (E. wise) and dol "foolish", for instance, were declined as follows.

| | Masculine | Neuter | Feminine |
|---|---|---|---|
| Singular | n. wīs, dol | wīs, dol | wīs, dolu |
| | g. wīses, doles | wīses, doles | wīsre, dolre |
| | d. wīsum, dolum | wīsum, dolum | wīsre, dolre |
| | a. wīsne, dolne | wīs, dol | wīse, dole |
| | i. wīse, dole | wīse, dole | — |
| Plural | n. wīse, dole | wīs, dolu | wīsa, dola |
| | g. wīsra, dolra | wīsra, dolra | wīsra, dolra |
| | d. wīsum, dolum | wīsum, dolum | wīsum, dolum |
| | a. wīse, dole | wīs, dolu | wīsa, dola |

**Note.** Adjectives with a short root syllable, like *dol*, retained the ending -u in n. sg. fem. and n., a. pl. neut., whereas adjectives with long syllables, like *wīs*, had already lost it (see p. 28). The pronominal endings are marked in the paradigm above.

When preceded by a demonstrative pronoun, as in sē wīsa mann (E. the wise man), sēo wīse lār (E. the wise lore, *cf.* folklore), þæt wīse wīf (E. the wise wife), the adjective wīs

was declined like an n-stem noun, with the exception of the g. pl. -ra borrowed from the strong declension of adjectives.

| | Singular | | Plural |
|---|---|---|---|
| Masculine | Feminine | Neuter | |
| n. wīsa | wīse | wīse | wīsan |
| g. wīsan | wīsan | wīsan | wīsra (wīsena) |
| d. wīsan | wīsan | wīsan | wīsum |
| a. wīsan | wīsan | wīsan | wīsan |

The so-called qualitative adjectives were inflected for the degrees of comparison. The ending of the comparative degree was usually -ra, of the superlative -ost. E. g. heard (E. hard) — heardra (E. harder) — heardost (E. hardest). These endings were an OE development of the Gc. suffixes *-ōzan- and *-ōsta-. But in Gc. there were also other suffixes of comparison, *-izan- and *-ista-. This accounts for cases like lån3 (E. long) — len3ra — len3est, where the mutation [å > e] was caused by the sound [i], and the ending -est was the reduction of -ista-. Similarly, OE eald (E. old) — ieldra (E. elder, older) — ieldest (E. eldest, oldest).

A few adjectives had comparative and superlative forms from a different root from that of the positive (suppletivity).

| Positive | Comparative | Superlative |
|---|---|---|
| 3ōd (E. good) | betera (E. better) | betst (E. best) |
| yfel (E. evil) "bad" | wyrsa (E. worse) | wyrst (E. worst) |
| mycel (E. much) "great" | māra (E. more) | mǣst (E. most). |
| lytel (E. little) | lǣssa (E. less) | lǣst (E. least). |

#### 4. ADVERBS.

The adverb in Old English was inflected only for comparison. The comparative was regularly formed with -or and the superlative with -ost, E. g. hearde "severely" — heardor — heardost.

The most productive adverb-forming suffix was -e. By origin it was the ending of the instrumental case, neuter of the strong declension of adjectives. The adverbialization of this case form produced many adverbs of adjectival nature. *Cf.* dēop (E. deep) —dēope "deeply", lån3 (E. long) — lån3e, etc. In Russian many adverbs are formed by means of the adverbialization of the instrumental case of nouns: ночью, верхом, боком, etc.

OE adjectives formed from nouns with the help of the suffix -līc (E. g. frēondlīc "friendly", cræftlīc "skillful") could further form adverbs by adding -e (frēondlīce, cræftlīce).

Gradually a great number of adverbs in -līce were formed, and -līce was regarded as an adverbial suffix which could be used beside or instead of -e. E. g. hearde and heardlīce. Later -līce developed into -ly.

### 5. VERBS.

Though the system of the verb in the Old Germanic languages was much simpler than in Latin, Greek or Sanskrit, it was more complicated than that of any other part of speech. The OE verb had the categories of mood, tense, number, person and rudiments of aspect, voice and order [1]. It comprised both finite and non-finite forms (the infinitive, participle I, and participle II). Besides, the verb was divided in two great classes, the **weak** and the **strong** (see p. 52). Let us begin with the categories.

a) There were three moods in Old English. the indicative, the subjunctive and the imperative. The subjunctive was used much more extensively than in Modern English. (See p. 71).

b) The category of number was much more developed than in Modern English. Number was distinguished not only in the indicative, but in the subjunctive and the imperative as well. There were only two numbers, singular and plural. The OE verb had already no dual endings, so that the plural forms of the verb were also used with the dual forms of the personal pronouns.

c) The three persons were distinguished only in the singular of the indicative mood. E. g. ic wrīte (E. I write), þū wrītest, hē wrīteþ. In the plural there was one ending for all persons (see p. 54): wē (ʒē, hīe) wrītaþ.

d) OE verbs distinguished only two tenses by inflection, the present and the past. There was no future tense, a future action being denoted by a present tense form, as in Modern English *I leave to-morrow*. The two tenses are found not only in the indicative, but in the subjunctive as well.

e) Old English verbs are said to have distinguished two aspects — the perfective (expressed with the help of some prefixes, particularly the prefix -ʒe) and the imperfective (without prefixes). E. g. the OE. dōn, wrītan are regarded as corresponding to the Russian imperfective делать, писать, whereas OE. ʒedōn, ʒewrītan to the Russian perfective сделать, написать. But such correspondence was irregular. Some

[1] A category formed by the opposition "perfect" — "non-perfect".

verbs could express perfectivity without prefixes, e. g. cuman (E. come), brinʒan (E. bring). Many prefixes only changed the lexical meanings of the verbs without necessarily making them perfective. E. g. the verb understándan (E. understand) could correspond to both понимать and понять. Hence it is difficult to speak of aspect as a stable category in Old English.

f) One may speak of some rudiments of the category of voice in Old English. It was by no means a development of the IE. and Gc. voice systems. Of all the Germanic languages only Gothic retained some of the IE. passive forms. In Old English there remained almost no traces of voice distinctions in the finite verb. Only the opposition of the two participles, the active participle I *writende* (E. writing) and the passive participle II *writen* (E. written) might be regarded as a partial (see below) voice opposition, especially in view of the fact that the passive voice of Modern English has developed on the basis of participle II.

g) Participle II expressed not only "passivity", but very often "priority" as well. E. g. Hē wīf hæfde, him ʒeʒiefen of Francena cynin3cynne (E. He had a wife (that had been) given to him from the royal family of the Franks). Thus (ʒe)ʒiefen (E. given) — ʒiefende (E. giving) might also be regarded as a partial opposition of "priority"—"non-priority", or, in other words, an opposition of the category of order [1], always bearing in mind that the Modern English perfect forms have also developed on the basis of participle II.

**Strong Verbs.**

The strong verbs were not very numerous in Old English (above 300), but most of them occurred very frequently.

In Modern English a verb like *write* is characterized by three basic forms: the infinitive (*write*), the past tense (*wrote*) and participle II (*written*). All the other forms can be constructed on their basis. In Old English the corresponding verb had four basic forms: 1) the infinitive *wrītan*, 2) the past singular *wrāt*, 3) the past plural *writon*, 4) participle II *writen*. In Modern English only the verb *to be* has preserved different forms for the past singular (*was*) and the past plural (*were*).

It will be noted that the basic forms of the verb *wrītan* had the following series of root vowels ī — ā — i — i. There were other verbs in Old English with the same series of grada-

[1] *See* p. 62.

tion, e. g. *drīfan — drāf — drifon — drifen* (E. drive); *rīdan — rād — ridon — ridon* (E. ride) etc. All these verbs are united in one class, traditionally the first class. Altogether scholars distinguish seven classes of strong verbs in Old English and other Old Germanic languages, though the actual variety of gradation is much greater owing to the different development of the same sounds in various positions.

Yet all the patterns of gradation, so vividly displayed in the Germanic strong verbs but found also in other parts of speech and in various branches of the Indo-European family, (see p. 52), are thought to have developed from a limited number of common IE. patterns, especially the pattern **e — o — zero** as illustrated by наберу — набор — набрать. After IE **o** > Gc. **a** (see p. 21) the pattern must have become **e — a — zero**; **e** in the first basic form, **a** in the second, **zero** in the rest. The first five classes of strong verbs seem to have had this pattern of root-vowel gradation and to have been distinguished from one another by the sound which followed the root vowel. In the first class it was the sound **i**. Hence the infinitive must have contained **e + i**, the past singular **a + i**, the past plural and participle II **zero + i**. The combination **ei** was early contracted in the Germanic languages and became **ī**, **ai** > **ā** in OE. (see p. 25), **zero + i = i**. Hence the gradation series of the first class **ī — ā — i — i**.

In the second class the root vowel was followed by the sound **u**, which resulted in the combinations **eu — au — u — u**. Gc. eu, au > OE ēo, ēa (see p. 25). IE **u** often changed to **o** in Germanic. Hence, the gradation series of the second class was **ēo — ēa — u — o**.

E. g. flēoȝan — flēaȝ — fluȝon — floȝen (E. fly).
cēosan — cēās — curon — coren (E. choose).

Note. The interchange [s] > [r] in the last example is of the same nature as in *was — were* (see p. 23): [s] > [z] (Verner's law), [z] > [r] (rhotacism).

In some verbs of the second class the root vowel of the first basic form was **ū** (it is not very clear why).

E. g. būȝan — bēaȝ — buȝon — boȝen (E. bow).

In the third class the root vowel was followed by two consonants the first of which was **m, n, r, l or h**. The development of [e] and [a] before these consonants was not the same in OE. Before nasals Gc. [e], [a] > OE [i], [å] (see pp. 24, 25). Before **h, r, l** + cons, Gc. [e], [a] > OE [eo], [ea] (see p. 24). Where there was a zero root vowel Germanic usually developed

the sound [u] which remained before nasals and often changed to [o] in other positions. Hence we have the following varieties of the third class.

a) findan — fånd — fundon — funden (E. find).

b) steorfan — stearf — sturfon — storfen (E. starve).

In the fourth class the root vowel was followed by m, r, or l. And again Gc. [e, a] were raised before [m] to [i, å]; but before the liquids [e] was retained, and [a] > [æ] (see p. 24). The main varieties of the fourth class are as follows:

a) niman — nåm — nōmon — numen ("take", G. nehmen).

b) beran — bær — bæron — boren (E. bear).

The long vowel of the past plural has not been explained satisfactorily. It corresponds to WGc. ā < OE ō before nasals / OE ǣ in other cases (see pp. 24—25). The WGc. correlation [a] : [ā] of the past singular and past plural is a kind of quantitative gradation.

In the fifth class the root vowel was followed by a single consonant (but not a nasal or a liquid).

E. g. tredan — træd — trǣdon — treden.

The root vowel [e] of participle II is the only difference from variant b) of the fourth class. There existed some variants of class V. For instance, if the infinitive had contained the sound [j] in its suffix there was doubling of consonants and mutation (see pp. 22, 26).

E. g. sittan — sæt — sǣton — seten (E. sit).

After palatal consonants we find [ie] instead of [e] and [ea] instead of [æ] (see p. 27).

E. g. ȝiefan — ȝeaf — ȝeafon — ȝiefen (E. give).

The gradation of class VI is of a different type. In Old English it was usually **a — ō — ō — a.**

E. g. faran — fōr — fōron — faren (E. "go", G. fahren).

Verbs of the seventh class are usually called reduplicating because originally they built up some of their forms by doubling part of the root. *Cf.* Gk. leloipa, L. pepigi, Gt. haihait. In Old English there remained very few traces of reduplication, and the verbs of the seventh class were usually distinguished by the vowels of the preterite which were either [ē] or [ēō]. The vowels of the infinitive show considerable variety, but are always repeated in participle II.

E. g. slǣpan — slēp — slēpon — slæpen (E. sleep).

cnāwan — cnēow — cnēowon — cnāwen (E. know).

As already mentioned, the actual variety of gradation in Old English was considerably greater than represented here. As a result, the system of strong verbs could hardly be

productive. The overwhelming majority of newly created or newly borrowed verbs followed the pattern of the weak conjugation. Even some of the existing strong verbs eventually became weak.

**Weak Verbs.**

Weak verbs are, as we know, an innovation of the Germanic languages. Most of them were derived from nouns, adjectives, and other parts of speech with the help of the stem-building suffix i/j which together with the ending -an of the infinitive gave -jan or -ian. The suffix i/j caused mutation (see p. 26) and the doubling of consonants (see p. 22).

Examples: OE fōda (E. food) — fēdan (E. feed), Gt. fōdjan;
OE. ful (E. full) — fyllan (E. fill), Gt. fulljan.

The form of the dental suffix — the main feature of weak verbs — is used as a classification basis. Usually three classes of weak verbs are distinguished in Old English.

1. The first class formed its preterite in -ede (after short stems) or -de (after long stems), and its participle II in -ed.

E. g. fremman "to perform" — fremede — fremed
dēman (E. deem) — dēmde — dēmed.

**Note.** The stem-building suffix i/j was lost after long vowels and weakened to [e] after short ones.

After voiceless consonants -de became -te owing to assimilation.

E. g. cēpan (E. keep) — cēpte — cēped, cēpt
settan (E. set) — sette — sete, sett

**Note.** As to E. vowel interchange in *keep — kept* etc. see p. 37.

In some 20 verbs of the first class the -i-suffix was missing in the preterite and participle II, so that there was no mutation in those forms.

E. g. sellan "give" (E. sell) — sealde (E. sold)— seald (E. sold).
Gt. saljan, A-S *sæljan > OE sellan (æ > e, see p. 26).
Gt. salda, A-S *sælde > OE sealde (æ > ea, see p. 24).

Likewise, tellan "count" (E. tell) — tealde — teald;
sēcan (E. seek, Gt. sōkjan) — sōhte — sōht (E. sought);
brenȝan/brinȝan (E. bring, — brōhte — brōht (E. brought);
þencan (E. think) — þōhte — þōht (E. thought), etc.

2. A very large number of weak verbs belonged to the second class. Their infinitive ending was **-ian** (< Gc. -ōjan) that of the preterite **-ode**, and of participle II **-od**

E. g. hatian (E. hate) — hatode — hatod
lufian (E. love) — lufode — lufod

3. Only four verbs remained in the third class in OE. Three of them have survived.

libban — lifde — lifd (E. live)
habban — hæfde — hæfd (E. have)
secȝan — sæȝde/sǣde — sæȝd/sǣd (E. say)

## Preterite-Present Verbs.

So far we have spoken of verbs which were either strong or weak. But there was a small yet important group of verbs in Old English which shared some of the characteristics of both strong and weak verbs. Of the twelve verbs of the group six are retained in Modern English. They are *can, may, must, ought, shall* and *dare*. They are called preterite-presents because their present tenses are derived from old preterites. Originally they were strong verbs whose past-tense forms gained a "present" meaning and ousted the present-tense forms. Note, for instance, that in Modern English the present tense *can* is similar in form to the past tense *ran* of the verb *to run*, and *may* resembles *lay*, the past tense of the verb *to lie*. To fill the deficiency left in the preterite, these verbs developed new past-tense forms of the weak pattern.

Below are the basic forms of some of these verbs in OE.

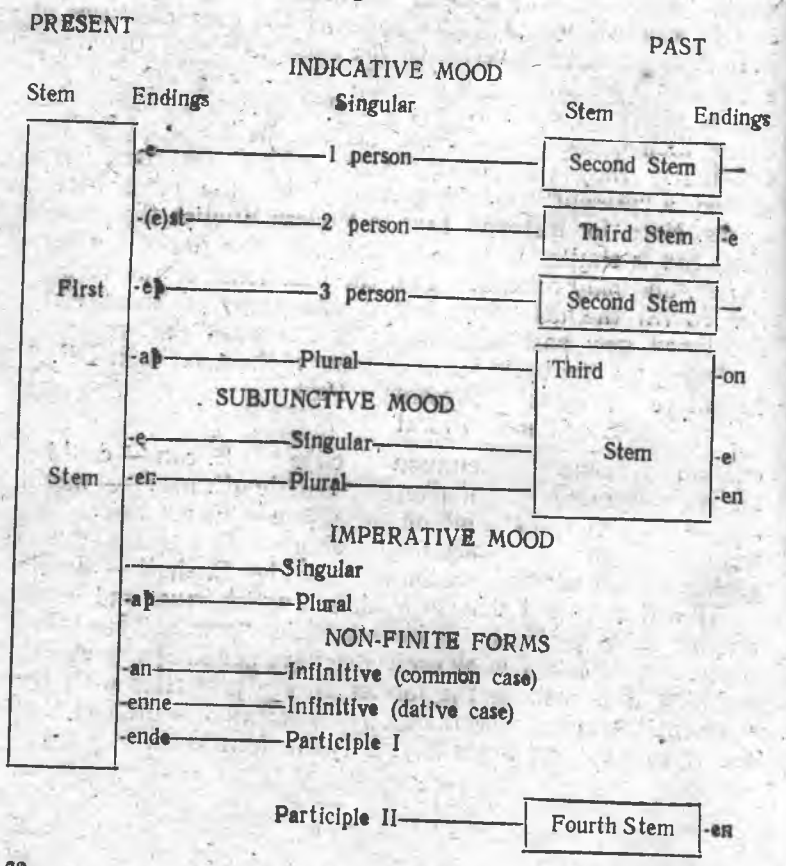
| Infinitive | Present Singular | Present Plural | Past | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| cunnan | cann | cunnon | cūþe | E. can — could |
| maȝan | mæȝ | maȝon | meahte | E. may — might |
| — | mōt | mōton | mōste | E. must |
| āȝan | āh | āȝon | āhte | E. ought |
| sculan | sceal | sculon | sceolde | E. shall — should |

It will be noted that in Modern English *must* and *ought* another shifting of meaning from "past" to "present" has taken place: the secondary weak preterites have acquired a "present" meaning thus making the former strong preterites with the "present" meaning superfluous. This accounts for the fact that the verbs *must* and *ought* have only one form each.

## Anomalous Verbs.

The OE verb *bēon* (E. be), dōn (E. do), *gān* (E. go) and *willan* (E. will) belonged to none of the above mentioned groups. These verbs were used so frequently that they were able to preserve many of the irregularities characteristic of the older stages of the language. The paradigm of the verb *bēon*, for instance, contained several different roots (suppletivity). The past tense forms were those of the strong verb *wesan* (V class). The verb *gān* also had a suppletive past tense form code later replaced by *went*, the past tense of the verb *wendan* "turn".

## The Conjugation of Strong Verbs.



**The Conjugation of Weak Verbs.**

But for minor differences, the endings of the present tense were identical with those of the strong verbs. The endings of the past tense were different. Here are the forms of the past tense of the verbs cēpan (E. keep) — class I, lufian (E. love) — class II, sec3an (E. say) — class III.

| Mood | Numb. | Pers. | Root Suff. End. | Root Suff. End. | Root Suff. End. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Indicative | | 1 | cēp t e | luf od e | sæ3 d e |
| | Sg. | 2 | cēp t est | luf od est | sæ3 d est |
| | | 3 | cēp t e | luf od e | sæ3 d e |
| | Pl. | all | cep t on | luf od on | sæ3 d on |
| Subjunctive | Sg. | all | cēp t e | luf od e | sæ3 d e |
| | Pl. | all | cep t en | luf od en | sæ3 d en |
| Participle II | | | (3e) cēp t | (3e) luf od | (3e) sæ3 d |

## *D. Old English Syntax.*

The syntactic structure of a language is usually closely connected with its morphology. In a highly inflected language a word mostly carries with it indications of its class, of its function in the sentence, of its relations to other words. It depends but little on its position in the sentence, and it may do without special function words. With the loss of inflections the dependence of the word grows. Much of the difference between the Old English and the Modern English syntax is of that nature.

a) The order of words in a sentence was comparatively free in Old English as contrasted with the rigid word order of Modern English. The most widely used patterns of word order were the following.

1) Direct word order (SP): the subject preceded the predicate, as in Modern English.

E. g. Ohthere sæde his hlāforde... "Ohthere said to his lord..."

2) Inverted word order (PS): the predicate preceded the subject. Such word order was usually observed when the

sentence began with an adverbial modifier or some other secondary part.

E. g. þā fōr hē norþryhte "then he travelled northward": Fela spela him sǣdon þā Beormas "The Permians told him many stories".

3) The so-called synthetic word order or the "framing structure" (S...P) usually found in subordinate clauses. The subject was placed at the beginning of the clause, the predicate at its end, all the secondary parts being inserted between them.

E. g. Ohthere sǣde his hlāforde Alfrede cyninȝe, þǣt he ealra Norþmånna norþmest būde. "Ohthere said to his lord, king Alfred, that he had lived farther north than all northmen".

b) The comparative freedom of word order was felt not only in the predicative word combination but in other combinations of words, too. It is by no means rare to find modifiers following their nouns instead of preceding them. E. g. wine mīn Unferd "my friend U." Sunu Beanstanes "B's son". Prepositions, which usually preceded the nouns or pronouns they governed, often followed them, sometimes at a considerable distance, as in the following examples: Him māra fultum tō cōm "More help came to him" ; þā stōd him sum mån æt "then some man stood near him".

c) In Old English the inflections played a much greater role in the indication of syntactical relations between words in a sentence or group than in Modern English. Thus, in the Old English sentence Ohthere sǣde his hlāforde... the ending -e of *hlāforde* showed that the noun was in the dative case and that it fulfilled the function of the indirect object. In the Modern English translation "Ohthere said to his lord" the relations formerly expressed by the dative case ending are indicated with the help of the preposition *to*. Similarly, in the word-combinations nīda ofercumen "overcome by afflictions", mǣres līfes mån "a man of glorious life" the OE genitive case inflections express relations which are usually rendered by means of prepositions in Modern English.

d) Grammatical agreement and government were of much greater importance in Old English than in Modern English structure. E. g. wiþ alne (a. sg. masc.) þone (a. sg. masc.) here (a. sg. masc.) "with all that army"; tō þǣm (d. pl.) ōþrum (d. pl.) þrim (d. pl.) scipum (d. pl.) "to those (pl.) other three ships (pl.)".

e) The subject of a sentence or clause was frequently unexpressed in Old English.

E. g. Bu3on to bence "(They) bent to the bench"; Hē þē æt sunde oferflāt, hæfde māre mæ3en "He beat you at swimming, (he) had greater strength".

f) In Old English there were some types of 'impersonal' sentences not found in Modern English, but close to the Russian мне хочется, меня знобит.

E. g. Nū þincþ mē "Now I think" (*Cf.* E. methinks, R. мне думается). Similarly, Him 3elomp ему удалось, hine nānes þin3es ne lyste ему ничего не хотелось, его ничто не интересовало.

g) In OE usage multiple negation was perfectly normal, as in the last example, or in the following sentence: Hē ne mihte nan pin3 3esēon "He could see nothing"..., Ne hit næfre ne 3ewurþe"..., "nor may it ever happen".

h) The OE interrogative pronouns hwæt (E. what), hwilc (E. which) hwā (E. who) etc. were not used as relative pronouns. Relative clauses were usually introduced by the invariable þe. alone or with a demonstrative pronoun.

E. g. þe mān hæt... "which is called"; sē þe his ealdormān wæs "who was his chief".

i) OE complex sentences often involved correlation. There were many sets of correlative elements in Old English; among the commonest were þā (...þā)...þā, þonne... þonne, swā... swā.

E. g. þā hē þā þās andsware onfēn3, þā on3ān hē sōna sin3an. "When, he received this answer, (then) he at once began to sing"; þonne hē 3eseah...þonne ārās hē "When he saw... (then) he arose..."; ...swā feor swā hē meahte... "...as far as he could...".

j) The subjunctive mood was an additional means of indicating subordination in OE complex sentences. It is mostly found in clauses of condition, concession, cause, result, purpose, in indirect questions, though it was by no means rare in independent sentences or principal clauses.

Examples: Him wǣre betere þæt hē næfre 3eboren, wǣre "It would have been better for him if he had never been born"; þēah mān swā ne wēne "although people do not think so"; fandian hū lan3e þæt land norþryhte læ3e "to explore how far that land stretched (lay) to the north".

k) In OE texts we often come across certain verbal phrases which have proved of great importance in the development of the grammatical structure of English. The analytical forms of the verb, so typical of Modern English, derive from those Old English verbal phrases, so that the latter might be called analytical forms in embryo. They were:

1) Sculan (E. shall), willan (E. will) + an infinitive. Old English, as we know, had no special future tense forms. The present did service for the future also. But when futurity was bound up with compulsion, the verb *sculan* with the meaning "must" "ought" was used followed by an infinitive, e. g. Hwæt sceal ic sinʒan? "What must I sing?" When futurity was bound up with desire, the verb *willan* was used with the infinitive, e. g. Hē wēne þæt ic hine wylle beswīcan "He will think that I want to deceive him".

As long as the verbs *sculan* and *willan* retained their meanings of obligation and volition they were not auxiliary verbs. It was only later, when their lexical meanings faded away in many instances, that they became grammatical means of expressing futurity. The same can be said of all Modern English auxiliary verbs.

2) bēon/wesan (E. be), weorþan ("become") + participle II of a transitive verb, e. g. He wæs (wearþ) ofslæʒen "He was (became) slain".

The Modern English passive voice forms derive from such verbal phrases.

3) habban (E. have) + participle II of a transitive verb, bēon/wesan + participle II of an intransitive verb.

E. g. þā hē hæfde ʒedruncen, þā cwæþ hē to him. "When he had drunk, he said to him". Hīe wǣron on lånde of-aʒane "They had gone inland".

The so-called perfect forms of Modern English are an outgrowth of these phrases.

4) bēon/wesan + participle I, e. g. þā þā hē sprǣcende wæs, ... "while he was speaking, ..."

The Modern English continuous forms have developed on the basis of this pattern.

## *E. Changes in the Grammatical System during the Middle English Period.*

### 1. GENERAL REMARKS.

Though the grammatical structure of a language changes very slowly, there is a considerable difference between the grammatical systems of Old English and Middle English.

One of the leading tendencies in the history of the English language in general, and the Middle English period in particular, was the gradual loss of synthetic ways of expressing

the relations between words and the development of analytical means.

The loss of synthetic forms was especially manifest in the gradual reduction, levelling and loss of endings, a process closely connected with the fixation of the word-stress on the first or root syllable (See p. 22). The results of that process were already felt in Old English, where one has to speak of zero-endings in such forms as mān — men, stān, gōd, etc. Many originally different case-forms coincided, as for instance, the nominative and the accusative of most declensions.

In the 11th century the levelling of endings grew much more intensive, which was partly due to Scandinavian influence (See p. 35).

Many formerly different forms of the same word merged, as in the following examples:

| OE | ME | OE | ME |
|---|---|---|---|
| scipe<br>scipu<br>scipa | shipe (E. ship) | sprecan<br>spræcon<br>sprecen | sp(r)ēken (E. speak) |

It is quite comprehensible that the effect of such merging on the system of grammatical endings was devastating.

## 2. NOUNS.

The OE system of noun declension was undergoing a constant process of simplification and unification during the ME period. As already mentioned, that process was much more intensive in the north than in the south.

By the end of the ME period gender distinctions were lost nearly everywhere.

The variety of types of declension found in Old English no longer existed. With a few exceptions the nouns had all gone over to the former masculine o-declension. In the south, however, the n-stem declension was retained for a long time, and its endings were even added to some nouns of other stems. Thus the noun *child* (former es-stem) acquired the plural-form *children* instead of *childre* (< OE cildru).

Of the OE case-endings only -es of the genitive singular and -as of the nominative and accusative plural (o-stems, masculine) were preserved as productive endings, ME -es [əs].

Instead of the four cases of OE we find only two cases in ME. The endings of the nominative, dative and accusative cases, singular, mostly fell together, and these case forms were fused to represent but one case, which may be called the common case.

The genitive case remained but it was used not so often as in Old English. It gradually narrowed its meaning to that of possession, so that it could already be called the possessive case. But unlike Modern English, the possessive case was not restricted to nouns denoting living beings.

In the plural the ending **-es** (from OE **-as**) spread to all cases of most nouns, so that, in fact, there were no case distinctions in the plural.

Here is a sample of the ME dominant type of declension.

| | Singular | Plural |
|---|---|---|
| Common case | stōn | stōnes |
| Possessive case | stōnes | stōnes |

A few nouns retained the plural ending **-en** of the weak declension: *oxen*, *eyen* (E. eyes).

Some nouns preserved the uninflected plural forms of the o-stems neuter gender. E. g. shēp, dēr, hors. (E. sheep, deer, horse).

Several nouns of the root-stems had different vowels in the singular and the plural forms: man — men; fōt — fēt; etc.

With the loss of case inflections the role of prepositions grew ever more important. Many prepositional phrases came to denote the same relations that had formerly been expressed by case forms. Some meanings of the preposition *of* were akin to those of the ME possessive case. E. g. the drogte of March (E. the drought of March). Phrases with the preposition *to* replaced the dative case in expressing the indirect object. E. g. Frenssh of Paris was to hire unknowe. (E. The French of Paris was unknown to her). But the preposition was often not used in positions where it would be used in Modern English. E. g. As it semed me (E. As it seemed to me).

## Articles.

Though the articles are closely connected with nouns, they are separate words with particular lexical meanings and grammatical properties.

It was during the Middle English period that the articles were isolated from other classes of words and became, so to say, a class of words by themselves.

The definite article is an outgrowth of the OE demonstrative pronoun sē. The suppletivity observed in Old English was lost. The sound [s] of the OE nominative case, singluar, masculine (sē) and feminine (sēo) was replaced by the sound

[θ] on the analogy of the oblique cases (þæs, þǣm, þone, etc.). With the development of ēo > ē, the forms þē and þēo fell together as þe, later spelt *the*.

The neuter form þæt, ME *that*, retained its full demonstrative force, while *the* was weakened both in meaning and form. Gradually they became two different words.

*The* lost all gender, case and number distinctions, and became entirely uninflected.

The indefinite article has developed from the OE numeral ān (E. one), whose meaning sometimes weakened to "one of many", "some" even in OE. Compare with the Russian в один прекрасный день... . The weakening of the meaning was accompanied by the weakening of the stress. The long [ā] was shortened in the unstressed ān, so that ān > an. Later the unstressed [a] was reduced in pronunsiation to [ə]. The consonant [n] was usually lost before consonants but retained before vowels.

The stressed OE. ān retained its meaning "one" in ME. Its phonetical development was rather complicated. According to some sources it was OE ān > ME ǭn > ǭn > NE. [u:n > > wu:n[1] > wun > wʌn]. According to others, OE ān > ME ǭn > wǭn[2] > wǭn > NE [wu:n > wun > wʌn].

**Pronouns.**

The pronouns have retained their forms better than other parts of speech. Still, great changes took place even here during the Middle English period.

The personal pronouns lost their dual forms.

Their dative and accusative cases had mostly fallen together already in Old English. In Middle English the fusion of the two cases into one (the objective case) was completed.

The OE. genitive case forms of the personal pronouns gradually narrowed the range of their syntactic usage. They also narrowed their meanings to that of "possession" and came to form a separate group of possessive pronouns in Middle English.

Thus, the ME. personal pronouns distinguished only two cases: the nominative and the objective.

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[1] The development of a labial b[e]tween [u] and [n] is common in some languages. E. g. The Ukrainian for уж, ухо [ɔ]уж, вухо.

[2] *Cf.* осьм (осьмушка) — восемь, острый — вострый.

Speaking of individual instances, it is necessary to remember that the forms of the third person plural (OE. hīe, him) were gradually replaced, first in the North, by the Scandinavian forms thei (they), theim (them). Besides, the Scandinavian *their* superseded the corresponding ME possessive pronoun hire (< OE. hira).

Not quite clear is the history of the form *she*. The OE. forms hē "he" and hēo "she" became homonyms in ME., which was very inconvenient. From about 1300 on the forms scho, sche appeared in the Northern and East Midland dialects. Some scholars regard those forms as having developed from hēo; others speak of the influence of sēo (demonstrative, feminine), still others consider Scandinavian sja as the source of she.

For lack of space we shall not dwell here on the development of other pronouns.

**Adjectives.**

The changes in the grammatical properties of adjectives were even greater than in those of nouns and pronouns.

During the ME period the adjectives lost their gender and case distinctions altogether.

The peculiar suffix **-en** (from OE **-an**) of the weak declension lost its **n**.

Thus, the ME declension of adjectives looked like this:

| | Sg. | Pl. |
|---|---|---|
| Strong declension | yong | yonge |
| Weak declension | yonge | yonge |

In other words, it was still possible to distinguish between the strong and the weak form of an adjective in the singular (*cf.* the yonge sonne "the young sun" and a yong Squier "a young squire") and between the singular and the plural form of a strong adjective (*cf.* he was wys (E. wise) and hise wordes weren so wise "his words were so wise").

An innovation was the introduction of the analytical ways of building up the degrees of comparison with the help of *more* and *most*.

**Verbs.**

**a. Categories.**

The verb retained nearly all the grammatical categories it had possessed in Old English: tense, mood, person, number. Only the category of aspect was lost. This can partly be

explained by the phonetical process that brought about the disappearance of many stressed "aspect" prefixes, including ȝe-. But the main cause was the contradictory nature of the category even in Old English. The lexical meaning of the prefixes had prevented them from becoming a purely grammatical device of expressing aspect distinctions.

The most important feature of the history of the verb in ME was the development of analytical forms to express new grammatical meanings.

1. The syntactical combinations of OE *sculan* (E. shall) and *willan* (E. will) with the infinitive developed into analytical forms of the future tense. As a result, the grammatical category of tense came to be represented not by binary oppositions 'past — present', but by ternary oppositions 'past — present — future'. The sphere of the present tense was accordingly narrowed, though, it could still be used in some 'future' environments (*cf.* E. If you see him tomorrow, ...).

2. Combinations composed of different forms of OE *habban* (E. have) and participle II of some verb developed into a set of analytical forms known as the perfect forms.

The opposition 'perfect — non-perfect' created a new grammatical category whose name has not yet been agreed on. Seeing that these forms express either precedence or indifference to order, we may call it the category of order [1].

3. Word-combinations comprising different forms of OE bēon/wesan (E. to be) and the past participle of another verb developed into a set of analytical forms of the passive voice.

With the establishment of the new special (or marked) passive forms, the old forms acquired the meaning of 'non-passive' or 'active' by contrast, and the opposition 'passive — active' constituted the category of voice.

**b. Strong and Weak Verbs.**

The two morphological types of verbs — strong and weak — were, on the whole, well preserved in ME. Only the number of weak verbs was constantly increasing at the expense of the newly borrowed and the newly created verbs, whereas the number of strong verbs was diminishing. Some of them became obsolete (e. g. OE weorþan "to become"), others became weak (e. g. OE slǣpan, E. sleep).

[1] *See* B. S. Khaimovich, B. I. Rogovskaya. A Course in English Grammar. M., 1967, p. 130.

Sometimes the distinctions between different classes of verbs were obliterated. For instance, the suffix **-ode** of the weak second class was reduced to **-ede** and coincided with the **-ede** suffix of the first class.

The suffixes of the infinitive (OE **-an**), the past tense plural (OE **-on**) and the past participle of strong verbs (OE **-en**) became homonymous (ME **-en**). Therefore the forms of the past tense plural and the past participle of the strong verbs often coincided.

E. g. OE writon, writen.
ME writen, writen.

**c. Some Endings of the Finite Forms.**

The person and number endings differed considerably in various dialects.

The ending of the third person, singular, present, indicative was **-eth** (from OE -eþ) in the south and **-es** in the north. Why the northern ending became later the national standard is not quite clear.

The ending of the plural, present, indicative was **-eth** (from OE **-aþ**) in the south, **-en** (from the subjunctive mood) in the Midland counties, and **-es** in the north. The Modern English zero ending of the plural has developed from the Midland forms.

**d. The Non-finite Forms of the Verb.**

The two forms of the infinitive (OE wrītan and (tō) wrītenne) gradually coincided (ME wrīten). The preposition tō came to be used not only with infinitives of purpose but in other cases as well. By degrees it lost its lexical meaning and became a mere sign of the infinitive. It did not penetrate only into certain word-combinations, such as the combination of a modal verb and the infinitive, where the infinitive never expressed purpose.

The ending of participle I (OE wrītende) was different in various dialects. In the north it became **-ande** (perhaps under Scandinavian influence). In the central regions it was **-ende.** In the south it narrowed to **-inde.** It was in the south that the suffix **-ing** (from the verbal noun) [1] was first used as the ending of the present participle. Later it spread to other regions as well.

[1] *See* p. 83.

## *Syntax.*

a) In Middle English the word order was less pliable than in Old English, but not so rigid as in Modern English. The number of sentences with direct word order was growing at the expense of those with inverted or synthetic word order.

Closely connected with it was the necessity to express the subject even in impersonal sentences. The structure *Me thinketh it...* gradually yielded to the order *It seemed me... It thoughte me* "*It seemed to me, It occurred to me*".

b) The weakening and loss of inflections resulted in the weakening and loss of agreement and government. The tendency grew to place the modifiers as closely as possible to the words which they modified.

c) The widespread use of prepositions in Middle English was another remarkable development in the language. In Old English most prepositions had governed the dative case. With the disappearance of the dative case prepositions came to be used freely with the common case of nouns. *Cf.* OE. On þǣm ōþrum þrim daȝum "On those other three days" and ME. in that seson (E. season) on a day.

d) The Old English system of relative and correlative elements (þe, þā..., þā, etc.) was replaced by new relatives developed from OE. interrogative and demonstrative pronouns: *who, what, which, that,* etc.

e) The single negative began to be used in the fourteenth century, particularly in the north, though the cumulative negation was still widely spread. E. g. Ne schal non werien no linnene cloth "no one shall wear any linen clothes".

## *F. Some Essential Grammatical Changes of the New English Period. Morphology.*

1. The range of the possessive case of nouns has been narrowed. It has come to be used almost exclusively with nouns denoting living beings. As a spelling device the apostrophy was introduced in the 18th century.

2. The personal pronoun of the second person plural *(ye, you)* and the corresponding possessive pronoun *(your)* have gradually ousted the corresponding singular pronouns *(thou, thee, thine)* from everyday usage. The form of the objective case *(you)* has superseded the nominative case form *(ye)*.

The possessive pronouns *my, mine* (< ME mī, mīn), which were originally but phonetic variants (the -n being lost before consonants, as in *an, a*), have acquired different combinability (*cf.* this is my book — this is mine) and consequently different functions. Similarly in *thy, thine*. This distinction has become relevant and has spread to other possessive pronouns to which the suffix -s has been added. Hence the forms *her* and *hers, our* and *ours, your* and *yours, their* and *theirs*.

The pronoun *hit* has lost its initial *h* (E. it), the form *its* was introduced in the 17th century.

3. The adjective has lost all its inflexions but those of the degrees of comparison. The current distribution of synthetic and analytic forms of comparison has been established. Vowel interchange of the types *long — lenger* has disappeared in most cases.

4. The verb has lost the ending of the infinitive and all the inflexions of the present tense but that of the third person singular. The latter has acquired the form -(e)s (from the northern dialects) instead of the southern -(e)th. The form of the second person singular (e. g. speakest) has been lost or become archaic.

The four basic forms of the strong verbs have been reduced to three, most verbs (except *to be*) losing the distinction between the past tense singular, and the past tense plural.

Of the two past tense stems, some verbs have preserved that of the singular (the influence of the northern dialects), some that of the plural (the influence of the western dialects) and some neither the one nor the other. For instance, most of the former strong verbs of the first class have preserved the singular past stem: E. *wrote, drove, rode* have, certainly, developed from OE. *wrāt, drāf, rād,* not from OE. *writon, drifon, ridon*. But the past tense *bit* of the verb *bite* (OE. *bītan*, str., I class) is a development of the OE. plural past stem *biton,* not *bāt*. Now the verb *bear* has a past tense *bore* which could not develop either from the OE. past singular *bær*, or from the OE. past plural *bǣron*. It has been built on the analogy of the stem of participle II *born*. Similarly, *wore* and *tore* after *worn* and *torn*.

The so-called 'continuous' and 'perfect continuous' forms of the verb have developed from former syntactical combinations of the verb *to be* and participle I of some notional verb.

Owing to the fusion of the verbal noun in **-ing** [1] and parti-

[1] *See* p. 83.

ciple I, a new non-finite form of the verb — the gerund — has developed. The fusion could take place in sentences like *I hear her singing, I saw the peasants dancing,* where it was difficult to decide whether the **ing**-form was a verbal noun or a participle.

The infinitive, gerund and participle have developed analytical 'perfect' and 'passive' forms. The infinitive has also developed 'continuous' forms.

## *Syntax.*

a) The order "subject — predicate — indirect object — direct object" has been established. As a result, the position of a noun (and not its case inflection as in OE) shows whether it is the subject or the object, and in the latter case whether it is direct or indirect.

b) In most questions inversion has become the rule, i. e. the verb is placed before the subject. Owing to the abundance of analytical forms of the verb and of compound predicates this inversion usually does not break the established word-order since only a part of the predicate (the auxiliary, modal, or linking verb) is moved, the notional part of the predicate remaining in its fixed position after the subject.

c) In order to carry through the above principles of word order it was necessary to find means of splitting the few synthetic forms of the verb that still remained in the language, such as *write, writes* and *wrote.* This has been done with the help of special auxiliaries *do, does, did.* In Shakespeare's days it looked at though the synthetic forms were going to be completely ousted by forms like *do write, does write* and *did write,* but they have survived, and the use of *do, does, did* as auxiliaries has been restricted to the expression of interrogation, negation and emphasis. *Cf.* He smokes. *Does* he smoke? He *does* not smoke [1]. He *does* smoke.

d) One of the characteristic features of the New English period has been the development of stuctural substitutes (*there, it, one, do* and others), as in *There is a man there* (struc-

[1] Different stages of the development of negative constructions can be found in the works of Shakespeare. There are multinegative constructions like *Nor this is not my nose neither.* There are mononegative constructions without *do* like *I know not* and *I not doubt.* And there are modern mononegative constructions with *do: I do not know that Englishman alive.* The same is true of interrogative structures. Alongside of *Look I so pale...?,* there is *Why do you look on us...?*

tural subject), *It is pleasant to dance* (structural subject), *I find it pleasant to dance* (structural object), *The work is a remarkable one* (noun substitute), They married just as your father did (verb substitute).

e) The development and extensive use of infinitival, gerundial and participial complexes is another remarkable feature of New English syntax.

Examples: She had no desire **for me to stay.**
They could not go anywhere **without his seeing** how all the men were attracted by her.
I heard **the bath water running** and Laura singing blithely.

## *V. AN OUTLINE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH VOCABULARY.*

### *A. The Indo-European and Germanic Heritage*

As a result of their common descent the Indo-European languages have preserved many features in common both in their grammatical structures and in their phonetic systems, and in their vocabularies.

There is not the slightest doubt that the English word *brother* is allied to G. Bruder, Skt. bhrāta(r), R. брат, L. frāter.

The English word *guest* is related to G. Gast, R. гость, Gt. gasts, L. hostis.

The English verb *to sit* is kindred to G. sitzen, R. сидеть, L. sedere, Skt. sīdati.

The English numeral *three* is of the same Indo-European root as the R. три, L. tres, Skt. tri, G. drei, etc., etc.

Thus, the oldest part of the English vocabulary corresponds etymologically to the oldest parts of the vocabularies of the other Indo-European languages.

The English vocabulary contains also words whose etymological equivalents are found only in Germanic languages and in no other language groups.

The English word *house* has its counterpart in G. Haus, Dutch huis, Swedish hus, Danish huus, Icelandic hūs. But this root is not found anywhere outside the Germanic languages. Similarly, the English noun *finger* is cognate with G. Fin-

ger, Dutch vinger, Icelandic finger, Danish finger, Swedish finger, and the English verb *drink* with Dutch drinken, G. trinken. In non-Germanic languages these words are not represented.

It follows that the Germanic languages differ from other Indo-European languages with regard to some part of their vocabularies. One of the theories accounting for these (and other) innovations of the Germanic languages is the so-called substratum hypothesis.

The Germanic tribesmen, probably, were not the first inhabitants of Northwest Europe. They had to subjugate some aboriginal people in order to settle in those places. The usual process of language crossing followed, as a result of which the victorious Germanic dialects borrowed many words from the speech of the subject people. Some of these borrowings proved to be most essential and became a typical feature of the Germanic vocabulary.

## *B. The Old English Vocabulary.*

The vocabulary of Old English resembled the vocabularies of other Old Germanic languages with regard to the common Indo-European and specifically Germanic elements. There were very few exclusively English words like *clipian* "cry, call", though specifically English compounds were much more numerous, e. g. wīf-mân (E. woman), hlāford (< hlāfweard) (E. lord), hlæfdiȝe (hlāf-dīȝe) (E. lady), etc.

The extent of the OE. vocabulary is estimated at 20 to 30 thousand words — less than a tenth part of the number of words registered by modern English dictionaries. It is also estimated that about 85 per cent of the OE. vocabulary, particularly its rich poetic part, has been lost and replaced over the centuries mostly by Latin and French loan-words. As to the means of enriching the vocabulary, derivation and composition were much more common in OE. than borrowing.

Affixation was very productive in Old English. The prefix **a-**, for instance, occurred with about 600 verbs. In Modern English only seven of them have been preserved: *abide, accurse, affright, allay, amaze, arise, arouse.* Of very high productivity were the prefixes **be-**, **for-**, **ȝe-**, the suffixes **-iȝ**, **-lic**, **-nes(s)**, etc. The suffix **-unȝ/inȝ**, used to form nouns from verbs (OE hȳrinȝ "hearing", rædinȝ "reading") played later a great role in moulding the participial and the gerundial **-ing** (see pp. 78, 80).

There existed a regular correspondence between many nouns and verbs in Old English which later served as a basis for the development of what is now known as conversion. *Cf. cuma* "guest" and *cuman* "to come", *wita* "wise man" and *witan* "to know", *ende* "end" and *endian* "to end", *sorȝ* "sorrow" and *sorȝian* "to sorrow", also *open* and *openian* "to open", etc.

No less productive was word-composition in Old English, especially in forming nouns and adjectives. Examples: bōc-cræft (E. book + craft) "literature", wīd-sǣ (E. wide + sea) "ocean", innȝanȝ (E. in+go) "entrance", efeneald (E. even+ + old) "of equal age", felamōdiȝ "very brave", etc.

Only about 450 words were borrowed from other languages during the Old English period. Most of them came from Latin.

The Angles, Saxons and Jutes (together with other Germanic tribes) had been in contact with the Romans and adopted Latin words long before the invasion of Great Britain. Some words were introduced by Roman travelling merchants who sold the Germanic tribes wine, fruit and other products of the Roman empire. Hence such borrowings as OE wīn (E. wine) < < L. vīnum, OE butere (E. butter) < L. butyrum, OE pere (E. pear) < L. pirum, OE cuppe (E. cup) < L. cuppa, OE mynet (E. mint) < L. moneta, etc.

Other Latin borrowings were connected with the fortifications built by the Romans both on the continent and on the island of Great Britan. Here belong such words as OE weall (E. wall) < L. vallum, OE strǣt (E. street) < L. (via) strata "paved road", OE port<L. portus. OE ceaster<L. castra denoting "military camp" is still heard in the names of many English towns like *Chester, Manchester, Winchester, Lancaster,* etc.

But most Latin borrowings of the Old English period followed the introduction of Christianity in the seventh century. Along with such words as OE altar < L. altāria, OE anȝel < < L. angelus, OE pāpa (E. pope) < L. pāpa, and the like, there were also words of a more general nature, for instance, OE candel (E. candle) < L. candela, OE scōl (E. school) < L. schola < Gk. skholē, OE rose < L. rosa, etc.

What surprises an investigator of the English vocabulary is the exceedingly small number of Celtic words borrowed from the speech of the Britons with whom the Anglo-Saxons were in contact for many centuries. Scarcely a dozen words were adopted during the Old English period, and even those were of little importance, as, for instance, E. *dun, bin.* But the Anglo-Saxons borrowed many Celtic personal names and place-names, such as *York, Thames, Kent, Avon, Dover.*

## C. Middle English Vocabulary Changes.

Borrowings played a much greater rôle in Middle English than in Old English. They came mostly from two sources: Scandinavian and French.

Apart from many place names (over 1400) in **-by, thorpe, -thwaite,** etc. the number of Scandinavian borrowings was not very great (see p. 16), but they were mostly everyday words of very high frequency. Some of them found their way into the oral speech of Anglo-Saxons as early as the ninth century, but it was not until Middle English that they became part and parcel of the English vocabulary.

Examples: ME lawe (E. law) < OE laȝu < Sc. lagu (n. pl., the sg. in OE Danelaȝ); ME taken (E. take) < OE tacan < Sc. taka; ME callen (E. call) < OE ceallian < Sc. kalla.

The extent of the Scandinavian influence can be inferred from the fact that even personal pronouns were borrowed. The Scandinavian forms **þeir** (E. they), **þeim** (E. them), **þeirra** (E. their) gradually ousted the respective OE. forms **hie, him, hira.**

The Scandinavian conjunction **þo** (E. though) replaced the OE. conjunction **þēah.**

Other borrowings are the Modern English *husband, fellow, window, egg, skirt, sky, skin, skill, anger; wrong, ill, happy, ugly, low, odd*; *cast, want, die, drown,* and many similar simple words.

Owing to the intimate relationship between the two languages, it is often difficult to say whether the form of a given word is Scandinavian or English. The word *sister,* for instance, is usually regarded as a development of the Scandinavian *systir,* but it might also be considered as a development of the OE. *sweostor* under Scandinavian influence. OE. *ȝiefan, ȝietan* would have normally developed into E. **yev (yiv), *yet,* but under the influence of Sc. *giva, geta* they have become E. *give, get.*

In some cases only the meaning of a word, not its form, was influenced. Modern English *bloom* has not only the meaning of "flower" but also the technical meaning of "a thick bar or iron" (*cf.* R. блюм, блюминг). The OE. word *blōma* had only the second of these meanings. The first was borrowed from the Scandinavian word *blōm.* The OE word *drēam* (E. dream) meant "joy"; its present meaning came with the Scandinavians. In OE. *wiþ* (E. with) meant "against", whereas

in Scandinavian it had the sense of accompaniment, expressed in OE by *mid*.

The number of French borrowings during the Middle English period was much greater than that of Scandinavian loan-words, and their character was different since the relations between both the peoples and their languages were different.

A great part of French loans were aristocratic words testifying that the French were the conquerors, the rulers of the country. Here belong designations of rank (E. *sovereign, prince, princess, duke, duchess, marquis, marquise, count, countess, baron, baroness, peer, noble*), titles of respect (E. *sir, madam, mistress*), governmental and administrative words (E. *state, government, parliament, crown, court, reign, royal, majesty, country, nation, people, tax*), legal terms (E. *justice, judge, jury, bar, bill, decree, crime, verdict, sentence, accuse, punish, prison*), military terms (E. *army, navy, defence, enemy, war, battle, victory, siege, castle, tower, soldier, sergeant, captain*), religious terms (E. *religion, faith, clergy, parson, pray, preach, saint, miracle*), words reflecting the life and habits of the nobility of France (E. *pleasure, leisure, feast, dance, dress, fashion, jewel*), their dominance in the arts and literature (E. *art, colour, beauty, paint, column, music, poem, romance*).

The relation between the English people and the French aristocracy is also reflected in the semantic correlation of some English words and some medieval French borrowings. As Walter Scott pointed out in "Ivanhoe", the domestic animals kept their English names while the English were looking after them in the fields (E. *ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine*), but were given French names when they appeared on the Norman lord's table (E. *beef, veal, mutton, pork*). Compare also the English *house* and the French *palace;* the English *miller, blacksmith* and the French *painter, tailor;* the English *breakfast* and the French *dinner, supper;* the English *hand* and the French *face*.

Naturally, there were also numerous "neutral" French loan-words like the E. *aim, air, dozen, error, grief, clear, double, easy, carry, change, envy,* etc.

If we take into consideration not only the meanings of words but their forms as well, we have to distinguish between two varieties of French borrowings: Norman French (NF) and Central French (CF). The Norman conquerors brought with them a peculiar northern dialect of French that differed in a number of ways from Central French or Parisian French,

the source of Modern French. For instance, NF [k] corresponded to CF [tʃ], and NF [tʃ] to CF [s]. Up to the 13th century French borrowings came mostly from NF. Later the overwhelming majority of French loan-words came from CF. It often happened that a word was borrowed twice, first from NF then from CF, thus forming etymological doublets. E. g. *canal* (< NF) and *channel* (< CF), *catch* (< NF) and *chase* (< CF).

The heavy influx of Scandinavian and French loan-word could not but affect the native elements of the English vocabulary.

Many Old English words grew out of use and were ousted by foreign synonyms, e. g. *niman* "take", *clipian* "call", *sweltan* "die", *andian* "envy", *ǽwnian* "marry", etc.

Many others changed their meanings and usage. Compare, for instance, the Old English verb *steorfan* "to die" and its modern outgrowth *to starve,* or the Old English *hærfest* "autumn" and the Modern English *harvest.*

Very often the basic word remained in the language, while its derivative was replaced by a loan-word. For instance, OE. *þyncan* has developed into E. *think,* while OE. *ofþyncan* was ousted by *repent* (< OF. repentir); the verb *perceive* (< OF. percevoir) has replaced ME *ofseen* (< OE. ofsēon), while OE *sēon* > ME *seen* > E. *see;* the verbs *deserve, pass, precede* have replaced OE. *ofʒān, forʒān, foreʒān,* while *ʒān* has normally developed into *go.*

Such cases undermined the Early English system of affixation. But new affixes appeared instead. The suffix **-able** from such French borrowings as *admirable, tolerable,* came to be used with native Germanic roots as well: *eatable, readable, bearable.* Similarly, the Romanic prefixes **re-, en-** in the words *rewrite, endear.*

Conversely, the native affixes were used with foreign roots: *beautiful, charming, unfaithful.*

The divergence between native and borrowed synonyms assumed different forms. Sometimes they became stylistically different, as in the case of E. *foe* (< OE. ʒefā) and E. *enemy* (< OF. ennemi) or E. *begin* (ME. beginnen) and E. *commence* (< OF. cumencer). Sometimes they acquired different shades of meaning, as in the regularly quoted pairs: *swine — pork, calf — veal, ox — beef, sheep — mutton.* If they had been historically cognate, but changed both form and meaning, they formed etymological doublets. For instance, *skirt, scatter* (< Sc.) and *shirt, shatter* (< OE).

One of the most important Middle English innovations was the development of conversion as a new type of derivation. Owing to the levelling of endings and the loss of -n in unstressed syllables, OE. *ende* and *endian* fell together as ME. *ende* ['endə]. OE *lufu* and *lufian* as ME *love* ['luvə]. Such cases of homonymy served as models for the creation of new nouns from verbs (*smile* v.→ *smile* n.) and vice versa (*chance* n. → *chance* v.).

## *D. New English Vocabulary Changes.*

The great stock of French words that entered the language during the Middle English period paved the way for other borrowings from the Romanic languages and from Latin itself. The Renaissanse or the Revival of Learning was marked by a tremendous influence of Latin and Greek upon the English vocabulary. Thousands upon thousands of Latin words were borrowed. This time they were bookish words, often scientific or technical terms, like *formula, maximum, minimum, item, radius,* etc. Very many verbs in **ate, -ute** were assimilated, such as *separate, irritate, exaggerate, execute, constitute,* etc. In general, a quarter of the Latin vocabulary is said to have been anglicized.

There appeared Latin-French etymological doublets such as *fragile — frail, defect — defeat, prosecute — pursue, secure — sure, pauper—poor, hospital — hotel, history — story, example — sample.* There exist even Latin-Latin doublets and triplets borrowed at different periods. E. g. the Latin word *discus* (< Gk) is represented in English by *dish* (OE borrowing), *desk* (ME borrowing) *disc* and *discus* (NE borrowings).

Greek loans are even more specifically terminological. The names of most sciences are of Greek origin — *mathematics, physics, psychiatry, botany, lexicology.* Within lexicology there are such Greek terms as *synonym, antonym, homonym, metaphor, metonymy, neologism, archaism,* etc.

There are many compounds in English, and other languages, that have never existed in Greek, but have been coined from Greek morphemes: *telephone, microscope, phonograph,* etc.

English possesses a number of Greek doublets, such as *fancy* and *phantasy, diamond* and *adamant, blame* and *blaspheme.*

One of the results of the Latin and Greek influence on the English vocabulary is the formation of numerous hybrids.

Latin and Greek affixes are widely used with English roots *(endear, anteroom, antiaircraft, talkative, starvation, truism)*, and English affixes with Latin and Greek roots *(underestimate, unjust, membership, falsehood, unschooled)*.

The influx of French borrowings has continued all through the New English period. In most cases these new loan-words are distinguishable from previous French borrowings by their phonetic and spelling peculiarities. Compare, for instance, the words *village* and *mirage* borrowed in ME. and NE. respectively. In the former the stress has been shifted according to English accentuation, in the latter the stress on the last syllable has remained. In *village* the letter **g** represents the typically English sound [dʒ], in *mirage* the characteristically French sound [ʒ] [1]. Thus, *village* has been assimilated and naturalized, while *mirage* has preserved its alien pronunciation. The words *liqueur, coiffeur, bourgeois, chamois, chemise, machine, regime,* etc. can be easily identified by their peculiarities of spelling and pronunciation.

English borrowed heavily from many other languages. From Italian came a great number of words, mostly relating to the arts (E. *violin, opera, piano, libretto, sonata, tempo, bass, solo, ballerina, studio, cupola, portico, balcony, parapet, terracotta, majolica)*, but also *generalissimo, squadron, stiletto, volcano, lava, granite, manifesto, ballot, carnival, garb, macaroni, madonna, casino, bandit, algebra, zero, manage, bankrupt.*

From Spanish and Portuguese English adopted many words connected with the American and other colonies (E. *potato, tomato, cocoa, tobacco, banana, maize, cigar; negro, mulatto, caste; canoe, lasso, mustang, ranch; alligator, cobra)*, local features (E. *Cortes, sombrero, guitar, toreador, picador, veranda)*, trade (E. *cargo, embargo, contraband, sherry, port, Madeira)*, the navy (E. *armada, flotilla, capsize)*, and other spheres (E. *guerilla, barricade, dispatch, tank, cafeteria, hammock, hurricane*).

Russian borrowings before the Great October Revolution include such words as E. *sable, astrakhan, sterlet; tsar, duma, zemstvo; ukase, knout, pogrom; rouble, copeck, verst; steppe, taiga, tundra; samovar, vodka, kvass; balalaika, borzoi; decembrist, narodnik, intelligentsia.* Among the sovietisms borrowed after the Revolution we find E. *leninism, bolshevik, Soviet; kolkhoz, sovkhoz, pyatiletka; udarnik, Stakhanovite, michurinist; sputnik, lunnik, lunokhod.* Besides, there are numerous

[1] Modern French [ʒ] has developed from [dʒ].

translation-loans like *collective farm, five-year plan, Young Communist League, wall newspaper, self-criticism,* etc. The Russian suffix **-nik** found in such Russian borrowings as *narodnik, kolkhoznik, udarnik,* has attracted attention, probably in connection with the words *sputnik, lunnik,* and has been used to form new words denoting "persons taking active part in the struggle against the reactionary policies of imperialist governments", as in *peacenik* ("active fighter for peace").

English has borrowed many words from almost all the languages of the globe.

From Dutch: E. *skipper, yacht, dock, cruise; landscape, easel, etch, sketch.*

From German: *plunder, poodle, swindler, blitzkrieg.*

From Arabic: *sofa, harem, emir, moslem, Koran.*

From Hindi: *jungle, cashmere, shampoo, rajah.*

From other sources: *robot* (Czech), *mazurka* (Polish), *Tokay* (Hungarian), *tea* (Chinese), *bamboo* (Malayan), *shawl* (Persian), *coffee, kiosk* (Turkish), *rickshaw* (Japanese), *boomerang* (native Australian), *taboo* (Polynesian), *yak* (Tibetan), *zebra* (Congolese), *moccasin* (Algonquian), *kayak* (Eskimo), *Negus* (Amharic), etc.

Altogether about 70% of all the words to be found in an unabridged dictionary of Modern English are said to have been fully or partially borrowed from other languages, especially French, Latin and Greek. But this figure does not at all represent the part these borrowings play in a coherent English text. Here the proportion is reversed: 70, 80, sometimes 90% of all the words in the text (if we count all the occurences of each word) will belong to the native stock inherited or derived from the Old Anglo-Saxon vocabulary. The native stock includes words of the highest frequency, the greatest semantic value and word-building power, the widest lexical and grammatical combinability, such as the verbs *be, have, do, can, may, must, come, go, eat, drink,* the pronouns *I, you, he, it,* the prepositions *of, in, on, at,* the conjunctions *and, but, or,* the numerals *one, two, three, four,* the articles *a, the,* the adjectives *good, bad, young, old, long, short,* the nouns *hand, foot, father, mother, sun, moon, rain, snow, bread, water, milk,* and other words denoting the commonest things necessary for life.

And yet the heavy influx of foreign elements changed not only the size but also the nature of the English vocabulary. The uniformity of Early English has been lost. The stress is no longer fixed on the first syllable of a word as typical of

the Germanic vocabulary, it may fall on different syllables (*cf. nátional — nationálity, tránsport* n.— *transpórt* v.). There are many hybrid words whose morphemes are of different origin. For instance, in the word *algebraically* the root is Arabic (through Italian), the suffix **-ic** is Greek, **-al** is Latin, and -ly is of Germanic origin. Alongside of word-cluster uniting words of the same root *(friend — friendly — friendliness)* there are also world-clusters uniting words of different synonymous roots *(moon — lunar, sun — solar, spring — vernal)*. Still greater is the number of synonymic sets comprising words of different origin. *Cf. forsake* (Anglo-Saxon) — *abandon* (Old French) — *desert* (Late Latin); *becoming* (Anglo-Saxon) — *fit* (Scandinavian) — *suitable* (French) — *decent* (Latin); *bustle* (Scandinavian) — *tumult* (Latin) — *uproar* (Dutch).

The relative importance of various means of word-building has changed in comparison with the Middle English period.

The role of conversion and composition has increased at the expense of affixation, though some affixes are still productive (**-ness, -ish, -ful, -less, -ic, -ism, -un-, re-, anti-**, etc.). Conversion is now, probably, the most productive way of forming new words. About one type of conversion E. Iarovici (A History of the English Language, Bucuresti, 1970, p. 232) writes: "A borrowed noun is frequently converted into a verb very soon after it has been adopted: e. g. *blitz, camouflage, sabotage.* Little by little most parts of the body have come to be used as verbs: we can *head* a ball, a group of people or a list; we *elbow* or *shoulder* our way through a crowd; we can *eye* a person with dislike or suspicion; children sometimes *cheek* their elders if they cannot *stomach* the way in which they are treated. One can *nose* around, *finger* some knick-knacks, *thumb* a book, *face* a danger, etc."

With the formation of the English national language it has come to be contrasted with all territorial and social dialects. The notions "correct" and "incorrect", "literary" and "non-literary" English have sprung up. Within London itself the unliterary territorial as well as social "Cockney" dialect is opposed to standard English. The various local dialects are to be distinguished now not only from one another but also from the common national language. The word *wean*, for instance, differs from its synonym *child* as dialectal in general and a Scotticism in particular, the word *colleen* from its synonym *girl* as dialectal and Anglo-Irish. Sometimes the difference is only in meaning. The word *wipe*, for instance,

has a dialectal meaning "a sweeping blow" as in *fetched him a wipe.*

During the New English period there has also developed a new type of differentiation connected with the expansion of English. This will be dealt with in the next little chapter.

## *VI. ON THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN THE USA.*

### *A. The Expansion of English.*

So far we have spoken of the development of the English language in England proper. But during the New English period English has spread far beyond the borders of England. It is spoken now in Scotland, Ireland, Canada, the United States, Australia, New Zealand and other countries.

Some linguists try to explain the expansion of English by the properties of the language, by its exceptional vigour that helped it to come out victorious in its rivalry with other languages. The famous Danish linguist Otto Jespersen is also known as the author of a theory tending to prove that languages develop towards analytical structure, and English is therefore more progressive than other languages. This theory is quite misleading. Different languages develop along different lines, analytic, synthetic, polysynthetic, or mixed. Even in the history of the English language there were cases when synthetic forms came out victorious in their rivalry with analytic forms. In Shakespeare's time, for instance, one could unemphatically use the sentence *He does sleep* as an alternative to *He sleeps* and *He did sleep* for *He slept.* But eventually the synthetic *(writes, wrote)* and not the analytic *(does write, did write)* forms have been retained for unemphatic usage. In general, it is necessary to say that any theory proclaiming a certain language more progressive than others is reactionary.

The expansion of English, like the expansion of French, Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, can be accounted for only by historical (economic and political) features. England was one of the first and mightiest capitalist countries and colonial

empires, and English was imposed upon the peoples of its numerous colonies.

In 1603 Scotland and Ireland were brought under the English crown. In 1620 the ship "Mayflower" took the first English settlers to America, and later the colonization of the New World began. In the 18th century England occupied Canada, India, Australia. And everywhere English was implanted after much fighting with the local population and the suppression of their languages and culture.

In most countries English has preserved its essential features with but slight variation of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, so that the relations between, say, the national languages of England and the United States or the Australian Commonwealth are those of variants of the same language. It is customary to speak of American English [1], Canadian English, Australian English, etc. Below is a short account of the peculiarities of American English, the most important of the English variants.

## *B. Some Peculiarities of American Pronunciation.*

There is greater uniformity in American English than in British English. Though linguists often speak of three dialectal regions (Eastern, Western and Southern, or Northern, Midland and Southern), they usually recognize the existence of what is called General American used by the great majority of the population, with some deviations in the South and in the north-eastern states of New England. It is on this General American that we are mostly going to dwell.

Strange as it may seem, most of the peculiarities of American pronunciation are not innovations, but rather preserved features of British English of the 17th and 18th centuries. It looks as though the Americans have preserved the speech of the first settlers. Here are a few examples.

As already mentioned (p. 47), ME. [a] > NE. [æ > æ: > > a:] before the fricatives [f, s, θ]. In British English the final stage of this process was reached in the middle of the 18th century. In General American stage [æ:] has been

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[1] *Oddly*, enough, the term refers only to the language of the USA, not to that of Canada.

preserved in words like *after, ask, path,* etc. In the region of New England [a:] is common.

As shown above (p. 47), ME. [o] was first delabialized to [ɑ] in the 17th century, but later on the rounding was partly restored to [ɔ] in British English. In General American stage [ɑ] has been preserved in words like *not, possible, stop,* etc. In New England [ɔ] is common.

As we know (p. 45), the process [u > o > ʌ] took place in the 17th century. In General American the final stage seems not to have been fully reached. In words like *us, up, but* the vowel is closer than in British English and slightly rounded.

In British English the consonant [r] underwent a series of changes (see p. 46). It lost its vibration, became liquid, and was finally vocalized after vowels in a final position or before consonants. In General American the last stage has not been completely achieved. The sound [r] is still heard in words like *star, dark, girl,* etc.

**Note.** The above features should be regarded as typical, but not exclusive of other varieties. For instance, in some regions of England, especially in the West Country, the [r] after vowels is pronounced, whereas in New England the Americans do not pronounce it. Similarly, in some northern dialects of England there is [æ] in *ask, past,* etc. and [u] has not become [ʌ] in *cup, sun,* etc., whereas in the states of New England the vowels of these words are [ɑ:] and [ʌ] respectively.

Among other peculiarities of American pronunciation we shall mention the following.

In the words *long, strong, song,* etc. the vowel is long.

In the words *tune, duty, stupid,* etc. there is often [u:] instead of [ju:].

Nasalization of vowels (the so-called "nasal twang") is also a characteristic feature of American speech.

There are also numerous differences in the pronunciation of individual words. Here are a few examples.

| Common Spelling | Different Pronunciation | |
|---|---|---|
| | British | American |
| clerk | [kla:k] | [klə:rk] |
| depot | [dèpou] | [dì:pou] |
| either | [áiðə] | [ì:ðər] |

*Продовження табл.*

| Common Spelling | Different Pronunciation | |
|---|---|---|
| | British | American |
| garage | [gǽra:ʒ] | [gərà:ʒ] |
| lieutenant | [lefténənt] | [lu:ténənt] |
| nephew | [névju:] | [néɪju:] |
| schedule | [ʃédju:l] | [skédju:l] |
| suggest | [sədʒést] | [səgdʒést] |
| tomato | [təmà:tou] | [təméitou] |

## *C. Some Spelling Differences.*

| British Spelling | American Spelling |
|---|---|
| centre, metre, theatre, fibre, colour, harbour, honour, labour, | center, meter, theater, fiber, color, harbor, honor, labor, |
| medallist, skillful, woollen, travelled, quarrelled, | medalist, skilful, woolen, traveled, quarreled, |
| organise, mobilise, | organize, mobilize, |
| defence, offence, | defense, offense, |
| cheque, programme, plough. | check, program, plow. |

## *D. Some Peculiarities of Grammar.*

In the domain of grammar the difference between the two variants of English is insignificant, the American variant being, if anything, more conservative. Thus, it has preserved the old synthetic forms of present subjunctive (or subjunctive I), whereas in British English they have mostly been replaced by analytical forms. For instance, *I suggest that he go* is predominantly (though not exclusively) American, while *I suggest that he should go* is more characteristic of British English. Likewise, the verb *to get* has retained the old form of participle II *gotten* in the USA, whereas in England it was lost in the 18th century.

In both variants of English *will* and *would* are coming increasingly to be used instead of *shall* and *should,* but this process is much more advanced in the USA.

## *E. Vocabulary Differences.*

The vocabulary is more susceptible to change than any other part of a language and here the differences between the two variants of English are the most numerous ones.

Quite often American English displays its conservatism in this sphere, too. In the United States some words have preserved the meanings they had in England in the 17th century, whereas in British English these meanings are now expressed differently. Here belong such words as *fall* replaced in England by *autumn, guess* by *think, baggage* by *luggage, druggist* by *chemist, homely* by *ugly, to loan* by *to lend,* etc.

At the same time new words were borrowed from the languages with which American English came into contact. Later most of them crossed the Atlantic and penetrated into the vocabulary of British English.

From various Indian dialects came geographical names (*Mississippi, Michigan, Massachusetts,* etc.), names of plants (*hickory, sequoia, persimmon*), animals (*moose, skunk, caribou*), objects and aspects of Indian life (*wigwam, squaw, tomahawk, pemmican, moccasin, caucus, pow-wow*), etc. Though, as already mentioned, most of these words are also used in England, some of their meanings are typical of the USA, e. g. *pow-wow* in the meaning of "political meating", *to pow-wow*) "to confer, discuss", *caucus* "elective party committee", *to caucus* "to hold a caucus meeting", *to skunk* "to defeat completely", etc.

Here are a few words borrowed from the languages of European emigrants: Spanish (*ranch, tornado, San Francisco*), Dutch (*dollar, boss, cookie*), German (*hamburger, noodle, pretzel*), French (*prairie, rapids, Detroit*).

Many derivatives, compounds and stable word combinations were formed in the USA. Some of them were later adopted in England.

E. g. *cablegram, huckleberry, high school, highball, high-hat* (US slang), *hijack* (from US slang), *chewing gum, trucker,* etc.

When comparing British and American usage linguists often provide pairs of words or word combinations used in England and the USA for the same objects. Here is a sample: «In Britain an *information bureau* is an *inquiry office,* a *ticket agent* is a *booking clerk;* a *freight car* is a *goods-waggon. Dessert* in Britain means *fruit,* and you must use *sweet* if you want a *dessert,* while if you ask for *biscuits* you will get *crackers.* The British equivalent of a *cigar-store* is a *tobacco-*

*nist's.* The British *billion* is American *trillion,* and *milliard* should be used to signify American *billion*» (Eric Partridge).

One can easily see that the above are not differences between two languages. Both *ticket agent* and *booking clerk* and all the other examples are or consist of English words formed and connected in typically English ways. In general, the minor differences in grammar, pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary cannot conceal the fact that the Americans and the British speak essentially one language, use the same grammar, practically the same phonetic and orthographic systems, and overwhelmingly the same vocabulary.

## *Abbreviations.*

| | |
|---|---|
| a. | accusative |
| comp., cf. | compare, confer |
| d. | dative |
| E. | English; Modern English |
| F. | French; Modern French |
| G. | German; Modern German |
| g. | genitive |
| Gc. | Germanic |
| Gt. | Gothic |
| i. | instrumental |
| I. | Icelandic |
| IE. | Indo-European |
| inf. | infinitive |
| L. | Latin |
| ME. | Middle English |
| n. | nominative |
| OE. | Old English |
| OF. | Old French |
| OHG. | Old High German |
| OI. | Old Icelandic |
| OS. | Old Saxon |
| OSc. | Old Scandinavian |
| pl. | plural |
| R. | Russian |
| Sc. | Scandinavian |
| sg. | singular |
| Skt. | Sanskrit |
| U. | Ukrainian |

## *Signs.*

| | |
|---|---|
| > | developted into |
| < | developted from |
| + | followed by |
| * | hypothetical |
| ‖ | corresponds to |
| o̅ | both long and short [o] |

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