МІНІСТЕРСТВО ОСВІТИ І НАУКИ УКРАЇНИ

**ВІННИЦЬКИЙ ДЕРЖАВНИЙ ПЕДАГОГІЧНИЙ УНІВЕРСИТЕТ
ім. М.КОЦЮБИНСЬКОГО**

ФАКУЛЬТЕТ ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ

ТЕОРЕТИЧНИЙ КУРС АНГЛІЙСЬКОЇ МОВИ
(Частина 1):
навчальний посібник

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ПОЯСНЮВАЛЬНА ЗАПИСКА

Вивчення теоретичного курсу англійської мови поглиблює філологічну підготовку майбутніх учителів іноземної мови, сприяє розумінню студентами структури й системи англійської мови.

"Теоретичний курс англійської мови" є складовою дисциплін лінгвістичного циклу. Даний посібник включає в себе навчальні матеріали теоретичної фонетики та історії англійської мови для студентів 3 курсу факультету іноземних мов.

Метою навчального посібника є ознайомлення студентів з фонетичною структурою й інтонаційними моделями англійського мовлення, а також із закономірностями розвитку англійської мови, її словникового складу, граматичної і фонетичної будови в нерозривному зв'язку з історією народу.

Систематизовані набуті знання мають допомогти студентам зіставляти фонетичні й фонологічні явища англійської мови з подібними явищами рідної мови; розвивати їх професійну здатність аналізувати молення з точки зору його фонетичного оформлення, віднаходити шляхи корекції й уникнення артикуляційних і інтонаційних помилок; а також підвищити рівень філологічної підготовки студентів на основі історичного підходу до аналізу мовних і мовленнєвих особливостей сучасної англійської мови.

Посібник містить короткі теоретичні викладки з різних тем теоретичної фонетики й історії англійської мови, що доповнюються питаннями для самоконтролю та практичними завданнями.

Кожний тематичний блок містить рекомендовану для опрацювання літературу, що спрямовує студентів на ознайомлення з різними підходами до тлумачення певних теоретичних явищ, сприяє розвитку навичок критичного мислення, формуванню власної точки зору на проблемні питання теоретичної фонетики та історії англійської мови.

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The subject matter of Theoretical Phonetics.

The term "phonetics" comes from the Greek word phōne [fɔ:nə] = sound, voice and phōnetikós connected with voice = the science (the study) of the voice.

Phonetics is a branch of linguistics which studies the sound system of the language: phonemes, word stress, syllabic structure and intonation. It is a science about sounds and their meaningful usage in speech, historical changes of sounds, how sounds form syllables and words.

Connection of Phonetics with other disciplines. Phonetics is closely connected with such linguistic disciplines as grammar, lexicology, stylistics.

Phonetics and Grammar

Phonetics helps for example to distinguish grammar forms: singular vs. plural of nouns, e.g. a man– men; a book - books; present (or infinitive) vs. past, e.g. to build – built.

Phonetics helps to avoid ambiguity using the right intonation and pausation.

Phonetics and Lexicology

Such phonetic phenomena as stress and different meanings of homographs help to distinguish words,

e.g. stress : a `record - to re`cord; a blackboard – a black board;

e.g. homographs: bow [bau] лук, бант; [bau] - уклін

Phonetics and Stylistics

Such stylistic means as repetition of phrases, words and sounds help the writers to create precise physical images to impress the reader,

e.g.   onomatopoeia - a combination of sounds which imitates sounds produced in nature (e.g. twitter, smack, bang, crash etc.)

e.g.   frequent use of logical stress or parallel constructions can be a peculiarity of

an author's style.

Connection of Phonetics with other disciplines

Phonetics is closely connected with other linguistic studies (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics etc) as well as with non-linguistic disciplines (physiology and anatomy, physics (acoustics), information theory, psychology, criminology etc.)

Branches of Phonetics. Phonetics is subdivided into practical and theoretical. *Practical or normative phonetics* studies the substance, the material form of phonetic phenomena in relation to meaning. *Theoretical phonetics* is mainly concerned with the functioning of phonetic units in the language.

Phonetics is itself divided into two major components: *Segmental Phonetics*, which is connected with individual sounds (i.e. "segments" of speech) and *Supra-segmental Phonetics* which deals with larger units of connected speech: syllables, words, phrases and texts.

The basic component of the language phonic substance. The basic component of the Language phonic substance is sound. Each sound of speech is functionally significant, though it has no meaning of its own. (For example, what does "k" mean?). This feature of absence of meaning distinguishes any phonetic unit of the language from all other language units, grammatical or lexical, which are meaningful, e.g. a morpheme "est" – small + est = smallest (grammatical language unit); work (a lexical language unit).

So, sounds become meaningful only in context when they are combined in words or have some syntactic meaning:
e.g. [ou] Oh! (surprise); [r] "R-r-r!" said the angry dog.

Sounds – the smallest, further indivisible segments, which are easily singled out in the flow of speech.

Speech sounds are building blocks, materials for morphemes, words, phrases and sentences. This ability of speech sounds to build, to constitute words and sentences is called its constitutive function. Sounds function as phonemes, i.e. linguistically distinctive units capable of differentiating the meanings of morphemes, words, e.g. man - men; pot - port; asks - asked.

The nature of the phoneme. Phoneme as a functional unit.

The PHONEME is the smallest linguistically relevant unit of the sound structure of a given language which serves to distinguish one word from another.

Each phoneme of a given language may be regarded as opposed to the other phonemes in some physical (and/or articulatory) features (e.g. [s] - voiceless, [z] – voiced; [v] – short, [u:] - long). Thus, the relationship of phonemes can be described as difference which may be measured either at the acoustical or articulatory level.

Phonemes are unilateral (one-sided), i.e. they carry no meaning of their own (in contrast to words as units of the semantic level, that can have a meaning even when they are pronounced in isolation). The "phonemes" [b] and [p] mean nothing when they are not used in words. But they can differentiate two meanings (become semiologically relevant) in words (e.g. "bill" and "pill"). Phonemes in words become semiologically relevant (are used to express a meaning).

Phonemes are discovered by the method of minimal pairs, i.e. a pair of words which differ in lexical meaning based on a difference in one sound. For example, if we replace [b] by [t] in the word [ban] we produce a new word [tan] - [ban] is a pair of words distinguished in meaning by a single sound change. Two words of this kind are termed a "minimal pair". It is possible to continue this process. We can also produce [can-ran-man-fan], that is a minimal set.

The linguistic functions of a phoneme are the following:

- constitutive - phonemes constitute morphemes, words, utterances;

- distinctive - phonemes differentiate one word from another;

- identifying - the choice of phonemes or their allophones gives information about the speaker: the locality he lives in, his social status, age, even his emotional state.

Each language has its own system of phonemes. E.g. English – 24 consonants and 20 vowels; Ukrainian – 5-6 vowels and 35-37 consonants.

Phonemes and allophones. Phonemes and allophones are closely connected but at the same time they belong to two different levels:

• ***phoneme – to an abstract level,***

- *allophones – to a concrete level.*

The phoneme is an abstraction. It is realized in a bunch of allophones that occur in different positions in the word (i.e. different environments).

Listen to the pronunciation of one and the same sound [k] in several words:

cool - [k] is aspirated;

school - [k] loses aspiration after [s];

black - [k] has less aspiration than at the beginning of the word;

black cat - first [k] loses plosion and aspiration before the second one

Though all these 4 sounds [k] are slightly different they are recognizable as the sound [k] all the same. They are variants of one and the same phoneme [k] and are called allophones. So, articulatory and acoustic features of allophones depend on their position and phonetic environment.

The articulatory features which form the invariant of the phoneme (stay the same in all its allophones) are called distinctive or relevant. (e.g. backlingual and labial articulations of [k] and [p] are the same in all their allophones)

The articulatory features which change in allophones of the same phoneme are called non- distinctive or irrelevant. Here's an example.

The phoneme [p] is defined as occlusive, plosive, labial, bilabial, noise, fortis, voiced consonant. All these features are common for all its allophones. But each allophone besides these common features will have its own peculiarities,

park - [p] is aspirated; stop - [p] is less aspirated; prove- [p] is labialized;

stop Kate - [p] has no plosion and practically no aspiration.

ALLOPHONES (or variants) of a phoneme are speech sounds which are its realizations and which cannot distinguish words.

Allophones help their phonemes to perform a recognitive function because without them it is sometimes difficult to recognize words, e.g. words "post" and "boast" differ only in aspiration and work of the vocal cords ([p] is voiceless and [b] is voiced).

The system of phonological oppositions in English. Relevant and irrelevant features. Every speech sound is characterized by a number of distinctive features, but not all of which are equally important for communication. For example, lack of

aspiration of the sounds [p, t, k] though shows a foreign accent will not hinder communication if the word is in some understandable context.

So the question is to decide which of the features are relevant and which are irrelevant. This question is important not only from the phonological but also from the methodological point of view as teachers in mass schools using an approximation approach may not pay much attention to some irrelevant distinctive features of sounds like, e.g. aspiration. Phonological analysis makes a conclusion that:

Each PHONEME is characterized by a certain number of phonologically relevant features which are constant and distinctive, as they never change, no matter what position this phoneme is and they always distinguish this phoneme from any other.

Each ALLOPHONE has all phonologically relevant features of its phoneme plus a number of irrelevant features which distinguish one allophone from another allophone of the same phoneme. Let's analyse the phoneme [p] in different words:

pea [pi:]	paw [pᴐ:]	up [ʌp]
Labial	labial	labial
bilabial	bilabial	bilabial
occlusive	occlusive	occlusive
noise	noise	noise
fortis	fortis	fortis
plosive	plosive	partially plosive
aspirated	aspirated	partially aspirated
unrounded	rounded	unrounded

The result of our analysis shows that phonologically relevant features for the phoneme [p] are labial, bilabial, occlusive, noise, fortis. All the other features are irrelevant as they change in different positions.

The main point is – if the foreign speaker substitutes at least one relevant phonological feature of a phoneme, it changes completely and the word would not be recognizable. If he substitutes one allophone of the same phoneme by any other, the message will be clear but the accent will grate on the ears.

Recommended Literature

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Questions for Self-control

1. The subject matter of Theoretical Phonetics.
2. The role of Phonetics in teaching foreign languages.
3. Connection of Phonetics with other disciplines. Branches of Phonetics.
4. Sound as the basic component of the language phonic substance.
5. The nature of phoneme. Phoneme as a functional unit.
6. Phonemes and allophones.

CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH CONSONANTS

Consonants and vowels differences. The principles of English consonants classification. The characteristic features of English consonants. Methodological classification of English consonants for teachers/learners of English. Typical mistakes of Ukrainian learners in mastering English consonants.

Consonants and vowels differences. According to the specific character of the work of the speech organs, sounds in practically all the languages are subdivided into two major subtypes: VOWELS (V) and CONSONANTS (C).

There are 1) *articulatory, 2) acoustic and 3) functional* differences between V and C.

1. The most substantial *articulatory* difference between vowels and consonants is that in the articulation of V the air passes freely through the mouth cavity, while in making C an obstruction is formed in the mouth cavity and the air flow, which comes from the lungs meets a narrowing or a complete obstruction formed by the speech organs.

2. From the *acoustic* point of view, vowels are called the sounds of voice, they have high acoustic energy, consonants are the sounds of noise which have low acoustic energy. Consonants are known to have voice and noise combined, while vowels are sounds consisting of voice only.

3. *Functional* differences between Vs and Cs are defined by their role in

syllable formation: Vs are syllable forming elements, Cs don't form syllables, except [l], [m] and [n] after another C, e.g. in the words "fiddle", settle", 'bottom'.

The principles of English consonants classification.

Consonants are classified according to the following principles:

a) work of vocal cords;

b) active organs of speech;

c) manner of noise production and the place of obstruction;

d) point of articulation;

e) position of the soft palate.

According to the work of the vocal cords consonants are divided into *voiced and voiceless.* Voiced consonants are [b, d, ɡ, v, ð, z, ʒ, ɢ, ʒ], voiceless consonants are: [p, t, k, f, θ, s, ʃ, ʧ, h].

The degree of muscular tension is greater in the production of voiceless consonants, therefore they are called *"fortis".* Voiced consonants are called "*lenis",* because the degree of muscular tension in their articulation is weaker. The English sonorants [m, n, n, w, l, r, j] do not belong to fortis-lenis opposition. al kinds: noise consonants and sonorants. Sonorants are sounds that differ greatly from all other consonants of the language. This is largely due to the fact that in their production the air passage between the two organs of speech is fairly wide, that is much wider than in the production of noise consonants. As a result, the auditory effect is tone, not noise. This peculiarity of articulation makes sonorants sound more like vowels than consonants. On this ground some of the British phoneticians refer some of these consonants to the class of semivowels, [r], [j], [w], for example.

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Sonorants are the sounds which phonetic content is mostly made up by the sound waves produced by their voicity.

According to the position of the **active organs of speech** against the place of articulation consonants are classified into: labial, lingual, glottal.

Labial consonants are subdivided into *bilabial and labio-dental. Bilabial* consonants are produced with both lips. They are [p, b, m, w]. *Labio-dental* consonants are articulated with the lower lip against the edge of the upper lip. They are [f, v].

Lingual consonants are subdivided into: *forelingual, medio-lingual, backlingual.*

Forelingual consonants are articulated with the tip or the blade of the tongue. According to the position of the tongue they may be: *apical* [θ, ð, t, d, l, n, s, z], *cacuminal* [r]

Medio-lingual consonants are produced with the front part of the tongue. They are always palatal. *Palatal* consonants are articulated with the front part of the tongue raised high to the hard palate [j].

Backlingual consonants are also called velar, they are produced with the back part of the tongue raised towards the soft palate [k, g, n]

The *glottal* consonant [h] is articulated in the glottis.

According to the **manner of noise production and the type of obstruction** consonants are divided into *occlusive* and *constrictive.* In the production of *occlusive* consonants the speech organs form a complete obstruction. Occlusive consonants are subdivided into noise and sonorants [m, n, ŋ]. According to the manner of production the noise occlusive consonants are divided into plosive [p, b, t, d, k, g] and affricates [ʧ, ʤ]

Constrictive consonants are produced with an incomplete obstruction that is by the narrowing of the air passage. Constrictive consonants are subdivided into noise [θ, ð, f, v, s, z, ʒ, h] and sonorants [w, r, j, l].

According to **the point of articulation** English consonants are divided into interdental – [θ, ð], alveolar – [t, d, l, n, s, z], palato-alveolar – [ʤ, ʧ, ʃ, ʒ], post-alveolar – [r].

According to **the position of the soft palate** all consonants are divided into oral

and nasal. Oral consonants are such sounds in production of which the air escapes through the mouth cavity. Nasal consonants are such sounds in the production of which the soft palate is lowered and the air escapes through the nasal cavity [m, n, ŋ].

The characteristic features of English consonants.

1. English consonants are always hard (there is no palatalization). Only [ʃ, ʒ] are comparatively soft. It is due to the low position of the tongue. Before high sounds [i], [i:] the consonant is partially palatalized.

2. One of the characteristic features of English consonants is the apical articulation of 12 forelingual consonants [θ,ð, d, t, z, s, n, l, ʃ, tʃ, ʒ, ʤ], thus 50% of all the consonants have an apical articulation, they are articulated with the tip of the tongue against the teeth-ridge, or against the teeth. The corresponding Ukrainian consonants are articulated with the tongue in dorsal position, while the tip of the tongue is lowered The Ukrainian forelingual apical consonants are only [л, л'].

3.There is no voicing and devoicing in the system of consonants. Voicing and devoicing is a phonemic feature in English which leads to a mistake of substitution one word for another: bed - bet; cab - cap.

4. English consonants are not labialized with the exception the position after or before [w] (twenty).

5. English consonants are not classified into long or short, they are equal.

6. English voiced consonants are less energetic, voiceless are much more energetic. Final consonants are weaker than initial.

7. There is a group of plosives which gives the rise of some phonetic phenomena: nasal plosion, lateral plosion, loss of plosion.

8. There are some sounds which do not exist in other languages [w, θ, ð] – they are fully and typically foreign.

9. Lip position is very essential in forming English consonants, mostly they are inactive, there is no protrusion (with only exception for [w]).

Methodological classification of English consonants for teachers/learners of English.

English speech sounds can be divided into several groups according to
• their difficulty for Ukrainian learners;

- ways of their presentation and retention;
- the amount of time they should be practised.

Group 1: Sounds that are very similar to their Ukrainian counterparts and do not demand any additional work or extra explanation, e.g. [m, f, b, v] and [g] in Russian not Ukrainian!

Group 2: Sounds that cause phonetic mistakes and demand some correction. The difference in the pronunciation should be explained, demonstrated and practised in a number of exercises, e.g. [p, t, k] – aspiration; apical-alveolar English consonants [t, d, l, n, s, z] should not be substituted by dorsal-dental Ukrainian sounds [т, д, с, з, л, н].

Group 3: Sounds that cause phonological mistakes due to interference not only between Ukrainian and English sounds but also between English similar sounds. These sounds demand much work, explanation and long practice, e.g. [w] and [v].

Group 4: Sounds that cause phonological mistakes due to the fact that they do not exist in Ukrainian and are substituted by either similar English or Ukrainian sounds, e.g. [r, w, θ, ð, ŋ].

Conclusion: Awareness of phonetic and phonological mistakes and methodological classification of English consonants will help the teacher to rationally plan his/her lesson allocating the necessary amount of time to practicing different consonant

Typical mistakes of Ukrainian learners in mastering English consonants.
PHONOLOGICAL MISTAKES

1. Substitution of English interdental sounds [θ] and [ð] by U sounds [с, з, ф, в, л]

e.g. I don't like to read sick (instead of thick) books. Let me sink (instead of think).

2. Substitution of English sound [w] by English [v] or U [в]

e. g. There is something wrong with the veal (weal) of my car. Let's go vest (west).

3. Substitution of English voiced consonants by their voiceless counterparts

e.g. Where is your pen? It's in my back (bag).

She went to bet (bed).

The doc (dog) heard some noise and started to bark.

4. Substitution of English back-lingual sound [ŋ] by the English sound [n] or Ukrainian sound [н],

e.g. She often sins (sings) in the bathroom.

PHONETIC MISTAKES

1. Absence of aspiration in the sounds [p, t, k] before the stressed vowels.

2. Substitution of apical-alveolar English consonants [t, d, l, n, s, z] by dorsal-dental Ukrainian sounds [т, д, с, з, л, н], e.g. table.

3. Palatalization of English consonants before front vowels [i, i:, e, æ], e.g. lily.

Recommended Literature

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Questions for Self-control

1. Consonants and vowels differences.
2. The principles of English consonants classification.
3. The characteristic features of English consonants.
4. Methodological classification of English consonants for teachers/learners of English. Typical mistakes of Ukrainian learners in mastering English consonants.

Practice section

1. *Give examples of opposing consonants to show that the following features of the English consonants are distinctive:*
   e.g. "orality – nasality" can be illustrated by such minimal pairs: /p/ - /n/, /k/ - /m/.
   plosiveness – constrictiveness
   voicelessness – voicedness
2. *Match the words below to obtain minimal pairs:*
   e.g. Catch – match
   Catch, pip, cheap, sap, he, jail, lap, pair, say, sink, rip, fail, lass, Sam, mink, cap, tear, she, lay, heap, match.
3. *State what classificatory principles can be illustrated by the groups of pairs given below (consonants opposed initially):*
   e.g. Minimal pair "pin – bin" illustrates the classificatory principle – "the work of vocal cords"

pack– back, been – dean, pole –coal, bait – gait, fee – we, seal – real, pine – mine

4. *Sort out oppositions under the following headings: labial vs .forelingual, labial vs. mediolingual, labial vs. backlingual:*

    pat-cat, wield-yield, man-nap ,coming-cunning, leap-leak

5. *State which of the pairs illustrate forelingual vs. mediolingual and forelingual vs. backlingual oppositions:*

tame-came	sinner-singer	sung-young
less-yes	bitter-bicker	bat-back
rudder-rugger	clue-cue	day-gay
drew-due	bad-bag	rung-young

6. *Sort out the oppositions under the following headings: occlusive vs. constrictive, constrictive vs. constrictive, occlusive vs. occlusive*

    vain-lane, fare-chair , bee-thee, came-lame, fame-same, boat-moat, deed-need seek-seen, thine-wine, kick-king

7. *State allophonic differences of:*

    /p/ in: plan, price, pure

    /t/ in: try, tube, twelve.

CLASSIFICATION OF ENGLISH VOWELS

The general characteristics of vowels. The articulatory classification of the English vowels. The characteristic features of English vowels. Typical mistakes of Russian/Ukrainian learners in vowel production.

The general characteristics of vowels. There are 20 vowels in the English language. Vowels unlike consonants are produced with no obstruction to the air stream. The general principles of vowel articulation are:

a) vowels are based on voice which is modified;

d) the muscular tension is spread equally over all speech organs. The tension is stronger for long vowels and weaker for weak ones;

c) the air stream passes freely through the mouth cavity meeting no obstruction;

d) vowels have no special place of articulation. The whole of the speech apparatus takes part in producing them;

e) vowels are syllabic, it means they are capable of forming a syllable.

The articulatory classification of the English vowels. Vowels are <u>classified</u> according to the following principles:

- stability of articulation;

- tongue position (horizontal and vertical);
- lip position;
-degree of tension;
-length.

According to stability of articulation all English vowels are divided into three groups: *pure vowels or monophthongs, diphthongs and diphthongoids.*

Monophthongs are vowels the articulation of which is almost unchanging. The quality of such vowels is relatively pure. There are 10 monophthongs in the English language.

In the pronunciation of *diphthongs* the organs of speech glide from one vowel position to another within one syllable. The starting point, the nucleus, is strong and distinct. The glide which shows the direction of the quality change is very weak. In fact diphthongs consist of two clearly perceptible vowel elements. There are no diphthongs in Ukrainian. There are 8 of them in English.

A diphthong is defined as a unisyllabic complex in the articulation of which the organs of speech start from one position then glide into another position A diphthong may be falling - when the nucleus is stronger than the glide, and rising - when the glide is stronger than the nucleus When two elements are equal such diphthong is called level. English diphthongs are falling.

The main principle we should consider from the phonological point of view is *the position of the tongue.* The tongue may move vertically (i.e. it may be raised to various heights in the mouth) or horizontally (forward and backward).

According to the vertical position of the tongue vowels are divided into the following groups:

a) when the tongue comes rather close to the palate and the air flows through the passage without causing audible friction, the resulting vowels are close. In pronouncing close vowels the air passage between the tongue and the palate is rather narrow,

Eng [i:, u:, i, u] Ukr. [i, y].

b) when the tongue is lowered and a wide air passage is formed between the tongue and the roof of the mouth, the resulting vowels are called open,

Eng [ʀ, ɔ, ɔ:, ɒ:]   Ukr [a]

c) when the tongue is in a position intermediate between those of open and close vowels the resulting vowels are called <u>half-open,</u>

Eng [e, з:, з, ʌ] Ukr [e, o].

Thus, close vowels are produced with a nearly closed mouth, half-open - with a jaw half open and open - with a wide jaw angle and vertical mouth opening.

According to the horizontal movement of the tongue there are well-defined classes of vowels:

a) when the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, the air passing through the mouth produces *front vowels:*

Eng [i:, ɛ, ʀ] Ukr [i]

b) when the front but somewhat retracted part of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate, the air passing through the mouth produces *front retracted vowels:*

Eng [i]   Ukr [и, e]

c) when the front part of the tongue is raised towards the back part of the hard palate, the resulting vowels are called *central:*

Eng. [з:, з, ʌ] Ukr. [a, и]

d) when the tongue is in the back part of the mouth and the back of it is raised towards the soft palate a *back vowel* is pronounced. In pronouncing back vowels a large resonance chamber is formed in the front part of the mouth cavity Eng [ɒ:, ɔ, ɔ:, u:] Ukr. [o, y]

e) when the back but somewhat advanced part of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate, the resulting vowels are called *back advanced*: Eng [u].

In pronouncing vowels traditionally three lip positions are distinguished the lips may be spread, neutral or rounded to a certain extent. ***According to the position of the lips*** vowels are divided into *rouned* [ɔ, ɔ:, u, u:] Ukr [o, y] and *unrounded.*

Another articulatory characteristic of English vowels is their ***length*** or quantity. Traditionally the English monophthongs are divided into two varieties according to their length:

Long vowels [i:, ɒ:, u:, ʀ ɔ:, з:]

short vowels [ʌ, ɛ, o, u, i, з]

But for the purpose of practical speech training it is not enough to distinguish two degrees of length. English vowels are the longest in the syllable open position (e. g. see, bar), a bit shorter in the syllable closed by a weak voiced consonant (e. g. seed, arm). They are considerably shorter before strong voiceless consonants in closed syllables, e. g. seat, look, first.

Diphthongs vary in length in the same way as vowels.; play – played – plate, toy – toys – voice. Variation of length mainly affect the nucleus, not the glide.

All English vowels are longer when they are stressed.

It should be noted that in similar phonetic contexts traditionally long vowels are always longer than traditionally short vowels: e. g. see – sin, calm – come.

Special instrumental analysis shows that long vowels are ***tense*** while short vowels are ***lax.***

The characteristic features of English vowels are as follows.

1. The English vowels, although not very tense objectively seem tense. This is especially felt in unstressed positions

2. In English an unstressed vowel does not always differ in quality from a stressed one. In Ukrainian an unstressed vowel is always short and different in quality from the same vowel under stress

3. Vowels in English differ in length according to 2 principles:

a) in monophthongs length is phonemic and is always connected with a certain vowel quality;

b) in diphthongs length is not significant, it is entirely phonetic variations of length depend upon the sound sequence in which a diphthong occurs.

4. English vowels are mostly non-labialised. On the other hand, the lips are tenser in the articulating the English front monophthongs, which require spreading of the lips. Spreading of the lips is a typical feature of the English articulation.

5. Other striking features of English are the open back vowels. There are no vowels in Ukrainian so back, open and tense.

6.The vowel [ɜ] can only occur in unstressed position.

Methodological classification of English vowels.

Group 1: Sounds that are very similar to their Ukrainian counterparts and do not

demand any additional work or extra explanation,

e.g. [ʌ].

Group 2: Sounds that cause phonetic mistakes and demand some correction. The difference in the pronunciation should be explained, demonstrated and practised in a number of exercises, e.g. [ɔi], [ai], [ɛi].

Group 3: Sounds that cause phonological mistakes due to interference not only between Ukrainian and English sounds but also between English similar sounds. These sounds demand much work explanation and long practice,

e.g. [æ,] [i], [i:] [ɑ:], [ɔ:], [u:], [ʊ], [iq], [ʃ q], [ʊq], [p].

Group 4: Sounds that cause phonological mistakes due to the fact that they do not exist in Ukrainian and are substituted by either similar English Ukrainian sounds, e.g. [ɛ:].

Conclusion: Awareness of phonetic and phonological mistakes and methodological classification of English vowels will help the teacher to rationally plan his/her lesson allocating the necessary amount of time to practising different consonant sounds.

Typical mistakes of Ukrainian learners in vowel production.

Practically all mistakes in the vowel production are phonological and they are substitution of English vowel sounds by similar English or Ukrainian ones,

1.   [æ] by the English sound [e], Russian sound [э] or Ukrainian sound [e],

e.g. We are having bed weather today. He was a good men.

2.   [ɑ:] by the English sound [ʌ] or Ukrainian sound [a],

 e.g. It was getting duck (dark).   His hut (heart) stopped beating.She changed an old bun (barn) into a new modern house.

3.   [ɜ:] by the English sound [e] or Ukrainian sounds [jo] or [jэ],

e.g. nurse, girl, dirty

4. [ɔ] by the English sound [o:] (or vice versa);

e.g. They were cot (caught) by a storm. We were given excellent cord (cod) for dinner.

5.[i:] by the English sound [i] (or vice versa) or Ukrainian sounds [и] and[ы],

e.g. They have a nice house on the heel (hill). The mill (meal) they had in the

restaurant was awful.

6.[u:] by the English sound [ʊ] (or vice versa) or Ukrainian sound [y],

e.g. There isn't any foot (food) in the fridge. She was swimming in the swimming pull (pool).

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Questions for self-control

1. The general characteristics of vowels.
2. The articulatory classification of the English vowels.
3. The characteristic features of English vowels.
4. Typical mistakes of Ukrainian learners in vowel production.

Practice Section

1. *Give examples to prove that the following features of the English vowels are distinctive:*
   closeness – openness   tenseness – laxness   frontness – backness
2. *State what principles of vowel classification the following pairs of words illustrate:*
   cod-cord   end-and   fir-for
   fool-full   am-aim   nor-no
3. *Which of the following examples illustrate high, mid, open and front, central, back oppositions?*
   bead-bed-bad   deed-dead-dad
   cab-curb-cub   tan-turn-ton
   bad-bird-bud   hat-hurt-hut
4. *Arrange these words into minimal distinctive pairs:*
   Cart, wart, Boz, caught, don, what, bars, cod, card, down, cot, cord
5. *Sort out these oppositions into two columns: closing diphthong vs. closing diphthong and centring diphthong vs. centring diphthong:*
   known-noun   beer-bear   hay-high   rear-rare
   phoned-found   ear-air   bay-buy   no-now
   hear-hair   tear-tear   fear-fair   hoe-how

MODIFICATION OF ENGLISH SOUNDS IN CONNECRED SPEECH

Modification of English consonants in connected speech (assimilation). Modification of English vowels in connected speech (accommodation). Reduction

Liaison. Elision.

Language in everyday use is not conducted in terms of isolated, separate units; it is performed in connected sequences of larger units, in words, phrases and longer utterances.

ASSIMILATION takes place when a consonant changes its character under the influence of a neighbouring consonant.

Several TYPES of assimilation can be recognized:

a) partial (e.g. *put there*) or

 b) total (*horse-shoe* [hoːʃu].

The DIRECTION of assimilation can be:

a) progressive, when the first of the two sounds affected by assimilation makes the second sound similar to itself. But these assimilations are less common in English. They occur in some contractions, e.g. *it's, that's*;

b) regressive, when the second of the two sounds affected by assimilation makes the first sound similar to itself, e. g*. tram, read that;*

c) double, or reciprocal, when the two adjacent sounds influence each other, e.g. *twice* /t/ is rounded under the influence of /w/ and /w/ is partly devoiced under the influence of the voiceless /t/.

Assimilation can affect the following:

▪ the place of articulation;

▪ the manner of articulation;

▪ the work of vocal cords.

Assimilation according to **the place of articulation** is the following:

1. **Dental assimilation**: *alveolar* [t, d, l, n] become *dental* under the influence of interdental [Τ,Ð] : e. g. breadth, said that, feel this.

2. **Post-alveolar assimilation**: *alveolar* [t, d] become *post-alveorlar* under the influence of the neighbouring [r] : e. g. tree, true, dream.

3. **Labialization**: consonants [t, d, k] become *labialized* under the influence of the neighbouring [w] : e. g. twitter, dwelling, quite.

4. **Affrication:** the combination of *alveolar* [d] and *mid-lingual* [j] turn into fricative [dƵ] : *graduate* [ɡrхdƵuɕit], *did you* [didƵu]; the combination of

alveolar [t] and *mid-lingual* [j] turn into fricative [tʃ], e.g. *congratulate* [kɔngrxtʃulɕit]; the combination of *alveolar* [s] and *mid-lingual* [j] turn into fricative [ʃ], e.g. *issue* [iʃu]; the combination of *alveolar* [z] and *mid-lingual* [j] turn into fricative [ʒ], e.g. *does your* mother call you [dʌʒqmʌʃq].

According to the manner of articulation such assimilation is differentiated:

1. **Loss of plosion**. When two plosive consonants stand together (plosive consonants: [t, d, p, b, k, g]) the first one loses its plosion, e.g. *put down, sacked* (partial regressive assimilations).

2. **Nasal plosion**: When one of plosive consonants is followed by a nasal sonorant [n] or [m], nasal plosion occurs, e.g. *sudden, not now, at night, let me see* (partial regressive assimilations).

3. **Lateral plosion**: When a plosive consonant is followed by a lateral sonorant [l], lateral plosion occurs, e.g. *settle, table, at last.*

Assimilation can affect **the work of the vocal cords** and sounds become voiced or devoiced under the influence of the neighbouring sounds. In particular, voiced sounds become voiceless when followed by another voiceless sound, e.g.:

1. **Devoicing/Voicing:** is best demonstrated by the regressive assimilation in such words as news paper (news [z] + paper); gooseberry (goose [s] + berry).

In casual informal speech **voicing assimilation** is often met, e.g. have to do it ['hʍf tə'du:], five past two ['faif pa:st 'tu:]

2. **Devoicing**:

a) devoicing assimilation affects mostly grammatical items: [z] of "has", "is", "does" changes to [s], and [v] of "of", "have" becomes [f], e.g. She's five. Of course. She has fine eyes. You've spoiled it. Does Pete like it?

b) the weak forms of the verbs "is" and "has" are also assimilated to the final voiceless consonants of the preceding word, e.g. Your aunt's coming. What's your name? (partial progressive assimilation)

c) English sonorants [m, n, r, 1, j, w] preceded by the voiceless consonants [p, t, k, s] are partially devoiced, e.g. *smart, snake, tray, quick, twins, play, pride* (partial

progressive assimilation).

ACCOMMODATION – the modification of a consonant under the influence of the neighbouring vowel or vice versa.

Accommodation can be of the following TYPES:

1**.** *Labialisation:* when consonants are labiolized (rounded) under the influence of the neighbouring rounded back vowels, e.g. pool, moon, rude, soon, who, cool, etc.

2. *Spread lip position of consonants***:** consonants acquire spread lip position when they are followed or preceded by front vowels [i:], [i], e.g. tea – beat; meet – team; feat – leaf, keep – leak; sit – miss.

3. *Nasalization***:** vowels are nasalized as the result of prolonged lowering of the soft palate under the influence of the neighbouring sonants *[m] and [n], e.g. and*, morning, men, come in.

Reduction is the weakening of articulation and shortening of the duration of unstressed vowels in connected speech. It results in quantitative and qualitative changes in the sounds. It can be of three types:

• *Quantitative* when only the length of the vowel is changed without changing the quality of the sound, e.g. How are you? [ju] How are you? [ju:];

• *Qualitive-quantitative* when due to traditional alterations one sound is replaced by another one, e.g. Do [dɑ] you have some [sm] sugar? Can [kɑŋ]you give me some? [sʌm].

Most vowels in unstressed positions are reduced to [ɑ] but the long vowels [i:] and [u:] are reduced to their short counterparts [i] and [ʊ]. Remember that the long vowel [ɔ:] is not reduced to the short vowel [ɒ], but to [ɑ].

• *Elision or zero reduction* is an omission of a vowel.

e.g. John and Mary [nd]; I'm a teacher. [m] Let's go there. [s] Emily [`emli]

I wouldn't 'v done this. (have not of).

Reduction occurs in English in function words which are usually unstressed. They are articles, particles, modal verbs, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, conjunctions. Also pronouns are usually unstressed.

Traditional use of unreduced vowels.

It is necessary to remember that some vowels don't undergo

reduction due to historically formed traditional use. They are:

1. Some structural words, e.g. *which, what, where, on, in, with, then, when, how.*

2. Prepositions in the final position in the sentence,

    e.g. *Where are you from?* [frɔm] *Where are they going to?* [tu:]

3. Prepositions before pronouns in the final position in the sentence,

 e.g. *gave it to her* [`tu: h q] *Bring it for me* [`f o: mi].

4. Auxiliary and modal verbs in the initial and final position in the sentence,

 e.g. *Can you do it for me? I'll do everything I <u>can.</u>* [kχn]

        Who is there? John and Mary <u>are</u>. [a:]

LIAISION (insertion) - connecting of the final sound of one word or syllable to the initial sound of the next or inserting the extra sound between them.

   When a word which ends in a vowel is followed by another word beginning with a vowel, the so-called intrusive "r" is sometimes pronounced between the vowels, e.g. Asia and Africa ['ei ʃ ər ənd ə], the idea of it [pi:ai'diər əvit], ma and pa ['ma:r ənd 'pa:].

      The so-called ***linking "r,"*** is a common example of insertion, e.g. clearer, a teacher of English. When the word final vowel is a diphthong which glides to [i] such as [ai], [ei] the palatal sonorant [j] tends to be inserted, e.g. saying ['seijiŋ]; trying ['traiiŋ].

      In case of the [u]-gliding diphthongs [əu], [au] the bilabial sonorant [w] is sometimes inserted, e.g. going ['gəuwiŋ], allowing [ə'lauwiŋ]. The process of inserting the sonorants [r], [j] or [w] may seem to contradict the tendency towards the economy of articulatory efforts. The explanation for it lies in the fact that it is apparently easier from the articulatory point of view to insert those sounds than to leave them out. The insertion of a consonant-like sound, namely a sonorant, interrupts the sequence of two vowels (VV) to make it a more optional syllable type: consonant + vowel (CV). Thus, ***insertion*** occurs in connected speech in order to facilitate the process of articulation for the speaker, and not as a way of providing extra information for the listener.

      ELISION or complete loss of sounds, both vowels and consonants, is observed in the structure of English words. It is typical of rapid colloquial speech and marks

the following sounds:

1. Loss of [h] in personal and possessive pronouns he, his, her, him and the forms of the auxiliary verb have, has, had is wide spread, e.g. What has he done? ['wɔt əz iˌdʌn].

2. [1] tends to be lost when preceded by [ɔ:], e.g. always ['ɔ:wiz], already [ɔ:'redi], all right [ɔ:'rait].

3. Alveolar plosives are often *elided* in case the cluster is followed by another consonant, e.g. next day ['neks 'dei], just one [' dʒʌs 'wʌn], mashed potatoes ['mʌʃ pə'teitəuz]. If a vowel follows, the consonant remains, e.g. first of all, passed in time. Whole syllables may be elided in rapid speech: library ['laibri], literary ['litri].

Examples of *historical elision* are also known. They are initial consonants in the words "write", "know", "knight", the medial consonant [t] in "fasten", "listen", "whistle", "castle".

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1. Паращук В.Ю. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови: Навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА. 2005, С.136.
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Questions for Self-control

1. Modification of English consonants in connected speech (assimilation).
2. Modification of English vowels in connected speech (accommodation).
3. Liasion. Elision.
4. Reduction

Practice Section

1. *Group the following words according to the phonetic phenomena, which occur within these words or at the junction of words. In case of assimilation/accommodation write if it is progressive, regressive or reciprocal.*

   On the table, don't touch it, isn't black, there are, going, twice, tree, what colour, let live, had caused, evidently, my mother is, told me, sight was, did not want, traitor, next question, two, must consult, suddenly, feeble, it's growing, have you seen, kept quite, could not, Asia and Africa, and white, stand firm, middle, white door, vaguely, tea, little, always, try, queen, bottom, crop, feet.

2. *Cross out any letters representing /t/ at the end of words that you think are likely to be omitted.*

1. He wrote it. 2. A published article. 3. It's in first gear. 4. It was just him. 5. Take a left turn. 6. They kept quiet.7. It looked good. 8. We reached Berlin. 9. We crossed over. 10. I'll contact Ann. 11. He finished first. 12. I slept badly.

3. *Study these assimilation patterns and contribute your own examples.*
    1. The plosives /p, b, t, d, k, g/ + /n/ or /m/ = nasal explosion.
      e.g. kitten, button, shouldn't
      2. The plosives /p, b, t, d, k, g/ + /l/ = lateral explosion.
      e.g. dental, kettle, pebble
      3. /t/ + /j/ = /tʃ/, e.g. Is that yours?
      4. /d/ + /j/ = /dʒ/, e.g. Did you do it?
      5. /s/ + /j/ = /ʃ/, e.g. issue
      6. /z/ + /j/ = /ʒ/, e.g. Does your mother know?
      7. /s, z/ + // = /ʃ/, e.g. horseshoe, his shirt
4. Read the conversations omitting /h/ where it is possible.
    1. A: Is that him over there?
      B: Who?
      A: The man who took your bag.

    2. A: He wasn't at home.
      B: No, I think he's on holiday.

    3. A: It says here, the President's coming.
      B: Where?
      A: Here.
      B: I really hope we'll get to see her.

    4. A: How's Tom these days?
      B: Haven't you heard about his heart attack?

    5. A: Kate says she left her handbag here. Have you seen it?
      B: This one? But Judy says it's hers.

5. *Match the form-words and their transcription in the dialogues below. Identify the degree of reduction in unstressed form-words.*
      do [d; dǝ; du]
      - Where do you live? Do you live in London?
- Yes, I do.
are [ǝr; ǝ; a:]
  - The boys are at school…
  - So are the girls.
  - Yes, they are.

is [ɪz; z; s]
  - The sun's very hot.
  - Yes, it's hotter than yesterday.

- It is, isn't it?

have [hxv; qv; v]
- Where have you been?
- I've been on holiday.
- I haven't seen you for weeks.

can [kxn;kqn]
- How can I help you?
- You can carry this.
- I will, if I can.

must [mqst; mʌst]
- We must try to get there early.
- We must leave in good time.
- Yes, we must.

 some [sm; sqm; sʌm]
- Will you have some more bread?
- No, but I'd like some more tea, please.
- I think there's still some in the teapot.

THE SYLLABLE AS A PHONETIC AND PHONOLOGICAL UNIT

The syllable as a phonetic and phonological unit. Syllable formation and syllable division. Theories of syllable formation and syllable division.
Syllabic formation. Syllabic division.

Phonemes are the smallest segments into which the speech continuum (that is connected speech) is generally divided for purpose of analysis because these units serve to differentiate words. But in real connected speech sounds are not pronounced separately, by themselves. It is practically impossible to draw articulator boundaries between them. If we slow down the tempo of utterance and articulate all the sounds distinctly, we shall see that the smallest units, into which the speech continuum is divided, are syllables. Boundaries between syllables are marked by the alteration of increases and decreases in articulatory tension. So, the smallest pronunciation unit is the syllable. Experiments prove that the syllable is also the smallest perceptible unit. It means that the listener can recognize the preceding sound only after he has analyzed the whole syllable.

The syllable can be considered as both phonetic and phonological unit. As a phonetic unit it is defined in articulatory, auditory and acoustic terms with universal application for all languages. As a phonological unit it can be defined and described only with reference to the structure of one particular language. Its very name, the term "syllable" denotes particular ways in which phonemes are combined into a language, because in Greek the word syllable means "something taken together".

Each language has its own rules of combining its phonemes into syllables. Some combinations are permissible in the language, others aren't. Lewis Carrol in "Alice in Wonderland" made non-existing words with correct English syllables, mimsy, wabe and toves. But words, e.g. like kpo, sfple cannot be English because such combinations of phonemes do not exist in English. Another example may be the difficulty, which English speaking people face when they try to pronounce the Russian word "здравствуйте" or Ukrainian "Дніпро" in which the sounds form strange syllables for the English language.

It is the specific grouping and distribution of phonemes in different languages that make speakers of different languages interpret one and the same word as monosyllabic or dissyllabic, or as disyllabic or trisyllabic. Most Russian or Ukrainian speakers who are not familiar with the idea of English diphthongs are sure that, for example, the word "house" is disyllabic.

Ancient Greek scholars noticed that vowels and consonants fulfil different functions in speech. The function of a vowel is to occupy the central position in certain combinations, whereas consonants serve as the margins of the sound combinations. In other words, vowels are always syllabic, that is, they always form syllables, while consonants in some languages are incapable of doing it. But in a number of languages, English included, some sonants are also syllabic because they have strong vocalic features. Thus, in English sonants [l, m, n] can form syllables, e.g. garden [`ga:- dn], autumn [`P:-tm], kettle [`ke-tl]. In the Czech language the sonant [r] is syllabic, e.g. krk [k-rk] – neck.

Theories of syllable formation and syllable division.

The syllable is a complicated phenomenon, which can be studied on four levels:

- ▪ acoustic;

▪ auditory;

▪ articulatory;

.   ▪ functional.

In the history of theoretical phonetics there have been many theories about syllable formation and division. To understand the essence of the syllable it is necessary to mention some most important ones.

1.   The most ancient theory states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are vowels. Though this theory makes sense for some languages it cannot be universal as in some languages sonorant consonants can form syllables alongside with vowels.

2.   The expiratory (chest pulse or pressure) theory states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are expiration pulses. According to this theory the borderline between the syllables is the moment of the weakest expiration.

3.   The sonority theory states that there are as many syllables in a word as there are peaks of prominence according to the scale of sonority. The founder of this theory, the Danish phonetician O. Jespersen, believed that each sound is characterised by a certain degree of sonority, which is understood as acoustic property of a sound that determines its perceptibility. According to this sound property, A SCALE OF SPEECH SOUNDS could be established.

The scale looks like this:

• 	the most sonorous are open vowels;

• 	then come close vowels;

• 	sonants;

• 	voiced fricatives;

• 	voiced plosives;

• 	voiceless fricatives;

• 	the least sonorous voiceless plosives.

The peak of prominence is formed by the more sonorous sounds, and one peak of sonority is separated from another peak by sounds of lower sonority. The distance between the two peaks of sonority is a syllable.

Let us compare two words melt and metal. In the first word there is only one peak of sonority [e] while in the other there are peaks [e] and [l] as [l] is a sonant, so this word has two syllables.

4.The muscular tension (the articulatory effort) theory was formulated by the Academician Shcherba. According to it a syllable is characterised by variations in muscular tension. The energy of articulation increases at the beginning of a syllable, reaches its maximum with the vowel or sonant and decreases towards the end of the syllable. So a syllable can be presented as an arc of muscular tension. The boundaries between syllables are determined by the lowest degree of articulatory energy.

5.The loudness theory was worked out by the phonetician N. Zhinkin. Unlike the previous theories, which analysed either a production or a perception level, his theory took into account both these levels. He experimentally proved that the organ immediately responsible for the variation of loudness is the pharynx. Its narrowing and the resulting increase in muscular tension of its walls reinforce the actual loudness of the vowel or sonant thus forming the peak of the syllable, while the loudness of all other consonants is weakened. So according to this theory, the syllable can be regarded as the arc of loudness on the perception level, which corresponds to the arc of articulatory effort on the speech production level, since variations in loudness are due to the work of all the speech mechanisms.

So, from the phonetic point of view **the syllable can be defined as a unit which is pronounced by one articulatory effort, by one muscular contraction which results auditorily in one uninterrupted arc of loudness.** This definition of the syllable is universal and can be applied to all languages.

From the phonological or functional point of view the syllable can be defined only with reference to the structure of one particular language as a similar sound sequence may be divided differently in different languages. So the definition of the syllable includes the following *features of the syllable*:

• a syllable is a chain of phonemes of varying length;

• a syllable is constructed on the basis of contrast of its constituents (which is usually a vowel-consonant type, but may also consist of a vowel alone, a vowel and

some consonants, or a syllabic sonant and consonants, in the numbers and arrangements permitted by the given language;

• the nucleus of the syllable is a vowel, the presence of a sonant is optional; there are no languages in which vowels are not used as syllable nuclei, however there are languages where this function is performed by a sonant;

• the distribution of phonemes in the syllabic structure follows the rules, which are specific enough for a particular language.

Syllable formation. Syllabic formation in English is based on the phonological opposition vowel – consonant. Vowels are usually syllabic, while consonants are not with the exception of sonants [l, n, m] which become syllabic only in a certain position – in an unstressed final position preceded by noise consonants, e.g. little, blossom, Britain.

The structure of syllables may vary from language to language because of the number and arrangement of consonants.

In English there are *four types of syllables:*

1. open – C + V – where there is no consonant after the vowel, e.g. no, me, to, far;

2. closed – V + C – where the vowel is followed by a consonant, e.g. odd, life;

3. fully open– V– when the vowel is neither preceded nor followed by a consonant, e.g. are, or;

4. fully closed – C+V+C – when there is a consonant before and after a vowel, e.g. cat, put.

The fundamental type of syllable in English is the closed type while in Russian and Ukrainian it is the open type. The number of syllables in an English word can very from 1 to 8 (e.g. boy - unintelligibility).

Syllable devision. Correct syllable division, especially at the word junctions, is of great Phonological importance, as the wrong syllable division may lead to the confusion of one word with another and cause phonological mistake. Compare: a name – an aim; a nice house – an ice house, she saw the meat – she saw them eat, ice-cream – I scream, I saw her eyes – I saw her rise.

Syllable devision in English is regulated by the following RULES:

1.   Syllabic boundary is inside intervocalic consonants preceded by vowels. It means that when a short stressed vowel is separated from a following syllable sound by only one consonant it always occurs in a closed syllable. The syllabic boundary in this case occurs within the consonant, e.g. [`sit-i], [`ʃʌm-ili]. It is greatly differs from Russian or Ukrainian where the first syllable is always open if there is only one consonant between two vowels, e.g. си-ла, во-да, пуля. This difference results in phonetic mistakes when R/U learners tend to turn English closed syllables into open ones by lengthening the short vowels,

e.g. money [`mʌ-ni].

2.   Syllabic boundary is before an intervocalic consonant if it is not preceded by a short stressed vowel. It means that long monophthongs, diphthongs and unstressed short vowels [i,ə,ʊ] always occur in phonetically open syllables when they are separated from the following syllabic sound by only one consonant, e.g. ar-my, voi-ces, etc.

3.   The syllabic boundary lies between two consonants if the first consonant is preceded by a short checked vowel, e.g. lov-ly, twen-ty, quick-ly.

4.   The sonants [l, m, n] are syllabic if they are preceded by noise consonants, e.g. eagle, open, blossom.

5.   There cannot be more than one vowel in one syllable.

Recommended Literature

1. Паращук В.Ю. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови: Навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов. Вінниця: НОВА КНИГА, 2005. С.160-166.
2. Соколова М. А., Гинтовт К.П., Канте Л.А. Практическая фонетика английского языка: учебник для вузов. М. : Владос, 2001. С. 133-134.

Questions for Self-control

1. The syllable as a phonetic and phonological unit.
2. Syllable formation and syllable division.
3. Theories of syllable formation and syllable division.
4. Syllabic formation. Syllabic division.

Practice Section

1. *Arrange these words into columns according to the type of syllable structure.*

Took, pray, lifts, at, straw, boy, aunt, texts, clenched, tip, pea, struck, strays, elks, thrust, bet, fact, fret, asks, ebbed, price.

2. *Divide these words into phonetic syllables:*

Comfortable, cottage, orchard, ground, kitchen, upstairs, bedroom, nursery, bathroom.

INTONATION AND PROSODY

The role of intonation in language. Prosodic units. Structure of intonation. Prosodic subsystems. Tonograms. Nuclear tones. Scales. Meanings and functions of prosody. Functions of nuclear tones. Prosodic interference. Typical mistakes.

The role of intonation in language. "That chap has some interesting things to say, but he is so arrogant about it all" – may be a reaction to a foreigner who has little control over his low-rising tone.

What is the role of intonation? Is it just a cosmetic accessory, a kind of a costume jewelry that people can do without? Or it is one of the most fundamental aspects of human communication? To say that intonation is very important is to say very little. To some extent it may be even more important than any unit of segmental level, because native speakers are ready to forgive and just secretly laugh at any pronunciation mistake, but their first reaction to intonation mistake is rather offence than surprise. As one of the phoneticians, R. Kingdon said, "Intonation is the soul of a language while the pronunciation of its sounds is its body."

There are dozens of definitions of intonation. In this course of lectures we will use the most complete one that goes like this, ***"Intonation is a complex unity of speech melody (which is also called the pitch component), sentence stress, tempo, rhythm and voice timbre which enables the speaker to express his thoughts, emotions and attitudes towards the contents of the utterance and the hearer".***
Nowadays the term "intonation" is very often replaced by the term ***"prosody".*** Some phoneticians think that these are just synonyms; others believe that the term "prosody" is wider. Nobody has offered the final argument in this scientific discussion so we will regard these terms as synonyms.

Prosodic units. One of the basic problems in the study of intonation or prosody is to determine its units. They are:

1. The syllable – is the smallest prosodic unit, which has no meaning of its own but is very important for building up more complex units of intonation. It has its prosodic functions – tone, stress and duration.

2. The rhythmic group – is either one stressed syllable or one stressed syllable and a number of unstressed syllables grouped around it. The stressed syllable is the nucleus of the rhythmic group. There are as many rhythmic groups in the utterance as there stressed syllables in it. Rhythmic groups are always meaningful.

3. The intonation group – is the second meaningful prosodic unit. Structurally it has some obligatory formal characteristics: the nuclear stress, and the terminal tone. The boundaries between intonation groups are marked by pauses. The structure of an intonation group varies depending on the number of syllables and rhythmic units in it. Minimally an intonation group can consist of one stressed syllable – the nucleus,

e.g. No. Who?

Maximally, the intonation group can contain:

   ▪ the pre-head – all unstressed syllables before the first stressed one; different types of pre-head differentiate emotional meaning;

   ▪ the head – all the stressed and unstressed syllables before the nucleus; different types of head convey attitudinal meaning;

   ▪ the nucleus (or the nuclear tone) – the most important element in the intonation group because it expresses communicative and attitudinal meaning and indicates the end if the intonation group;

   ▪ the tail – all the unstressed syllables that follow the nucleus and whose pitch variation is determined by the nuclear tone.

e.g. Her little sister never gets up early. Her – pre-head; little sister never gets up – head; ear – nuclear tone; ly –tail.

4. The highest meaningful prosodic unit is the utterance. It is the main communicative unit because it is characterized by its semantic entity, which is expressed by all language means – lexical, grammatical and prosodic. The utterance may contain one or several intonation groups.

5. Utterances can be united into hyperutterances, which are the ultimate units of prosodic analysis.

Prosodic subsystems. Speech melody or the pitch component of the intonation is acoustically the variations of the fundamental frequency generated by the vibrations of the vocal cords.

The melody of the utterance is characterized by the following features:

• The pitch level – which shows the degree of semantic importance that the speaker attaches to the utterance or intonation group in comparison with any other utterance or intonation group. It is determined by the pitch of its highest-pitched syllable. The number of levels in unemphatic speech is three – low, mid and high. Besides some phoneticians distinguish two more levels – the emphatic and the emotional pitch levels.

• The pitch range – which is the interval between its highest–pitched syllable and its lowest-pitched syllable. The speaker changes his/her voice range according to circumstances. It may be widened or narrowed to express the speaker's attitudes and emotions.

e.g.   Yes. (High Narrow Range– not enthusiastic)

Yes (Low Narrow Range – sincere but not emotional)

Yes. (High Wide Range – sincere and enthusiastic)

• The terminal tone – the most important element of the pitch from the functional point of view. It has the meaning of its own which practically predetermines the meaning of the whole utterance. The most important nuclear tones are:

• Low Fall;

• Low Rise;

• High Fall;

• High Rise;

• Fall-Rise;

• Rise-Fall.

Tonograms. Like music, which can be graphically represented on the music staves, intonation can be graphically represented on tonogram staves with the help of a dot and dash system. There are a lot of other types of notations but we offer you this system as the easiest and the most visually persuasive.

The staves are two horizontal parallel lines, which represent the approximate upper and lower limits of the human voice in speech. Speech melody and stress are shown on the staves with the help of dashes, curves and dots placed on different levels. To make the learners' life easier some phoneticians offered to mark level tones within the staves. They suggested 7 levels, with the 1st one being the lowest and the 7th the highest.

```
7

                                    High pitch Level        (staves 5-7)
6
5———————————————————————  Middle pitch Level     (staves 3-5)
4
3————————●————————————
2
1———————————————————————  Low Pitch Level   (staves 1-3)
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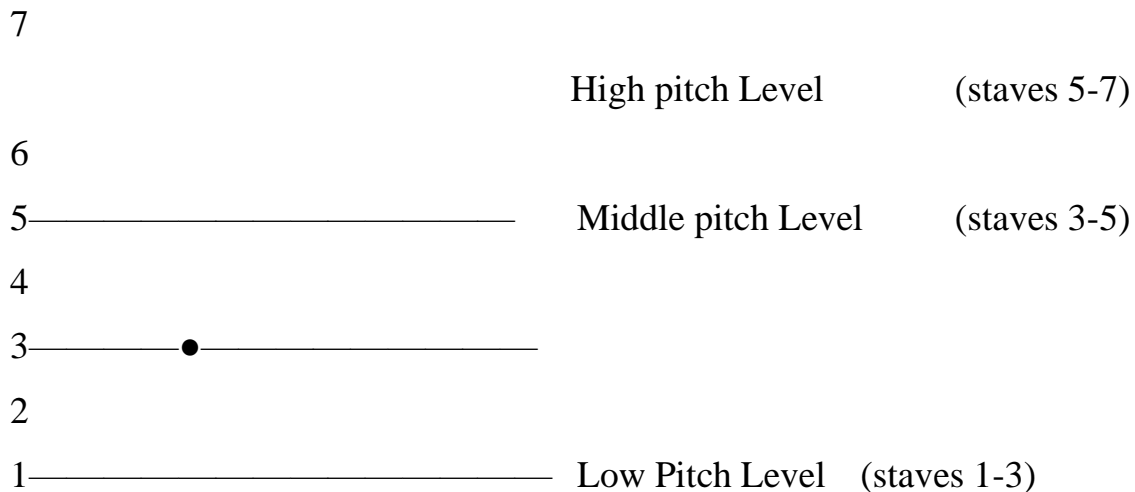
Scales. The pre-nucleus part of the intonation group, that is the pre-head and the head taken together, is called the scale. They may be of different types and the most widely used scales in English are:

• Descending in which the pitch gradually comes down;

• Ascending, where the pitch comes up;

• Level, when all the stressed and unstressed syllables remain on the same level.

Both descending and ascending scales may have different character. They may be

a) stepping (the commonest scale in English) when the syllables come down or up step-by-step;

b) sliding when each stressed syllable is pronounced with a slide while each unstressed syllable is pitched a little lower or higher than the end of the preceding syllable.

c) scandent, in which each stressed syllable is pronounced with a rise or fall, while each unstressed syllable is pitched little lower or higher than the end of the preceding one.

The last two types of scales are more emphatic than the stepping scale.

Meanings and functions of prosody. The most important thing to understand about the meanings and functions of intonation is that it has independent meanings of its own and is not connected with the words or grammatical structure of the sentence, e.g. John is at home (This sentence could be declarative interrogative and exclamatory depending on the intonation it is pronounced with.)

The example we have just given shows that the prosody of the utterance is polysemantic, that is, it can express a number of different meanings: finality and non-finality, certainty and non-certainty, categoric and non-categoric attitude, surprise, etc.

In some cases the intonation pattern of the sentence and its grammatical meaning can coincide, e.g. She enjoys swimming. Here the communicative type of the sentence is declarative affirmative and the nuclear tone is Low Fall, which expresses categoric statement.

But in other cases the intonation pattern can differ from the grammatical meaning of the sentence, e.g. She enjoys swimming. Here the logical stress on the word "she" changes the intonation pattern.

The prosody of the utterance performs a number of functions. The basic functions are as follows:

1.   The constitutive function – which forms utterances as communicative units. Without a proper intonation a succession of words has no meaning, only a certain prosodic pattern turns it into a communicative unit with a clear message for a listener. That is why prosody is the only language device that transforms words into communicative units – utterances.

e.g. Fire! – command;   Fire? – question; Fire. – statement.

In writing prosodic meaning of the sentence can be to some extent expressed by punctuation.

2.   The distinctive function – which differentiates certain features of the utterance, for example,

a)   the communicative   types of   utterances   (declarative,interrogative, imperative and exclamatory);

b) the modal component of the utterance, e.g. He definitely promised. He definitely promised;

c) the prominence in the utterance, e.g. I don't know him. I don't know him. I don't know him;

d) the syntactic difference of the utterances, to differ one grammar structure from another, e.g. Smiling Tom entered the room. Smiling, Tom entered the room.

3. The recognitive function – which helps the listener to recognize the communicative type of the utterance.

These prosodic functions are fulfilled simultaneously and can't be separated from each other. To sum up the linguistic character of prosody we should say that:

1. the prosody of speech is significant and meaningful;

2. it is systematic;

3. it is produced according to the system of prosodic structures of a given language;

4. it is a characteristic feature of each concrete language and cannot be used in speaking another language;

5. it should be paid much attention to at teaching and learning languages.

Functions of nuclear tones. Because nuclear tones show the speaker's attitude towards what he/she is saying and towards the listener, they are extremely important. We would like to make a brief survey of the most important meanings of the main nuclear tones.

1. Low Fall –

a) serious and considerate; b) final and definite; c) cold and reserved.

2. Low Rise –

a) polite and friendly; b) lack of interest, detached and reserving judgment (in questions without a question word, e.g. Tired?).

3. High Fall –

a) polite and friendly, e.g. Hello!; b) demanding agreement, e.g. So!; c) shows interest, e.g. Really!.

4. High Rise –

a) asking for explanation, e.g. So?; b) echoing, while thinking what to say, e.g. I don't think that I like that man. - You don't; c) expecting agreement, e.g. Well?

5. Fall Rise –

a) partial agreement, e.g. Yes; b) warning, e.g. Careful!

6. Rise Fall –

a) shows great interest; b) being impressed, e.g. Did he!

Prosodic interference. Typical mistakes. Native language interference with English intonation can be observed in all prosodic subsystems: in melody, in stress and rhythm and in tempo. Let us analyze some typical mistakes made by Russian and Ukrainian learners of English. They are practically the same as most Slavic nations have similar prosodic characteristics.

MISTAKES IN PITCH COMPONENTS

1. Ukrainian learners pronounce the first stressed syllable in descending scales at a lower level than native speakers, e.g. It's cold and windy today.

2.Ukrainian learners often substitute descending scales by ascending scales in declarative senesces, e.g. We'll go to the cinema tomorrow.

3. Ukrainian learners often substitute English Low Fall by Ukrainian Low Fall which has a less sharp pitch contrast, e.g. He kept looking at the clock.

4. Ukrainian learners often substitute English Low Rise by Ukrainian Low Rise, which is sharper and less curvy, e.g. Has he gone? (Low Rise without a tail). Is he your relative? (Low Rise with a tail)

MISTAKES IN STRESS AND RHYTHM

The most characteristic mistake is stressing structural words alongside with

notional words, which lead to stress and rhythmic patterns unusual for English,

e.g. Will you buy this book for me? – the stressed words are: buy, book, for.

MISTAKES IN TEMPO

Native speakers' tempo is much higher than English learners' tempo because the latter make two important mistakes.

• They do not reduce unstressed syllables to the same degree as native speakers;

• They prolong stressed syllables as they usually do in their mother tongue.

Recommended Literature

1. Паращук В.Ю. Теоретична фонетика англійської мови: Навчальний посібник для студентів факультетів іноземних мов / В.Ю. Паращук. – Вінниця, НОВА КНИГА. – 2005. – С.136.
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Questions for Self-control

1. The role of intonation in language.
2. Prosodic units. Structure of intonation.
3. Prosodic subsystems. Tonograms. Nuclear tones. Scales.
4. Meanings and functions of prosody.
5. Functions of nuclear tones.
6. Prosodic interference. Typical mistakes.

Practice Section

1. *Match the utterances and the nuclear tones: Low-Fall, Low Rise, High-Rise, High-Fall, Fall-Rise, Rise-Fall.*

How do the utterances sound? Choose the right answer: a) categoric, serious, final; b) not definite, uncertain, reserving judgment; c) reproachful, hurt, concerned, contradicting; d) soothing, reassuring, encouraging, questioning, surprised; e) with admiration; f) with disbelief.

1) Take the cups into the kitchen and wash them up.
2) Don't worry.
3) I think they'd all agree. – Stephen would.
4) Probably I will go there.
5) What a gorgeous dress!
4) It's not so bad.
5) The whole thing's quite a mystery. - Somebody must know who did it.

2. *Transcribe and make the intonation diagrams of the underlined sentences.*

1) Benny is eager to have a rabbit. – <u>Where do you intend to keep the animal</u>? (sounds sympathetically interested).
2) Tell me, doctor. Is he badly hurt? – <u>Nothing at all serious</u>.
3) How much does it cost? – <u>More than we can afford</u>.

PART 2

Evolution of the Language and Scope of Language History

The Internal and External History of a Language. Chronological Divisions in the History of English. What alphabets were used on the territory of England? The

Common Germanic period. First Mention of the Germans. Old Germanic languages, classification and characteristics. Germanic alphabets. Grimm's and Verner's Laws.

History of the English language is one of the fundamental courses forming the linguistic background of a specialist in philology. It studies the rise and development of English, its structure and peculiarities in the old days, its similarity to other languages of the same family and its unique, specific features. With diachronic studies one really must not be too categorical as one of the features of language is a constant change. Languages change at a different pace with different intensity in various areas of their structure but the change is always present. With adequate tools of investigation we still can trace all the changes within the language as a system. Indeed, it would be strange if a language did not change while everything else in its surrounding undergoes constant modification. Language, on the whole, changes slowly in small steps. It is true that sometimes changes may be faster in some areas of language structure and under certain circumstances but they are never catastrophic and intergeneration communication is never broken even after more drastic changes.

So **the aim of the course** is the investigation of the development of the system of the English language. **The subject matter of the course** is the changing nature of the language through more than 15 hundred years of its existence.

The Internal and External History of a Language

The internal history of English will include all the aspects of the development of language structure, i.e., the evolution of phonology, grammar, vocabulary and writing.

The external history of English deals with all non-structural factors which have exerted influence on the development of the language and directed its course of development. These factors are political, economic, scientific and ending with cultural.

Why is the language called "English"?

The invaders of Britain came from the western subdivision of the Germanic tribes. They were the Saxons, the Angels and the Jutes. They were so called by the Romans and by the Celts but preferred to call themselves Angelcyn (English people)

and applied this name to the conquered territories: Angelcynnes land (Land of the English, hence England).

Chronological Divisions in the History of English

The commonly accepted, traditional periodisation divides English history into three periods: Old English, Middle English and New English, with boundaries attached to definite dates and historical events affecting the language.

The beginnings of the English language are traced back to the year 449 when coming to help their Celtic ally, two Germanic chieftains, Hengist and Horsa, brought their belligerent tribesmen to the Isles. History prior to that event is marked by the turbulence of the Roman Empire. With another words the history of the English language begins with the settlement of Britain by Germanic tribes in the middle of the 5th century A.D.

OE begins with the Germanic settlement of Britain (5th c.) or with the beginning of writing (7th c.) and ends with the Norman Conquest (1066).

ME begins with the Norman Conquest and ends with the introduction (invention) of printing (1475) and the end of the war of the Roses which is the start of the Modern or New English period; the New English period lasts to the present day. Usually in this subdivision of periods they distinguish a subperiod – Early New English, the period between the 15th and mid-17th century – the period of Renaissance in the English culture, the one which is represented by numerous works of the classics of English literature and philosophy.

Each of the periods is marked by a set of specific features of phonology, grammar and vocabulary, and may be also defined in these terms. The English scholar Henry Sweet (1845–1912), the author of a number of works on the English language and on its history, proposed the following division of the history of English according to the state of unstressed endings:

the first period, Old English – *the period of full endings*. This means that any vowel could be found in the unstressed ending, and the majority of the parts of speech are connected with the other words in the sentences by means of endings;

the second period, ME is *the period of levelled endings*. This means that vowels of unstressed endings have been leveled under a neutral vowel (smth. like [ə]), represented by the letter e;

the third period, Mod E is *the period of lost endings*. This means that the ending is lost altogether. The period of lost endings is the present-day language, as we know, is not totally devoid of endings, for some of the paradigmatic forms are still made by means of endings, scarce as they are. This division is based on features both phonetic (weakening and loss of unstressed vowel sounds) and morphological (weakening and loss of grammatical morphemes).

The more detailed classification is given by T.A.Rastorguyeva. Early Old English may be taken separately, as the period of pre-written functioning of the language. We can only guess what the language was like until the 8th century, the century beginning from which writing becomes widespread, and so all considerations on the subject are purely hypothetical. Early OE 450 – 700, OE (also written OE) 700 – 1066.

The second major division may also be treated with greater copiousness – the language of the first centuries after Norman Conquest differs from that of the very end of the period. The beginning was marked by intense decline of English in the important spheres. It might be described as the period of free mutilation of the language by the uneducated and uncaring for the future of the language people. That was in what we call the Early Middle English. The writings of the period, represented mainly by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, Peterborough Chronicle, such poems as Ormulum and a number of religious works (Poema Morale, Ancrene Riwle, Cursor Mundi* etc.).

Late (classical) Middle English which came to our times in writings of G.Chaucer already presents a paragon of speech. London dialect becomes more and more prestigious, and what is written in *"The Canterbury Tales"* is already almost understood by a reader without a special linguistic training. Early ME 1066 – 1350, ME (classical) 1350 – 1475.

Early New English – known as W.Shakespeare's English – lasted for a century and a half – a time span far exceeding the life of the great Englishman – is

represented by numerous writings of a whole bunch of prominent thinkers, writers, scientists *(Christopher Marlowe, Francis Bacon, and John Webster).* Classical classifications give the New English period as beginning with mid-17th century. Really, almost all the grammatical forms that are found in the language had been formed by that period; the major phonetic changes had already taken place; the ability to pick whatever lexeme wherever possible was already developed. We can single out the sub-period of 17th – 18th c., when the most educated minds of the nation worked on establishing what words and forms of the word were appropriate in civilized society. Specifically, a fourth, "post Modern" period of English (we may call it Late New English) may have originated in 1876 or 1877 with Alexander Graham Bell's invention of the telephone and Thomas Alva Edison's invention of the phonograph. Early NE 1476 – 1660, Normalization Period (age of correctness) – 1660 – 1800, Late NE or Mod E 1800 – …

Languages can be classified according to different principles. The historical or genealogical classification groups languages in accordance with their origin from a common linguistic ancestor. Genetically, English belongs to the Germanic group of languages of the Indo-European linguistic family. The Germanic languages are: English, German, Yiddish, Dutch, Flemish, Afrikaans, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, Icelandic, (Frisian, Faroese (are often referred as dialects)). The older and often imprecise classification of languages into four types (isolating, agglutinative, inflective and incorporative) has been refined by modern scholars.

Comparative Linguistics of the XIX century: the founders: Franz Bopp, a German scientist, Rasmus Rask, a Danish scientist, Jacob Grimm, a German scientist. The main method: comparison; the main procedures: comparison of different languages, establishment of correspondences in cognate languages; establishment of similarities and differences in cognate languages; reconstruction of initial forms (archtypes); comparison of forms at different stages of development; comparative description of a language.

The history of the Germanic group begins with the appearance of what is known as *the Proto-Germanic (PG) language*. PG is the linguistic ancestor or the parent-language of the Germanic group. It is supposed to have split from related IE

tongues sometime between the 15th and 10th B.C. PG is an entirely pre-historical language: it was never recorded in written form. In the 19th century it was reconstructed by methods of comparative linguistics from written evidence in descendant languages.

The would-be Germanic tribes belonged to the western division of the IE speech community. As the Indo-Europeans extended over a larger territory, the ancient Germans or Teutons (correspond to Urk. германці, давні германці) moved further north than other tribes and settled on the southern coast of the Baltic Sea in the region of the Elbe. This place regarded as the most probable original home of the Teutons. It is here that they developed their first specifically Germanic linguistic features which made them a separate group in the IE family.

It is believed that at the earliest stages of history PG was fundamentally one language, though dialectally coloured. In its later stages dialectal differences grew, so that towards the beginning of our era Germanic appears divided into dialectal groups and tribal dialects. Dialectal differentiation increased with the migrations and geographical expansion of the Teutons caused by overpopulation, poor agricultural technique and scanty natural resources in the areas of their original settlement.

First Mention of the Germans

The external history of the ancient Teutons around the beginning of our era is known from classical writings. The first mention of Germanic tribes was made by Pitheas, a Greek historian and geographer of the 4th c. B.C. In the 1st c. B.C. in Commentaries on the Gallic War Julius Caesar described some militant Germanic tribes. In the 1st c. A.D. Pliny the Elder, a prominent Roman scientist and writer, in Natural History made a classified list of Germanic tribes grouping them under six headings. A few decades later the Roman historian Tacitus compiled a detailed description of the life and customs of the ancient Teutons De Situ, Moribus Et Polulis Germaniae. Towards the beginning of our era the common period of Germanic history came to an end. The Teutons had extended over a larger territory and the PG language broke into parts. The tri-partite division of the Germanic languages proposed by 19th c. philologists corresponds, with a few adjustments, to Pliny's grouping of the Old Teutonic tribes. According to this division PG split into three

branches: East Germanic (Vindili), North Germanic (Hilleviones) and West Germanic (which embraces Ingveones, Istaevones and Herminones). In due course these branches split into separate 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 language from Greek by Bishop Ulfilas. A 6th century copy 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. Of these languages most nearly related to English is Frisian. Many scholars speak even of a separate Anglo-Frisian group.

Asterisk is placed before reconstructed hypothetical forms which have not been found in written records; the words may be pronounced exactly as they are written; spelling in Old Germanic languages was phonetic.

e.g. *PG *fiskaz, Gt fisks, O Icel fiskr, OE fisc.*

What alphabets were used on the territory of England?

Germanic alphabets were Runic alphabet, Latin alphabet and, also Ulfila's Gothic Alphabet. The system of writing in OE was changed with the introduction of Christianity. Before that, the English used the runes – symbols that were very vague, that might at the same time denote a sound, a syllable or a whole word. The word "rune" originally meant "secret", "mystery" and hence came to denote inscriptions believed to be magic. The runes were used as letters, each symbol to indicate a separate sound. Runes are the 24 letters of an ancient Germanic alphabet used from the 2nd or 3rd to the 16th century. There is no doubt that the art of runic writing was known to the Germanic tribes long before they came to Britain, since runic

inscriptions have also been found in Scandinavia. Perhaps derived ultimately from the Etruscan alphabet, the runic alphabet was used mainly for charms and inscriptions, on stone, wood, metal or bone. Each letter had a name, which was itself a meaningful word. As it was mentioned it consisted of 24 signs, called **FUTHARK (FUΛþFRH)**. After the first six letters this alphabet is called that way. *Runic documents: the Ruthwell Cross, a religious poem engraved on a tall stone cross near the village of Ruthwell in South East Scotland, the other is the Runic Casket (often called Frank's casket).* The story of runes might be very interesting itself, yet we are concerned with the story of the development of the English language, and what we are going to study here was written in alphabet dating back to the 7th century; it was Latin alphabet with few specifically English additions. Some English sounds had no counterpart in Latin as Latin proved insufficient to denote all OE sounds. To fill that gap Anglo-Saxon scibes borrowed some signs from runes plus `*ligature æ*, and well known as a transcription symbol Þ *[θ] [∂]*.

Ulfila's Gothic alphabet (4th c.) based on the Greek alphabet with some admixture of Latin and Runic letters. This is the alphabet of Ulfila's Gothic translation of the Bible.

Grimm's Law

The first fundamental change in the consonant system of Germanic languages dates back to times far removed from today. Jacob Ludwig Grimm (1785 – 1863), a German philologist and a folklorist (generally known together with his brother Wilhelm for their Grimm's Fairy Tales) studied and systematized these correlations in his Deutsche Grammatik. His conclusions are formulated and *called Grimm's Law or the First Consonant shift.* The essence of Grimm's Law is that the quality of some sounds (namely plosives) changed in all Germanic languages while the place of their formation remained unchanged. Thus, voiced aspirated plosives (stops) lost their aspiration and changed into pure voiced plosives; voiced plosives became voiceless plosives and voiceless plosives turned into voiceless fricatives.

By the terms of Grimm's Law voiceless plosives developed in PG into voiceless fricatives (Act 1); IE voiced plosives were shifted to voiceless (Act2) and

IE voiced aspirated plosives were reflected either as voiced fricatives or as pure voiced plosives (Act 3).

	IE	PG		IE	PG		IE	PG
Act 1	p	f	Act 2	b	p	Act 3	bh	v (or b)
	t	Ө		d	t		dh	Ә (or d)
	k	h		g	k		gh	y (or g)

L pater	Gt fadar	R слабый	Gt slepan	S bhratar	Gt broþar
L tres	Angl three	R два	Angl two	R мед	OE medu
L noctem	Gt nahts	R иго	Angl yoke	L hostis	Gt gast

Another important series of consonant changes in PG was discovered in the late 19th century by a Danish scholar, Carl Adolph Verner (1846 – 1896) to be exact in 1877. They are known as **Verner's Law**. This law explains some correspondences of consonants which seemed to contradict Grimm's Law and were for a long time regarded as exceptions. According to Verner's Law all the early PG voiceless fricatives [f, Ө, x] which arose under Grimm's Law and also [s] inherited from PIE, became voiced between vowels if the preceding vowel was unstressed; in the absence of these conditions they remained voiceless.

$$\text{Early PG} \qquad \text{Late PG}$$

PIE   *pa`ter > fa`Өar > fa`ðar > `faðar*

PG [z] underwent a phonetic modification through the stage of [z] into [r] and thus became a sonorant. This process is called rotacism.

e.g. *Gt was –wesum but OIcel ras – rarum OE wæs – wæron*

In fact the stress is moved to the first syllable, so the second syllable became voiceless and the compensatory change happened and after that the second syllable became voiced. It should be mentioned that the stress in the OE was dynamic and shifted to the first syllable. Originally in common Indo-European the stress was free; the stress in the OE words was always on the first syllable.

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 5–14, 20-21.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 24–34, 55–71.

Questions for Self-control

1. What are the aims of studying the history of a language?
2. What is meant by the outer and inner history of a language?
3. What is called written and the pre-written period of a language?
4. Give the name of Old Germanic tribes and dialects: "Common Germanic". Differentiation of Common Germanic into Germanic dialects. East, North and West Germanic groups and their representatives.
5. What are the main principles of Grimm's and Verner's Laws?
6. What alphabets employed in the history of Germanic languages do you know?

Practice Section

1. *Explain the sound correspondence between Old Germanic and other Indo-European words.*
   OE að Got aiþs – R (об)ѣть
   OE beran – R брать, беру. L ferre, S bharanam
   OE bitan Got beitan – bhedami, L findo
   OE buan – R быть, L futurus
   OE ceosan – L gustare
   OE cin – L gena
   OE dihtan – L dictare
   OE etan G essen – R еда
   OE fam, G Feim – R пена, S phena
   OE feoh Got faihu – L pecus
2. *Write down five illustrations of Grimm's Law and five illustrations of Verner's Law.*

The Old English Period. Old English Phonetics.

Historical, geographical, economic and cultural background. Old English dialects. Old English written records. Old English alphabet. Old English Phonology. Vowel Changes in Old English. Changes in Consonants.

The Old English period is the period from the fifth up to mid-eleventh century. It is characterized by the existence of the language in the form of several dialects, according to the seven kingdoms that existed on the island; the vocabulary of each of them is comparatively homogeneous and contains mostly words of native origin (Indo-European, Germanic and specifically English). The connection of words in the utterance is performed through a ramified system of endings; hence word order is

relatively free. Common Indo-European traits, such as double negation or formation of impersonal sentences without any subject in the nominative case are quite common; phonetic structure is marked by a noticeable drift of the sound system away from other Germanic languages.

The region occupied by the Anglians (Angli in *Latin)* was called Anglia and the language Englisc (whence English). The Jutes arrived from Denmark and settled mainly in Kent, while the Saxons remained in the region that still bears their name (Sussex: Southern Saxons; Wessex: Western Saxons; Essex: Eastern Saxons). Meanwhile, the Angles took over the area from the shores of the Thames to the Scottish Lowlands. This geographic dispersion explains in part the diversity of Old English dialects: West Saxon, South Saxon, East Saxon, Kentish, Mercian, and Northumbrian, the last two making up Anglian. The alphabet then in use is called the Runic Alphabet.

The background against which the English language was forming included long years of pre-written functioning of the language. Angles, Saxons and Jutes (or rather, Jutes and the rest) did well in peacemaking on the island. Very soon the remnants of the Celtic population were subjugated or ousted into the outskirts of the Isles – to the North (Scotland), or to the West (Cornwall and Wales). The invaders felt comfortable on the territory. The seven kingdoms formed by the newcomers were the following – Jutes, the earliest to come, formed the kingdom of Kent, Saxons – Essex, Wessex and Sussex, and Angles had the kingdoms of East Anglia, Northumbria and Mercia. These seven principal concurrent Anglo-Saxon kingdoms in the 7th and 8th centuries are known under the general name – *Heptarchy*. Though they were supposed to be allies, still the struggle for supremacy was not uncommon, and some of them managed to gain supremacy at various times – first Kent, then Mercia and Northumbria. What we have more or less represented in writings is the Wessex dialect (828 – the victory of Wessex, king Ecgberht, Winchester – capital at those times). Extant documents written in the language date from about 700 to about 1100, but the great bulk of written material represents the speech from about 900 to 1050. The language was represented in writing in four dialects: Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish and West-Saxon. The majority of the manuscripts, containing

anything worth reading as literature, are in West-Saxon. The dominance of the West-Saxon literature during the period demonstrates the political and artistic vitality of the kingdom of West Saxons (Wessex).

An event of paramount importance in the life of the Old English was the introduction of Christianity. Pope Gregory the Great sent the mission in 597. Christianity came into the life of the islanders (not the first time – Romans and Celts).

Christianity came to England from Kent; so Canterbury remains the religious centre of the country.

Since the very earliest times there were four main dialects in OE:

(1) Northumbrian, spoken by Angles living north of the Humber;

2) Mercian spoken by Angles between the Humber and the Thames;

(3) West-Saxon, the language of the Saxons south of the Thames;

(4) Kentish, the language of the Jutes.

The rise of Wessex as a political power in the 9th century had its consequences for the West-Saxon dialect: in the course of that century it became the dominating literary language of the epoch. The boundary line between North and Midland was the Humber River that between Midland and South ran approximately along the Thames.

The dialects differed from each other by essential phonetic and morphological features.

The West-Saxon dialect is represented best of all – in the number of writings, their volume and in divergence of styles. King Alfred (lived 849—900) and his associates contributed by their personal writings as well as in translations – *"Pastoral Care" ("Cure Pastoralis"); Orosius "World History" ("Historium adversus paganos")* which also contains an original text composed by King Alfred himself, *Boethius "Consolation of Philosophy"; the earlier part of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (till 891). Later period in the history is represented by *works of the abbot AEIfric (10th century) – Gospels, Homilies, Lives of Saints, Latin Grammar, Old Testament; Old Saxon Chronicles and sermons of Wulfstan (early 11th century).*

The Northumbrian dialect is reflected in *the Runic texts of the Ruthwell Cross and Frank's Casket, translation of the gospels, Caedmon's Hymn and Bede's "Dying*

Song", Cnewulf ("Elene", "Andreas", "Juliana" and others that paraphrase in poetic form biblical motives); the best known *epic poem "Beowulf",* though came down to us with a significant tinge of Wessex dialect insertions and is still thought to have been originally composed in Anglian-Northumbrian. Beowulf is an English alliterative epic poem, probably written in the early 8th century A.D. the exact text dates from the 10th century, though it had existed in written form by the middle of the 8th century. The original dialect in which the poem was written was Anglian; it was copied by West Saxon scribes who introduced West Saxon forms; the result is a mixture of Anglian and West-Saxon forms.

The Mercian dialect is represented by the translation of the *Psalter (9th century) and hymns.*

The Kentish dialect is relatively poorly represented by the 8th century glosses of *Bede's "Ecclesiastical History of the English people" ("Historia Ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum").* This history was originally written in Latin and translated later into a West Saxon dialect. Translation of Psalms and some old charters (chronicles) are also available.

The system of writing in Old English was changed with the introduction of Christianity. Before that, the English used the runes – symbols that were very vague, that might at the same time denote a sound, a syllable or a whole word. Runes are the 24 letters.They were of specific shape, designed to be cut on the wooden sticks, and only few people knew how to make them and how to interpret them. The story of runes might be very interesting itself, yet we are now concerned with the story of the development of the English language, and what we are going to study here was written in alphabet dating back to the 7th century; it was *Latin alphabet* with few specifically English additions. OE scribes used two kinds of letters: <u>the runes and the letters of the Latin alphabet</u>. The most interesting peculiarity of OE writing was the use of some runic characters, in the first place, the rune called *"thorn" Þ* which was employed alongside the crossed *d, ð* to indicate [Ө], [ð] – it is usually preserved in modern publications as a distinctive feature of the OE script. In the manuscripts one more rune was regularly used – ρ "wynn". In modern publications it is replaced by w. Some English sounds had no counterpart in Latin, so three signs developed from

runes were added plus *ligature æ*, now well known as a transcription symbol. Like any alphabetic writing, OE writing was based on a phonetic principle; every letter indicated a separate sound.

Old English Phonology

The system of vowels in Old English included seven long and eight short vowels (monophthongs):

a æ e i o u y å – ā ǣ ē ī ō ū ȳ

and four short and four long diphthongs:

ea eo ie io – ēā ēō īe īo

Assimilative changes are the changes that occurred in the language in specific surroundings – the sound might change when it was preceded or followed by some other sound or sound cluster. Many of the sounds that appeared in the language as a result of these changes returned to their previous quality in the next period, some did not.

There are two types of assimilation – regressive and progressive assimilation. If a sound influences the preceding sound, the assimilation is regressive, if it influences the following sound – it is called progressive assimilation. Both types of assimilation are found in Old English. Most common, mutilating the general Germanic picture of the sounds are:

1. **Breaking (fracture).** This is the process of formation of a short diphthong from a simple short vowel when it is followed by a specific consonant cluster.

a + r+cons, 1+cons. => ea
æ + h+ cons. => ea
e + h final => eo

a >ea   **e >eo**
hard > heard (hard)   hairto, herte > heorte (heart)
arm > earm (arm)   erl > eorl (earl)
warm > wearm (warm)   hairda > heard (herd)

2. **Palatal mutation (i-umlaut).** The essence of this change is that a back sound, *a* or *o*, changes its quality if there is a front sound in the next syllable. Especially frequent are the changes in the roots of the verbs influenced by the *i-sound* of the suffix of the infinitive *-ian*.

a > æ; a > e   **a > æ**

wakjan – wæccan (to observe, to be awake)   larian – læron (to learn)
sandian – sendan (to send)   hālian – hælan (to heal)
o > oe > e   **ō > oe > ē**
ofstian – efstan (to hurry)   wōpian – wēpan (to weep)
u > y   **ū >ў**
fullian – fyllan (to fill)   mūus – mys (mice)

Palatal mutation was found not only in monophthongs but in diphthongs, too. The modified system of diphthongs looks like the following:

ea > ie   **eo > ie**
eald – ieldra (elder)   feor – fierra (further)
ēa > īe   **ēo > īe**
hēarian – hīe ran (hear)   ʒetrēowi – ʒetrīewe (true)

Very often palatal mutation thus distanced a noun or an adjective and a verb derived from it, for the most frequent case of palatal mutation was under the influence of the verbal (infinitival) suffix *-ian.* We find the reflexes of Old English palatal mutation in such pairs in present-day English as *sale – sell; tell – tale; doom – deem; full – fill.* As we will see later, plurals of some nouns had a mutated vowel in the stem, which was very much in accordance with the rule *mūs – mys (mouse – mice), fōt – fēt (foot – feet).*

3. **Diphthongization after palatal consonants**. Diphthongs may have resulted from another process in Old English – diphthongization after palatal consonants sk', k' and j (in spelling sc, c, ʒ):

a > ea   **ā > ēa**
skal – sceal (shall)   skaggwon – scēawian (to show)
e > ie   **æ > ea**
ʒefan – ʒiefan (give)   ʒæf – ʒeaf (gave)
æ> ea   **o > eo**
jar – ʒear (year)   scort – sceort (short)

However, there are linguists who still doubt whether the *i-sound* was pronounced. Some stick to the opinion that *the letter i* simply signified the palatal nature of the preceding sound.

4. Back or Velar Mutation. The formula of mutation here reminds very much that of palatal mutation, but the difference is that the syllable that influenced the

preceding vowel contained a back vowel – *o* or *u* (sometimes even *a* might serve as background for back mutation). Not all the dialects had this mutation, and the process was not universal (in West Saxon literary language it occurred only before the sounds *r, l, p, b, f, m*):

<div align="center">

i > io   **e > eo**

hira – hiora (their)   heorot – heorot (hart)

silufr – siolufr (silver)   hefon – heofon (heaven)

a > ea

saru – searu (armour)

</div>

5.   **Mutation before h**. Sounds *a* and *e* that preceded *h* underwent several changes, mutating to diphthongs *ea, ie* and finally were reduced to *i/y: naht – neaht – niht – nieht – nyht (night)*. The second may be quite easily traced to breaking, but the origin of the other three is rather vague. Probably, the very nature of the h sound was the reason for further development of the sound. The words with such mutation are not very numerous; still we cannot ignore them altogether. It is observed in the past tense of the verb *maȝan (may) meahte – miehte – mihte – myhte* and several other words.

6.   **Contraction**. Somehow the consonant *h* proved to have interfered with the development of many sounds. When h was placed between two vowels the following changes occurred:

> **a + h +vowel   > ēa**   slahan – slēan (slay)
> **e + h + vowel   > ēo**   sehen – sēon (see)
> **i + h + vowel   > ēo**   tihan – tēon (accuse)
> **o + h + vowel   > ō**   fohan – fõn (catch)

These were qualitative changes of vowels; the significant quantitative change that is still felt in present-day English is the lengthening of vowels before the clusters *nd, ld, mb – bindan, cild, climban (bind, child, climb)*. Further the development of the sound system led to diphthongization of long vowels, and that explains the exception in the rules of reading the sounds in the closed syllables in the present-day English (the words like *climb, find, bold, told, comb, and bomb*).

Still, if there was a consonant after this cluster the vowel was not lengthened: *cildru (now children).*

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Changes in Consonants

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Voiceless fricatives appeared in Germanic languages as a result of the First Consonant Shift (Grimm's Law). Proceeding from a changeable part of the consonant system (it is to be remembered that the stablest are the sonorants and the sibilant s) their development continues in Old English.

1. **Voicing of fricatives in intervocal position:**

f > v	**Ө > ð**
ofer [over]	ōðer [other]
half – hlāfas [loaf – loaves]	raðe (quickly)

Voiced sibilant *z* was very unstable in Old English (and other West- Germanic languages), and very soon changed into *r*. This process is called rotacism: *s > z > r*

wesun – weren (now were, but was), maize – māra (now more, but most)

2. **Palatalization of the sounds k ", sk' and kg'** (marked as *c, sc* and *cʒ*) developed in assibilation, that is formation of a sibilant in places before front vowels.

k'>tʃ   cild (child) ceosan (choose)
sk' > ʃ   sceal (shall) sceotan (shoot)
kg' > d3   brycʒ (bridge) hrycʒ (ridge)

Back *Y* sound before palatal consonants turned into *j – ʒear (year)*. This process seems to have occurred in Late Old English.

The words that started with *sc* or *ʒ* acquired *a sibilant or j.* If we find that a word still has *g* or *sc/sk* at the beginning there is a strong probability that it was borrowed from Scandinavian and replaced the Old English form (e.g. *give, skin*) or together with the old word formed a pair of etymological doublets (*shatter/scatter, shirt/skirt*). Some words of Greek origin (*school, scheme* etc.) will also have *sk*.

6. **Assimilation before t.** The sound *t* when it was preceded by a number of consonants changed the quality of a preceding sound.

velar + t > ht	sēcan – (sōcte) —» sōhte (seek – sought)
	brinʒan —> brōhte (bring – brought)
labial + t > ft	ʒesceapan ↦ ʒeaseaft (creature);
dental + t > ss	witan —> wisse (instead of witte – knew);
fn > mn	stefn —» stemn (voice);
fm > mm	wifman —> wimman (woman);
dð > t	bindð —» bint (binds).

7. **Loss of consonants in certain positions.**

Besides *h* that was lost in intervocal position, the sounds n and m were lost before *h*, entailing the lengthening of the preceding vowel:

bronhte – brōhte (brought)   onðer – ōðer (other)
fimf – fif (five)   munð – mūð (mouth)

8.   Metathesis of r. In several Old English words the following change of the position of consonants takes place:

cons+ r + vowel > cons + vowel + r
ðridda – ðirda (third)
brunnan – burnan (burn)
Metathesis of sounds is observed also with other sounds:

ascian – axian (ask)
wascan – waxan (wash)

9.   West Germanic germination. In the process of palatal mutation, when *j* was lost and the preceding vowel was short, the consonant after it was doubled (geminated): *fulian – fyllan (fill) sætjan – settan (set) salian – sellan (sell, originally give) talian – tellan (tell)*.

As we can see, the changes in Old English sounds were for the most part reflected in spelling, and we must only rely on the corresponding words from other languages to see what the origin of this or that sound was. The exceptions are only in such instances as various developments of *ȝ*, voicing of fricatives and palatalization of *c, sc, cȝ*.

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 34 – 43.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 74 – 90.

Questions for Self-control

1. Name the three periods in the history of English (dates, principal historical events and linguistic facts).
2. Describe Old English historical background (Germanic settlement, West Germanic tribes and Old English dialects).
3. Characterize the Old English alphabet and its pronunciation.
4. Name Old English written records: runic inscriptions, religious works, Anglo-Saxon chronicles.
5. How many vowels and consonants were there in Old English?
6. How does the quality of the consonant depend on the position in the word?

Practice Section

1. *Take into consideration phonetic features divide the following words into OE or Gothic languages*:

harda – heard; mete – matis; fairra – feor; slean – slahan; feallan – fallan; bandi – bend; math – meaht; leas – laus; itan – etan.

2. *Give examples of assimilative and positional changes of vowels (breaking, lengthening, and contraction) and their traces in Modern English.*
3. *How will you explain the difference in the root of the following OE words?*
   dom – deman, lang – lengra; eald – yldra? The same vowels in Gothic preserved the same root: doms – domjan; lang – langiza.

Old English Morphology

General characteristics of Old English Morphology. The Old English Noun. The verb in Old English. Non-finite forms of the Verb. Categories of the Old English Verb. Morphological classification of Old English Verbs (strong, weak, preterite-present, irregular – suppletive, anomalous).

Old English morphology was that of a typical inflected if somewhat simplified Indo-European language. Parts of speech included noun, pronoun, adjective, numeral and verb; all of which formed their paradigmatic forms by inflections, suffixes, and sound interchange. There were no analytical formations. Nouns in Old English retained only four of the Indo-European 8 cases, adjectives, partly pronouns and numerals agreed with the nouns they modified in number, gender and case. The Old English had two adjective declensions, strong and weak. The weak forms were used generally after demonstrative pronouns, and possessive adjectives; the strong were used independently.

Old English Noun

Nouns in Old English had the categories of number, gender and case. Gender is actually not a grammatical category in a strict sense of the word, for every noun with all its forms belongs to only one gender (the other nominal parts of speech have gender forms); but case and number had a set of endings. Nouns used to denote males are normally masculine – *mann, fæder, brōðor, abbod (man, father, brother, abbot).* Naturally, those denoting females should be all feminine, – *modor, sweostor, cwēne, abbudissa (mother, sister, queen, abbess).* Yet there are curious exceptions, such words as *mæჳden (maid), wif (wife*) are neuter (compare in Ukrainian хлоп'я, дівча). And *wīfman (woman)* is masculine, because the second element of the compound is masculine. The gender of the other nouns is unmotivated.

There are two numbers – *singular and plural*, and four cases – *nominative, genitive, dative and accusative*. Comparing with what we have now we can see that number proved to be a stable category, relevant for rendering the meanings and expressing the true state of things in reality. Case is supplanted by other means to express the relations between the words in an utterance, whereas gender disappeared altogether.

All the nouns can be classified according to the different principles. In traditional historical studies the nouns are divided into classes according to the former stem-forming suffixes, which were hardly visible even in Gothic, the language separated in time from the Old English by centuries. The remnants of these suffixes are even vaguer in Old English. Still, these stem-forming suffixes determined what inflections were taken by the nouns.

The Strong Declension includes nouns that had had a vocalic stem-forming suffix. Former suffixes (*a,o,i,u*) are no longer found in Old English, moreover, even the very paradigms of these groups of nouns were already splitting (we can see considerable difference in declension of nouns of different genders within the class of nouns originally having the same stem-forming suffix.) Yet the traditional classification will look like this.

a -stems

They may be either masculine or neuter. The difference between the two genders may be seen only in the nominative:

Singular

	m	n (short root vowel)	n (long root vowel)
Nom.	stan	scip	sceap
Gen.	stanes	scipes	sceapes
Dat.	stane	scipe	sceape
Ace.	stan	scip	sceap

Plural

	m	n (short root vowel)	n (long root vowel)
Nom.	stanas	scipu	sceap
Gen.	stana	scipa	sceapa
Dat.	stanum	scipum	sceapu
Ace.	stanas	scipu	sceap
	stone	ship	sheep

So, we can see that Old English nouns *a-stems neuter* with long vowel might give an unchanged plural, and the noun sheep being an exception from the general rule of formation of the plural form goes back to the Old English period.

If there was a mutated vowel in the stem, this sound might be preserved only in the singular:

	Singular				**Plural**	
	m	n			m	n
Nom.	dæӡ	fæt		Nom.	daӡas	fatu
Gen.	dæӡes	fætes		Gen.	daӡa	fata
Dat.	dæӡe	fæte		Dat.	daӡum	fatum
Acc.	dæӡ	fæt		Acc.	daӡas	fatu
	day	vessel				

Examples of Old English a-stems are: *masculine: earm (arm), eorl (earl), helm (helmet; protection), hrinӡ (ring), mūð (mouth), ӡēar (year), biscop (bishop), cyninӡ (king), ham (home), heofon (heaven), hrōf (roof), etc.*;

neuter: *dor (door), hōf (hoof), ӡēoc (yoke), word (word), deor (wild aninal), bearn (child), feoh (cattle), ӡēar (year), hūs (house), lēoð (song), lim (limb), ōr (beginning).*

There are some peculiarities of declension of the nouns that had originally *-j-* or *-w-* in the stem (they are called *-ja-stems* and *-wa-stems*); they may preserve this sound in declension; but otherwise the differences are minor. Also, some nouns which are rather clumsy in the nominative might have become still clumsier when an inflection was added; so we may see the omission of such sound (the second root vowel in such words as *heafod – heafdes (head); seolh (seal, the animal) – (seole).*

	Singular				**Plural**	
	-ja-	wa-			-ja-	wa-
Nom.	hrycӡ	bearu		Nom.	hrycӡ(e)as	bearwas
Gen	hrycӡes	bearwes		Gen	hrycӡ (e)a	bearwa
Dat.	hrycӡe	bearwe		Dat.	hrycӡ (i)um	bearwum
Acc.	hrycӡ	bearu		Acc.	hrycӡ(e)as	bearwas
	back	wood				

Examples of -ja- stems are: *hyse (young warrior), bōcere (a learned man), fiscere (fisherman), net (net), bedd (bed), wite (punishment, fine); -wa- sterns: treo (tree), ðeaw (custom), ðeow (servant), searo (device), cneo (knee).*

The nouns of this class were very numerous and were characterized by high frequency of use in Old English, so this paradigm is highly relevant to the further development of this part of speech.

Nouns belonging to *o-stems* are all feminine. In the form of the nominative case monosyllabic nouns with a short root vowel of this class have ending -u; if there are two and more syllables or the root vowel is long, there is no ending at all:

	Singular			**Plural**	
Nom.	talu	for	Nom.	tala	fora
Gen	tale	fore	Gen	tala	fora
Dat.	tale	fore	Dat.	talum	forum
Acc.	tale	fore	Acc.	tala	fora
	tale	journey			

Other nouns of this group are: *caru (care), scamu (shame), sāwo(soul), lufu (love), lar (learning), sorȝ (sorrow), scir (district), strǽt (road, street), swefn (dream), fid (time, period).*

In this group of nouns the suffix *-o-* may also be accompanied by additional i and *w*, that is *-jo-* and *-wo- stems* will give variants of declension

	-jo- stems			**-wo -stems**	
	Singular			**Plural**	
Nom.	brycȝ	sceadu	Nom.	brycȝa	sceadwa
Gen	brycȝe	sceadwe	Gen	brycȝa	sceadwa
Dat.	brycȝe	sceadwe	Dat.	brycȝum	sceadwum
Acc.	brycȝe	sceadwe	Acc.	brycȝa	sceadwa
	bridge	shade			

Other examples of the *-jo- stems* are: *endebyrdnes (order, succession), herenes (praise), hild (battle), rest (rest).*

The nouns formerly having *-i-sufix*, now called *-i-stems* might belong to all the three genders, and the case endings are different for different genders – masculine and neuter have the same endings as masculine and neuter nouns of the *-a- stems*, and feminine noun endings repeated the endings of the *-o-stems*.

	Singular				**Plural**		
	m	**n**	**f**		**m**	**n**	**f**
Nom.	hyll	spere	cwen	Nom.	hyllas	speru	cwene/cwena
Gen	hylles	speres	cwene	Gen	hylla	spera	cwena
Dat.	hylle	spere	cwene	Dat.	hyllum	sperum	cwenum
Acc.	hyll	spere	cwen	Acc.	hyllas	speru	cwcnc/cwciia
	hill	spear	woman				

Other nouns of this group are: *masculine: siȝe (victory), mere (sea), mete (food). dæl (part), Ȝiest (guest), drync (drink), Ȝebēorscipe (feast), ðēodscype (people); neuter: sife (sieve), hilt (hilt), flæsc (flesh), yfel (evil), mynster (monastery); feminine: wiht (thing), hyde (hide), woruld (world, age), frumsceaft (first creation), fyrd (army).*

Nouns belonging to *-u-stems* may be of masculine or feminine gender:

Singular			Plural		
	m	**f**		**m**	**f**
Nom.	sunu	duru	Nom.	suna	dura
Gen.	suna	dura	Gen.	suna	dura
Dat.	suna	dura	Dat.	sunum	durum
Acc.	sunu	duru	Acc.	suna	dura
	son	door			

Other nouns of this group are: *masculine: wudu (wood), medu (honey), weald (forest), sumor (summer), feld (field), heoro (sword), hefe (weight); feminine: nosu (nose), flor (floor), hand (hand), hlendu (dishonour), sal (rope), swaðu (way, path).*

In the course of language development the nouns belonging to *-i-, -o-* and *-u-* stems preserved nothing of their former appurtenance: yet it is significant that *-a-* and *-u-* stems in Old English had only three distinctive endings both for the singular and the plural and that was sufficient for proper communication; no ambiguity arose when they were accompanied by demonstrative pronouns, *-i- stems*, on the other hand, illustrate the tendency to dissolution of the former classes of nouns and a certain tendency for regrouping the declensions according to the gender of the noun.

Weak Declension

This class of nouns consists of a rather numerous group of nouns originally having *-n-stems*; the suffix is well-preserved in declension of nouns in Old English, but disappeared in the nominative case. *-n- stem* nouns may be of all three genders. But actually no difference in declension of nouns of different genders can be found.

Singular				Plural			
	m	**n**	**f**		**m**	**n**	**f**
Nom.	nama	eare	tunȝe	Nom.	naman	earan	tunȝan
Gen	naman	earan	tunȝan	Gen	namena	earena	tunȝena
Dat.	naman	earan	tunȝan	Dat.	namum	earum	tunȝum
Acc.	naman	earan	tunȝan	Acc.	naman	earan	tuȝan
	name	ear	tongue				

Other examples of this group are: *masculine:ʒuma (man), wita (wise man), steorra (star), mōna (moon), dema (judge), flota (ship, fleet), intinʒa (case), pleʒa (play, game), draca (dragon), hara (hare), oxa (ox); neuter: eaʒe (eye), cofa (chamber, repository); feminine: eorðe (earth), heorte (heart), sunne(sun), hearpe (harp), midde (middle), cirice (church), cwene (woman), flan (arrow).*

Nouns belonging to the group of *-n- stems* were numerous, and later there was very strong, but nevertheless pronounced, tendency to adopt though the ending of the plural form by other nouns. Due to the tendency such hybrids as brethren and children appeared in Middle English and are preserved up to now.

Root Stems. This group comprises the nouns that never had a stem suffix; hence it had a mutated root vowel, for formerly case endings might have had a front vowel, which no longer was present in Old English. The group was not numerous, but the words belonging to it were characterized by high frequency of use – they were the nouns used in everyday speech and therefore remained the most conservative – a group of exceptions with mutated root vowel preserved the majority of nouns belonging to this class.

	Singular				**Plural**		
	m	**f**	**n**		**m**	**f**	**n**
Nom.	mann	ʒos	scrud	Nom.	men	ʒes	scrudu
Gen.	mannes	ʒose	scrudes	Gen.	manna	ʒosa	scruda
Dat.	men	ʒes	scryd	Dat.	mannum	ʒosum	scrudum
Acc.	mann	ʒos	scrud	Acc.	men	ʒes	scrudu
	man	goose	clothing				

Other nouns of this class are: all compound nouns containing the morpheme man: *wimman (woman), sæmann (seaman, viking), ealdorman (nobleman, leader)* and also *toð (tooth), fōt (foot), mūs (mouse), lūs (louse), bōc (book), āc (oak), burh/burā (fortress, town).*

The nouns belonging to *-r-stems* were of masculine and feminine gender, the group is a closed system. It included only the terms of kinship. The endings here are scarce; a distinctive feature is that the dative case singular had a mutated vowel.

	Singular			**Plural**	
	m	**f**		**m**	**f**

Nom.	fæder	modor		Nom.	fæderas	modru(-a)
Gen.	fæder(es)	modor		Gen.	fædera	modra
Dat.	fæder	meder		Dat.	fæderum	modrum
Acc.	fæder	modor		Acc.	fæderas	modru(-a)

Other nouns are *dohtor (daughter), sweostor (sister)*. Such nouns existed in other languages, too.

Less numerous and less significant for the development of the present-day nominal system are the nouns that had other consonants as a stem-forming suffix. –s- stems had had this suffix in older times; in Old English due to rhotacism they changed it into occasional appearance of *-r-* sound in indirect cases. They are all neuter.

	n **Singular**	**n** **Plural**
Nom.	cild	cild, cildru
Gen.	cildes	cilda, cildra
Dat.	cilde	cildum
Acc.	cild	cild, cildru

So, in the present-day plural form children we find the remains of the Old English stem-forming suffix *-s-* turned through rhotacism into *-r-*. The *-en*-suffix was added later, in Middle English, by analogy with the inflection of another influential group of nouns.

Comparatively new for Old English are several substantivated participles forming a separate group of -nd- stems. They are all masculine and their declension combines the peculiarities of the declension of *-a-stems* and, to some extent, *-r- stems* as they all denote persons (they may form their plural form without any ending). Here the paradigm of the noun looks like the following:

	Singular		**Plural**
Nom.	freond	Nom.	freondas, friend, freond
Gen.	freondes	Gen.	freonda
Dat.	freonde, friend	Dat.	freondum
Acc.	freond	Acc.	freondas, friend, freond

Here belong also such words as *feond (accuser), wealdend (ruler), wiჳend (warrior), scyppend (creator), brimliðend (seafarer), etc.*

The Old English Verb

The system of the Old English verb was less developed than it is now, it had fewer forms, and its categories were somewhat different from the similar categories in present-day English. Some of them were ambiguous, the grammatical nature of the others is not recognized by scholars. Still, its paradigm was fairly complicated, as all the verbs fell into numerous morphological classes and employed a variety of form building means. The form-building devices were *gradation (vowel interchange), the use of suffixes, inflections, and suppletion.* Inflections, however, were also present when other ways were employed, so we can say that the ways of forming paradigmatic forms were inflections combined with vowel interchange or suppletion, or pure inflection.

All the paradigmatic forms of the verb were synthetic. There were also lexical structures with non-finite forms of the verb rendering some grammatical meanings (later developed into analytical forms).

Non-finite Forms of the Verb

The non-finite forms of the verb in Old English were the infinitive and two Participles. They had no categories of the finite verb but shared many features with the nominal parts of speech.

The infinitive had the suffix *-an/ian*. Being a verbal noun by origin it had the grammatical category of case: the nominative and the dative, the latter form was made by the suffix *-enne/anne: wrītan – to wrītenne*. Like the dative case of nouns the infinitive in this form was associated with the preposition tō and could be used *to indicate the direction or purpose of an action*, and in the impersonal sentences:

e.g.   *ic wilnode weorðfulīlce tō libanne ða hwlle ðe ic lifde*

The nominative (uninflected) form of the infinitive is often used with such verbs as *willan, sculan, weorðan* to render various grammatical meanings; these combinations served as the basis for analytical verb forms.

Participle I is formed by means of the suffix *-ende* added to the stem of the infinitive: *wrītan – wrītende (to write – writing), yrnan – yrnende (to run – running), sprecan – sprecende (to speak – speaking)*:

e.g. *ðæt scip wæs ealne weʒ yrnende under seʒle.*

This participle was active in meaning and expressed present time relevance or simultaneous with the tense of the finite verb processes and qualities. Like all nominal parts of speech, it had the categories of number, gender and case and was declined like a strong adjective.

Participle II expressed actions and states resulting from past action and was passive in meaning with transitive verbs, and rendered only temporal meaning of the past with the intransitive. Depending on the class of the verb, it was formed by vowel interchange (gradation) and the suffix *-en* (strong verbs) or the dental suffix *-d/t* (weak verbs). Participle II was commonly marked by the prefix *ʒe-*, though may be found without it, too, especially when the verb had other word-building prefix: *wrītan – writen, ʒewriten (to write – written), findan – founden (to find – found)*. Participle II might be declined according to the strong and the weak declension.

Categories of the Old English Verb

The verb in Old English has the following categories: <u>person, number, tense and mood.</u>

Number is not a specifically verbal category but rather a way of agreement of the predicate with the subject represented by the opposition of the singular and the plural. As dual number by that time was very seldom used, no corresponding form of the verb is found in Old English. The choice of singular or plural form depends on the number of the noun/pronoun subject of the sentence. This opposition is valid for all the verbs in all the other categorial forms.

The category of person is represented by all the three persons, though this opposition is neutralised in many positions. Present Tense Singular has all the forms, whereas in plural the category is not shown. Past Tense Singular had only one form for the 1st and the 3rd person, and in the Imperative and Subjunctive mood the category of person is absent.

The category of mood was represented by the opposition of three moods: Indicative – Subjunctive – Imperative.

The Indicative mood represents the action as a real fact:

e.g. *On ðæm æftran ʒeare com Sweʒen cyninʒ ...*

The Imperative expresses order, or request to a second person. It may be used in the singular or in the plural:

e.g. *sinʒ mē hwæt-hwuʒu.*

There is practically no controversy as to the terms the Indicative and the Imperative mood, but as far as the Subjunctive is concerned, opinions differ. Some call it Conjunctive Mood, as it always is a relative not the absolute mood. Some call it Optative because in Old English optative meaning was much more frequent than it is in the present-day Subjunctive mood forms.

It may be called Conditional or even Oblique but we must always bear in mind that this is a mood that renders the general meaning of unreality or supposition. Some oppose the Indicative and the Imperative to the Subjunctive as the moods of fact and the mood of fancy. The action expressed by this mood form is somewhat shifted from reality, even though it might not contradict it altogether. Some mental attitude to what is being said in Subjunctive mood is usually *implied-condition, desire, obligation, supposition, perplexity, doubt, uncertainty or unreality.* So it is used in conditional sentences of unreal condition – the unreality of condition made it clear that a verb in the indicative would be superfluous:

e.g. *Ʒif ðu wære her, nære mīn brōðor dead.*

The category of Tense was represented by the opposition past-nonpast (or as they say more correctly preterit-nonpreterit). The current form for the non-preterite is the Present. But present time reference is only one of the meanings rendered by this form. In general it seems to be a most universal form of the verb. It was used (and is used now) when seemingly universal truths are uttered, it is used in reference to moment of speech and a period including both previous and following this moment; it may be fairly lengthy. In Old English it was commonly used to denote future, as well.

The four grammatical categories listed above were supplemented by some other ways of expressing grammatical meanings.

One of the less happy grammatical categories is that **of aspect**. Here the distinction between imperfective aspect, expressing an action in its duration without indicating its beginning or its end, and the perfective aspect which expressed an action in its completion, where its beginning and its end can be traced. To express it, the verbs with prefixes such as *a-, be-, for-, ʒe-, of-* and *to-* are used. The most "grammatical" of all is the prefix *ʒe-*. The instances of the use of verbs with the prefix *ʒe-* are very common in Old English: *wrītan – ʒewritan, bindan – ʒebindan, feohtan – ʒefeohtan.* The verbs with the prefix *ʒe-* denoted a completed action whereas the verbs without this prefix denoted an action with no indication as to the completion of the action.

e.g. *ða Rebecca ðæt ʒehirde and Esau uta ʒan wæs.*

So a question arises as to distinguishing another grammatical category of the Old English verb – that of perfectivity, or the existence of perfective and non-perfective aspect.

Apart from these there existed a whole set of analytical formations that gave in future all the present-day analytical verb forms. The forms of the perfect, future tense, passive voice, analytical forms of the subjunctive mood and even continuous, though came into the language together with the Norman invasion, had their roots within the English language. The structures that gave rise to these forms were: *habban + P II.*

Originally it meant that the subject owned a thing having a certain feature as a result of an action performed upon it. Then they acquired the meaning of result of an action:

e.g. *hæfde se cyninʒ his here on tu tonumen.*

The combination of the verb *beon/wesan with Participle II* rendered the grammatical meaning of voice, yet had no status of an analytical verb form (on the same grounds, because the participle was changeable and agreed with the subject of the sentence):

e.g. *On ðæm æftran ʒeare ðe se arcebiscop wæs ʒematryrod. In the plural it would be: ða menn wæron ʒemartyrode.*

The verbs *willan/sculan* in combination with the infinitive rendered future time relevance, yet they were not devoid of their primary modal meaning:

wille ic asec ʒan — I will say = I want to say

The combination of *beon/wesan with Participle I* gave structures corresponding in meaning to the continuous form:

e.g. *Se bat wæs yrnende under seʒle.*

But true analytical forms, where only the auxiliary verb changes and renders only grammatical meanings and the notional part remains unchangeable did not exist in Old English.

Morphological Classification of Old English Verbs

The majority of Old English verbs fell into two great divisions: the strong verbs and the weak verbs. In addition to these two main groups there were a few verbs which could be put together as "minor" groups. The main difference between these groups lies in the way they form the principal forms; besides there were a few other differences in conjugation. Accordingly, the verbs may be divided into the following groups: **strong, weak, preterite-present, suppletive**.

The strong verbs formed their stems by means of vowel gradation and by adding certain inflections and suffixes; in some verbs gradation was accompanied by changes of consonants, but these were mainly due to the activity of assimilative phonetic processes of the period (assimilation before t, loss of consonants, rhotacism or Verner's Law). There were *four basic forms* of the strong verbs:

I – the infinitive

II – the past tense singular

III – the past tense plural

IV – the form of the Participle II.

The weak verbs derived their Past tense stem and that of Participle II by adding dental suffix *-d-* and *-t-*; normally they did not change their root vowels apart from the cases when assimilative changes split these sounds into diphthongs.

In the preterite-present forms both ways were used; these verbs will be mentioned separately.

Suppletive verbs are what their name implies – they formed their forms from different stems or had peculiarities in formation of their paradigm. Two anomalous verbs beon/wesan and don have other peculiarities of the paradigm.

Strong Verbs

There were about three hundred strong verbs in Old English. They were native verbs of Proto-Germanic origin and usually have parallels in other Germanic languages. They are divided into seven classes. Gradation in Old English develops from common Indo-European gradation but the vowels differ due to numerous phonetic changes in Germanic languages and then in English, so the vowels may be quite different, but the principle is the same.

Class I

Gradation formula ī –ā –i – i
Wrītan – wrāt – writon – writen (to write)
Rīsan – rās – rison – risen (rise)

Class II

Gradation formula: ēo - ēa - u - o
The four basic forms of the verbs of this class are:
bēodan – bēad – budon – boden (to offer)
clēofan – clēaf – clufon – clofen (to cleave)
The verbs that had s after the root vowel had the change of the consonant (according to Verner's law this consonant through rhotacism i hanged into r):

 cēosan – cēas – curon – coren (to choose)
 frēosan – frēas – fruron – froren (to freeze)

Class III

The first and the second classes of strong verbs had a long root vowel (or a diphthong) followed by one consonant. In the third class of Germanic strong verbs a short vowel was followed by two consonants. In Old English that was a position where short vowels were subjected to assimilative processes, there are several variations of root vowels in this class of verbs.

a) if nasal sound + another consonant followed the root vowel the gradation formula was:

i - a(o) - u – u

drincan – dranc – druncon – druncen (to drink)
findan – fand – fundon – funden (to find)

Here belong also such verbs as bindan (to bind), ʒrindan (to grind), swindan (to vanish), windan (to wind), onʒinnan (to begin), sinnan (to reflect), spinnan (to spin), winnan (to work), clinan (to cling), scrincan (to shrink), sinʒan (to sing), sprinʒan (to spring), stinʒan (to sting), sincan (to sink), climban (to climb), swimman (to swim) etc.

b)   if l + another consonant followed the root vowel, then this formula was

i/e - ea - u - o (1 + consonant caused breaking of the vowel of the second form of the verb)   helpan – healp – hulpon – holpen (to help)

Other verbs having such sounds are: delfan (to delve), swelʒan (to swallow), melton (to melt), sweltan (to die), bellan (to bark), swellan (to swell), melcan (to milk).

c)   if r + consonant or h + consonant followed the root vowels then breaking in the first two forms changed the formula into

eo - ea - u - o
steorfan – stearf – sturfon – storfen (to die)
feohtan – feaht – fuhton – fohten (to fight)
Class IV
The scheme of gradation is   e - æ - ǽ - o
Stelan – stæl – stǽlon – stolen (to steal)
teran – tær – tǽron – toren (to tear)
Class V

These verbs also have a short root vowel followed by only one consonant other than l, r or n and here the basic vowels are:

e - æ - ǽ - e

sprecan – sprasc – sprsecon – sprecen (to speak)
tredan – træd – trǽdon – treden (to tread)
Classes VI and VII of the strong verbs are specifically Germanic (they have no counterparts in other Indo-European languages), and are characterized by the fact that the vowel of the infinitive was repeated in the form of the Participle II, and the vowel in the past tense forms was the same for both the singular and the plural:

Class VI
The formula of gradation here is
a – ō – ō – a
faran – fōr – fōron – faren (to go)
Class VII

This class in Gothic was a group of verbs that built their past tense by reduplicating the root syllable. In Old English these forms contracted, and the long vowels that appeared in place of two repeating stems may be different, for they resulted from the fusion of various root morphemes. The most common are the following patterns:

ā-ē-ē-ā
æ - ē – ē –æ
ā - ēo – ēo – ā
ea - eo - eo - ea
ēa - ēo - ēo - ēa
hatan – hēt – hēton – hāten (to call)
lætan – let – lēton – læten (to let)
cnāwan – cnēow – cnēowon – cnāwen (to know)
healdun – heold – heoldon – healden (to hold)
bēatan – bēot – bēoton – bēaten (to beat)

Weak verbs

There are three classes of Old English weak verbs as contrasted to the four in Gothic. Their number was ever growing in the Old English as it was a productive pattern. They had three basic forms; their past tense and Participle II were made by adding the dental suffix *-t-* or *-d-* to the root morpheme. They are divided into three classes depending on the ending of the infinitive, the sonority of the suffix and the sounds preceding the suffix.

Class I

The verbs of this class ended in *-an (or -ian after r).* Originally they had had a stem-forming suffix *-i-* that caused the mutation of the root vowel. That is why they all have a front (mutated) vowel in the root. When the root vowel was short, the consonant after it was geminated. This class of verbs is subdivided into regular and irregular.

Regular class I verbs have mutation of their root vowel (due to an original -i-element in the suffix in all their forms), and the three basic forms of the verb end in:

-an/-ian —de/ede/te - ed/-t-d

dōmian – deman – dēmde – dēmed (to judge)
arjan – ērian – ērede – ēred (to plough)

When the suffix was preceded by a voiceless consonant, the suffix -d- changed into -t-; in the second participle both -t- and -ed are found:

cēpan – cēpte – cēpt, cēped (to keep)

If the stem ended in two consonants, the second being d or t, participle II of such verbs can have variant endings - *in -d, -t, or -ded, -ted*:

sendan – sende – send, sended (to send)

Irregular verbs of the 1st class of the weak verbs had mutated vowel only in the infinitive, while in the past tense and in participle II it remained unchanged. Thus they had different vowels in the root of the first form as against the second and the third, but that is not gradation! Examples of such verbs are:

salian – sellan – sealde – seald (to give)
talian – tellan – tealde – teald (to tell)

(The sound a in the root of the second and the third forms is changed through breaking into ea, but it is not mutated): tæcan – tāhte – tāht (to teach).

Class II

These verbs originally had the suffix -oia- in the infinitive: the root vowel is the same in all three forms. The absence of mutation in the infinitive is due to the fact that the *-i- (from -oja-)* appeared at the time when the process of mutation was over. The suffix gave the vowel -o- in the past tense and in the infinitive. Their paradigm is the most regular, and so the majority of latter lexical innovations joined this class.

The pattern of the three basic forms has the following endings:

-ian -ode -od

macian – macode – macod (to make)
lufian – lufode – lufod (to love)
hopian – hopode – hopod (to hope)
Class III

The suffix *-ai-* that determined the peculiarities of conjugation of the weak verbs of the third class in Old English is no longer found. The class is not numerous (there are about eight verbs) and a closed system. Moreover, there is a tendency to disintegration of this class, some of the verbs changing into the first and the second classes.

Some verbs of this class have doubled consonants in the Infinitive and the mutated vowels, which are accounted for by the presence of the element *-i-/-j-* in

some forms in Old English. The pattern of forms of the most frequent class III verbs forms is:

-an -de -d
habban – hæfde – hæfd (to have)
libban – lifde – lifd (to live)
secʒ(e)an – sæʒde – sæʒd (to say).

Preterite-Present Verbs

Preterite-present verbs occupy a specific place within the verbal system of Old English verbs. They combine the qualities of the strong verbs as well as the weak ones. Their present tense is formed according to the rules of formation of the past tense of the strong verbs, that is by gradation (vowel interchange) whereas their past tense has all the peculiarities of the weak verbs, e.g. *wītan – wāt*, but *wisse, wiste*; participle II meanwhile retains the suffix *-en* of the strong verbs. It is just this peculiarity that makes them preterite (in form) – present (in the meaning).

The origin of these verbs will be clearer if we consider the peculiarity of their semantics. In general, past tense has a strong tinge of result in its meaning; especially the verbs containing the *ʒe-* prefix, though as already mentioned, some of the forms with resultative meaning had no such prefix.

Most preterite-present verbs are classified according to the classes of gradation to which their present tense belongs. However, some of these do not fit into this system, as their vowels do not correspond to the gradation system of strong verbs.

Irregular verbs

There are four verbs in Old English listed as irregular *bēon/wesan (be), ʒan (go), dōn (do) and willan (will)*. The first two differ from all other verbs in that their forms are derived from different roots that are their system is based on suppletivity.

beon/wesan

This verb forms its paradigmatic forms from the three roots - wes-, es- and be-. The verb belongs to the most ancient in Indo-European languages, and is suppletive in other languages as well. Suppletivity here is explained by the fact that in old times they had slightly different meanings, the level of abstraction was low, and what, for instance was (in the past) was not associated with present tense is (now). In addition,

this verb had two infinitive forms and in the present tense two sets of forms for each person. The forms of this verb are:

Ȝān (to go): this verb of motion had reduplication in Gothic, which is lost in Old English. Besides suppletivity for the past tense, the peculiarity of its conjugation is that it has mutation in the 2nd and 3rd person singular present indicative.

Dōn (to do): the verb don is irregular, has mutation in the 2nd and 3rd person present indicative. Its past is conjugated weak, with the change of root vowel from -o- to -y-.

Willan: the verb does not take the ending -ð in the present indicative, thus the forms of the present indicative and the subjunctive coincide (which might be explained by the lexical meaning of the verb).

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 44, 51 – 57.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 92–129.

Questions for Self-control

1. Name the grammatical categories of finite and non-finite forms of the verb.
2. What is the morphological classification of Old English verbs?
3. What are the main differences between the weak and the strong verbs?
4. Why did the strong verbs fall into seven classes? Point out the differences between them.
5. Old English nominal system. Means of form-building.
6. Morphological classification of Old English nouns (types of declension).
7. Show the traces of the Old English declensions in Modern English.
8. Why are types of declensions in Old English called "stems"?

Practice Section

1. Define the person, number, tense, mood and the morphological class of the verb in the following:
   hē sæde; Ohthere bād; hē hwæð; þa arās he; þūhte mē; clypode he; þa Isaac ealdode; þu Ȝesihst; his ēaȝan þystrodon.
2. Form the plural of the following nouns: hunta, hof, eorl, wif, clif, feoh, hond, sunne, benc, lamb.
3. Add the missing basic forms of strong verbs and define the class. Explain how you define the class of verbs: creap, springan, multon, arisen, wearp, fleotan, bundon, bat, glad, wosc.

Middle English and New English Periods

General characteristics of ME. Middle English dialects and written records. Early New English. General characteristics.

Traditionally it is considered that the Middle English period begins from the year 1066, the most significant event in English history, the event that changed the official, prevalently Germanic language of the population into a colloquial tongue, an adulterated with numerous borrowings and utterly spoiled and pigionized vernacular, which had to lead continuously and strenuously struggle to survive, and when it at last re-emerged as an official state language it was changed beyond recognition. Much can be said about the reasons and the processes that took place in this period, and historical background, of course, is of paramount importance to understand why it happened. A brief survey of historic events of the period is needed, to get a better understanding of the linguistic consequences of these events.

The event that preceded the Norman Conquest and paved the way to it was the *Scandinavian invasion*. This event is probably less memorable, yet it prepared the ground for further changes in the society as well as in the language.

Scandinavians (then simply Danes, for Swedish, Norse, Danish in those times simply were not yet discerned within the language commonly known as Old Norse) were old rivals of the English, and were troubling Anglo-Saxons ever since their settlement on the Isles. They occasionally raided into their territory, looted the monasteries, and in many respects interfered with the life of the local population. Through the so-called *Wedmore peace treaty* King Alfred of Wessex in 878 yielded a considerable part of the country to economic control of the Danes so that the latter could come and levy taxes from the population; the territory was called *Danelaw* and in the long run this rather shameful treaty contributed to the peaceful and happy life of the Southern part of the country, and the majority of written monuments of Anglo-Saxon culture are dated back to those happy years. Chronicles, translations of Latin works on geography, the beginnings of grammar, numerous religious texts and finally the very text of the most significant epic poem, Beowulf, are dated back to the years of King Alfred and the Danelaw. The Scandinavians, for their part, not only came to collect money but

comprehended that the very territory of the islands was much more suitable for living and economic activity and moved and settled there. They mixed with the local population, and without much effort penetrated into that community which was to become the basis for the English nation. Their languages were similar, so mutual understanding was not specifically difficult, only some simplification was needed as is usual when languages differ in particulars. These particulars, i.e. endings and other unnecessary details might be omitted without significant effort. Yet as time passed, the English kings were less and less apt to recognize the Wedmore accords, and the Scandinavians that had already tasted the advantages of these territories grew more intent on getting still more, and the onslaughts were resumed. They resulted in the 1013 Scandinavian invasion of King Sweyn, and the additional almost 30 years of Scandinavian rule. King Sweyn started the process, and in 1016 his son Canute (or Knut) became the ruler of England. The invasion was not utterly ferocious; of course there were victims and many people were killed, but seeing that there was no prospect for further resistance, king Aethelred fled to Normandy and the whole country was controlled by the Scandinavians.

The invaders came with their families, intermarried and intermixed with the local population, and finally were absorbed ethnically and linguistically by it; the relations between the languages were considerably equal, and the influence of the Scandinavian on the English language was moderate.

Morphologically it resulted in reduction or levelling of endings which were different in the two languages (compare *fiskr – fisc; dæʒ – dagr; ʒrīpan – gripa; sittan – sitia*), and the loss of the category of gender whatsoever for the same words might have different genders in the two languages. The lexical borrowings of this period came equally in many spheres of life and sometimes they denoted some things really absent in the Old English.

So, during the invasion such words were borrowed from the Old Norse as *they, them, their; ill, ugly, ransack; skate, sky, skirt, skill, skin, scatter, egg, give, guess, guest.* Old English words *ʒiefan, ʒietan, æʒ, ʒiest* thus were dropped and replaced by Scandinavian borrowings; such word as shirt coexists with *skirt, shatter with scatter, shin with skin*; but the words now are different in meaning.

So, the English language of the period that preceded the Norman Conquest was significantly changed and simplified, and the drastic changes that followed fell onto the prepared linguistic soil.

As is known from history, after the Scandinavian conquest the English king joined his sister who was married to a Norman Duke in Normandy, and his son Edward the Confessor was brought up in the French environment. The English court enjoyed Norman hospitality, and Edward, who was childless constantly reminded William, Duke of Normandy, that after his death the only legitimate heir to the English crown was just he, William, as the next in line. When in 1042 the Anglo-Saxon barons who remained in England managed to oust the Scandinavians, according to the custom of period it was Edward who regained the rule in England, though he himself did little to do it. On his return, he brought many councillors of French origin, and the language Edward knew much better than English was French: the latter spoken in the English court even before the Normans. The Anglo-Saxon barons among whom was the powerful Earl Godwin of Wessex, however, controlled a significant part of the territory and hoped that after Edward's death power would pass to one of them, and when Edward died in 1066, they elected Harold Godwin king of England. As soon as the news reached William, the Duke was simply enraged, and mustered a big army by promising lands and positions to his mercenaries – only one third of his soldiers were Normans, the others were from other parts of France and Europe in general. William had the support of the Pope as well. His army crossed the English Channel and <u>on October 14 at the battle of Hastings, 1066,</u> routed the English army that was smaller and had to guard the northern areas from the recently driven out Scandinavians. King Harold was killed, and William proceeded to London where the Witenagamot officially proclaimed him the King. On Christmas Day, 1066 his coronation took place in the Westminster Abbey. It took him several years to subjugate the whole country; and this process was marked by almost complete extinction of the old Anglo-Saxon. Practically all Archbishops and Barons were either killed in action, executed or emigrated leaving to the Normans whatever they had. William himself became the owner of one-third of

the lands in the country, and Norman castles of the period are scattered all over England.

Following the Conquest many other Normans crossed the channel, and enlarged the population of England. The approximate number of French settlers was about 200 000. After the Civil war in the reign of King Stephen (1135 – 1154) new settlers made use of the anarchy in the country and seized the remaining lands. They spoke French, which though had some peculiarities – it was, in fact, the language learned by the ethnic Germanic tribe of *norðmonna* that settled in that part of Europe yet in the 9th century. *For almost three centuries the French language was the official language of the English kingdom; it was the language of the royal court, the church, courts of law, army and the castle.* Education, as it was mainly controlled by the church was also in French, though the Latin language was traditionally also taught. A good knowledge of French was the sign of higher standing and gave a person a certain social prestige. Probably, some considerable part of the English population was already bilingual.

It took decades for the first recognition of the English language. It was not until *1258 that King Henry III let the language into official use* – his famous Proclamation to the councillors in the parliament was written in three instead of the earlier two languages – French, Latin and English.

The three hundred years of French domination affected the English language enormously.

Why didn't the English language die altogether? Why was it not absorbed into the dominant Norman tongue?

Some reasons are usually given:

- it was too well established, too vigorous, and too hardy to be obliterated. The English speakers, in spite of all, demographically prevailed, and they were not going to stop speaking it just because they were conquered;
- to quell the natural resentment of their English subjects the Normans willy-nilly picked up some English to survive, and in this case the co-existence of the English and the Normans was more peaceful;

- the Hundred Years War with France 1337 – 1454 (the name traditionally given to the Anglo-French conflicts that occurred between 1337 and 1453, but a more accurate set of dates would be the 150-year period from 1294 to 1444);
- an outbreak of mysterious disease known as The Black Death that is estimated to have killed off from 25 percent to 50 percent of the European population between 1347 and 1351 (mainly those that lived in cities, and in England that was the French-speaking part). The people that came later to the cities and towns from the rural territories brought with them their own, though much simplified and full of French borrowings, native English language.

William Caxton, the first English printer is one of the most remarkable personalities. He introduced the printing press around 1476; he was the first editor-publisher, printing the works of G. Chaucer. W. Caxton's decision to reproduce the English of London and the South-East was crucial. He and his successors gave a special currency to London English.

The effects of the French language on the Middle English are hard to overestimate. The changes in spelling that took place in that period laid the basis for present-day English spelling, a great number of words came into the language and the majority of them are still used, fully assimilated and no longer perceived as borrowings. The English grammar was much simplified.

And yet despite the many French loanwords, English remained English, not a dialect of French. English grammar, as opposed to vocabulary, remained virtually unaffected by French, and grammatical developments that had begun much earlier during Anglo-Saxon times continued without interruption through the Conquest. Even today it is still obvious that the grammatical structure of English resembles that of German far more than it resembles that of French.

Middle English Dialects. Writings in Middle English.

The language existed in the form of several dialects. The Southern group of dialects represented by the descendants of Kentish, West and East Saxon dialects of Old English. The following literary documents exemplify it:

South-Eastern, or Kentish: Dan Michel's "Ayenbite of inwit" (Remorse of Conscience) 1340; William of Shoreham's "Poems" (early 14th century); «Poema morale" (anonymous) early 13th c.

South-Western: Layamon's "Brut" (it contains elements of the Midland dialect, too) 13th c.; "Ancren Riwle" (Statute for Nuns) 13th c.; Robert of Gloucester's "Rhymed Chronicle" ab. 1300; John Trevisa's "Polychronicon", translation from Latin 1387.

Midland, or central dialects: "William of Palerme" (romance, early 13th c.); "Sir Gawaine and the Green Knight" (14 c.);

and **East Midland**: Peterborough Chronicle (a sequel to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle); Robert Mannyng of Brunne's "Handlyng Synne" – about 1300; "King Horn" romance 13th c.; "Havelock the Dane" – 13th c.; metric homilies of Orm "Ormulum" 13th c.; Genesis, Exodus (religious poems) 13th c.

The dialect of London belonged to the same group of Midland dialects, and is also represented by a group of works: the Proclamation by Henry III 1258, the earliest official document written in Middle English; the poem "Evil Times of Edward II, Adam Davy's "Poems" dated by early 14th century.

But real masterpieces of the period written in London dialect are the works of G. Chaucer.

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340 – 1400) is recognized as one of England's greatest poets. He is best remembered for "The Canterbury Tales". But his contribution to language development and English literature is not limited to it.

The Northern dialects developed from Old English Northumbrian: Richard Rolle de Hampole's "The Pricke of Conscience" (14th c.), Townley Plays (14th c.) and York Plays (early 15th c.).

Early New English. General Characteristics.

This period, from 1485 to mid-17th century is marked by establishing the nation state. It is marked by significant changes in political, religious and cultural life of the country, and first of all by Reformation.

Although England had a religious reform movement influenced by Lutheran ideas, the English Reformation occurred as a direct result of King Henry VIII's

efforts to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon. The formal break with the papacy was masterminded by Thomas Cromwell, the king's chief minister. As archbishop of Canterbury, Thomas Cranmer annulled Henry's marriage to Catherine, allowing the king to marry Anne Boleyn.

Although the Reformation stemmed from Henry's desire to divorce his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, it became a controlled revolution, supervised by the able minister Thomas Cromwell. Henry broke with Rome, subordinated the church to the state, ended monasticism, and annexed vast church properties to the crown. The last were gradually sold and came into the hands of the gentry and middle classes, immensely increasing their economic strength and leading them to claim greater political power through the House of Commons.

Some of these resources were also used to strengthen the nation-state. Henry VIII built a powerful navy and fortified the whole Channel coast.

Under the long and successful reign (1558 – 1603) of Elizabeth I the Church of England achieved its permanent character. The Elizabethans were able to renew voyages across the Atlantic and, with Sir Francis Drake and Thomas Cavendish, around the world. Expansive energies drove them to challenge Spain's monopoly of the New World, leading to conflict in the Caribbean and elsewhere. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh led the campaign to establish English settlements in North America, taking possession of Newfoundland in 1583 and sending out colonies to Roanoke Island (now in North Carolina) from 1585 on. Many voyages explored the American coasts, and several penetrated the Davis Strait in search of a Northwest Passage to China and the Far East.

Voyages searching for a Northeast Passage opened up direct sea routes to Russia. The English were given privileges in Russian trade that extended to the Caspian Sea and Persia. From 1580 strong expeditions into the Mediterranean produced direct trade with Turkey and the Middle East; companies were formed in London for this purpose. In 1600 the British East India Company was founded to make trading voyages around the Cape of Good Hope; from these beginnings British interests in the East rapidly expanded.

Spain was determined to keep other Europeans out of the New World. Moreover, its efforts to suppress the revolt against Spanish rule in the Netherlands posed a direct threat to nearby England, especially since the Spanish king, Philip II, supported revolt against Elizabeth I. These factors precipitated a long war between England and Spain from 1585 to 1604. The defeat of the Spanish Armada of 1588 increased the self-confidence of the Elizabethans and gave a patriotic inspiration to the brilliant Elizabethan Age. This was expressed creatively in literature and the arts, in a general cultural renaissance, and in scientific development, particularly in cosmography and navigation. The work of William Shakespeare and others made the Elizabethan era one of the most creative periods in the history of drama.

Early New English is traditionally distinguished in the history of the language because it was in this period that the rest of the grammatical categories came into use, the last systematic and cardinal change in the sound system occurred, shifting the real sound form of the words from the spelling to almost the present-day state. Early New English was the period when borrowing of foreign words came not due to invasion, but because the English language was already free from its xenophobic qualities, and even the most strict scholars did not reject them; on the contrary, scholarly language abounded in borrowings too.

The 15th century changes in the political life of the country led to establishment of a strong centralized state in England; and a strong state power means not only economic but also cultural and linguistic dictatorship.

It is astonishing how quickly learning and printing were spreading in the times that followed. Before 1500 the total number of books printed throughout Europe was about 35 000, most of them in Latin. Between 1500 and 1640 in England alone, some 20 000 items in English were printed, ranging from pamphlets and broadsheets to folios and Bibles. The result was to accelerate the education of the rising middle class. Some estimates suggest that by 1600 nearly half the population had some kind of minimal literacy, at least in cities and towns. Outside the universities people preferred to read books in English rather than in Latin and Greek, and printers naturally tried to satisfy their customers' demands.

The new aristocracy was more energetic and eager to learn. Renaissance, though a bit retarded as compared with Italy and France came to the British Isles, and with the introduction of the printing press new literature and science spread all over the isles, normalizing and unifying the language in England.

The reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558 – 1603) was marked by extensive trade contacts and the struggle with England's European rivals – France, Spain and Portugal. Colonial expansion began.

The age of Renaissance added from about 10 000 to 12 000 words to the English vocabulary, and the words came from different sources: agile 1570-80; *habitual 1520-30, tangible 1580-90, capsule 1645-55, series 1605-15 – Latin; catastrophe 1570-80, lexicon 1595-1605, atmosphere 1630-40, pneumonia 1595-1605, skeleton 1510-80,paradox 1530-40 – Greek; detail 1595-1605, sentinel 1570-80 – French; portico 1595-1605, balcony 1610-20, stucco 1590-1600 – Italian; embargo 1595-1605 – Spanish; smuggle 1680-90, reef 1350-1400 – Dutch etc.*

The first true English-language essayist, Francis Bacon, published his Essays, Civil and Moral in 1597; the descriptive geographical works of Richard Hakluyt, based on actual voyages, were the most comprehensive of the time; and the Chronicles (1577) of Raphael Holinshed reflected the Elizabethans' interest in history.

The decade of the 1590s evinced a remarkable outburst of lyrical poetry. The *Sonnets of Shakespeare* were only one of many sonnet sequences, written by such poets as *Michael Drayton, Samuel Daniel, Sidney and Spenser* – all influenced by Petrarch's sonnets. Other lyric forms were popular, too, as well as ballads and broadsides. The Songs and Sonnets of John Donne belong to this decade, although they were not published (1633) until after his death.

In the making of his Dictionary, Samuel Johnson took the best conversation of contemporary London and the normal usage of reputable writers after Sir Philip Sidney (1554 – 1586) as his criteria. He exemplified the meanings of words by illustrative quotations.

Latin was regarded as a language superior to English and claimed that Latin embodied universally valid canons of logic. This view was well maintained by

Lindley Murray, a native of Pennsylvania who settled in England in the very year (1784) of Johnson's death. Murray's English Grammar appeared in 1795, became immensely popular, and went into numerous editions. It was followed by an English Reader (1799) and an English Spelling Book (1804), long favourite textbooks in both Old and New England. The efforts of the scholars were also directed to making people pronounce words as they were written. As can be seen, in practice these works not so much influenced the spelling but they give us the clue how it all was pronounced at those times.

The authors took Latin grammars as a model, and tried to squeeze living English speech, with all the losses it suffered through the ages into a set of clearly defined and unambiguous Latin rules. Notably, these grammars were mainly written in Latin and supplied English translation of the Latin contractions.

A new approach was postulated in the English grammar composed by the dramatist *Ben Jonson "For the benefit of all strangers out of this observation of the English language now spoken and in use" in 1640*. He was the first to attract attention to the word order as a specific feature of the English language; he pointed out to the article as a part of speech found in English and not in Latin, he was puzzled by the absence of uniformity in the paradigm of the English verb and suggested two conjugations here and two declensions in the nouns. He was not a grammarian, a layman in the field of this high science but as it happens outsiders may be helpful too.

Other authors and most famous grammar manuals are John Wallis's "Grammatica Linguae Anglicane" that appeared in 1653 had many editions in translations where the attempt is made to ignore the established view at grammatical categories. He stresses that the categories lost by the English language (such as case, gender, etc.) should not be included in the study of really functioning language.

The 18th century gives other names and other manuals that determined the standards of the language. The best-known prescriptive grammars of the period are:

Robert Lowth's "A Short Introduction to English Grammar" first published in 1761, had 22 editions later. It was followed by J. Priestley's "Rudiments of English Grammar" of 1761.

There were also numerous books on correct spelling and correct pronunciation (Jones' "Practical Phonographer" 1701, William Baker "Rules for True Spelling and Writing English" 1724 etc.).

The attention of the scholarly authorities is directed also to the correct use of words. By that time the language had incorporated numerous borrowings, used in writing but not altogether understandable by the general public. So the country witnesses a lexicographic boom of the 18th century.

Actually, it started in the 17th century with Robert Cawdrey's "Table Alphabetical conveying and teaching the true writing and understanding of hard usual English words, borrowed from Hebrew, Greek, Latin or French" that appeared in 1604 followed by John Bullokar's "English Expositor teaching the interpretation of the hardest words used in our language" (1616) and "English-English Dictionary" by Henry Cockeram (1623). It contained explanations of common hard words and of "vulgar" words supplied with the help of their bookish equivalents and J. Cole's "Dictionary of hard words" (1676).

But systematic lexicography is associated with the name of Samuel Johnson, and his "Dictionary of the English Language" that appeared in 1755. He gave precise definitions of words, supplied the dictionary with pronunciation guide to the words given in it, considering that "the best general rule is, to consider those of the most elegant speakers who deviate least from the written words". The dictionary also contains some instructions as to grammatical forms of the given words.

Due to the incessant and fruitful work of the grammarians and lexicographers the Written Standard was established as contrasted to dialectal variety and penetration of vulgar words from all strata of the society in the middle of the 17th century.

The development of the language is inseparable from the literary process of the period, and the flourishing of science. Though scientific works in the 16th and 17th century were mainly written in Latin, they were readily translated into English and added to the development of the English language. The names of Thomas More (1478 – 1535) famous for, among his other writings, "Utopia" (written in 1516 in Latin, and first translated into English in 1551) and Francis Bacon with his most famous work "Novum Organum" (1620) presenting an inductive method for scientific

and philosophical inquiry (written in Latin) are inseparable from the English culture. By the way, both wrote much in English – the pamphlets and other works of Th. More and essays of F. Bacon prove that they were masters of the English.

William Tyndale translated the Bible in 1526. The first authorized version of the Bible – King James' Bible produced by a body of translators and officially approved in 1611 was based on his translation.

But the most prominent name in the literary life of the period is that of William Shakespeare (1564 – 1616). He outclassed his contemporaries in all genres of drama and poetry (comedies, historical plays, tragedies, sonnets). His vocabulary alone amounts to 20 000 words; his freedom in creating new words and versatility in using grammatical constructions is remarkable. The peculiarities of the Early New English are illustrated here on the citations from his works, as they seem to be the most representative of the period and in addition the most well-known by the present-day readers. His grammar is yet untouched by the prescriptivists, his vocabulary is extensive; his artistic genius is incomparable in the use of the possibilities the English language offers.

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 65 – 68.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 149 – 163, 164 – 183.

Questions for Self-control

1. Historical events affecting the English language (the Scandinavian invasion and the Norman Conquest).
2. Changes in the Middle English word-stock as compared with Old English.
3. Middle English and New English written records.
5. Comment on the position of French in the 12th – 13th centuries.
6. Speak of the role of foreign influence in Middle English.

Middle English and New English Changes
of Vowels and Consonants in ME and ENE.

Changes in the System of Spelling. Changes of vowels and consonants in ME. Phonetic Changes in the Early New English Period. Changes of vowels in ENE. Changes of vowels and consonants in ENE.

Changes in the System of Spelling

French graphic habits were introduced, and marking the sounds became more European in form, no alien letters hampered reading because all the letters were exclusively Latin. Specifically English sounds, earlier marked by letters specific only for the English language were replaced by digraphs.

ʒ, ð and *wynn* were replaced by Latin letters:

ʒ – g: ʒod – god; ʒān –goon

ʒ – y: ʒreʒ – grey; ʒēar – year

(In some cases phonetic changes led to the use of other letters, *the folʒian – folwen* is due to sound, and not purely spelling change; the same is true of the letter æ it fell into disuse because the very sound developed into some other sounds).

The sound *dʒ* marked by *cʒ* was also rendered by *g* or *dg – singe, bridge*. In French borrowings the same sound was marked according to the French tradition by *j – judge, June*.

The letter *v* was introduced to mark voiced fricative (it was its allograph u first, hence the name of the letter *w*).

The letter *q* always accompanied by *u* is introduced to denote either the consonant *k* or the cluster *kw – quay, quarter, queen*.

z is introduced to denote the corresponding sound in some cases *Zephyrus, zel (zeal)*.

Spelling habits affected unambiguous cases.

Long *ū* was replaced by digraph *ou*, in the French tradition: *hūs – hous, mus – mous, ūt – out*; it was found in French words: *trouble, couch*; in final position, and occasionally in medial it was *ow: hū – how; cū – cow, dūn – down*.

In some cases the sound *u* came to be represented by *o*, especially when it stood neighbouring the letters with many vertical lines *lufu – loue; cumen – comen* etc.

Long sound *ō* is now rendered by *oo: fōt, toð – foot, tooth.*

Long Old English *ē* was marked either by a digraph *ee* or by *simple e*, and *mute e* was added at the end of the word: *mētan – mete, meete (to meet) in turned into ie; field – field; ðēof – thef – thief (like French chief, relief).*

The consonant *ð* gave way to digraph *th = ðæt, ðū, ðreo = that, thou, three.*

The sibilant [*tʃ*] formerly rendered by *c* before or after front vowels was replaced by a digraph *ch: cild, cēosan, hwilc —> child, chesen,* which (the same sound was found in the words *chambre, chair,* taken from French);

The sound [*dʒ*] of various origin is marked by the letters *j, g, dg – courage, joy, bridge.*

The sound [ʃ], formerly rendered by sc is rendered by the combinations sh and *sch: scip, fisc, sceal —> ship, fish, schal.*

The sound [*k*] formerly *c* before consonants is rendered by *k – cnawan – knowen; cniht – knight.*

Middle English Phonology

For various reasons nobody knows what the primary and what the secondary reason of the most fundamental changes in Middle English language structure were, the first change in the phonological system to be mentioned is the levelling of sounds – vowels in the unstressed syllables. As we know, Old English had a fixed stress on the first syllable. So not only the final, but also middle sounds in polysyllabic words tend to change various sounds to one neutral sound shwa [ə] marked as *e.* In Old English at the end of the words we might find whatever sound: *cara, cam, car*e – now all the forms merged into one care; in this way we may say that the paradigm was simplified; at the same time in verbs various endings also merged into a single sound form – *wrītan, writen, writon – writen; wrītað, wrīteð to writeth.* Final sounds *m* and *n* are pronounced indistinctly in such forms and are also on the way to being lost altogether: *carum, stānum – care, stone.* Final *n* was either pronounced or not depending on the following sound and so we have variants in some forms (the form of the infinitive *written – write*).

In the unstressed syllables of the verb forms most frequent is the case that it was preserved in the forms of the participle, and tended to be lost in the infinitive; but

even in the participles it was lost if the root of the word already had a nasal sound (*binden – boun – bounden* – later simply bound; exceptions are possible, and in present day English we have cases of variant forms of the participles, say got – gotten (Br.-Am.); but always forgotten).

With the stressed vowels the situation was different. Here we may mention the general tendency as well as the behaviour of various individual vowels.

First of all, there were *quantitative changes* in vowels. In Old English a short or a long vowel might be found in any position; they were absolutely independent phonemic units. The Middle English vowel system was basically different. The quantity of vowels becomes dependent on the environment, on what follows the vowel. With a few exceptions the situation in Middle English is briefly this: in some phonetic environment only short vowels are possible; in the other the vowels are invariably long. Thus quantity becomes a positional characteristic of a sound.

First, a long vowel before two consonants (including a geminated consonant marking a long consonant sound) is shortened; the exception here are the clusters *mb, ld, nd* (i.e. two voiced sonorants) or when the two consonants belonged to the second syllable of the word (*mæste, læst —> most; least*).

Compare: OE *cēpan – cēpte* ME *kepen, kepe – kept*; OE *fēdan – fēdde* ME *feed – fed*.

In the 13ᵗʰ century short vowels were lengthened in the open syllables. This lengthening affected the short vowels *a, o, e. cāru – care* became similar to words formerly having short vowel: *talu – tale, u* and *i* mainly remained unaffected.

Individual vowels

The most significant change was **monophthongization of Old English diphthongs.** The sounds that appeared as a result of this process were not new to the English language – they simply coincided with the sounds that already existed in the language, in many cases returning the vowel to its previous quality, which was changed in the course of breaking, diphthongization after palatal consonants, and mutations:

short ea —» æ —» a
heard – hard; earm – arm; healf – half eall – all
short eo —> e closed (e)

heorte – herte (heart); steorfan – sterven (starve);
short ie almost invariably changed to i or e
nieht – niht (night); hierde – herde (shepherd)
Long diphthongs behaved a little differently. The changes were as follows:

ēa —> æ: —» ɛ: east – ɛ:st (east, est); dēad – dɛ:d (dead, dede)
eo —> e: dēop – deep (deep); sēon – sene, see (see)
Individual sounds

æ —> a: ðæt – that; æfter – after; fæst – fast (that æ came in Old English from common Germanic a, a kind of a pendulum-like movement of sounds is observed).

æ —> ɛ: (open): stræt – street; dæl – deal; sæ – sea.

Thus we may see that merging of sounds as a result of monophthingization of long and short diphthongs and the development of æ occurs:

   ēā, æ —> ɛ: open   **ea, æ—» (short)**

While long *eo* merged with long open *e* (found mainly in the open syllables) and short *eo* with short closed *e* (in the closed syllables).

Other important changes are:

long *ā* turned into long *ō*: stān – sto:ne (stone); hām – ho:me (home);

long and short *y* gave *i* in the north and east *u* in the west *e* in the south west:

fyllan – fillen (to fill); dyde – dide (did); brycȝ – bridge.

In some cases not only a north-eastern variant was accepted, but also southern, or western; sometimes it was reflected only in spelling:

bysiȝ – busy, business; byriȝean – burien (bury); myriȝe – mery (merry).

So, all in all, the system of vowels contained short *i, e closed, ɛ open, a, o and u which developed: i* – from Old English:

  i – hit – it   y – fyllan – fillen (to fill)   ie – ȝiefan – yiven (to give)
e – from Old English: e – helpan – helpen (to help)   eo – heorte – herte (to heart)
a – from Old English: a – abbod – abbot   a (o) — man — man æ – ðæt – that
ea – heard – hard
o – from Old English:
a (o) – lanȝ – long   o – ofer – over
u – from Old English: u – sunu – son
The origin of Old English long vowels looks like the following:
i: from Old English: ī – wrītan – written   ỹ fỹr – fire
i   before old, nd, mb: cild – child
ɛ: closed – from Old English:
ē – dēmon – deemen (to deem)   long ēo deor – deer   short e feld – field

ɛ: open from Old English: long æ   sæ – sea   long ēa   bēatan – beaten (to beat)

short e in the open syllable: mete – meat

a: could not go back to the corresponding long vowel in Old English, as it changed into open *long o:* but there was one out of a short in the open syllables:

talu – tale; nama – name

o: open resulted from Old English ā:

stān – stone; āc – oak

o: closed from Old English long ō:

dōn – doon; ʒōs – goose

short o followed by lengthening group of consonants   wolde.

New diphthongs appeared in Middle English as a result of the changes in the consonant system of the language.

The changes in consonants were as follows:

k' – [tʃ] marked by ch: cild – child; cin – chyn, chin

sk' – [ʃ] marked by sh sceal – shall; scip – ship

ʒ' – [j]   ʒear – yeer, year; dæʒ – day; ʒræʒ – grey

cʒ – [dʒ]   hrycʒ – ridge; brycʒ – bridge.

h at the beginning of the word was lost in clusters *hr; hl, hn, hw* :

hrinʒ – ring; hrycʒ – ridge; hrōf – roof; hlāf – loaf; hlysten – listen; hnutu – nut.

The sound *y* (marked by *ʒ*) in the intervocal position vocalised and turned into *w*, which led to the following diphthongs:

aʒ – aw(au): draʒan – drawen; āʒan – owen

æʒ – [ai] marked by ai, ay: dæʒ – day; læʒ – lay

eʒ – [ei] marked by ei, ey: weʒ – wey; seʒl – seil, sail.

The combinations ʒ+ vowel lead to long vowels:

iʒ, yʒ – i: tiʒele – tile; iʒel – ile (hedgehog); ryʒe – rie, rye

uʒ – u: (marked by ou, ow): fuʒol – foul (bird); buʒan – bowen.

In combination with liquids (l and r) new diphthongs appeared:

lʒ,   rʒ – lw,rw [ou] and [au]: sorʒian – sorwen, sorrow; folʒian – folwen, follow; ʒalʒe – galwe, gallows.

Phonetic Changes in the Early New English Period

The changes in the sound system of the period were significant. The process of the levelling of endings continued, there were positional and assimilative changes of short vowels, and a significant change in the whole system of long vowels, called the Great Vowel Shift. During the period the process of simplification of consonant clusters and loss of consonants in certain positions continued.

The changes were as follows:

Loss of unstressed e. The process of levelling of endings led to total disappearance of the neutral sound ə marked by letter e in the endings (it was preserved and even pronounced more distinctly like [i] only when two identical consonants were found in the root and in the endings), though in spelling the letter might be preserved: no vowel is found in *kept, slept, crossed, played; walls, pens, bones, stones* – but it is preserved in *stresses, dresses; wanted, parted; watches, judges; wicked and crooked.*

The whole syllables might be lost in the Early New English pronunciation of long words. In some words this loss was fixed in spelling, like in chapter (ME chapiter), palsy (ME parlesie), fancy (ME fantasie); some other words preserved the lost syllables in spelling, e .g. *colonel, business, medicine.*

The sound *e* before *r* changed into *a:* this change in many cases (but not always) was reflected in spelling:

ME→NE   sterre – star; herte – heart; bern – barn; sterven – starve; kerven – carve; merveil – marvel; clerc – clerk; sergant – sergeant.

Some place-names changed the pronunciation: Derby, Berkley – Berkshire, Hertford though this change is not reflected in their spelling.

It is due to this change that the alphabetic reading of the letter r [*er*] began to be pronounced as [*ar*].

Long Vowels

Beginning in the 15th century, all long vowels that existed in Middle English change their quality. This change was a fundamental one, changing the entire vocalic system, and the essence of it is as follows. **All long vowels narrowed, and the narrowest of them turned into diphthongs.** The shift resulted in the following changes:

GREAT VOWEL SHIFT

ME		NE	ME	NE
I:		ai	time [time]	time
E:		I:	kepen [ke:pen]	keep
έ:	e:	I:	street [stre:t]	street
a:		ei	maken [ma:ken]	make
o:		ou	stone [sto:n]	stone

o:	u:	moon [mo:n]	moon
u:	au	mous [mu:s]	mouse
au	o:	cause [kausze]	cause

During the shift even the names of some English letters were changed, for they contained long vowels: ME A [a:] – NE [ei], ME E [e] – NE [i:], ME O [o:] – NE [ou], ME B [be:] – NE [bi:].

Exceptions to the GVS:

1. GVS did not take place before plosives: d, θ, t, v (in nouns but not verbs) – bread, dead, breath, threat, deaf, and friend.

2. The changes e: > i: is sometimes arrested by the preceding r- – break, great.

3. In some words e: > i: but then > ai – friar (OE frere), choir (OE cwer).

4. Long vowels in the words borrowed later remained unchanged – police, machine, vase, group.

5. Before labial consonants u: remained unchanged – droop, room.

i: —> ai: time, like, rise, side
e: —> i: meet, see, keen, deep;
in borrowed words chief, receive, seize
ɛ: (e: open) —> into e: closed, then —> i: east, clean, speak, sea
a: —> ei (through the stage æ, æi): take, make, name, grave, pave, sane
ō (o: open, from Old English ā) —> ou: stone, bone, home, oak, go, moan
o: closed (from Old and Middle English ō in native words as well in the borrowings) —> u: tool, moon, stool, do, root, room
u: —> au: house, mouse, out, noun, down, how.

The intermediate stages of the development of u: were [əu] —> [æu] and finally —> [au]. Consequently, a —» æ: —> æi —> ei and i: —> ii —> ei —> æi —» ai.

The Great Vowel Shift affected all long vowels in native as well as borrowed before it words: *table and chamber, doubt and fine*, *appeal and tone* developed in full accordance with the development of the English sound system. Some borrowed words preserve [i:] or [u:] in the open syllable (routine 1670 – 1680) if they were borrowed from French in the later period; some other, though taken during this process still resisted the change and remain phonetically only partially assimilated: *police 1520-30, machine 1540-50* etc. Latin borrowings that were taken from written sources, however, usually have a vowel that was changed in the course of the shift.

The causes of the shift have not yet been clarified, as well as its direction. A push-chain hypothesis is (Luick) or drag-chain (O. Jespersen, Martinet).

The diphthongs that arose as a result of the Great Vowel Shift did not enrich the phonological system of the language; such diphthongs had already existed in Middle English. They arose in the process of vocalization of ʒ:

wey (from weʒ) had the same diphthong that appeared in wake sayde (from sæʒde) in Middle English had the sound that appeared in side, but later the diphthong developed into a short monophthong;

drawen (from draʒan) in Middle English had [au] that later appeared in the words like *house and mouse; bowe (from boʒa)* had and retained the diphthong [ou] resulting from vocalization of ʒ, now words like bone and wrote were pronounced with the same diphthong.

Nor were the long vowels [i:] and [u:] new: what sounded [i:] in time and was diphthongized into [ai], was replaced by the change [e:] and [ɛ:] —> [i:] in *see, sea field; hous yielded* [u:] to [au], but as a result of the Great Vowel Shift [u:] appeared in words like *moon and soon*.

Depending on the following consonant, *r* in particular, there were somewhat different variants of vowels that appeared in the Great Vowel Shift. If the long vowel was followed by r the following variants appeared:

are —> [eir] fare compare with fate
ear —> [ier] fear (but feat) —> [eir] bear (but beat)
eer   —> [ier] steer (but steep)
ir   —> [aier] tire (but time)
or   —> [o:r] boar (but boat)
o open—> [uer] moor (but moon)
u: —> [auer] power (but house, now).
 Short vowels were changed, too, but the changes here are not that systematic. The vowels changed depending on their environment.

Short *a* found in closed syllables generally changed into *æ*:

that; man; hat; cat; rat; pan; can; stand; back etc.

If it was preceded by the sound *w*, it remained unchanged and eventually developed into *o: war, want, was, warm, watch, wasp, water,* etc.

It was lengthened before some consonant clusters and turned into *a:* when followed by:

a + th   father, rather, bath, path;
a + ss   pass, class, grass;
a + st   cast, last, fast, disaster;
a + sk ask, mask, task, basket;
a + sp clasp, gasp, grasp, raspberry;
a + lm alms, balm, calm, palm;
a + lf calf, half, behalf;
a + nt, nd, nch etc. plant, command, branch;
a + ft after craft, daft.

This change is not found in the American variant, where the sound *a* changed into *æ*.

When the same sound was followed by 1 + consonant (other that m and n) it turned into long *o: all, call, talk, walk, stalk*.

The exceptions from the general rule are: *cant, scant, pant, grand* where it turned into *æ; gaunt, haunt* where the sound *o:* appeared; in the words like *change, strange* it turned into *ei*, and the syllable became open by adding *mute e.*

The *sound r* changed its quality, turning from backlingual into uvular and was vocalized after vowels; that resulted in lengthening of the preceding vowels in combinations *ir, ur, or, er* turning them into *ə:*

fir, sir, dirt, firm, skirt, first, thirst;
fur, curt, curtain, burn, hurt, burst, turn;
worm, word, world, worse, worth, heard, learn;
herd, certain, person.

Alongside qualitative changes of vowels, some changes in the length of the vowel were observed:

u: was shortened and turned into [u] before k: *book, cook, hook, took, brook*;
before d and t: *food, good, stood, hood, foot, soot.*
There are exceptions to this: *mood, rood, loot, root.*

Short turned into [ʌ]; here we may find the words that had this sound in Old English as well as the words that acquired long u: from long o: in the course of the Great Vowel shift, but then were shortened before *t/d: come, sum, son, up, love, cut, rubber, utter, blood, flood*.

In many cases this change did not take place when *u* was preceded by a labial consonant: *push, put, bull, bullet, butcher, pudding*.

The cases when in such position the sound also turned into [ʌ], however, are numerous: *bulb, buckle, buckwheat, buddy, budge, pulp, pulse, but, pub, puddle, puff, pumpkin.*

The Changes in the Early New English Consonants

In many cases the change is resulted in *the loss of consonants* in certain positions.

The sound *l* is lost in combinations before *k, m, f, v*:

talk, walk, stalk, folk, chalk, palm, calm, qualm, psalm (but not in helm, elm), half, calf (but wolf elf), halves (but silver).

Some of these words, however, preserve the sound in the American variant of the English language.

The sound *l* was preserved in the words of Latin origin such as *resolve, dissolve* etc.

It was also lost after a vowel before *d* in *should, could, would*.

The sound *b* was dropped in combination mb when at the end of the word and not followed by another consonant: *lamb, climb, tomb, comb, numb, bomb*;

n – in combination *mn autumn, solemn, column;*

t – in combinations *stl, stn, fin, stm and ktl – castle, whistle – thistle, fasten, listen, glisten, often, soften, Christmas, postman, exactly; directly k – in combination skl – muscle.*

The consonants were lost in such initial clusters: *g* and *k in gn, kn*:

knight, knee, know, knave, knack, knock, knead, knife, gnat, gnaw, gnarl, gnome;

w before a consonant (mainly r) was lost at the beginning of the words:

wreath, write, wrong, wreck, wrestle, wretched, wring, wrinkle, wrist

and in unstressed syllables after a consonant in such words as *answer, conquer, chequer, laquer, Southwark, Berwick, Chiswick Greenwich, Norwich, Warwick* and also in such words as *sword, two, towards*.

The sound *h* disappeared in many unstressed syllables (save for American variant of the language where in some cases it is preserved) – *forehead, shepherd, perhaps, Chatham, Nottingham, Birmingham, Brougham [bru:m]*.

Qualitative change of consonants is illustrated by voicing of fricatives (when the preceding vowel was unstressed):

s —> z: *dessert, resemble, possess, dissolve, example, exhibit, anxiety, luxurious* (in the words luxury, anxious and exhibition, where the preceding vowel is stressed, at least has a secondary stress, they are not voiced);

f—> v: of (but adverb off is usually stressed, and the sound is not voiced)

tʃ —> dʒ: *knowledge, Greenwich, Norwich.*

Some sounds, mainly in the borrowed words merged with the preceding consonant forming a sibilant:

sj, tj – *Asia, Russia, pension, session, musician, issue, mission, motion, notion, mention, ambition*;

zj – ʒ: *division, collision, provision, measure, pleasure, treasure;*

tj – tʃ: *question, nature, fortune, creature, feature, culture, mixture*;

dj – dʒ: *soldier, procedure, verdure.*

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 69 – 78.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. Р. 184 – 188, 190-200.

Questions for Self-control

1. Qualitative changes of long and short vowels in Middle English.
2. Quantitative changes of vowels in Middle English: lengthening and shortening.
3. Consonant changes in Middle English. The rise of sibilants and affricates.
4. What changes did the unstressed vowels undergo in Middle English? How did it affect the grammatical endings?
5. The Great Vowel Shift and its effect on Modern English.
6. What changes did the unstressed vowels undergo in New English? How did it affect the grammatical and syntactical structure of English?
7. New English spelling. Principal ways of indicating the sounds in Modern English.
8. What digraphs are used in New English? Give examples and explain their pronunciation.

Practice Section

1. Explain the absence of diphtongazation in words *room (OE rum), stoop (OE stupian), tomb (ME tumb), droop* if in the XV century it was pronounced [u:] which usually sounds [au].

2. Explain the absence of vowel shift in words *redeem (Fr redimer), esteem (Fr estimer), canteen (Fr cantine), breeze (Sp brisa), genteel (Fr gentil), shagreen (Fr chagrin)*, and also in the words *tour, routine, rouge, soup, machine*.
3. Explain the diferrence in pronunciation of vowels with the same spelling in Modern English: 1) *dread, bread, head*; 2) *speak, feat, meat, beam, to read, to lead.*
4. Explain the pronunciation of -[tʃ] and [dʒ] in the words *ostrich, Norwich.*
5. Explain what phonetic process is reflected in informal pronunciation of the following words: duke [dʒu:k], tune [tʃu:ne], dew [dʒu:], assume [a'ʃu:m], pursue [pə:'ʃju:]?

Middle English and New English Morphology

Historical Grammar. Changes in the Nominal System in ME and ENE. The Noun in ME and ENE. The Verb. The changes in various classes of the Middle English verb. The categories of the Middle English verb. The verb in Early New English. The categories of the New English verb.

The changes in morphology are closely related to changes in the sound system. As the inflections in all parts of speech were placed at the end of the word, they invariably were pronounced in a reduced form and disappeared altogether. So the paradigms of all parts of speech were to great extent *simplified,* and *many forms were lost altogether.* The changes in the nominal system were the most significant.

Middle English Noun

Old English complex classification of nouns was based on differences in declension, in endings that were added to them in various forms; as the endings were levelled, the grounds for distinguishing the very classes become insignificant.

The category of gender was lost; and the loss was total, with no remnants in any of the nominal parts of speech (personal pronouns are not counted, because *he* and *she* replace living beings, and to some extent have the very meaning of gender).

The category of number was preserved; it had grounds. What were the possible endings of all the classes of nouns? If we have a look into the Old English nominal paradigms, we'll see that the plural endings originally were: *-as (of the a-stems masculine, r-stems masculine); 0 (a-stems neuter, some r-stems); -u (neuter a-stems, i-stems, -s stems, some r-stems); -a (o-stems, u-stems); -e (masculine i-stems, some root stems); -an (n-stems).*

Due to the reduction of the unstressed vowels all these came to *-es to -e or to -en.*

So finally we have *-es* (for the majority of nouns, which becomes the rule), -en, which becomes a competing ending, and a group of conservative nouns retain the vowel interchange. Ending *-es* was invariably added to form the plural form of numerous borrowings, both from French and from Scandinavian origin (two felawes, the chambres and the stables; fresshe floures).

Several nouns (former belonging to root stems) however retain their Old English plural with the mutated vowel (such as *man – menn, foot – feet, goose – geese* etc.) – these were more frequently used than those that changed their ending to *-es (book – bookes, ook (oak) – ookes).* Some former *-n-stems* still retain their suffix as a marker of the plural form. So in G.Chaucer's works we find the following plurals (here and later on the examples are given from his Canterbury Tales):

e.g. *Thou seist, that oxen, asses, hors, and houndes...*

to looken up with eyen lighte (to look up with light eyes).

The nouns naming some domestic animals (former *-a- stems* neuter gender with long root vowel) such as *sheep, swyn, hors* retained their old uninflected plurals. The plural of child developed in a unique way – it retained its suffix of the former *-s-stems* (it was *-r-* through rhotacism) and additionally got the *-en* suffix – children.

The number of cases was reduced from Old English four to two, the Nominative and the Genitive. In Old English the nouns in the Genitive case had the following endings in the singular: *-es (a-stems and masculine and neuter nouns from other groups); -e (o-stems, i-stems, root-stems); 0 - (r – stems); -a (u-stems); -an (n-stems).*

The ending *-es of the a-stems* nouns, which were the most numerous group, becomes predominant; it irradiates not only to the singular but also to the plural. So all the other groups of nouns now take this ending in the Genitive. The very nature of the Genitive case is almost unchanged, it has the same functions as that of the Old English noun, and practically all nouns can be used in this form. The plural of nouns was formed by adding the same ending, so in the long run it began to be perceived as the ending rendering both meanings. Several nouns that had other plural endings took

this ending after their own ending of the plural. So, in Middle English only some nouns have a distinct paradigm of four forms:

man – men; mannes – mennes; nama – namen; names – (namene) names.

In other cases the context resolved the ambiguity:

e.g. *he hadde a fyr-reed cherubynnes face*

at the kynges court (at the king's court).

The Article

A new part of speech appears **the article**. Even in Old English, when the case endings were scarce, and in some groups of nouns there were no longer distinctive markers of this or that case (for instance *suna* was the form of the Genitive and the Dative in Singular, and Nominative, Genitive and Accusative in the Plural), *the demonstrative pronoun ðæt*, helped to show case distinctions. So the Genitive Singular was *ðæs suna*, Dative Singular *ðæm suna*, Nominative Plural *ða suna*, Genitive Plural *ðara suna*, and Accusative Plural *ðone suna*. In fact, the pronoun was the real marker of the case of the noun. *This probably led to overuse of the demonstrative pronouns in Old English, and to weakening of their deictic function.* In Middle English this weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun which signaled only the definiteness of the noun, that is such as was already known or was mentioned before, was supplemented by the weakened form of the numeral *an (one)* and now was used to render the meaning of indefiniteness, a person or thing unknown or unmentioned. This part of speech contains only two words – the from reduced *ðata and an, a from the numeral an.*

Thus, *in ME an indefinite article arose*. As in many other languages, it had origin in the numeral *ān "one"*. First signs of such development were already seen in OE. Then long *ā* in unstressed position was shortened and there appeared an unstressed variant *an*.

So, the traditional view was that *the definite article appears in OE while the indefinite one appears in ME*. In OE, an article appeared when the meaning of the demonstrative pronoun was weakened. The development of the demonstrative pronouns *sē, sēo, þæt* led to the formation of the definite article. This development is

associated with a change in form and meaning. In OE texts the pronouns *sē, sēo, þæt* were frequently used as noun-determiners with a weakened meaning, approaching that of the modern definite article.

In the course of ME there arose an important formal difference between the demonstrative pronoun and the definite article as a demonstrative pronoun that preserved number distinctions whereas as a definite article – usually in the weakened form the [θə] it was uninfected. The meaning and functions of the definite article became more specific when it came to be opposed to the indefinite article, which had developed from the OE numeral and indefinite *pronoun an.* The development of the definite article is usually connected with the changes in declension of adjectives, namely with the loss of distinctions between the strong and weak forms.

Noun in Early New English

The noun paradigm looks very much the same as we have it today. Having lost the category of gender and much of its case forms it has the genitive case as opposed to nominative. The number of nouns taking it is reduced mainly to those denoting living beings. In fact, we may call it possessive, because it is used now mainly in the function of attribute denoting possession. However, some nouns other than those denoting persons may still take it in the 17[th] century:

e.g. *I do not set my life in a pin's fee (Hamlet);*

Truly, and I hold ambition of so airy and light a quality that it is but a shadow's shadow (ibid).

At the same time **the unification of plural endings** takes place, and former relics of *-en* disappear, giving way to *-es.* So, the general rule of formation of the plural of the noun is enriched by archaic forms (like *geese, feet, children* etc.) – we call them grammatical archaisms; some words borrowed from Latin and used mainly in scientific texts retain their Latin plurals and may be called *grammatical barbarisms: datum – data (1640-50), radius – radii (1590-1600), formula – formulae (1575-85), axis – axes (1540-50).* Some of these, however tend to comply with the general rule, and forms like *radiuses, formulas* very soon become quite common.

Various scholars note, that an interesting variation appears in the treatment of abstract nouns, which in Modern English have no plural, except by way of personification.

Whereas **the apostrophe** as a sign denoting the possessive case of a noun appeared only about **1680**, and its use to mark the possessive case in plural in **1789**, the nouns in the genitive case and in the plural have homonymic endings, and only the context resolves ambiguity. We may note numerous instances of the use of apostrophe in W.Shakespeare's plays, but there they show only the omission of e or some other sounds – that is purely a phonetic sign. So, for instance in the case of sentences like: e.g. *The trumpets sounds (Hamlet)*

which may be perceived differently. The form *trumpets* may be simple plural, possessive singular and possessive plural. The context shows that this is a nominative sentence, *trumpets* is the attribute, and *the trumpet* is the only musical instrument in the situation. Hence, we may say that it is the genitive singular form of the noun.

*Of-phr*ase (the noun with the preposition of) replaces the former genitive case, but in W. Shakespeare's plays they may go together, as in the following:

e.g. *The pangs of despised love, the law's delay (Hamlet).*

Middle English Verb

All types of verbs existing in Old English – *strong, weak, preterite-present and irregular* were preserved in Middle English. In each type we find changes due to phonetic developments of this period, but the proportional value of the weak ones is greater and continues to grow, and a tendency is already traced – that is, some of the former strong verbs are drifting in the direction of the weak ones. The drift was not a comprehensive one; there was even a reverse process, some of the former weak ones became strong.

The Old English prefix *ʒe-* reduced to *y-*. Now it is mostly found in the second participle (in the Southern dialects). In most dialects it disappeared by the 14[th] c., yet in G. Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" we may find a considerable number of such uses.

Non-finite forms which in Old English comprised the infinitive and the two participles have changed in the direction from the nominal to verbal parts of speech.

They are no longer declined, nor are they agreed with the nouns; gradually new verbal categories penetrate into their system, and nowadays we speak about the analytical forms of the non-finite forms (passive infinitive, perfect infinitive etc.)

*A new non-finite form of the verb arises – **the gerund**.*

The infinitive loses the category of case and acquires a pre-infinitival particle to. It may still be used with what remained of the infinitival suffix (-an, -ian —> -en, -n) – *to goon, to writen, to spenden, to make*n – but the tendency to lose the final consonant is strong, and we find in G. Chaucer's works to seke alongside with to seken, to do with to doon, to make with to maken. This particle is not used when the infinitive stands after other (preterite-present in particular) verbs:

e.g. *Wel coude he singe and pleyen on rote...*

Participle I, having an active meaning and expressing a process of doing something, in Middle English changes its shape. Its suffix *-ende* turns into *-inde* and finally *-ynge/-inge* due to the processes of weakening of the final sounds and through intermixture with other dialectal forms. In the Old English there existed the form of the verbal noun with the suffix *-ung (liornunge – learning)* which also was shifting toward less distinct form *-ynge/-inge*.

Originally, the verbal noun was derived from transitive verbs, took an object in the genitive case (which in our times is replaced by of-phrase). But when phonetically it coincided with the participle, it began to behave more freely, now and again taking the direct object. So from the verbal noun without an article but with a direct object we have a grammatical innovation – *the Gerund.*

The number of gerunds in G. Chaucer's works is not very significant; yet its versatility, the fact that it could be used with various prepositions makes it still more vague. *It is said that true gerunds (unambiguous) were found only 6 times in G. Chaucer's works – or were those just grammar mistakes?*

Participles II in Middle English – those of strong verbs and those of the weak ones continue to be used with the prefix *y-* (reduced *ʒe-*); but this is not universal, and they are sure to lose it in Early Modern English.

The changes in various classes of the Middle English Verb

The changes in strong verbs are as follows:

The number of the basic forms of the verb remained the same (four), but due to the reduction of endings and the fact that the length of the vowel became positional the form of the present participle of some verbs coincided with the form of the past plural, that is that here too we may find homonymy of forms

class I	written – wrot – written – writen;
class II	chesen – chies – chosen – chosen;
class III	drinken – drank – drunken – dronken;
	helpen – halp – holpen – holpen;
class IV	beren – bar – beren/bar – boren;
class V	geten – gat – geten/gat – geten;
class VI	shaken – shok – shoken – shaken;
class VII	knowen – knew – knewen – knowen.

Some of the strong verbs may take the dental suffix for formation of their past form, thus becoming weak (*gripen, crepen, cleven, wepen, spelen, walken, dreden, reden*):

e.g. *He slepte namoore than dooth a nyghtyngale.*

Weak verbs

The number of weak verbs grows significantly in Middle English, because practically all borrowed verbs and new verbs derived from other parts of speech become weak.

The changes in the weak verbs were mainly phonetical. Some of them lost the sound *-i-* in the suffix in the infinitive: *lufian – louen*; class II lost its specific *-ode* ending due to the levelling of endings and turned into *–ed*; class III retained only the verbs seȝȝen, libben, habben – seien, liven haven.

Most Scandinavian borrowings are conjugated according to the weak type: *callen, wanten, guessen* (except *take, thriven and flingen* which have vowel interchange in the past tense and in the participle – probably due to their own origin and similarity in formation of the forms joined correspondingly class VI, I, and III of the strong verbs). *All the verbs of the French origin* (with the exception of striven that joined class I of the strong verbs), became weak (we call them now regular).

In the group of *preterite-present verbs ȝeneah* lost its status of a verb and turned into an adverb *ynough (enough):* (he drank ynough biforn); the other just

simplified their paradigms, some forms were lost (the form of the 2nd person of present singular with the verbs *dowen, unnen*, where the infinite was also lost), munen, etc. The verb *kan/koude* might be used as <u>a modal verb</u>, accompanied with an infinitive, and may be used in its primary original meaning to know:

e.g. *Of woodecraft wel koude he al the usage*.

Shall/sholde alongside with its modal meaning is widely used as an auxiliary of the future tense, future-in-the-past and as auxiliaries of the new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood.

Motan gradually loses the meaning of ability and possibility which is occasionally expressed by its present tense form moot, and is more and more used to express obligation; the past tense form moste was used only in this latter meaning:

e.g. *Who sorweth now but woful Palamoun, that moot namoore goon agayn to fighte?*

In the paradigm of the preterite-present verbs second person ending -est, the plural ending -en may be retained, but the tendency is not to use personal endings:

e.g. *"Help, for thou mayst best of alle!"*

I grante thee lyf, if thou kanst tellen me

What thyng is it that wommen moost desiren.

Ben and goon remained suppletive, *goon* having acquired another stem (went) for the past tense, which finally supplanted the other one (eode).

The Categories of the Middle English Verb

During this period there appear analytical forms of the verb. In Old English the only ways to make the forms of the verb were suffixes/vowel interchange/using another stem + inflections; in Middle English there arise the forms now very common in Present-day English but absent in Old English.

One cannot say that there were no prerequisites to them in Old English – but in Old English these had the status of phrases with grammatical meaning, they did not have the qualities of a true analytical form.

An analytical form must have a stable structural pattern different from the patterns of verb phrases; it must consist of an auxiliary (which itself might stand in an

analytical form) and a non-finite form of the verb, which remains unchanged. Its meaning is not reduced to the sum total of the components.

The Tense

In present day English the temporal paradigm of the verb contains two synthetic and one analytical form. This means that this form was absent in Old English, and this form is the Future tense.

Future time relevance was rendered by various supporting elements in the text; so in the adverbial clauses of time and condition it was self-evident, that with the insertion of a marker in the principal clause the action of the subordinate would invariably refer to the future as well. The use of such verbs as *shall/ will* referred the action to the future as such which was desirable but not yet realized, or obligatory. In Middle English these become the true auxiliaries for the future tense. Chaucer uses them freely:

e.g. *I shal telle yow bitwix us two (I shall tell you between the two of us).*

The same auxiliary was also used in the already appearing analytical forms of future in the past:

e.g. *For shortly this was his opinioun, that in that grove he wolde hym hyde al day.*

The Present and the Past Perfect equally came into the Middle English, both using as auxiliary the verb *to haven in the Present or the past tense + Participle II (with or without a prefix)*:

e.g. *Aprille hath perced to the rote... (April has pierced to the root...).*

hem hath holpen... (has helped them).

Non-finite form of the verb, the infinitive, acquired this grammatical category too. Perfect infinitives are common in Chaucer's times, mainly as part of new analytical forms of the Subjunctive Mood:

e.g. *And certes, if it nere to long to heere,*

I wolde have toold yow fully the manere…

The passive voice expressed by the combination *ben + PII* expressing a state as well as an action is widely used in Middle English. Unlike Old English where the form of the participle agreed in number with the subject of the sentence (*ðæt*

arcebiscop wæsʒje-martyrod /wæronʒemartyrode), in Middle English, where still the ending of the plural adjectives and participles was preserved in the Participle II, the lexical part of the analytical form is utterly unchangeable:

e.g. *al that is writen. is writen for oure doctrine*.

The category of voice was expressed also in the non-finite forms of the verb – passive infinitives are rather common in this period:

e.g. *This tresor moste ycaried be by nyghte, as wisely and as slyly as it myghte.*

The future, the perfect and the passive form reflected different aspects of the action, and as soon as they came into the language they all could be used simultaneously, that is perfect forms might be used in active or passive voice, present as well as the future tense.

The problem of aspect is a disputable one. The prefix ʒe-, which rendered some aspective meanings now was falling into disuse, and was actually limited to the participle of the verb. A new form – *the continuous was rising*, but in Middle English it was considered an ungrammatical form of the verb, and it was not allowed into the good literary English (of the type of Russians я поемши, не спамши – it is well understood by native speakers but surely not to be used by educated people and in written Russian). It might contain even a French participle (was evene joynant to gardin wal) – the number of such structures was really insignificant and they might be considered lexical collocations rather than the beginnings of the continuous forms.

e.g. *Svnginge he was or floytinge all the day.*

The category of mood retains the former subdivision into the indicative, the imperative and the subjunctive. While there is nothing new or nothing special about the indicative and the imperative mood – the first represented the action as real, the second expressed commands, requests etc., the forms of the subjunctive mood had some specificity.

The Verb in Early New English

As the majority of new grammatical categories were already formed in Middle English, in Early New English they become more specialized in meaning.

The loss of endings greatly simplified the verbal paradigm. There were no longer endings marking the 1st person singular, plural present indicative, and the infinitival suffix *-an —> en —> e* was also lost. Personal ending of the third person singular in the present tense *-th* is replaced by *-s; hath —> has; thinketh —> thinks*. However, the old ending may still be found in Shakespeare's works, and there is practically no difference between two forms (probably, to some extent the old form makes the speech more elevated and official):

e.g. *What early tongue so sweet saluteth me? (Romeo and Juliet)*

The traditional classification of strong and weak verbs gives way to division into regular and irregular, with a pronounced tendency within the classes of the strong verbs to turn into weak ones, regular or irregular, but nevertheless forming their past tense and Participle II by a dental suffix *-d or -t*. Somewhat apart are treated modal verbs, formerly preterite-present, that are stripped of their paradigmatic forms and are later referred to as defective.

Regular verbs

As class II of the former weak verbs was the most productive and served as the basis for the rules of formation of the past tense and Participle II, the majority of former verbs belonging to this class remain regular: *love, look, ask, mark, prick, prove* etc. Some, however, somewhat changed and are now irregular make – made (formerly maked).

The verbs that are derived from other parts of speech are all regular and form their past tense and Participle II by adding *-ed* suffix now perceived as the ending.

e.g. *He hath out-villained villany so far, that the rarity redeems him.*

All borrowed verbs form their past tense in the same way, and so they are regular.

Many traditionally strong verbs show the tendency to change their former past tense forms to a more productive and more widespread way of formation of past with the same ending, though they retain their Participle II form in *-en*.

The tendency was so strong that some verbs became regular, though further development of the language brought them back into the group of Irregular:

e.g. *My fear hath catch 'd your fondness (All's well).*

Some of these verbs form their past tense forms and participles differently – the past tense by adding *-ed*, Participle II by means of adding the suffix -en to the stem of the infinitive.

melt – melted – melted (molten) shave – shaved – shaved (shaven)
show – showed – shown (showed).

Irregular verbs include those former strong verbs that preserved the vowel interchange in the root. Here belong both those that form their participle with the help of the suffix -n, and those that lost the suffix altogether:

write – wrote – written   rise – rose – risen

Many regular weak verbs of the I class where phonetic processes of assimilation of consonants led to the change of the suffix to -t, shortening of the vowels in front of two consonants caused the difference in sounds of the infinitive and the two other forms (the first long vowel was changed in the course of the Great Vowel Shift, the others remain unchanged):

feel – felt – felt   meet – met – met

Those verbs of the I class of the weak verbs which were irregular in Old and Middle English remain irregular:

tell – told – told   sell – sold – sold

The verbs that were always irregular and stood apart from all the classification to do and to go did not change and also belong to the irregular: *do – did – done   go – went – gone,* to say nothing of the verb to be that being irregular in its basic forms *be – was – been* retained the forms of the 1st person in present singular and number in the past tense.

Modal Verbs

The changes in preterite-present are significant. Some verbs are lost altogether (*dowen, unnen, thurven, munnen*). The rest lost the greater part of their paradigms and turned into a group of modal (defective) verbs. Unlike the former preterite-present verbs, these are no longer autonomous and cannot be used without a complement. Now they are always used as modal auxiliaries with the infinitive

without the particle to. In W.Shakespeare's time, however, there were some exceptions – at least some of them still retain the former semantics.

The verb *can/could* still takes the personal ending of the second person, but no ending is observed in the third person singular. Could / may be used to mean past indicative or the present Subjunctive:

e.g. *Canst thou remember*

A time before we came unto this cell? (Titus Andronicus).

May/might, like can takes the personal ending only in the 2nd person singular; both forms are frequently used with the meaning of subjunctive (or present conditional):

e.g. *...you may buy land now as cheap as stinking mackerel. (King Henry IV).*

The preterite-present verb owen split into two – a regular verb owe (past tense owed) with the meaning "to possess" or "to be in debt to"; its past tense ought acquired its present-day meaning of duty or moral obligation or probability or natural consequence.

Shall/should are used as modals; *shall* also as auxiliaries of the future and future-in-the-past tense:

e.g. *VOLUMN1A   Indeed, you shall not. (Coriolan). ...whatsoever 1 did bid thee do, Thou shouldst attempt it. (Julius Caesar).*

The most significant change underwent the verb mot, moste – it retained only the form of the past tense that now has no relevance to the past, and its original meaning of ability shifted to present-day meaning of obligation.

e.g. *How malicious is my fortune that I must repent to be just! (King Lear).*

...all that lives must die, passing through nature to eternity (Hamlet).

In Early New English the uses of must are often associated with the use of the adverb needs, rendering the meaning of necessity – necessarily, etc.

The verb *will/would*, formally anomalous, now approaches the modals.

The number of basic forms of the former strong is reduced to three: that of the infinitive, past tense and Participle II.

The non-finite forms of the verb – the infinitive, the participle and the gerund developed the set of forms and can hardly be called now the nominal parts of speech.

Passive and perfect infinitives, passive and perfect gerund, present participle in the passive voice and perfect participle in the active and the passive voice fully represent new verbal grammatical categories:

> e.g. *I am to blame to be thus waited for. (Julius Caesar), (passive) My purpose was not to have seen you here (Merchant of Venice) (perfect).*

The Gerund that originated and was occasionally used in Middle English becomes quite common; the use of this form does not differ from the present-day practice: e.g. *You know the cause, air, of my standing here.*

The Categories of the Early New English Verb

The categories of the Early New English remain basically the same: tense, voice, time correlation (perfect), mood. The categories of number and person are less distinct and expressed in the personal ending of the 3rd person singular in the present tense active voice and in the passive voice, as the verb to be retains its 1st person singular and two number forms in the past.

All forms of the perfect tenses are abundantly used in Early New English. Occasionally the perfect tenses of the intransitive verbs are formed with the auxiliary to be but the forms with the auxiliary have are also found:

> e.g. *O, are you come, Iago? you have done well (Othello).*
>
> *I am gone, though I am here (Much Ado About Nothing).*

The moods of the Early New English period are the same as they were in the Middle English – the Indicative, the Imperative and Subjunctive.

The newly arisen analytical forms of the Subjunctive (now in some grammars they are called the Conditional, the Suppositional and Subjunctive II Past) have not yet the present-day differentiation as to the rules of the structural limitation of their use.

The continuous aspect, the first instances of which were used in Middle English is occasionally used in the texts of this period, though not as a system (in a typical situation in which this form is used now, to denote the action that takes place at the moment of speech it is not used by Shakespeare):

> e.g. *[Enter HAMLET, reading]*

POLONIUS ...What do you read, my lord?

HAMLET   Words, words, words. (Hamlet).

In other cases, however, we may see it, yet it becomes recognized as correct and included into the norm much later, in the XVI-XVII century. Still, what is the grammatical status of such structures (italicized here) as:

e.g. *What's he that now is going out of door? (Romeo and Juliet).*

They are coming to the play; I must be idle:

Get you a place. (Hamlet).

Recommended Literature

1. Студенець Г.І. Навчальний посібник з історії англійської мови «Історія англійської мови в таблицях». Київ, 1998. С. 79 – 85, 102 – 106.
2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 220 – 294.

Questions for Self-control

1. Simplification of the case system and types of declension in Middle English.
2. Rise of the article.
3. Account for the loss of inflexions in English nouns, speak about the remaining inflections.
4. Development of analytical forms and new grammatical categories in Middle English.
5. Mention some verbs that, being originally preterites, have come to be used as presents, and account for their usage.
6. What is the origin of the Modern English plural ending "es" and the genitive ending "s" in: lessons, mother's?
7. Development of analytical forms and new grammatical categories in Early New English.
8. Origin of the main groups of standard and non-standard verb-forms.
9. What traces of the Old English n-stem and root-stem declensions can we find in New English plural forms of nouns?
10. Say if the modern division of the verb into regular and irregular corresponds to the Old English division into strong and weak, give examples to confirm your answers.

Practice Section

1.   Is it possible to see the certain gender link between the italised words in OE and their differention according the gender in W.Shakespear's works?
   • I tell the day, to please him thou art bright. (Sonnet 28)
   • Time is a very bankrupt, and owes more than he's worth to season. (Comedy of Errors, IV, 2, 58)

- And none of you will bid the winter come,
  To thrust his icy fingers in my maw … (King John, V, 7, 36)
- You took the moon at full, but now she's changed. (Love's Labour's Lost, V, 2, 201)
- My heart doth plead that thou in him dost lie … (Sonnet 46)
- … how brief the life of man
  Runs his erring pilgrimage … (As You Like It, III, 2, 119).
2. In the sentences below point out the features which show the involvement of –ing into the system of verbal categories:
- … being burnt i' the hand for stealing of sheep. (Shakesp., King Henry VI, B, IV, 2 , 69)
- Take him þe kepyng þe coroune of Jerusalem. (Robert Mannyng, Chronicle)
- Ʒif he fayle of takynge his praye, it is an evylle sign. (Maundev.)
3. Define the form and the function of the infinitive in the following sentences:
- Us is to witenne …
- Ic ʒeteohode min lif to ʒendiʒenne.
- Do hit us to witanne …
- Nu is tima us of slape to arisenne.

Development of the English Vocabulary

Old English Vocabulary. Etymological Composition. Lexical borrowings in Old English. Word-building in Old English. Middle English and Early New English Vocabulary.

Old English Vocabulary. Etymological composition.

The full extent of the Old English vocabulary is not known to present-day scholars. There is no doubt that there existed more words in it. Surely, some Old English words were lost altogether with the texts that perished; some might not have been used in written texts as they belonged to some spheres of human life which were not of great interest (some colloquial words, for instance).

Modern estimates of the total vocabulary (recorded and preserved in written documents) range from 30 000 words (some even say 100 000 – Smirnitsky).

It is mainly homogeneous. Loan words are fairly insignificant, and are grouped around some specific spheres of life.

Native words, in their turn can be subdivided into: *Common Indo-European words*, which were inherited from the common Indo-European language. They

belong to the oldest layer and denote the names of natural phenomena, plants and animals, agricultural terms, names of parts of the human body, terms of kinship; verbs belonging to this layer denote the basic activities of Old English man, adjectives indicate the basic qualities; personal and demonstrative pronouns and most numerals are of this origin too.

These have illustrated the shift of sounds according to Grimm's law: *fæder (father), modor (mother), brōðor (brother), sweostor (sister); etan (to eat), sittan (to sit), slepan (to sleep), beran (to bear), cnāwan (to know), wītan (to know); ceald (cold), cwēne (woman), dōr (door), stān (stone), wæter (water), fōt (foot), heorte (heart).*

Some contained more stable sounds and in common Germanic were closer to their Indo-European counterparts. They changed only in the course of the Old English assimilative changes: *sunn (son), sunne (sun), eann (arm), neowe (new), ʒeonʒ (young), meolc (milk), mūs (mouse), nosu (nose), ryʒe (rye; comp. Rus. рожь), snāw (snow).*

These words belong to the sphere of everyday life, and denote vital objects, qualities, and actions. Other words of common Indo-European origin are *dæl (part), dæʒ (day), eaʒe (Got. Augo – Lat. oculus), fisc (fish), fōda (food; Lat. Panis – bread), ford (ford; Greek poros – a ferry), freond (friend; comp. Ukr. приятель), fyr (fire; Greek pyr; in Ukr. піротехніка), ʒiest (host – guest), ʒeoc (yoke), ʒuma (man, human, Lat. homo), heorte (heart), hocyht (коготь) (hook), meolc (milk), medu (mead), nama (name), swehur (father-in-law), swln (swine, pig), ðorn (thorn; Ukr. терен), becitan (beat), beran (bear), brecan (fragment), fæstan (fast), flēotan (float), hælan (to heal), licʒan (lie), sittan (sit), standan (stand), weorcan (work), wītan (know), willan (will); feor (far; Lat. porro, Greek peri, perimeter), full (full), heard (hard), maniʒ (many), mere (sea), mōna (moon), beard (beard), lippa (lip; Lat. labium, Rus. улыбка), trēow (tree).*

The majority of pronouns and numerals also spring mainly from the same source: *twā (two), ðreo (three), fíf (five), eahta (eight), tien (ten); ic (I), ðu (thou), mē (me), ðæt (that), hwā (who; Lat. quis), hwast (what; Lat. quod).*

Common Germanic words are the words than can be found in all Germanic languages, old and new, eastern, western and northern. Here belong such words, for instance, as *eorðe (earth – Goth, airða, OHG erda, OSax ertha, Olcel jorð, Mn Germ. Erde); ӡrēne (green – OHG gruoni, OSax groni, OFr grene, OScand groene, Mn Germ grün); heall (hall – OHG, OSax halla, Olcel holl, Mn Germ. Halle); hors (horse – OHG hros, OSax hros, OFr liars, hros, OScand hros, Mn (Germ Ross); hand (hand – Goth handus, OHG hant, OSax hand, OFr hand, bond, Mn (Germ Hand); hlēapan (leap – Goth hlaupan, OHG hloufan, OSax hlopan, OScand hlaupa, OFr hlapa, Mn Germ laufen); land (land – Goth land, OHG lant, OSax OFr, OScand land; Mn Germ land); lang (long – Goth laggs, OHG lang, OSax, OFr lang, OScand langr, Mn (Germ lang); sand (sand – OHG sunt, OSax, OFr sand, Olcel sandr Mn Germ Sand); smæl (small – Goth smals,OHG smal, OFr smel, OScand smalr, Mn Germ schmal – narrow); wicu (week – Goth wiko, OHG wehha, wohha, Olcel vika, OSax wica, ()Fr wike, Mn Germ Voche).*

Some linguists tend to treat common West-Germanic words separately, but mainly they are not so numerous. For instance, *sprecan (to speak)* is found also in OHG and Dutch (sprechen); *wermod (wormwood)* – OHG werimuota (wermouth).

Finally, hypothetically there are *specifically Old English words* that are the words not found in any of the known old texts. These are to be taken for granted – no one knows what other texts might have been lost and the words might have existed in some other language. But we can still say that *bridda (bird), wōӡian (to woo, to court), ōwef (woof), terorian (to tire, to be tired)* so far are treated as specifically English. Still, it is to be marked that some words still bear this British colouring: *hlāford and hlæfdiӡe* (the owner of bread and that one who was making the dough, kneading it). Lord, Lady may be used in other meanings in other variants of the language, and have different metaphorically extended meanings: *warlords, first lady* but everyone feels that it belongs to English culture. The parts of these compounds are not specifically English, but such combinations of morphemes are.

Lexical borrowings in Old English

Loan-words or borrowings were not so frequent in Old English. They are: Celtic (taken from the substratum) and Latin.

Celtic element is not very significant, and is mainly reduced to the following: dūn (down), dun (dun), binn (bin).

These may occur as separate words, but a great many are found only as elements of place-names (*amhuin – river: Avon, Evan, uisge (water) in names beginning with Exe~, Usk-, Esk-, (later – whiskey); dun, dum (hill): Dumbarton, Dundee, Dunstable, Dunfermline, Dunleary; inbher (mountain) – Inverness, Inverurfe; coil (forest) Killbrook, Killiemore* etc. Some common names of people are of Celtic origin, too – *Arthur (noble), Donald (proud chief), and Kennedy (ugly head).*

Besides, one can find some words that were taken from Celtic languages by other Germanic languages, not necessarily on the Isles – wealas (alien) OHG wal(a)ha, Icel valir; eisarn – isarn, isern – iron.

Latin words in Old English are usually classified into two layers. Some were taken into Germanic languages in pre-British period, during contacts of the Germanic tribes through wars and trade; these words are found in many Germanic languages (we take Present-day German for comparison), and are so assimilated now that only a specialist can trace their origin. They are: *castel (castle – Lat. castellum), cealc (chalk – Lat.calcium), cīese (cheese – Lat. caseus, Mn Germ Kase), cires (cherry – Lat. cerasus, Mn Germ Kirsche), copor (copper, Lat. cuprum, Mn Germ Kupfer), cycene (Lat. coquina, Mn Germ Kuchen), cytel (kettle – Lat. catillus, Mn Germ Kessel), disc (dish Lat. discus, Mn Germ Tisch), mīle (mile – Lat. milla passum. Mn Germ Meile), myln (mill – Lat. molinum, Mn Germ Muhle), pipor (pepper – Lat. piper Mn Germ Pfeffer), pund (pound – Lat. pondo, Mn Germ Pfund), stræt (street, road Lat. via strata, Mn Germ Strasse), torr (tower, Lat. Tunis, Mn Germ Turm), weall (Lat. vallum, Germ Wall), wīn (wine – Lat. vinum Mn Germ Wein), ynce (ounce Lat. uncia, Mn Germ Unze).*

Traditionally, to this first layer we refer the place names containing Latin stems *cester – Lat. castra (camp) – Chester, Manchester, Winchester, Worcester, Leicester, Lancaster; coin – Lal.colonia (from colere to cultivate, inhabit) – Lincoln,*

Colchester; port – Lat. port (gate) – Portsmouth, Bridgeport, Devonport. There are lots of hybrid formations which are now familiar place-names in Britain: with the elements *vic – village, strat – road, Llan – church.*

Man-chester Win-chester Lan-caster Glou-cester York-shire Corn-wall Devonshire Canter-bury Ports-mouth Wool-wich Green-wich Strat-ford

The second layer of the Latin borrowings is connected with the introduction of Christianity, and denotes religious notions plus some notions connected with the cultural and social phenomena which appeared in society after this event. A significant portion of religious terms are not specifically Latin, for they were borrowed into it from Greek, so we may find similar words in other languages:

Old English: apostol, biscop, deofol, antefn
New English: apostle, bishop, devil, anthem
Latin: apostolus, episcopus, diabolus, antiphona
Greek: apostolos, episcopos, diabolos, antiphona

Other words now existing in English but borrowed in old times are: *abbod (abbot), abbudissa (abbess), ælmesse (alms), alter, altar (altar), antecrīste (Antichrist), candel (candle), enʒel (angel), crǣda (creed), ymn (hymn), martyr (martyr), pāpa (pope), mæsse (mess), mynster (monastery), prēost (priest), ps(e)alm, sealm (psalm), saltere (psalter),scrīn (shrine); scōl (school), maʒister (teacher), dihtan (to compose), meter (meter), epistol, pistol (epistle, letter).*

Some borrowed stems came easily into the word-building system of the language, forming the following hybrids in Old English – *prēost-hād (priesthood), biscop-hād (bishophood), cristen-dan (Christendom), biscop-rīce (bishopric), martyrhād (martyrhood) etc. There are also compounds, one part of which is Latin and the other English cirice-ʒeard (churchyard), mynster-hām (monastery as home), mynsterhata (destroyer of monasteries), mynsterman (a monk).*

However, the English language still had a strong immunity to foreign influence; some religious terms are of native origin, though their original meaning was different, *ʒod (god)* in pagan polytheistic religion was one of several deities, esp. *a male deity*, presiding over some portion of worldly affairs, halʒa (saint) is related to whole. *Wēofod (altar)* was also native. There were translation loans for the others: *hēahfæder (patriarch, high father), ʒodspel (gospel, good story), ðrēnes (trinity),*

fulwian (to baptize); fulluht-fæder (godfather), æfæsteness (religion; Lat. Religare – to fasten).

It was already mentioned that translation-loans are also found in the names of days of the week, and also some other terms (Mōnan-dæʒ, Tiwes-dæʒ, Wodnes - dæʒ, ðu(n)res-dæʒ, Friʒe-dæʒ – Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday).

Word-building in Old English

Apart from taking words from other languages, there were internal ways of enriching the vocabulary – word-building techniques.

These were:

Morphological – creating new words by adding new morphemes;

Syntactic – building new words from syntactic groups;

Semantic – developing new meanings of the existing words.

Morphological word-building is the way of adding morphemes to make new words, known as affixation. Here we distinguish two major groups of affixes – prefixes and suffixes, infixes being non-characteristic for the English language.

Affixation

Suffix is a morpheme that is added to the root-morpheme and which modifies its lexical meaning. Additionally, they may (and in the majority of cases do) transfer the word in to another part of speech. In this treatment they will be classified according to the principle of what part of speech is formed by means of this or that suffix.

Composition

The essence of composition as syntactic word-building is in making a new word from two or more stems. The number of compound words in Old English is significant; some of them were periphrastic nominations for some common notions and form special stylistic devices in epic poems (kennings).

Among the compound words there are a lot of poetic metaphoric circumlocutions called kennings. Some notions, such as battle, warrior, had a great number of such periphrastic nomination (synonymic group of warrior, for instance had 37 such nominations only in "Beowulf). Some examples of such words are: ʒār-berend (spear-carrier), ʒār-wiʒa (spear warrior) and many others.

Recommended Literature

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2. Rastorguyeva T.A. A History of English. Москва, 1983. P. 131 – 147, 296 – 328.

Questions for Self-control

1. Describe 2 layers of Latin borrowings. What was their difference in meaning?
2. What conclusions can be drawn about the nature of contacts between the English and the Scandinavians from the nature of Scandinavian loan-words?
3. Why does the OE vocabulary contain so few borrowings from the Celtic languages of Britain?
4. What facts can de given to prove that OE was generally resistant to borrowing and preferred to rely upon its own resources?

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